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THE CONVERGENCE OF FUNCTIONS TO FIXEDPOINTS OF RECURSIVE DEFINITIONS

by

ZOHAR MANNA and AD1 SHAMIR

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COMPUTER SCIENCE DEPARTMENT Stanford University



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Abstract: The classical method for constructing the least fixedpoint of a recursive definition is to generate a sequence of functions whose initial element is the totally undefined function and which converges to the desired least fixedpoint. This method, due to Kleene, cannot be generalized to allow the construction of other fixedpoints.

In this paper we present an alternate definition of convergence and a new *fixed point access* method of generating sequences of functions for a given recursive definition. The initial function of the sequence can be an arbitrary function, and the sequence will always converge to a fixed point that is "close" to the initial function. This defines a monotonic mapping from the set of partial functions onto the set of all fixed points of the given recursive definition.

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Introduction

A recursive definition of the form $F(x) \equiv \tau[F](x)$ (where F is a function variable and τ is a functional) can be considered as an implicit functional equation. In general, such a functional equation may have many possible solutions (*fixedpoints*), all of which satisfy the relations dictated by the recursive definition. Of all these fixedpoints, only one, the *least fixedpoint*, has been studied thoroughly; however, recursive definitions have other interesting solutions (e.g., the optimal fixedpoint discussed in Manna and Shamir [1976]). By considering the properties of the entire set of fixedpoints, a unified theory for the various fixedpoint approaches can be developed.

One of the most fundamental results in the theory of recursive definitions is *Kleene's Theorem* which states that (under suitable conditions) the least fixedpoint is the least upper bound (*lub*) of the sequence $\Omega, \tau[\Omega], \tau^2[\Omega], \ldots$, where the initial function Ω is the totally undefined function. This theorem gives a constructive method by which the least fixedpoint can be "accessed" from the initial function Ω .

The purpose of this paper is to generalize Kleene's Theorem so that arbitrary fixedpoints of a recursive definition **can be** accessed. This is done by altering Kleene's access method in three ways: by allowing **an** arbitrary initial function, by generating the corresponding sequence of functions in a different manner, and by introducing a modified notion of convergence.

Part I contains all the preliminary definitions and results. Our, slightly nonstandard, model of recursive definitions is presented in Section 1. In Section 2 we prove some properties of **functionals** in this model, and in Section 3 we study the elementary closure properties of three important sets of functions: *fixedpoints*, *prefixedpoints*, and *postfixedpoints*.

Our generalization of Kleene's Theorem is discussed in Part II. In Section 4, we consider the behavior of Kleenc's "direct" access method for initial functions other than Ω . In particular, we show that this generalized sequence of functions may fail to converge, but whenever it converges the limit is a fixedpoint which is "close" to the initial function.

More general types of access methods are defined in Section 5. In essence, each such method defines a sequence of transformations which should be applied to the initial function. These transformations are defined in terms of the three basic operations: *functional application, glb,* and *lub*. Among the access methods, we pay special attention to the "descending" access method. The sequences of functions generated by this method always converge, but their limit need not be a fixedpoint.

Finally, in Section 6, we show that under the composition of the "descending" and "direct"

access methods, *any* initial function converges to a "close" fixedpoint. We then prove that no single access method can enjoy this property, and thus the composition of methods is essential.

Part I: Recursive Definitions and Their Fixedpoints

1. The Model

1.1 The Basic Domains

The purpose of this subsection is to introduce the basic terminology about partially ordered sets used throughout this paper.

Definition: A binary relation ≡ over a nonempty set S is a *partial ordering* of S if ≡ is a reflexive, transitive and antisymmetric relation. The pair (S,=) is called a *partially ordered set (poset)*.

Definition: Let (S, Ξ) be a poset. For a subset A of S, an element $x \in S$ is called:

- (a) least if $x \in A$ and for all $y \in A$, $x \in y$;
- (b) greatest if $x \in A$ and for all $y \in A$, $y \in x$;
- (c) minimal if $x \in A$ and there is no $y \in A$, $y \neq x$ for which $y \equiv x$;
- (d) maximal if $x \in A$ and there is no $y \in A$, $y \neq x$ for which $x \in y$;
- (e) lower bound if for all $y \in A$, $x \in y$;
- (f) upper bound if for all $y \in A$, $y \in x$;
- (g) greatest lower bound (glb) if x is a lower bound of A, and for any other lower bound y of A, $y \in x$;
- (h) *least upper bound* $\langle lub \rangle$ if x is an upper bound of A, and for any other upper bound y of A, $x \equiv y$.
- **Definition:** A semilattice is a poset (S, \subseteq) in which any two elements in S have a *glb*. A complete semilattice is a poset (S, \subseteq) in which any **nonempty** subset of S has a *glb*.

Such structures are usually called "lower semilattice" and "complete lower semilattice". The

notions of "upper semilattice" and "complete upper semilattice" are similarly defined with the *glb* replaced by *lub* in the definition. However, we omit the word "lower" since in this paper we work exclusively with lower semilattices and no confusion is caused.

Definition: A subset A of S in a semilattice (S, \subseteq) is said to be *consistent* if it has an *lub*. An element $x \in S$ is said to be *consistent with* an element $y \in S$ if the set $\{x,y\}$ is consistent.

Semilattices may contain both consistent and inconsistent sets. The binary relation of being "consistent with" is clearly reflexive and symmetric, but not necessarily transitive. Note that if the semilattice is complete, the existence of some upper bound implies the existence of a *lub*. Any **subset** of a consistent set is also consistent in this case, but **pairwise** consistency of elements does not imply the consistency of the set as a whole.

- **Definition:** A sequence x_0, x_1, x_2, \ldots of **elements** in a poset S is **an** ascending (descending) chain if $x_i \equiv x_{i+1} \mid \langle x_{i+1} \equiv x_i \rangle$ for all *i*. The sequence is **a** chain if it is either an ascending or a descending chain.
- **Definition:** A *flat semilattice* is a semilattice in which all chains contain at most two distinct elements.

It is clear that any flat semilattice is complete; it contains a *bottom element* $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ (which satisfies $\boldsymbol{\omega} \equiv \boldsymbol{d}$ for all d), and all the other elements are unrelated. The importance of this structure in the theory of computation stems from the fact that they represent the two-state discrete type of knowledge which often occurs during a computation: A variable either contains a well-characterized value or has an undefined value (if used without proper initialization); an operation (such as a division of two numbers) may either yield a definite result or terminate as "illegal"; a procedure call may either return a proper result or loop forever. In all these cases, one possible extreme is a totally defined entity, while absolutely nothing is known about the other (besides its very "undefinedness").

All the basic domains considered in this paper are flat semilattices, denoted by D. Two domains of special importance are the Boolean domain $B = (\{\omega, true, false\}, \in)$ and the domain of natural numbers $N = (\{\omega, 0, 1, 2, ...\}, \in)$.

1.2 Higher Type Objects

In this section we inductively define the objects of all finite types over the basic domain D_i . The two basic notions used, that of a convergent sequence and that of a continuity, are defined in a nonstandard way. The classical definition of these notions is heavily oriented towards the needs of the least fixedpoint approach; we need more balanced definitions in order to construct a general fixedpoint theory of recursive definitions. In particular, we **no** longer concentrate on ascending chains and their *lub*, but consider also descending chains and their *glb*, **as well as** more general forms of convergence.

- **Definition:** A mapping $\phi : A \rightarrow B$ between posets is *monotonic* if $\phi(x) \equiv \phi(y)$ in B whenever $x \equiv y$ in A.
- **Definition:** The set of (finite) types is defined inductively as follows:
 - (i) Any basic domain D_i is a type; the objects of this type are the elements of D_i.
 - (ii) If $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_k$ are types, so is $\sigma_1 \times \ldots \times \sigma_k$; the objects of this type are the vectors (x_1, \ldots, x_k) where each x_i is an object of type σ_i .
 - (iii) If σ_1, σ_2 are types, so is $[\sigma_1 \rightarrow \sigma_2]$; the objects of this type are the monotonic mappings from objects of type σ_1 to objects of type σ_2 .

There is a natural way to extend the Ξ relation to the set of objects of any finite type, using the following inductive definition:

Definition:

- (i) If $\overline{\mathbf{x}} \equiv (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k)$ and $\overline{\mathbf{y}} \equiv (y_1, \dots, y_k)$ are objects of type $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_1 \mathbf{x} \dots \mathbf{x} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_k$, then $\overline{\mathbf{x}} \equiv \overline{\mathbf{y}}$ iff for all $1 \le i \le k, x_i \equiv y_i$ as objects of type $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i$.
- (ii) If x and y are objects of type $[\sigma_1 \rightarrow \sigma_2]$, then $x \in y$ iff for any fixed object z of type $\sigma_1, x(z) \in y(z)$ as objects of type σ_2 .

It is easy to see that the set of objects of any finite type is **a** complete semilattice under this relation.

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The notions of a convergent sequence and limit are usually identified with those of an ascending chain and *lub*, respectively. Our definition of these notions is more inclusive:

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- **Definition:** A sequence of objects $\{x_j\}$ of some finite type σ is said to *converge* to the object x_{∞} of type σ , written as $x_{\infty} \equiv lim\{x_j\}$, if:
 - (i) σ is some basic domain D_i , and all the elements in $\{x_j\}$ are equal to x_{∞} from some index j_0 onwards.
 - (ii) σ is $\sigma_1 x \dots x \sigma_k$ and for any $1 \le i \le k$, $x_{\infty}^i \equiv lim\{x_j^i\}$ (where x_j^i is the i-th component of x_i).
 - (iii) σ is $[\sigma_1 \rightarrow \sigma_2]$ and for any fixed object z of type σ_1 , $x, (z) \equiv \lim\{x_j(z)\}\$ (these are objects of type σ_2 , for which the notion of **convergence is** already defined).

Parts (*ii*) and (*iii*) in this definition are standard, and once we define our notion of convergence in the basic domains, it is carried over to all finite types. It is easy to see that any ascending or descending chain of any type is a convergent sequence (with *lub* or *glb*, respectively, as limits). The following example shows that the converse is not true:

Example 1: Let $\{f_i\}$ be a sequence of objects of type $[N \rightarrow N]$, defined by:

$$f_{i}(x) \equiv \begin{cases} i \text{ if } x \ge i \\ 0 \text{ if } x < i \\ \omega \text{ if } x \equiv \omega \end{cases}$$

No two elements in the sequence $\{f_i\}$ are related by Ξ , but the sequence **converges to the** object zero of type $[N \rightarrow N]$

$$zero(x) = \begin{cases} \omega & \text{if } x \equiv \omega \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This follows immediately from the fact that for any argument x of type N, the sequence $\{f_i(x)\}$ of elements of type N is convergent, i.e., its elements are 0 for all sufficiently high i.

