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On the computational complexity of imperative programming languages

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Abstract

Two restricted imperative programming languages are considered: One is a slight modification of a loop language studied intensively in the literature, the other is a stack programming language over an arbitrary but fixed alphabet, supporting a suitable loop concept over stacks. The paper presents a purely syntactical method for analysing the impact of nesting loops on the running time. This gives rise to a uniform measure μ on both loop and stack programs, that is, a function that assigns to each such program P a natural number $\mu(P)$ computable from the syntax of P.

It is shown that stack programs of μ -measure n compute exactly those functions computed by a Turing machine whose running time lies in Grzegorczyk class \mathscr{E}^{n+2} . In particular, stack programs of μ -measure 0 compute precisely the polynomial-time computable functions.

Furthermore, it is shown that loop programs of μ -measure n compute exactly the functions in \mathscr{E}^{n+2} . In particular, loop programs of μ -measure 0 compute precisely the linear-space computable functions

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1. Introduction

We study two restricted imperative programming languages: One is a slight modification of a loop language studied intensively in the literature, e.g. [9,20,21]; the other

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is a stack programming language over an arbitrary but fixed alphabet Σ , supporting a suitable loop concept over stacks.

Loop programs are built from primitive instructions suc(X), nil(X), pred(X) by sequencing $P_1; P_2$ and loop statements loop X [Q] where X is a variable. Variables serve as registers, each holding a natural number which can be manipulated by running a loop program.

Stack programs too contain variables serving as stacks, each holding a word over Σ which can be manipulated by running a stack program. Stack programs are built from primitive instructions $\operatorname{push}(a,X)$ for $a \in \Sigma$, $\operatorname{pop}(X)$, $\operatorname{nil}(X)$ by sequencing, conditional statements if $\operatorname{top}(X) \equiv a[Q]$ and loop statements foreach X[Q]. The operational semantics of stack programs is standard, in particular, loop statements are executed *call-by-value*, allowing one to inspect every symbol in the control stack while preserving its contents.

A key problem in implicit complexity is to analyse the impact of nesting loops on the running time or computational complexity. In particular, are there methods of extracting information from the syntax of stack programs so as to distinguish programs that run in polynomial time from those that run in (iterated) exponential time? And if so, is there a general rationale behind these methods that gives insight as to why some nesting of loops may cause a blow up in computational complexity, while others do not?

In this paper, we propose a purely syntactical method, called μ -measure, that assigns to each program P a natural number $\mu(P)$ computable from the syntax of P. Answering the first question above, it is shown that stack programs of μ -measure 0 compute precisely the polynomial-time computable functions. This is an instance of a more general result that answers the second question above: Stack programs of μ -measure n compute exactly the functions computable by a Turing machine whose running time lies in Grzegorczyk class \mathscr{E}^{n+2} .

In terms of loop programs, we show that programs of μ -measure n compute exactly the functions in \mathcal{E}^{n+2} . This improves the result of Meyer and Ritchie [21] where the nesting depth of "loop programs" is related to the Grzegorczyk hierarchy at and above level 3. As well, it improves other characterisations of the Grzegorczyk hierarchy at and above level 3 by Schwichtenberg [29], Müller [22] and Parsons [26] which are all based on the "nesting depth" of primitive recursions (cf. [11]).

In the following, the main ideas behind the measure μ are explained in terms of stack programs. To give a full picture of the operational semantics, for loop statements foreach X [P], we require that no instruction push(a,X), pop(X) or nil(X) occurs in the body P. Thus, the control stack X cannot be altered during an execution of the loop. To provide access to each symbol in X during an execution of the loop, first a *local copy* U of X is allocated, and P is altered to P' by simultaneously replacing each "free occurrence" of X in P (appearing as if top(X) \equiv a [Q]) with U. Then the sequence

$$P'$$
; pop(U);...; P' ; pop(U) (|X| times)

is executed. As in lambda calculus, an occurrence of X in P is *free* if it does not appear in the body Q of a subprogram foreach X [Q] of P.

It is obvious that we have to nest loops to a certain depth in order to obtain programs of a certain high computational complexity. On the other hand, it is well known from daily programming that some programs with "high loop nesting depth" like, e.g.

