A Tutorial on Lambda Prolog	Tutorial References
and its Applications to Theorem Proving	• λ Prolog [Miller & Nadathur]: For information on the language in general and on obtaining the Terzo implementation (imple- mented in Standard ML), see:
	http://www.cis.upenn.edu/~dale/lProlog/
Amy Felty	• Theorem Proving Applications:
Bell Labs, Lucent Technologies	 [Felty, JAR'93] Amy Felty. Implementing tactics and tacticals in a higher-order logic programming language. <i>Journal of Automated Reasoning</i>, 11(1):43-81, August 1993.
September 1997	 [Felty, ELP'91] Amy Felty. A logic programming approach to implementing higher-order term rewriting. In Lars-Henrik Eriksson, Lars Hallnäs, and Peter Schroeder-Heister, editors, <i>Proceedings of the January 1991 Workshop on</i> <i>Extensions to Logic Programming</i>, pages 135–161, 1992.
	 [Felty&Miller, CADE'90] Amy Felty and Dale Miller. Encoding a dependent- type λ-calculus in a logic programming language. In Tenth International Con- ference on Automated Deduction, pages 221-235, July 1990.

Outline

- 1. The λ Prolog Language
- 2. Specifying Logics and Inference Systems
- 3. Implementing Automatic Theorem Provers
- 4. Implementing Interactive Tactic Theorem Provers
- 5. An Implementation of Higher-Order Term Rewriting
- 6. Encoding the Logical Framework in λ Prolog

General References

For an extensive bibliography on higher-order logic programming and logical frameworks, see:

http://www.cs.cmu.edu/afs/cs/user/fp/www/lfs.html



Types

• System types: o, int, real, string		
• User-introduced primitive types: node		
• Type variables (denoted by capital letters)		
• Constructed types		
list string, pair int (list string)		
• Functional types (includes predicate types)		
<pre>int -> real -> string int -> int -> o o -> int -> o (int -> int) -> real list A -> (A -> B) -> list B -> o</pre>		
Note: \rightarrow associates to the right, e.g., $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_3$ denotes $\tau_1 \rightarrow (\tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_3)$.		

Clauses and Goals

```
type
        true
                     ο.
                                          infixr , 2.
                     o -> o -> o.
                                          infixr ; 3.
type
         ,
        :-, =>, ;
                     o -> o -> o.
                                          infixr :- 1.
type
                     (A -> o) -> o.
type
        pi, sigma
                                          infixr => 4.
                     list A \rightarrow list A \rightarrow list A \rightarrow o.
        append
type
append nil K K.
append (X :: L) K (X :: M) :- append L K M.
?- append (1 :: nil) (2 :: nil) L.
L == (1 :: 2 :: nil).
```

Declarations and Terms

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 $A \rightarrow list A \rightarrow list A$. type :: infixr :: 5. list A. nil type kind a,b,c type. a -> b -> c. f type type s a. t b. type

Term Syntax

 $t ::= c | X | x \setminus t | X \setminus t | (t_1 t_2)$

Curried Notation is Used

((f s) t) or (f s t) instead of f(s,t).
(f s) also allowed.

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First-Order Horn Clauses

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• Atomic Formulas:

A of type ${\sf o}$ whose top-level symbol is not a logical constant.

• Goal Formulas:

$$G ::= \top \mid A \mid G_1 \land G_2 \mid G_1 \lor G_2 \mid \exists_{\tau} x \ G$$

• Definite Clauses:

$$D := A \mid G \supset A \mid \forall_{\tau} x \ D$$



Type and Clausal Order

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• Order of a type expression:

 $ord(\tau) = 0$ (for atomic type or type variable τ) $ord(\tau_1 \to \tau_2) = max(ord(\tau_1) + 1, ord(\tau_2))$

• Clausal order:

ord(A) = 0 (if A is atomic or \top) $ord(B_1 \land B_2) = max(ord(B_1), ord(B_2))$ $ord(B_1 \lor B_2) = max(ord(B_1), ord(B_2))$ $ord(B_1 \supset B_2) = max(ord(B_1) + 1, ord(B_2))$ $ord(\forall x B) = ord(B)$ $ord(\exists x B) = ord(B)$

First-Order Restrictions

Types in type declarations are of order 0 or 1 (no nesting of → to the left). Also, o only occurs as a target type. Note that the types of pi and sigma are exceptions.
Example:
 int, int -> int, int -> o, int -> int -> int
But not:
 (int -> int) -> int, o -> o
Clausal order is either 0 or 1.
Example:
 adj a b.
 path X Y :- adj X Z, path Z Y.

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First-Order Hereditary Harrop Formulas

• Goal Formulas:

 $G ::= \top \mid A \mid G_1 \land G_2 \mid G_1 \lor G_2 \mid \exists_{\tau} x \ G \mid D \supset G \mid \forall_{\tau} x \ G$

• Definite Clauses:

 $D := A \mid G \supset A \mid \forall_{\tau} x \ D$

• First-order restrictions hold.

Goal-Directed Search

Goal-directed search is formalized with respect to *uniform proofs*. See [Miller et. al., APAL 91]. Nondeterministic search is complete with respect to *intuitionistic* provability.

Let Σ be a set of type declarations and let \mathcal{P} be set of program clauses. Six primitive operations describe goal-directed search.

- **AND** To prove $G_1 \wedge G_2$ from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$, attempt to prove both G_1 and G_2 from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$.
- **OR** To prove $G_1 \vee G_2$ from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$, attempt to prove either G_1 or G_2 from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$.
- **INSTANCE** To prove $\exists_{\tau} x \ G$ from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$, pick a term t of type τ and attempt to prove [t/x]G from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$.

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- **BACKCHAIN** To prove an atomic goal A from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$, the current program \mathcal{P} must be considered.
 - If there is a universal instance of a program clause which is equal to A, then we have a proof.
 - If there is a program clause with a universal instance of the form G ⊃ A then attempt to prove G from (Σ, P).
 - If neither case holds then there is no proof of A from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$.

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AUGMENT To prove $D \supset G$ from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$, attempt to prove G from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \cup \{D\} \rangle$. Note that D is removed after the interpreter succeeds or fails to prove G. Thus, the program grows and shrinks dynamically in a stack based manner.

GENERIC To prove $\forall_{\tau} x \ G$ from $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$, introduce a new constant c of type τ and attempt to prove [c/x]G from $\langle \Sigma \cup \{c\}, \mathcal{P} \rangle$.

Logic Variables and Unification

- In **INSTANCE** a logic variable is used instead of "guessing" a term.
- In **BACKCHAIN** logic variables are used to obtain a universal instance of the clause, and unification is used to match the goal with the head of the clause.
- Note that the **AUGMENT** operation may result in program clauses containing logic variables.
- Because the constant c in **GENERIC** must be new, unification must be modified so that it prevents the variables in the goal and program from being instantiated with terms containing c.

