FIRST-ORDER LOGIC: REASONING ABOUT EQUALITY

Course "Computational Logic"



Wolfgang Schreiner Research Institute for Symbolic Computation (RISC) Wolfgang.Schreiner@risc.jku.at





Equality

So far, the binary predicate symbol "=" has played no special role; however, due to its central role in mathematics, it deserves particular attention.

- Standard: First-Order Logic with Equality
 - Most important logic in general practice.
 - First-order logic where "=" has the fixed interpretation "equality".
 - Normal model: a structure where = is interpreted as "equality".
 - Simple approach: add explicit equality axioms to every proving problem.
 - More comprehensive: extend first-order proof calculus by rules for equality.
- Alternative: Equational Logic
 - A restricted subset of predicate logic.
 - The only predicate is "=" (other predicates simulated as functions into Bool).
 - Implement special (semi-)decision procedure for this logic.

We will now sketch these alternatives in turn.

Equality Axioms

Equality is the equivalence relation that is a congruence for every predicate/function.

$$\forall x. \ x = x$$
 (1)

$$\forall x, y. \ x = y \Rightarrow y = x \tag{2}$$

$$\forall x, y, z. \ x = y \land y = z \Rightarrow x = z \tag{3}$$

$$\forall x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_n, x_1 = y_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_n = y_n \Rightarrow f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(y_1, \dots, y_n)$$

$$\tag{4}$$

$$\forall x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_n, x_1 = y_1 \land \dots \land x_n = y_n \Rightarrow p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \Leftrightarrow p(y_1, \dots, y_n)$$
 (5)

- Axioms (1-3): = is reflexive, symmetric, transitive, i.e., = an equivalence relation.
- Axiom schemes (4-5): = is a function/predicate congruence.
 - One instance of the schemes for every function symbol f and every predicate symbol p.
- Theorem: Let Δ be a set of formulas and $eq(\Delta)$ be the equivalence relation axioms together with the instances of the congruence schemes for every function/predicate in Δ . Then Δ is satisfiable by a normal model (valid in all normal models) if and only if $\Delta \cup eq(\Delta)$ is satisfiable (valid).
 - Proof sketch: Any model of $\Delta \cup eq(\Delta)$ can be lifted to a normal model of Δ by partitioning the domain into equivalence classes according to the interpretation of =. 2/30

Implementation in OCaml

```
let function_congruence (f,n) = ...;;
let predicate_congruence (p,n) = ...;;
let equivalence_axioms =
  [<forall x. x = x>>; <forall x y z. x = y /\ x = z ==> y = z>>];;
let equalitize fm =
  let allpreds = predicates fm in
  if not (mem ("=",2) allpreds) then fm else
 let preds = subtract allpreds ["=".2] and funcs = functions fm in
  let axioms = itlist (union ** function_congruence) funcs
                      (itlist (union ** predicate_congruence) preds
                              equivalence_axioms) in
  Imp(end_itlist mk_and axioms.fm)::
```

Implementation in OCaml

```
# let ewd = equalitize
 <<(forall x. f(x) => g(x)) / (exists x. f(x)) / (forall x y. g(x) / (g(y) ==> x = y)
   ==> forall v. g(v) ==> f(v)>>;
val ewd : fol formula =
  <<(forall x. x = x) /\ (forall x y z. x = y /\ x = z ==> y = z) /\
    (forall x1 y1. x1 = y1 ==> f(x1) ==> f(y1)) /\
    (forall x1 y1. x1 = y1 ==> g(x1) ==> g(y1)) ==>
    (forall x. f(x) ==> g(x)) /\
    (exists x. f(x)) /\ (forall x y. g(x) /\ g(y) ==> x = y) ==>
    (forall y. g(y) \Longrightarrow f(y) >>
# splittab ewd ;;
Searching with depth limit 0
. . .
Searching with depth limit 9
- : int list = [9]
```

Sequent Calculus and Equality

We may extend the sequent calculus by the "core" of the equality axioms.

$$\frac{\Gamma, x = y \Rightarrow F[x] \Leftrightarrow F[y] \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta} \text{ (SUBST)} \qquad \frac{\Gamma, t = t \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta} \text{ (REFL)}$$

- Rule (SUBST) represents Leibnitz's law (the principle of substitutivity):
 - Formula F[y] is identical to F[x] except that *any* (not necessarily *all*) free occurrences of x may be replaced by y (which must remain free in F).
- Rule (SUBST) is equivalent to the more special congruence rules:

$$\frac{\Gamma, t_1 = u_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge t_n = u_n \Rightarrow f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) = f(u_1, \ldots, u_n) + \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta} \quad \text{(CONGF)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, t_1 = u_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge t_n = u_n \Rightarrow p(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \Leftrightarrow p(u_1, \ldots, u_n) \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta} \quad \text{(CONGP)}$$

• From rules (SUBST) and (REFL), also symmetry and transitivity can be derived.

