

Superposition 1: Basics and Implementation

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Basics 2



Implementation





Introduction

Real World Problem



Real World Problem



Real World Problem

Formalized Problem



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Formalized Problem

 $\begin{array}{l} \forall X: human(X) \rightarrow mortal(X) \\ \forall X: philosopher(X) \rightarrow human(X) \\ philosopher(socrates) \end{array}$

mortal(socrates)



Formalized Problem





ATP



Proof



ATP



Proof or Countermodel







Proof ATP



Proof ATP Countermodel Superposition

Proof by Contradiction



iff



From Formulas To Clauses

 $\forall X : human(X) \rightarrow mortal(X)$ $\forall X : philosopher(X) \rightarrow human(X)$ philosopher(socrates) \neg mortal(socrates) is unsatisfiable

iff



Clausification

- Optional: Introduce definitions to avoid exponential explosion
 - Only satisfiability-preserving
- 2 Eliminate implication and equivalency, simplify
- 3 Move negations inwards to literals (Negation Normal Form)
- Optional: Miniscope (move universal quantifiers inwards)
- 5 Remove existential quantifiers via Skolemization
 - Only satisfiability-preserving
- 6 Move universal quantifiers outwards
- Apply distributive law to move disjunctions inwards (Conjunktive Normal Form)
- 8 Read off disjuncts as clauses



Saturating Theorem Proving

- ► Goal: Show unsatisfiability of a set of clauses S
- Approach:
 - Systematically enrich S with clauses derived via inferences from clauses in S (Saturation)
 - Optionally: Remove redundant clauses
- Outcome:
 - ▶ Derivation of the empty clause □ (explicit witness of unsatisfiability)
 - Successful saturation (up to redundancy): S is satisfiable
 - ... or infinite sequence of derivations
- Properties:
 - ▶ Correctness: Only logical consequences are derived
 - Completeness: Every unsatisfiable S will eventually lead to the derivation of □

A (slightly subjective) historical view



burned of log and computation (5. U.)

Rewrite-based Equational Theorem Proving with Selection and Simplification

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Abstract

We prove even intra-model properties of 1. For every the start 0 and 0 and 0 are the start 0

Kennesingly Theorem proving, first-order logic, equality ; paramodulation, rewrite techniques, nimplification, saturation,

Introduction

Methods for dealing with the equality reedicate are of central concern in automated theorem proving. One of the more successful approaches to equational reasoning is the use of equations as one-way rewrite rules, so that a formula can be simplified by repeatedly replacing an instance of the left-hand side of a rule by its right-hand side until a simplest possible form (a normal form) is obtained. The completion procedure [22], for instance, attempts to construct a conversant rewrite system (one for which normal forms exist and are unique) from a given set of universally quantified equational axioms. A convergent rewrite system provides a decision procedure for the underlying equational theory: two terms can be rewritten to identical normal forms if, and only if, they are equal. The completion procedure may fail to find a convergent system, but has been extended to a refutationally complete theorem prover (cf. [25, 19, 3]). The two main components of completion are, first, a deductive inference rule called superposition and, secondly, various mechanisms for deleting redundant equations via simplification by rewriting. These features have been extended to conditional rewrite rules, that is. Hom clauses in which equations are the only stomic formulas [16, 15, 23]. In this paper we generalize the rewriting approach to general first, order clauses, and combine it with new techniques for equational theorem proving, based on the observation that superposition is a restricted form of paramodulation [33], while demodulation

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Basics

Multisets

- Formally: A multiset over a set S is a function $M: S \to \mathbb{N}$.
- Intuitively: A multiset is a set-like collection that allows multiple occurrences of the same element
- We write multisets like sets and generalize most operations in the obvious way:

▶
$$\forall s \in S : (M_1 \cup M_2)(s) = M_1(s) + M_2(s)$$

- ► $\forall s \in S(M_1 \cap M_2)(s) = \min(M_1(s), M_2(s))$
- ▶ ...