Equality and Conversion

• α -conversion:

 $\lambda x.s = \lambda y.s[y/x]$ provided y does not occur free in s.

• $\beta\text{-conversion:}$

 $(\lambda x.s)t = s[t/x]$

- $\eta\text{-}\operatorname{conversion:}$
- $\lambda x.(sx) = s$ provided x does not occur free in s.

 $\lambda \mathrm{Prolog}$ implements $\lambda \mathrm{-conversion}$ as its notion of equality. The following terms are equivalent.

```
x (f x) y (f y) (g x (g x) f) f
```

 $\lambda \mathrm{Prolog}\ \mathrm{programs}\ \mathrm{cannot}\ \mathrm{determine}\ \mathrm{the}\ \mathrm{name}\ \mathrm{of}\ \mathrm{a}\ \mathrm{bound}\ \mathrm{variable}.$

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Substitution and Quantification

р X :- рі у∖(q X у).

• Substitute (f a) for X.

```
p (f a) :- pi y\(q (f a) y).
```

• Substitute (f y) for X.

```
p (f y) :- pi y\(q (f y) y).
```

Variable capture must be avoided.
p (f y) :- pi z\(q (f y) z).

Implication and Universal Quantification in Goals

```
kind bug,jar
                             type.
type j
                             jar.
type sterile, heated
                             jar -> o.
type dead, bug
                             insect -> o.
                             insect -> jar -> o.
type in
sterile J :- pi x\(bug x => in x J => dead x).
dead B :- heated j, in B j, bug B.
heated j.
?- sterile j.
\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle ?- pi x\(bug x => in x j => dead x).
\langle \Sigma \cup \{g\}, \mathcal{P} \rangle?- bug g => in g j => dead g.
(\Sigma \cup \{g\}, \mathcal{P} \cup \{bug g, in g j\})?- dead g.
                                      19
```

Logic Variables in Programs

```
type reverse list A -> list A -> o.
type rev list A -> list A -> list A -> o.
type rv list A -> list A -> o.
reverse L K :-
    pi L\(rev nil L L) =>
    pi X\(pi L\(pi K\(pi M\(rev (X::L) K M :- rev L K (X::M)))))
        => rev L K nil.
?- reverse (1::2::nil) K.
reverse L K :-
    rv nil K =>
    pi X\(pi L\(pi K\(rv (X::L) K :- rv L (X::K))))
        => rv L nil.
```

Abstract Data Types

```
type empty stack -> o.
type enter, remove int -> stack -> stack -> o.
?- pi emp\(pi stk\(
    empty emp =>
    pi S\(pi X\(enter X S (stk X S))) =>
    pi S\(pi X\(remove X (stk X S) S)) =>
        sigma S1\(sigma S2\(sigma S3\(sigma S4\(sigma S5\
            (empty S1, enter 1 S1 S2, enter 2 S2 S3,
            remove A S3 S4, remove B S4 S5)))))).
A == 2, B == 1.
?- pi emp\(pi stk\( ... =>
            sigma U\(empty U, enter 1 U V))).
no.
```

The term (stk 1 emp) is formed as an instance of V, but the goal fails because emp cannot escape its scope.

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Examples of Higher-Order Programs

```
type mappred (A \rightarrow B \rightarrow o) \rightarrow list A \rightarrow list B \rightarrow o.

type forevery (A \rightarrow o) \rightarrow list A \rightarrow o.

type forsome (A \rightarrow o) \rightarrow list A \rightarrow o.

type sublist (A \rightarrow o) \rightarrow list A \rightarrow o.

mappred P nil nil.

mappred P (X :: L) (Y :: K) :- P X Y, mappred P L K.

forevery P nil.

forevery P (X :: L) :- P X, forevery P L.

forsome P (X :: L) :- P X; forsome P L.

sublist P (X::L) (X::K) :- P X, sublist P L K.

sublist P (X::L) K :- sublist P L K.
```

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Higher-Order Horn Clauses

• Atomic Formulas:

A is a term of type **o** whose top-level symbol is not a logical constant, and which does not contain any occurrences of \supset .

• Rigid Atomic Formulas:

 ${\cal A}_r$ is an atomic formula whose top-level symbol is also not a variable.

• Goal Formulas:

 $G ::= \top \mid A \mid G_1 \land G_2 \mid G_1 \lor G_2 \mid \exists_{\tau} x \ G$

• Definite Clauses:

 $D := A_r \mid G \supset A_r \mid \forall_\tau x \ D$

• No restrictions on order of types. Restrictions on clausal order still hold. Terms instantiating x also cannot contain any occurrences of \supset .

The mappred Program

```
type mappred (A \rightarrow B \rightarrow o) \rightarrow list A \rightarrow list B \rightarrow o.
mappred P nil nil.
mappred P (X :: L) (Y :: K) :- P X Y, mappred P L K.
```

type age person -> int -> o. age bob 23. age sue 24. age ned 23.

sublist P nil nil.

?- mappred age (ned::bob::sue::nil) L.
L == (23::23::24::nil).

```
?- mappred age L (23::23::24::nil).
L == (ned::bob::sue::nil);
L == (bob::ned::sue::nil).
```

```
?- mappred (x\y\(age y x)) (23::24::nil) K.
K == (bob::sue::nil);
K == (ned::sue::nil).
```

The sublist Program The forevery Program type sublist $(A \rightarrow o) \rightarrow list A \rightarrow list A \rightarrow o.$ type forevery $(A \rightarrow o) \rightarrow list A \rightarrow o.$ sublist P (X::L) (X::K) :- P X, sublist P L K. forevery P nil. sublist P (X::L) K :- sublist P L K. forevery P (X :: L) :- P X, forevery P L. sublist P nil nil. age bob 23. type male, female person -> o. age sue 24. male bob. age ned 23. female sue. ?- forevery (x\(sigma y\(age x y))) (ned::bob::sue::nil). male ned. yes. ?- sublist male (ned::bob::sue::nil) L. ?- forevery (x\(age x A)) (ned::bob::sue::nil). L == (ned::bob::nil); no. L == (ned::nil);L == (bob::nil); ?- forevery (x\(age x A)) (ned::bob::nil). no A == 23. 2527 The forsome Program Computing with λ -terms $(A \rightarrow o) \rightarrow list A \rightarrow o.$ type forsome type mapfun $(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow list A \rightarrow list B \rightarrow o.$ forsome P (X :: L) :- P X ; forsome P L. type reducefun $(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow B) \rightarrow \text{list } A \rightarrow B \rightarrow B \rightarrow o.$ male bob. mapfun F nil nil. female sue. mapfun F (X :: L) ((F X) :: K) :- mapfun F L K. male ned. reducefun F nil Z Z. ?- forsome female (ned::bob::sue::nil) L. reducefun F (H::T) Z (F H R) :- reducefun F T Z R. yes.