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P_1 := foreach X_1[...foreach X_i[push (a,Y)]]
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run in polynomial time. For if words v_1, \ldots, v_l, w are stored in X_1, \ldots, X_l, Y , respectively, before P_1 is executed, then Y holds the word $wa^{|v_1|\cdots|v_l|}$ after the execution of P_1 . So "high loop nesting depth" is a necessary condition for high computational complexity, but it is not a sufficient condition. In this paper, we give syntactical criteria that separate loops which may cause a blow up in computational complexity from those which do not. To outline the main ideas, consider the following two programs:

```
\begin{split} P_2 &\coloneqq \text{nil}(Y); \text{ push}(a,Y); & \text{nil}(Z); \text{ push}(a,Z); \\ & \text{for each } X \text{ [nil}(Z); \text{ for each } Y \text{ [push}(a,Z); \text{ push}(a,Z)]; \\ & \text{nil}(Y); \text{ for each } Z \text{ [push}(a,Y)]], \\ P_3 &\coloneqq \text{nil}(Y); \text{ push}(a,Y); \text{ nil}(Z); \\ & \text{for each } X \text{ [for each } Y \text{ [push}(a,Z); \text{ push}(a,Z); \text{ push}(a,Y)]. \end{split}
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Observe that both P2 and P3 have nesting depth 2, and they look quite similar. However, if w is initially stored in X, then Z holds the word $a^{2^{|w|}}$ after P₂ is executed, while $a^{|w|\cdot(|w|+1)}$ is stored in Z after the execution of P₃. Thus, we see that P₃ runs in polynomial time whereas P2 has exponential running time. The gist of the matter lies in a (control) circle contained inside the outermost loop in P₂: Inside the loop governed by X, first Y controls Z in that Z is updated via push(a,Z) inside a loop governed by Y, and then Z controls Y in the same sense. In contrast, there is no such circle in P₃. In fact, it turns out that those stack programs where each body of a loop statement is circle-free compute exactly the functions in FPTIME. All those programs will receive u-measure 0. These ideas generalise uniformly to all levels of the Grzegorczyk hierarchy. To focus on the critical case where P is a loop foreach X [Q], assume that $\mu(Q)$ is already determined. Suppose that Q is a sequence $Q_1; \ldots; Q_\ell$, in which case $\mu(Q)$ is $\max\{\mu(Q_1),\ldots,\mu(Q_l)\}$. Then a blow up in running time can only occur if Q has a top circle, that is, Q has a circle with respect to a control variable Y of some component Q_i of maximal μ -measure $\mu(Q)$. In this case, we define $\mu(P) := 1 + \mu(Q)$. In all other cases for Q, we define $\mu(P) := \mu(Q)$. In fact, we will show that these loops do not cause a blow up in running time.

Adding that all primitive instructions receive μ -measure 0, one easily verifies for the examples above that $\mu(P_1) = \mu(P_3) = 0$ whereas $\mu(P_2) = 1$.

The measure μ is convenient for various reasons: Firstly, it operates on restricted close-to-machine languages but supporting a clear control structure. Secondly, it can be extended to extensions of the programming language under consideration providing features supported by many high-level programming languages. Thirdly, the measure μ is conceptually simple, and it characterises computationally relevant complexity classes. Thus, it can help to ground the concepts of computational complexity by

providing a reference point other than the original resource-based concepts. Finally, one can argue that the measure μ is likely to give the minimal complexity for a great deal of natural algorithms, and furthermore, it admits significantly more algorithms in each complexity class than any other known complexity measure on imperative programs like "counting nesting depth".

Nonetheless, there are, as expected, limitations to any such purely syntactical method like μ : There will always be programs with polynomial running time but of a measure > 0.

This paper builds on recent work on *ramified analysis of recursion* by Bellantoni and Niggl [4], and Niggl [23]. There a purely syntactical method for analysing the impact of nesting recursions on computational complexity has been proposed, in the context of ordinary schemata-based definitions in [4], and in the context of lambda terms over ground-type variables in [23]. Ramified analysis of recursion characterises uniformly the Grzegorczyk hierarchy at and above the linear-space level when based on primitive recursion. One obtains the same hierarchy of classes, except with FPTIME at the first level, when primitive recursion is replaced with recursion on notation.

Various ramification concepts as initiated by Simmons [30], Leivant [13–15], Bellantoni and Cook [3] have led to resource-free, purely functional characterisations of many complexity classes, such as the polynomial-time computable functions [3,16,18], the linear-space computable functions [1,15,24], NC^1 and polylog space [6], NP and the polynomial-time hierarchy [2], the Kalmár-elementary functions [25], and the exponential time functions of linear growth [8], among many others.

Ramification concepts have also proved fruitful in characterising complexity classes by higher-type recursion, such as the Kalmár-elementary functions [17], polynomial space [19], and recently FPTIME [5,12].

2. Preliminaries

We assume only basic knowledge about subrecursion theory. Readers unfamiliar with these subjects are referred to [7,10,28]. We summarise some basic definitions and facts about the Grzegorczyk hierarchy from Rose's book.

For unary functions f, f^k denotes the kth iterate of f, that is, $f^0(x) = x$ and $f^{k+1}(x) =$

 $f(f^k(x))$. The principal functions E_1, E_2, E_3, \ldots defined by $E_1(x) = x^2 + 2$ and $E_{n+2}(x) = E_{n+1}^x(2)$, enjoy the following monotonicity properties: For all $n, x, t \in \mathbb{N}$ one has $x + 1 \le E_{n+1}(x) \le E_{n+1}(x + 1)$, $E_{n+1}(x) \le E_{n+2}(x)$ and $E_{n+1}^t(x) \le E_{n+2}(x + t)$.

A function f is defined by bounded recursion from functions g, h, b if for all $\vec{x}, y, f(\vec{x}, 0) = g(\vec{x}), f(\vec{x}, y + 1) = h(\vec{x}, y, f(\vec{x}))$ and $f(\vec{x}, y) \le b(\vec{x}, y)$.

The *nth Grzegorczyk class* \mathscr{E}^n , $n \ge 2$, is the least class of functions containing the initial functions zero, successor, projections, maximum and E_{n-1} , and is closed under composition and bounded recursion.

By Ritchie [27] the class \mathscr{E}^2 characterises the class FLINSPACE of functions computable by a Turing machine in linear space; \mathscr{E}^3 characterises the Kalmár-

elementary functions (cf. [28]). Every $f \in \mathscr{E}^n$ satisfies $f(\vec{x}) \leqslant E_{n-1}^{m_f}(\max(\vec{x}))$ for a constant m_f . Thus, every function in \mathscr{E}^2 is bounded by a polynomial, and $E_n \notin \mathscr{E}^n$, showing that each \mathscr{E}^n is a proper subset of \mathscr{E}^{n+1} . The union of all these classes is identical to the set of primitive recursive functions.

Functions $f_1, ..., f_k$ are defined by *simultaneous recursion* from $g_1, ..., g_k$ and $h_1, ..., h_k$ if $f_i(\vec{x}, 0) = g_i(\vec{x})$ and $f_i(\vec{x}, y + 1) = h_i(\vec{x}, y, f_1(\vec{x}, y), ..., f_k(\vec{x}, y))$ for i = 1, ..., k. If in addition each f_i is *bounded* by a function b_i , that is, $f_i(\vec{x}, y) \le b_i(\vec{x}, y)$ for all \vec{x}, y , then f is defined by *bounded simultaneous recursion* from $g_1, ..., g_k, h_1, ..., h_k$, $b_1, ..., b_k$.

While each class \mathscr{E}^{n+2} is closed under bounded simultaneous recursion, one application of unbounded simultaneous recursion from functions in \mathscr{E}^{n+2} yields functions in \mathscr{E}^{n+3} .

3. Stack programs

In this section, we presuppose an arbitrary but fixed alphabet $\Sigma := \{a_1, ..., a_l\}$. We will define a stack programming language over Σ where programs are built from basic instructions $\mathtt{push}(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{X}),\mathtt{pop}(\mathtt{X}),\mathtt{nil}(\mathtt{X})$ by sequencing, conditional and loop statements. We assume an infinite supply of variables X, Y, Z, O, U, V, possibly with subscripts. Intuitively, variables serve as *stacks*, each holding a word over Σ which can be manipulated by running a stack program.

Definition 1 (Stack programs). Stack programs P are inductively defined as follows:

- every *imperative* push(a,X), pop(X), nil(X) is a stack program;
- if P_1, P_2 are stack programs, then so is the sequence $P_1; P_2;$
- if P is a stack program, then so is the *conditional* if $top(X) \equiv a[P]$;
- if P is a stack program, then so is the *loop* foreach X [P], provided that no imperative push(a,X), pop(X) or nil(X) occurs in P.

We use $\mathcal{V}(P)$ to denote the set of variables occurring in P.

Note 1: Every stack program can be written uniquely in the form $P_1; ...; P_k$ such that each component P_i is either a loop or an imperative, or else a conditional, and where k = 1 whenever P is an imperative or a loop or a conditional.

We will use informal Hoare-like sentences $\{A\}$ P $\{B\}$ to specify or reason about programs, the meaning being that if condition A is fulfilled before P is executed, then condition B is satisfied after the execution of P. For example, $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\}$ P $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}'\}$ reads if the words \vec{w} are stored in the stacks \vec{X} , respectively, before the execution of P, then \vec{w}' are stored in \vec{X} after the execution of P. Similarly, $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\}$ P $\{|X_1| \le f_1(|\vec{w}|), \ldots, |X_n| \le f_n(|\vec{w}|)\}$ reads if the words \vec{w} are stored in the stacks \vec{X} , respectively, before the execution of P, then each word stored in X_i after the execution of P has a length bounded by $f_i(|\vec{w}|)$. Here f_i is any function over \mathbb{N} , and $|\vec{w}|$ abbreviates as usual the list $|w_1|, \ldots, |w_n|$.

Definition 2 (Operational semantics). Imperatives, conditionals and loop statements in $P_1; ...; P_k$ are executed one by one from the left to the right, where the operational semantics of imperatives and conditionals is as expected:

- push(a, X) pushes letter a on top of stack X;
- pop(X) removes the top symbol on stack X, if any, otherwise (X is empty) the statement is ignored;
- nil(X) empties stack X;

Loop statements for each X[P] are executed *call-by-value*, that is, first a *local copy* U of X is allocated and P is altered to P' by simultaneously replacing each "free occurrence" of X in P (appearing as if top(X) $\equiv a[Q]$) with U. Then the sequence

$$P'$$
; pop(U);...; P' ; pop(U) (|X| times)

is executed. Thus, when executing a loop foreach X [P] the contents of the control stack X is saved while providing access to each symbol in X.

We say that a stack program P computes a function $f:(\Sigma^*)^n \to \Sigma^*$ if P has an output variable O and input variables X_{i_1}, \ldots, X_{i_l} among stacks X_1, \ldots, X_m such that for all $w_1, \ldots, w_n \in \Sigma^*$,

$$\{X_{i_1} = w_{i_1}, \dots, X_{i_l} = w_{i_l}\} P \{0 = f(w_1, \dots, w_n)\}$$

often abbreviated by $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\} P \{0 = f(\vec{w})\}$. Note that 0 may occur among X_{i_1}, \dots, X_{i_l} . A *subprogram* of another program is any substring which itself is a program.

4. The measure μ on stack programs

In the analysis of computational complexity of stack programs P, the interplay of two kinds of variables will play a major role: the sets $\mathcal{U}(P)$ and $\mathcal{C}(P)$. The former consists of all variables X which occur as push(a,X) in P and thus might be updated in a run of P, while the latter consists of all X controlling a non-trivial loop statement in P. Of course, in the presence of sequence statements these two sets need not be disjoint. More precisely, we define

```
\mathcal{U}(P) := \{X \mid P \text{ contains an imperative push(a,X)}\},\
\mathcal{C}(P) := \{X \mid P \text{ contains a loop for each } X \ [Q] \text{ with } \mathcal{U}(Q) \neq \emptyset\}.
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Definition 3 (Control). For stack programs P, the *control in* P, denoted $\stackrel{P}{\rightarrow}$, is defined as the transitive closure of the following binary relation \prec_P on $\mathscr{V}(P)$:

$$X \prec_{P} Y : \Leftrightarrow P \text{ contains a loop for each } X [Q] \text{ such that } Y \in \mathcal{U}(Q).$$

 $^{^{1}}$ An occurrence of X, in P is *free* if it does not appear in the body Q of a subprogram foreach X [Q] of P.

In other words, X controls Y in P, that is, $X \stackrel{P}{\rightarrow} Y$, if there exists a sequence of variables $X \equiv X_1, X_2, \dots, X_l \equiv Y$ such that $X_1 \prec_P X_2 \prec_P \dots \prec_P X_{l-1} \prec_P X_l$.

Definition 4 (Measure μ). The μ -measure of a stack program P, denoted by μ (P), is inductively defined as follows:

- $\mu(imp) := 0$ for every imperative imp.
- $\mu(\text{if top}(X) \equiv a[Q]) := \mu(Q)$
- $\mu(Q_1; Q_2) := \max\{\mu(Q_1), \mu(Q_2)\}$
- If P is a loop foreach X [Q], then

$$\mu(P) = \begin{cases} \mu(\mathbb{Q}) + 1 & \text{if } \mathbb{Q} \text{ is a sequence with a top circle,} \\ \mu(\mathbb{Q}) & \text{else,} \end{cases}$$

where $Q \equiv Q_1; ...; Q_l$ is said to have a *top circle* if there exists a component Q_i with $\mu(Q_i) = \mu(Q)$ such that some Y controls some Z in Q_i , and Z controls Y in $Q_1; ...; Q_{i-1}; Q_{i+1}; ...; Q_l$.

