Chapter 4

Focused Derivations

The sequent calculus as presented in the previous chapter is an excellent foundation for proof search strategies, but it is not yet practical. For a typical sequent there are many choices, such as which left or right rule to use to reduce the goal in the bottom-up construction of a proof. After one step, similar choices arise again, and so on. Without techniques to eliminate some of this non-determinism one would be quickly overwhelmed with multiple choices.

In this chapter we present two techniques to reduce the amount of non-determinism in search. The first are inversion properties which hold when the premises of an inference rule are derivable if and only if the conclusion is. This means that we do not lose completeness when applying an invertible rule as soon as it is applicable. The second are focusing properties which allow us to chain together non-invertible inference rules with consecutive principal formulas, once again without losing completeness.

While inversion and focusing are motivated by bottom-up proof search, they generally reduce the number of derivations in the search space. For this reason they also apply in top-down search procedures such as the inverse method introduced in Chapter 5.

4.1 Inversion

The simplest way to avoid non-determinism is to consider those propositions on the left or right for which there is a unique way to apply a corresponding left or right rule. For example, to prove $A \land B$ we can immediately apply the right rule without losing completeness. On the other hand, to prove $A \lor B$ we can not immediately apply a left rule. As a counterexample consider $B \lor A \rightarrow A \lor B$, where we first need to apply a left rule.

On a given sequent, a number of invertible rules may be applicable. However, the order of this choice does not matter. In other words, we have replaced don’t-know non-determinism by don’t-care non-determinism.

Determining the invertibility of left rules in order to support this strategy
requires some additional considerations. The pure inversion property states that the premises should be derivable if and only if the conclusion is. However, in left rule the principal formula is still present in the premises, which means we can continue to apply the same left rule over and over again leading to non-termination. So we require in addition that the principal formula of a left rule is no longer needed, thereby guaranteeing the termination of the inversion phase of the search.

**Theorem 4.1 (Inversion)**

1. If $\Gamma \Rightarrow A \land B$ then $\Gamma \Rightarrow A$ and $\Gamma \Rightarrow B$.
2. If $\Gamma \Rightarrow A \supset B$ then $\Gamma, A \Rightarrow B$.
3. If $\Gamma \Rightarrow \forall x. A$ then $\Gamma \Rightarrow [a/x]A$ for a new individual parameter $a$.
4. If $\Gamma \Rightarrow \neg A$ then $\Gamma, A \Rightarrow p$ for a new propositional parameter $p$.
5. If $\Gamma, A \land B \Rightarrow C$ then $\Gamma, A, B \Rightarrow C$.
6. If $\Gamma, \top \Rightarrow C$ then $\Gamma \Rightarrow C$.
7. If $\Gamma, A \lor B \Rightarrow C$ then $\Gamma, A \Rightarrow C$ and $\Gamma, B \Rightarrow C$.
8. If $\Gamma, \exists x. A \Rightarrow C$ then $\Gamma, [a/x]A \Rightarrow C$ for a new individual parameter $a$.

**Proof:** By induction over the structure of the given derivations. Parts (5) and (6) are somewhat different in that they extract an inversion property from two and zero left rules, respectively. The proof is nonetheless routine.

Alternatively, we can take advantage of the admissibility of cut to avoid another inductive proof. For example, to show the first property, we can reason as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma \Rightarrow A \land B & \quad \text{Assumption} \\
\Gamma, A \land B, A \Rightarrow A & \quad \text{By rule init} \\
\Gamma, A \land B \Rightarrow A & \quad \text{By rule } \land \text{L} \\
\Gamma \Rightarrow A & \quad \text{By admissibility of cut (Theorem 3.11)}
\end{align*}
\]

See also Exercise 4.1.

The rules $\top R$ and $\bot L$ are a special case: they can be applied eagerly without losing completeness, but these rules have no premises and therefore do not admit a theorem of the form above. None of the other rules permit an inversion property, as the following counterexamples show. These counterexamples can easily be modified so that they are not initial sequents.

1. $A \lor B \Rightarrow A \lor B$ (both $\lor R_1$ or $\lor R_2$ lead to an unprovable sequent).
2. $\bot \Rightarrow \bot$ (no right rule applicable).
3. $\exists x. A \Rightarrow \exists x. A$ ($\exists R$ leads to an unprovable sequent).

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Now we can write out a pure inversion strategy in the form of an inference system. One difficulty with such a system is that the don’t-care non-determinism is not directly visible and has to be remarked on separately. We also refer to don’t-care non-determinism as conjunctive non-determinism: eventually, all applicable rules have to be applied, but their order is irrelevant as far as provability is concerned.

First, we distinguish those kinds of propositions for which either the left or the right rule is not invertible. We call them synchronous propositions (either on the left or on the right). The remaining propositions are called asynchronous.

This terminology comes from the study of concurrency where an asynchronously computing processes proceed independently of all other processes, while a synchronously computing process may have to wait for other processes.

Left synchronous propositions \( L ::= P \mid A_1 \supset A_2 \mid \forall x. A \)

Right synchronous propositions \( R ::= P \mid A_1 \lor A_2 \mid \bot \mid \exists x. A \)

Passive antecedents \( \Delta ::= \cdot \mid \Delta, L \)

Sequents are written as

\[ \Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A; \cdot \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot; R \]

where the outer zones containing \( \Delta \) or \( R \) are passive and the inner zones containing \( \Omega \) or \( A \) are active. We still think of \( \Delta \) as unordered, but it is important that \( \Omega \) is ordered in order to avoid spurious non-deterministic choices. We must always work on its right end. We break down the principal connectives of asynchronous propositions eagerly, moving synchronous propositions into the passive zones, until all asynchronous connectives have been decomposed. At that point we have to choose one of the passive (synchronous) propositions. If this attempt fails we have to backtrack and try other choices.

In order to prove a sequent \( \Gamma \Rightarrow A \), we initialize our inversion-based procedure with the sequent \( ;\Gamma \Rightarrow A; \cdot \), where the order we choose for the elements of \( \Gamma \) is irrelevant.

\(^1\)For the moment, we do not consider negation explicitly—think of it as defined.
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Right Asynchronous Propositions. First, we decompose the right asynchronous connectives.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A; & \quad \Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow B; \\
\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A \land B; & \quad \land R \\
\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A \supset B; & \quad \supset R \\
\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A \cup B; & \quad \cup R \\
\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow [a/x]A; & \quad \forall R^a \\
\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \exists x. A; & \quad \exists R^a
\end{align*}
\]

The last rule moves the right synchronous proposition into the passive zone.

Left Asynchronous Propositions. When the proposition on the right is passive, we break down the left asynchronous connectives in the active zone on the left. Recall that \( \Omega \) is considered in order, so there is no non-determinism.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; \Omega, A, B \Rightarrow \cdot; R & \quad \land L \\
\Delta; \Omega, A \land B \Rightarrow \cdot; R & \quad \land R \\
\Delta; \Omega, \top \Rightarrow \cdot; R & \quad \top L \\
\Delta; \Omega, A \Rightarrow \cdot; R & \quad \lor L \\
\Delta; \Omega, B \Rightarrow \cdot; R & \quad \lor R \\
\Delta; \Omega, [a/x]A \Rightarrow \cdot; R & \quad \exists L^a \\
\Delta; \Omega, \exists x. A \Rightarrow \cdot; R & \quad \exists R^a \\
\Delta, L; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot; R & \quad \exists LL \\
\Delta, \Omega, L \Rightarrow \cdot; R & \quad \exists RR
\end{align*}
\]

The last rule allows us to move synchronous propositions into the passive zone.

Right Synchronous Propositions. The active rules always terminate when applied in a bottom-up fashion during proof search (see Lemma 4.7). Now a don’t-know non-deterministic choice arises: either we apply a right rule to infer \( R \) or a left rule to one of the passive assumptions in \( \Delta \). We also refer to don’t-know non-determinism as disjunctive non-determinism since we have to pick one of several possibilities.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; \cdot \Rightarrow A; & \quad \lor R_1 \\
\Delta; \cdot \Rightarrow \cdot; A \lor B & \quad \lor R_2 \\
\Delta; \cdot \Rightarrow B; & \\
\Delta; \cdot \Rightarrow \cdot; A \lor B & \\
\Delta; \cdot \Rightarrow [t/x]A; & \quad \exists R \\
\Delta; \cdot \Rightarrow \cdot; \exists x. A & \quad \exists L
\end{align*}
\]

In the last case we would have to guess the \( t \), but in practice the \( t \) is determined by unification as indicated in Section 4.4.