The mapfun Program

 $(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow \text{list } A \rightarrow \text{list } B \rightarrow o.$ type mapfun mapfun F nil nil. mapfun F (X :: L) ((F X) :: K) :- mapfun F L K. i -> i -> i. type g i. type a,b ?- mapfun (x (g a x)) (a::b::nil) L. L == ((g a a)::(g a b)::nil).The interpreter forms the terms $((x \setminus (g a x)) a)$ and $((x \setminus (g a x)) b)$ and reduces them. ?- mapfun F (a::b::nil) ((g a a)::(g a b)::nil). $F == x \setminus (g a x);$ no. The interpreter tries the 4 unifiers for (F a) and (g a a) in the following order. x\(g x x) x\(g a x) x∖(g x a) x\(g a a)

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Computing with λ terms is not Functional Programming

An alternative definition of **mapfun** illustrating that it is weaker than **mappred**.

type mapfun $(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow list A \rightarrow list B \rightarrow o.$ mapfun F L K :- mappred $(x\setminus y\setminus (y = F x))$ L K.

Computing with λ terms involves unification and conversion, but not function computation. The following goal is not provable.

```
?- mapfun F (a::b::nil) (c::d::nil).
no.
```

The reducefun Program

```
type reducefun (A -> B -> B) -> list A -> B -> B -> o.
reducefun F nil Z Z.
reducefun F (H::T) Z (F H R) :- reducefun F T Z R.
?- reducefun (x\y\(x + y))) (3::4::8::nil) 6 R, S is R.
R == 3 + (4 + (8 + 6))
S == 21.
?- reducefun F (4::8::nil) 6 (1 + (4 + (1 + (8 + 6)))).
F == x\y\(1 + (4 + (1 + (8 + 6))));
F == x\y\(1 + (x + (1 + (8 + 6))));
F == x\y\(1 + (x + y));
```

no.

?- pi z\(reducefun F (4::8::nil) z (1 + (4 + (1 + (8 + z)))). F == x\y\(1 + (x + y)); no.

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Higher-Order Hereditary Harrop Formulas

• Goal Formulas:

 $G ::= \top \mid A \mid G_1 \land G_2 \mid G_1 \lor G_2 \mid \exists_{\tau} x \ G \mid D \supset G \mid \forall_{\tau} x \ G$

• Definite Clauses:

 $D := A \mid G \supset A \mid \forall_{\tau} x \ D$

- No restrictions on order of types or on clausal order. The restriction that atomic terms and substitution terms cannot contain occurrences of ⊃ still holds.
- New restriction: the head of any atomic formula that appears in a D formula cannot be a variable that is *essentially existentially* quantified.

Essentially Existential and Universal Occurrences

- If a subformula occurs to the left of an even number of occurrences of \supset in a goal formula, then it is a *positive* subformula occurrence. If it occurs to the left of an odd number of occurrences of \supset , it is a *negative* subformula occurrence. These definitions are reversed for clauses.
- A bound variable occurrence is essentially universal if it is bound by a positive occurrence of a universal quantifier, by a negative occurrence of an existential quantifier, or by a λ -abstraction. Otherwise, it is essentially existential.
- In terms of the λ Prolog interpreter, variables that get instantiated with logic variables are essentially existential, while variables that get instantiated with new constants are essentially universal.

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More Implementations of reverse

```
reverse L K :- pi rv\(
    rv nil K =>
    pi X\(pi L\(pi K\(rv (X::L) K :- rv L (X::K))))
        => rv L nil).
```

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Logical Foundation of λ Prolog

- Based on Church's Simple Theory of Types [Church 40, JSL]
 - The type o for formulas, and the quantifiers pi and sigma adopted directly.
- \bullet Differences
 - Different logical connectives are taken as primitive.
 - Intuitionistic instead of classical logic is used.
 - Type variables and constructors are allowed.

Discharging a Constant from a Term

 $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$?- pi y\(append (1::2::nil) y X).

 $\langle \Sigma \cup \{\mathtt{k}\}, \mathcal{P} \rangle$?- append (1::2::nil) k X.

The term (1::2::k) is formed as an instance of X, but as seen before, the goal fails because k cannot escape its scope.

 $\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$?- pi y\(append (1::2::nil) y (H y)).

 $\langle \Sigma \cup \{k\}, \mathcal{P} \rangle$?- append (1::2::nil) k (H k).

The terms $(H \ k)$ and (1::2::k) are unified. Of the two unifiers, $w \setminus (1::2::k)$ and $w \setminus (1::2::w)$, only the second is possible. It is the result of *discharging* k from the term (1::2::k).

λ **Prolog's Module System**

1. One-line header module moduleName.

- 2. Preamble (4 directives) accumulate, import, local, localkind
- 3. Declarations (which form the signature) and clauses

Example Modules using accumulate

module mod1. kind item type. item -> o. type p,q рХ:- qХ. module mod2. accumulate mod1. type а item. qa. module mod3. kind item type. item -> o. type p,q type а item. рХ:- qХ. qa.

Modules mod2 and mod3 have the same signature and program.

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The accumulate directive

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- Used to incorporate other modules as if they were typed at the beginning of the current module.
- The signature of the module and of all of the modules named by the accumulate directive must be successfully pairwise merged.
- Two signatures can be *merged* when:
 - If a token has a kind declaration in both signatures, the declarations must be identical.
 - \circ If a token has a type declaration in both signatures, the types must be the same up to renaming of type variables.
 - \circ If a token has a type declaration in both signatures, if it also has an infix declaration in one signature, it must have the same infix declaration in the other.

Declaring local scope to constants

- Universal quantification in goals, e.g., $\forall x(D \supset G)$, can be used to introduce a new scoped constant. Note that this formula is equivalent to $(\exists x \ D) \supset G$.
- Modules as existentially quantified program clauses provides local scoping:

$$E ::= D \mid \exists_{\tau} x \ E \mid E_1 \land E_2$$

• No need to change the interpreter. A goal of the form $E \supset G$ can be expanded to one that doesn't contain existential quantifiers in clauses by using the equivalence $(\exists x \ D) \supset G \equiv \forall x (D \supset G)$.