We say that a stack program P is of μ -measure n if $\mu(P) \leq n$.

As pointed out above, we will show that stack programs where each body of a loop is *circle-free*, that is, has no top circle, exactly compute the polynomial-time computable functions.

5. The bounding theorem for stack programs

In this section, we will show that every function f computed by a stack program of μ -measure n has a length bound $b \in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$, that is, $|f(\vec{w})| \leq b(|\vec{w}|)$ for all \vec{w} . It suffices to show this "Bounding Theorem" for a subclass of stack programs, called core programs. The latter comprise those stack manipulations which do contribute to computational complexity. The base case is treated separately, showing that every function computed by a core program of μ -measure 0 has a polynomial length bound. For the general case, we show that every core program P of μ -measure n+1 has a "length bound" P' of μ -measure n+1. The structure of P', called flattened out, will be such that a straightforward inductive argument shows that every function computed by P' has a length bound in \mathscr{E}^{n+2} .

Definition 5 (Core programs). *Core programs* are stack programs built from imperatives push(a,X) by sequencing and loop statements.

Note 2: The chosen call-by-value semantics of loop statements ensures that core programs are *length-monotonic*, that is, if P is a core program with variables \vec{X} , then $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\} \ P\{\vec{X} = \vec{u}\}$ implies $|\vec{w}| \leqslant |\vec{u}|$ (component-wise), and if $|\vec{w}| \leqslant |\vec{w}'|$, $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\}$ P $\{\vec{X} = \vec{u}\}$ and $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}'\} \ P\{\vec{X} = \vec{u}'\}$, then $|\vec{u}| \leqslant |\vec{u}'|$. Thus, functions computable by core programs are length-monotonic, too.

Lemma 6 (Measure zero). For every core program $P:\equiv$ for each X[Q] of u-measure $0, \stackrel{P}{\rightarrow}$ is irreflexive.

Proof. By induction on the structure of core programs $P:\equiv \text{foreach } X[Q]$ of μ -measure 0. The statement is obvious if Q is an imperative push(a,Y). If Q is of the form foreach Y[R], the statement follows from the induction hypothesis on Q and $X \notin \mathcal{W}(Q)$. Finally, if Q is a sequence $Q_1; \ldots; Q_n$, then by the induction hypothesis on each component Q_i , no Y controls Y in Q_i . Therefore, if some Y controlled Y in Q, then Y controlled some $Z \not\equiv Y$ in some Q_j , and Z controlled Y in the context $Q_1; \ldots; Q_{j-1}; Q_{j+1}; \ldots; Q_n$. Hence, Q would have a top circle, contradicting the hypothesis $\mu(P) = 0$. \square

Lemma 7 (Irreflexive bounding). Let P be a core program of irreflexive $\stackrel{P}{\rightarrow}$. Let P have variables among $\vec{X} := X_1, ..., X_n$, and for i = 1, ..., n let V^i denote the list of those variables X_j which control X_i in P. Then there are polynomials $p_1(V^1), ..., p_n(V^n)$ such that for all $\vec{w} := w_1, ..., w_n$,

$$\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\} P\{|X_i| \leq |w_i| + p_i(|\vec{w}^i|)\}$$
 for $i = 1,...,n$,

where \vec{w}^i results from \vec{w} by selecting those w_i for which X_i is in V^i .

Proof. By induction on the structure of core programs P with irreflexive $\stackrel{P}{\rightarrow}$. In the base case $P \equiv push(a, X_1)$, we know $V^1 = \emptyset$ and hence $p_1 := 1$ will do.

Step case: $P \equiv P_1; P_2$. The induction hypothesis yields suitable polynomials $q_1(V^1), \ldots, q_n(V^n)$ for P_1 , and polynomials $r_1(V^1), \ldots, r_n(V^n)$ for P_2 . Now fix any i among $1, \ldots, n$, and suppose that X_{i_1}, \ldots, X_{i_l} are the variables which control X_i in P. Then one easily verifies that

$$\{\vec{\mathsf{X}} = \vec{w}\} \, \mathsf{P} \, \{ |\mathsf{X}_i| \leqslant |w_i| + q_i(|\vec{w}^i|) + r_i(|w_{i_1}| + q_{i_1}(|\vec{w}^{i_1}|), \dots, |w_{i_l}| + q_{i_l}(|\vec{w}^{i_l}|)) \}.$$

Step case: $P \equiv \text{foreach } X_j$ [Q]. The induction hypothesis yields polynomials $p_1(V^1)$, ..., $p_n(V^n)$ such that for all \vec{w} ,

$$\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\}\ Q\ \{|X_i| \le |w_i| + p_i(|\vec{w}^i|)\} \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$
 (1)

As $\stackrel{P}{\to}$ is irreflexive, then so is $\stackrel{\mathbb{Q}}{\to}$, implying that $\stackrel{\mathbb{Q}}{\to}$ defines a strict partial order on \vec{x} . Thus, we can proceed by side induction on this partial order showing that one can find polynomials $q_1(m, V^1), \ldots, q_n(m, V^n)$ such that for all m, \vec{w}

$$\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\} Q^m \{|X_i| \le |w_i| + q_i(m, |\vec{w}^i|)\} \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n,$$
 (2)

where \mathbb{Q}^m denotes the sequence \mathbb{Q} ; ...; \mathbb{Q} (m times \mathbb{Q}). Note that (2) implies the statement of the lemma for the current case $P \equiv \text{foreach } X_j$ [\mathbb{Q}]. To see this, if $X_i \notin \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Q})$ then V^i is empty, and the execution of \mathbb{Q} does not alter the contents of X_i , hence $p_i := 0$ will do. Otherwise if $X_i \in \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Q})$, then $X_j \in V^i$ and (2) gives $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\} P\{|X_i| \leq |w_i| + q_i(|w_j|, |\vec{w}^i|)\}$, where $w_j \in \vec{w}^i$.

As for the proof of (2), fix any $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$. If V^i is empty, then (1) implies that p_i is a constant, and hence $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\}\ Q^m\{|X_i| \le |w_i| + m \cdot p_i\}$. So consider the case where V^i is $X_{i_1}, ..., X_{i_l}$ with $l \ge 1$. The side induction hypothesis yields polynomials $r_{i_1}(m, V^{i_1}), ..., r_{i_l}(m, V^{i_l})$ such that for all m, \vec{w} ,

$$\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\} Q^m \{|X_{i,i}| \le |w_{i,i}| + r_{i,i}(m, |\vec{w}^{i_j}|)\} \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, l,$$
 (3)

where V^{i_j} denotes the variables which control X_{i_j} in Q. Observe that $X_{i_j} \notin V^{i_j}$ for $j=1,\ldots,l$ and $X_i \notin V^{i_1} \cup \cdots \cup V^{i_l} \subseteq V^i$. Hence, it suffices to prove by induction on m that for all m, \vec{w}

$$\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\} Q^m \{|X_i| \le |w_i| + m \cdot p_i(\dots, |w_{i_i}| + r_{i_i}(m, |\vec{w}^{i_j}|), \dots)\}. \tag{4}$$

The base case is obviously true. As for the step case $m \rightarrow m+1$, assume that

$$\{\vec{\mathsf{X}} = \vec{w}\}\, \mathsf{Q}^m\, \{\mathsf{X}_{i_1} = u_{i_1}, \dots, \mathsf{X}_{i_l} = u_{i_l}, \mathsf{X}_i = v_i, \dots\},$$

$$\{\mathsf{X}_{i_1} = u_{i_2}, \dots, \mathsf{X}_{i_l} = u_{i_l}, \mathsf{X}_i = v_i, \dots\}\, \mathsf{Q}\,\,\, \{\mathsf{X}_i = v_i^*\}.$$

The various induction hypotheses at hand yield the following estimations:

$$|v_i^*| \leq |v_i| + p_i(|u_{i_1}|, \dots, |u_{i_l}|)$$
 by the main I.H. (1),
 $|v_i| \leq |w_i| + m \cdot p_i(\dots, |w_{i_j}| + r_{i_j}(m, |\vec{w}^{i_j}|), \dots)$ by the I.H. for m ,
 $|u_{i_i}| \leq |w_{i_i}| + r_{i_i}(m, |\vec{w}^{i_j}|)$ for $j = 1, \dots, l$ by the side I.H. (3).

Combining these estimations and using monotonicity of polynomials, the required estimation $|v_i^*| \leq |w_i| + (m+1) \cdot p_i(\ldots, |w_{i_j}| + r_{i_j}(m+1, |\vec{w}^{i_j}|), \ldots)$ follows. This concludes the proof of (4) and thus that of the lemma. \square

Corollary 8 (Base bounding). For every core program P of μ -measure 0 and variables $\vec{X} := X_1, ..., X_n$ one can find polynomials $p_1(\vec{X}), ..., p_n(\vec{X})$ such that for all $\vec{w} := w_1, ..., w_n$

$$\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\} P\{|X_1| \leq p_1(|\vec{w}|), \dots, |X_n| \leq p_n(|\vec{w}|)\}.$$

In particular, every function f computed by P has a polynomial length bound, that is, a polynomial p satisfying $|f(\vec{w})| \le p(|\vec{w}|)$ for all \vec{w} .