Using the notion of a convergent sequence, we can define our notion of continuity:

Definition:

- (i) An object $\langle x_1, \ldots, x_k \rangle$ of type $\sigma_1 x \ldots x \sigma_k$ is continuous if all the objects x_i are continuous.
- (ii) An object x of type $[\sigma_1 \rightarrow \sigma_2]$ is continuous if for any convergent sequence $\{z_j\}$ of objects of type σ_1 , the sequence $\{x(z_j)\}$ of objects of type σ_2 is convergent and $x(\lim\{z_j\}) \equiv \lim\{x(z_j)\}$.

Since the notion of a convergent sequence is more inclusive than that of a chain, our notion of continuous objects (Le., of limit-preserving mappings) is potentially more restrictive than the standard notion of chain-continuity. The following example shows that in fact an object can preserve the *lub* and *glb* of ascending and descending chains, and still be noncontinuous in our system:

Example 2: Let f be an object of type $[N \rightarrow N]$. We say that f is *closed* if the sequence $\{x_i\}$ defined by

$$x_0 \equiv 0$$
 and $x_{i+1} \equiv f(x_i)$ (i.e., $x_i \equiv f^{(i)}(0)$)

consists of a finite number of distinct elements, none of which is $\boldsymbol{\omega}$. It is clear that a necessary and sufficient condition for a function f to be closed is the existence of numbers $0 \le i < j$ such that $f^{(i)}(0) \equiv f^{(j)}(0) \not\equiv \boldsymbol{\omega}$, in which case the sequence $\{x_i\}$ is periodic from some point onwards.

Let the object Θ of type $[[N \rightarrow N] \rightarrow B]$ be defined as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}[f] = \begin{cases} true & \text{if } f \text{ contains a finite sequence of pointers} \\ \boldsymbol{\omega} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The object Θ preserves the *lub* and *glb* of ascending and descending chains, since the finite number of values $f(x_i)$ which constitute a sequence of pointers are either constructed or destroyed at some finite point in any chain $\{f_i\}$, and thus $\Theta[lim\{f_i\}] \equiv \Theta[f_b]$ for some k.

However, Θ is not continuous in our model. Consider, for example, the following sequence of objects $\{f_i\}$:

$$f(x) \in \begin{cases} x+1 & \text{if } x < i \\ x & \text{if } x \geq i \end{cases}$$

The sequence converges to the object

$$f_{\infty}(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \mathbf{x} + 1.$$

It is easy to see that $\theta[f_{\omega}]$ is ω , while for any i, $\theta[f_i]$ is true. Thus $\theta[\lim\{f_i\}\} \neq \lim\{\theta[f_i]\}$ and θ is not continuous.

From now on, we shall be interested mainly in the lower three types of objects: values (objects of type D_i), functions (objects of type $[D_1 x \ldots x D_k \rightarrow D_0]$, and (single-argument) functionals (objects of type $[[D_1^1 x \ldots x D_k^1 \rightarrow D_0^1] \rightarrow [D_1^2 x \ldots x D_l^2 \rightarrow D_0^2]]$). Since we shall not deal with systems of recursive definitions, we do not have to consider multi-argument functionals (for which the fixed point theory obtained is somewhat different).

1.3 Term Functionals end Recursive Definitions

Among all the functionals τ , we shall be interested mainly in *term functionals*, which are syntactically expressed as compositions of constants, monotonic base functions g_i , a function variable F, and individual variables x_i . Associated with each symbol (including the variables) is a type, and the composition of these types must be legal.

Example 3: A term of the form

if $g(x_1, x_1)$ then x_2 else $g(x_2, x_3)$

can be legal only if the types of x_1, x_2 , and x_3 are the boolean semilattice B, and the type of g is $[B \times B \rightarrow B]$. This can be shown by the following argument:

Since $g(x_1, x_1)$ appears in the if part, the range of this term must **be** B. Since the two subterms x_2 and $g(x_2, x_3)$ must have identical ranges, the type of x_2 is necessarily B. Therefore the type of g is of the form $[B x ? \rightarrow BI$. In order to make the term $g(x_1, x_1)$ legal, x_1 must be of type B, implying that "?" is also B. We can thus conclude (from the term $g(x_2, x_3)$) that x_3 is also of type B.

A term functional is denoted by $\tau[F](x_1, \ldots, x_k)$, where x_1, \ldots, x_k are all the individual variables occurring in it, in some order. It can be interpreted as a functional in the following way:

Given a function f and an argument vector $\bar{a} \cdot \langle d_1, \ldots, d_k \rangle$ (of the appropriate types), the value of $\tau[f](\bar{a})$ is the object obtained by evaluating the variable-free term in which F is interpreted as f and x_i is interpreted as d_i . The function $\tau[f]$ to which f is mapped under τ is the function abstraction $\lambda \bar{x} \tau[f](\bar{x})$. The fact that τ maps monotonic functions to monotonic functions is immediate from the fact that all the base functions in τ are monotonic, and the set of monotonic functions is closed under composition.

Definition: A recursive definition is an equation of the form $F(\vec{x}) \equiv \tau[F](\vec{x})$, where τ is a term functional.

In order to **make** this equation meaningful, τ must map functions of the appropriate type $[D_1 \times \ldots \times D_k \rightarrow D_0]$ to functions of the same type.

2 Properties of Term Functionals

The fact that term function& are monotonic mappings which preserve the *lub* of ascending chains is **one** of the oldest and **most** basic results in the recursive definitions theory. In a simple form it appears in Kleene [1952], while a detailed proof of this result for a model of functionals which is quite similar to ours appears in Cadiou [1972]. In this section we prove the stronger result of continuity in our model, and discuss the behavior of term **functionals** under the *glb* and *lub* operations over arbitrary sets of functions (rather than over chains).

2.1 The Continuity of Term Functionals

Under the classical definition of continuity, any mapping which preserves the *lub* of ascending chains is necessarily monotonic. However, a mapping $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$ can preserve the limits of convergent sequences without preserving a *lub* of chains, or without being monotonic at all. This happens, for example, when $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$ maps an ascending chain $\{\boldsymbol{x}_i\}$ into a descending chain $\{\boldsymbol{\Theta}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)\}$ provided that

$$\Theta(lim\{x_i\}) \equiv \Theta(lub\{x_i\}) \equiv glb\{\Theta(x_i)\} \equiv lim\{\Theta(x_i)\}.$$

The property of continuity is thus totally independent from the property of monotonicity in our model.

We now prove the basic result:

Theorem 1: Let τ be a term functional and $\{f_i\}$ a convergent sequence. Then

 $\{\boldsymbol{\tau}[f_i]\}$ is a convergent sequence and

$$lim\{\boldsymbol{\tau}[f_i]\} \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[lim\{f_i\}].$$

Proof: The proof is by induction on the structure of τ , using the fact that term functionals contain finitely many basic constructs. Note that the monotonicity of **these** constructs **is not** used at all.

If $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is **a** variable \boldsymbol{x}_i or constant c, the proof is trivial.

If $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is of the form $g(\boldsymbol{\tau}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{\tau}_n)$, we may apply the induction hypothesis that all the subterms $\boldsymbol{\tau}_i$ are continuous. Let $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ be fixed. Then for any $1 \le k \le n$, there is an index j_k such that

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_{k}[f_{j}](\overline{x}) \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}_{k}[lim\{f_{i}\}](\overline{x}) \quad \text{for all } j \geq j_{k}.$$

Let j_0 be $max(j_1, \ldots, j_n)$. Then for all $j \ge j_0$:

$$\tau[f_j](\overline{x}) \equiv g(\tau_1[f_j](\overline{x}), ..., \tau_n[f_j](\overline{x}))$$
$$\equiv g(\tau_1[lim\{f_i\}(\overline{x}), ..., \tau_n[lim\{f_i\}](\overline{x}))$$
$$\equiv \tau[lim\{f_i\}](\overline{x}).$$

Finally, if $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is of the form $F(\boldsymbol{\tau}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{\tau}_n)$, we define j_0 in exactly the same way as before. We denote the vector $(\boldsymbol{\tau}_1[lim\{f_i\}]\langle \bar{x} \rangle, \ldots, \boldsymbol{\tau}_n[lim\{f_i\}]\langle \bar{x} \rangle)$ by \bar{y} , and thus by the definition of I,

 $\boldsymbol{\tau}[lim\{f_i\}](\overline{x}) \equiv \langle lim\{f_i\}\rangle\langle \overline{y}\rangle.$

Since $\{f_i\}$ is a convergent sequence, there is some f_0 such that

 $f_j(\overline{y}) \equiv \langle lim\{f_i\}\rangle \langle \overline{y}\rangle \ \text{for all} \ j \geq j_0' \ .$

Let f'_0 be $max(j_0, f'_0)$. Then we have, for all $j \ge f'_0'$:

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\tau}[f_j](\overline{x}) &\equiv f_j(\boldsymbol{\tau}_1[f_j](\overline{x}), ..., \boldsymbol{\tau}_n[f_j](\overline{x})) \\ &\equiv f_j(\boldsymbol{\tau}_1[lim\{f_i\}](\overline{x}), ..., \boldsymbol{\tau}_n[lim\{f_i\}](\overline{x})) \\ &\equiv f_j(\overline{y}) \equiv (lim\{f_i\})(\overline{y}) \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[lim\{f_i\}](\overline{x}). \end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.

Some of the consequences of Theorem 1 are:

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Corollary: Let **7** be a term functional. Then:

- (f) If $\{f_i\}$ is an ascending chain, then $\{\tau[f_i]\}$ is an ascending chain and $lub\{\tau[f_i]\} \equiv \tau[lub\{f_i\}]$.
- (11) If $\{f_i\}$ is a descending chain, then $\{\tau[f_i]\}$ is a descending chain and $glb\{\tau[f_i]\} = \tau[glb\{f_i\}]$.