Example Module using local Example Module using import module stack. module int stack. import stack. kind stack type -> type. stack A -> o. int \rightarrow int \rightarrow o. type empty type stack_test type enter, remove $A \rightarrow \text{stack } A \rightarrow \text{stack } A \rightarrow o$. stack test A B :local emp stack A. sigma S1\(sigma S2\(sigma S3\(sigma S4\(sigma S5\ $A \rightarrow \text{stack } A \rightarrow \text{stack } A$. (empty S1, enter 1 S1 S2, enter 2 S2 S3, local stk remove A S3 S4, remove B S4 S5))))). empty emp. enter X S (stk X S). ?- stack test A B. remove X (stk X S) S. A == 2, B == 1.41 43 The import directive The L_{λ} Sublanguage module mod1. • Restricts λ Prolog by placing the following restriction on variimport mod2 mod3. ables: For every subterm in formula B of the form $xy_1 \dots y_n$ (n > 0) where x is essentially existentially quantified in • The clauses in mod2 and mod3 are available during the search B, the variables y_1, \ldots, y_n must be distinct variables that for proofs of the body of clauses in mod1. Logically... are essentially universally quantified within the scope of • Suppose E_2 and E_3 are the formulas associated with mod2 and the binding for x. mod3 and $G \supset A$ is a clause in mod1. • Simplifies β -conversion: all β -redexes have the form $ty_1 \dots y_n$ • Then the clause used by the interpreter is really the one that is where we can assume that t has the form $\lambda y_1 \dots \lambda y_n t'$. By β equivalent to reduction $(\lambda y_1 \dots \lambda y_n, t')y_1 \dots y_n$ simply reduces to t'. $((E_2 \land E_3) \supset G) \supset A$ after existential quantifiers in E_2 and E_3 are changed to univer-

• Simplifies unification: it is decidable and most general unifiers exist; it can be implemented with a simple extension to firstorder unification.

sal quantifiers over G.

L_{λ} Unification ExamplesInterpreters for λ Prolog• An example in L_{λ}
 $x \setminus y \setminus (g (\coprod x z) (\oiint y)) = v \setminus w \setminus (\oiint w)$
 $u == x \setminus y \setminus (\oiint y)$ $x == w \setminus (g (\oiint w) (\oiint w))$ We distinguish between two kinds of interpreters for λ Prolog.
• Specifications are with respect to a non-deterministic interpreter
(which is complete with respect to intuitionistic provability).• An example that is not in L_{λ}
 $(\oiint a) = (g a a)$
 $F == x \setminus (g x a)$
 $F == x \setminus (g a a)$ • The deterministic interpreter which provides an ordering on
clause and goal selection and uses a depth-first search discipline
with backtracking as in Prolog is used for actual implementa-
tions.

2

Part II: Specifying Logics and Inference Systems

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- Specifying Syntax
- A Program for Computing Negation Normal Forms
- Example Specifications
 - \circ Natural Deduction
 - A Sequent System
 - A Modal Logic Specification
 - $\circ \beta \eta$ -Convertibility for the Untyped λ -Calculus
 - \circ Evaluation for a Functional Language
- Correctness of Specifications

Why Theorem Proving as an Application?

- Specification
 - The *declarative* nature of programs allows natural specifications of a variety of logics as well as of the tasks involved in theorem proving.
 - \circ $\lambda\text{-terms}$ are useful for expressing the higher-order abstract syntax of object logics.
 - Universal quantification and implication in goal formulas are useful for specifying various inference systems naturally and directly.
- Implementation
 - Search is fundamental to theorem proving.
 - \circ Unification can be used to solve certain equations between objects (e.g., formulas, proofs).
 - $\circ \lambda$ -conversion can be used to implement *substitution* directly.





Specifying Existential Introduction	Specifying the Discharge of Assumptions
$rac{[t/x]A}{\exists xA}$ \exists -I	$(A) \\ \frac{B}{A \supset B} \supset \text{-I}$
type exists_i nprf -> nprf.	
proof (exists_i P) (exists A) :- proof P (A T).	proof (imp_i P) (A imp B) :- pi pA\((proof pA A) => (proof (P pA) B)).
type exists_i i -> nprf -> nprf.	type imp_i (nprf -> nprf) -> nprf.
proof (exists_i T P) (exists A) :- proof P (A T).	cype imp_i (npri -> npri) -> npri.
12	14
Specifying Universal Introduction	Example Execution
$rac{[y/x]A}{orall x A} orall ext{-I}$	$rac{q}{q \supset q} \supset^{-1}$
	proof (imp_i P) (A imp B) :- pi pA\((proof pA A) => (proof (P pA) B)).
Proviso on \forall -I: y cannot appear free in $\forall xA$, or in any assumption on which the deduction of $[y/x]A$ depends.	$\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} angle$?- proof R (q imp q).
	$\langle \Sigma, \mathcal{P} \rangle$?- pi pA\((proof pA q) => (proof (R1 pA) q)).
<pre>proof (forall_i P) (forall A) :- pi y\(proof (P y) (A y)).</pre>	$\langle \Sigma \cup \{ \mathtt{pa} \}, \mathcal{P} angle$?- (proof pa q) => (proof (R1 pa) q)).
	$(\Sigma \cup \{\mathtt{pa}\}, \mathcal{P} \cup \{\mathtt{proof pa q}\}$?- proof (R1 pa) q.
type forall_i (i -> nprf) -> nprf.	Unification Problem: $R = (imp_i R1), (R1 pa) = pa$ Solution: $R1 := x \setminus x, R := (imp_i x \setminus x)$ Not a Solution: $R1 := x \setminus pa$





$$$$

$\beta\eta$ -Convertibility for the Untyped λ -Calculus	One-Step Reducibility
kind tm type.	
type app tm -> tm -> tm. type abs (tm -> tm) -> tm.	$\frac{M \to P}{MN \to PN} \qquad \frac{N \to P}{MN \to MP} \qquad \frac{M \to N}{\lambda x.M \to \lambda x.N}$
$\lambda f \lambda n. f(fn)$ $\lambda x. xx$	type red1 tm -> tm -> o. red1 M N :- redex M N. red1 (app M N) (app P N) :- red1 M P.
(abs f\(abs n\(app f (app f n)))) (abs x\(app x x))	red1 (app M N) (app M P) :- red1 N P. red1 (abs M) (abs N) :- pi x\(red1 (M x) (N x)).
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$eta\eta extsf{-Redexes}$	$eta\eta$ -Convertibility and Normalization
 β-conversion: (λx.s)t = s[t/x] η-conversion: λx.(sx) = s provided x does not occur free in s. 	conv M N :- red1 M N. conv M M. conv M N :- conv N M.
type redex tm -> tm -> o.	conv M N :- conv M P, conv P N.
redex (app (abs S) T) (S T).	
redex (abs x\(app S x)) S.	norm M N :- red1 M P, !, norm P N. norm M M.

Correctness of Representation of λ -terms

- An Encoding of Untyped Terms to Meta-Terms
 - \circ Given Φ : a mapping from the constants of the object language to a fixed set of constants of the meta-language of type tm.
 - \circ Given $\rho:$ a mapping from the variables of the object language to the meta-variables of type tm.
 - \circ Example:

 $\langle\!\langle \lambda f \lambda n. f(fn) \rangle\!\rangle^{\Phi}_{
ho} \equiv$ (abs f\(abs n\(app f (app f n))))

Theorem (Correctness of Encoding of Untyped Terms)

The encoding $\langle\!\langle \ \rangle\!\rangle_{\rho}^{\Phi}$ is a bijection from the α -equivalence classes of untyped terms to the $\beta\eta$ -equivalence classes of meta-terms of type tm.