Equational Clause Logic (1)

Definition: Signature, Terms

We assume:

- ► Signature F of function symbols with associated arities, e.g. F = {f/2, g/1, a/0, n/0}
 - ▶ We assume at least one constant in *F*
- Enumerable set of variables $V = \{X, Y, Z, X_1, X_2, \ldots\}$

The set T(F, V) of terms is defined as follows

- $V \subseteq T(F, V)$
- If $f/n \in F, t_1, \ldots, t_n \in T(F, V)$, then $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \in T(F, V)$
- Nothing else is a term
- Example terms: f(X, Y), a, f(g(a), g(b)), X, f(X, f(Y, Z))
 - ▶ We write *a* instead of *a*() for constants

Definition: Equations, literals

- ► An (positive) equation is an unordered pair of terms
 - We write $s \simeq t$
 - ▶ We identify $s \simeq t$ with the multiset $\{\{s\}, \{t\}\}$
- ► An disequation or negative equation is an unordered pair of terms
 - We write $s \not\simeq t$
 - ▶ We identify $s \not\simeq t$ with the multiset $\{\{s, t\}\}$
- ► A literal is either an equation or a disequation
 - We write $s \simeq t$ if we don't want to specify the polarity
 - ... or we simply write l_1, l_2, \ldots for various literals

Definition: Clauses

- A clause is a multiset of literals
- ► We write a clause as a disjunction of literals

$$\{l_1, l_2, l_3\} = l_1 \lor l_2 \lor l_3$$

Examples:

- $g(a) \simeq a \lor g(a) \not\simeq a$ is a (tautological) clause
- $f(X, f(Y, Z)) \simeq f(f(X, Y), Z)$ is a (positive unit) clause
- $a \not\simeq b \lor g(a) \not\simeq g(b)$ is a (negative) clause

Ground Terms and the Herbrand Universe

Definition: Ground Terms

- A ground term is a terms that does not contain any variables
 - Analogously: ground literals, ground clauses
- ► We write T(F) for the set of all ground terms over the signature F
- We also call T(F) the Herbrand universe for F



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Jaques Herbrand: If we want to show that a set of clauses is unsatisfiable, we only need to consider interpretations where variables range over the Herbrand universe

Herbrand Equality Interpretations

Definition

- ► A Herbrand Equality Interpretation *I* is a congruence relation on ground terms, i.e. a relation for which the following holds:
 - I is reflexive, symmetric and transitive
 - ▶ If $(s, t) \in I$, then $(u[p \leftarrow s], u[p \leftarrow t]) \in I$
 - ► ... where u[p ← s] denotes the term u with the subterm at position p replaced by s
- A ground equation $s \simeq t$ is true under *I*, if $(s, t) \in I$
 - We write $I \models s \simeq t$
- ▶ A ground disequation $s \not\simeq t$ is true under *I*, if $(s, t) \notin I$
 - We write $I \models s \not\simeq t$
- ► A ground clause *C* is true under *I*, if one of its literals is true
 - We write $I \models s \not\simeq t$

- Assume $F = \{a/0, b/0, c/0, g/1\}$
- ► What is the smallest Herbrand Equality Interpretation *I*₁ in which *a* ≃ *b* is true?
- What is the smallest Herbrand Equality Interpretation I₂ in which both a ≃ b and g(a) ≃ g(c) are true?
- What is the truth status of the following clauses under I_1 and I_2 ?

$$\blacktriangleright g(a) \not\simeq b \lor a \simeq c$$

$$\blacktriangleright g(b) \not\simeq g(c) \lor a \simeq c$$

Substitutions

Definition: Substitution, Instance

- A substitution is a mapping σ : V → T(F, V) with the property that {X ∈ V | Xσ ≠ X} is finite
- ▶ We continue it to a mapping $\sigma : T(F, V) \rightarrow T(F, V)$
 - Every variable X in a term t is replaced by the corresponding term $X\sigma$
 - We write $t\sigma$ for the result of applying σ to t
- Substitutions are further continued to literals and clauses in the obvious way
- We call $t\sigma$, $I\sigma$, $C\sigma$ instances of t, I, or C, respectively
- If tσ, Iσ, Cσ are ground, we call σ a grounding substitution (for t, I, C), and tσ, Iσ, Cσ ground instances

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Examples: Consider $\sigma = \{X \leftarrow a, Y \leftarrow g(X)\}$

- $f(X, Y)\sigma = f(a, g(X))$
- σ is grounding for g(X)

- We have defined the truth value of ground clauses under a Herbrand Equality Interpretation I
- ▶ What about non-ground clauses?

