THERE IS NO HYPERRECURRENT S, K COMBINATOR

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University Libraries Dervesie Mellon University Proceedings PA 15213-3890 We work in the S,K combinator calculus with weak β reduction and conversion.

M is said to be hyperrecurrent if whenever M = N, N is recurrent [5]. We shall show that there is no hyperrecurrent combinator. First we note the following

PROPOSITION 1: N is recurrent \Leftrightarrow Cpl (N) \longrightarrow >> N

PROOF: We observe first that $M \longrightarrow >> N \implies Cpl(M) \longrightarrow >> Cpl(N)$ by induction on the length of a reduction sequence from M to N. Namely,



by FD! [1]. The proposition follows from the cofinality of Gross-Knuth sequences.

PROPOSITION 2: The following are equivalent

(1) M is hyperrecurrent (2) $P = M = Q \implies P \longrightarrow Q$ (3) $P \longrightarrow M \implies M \longrightarrow P$

PROOF: (1) \Rightarrow (2) by the Church Rosser theorem and (2) \Rightarrow (3) trivially. Suppose (3). Recall the process of making M normal. Namely there is a normal N s.t NI $\xrightarrow{+}{\neq} \emptyset$ M. We observe that NI $\xrightarrow{-}{\longrightarrow} Q \Rightarrow Q \xrightarrow{-}{\longrightarrow} NI$ by induction on the length of a reduction sequence. Namely,



Thus NI is recurrent; so, M is recurrent. Hence $P = M \Longrightarrow P \longrightarrow M \Longrightarrow M \longrightarrow P$ and M is hyperrecurrent.

Recall the following definition from [3]. M is cyclically equivalent to N, $M \sim N$, if $M \longrightarrow N$ and $N \longrightarrow N$. We obtain the following

COROLLARY: M is not hyperrecurrent $\Leftrightarrow M/=$ splits into at least infinitely many singletons and one infinite cyclic quivalence classes.

PROOF: If M is hyperrecurrent then M/= is a cyclic equivalence class. If M is not hyperrecurrent then by proposition 2 for each N = M there exists $P \longrightarrow N$ s.t. P is not recurrent. For each such P there is a normal Q s.t. $QI \longrightarrow P$ so $QI \longrightarrow P$ $Cpl(QI) \longrightarrow P$. Since QI is not recurrent $Cpl(QI) \longrightarrow P$. Since QI has a unique redex, QI lies on no reduction cycle. That there is at least one infinite cyclic equivalence class as trivial.

M is said to have the upward Church Rosser property if whenever $P \longrightarrow M \ll Q$ these exists R s.t. $P \ll R \longrightarrow Q$. Plotkin first gave an example of a λ term without the upward Church Rosser property ([1]). Clearly if M is hyperrecurrent then it has the upward church Rosser property.

We observe here that it is impossible to construct effectively for each M a term P_M such that $P_M \longrightarrow M$ but $M \not\longrightarrow P_M$ because the Ershov fixed point theorem applies to the relation $\longrightarrow >$ (see [4]). We shall construct P_M and Q_M s.t. $P_M \longrightarrow >$ $M << --- Q_M$ and either $M \not\rightarrow >> P_M$ or $M \not\rightarrow >> Q_M$.

THEOREM: M has the upward Church Rosser property \Leftrightarrow M = an atom.

PROOF: \Rightarrow Set $\Omega \equiv$ SII (SII). If N and N' are distinct normal terms then $\Omega \longrightarrow P \Rightarrow P \implies P \longrightarrow >> \Omega$ N and P contains no subterm $= \Omega$ N'. If M \neq an atom and N is normal set $\alpha_N \equiv [x]M$ (Ω N) so $\alpha_N \longrightarrow >> M$ (1) If β has order 0 and $[x]M \beta \xrightarrow{\text{head}} >> P$ then P contains a trace of β and every trace of $\beta \equiv \beta$.