The extended calculus is sound and complete (with respect to <u>normal</u> models) but very inefficient to implement automatically.

First-Order Tableaux and Equality

The method of firder-order tableaux extended by the following rules:

$$\frac{t = u}{F[t]}$$

$$\frac{F[u]}{T[u]}$$

$$\frac{f[u]}{t = t}$$

- Replacement: If a branch contains the equality t = u and the formula F[t] with an occurrence of term t that is not in the scope of any quantifier, the branch can be extended by F[u] which is a duplicate of F[t] except that the occurrence of t in F[t] has been replaced by term u in F[u].
- Reflexivity: We may add to any branch the equality t = t for an arbitrary term t.

The extended calculus is sound and complete: if a closed tableau can be derived, its root formula is not satisfiable by any <u>normal</u> model, and vice versa.

Example

Proof of $\forall x. \ \forall y. \ \forall z. \ x = y \land y = z \Rightarrow x = z$:

1.
$$\neg \forall x. \ \forall y. \ \forall z. \ x = y \land y = z \Rightarrow x = z$$

2.
$$\neg \forall y. \ \forall z. \ c = y \land c = z \Rightarrow c = z$$
 (1)

3.
$$\neg \forall z. \ c = d \land d = z \Rightarrow c = z$$
 (2)

4.
$$\neg (c = d \land d = e \Rightarrow c = e)$$

$$5. c = d \wedge d = e (4)$$

(3)

$$6. \quad \neg(c=e) \tag{4}$$

$$7. \quad c = d \tag{5}$$

$$7. c = d (5)$$

8.
$$d=e$$
 (5)

$$9. c = e (7.8)$$

(6.9)

Proof of $\forall x. \ \forall y. \ x = y \Rightarrow y = x$:

1.
$$\neg \forall x. \ \forall y. \ x = y \Rightarrow y = x$$

2.
$$\neg \forall y. \ c = y \Rightarrow y = c$$
 (1)

3.
$$\neg (c = d \Rightarrow d = c)$$
 (2)

$$4. c = d (3)$$

$$5. \quad \neg (d = c) \tag{3}$$

6.
$$\neg (d = d)$$
 (4.5)

7.
$$d = d$$

(6.7)

Free-Variable Tableaux and Equality

The method of free-variable tableaux extended by the following rules:

$$t = u$$

$$F[t']$$

$$F[u]$$

$$\overline{x = x}$$

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

- MGU Replacement: if t = u and F[t'] occur in the same branch of tableau T and σ is a most general unifier of t and t', then we may replace tableau T by $T'\sigma$ where T' is identical to T except that F[u] has been added to the branch.
- Reflexivity: We may add to every branch the equality x = x where x is a fresh variable.
- Function Reflexivity: We may add to every branch the equality $f(x_1, ..., x_n) = f(x_1, ..., x_n)$ where f is an n-ary function symbol and $x_1, ..., x_n$ are fresh variables.

The extended calculus is sound and complete: if a closed tableau can be derived, its root formula is not satisfiable by any <u>normal</u> model, and vice versa.

Example

Proof of $\forall x. \exists y. (y = f(x) \land \forall z. (z = f(x) \Rightarrow y = z))$:

1.
$$\neg \forall x. \ \exists y. \ (y = f(x) \land \forall z. \ (z = f(x) \Rightarrow y = z))$$
2. $\neg \exists y. \ (y = f(c) \land \forall z. \ (z = f(c) \Rightarrow y = z))$ (1)
3. $\neg (y_1 = f(c) \land \forall z. \ (z = f(c) \Rightarrow y_1 = z))$ (2)