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4.1 Inversion

**Left Synchronous Propositions.** Left synchronous propositions may be needed more than once, so they are duplicated in the application of the left rules.

\[
\frac{\Delta, A \supset B; \cdot \Rightarrow A; \cdot \quad \Delta, A \supset B; B \Rightarrow \cdot R}{\Delta, A \supset B; \cdot \Rightarrow \cdot R} \quad \Box L
\]

\[
\frac{\Delta, \forall x. A; [t/x]A \Rightarrow \cdot R}{\Delta, \forall x. A; \cdot \Rightarrow \cdot R} \quad \forall L
\]

**Initial Sequents.** This leaves the question of initial sequents, which is easily handled by allowing an passive atomic proposition on the left to match a passive atomic proposition on the right.

\[
\frac{\Delta, P; \cdot \Rightarrow \cdot P}{\text{init}}
\]

The judgments \(\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A; \cdot\) and \(\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot R\) are hypothetical in \(\Delta\), but *not* hypothetical in \(\Omega\) in the usual sense. This is because proposition in \(\Omega\) do not persist, because they have to be empty in the initial sequents, and because they must be considered in order. In other words, contraction, weakening, and exchange are not available for \(\Omega\). These turn out to be admissible, but the structure of the proof is changed globally. Therefore we consider it an *ordered hypothetical judgment* where each hypothesis must be used exactly once in a derivation, in the given order. We do not formalize this notion any further, but just remark that appropriate versions of the substitution property can be devised to explain its meaning.

First, the soundness theorem is straightforward, since inversion proofs merely eliminate some disjunctive non-determinism.

**Theorem 4.2 (Soundness of Inversion Proofs)**
If \(\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A; \cdot\) or \(\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot R\) then \(\Delta, \Omega \Rightarrow A\).

**Proof:** By a straightforward induction over the given derivation, applying weakening in some cases.

The completeness theorem requires a number of inversion lemmas. For a possible alternative path, see Exercise 4.2. The first set of results expresses the invertibility of the rules concerning the active propositions. That is, we can immediately apply any invertible rule without losing completeness. The second set of results expresses the opposite: we can always postpone the non-invertible rules until all invertible rules have been applied.

We use the notation \(\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \rho\) to stand for \(\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A; \cdot\) or \(\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot R\).

**Lemma 4.3 (Inversion on Asynchronous Connectives)**

1. \(\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A \land B; \cdot\) iff \(\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A; \cdot\) and \(\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow B; \cdot\).
2. $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A \supset B; \cdot$ iff $\Delta; \Omega, A \Rightarrow B; \cdot$.

3. $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \forall x. A; \cdot$ iff $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow [a/x]A; \cdot$ for any new parameter $a$.

4. $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow R; \cdot$ iff $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot; R$ for $R$ right synchronous.

5. $\Delta; \Omega_1, A \land B, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$ iff $\Delta; \Omega_1, A, B, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$.

6. $\Delta; \Omega_1, \top, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$ iff $\Delta; \Omega_1, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$.

7. $\Delta; \Omega_1, \lor B, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$ iff $\Delta; \Omega_1, A, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$ and $\Delta; \Omega_1, B, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$.

8. $\Delta; \Omega_1, \exists x. A, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$ iff $\Delta; \Omega_1, [a/x]A, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$ for any new param. $a$.

9. $\Delta; \Omega_1, L, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$ iff $\Delta, L; \Omega_1, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow \rho$ for $L$ left synchronous.

**Proof:** In each direction the result is either immediate by a rule, by inversion, or follows by a straightforward induction on the structure of the given derivation. □

The dual lemma shows that rules acting on synchronous propositions can be postponed until after the asynchronous rules. We define the active size of a sequent $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A; \cdot$ or $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot; R$ as the number of logical quantifiers, connectives, constants, and atomic propositions in $\Omega$ and $A$. Note that the active size of a sequent is 0 if and only if it has the form $\Delta; \cdot \Rightarrow \cdot; R$.

### Lemma 4.4 (Postponement of Synchronous Connectives)

1. If $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow A; \cdot$ or $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot; A$ then $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot; A \lor B$.

2. If $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow B; \cdot$ or $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot; B$ then $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot; A \lor B$.

3. If $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow [t/x]A; \cdot$ or $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot; [t/x]A$ then $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \cdot; \exists x. A$.

4. If $(\Delta, A \supset B); (\Omega_1, \Omega_2) \Rightarrow \cdot; \cdot$ and $(\Delta, A \supset B); (\Omega_1, B, \Omega_2) \Rightarrow \rho$ then $(\Delta, A \supset B); (\Omega_1, \Omega_2) \Rightarrow \rho$.

5. If $(\Delta, \forall x. A); (\Omega_1, [t/x]A, \Omega_2) \Rightarrow \rho$ then $(\Delta, \forall x. A); (\Omega_1, \Omega_2) \Rightarrow \rho$.

**Proof:** By induction on the active size of the given sequent. For the right rules (parts (1), (2), and (3)), the base cases are $\Omega = \cdot$, in which case the conclusion follows directly by a rule. For the left rules, the base case is $\Omega = \cdot$ and $\rho = \cdot; R$, in which case the conclusion follows directly by a rule. In all other case we apply inversion to an element of $\Omega$ (Lemma 4.3) or $C$ (if $\rho = C; \cdot$) and appeal to the induction hypothesis. Since the right-hand sides of the inversion principles have smaller active size than the left-hand sides, we are correct in applying the induction hypothesis. We show two cases in the proof of part (4).

**Case:** $\Omega = \cdot$ and $\rho = \cdot; R$.

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4.1 Inversion

\begin{align*}
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & B \implies \cdot; R \quad \text{Assumption} \\
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & \cdot \implies A; \cdot \quad \text{Assumption} \\
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & \cdot \implies \cdot; R \quad \text{By rule } \supset L
\end{align*}

Case: \(\Omega = \Omega', C \lor D\).

\begin{align*}
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & \Omega', C \lor D, B \implies \rho \quad \text{Assumption} \\
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & \Omega', C, B \implies \rho \quad \text{By inversion and} \\
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & \Omega', D, B \implies \rho \quad \text{By inversion} \\
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & \Omega', C \lor D \implies A; \cdot \quad \text{Assumption} \\
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & \Omega', C \implies A; \cdot \quad \text{By inversion} \\
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & \Omega', D \implies A; \cdot \quad \text{By i.h. on } \Omega', C \\
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & \Omega', D \implies \rho \quad \text{By i.h. on } \Omega', D \\
\text{(\(\Delta, A \supset B\); } & \Omega', C \lor D \implies \rho \quad \text{By rule } \lor L
\end{align*}

\[
\square
\]

For the proof of completeness, and also to permit some optimizations in the search procedure, we need to show that weakening and contraction for propositions in \(\Omega\) are admissible, at the price of possibly lengthening the derivation. Note that weakening and contraction for \(\Delta\) is trivial, since inversion sequents are hypothetical in \(\Delta\).

**Lemma 4.5 (Structural Properties of Inversion Sequents)**

1. If \(\Delta; \Omega \implies \rho\) then \((\Delta, A); \Omega \implies \rho\).
2. If \((\Delta, A, A); \Omega \implies \rho\) then \((\Delta, A); \Omega \implies \rho\).
3. If \(\Delta; (\Omega_1, \Omega_2) \implies \rho\) then \(\Delta; (\Omega_1, A, \Omega_2) \implies \rho\).
4. If \(\Delta; (\Omega_1, A, A, \Omega_2) \implies \rho\) then \(\Delta; (\Omega_1, A, A, \Omega_2) \implies \rho\).

**Proof:** Parts (1) and (2) follow as usual by straightforward structural inductions over the given derivations. Parts (3) and (4) follow by induction on the structure of \(A\), taking advantage of the inversion properties for asynchronous propositions (Lemma 4.3) and parts (1) and (2) for synchronous propositions. \(\square\)

**Theorem 4.6 (Completeness of Inversion Proofs)**

If \(\Omega \implies A\) then \(\cdot; \Omega \implies A; \cdot\).

**Proof:** By induction on the structure of the given sequent derivation \(S\), taking advantage of the inversion, postponement, and structural properties proven in this section. We think of the ordinary left rules of the sequent calculus as operating on some proposition in the middle of \(\Omega\), rather than explicitly dealing with exchange. We consider in turn: invertible right rules, invertible left rules, initial sequents, non-invertible right rules and non-invertible left rules.

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Case:

\[
S = \frac{S_1 \quad S_2}{\Omega \implies A_1 \quad \Omega \implies A_2} \quad \wedge R
\]

\[
; \Omega \implies A_1; \quad \text{By i.h. on } S_1
\]

\[
; \Omega \implies A_2; \quad \text{By i.h. on } S_2
\]

\[
; \Omega \implies A_1 \land A_2; \quad \text{By Lemma 4.3(1)}
\]

Cases: The right invertible rules $\supset R$ and $\forall R$ and also the case for $\top R$ are similar to the case for $\land R$.

Case:

\[
S = \frac{S_1}{\Omega_1, B_1 \lor B_2, B_1, \Omega_2 \implies A} \quad \frac{S_2}{\Omega_1, B_1 \lor B_2, B_2, \Omega_2 \implies A} \quad \lor L
\]

\[
; \Omega_1, B_1 \lor B_2, B_1, \Omega_2 \implies A; \quad \text{By i.h. on } S_1
\]

\[
; \Omega_1, B_1 \lor B_2, B_2, \Omega_2 \implies A; \quad \text{By i.h. on } S_2
\]

\[
; \Omega_1, B_1 \lor B_2, B_1 \lor B_2, \Omega_2 \implies A; \quad \text{By Lemma 4.3(7)}
\]

\[
; \Omega_1, B_1 \lor B_2, \Omega_2 \implies A; \quad \text{By contraction (Lemma 4.5)}
\]

Cases: The left invertible rule $\exists L$ and also the case for $\perp L$ are similar to the case for $\lor L$.

