

An automated reasoning system with a preparatory inference

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1 Introduction

Our automated reasoning system “H-prover” uses Isabelle/HOL[1] as an inference engine. To prove a proposition, Isabelle has four tactics `rule_tac`, `drule`, `erule` and `frule_tac`. The `rule_tac` rewrites a proposition by applying a theorem or a lemma under a condition. That is, except some theorems, `rule_tac` works only if two conditions are satisfied:

1. the conclusion of the theorem coincides the conclusion of the proposition to be proved with a proper substitution of variables
2. the first premise is satisfied.

Therefore if, by checking the conclusion part, a theorem seems to be used to rewrite the proposition to proved, but the theorem’s first premise is not satisfied by premises of the proposition, then we try to derive the first premise of the theorem from premises of the proposition to prove by using a `frule_tac`.

In this report, we present a method:

1. to choose a theorem applied by using `rule_tac`.
2. to derive the first premise of the theorem from premises of the proposition to prove.

As noted above a tactic used in the second step is called a “`frule_tac`” in Isabelle.

We note that in Isabelle each variable has a type, such as “`'a`”, “`'a ⇒ bool`” and “`'a ⇒ 'b`”. At first we illustrate a proof procedure:

1. give a proposition to be proved into emacs
2. ProofGeneral transfers it to Isabelle
3. Isabelle gives a response
4. ProofGeneral transfers them to emacs
5. H-prover takes the response and choose some theorems from a SQL table which can be used to rewrite the proposition
6. H-prover gives one among chosen theorems to Isabelle and check whether is works or not
7. if a theorem works, repeats from 4 to 6

2 Extracting a character of a theorem

Given a proposition to be proved, H-prover chooses some candidate theorems used to rewrite the proposition from a SQL table. In the table each theorems is stored as a tree.

In this section, we discuss a character of a theorem which enables us to choose proper theorems applied to rewrite the proposition to prove. At first we give two examples:

```
axiom mp:" [ ?P → ?Q; ?P ] ⇒ ?Q"
```

The tree expression of the axiom mp is

```
(llrarS (lrBRK (llrarS (?P) (?Q) sclS ?P)) (?Q))
```

and both ?P and ?Q have type “bool”. This axiom has two premises (llrarS (?P) (?Q)) and (?P) and the conclusion is (?Q). ?P and ?Q are substituted by some variables or formulae when this axiom is used to rewrite a proposition. Using a regular expression (of postgresSQL), we take skeletons of

```
(?Q) as \(_+\)
(llrarS (?P) (?Q)) as \(\llrarS \(_+\) \(_+\)\)
```

```
lemma exI:" ?P ?x ⇒ ∃ y. ?P y"
```

The tree expression of this lemma is

```
(llrarS (?P ?x) (exS $x dS ?P $x))
```

The type of ?P is “?`a ⇒ bool”, the type of ?x is “?`a” and the type of \$x is “?`a”. Skeleton are

```
(?P ?x) as \(_+ _+\)
(exS $x dS ?P $x) as \(\exS \[$[~ ]+ dS _+ \[$[~ ]+\)
```

Thus the skeleton of a proposition tree is obtained by changing a local variable as $[\hat{\quad}]$ and changing the other variables as $_{\cdot}$. In SQL we choose candidate theorems as

```
select name from rule_table where conclusion1 similar to skele-
ton(conclusion)
```

where `conclusion1` is the conclusion of the proposition to prove and `conclusion` is the conclusion of a theorem in the table. If the conclusion is simple as in the axiom `mp`, since any tree is similar to $\backslash(\cdot+)\backslash$, any theorem with the same type conclusion is selected.

Positions of variables are another character of a proposition. For the tree $(?P \ ?x)$, the position of $?P$ is (\cdot_e) and that of $?x$ is $(\cdot_c \cdot_e)$. Here (\cdot_e) means root position, and $(\cdot_c \cdot_e)$ means root position of the child. Since a variable, say $?P$, sometimes occur at different positions, we express positions as

```
((?P position1 position2 ... positionn) (?Q positions) ...)
```

Since the branch point of a proposition tree, if any, is binary, a position of a variable is specified by the shortest path from the root to the variable. For example the position of the variable $?A$ in the tree $(\text{andS } (?A) (?B))$ is $(\cdot_l \cdot_e)$ and that of $?B$ is $(\cdot_r \cdot_e)$. “ \cdot_l ” means the left-child, and “ \cdot_r ” means the right-child. We have one more sign to express a position within extra brackets as in the following example:

$$(\exists x \in ?A. ?P) = ((\exists x. x \in ?A) \wedge ?P)$$

The tree expression of the above is

```
(= ((exS inS ($x dS ?P) (?A))) ((andS ((exS $x dS inS ($x) (?A)))
(?P))))
```

The position of the variable $?P$ is $(\cdot_l \cdot_n \cdot_c \cdot_l \cdot_c \cdot_c \cdot_e)$. Thus the position of a variable can be expressed by \cdot_e , \cdot_c , \cdot_l , \cdot_r and \cdot_n . Note that the following example shows simply taking propositions makes an error.

```
proposition xxx:"[ P c; Q c ]  $\implies$   $\exists x. P x \wedge Q x$ "
```

This proposition is rewritten by the lemma `exI`, but the conclusion of `exI` is $\exists y. ?P y$. The position of $\cdot P$ is $(\cdot_c \cdot_c \cdot_c \cdot_e)$, but at this point “`andS`” is located in the tree of the proposition to prove. This is because $?P$ in `exI` is an operator, and using an operator $\exists x. P x \wedge Q x$ should be expressed as $\exists \$x. \lambda \$x. P \$x \wedge Q \x . Thus an operator should be rewritten by using λ expression.

