Introduction to Unification Theory Higher-Order Unification

Temur Kutsia

RISC, Johannes Kepler University of Linz, Austria kutsia@risc.jku.at



Overview

Introduction

Preliminaries

Higher-Order Unification Procedure



Outline

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Higher-Order Unification Procedure



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- Can be solved, e.g., with the identity function or with the constant function a.
- Higher-order equations.
- Solving method: Higher-order unification.





- Higher-order unification is fundamental in automating higher-order reasoning.
- Used in logical frameworks, logic programming, program synthesis, program transformation, type inferencing, computational linguistics, etc.
- Much more complicated than first-order unification (undecidable, of type zero, nonterminating, ...).
- In this lecture: Introduction to higher-order unification.





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Simply Typed λ -Calculus

- Simply type λ -calculus is our term language.
- ▶ In this section: Definitions and elementary properties.
 - Types
 - Terms
 - Substitutions
 - Reduction
 - Unification





Types

Types

Consider a finite set whose elements are called *atomic types* (or *base types*). Then:

- Atomic types are types,
- ▶ If T and U are types than $T \to U$ is a type.

The expression $T_1 \to T_2 \to \cdots \to T_n \to U$ is a notation for the type $T_1 \to (T_2 \to \cdots \to (T_n \to U) \ldots)$.





Types

Order of a Type

- o(T) = 1 if T is atomic.
- $o(T \to U) = max\{1 + o(T), o(U)\}.$

Example

Let T_1, T_2, T_3 be atomic types, then

- $\bullet \ o(T_1 \to T_2 \to T_3) = 2.$
- $o((T_1 \to T_2) \to T_3) = 3.$





Terms

Assumptions:

- Consider finite set of constants.
- To each constant a type is assigned.
- For each atomic type there is at least one constant.
- For each type there is an infinite set of variables.
- Two different types have disjoint sets of variables.

λ -Terms

- Constants are terms.
- Variables are terms.
- If t and s are terms then (t s) is a term.
- If x is a variable and t is a term then λx . t is a term.

The expression $(t s_1 \dots s_n)$ is a notation for the term $(\dots (t s_1) \dots s_n)$





Terms

- $\lambda x. t$ is a function where λx is the λ -abstraction and t is the body. Intuitively, it is a function $x \mapsto t$.
- In $\lambda x. t$, λx is a binder for x in t. Occurrences of x in t are bound.
- ► (*t s*) is an application where function *t* is applied to the argument *s*.



Terms

Type of a Term

A term t is said to have the type T if either

- t is a constant of type T,
- t is a variable of type T,
- ▶ t = (rs), r has type $U \to T$ and s has type U for some U,
- ▶ $t = \lambda x$. s, the variable x has type U, the term s has type V and $T = U \rightarrow V$.
- ▶ A term *t* is said to be *well-typed* if there exists a type *T* such that *t* has type *T*.
- In this case T is unique and it is called the type of t.
- We consider only well-typed terms.





Order

Order of a Symbol, Language

- The order of a function symbol or a variable is the order of its type.
- A language of order n is one which allows function symbols of order at most n + 1 and variables of order at most n.

Formalization of the conventions:

- First order term denotes an individual.
- Second order term denotes a function on individuals.
- etc.





Free Variables

- vars(t): The set of variables occurring in the term t.
- An occurrence of a variable in a term is free if it is not bound.
- ► The set of variables that occur freely in t, denoted fvars(t):
 - $fvars(c) = \emptyset$, where c is a constant.
 - $fvars(x) = \{x\}.$
 - $fvars((sr)) = fvars(s) \cup fvars(r)$.
 - $fvars(\lambda x. s) = fvars(s) \setminus \{x\}.$
- Closed term: A term without free variables.