Case:

\[
S = \frac{S_1}{\Omega_1, B_1 \land B_2, B_1, \Omega_2 \implies A} \quad \land L_1
\]

\[
; \Omega_1, B_1 \land B_2, B_1, \Omega_2 \implies A; \quad \text{By i.h. on } S_1
\]

\[
; \Omega_1, B_1 \land B_2, B_1, B_2, \Omega_2 \implies A; \quad \text{By weakening (Lemma 4.5)}
\]

\[
; \Omega_1, B_1 \land B_2, B_1 \land B_2, \Omega_2 \implies A \quad \text{By Lemma 4.3(5)}
\]

\[
; \Omega_1, B_1 \land B_2, \Omega_2 \implies A \quad \text{By contraction (Lemma 4.5)}
\]

Case: The case for $\land L_2$ is symmetric to $\land L_1$. Note that there is no left rule for $\top$ in the sequent calculus, so the $\top L$ rule on inversion sequents arises only from weakening (see the following case).

Case:

\[
S = \frac{S_1}{\Omega_1, P, \Omega_2 \implies P}
\]

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\[ P; \Rightarrow ; P \quad \text{By rule init} \]
\[ ; P \Rightarrow ; P \quad \text{By rule } LL \]
\[ ; P \Rightarrow ; P \quad \text{By rule } RR \]
\[ ; \Omega_1, P, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow P; \quad \text{By weakening (Lemma 4.5)} \]

**Case:**

\[ S \]
\[ \Omega \Rightarrow A_1 \]
\[ \Omega \Rightarrow A_1 \lor A_2 \]
\[ \Omega \Rightarrow A_1 \lor A_2; \]

By i.h. on \( S \)  
By postponement (Lemma 4.4)  
By rule RR

**Cases:** The cases for the non-invertible right rules \( \lor R_2 \) and \( \exists R \) are similar to \( \lor R_1 \).

**Case:**

\[ S \]
\[ \Omega_1, B_1 \supset B_2, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow B_1 \]
\[ \Omega_1, B_1 \supset B_2, B_2, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow A \]
\[ S \]
\[ \Omega_1, B_1 \supset B_2, \Omega_2 \Rightarrow A \]

By inversion (Lemma 4.3(9))  
By i.h. on \( S \)  
By inversion (Lemma 4.3(9))  
By postponement (Lemma 4.4)  
By Lemma 4.3(9)

**Case:** The cases for the non-invertible left rule \( \forall L \) is similar to \( \supset L \).

We can also show that the active rules always terminate, which is important for the algorithm.

**Lemma 4.7 (Termination of Active Rules)**

*Given a goal \( \Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \rho \). Any sequence of applications of active rules terminates.*

**Proof:** By induction on the active size of the given sequent.

Next we describe a non-deterministic algorithm for proof search. There are a number of ways to eliminate the remaining disjunctive non-determinism. Typical is depth-first search, made complete by iterative deepening. The choice of the term \( t \) in the rules \( \exists R \) and \( \forall L \) is later solved by introducing free variables and equational constraints into the search procedures which are solved by unification (see Section 4.4). Many further refinements and improvements are possible on this procedures, but not discussed here.
Given a goal $\Delta; \Omega \Rightarrow \rho$.

1. If $\Omega = \cdot$ and $\rho = \cdot; P$ succeed if $P$ is in $\Delta$.

2. If $\Omega = \cdot$ and $\rho = \cdot; R$, but the previous case does not apply, guess an inference rule to reduce the goal. In the cases of $\exists R$ and $\forall L$ we also have to guess a term $t$. Solve each subgoal by recursively applying the procedure. This case represents a disjunctive choice (don’t know non-determinism). If no rule applies, we fail.

3. If $\Omega$ is non-empty or $\rho = A; \cdot$, use the unique applicable active rule and solve each of the subgoals by recursively applying the procedure.

This search procedure is clearly sound, because the inversion proof system is sound (Theorem 4.2). Furthermore, if there is a derivation the procedure will (in principle) always terminate and find some derivation if it guesses correctly in step (2).

### 4.2 Backchaining

While the inversion properties from the previous section are critical for constructing efficient theorem provers, they far from sufficient. The difficulty is that many non-deterministic choices remain. In this section we discuss a particular strategy called backchaining which has applications outside of theorem proving, for example, in logic programming. We restrict ourselves to Horn logic, a particularly simple logic that is useful in many circumstances. In the next section we describe focusing, which is the generalization of backchaining to full intuitionistic logic.

In many theorem proving problems we are in a situation where we have a number of propositions describing a theory and then a proposition we would like to prove with respect to that theory. Theories are often given in the form of propositions $\forall x_1 \ldots \forall x_n. P_1 \land \ldots \land P_k \supset P$. These hypotheses are synchronous (in the sense of the previous section), that is, we have to choose between them when trying to prove some atomic proposition $Q$. Backchaining rests on two observations. The first is that search remains complete if we only try to use those assumptions where $P$ and $Q$ can be made equal by instantiating $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ with appropriate terms. The second is that once we decide which assumption to use, we can apply a whole sequence of left rules (here $\forall L$ and $\supset L$) without considering any other synchronous assumption.

Both of these observation are of crucial importance. The first cuts down on the number of assumptions we may use. The second drastically reduces the non-determinism. To see the latter, consider a theory with $m$ clauses defining a predicate $p$ and that each clause has $n$ universal quantifiers. With backchaining (and unification, see Section 4.4) we create one choice with $m$ alternatives. With just the inversion strategy, we have $m$ choices in the first step, then $m + 1$ choices in the second step after instantiating one quantifier, and so on, yielding
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$m(m + 1) \cdots (m + p)$ choices. As the main theorem of this section and the next shows, these choices are redundant.

We first define Horn clauses in a form that is slightly more general than what is usually given in the literature.

Horn clauses

\[ D ::= P \mid G \supset \forall x. D \]

Horn goals

\[ G ::= P \mid G_1 \land G_2 \mid \top \]

Horn theories

\[ \Delta ::= \cdot \mid \Delta, D \]

Some further generalizations are possible; important for us is the absence of implications and universal quantification in goals as well as existential, disjunction, and falsehood in clauses.

A theorem proving problem in Horn logic is stated as

\[ \Delta \Rightarrow G \]

where \( \Delta \) is a Horn theory and \( G \) is a Horn goal, that is, a conjunction of atomic propositions.

As two simple examples of Horn theories we consider even and odd numbers, and graph reachability.

For even/odd number we have constants 0 and \( s \) to represent the natural numbers in unary form. As usual, we abbreviate 0() with just 0.

even(0),
\[ \forall x. \text{even}(x) \supset \text{odd}(s(x)) \]
\[ \forall x. \text{odd}(x) \supset \text{even}(s(x)) \]

For reachability in a directed graph we assume we have a constant for each node in the graph and an assumption \( \text{edge}(a, b) \) for each edge from node \( a \) to node \( b \). In addition we assume

\[ \forall x. \forall y. \text{edge}(x, y) \supset \text{reach}(x, y), \]
\[ \forall x. \forall y. \forall z. \text{reach}(x, y) \land \text{reach}(y, z) \supset \text{reach}(x, z) \]

In the even/odd example, we would like for backchaining to reduce the goal even(s(s(0))) to the subgoal odd(s(0)). In this case this reduction should be essentially deterministic, because only the last clause could match the goal. We formalize backchaining with the following two judgments.

\[ \Delta \Rightarrow G \quad \text{Horn theory } \Delta \text{ proves } G \text{ uniformly} \]
\[ \Delta; D \Rightarrow P \quad \text{Backchaining on Horn clause } D \text{ proves } P \]

First the rules of uniform proof, which are rather simple. The critical one is the last, which selects a Horn clause from \( \Delta \) for backchaining.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta &
\Rightarrow G_1 \\
\Delta &
\Rightarrow G_2
\end{align*}
\]

\[ \Delta \Rightarrow G_1 \land G_2 \quad \text{\&R} \]

\[ \Delta \Rightarrow \top \quad \text{TR} \]

\[ \Delta; D \Rightarrow P \quad (D \text{ in } \Delta) \]

\[ \Delta \Rightarrow P \quad \text{select} \]

\[ \text{Draft of March 24, 2004} \]
The rules for backchaining consider the possible forms of the Horn clause, decomposing it by a left rule. When using this as a proof search procedure by interpreting it bottom-up, we imagine using unification variables instead of guessing terms, and solving left-most premises first.

\[ \Delta; P \xrightarrow{u} P \quad (\Delta; P \xrightarrow{u} Q \text{ fails for } P \neq Q) \]

\[ \Delta; D \xrightarrow{u} P \quad \Delta \xrightarrow{u} G \quad \Delta; [t/x] D \xrightarrow{u} P \]

\[ \Delta; G \supset D \xrightarrow{u} P \quad \Delta; \forall x. D \xrightarrow{u} P \]

It is not difficult to see that this indeed captures the intended proof search strategy for backchaining. It is also rather straightforward to prove it sound and complete.