Consider a head reduction \mathscr{R} beginning with $[x]M \beta$. We partition \mathscr{R} into segments $\mathscr{R}_1 \mathscr{R}_2 \ldots \mathscr{R}_1 \mathscr{S}$. Each \mathscr{R}_i begins with an applicative combination of terms of the form [x]Q β and proceeds by simulating, with β for x, a canonical (see [6] pg. 36) head reduction until a term of the form $K A \beta R_1 \ldots R_s$ is obtained, where A is an atom. At this stage $s \neq 0$ since $M \neq A$. \mathscr{R}_i then terminates by projecting β and applying the reduction rule for A if a head redex results from the projection. The trailing \mathscr{S} is just a partial such segment.

(2) Suppose

Then there exist L, P, Q, R such that

 $\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{J} \equiv (\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{L} & \mathcal{P} \end{array}) \\ & \stackrel{head}{\longrightarrow} & (\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{Q} & \mathcal{R} \end{array}) \\ & \stackrel{f}{=} n \text{ steps} \end{array} \end{array}$

and J contains a trace of H

The proof is by induction on the length of the reduction $G \longrightarrow [x]M$. The basis case is just (1) and its proof. Now suppose $G \xrightarrow{\Delta} F \longrightarrow [x]M$. We simulate the head reduction from GH with FH. This is nothing more than paying attention to the proof of the strip lemma ([1]). The simulation can be obtained vertically by replacing the residuals of Δ by its immediate reduct Δ' . Horizontally, head reductions are skipped when Δ is at the head. All these occurrences are disjoint from traces of H. Applying the induction hypothesis gives

Now it cannot be that some whole term in the head reduction from GH consists of a residual of \triangle . Since this contradicts the fact that the corresponding term in the head reduction of FH has a trace of H. Thus $J \equiv LP$ and $L \xrightarrow{cpl \triangle residuals} U$ and $P \xrightarrow{cpl \triangle residuals} V$ (3) Suppose $\alpha_{N_0} \ll F \longrightarrow \alpha_{N_1}$. Then for some i $\alpha_{N_1} \longrightarrow \alpha_{N_{1-i}}$. If $\alpha_{N_0} << ---- F ----> \alpha_{N_1}$ then by the standardization theorem there exist L, P, Q, R s.t.



By (2) there exist U, V s.t. $\alpha_{N_i} \xrightarrow{\text{he a d}} UV, U \longrightarrow [x]M \text{ and } V \longrightarrow \Omega N_{1-i}$. This proves (3).

Next we consider a head reduction beginning with α_{N_0} and we mark exactly those terms GH s.t. G $\longrightarrow > [x]M$ and H $\longrightarrow > \Omega N$ for some normal N



For i = 1, 2, ... we can apply (2) to obtain



By (1) all the traces of ΩN_i in $U_i V_i$ are $\equiv \Omega N_i$. We indicate these by writing $U_i \equiv U_i$ $[\Omega N_i]$ and $V_i \equiv V_i [\Omega N_i]$. In particular, we have either $V_i[x] \longrightarrow >> x$ or $V_i[x] \longrightarrow >> \Omega$ N_{i+1} . Observe that in the first case $N_{i+1} \equiv N_i$ and this applies equally well to i = 0 with H_1 for V_1 . Suppose now that i is smallest s.t. $V_i[x] \longrightarrow >> \Omega N_{i+1}$ and $N_{i+1} \neq N_0$. Then we have

$$[x] M (\Omega N_0) \xrightarrow{\text{head}} \sum_{\substack{\leq k_i \text{ steps}}} U_i [\Omega N_0] V_i [\Omega N_0]$$
$$[x] M (\Omega N_{i+1})$$

by substitution. Hence i = 1, and by similar reasoning for all $i \ge 1$ N_j \equiv N₁. We conclude (4) For each normal N there is at most one normal N' \neq N such that $\alpha_N \longrightarrow >> \alpha_N'$.

We are now ready to conclude the proof of \Rightarrow . (3) and (4) imply that for any 3 distinct α_N at most 2 pairs are reducts of a common term.

 $\Leftarrow Suppose M = the atom A and P \longrightarrow >> A << \longrightarrow Q.$ Consider the reduction P \longrightarrow >> A. A is the trace of a unique occurrence of A in P which we indicate P[A]. Then P << \longrightarrow P[Q] \longrightarrow >> Q. This completes the proof.



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