Proof. The statement of the corollary follows from Irreflexive bounding (7), Measure zero (6), Note 1, and closure of polynomials under composition. \Box

To treat the general case in the proof of the Bounding Theorem, we first define what we mean by saying that one core program is a *length bound* on another, and how *flattened out* core programs look like.

Definition 9 (Length bound). For stack programs P, Q such that $\mathcal{V}(P) = \vec{X}$ and $\mathcal{V}(Q) = \vec{X}$, \vec{Y} , we say that Q is a *length bound* on P, denoted $P \ll Q$, if

$$\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\} P \{\vec{X} = \vec{v}\}$$
 and $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}, \vec{Y} = \vec{u}\} Q \{\vec{X} = \vec{v}'\}$ implies $|\vec{v}| \leq |\vec{v}'|$.

For the proof of Flattening (14) below, fix any $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 10 (Flattened out). A loop foreach X[Q] of μ -measure n+1 is simple if $\mu(Q) = n$. A core program $P : \equiv P_1; \dots; P_k$ of μ -measure n+1 is called flattened out if each component P_i is either a simple loop or else $\mu(P_i) \leq n$.

Given a core program P with $\mu(P) = n + 1$, we want to construct a flattened out core program P' of the same μ -measure such that P' is a length bound on P. To that end, it suffices to transform, step by step, certain occurrences of non-simple loops in P. That motivates the definition of "rank" below where we make use of the standard notion of nesting depth deg, that is, deg(push(a,X)):=0, deg(P₁; P₂):= max{deg(P₁), deg(P₂)}, and deg(foreach X [Q]):=1 + deg(Q).

Definition 11 (Rank). The rank rk(P) of a core program P is inductively defined as follows:

- rk(push(a,X)) := 0 for every letter $a \in \Sigma$ and variable X.
- $rk(P_1; P_2) := max\{rk(P_1), rk(P_2)\}.$
- If P is a loop foreach X [Q], then

$$\mathrm{rk}(\mathtt{P}) := \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0 & \mathtt{P} \text{ is a simple loop or } \mu(\mathtt{P}) \leqslant n, \\ 1 + \mathrm{rk}(\mathtt{Q}) & \mathtt{Q} \text{ is a loop with } \mu(\mathtt{Q}) = n+1, \\ 1 + \sum_{i \leqslant k} \deg(\mathtt{Q}_i) & \mathtt{Q} \text{ is a sequence } \mathtt{Q}_0; \dots; \mathtt{Q}_k \text{ without top circle,} \\ & \text{and } \mu(\mathtt{Q}) = n+1. \end{array} \right.$$

Lemma 12 (Rank zero). Every core program P with μ -measure n+1 and rank 0 is flattened out.

Proof. By induction on the structure of core programs P with μ -measure n+1 and rank 0. If P is a sequence P_1 ; P_2 then both components are of rank 0, and at least one has μ -measure n+1. Hence, the claim follows from the induction hypothesis on those components with μ -measure n+1. If P is a loop, this loop is simple by definition, hence P is flattened out. \square

Lemma 13 (Rank reduction). For every core program P := foreach X [Q] with $\mu(P) = n+1$ and rk(P) > 0, one can find a core program P' satisfying $P \ll P'$, $\mu(P') = n+1$ and rk(P') < rk(P).

Proof. Let P := foreach X[Q] be any core program with μ -measure n + 1 and rank > 0. According to Definition 11 and Note 1, we distinguish two cases.

Case: Q is a loop foreach Y [R] with $\mu(P) = \mu(Q) = n + 1$. In this case, for some new variable Z and any letter a, we define P' by

```
P' :\equiv foreach X [foreach Y [push(a,Z)]]; foreach Z [R].
```

Obviously, $\mu(P') = \mu(P)$ and $P \ll P'$. As for rk(P') < rk(P), first observe that rk(P) = 1 + rk(Q) and rk(P') = rk(foreach Z [R]). Thus, we obtain rk(P) > rk(Q) = rk(foreach Y[R]) = rk(foreach Z [R]) = rk(P') as required.

Case: Q is a sequence Q_0 ; ...; Q_k without top circle, and $\mu(Q_i) = \mu(Q) = n + 1$ for some component $Q_i := \text{foreach Y } [R]$. In this case, the required P' is defined by P':= foreach X [P₁]; foreach Z [P₂] where for some *new* variable Z and any letter a the core programs P₁, P₂ are defined as follows:

```
\begin{split} \mathbf{P}_1 &:= \mathbf{Q}_0; \ldots; \mathbf{Q}_{i-1}; \text{ for each Y [push(a,Z); } \mathbf{Q}_{i+1}; \ldots; \mathbf{Q}_k, \\ \mathbf{P}_2 &:= \mathbf{Q}_0; \ldots; \mathbf{Q}_{i-1}; \mathbf{R}; \mathbf{Q}_{i+1}; \ldots; \mathbf{Q}_k. \end{split}
```

As for $P \ll P'$, let $\#R[P(\vec{w})]$ denote the number of times R is executed in a run of P on \vec{w} . We conclude $\#R[P(\vec{w})] \ll \text{push}(a,Z)[P'(\vec{w},v)]$, for otherwise some $V \in \mathcal{U}(R)$ controlled Y in $Q_0; \ldots; Q_{i-1}; Q_{i+1}; \ldots; Q_k$, contradicting the hypothesis on Q. Thus, $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}, Z = v\}$ for each $X[P_1]$ $\{|Z| \geqslant \#R[P(\vec{w})]\}$, and that implies $P \ll P'$ by monotonicity of core programs.

It remains to show $\mu(P') = n + 1$ and rk(P') < rk(P). First observe that R contains a loop, as Q_i has μ -measure n + 1. We distinguish two subcases.

Subcase: Q_i is a simple loop, that is, $\mu(Q_i) = 1 + \mu(R)$ and R is a sequence with a top circle. First, consider the case where Q_i is the only component of Q with μ -measure n+1. Then each component of P_1 is of μ -measure n, and P_2 is a sequence with a top circle. This implies $\mu(P') = \mu(\text{foreach Z } [P_2]) = n+1$, thus foreach $Z[P_2]$ is a simple loop, resulting into $\text{rk}(P') = \text{rk}(\text{foreach X } [P_1])$. Now observe that either P_1 has a top circle, in which case foreach $Z[P_1]$ is a simple loop, or else $\mu(P_1) \leq n$. In either case, we obtain rk(P') = 0 < rk(P). So consider the case where $\mu(Q_j) = n+1$ for some $j \neq i$. Then both P_1 and P_2 are sequences without top circle, implying $\mu(P') = \mu(\text{foreach Z } [P_2]) = n+1$ and, as R contains a loop, $\text{rk}(P') = \text{rk}(\text{foreach X } [P_2])$. Now $\deg(R) < \deg(Q_i)$ implies $\text{rk}(\text{foreach Z } [P_2]) < \text{rk}(P)$, concluding the current subcase.

Subcase: \mathbb{Q}_i is not a simple loop, hence $\mu(\mathbb{Q}_i) = \mu(\mathbb{R})$ and \mathbb{R} is either a loop or a sequence without top circle. In either case, P_2 has no top circle, implying $\mu(P') = \mu(\text{foreach Z } [P_2]) = n+1$. Furthermore, as \mathbb{R} contains a loop, we have $\deg(\mathbb{Q}_i) > \deg(\mathbb{R}) > \deg(\text{foreach Y } [\text{push(a,Z)}])$ and thus rk(P') < rk(P), concluding the proof of the lemma. \square

Lemma 14 (Flattening). For every core program P with $\mu(P) = n + 1$ one can find a flattened out core program P' satisfying $\mu(P') = n + 1$ and $P \ll P'$.

Proof. The statement of the lemma follows from Note 1, Rank reduction (13) and Rank zero (12). \Box

As pointed out above, Flattening (14) establishes the Bounding Theorem.

Theorem 15 (Bounding). Every function f computed by a stack program of μ -measure n has a length bound $b \in \mathcal{E}^{n+2}$, i.e. $|f(\vec{w})| \leq b(|\vec{w}|)$ for all \vec{w} .

Proof. It suffices to prove the statement of the theorem for core programs only, since for every stack program P one can find a core program P^* such that $\mu(P) = \mu(P^*)$ and

 $Q \ll P^*$ for every subprogram Q of P. Just let P^* result from P by recursively replacing all occurrences of imperatives nil(X) or pop(X) with foreach X [push(b,V)], and all conditionals if top(X) \equiv a[Q] with foreach X [push(b,V)]; Q^* , for some *new* variable V and any letter b.