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Semantics of clauses

Let I be a Herbrand Equality Interpretation and C be a clause

• $I \models C$ iff $I \models C\sigma$ for all grounding substitutions σ

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Semantics of clauses

Let I be a Herbrand Equality Interpretation and C be a clause

- $I \models C$ iff $I \models C\sigma$ for all grounding substitutions σ
- A clause is true under Herbrand Equality Interpretation if all its ground instances are

Definition

Assume a set S of clauses and a Herbrand Equality Interpretation I

- ► *I* is called a Herbrand Equality Model iff $\forall C \in S : I \models C$
- ► *S* is called satisfiable, if such an *I* exists
- ► Otherwise, *S* is unsatisfiable

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Different Interpretations of Clauses

► As a disjunction, a clause is true, if one of its literals is true

$$s_1 \not\simeq t_1 \lor s_2 \not\simeq t_2 \lor s_3 \simeq t_3 \lor s_4 \simeq t_4$$

 Implicational form: If the disequations are false, one of the equations must be true

$$(s_1 \simeq t_1 \land s_2 \simeq t_2)
ightarrow (s_3 \simeq t_3 \lor s_4 \simeq t_4)$$

Even stronger: If all but one literals are false, the remaining one must be true

$$(s_1 \simeq t_1 \land s_2 \simeq t_2 \land s_3 \not\simeq t_3)
ightarrow s_4 \simeq t_4$$
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Clauses can be seen as (conditional) rewrite rules

Unification

Definition: Unifier, mgu

- A substitution σ is called a unifier for two terms *s*,*t*, if $s\sigma = t\sigma$
- It is called a most general unifier if it is the most general substitution with this property
 - If a unifier exists, the most general unifier is unique (up to variable renamings) and can be computed easily
 - We write mgu(s, t) to denote the most general unifier of s and t

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 - We write mgu(s, t) to denote the most general unifier of s and t
- ► If a term represents all its ground instances, the *mgu* allows us to find the common instances of two terms
- Thus, it allows us to derive new clauses which talk about these subsets

- Consider the (unit) clause g(a) ≄ g(X). Is it satisfiable? Why or why not?
- Consider the set S = {a ≃ b, g(a) ≄ g(b)}. Is S satisfiable? Why or why not?

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The fact that Herbrand Equality Interpretations are congruences allow us to apply equational reasoning!

Equality Resolution

- Syntactically identical terms must be equal in I
 - I is a congruence relation and hence reflexive
- ► Thus, if the two terms of a negative equation have common instances, we can shorten the clause for these instances

$$(\mathsf{ER}) \quad \frac{C \lor s \not\simeq t}{C\sigma} \text{ if } \sigma = mgu(s, t)$$

- Notes:
 - C is an arbitrary clause (possibly empty)
 - Remember that clauses are multisets, hence unordered
 - Any interpretation that makes C ∨ s ≄ t true also makes Cσ true, hence Cσ is a logical consequence of C ∨ s ≄ t
 - This is a generating inference: The new clause is added to the current set of clauses

Paramodulation: Replacing Equals with Equals

► Paramodulation interprets a clause as a conditional rewrite rule

- One positive literal is applied
- The others are considered as conditions
- Conditions are not solved, but lazily added to the result

$$(\mathsf{PM}) \xrightarrow{C \lor s \simeq t} D \lor u \doteq v \\ \hline (C \lor D \lor u[p \leftarrow t] \doteq v)\sigma \text{ if } \sigma = mgu(u|_p, s)$$

Notes:

- The literal used for replacing must be positive
- ▶ The literal in which a term is replaced can have any polarity
- This is a generating inference: The new clause is added to the current set of clauses

► Factoring allow us to unify literals with the same polarity

$$(\mathsf{PF}) \frac{C \lor s \simeq t \lor u \simeq v}{(C \lor s \simeq t)\sigma} \text{ if } \sigma = mgu(s \simeq t, u \simeq v)$$

- Notes:
 - ▶ Note that $s \simeq t$ and $u \simeq v$ are unordered, hence must be tried in both directions for unification
 - This is a generating inference: The new clause is added to the current set of clauses

You should be able to prove the unsatisfiability of the following clause set with just the rules (ER), (PM), (EF). Can you?

