# Rewriting Part 1. Abstract Reduction

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#### Literature

 Franz Baader and Tobias Nipkow. Term Rewriting and All That. Cambridge University Press, 1998.

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- Book's home page: http://www21.in.tum.de/~nipkow/TRaAT/
- Resources about rewriting: http://rewriting.loria.fr/

#### Motivation

Abstract Reduction Systems



## Equational Reasoning

- Restricted class of languages: The only predicate symbol is equality  $\approx$ .
- Reasoning with equations:
  - derive consequences of given equations,
  - find values for variables that satisfy a given equation.
- At the heart of many problems in mathematics and computer science.



• Equations (identities):

 $\begin{aligned} x + 0 &\approx x \\ x + s(y) &\approx s(x + y) \end{aligned}$ 

• How to calculate s(0) + s(s(0))?

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$$s(s(0) + s(0)) \rightarrow \qquad (by \ R_2, \text{ with } x \mapsto s(0), y \mapsto 0)$$



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## What is Rewriting

- Process of transforming one expression into another.
- Rules describe how one expression can be rewritten into another.



## Identities and Rewriting

- Rewriting as a computational mechanism:
  - Apply given equations in one direction, as rewrite rules.

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- Close relationship with functional programming.
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## Identities and Rewriting

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- Compute normal forms.
- Close relationship with functional programming.
- Example: symbolic differentiation.
- Rewriting as a deduction mechanism:
  - Apply given equations in both directions.
  - Define equivalence classes of terms.
  - Equational reasoning.
  - Example: group theory.

- Expressions: Terms built over variables (u, v, ...) and the following function symbols:
  - ▶ constants 0,1 (numbers),
  - ▶ constants X, Y (indeterminates),
  - unary symbol  $D_X$  (partial derivative with respect to X),
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  - (X + X) \* Y + 1.
  - $D_X(u * v)$ .
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$$D_X(Y) \to 0 \tag{R2}$$

$$D_X(u+v) \rightarrow D_X(u) + D_X(v)$$
 (R<sub>3</sub>)

$$D_X(u * v) \to (u * D_X(v)) + (D_X(u) * v) \qquad (R_4)$$



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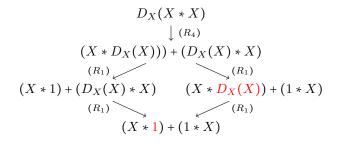
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The symbolic differentiation example can be used to illustrate two most important properties of TRSs:



The symbolic differentiation example can be used to illustrate two most important properties of TRSs:

#### 1. Termination:

Is it always the case that after finitely many rule applications we reach an expression to which no more rules apply (normal form)?

- For symbolic differentiation rules this is the case.
- But how to prove it?
- An example of non-terminating rule:  $u + v \rightarrow v + u$

The symbolic differentiation example can be used to illustrate two most important properties of TRSs:



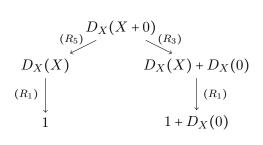
The symbolic differentiation example can be used to illustrate two most important properties of TRSs:

#### 2. Confluence:

- If there are different ways of applying rules to a given term t, leading to different terms t<sub>1</sub> and t<sub>2</sub>, can they be reduced by rule applications to a common term?
- For symbolic differentiation rules this is the case.
- But how to prove it?



• Adding the rule  $u + 0 \rightarrow u$  ( $R_5$ ) destroys confluence:



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 Confluence can be regained by adding D<sub>X</sub>(0) → 0 (completion).

# Group Theory

- Terms are built over variables and the following function symbols:
  - ▶ binary ∘,
  - unary i,
  - constant 0.
- Examples of terms:
  - $x \circ (y \circ i(y))$
  - $(0 \circ x) \circ i(0)$
  - $i(x \circ y)$
- Identities (aka group axioms), defining groups:

Associativity of 
$$\circ$$
 $(x \circ y) \circ z \approx x \circ (y \circ z)$  $(G_1)$  $e$  left unit $e \circ x \approx x$  $(G_2)$  $i$  left inverse $i(x) \circ x \approx e$  $(G_3)$ 



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# Group Theory

- Identities can be applied in both directions.
- Word problem for identities:
  - Given a set of identities E and two terms s and t.
  - Is it possible to transform s into t, using the identities in E as rewrite rules applied in both directions?
- For instance, is it possible to transform e into x ∘ i(x), i.e., is the left inverse also a right-inverse?