Proof:

(i) Any ascending chain $\{f_i\}$ is a convergent sequence, and $lub\{f_i\} \equiv lim\{f_i\}$. Since term functionals are monotonic, $\{\tau[f_i]\}$ is also an ascending chain and $lub\{\tau[f_i]\} \equiv lim\{\tau[f_i]\}$. By Theorem 1,

$$lub\{\tau[f_i]\} \equiv lim\{\tau[f_i]\} \equiv \tau[lim\{f_i\}] \equiv \tau[lub\{f_i\}].$$

(ii) The proof is similar.

Q.E.D.

2.2 Behavior Under the glb and lub Operations

Lemma 1: For any monotonic functional **7**:

(i) If $\{f_{\alpha}\}$ is a nonempty set of functions, then

 $\boldsymbol{\tau}[glb\{f_{\alpha}\}] \equiv glb\{\boldsymbol{\tau}[f_{\alpha}]\}.$

(ii) If $\{f_{\alpha}\}$ is a consistent set of functions, ehen so is $\{\tau[f_{\alpha}]\}$, and

 $lub\{\tau[f_{\alpha}]\} \equiv \tau[lub\{f_{\alpha}\}].$

Proof:

(*i*) Since τ is monotonic and $glb{f_{\alpha}} \equiv f_{\alpha}$ for all $a, \tau[glb{f_{\alpha}}] \equiv \tau[f_{\alpha}]$ for all α . Thus $\tau[glb{f_{\alpha}}]$ is a lower bound of the set $\{\tau[f_{\alpha}]\}$, and therefore $\tau[glb{f_{\alpha}}] \equiv glb{\tau[f_{\alpha}]}$.

(ii) Since $\{f_{\alpha}\}$ is consistent, its *lub* exists. By the same procedure **as** above, $\tau[lub\{f_{\alpha}\}]$ can be shown to be an upper bound of $\{\tau[f_{\alpha}]\}$. In our model this implies the existence of $lub\{\tau[f_{\alpha}]\}$, and we have $lub\{\tau[f_{\alpha}]\} \equiv \tau[lub\{f_{\alpha}\}]$. Q.E.D.

According to corollary (ii) of Theorem 1, the inequality $\tau[glb\{f_{\alpha}\}] \equiv glb\{\tau[f_{\alpha}]\}$ becomes an equality if τ is a term functional and $\{f_{\alpha}\}$ is a descending chain. This result can be strengthened by showing that for a wide subclass of term functionals in our model, the words "a descending chain" can be replaced by "a consistent set". Mappings which preserve the glb of

consistent sets of arguments are defined and studied in Berry [1976] in connection with the bottom-up computations of least fixedpoints.

The dual property of preserving the *lub* of arbitrary consistent sets of functions holds only for a very restricted subclass of term functionals (mainly those in which the term $\tau[F](x)$ can be simplified, for any given x_0 , to a term with a single occurrence of F). The problem in more realistic cases is demonstrated by the following example:

Example 4: Let **7** be the following functional over the natural numbers:

$$\tau$$
[F](x): F(x+1)·F(x+2)

(where $\mathbf{0} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega} \equiv \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{0} \equiv \boldsymbol{\omega}$). Define the functions

$$f_1(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \mathbf{x} \text{ is even} \\ \boldsymbol{\omega} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \qquad f_2(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \mathbf{x} \text{ is odd} \\ \boldsymbol{\omega} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then f_1 and f_2 are consistent, but

$$lub\{\tau[f_1],\tau[f_2]\} \equiv lub\{\Omega,\Omega\} \equiv \Omega \neq zero \equiv \tau[zero] \equiv \tau[lub\{f_1,f_2\}].$$

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3. Properties of Fixedpoints, Prefixedpoints and Postfixedpoints

A recursive definition $F(x) \equiv \tau[f](x)$ can be considered as an implicit functional equation in F. With each such recursive definition, we associate three important sets of functions: fixedpoints, prefixedpoints, and postfixedpoints.

3.1 Closure Properties

Definition:

- (i) A partial function f is a fixed point of a functional τ , or of a recursive definition $F(\bar{x}) \equiv \tau[F](\bar{x})$, if $f \equiv \tau[f]$. The set of all fixed points of τ is denoted by $FXP(\tau)$.
- (ii) A partial function f is a *prefixed point* of a functional τ , or of a recursive definition $F(\bar{x}) \equiv \tau[F](\bar{x})$, if $f \equiv \tau[f]$. The set of **all** prefixed points of τ is denoted by PRE(τ).
- (iii) A partial function f is a *postfixedpoint* of a functional τ , or of a recursive definition $F(\vec{x}) \equiv \tau[F](\vec{x})$, if $\tau[f] \equiv f$. The set of all postfixedpoints of τ is denoted by POST(τ).

Example 6: Consider the following recursive definition, in which F is of type $[N \times N \rightarrow NJ]$:

 $F(x,y) \equiv \text{if } x = 0 \text{ then } y \text{ else } F(F(x,y-1),F(x-1,y)).$

The following three (quite different) functions are all fixedpoints of this recursive definition, as **can be shown by** direct substitution:

(i) $f_1(x,y) \equiv \text{if } x = 0 \text{ then y else } \omega;$ (ii) $f_2(x,y) \equiv \text{if } x \ge 0 \text{ then y else } \omega;$ (iii) $f_3(x,y) \equiv max(x,y).$

The recursive definition has infinitely many more fixedpoints. A whole family of such fixedpoints is

$$(iv) f_a(x,y) \equiv \text{if } x = 0 \text{ then } y \text{ else } a(x)$$

where a(x) is any function over the natural numbers satisfying

$$a(x) \neq 0$$
 and $a(a(x)) = a(x)$ for all $x > 0$.

Examples of functions satisfying this conditions are the identity function, any nonzero constant function, or the function which assigns to any $n \ge 2$ is greatest prime factor (with a(1) = 1).

The totally undefined function Ω is clearly a prefixed point of **any** recursive definition; in **our** case it is **an** example of a prefixed point which is not a fixed point.

An infinite class of postfixedpoints which are not fixedpoints of this recursive definition is

$$g_i(x, y) = \begin{cases} y & \text{if } 0 \le x \le i \\ \omega & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for all $i \ge 1$.

By definition, it is clear that a partial function f is a fixed point of a functional 7 if and only if it is **both a** prefixed point and a postfixed point of 7 (that is, $FXP(\tau) = PRE(\tau) n POST(\tau)$).

In this section we summarize the closure properties of the sets $FXP(\tau)$, PRE(7) and POST(7) under the operations *lub*, *glb* and *lim*. These properties belong to the "folklore" of known but seldom stated facts about recursive definitions.

Lemma 2: For any monotonic functional $\boldsymbol{\tau}$:

(i) 7 maps $FXP(\tau)$, $PRE(\tau)$ and $POST(\tau)$ into themselves.

(ii) $PRE(\tau)$ is closed under the *lub* operation over consistent sets.

(iii) $POST(\tau)$ is closed under the *glb* operation over **nonempty** sets.

Proof:

(i) Immediate from the monotonicity of τ .

(ii) Let $\{f_{\alpha}\}$ be a consistent subset of $PRE(\tau)$, Then for each α , $f_{\alpha} \equiv \tau[f_{\alpha}]$. Since $lub\{f_{\alpha}\}$ exists, $f_{\alpha} \equiv lub\{f_{\alpha}\}$, and τ is monotonic, we have

$$f_{\alpha} \equiv \tau[f_{\alpha}] \equiv \tau[lub\{f_{\alpha}\}].$$

Thus $\tau[lub\{f_{\alpha}\}]$ is an upper bound of $\{f_{\alpha}\}$, and therefore

$$lub\{f_{\alpha}\} \subseteq \tau[lub\{f_{\alpha}\}].$$

In other words, $lub{f_{\alpha}}$ is also a prefixed point.

(iii) Similar.

It is not hard to show by appropriate counterexamples that $PRE(\tau)$ need not be closed under glb, $POST(\tau)$ need not be closed under lub, and $FXP(\tau)$ need not be closed under either operation.

Let us turn now to consider yet another operation -- the lim of convergent sequences.

Lemma 3: For any term functional τ , FXP(τ), PRE(τ) and POST(τ) are all closed under the *lim* operation.

Proof:

(i) Let $\{f_i\}$ be a convergent sequence of fixed points of τ . By Theorem 1 we have:

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}[lim\{f_i\}] \equiv lim\{\boldsymbol{\tau}[f_i]\} \equiv lim\{f_i\},\$$

and thus $\mathit{lim}\{f_i\}$ is also a fixed point of ${\bf 7}$.

(ii) Let $\{f_i\}$ be a convergent sequence of prefixed points of τ . Then for any i, $f_i \in \tau[f_i]$. By the definition of the *lim* operation we have

$$lim\{f_i\} \equiv lim\{\tau[f_i]\},\$$

By Theorem 1, $lim\{\tau[f_i]\}$ exists and $lim\{\tau[f_i]\} \equiv \tau[lim\{f_i\}]$. Thus

$$lim\{f_i\} \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[lim\{f_i\}],$$

or equivalently $lim\{f_i\}$ is a prefixed point of τ .

(iii) Similar to (ii).

An important special case is:

Q.E.D.

Q.E.D

Corollary: For a term functional τ , FXP (τ) , PRE (τ) and POST (τ) are all closed under the *lub* and *glb* of ascending and descending chains.

3.2 Maximal and Minimal Fixedpoints

We turn now to study **those** fixedpoints located at the extreme ends of $FXP(\tau)$ -- the maximal and the minimal fixedpoints of τ .

As usual, a maximal fixed point of τ is defined to be a fixed point which is not less defined than any other fixed point of τ . The set of all maximal fixed points is denoted by MAX(τ).

A basic property of $MAX(\tau)$ is:

Theorem 2: For a monotonic functional τ , if $f \in PRE(\tau)$ then $f \equiv g$ for some $g \in MAX(\tau)$.

Proof: This is quite a straightforward application of Zorn's Lemma which states that if (S, \ll) is a nonempty partially ordered set in which any totally ordered subset has an upper bound, then S contains a maximal element (see e.g. Dugundji [1966]).

For our purposes, we take the set

 $S = \{ h \in PRE(\tau) \mid f \equiv h \}$

with the standard partial ordering \subseteq . This set is not empty since $f \in S$. If S_1 is a totally ordered subset of S, it is in particular consistent, and thus $lubS_1$ exists. By Lemma 2(*ii*) $lubS_1$ is a prefixed point of τ , and it clearly satisfies $f \subseteq lubS_1$. Thus $lubS_1 \in S$ and therefore the subset S_1 has an upper bound in S.

