A. Lingas R. Karlsson S. Carlsson (Eds.)

# Automata, Languages and Programming

20th International Colloquium, ICALP 93 Lund, Sweden, July 5-9, 1993 Proceedings



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## FOREWORD

The International Colloquium on Automata, Languages and Programming (ICALP) is an annual conference series sponsored by the European Association for Theoretical Computer Science (EATCS). It is intended to cover all important areas of theoretical computer science, such as: computability, automata, formal languages, term rewriting, analysis of algorithms, computational geometry, computational complexity, symbolic and algebraic computation, cryptography, data types and data structures, theory of data bases and knowledge bases, semantics of programming languages, program specification, transformation and verification, foundations of logic programming, theory of logical design and layout, parallel and distributed computation, theory of concurrency, and theory of robotics.

ICALP 93 was held at Lund University, Sweden, from July 5 to July 9, 1993.

Previous colloquia were held in Wien (1992), Madrid (1991), Warwick (1990), Stresa (1989), Tampere (1988), Karlsruhe (1987), Rennes (1986), Nafplion (1985), Antwerp (1984), Barcelona (1983), Aarhus (1982), Haifa (1981), Amsterdam (1980), Graz (1979), Udine (1978), Turku (1977), Edinburgh (1976), Saarbrücken (1974) and Paris (1972). ICALP 94 will be held in Jerusalem from July 11 to July 15, 1994.

The number of papers submitted was 151. Each submitted paper was sent to at least four Programme Committee members, who were often assisted by their referees. The Programme Committee meeting took place at Lund University on the 5th and 6th of February 1993 (the names of those participating in the meeting are underlined below). This volume contains the 51 papers selected at the meeting plus the five invited papers.

We would like to thank all the Programme Committee members and the referees who assisted them in their work. The list of referees is as complete as we can achieve and we apologize for any omissions or errors.

The members of the Organizing Committee, the members of the algorithm group at our department sometimes assisted by their families, our departmental secretaries, and many other members of the department deserve our gratitude for their contributions throughout the preparations.

We also gratefully acknowledge support from Swedish Natural Science Research Council, Apple Computer AB, the Department of Computer Science at Lund University, Lund Institute of Technology, Lund University, and the city of Lund.

> Svante Carlsson, Rolf Karlsson, and Andrzej Lingas April 1993, Lund University

#### **Invited Lecturers**

S. Abiteboul, INRIA Rocquencourt;
M. Blum, Berkeley;
D. Dolev, IBM San José and Jerusalem;
L. Hemachandra, Rochester;
I. Simon, Sao Paulo.