 $p(X,X)\simeq X$

 $p(p(p(X,Y),Z),U) \neq p(p(Y,Z),X) \lor p(p(p(X,Y),Z),i(U)) \simeq n0))$ $p(p(p(X,Y),Z),i(U)) \neq n0 \lor p(p(p(X,Y),Z),U) \simeq p(p(Y,Z),X)))$

> $p(i(p(a, i(b))), i(p(i(a), i(b)))) \not\simeq b$ $\lor p(p(a, b), c) \not\simeq p(a, p(b, c)) \lor p(b, a) \not\simeq p(a, b)$



Paramodulation is Blind

- Fact: (PM), (ER) and (PF) together are a sound and complete inference system for equational reasoning
 - If used exhaustively, the will generate the empty clause from any unsatisfiable clause set
 - ▶ They will never generate the empty clause from a satisfiable clause set
- ► Problem: Paramodulation is too prolific
 - Every positive literal can be used as a rewrite rule
 - ... in either direction (!)
 - Any literal can be rewritten at any position

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The search space explodes extremely fast! \implies Only very simple proofs can be found

- ► Superposition restricts paramodulation by introducing orderings
 - Paramodulation can only be used on maximal terms in maximal literals
 - Only maximal instances of equations can be used as rewrite rules
 - Only potentially reducing rewrite steps can be made
- ► Side effect: Powerful redundancy criteria
 - In particular: Unconditional rewriting

Simplification Orderings

Definition: Simplification ordering

- ► A simplification ordering > on T(F, V) is a partial ordering > with the following properties:
 - ▶ > is stable under substitutions: s > t implies $s\sigma > t\sigma$
 - ▶ > is compatible with the term structure: s > t implies $u[p \leftarrow s] > u[p \leftarrow t]$
 - > is terminating
 - > contains the subterm relation

 \blacktriangleright > is a ground simplification ordering, if > is total on ground terms

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 - > contains the subterm relation
- $\blacktriangleright\,>$ is a ground simplification ordering, if > is total on ground terms

Notes:

- > cannot be total on all terms (consider X > Y)
- Examples of (families of) simplification orderings are the Knuth-Bendix-Ordering (KBO) and the Lexicographic Path Ordering (LPO)

Let > be a (ground) simplification ordering on terms. > is lifted to literals via the multiset-extension:

- ► Remember:
 - We identify $s \simeq t$ with $\{\{s\}, \{t\}\}$
 - We identify $s \not\simeq t$ with $\{\{s, t\}\}$
- So s ≃ t > u ≃ v if their respective multiset representations compare that way under >>

- Term orderings allow us to restrict paramodulation and equality resolution to maximal literals
- Factoring can also be restricted, but needs to be slightly generalized to maintain completeness

$$(\mathsf{ER}) \xrightarrow{C \lor s \not\simeq t}_{C\sigma}$$

if $\sigma = mgu(s, t)$ and $s \not\simeq t$ is maximal in $(C \lor s \not\simeq t)\sigma$

- Notes:
 - ► This restricts the previous version with the added maximality requirement
 - Equality resolution is generally harmless

Superposition

- ► Superposition restricts paramodulation with term orderings
- It comes in two versions for positive and negative target literals $(\mathsf{SN}) \frac{C \lor s \simeq t \quad D \lor u \not\simeq v}{(C \lor D \lor u[p \leftarrow t] \not\simeq v)\sigma} \quad \text{if}$ $| u |_{p} \notin V, \sigma = mgu(u|_{p}, s)$ ► $s\sigma \not< t\sigma, u\sigma \not< v\sigma$ • $(s \simeq t)\sigma$ is strictly maximal in $(C \lor s \simeq t)\sigma$ • $(u \not\simeq v)\sigma$ is maximal in $(D \lor u \not\simeq v)\sigma$ $(\mathsf{SP}) \frac{C \lor s \simeq t \quad D \lor u \simeq v}{(C \lor D \lor u[p \leftarrow t] \simeq v)\sigma} \quad \text{if}$ $| u |_{p} \notin V, \sigma = mgu(u |_{p}, s)$ sσ ∠ tσ. uσ ∠ vσ • $(s \simeq t)\sigma$ is strictly maximal in $(C \lor s \simeq t)\sigma$
 - $(u \simeq v)\sigma$ is strictly maximal in $(D \lor u \not\simeq v)\sigma$