We may now apply Zorn's Lemma, which guarantees the existence of a maximal element $g \in S$. By definition, $f \equiv g$ and $g \equiv \tau[g]$. To show that g is a fixed point of τ , we note that by Lemma 2(i), $\tau[g]$ is also a prefixed point of τ in S, and thus the assumption that $g = \tau[g]$ contradicts the maximality of g in S. Q.E.D.

Since for any functional τ , PRE(τ) is nonempty ($\Omega \in PRE(\tau)$), we have:

Corollary: For any monotonic functional τ , MAX(τ) is not empty.

This corollary guarantees the existence of at least one maximal fixedpoint, but it need not be



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unique. As a matter of fact, monotonic functionals may have any number of maximal fixedpoints in our semilattice model.

Let us consider now the minimal fixedpoints of a monotonic functional τ . The main result (the *Least Fixedpoint Theorem*) states that a monotonic functional ? has a least (and thus a unique minimal) fixedpoint, which we denote by $lfxp(\tau)$. This is a classical theorem, and it has two well-known types of proofs:

- (i) (A nonconstructive proof, due to Tarski [1955]): In a model in which τ is defined over a complete lattice (rather than a complete semilattice) of elements, one can take the *glb* of any set of elements. The element *glb* POST(?) is then shown to be a fixedpoint of ?, and it is clearly below all the other fixedpoints of τ (which are all contained in POST(?)).
- (ii) (A constructive proof, due to Hitchcock and Park [1972], Cadiou [1972]): This is a rather complicated proof, which constructs a transfinite ascending chain of approximations $\tau^{(\lambda)}[\Omega]$. This chain is shown (by transfinite induction) to converge to the least fixedpoint of τ .

The first approach cannot be directly applied when a model of complete semilattices is considered. If the function glb POST(r) exists, it is the least fixedpoint of τ in this **case as** well. However, this function need not exist if POST(?) is empty, since the glb operation is defined **only** over the **nonempty** subsets of **the** complete semilattice. We thus **have** to show that POST(?) is not empty as a first stage in a Tarski-like proof. Fortunately, the existence theorem of maximal fixedpoints (Theorem 2) implies that FXP(?) (and thus also POST(?)) is not empty. We thus get the following indirect proof, in which maximal fixedpoints are used in order to show the existence of a least fixedpoint.

Theorem 3 (*The Least Fixed point Theorem*): If τ is a monotonic functional (over a complete semilattice) then $FXP(\tau)$ contains a least element.

Proof: By the corollary of Theorem 2, POST(r) is not empty, and thus $f \equiv glb$ POST(?) exists. By Lemma 2(iii), it is a postfixed point of τ , and thus $\tau[f] \equiv f$. The function $\tau[f]$ is also a postfixed point of τ , and thus $f \equiv glb$ POST(τ) $\equiv \tau[f]$ as well. Consequently $\mathbf{f} \equiv \tau[f]$ and therefore $f \in \text{FXP}(?)$. It is the least fixed point of τ since $f \equiv glb$ POST(?) $\equiv glb$ FXP(?).

Theorem 3 can be used in order to find the relationships between prefixed points, postfixed points and fixed points in general. The relative form of Theorem 3 is:

Theorem 4: For a monotonic functional (over a complete semilattice):

- (i) If **f** is a prefixed point of τ , then there exists a least fixed point in the set of functions $S_f = \{g \mid f \in g\}$.
- (ii) If f is a pottfixed point of τ , then there exists a greatest fixed point in the set of functions $S f = \{g \mid g \in f\}$.

Proof:

(i) Since $\mathbf{f} \in \text{PRE}(\tau)$, Theorem 2 guarantees that S_f contains at least one fixed point. The proof of Theorem 3 can then be applied without change (over the complete semilattice S_f).

(ii) Using the inverse relation, $h_1 \le h_2$ if $h_2 \ge h_1$, it can be shown that (Sf, \le) is a complete lattice. Theorem 3 now shows that Sf contains a least fixedpoint with respect to \le ; this fixedpoint is clearly greatest with respect to \ge . Q.E.D.

and pro-

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Part II: The Convergence of Functions to Fixedpoints

In Part I we defined our model of recursive definitions and studied its basic properties. Using **these** results, we **now** analyze the methods by which fixedpoints of recursive definitions **can be** "accessed" from other partial functions. In essence, each "access method" uses a given initial function f_0 as a starting point, and constructs a sequence of functions which **converges to a** fixedpoint of τ . We want the fixedpoint obtained to be "closest" to the initial function. Since the ordering Ξ is only partial, one can directly compare in this sense only fixedpoints related by Ξ . The most natural definition of this notion is therefore:

- **Definition:** A fixed point g of τ is said to be close to a partial function f_0 if for every fixed point h of τ :
 - (i) if $h \equiv f_0$ then $h \equiv g$, and
 - (ii) if $f_0 \subseteq h$ then $g \subseteq h$.

In other words, the fixedpoint g is close to f_0 if it is above any fixedpoint below f_0 , and below any fixedpoint above f_0 . A priori, it is not clear that such a close fixedpoint must exist for any partial function f_0 -- this will be one of the results proved in this part.

All the functionals considered in this part are term functionals.

4. The Direct Access Method

Kleene's version of the Least Fixedpoint Theorem for continuous functionals shows that by repeated application of the functional τ to the initial function Ω , one can construct a sequence $\{\tau^{(i)}[\Omega]\}$ whose limit is the least fixedpoint of τ . This method (which we call the *direct access method*) can be applied to an arbitrary initial function f_0 , but in general the sequence obtained need not converge to a limit. The following example demonstrates such a case:

Example 6: Consider the recursive definition over the natural numbers:

 $F(x) \equiv if x \ge 10$ then F(x-10) else F(x+1)

The collection of equalities implied by this recursive definition has a cyclic component:

$$F(O) \equiv F(1) \equiv F(2) \equiv \ldots \equiv F(9) \equiv F(10) \equiv F(0)$$

and the additional equalities:

 $F(11) \equiv F(1), F(12) \equiv F(2), \ldots$

It is clear that any constant function is a fixedpoint of the recursive definition and there are no other fixedpoints; the least fixedpoint is Ω , and any constant total function is a maximal fixedpoint.

Consider **now** the two initial functions:

$$f_1(x) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \equiv 0 \\ \omega & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \qquad f_2(x) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \le x \le 10, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The sequence $\{\tau^{(i)}[f_1]\}$ does not converge, since the value 0 is rotated in the cycle x=0,1,...,10under the repeated application of τ . On the other hand, the sequence $\{\tau^{(i)}[f_2]\}$ converges to the fixedpoint zero of τ , since all the nonzero values of f_2 are eventually replaced by 0. Note that this sequence is neither an ascending chain nor a descending chain (in fact, no two distinct hlements are ever consistent), but it converges according to the generalized notion of *lim*.

Definition: The function f_0 converges to g (under a functional τ) if $\{\tau^{(i)}[f_0]\}$ is a convergent sequence and g is its limit.

We now state and prove the basic result:

Theorem 5: If f_0 converges to g under τ , then g is a fixed point which is close to f_0 .

Proof: To show that g is a fixed point of τ , we use the (generalized) continuity of τ :

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}[g] \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[lim\{\boldsymbol{\tau}^{(i)}[f_0]\}] \equiv lim\{\boldsymbol{\tau}[\boldsymbol{\tau}^{(i)}[f_0]]\} \equiv lim\{\boldsymbol{\tau}^{(i+1)}[f_0]\} \equiv g.$$

To show that g is close to f_0 , consider an arbitrary fixed point h of I:

(i) If $h \equiv f_0$ then by the monotonicity of $\tau, \tau^{(i)}[h] \equiv \tau^{(i)}[f_0]$ for all i, and thus since h is a fixed point

$$h \equiv lim\{\tau^{(i)}[h]\} \equiv lim\{\tau^{(i)}[f_0]\} = g.$$

(ii) If $f_0 \in h$ then similarly:

$$g \equiv \lim \{ \tau^{(i)}[f_0] \} \in \lim \{ \tau^{(i)}[h] \} \equiv h$$
 Q.E.D.

We can describe the result of Theorem 5 as follows: if g_1 and g_2 are any two fixedpoints of τ such that $g_1 \equiv f_0 \equiv g_2$, and if $\{\tau^{(i)}[f_0]\}$ converges, then it converges to a fixedpoint g which is also in the "box" $g_1 \equiv g \equiv g_2$. Note that, unless $f_0 \in PRE(\tau) \cup POST(r)$, an initial function f_0 need not be related by \equiv to the fixedpoint g to which it leads. Furthermore, there need not be a greatest element among the fixedpoints which are less defined than f_0 or a least element among the fixedpoints which are more defined than f_0 .

Given an arbitrary initial function f_0 , it may be hard to determine in advance whether the sequence $\{\tau^{(i)}[f_0]\}$ converges or not. One important case in which the convergence is guaranteed is when f_0 is either a prefixed point or a postfixed point of τ . In these cases the generated sequence is a chain, and thus has a lint.

We now proceed to characterize two other cases in which the sequence must converge.

Lemma 4: If $f_1 \equiv f_0 \equiv f_2$ where f_1 and f_2 both converge to the fixed point g of τ , then f_0 also converges to g.

Proof: By the monotonicity of τ , $\tau^{(i)}[f_1] \equiv \tau^{(i)}[f_0] \equiv \tau^{(i)}[f_2]$ for any *i*. The definition of convergence implies that for each \bar{x} there is a natural number j_0 such that

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}^{(j)}[f_1](\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}) \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}^{(j)}[f_2](\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}) \equiv \boldsymbol{g}(\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}) \quad \text{for all } j \geq j_0\,,$$

and therefore

 $\boldsymbol{\tau}^{(j)}[f_0](\overline{x}) \equiv g(\overline{x}) \quad \text{for all } j \geq j_0 \,.$

In other words, the sequence $\{\tau^{(i)}[f_0]\}$ converges to g. Q.E.D.

One immediate corollary of this "sandwich" property is:

Corollary: If $f_0 \equiv lfxp(\tau)$, then $lim\{\tau^{(i)}[f_0]\} \equiv lfxp(\tau)$.

The least fixedpoint of τ thus has the interesting property that any initial function $f_0 \equiv lfxp(\tau)$ converges to it under the repeated application of τ (but not necessarily in the form of an ascending chain). Consequently, in order to access other fixedpoints of τ , one must start with initial functions which are already sufficiently defined.

