Introduction to Unification Theory Higher-Order Unification

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Overview

Introduction

Preliminaries

Higher-Order Unification Procedure

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Outline

Introduction

Preliminaries

Higher-Order Unification Procedure



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- However, it makes sense to ask to find, e.g., a function that when applied to an object gives again this object: Find an *F* such that *F*(*a*) = *a*.

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Higher-order equations.

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- 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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Preliminaries

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Simply Typed λ -Calculus

- Simply type λ -calculus is our term language.
- In this section: Definitions and elementary properties.

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- 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 $T \rightarrow U$ is a type.

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

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Types

Order of a Type

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

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Example

Let T_1, T_2, T_3 be atomic types, then

•
$$o(T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \rightarrow T_3) = 2$$

• $o((T_1 \rightarrow T_2) \rightarrow T_3) = 3.$

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 (*ts*) 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 λx. t, λx is a binder for x in t. Occurrences of x in t are bound.
- (*ts*) is an application where function *t* is applied to the argument *s*.

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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 $U \rightarrow T$ 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*.

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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):

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

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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 → 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.

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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 $t\langle \sigma \rangle$ 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

•
$$(\lambda x. x) \langle \{x \mapsto y\} \rangle = \lambda x. y.$$

• $(\lambda y. x) \langle \{x \mapsto y\} \rangle = \lambda y. y$ (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 $s \equiv_{\alpha} s'$.

λx. t ≡_α λy. s if t({x ↦ z}) ≡_α s({y ↦ 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.

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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:

- $c\sigma = c$.
- $x_i \sigma = t_i$.
- $x\sigma = x$, if $x \notin \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$.
- $(sr)\sigma = (s\sigma r\sigma)$.
- (λx.s)σ = (λy.s{x ↦ y}σ), 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).

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• $(x \lambda x. (xy)) \{x \mapsto \lambda z.z\} = (\lambda z.z \lambda u. (uy)).$

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

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Formally:

$\beta\eta$ -Reduction

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

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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 $\lambda x. t \triangleright \lambda x. t'$.

- \triangleright^* reflexive-transitive closure of \triangleright . 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.

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Example

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

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Long Normal Form

Assume

- $t = \lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_m$. $(r s_1 \dots s_k)$ 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

$$t' = \lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_m \lambda x_{m+1} \dots \lambda x_n (r s'_1 \dots s'_k x'_{m+1} \dots x'_n)$$

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where

- ▶ s'_i is the long normal form of s_i.
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where

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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. Let *t* be $\lambda x.(f((\lambda y.(yx)) \lambda z.z))$.



Example

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 $\lambda x.\lambda y.(f x y)$.

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Example

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

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• 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

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

for

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

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

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Introduction

Preliminaries

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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_iσ and t_iσ have the same normal form for each 1 ≤ i ≤ n.

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

Example

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

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Example

- $P = \{F(f(a,b)) \doteq^? f(F(a),b)\}.$
- Unifier: $\sigma_1 = \{F \mapsto \lambda x.f(x,b)\}.$

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Example

- $P = \{F(f(a,b)) \doteq^? f(F(a),b)\}.$
- Unifier: $\sigma_1 = \{F \mapsto \lambda x.f(x,b)\}.$
- Justification:

 $F(f(a,b))\sigma_1 = ((\lambda x.f(x,b))f(a,b)) \triangleright_{\beta} f(f(a,b),b).$

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$$f(F(a),b)\sigma_1 = f(((\lambda x.f(x,b)) a),b) \triangleright_\beta f(f(a,b),b).$$

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Example

- $P = \{F(f(a,b)) \doteq^? f(F(a),b)\}.$
- Another unifier: $\sigma_2 = \{F \mapsto \lambda x.f(f(x,b),b)\}.$

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 $F(f(a,b))\sigma_2 = ((\lambda x.f(f(x,b),b))f(a,b)) \triangleright_{\beta} f(f(f(a,b),b),b).$

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- Justification:

 $F(f(a,b))\sigma_2 = ((\lambda x.f(f(x,b),b))f(a,b)) \triangleright_{\beta} f(f(f(a,b),b),b).$ $f(F(a),b)\sigma_2 = f(((\lambda x.f(f(x,b),b))a),b) \triangleright_{\beta} f(f(f(a,b),b),b).$

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Example

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Example

- $P = \{F(f(a,b)) \doteq^? f(F(a),b)\}.$
- Infinitely many unifiers, of the shape

$${F \mapsto \lambda x. f(\ldots f(x,b), \ldots b)}.$$

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Incomparable wrt instantiation quasi-ordering.