**Theorem 4.8 (Soundness of Uniform Proofs in Horn Theories)**

1. If \( \Delta \xrightarrow{u} G \) then \( \Delta \Rightarrow G \).
2. If \( \Delta; D \xrightarrow{u} G \) then \( \Delta, D \Rightarrow G \).

**Proof:** By straightforward induction over the given derivations. In the case of the select rule, we require the admissibility of contraction in the sequent calculus. \( \square \)

For the completeness direction we need a postponement lemma, similar to the case of inversion proofs. This lemma demonstrates that the left rules of the sequent calculus are admissible for the passive propositions of uniform sequents.

**Lemma 4.9 (Postponement for Uniform Proofs)**

1. If \( \Delta, G \supset D, D; D' \xrightarrow{u} P \) and \( \Delta, G \supset D \xrightarrow{u} G \) then \( \Delta, G \supset D; D' \xrightarrow{u} P \)
2. If \( \Delta, G \supset D, D \xrightarrow{u} G' \) and \( \Delta, G \supset D \xrightarrow{u} G \) then \( \Delta, G \supset D \xrightarrow{u} G' \)
3. If \( \Delta, \forall x. D, [t/x] D; D' \xrightarrow{u} P \) then \( \Delta, \forall x. D; D' \xrightarrow{u} P \)
4. If \( \Delta, \forall x. D, [t/x] D \xrightarrow{u} G' \) then \( \Delta, \forall x. D \xrightarrow{u} G' \)

**Proof:** By straightforward inductions over the first given derivation. \( \square \)

**Theorem 4.10 (Completeness of Uniform Proofs in Horn Theories)**

1. If \( \Delta \Rightarrow G \) then \( \Delta \xrightarrow{u} G \).
2. If \( \Delta \Rightarrow P \) then there is a \( D \) in \( \Delta \) such that \( \Delta; D \xrightarrow{u} P \).

**Proof:** Part (1) follows by inversion properties of the sequent calculus. We show one case of Part (2).
4.2 Backchaining

Case:

\[
S = \frac{\Delta', G \supset D \Rightarrow G}{\Delta', G \supset D \Rightarrow P} \quad S_1 \quad S_2
\]

\[
\Delta', G \supset D, D' \supset P \text{ for some } D' \text{ in } \Delta', G \supset D, D \quad \text{By i.h. on } S_2
\]

\[
\Delta', G \supset D \supset G \quad \text{By i.h. on } S_1
\]

\[
\Delta', G \supset D; D' \supset P \quad \text{By Lemma 4.9}
\]

If \( D' \) in \( \Delta', G \supset D \) we are done

If \( D' = D \):

\[
\Delta', G \supset D; G \supset D \supset u \Rightarrow P \quad \text{By rule } \supset L
\]

Horn theories have a number of important properties. Some of these stem from the fact that during proof search, the collection of assumptions \( \Delta \) never changes, nor will there ever be any new parameters introduced. This allows us to give an inductive interpretation to the set of clauses. For example, we could reason inductively about properties of even numbers, rather than just reason in first-order logic.

A related property is that Horn clauses can be seen to define inference rules. For example, we can translate the theory defining the even and odd numbers into the rules

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>even(0)</th>
<th>odd(s(t))</th>
<th>even(s(t))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>even(t)</td>
<td>odd(t)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In fact, one can see the uniform proof system and backchaining as implementing precisely these rules. In other words, we can also compile a Horn theory into a set of inference rules and then prove Horn goals from no assumptions, but using the additional rules.

This view is also interesting in that it provides the basis for a forward-reasoning procedure for Horn logic that resembles the inverse method. However, all sequents we ever consider have an empty left-hand side! That is, from some atomic facts, using unary inference rules (possibly with multiple premises), we derive further facts. We illustrate this way of proceeding using our second Horn theory which implements a particular graph. First, we turning the theory

\[
\forall x. \forall y. \text{edge}(x, y) \supset \text{reach}(x, y), \\
\forall x. \forall y. \forall z. \text{reach}(x, y) \land \text{reach}(y, z) \supset \text{reach}(x, z)
\]

into the inference rules

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>edge(s, t)</th>
<th>reach(s, t)</th>
<th>reach(t, u)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>reach(s, t)</td>
<td>reach(t, u)</td>
<td>reach(s, u)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Second, assume we start with facts
\[
\text{edge}(a, b), \text{edge}(b, c)
\]
Applying all possible rules we obtain
\[
\text{edge}(a, b), \text{edge}(b, c), \\
\text{reach}(a, b), \text{reach}(b, c)
\]
After one more step we have
\[
\text{edge}(a, b), \text{edge}(b, c), \\
\text{reach}(a, b), \text{reach}(b, c), \\
\text{reach}(a, c)
\]
Now applying any more rules does not add any more facts: the set of facts is saturated. We can now see if the goal (e.g., \text{reach}(c, a)) is in the saturated set or not. If yes it is true, if not it cannot be derived from the given facts.

The above strategy can be generalized to the case of facts with free variables (which are universally interpreted) and is known under the name of unit resolution.

It is interesting that the forward chaining strategy works particularly well for Horn theories such as for \text{reach} which can easily be seen to be terminating. This is because no new terms are constructed during the inferences. On the other hand, the backward chaining strategy we exemplified using even and odd can easily be seen to be terminating in the backward directions because the term involved get smaller.

As far as I know, it is still an open research problem how backward chaining and forward chaining (here illustrated with unit resolution) can be profitably combined. Also, the relationship between the inverse method and unit (or general) resolution is unclear in the sense that we do not know of a proposal that effectively combines these strategies.

4.3 Focusing

The search procedure based on inversion developed in Section 4.1 still has an unacceptable amount of don’t know non-determinism. For the Horn fragment, we addressed this issue in Section 4.2; here we combine backchaining with inversion in order to obtain a method that works for full intuitionistic logic.

We first recall the problem with the inversion strategy. The problem lies in the undisciplined use and proliferation of assumptions whose left rule is not invertible.

In a typical situation we have some universally quantified implications as assumptions. For example, \( \Delta \) could be
\[
\forall x_1. \forall y_1. \forall z_1. P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1) \supset Q_1(x_1, y_1, z_1) \supset R_1(x_1, y_1, z_1), \\
\forall x_2. \forall y_2. \forall z_2. P_2(x_2, y_2, z_2) \supset Q_2(x_2, y_2, z_2) \supset R_2(x_2, y_2, z_2)
\]

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4.3 Focusing

If the right-hand side is passive, we now have to apply ∀L to one of the two assumptions. We assume we guess the first one and that we can guess an appropriate term \( t_1 \). After the ∀L rule and a left transition, we are left with

\[
\forall x_1. \forall y_1. \forall z_1. P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1) \supset Q_1(x_1, y_1, z_1) \supset R_1(x_1, y_1, z_1),
\]

\[
\forall x_2. \forall y_2. \forall z_2. P_2(x_2, y_2, z_2) \supset Q_2(x_2, y_2, z_2) \supset R_2(x_2, y_2, z_2),
\]

\[
\forall y_1. \forall z_1. P_1(t_1, y_1, z_1) \supset Q_1(t_1, y_1, z_1) \supset R_1(t_1, y_1, z_1).
\]

Again, we are confronted with a don’t know non-deterministic choice, now between 3 possibilities. One can see that the number of possible choices quickly explodes. We can observe that the pattern above does not coincide with mathematical practice. Usually one applies an assumption or lemma of the form above by instantiating all the quantifiers and all preconditions at once. This strategy called focusing is a refinement of the inversion strategy.

Roughly, when all propositions in a sequent are synchronous, we focus either on an assumption or the proposition we are trying to prove and then apply a sequence of non-invertible rules to the chosen proposition. This phase stops when either an invertible connective or an atomic proposition is reached.

The focusing strategy is defined by four judgments

\[
\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} A:: \quad \text{Decompose right asynchronous proposition}
\]

\[
\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} :: R \quad \text{Decompose left asynchronous propositions}
\]

\[
\Delta; A \xrightarrow{s} :: R \quad \text{Focus on left synchronous proposition}
\]

\[
\Delta; :: \xrightarrow{s} A:: \quad \text{Focus on right synchronous proposition}
\]

The first two judgment are very similar to the inversion strategy. When we have the situation \( \Delta; :: \xrightarrow{a} :: R \) where \( \Delta \) consists of left synchronous propositions and \( R \) is right synchronous, we focus either on \( R \) or on some proposition \( L \) in \( \Delta \) and chain together inferences on the those propositions.

As in the inversion judgment, the proposition on the outside of the four zones are passive, while the ones on the inside are actively decomposed.