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Correctness of $\beta\eta$ -Convertibility Specification

Theorem Let M and N be untyped terms. Then $M =_{\beta\eta} N$ if and only if

(conv $\langle\!\langle M
angle\!
angle^{\Phi}_{
ho} \, \langle\!\langle N
angle\!
angle^{\Phi}_{
ho}$)

is provable.

Evaluation for a Functional Language

```
\begin{array}{l} app \ (abs \ M) \ N \to MN \\ if \ true \ M \ N \to M \\ if \ false \ M \ N \to N \\ hd \ (cons \ M \ N) \to M \\ tl \ (cons \ M \ N) \to N \end{array}
```

 $\begin{array}{c} empty \ nil \ \rightarrow \ true \\ empty \ (cons \ M \ N) \ \rightarrow \ false \\ fix \ M \ \rightarrow \ M \ (fix \ M) \\ let \ M \ N \ \rightarrow \ MN \end{array}$

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A Specification of Evaluation

type eval $tm \rightarrow tm \rightarrow o$.

```
eval (abs M N) P :- eval N N', eval (M N') P.
eval (if C M N) M' :- eval C tru, eval M M'.
eval (if C M N) N' :- eval C fals, eval N N'.
eval (hd L) M' :- eval L (cons M N), eval M M'.
eval (tl L) N' :- eval L (cons M N), eval N N'.
eval (empty L) tru :- eval L nill.
eval (empty L) fals :- eval L (cons M N).
eval (fix M) N :- eval (M (fix M)) N.
eval (let M N) P :- eval N N', eval (M N') P.
```

Some Related Languages

- The Logical Framework (LF) [Harper, Honsell, & Plotkin, JACM 93] is a type theory developed to capture the generalities across a wide variety of object logics. A specification of a logic in LF can be "compiled" rather directly into a set of λ Prolog clauses.
- The Forum logic programming language [Miller, TCS 96] implements an extension of higher-order hereditary Harrop formulas (hohh) to linear logic.
- Isabelle [Paulson 94] is a "generic" tactic theorem prover implemented in ML. It contains a specification language which is a subset of hohh. The two are very close in specification strength.

Reversibility of Rules

$$\frac{A, B, \Gamma \longrightarrow \Delta}{4 \land B, \Gamma \longrightarrow \Delta} \land L \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma \longrightarrow A, \Delta}{\Gamma \longrightarrow A \land B, \Delta} \land R$$

 \wedge -L: There is a proof of one of the formulas in Δ from $A \wedge B$ and Γ if and only if there is a proof of one of the formulas in Δ from A and B and Γ .

 \wedge -R: There is a proof of $A \wedge B$ or of one of the formulas in Δ from Γ if and only if there is a proof of A or one of the formulas in Δ from Γ and there is a proof of B or one of the formulas in Δ from Γ .

2

Part III: Implementing Automatic Theorem Provers

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An Automatic Prover for First-Order Classical Logic

- A strategy for finding sequent proofs
- An implementation using three subprocedures

Non-Reversibility of Rules

The only two rules in the classical sequent calculus presented that are not reversible are:

$$\frac{t/x]A, \Gamma \longrightarrow \Delta}{\forall xA, \Gamma \longrightarrow \Delta} \forall_{\text{-L}} \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma \longrightarrow [t/x]A, \Delta}{\Gamma \longrightarrow \exists xA, \Delta} \exists_{\text{-R}}$$

For example, there may be a proof of one of the formulas in Δ from $\forall xA$ and Γ , but no term t such that there is a proof of one of the formulas in Δ from [t/x]A and Γ . It may be the case that $\forall xA$ must be instantiated with more than one term.

```
A Specification that Removes Formulas

\frac{A, B, \Gamma \rightarrow \Delta}{A \land B, \Gamma \rightarrow \Delta} \land L
type memb_and_rest A \rightarrow (\text{list } A) \rightarrow (\text{list } A) \rightarrow 0.
memb_and_rest A (A::L) L.
memb_and_rest A (B::L) (B::K) := \text{memb}_and\_rest A L K.
proof1 (and_1 P) (Gamma --> Delta) :=
memb_and\_rest (A and B) Gamma Gamma1,
proof1 P ((A::B::Gamma1) --> Delta).
```

Step 2 of 3: the proof2 procedure

2. Apply all rules including versions of the rules for \forall -L and \exists -R that remove the quantified formula after applying the rule, and try to complete the proof. Stop if a proof is successfully completed.

proof2 (forall_l P) (Gamma --> Delta) : memb_and_rest (forall A) Gamma Gamma1,
 proof2 P ((((A T)::Gamma1) --> Delta).

proof2 (exists_r P) (Gamma --> Delta) : memb_and_rest (exists A) Delta Delta1,
 proof2 P (Gamma1 --> ((A T)::Delta1)).

:

(plus duplicates of each of the proof1 clauses)

Step 1 of 3: the proof1 procedure

1. Apply all rules except \forall -L and \exists -R until nothing more can be done. The result is a set of sequents with atomic and universally quantified formulas on the left, and atomic and existentially quantified formulas on the right.

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```
proof1 (initial A) (Gamma --> Delta) :-
memb A Gamma, memb A Delta.
```

```
proof1 (and_r P1 P2) (Gamma --> Delta) :-
    memb_and_rest (A and B) Delta Delta1,
    proof1 P1 (Gamma --> (A::Delta1)),
    proof1 P2 (Gamma --> (B::Delta1)).
```

```
proof1 (imp_l P1 P2) (Gamma --> Delta) :-
    memb_and_rest (A imp B) Gamma Gamma1,
    proof1 P1 (Gamma1 --> (A::Delta)),
    proof1 P2 ((B::Gamma1) --> Delta).
:
```

Step 3 of 3: the nprove procedure

3. Add an additional copy of each quantified formula to the sequents obtained from step 1, and repeat steps 2 and 3.

nprove N P Seq :- amplify N Seq ASeq, proof2 P ASeq. nprove N P Seq :- M is (N + 1), nprove M P Seq.