We proceed by induction on n showing the statement of the theorem for core programs. The *base case* has been shown in Corollary 8. As for the *step case* $n \to n+1$, let P be an arbitrary core program with μ -measure n+1. We apply Flattening (14) to obtain a core program P' of the form $P_1; \ldots; P_k$ where each component P_i is either a simple loop or else $\mu(P_i) \leq n$, and such that $P \leq P'$ and $\mu(P') = n+1$. Thus, by the induction hypothesis and by closure of \mathscr{E}^{n+3} under composition, it suffices to show that every function computed by a simple loop P_i has a length bound in \mathscr{E}^{n+3} .

Let P_i :=foreach X [Q] be any such simple loop. Hence, $\mu(Q) = n$ and by the induction hypothesis, each function h_j computed by Q has a length bound $b_j \in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$. We choose a number c > 0 such that $b_j(\vec{x}) \leq E_{n+1}^c(\max(\vec{x}))$ for each bound b_j . Let f_1 be any function computed by P_i . Then f_1 , possibly together with other functions f_2, \ldots, f_m computed by P_i , can be defined by simultaneous string recursion from functions computed by Q, that is

$$f_k(\varepsilon, \vec{w}) = w_{k_i},$$

 $f_k(va, \vec{w}) = h_k(v, \vec{w}, f_1(v, \vec{w}), \dots, f_m(v, \vec{w}))$ for $k = 1, \dots, m$.

It follows by induction on |v| that $|f_k(v,\vec{w})| \leq E_{n+1}^{c \cdot |v|}(\max(|v,\vec{w}|))$. As $E_{n+1}^t(x) \leq E_{n+2}(x+t)$ and $\max, + \in \mathscr{E}^2$, we thus obtain a length bound on f_1 in \mathscr{E}^{n+3} . \square

6. The Characterisation theorem for stack programs

In this section, we will show that stack programs of μ -measure n compute precisely the functions computable by a Turing machine whose running time lies in \mathcal{E}^{n+2} . In particular, stack programs of μ -measure 0 compute exactly the functions in FPTIME.

Lemma 16 (E_{n+1} -Simulation). Every E_{n+1} has a sequence LE[n+1] with a top circle satisfying $\mu(\text{LE[n+1]}) = n$ and $\{Y = w\} \text{LE[n+1]} \{|Y| = E_{n+1}(|w|)\}$.

Proof. By induction on n, where the *base case* for $E_1(x) = x^2 + 2$ is obvious. As for the *step case*, first recall that $E_{n+2}(x) = E_{n+1}(\dots E_{n+1}(2)\dots)$ with x occurrences of E_{n+1} . Using the induction hypothesis on n, and for some *new* variable U, we define LE[n+2] by

Theorem 17 (Characterisation). Stack programs of μ -measure n compute exactly the functions computable by a Turing machine whose running time lies in \mathscr{E}^{n+2} .

Proof. First we treat the implication " \Rightarrow ". So let P be any stack program of μ -measure n. Then let $\text{TIMEp}(\vec{w})$ denote the number of steps in a run of P on input \vec{w} , where a *step* is the execution of any imperative imp(X). Observe that there is a polynomial $q_{\text{time}}(n)$ such that each step imp(X) can be simulated by a Turing machine in time $q_{\text{time}}(|X|)$. Now let V be any *new* variable, and a any letter. Then let P# result from P by replacing each imperative imp with the sequence imp; push(a, V). We conclude that the program TIME(P) := nil(V); P# is of μ -measure n and satisfies $\{\vec{X} = \vec{w}\} \text{TIME}(P) \{|V| = \text{TIMEp}(\vec{w})\}$. Thus, we may apply Bounding (15) to obtain a length bound $b \in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$ satisfying

```
\{\vec{\mathbf{X}} = \vec{w}\} TIME(P) \{|\mathbf{V}| \leq b(|\vec{w}|)\}.
```

It follows that there exists a Turing machine which simulates P on input \vec{w} in time $q_{\text{time}}(b(|\vec{w}|)) \cdot b(|\vec{w}|)$, concluding the proof of implication " \Rightarrow ".

As for " \Leftarrow ", let $M := (Q, \Gamma, \Sigma, q_0, B, F, \delta)$ be any one-tape Turing machine which on input w runs in time b(|w|), for some $b \in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$. The function f_M computed by M will be computed by a stack program P over $\Delta := Q \cup \Gamma \cup \{L, N, R\}$ of μ -measure n. Assume that δ consists of moves move₁,..., move_l where

```
move_i := (q_i, a_i, q'_i, a'_i, D_i) with D_i \in \{L, N, R\}.
```

The required program P of μ -measure n satisfying $\{X = w\}$ P $\{0 = f_M(w)\}$ uses stacks X, Y, Z, L, R, ..., and will have the following form:

```
P := COMPUTE-TIME-BOUND(Y); (* of \mu-measure n *)

INITIALISE(L,Z,R); (* of \mu-measure 0 *)

foreach Y [SIMULATE-MOVES]; (* of \mu-measure 0 *)

OUTPUT(R;0) (* of \mu-measure 0 *)
```

Let INIT be COMPUTE-TIME-BOUND(Y); INITIALISE(L,Z,R). The semantics of P is as expected: For each configuration $\alpha(q,a)\beta$ obtained in a run of M on w after m steps, that is, $\operatorname{init}_M(w) \vdash^m \alpha(q,a)\beta$, we will have

```
\{{\tt X}=w\} \ {\tt INIT;} \ {\tt SIMULATE-MOVES}^m \ \{L=\alpha, \ {\tt reverse(R)}={\tt a}\beta, \ Z={\tt q}\}. \eqno(*)
```

Recall that $b(x) \le E_{n+1}^c(x)$ for some constant c, and E_{n+1} -Simulation (16) yields a program of μ -measure n satisfying $\{Y = w\} LE[n+1] \{|Y| = E_{n+1}(|w|)\}$. Thus, COMPUTE-TIME-BOUND(Y) can be defined by the following sequence:

```
nil(Y); for each X [push(a,Y)]; LE[n+1];...; LE[n+1] (c times)
```

satisfying $\{X = w\}$ COMPUTE-TIME-BOUND(Y) $\{X = w, |Y| = E_{n+1}^c(|w|)\}$. According to (*), we initialise L, Z, R as follows:

```
\texttt{INITIALISE(L,Z,R)} :\equiv \texttt{nil(L)}; \ \texttt{set}(\textit{Z}, \textit{q}_0); \ \texttt{REVERSE(X;R)},
```

where $\{X = w\}$ REVERSE(X;R) $\{X = w, R = \text{reverse}(w)\}$. As for SIMULATE-MOVES, we use several short forms to facilitate reading. First note that conditionals if $X \equiv \varepsilon[Q]$ and if $X \not\equiv \varepsilon[Q]$ of μ -measure $\mu(Q)$ can be defined by

```
if X \equiv \varepsilon[Q] :\equiv nil(U); push(a,U); foreach X [pop(U)]; if top(U) \equiv a[Q] if X \not\equiv \varepsilon[Q] :\equiv nil(U); push(a,U); foreach X [pop(U)]; if U \equiv \varepsilon[Q]
```

for some *new* variable U, and any letter a. Similarly, one defines conditionals top(R) $\in \Sigma$ [Q] and if top(R) $\in A \setminus \Sigma$ [Q] of μ -measure μ (Q). We use

```
\begin{split} & \text{set}(\texttt{U},\texttt{a}) \text{ for nil}(\texttt{U}); \text{ push}(\texttt{a},\texttt{U}), \\ & \text{settop}(\texttt{U},\texttt{a}) \text{ for pop}(\texttt{U}); \text{ push}(\texttt{a},\texttt{U}), \\ & \text{push}(\text{top}(\texttt{L},\texttt{R})) \text{ for if top}(\texttt{L}) \equiv \texttt{a}_1[\text{push}(\texttt{a}_1,\texttt{R})]; \dots; \\ & \text{if top}(\texttt{L}) \equiv \texttt{a}_k[\text{push}(\texttt{a}_k,\texttt{R})]. \end{split}
```

SIMULATE-MOVES is of the form $MOVE_1$; ...; $MOVE_k$ where each component $MOVE_i$ simulates move_i. According to D_i in $move_i = (q_i, a_i, q'_i, a'_i, D_i)$, there are three cases for each component $MOVE_i$:

```
 \begin{split} (R) \text{ if } \mathsf{top}(Z) &\equiv \mathsf{q}_i[\mathsf{if} \text{ } \mathsf{top}(R) \equiv \mathsf{a}_i \text{ } [\mathsf{push}(\mathsf{a}_i',\mathsf{L}) \text{ } ; \text{ } \mathsf{set}(\mathsf{Z},\mathsf{q}_i') \text{ } ; \text{ } \mathsf{pop}(R); \\ &\qquad \qquad \mathsf{if} \text{ } R \equiv \varepsilon[\mathsf{push}(\mathsf{B},\mathsf{R})]]], \\ (L) \text{ } \mathsf{if} \text{ } \mathsf{top}(Z) &\equiv \mathsf{q}_i[\mathsf{if} \text{ } \mathsf{top}(R) \equiv \mathsf{a}_i \text{ } [\mathsf{settop}(R,\mathsf{a}_i'); \text{ } \mathsf{set}(\mathsf{Z},\mathsf{q}_i'); \\ &\qquad \qquad \qquad \mathsf{if} \text{ } L \equiv \varepsilon[\mathsf{push}(\mathsf{B},\mathsf{R})]; \\ &\qquad \qquad \mathsf{if} \text{ } L \not\equiv \varepsilon[\mathsf{push}(\mathsf{top}(L),\mathsf{R}); \mathsf{pop}(L)]]], \\ (N) \text{ } \mathsf{settop}(R,\mathsf{a}_i'); \text{ } \mathsf{set}(\mathsf{Z},\mathsf{q}_i'). \end{split}
```