For the strategy to be maximally effective, we slightly generalize our classification of connectives, permitting conjunction and truth to be viewed as either synchronous or asynchronous, depending on what is convenient. This allows us to extend the phases maximally, removing as much non-determinism as possible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Asynchronous</th>
<th>Synchronous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Right ( \land, \top, \lor, \forall )</td>
<td>( \land, \top, \lor, \bot, \exists )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left ( \land, \top, \lor, \bot, \exists )</td>
<td>( \land, \top, \lor, \forall )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We now use \( R \) for propositions that are not right asynchronous \( (\lor, \bot, \exists, P) \) and \( L \) for propositions that are not left asynchronous \( (\land, \forall, P) \).

Except for the special status of conjunction and truth, each connective has unique and complementary status on the left and on the right. Andreoli’s original analysis [And92] was carried out in linear logic, which did not show these anomalies. This is because there are two forms of conjunction (additive and multiplicative), each with a unique status.

We first repeat the inversion rules which constitute an asynchronous phase during search.
Right Asynchronous Propositions. First, we decompose the right asynchronous connectives.

\[
\frac{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} A; \cdot}{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} A \land B; \cdot} \quad \frac{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} B; \cdot}{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \top; \cdot} \quad \frac{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \lnot B; \cdot}{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \forall x. A; \cdot} \quad \frac{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} [a/x] A; \cdot}{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \exists x. A; \cdot}
\]

\[
\frac{\Delta; \Omega, A \xrightarrow{a} B; \cdot}{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} A \supset B; \cdot} \quad \frac{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} A \land B; \cdot}{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \top; \cdot}
\]

Left Asynchronous Propositions. Next we break down the left asynchronous propositions. Recall that \(\Omega\) is considered in order, so the rules are deterministic.

\[
\frac{\Delta; \Omega, A, B \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R}{\Delta; \Omega, A \land B \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R} \quad \frac{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R}{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \top; R} \quad \frac{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R}{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \forall x. A; R} \quad \frac{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R}{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \exists x. A; R}
\]

\[
\frac{\Delta; \Omega, A \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R}{\Delta; \Omega, A \lor B \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R} \quad \frac{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R}{\Delta; \Omega \xrightarrow{a} \top; R}
\]

Focus. Next we need to decide which proposition among \(\Delta\) and \(R\) to focus on. While we allow focusing on an atomic assumption, focusing on the succedent requires it to be non-atomic. The reason is our handling of initial sequents. For uniformity we also include \(\bot\), even though focusing on it will fail in the next step.

\[
\frac{(\Delta, L); L \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R}{(\Delta, L); \cdot \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R} \quad \frac{\Delta; \cdot \xrightarrow{a} R; \cdot (R = A \lor B, \forall x. A)}{(\Delta, L); \cdot \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R} \quad \frac{\Delta; \cdot \xrightarrow{a} R; \cdot (R = A \lor B, \forall x. A)}{(\Delta, L); \cdot \xrightarrow{a} \cdot; R}
\]

Right Synchronous Propositions. The non-invertible rules on the right maintain the focus on principal formula of the inference. When we have reduced the right-hand side to an asynchronous (but not synchronous) or atomic
4.3 Focusing

proposition, we blur our focus and initiate an asynchronous phase.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; \Rightarrow A; \quad \Delta; \Rightarrow B; \\
\Delta; \Rightarrow A \lor B; \\
\Delta; \Rightarrow [t/x]A; \\
\Delta; \Rightarrow \exists x. A;
\end{align*}
\]

no right focus rule for \( \perp \)

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; \Rightarrow A; \\
\Delta; \Rightarrow B; \\
\Delta; \Rightarrow [t/x]A; \\
\Delta; \Rightarrow \exists x. A;
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\Delta; \Rightarrow A \lor B;
\]

Left Synchronous Propositions. The non-invertible rules on the left also maintain their focus on the principal formula of the inference. When we have reached an asynchronous (but not synchronous) proposition, we blur our focus and initiate an asynchronous phase.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; B \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; A \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; \forall x. A \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; [t/x]A \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; A \lor B \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; \forall x. A \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; A \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; A \Rightarrow \cdot R
\end{align*}
\]

no rule for \( \top \)

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; A \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; A \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; A \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; A \Rightarrow \cdot R
\end{align*}
\]

init

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; A \Rightarrow \cdot R \\
\Delta; P \Rightarrow \cdot R
\end{align*}
\]

Note that the second premise of the \( \supset \) rule is still a focused sequent. From a practical point of view it is important to continue with the focusing steps in the first premise before attempting to prove the second premise, because the decomposition of \( B \) may ultimately fail when an atomic proposition is reached. Such a failure would render the possibly difficult proof of \( A \) useless.

There is a slight, but important asymmetry in the initial sequents: we require that we have focused on the left proposition.

If one shows only applications of the decision rules in a derivation, the format is very close to assertion-level proofs as proposed by Huang [Hua94]. His motivation was the development of a formalism appropriate for the presentation of mathematical proofs in a human-readable form. This provides independent evidence for the value of focusing proofs. Focusing derivations themselves were developed by Andreoli [And92] in the context of classical linear logic. An adaptation to intuitionistic linear logic was given by Howe [How98] which is related

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the calculus LJT devised by Herbelin [Her95]. Herbelin's goal was to devise a sequent calculus whose derivations are in bijective correspondence to normal natural deductions. Due to the ∨, ⊥ and ∃ elimination rules, this is not the case here.

The search procedure which works with focusing sequents is similar to the one for inversion. After the detailed development of inversion proofs, we will not repeat or extend the development here, but refer the interested reader to the literature. The techniques are very similar to the ones shown in Section 4.1.

4.4 Unification

When proving a proposition of the form ∃x. A by its right rule in the sequent or focusing calculus, we must supply a term t and then prove [t/x]A. The domain of quantification may include infinitely many terms (such as the natural numbers), so this choice cannot be resolved simply by trying all possible terms t. Similarly, when we use a hypothesis of the form ∀x. A we must supply a term t to substitute for x. We refer to this a existential non-determinism.

Fortunately, there is a technique called unification which is sound and complete for syntactic equality between terms. The basic idea is quite simple: we postpone the choice of t and instead substitute a new existential variable (often called meta-variable or logic variable) X for x and continue with the bottom-up construction of a derivation. When we reach initial sequents we check if there is a substitution for the existential variables such that the hypothesis matches the conclusion. If so, we apply this instantiation globally to the partial derivation and continue to search for proofs of other subgoals. Finding an instantiation for existential variables under which two propositions or terms match is called unification. It is decidable if a unifying substitution or unifier exists, and if so, we can effectively compute it in linear time. Moreover, we can do so with a minimal commitment and we do not need to choose between various possible unifiers.

Because of its central importance in both backward- and forward-directed search, unification has been thoroughly investigated. Herbrand [Her30] is given credit for the first description of a unification algorithm in a footnote of his thesis, but it was not until 1965 that it was introduced into automated deduction through the seminal work by Alan Robinson [Rob65, Rob71]. The first algorithms were exponential, and later almost linear [Hue76, MM82] and linear algorithms [MM76, PW78] were discovered. In the practice of theorem proving, generally variants of Robinson's algorithm are still used, due to its low constant overhead on the kind of problems encountered in practice. For further discussion and a survey of unification, see [Kni89]. We describe a variant of Robinson's algorithm.

Before we describe the unification algorithm itself, we relate it to the problem of proof search. We use here the sequent calculus with atomic initial sequents, but it should be clear that precisely the same technique of residuation applies to focused derivations. We enrich the judgment Γ ⇒ A by a residual proposition.
4.4 Unification

$F$ such that

1. if $\Gamma \implies A$ then $\Gamma \implies A \setminus F$ and $F$ is true, and

2. if $\Gamma \implies A \setminus F$ and $F$ is true then $\Gamma \implies A$.

Generally, we cannot prove such properties directly by induction, but we need to generalize them, exhibiting the close relationship between the derivations of the sequents and residual formulas $F$.

Residual formulas $F$ are amenable to specialized procedures such as unification, since they are drawn from a simpler logic or deductive system than the general propositions $A$. In practice they are often solved incrementally rather than collected throughout a derivation and only solved at the end. This is important for the early detection of failures during proof search. Incremental solution of residual formulas is the topic of Exercise ??.

What do we need in the residual propositions so that existential choices and equalities between atomic propositions can be expressed? The basic proposition is one of equality between atomic propositions, $P_1 \doteq P_2$. We also have conjunction $F_1 \land F_2$, since equalities may be collected from several subgoals, and $\top$ if there are no residual propositions to be proven. Finally, we need the existential quantifier $\exists x. F$ to express the scope of existential variables, and $\forall x. F$ to express the scope of parameters introduced in a derivation. We add equality between terms, since it is required to describe the unification algorithm itself. We refer to the logic with these connectives as unification logic, defined via a deductive system.

Formulas $F := P_1 \doteq P_2 \mid t_1 \doteq t_2 \mid F_1 \land F_2 \mid \top \mid \exists x. F \mid \forall x. F$

The main judgment "$F$ is valid", written $\models F$, is defined by the following rules, which are consistent with, but more specialized than the rules for these connectives in intuitionistic natural deduction (see Exercise ??).

\[
\begin{align*}
\models P \doteq P & \quad \text{\d I} \\
\models F_1 & \models F_2 \\
\models F_1 \land F_2 & \quad \text{\land I} \\
\models [t/x]F & \quad \text{\exists I} \\
\models \forall x. F & \quad \text{\forall I^a}
\end{align*}
\]

The $\forall I^a$ rule is subject to the usual proviso that $a$ is a new parameter not occurring in $\forall x. F$. There are no elimination rules, since we do not need to consider hypotheses about the validity of a formula $F$ which is the primary reason for the simplicity of theorem proving in the unification logic.