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

• Unification problem: $P = \{F(\lambda x. G(x), a) \doteq^? F(\lambda x. G(x), b)\}.$

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- Unification problem: $P = \{F(\lambda x. G(x), a) \doteq^? F(\lambda x. G(x), b)\}.$
- Complete set of solutions (together with the instance terms):

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 $\sigma = \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. H(x)\} \qquad H(\lambda x. G(x))$

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 $\sigma = \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. H(x)\} \qquad H(\lambda x. G(x))$ $\sigma_0 = \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. x, G \mapsto \lambda x. Y\} \qquad \lambda x. Y$

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 $\sigma = \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. H(x)\} \qquad H(\lambda x. G(x))$ $\sigma_0 = \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. x, G \mapsto \lambda x. Y\} \qquad \lambda x. Y$ $\sigma_1 = \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. G_1(x, x(H_1^1(x, y))), G \mapsto \lambda x. Y\} \qquad G_1(\lambda x. Y, Y)$

- Unification problem: $P = \{F(\lambda x. G(x), a) \doteq^? F(\lambda x. G(x), b)\}.$
- Complete set of solutions (together with the instance terms):

$$\begin{split} \sigma &= \{F \mapsto \lambda x.\lambda y. \ H(x)\} \qquad H(\lambda x. \ G(x))\\ \sigma_0 &= \{F \mapsto \lambda x.\lambda y. \ x, \ G \mapsto \lambda x. \ Y\} \qquad \lambda x. \ Y\\ \sigma_1 &= \{F \mapsto \lambda x.\lambda y. \ G_1(x, x(H_1^1(x, y))), \ G \mapsto \lambda x. \ Y\} \qquad G_1(\lambda x. \ Y, \ Y)\\ \sigma_2 &= \{F \mapsto \lambda x.\lambda y. \ G_2(x, x(H_1^2(x, y)), x(H_2^2(x, y))), \ G \mapsto \lambda x. \ Y\} \\ \qquad G_2(\lambda x. \ Y, \ Y, \ Y) \end{split}$$

. . .

- Unification problem: $P = \{F(\lambda x. G(x), a) \doteq^? F(\lambda x. G(x), b)\}.$
- Complete set of solutions (together with the instance terms):

$$\begin{split} \sigma &= \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. \ H(x)\} \qquad H(\lambda x. \ G(x)) \\ \sigma_0 &= \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. \ x, \ G \mapsto \lambda x. \ Y\} \qquad \lambda x. \ Y \\ \sigma_1 &= \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. \ G_1(x, x(H_1^1(x, y))), \ G \mapsto \lambda x. \ Y\} \qquad G_1(\lambda x. Y, \ Y) \\ \sigma_2 &= \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. \ G_2(x, x(H_1^2(x, y)), x(H_2^2(x, y))), \ G \mapsto \lambda x. \ Y\} \\ \qquad G_2(\lambda x. Y, \ Y, \ Y) \end{split}$$

 $\sigma_n = \{F \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. G_n(x, x(H_1^n(x, y)), \dots, x(H_n^n(x, y))), G \mapsto \lambda x. Y\}$ $G_n(\lambda x. Y, Y, \dots, Y) \quad \text{(There are } n \text{ } Y\text{'s here.})$

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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

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

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• Infinite descending chain: $\sigma_1 \ge^{\{F,G\}} \sigma_2 \ge^{\{F,G\}} \cdots$

• Unification problem: $P = \{F(\lambda x. G(x), a) \doteq^? F(\lambda x. G(x), b)\}.$

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The problem is of third order.

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- Higher-order unification of the order 3 and above is of type 0.

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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(X₁,...,X_n) and Q(X₁,...,X_n) with natural coefficients and answers if there exist natural numbers m₁,...,m_n such that

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

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- 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

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

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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

 $\{Y(a,b,g(g(X_3(a),X_2(b)),a)) \doteq^? g(g(a,b),Y(X_1(a),g(a,b),a))$ $Y(b,a,g(g(X_3(b),X_2(a)),a)) \doteq^? g(g(b,a),Y(X_1(b),g(a,a),a))\}$

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:

Every equation P(X₁,...,X_n) = Q(X₁,...,X_n) can be decomposed into a system of equations of the form:

 X: + X: = X₁
 X: × X: = X₁
 X: = m

 X: + X: = X₁
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 $X_i + X_j = X_k$, $X_i \times X_j = X_k$, $X_i = m$.

- With each such system associate a unification problem containing
 - for each X_i an equation $g(a, X_i(a)) \doteq^? X_i(g(a, a))$,
 - for each $X_i + X_j = X_k$ the equation $add(X_i, X_j) \doteq X_k$,
 - For each X_i × 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.

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Higher-Order Unification Procedure

Higher-order semi-decision procedure is easy to design:
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1. Enumerate all substitutions (in fact, it is enough to enumerate all closed substitutions).

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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?



Why to look for a "better" procedure?

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To find solutions faster.

Why to look for a "better" procedure?

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

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Why to look for a "better" procedure?

- To find solutions faster.
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- 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.