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## List of Referees

Abrahamson K.	Fülöp Z.	Lazard D.	Sales T.
Alur R.	Gabarró J.	Leduc G.	Salomaa A.
Anderson R.	Gallo G.	Leroy X.	Sannella D.
Andersson A,	Garrido O.	Levcopoulos C.	Sassone V.
Anstee R.P.	Gavaldá R.	Liestman A.	Schieber B.
Arnborg S.	Giacobazzi R.	Luccio F.	Schmid U.
Arnold A.	Godefroid P.	Maggs B.M.	Schmidt E.M.
Baaz M.	Goldmann M.	Magnusson B.	Séébold P.
Balcázar J.L.	Goldreich O.	Manorioci D.	Seibert S.
Bang-Jensen J.	Goltz U.	Manovssakis Y.	Seidl H.
Bartha M.	Graedel E.	Martini S.	Serna M.
Beauquier D.	Grandjean E.	Masini A.	Skyum S.
Berman P.	Grosse-Rhode M.	Matias Y.	Staiger L.
Bernot G.	Habel A.	Mattsson C.	Steffen B.
Berry G.	Hajnal P.	Milo T.	Steinby M.
Best E.	Hankin C.L.	Miltersen P.B.	Stevenne JM.
Bhattacharia B.	Hansen M.R.	Moggi E.	Steyaert JM.
Boasson L.	Higham L.	Montanari U.	Stirling C.
Bodlaender H.L.	Hodkinson I.M.	Moreau L.	Storlind R.
Bonatti P.	Honkala J.	Moscowitz Y.	Stout Q.
Breazu-Tannen V.	Hortmann M.	Mossakowski T.	Taylor Paul
Carlsson S.	Horváth G.	Nagarajan R.	Tel G.
Casas R.	Inverardi P.	Nickl F.	Thurimella R.
Cassaigne J.	JaJa J.	Niemi V.	Tison
Choffrut C.	Jancar P.	Nilsson B.	Torán J.
Comon	Jantzen M.	Nilsson S.	Treinen R.
Compton K.	Jebelean T.	Olderog ER.	Tsantilas T.
Courcelle B.	Jenner B.	Pacholski L,	Turán G.
Craig T.S.	Jennings E.	Padawitz P.	Upfal E.
Crochemore N.	Juras M.	Paz A.	Valkema E.
Csakany B.	Kameda T.	Petersson O.	Varricchio S.
Csirik J.	Karhumäki J.	Pin J.E.	Vianu V.
Culberson J.	Kari J.	Pippenger N.	Vickers S.J.
Damgaard I.B.	Kari L.	Plump D.	Wagner A.
Delorme	Karlsson R.	Poigné A.	Webcr A.
Dessmark A.	Kasif S.	Potthoff A.	Wiehagen R.
Diaconescu	Khuller S.	Prodinger H.	Wilke T.
Diekert V.	Klarlund N.	Qian Z.	Willem J.
Dovier A.	Klop J.W.	Rajasekaran S.	Winskel G.
Drewes F.	Kluge W.	Raman R	Wojciechowski S.
Droste M.	Knoop J.	Raz D.	Woo Ryu K.
Emerson E.A.	Koubek V.	Regnier M.	Yesha Y.
Engberg U.H.	Krivánek M.	Renvall A.	Young N.
Enjalbert P.	Kudlek M.	Reynolds M.A.	Zielonka W.
Farvardin N.	La Poutré J.A.	Richter M.M.	
Frandsen G.	Lagergren J.	Ruthing O.	
Fuchs N.E.	Landau G.M.	Sahinalp S.	

**BIBLIOTHEQUE DU CERIST** 

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Session 1: Programs and Data Structures
Program Result Checking: A New Approach to Making Programs More Reliable (Invited) <i>M. Blum</i>
Dynamic Interpolation Search in $o(\log \log n)$ Time A. Andersson and C. Mattsson
Searching Among Intervals and Compact Routing Tables G.N. Frederickson
Session 2: Approximation Complexity
The Approximation of Maximum Subgraph ProblemsC. Lund and M. Yannakakis40
Polynomially Bounded Minimization Problems Which are Hard to Approximate V. Kann
Primal-Dual Approximation Algorithms for Integral Flow and Multicut in Trees, with Applications to Matching and Set Cover N. Garg, V. V. Vazirani, and M. Yannakakis
The Complexity of Approximating PSPACE-Complete Problems for Hierarchical Specifications M.V. Marathe, H.B. Hunt III, and S.S. Ravi
Session 3: Graph Algorithms
Problems on Pairs of Trees and the Four Colour Problem of Planar Graphs A. Czumaj and A. Gibbons
Constructing Competitive Tours from Local Information B. Kalyanasundaram and K.R. Pruhs
Treewidth and Pathwidth of Permutation Graphs H. Bodlaender, T. Kloks, and D. Kratsch
A Theory of Even Functionals and Their Algorithmic Applications J.W. Jaromczyk and G. Świątek 126
Session 4: Algorithm Analysis and Computational Geometry
Exact Asymptotics of Divide-and-Conquer Recurrences P. Flajolet and M. Golin
Optimal Bounds for the Change-Making Problem D. Kozen and S. Zaks

The Complexity of N-body Simulation         J.H. Reif and S.R. Tate         162
A Simple Method for Resolving Degeneracies in Delaunay Triangulations M.B. Dillencourt and W.D. Smith
Session 5: Complexity
Fault-Tolerance and Complexity (Invited)         L.A. Hemachandra         189
Reversal-Space Trade-offs for Simultaneous Resource-Bounded Nondeterministic Turing Machines <i>H. Yamamoto</i>
On the Computational Power of Discrete Hopfield Nets P. Orponen
Session 8: Probabilistic Complexity and Cryptography
On Randomized Versus Deterministic Computation M. Karpinski and R. Verbeek
Lower Bounds for One-Way Probabilistic Communication Complexity F. Ablayev
Maintaining Discrete Probability Distributions OptimallyT. Hagerup, K. Mehlhorn, and I. Munro253
Secure and Efficient Off-Line Digital Money M. Franklin and M. Yung 265
Session 7: Computability, Formal Languages and Automata
Computational Depth and Reducibility D.W. Juedes, J.I. Lathrop, and J.H. Lutz
Learnability: Admissible, Co-Finite, and Hypersimple Languages G. Baliga and J. Case
Inclusion is Undecidable for Pattern Languages T. Jiang, A. Salomaa, K. Salomaa, and S. Yu
New Decidability Results Concerning Two-Way Counter Machines and Applications
O.H. Ibarra, T. Jiang, N. Tran, and H. Wang 313
Session 8: Logic, Formal Languages and Automata
Cobham's Theorem Seen Through Büchi's Theorem