Free Variables

Example

- $fvars(\lambda x. x) = \emptyset$. (Closed term)
- $fvars(\lambda x. y) = \{y\}.$
- $fvars(((\lambda x. x) x)) = \{x\}.$ (x has a bound occurrence as well)



Substitution

- We reuse the definition of substitution as finite mapping from the previous lectures, but in addition require that it preserves types.
- ▶ Hence, if $x \mapsto t$ is a binding of a substitution, x and t have the same type.
- ► The definitions of composition, more general substitution, etc. will also be reused.



Replacement in a Term

Replacement in a Term

Let $\sigma = \{x_1 \mapsto t_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto t_n\}$ be a substitution and t be a term, then the term $t(\sigma)$ is defined as follows:

- $c\langle \sigma \rangle = c.$
- $x_i \langle \sigma \rangle = t_i.$
- $x\langle\sigma\rangle=x$, if $x\notin\{x_1,\ldots,x_n\}$.
- $(sr)\langle\sigma\rangle = (s\langle\sigma\rangle r\langle\sigma\rangle).$
- $(\lambda x. s) \langle \sigma \rangle = (\lambda x. s \langle \sigma \rangle).$

Example

- $(\lambda x. x) \langle \{x \mapsto y\} \rangle = \lambda x. y.$
- $(\lambda y. x)(\{x \mapsto y\}) = \lambda y. y$ (variable capture).





α -Equivalence

α -Equivalence

- $c \equiv_{\alpha} c$.
- $x \equiv_{\alpha} x$.
- $(ts) \equiv_{\alpha} (t's')$ if $t \equiv_{\alpha} t'$ and $s \equiv_{\alpha} s'$.
- ▶ $\lambda x. t \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda y. s$ if $t(\{x \mapsto z\}) \equiv_{\alpha} s(\{y \mapsto z\})$ for some variable z different from x and y and occurring neither in t nor in s.

Example

- $\lambda x. x \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda y. y.$
- α -equivalence is an equivalence relation.
- Application and abstraction are compatible with α-equivalence.





Substitution in a Term

Substitution in a Term

Let $\sigma = \{x_1 \mapsto t_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto t_n\}$ be a substitution and t be a term, then the term $t\sigma$ is defined as follows:

- \mathbf{r} $c\sigma = c$.
- $x_i \sigma = t_i$.
- $x\sigma = x$, if $x \notin \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$.
- $(sr)\sigma = (s\sigma r\sigma)$.
- $(\lambda x. s)\sigma = (\lambda y. s\{x \mapsto y\}\sigma)$, where y is a fresh variable of the same type as x.

Since the choice of fresh variable is arbitrary, the substitution operation is defined on α -equivalence classes.





Substitution in a Term

Example

- $(\lambda x. x)\{x \mapsto y\} = \lambda z. z.$
- $(\lambda y. x)\{x \mapsto y\} = \lambda z. y$ (no variable capture).
- $(x \lambda x. (xy))\{x \mapsto \lambda z.z\} = (\lambda z.z \lambda u. (uy)).$





- Intuition: Function evaluation.
- For instance, evaluating function $f: x \mapsto x + 1$ at 2: f(2) = 2 + 1.
- As λ -terms: $((\lambda x. x + 1) \ 2) \triangleright x + 1\{x \mapsto 2\} = 2 + 1$. $(\beta$ -reduction)



Formally:

$\beta\eta$ -Reduction

- β -reduction: $((\lambda x.s) t) \triangleright s\{x \mapsto t\}.$
- η -reduction: $(\lambda x.(tx)) \triangleright t$, if $x \notin fvars(t)$.

Propagates into contexts:

- If $s \triangleright s'$ then $(st) \triangleright (s't)$.
- If $t \triangleright t'$ then $(st) \triangleright (st')$.
- If $t \triangleright t'$ then $\lambda x. t \triangleright \lambda x. t'$.





▷* - reflexive-transitive closure of ▷.

Facts:

- $\beta\eta$ -Reduction preserves types.
- If $s \triangleright^* t$ then $s\sigma \triangleright^* t\sigma$.
- Each term has a unique $\beta\eta$ -normal form modulo α -equivalence.