```
amplify 1 Seq Seq.
amplify N (Gamma1 --> Delta1) (Gamma2 --> Delta2) :-
N > 1,
amplify_forall N Gamma1 Gamma2,
amplify_exists N Delta1 Delta2.
```

add_copies 1 A L (A::L).
add_copies N A L (A::K) :N > 1, M is (N - 1),
add_copies M A L K.

amplify_forall N nil nil. amplify_forall N ((forall A)::Gamma) Gamma2 :amplify_forall N Gamma Gamma1, add_copies N (forall A) Gamma1 Gamma2. amplify_forall N (A::Gamma) (A::Gamma1) :amplify_forall N Gamma Gamma1.

amplify_exists N nil nil. amplify_exists N ((exists A)::Delta) Delta2 :amplify_exists N Delta Delta1, add_copies N (exists A) Delta1 Delta2. amplify_exists N (A::Delta) (A::Delta1) :amplify_exists N Delta Delta1.

Examples

The first proof completes at amplification 1. The second needs amplification 2.

$$\frac{p(a) \longrightarrow p(a)}{p(a) \longrightarrow \exists x \ p(x)} \exists \cdot \mathbf{R} \qquad \frac{p(b) \longrightarrow p(b)}{p(b) \longrightarrow \exists x \ p(x)} \exists \cdot \mathbf{R} \\ \frac{p(a) \lor p(b) \longrightarrow \exists x \ p(x)}{\longrightarrow p(a) \lor p(b) \supset \exists x \ p(x)} \supset \cdot \mathbf{R}$$

 $\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} - & \rightarrow p(t) \supset p(z), p(z) \supset p(w) \\ \hline \rightarrow p(t) \supset p(z), \forall y \ (p(z) \supset p(y)) \\ \hline \rightarrow p(t) \supset p(z), \exists x \ \forall y \ (p(x) \supset p(y)) \\ \hline \rightarrow \forall y \ (p(t) \supset p(y)), \exists x \ \forall y \ (p(x) \supset p(y)) \\ \hline \hline \rightarrow \exists x \ \forall y \ (p(x) \supset p(y)), \exists x \ \forall y \ (p(x) \supset p(y)) \\ \hline \rightarrow \exists x \ \forall y \ (p(x) \supset p(y)) \\ \hline \end{array} } \begin{array}{c} \exists R \\ \forall y \ (p(x) \supset p(y)) \\ \hline \end{array} \end{array}$

Putting it all Together

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The top-level predicate is **proof1**. Add one more clause for it at the end.

proof1 P Seq :- nprove 1 P Seq.

nprove N P Seq :- amplify N Seq ASeq, proof2 P ASeq. nprove N P Seq :- M is (N + 1), nprove M P Seq.

Completeness follows from the fact proved in [Andrews, JACM 81] that duplication of outermost quantifiers is all that is necessary to obtain a complete procedure, and the fact that step 2 will always terminate.

Part IV: Implementing Interactive Tactic Theorem Provers

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- Inference Rules as Tactics
- A Goal Reduction Tactical
- Some Common Tacticals
- Tactics and Tacticals for Interaction
- An Example Execution

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Tactic Theorem Provers Tactics with Assumption Lists • In general, more flexibility in control of search is needed than and_i_tac (proof (and_i P1 P2) (A and B)) can be provided by depth-first search with backtracking. ((proof P1 A) ^^ (proof P2 B)). • Tactics and tacticals have proven to be a powerful mechanism for implementing theorem provers. Example tactic provers (all kind judg type. ML implementations) include: type proof nprf -> form -> judg. type deduct (list judg) -> judg -> goal. • LCF [Gordon, Milner, & Wadsworth] • HOL [Gordon] and_i_tac (deduct Gamma (proof (and_i P1 P2) (A and B))) ((deduct Gamma (proof P1 A)) ^^ • Isabelle [Paulson] (deduct Gamma (proof P2 B))). • Nuprl [Constable et. al.] • Coq [Huet et. al.] • Tactics and tacticals can be implemented directly and naturally in λ Prolog. They implement an interpreter for goal-directed theorem proving in the logic programming setting. 2 4 **Goal Constructors** Inference Rules As Tactics $\frac{A \quad B}{A \wedge B} \wedge -I$ goal. type tt $\sim \sim$ goal -> goal -> goal. type goal -> goal -> goal. type vv all (A -> goal) -> goal. type (A -> goal) -> goal. type some proof (and_i P1 P2) (A and B) :o -> goal -> goal. ==>> type proof P1 A, proof P2 B. infixl ~ ^ З. and_i_tac (proof (and_i P1 P2) (A and B)) infixl vv 3. ((proof P1 A) ^^ (proof P2 B)). З. infixr ==>> type and_i_tac goal -> goal -> o. nprf -> form -> goal. type proof type ^^ goal -> goal -> goal. infix ^^ 3. 3 5

A Goal Reduction Tactical

type maptac (goal -> goal -> o) -> goal -> goal -> o. maptac Tac tt tt. maptac Tac (InGoal1 ^^ InGoal2) (OutGoal1 ^^ OutGoal2) :maptac Tac InGoal1 OutGoal1, maptac Tac InGoal2 OutGoal2. maptac Tac (all InGoal) (all OutGoal) :pi x\(maptac Tac (InGoal x) (OutGoal x)). maptac Tac (InGoal1 vv InGoal2) OutGoal :maptac Tac InGoal1 OutGoal; maptac Tac InGoal2 OutGoal. maptac Tac (some InGoal) OutGoal :sigma T\(maptac Tac (InGoal T) OutGoal). maptac Tac (D ==>> InGoal) (D ==>> OutGoal) :-D => (maptac Tac InGoal OutGoal). maptac Tac InGoal OutGoal :- Tac InGoal OutGoal.

Interactive Theorem Proving

```
type
         query
                        (goal \rightarrow o) \rightarrow goal \rightarrow goal \rightarrow o.
                        (goal \rightarrow o) \rightarrow goal \rightarrow goal \rightarrow o.
type
         inter
                       string -> (goal -> goal -> o)
         with tacs
type
                           -> goal -> goal -> o.
query PrintPred InGoal OutGoal :-
  PrintPred InGoal,
  print "Enter tactic:", readtac Tac,
  (Tac = backup, !, fail; Tac InGoal OutGoal).
inter PrintPred InGoal OutGoal :-
  repeat (query PrintPred) InGoal OutGoal.
with_tacs M Tac InGoal OutGoal :-
  M ==> (Tac InGoal OutGoal).
```

Tacticals

then Tac1 Tac2 InGoal OutGoal :-Tac1 InGoal MidGoal, maptac Tac2 MidGoal OutGoal.

orelse Tac1 Tac2 InGoal OutGoal :-Tac1 InGoal OutGoal; Tac2 InGoal OutGoal.

idtac Goal Goal.

```
repeat Tac InGoal OutGoal :-
    orelse (then Tac (repeat Tac)) idtac InGoal OutGoal.
```

try Tac InGoal OutGoal :orelse Tac idtac InGoal OutGoal.

Interactive Tactics for Natural Deduction

• Allowing the User to Specify Substitution Terms exists_i_tac (proof (exists_i P) (exists A)) (proof P (A T)).

• Adding Lemmas

close_tac (proof P A) tt :- assump P A.

.