Logical Definability on Infinite Traces W. Ebinger and A. Muscholl
Algebras for Classifying Regular Tree Languages and an Application to Frontier Testability T. Wilke
Finite Automata as Characterizations of Minor Closed Tree Families         A. Gupta       359
Session 9: Parallel and Disributed Algorithms I
On Distributed Algorithms in a Broadcast Domain (Invited) D. Dolev and D. Malki
Sparse Networks Supporting Efficient Reliable Broadcasting B.S. Chlebus, K. Diks, and A. Pelc
Session 10: Parallel and Disributed Algorithms II
Strongly Adaptive Token Distribution F. Meyer auf der Heide, B. Oesterdiekhoff, and R. Wanka 398
Fast Parallel Computation of Characteristic Polynomials by Leverrier'sPower Sum Method Adapted to Fields of Finite CharacteristicA. Schönhage410
Fast Parallel Constraint Satisfaction L.M. Kirousis
Session 11: Algebraic Aspects of Formal Languages and Automata I
The Product of Rational Languages (Invited) I. Simon
On Regular Compatibility of Semi-Commutations E. Ochmanski and PA. Wacrenier
Algebraic Aspects of B-Regular Series         P. Dumas       457
Session 12: Algebraic Aspects of Formal Languages and Automata II
Products of Finite State Machines with Full Coverage D.M. Cohen and M.L. Fredman
An Effective Version of Stallings' Theorem in the Case of Context-Free Groups <i>G. Sénizergues</i>
On the Power of Periodic Iteration of Morphisms A. Lepistö
If a DOL Language is k-Power Free then It is Circular F. Mignosi and P. Séébold

ΧI

## Session 13: Concurrency

Deciding True Concurrency Equivalences on Finite Safe Nets L. Jategaonkar and A.R. Meyer	519
Timed Testing of Concurrent Systems W. Vogler	532
The Fork Calculus K. Havelund and K. G. Larsen	
Extended Transition Systems for Parametric Bisimulation P. Inverardi, C. Priami, and D. Yankelevich	558
Session 14: Temporal Logic	
Temporal Logic and Categories of Petri Nets C. Brown and D. Gurr	570
Decidability of a Partial Order Based Temporal Logic K. Lodaya, R. Ramanujam, and P.S. Thiagarajan	582
Local Model Checking for Context-Free Processes H. Hungar and B. Steffen	593
Session 15: Theory of Programming I	
Computing on Structures (Invited) S. Abiteboul and V. Vianu	606
A Partial Solution for D-Unification Based on a Reduction to AC1-Unification E. Contejean	621
Efficient Analysis of Concurrent Constraint Logic Programs M. Codish, M. Falaschi, K. Marriott, and W. Winsborough	
Session 16: Theory of Programming II	
A Confluent Reduction for the Extensional Typed $\lambda$ -Calculus with Pairs, Sums, Recursion and Terminal Object R. Di Cosmo and D. Kesner	645
Modularity of Termination and Confluence in Combinations of Rewrite Systems with $\lambda_{\omega}$ F. Barbanera and M. Fernández	657
From Domains to Automata with Concurrency F. Bracho and M. Droste	569
What Is a Universal Higher-Order Programming Language? R. Kanneganti and R. Cartwright	682
Author Index	696

## Program Result Checking: A New Approach to Making Programs More Reliable

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Abstract. Program result checking is concerned with designing programs to check their work. For example, after solving an equation for x, a result-checking program would substitute x back into the equation to make sure that the answer obtained is correct. There are many ways to check results, but there has been no theory to say what constitutes a good check. It is not a good check, for example, to redo a computation without change a second time. Such recomputation may uncover an intermittent hardware fault, but it will not uncover a software fault, and the discovery and elimination of software faults is the principal goal of this work. This talk discusses the concept of result checking, gives several examples, and outlines the basic theory.