Example

$$\lambda x.(f((\lambda y.(yx)) \lambda z.z)) \triangleright_{\beta} \lambda x.(f((\lambda z.z) x))$$
$$\triangleright_{\beta} \lambda x.(fx)$$
$$\triangleright_{\eta} f$$





Long Normal Form

Assume

- $t = \lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_m \cdot (r s_1 \dots s_k)$ is in the $\beta \eta$ -normal form,
- ▶ $T_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow T_n \rightarrow U$ is a type of t,
- U is atomic and $n \ge m$.

Then the long normal form of t is the term

$$t' = \lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_m \cdot \lambda x_{m+1} \dots \lambda x_n \cdot (r s_1' \dots s_k' x_{m+1}' \dots x_n')$$

where

- s_i' is the long normal form of s_i .
- x_i' is the long normal form of x_i .





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Then the long normal form of t is the term

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- x_i' is the long normal form of x_i .

The long normal form of any term is that of its normal form.

Since t is in the normal form, r (called the *head* of t) is either a constant or a variable.





Example

Let the type of f be $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \rightarrow U$, with U atomic.

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- ► The long normal form of t is $\lambda x.\lambda y.(f x y)$.
- $\lambda x.\lambda y.(f xy)$ is a long normal form of $\lambda x.(f x)$ as well, which is a β -normal form of t.



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Let the type of f be $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \rightarrow U$, with U atomic. Let t be $\lambda x.(f((\lambda y.(yx))\lambda z.z))$.

- ► The long normal form of t is $\lambda x. \lambda y. (f x y)$.
- $\lambda x. \lambda y. (f x y)$ is a long normal form of $\lambda x. (f x)$ as well, which is a β -normal form of t.
- In general, to compute long normal form, it is not necessary to perform η -reductions.





Long Normal Form

- In the rest, "normal form" stands for "long normal form".
- Notation: We write

$$\lambda x_1 \ldots \lambda x_n \cdot r(t_1, \ldots, t_m)$$

for

$$\lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_n \cdot (r t_1 \dots t_m)$$

in normal form. r is either a constant or a variable.





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Higher-Order Unification Problem, Unifier

Higher-Order Unification problem: a finite set of equations

$$P = \{s_1 \doteq^? t_1, \ldots, s_n \doteq^? t_n\},\$$

where s_i, t_i are λ -terms.

▶ Unifier of P: a substitution σ such that $s_i\sigma$ and $t_i\sigma$ have the same normal form for each $1 \le i \le n$.

We will use capital letters to denote free variables in unification problems.





Example

• $P = \{F(f(a,b)) \stackrel{.}{=} {}^{?} f(F(a),b)\}.$





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- Incomparable wrt instantiation quasi-ordering.
- Minimal complete set of unifiers.
- ► There are problems for which this set does not exist!





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$$\sigma_2 = \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. G_2(x, x(H_1^2(x, y)), x(H_2^2(x, y))), G \mapsto \lambda x. Y\}$$

$$G_2(\lambda x. Y, Y, Y)$$



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$$\sigma_2 = \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. \ G_2(x, x(H_1^2(x, y)), x(H_2^2(x, y))), \ G \mapsto \lambda x. \ Y\}$$

$$G_2(\lambda x. Y, \ Y, \ Y)$$

$$\dots$$

$$\sigma_n = \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. \ G_n(x, x(H_1^n(x, y)), \dots, x(H_n^n(x, y))), \ G \mapsto \lambda x. \ Y\}$$

$$G_n(\lambda x. Y, \ Y, \dots, Y) \qquad \text{(There are } n \ Y\text{'s here.)}$$