A slightly different type of result is:

Lemma 5: If $f_1 \equiv f_2$ and $g \equiv \lim \{\tau^{(i)}[f_1]\}$ is a total fixed point of τ , then f_2 also converges to g.

Proof: By the monotonicity of τ , $\tau^{(i)}[f_1] \equiv \tau^{(i)}[f_2]$ for all i. Since the sequence $\{\tau^{(i)}[f_1]\}$ converges to g, for any \bar{x} there is a j_0 such that:

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}^{(j)}[f_1](\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}) \equiv \boldsymbol{g}(\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}) \quad \text{for all } j \ge j_0,$$

or, in other words:

$$g(\overline{x}) \equiv \tau^{(j)}[f_2](\overline{x})$$
 for all $j \ge j_0$

Since g is a total function, we obtain:

$$g(\overline{x}) \equiv \tau^{(j)}[f_2](\overline{x}) \quad \text{for all } j \ge j_0,$$

and thus $lim\{\tau^{(i)}[f_2]\} = g$.

Q.E.D.

Note that the requirement that g is total is essential; it may well happen that a function f_1 converges to a nontotal maximal fixed point g, while a function f_2 , which is more defined than f_1 , does not converge at all.

Taking $f_1 \equiv \Omega$, we obtain an important special case of Lemma 5:

Corollary: If $lfxp(\tau)$ is a total function, then any initial function f_0 converges to $lfxp(\tau)$.

If a recursive definition has only one fixedpoint, then it is clear that the *lim* of any convergent sequence $\{\tau^{(i)}[f_0]\}$ is $lfxp(\tau)$. However, if the unique fixedpoint $lfxp(\tau)$ is not total, there **may** be initial functions f_0 for which the sequence $\{\tau^{(i)}[f_0]\}$ does **not** converge at **all**.

5. General Access Methods

In the previous section we have considered one of the simplest ways by which we can **access** the fixedpoints of τ -- the repeated application of τ to an initial function f_0 . This method may fail to converge when applied to certain initial functions f_0 . In this section we investigate some more general access methods, which are later used in order to access fixedpoints of τ from arbitrary initial functions.

5.1 Access Methods

In order to formally introduce the genera! notion of an access method, we first define:

Definition: The set of formula& is defined inductively as follows:

- (i) The symbol F is a formula (F is said to be a function variable).
- (ii) If **\vec{v}** is a formula, then **\tau** [\vec{v}] is a formula (**\tau** is said to be a functional variable).
- (iii) If $\mathfrak{F}_1, \mathfrak{F}_2$ are formulae, then $glb\{\mathfrak{F}_1, \mathfrak{F}_2\}$ and $lub\{\mathfrak{F}_1, \mathfrak{F}_2\}$ are formulae.

Given a formula \mathfrak{F} and a functional τ , we denote by \mathfrak{F}^{τ} the formula in which the functional variable 7 is interpreted as τ . \mathfrak{F}^{τ} can be considered as a functional *(over the same domain of functions as 7)* in the following way: Given any function $f, \mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f]$ is the function obtained by evaluating the formula \mathfrak{F} in which τ is interpreted as τ and F is interpreted as f. Unlike the functionals considered so far, \mathfrak{F}^{τ} may fail when applied to certain functions f, in case the *lub* of inconsistent functions is to be taken during the evaluation process; in this case, $\mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f]$ is not defined.

Example 7: Consider the formula:

 $glb{T[lub{F,T[F]}],F},$

and the functional

 $\boldsymbol{\tau}[\mathbf{F}](\mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}+1)$

over the natural numbers.

The functional \mathfrak{F}^{τ} fails for the identity function $f(x) \equiv x$, since f and $\tau[f]$ are inconsistent, and thus their *lub* is not defined. However, \mathfrak{F}^{τ} does not fail for the function:

$$f(x) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \\ \boldsymbol{\omega} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and the function $\mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f]$ is Ω .

Given a functional τ and initial function f, we may consider a function $\mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f]$ as a modification of f. A sequence of formulae $\{\mathfrak{F}_i\}$ can thus be used in order to construct a sequence of successively modified functions $\{\mathfrak{F}_i^{\tau}[f]\}$. If the sequence $\{\mathfrak{F}_i\}$ is properly **chosen**, this sequence of functions may converge to a fixed point of τ . We thus define:

Definition: An access method \mathfrak{A} is a sequence of formulae $\{\mathfrak{F}_i\}$. For a given functional τ , a partial function f is said to converge to g under \mathfrak{A} if all the functions $\mathfrak{F}_i[f]$ exist, and $\lim\{\mathfrak{F}_i[f]\}\equiv g$. If some of the functions $\mathfrak{F}_i[f]$ do not exist, the method is said to fail for τ and f.

In the case the formulae \mathfrak{F}_i become successively more complicated, it is convenient to use a slightly modified notation for formulae. We use a sequence of function variables $\mathbf{F}_0, \mathbf{F}_1, \ldots$ where **each** \mathbf{F}_i represents the function $\mathfrak{F}_i[f]$, given τ and f. Each function variable \mathbf{F}_i is defined by a formula in which all the function variables $\mathbf{F}_0, \mathbf{F}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{F}_{i-1}$, in addition to F, may appear. This representation is equivalent to the original one, since **one** can always expand the formulae in the new representation to formulae in which **only** the function variable F may appear.

Some of the simplest access methods, in the new representation, are:

(A)
$$F_0 \equiv F$$

 $F_i \equiv T [F_{i-1}] \text{ for } i \ge 1.$
(B) $F_0 \equiv F$
 $F_i = glb\{F_{i-1}, 7^{(i)}[F]\} \text{ for } i \ge 1.$
(C) $F_0 \equiv F$
 $F_i \equiv glb\{F_{i-1}, T [F_{i-1}]\} \text{ for } i \ge 1.$
(D) $F_0 \equiv F$
 $F_i \equiv glb\{F, T [F_{i-1}]\} \text{ for } i \ge 1.$
(E) $F_0 \equiv F$
 $F_i \equiv T [glb\{F, F_{i-1}\}] \text{ for } i \ge 1.$

Note that methods C-E represent all the nontrivial ways by which F_i can be defined in terms of F_{i-1} and F, using one occurrence of T and one occurrence of *glb*. Four other simple access methods (denoted by B'-E') can be obtained from methods B-E by replacing each *glb* by *lub*.

Method A is the direct access method discussed in Section 4, since the expanded form of any F_i is 7 ⁽ⁱ⁾[F]. Method B is closely related to this method, since each F_i is simply the *glb* of a finite number of powers:

$$F_i \equiv glb\{F, T[F], T^{(2)}[F], \dots, T^{(i)}[F]\}$$

For any functional τ and initial function f, the sequence of functions $\{f_i\}$ generated by method B is a descending chain, since the glb in the formula for \mathbf{F}_{i+1} contains one more term than the glb in the formula for \mathbf{F}_i . The convergence of any initial function f is thus guaranteed, but unlike the case of the direct access method, the limit function need not be **a** fixedpoint of τ . This is demonstrated in the following example:

Example 8: Let τ be the following functional over the natural numbers:

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}[\mathbf{F}](\mathbf{x}) : if \mathbf{x} = 0 \text{ then } \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) + 1 \text{ else } 0 \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}-1).$$

Let \boldsymbol{f} be the initial function:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} v0 & \text{if } x \equiv 0, 1\\ \boldsymbol{\omega} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

For any $i \ge 0$,

$$i \quad \text{if } \mathbf{x} \equiv 0$$
$$\boldsymbol{\tau}^{(i)}[f](\mathbf{x}) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 1 \le \mathbf{x} \le i+1 \\ \boldsymbol{\omega} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and thus the *glb* of all these functions is:

$$glb\{\tau^{(i)}[f]\}(x) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \equiv 1\\ \omega & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

This function is not a fixed point of τ (as a matter of fact, it is not even a prefixed point or a postfixed point of τ).

5.2 The Descending Access Method

Among the access methods listed above, we shall be interested mainly in **method C**, **called** *the descending access method*, and in method C', called the *ascending access method*. In this section **we study** the behavior of the first method.

For any initial function f, the descending access method constructs a descending chain of functions $\{f_i\}$, since each f_i is the glb of f_{i-1} with some other function. The idea behind the method is to "smooth up" the initial function f by repeatedly taking the common part f_i of the functions f_{i-1} and $\tau[f_{i-1}]$; hopefully such a process may result in a function whose values are preserved under the application of τ , i.e. a fixed point of τ .

If the initial function f is a prefixed point or a postfixed point of τ , then the sequence $\{f_i\}$ generated by method C has an especially simple form:

Lemma 6: Let $\{f_i\}$ be the sequence generated by the descending access method C for τ and f. Then:

(*i*) If $f \in PRE(\tau)$ then for all i, $f_i \equiv f$.

(ii) If
$$f \in \text{POST}(\tau)$$
 then for all $i, f_i \equiv \tau^{(i)}[f]$.

Proof:

(i) The proof is by induction on i. For i = 0, $f_0 = f$ by definition. Suppose that for some *i*, $f_i = f$. Then:

$$f_{i+1} \equiv glb\{f_i, \boldsymbol{\tau}[f_i]\} \equiv glb\{f, \boldsymbol{\tau}[f]\} \equiv f,$$

since $f \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[f]$.

(ii) This part is again proved by induction. For i = 0, $f_0 \equiv f$ by definition. If for some *i*, $f_i \equiv \tau^{(i)}[f]$, then f_i is also a postfixed point of τ by Lemma 2(i), and thus:

$$f_{i+1} \equiv glb\{f_i, \boldsymbol{\tau}[f_i]\} \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[f_i] \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[\boldsymbol{\tau}^{(i)}[f]] \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}^{(i+1)}[f].$$
 Q.E.D.

Part (i) of Lemma 6 shows that an initial function f may converge under method C to a limit function which is **not a** fixedpoint of τ . However, we **have**:

Theorem 6: For any functional τ and initial function f, the sequence $\{f_i\}$ generated by the descending access method C converges to a prefixed point of τ . This limit function is the greatest among the prefixed points of τ that are below f.