We note the type of a tree. We can calculate a type of a tree. We illustrate how to calculate the type by giving a simple tree $(?f \ ?x)$, where the type of $?f$ is $?`a \Rightarrow ?`b$ and the type of $?x$ is $?`b$. The type of $(?f \ ?x)$ is $?`b$ since the type of $(?f \ ?x)$ is the type of the image element. Like this we can calculate the type of a tree.

We saw items that characterize a proposition

1. skeleton of the proposition
2. types of variables
3. positions of variables

If the skeleton of the conclusion of a theorem is similar to that of a proposition to prove, we check whether the type of variables (and trees) are the same or not. Finally checking positions of each variable of the theorem coincide that of the proposition to prove, we can obtain variables to substitute the variables of the theorem.

3 Deriving the first premise

Given a proposition to prove, we choose a theorem as above from the `rule_table` omitting the first premise of the theorem. Then we have two cases:

case 1 the first premise of the theorem is satisfied

case 2 the first premise of the theorem is not satisfied

In the case 1, we have only to use a `rule_tac` with specified variables. In the case 2

1. checking positions, we specify variables of the theorem (we call `theorem1` the new theorem with substituted variables)
2. choose a theorem which derives the first premise of `theorem1`
3. applying `frule_tac`, we rewrite `theorem1`
4. apply the theorem chosen in 1 by using `rule_tac` to `theorem1`

We show how tactics work by giving examples:

```
prop_to_prove injective:"[ inj_on f A; x ∈ A; y ∈ A; f
x = f y ] ⇒ x = y "
apply (unfold inj_on_def) expand the definition gives the fol-
lowing
```

```
"[ ∀x ∈ A. ∀y ∈ A. f x = f y → x = y; x ∈ A; y ∈ A
] ⇒ f x = f y"
```

We use the following theorem `bspec` and add `f x = f y → x = y` as an extra premise of the proposition to prove.

```
bspec: "[ ∀x ∈ ?A. ?P ?x; ?x ∈ A ] ⇒ ?P ?x" as
apply (frule_tac x = x in bspec) then Isabelle returns two
subgoals
```

1. "[∀x ∈ A. ∀y ∈ A. f x = f y → x = y; x ∈ A; y ∈ A; f x = f y] ⇒ x ∈ A";

2. " $\llbracket \forall x \in A. \forall y \in A. f\ x = f\ y \longrightarrow x = y; x \in A; y \in A; f\ x = f\ y; \forall y \in A. f\ x = f\ y \longrightarrow x = y \rrbracket \Longrightarrow x = y$ "

the subgoal 1 is trivial because the conclusion appears within premises. Applying `bspec` again to the subgoal 2, we obtain following two propositions.

1. " $\llbracket \forall y \in A. f\ x = f\ y \longrightarrow x = y; \forall x \in A. \forall y \in A. f\ x = f\ y \longrightarrow x = y; x \in A; y \in A; f\ x = f\ y \rrbracket \Longrightarrow y \in A$ "

2. " $\llbracket \forall y \in A. f\ x = f\ y \longrightarrow x = y; \forall x \in A. \forall y \in A. f\ x = f\ y \longrightarrow x = y; x \in A; y \in A; f\ x = f\ y; f\ x = f\ y \longrightarrow x = y \rrbracket \Longrightarrow x = y$ "

Now we can apply `rev_mp`: " $\llbracket ?P; ?P \longrightarrow ?Q \rrbracket \Longrightarrow ?Q$ ", with substitutions $?P \leftrightarrow f\ x = f\ y$, $?Q \leftrightarrow x = y$.

In this example, specialization is the straight forward way because of $\forall x \in A. \forall y \in A. f\ x = f\ y \longrightarrow x = y; x \in A$ so `frule_tac` can be applied without foresight. That is "even we don't know `rev_mp` is applied later, we apply `frule_tac bspec`".

But there is an example an `frule_tac` is applied effectively with a scope of complete proof.

`mp_contra1`: " $\llbracket P \longrightarrow \neg Q; Q \rrbracket \Longrightarrow \neg P$ "

For this proposition, neither

`rule_tac P = P and Q = " $\neg Q$ "` in `mp`

nor `notE` do not work. To this proposition, at first, we apply

`frule_tac P = P and Q = " $\neg Q$ "` Then we can apply `notE` to complete a proof.

References

- [1] T. Nipkow, L. Paulson and M. Wenzel, *Isabelle/HOL: A Proof Assistant for Higher Order Logic* (Springer, 2010)
- [2] *PostgreSQL 9.1.1 Documentation* (<http://www.postgresql.org/>)