4. $\neg \forall z. \ (z = f(c) \Rightarrow f(c) = z)$ (3)
5. $\neg (d = f(c) \Rightarrow f(c) = d)$ (4)
6. $d = f(c)$ (5)
7. $\neg (f(c) = d)$ (5)
4. $\neg (y_1 = f(c))$ (3)
8. $\neg (f(c) = f(c))$ (6,7)
5. $y_2 = y_2$ (4,5)

9. $y_3 = y_3$ (8,9)

Tableau closed with $\sigma = [y_1 \mapsto f(c), y_2 \mapsto f(c), y_3 \mapsto f(c)].$

Paramodulation

An extension of first-order resolution by a treatment of equality (George Robinson and Lawrence Wos, 1969).

```
\frac{C \cup \{L[t]\} \in F \qquad D \cup \{s = u\} \in F \qquad \sigma \text{ is mgu of t and s}}{C \cup \{L[t]\} \text{ and } D \cup \{s = u\} \text{ have no common variables} \qquad F \cup \{C\sigma \cup D\sigma \cup \{L[u]\sigma\}\} \vdash F \vdash} \qquad \text{(PARA)}
```

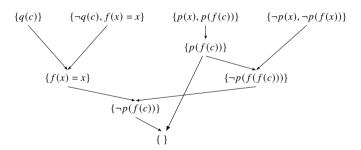
- The paramodulation rule (PARA):
 - Literal L[t] with an occurrence of term t that is replaced by term u in L[u].
 - Clause $C\sigma \cup D\sigma \cup \{L[u]\sigma\}$ is the paramodulant of $C \cup \{L[t]\}$ and $D \cup \{s = u\}$.
- The paramodulation calculus consists of rules (AX), (RES), (REN), (FACT), (PARA).
 - Soundness: if $F \cup feq(F) \vdash$ can be derived, F is not satisfiable by a normal model.
 - Completeness: if *F* is not satisf. by a normal model, $F \cup feq(F) \vdash$ can be derived.
 - feq(F) consists of the reflexivity axiom x = x and one function reflexivity axiom $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ for every n-ary function symbol f in F.
 - In most proofs, function reflexivity axioms are not needed; thus many implementations only use the reflexity axiom.

Example

We show the unsatisfiability of

$$\{\{q(c)\}, \{\neg q(c), f(x) = x\}, \{p(x), p(f(c))\}, \{\neg p(x), \neg p(f(x))\}\}$$

by the following refutation (here reflexivity is not needed):



3 resolution steps, 1 paramodulation step, 1 factorization step.

Paramodulation in OCaml

```
let rec overlap1 (1,r) fm rfn = (* Find paramodulations with 1 = r inside a literal fm. *)
 match fm with
    Atom(R(f,args)) -> listcases (overlaps (1,r))
                              (fun i a -> rfn i (Atom(R(f,a)))) args []
  | Not(p) -> overlapl (l,r) p (fun i p -> rfn i (Not(p)))
  _ -> failwith "overlapl: not a literal";;
(* Now find paramodulations within a clause. *)
let overlapc (1,r) cl rfn acc = listcases (overlapl (1,r)) rfn cl acc::
(* Overall paramodulation of ocl by equations in pcl. *)
let paramodulate pcl ocl =
  itlist (fun eq -> let pcl' = subtract pcl [eq] in
                    let (l,r) = dest_eq eq
                    and rfn i ocl' = image (subst i) (pcl' @ ocl') in
                    overlapc (1,r) ocl rfn ** overlapc (r,1) ocl rfn)
         (filter is_eq pcl) []::
```

Paramodulation in OCaml

```
let para_clauses cls1 cls2 =
 let cls1' = rename "x" cls1 and cls2' = rename "y" cls2 in
 paramodulate cls1' cls2' @ paramodulate cls2' cls1';;
let rec paraloop (used,unused) = (* Incorporation into resolution loop. *)
 match unused with
    [] -> failwith "No proof found"
  | cls::ros ->
        print_string(string_of_int(length used) ^ " used: "^
                     string_of_int(length unused) ^ " unused.");
        print_newline():
        let used' = insert cls used in
        let news =
          itlist (@) (mapfilter (resolve_clauses cls) used')
            (itlist (@) (mapfilter (para_clauses cls) used') []) in
        if mem [] news then true else
        paraloop(used'.itlist (incorporate cls) news ros)::
```

Paramodulation in OCaml

```
let pure_paramodulation fm =
 paraloop([],[mk_eq (Var "x") (Var "x")]::simpcnf(specialize(pnf fm)));;
let paramodulation fm =
  let fm1 = askolemize(Not(generalize fm)) in
 map (pure_paramodulation ** list_conj) (simpdnf fm1);;
# paramodulation
 <<(forall x. f(f(x)) = f(x)) / (forall x. exists y. f(y) = x)
   ==> forall x. f(x) = x>>::
0 used: 4 unused.
. . .
10 used: 108 unused.
11 used: 125 unused.
- : bool list = [true]
```

The naive application of paramodulation leads to huge proof search spaces; in practice, strong restrictions and sophisticated strategies are implemented.