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No mcsu. For all i,j > i: $\sigma_i \notin^{\{F,G\}} \sigma_j$, $\sigma \notin^{\{F,G\}} \sigma_i$, $\sigma_i \notin^{\{F,G\}} \sigma$, and $\sigma_i = \{F,G\} \sigma_{i+1} \vartheta_i$ where

$$\vartheta_i = \{G_{i+1} \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y_1....\lambda y_{i+1}.G_i(x, y_1, ..., y_i), H_1^{i+1} \mapsto H_1^i, ..., H_i^{i+1} \mapsto H_i^i\}$$





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No mcsu. For all i,j > i: $\sigma_i \notin^{\{F,G\}} \sigma_j$, $\sigma \notin^{\{F,G\}} \sigma_i$, $\sigma_i \notin^{\{F,G\}} \sigma$, and $\sigma_i = \{F,G\} \sigma_{i+1} \vartheta_i$ where

$$\vartheta_i = \{G_{i+1} \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y_1....\lambda y_{i+1}.G_i(x, y_1, ..., y_i), H_1^{i+1} \mapsto H_1^i, ..., H_i^{i+1} \mapsto H_i^i\}$$

▶ Infinite descending chain: $\sigma_1 \geqslant^{\{F,G\}} \sigma_2 \geqslant^{\{F,G\}} \cdots$





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- ▶ The problem is of third order.
- ▶ Higher-order unification of the order 3 and above is of type 0.
- Second order unification is infinitary.

- Idea: Reduce Hilbert's 10th problem to a higher-order unification problem.
- ▶ Hilbert's 10th problem is undecidable: There is no algorithm that takes as input two polynomials $P(X_1,...,X_n)$ and $Q(X_1,...,X_n)$ with natural coefficients and answers if there exist natural numbers $m_1,...,m_n$ such that

$$P(m_1,\ldots,m_n)=Q(m_1,\ldots,m_n).$$

- Reduction requires to represent
 - natural numbers,
 - addition,
 - multiplication

in terms of higher-order unification.





Representation (Goldfarb 1981):

• Natural number *n* represented as a λ -term denoted by \overline{n} :

$$\lambda x.g(a,g(a,\ldots g(a,x)\ldots))$$

with n occurrences of g and a. The type of g is $i \rightarrow i \rightarrow i$ and the type of a is i. Such terms are called Goldfarb numbers.

 Goldfarb numbers are exactly those that solve the unification problem

$$\{g(a,X(a)) \doteq^? X(g(a,a))\}$$

and have the type $i \rightarrow i$.





Representation:

• Addition is represented by the λ -term *add*:

$$\lambda n.\lambda m.\lambda x. n(m(x)).$$

 Multiplication is represented by the higher-order unification problem

$$\{Y(a,b,g(g(X_3(a),X_2(b)),a)) \stackrel{!}{=} g(g(a,b),Y(X_1(a),g(a,b),a))$$

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that has a solution $\{X_1 \mapsto \overline{m_1}, X_2 \mapsto \overline{m_2}, X_3 \mapsto \overline{m_3}, Y \mapsto t\}$ for some t iff $m_1 \times m_2 = m_3$.





Reduction from Hilbert's 10th problem:

Fixed Every equation $P(X_1, ..., X_n) = Q(X_1, ..., X_n)$ can be decomposed into a system of equations of the form:

$$X_i + X_j = X_k$$
, $X_i \times X_j = X_k$, $X_i = m$.

- With each such system associate a unification problem containing
 - for each X_i an equation $g(a, X_i(a)) \stackrel{!}{=} X_i(g(a, a))$,
 - for each $X_i + X_j = X_k$ the equation $add(X_i, X_j) \stackrel{!}{=} X_k$,
 - for each $X_i \times X_j = X_k$ the two equations used to define multiplication,
 - for each $X_i = m$ the equation $X_i \doteq \overline{m}$.





Second Order Unification Is Undecidable

- The reduction implies undecidability of higher-order unification.
- Since the reduction is actually to second-order unification, the result is sharper:

Theorem

Second-order unification is undecidable.