Proof: The fact that the descending chain $\{f_i\}$ converges to some limit function g, which is below f, is clear. We now show that g is a prefixed point of τ , *i.e.* $g \in \tau[g]$. By definition

$$g \equiv lim\{f_i\} \equiv lim\{glb\{f_{i-1}, \tau[f_{i-1}]\}\}.$$

Since both $\{f_{i-1}\}$ and $\{\boldsymbol{\tau}[f_{i-1}]\}$ are convergent sequences

$$g \equiv glb\{lim\{f_{i-1}\}, lim\{\tau[f_{i-1}]\}\},\$$

and by the continuity of $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ and the definition of g

$$g \equiv glb\{lim\{f_{i-1}\}, \tau[lim\{f_{i-1}\}]\} \equiv glb\{g, \tau[g]\}.$$

The fact that $g \equiv \tau[g]$ follows now from the equality $g \equiv glb\{g, \tau[g]\}$.



Finally, we show that if h is any prefixed point of τ such that $h \in f$, then $A \in g$. It suffices to show that $h \in f_i$ for all *i*. We prove this by induction on *i*.

If i = 0, then $f_0 \equiv f$ and thus $h \equiv f_0$ by assumption. If f_i satisfies $h \equiv f_i$ for some i, then:

$$h \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[h] \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[f_i] ,$$

and thus h is below both f_i and $\tau[f_i]$, implying that

$$h \equiv glb\{f_i, \boldsymbol{\tau}[f_i]\} \equiv f_{i+1} .$$

Q.E.D.

The existence of a greatest prefixed point below an arbitrary partial function \mathbf{f} can be independently proved by taking the *lub* of the consistent set of all the prefixed points of $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ below \boldsymbol{f} , and using the fact that this *lub* is itself a prefixed point of $\boldsymbol{\tau}$. Theorem 6 shows that the descending access method always leads to this greatest prefixed point. Note that the set of *fixed points* below f need not have a greatest element (in fact, it may even be empty if $\mathbf{f} = lf_{\mathbf{x}}p(\boldsymbol{\tau})$).

-We can now show that the descending access method is the least access method in the following sense:

Theorem 7: For any functional τ , if an initial function f converges to g_1 under the descending access method C and to g_2 under some other access method \mathfrak{A} , then $g_1 \equiv g_2$.

Proof: We first prove that for any formula \mathfrak{F} for which $\mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f]$ exists, $g_1 \equiv \mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f]$. The proof is by induction on the structure of the formula \mathfrak{F} .

(i) If \mathfrak{F} is F, then clearly $g_1 \in f \in \mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f]$.

(ii) If \mathfrak{F} is of the form $\tau[\mathfrak{F}_1]$, then by the induction hypothesis $g_1 \in \mathfrak{F}_1 \tau[f]$. Since by Theorem 6, g_1 is a prefixed point of τ , we have:

$$g_1 \in \tau[g_1] \in \tau[\mathfrak{V}][f]] \equiv \mathfrak{V}^\tau[f].$$

(iii) if \mathfrak{F} is of the form $glb{\mathfrak{F}_1,\mathfrak{F}_2}$ then $g_1 \in \mathfrak{F}_1[f]$ and $g_1 \in \mathfrak{F}_2[f]$ by the induction hypothesis, and thus

$$g_1 \equiv glb\{\mathfrak{F}_1[f], \mathfrak{F}_2[f]\} \equiv \mathfrak{F}^{\mathsf{T}}[f]$$

(iv) If \mathfrak{F} is of the form $lub{\mathfrak{F}_1, \mathfrak{F}_2}$ then

$$g_1 = \mathfrak{F}[f] = lub\{\mathfrak{F}[f], \mathfrak{F}_2[f]\} = \mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f].$$

The *lub* exists since we assume that $\mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f]$ is defined.

Let \mathfrak{A} be the sequence of formulae $\{\mathfrak{F}_i\}$. The functions $\mathfrak{F}_i[f]$ exist since we assume that this **sequence** converges to g_2 . Since $g_1 \in \mathfrak{F}_i[f]$ for all *i*, and the sequence $\{\mathfrak{F}_i[f]\}$ is convergent,

$$g_1 \equiv \lim\{\mathfrak{F}_1[f]\} \equiv g_2.$$
 Q.E.D

Using Theorems 6 and 7, we can now indirectly **show that access** methods C and D are equivalent. One can easily **show that** any initial function f converges under method D to some prefixed point g_1 of τ . If we denote by g_2 the prefixed point to which f converges under the descending access method C, then $g_2 \equiv g_1$ by Theorem 6, and $g_1 \equiv g_2$ by Theorem 7. Consequently, any initial function f converges to the same function under access methods C and D.

5.3 The Ascending Access Method

In this section we consider the ascending access method C', which is dual to *the* descending access method C. The following results (which are stated without proofs) are **analogous** to those obtained in subsection 5.2; the main difference is that access methods in which the *lub* operation occurs may fail if the *lub* of inconsistent functions is taken.

Lemma 7: Let $\{f_i\}$ be a sequence of functions generated by the ascending access method C' for τ and f. Then:

(i) If $f \in \text{PRE}(\tau)$ then for all $i, f_i \equiv \tau^{(i)}[f]$

- (*ii*) If $f \in \text{POST}(?)$ then for all $i, f_i \equiv f$.
- **Theorem 8:** For any functional τ and initial function f, if the functions f_i generated by the ascending access method C' exist, then the sequence $\{f_i\}$ converges to a postfixed point of τ . This limit function is the least among the postfixed points of τ that are above f.
- **Theorem 9:** For any functional τ , if an initial function f converges to g_1 under the ascending access method C' and to g_2 under some other access method \mathfrak{A} , then $g_2 \equiv g_1$.

The following Lemma gives a sufficient condition on τ and f which guarantees the existence of $\mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f]$ for an arbitrary formula \mathfrak{F} .

Lemma 8: For a given τ and f, if there is a postfixed point g of τ which satisfies $f \equiv g$, then for any formula \mathfrak{F} , the function $\mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f]$ exists.

Proof: We show (by induction on the structure of \mathfrak{F}) that $\mathfrak{F}^{\intercal}[f]$ exists and satisfies $\mathfrak{F}^{\intercal}[f] \equiv g$ for any formula \mathfrak{F} :

(*i*) If \mathfrak{F} is of the form F, then $\mathfrak{F}^{\tau}[f] \equiv f \subseteq g$ by assumption.

(ii) If \mathfrak{F} is of the form 7 [\mathfrak{F}_1], then by the induction hypothesis $\mathfrak{F}_1[f]$ exists and satisfies $\mathfrak{F}_1[f] = g$, and thus:

$$\mathfrak{F}^{\boldsymbol{\tau}}[f] \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[\mathfrak{F}_1^{\boldsymbol{\tau}}[f]] \equiv \boldsymbol{\tau}[g] \equiv g.$$

(*iii*) If \mathfrak{F} is of the form $glb{\mathfrak{F}_1,\mathfrak{F}_2}$, where $\mathfrak{F}_1[f] \equiv \mathfrak{g}$ and $\mathfrak{F}_2[f] \equiv \mathfrak{g}$, then clearly:

$$\mathfrak{F}^{\intercal}[f] \equiv glb\{\mathfrak{F}^{\intercal}[f], \mathfrak{F}^{\intercal}_{2}[f]\} \equiv glb\{g, g\} \equiv g.$$

(iv) Similarly, if \mathfrak{F} is of the form $lub{\mathfrak{F}_1, \mathfrak{F}_2}$, where $\mathfrak{F}_1[f] \subseteq g$ and $\mathfrak{F}_2[f] \subseteq g$, then these two functions are consistent, and thus their *lub* exists and satisfies:

$$\mathfrak{F}^{\intercal}[f] \equiv lub\{\mathfrak{F}_1^{\intercal}[f], \mathfrak{F}_2^{\intercal}[f]\} \equiv lub\{g, g\} \equiv g. \qquad \mathbf{Q.E.D}$$

Corollary: For a given τ and f, if there is a postfixed point g of τ which satisfies $f \equiv g$, then no access method \mathfrak{A} can fail for τ and f.

Note that this corollary does not imply that such an f converges to a limit under \mathfrak{A} .

The sufficient condition in this corollary is clearly not necessary in general. Consider, for example, the following access method:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{F}_{0} &\equiv glb\{\mathbf{F}, \boldsymbol{\mathcal{T}} \ [\mathbf{F}]\} \\ \mathbf{F}_{1} &\equiv glb\{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{T}} \ [\mathbf{F}], \boldsymbol{\mathcal{T}}^{2}[\mathbf{F}]\} \\ \mathbf{F}_{i} &\equiv 7 \ [lub\{\mathbf{F}_{i-1}, \boldsymbol{\mathcal{T}} \ [\mathbf{F}_{i-2}]\}] \text{ for } i \geq 2. \end{split}$$

For any functional τ and initial function f_{i} , all the pairs of functions $f_{i-1}, \tau[f_{i-2}]$ to which the *lub* is applied are consistent, and thus this access method can never fail.

We now show that for the special case of the ascending access method, the condition in Lemma 8 exactly characterizes the cases in which the method does not fail.

Lemma 9: A necessary and sufficient condition for a function f to converge under the ascending access method C' is the existence of a postfixed point g of τ such that $f \equiv g$.

Proof: If the postfixed point g exists, then by the corollary of Lemma 8 the sequence $\{f_i\}$ is defined. Since it is an ascending chain, it is a convergent sequence and thus f converges under method C'.

On the other hand, if f converges under C' then, by Theorem 8, the limit g of the generated sequence $\{f_i\}$ is a postfixed point of τ . Furthermore, $f \equiv g$, since $\{f_i\}$ is an ascending chain whose first element is f. We have thus shown the existence of a postfixed point g of τ which satisfies $f \equiv g$.

Q.E.D.

By the corollary of Lemma 8 and by Lemma 9, the ascending access method C' is the most exacting in the sense that:

Corollary: If method C' does not fail for a given τ and f, then no other access method \mathfrak{A} can fail for τ and f.

6. The Fixedpoint Method

In this section we finally devise a method which always succeeds and under which any initial function converges to a fixedpoint. As we show in subsection 6.2, no single access method can achieve this goal; we thus need a somewhat more complicated method, based on compositions of access methods. This notion is formally defined as follows:

Definition: For a functional τ , an initial function f is said to converge to hunder the composition $\mathfrak{A}_2 \circ \mathfrak{A}_1$ of two access methods \mathfrak{A}_1 and \mathfrak{A}_2 , if f converges to some function g under \mathfrak{A}_1 and g converges to hunder \mathfrak{A}_2 .

