Miki Hermann Andrei Voronkov (Eds.)

Logic for Programming, Artificial Intelligence, and Reasoning

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Logic for Programming, Artificial Intelligence, and Reasoning

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Preface

This volume contains the papers presented at the 13th International Conference on Logic for Programming, Artificial Intelligence, and Reasoning (LPAR), held during November 13–17, 2006, in Phnom Penh, Cambodia, together with the 2nd International Workshop on Analytic Proof Systems (organized by Christian Fermüller and Matthias Baaz) and the 6th International Workshop on the Implementation or Logics (organized by Christoph Benzmüller, Bernd Fischer, and Geoff Sutcliffe).

The call for papers attracted 96 paper submissions, each of which was reviewed by at least three expert reviewers. The final decisions on the papers were taken during an electronic Program Committee meeting held on the Internet. The Internet-based submission, reviewing, and discussion software EasyChair, provided by the second PC Co-chair, supported each stage of the reviewing process. Nevertheless, the most important work was, of course, done by the 35 PC members and their external reviewers, who provided high-quality reviews. After intense discussions to resolve conflicts among the reviewers, the Program Committee decided to accept 38 papers.

The conference program also included an invited talk by Jean-Pierre Jouannaud, documented by an additional paper in these proceedings.

Apart from the authors, invited speaker, Program Committee members, and external reviewers, we would like to thank other people and organizations that made this LPAR conference a success: the Local Organization Chair, Sopheap Seng, and all the other people involved in the local organization; the Department of Information and Communication Technology Engineering at the Institut de Technologie du Cambodge in Phnom Penh, and the Kurt Gödel Society, which provided partial funding and support.

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Higher-Order Termination: From Kruskal to Computability

Frédéric Blanqui¹, Jean-Pierre Jouannaud^{2,*}, and Albert Rubio³

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1 Introduction

Termination is a major question in both logic and computer science. In logic, termination is at the heart of proof theory where it is usually called strong normalization (of cut elimination). In computer science, termination has always been an important issue for showing programs correct. In the early days of logic, strong normalization was usually shown by assigning ordinals to expressions in such a way that eliminating a cut would yield an expression with a smaller ordinal. In the early days of verification, computer scientists used similar ideas, interpreting the arguments of a program call by a natural number, such as their size. Showing the size of the arguments to decrease for each recursive call gives a termination proof of the program, which is however rather weak since it can only yield quite small ordinals. In the sixties, Tait invented a new method for showing cut elimination of natural deduction, based on a predicate over the set of terms, such that the membership of an expression to the predicate implied the strong normalization property for that expression. The predicate being defined by induction on types, or even as a fixpoint, this method could yield much larger ordinals. Later generalized by Girard under the name of reducibility or computability candidates, it showed very effective in proving the strong normalization property of typed lambda-calculi with polymorphic types, dependent types, inductive types, and finally a cumulative hierarchy of universes. On the programming side, research on termination shifted from programming to executable specification languages based on rewriting, and concentrated on automatable methods based on the construction on well-founded orderings of the set of terms. The milestone here is Dershowitz's recursive path ordering (RPO), in the late seventies, whose well-foundedness proof is based on a powerful combinatorial argument, Kruskal's tree theorem, which also yields rather large ordinals. While the computability predicates must be defined for each particular case, and their properties proved by hand, the recursive path ordering can be effectively automated.

These two methods are completely different. Computability arguments show *termination*, that is, infinite decreasing sequences of expressions $e_0 \succ e_1 \succ \dots e_n \succ e_{n+1} \dots$ do not exist. Kruskal's based arguments show *well-orderedness*: for any infinite sequence of expressions $\{e_i\}_i$, there is a pair j < k such that $e_j \preceq e_k$. It is easy to see that well-orderedness implies termination, but the converse is not true.

^{*} Project LogiCal, Pôle Commun de Recherche en Informatique du Plateau de Saclay, CNRS, École Polytechnique, INRIA, Université Paris-Sud.