# Group Theory

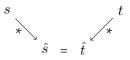
$$\begin{aligned} &(x \circ y) \circ z \approx x \circ (y \circ z) & (G_1) \\ &e \circ x \approx x & (G_2) \\ &i(x) \circ x \approx e & (G_3) \end{aligned}$$

Transform e into  $x \circ i(x)$ :

$$\begin{split} e \approx_{G_3} i(x \circ i(x)) \circ (x \circ i(x)) \\ \approx_{G_2} i(x \circ i(x)) \circ (x \circ (e \circ i(x))) \\ \approx_{G_3} i(x \circ i(x)) \circ (x \circ ((i(x) \circ x) \circ i(x))) \\ \approx_{G_1} i(x \circ i(x)) \circ ((x \circ (i(x) \circ x)) \circ i(x)) \\ \approx_{G_1} i(x \circ i(x)) \circ (((x \circ i(x)) \circ x) \circ i(x)) \\ \approx_{G_1} i(x \circ i(x)) \circ ((x \circ i(x)) \circ (x \circ i(x))) \\ \approx_{G_1} (i(x \circ i(x)) \circ (x \circ i(x)) \circ (x \circ i(x))) \\ \approx_{G_3} e \circ (x \circ i(x)) \\ \approx_{G_3} x \circ i(x) \end{split}$$



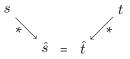
- Is there a simpler way to solve word problems?
- Try to solve it by rewriting (uni-directional application of identities):



- Reduce s and t to normal forms  $\hat{s}$  and  $\hat{t}$ .
- Check whether ŝ = t̂, i.e., syntactically equal.
   (= is the meta-equality.)



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- Check whether ŝ = t̂, i.e., syntactically equal.
   (= is the meta-equality.)
- But... it would only work if normal forms exist and are unique.



- In the group theory example, e and  $x \circ i(x)$  are equivalent, but it can not be decided by (left-to-right) rewriting: Both terms are in the normal form.
- Uniqueness of normal forms is violated: non-confluence.
- Normal forms may not exist: The process of reducing a term may lead to an infinite chain of transformations: non-termination.



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- Uniqueness of normal forms is violated: non-confluence.
- Normal forms may not exist: The process of reducing a term may lead to an infinite chain of transformations: non-termination.
- Termination and confluence ensure existence and uniqueness of normal forms.
- If a given set of identities leads to non-confluent system, we will try to apply the idea of completion to extend the rewrite system to a confluent one.



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#### Motivation

Abstract Reduction Systems



#### Abstract vs Concrete

Concrete rewrite formalisms:

- string rewriting
- term rewriting
- graph rewriting
- $\lambda$  calculus
- etc.

Abstract reduction:

- No structure on objects to be rewritten.
- Abstract treatment of reductions.



#### Abstract Reduction Systems

- Abstract reduction system (ARS): A pair  $(A, \rightarrow)$ , where
  - A is a set,
  - the reduction  $\rightarrow$  is a binary relation on  $A: \rightarrow \subseteq A \times A$ .

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• Write  $a \rightarrow b$  for  $(a, b) \in \rightarrow$ .

$$A = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}$$

$$\Rightarrow = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} (a, e), (b, a), (b, c), (c, d), (c, f) \\ (e, b), (e, g), (f, e), (f, g) \end{array} \right\}$$

$$a \longleftrightarrow b \longrightarrow c \longrightarrow d$$

$$f \longleftrightarrow f \longleftrightarrow g$$



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## Equivalence and Reduction

Again, two views at reductions.

- 1. Directed computation: Follow the reductions, trying to compute a normal form:  $a_0 \rightarrow a_1 \rightarrow \cdots$
- 2. View  $\rightarrow$  as description of  $\stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow}$ .
  - ▶  $a \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} b$  means there is a path between a and b, with arrows traversed in both directions:  $a \leftarrow c \rightarrow d \leftarrow b$
  - Goal: Decide whether  $a \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} b$ .
  - Bidirectional rewriting is expensive.
  - Unidirectional rewriting with subsequent comparison of normal form works if the reduction system is confluent and terminating.

Termination, confluence: central topics.