This definition can be naturally extended to an n-fold composition $\mathfrak{A}_{n^{\circ}}$... $\mathfrak{A}_{2^{\circ}}\mathfrak{A}_{1}$.

6.1 Properties of the Fixedpoint Method

Definition: The *fixed point method* is the composition $\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{C}$ of the two access methods C and A.

The main result concerning the fixedpoint method is:

Theorem 10: For a functional τ , any initial function f converges under the fixedpoint method $A \circ C$ to a fixedpoint of τ which is close to f. Furthermore, this fixedpoint is the least among all the fixedpoints of τ which can be reached from f under any composition of access methods.

Proof: Any initial function f converges under A o C to a fixed point h of τ , since f converges under C to a prefixed point g of τ (by Theorem 6), and g converges under A to a fixed point h of τ (by Theorem 5).

We now show that h is close to the initial function f. Let l be an arbitrary fixed point of τ . Then:

(i) If $l \equiv f$, the prefixed point l is below f, and by Theorem 6, the prefixed point g to which **f** converges under C satisfies $l \equiv g$. Consequently,

$$l \equiv lim\{\tau^{(i)}[l]\} \equiv lim\{\tau^{(i)}[g]\} \equiv h$$

and thus $l \subseteq h$.

(ii) If $f \equiv l$, then clearly $g \equiv l$, since $g \equiv f$. This implies that:

$$h \equiv lim\{\tau^{(i)}[g]\} \equiv lim\{\tau^{(i)}[l]\} \equiv l$$

and thus $h \subseteq l$.

Finally, we show that h is the least among all the fixed points of τ which can be reached from f under any composition of access methods.

Suppose that f converges to a fixed point l of τ under the composition $\mathfrak{A}_n \circ \mathfrak{A}_{n-1} \circ \ldots \circ \mathfrak{A}_1$ of **access** methods. Let us denote by $g_i(i=1,...,n)$ the successive limit functions to which f converges under the partial compositions $\mathfrak{A}_i \circ \ldots \circ \mathfrak{A}_1$ (in particular, $g_n \equiv l$). The function f converges to the prefixed point g under C. We now show that $g \equiv g_i$ for all i=1,...,n.

Since f converges to g and g_1 under the respective methods C and \mathfrak{A}_1 , we have (by -Theorem 7) that $g \equiv g_1$. The function g_1 converges to g_2 under \mathfrak{A}_2 , and to some prefixedpoint g_2' under C (this convergence is assured since any initial function converges under C). By Theorem 6, g_2' is the greatest among the prefixedpoints of τ which are below g_1 . However, g is one such prefixedpoint and thus $g \equiv g_2'$. On the other hand, $g_2' \equiv g_2$ by Theorem 7; we thus conclude that $g \equiv g_2$.

Continuing this type of reasoning for i=3,...,n, we can show that $g \equiv g_i$ for all i. In particular, g_n is the fixed point i of τ , and thus $g \equiv I$.

We still have to show the relation $h \equiv l$ between the fixedpoints h and l obtained under the compositions A \circ C and $\mathfrak{A}_n \circ \ldots \circ \mathfrak{A}_1$, respectively. We already know that $g \equiv l$, and that the prefixedpoint g converges to h under the direct access method A. By Theorem 5, the fixedpoint h is close to g, and in particular $h \equiv k$ for any fixedpoint k of τ satisfying $g \equiv k$. Since l is one such fixedpoint, we obtain the desired result $h \equiv l$.

Q.E.D.

10.10

An initial function f which converges under the ascending access method C', converges to a

pcstfixedpoint g of τ (by Theorem 8). The function g is assured to converge to a fixedpoint h of τ under the direct access method A, and thus any f converges under A o C' to a fixedpoint of τ , provided only that method C' does not fail for f. By Lemma 8, this condition is equivalent to the existence of a postfixedpoint of τ above f. The dual to Theorem 10 is therefore:

Theorem 11: For any functional τ and initial function f such that there exists a postfixed point of τ above f, the function f converges under A o C' to a fixed point of τ which is close to f. Furthermore, this fixed point is the greatest among all the fixed points of τ which can be reached from f under any composition of access methods.

The proof of Theorem 11 is analogous to the proof of Theorem 10; the additional assumption about the existence of a postfixed point is used only in order to establish the existence of the appropriate limits.

Two other compositions of access methods which are equivalent to $A \circ C$ and $A \circ C'$ are characterized in the following lemma:

Lemma 10:

- (*i*) For any τ and f, f converges to the same function under $A \circ C$ and $C' \circ C$.
- (ii) For any τ and f, f converges to the same function under A o C' and C o C', provided that C' does not fail.

Proof:

(i) The function g to which f converges under C is a prefixed point of τ . By Lemma 7(i), methods A and C' behave in the same way for prefixed points, and thus the compositions A \circ C and C' \circ C are equivalent.

(ii) Similar, by Lemma 7(ii).

Q.E.D.

An arbitrary initial function f can be considered as a "distorted fixedpoint" to which two types of corrections must be applied:

(i) Defined parts, which are either changed or replaced by ω under the application of τ, must be deleted from the function since they do not represent possible fixedpoint values.

(ii) Undefined parts, which are replaced by defined values under the application of τ , must be completed with the appropriate fixed point values.

The descending access method performs only the first type of correction, while the ascending access method performs **only** the second type of correction. **None** of **them can** transform an arbitrary initial function f to a fixedpoint of τ , but when both of them are applied to f, a fixedpoint of τ is obtained. The order in which the two correcting stages are performed (i.e., C' o C or C o C') may affect the fixedpoint obtained, since the two access methods C and C' do not commute in general. Furthermore, the composition C o C' in which the deletion stage comes after the completion stage may fail, while the fixedpoint method C' \circ C cannot.

Let us' denote by S_{τ}^{τ} the set of fixed points of τ which can be reached from f by compositions of access methods. The following immediate corollaries summarize the structure of S_{τ}^{τ} in the case where method C' does not fail for τ and f.

Corollaries:

- (i) The set S_{τ}^{τ} contains a least element (accessed by C' \circ C) and a greatest element (accessed by C \circ C').
- (ii) If f converges to the same function h under C'o C and C o C', then h is the only fixed point of τ which can be reached from f(by any composition of access methods).
- (iii) If f is either a prefixed point or a postfixed point of τ , which converges to h under the direct access method A, then h is the only fixed point of τ which can be reached from f (by any composition of access methods).
- (iv) If f is a fixed point of τ , then f converges to itself under any composition of access methods.
- (v) All the fixed points in S_f^{τ} are close to f (however there may be other fixed points which are close to f but which are inaccessible from f by any composition of access methods).
- (vi) All the fixed points in S_i^{τ} are consistent with the initial function \boldsymbol{f} .

If access method C' fails for τ and f, then the set S⁷, need not have a greatest element, and the functions in S⁷, need not be consistent with f. However, if f is either a prefixed point or a postfixed point of τ , then C' cannot fail for τ and f.

Theorem 10 guarantees that for any initial function f, there is at least one fixedpoint h of τ which is close to f. For a fixed functional τ , we can consider the fixedpoint method A o C as a functional \mathfrak{M}_{τ} which maps any function f to some fixedpoint of τ that is close to f. The functional \mathfrak{M}_{τ} maps the set PF of partial functions (over the appropriate domain) onto the set $FXP(\tau)$, since any fixedpoint h of τ is mapped to itself under \mathfrak{M}_{τ} . Our aim in the rest of this subsection is to study the monotonicity and continuity properties of \mathfrak{M}_{τ} .

Theorem 12: For any functional τ , \mathfrak{M}_{τ} : PF \rightarrow FXP (τ) is monotonic.

Proof: By induction on the structure of formulae it is easy to show that for a fixed functional τ , any access method is a monotonic mapping from initial functions to limit functions (whenever they exist). Consequently, the composition A \circ C (for which limits always exist) is also monotonic.

Q.E.D.

Note that the *existence* of such a monotonic mapping from PF onto $FXP(\tau)$ is not surprising (due to the many structural similarities between the two sets); however, the theory of **access** methods enables us to define the mapping in a simple and constructive way.

The functional \mathfrak{M}_{τ} whose monotonicity was shown above, is not continuous. This fact does not stem from the special way in which \mathfrak{M}_{τ} is defined. The following theorem shows that for certain functionals τ , any such mapping is inherently noncontinuous.

Theorem 13: There are functionals τ , for which any mapping $\Theta: PF \rightarrow FXP(\tau)$, which assigns to each partial function f a fixed point of τ that is close tof, must be noncontinuous.

Proof: Let τ be the following functional over the integers:

 $\boldsymbol{\tau}[\mathbf{F}](\mathbf{x}): i \ f \quad \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}-1) = 0 \ then \ \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) \ t \ \mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}+1) \ t \ \mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{x}$ else $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}-1) \ t \ \mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}+1) \ t \ \mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{x}$.

The special property of this functional is that for a certain sequence $\{f_i\}$ of initial functions, each f_i has exactly one fixed point -- Ω -- which is close to it. By the assumption on Θ ,

 $\Theta[f_i] \equiv \Omega$ for all *i*, and thus $lim\{\Theta[f_i]\} \equiv \Omega$. We shall use this fact in order to show that Θ does not preserve the *lim* of convergent sequences.

The two subterms $0 \cdot x$ in the functional guarantee that any fixed point of τ is undefined for $x \equiv \omega$. For other values of x, $\tau[F](x)$ is defined in terms of both F(x-1) and F(x+1), and thus any fixed point of τ is either Ω or total over the defined integers. Among the total functions, only two types of functions are fixed points of τ :

- (i) The constant functions:
 - $g(x) \equiv c$ for some defined integer c;
- (ii) The split-constant functions:

$$g(x) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \le j \\ c & \text{if } x > j \end{cases} \quad \text{for some defined integers } c \text{ and } j.$$

Consider now the ascending chain of functions $\{f_i\}$, where

$$f_i(x) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \le i \\ \omega & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Each f_i is a postfixed point of τ , which descends to the fixed point Ω of τ under the direct access method A. We now show that Ω is the unique fixed point of τ which is close to f_i .

Let h be a fixed point of τ which is close to f_i . By definition, h must be below any fixed point of τ which is above f_i . Two such fixed points above f_i are:

$$g_{1}(x) \equiv 0$$

$$g_{2}(x) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \le i \\ 1 & \text{if } x > i \end{cases}$$

The only fixed point of τ which is below both g_1 and g_2 is Ω , since no other nontotal function can be a fixed point of τ . On the other hand, one can easily show that Ω itself is a fixed point which is close to f_i . We have thus shown that Ω is the *unique* fixed point of τ which is close to f_i . Using the assumption on Θ , we can now deduce:

$$\Theta[f_i] \equiv \Omega$$
 for all i.