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In the late eighties, a new question arose: termination of a simply-typed lambda-calculus language in which beta-reduction would be supplemented with terminating first-order rewrite rules. Breazu-Tannen and Gallier on the one hand [12], and Okada [23] on the other hand, showed that termination was satisfied by the combination by using computability arguments. Indeed, when rewriting operates at basic types and is generated by first-order rewrite rules, beta-reduction and rewriting do not interfere. Their result, proved for a polymorphic λ -calculus, was later generalized to the calculus of constructions [1]. The situation becomes radically different with higher-order rewriting generated by rules operating on arrow-types, or involving lambda-bindings or higher-order variables. Such an example is provided by Gödel's system T, in which higher-order primitive recursion for natural numbers generated by Peano's constructors 0 and s is described by the following two higher-order rules:

$$\begin{split} rec(0,U,V) &\to U \\ rec(s(X),U,V) &\to @(V,X,rec(X,U,V)) \end{split}$$

where rec is a function symbol of type $\mathbb{N} \to T \to (\mathbb{N} \to T \to T) \to T$, U is a higherorder variable of type T and V a higher-order variable of type $\mathbb{N} \to T \to T$, for all type T. Jouannaud and Okada invented the so-called general-schema [17], a powerful generalization of Gödel's higher-order primitive recursion of higher types. Following the path initiated by Breazu-Tannen and Gallier on the one hand, and Okada on the other hand, termination of calculi based on the general schema was proved by using computability arguments as well [17,18,2]. The general schema was then reformulated by Blanqui, Jouannaud and Okada [3,4] in order to incorporate computability arguments directly in its definition, opening the way to new generalizations. Gödel's system T can be generalized in two ways, by introducing type constructors and dependent types, yielding the Calculus of Constructions, and by introducing strictly positive inductive types. Both together yield the Calculus of Inductive Constructions [24], the theory underlying the Coq system [14], in which rewrite rules like strong elimination operate on types, raising new difficulties. Blanqui gave a generalization of the general schema which includes the Calculus of Inductive Constructions as a particular case under the name of Calculus of Algebraic Constructions [6,7].

The general schema, however, is too simple to analyze complex calculi defined by higher-order rewrite rules such as encodings of logics. For that purpose, Jouannaud and Rubio generalized the recursive path ordering to the higher-order case, yielding the higher-order recursive path ordering (HORPO) [19]. The RPO well-foundedness proof follows from Kruskal's tree theorem, but no such theorem exists in presence of a binding construct, and it is not at all clear that such a theorem may exist. What is remarkable is that computability arguments fit with RPO's recursive structure. When applied to RPO, these arguments result in a new, simple, well-foundedness proof of RPO. One could even argue that this is the *first* well-foundedness proof of RPO, since Dershowitz showed *more*: well-orderedness.

Combining the general schema and the HORPO is indeed easy because their termination properties are both based on computability arguments. The resulting relation, HORPO with closure, combines an ordering relation with a membership predicate. In this paper, we reformulate and improve a recent idea of Blanqui [9] by defining a new

version of the HORPO with closure which integrates smoothly the idea of the general schema into HORPO in the form of a new ordering definition.

So far, we have considered the kind of higher-order rewriting defined by using first-order pattern matching as in the calculus of constructions. These orderings need to contain β - and η -reductions. Showing termination of higher-order rewrite rules based on higher-order pattern matching, that is, rewriting modulo β and η now used as equalities, turns out to require simple modifications of HORPO [20]. We will therefore concentrate here on higher-order orderings containing β - and η -reductions.

We introduce higher-order algebras in Section 2. In Section 3, we recall the computability argument for this variation of the simply typed lambda calculus. Using a computability argument again, we show in Section 4 that RPO is well-founded. We introduce the general schema in section 5, and the HORPO in Section 6 before to combine both in Section 7. We end up with related work and open problems in the last two sections.

2 Higher-Order Algebras

The notion of a higher-order algebra given here is the monomorphic version of the notion of polymorphic higher-order algebra defined in [21]. Polymorphism has been ruled out for simplicity.

2.1 Types, Signatures and Terms

Given a set S of *sort symbols* of a fixed arity, denoted by $s: *^n \Rightarrow *$, the set T_S of *types* is generated from these sets by the arrow constructor:

$$\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{S}} := s(\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{S}}^n) \mid (\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{S}} \to \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{S}})$$

for $s : *^n \Rightarrow * \in \mathcal{S}$

Types headed by \rightarrow are arrow types while the others are basic types. Type declarations are expressions of the form $\sigma_1 \times \cdots \times \sigma_n \rightarrow \sigma$, where n is the arity of the type declaration, and $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n, \sigma$ are types. A type declaration is first-order if it uses only sorts, otherwise higher-order.