For the details of undecidability of second-order unification, see



W. D. Goldfarb

The undecidability of the second-order unification problem. Theoretical Computer Science **13**, 225–230.





Higher-Order Unification Procedure

Higher-order semi-decision procedure is easy to design:



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- Checking is not hard: Apply the substitution to both sides of each equation, normalize, and compare the normal forms.
- If the problem is solvable, the procedure will detect it after finite steps.
- Then... why to bother with looking for another unification procedure?





Why to look for a "better" procedure?



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▶ To find solutions faster.



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- To find solutions faster.
- ▶ To report failure for many unsolvable cases.





Why to look for a "better" procedure?

- To find solutions faster.
- To report failure for many unsolvable cases.
- To reduce redundancy.
- etc.





- System: a pair P; σ , where P is a higher-order unification problem and σ is a substitution.
- Procedure is given by transformation rules on systems.
- The description essentially follows the paper
 - W. Snyder and J. Gallier.

Higher-Order Unification Revisited: Complete Sets of Transformations.

J. Symbolic Computation, **8**(1–2), 101–140, 1989.





Flex-flex equation has a form

$$\lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_k$$
. $F(s_1, \dots, s_n) \stackrel{!}{=} \lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_k$. $G(t_1, \dots, t_m)$.

The head of both sides are free variables.

Flex-flex equation has a form

$$\lambda x_1 \ldots \lambda x_k \cdot F(s_1, \ldots, s_n) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^? \lambda x_1 \ldots \lambda x_k \cdot G(t_1, \ldots, t_m).$$

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Any flex-flex equation is solvable. Just take

$$\{F \mapsto \lambda y_1 \dots \lambda y_n . c, G \mapsto \lambda y_1 \dots \lambda y_m . c\}.$$





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- The appropriate c always exists because for each type we have at least one constant of that type.
- Flex-flex equations may introduce infinite branching in the search tree (very undesirable property).
- Idea: Do not try to solve flex-flex equations. Assume them solved. Preunification.





Preunification

Preunifier

- Let

 be the least congruence relation on the set of

 λ-terms that contains the set of flex-flex pairs.
- A substitution σ is a preunifier for a unification problem $\{s_1 \stackrel{.}{=} {}^2t_1, \dots, s_n \stackrel{.}{=} {}^2t_n\}$ iff

$$normal$$
- $form(s_i\sigma) \cong normal$ - $form(t_i\sigma)$

for each $1 \le i \le n$.

Convention

- $\overline{x_n}$ abbreviates x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- $\lambda \overline{x_n}$ abbreviates $\lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_n$.





Partial Binding

A partial binding of type $T_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow T_n \rightarrow U$ (*U* atomic) is a term of the form

$$\lambda \overline{x_n}.\ l(\lambda \overline{y_{m_1}^1}.H_1(\overline{x_n},\overline{y_{m_1}^1}),\ldots,\lambda \overline{y_{m_k}^k}.H_k(\overline{x_n},\overline{y_{m_k}^k}))$$





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where l is a constant or a variable, and

• the type of x_i is T_i for $1 \le i \le n$,





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- the type of x_i is T_i for $1 \le i \le n$,
- the type of l is $S_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow S_k \rightarrow U$, where S_i is $R_1^i \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow R_{m_i}^i \rightarrow S_i'$ (S_i' atomic) for $1 \le i \le k$,





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- ▶ the type of y_i^i is R_i^i for $1 \le i \le k$ and $1 \le j \le m_i$.





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- the type of y_i^i is R_i^i for $1 \le i \le k$ and $1 \le j \le m_i$.
- the type of H_i is $T_1 \to \cdots \to T_n \to R_1^i \to \cdots \to R_{m_i}^i \to S_i'$ for $1 \le i \le k$.