### 1. Introduction

This talk restricts attention to program result checkers for a certain clean class of computational problems. These problems are completely described by specifying what constitutes correct input/output and acceptable running time, ic. by describing 1, what is an allowable *input* (to any program for the problem),

2. for each such input, what is an acceptable (ic. correct) output, and

3. what is an (easily computable) upper bound on the running time of a (reasonably fast) program for the problem.

For each (such) computational problem  $\pi$ , discussion will center on two classes of programs. The first will be a (possibly faulty) program for solving problem  $\pi$ . The second will be a (possibly faulty) checker for  $\pi$ . The latter *result checker* for computational problem  $\pi$  is an efficient program for checking the correctness of *any given program* (supposedly) for problem  $\pi$  on *any particular input* to the program. Notice that a checker does *not* check that the given program for  $\pi$  is correct on *all* inputs, but only that it is correct on the *given* input. This is one reason why it is generally easier to *check* a program (on a given input) than it is to *verify* a program (*prove* the program correct on all inputs).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This work was supported in part by NSF grant CCR92-01092, in part by IBM Research Division, T.J. Watson Research Center, and in part by ICSI, the International Computer Science Institute, Berkeley, CA.

A preliminary version of this paper appeared in Blum and Raghavan [BR]. Author's e-mail address: blum@cs.berkeley.edu

More precisely, a *result checker* for problem  $\pi$  is an algorithm that is supplied with:

1. a (possibly faulty) program for solving computational problem  $\pi$ , given as a black box, which the checker may run on inputs of its choice; and

2. a particular input for this program.

The checker must determine either that the output is correct or the program is faulty. (It may be that *both* are true!) To this end, the checker is designed to do efficient computations that are permitted to include calling the given program on various allowable inputs of the checkers own choosing. If the checker outputs CORRECT, then this implies that the checker has verified that the output of the given program on the given input is correct; if it outputs FAULTY, then this implies that the checker has verified the existence of a fault in the given program. The latter fault may manifest itself when the program is run on an input different from the given input.

Notice above that when a faulty program gives a correct output despite its fault, the checker is permitted to output either CORRECT or FAULTY. In particular, the checker is permitted to output FAULTY even when the given program outputs a correct answer on the given input, provided the program is indeed faulty. While this may at first appear strange, it is exactly what is wanted: for example, a trivial program that gives the same answer on all inputs may be perfectly correct on the given input for *no good reason!* The checker that discovers the program is junk has good reason to declare it faulty.

## 2. Program Result Checkers

Let  $\pi$  denote a (computational) decision and/or search problem. For x an input to  $\pi$ , let  $\pi(x)$  denote the output of  $\pi$ . Let P be a program (supposedly for  $\pi$ ) that halts on all instances of  $\pi$ . We say that such a program P, viewed as a program for  $\pi$ , has a *fault* (or *bug*) if for some instance x of  $\pi$ ,  $P(x) \neq \pi(x)$ .

Define an (efficient) program result checker  $C_{\pi}$  for problem  $\pi$  as follows:  $C_{\pi}^{P}(I;k)$  is any probabilistic (expected-poly-time) oracle Turing machine that satisfies the following conditions, for any program P (supposedly for  $\pi$ ) that halts on all instances of  $\pi$ , for any instance I of  $\pi$ , and for any positive integer k (the so-called "security parameter") presented in unary:

- 1. If P has no bugs, i.e.,  $P(x) = \pi(x)$  for all instances x of  $\pi$ , then with probability<sup>2</sup>  $\geq 1 2^{-k}$ ,  $C_{\pi}^{P}(I;k) = CORRECT$  (i.e., P(I) is correct).
- 2. If  $P(I) \neq \pi(I)$ , then with probability  $2 \ge 1 2^{-k}$ ,  $C_{\pi}^{P}(I;k) = BUGGY$  (i.e., *P* has a fault).

In the above, it is assumed that any program P for problem  $\pi$  halts on all instances of  $\pi$ . This is done in order to help focus on the problem at hand. In general, however, programs do not always halt, and the definition of a "bug" must be

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This probability is computed over the sample space of all finite sequences of coin flips that C could have tossed. In most examples, including all those in this paper, program P definitely (rather than probably) has a bug when  $C_{\pi}^{e}(I;k) = BUGGY$ .