We assume given a set of function symbols which are meant to be algebraic operators. Each function symbol f is equipped with a type declaration $f: \sigma_1 \times \cdots \times \sigma_n \to \sigma$. We use \mathcal{F}_n for the set of function symbols of arity n. \mathcal{F} is a *first-order signature* if all its type declarations are first-order, and a higher-order signature otherwise.

The set of *raw terms* is generated from the signature \mathcal{F} and a denumerable set \mathcal{X} of variables according to the grammar:

$$\mathcal{T} := \mathcal{X} \mid (\lambda \mathcal{X}.\mathcal{T}) \mid @(\mathcal{T},\mathcal{T}) \mid \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{T},\ldots,\mathcal{T}).$$

Terms generated by the first two grammar rules are called *algebraic*. Terms of the form $\lambda x.u$ are called *abstractions* while terms of the form @(u,v) are called *applications*. The term $@(u,\overline{v})$ is called a (partial) *left-flattening* of $@(\ldots @(@(u,v_1),v_2),\ldots,v_n)$, with u being possibly an application itself. Terms other than abstractions are said to be *neutral*. We denote by $\mathcal{V}ar(t)$ ($\mathcal{B}\mathcal{V}ar(t)$) the set of free (bound) variables of t. We may

assume for convenience (and without further notice) that bound variables in a term are all different, and are different from the free ones.

Terms are identified with finite labeled trees by considering λx ., for each variable x, as a unary function symbol. *Positions* are strings of positive integers, the empty string Λ denoting the root position. The *subterm* of t at position p is denoted by $t|_p$, and by $t[u]_p$ the result of replacing $t|_p$ at position p in t by u. We write s > u if u is a strict subterm of s. We use $t[\]_p$ for a term with a hole, called a context. The notation \overline{s} will be ambiguously used to denote a list, a multiset, or a set of terms s_1, \ldots, s_n .

2.2 Typing Rules

Typing rules restrict the set of terms by constraining them to follow a precise discipline. Environments are sets of pairs written $x:\sigma$, where x is a variable and σ is a type. Let $\mathcal{D}om(\Gamma)=\{x\mid x:\sigma\in\Gamma \text{ for some type }\sigma\}$. We assume there is a unique pair of the form $x:\sigma$ for every variable $x\in\mathcal{D}om(\Gamma)$. Our typing judgments are written as $\Gamma\vdash M:\sigma$ if the term M can be proved to have the type σ in the environment Γ . A term M has type σ in the environment Γ if $\Gamma\vdash M:\sigma$ is provable in the inference system of Figure 1. A term M is typable in the environment Γ if there exists a type σ such that M has type σ in the environment Γ . A term M is typable if it is typable in some environment Γ . Note that function symbols are uncurried, hence must come along with all their arguments.

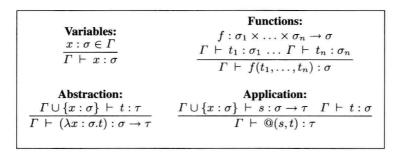


Fig. 1. Typing judgments in higher-order algebras

2.3 Higher-Order Rewrite Rules

Substitutions are written as in $\{x_1:\sigma_1\mapsto (\varGamma_1,t_1),\ldots,x_n:\sigma_n\mapsto (\varGamma_n,t_n)\}$ where, for every $i\in [1..n]$, t_i is assumed different from x_i and $\varGamma_i\vdash t_i:\sigma_i$. We also assume that $\bigcup_i\varGamma_i$ is an environment. We often write $x\mapsto t$ instead of $x:\sigma\mapsto (\varGamma,t)$, in particular when t is ground. We use the letter γ for substitutions and postfix notation for their application. Substitutions behave as endomorphisms defined on free variables. A (possibly higher-order) term rewriting system is a set of rewrite rules $R=\{\varGamma_i\vdash l_i\to r_i:\sigma_i\}_i$, where l_i and r_i are higher-order terms such that l_i and r_i have the same type σ_i in the environment \varGamma_i . Given a term rewriting system R, a term s rewrites to a term t at position t0 with the rule t1 and the substitution t2, written t3 and t4 or simply t4. If t5 we also assume that t6 are t6 and t7 and the substitution t8.