It remains to implement OUTPUT(R;0) which reads out of stack R the result $0 = f_M(w)$, that is, the maximal initial segment of reverse(R) being a word over Σ . We define OUTPUT(R;0) as the following sequence:

```
\begin{split} & \text{nil}(\texttt{O}); \ \text{set}(\texttt{Z},\texttt{a}); \\ & \text{foreach } \texttt{R} \ [\text{if } \text{top}(\texttt{R}) \in \varDelta \backslash \varSigma \ [\text{nil}(\texttt{Z})]; \\ & \quad \text{if } \text{top}(\texttt{R}) \in \varSigma \ [\text{if } \text{top}(\texttt{Z}) \equiv \texttt{a}[\text{push}(\text{top}(\texttt{R}),\texttt{O})]]] \end{split}
```

This completes the proof of the Characterisation Theorem. \Box

It is worthwhile to point out that the proof of " \Leftarrow " would fail for n=0 if the development were based on a traditional measure, such as the nesting depth deg. For given a Turing machine which runs in polynomial time, there is no implementation of COMPUTE-TIME-BOUND of deg-measure 0. This would not even work for deg-measure 1, and for deg-measure $\geqslant 2$ one cannot separate polynomial from exponential running time.

Furthermore, in the proof above, given a Turing machine M whose running time lies in \mathscr{E}^{n+2} , we have chosen a convenient alphabet (depending on M) in order to simulate

M by a stack program of μ -measure n. We stress that the use of arbitrary alphabets Σ has no influence on the μ -measure, for one can prove that every stack program over Σ can be simulated by a stack program over $\{0,1\}$ of the same μ -measure. Thus, we obtain that stack programs of μ -measure 0 compute exactly the polynomial-time computable functions.

7. Loop programs and the Grzegorczyk hierarchy

In this section, we will define another simple loop language. Programs written in this language are called *loop programs*. They are built from basic instructions nil(X), suc(X) and pred(X) by sequence and loop statements, where X is a variable. We assume an infinite supply of variables X, Y, Z, O, U, V, possibly with subscripts. Intuitively, variables serve as registers, each holding a natural number which can be manipulated by running a loop program. As with stack programs, we will define a measure μ on loop programs and relate it to the Grzegorczyk hierarchy by showing that loop programs of μ -measure n compute exactly the functions in \mathcal{E}^{n+2} .

Definition 18 (Loop programs). *Loop programs* are inductively defined as follows:

- every *imperative* among nil(X), suc(X), pred(X) is a loop program;
- if P_1, P_2 are loop programs, then so is the sequence $P_1; P_2;$
- if P is a loop program, then so is the *loop* loop X [P], provided that no imperative suc(X), nil(X) or pred(X) occurs in P.

Again we use $\mathcal{V}(P)$ to denote the set of variables occurring in P.

Note 3: Any loop program can be written uniquely in the form P_1 ; ...; P_k such that each P_i is either a loop or an imperative, and where k = 1 whenever P is an imperative or a loop.

Loop programs have a standard semantics, e.g. like Pascal or C programs. The imperative nil(X) sets register X to zero. The imperative suc(X) increments the number stored in X by one, while pred(X) decrements any non-zero number stored in X by 1. Imperatives and loops in a sequence are executed one by one from the left to the right. The meaning of a loop statement loop X [P] is that P is executed x times whenever the number x is stored in X. Observe that x is not updated during the execution of the loop statement loop X [P].

Obviously, the imperatives nil(X), pred(X) do not contribute to the growth rate of functions computed by loop programs. Therefore, we define:

```
\mathcal{U}(P) := \{X \mid P \text{ contains an imperative } \operatorname{suc}(X)\},\
\mathcal{C}(P) := \{X \mid P \text{ contains a loop loop } X \ [Q] \text{ with } \mathcal{U}(Q) \neq \emptyset\}.
```

Now the concept of "control" for stack programs passes on to loop programs. As well, the measure μ on loop programs is defined as on stack programs, that is, $\mu(\text{imp}) := 0$

for every imperative imp, $\mu(Q_1; Q_2) := \max\{\mu(Q_1), \mu(Q_2)\}$, and

$$\mu(\text{loop X [Q]}) := \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \mu(\mathbb{Q}) + 1 & \text{if Q is a sequence with a top circle,} \\ \mu(\mathbb{Q}) & \text{else,} \end{array} \right.$$

where $Q \equiv Q_1; \dots; Q_l$ is said to have a *top circle* if there exists a component Q_i with $\mu(Q_i) = \mu(Q)$ such that some Y controls some Z in Q_i , and Z controls Y in $Q_1; \dots; Q_{i-1}; Q_{i+1}; \dots; Q_l$.

Note that in the presence of nil(X), loop programs without pred(X) compute exactly the primitive recursive functions. In fact, pred(X) can be implemented by the following program PRED(X) satisfying $\{X = x\}$ PRED(X) $\{Y = x - 1\}$:

```
PRED(X) :\equiv nil(Y); nil(Z); loop X [nil(Y); loop Z [suc(Y)]; suc(Z)].
```

Thus, modified subtraction $\dot{}$ satisfying $x \dot{} y = x - y$ for $x \geqslant y$, and 0 else, can be computed by loop U [PRED(X);nil(X); loop Y [suc(X)]]. Observe that this program is of μ -measure 1. It appears that without pred(X) as basic instruction there were no loop program of μ -measure 0 that computes modified subtraction. On the other hand, modified subtraction is a function in \mathscr{E}^2 . So to obtain the characterisation above, we treat the predecessor function as a primitive instruction — as we could do with any non-increasing function in \mathscr{E}^2 .

As with stack programs, the pivot in the proof of the characterisation theorem above is to prove a "bounding theorem" stating that every function computed by a loop program of μ -measure n can be bounded by a function in \mathcal{E}^{n+2} . No doubt, to establish this result, we could follow the course as we did to prove the Bounding Theorem (15) for stack programs. However, the way we choose is to benefit directly from Bounding (15).

Lemma 19 (Stack simulation). For every loop program P using registers $\vec{X} := X_1, ..., X_l$ one can find a stack program $\mathscr{I}(P)$ of the same μ -measure, using stacks \vec{X} over the unary alphabet $\{a\}$ such that $\{\vec{X} = \vec{x}\} P \{\vec{X} = \vec{y}\}$ if and only if $\{X_1 = a^{x_1}, ..., X_l = a^{x_l}\}$.

Proof. We define $\mathcal{I}(P)$ by recursion on the structure of P as follows:

$$\begin{split} \mathscr{I}(\texttt{nil}(\texttt{X})) &:= \texttt{nil}(\texttt{X}) & \mathscr{I}(\texttt{P}_1; \ \texttt{P}_2) := \mathscr{I}(\texttt{P}_1); \ \mathscr{I}(\texttt{P}_2), \\ \mathscr{I}(\texttt{suc}(\texttt{X})) &:= \texttt{push}(a,\texttt{X}) & \mathscr{I}(\texttt{loop} \ \texttt{X} \ [\texttt{Q}]) := \texttt{foreach} \ \texttt{X} \ [\mathscr{I}(\texttt{Q})], \\ \mathscr{I}(\texttt{pred}(\texttt{X})) &:= \texttt{pop}(\texttt{X}). \end{split}$$

One can easily read off the definition that $\mathcal{I}(P)$ meets its specification. \square

Theorem 20 (Loop bounding). Every function f computed by a loop program of μ -measure n has a bound $b \in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$, that is, $f(\vec{x}) \leq b(\vec{x})$ for all \vec{x} .

Proof. Let P be any loop program of μ -measure n, and let f be any k-ary function computed by P. Consider the function $\mathcal{I}(f)$ computed by the stack program $\mathcal{I}(P)$

obtained from Stack simulation (19). Hence, $\mathscr{I}(P)$ is of μ -measure n, and $f(x_1, \ldots, x_k) = |\mathscr{I}(f)(a^{x_1}, \ldots, a^{x_k})|$ for all x_1, \ldots, x_k . We apply Bounding (15) to obtain a length-bound $b \in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$ on $\mathscr{I}(f)$, that is, $|\mathscr{I}(f)(\vec{w})| \leq b(|\vec{w}|)$ for all \vec{w} . Now, as $|a^y| = y$, we conclude that b is a bound on f. \square

Loop bounding (20) implies that every function computed by a loop program of μ -measure n lies in \mathscr{E}^{n+2} . To prove the converse, we adapt a technique developed in [23] (used in [4]) to our situation. It consists in separating the "structure" in a loop program from the "growth rate" given with it: Every $f \in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$ can be *simulated* by a loop program P[f] of μ -measure 0 in the sense that P[f] on input \vec{x}, v outputs $f(\vec{x})$ whenever $v \geqslant E_{n+1}^m(\max(\vec{x}))$, for some constant m. As the function $E_{n+1}^m \circ \max$ is computable by a loop program ME[n+1] of μ -measure n, the sequence ME[n+1]; P[f] is of μ -measure n and computes f. To that end, we need to implement appropriately "conditional statements".