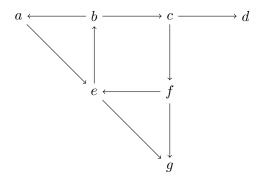


#### **Basic notions**

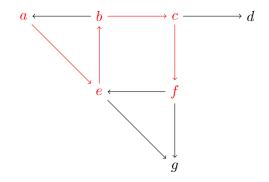
- 1. Composition of two relations.
- 2. Given two relations  $R \subseteq A \times B$  and  $S \subseteq B \times C$ , their composition is defined by

$$R \circ S \coloneqq \{(x, z) \mid \exists y \in B. \ (x, y) \in R \land (y, z) \in S\}$$



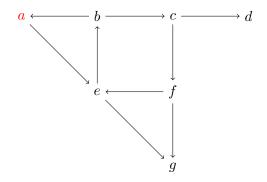






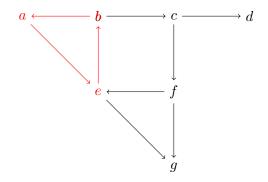
• Finite rewrite sequence:  $a \rightarrow e \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow f$ 





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- Finite rewrite sequence:  $a \rightarrow e \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow f$
- Empty rewrite sequence: a
- Infinite rewrite sequence:  $a \rightarrow e \rightarrow b \rightarrow a \rightarrow \cdots$



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#### Relations Derived from $\rightarrow$

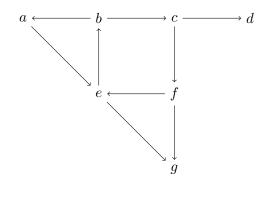
$\xrightarrow{0} \coloneqq \{(x,x) \mid x \in A\}$	identity
$\xrightarrow{i+1}:=\xrightarrow{i}\circ\rightarrow$	$(i+1)$ -fold composition, $i \ge 0$
$\xrightarrow{+}:=\cup_{i>0}\xrightarrow{i}$	transitive closure
$\stackrel{*}{\rightarrow}:=\stackrel{+}{\rightarrow}\cup\stackrel{0}{\rightarrow}$	reflexive transitive closure
$\stackrel{=}{\rightarrow} := \rightarrow \cup \stackrel{0}{\rightarrow}$	reflexive closure
$\xrightarrow{-1} \coloneqq \{(y,x) \mid (x,y) \in \rightarrow\}$	inverse
$\leftarrow := \xrightarrow{-1}$	inverse
$\leftrightarrow := \rightarrow \cup \leftarrow$	symmetric closure
$\stackrel{+}{\leftrightarrow} := (\leftrightarrow)^+$	transitive symmetric closure
$\stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} := (\leftrightarrow)^*$	reflexive transitive symmetric closure



- If  $x \xrightarrow{*} y$  then we say:
  - x rewrites to y, or
  - there is some finite path from x to y, or
  - y is a reduct of x.



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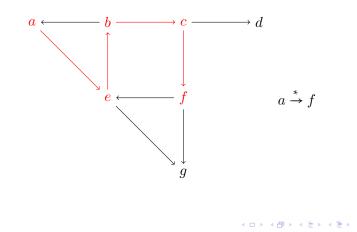




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• x is reducible iff there exists y such that  $x \rightarrow y$ .



- x is reducible iff there exists y such that  $x \rightarrow y$ .
- x is in normal form (irreducible) iff x is not reducible.

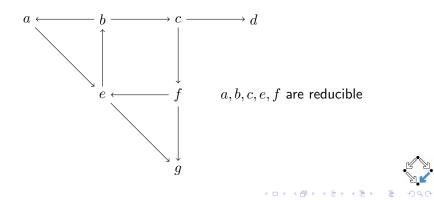
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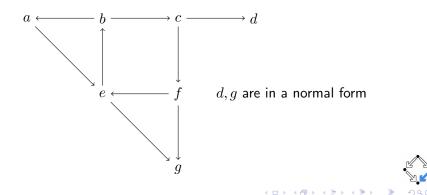
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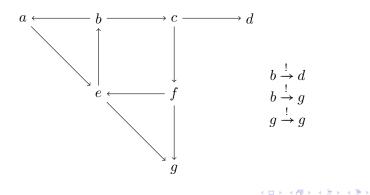
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- y is direct successor of x iff  $x \to y$ .
- y is successor of x iff  $x \xrightarrow{+} y$ .