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We enrich the sequent calculus with residual formulas from the unification logic, postponing all existential choices. Recall that in practice we merge residuation and solution in order to discover unprovable residual formulas as soon as possible. This merging of the phases is not represented in our system.

Initial Sequents. Initial sequents residuate an equality between its principal propositions. Any solution to the equation will unify \( P' \) and \( P \), which means that this will translate to a correct application of the initial sequent rule in the original system.

\[
\frac{}{\Gamma, P' \rightsquigarrow P \setminus P' \doteq P} \text{init}
\]

Propositional Connectives. We just give a few sample rules for the connectives which do not involve quantifiers, since all of them simply propagate or combine unification formulas, regardless whether they are additive, multiplicative, or exponential.

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\Gamma, A \Rightarrow B \setminus F}{\Gamma \Rightarrow A \supset B \setminus F} & \supset R \\
\frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \top \setminus \top}{\Gamma, \forall x. A} & \forall R \\
\frac{\Gamma, A \supset B \Rightarrow A \setminus F_1}{\Gamma, A \supset B \Rightarrow C \setminus F_1 \land F_2} & \supset L
\end{align*}
\]

Quantifiers. These are the critical rules. Since we residuate the existential choices entirely, the \( \exists R \) and \( \forall L \) rules instantiate a quantifier by a new parameter, which is existentially quantified in the residual formula in both cases. Similarly, the \( \forall R \) and \( \exists L \) rule introduce a parameter which is universally quantified in the residual formula.

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow [a/x]A \setminus [a/x]F}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \forall x. A \setminus \forall x. F} & \forall R^a \\
\frac{\Gamma, \forall x. A \Rightarrow C \setminus [a/x]F}{\Gamma, [a/x]A \Rightarrow C \setminus \forall x. F} & \forall L^a \\
\frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow [a/x]A \setminus [a/x]F}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \exists x. A \setminus \exists x. F} & \exists R^a \\
\frac{\Gamma, \exists x. A \Rightarrow C \setminus [a/x]F}{\Gamma, [a/x]A \Rightarrow C \setminus \exists x. F} & \exists L^a
\end{align*}
\]

The soundness of residuating equalities and existential choices in this manner is straightforward.

Theorem 4.11 (Soundness of Equality Residuation)
If \( \Gamma \Rightarrow A \setminus F \) and \( \models F \) then \( \Gamma \Rightarrow A \).

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Proof: By induction on the structure of the given derivation $R$. We show the critical cases. Note how in the case of the $\exists R$ rule the derivation of $\vdash \exists x. F$ provides the essential witness term $t$.

Case:

$$R = \frac{\Gamma, P' \Rightarrow P \setminus P' \vdash P}{\text{init}}$$

\[\vdash P' \equiv P\] By assumption
\[P' = P\] By inversion
\[\Gamma, P' \Rightarrow P\] By rule init

Case:

$$R = \frac{R_1 \Gamma \Rightarrow [a/x]A_1 \setminus [a/x]F_1 \Rightarrow \exists x. F_1}{\exists R^a}$$

\[\vdash \exists x. F_1\] By assumption
\[\vdash [t/x]F_1\] for some $t$ By inversion
\[\Gamma \Rightarrow [t/x]A_1 \setminus [t/x]F_1\] By substitution for parameter $a$
\[\Gamma \Rightarrow [t/x]A_1\] By i.h.
\[\Gamma \Rightarrow \exists x. A_1\] By rule $\exists R$

Case:

$$R = \frac{R_1 \Gamma \Rightarrow [a/x]A_1 \setminus [a/x]F_1 \Rightarrow \forall x. F_1}{\forall R^a}$$

\[\vdash \forall x. F_1\] By assumption
\[\vdash [b/x]F_1\] for a new parameter $b$ By inversion
\[\vdash [a/x]F_1\] By substitution of $a$ for $b$
\[\Gamma \Rightarrow [a/x]A_1\] By i.h.
\[\Gamma \Rightarrow \forall x. A_1\] By rule $\forall R$

The opposite direction is more difficult. The desired theorem:

*If $\Gamma \Rightarrow A$ then $\Gamma \Rightarrow A \setminus F$ for some $F$ with $\vdash F$*

cannot be proved directly by induction, since the premisses of the two derivations are different in the $\exists R$ and $\forall L$ rules. However, one can be obtained from

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the other by substituting terms for parameters. Since this must be done simultaneously, we introduce a new notation.

Parameter Substitution  \( \rho ::= \cdot \mid \rho, t/a \)  

We assume all the parameters \( a \) substituted for by \( \rho \) are distinct to avoid ambiguity. We write \( \Gamma \[\rho\], F[\rho], \) and \( \Gamma[\rho], \) for the result of applying the substitution \( \rho \) to a proposition, formula, or context, respectively.

**Lemma 4.12** If \( \Gamma \rightarrow A \) where \( A = A'[\rho], \Gamma = \Gamma'[\rho] \) then \( \Gamma' \rightarrow A' \setminus F \) for some \( F \) such that \( \models F[\rho]. \)

**Proof:** The proof proceeds by induction on the structure of the given derivation \( D \). We show only two cases, the second of which required the generalization of the induction hypothesis.

**Case:**

\[
D = \frac{\text{init}}{\Gamma_1, P \rightarrow P}
\]

- \( \Gamma_1 = \Gamma'[\rho], P = P'[\rho], \) and \( P = P''[\rho] \)  
- \( \models P''[\rho] \setminus P' \models P'' \)  
- By rule init  
- By rule \( \models \)

**Case:**

\[
D_1 = \frac{\exists x. A_1}{\Gamma \rightarrow [t/x]A_1}
\]

- \( \exists x. A_1 = A'[\rho] \)  
- \( A' = \exists x. A'_1 \) for a new parameter \( a \) with  
- \( [a/x]A_1 = ([a/x]A'_1)[\rho, a/a] \)  
- \( [t/x]A_1 = ([a/x]A'_1)[\rho, t/a] \)  
- By definition of substitution  
- By substitution for parameter \( a \)  
- \( \Gamma = \Gamma'[\rho] \)  
- \( \Gamma'[\rho] = \Gamma'[t/a] \)  
- Since \( a \) is new  
- \( \models ([a/x]A'_1)[\rho, t/a] \)  
- By i.h.  
- \( \Gamma' \rightarrow \exists x. A'_1 \setminus [a/x]F_1, \) and  
- \( \models ([a/x]F_1)[\rho, t/a] \)  
- By rule \( \exists R \)  
- \( \Gamma' \rightarrow \exists x. F_1 \)  
- By rule \( \exists R \) and definition of substitution

\( \square \)

**Theorem 4.13 (Completeness of Equality Residuation)**

If \( \Gamma \rightarrow A \) then \( \Gamma \rightarrow A \setminus F \) for some \( F \) and \( \models F. \)
4.4 Unification

**Proof:** From Lemma 4.12 with $A' = A$, $\Gamma' = \Gamma$, and $\rho$ the identity substitution on the parameters in $\Gamma$ and $A$.

Next we describe an algorithm for proving residuated formulas, that is, an algorithm for unification. We do this in two steps: first we solve the problem in the fragment without parameters and universal quantifiers and then we extend the solution to the general case.

There are numerous ways of describing unification algorithms in the literature. We view it here as a process of transformation on a collection of constraints. In the first instance we consider global unification, where we are given a single constraint formula (as generated by equality residuation, for example) and we have to determine if it is true. Later, we will generalize the view in order just partially transform the constraints to a normal form which is easily seen to have most general solutions. This latter view will be particularly useful when constraints are generated incrementally during proof search.

A collection of equational constraints is simply a collection of formulas in the unification logic or an indication that the constraints are inconsistent ($\#$).

We will freely exchange formulas among the constraints, just as we freely exchange assumptions in the sequent calculus. The empty constraint “$\cdot$” corresponds to success, a contradiction to failure of proving the unification formula. Constraints may contain free unification variables $X$ which are interpreted existentially. They are also known as existential variables or logic variables. Note that unification variables are never bound. We group the rules into several classes. The first, breaks down the structure of the formulas in $C$.

$$F_1 \land F_2, C \rightarrow F_1, F_2, C$$
$$\top, C \rightarrow C$$
$$\exists x. F, C \rightarrow [X/x]F, C \text{ where } X \text{ not free in } F \text{ or } C$$

The second group of rules breaks down equalities into simpler equalities.

$$p(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \equiv p(s_1, \ldots, s_n), C \rightarrow t_1 \equiv s_1, \ldots, t_n \equiv s_n, C$$
$$f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \equiv f(s_1, \ldots, s_n), C \rightarrow t_1 \equiv s_1, \ldots, t_n \equiv s_n, C$$
$$p(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \equiv q(s_1, \ldots, s_n), C \rightarrow \# \text{ where } p \neq q$$
$$f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \equiv g(s_1, \ldots, s_n), C \rightarrow \# \text{ where } f \neq g$$

Note that equations of predicate or function symbols without arguments ($n = 0$) will either be simply removed or be inconsistent.