```
Assumptions:
1 q a or q b
```

- -

Conclusion: q T

Enter tactic: ?- or_e_tac 1.

Assumptions:

1 q a 2 q a or q b

Conclusion:

q T Enter tactic: ?- close_tac 1.

Assumptions: 1 q a or q b Conclusion: exists x\(q x) Enter tactic: ?- then (or_e_tac 1) (then exists i tac

OutGoal = all p\((all p1\tt) ^^ (all p2\tt))

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Assumptions:

1 q b 2 q a or q b

Conclusion:

q a

```
Enter tactic: ?- backup.
:
Enter tactic: ?- backup.
```

```
:
Enter tactic: ?- backup.
```

Generic Theorem Proving

- Logics in the Isabelle theorem prover [Paulson 94] are specified in a language which is a subset of hohh, while control, including tactics and tacticals, is implemented in ML.
- Here, tactics and tacticals are specified in hohh. The λ Prolog interpreter associates control primitives (search operations) to the logical connectives of hohh.
- Much work has gone into making Isabelle efficient as well as providing extensive environments for several particular object logics. These environments include efficient specialized tactics as well as large libraries of theorems.
- Such an effort has not been made for λ Prolog, but could be. Experience with Isabelle demonstrates the effectiveness of generic theorem proving.

Part V: An Implementation of Higher-Order Term Rewriting

- Higher-Order Rewrite Rules
- Some Example Rewrite Systems
- Expressing a Rewrite System as a Set of Tactics
- Tactics and Tacticals for Rewriting

Higher-Order Rewrite Rules

A rewrite rule is a pair $l \longrightarrow r$ such that l and r are simply-typed λ -terms of the same primitive type, l is a term in L_{λ} , and all free variables in r also occur in l.

Example 1: $\beta\eta$ -conversion for λ -terms

- β -conversion: $(\lambda x.s)t = s[t/x]$
- η -conversion: $\lambda x.(sx) = s$ provided x does not occur free in s.

type app $tm \rightarrow tm \rightarrow tm.$ type abs $(tm \rightarrow tm) \rightarrow tm.$ type redex $tm \rightarrow tm \rightarrow rm$

redex (app (abs \underline{S}) \underline{T}) (\underline{S} T). redex (abs x\(app \underline{S} x)) S.

3

Higher-Order Rewriting

1

- Higher-order rewrite systems use λ -terms as a meta-language for expressing the equality relation for object languages that include notions of bound variables [Nipkow LICS'91, Klop 80, Aczel 78]
- Many operations on formulas and programs can be naturally expressed as higher-order rewrite systems.
- Capabilities for rewriting can be added to tactic style theorem provers, used to reason about the equality relation of a particular object logic, and combined with other theorem proving techniques.
- Higher-order logic programming allows:
 - \circ a natural specification of higher-order rewrite systems
 - \circ powerful mechanisms for descending through terms and matching terms with rewrite templates

Three Parts of a Rewriting Procedure

• Rewrite Rules

redex (app (abs S) T) (S T). redex (abs $x \setminus (app S x)$) S.

• Congruence and One-Step Rewriting

red1 M N :- redex M N.
red1 (app M N) (app P N) :- red1 M P.
red1 (app M N) (app M P) :- red1 N P.
red1 (abs M) (abs N) :- pi x\(red1 (M x) (N x)).

• Multiple Step Reduction

reduce M N :- red1 M P, reduce P N. reduce M M.

2

Rewriting in a Tactic Theorem Prover

- The previous example implements the leftmost-outermost rewrite stategy. Using a different order on the **red1** clauses can give other rewrite strategies such as bottom-up.
- In a tactic theorem prover, rewrite rules and congruence rules can be implemented as basic tactics. More complex tactics can be implemented for various strategies.

Example 2: Evaluation as Rewriting

app:tm ightarrow tm ightarrow tm	nil : tm
abs:(tm ightarrow tm) ightarrow tm	cons:tm ightarrow tm ightarrow tm
0:tm	hd:tm ightarrow tm
s:tm ightarrow tm	tl:tm ightarrow tm
true:tm	empty:tm ightarrow tm
false:tm	fix:(tm ightarrow tm) ightarrow tm
$\mathit{if}: tm ightarrow tm ightarrow tm ightarrow tm$	$let:(tm \to tm) \to tm \to tm$

Rewrite and Congruence Rules as Tactics

5

type	==	A -> A -> goal.
infix	==	7.
type	prim	goal -> goal.
type	rew	goal -> goal -> o.
type	cong	goal -> goal -> o.
type	$\texttt{cong}_\texttt{const}$	goal -> goal -> o.
-		s S) T) == (S T))) tt. app S x)) == S)) tt.
((prim (M == P	N) == (app P Q))))) ^^ (prim (N == Q))). == (abs N)))
0 1		const (prim (x == x)) tt) ==>>
•	0	((M x) == (N x)))).
cong_co	nst (prim (f	== f)) tt.

Congruence Tactics for Evaluation

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```
cong_const (prim (tru == tru)) tt.
cong_const (prim (fals == fals)) tt.
cong_const (prim (z == z)) tt.
cong_const (prim (nill == nill)) tt.
cong (prim ((s M) == (s N))) (prim (M == N)).
cong (prim ((cons M N) == (cons P Q)))
     ((prim (M == P)) ^^ (prim (N == Q))).
cong (prim ((hd M) == (hd N))) (prim (M == N)).
cong (prim ((tl M) == (tl N))) (prim (M == N)).
cong (prim ((empty M) == (empty N))) (prim (M == N)).
cong (prim ((if C M N) == (if D P Q)))
     ((prim (C == D)) ^^ (prim (M == P)) ^^ (prim (N == Q))).
cong (prim ((fix M) == (fix N)))
     (all x \setminus ((cong_const (prim (x == x)) tt) ==>> (prim ((M x) == (N x))))).
cong (prim ((let M N) == (let P Q)))
     ((all x\((cong_const (prim (x == x)) tt) ==>>
                 (prim ((M x) == (P x))))) ^^ (prim (N == Q))).
```

```
6
```

Evaluation Rewrite Rules	Example 3: Negation Normal Forms
	• Congruence Rules
$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	<pre>cong (prim ((A and B) == (C and D))) ((prim (A == C)) ^^ (prim (B == D))). cong (prim ((forall A) == (forall B))) (all x\((cong_const (prim (x == x)) tt) ==>></pre>
	• Rewrite Rules
	<pre>rew (prim ((neg (A and B)) ==</pre>
9	
Tactics Implementing Evaluation Rewrites	A Modified maptac
rew (prim ((app (abs M) N) == (M N))) tt.	type maptacC (goal -> goal -> o) -> goal -> goal -> o.
<pre>rew (prim ((abs X (app M X)) == M)) tt. rew (prim ((hd (cons M N)) == M)) tt. rew (prim ((tl (cons M N)) == N)) tt. rew (prim ((empty nill) == tru)) tt. rew (prim ((empty (cons M N)) == fals)) tt. rew (prim ((if tru M N) == M)) tt. rew (prim ((if fals M N) == N)) tt. rew (prim ((if fals M N) == N)) tt. rew (prim ((fix M) == (M (fix M)))) tt.</pre>	<pre>maptacC Tac tt tt. maptacC Tac (InGoal1 ^ InGoal2) OutGoal :- Tac (InGoal1 ^ InGoal2) OutGoal. maptacC Tac (all InGoal) (all OutGoal) :- pi x\(maptacC Tac (InGoal x) (OutGoal x)). maptacC Tac (InGoal1 vv InGoal2) OutGoal :- maptacC Tac InGoal1 OutGoal; maptacC Tac InGoal2 OutGoal. maptacC Tac (some InGoal) OutGoal :- sigma T\(maptacC Tac (InGoal T) OutGoal). maptacC Tac (D ==>> InGoal) (D ==>> OutGoal) :- D => (maptacC Tac InGoal OutGoal). maptacC Tac (prim InGoal) OutGoal :- Tac (prim InGoal) OutGoal :-</pre>
	Tac (prim modal) butdoal.