The Superposition Calculus

A spezialization of resolution/paramodulation that leads to smaller search spaces (Leo Bachmair and Harald Ganzinger, 1991).

$$\frac{C \cup \{l=r\} \in F \quad \sigma \text{ is mgu of } l \text{ and } r \quad F \cup \{C\sigma\} \vdash \\ F \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1, l_2=r_2\} \in F \quad \sigma \text{ is mgu of } l_1 \text{ and } l_2 \quad F \cup \{C\sigma \cup \{(l_1=r_1)\sigma, \neg (r_1=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ F \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \in F \quad D \cup \{l_2[l_1']=r_2\} \in F \quad l_1' \text{ is not a variable} \quad \sigma \text{ is mgu of } l_1 \text{ and } l_1' \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{l_2[l_1']=r_2\} \text{ have no common variables} \quad F \cup \{C\sigma \cup D\sigma \cup \{(l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ F \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{l_2[l_1']=r_2\} \text{ have no common variables} \quad F \cup \{C\sigma \cup D\sigma \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ F \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{l_2[l_1']=r_2\} \text{ have no common variables} \quad F \cup \{C\sigma \cup D\sigma \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ F \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[l_1']=r_2\} \text{ have no common variables} \quad F \cup \{C\sigma \cup D\sigma \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ F \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ F \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ F \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ F \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ F \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{l_1=r_1\} \text{ and } D \cup \{\neg (l_2[r_1]=r_2)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{\neg (l_1=r_1)\sigma\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{\neg (l_1=r_1)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{\neg (l_1=r_1)\sigma\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{\neg (l_1=r_1)\sigma\}\} \vdash \\ C \cup \{\neg (l_1=r_1)\sigma\} \vdash \\ C \cup$$

- Actually constrained forms of above (SUP) rules.
 - Term orderings ensure that equations are only applied in one direction.
 - Still sound and complete with respect to normal models.

Equational Logic

Let Δ be a set of equations of form t = u which are implicitly universally quantified.

$$\frac{(s=t) \in \Delta}{\Delta + s = t} \text{ (AXIOM)} \qquad \frac{\Delta + s = t}{\Delta + (s=t)[u/x]} \text{ (INST)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta}{\Delta + t = t} \text{ (REFL)} \qquad \frac{\Delta + u = t}{\Delta + t = u} \text{ (SYM)} \qquad \frac{\Delta + t = s}{\Delta + t = u} \text{ (TRANS)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta}{\Delta + t = u} \qquad \dots \qquad \Delta + t_n = u_n \text{ (CONG)}$$

- Judgement $\Delta \vdash t = u$
 - Interpreted as "every normal model of Δ satisfies t = u".
 - Equivalent to: $\Delta \models t = u$ holds in first-order logic with equality.
- Birkhoff's Theorem (Garrett Birkhoff, 1935):
 - If $\Delta \vdash s = t$ is derivable by above inference rules (the "Birkhoff rules"), then every normal model of Δ satisfies t = u, and vice versa.

Birkhoff's rules denote a sound and complete inference calculus for equational logic; like first-order logic, however, equational logic is undecidable.