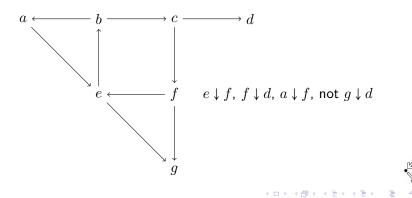
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- y is successor of x iff  $x \xrightarrow{+} y$ .
- x and y are convertible iff  $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y$ .



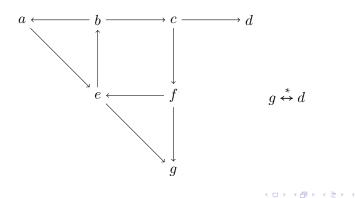
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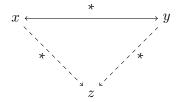
```
x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y implies x \downarrow y.
```



Definition 1.1 A reduction  $\rightarrow$  is called Church-Rosser (CR) iff

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Graphically:



Solid arrows represent universal and dashed arrows existential quantification:  $\forall x, y. \ x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y \Rightarrow \exists z. \ x \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} z \land y \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} z.$ 



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#### Definition 1.2

A reduction  $\rightarrow$  is called confluent (C) iff

$$y_1 \stackrel{*}{\leftarrow} x \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} y_2 \text{ implies } y_1 \downarrow y_2.$$

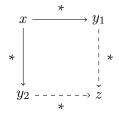


#### Definition 1.2

A reduction  $\rightarrow$  is called confluent (C) iff

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Graphically:



Solid arrows represent universal and dashed arrows existential quantification:  $\forall x, y_1, y_2. \ y_1 \stackrel{*}{\leftarrow} x \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} y_2 \Rightarrow \exists z. \ y_1 \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} z \stackrel{*}{\leftarrow} y_2.$ 



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Definition 1.3 A reduction  $\rightarrow$  is called locally confluent (LC) iff

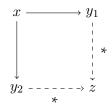
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Solid arrows represent universal and dashed arrows existential quantification:  $\forall x, y_1, y_2. \ y_1 \leftarrow x \rightarrow y_2 \Rightarrow \exists z. \ y_1 \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} z \stackrel{*}{\leftarrow} y_2.$ 



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#### Definition 1.4

A reduction  $\rightarrow$  is called

- terminating (T) iff there is no infinite descending chain  $a_0 \rightarrow a_1 \rightarrow \cdots$ .
- normalizing (N) iff every element has a normal form.
- uniquely normalizing (UN) iff every element has at most one normal form.
- convergent iff it is both confluent and terminating.



#### Definition 1.4

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- convergent iff it is both confluent and terminating.

Alternative terminology:

- Strongly normalizing: terminating.
- Weakly normalizing: normalizing.



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- Obviously,  $x \downarrow y$  implies  $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y$ .
- Therefore, the Church-Rosser property can be formulated as the equivalence:
- $\blacktriangleright$   $\rightarrow$  is called Church-Rosser iff

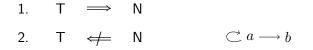
 $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y \text{ iff } x \downarrow y.$ 



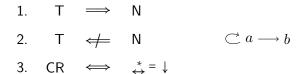
#### 1. T $\implies$ N

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2. T 
$$\Leftarrow$$
 N  $\bigcirc a$ 

3. CR 
$$\iff \underset{\leftrightarrow}{}^* = \downarrow$$

4. CR 
$$\implies$$
 UN

$$\bigcirc a \longrightarrow b$$



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1. 
$$T \implies N$$
  
2.  $T \iff N \qquad \bigcirc a \longrightarrow b$ 

- 3. CR  $\iff \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} = \downarrow$
- 4. CR  $\implies$  UN
- 5. CR  $\Leftarrow$  UN

$$\bigcirc a \longleftarrow b \longrightarrow c$$



1. 
$$I \implies N$$
  
2.  $T \nleftrightarrow N \qquad \bigcirc a \longrightarrow b$ 

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6.  $N \wedge UN \implies C$ 



1. 
$$T \implies N$$
  
2.  $T \iff N \qquad \bigcirc a \longrightarrow b$   
3.  $CR \iff \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} = \downarrow$ 