Finally, we will be left with equations where one of the two sides is a unification variable (we are not yet considering parameters). In that case, we must consider the right-hand side and distinguish several cases:

$$X \equiv X, C \rightarrow C$$
$$X \equiv t, C \rightarrow [t/X]C \text{ provided } X \text{ not free in } t$$
$$t \equiv X, C \rightarrow [t/X]C \text{ provided } X \text{ not free in } t$$
$$X \equiv t, C \rightarrow \# \text{ if } t \neq X \text{ and } X \text{ free in } t$$
$$t \equiv X, C \rightarrow \# \text{ if } t \neq X \text{ and } X \text{ free in } t$$

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The conditions on these rules are necessary in order to recognize cases such as $X = f(X)$, which has no solution: No matter which term we substitute for $X$, the right-hand side will always have one more function symbol than the left-hand side, so the equation cannot be satisfied. We refer to the condition “$X$ not free in $t$” as the occurs-check.

Note that the whole algorithm depends critically on the function symbols being uninterpreted. As a trivial example, consider $+(3, 4) = +(2, 5)$ on which the above algorithm would fail. Slightly trickier is something like $X = -(−(X))$ which is true for any integer $X$, but violates the occurs-check.

As a first step in the correctness proof we can verify that a unification will always terminate.

**Lemma 4.14 (Termination of Unification)** Any sequence of reductions $C \rightarrow C' \rightarrow C'' \ldots$ must terminate and yield either $\#$ or the empty set of constraints ($\cdot$).

**Proof:** By nested induction, first on the number of variables (unification variables $X$ or bound variables $\exists x$) in $C$, second on the total size of the constraint, counting quantifiers, logical connectives, and variables occurrences.

The first set of rules for structural decomposition and the rule for eliminating $X = X$ decreases the size of the constraints, without increasing the number of variables. The set of rules for variables (except for $X = X$) reduces the number of variables in $C$ by substitution for all occurrences of a variable (possibly increasing the total size of the constraint).

In order to show the correctness of the unification algorithm, we would like to show that each step preserves provability. That is, if $C \rightarrow C'$ then $C$ is provable iff $C'$ is provable. However, a difficulty arises in the case of existential quantification, since we step from $\exists x. F$ to $[X/x]F$ and we have not defined what it means for a formula with a unification variable to be provable. Intuitively, it should mean that not the formula itself, but some instance of it is provable. Hence we define that a constraint is satisfiable to mean that there is an instance that is provable. In order to define the concept of an instance we define simultaneous substitution for the unification variables of a term.

The second concept we need is that of a substitution for existential variables. We use a new notation, because this form of substitution is quite different from substitutions for bound variables $x$ or parameters $a$.

\[
\text{Substitutions } \theta ::= \cdot \mid \theta, t/X
\]

We require that all variables $X$ defined by a substitution are distinct. We write dom($\theta$) for the variables defined by a substitution and cod($\theta$) for all the variables occurring in the terms $t$. For a ground substitution cod($\theta$) is empty. For the technical development it is convenient to assume that the domain and co-domain of a substitution share no variables. This rules out “circular” substitutions such as $f(X)/X$ and it also disallows identity substitutions $X/X$. The latter restriction can be dropped, but it does no harm and is closer to the implementation.
4.4 Unification

As for contexts, we consider the order of the definitions in a substitution to be irrelevant.

We write $t[\theta]$, $A[\theta]$, and $\Gamma[\theta]$ for the application of a substitution to a term, proposition, or context. This is defined to be the identity on existential variables that are not explicitly defined in the substitution.

We also need an operation of composition, written as $\theta_1 \circ \theta_2$ with the property that $t[\theta_1 \circ \theta_2] = (t[\theta_1])[\theta_2]$ and similarly for propositions and contexts. Composition is defined by

$$(\cdot) \circ \theta_2 = \theta_2$$

$$(\theta_1, t/X) \circ \theta_2 = (\theta_1 \circ \theta_2), t[\theta_2]/X$$

In order for composition to be well-defined and have the desired properties we require that $\text{dom}(\theta_1)$, $\text{dom}(\theta_2)$ and $\text{cod}(\theta_2)$ are disjoint, but of course variables in the co-domain of $\theta_1$ can be defined by $\theta_2$.

Now we define that constraint $C = F_1, \ldots, F_n$ is satisfiable if there exists a substitution $\theta$ for unification variables in $C$ such that $\models F_i[\theta]$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. We write $C \text{ sat}$ if $C$ is satisfiable.

**Theorem 4.15 (Preservation of Satisfiability)**

If $C \hookrightarrow C'$ then $C \text{ sat}$ iff $C' \text{ sat}$

**Proof:** In both directions, the proof is by cases on the definition of $C \hookrightarrow C'$. We show a three cases from left-to-right. The other cases and opposite direction are similar.

Assume $C \hookrightarrow C'$ and $C \text{ sat}$. We have to show the $C' \text{ sat}$.

**Case:** $\exists x. F, C_1 \hookrightarrow [X/x]F, C_1$.

$\exists x. F, C_1 \text{ sat}$

Assumption

For some $\theta$, $\models (\exists x. F)[\theta]$ and $\models F_1[\theta]$ for every $F_1$ in $C_1$ By defn. of sat

$\models [t/x](F[\theta])$ By defn. of substitution

$\models ([t/x]F)[\theta]$ By inversion

$\models ([X/x]F)[\theta, t/X]$ Since $X$ not in $F$ or $t$

$\models F_1[\theta, t/X]$ for any $F_1$ in $C_1$ Since $X$ not in $C_1$

$[X/x]F, C_1 \text{ sat}$ By defn. of sat

**Case:** $X \doteq t, C_1 \hookrightarrow [t/X]C_1$ where $X$ not in $t$.

$X \doteq t, C_1 \text{ sat}$

Assumption

For some $\theta$, $\models (X \doteq t)[\theta]$ and $\models F_1[\theta]$ for every $F_1$ in $C_1$ By defn. of sat

$\models X[\theta] = t[\theta]$ By defn. of substitution

$X[\theta] = t[\theta]$ By inversion

$\theta = (\theta', t[\theta]/X)$ By defn. of substitution
\[ t[\theta]/X = t[\theta']/X \]  
Since \( X \) not in \( t \)

\[ \models F_1[\theta', t[\theta']/X] \text{ for any } F_1 \text{ in } C_1 \]  
From above

\[ \models ([t/X]F_1)[\theta'] \]  
By props. of substitution

\[ [t/X]C_1 \text{ sat} \]  
By defn. of sat

**Case:** \( X \doteq t, C_1 \mapsto # \) where \( X \) in \( t \), \( X \neq t \).

\[ X \doteq t, C_1 \text{ sat} \]  
Assumption

\[ \models (X \doteq t)[\theta] \text{ for some } \theta \]  
By defn. of sat

\[ \models X[\theta] \doteq t[\theta] \]  
By defn. of substitution

\[ X[\theta] = f(\ldots X \ldots)[\theta] \]  
By inversion

\[ X[\theta] = f(\ldots X[\theta] \ldots) \]  
Since \( X \) in \( t \), \( X \neq t \)

**Contradiction**  
Right-hand side has more function symbols than left-hand side

This case is impossible

\(\square\)

The argument above requires some elementary reasoning about substitution. Those proofs are usually straightforward by induction on the structure of the term we substitute in, as long as the right condition on occurrences of variables are known.

Termination of unification together with preservation of satisfiability gives us the correctness of unification as a procedure.

### 4.5 Unification with Parameters

The generalization of the algorithm above to account for universal quantifiers and parameters is not completely straightforward. The difficulty is that \( \forall x. \exists y. y \doteq x \) is valid, while \( \exists y. \forall x. y \doteq x \) is not. In unification logic, the fact that the second cannot be derived is due to the parameter restriction.

\[
\begin{align*}
\models a &\doteq I \\
\models \forall x. a &\doteq x \\
\models \exists y. \forall x. y &\doteq x
\end{align*}
\]

In this derivation, the application of \( \forall I^a \) is incorrect. However, if we had a way to postpone choosing the instantiation for \( y \), say, by supplying an existential variable instead, then the situation is far less clear.

\[
\begin{align*}
\models ^a a/Y &\doteq I \\
\models Y &\doteq a \\
\models \forall x. Y &\doteq x \\
\models \exists y. \forall x. y &\doteq x
\end{align*}
\]
In this derivation, it is the substitution of \(a\) for \(Y\) which will invalidate the derivation at the \(\forall^a\) rule application. Up to that point we could not really fail. Written in our transformation notation:

\[
\exists y. \forall x. y \equiv x \\
\mapsto \forall x. Y \equiv x \\
\mapsto Y \equiv a \\
\mapsto ??
\]

From this very simple example it seems clear that we need to prohibit final step: \(Y\) may not be instantiated with a term that mentions parameter \(a\).