Equational Proving

Let set Δ consist of the following equations:

$$g(x,c) = x \tag{1}$$

$$g(x, f(y)) = f(g(x, y))$$
(2)

$$h(x,c) = c \tag{3}$$

$$h(x, f(y)) = g(x, h(x, y))$$

$$\tag{4}$$

• How to prove $\Delta \models h(f(f(c)), f(f(c))) = g(h(f(c), f(c)), f(f(f(c))))$?

$$\frac{h(f(f(c)), f(f(c)))}{\text{=}} \stackrel{\text{(4)}}{\text{=}} g(f(f(c)), h(f(f(c)), f(c))) \stackrel{\text{(4)}}{\text{=}} g(f(f(c)), g(f(f(c)), h(f(f(c)), c))) }{\text{=}} g(f(f(c)), g(f(f(c)), f(f(c)))) \stackrel{\text{(2)}}{\text{=}} f(g(f(f(c)), f(c))) \\ \stackrel{\text{(2)}}{\text{=}} f(f(g(f(f(c)), c))) \stackrel{\text{(1)}}{\text{=}} \underbrace{f(f(f(f(c))))} \\ \frac{g(h(f(c), f(c)), f(f(f(c))))}{\text{=}} \stackrel{\text{(4)}}{\text{=}} g(g(f(c), h(f(c), c)), f(f(f(c)))) \stackrel{\text{(3)}}{\text{=}} g(g(f(c), c), f(f(f(c)))) \\ \stackrel{\text{(1)}}{\text{=}} g(f(c), f(f(f(c)))) \stackrel{\text{(2)}}{\text{=}} f(g(f(c), f(f(c)))) \stackrel{\text{(2)}}{\text{=}} f(f(g(f(c), c))) \stackrel{\text{(2)}}{\text{=}} f(f(f(f(f(c)))) \\ \stackrel{\text{(2)}}{\text{=}} f(f(g(f(c), c))) \stackrel{\text{(2)}}{\text{=}} f(f(f(f(f(c)))))$$

By a sequence of equality substitutions in the left term and a sequence of equality substitutions in the right term the same term can be derived; thus the left term and the right term are equal.

Equational Proving

We have just performed a strategy of "simplifying calculations".

Set Δ described some arithmetic axioms:

$$x + 0 = x \tag{1}$$

$$x + (y') = (x + y)'$$
 (2)

$$x \cdot 0 = 0 \tag{3}$$

$$x \cdot (y') = x + (x \cdot y) \tag{4}$$

• We have proved
$$\Delta \models (0'') \cdot (0'') = ((0') \cdot (0')) + (0''')$$
 (i.e., $2 \cdot 2 = 1 + 3$):

Term Rewriting

Consider the elements of Δ not as equations but as (left-to-right) rewrite rules.

• Abstract reduction system (S, \rightarrow) : a set S and a binary relation \rightarrow on S.

```
ox x \leftrightarrow y: x \rightarrow y \text{ or } y \rightarrow x.
```

- $\circ x \to^* y$ and $x \leftrightarrow^* y$: the reflexive transitive closure of \to and \leftrightarrow .
- Term rewriting system: an abstract reduction system induced by Δ .
 - *S* is the set of terms and \rightarrow is the "term rewriting relation" generated by \triangle when considering every equation t = u as a (left-to-right) rewrite rule.
- Theorem: Let \rightarrow be the term rewriting relation induced by Δ . Then we have $\Delta \models t = u$ if and only if $t \leftrightarrow^* u$.
 - Proof sketch: If $\Delta \models t = u$, by Birkhoff's theorem $\Delta \vdash t = u$ is derivable. One can show by induction on the Birkhoff rules that this implies $t \leftrightarrow^* u$. Conversely, by the semantics of substitution $t \to u$ implies $\Delta \models t = u$; from this one can show by induction that also $t \leftrightarrow^* u$ implies $\Delta \models t = u$.

Term Rewriting as a Decision Strategy

Some fundamental notions and properties of an abstract reduction system (S, \rightarrow) .

- Element $x \in S$ is a normal form: there is no $y \in S$ such that $x \to y$.
- \rightarrow is terminating (Noetherian): there are no infinite reduction sequences $x_0 \rightarrow x_1 \rightarrow \cdots$, i.e., every reduction sequence ends with a normal form $x_n \in S$.
- \rightarrow has the Church-Rosser property: if $x \leftrightarrow^* y$, then $x \to^* z$ and $y \to^* z$ for some $z \in S$.
 - Lemma: If \rightarrow has the Church-Rosser property, then for every $x \in S$ there exists at most one normal form $x' \in S$ such that $x \rightarrow^* x'$.
- ullet o is canonical: o is terminating and also has the Church rosser property.
 - Lemma: If \rightarrow is canonical, then for every $x \in S$ there exists *exactly one* normal form $x' \in S$ such that $x \rightarrow^* x'$.
- Theorem (Trevor Evans, 1951): If \to is canonical and $x \to^* x'$ and $y \to^* y'$ with normal forms $x' \in S$ and $y' \in S$, then $x \leftrightarrow^* y$ holds if and only if x' = y' does.