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- 5. CR  $\Leftarrow$  UN

$$\bigcirc a \longleftarrow b \longrightarrow c$$

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- 6.  $N \wedge UN \implies C$
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1. T 
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 N  
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6. N  $\land$  UN  $\implies$  C  
7. C  $\implies$  LC  
8. C  $\Leftarrow$  LC



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7. C  $\implies$  LC  
8. C  $\Leftarrow$  LC  $a \longleftarrow b \bigcirc c \longrightarrow d$ 



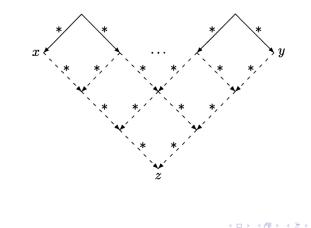
- Recall we were looking for:
- Ability to check equivalence by the search of a common reduct.

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- This is exactly the Church-Rosser property.
- How does it relate to confluence and termination?

#### Church-Rosser and Confluence

- The Church-Rosser property and confluence coincide.
- $CR \implies C$  is immediate.
- ► CR ⇐ C has a nice diagrammatic proof:





## Church-Rosser and Confluence

Definition 1.5

A reduction  $\rightarrow$  is called semi-confluent (SC) iff

 $y_1 \leftarrow x \xrightarrow{*} y_2$  implies  $y_1 \downarrow y_2$ .

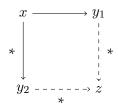


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Graphically:



Solid arrows represent universal and dashed arrows existential quantification:  $\forall x, y_1, y_2. \ y_1 \leftarrow x \xrightarrow{*} y_2 \Rightarrow \exists z. \ y_1 \xrightarrow{*} z \xleftarrow{*} y_2.$ 



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The following conditions are equivalent:

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Proof.

 $(1 \Rightarrow 2)$ 

• Assume  $\rightarrow$  is CR and  $y_1 \xleftarrow{*} x \xrightarrow{*} y_2$ . Show  $y_1 \downarrow y_2$ .

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$$y_1 \stackrel{*}{\leftarrow} x \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} y_2$$
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• CR implies  $y_1 \downarrow y_2$ .



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- $(2 \Rightarrow 3)$ 
  - Semi-confluence is a special case of confluence.

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• Assume  $\rightarrow$  is SC and  $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y$ . Show  $x \downarrow y$ .

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- Assume  $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y \leftrightarrow y'$ . Show  $x \downarrow y'$ .

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- Induction on the length of the chain  $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y$ .
- Base case: x = y. Trivial.
- Assume  $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y \leftrightarrow y'$ . Show  $x \downarrow y'$ .
- By IH,  $x \downarrow y$ , i.e.  $x \xrightarrow{*} z \xleftarrow{*} y$  for some z.

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Proof.

 $(3 \Rightarrow 1)$  (Cont.)

- Show  $x \downarrow y'$  by case distinction on  $y \leftrightarrow y'$ .
- $y \leftarrow y'$ :  $x \downarrow y'$  follows directly from  $x \downarrow y$ :

$$x \xleftarrow{*} y \longleftarrow y'$$

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Proof.

 $(3 \Rightarrow 1)$  (Cont.)

- Show  $x \downarrow y'$  by case distinction on  $y \leftrightarrow y'$ .
- $y \rightarrow y'$ : Semi-confluence implies  $z \downarrow y'$  and, hence  $x \downarrow y'$ :

$$x \xleftarrow{*} y \xrightarrow{} y'$$

$$\overset{`}{\underset{z \to ---}{\overset{'}{\ast}}} SC \xrightarrow{'} x'$$

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#### Corollaries

- If  $\rightarrow$  is confluent and  $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y$  then
  - 1.  $x \xrightarrow{*} y$  if y is in a normal form, and
  - 2. x = y if both x and y are in a normal form.
- Hence, for confluent relations, convertibility is equivalent to joinability.
- Without termination, joinability can not be decided.



#### Corollaries

- ▶ If  $\rightarrow$  is confluent, then every element has at most one normal form (C  $\implies$  UN)
- If  $\rightarrow$  is normalizing and confluent, then every element has exactly one normal form.

Hence, for confluent and normalizing reductions the notation  $x\downarrow$  is well-defined.