There are two approaches to encoding this restriction. More or less standard in theorem proving is Skolemization which we pursue in Exercise 4.3. The dual solution notes for each existential variable which parameters may occur in its substitution term. In the example above, \(Y\) was introduced at a point where \(a\) did not yet occur, so the substitution of \(a\) for \(Y\) should be rejected.

In order to describe this concisely, we add a parameter context \(\Psi\) to the judgment which lists distinct parameters.

\[
\text{Parameter Context } \Psi ::= \cdot | \Psi, a
\]

We annotate each judgment with the parameter context and introduce the new judgment "\(t\) is closed with respect to \(\Psi\)", written as \(\Psi \models t\) term. It is defined by the following rules.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{parm} & \quad \frac{\Psi_1, a, \Psi_2 \vdash t_1 \text{ term} \cdots \Psi_n \vdash t_n \text{ term}}{\Psi \vdash f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \text{ term}} \\
\text{root} & \quad \frac{\Psi \vdash t_1 \text{ term} \cdots \Psi \vdash t_n \text{ term}}{\Psi \vdash \exists x. F}
\end{align*}
\]

We modify the validity judgment for unification formulas to guarantee this condition.

\[
\frac{\Psi \models t \text{ term} \quad \Psi \models [t/x]F \quad \exists I \quad \Psi, a \models [a/x]F}{\Psi \models \forall x. F}
\]

Now the state of the unification algorithm (that is, the current set of constraints) must record the parameter context. We write this as \(\Psi \triangleright C\). \(\Psi\) is simply carried along from left to right in most transformations.

\[
\begin{align*}
(\Psi \triangleright F_1 \land F_2, C) & \quad \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright F_1, F_2, C) \\
(\Psi \triangleright \top, C) & \quad \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright C) \\
(\Psi \triangleright f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \equiv f(s_1, \ldots, s_n), C) & \quad \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright t_1 \equiv s_1, \ldots, t_n \equiv s_n, C) \\
(\Psi \triangleright f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \equiv g(s_1, \ldots, s_n), C) & \quad \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright \#) \quad \text{where } f \not\equiv g \\
(\Psi \triangleright a \equiv a, C) & \quad \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright C) \\
(\Psi \triangleright a \equiv b, C) & \quad \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright \#) \quad \text{where } a \neq b \\
(\Psi \triangleright a \equiv f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)) & \quad \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright \#) \\
(\Psi \triangleright f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \equiv a) & \quad \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright \#)
\end{align*}
\]

The notion of an existential variable must now be generalized to track the set of parameters its substituend may depend on. We write \(X_\Delta\) for a unification
variable $X$ that may depend on all the parameters in $\Delta$, but no others. All occurrences of a variable $X$ must be annotated with the same $\Delta$—we think of $\Delta$ as an intrinsic property of $X$.

$$(\Psi \vdash \forall x. F, C) \mapsto (\Psi, a \triangleright [a/x]F, C) \text{ where } a \notin \Psi, F, \text{ or } C$$

$$(\Psi \vdash \exists x. F, C) \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright [X_{\Psi}/x]F, C) \text{ where } X \text{ not free in } F \text{ or } C$$

An equation $X_{\Psi} \doteq t$ could now be solved immediately, if all parameters of $t$ are contained in $\Psi$ and $X$ does not occur in $t$. A first attempt at such a rule would be

$$(\Psi \triangleright X_{\Delta} \doteq t, C) \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright [t/X]C) \text{ where } \Delta \vdash t \text{ term and } X \text{ not free in } t$$

However, in general $t$ will not be closed so we cannot prove that $\Delta \vdash t \text{ term}$. For example, consider the constraint

$$a \triangleright X \doteq f(Y_a) \land Y_a \doteq a$$

where $X$ cannot depend on any parameters and $Y$ can depend on $a$. This should have no solution, since $X$ would have to be equal to $f(a)$, which is not permissible. On the other hand,

$$a \triangleright X \doteq f(Y_a) \land Y_a \doteq c$$

for a constant $c$ has a solution where $Y_a$ is $c$ and $X$ is $f(c)$. So when we process an equation $X_{\Delta} = t$ we need to restrict any variable in $t$ so it can depend only on the parameters in $\Delta$. In the example above, we would substitute $Y'$ for $Y_a$.

In order to describe this restriction, we introduce a new form of constraints which expresses the judgment $\Delta \vdash t \text{ term}$ in the presence of unification variables. We write it as $t \mid_{\Delta}$, thinking of it as the restriction of $t$ to $\Delta$. It is implemented by the following transformations.

$$(\Psi \triangleright f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \mid_{\Delta}, C) \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright t_1 \mid_{\Delta}, \ldots, t_n \mid_{\Delta}, C)$$

$$(\Psi \triangleright a \mid_{\Delta}, C) \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright C) \quad \text{if } a \in \Delta$$

$$(\Psi \triangleright a \mid_{\Delta}, C) \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright \#) \quad \text{if } a \notin \Delta$$

$$(\Psi \triangleright Y_{\Delta'}, \mid_{\Delta}, C) \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright [Y_{\Delta \cap \Delta}/Y]C)$$

the collection of the above four rules implement a process called pruning. Now we can finally write down the correct rule for existential variables.

$$(\Psi \triangleright X_{\Delta} \doteq t, C) \mapsto (\Psi \triangleright t \mid_{\Delta}, [t/X]C) \text{ provided } X \text{ not free in } t$$

From an implementation point of view, it makes sense to first solve $t \mid_{\Delta}$ before substitution $t$ for $X$. In fact, it is probably beneficial to combine it with the occurs-check to the term $t$ need only be traversed once.

The soundness and completeness theorems from above extend to the problem with parameters, but become more difficult. The principal new notion we need is an admissible substitution $\theta$ which has the property that for every existential variable $X_{\Delta}$ we have $\Delta \vdash X[\theta] \text{ term}$ (see Exercise 4.4).
The ML implementation takes advantage of the fact that whenever a variable must be restricted, one of the two contexts is a prefix of the other. This is because every equation in a formula $F$ lies beneath a path of possibly alternating quantifiers, a so-called mixed quantifier prefix. When we apply the rules above algorithmically, we instantiate each existentially quantified variable with a new free existential variable which depends on all parameters which were introduced for the universally quantified variables to its left. Clearly, then, for any two variables in the same equation, one context is a prefix of the other. Our ML implementation does take advantage of this observation by simplifying the intersection operation.

We can take this optimization a step further and only record with an integer (a kind of time stamp), which parameters an existential variable may depend on. This improves the efficiency of the algorithm even further, since we only need to calculate the minimum of two integers instead of intersecting two contexts during restriction. In the ML code for this class, we did not optimize to this extent.

4.6 Exercises

Exercise 4.1 Give an alternative proof of the inversion properties (Theorem 4.1) which does not use induction, but instead relies on admissibility of cut in the sequent calculus (Theorem 3.11).

Exercise 4.2 Formulate one or several cut rules directly on inversion sequents as presented in Section 4.1 and prove that they are admissible. Does this simplify the development of the completeness result for inversion proofs? Show how admissibility might be used, or illustrate why it is not much help.

Exercise 4.3 An alternative to indexing unification variables with the parameters they may depend on is Skolemization. Instead of changing the notion of unification variable, we change the notion of parameter, replacing it by a so-called Skolem function. The two quantifier rules become

\[
\forall x. F, C \rightarrow [f(X_1, \ldots, X_n)/x]F, C \quad \text{where } f \text{ not in } F, \text{ or } C, \text{ and } X_1, \ldots, X_n \text{ are all free unification variables in } F
\]

\[
\exists x. F, C \rightarrow [X/x]F, C \quad \text{where } X \text{ not free in } F \text{ or } C
\]

Now, incorrect dependencies are avoided due to the occurs-check. Reconsider our simple example:

\[
\exists y. \forall x. y \equiv x
\]

\[
\rightarrow \forall x. Y \equiv x
\]

\[
\rightarrow Y \equiv f(Y)
\]

\[
\rightarrow #
\]

Skolemization is attractive because it allows us to use a simpler algorithm for unification. Moreover, in some logics such as classical logic it can be applied.
statically, before we ever attempt to prove the proposition, completely elimin-
ating parameters from consideration. On the other hand, Skolemization is un-
sound in some higher-order logics. Also, it is more difficult to recover a proof
of proposition if we Skolemize during search.

Prove the correctness of the unification algorithm for the full unification logic
(including universal quantifiers) which employs Skolemization.

Exercise 4.4 Extend the proofs of termination and preservation of satisfiability
from the purely existential case in Section 4.4 to allow for the presence of
parameters as sketched in Section 4.5. An important concept will likely be that
of admissible substitution $\theta$ which has the property that for every existential
variable $X_\Delta$ we have $\Delta \vdash X[\theta] \text{ term}$. You should be careful to make a precise
connection between the constraint $t \mid_\Delta$ and the judgment $\Delta \vdash t \text{ term}$ (where
the latter is not defined for unification variables).