Partial Binding

$$\lambda \overline{x_n}.\ l(\lambda \overline{y_{m_1}^1}.H_1(\overline{x_n},\overline{y_{m_1}^1}),\ldots,\lambda \overline{y_{m_k}^k}.H_k(\overline{x_n},\overline{y_{m_k}^k}))$$

- ► Imitation binding: *l* is a constant or a free variable.
- (i^{th}) Projection binding: l is x_i .
- A partial binding t is appropriate to F if t and F have the same types.
- F → t: Appropriate partial (imitation, projection) binding if t is partial (imitation, projection) binding appropriate to F.





- ▶ The inference system \mathcal{U}_{HOP} consists of the rules:
 - Trivial
 - Decomposition
 - Variable Elimination
 - Orient
 - Imitation
 - Projection
- ▶ The rules transform systems: pairs P; σ , where P is a higher-order unification problem and σ is a substitution.
- A system P; σ is in presolved form if P is either empty or consists of flex-flex equations only.





Trivial: $\{t \stackrel{.}{=} {}^?t\} \cup P'; \vartheta \Longrightarrow P'; \vartheta$



Trivial: $\{t \doteq^? t\} \cup P'; \vartheta \Longrightarrow P'; \vartheta$

Decomposition:

$$\{\lambda \overline{x_k}. \ l(s_1, \ldots, s_n) \stackrel{.}{=} {}^{?} \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ l(t_1, \ldots, t_n)\} \cup P'; \vartheta \Longrightarrow$$
$$\{\lambda \overline{x_k}. \ s_1 \stackrel{.}{=} {}^{?} \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ t_1, \ldots, \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ s_n \stackrel{.}{=} {}^{?} \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ t_n, \} \cup P'; \vartheta.$$

where *l* is either a constant or one of the bound variables x_1, \ldots, x_k .



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where *l* is either a constant or one of the bound variables x_1, \ldots, x_k .

Variable Elimination:

$$\{\lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_k. F(x_1, \dots, x_k) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^? t\} \cup P'; \vartheta \Longrightarrow P'\{F \mapsto t\}; \vartheta\{F \mapsto t\}.$$

If $F \notin fvars(t)$





Orient:

$$\{\lambda \overline{x_k}. \ l(t_1, \ldots, t_m) \stackrel{\text{\tiny $\dot=$}}{=} {}^{?} \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ F(s_1, \ldots, s_n)\} \cup P'; \vartheta \Longrightarrow$$
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where *l* is not a free variable.



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where *l* is not a free variable.

Imitation:

$$\{\lambda \overline{x_k}. F(s_1, \dots, s_n) \stackrel{:}{=} {}^{?} \lambda \overline{x_k}. f(t_1, \dots, t_m)\} \cup P'; \vartheta \Longrightarrow \\ \{\lambda \overline{x_k}. f(\lambda \overline{z_{r_1}^1}. H_1(s_1, \dots, s_n, \overline{z_{r_1}^1}), \dots, \lambda \overline{z_{r_m}^m}. H_m(s_1, \dots, s_n, \overline{z_{r_m}^m}))\sigma \\ \stackrel{:}{=} {}^{?} \lambda \overline{x_k}. f(t_1, \dots, t_m)\sigma\} \cup P'\sigma; \vartheta\sigma$$

where

- $\sigma = \{F \mapsto \lambda \overline{y_n}. f(\lambda \overline{z_{r_1}^1}. H_1(\overline{y_n}, \overline{z_{r_1}^1}), \dots, \lambda \overline{z_{r_m}^m}. H_m(\overline{y_n}, \overline{z_{r_m}^m}))\},$ appropriate imitation binding.
- H_1, \ldots, H_m are fresh variables.