If Δ induces a canonical term rewriting system, we can decide $\Delta \models t = u$ by rewriting terms t and u to normal forms t' and u' and comparing t' with u'.

Term Rewriting in OCaml

```
let rec rewrite1 eqs t = (* Rewriting at the top level with first of list of equations. *)
 match eas with
   Atom(R("=",[1;r]))::oegs ->
     (try tsubst (term_match undefined [1,t]) r
      with Failure _ -> rewrite1 oegs t)
  _ -> failwith "rewrite1";;
let rec rewrite eqs tm = (* Rewriting repeatedly and at depth (top-down). *)
  try rewrite egs (rewrite1 egs tm) with Failure _ ->
 match tm with
   Var x -> tm
  | Fn(f,args) -> let tm' = Fn(f,map (rewrite eqs) args) in
                  if tm' = tm then tm else rewrite eqs tm';;
# rewrite [<<0 + x = x>>; <<S(x) + y = S(x + y)>>;
        <<0 * x = 0>>; <<S(x) * y = y + x * y>>]
        <<|S(S(S(0))) * S(S(0)) + S(S(S(S(0))))|>>;;
- : term = <<|S(S(S(S(S(S(S(S(S(S(S(0)))))))))))>>
```

Non-Canonical Term Rewriting

Not Terminating:

$$x + y = y + x \tag{1}$$

$$c + d \rightarrow d + c \rightarrow c + d \rightarrow \cdots$$

No Church-Rosser Property:

$$x \cdot (y+z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z \tag{1}$$

$$(x+y)\cdot z = x\cdot z + y\cdot z \tag{2}$$

$$(a+b) \cdot (c+d) \xrightarrow{(2)} a \cdot (c+d) + b \cdot (c+d)$$

$$\xrightarrow{(1)} (a \cdot c + a \cdot d) + b \cdot (c+d) \xrightarrow{(1)} (a \cdot c + a \cdot d) + (b \cdot c + b \cdot d)$$

$$(a+b) \cdot (c+d) \xrightarrow{(1)} (a+b) \cdot c + (a+b) \cdot d$$

$$\xrightarrow{(2)} (a \cdot c + b \cdot c) + (a+b) \cdot d \xrightarrow{(2)} (a \cdot c + b \cdot c) + (a \cdot d + b \cdot d)$$

If a term rewriting system is not canonical, rewriting fails as a decision strategy.

Ensuring Termination

- It is generally undecidable whether a term rewriting system is terminating.
 - Term rewriting systems can perform arbitrary computations.
 - The problem whether computing machines halt is undecidable (Alan Turing, 1937).
- But we can prove that a particular term rewriting system is terminating.
 - Determine a suitable termination ordering, i.e., a well-founded relation on terms that is decreased by the application of every rewrite rule.
 - One such termination ordering is the lexicographic path order t > u defined as follows:

```
t > u, if u is a proper subterm of t.
```

```
• f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) > t, if t_i > t for some i.
```

•
$$f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) > f(u_1, \ldots, u_n)$$
 if $t_i > u_i$ for some i and $t_i = u_i$ for all $j < i$.

•
$$f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) > g(u_1, \ldots, u_m)$$
, if $f > g$ for some ordering of function/constant symbols.

In the last two rules we additionally require $f(t_1, ..., t_n) > u_i$ for every i.

- Example: consider the lexicographic path order for '·' > '+' > ''' > '0'.
 - x + 0 > x because x is a proper subterm of x + 0.

•
$$x + (y') > (x + y)'$$
 because '+' > '' and $x + (y') > x + y$ (why?).

- $x \cdot 0 > 0$ because 0 is a proper subterm of $x \cdot 0$.
- $x \cdot (y') > x + (x \cdot y)$ because '.' > '+' and $x \cdot (y') > x$ and $x \cdot (y') > x \cdot y$ (why?).