Leftmost-Outermost Rewriting

lo Cong Rew InG OutG : then (repeat (left_rew (lo_rew Cong Rew)))
 refl InG OutG.

An Example

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Let APP be the following term representing the program for appending two lists in our functional language.

- $\begin{array}{l} (fix \ \lambda F.(abs \ \lambda l_1.(abs \ \lambda l_2.\\ (if \ (empty \ l_1) \ l_2 \ (cons \ (hd \ l_1) \ (app \ (app \ F \ (tl \ l_1)) \ l_2))))))\end{array}$
- The lo strategy reduces

(app (app APP (cons 0 nil)) (cons (s 0) nil)) to (cons 0 (cons (s 0) nil)).

The lo strategy corresponds to lazy evaluation of this language.

• The bu strategy loops, repeatedly applying the rewrite rule for fix and expanding the definition of the function.

Other Rewrite Strategies

- The bu and lo tactics implement common complete strategies for terminating rewrite systems. They illustrate the use of tactics and tacticals for implementing rewrite procedures.
- The real power of the tactic setting is that it provides a set of high-level primitives with which to write specialized strategies. Examples include:
 - Call-by-value vs. call-by-name evaluation. Strong vs. weak evaluation (reducing under a λ -abstraction or not). [Hannan, ELP'91]
 - \circ Type-driven rewriting using η -expansion. [Pfenning,91]
 - \circ Layered rewriting where the application of a subset of the possible rewrite rules are applied, and rewriting is interleaved with other reasoning.
 - \circ Tactics specialized to particular applications or domains.

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Part VI: Encoding the Logical Framework in λ Prolog

- Syntax of the Logical Framework (LF) [Harper, Honsell, & Plotkin, JACM 93]
- An Example LF Signature
- Translating LF Signatures to Logic Programming Specifications



- LF allows function types of any order, but does not allow *Type* (which is the LF equivalent of o) anywhere in types except as a target type. There is no quantification over *Type*.
- Unlike L_{λ} which restricts the form of terms, LF extends them to allow dependent types.
- Note that our example specifications don't use predicate quantification (though the implementation of tactics and tacticals use it extensively). Our encoding "compiles" LF signatures into the sublanguage of hohh without predicate quantification.

2

LF Syntax

Syntax for LF Kinds, Types, Objects

$$\begin{split} K &:= Type \mid \Pi x : A.K \\ A &:= x \mid \Pi x : A.B \mid \lambda x : A.B \mid AM \\ M &:= x \mid \lambda x : A.M \mid MN \end{split}$$

• Dependent Types: Types can depend on terms. In particular, in $\Pi x : A.B$, the variable x can occur in the type $B. A \to B$ denotes $\Pi x : A.B$ when x does not occur in B.

• *Kinds* can depend on terms also.

• Terms are similar to the λ -terms of hohh except that in λx : A.M, A can be a dependent type.

LF Contexts and Assertions

Syntax for Contexts (Signatures)

 $\Gamma := \langle \rangle \mid \Gamma, x : K \mid \Gamma, x : A$

LF Assertions

 $\Gamma \vdash K \ kind \ (K \ is \ a \ kind \ in \ \Gamma)$ $\Gamma \vdash A : K \ (A \ has \ kind \ K \ in \ \Gamma)$ $\Gamma \vdash M : A \ (M \ has \ type \ A \ in \ \Gamma)$

Valid Contexts

The empty context is valid and $\Gamma, x : P$ is a valid context if Γ is a valid context and either $\Gamma \vdash P$ kind or $\Gamma \vdash P : Type$.

4

An LF Signature for Natural Deduction

form : Type i : Type

 $\begin{array}{l} \wedge: \textit{form} \rightarrow \textit{form} \rightarrow \textit{form} \\ \forall: (i \rightarrow \textit{form}) \rightarrow \textit{form} \\ \vdots \\ \textit{true}: \textit{form} \rightarrow \textit{Type} \end{array}$

 $\begin{array}{l} \wedge \text{-I}: \Pi A: form.\Pi B: form.true(A) \rightarrow true(B) \rightarrow true(A \land B) \\ \supset \text{-I}: \Pi A: form.\Pi B: form.(true(A) \rightarrow true(B)) \rightarrow true(A \supset B) \\ \forall \text{-I}: \Pi A: i \rightarrow form.(\Pi x: i.true(Ax)) \rightarrow true(\forall A) \\ \vdots \end{array}$

5

Translating Kind and Type Declarations

• Introducing New Base Types

form : Type i : Type

kind form type. kind i type.

• Introducing the Syntax of the Object Logic

 $\wedge: \textit{form} \rightarrow \textit{form} \rightarrow \textit{form}$

type and form -> form -> form.

• Dependent Type Constants as Predicates

 $true: form \rightarrow Type$

type proof form -> o.

Inference Rules as Clauses I

 $\wedge \text{-I}: \Pi A: form.\Pi B: form.true(A) \rightarrow true(B) \rightarrow true(A \land B)$

proof (A and B) :- proof A, proof B.

An LF term inhabiting the type $true(A \land B)$ will be a proof of the formula $A \land B$. If we use the above signature item in constructing such a term, this term will have the form:

$(\wedge -I A B P_1 P_2)$

We can incorporate proof objects of this form into $\lambda \mathrm{Prolog}$ specifications.

type proof nprf -> form -> o. type and_i form -> form -> nprf -> nprf -> o.

```
proof (and_i A B P1 P2) (A and B) :-
proof P1 A, proof P2 B.
```

Inference Rules as Clauses II

\supset -I : ΠA : form. ΠB : form. $(true(A) \rightarrow true(B)) \rightarrow true(A \supset B)$

type imp_i form -> form -> (nprf -> nprf) -> nprf.

proof (imp_i A B P) (A imp B) : pi pA\((proof pA A) => (proof (P pA) B)).

$\forall \text{-I}: \Pi A: i \to form.(\Pi x: i.true(Ax)) \to true(\forall A)$

type forall_i (i -> form) -> (i -> nprf) -> nprf.

proof (forall_i A P) (forall A) :pi y\(proof (P y) (A y)).

Summary

- An LF signature item is translated to a type declaration and a clause. The type declaration is a "flat" version of the LF type, while the clause replaces dependent types with predicates.
- This correspondence is formalized in [Felty&Miller, CADE'90].
- The translation is fairly direct, so the two are very close in specification strength.
- LF serves as a logical foundation for the logic programming language Elf [Pfenning LICS'89].