Projection:

$$\{\lambda \overline{x_k}. F(s_1, \ldots, s_n) \stackrel{:}{=} {}^{?} \lambda \overline{x_k}. l(t_1, \ldots, t_m)\} \cup P'; \vartheta \Longrightarrow$$

$$\{\lambda \overline{x_k}. s_i(\lambda \overline{z_{r_1}^1}. H_1(s_1, \ldots, s_n, \overline{z_{r_1}^1}), \ldots, \lambda \overline{z_{r_m}^m}. H_m(s_1, \ldots, s_n, \overline{z_{r_m}^m})) \sigma$$

$$\stackrel{:}{=} {}^{?} \lambda \overline{x_k}. l(t_1, \ldots, t_m) \sigma\} \cup P' \sigma; \vartheta \sigma$$

where

- *l* is either a constant or one of the bound variables x_1, \ldots, x_k ,
- $\sigma = \{F \mapsto \lambda \overline{y_n}. \ y_i(\lambda \overline{z_{r_1}^1}. \ H_1(\overline{y_n}, \overline{z_{r_1}^1}), \dots, \lambda \overline{z_{r_m}^m}. \ H_m(\overline{y_n}, \overline{z_{r_m}^m}))\},$ appropriate projection binding.
- H_1, \ldots, H_m are fresh variables.





In order to solve a higher-order unification problem *P*:

• Create an initial system P; ε .



- Create an initial system $P; \varepsilon$.
- Apply successively rules from *U_{HOP}*, building a complete (finitely branching, but potentially infinite) tree of derivations.





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- Successful leaves contain presolved systems.
- If Δ ; σ is a successful leaf, σ is a solution of P computed by the higher-order preunification procedure.





Higher-Order Preunification. Major Results

Theorem (Soundness)

If P; $\varepsilon \Longrightarrow^* \Delta$; σ and Δ is in presolved form, then $\sigma|_{fvars(P)}$ is a preunifier of P.

Theorem (Completeness)

If ϑ is a preunifier of P, then there exists a sequence of transformations P; $\varepsilon \Longrightarrow^* \Delta$; σ such that Δ is in presolved form, and $\sigma \leqslant_{\beta}^{fvars(P)} \vartheta$.



Higher-Order Preunification. Optimization

- The procedure can be optimized by stripping off the binder λx when x does not occur in the body.
- For instance, Elimination rule does not apply to $\lambda x. \lambda y. P(x) \doteq^? \lambda x. \lambda y. f(a)$
- After removing λy from both sides, Elimination can be applied directly.





- ▶ Unification problem $\{F(f(a)) \stackrel{.}{=} {}^{?} f(F(a))\}.$
- ► The preunification procedure enumerates the complete set of (pre)unifiers that is infinite.
- Here we show only two derivations.

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Example

- ► Problem $\{\lambda x. F(f(x,G)) \stackrel{.}{=}^? \lambda x. g(f(x,G_1),f(x,G_2))\}.$
- Here we show only the successful derivation.





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$$\{\lambda x. \ F(f(x,G)) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. \ g(f(x,G_1),f(x,G_2))\}; \varepsilon \\ \Longrightarrow_{Imit} \{\lambda x. \ g(H_1(f(x,G)),H_2(f(x,G))) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. \ g(f(x,G_1),f(x,G_2))\}; \\ \{F \mapsto \lambda y. \ g(H_1(y),H_2(y))\}$$





Example

- ► Problem $\{\lambda x. F(f(x,G)) \stackrel{.}{=}^? \lambda x. g(f(x,G_1),f(x,G_2))\}.$
- Here we show only the successful derivation.

$$\{\lambda x. F(f(x,G)) \stackrel{!}{=} ^{?} \lambda x. g(f(x,G_{1}),f(x,G_{2}))\}; \varepsilon$$

$$\Longrightarrow_{Imit} \{\lambda x. g(H_{1}(f(x,G)),H_{2}(f(x,G))) \stackrel{!}{=} ^{?} \lambda x. g(f(x,G_{1}),f(x,G_{2}))\};$$

$$\{F \mapsto \lambda y. g(H_{1}(y),H_{2}(y))\}$$

$$\Longrightarrow_{Dec,Proj,Proj} \{\lambda x. f(x,G) \stackrel{!}{=} ^{?} \lambda x. f(x,G_{1}), \lambda x. f(x,G) \stackrel{!}{=} ^{?} \lambda x. f(x,G_{2})\};$$

$$\{F \mapsto \lambda y. g(y,y),H_{1} \mapsto \lambda y. y,H_{2} \mapsto \lambda y. y\}$$