Ensuring the Church-Rosser Property

Does the following term rewriting system have the Church-Rosser Property?

$$(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z) \tag{1}$$

$$1 \cdot x = x \tag{2}$$

$$i(x) \cdot x = 1 \tag{3}$$

• We can rewrite term $(1 \cdot x) \cdot y$ in two different ways:

$$(1 \cdot x) \cdot y \xrightarrow{(1)} 1 \cdot (x \cdot y)$$
$$(1 \cdot x) \cdot y \xrightarrow{(2)} x \cdot y$$

This does not violate the property, because both results have the same normal form:

$$1 \cdot (x \cdot y) \stackrel{(2)}{\to} x \cdot y$$

• But we can also rewrite term $(i(x) \cdot x) \cdot y$ in two different ways:

$$(i(x) \cdot x) \cdot y \xrightarrow{(1)} i(x) \cdot (x \cdot y)$$
$$(i(x) \cdot x) \cdot y \xrightarrow{(3)} 1 \cdot y \xrightarrow{(2)} y$$

Thus we have derived two different normal forms which violates the Church-Rosser property.

Ensuring the Church-Rosser Property

- Reduction relation \rightarrow is locally confluent if the following property holds: if $x \rightarrow y_1$ and $x \rightarrow y_2$, then $y_1 \rightarrow^* z$ and $y_2 \rightarrow^* z$ for some $z \in S$.
 - Newman's Lemma: If a reduction relation → is both terminating and locally confluent, it is confluent (and thus has the Church-Rosser property).
- Thus, given a set ∆ of rewrite rules whose reduction relation → is terminating, the following algorithm decides whether → has the Church-Rosser property:
 - Consider every pair $l_1 = r_1$ and $l_2 = r_2$ of rewrite rules (both rules may be the same).
 - Rename the variables in these rules such that variables in l_1 and l_2 are disjoint.
 - Determine every critical pair of these rules, i.e., terms $r_1\sigma$ and $l_1[r_2]\sigma$ such that:
 - l_2' is a non-variable term such that σ is the most general unifier of l_2 and l_2' and
 - l_1 contains an occurrence of l'_2 and $l_1[r_2]$ is l_1 with that occurrence replaced by r_2 .
 - The reduction reduction system has the Church-Rosser property if and only if every critical pair y_1 and y_2 can be rewritten by \rightarrow to a common normal form z.

The decision of the Church-Rosser property is reduced to critical pair computation.

Computing Critical Pairs

- Example: equations $x_1 + 0 = x_1$ and $x_2 + 0 = x_2$ (the first equation renamed).
 - $x_1 + 0$ and $x_2 + 0$ have mgu $[x_1 \mapsto x_2]$ which yields the trivial critical pair x_2 and x_2 .
 - The arithmetic system has only trivial critical pairs and thus is Church-Rosser.
 - We only need to consider the overlap of a rule with itself at a proper subterm of the left side.
- Example: $\Delta := \{ f(g(f(x))) \xrightarrow{r} g(x) \}$
 - Rule instances $f(g(f(x_1))) \xrightarrow{r_1} g(x_1), f(g(f(x_2))) \xrightarrow{r_2} g(x_2)$
 - Unify $f(x_1)$ and $f(g(f(x_2)))$ with mgu $\sigma = [x_1 \mapsto g(f(x_2))]$.
 - Reduction $f(g(f(g(f(x_2))))) \xrightarrow{r_1} g(g(f(x_2)))$ with normal form $g(g(f(x_2)))$.
 - Reduction $f(g(f(g(f(x_2))))) \xrightarrow{r_2} f(g(g(x_2)))$ with normal form $f(g(g(x_2)))$.
 - Critical pair $g(g(f(x_2)))$ and $f(g(g(x_2)))$ with different normal forms.
 - $\circ~\Delta$ does not have the Church-Rosser property.

Critical Pairs in OCaml

```
let renamepair (fm1,fm2) = ...;;
let rec listcases fn rfn lis acc = (* Rewrite with 1 = r inside tm to give a critical pair. *)
  match lis with
    [] -> acc
  | h::t -> fn h (fun i h' -> rfn i (h'::t)) @ listcases fn (fun i t' -> rfn i (h::t')) t acc::
let rec overlaps (1,r) tm rfn =
  match tm with
    Fn(f,args) -> listcases (overlaps (1,r)) (fun i a -> rfn i (Fn(f,a))) args
                             (try [rfn (fullunify [1,tm]) r] with Failure _ -> [])
  | Var x -> []::
let crit1 (Atom(R("=", \lceil 11:r1 \rceil))) (Atom(R("=", \lceil 12:r2 \rceil))) =
  overlaps (11,r1) 12 (fun i t -> subst i (mk_eq t r2));;
let critical_pairs fma fmb = (* Generate all critical pairs between two equations. *)
  let fm1.fm2 = renamepair (fma.fmb) in
  if fma = fmb then crit1 fm1 fm2
  else union (crit1 fm1 fm2) (crit1 fm2 fm1)::
# let eq = \langle f(f(x)) = g(x) \rangle in critical_pairs eq eq;;
-: fol formula list = [<(f(g(x0))) = g(f(x0))>>; <(g(x1)) = g(x1)>>]
                                                                                         27/30
```