Definition 21 (Conditional statements). For programs $P := P_1; ...; P_k$ and variables X, Y, the *conditional statement* if $X \le Y$ then [P] is implemented as the sequence Q_1 ; Q_2 ; Q_3 defined from *new variables* U^*, V^* as follows:

```
\begin{split} & \mathbb{Q}_1 :\equiv \text{nil}(\mathbb{U}^*) \,; \text{ loop } \mathbb{X} \text{ [suc}(\mathbb{U}^*)] \,; \text{ loop } \mathbb{Y} \text{ [pred}(\mathbb{U}^*)] \,, \\ & \mathbb{Q}_2 :\equiv \text{nil}(\mathbb{V}^*) \,; \text{ suc}(\mathbb{V}^*) \,; \text{ loop } \mathbb{U}^* \text{ [pred}(\mathbb{V}^*)] \,, \\ & \mathbb{Q}_3 :\equiv \text{loop } \mathbb{V}^* \text{ [$P_1$]} \,; \ldots \,; \text{ loop } \mathbb{V}^* \text{ [$P_k$]} \,. \end{split}
```

Lemma 22 (Conditional). Let P be any loop program, and let $Z_0, ..., Z_n$ be the variables of $\mathcal{V}(P) \cup \{X,Y\}$ such that $Z_i = X$ and $Z_j = Y$. Then the program $Q :\equiv \text{if } X \leq Y \text{ then } [P]$ is of μ -measure $\mu(P)$, and (a) if $\{\vec{Z} = \vec{z}\} P \{\vec{Z} = \vec{u}\}$, then

$$\begin{cases} \{\vec{\mathsf{Z}} = \vec{z}\} \, \mathbb{Q} \, \{\vec{\mathsf{Z}} = \vec{u}\} & \textit{if} \ \ z_i \leqslant z_j, \\ \\ \{\vec{\mathsf{Z}} = \vec{z}\} \, \mathbb{Q} \, \{\vec{\mathsf{Z}} = \vec{z}\} & \textit{else}, \end{cases}$$

(b) for $X_0, X_1 \in \{Z_0, ..., Z_n\}$, X_0 controls X_1 in $Q \Leftrightarrow X_0$ controls X_1 in P.

Proof. First, observe that \mathbb{Q}_3 could not be simply loop V^* [P], because that could result into $\mu(\mathbb{Q}) > \mu(\mathbb{P})$. Hence $\mu(\mathbb{Q}) = \mu(\mathbb{P})$ and (b) are obvious. As for part (a), assume that $\{\vec{Z} = \vec{z}\} \ \mathbb{P} \ \{\vec{Z} = \vec{u}\}$. As $\{\vec{Z} = \vec{z}\} \ \mathbb{Q}_1 \ \{\vec{Z} = \vec{z}, V^* = z_i \dot{z}_j\}$, we obtain $\{\vec{Z} = \vec{z}\} \ \mathbb{Q}_1 \$; $\mathbb{Q}_2 \ \{\vec{Z} = \vec{z}, V^* = 1 \dot{z}_i \dot{z}_j\}$. This obviously implies (a), since $z_i \leqslant z_j \Leftrightarrow V^* = 1$, and $z_i > z_j \Leftrightarrow V^* = 0$. \square

Lemma 23 (Loop simulation). Let V be any variable. Every $f \in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$ has a simulation P[f] and a witness m_f such that $\mu(P[f]) = 0$, $V \notin \mathscr{U}(P[f])$, and

```
(a) f(\vec{x}) \leq E_{n+1}^{m_f}(\max(\vec{x})) for all \vec{x},
```

(b) $\{\vec{X} = \vec{x}, \vec{V} = v\} P[f] \{\vec{X} = \vec{x}, \vec{V} = v, \vec{O} = f(\vec{x})\} \text{ whenever } v \ge E_{n+1}^{m_f}(\max(\vec{x})).$

Proof. Induction on the structure of $f \in \mathcal{E}^{n+2}$. All cases are obvious where f is an initial function other than the principal function E_{n+1} . This case is reduced to the case of bounded recursion below, since E_{n+1} can be defined by bounded recursion from $E_n \in \mathcal{E}^{n+2}$ using E_{n+1} itself as bound.

Case: $f(\vec{x}) = h(g_1(\vec{x}), \dots, g_k(\vec{x}))$ where $h, g_1, \dots, g_k \in \mathcal{E}^{n+2}$. The induction hypothesis yields suitable simulations $P[h], P[g_1], \dots, P[g_k]$ with witnesses m_h, m_1, \dots, m_k , respectively. So for distinct variables $0, 0_1, \dots, 0_k$ we have $\{\vec{x} = \vec{x}, V = v\} P[g_i] \{\vec{x} = \vec{x}, V = v, 0_i = g_i(\vec{x})\}$ whenever $v \ge E_{n+1}^{m_i}(\max(\vec{x}))$, and $\{\vec{O} = \vec{y}, V = v\} P[h] \{\vec{O} = \vec{y}, V = v, 0 = h(\vec{y})\}$ for $v \ge E_{n+1}^{m_i}(\max(\vec{y}))$. We define

```
P[f] := P[g_1]; \dots; P[g_k]; P[h],

m_f := m_h + \max(m_1, \dots, m_k).
```

Now, $\mu(P[f]) = 0$ and (a) follow from the induction hypothesis. As for (b), consider any \vec{x}, v with $v \ge E_{n+1}^{m_f}(\max(\vec{x}))$. Then we obtain $v \ge E_{n+1}^{m_i}(\max(\vec{x}))$ for i = 1, ..., k, and $v \ge E_{n+1}^{m_h}(\max(g_1(\vec{x}), ..., g_k(\vec{x})))$. Hence, (b) follows from (b) of the induction hypothesis.

Case: $f(\vec{x},0) = g(\vec{x}), \ f(\vec{x},y+1) = h(\vec{x},y,f(\vec{x}))$ and $f(\vec{x},y) \le b(\vec{x},y)$ where $g,h,b \in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$. The I.H. yields simulations P[g], P[h] with witnesses m_g,m_h . Thus, $\{\vec{X}=\vec{x},V=v\}$ P[g] $\{\vec{X}=\vec{x},V=v,0=g(\vec{x})\}$ whenever $v \ge E_{n+1}^{m_g}(\max(\vec{x})),$ and $\{\vec{X},Y,Z=\vec{x},y,z,V=v\}$ P[h] $\{\vec{X},Y,Z=\vec{x},y,z,V=v,0=h(\vec{x},y,z)\}$ whenever $v \ge E_{n+1}^{m_h}(\max(\vec{x},y,z))$. Now, choose m_b such that $b(\vec{x},y) \le E_{n+1}^{m_b}(\max(\vec{x},y)),$ and define the required witness m_f by $m_f := m_b + \max(m_g,m_h).$ As for P[f], first consider the following program P which meets all requirements on P[f], except possibly $\mu(P)=0$: For some new variable L,

```
P:≡P[g]; nil(L); loop Y [suc(L)]; nil(Y);
loop L [nil(Z); loop O [suc(Z)]; P[h]; suc(Y)].
```

As for (b), assume that $v \geqslant E_{n+1}^{m_f}(\max(\vec{x},y))$. Then $v \geqslant E_{n+1}^{m_g}(\max(\vec{x}))$, and $v \geqslant E_{n+1}^{m_h}(\max(\vec{x},i))$ for i < y. The latter follows from $v \geqslant E_{n+1}^{m_f}(\max(\vec{x},y)) \geqslant E_{n+1}^{m_h}(\max(\vec{x},i))) \geqslant E_{n+1}^{m_h}(\max(\vec{x},i,f(\vec{x},i)))$. Thus, we obtain $\{\vec{X}=\vec{x}, V=v\} P \{\vec{X}=\vec{x}, V=v\} P \{$

```
\begin{split} P[f] &:= P[g]; \; nil(L); \; loop \; Y \; [suc(L)]; \; nil(Y); \\ &loop \; L \; [nil(Z); \; nil(U); \\ &loop \; V \; suc(U); \; if \; U \leqslant 0 \; then \; [suc(Z)]]; \; P[h]; suc(Y)]. \end{split}
```

Let R be the subprogram loop V [suc(U); if $U \le 0$ then [suc(Z)]]. Then, by unfolding the definition of the conditional in R, we see that no variable from $\mathscr{C}(R)$ is controlled in P[h] by a variable from $\mathscr{U}(R)$, in particular $0 \notin \mathscr{C}(R)$, and that no variable from $\mathscr{C}(P[h])$ is controlled in R by a variable from $\mathscr{U}(P[h])$. Hence $\mu(P[f]) = 0$.