Equality factoring generalizes positive factoring

(EF) C∨s ≃ t∨u ≃ v
(C∨t ≄ v∨u ≃ v)σ

of = mgu(s, u)

sσ ≮ tσ
(s ≃ t)σ is maximal in (C∨s ≃ t∨u ≃ vσ)

An inference system that contains just (ER), (SN), (SP), (EF) is sound and complete!

- For completeness, every possible inference must eventually be performed
- ► Implementation e.g.:
 - Level saturation
 - ▶ Given-clause algorithm
- ► In practice, redundancy elimination is critical!

A Basic Proof Procedure



A Basic Proof Procedure



- ► Superposition comes with a powerful redundancy concept:
 - A clause is redundant, if every ground instance is implied by smaller ground instances of other clauses
 - ► The ordering lifts the literal ordering via the multiset-construction (again!) to the clause level
 - Redundant clauses can be removed without affecting completeness

- ► Superposition comes with a powerful redundancy concept:
 - A clause is redundant, if every ground instance is implied by smaller ground instances of other clauses
 - The ordering lifts the literal ordering via the multiset-construction (again!) to the clause level
 - Redundant clauses can be removed without affecting completeness
- Note: Simplification can add new, smaller clauses to make a previous clause redundant!

- ► Tautologies are clauses that are true under any implementation
 - $\blacktriangleright \quad \mathsf{Example:} \ a \not\simeq b \lor a \simeq b$
 - $\blacktriangleright \quad \mathsf{Example:} \ a \not\simeq b \lor a \simeq a$
- Tautologies are implied by the empty set of clauses
 - ▶ Hence they can be removed per the general redundancy criterion

- ► A clause that is a subset of another clause is smaller
 - Any inference that removes a literal replaces a clause by a smaller one that makes it redundant
- Examples:
 - Removal of duplicate literals
 - ▶ Removal of trivially false literals $(s \not\simeq s)$

Rewriting

Rewriting replaces a term with a smaller term

- ▶ The original clause is implied by the new one and the rewriting one
- Crucial for efficient proof procedures!

$$(\mathsf{RP}) = \underbrace{\begin{array}{ccc} s \simeq t & u \simeq v \lor C \\ \hline s \simeq t & u[p \leftarrow t\sigma] \simeq v \lor C \end{array}}_{\mathsf{if}}$$

►
$$u|_p = s\sigma$$
, $s\sigma > t\sigma$

► $u \simeq v$ is not maximal or $u \neq v$ or $p \neq \lambda$ or σ is not a variable renaming

(RN)
$$\frac{s \simeq t \quad u \not\simeq v \lor C}{s \simeq t \quad u[p \leftarrow t\sigma] \not\simeq v \lor C}$$

if $u|_p = s\sigma$ and $s\sigma > t\sigma$

- Subsumption
- Contextual literal cutting a.k.a clause simplification a.k.a. subsumption resolution
- Condensation
- ► AC redundancy elimination

Implementation





- Aim: Move everything from U to P
- Invariant: All generating inferences with premises from P have been performed



- Aim: Move everything from U to P
- Invariant: All generating inferences with premises from *P* have been performed
- Invariant: P is interreduced



The Given-Clause Loop

```
while U \neq \{\}
  g = delete_best(U)
  g = simplify(g, P)
  if g == \Box
     SUCCESS. Proof found
  if g is not subsumed by any clause in P (or otherwise redundant w.r.t. P)
     P = P \setminus \{c \in P \mid c \text{ subsumed by (or otherwise redundant w.r.t.) } g\}
     T = \{c \in P \mid c \text{ can be simplified with } g\}
     P = (P \setminus T) \cup \{g\}
     T = T \cup \text{generate}(g, P)
     foreach c \in T
        c = \text{cheap}_{simplify}(c, P)
        if c is not trivial
           U = U \cup \{c\}
SUCCESS, original U is satisfiable
```