#### Goal-Directed Equivalence Test

Theorem 1.2 If  $\rightarrow$  is confluent and normalizing, then

- every element x has a unique normal form  $x \downarrow$ ,
- $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y \text{ iff } x \downarrow = y \downarrow.$

Normalization requires bread-first search for normal forms.



# Goal-Directed Equivalence Test

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Normalization requires bread-first search for normal forms.

Theorem 1.3

If  $\rightarrow$  is confluent and terminating, then

- every element x has a unique normal form  $x \downarrow$ ,
- $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y$  iff  $x \downarrow = y \downarrow$ .

Termination permits depth-first search for normal forms.



#### Confluence and Termination

How to show confluence and termination of an ARS?



Idea: Embedding the reduction into a well-founded order.



- Idea: Embedding the reduction into a well-founded order.
- ▶ Well-founded order (B,>): No infinite descending chain b<sub>0</sub> > b<sub>1</sub> > b<sub>2</sub> > … in B.



Examples of well-founded orders:

- $(\mathbb{N}, >)$ : The set of natural numbers with the standard ordering.
- (ℕ \ {0},>): The set of positive integers where a > b iff b | a and b ≠ a.
- ({a,b,c}\*,>): The set of finite words over a fixed alphabet, where w₁ > w₂ iff w₂ is a proper substring of w₁.



Examples of well-founded orders:

- $(\mathbb{N}, >)$ : The set of natural numbers with the standard ordering.
- $(\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}, >)$ : The set of positive integers where a > b iff  $b \mid a$ and  $b \neq a$ .
- ({a,b,c}\*,>): The set of finite words over a fixed alphabet, where w₁ > w₂ iff w₂ is a proper substring of w₁.

Examples of non-well-founded orders:

- $(\mathbb{Z}, >)$ : The set of integers with the standard ordering.
- $(\mathbb{Q}_0^+, >)$ : The set of non-negative rationals with the standard ordering.
- ({a,b,c}\*,>): The set of finite words over a fixed alphabet, where > is the lexicographic ordering, e.g. a > ab > abb > ….



#### Theorem 1.4

Let  $(A, \rightarrow)$  be an ARS. Then  $\rightarrow$  is terminating iff there exists a well-founded order (B, >) and a mapping  $\varphi : A \rightarrow B$  such that

 $a_1 \rightarrow a_2 \text{ implies } \varphi(a_1) > \varphi(a_2).$ 



#### Lemma 1.1 (Newman's Lemma)

If  $\rightarrow$  is terminating and locally confluent, then it is confluent.



Lemma 1.1 (Newman's Lemma)

If  $\rightarrow$  is terminating and locally confluent, then it is confluent.

Proof.

▶ Use well-founded induction. Let  $(A, \rightarrow)$  be an ARS. Then WFI is the inference rule:

$$\frac{\forall x \in A. (\forall y \in A. (x \xrightarrow{+} y \Rightarrow P(y)) \Rightarrow P(x))}{\forall x. P(x)}$$
(WFI)

where P is some property of elements of A.

- Reads: To prove P(x) for all  $x \in A$ , try to prove P(x) under the assumption that P(y) holds for all successors y of x.
- Holds when  $\rightarrow$  is terminating.



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Lemma 1.1 (Newman's Lemma) If  $\rightarrow$  is terminating and locally confluent, then it is confluent.

Proof. (Cont.)



Lemma 1.1 (Newman's Lemma) If → is terminating and locally confluent, then it is confluent. Proof. (Cont.)

• Let P be

$$P(x) = \forall y, z. \ y \xleftarrow{*} x \xrightarrow{*} z \Rightarrow y \downarrow z.$$

Obviously,  $\rightarrow$  is confluent if P(x) holds for all  $x \in A$ .



Lemma 1.1 (Newman's Lemma) If  $\rightarrow$  is terminating and locally confluent, then it is confluent. Proof. (Cont.)

• Let P be

$$P(x) = \forall y, z. \ y \xleftarrow{*} x \xrightarrow{*} z \Rightarrow y \downarrow z.$$

Obviously,  $\rightarrow$  is confluent if P(x) holds for all  $x \in A$ .

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• Case 1: 
$$x = y$$
 or  $y = x$ . Trivial.

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Proof. (Cont.)



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Proof. (Cont.)

• Case 2: 
$$x \to y_1 \xrightarrow{*} y$$
 and  $x \to z_1 \xrightarrow{*} z$ .



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