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

Flex-flex equation has a form

$$\lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_k$$
. $F(s_1, \dots, s_n) \doteq^? \lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_k$. $G(t_1, \dots, t_m)$.

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The head of both sides are free variables.

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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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Flex-flex equation has a form

 $\lambda x_1...\lambda x_k. F(s_1,...,s_n) \doteq^? \lambda x_1...\lambda x_k. G(t_1,...,t_m).$

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The appropriate c always exists because for each type we have at least one constant of that type.

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- Flex-flex equations may introduce infinite branching in the search tree (very undesirable property).

Flex-flex equation has a form

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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 \cong 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 $\{s_1 \doteq^? t_1, \ldots, s_n \doteq^? t_n\}$ iff

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

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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

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where l is a constant or a variable, and

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where *l* is a constant or a variable, and

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

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where *l* is a constant or a variable, and

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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 $T_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow T_n \rightarrow R_1^i \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow R_{m_i}^i \rightarrow S_i'$ for $1 \le i \le k$.

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Partial Binding

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- 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.
- ► $F \mapsto t$: 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.

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

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Decomposition:

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

$$\{ \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ s_1 \stackrel{\perp}{=} ^? \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ t_1, \dots, \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ s_n \stackrel{\perp}{=} ^? \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ t_n, \} \cup P'; \vartheta.$$

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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:

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

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Orient:

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

where l is not a free variable.



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Imitation:

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

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where

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

Projection:

$$\begin{aligned} &\{\lambda \overline{x_k}. \ F(s_1, \dots, s_n) \doteq^? \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ l(t_1, \dots, t_m)\} \cup P'; \vartheta \Longrightarrow \\ &\{\lambda \overline{x_k}. \ s_i(\lambda \overline{z_{r_1}^1}. \ H_1(s_1, \dots, s_n, \overline{z_{r_1}^1}), \dots, \lambda \overline{z_{r_m}^m}. \ H_m(s_1, \dots, s_n, \overline{z_{r_m}^m}))\sigma \\ & \doteq^? \lambda \overline{x_k}. \ l(t_1, \dots, t_m)\sigma\} \cup P'\sigma; \vartheta\sigma \end{aligned}$$

where

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

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- H_1, \ldots, H_m are fresh variables.

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

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• Create an initial system $P; \varepsilon$.

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

- 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.

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- Successful leaves contain presolved systems.
- If $\Delta; \sigma$ 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 $P; \varepsilon \Longrightarrow^* \Delta; \sigma$ 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 $P; \varepsilon \Longrightarrow^* \Delta; \sigma$ such that Δ is in presolved form, and $\sigma \leq_{\beta}^{fvars(P)} \vartheta$.

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Higher-Order Preunification. Optimization

• The procedure can be optimized by stripping off the binder λx when x does not occur in the body.

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- 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.

Example

- Unification problem $\{F(f(a)) \doteq^? f(F(a))\}$.
- The preunification procedure enumerates the complete set of (pre)unifiers that is infinite.

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- Here we show only two derivations.

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$$\begin{aligned} & \{F(f(a)) \doteq^? f(F(a))\}; \varepsilon \\ & \implies_{Proj} \{f(a) \doteq^? f(a)\}; \{F \mapsto \lambda x. x\} \\ & \implies_{Tr} \varnothing; \{F \mapsto \lambda x. x\} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\Longrightarrow_{Proj} \{f(a) \stackrel{\perp}{=} {}^{?} f(a)\}; \{F \mapsto \lambda x. f(x), G \mapsto \lambda x. x\}$$

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Example

• Problem { $\lambda x. F(f(x,G)) \doteq ? \lambda x. g(f(x,G_1),f(x,G_2))$ }.

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Here we show only the successful derivation.

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

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Pre-solved form reached.

Example

• Problem { $\lambda x. F(x, a) \doteq ? \lambda x. f(G(a, x))$ }.

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One of the successful derivations.

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$$\Longrightarrow_{Dec} \{\lambda x. H(x,a) \doteq^{?} \lambda x. G(a,x)\}; \{F \mapsto \lambda y_{1}.\lambda y_{2}. f(H(y_{1},y_{2}))\}$$

Flex-flex.

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Decidable Subcases

Some decidable subcases of higher-order unification:

Monadic second-order unification. Terms do not contain constants of arity greater than 1.
 Example: {λx.f(F(x)) =[?] λx.F(f(x))}.

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- Second-order unification with linear occurrences of second-order variables.
- Context unification.
- Linear second-order unification.
- Bounded second-order unification.

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,...,*s_n*), the *s*'s are distinct variables bound in *t*. Example: {*\lambda x. \lambda y. F*(*x*) = [?] *\lambda x. \lambda y. c*(*G*(*y, x*))}.

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

Example. { $\lambda x. F(x, \lambda y. y) \doteq$? $\lambda x.f(x, a)$ }.