while $U \neq \{\}$ $g = \text{delete_best}(U)$ g = simplify(g, P)if $g == \Box$ SUCCESS, Proof found if g is not redundant w.r.t. P $P = P \setminus \{ c \in P \mid c \text{ redundant w.r.t. } g \}$ $T = \{ c \in P \mid c \text{ simplifiable with } g \}$ $P = (P \setminus T) \cup \{g\}$ $T = T \cup \text{generate}(q, P)$ foreach $c \in T$ $c = \text{cheap}_{\text{simplify}}(c, P)$ if c is not trivial $U = U \cup \{c\}$ SUCCESS, original U is satisfiable












SUCCESS, original U is satisfiable



SUCCESS, original U is satisfiable

Some Numbers

#	Initial clauses in saturation	:	4
#	Processed clauses	:	4808
#	of these trivial	:	385
#	subsumed	:	3976
#	remaining for further processing	:	447
#	Other redundant clauses eliminated	:	604
#	Generated clauses	:	46595
#	of the previous two non-trivial	:	33866
#	Paramodulations	:	45989
#	Factorizations	:	0
#	Equation resolutions	:	606
#	Current number of processed clauses	:	306
#	Current number of unprocessed clauses	::	25454



Expensive operations

- ► Paramodulation/Superposition: Find partners for *g*
 - Indexing with e.g. Fingerprint Indexing or Discrimination Tree Indexing
- ► Forward rewriting: Find matching equations for *g* and newly generated clauses
 - Biggest single cost in many provers!
 - Use Discrimination Tree Indexing
- ► Backward rewriting: Find clauses rewritable with g
 - Use Path Indexing or Fingerprint Indexing
- Subsumption: Find clauses subsuming or subsumed by g
 - Use Feature Vector Indexing

Search control

while $U \neq \{\}$ $g = \text{delete_best}(U)$ g = simplify(g, P)if $q == \Box$ SUCCESS, Proof found if g is not redundant w.r.t. P $P = P \setminus \{ c \in P \mid c \text{ redundant w.r.t. } g \}$ $T = \{ c \in P \mid c \text{ simplifiable with } g \}$ $P = (P \setminus T) \cup \{g\}$ $T = T \cup \text{generate}(g, P)$ foreach $c \in T$ $c = \text{cheap}_{simplify}(c, P)$ if c is not trivial $U = U \cup \{c\}$ SUCCESS, original U is satisfiable



- Symbol counting
 - Pick smallest clause in P
 - ▶ $|{f(X) \neq a, P(a) \neq $true, g(Y) = f(a)}| = 10$
- ► FIFO
 - Always pick oldest clause in P
- Flexible weighting
 - Symbol counting, but give different weight to different symbols
 - E.g. lower weight to symbols from goal!
- Combinations
 - Interleave different schemes

DISCOUNT

- Different experts (heuristic evaluation functions)
- Only one *expert* per saturation phase
- Otter
 - Interleaves size/age selection
 - ▶ Larry Wos: "The optimal pick-given ration is 5"
- Waldmeister
 - Larry is right in general, wrong in detail

The general tendency is to over-design the second system, using all the ideas and frills that were cautiously sidetracked on the first one. The result, as Ovid says, is a "big pile." — Frederick P. Brooks, Jr.

Given-Clause Selection in E

- ► Domain Specific Language (DSL) for clause selection scheme
- Arbitrary number of queues
- Each queue ordered by:
 - Unparameterized priority function
 - Parameterized heuristic evaluation function
- Clauses picked using weighted round-robbin scheme
 - Example:
 - ▶ 4 clauses from queue 1
 - ► 2 clauses from queue 2
 - ► 2 clauses from queue 3
 - Start over at queue 1

Second-system effect gone wild

The Influence of Clause Selection



- Download and install E from http://www.eprover.org
- Run it some of the provided examples
- Play with the parameters
- ► Take a guided tour through the source

Conclusion

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- ► After 25 years, superposition is still the best general-purpose calculus for first-order logic with equality
- Good implementations are available
 - ► E
 - SPASS
 - Prover 9
 - Vampire
- ▶ ... but further improvements are possible
- Search control heuristics are still crucial

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And part of the future will be part of the afternoon session!

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