Knuth-Bendix Completion

A semi-algorithm to derive a canonical term rewriting system (Donald Knuth and Peter Bendix, 1970).

```
\triangleright if the procedure terminates, it returns a canonical system equivalent to \triangle
procedure Complete(Δ)
    \Lambda_1 \leftarrow \Lambda
    repeat
                                                                                                               ▶ may not terminate
        \Delta_0 \leftarrow \Delta_1
        for every critical pair (t, u) in \Delta_0 do
             reduce t and u to normal forms t' and u' according to \Delta_0
                                                                                                               ▶ may not terminate
             if t' \neq u' then
                 choose l = r \in \{t = u, u = t\}
                 \Delta_1 \leftarrow \Delta_1 \cup \{l = r\}
             end if
        end for
    until \Delta_1 = \Delta_0
    return \Delta_1
end procedure
```

There are numerous improvements to increase the practical applicability.

Knuth Bendix Completion

- Example: $\Delta := \{ f(g(f(x))) \xrightarrow{r} g(x) \}$
 - Rule instances $f(g(f(x_1))) \xrightarrow{r_1} g(x_1), f(g(f(x_2))) \xrightarrow{r_2} g(x_2)$
 - Unify $f(x_1)$ and $f(g(f(x_2)))$ with mgu $\sigma = [x_1 \mapsto g(f(x_2))]$.
 - Reduction $f(g(f(g(f(x_2))))) \xrightarrow{r_1} g(g(f(x_2)))$ with normal form $g(g(f(x_2)))$.
 - Reduction $f(g(f(g(f(x_2))))) \xrightarrow{r_2} f(g(g(x_2)))$ with normal form $f(g(g(x_2)))$.
 - Critical pair $g(g(f(x_2)))$ and $f(g(g(x_2)))$ with different normal forms.
 - $\Delta' := \{ f(g(f(x))) \xrightarrow{r} g(x), g(g(f(x))) \xrightarrow{s} f(g(g(x))) \}$
 - Rule instances $g(g(f(x_1))) \xrightarrow{s_1} f(g(g(x_1)))$ and $g(g(f(x_2))) \xrightarrow{s_2} f(g(g(x_2)))$
 - Only trivial mgu $[x_1 \rightarrow x_2]$ and trivial critical pair.
 - Rule instances $f(g(f(x_1))) \stackrel{r_1}{\rightarrow} g(x_1)$ and $g(g(f(x_2))) \stackrel{s_1}{\rightarrow} f(g(g(x_2)))$
 - Unify $f(x_2)$ and $f(g(f(x_1)))$ with mgu $[x_2 \mapsto g(f(x_1))]$.
 - $g(g(f(g(f(x_1))))) \xrightarrow{r_1} g(g(g(x_1)))$ with normal form $g(g(g(x_1)))$.
 - $= g(g(f(g(f(x_1))))) \xrightarrow{s_1} f(g(g(g(f(x_1))))) \xrightarrow{s_1} f(g(f(g(g(x_1))))) \xrightarrow{r_1} g(g(g(x_1))).$
 - Critical pair $g(g(g(x_1)))$ and $f(g(f(g(g(x_1)))))$ has common normal form.
 - No more non-trivial rule overlaps.

Δ' has the Church-Rosser property.

The Case of Variable-Free Equations

Our goal is to derive $\Delta \vdash (t = u)$.

- Consider the special case of only variable-free equations in $\Delta \vdash (t = u)$.
 - Any occurrence of a symbol x in t = u does not denote any more a "variable" (that is universally quantified in the equation) but a "constant" (whose value is the same in all equations in which x occurs).
- Then proofs need not apply the Birkhoff rule (INST).
- This makes the theory decidable.

We will next consider decision procedures for variable-free equational logic and other decidable theories.