Let us consider now the function $zero \equiv lim\{f_i\}$. Since zero is a fixed point of τ , it is the unique fixed point of τ which is close to itself, and thus:

$$\Theta[lim\{f_i\}] \equiv \Theta[zero] \equiv zero .$$

We have thus shown that θ does not preserve the limit of convergent sequences (or even the *lub* of ascending chains).

Q.E.D.

6.2 The Insufficiency of a Single Access Method

Theorem 10 showed that the composition $A \circ C$ of access methods has the interesting property that any initial function converges to a fixedpoint under it. A natural question is whether there exists some single access method \mathfrak{A} which has this property, i.e., whether the fixedpoints of $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ can be reached from arbitrary initial functions by means of a single limiting process.

A plausible candidate for such an access method is: $F_{a} = F$

$$\begin{cases} F_{2i+1} \equiv \mathbf{T} [F_{2i}] \\ F_{2i+2} \equiv glb \{F_{2i+1}, \mathbf{T} [F_{2i+1}]\} \end{cases}$$
 for all $i \ge 0$.

In this method, the functions with odd indices **are** defined as in method A, and the functions with even indices are defined as in method C. Unfortunately, one can easily show that certain initial functions f do not converge under this "alternating access method."

In this section we formally prove that any such attempt to construct a single **access** method, in which any **f** converges to a fixedpoint, must fail. It suffices to consider for this purpose the simple functional $\tau_0[F](x)$: F(x+1) over the natural numbers. What we actually show is that for any "candidate" access method \mathfrak{A} , one can construct an appropriate initial function **f** such that f _does not converge to a fixedpoint of τ_0 under \mathfrak{A} .

Two useful properties of the selected functional $\tau_0[F](x)$: F(x+1) are

(i) For any two functions f_1, f_2 :

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_{0}[glb\{f_{1},f_{2}\}] \equiv glb\{\boldsymbol{\tau}_{0}[f_{1}],\boldsymbol{\tau}_{0}[f_{2}]\},\$$

(ii) For any two consistent functions f_1, f_2 :

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_{0}[lub\{f_{1},f_{2}\}] \equiv lub\{\boldsymbol{\tau}_{0}[f_{1}],\boldsymbol{\tau}_{0}[f_{2}]\}.$$

Let \mathfrak{F} be an arbitrary formula. The interpreted formula \mathfrak{F}^{τ_0} is a composition of τ_0, glb and *lub*, and τ_0 commutes with both the *glb* and *lub* operations. We can thus push each occurrence of τ_0 in $\mathfrak{F}_i^{\tau_0}$ all the way inwards, and obtain a modified formula in which various powers of τ_0 are combined by a structure of *glb* and *lub* operations.

Example 9: Consider the formula \mathfrak{F} :

$T[lub{F,T[glb{F,T[F]}]]].$

For the special case of the functional $\tau_0, \mathfrak{F}^{\tau_0}$ can be transformed in the following way:

$$\begin{aligned} &\tau_{0}[lub\{F,\tau_{0}[glb\{F,\tau_{0}[F]\}]\}] \rightarrow \\ &\tau_{0}[lub\{F,glb\{\tau_{0}[F],\tau_{0}^{(2)}[F]\}\}] \rightarrow \\ &lub\{\tau_{0}[F],\tau_{0}[glb\{\tau_{0}[F],\tau_{0}^{(2)}[F]\}]\} \rightarrow \\ &lub\{\tau_{0}[F],glb\{\tau_{0}^{(2)}[F],\tau_{0}^{(3)}[F]\}\} . \end{aligned}$$

In this modified formula, there are three powers of $\tau_0(\tau_0, \tau_0^{(2)}, \tau_0^{(3)})$; these powers are connected by a structure consisting of one *glb* and one *lub* operation.

For a formula \mathfrak{F}^{τ_0} , we define the depth of \mathfrak{F}^{τ_0} , $d(\mathfrak{F}^{\tau_0})$, to be the greatest power of τ_0 occurring in the modified formula. Since $\tau_0^{(k)}[f](x) \equiv f(x+k)$, the value of $\mathfrak{F}^{\tau_0}[f](x)$ is totally determined by the values of f(x') for $x \le x' \le x + d(\mathfrak{F}^{\tau_0})$. We shall later use the fact that any change in the values of f(x') for other arguments x' cannot affect the value of $\mathfrak{F}^{\tau_0}[f](x)$.

We can now prove the theorem:

Theorem 14: Let $\boldsymbol{\tau}_0$ be the following functional over the natural numbers:

 $\boldsymbol{\tau}_{0}[\mathbf{F}](\mathbf{x}):\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}+1).$

Then there is no single access method \mathfrak{A} under which any initial function f converges to a fixed point of τ_0 .

Proof: We first give an informal overview of the proof. Suppose that the theorem is not true, and access method $\mathfrak{A} - \{\mathfrak{F}_i\}$, has the desired property, We derive a contradiction by constructing an initial function f in such a way that for some ascending sequence $i_0 < i_1 < ...$ of indices,

$$\mathfrak{F}_{i_{k}}^{\tau}(f)(0) \equiv \begin{cases} \boldsymbol{\omega} & \text{if } k \text{ is even} \\ 0 & \text{if } k \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

The sequence of functions $\{\mathfrak{F}_i^{\tau_0}[f]\}$ thus cannot converge, since it changes value infinitely many times at x = 0.

The function f is defined as the *lim* of some convergent sequence of functions $\{g_i\}$. This sequence satisfies, for each k:

$$\mathfrak{F}_{i_k}^{\tau}[g_k](0) \equiv \begin{cases} \omega & \text{if } k \text{ is even} \\ 0 & \text{if } k \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

For any fixed function g_k , the other functions $g_{k'}$ for k' > k, are constructed in such a way that $g_k(x)$ and $g_{k'}(x)$ are identical for all $0 \le x \le d \langle \mathfrak{F}_{i_k}^{\intercal} \rangle$. Consequently, the limit \mathbf{f} of $\{g_j\}$ also satisfies:

$$f(x) \equiv g_k(x)$$
 for all $0 \le x \le d\langle \widetilde{v}_{i_k}^{\tau_0} \rangle$.

Since the value of $\mathfrak{F}_{i_k}^{\tau}(\mathfrak{g}_k)(0)$ depends only on the value of \mathfrak{g}_k for the first $d(\mathfrak{F}_{i_k}^{\tau})$ arguments, we obtain:

$$\mathfrak{F}_{i_{\mathsf{k}}}^{\boldsymbol{\tau}}(f)(0) \equiv \mathfrak{F}_{i_{\mathsf{k}}}^{\boldsymbol{\tau}}(g_{\mathsf{k}})(0) \ .$$

This equality establishes the oscillating nature of the sequence of values $\{\mathfrak{F}_{i_k}^{\tau}(f)(0)\}$, which is the desired result.

We now formally define the convergent sequence of functions $\{g_i\}$ and the ascending sequence of indices $\{i_i\}$.

As first elements in these sequences, we take $g_0 \equiv \Omega$ and $i_0 \equiv 0$. We justify this selection by noting that $\mathfrak{F}_0^{\tau_0}(\Omega)(0) \equiv \omega$, since Ω is a fixed point of τ and thus for any formula $\mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{F}^{\tau_0}(\Omega) \equiv \Omega$.

We now proceed to define g_1 and i_1 . As discussed above, we want $g_1(x)$ to be identical to $g_0(x)$ for any $0 \le x \le d(\mathfrak{F}_{i_k}^{\tau})$. We thus define:

$$g_{1}(x) \equiv \begin{cases} g_{0}(x) & \text{if } 0 \le x \le d(\mathfrak{F}_{i_{k}}^{\mathsf{T}_{0}}) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

By assumption, any initial function converges under \mathfrak{A} to a fixed point of τ_0 , and thus g_1 converges under \mathfrak{A} to some fixed point h of τ . Since g_1 converges to the same fixed point zero under the two extreme compositions C' \circ C and C \circ C', the function h must be zero. By definition of convergence, there is some index i_1 such that

$$\mathfrak{F}_{i_1}^{\boldsymbol{\tau}_0}[g_1](0) \equiv 0 ,$$

and we have thus found the second function g_1 and second index i_1 .

We now briefly outline the next stage in the construction of $\{g_j\}$ and $\{i_j\}$ (i.e., g_2 and i_2). Let m_2 be defined as:

$$m_2 \equiv max(2, d\langle \widetilde{v}_{i_0}^{\tau_0} \rangle, d\langle \widetilde{v}_{i_1}^{\tau_0} \rangle \rangle.$$

The function g_2 is defined as:

....

$$g_2(x) \equiv \begin{cases} g_1(x) & \text{if } 0 \le x \le m_2 \\ \omega & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This function converges to Ω under both compositions C' o C and C o C', and thus g_2 converges to Ω under \mathfrak{A} as well. This convergence implies the existence of an index $i_2 > i_1$ such that

$$\mathfrak{F}_{i_2}^{\boldsymbol{\tau}_0}[g_2] \equiv \boldsymbol{\omega} \; .$$

The other functions g_k in the sequence are constructed by taking an appropriate initial segment of g_{k-1} and changing the value of the constant tail from 0 to ω or from ω to 0 (according to the oddity of k). The boundary of the initial segment, m_k , is defined in such a way that $m_k \ge k$, and thus the sequence $\{g_j\}$ of functions is assured to converge at any argument x (since $g_k(x)$ is constant for all $k \ge x$). The function $f \equiv \lim\{g_j\}$ is thus defined, and by its definition, it satisfies:

$$\mathfrak{F}_{i_{k}}^{\tau_{0}}[f](0) \equiv \mathfrak{F}_{i_{k}}^{\tau_{0}}[g_{k}](0) \equiv \begin{cases} \omega & \text{if } x \text{ is even} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

Q.E.D.

Future Research

This paper covers only the lattice-theoretical aspects of access methods. Other problems which might **be** of interest include the computability aspects of access methods, the relations between access methods and substitution/simplification techniques for evaluating fixedpoints, and **characterizations** of those cases in which a single access method is sufficient **in** order to access fixedpoints.

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