Lemma 24 (E_{n+1} -Computation). Every E_{n+1} has a sequence E[n+1] with a top circle satisfying $\mu(E[n+1]) = n$ and $\{X = x\} E[n+1] \{X = E_{n+1}(x)\}$.

Proof. By induction on *n*. The *base case* for $E_1(x) = x^2 + 2$ is obvious. As for the *step case*, recall that $E_{n+2}(x) = E_{n+1}(\dots E_{n+1}(2)\dots)$ with *x* occurrences of E_{n+1} . Using the induction hypothesis on *n*, we therefore define

```
E[n+2] :\equiv nil(Y); loop X [suc(Y)];

nil(X); suc(X); suc(X); loop Y [E[n+1]].
```

Theorem 25 (Characterisation). Loop programs of μ -measure n compute exactly the functions in \mathscr{E}^{n+2} .

Proof. First consider any loop program P of μ -measure n. By Loop bounding (20), there is a function in \mathscr{E}^{n+2} which is a bound on every function computed by a subprogram of P. Thus, we can proceed by induction on the structure of P showing that every function computed by P is in \mathscr{E}^{n+2} . All cases are obvious, except possibly the case where P is a loop. In this case, we make use of the fact that \mathscr{E}^{n+2} is closed under bounded simultaneous recursion.

Conversely, consider any $f \in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$. We apply Loop-simulation (23) to obtain P[f], m_f satisfying $\{\vec{X} = \vec{x}, V = v\}$ P[f] $\{0 = f(\vec{x})\}$ whenever $v \ge E_{n+1}^{m_f}(\max(\vec{x}))$. E_{n+1} -Comput ation (24) yields a program E[n+1] of μ -measure n such that $\{V = y\}$ E[n+1] $\{V = E_{n+1}(y)\}$. Using conditional statements one easily defines a loop program M of μ -measure 0 satisfying $\{\vec{X} = \vec{x}\}$ M $\{\vec{X} = \vec{x}, V = \max(\vec{x})\}$. Thus, the sequence M; E[n+1]; ...; E[n+1]; P[f], with m_f occurrences of program E[n+1], defines a loop program of μ -measure n which computes f. \square

Theorem 25 ensures that the measure μ is sound with respect to computational complexity of *functions* computed by loop programs. This implies that μ is also sound with respect to *running time* of loop programs, that is, for every loop program P of μ -measure n the function TIMEP belongs to \mathscr{E}^{n+2} , where TIMEP(\vec{x}) is the number of imperatives executed in a run of P on \vec{x} . To see this, given any loop program P of μ -measure n, let P[#] result from P by replacing every occurrence of an imperative imp with imp; suc(V), where V is any fixed *new* variable. Then TIME(P):=nil(V); P[#] has μ -measure n and computes TIMEP, that is, $\{\vec{X} = \vec{x}\}$ TIME(P) $\{V = \text{TIMEP}(\vec{x})\}$. Hence TIMEP $\in \mathscr{E}^{n+2}$ by Theorem 25.

8. Sound, adequate and complete measures

We have presented a purely syntactical method for analysing the impact of nesting loops in imperative programs on the running time. In particular, the method separates programs which run in polynomial time (in the size of the input) from those which might run super-polynomial time. More generally, the method uniformly distinguishes programs whose running time lies in \mathscr{E}^{n+2} from those whose running time might be beyond \mathscr{E}^{n+2} .

One might ask how successful this project can be, e.g. does every program with polynomial running time receive μ -measure 0? In this section, we will shed some light

upon the limitations of any such method, however, bring out that the results we have achieved are about as good as one can hope for.

Definition 26. Assume an arbitrary imperative programming language L and any program P in L. P is *feasible* if every function computed by P is in FPTIME. P is *honestly feasible* if every subprogram of P is feasible. P is *dishonestly feasible*, or *dishonest* for short, if P is feasible, but not honestly feasible.

Observe that if a function is computable by a feasible program, then it is also computable by an honestly feasible program.

For honestly feasible programs, every subprogram can be simulated by a Turing machine which runs in polynomial time. Dishonest programs fall into two groups. One group consists of those programs which only compute functions in FPTIME but with super-polynomial running time. The other group consists of programs which run in polynomial time, but some subprograms run in super-polynomial time if executed separately. A case in point is a program of the form R; if ${\tt test}$ [Q] where R is a program which runs in polynomial time, ${\tt test}$ is a test that always fails, and Q is any program with super-polynomial running time. Another example is a program of the form P; Q where Q runs in time $O(2^x)$, but where P is an honestly feasible program which assures that Q always is executed on "logarithmically large input".

No doubt, we cannot expect to separate (by purely syntactical means) the feasible programs from the non-feasible ones if we allow for dishonest programs. Thus, it seems reasonable to consider only honestly feasible programs, and after all, it is the computational complexity inherent in the code we want to analyse and recognise. But even then, our project is bound to fail.

Definition 27. Given any stack programming language L, a *measure on* L is a computable function v: L-programs $\rightarrow \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 28. Let L be any stack programming language containing core programs (cf. Section 5), and let v be any measure on L. The pair (v, L) is called

- sound if every L-program of v-measure 0 is feasible,
- complete if every honestly feasible L-program has v-measure 0, and
- adequate if every function in FPTIME is L-computable with v-measure 0.

As seen above, core programs are the backbones of more general stack programs, and they comprise those stack manipulations which do contribute to computational complexity. Let C denote the set of core programs defined in Section 5, and let μ be the measure on core programs as defined in Section 4. The next theorem is good news.

Theorem 29. The pair (μ, C) is sound and complete.

Proof. Soundness follows directly from Theorem 17. As for completeness, assume that P were an honestly feasible core program with $\mu(P) > 0$. Then P contained a loop foreach X [Q], where Q is a sequence $Q_1; \ldots; Q_l$ with a top circle. So Q

contained a component Q_i such that some Y controls some Z in Q_i , and Z controls Y in Q_1 ; ...; Q_{i-1} ; Q_{i+1} ; ...; Q_l . Now observe that if U controls V in a core program R, then by monotonicity each time R is executed the size of stack V increases at least by the size of stack U. We conclude that each time Q is executed the size of at least one stack in Q were doubled. Thus, P contained a non-feasible subprogram, contradicting the assumption on P.

Clearly, (μ, C) is not adequate. As core programs are length-monotonic, there are plenty of functions in FPTIME which are not C-computable, let alone C-computable with μ -measure 0. However, would not it be nice if we could extend (μ, C) to an adequate pair and still preserve both soundness and completeness? Well, it is not possible.

Theorem 30. Let (v,L) be sound and adequate. Then (v,L) is incomplete, that is, there exists an honestly feasible program $P \in L$ such that v(P) > 0.

Proof. Assume an effective enumeration $\{\rho_i\}_{i\in\omega}$ of the Turing machines with alphabet $\{0,1\}$. Let n be a fixed natural number. It is well known that there is a function $f_n \in \text{FPTIME}$ satisfying $f_n(x) = 1$ if ρ_n (on the empty input) halts within |x| steps, and $f_n(x) = 0$ else. Moreover, it is undecidable whether ρ_i halts. Since (v, L) is adequate and sound, there is an honestly feasible program $\mathbb Q$ in L of v-measure 0 such that

```
\{Y = y\} Q \{ \text{if } \rho_n \text{ does not halt within } |y| \text{ steps then } Z = \varepsilon \text{ else } Z = 1 \}.
```

Such a program \mathbb{Q} can be effectively constructed from n, i.e. there is an algorithm for constructing \mathbb{Q} from n. As L contains the core language, the program

```
 P :=  for each \ X \ [Q; for each \ Z \ [for each \ V \ [push(1,W)]];   for each \ W \ [push(1,V)]]   (X,V,W \ new)
```

is also in L. If ρ_n never halts, then foreach V[push(1,W)] will never be executed, whatever the inputs to P. Thus, if ρ_n never halts, then P is honestly feasible. In contrast, if ρ_n halts after s steps, say, then part foreach V[push(1,W)] and foreach V[push(1,V)] will be executed each time the body of the outermost loop is executed whenever Y=y with $|y|\geqslant s$. Each such execution at least doubles the height of V. Thus, if ρ_n halts, then P is not feasible. In other words, P is honestly feasible if and only if ρ_n never halts. As P is effectively constructible from n, we conclude that V cannot be complete. For if V were complete, then V would never halt if and only if V and then check whether V algorithm which decides whether V halts: construct V from V and then check whether V because V is algorithm does not exist. V

Notably, Theorem 30 relates to Gödel's First Incompleteness Theorem. The latter implies that if a first-order language is expressive enough, then there is no algorithm which identifies the true statements of the language. Theorem 30 says that when a programming language is sufficiently expressive, then there is no algorithm which identifies the honestly feasible programs of the language.

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