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$$\Longrightarrow_{Dec,Proj,Proj} \{\lambda x. \ f(x,G) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. \ f(x,G_1), \lambda x. \ f(x,G) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. \ f(x,G_2)\};$$

$$\{F \mapsto \lambda y. \ g(y,y),H_1 \mapsto \lambda y. \ y,H_2 \mapsto \lambda y. \ y\}$$

$$\Longrightarrow_{Dec,Tr,Dec,Tr} \{\lambda x. \ G \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. \ G_1, \lambda x. \ G \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. \ G_2\};$$

$$\{F \mapsto \lambda y. \ g(y,y),H_1 \mapsto \lambda y. \ y,H_2 \mapsto \lambda y. \ y\}$$





Example

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$$\{F \mapsto \lambda y. g(H_1(y),H_2(y))\}$$

$$\Longrightarrow_{Dec,Proj,Proj} \{\lambda x. f(x,G) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. f(x,G_1), \lambda x. f(x,G) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. f(x,G_2)\};$$

$$\{F \mapsto \lambda y. g(y,y), H_1 \mapsto \lambda y. y, H_2 \mapsto \lambda y. y\}$$

$$\Longrightarrow_{Dec,Tr,Dec,Tr} \{\lambda x. G \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. G_1, \lambda x. G \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. G_2\};$$

$$\{F \mapsto \lambda y. g(y,y), H_1 \mapsto \lambda y. y, H_2 \mapsto \lambda y. y\}$$



- ▶ Problem $\{\lambda x. F(x,a) \stackrel{.}{=}^? \lambda x. f(G(a,x))\}.$
- One of the successful derivations.

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$$\Longrightarrow_{Imit} \{\lambda x. f(H(x,a)) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^{?} \lambda x. f(G(a,x))\}; \{F \mapsto \lambda y_1.\lambda y_2. f(H(y_1,y_2))\}$$

Example

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$$\{\{\lambda x. \ F(x,a) \stackrel{!}{=} ^? \lambda x. \ f(G(a,x))\}; \varepsilon$$

$$\Longrightarrow_{Imit} \{\lambda x. \ f(H(x,a)) \stackrel{!}{=} ^? \lambda x. \ f(G(a,x))\}; \{F \mapsto \lambda y_1. \lambda y_2. \ f(H(y_1,y_2))\}$$

$$\Longrightarrow_{Dec} \{\lambda x. \ H(x,a) \stackrel{!}{=} ^? \lambda x. \ G(a,x)\}; \{F \mapsto \lambda y_1. \lambda y_2. \ f(H(y_1,y_2))\}$$
Flow flow

Flex-flex.



Decidable Subcases

Some decidable subcases of higher-order unification:

- Monadic second-order unification. Terms do not contain constants of arity greater than 1.
 - Example: $\{\lambda x.f(F(x)) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^? \lambda x.F(f(x))\}.$
- Second-order unification with linear occurrences of second-order variables.
- Context unification.
- Linear second-order unification.
- Bounded second-order unification.





Decidable Subcases

Some decidable subcases of higher-order unification:

• Unification with higher-order patterns. Pattern is a term t such that for every subterm of the form $F(s_1, \ldots, s_n)$, the s's are distinct variables bound in t.

Example: $\{\lambda x.\lambda y. F(x) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^? \lambda x.\lambda y. c(G(y,x))\}.$

Higher-order matching. One side in the equations is a closed term.

Example. $\{\lambda x. F(x, \lambda y. y) \stackrel{!}{=} {}^? \lambda x. f(x, a)\}.$



