First-Order Theorem Proving and Vampire

The Theory Bit

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Outline

Preliminaries

Theorem-Proving Workflow

A Static View: Inferences, Soundness, and Completeness

A Dynamic View: Saturation

Making It Fast in Practice

Let's Try Proving Something – a Mini-Challenge

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Arbitrary First-Order Formulas

- A first-order signature (vocabulary): function symbols (including constants), predicate symbols. Equality is part of the language.
- A set of variables.
- ► Terms are built using variables and function symbols. For example, f(x) + g(x).
- Atoms, or atomic formulas are obtained by applying a predicate symbol to a sequence of terms. For example, p(a, x) or $f(x) + g(x) \ge 2$.
- ► Formulas: built from atoms using logical connectives \neg , \land , \lor , \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow and quantifiers \forall , \exists . For example, $(\forall x)x = 0 \lor (\exists y)y > x$.

- ▶ Literal: either an atom A or its negation $\neg A$.
- ▶ Clause: a disjunction $L_1 \vee ... \vee L_n$ of literals, where $n \geq 0$.

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- A formula in Clausal Normal Form (CNF): a conjunction of clauses.
- ► A clause is ground if it contains no variables.
- ▶ If a clause contains variables, we assume that it implicitly universally quantified. That is, we treat $p(x) \lor q(x)$ as $\forall x (p(x) \lor q(x))$.

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What an Automatic Theorem Prover is Expected to Do

Input:

- a set of axioms (first order formulas) or clauses;
- ▶ a conjecture (first-order formula or set of clauses).

Output:

proof (hopefully).

Proof by Refutation

Given a problem with axioms and assumptions F_1, \ldots, F_n and conjecture G,

- 1. negate the conjecture;
- 2. establish unsatisfiability of the set of formulas $F_1, \ldots, F_n, \neg G$.

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In this formulation the negation of the conjecture $\neg G$ is treated like any other formula. In fact, Vampire (and other provers) internally treat conjectures differently, to make proof search more goal-oriented.

General Scheme in One Slide

- Read a problem P
- ▶ Preprocess the problem: P ⇒ P'
- Convert P' into Clause Normal Form N
 - replacing connectives, formula naming, distributive laws
 - Skolemisation
- ▶ Run a saturation algorithm on it, try to derive □.
 - computes a closure of N with respect to an inference system
 - logical calculus: resolution + superposition
- ▶ If □ is derived, report the result, maybe including a refutation.

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Trying to derive \square using a saturation algorithm is the hardest part, which in practice may not terminate or run out of memory.

replacing unwanted connectives:

distributive laws:

$$(A \land B) \lor (C \land D) \Longrightarrow (A \lor C) \land (A \lor D) \land (B \lor C) \land (B \lor D)$$

▶ formula naming (recall Tseitin / Pleisted-Greenbaum):

$$(A \wedge B) \vee (C \wedge D) \Longrightarrow (F_{AB} \vee (C \wedge D)) \wedge (F_{AB} \rightarrow A) \wedge (F_{AB} \rightarrow B)$$

$$\forall x[x \neq 0 \rightarrow \exists y(x \cdot y = 1)] \implies x \neq 0 \rightarrow x \cdot sk_y(x) = 1$$



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$$(A \wedge B) \vee (C \wedge D) \Longrightarrow (F_{AB} \vee (C \wedge D)) \wedge (F_{AB} \to A) \wedge (F_{AB} \to B)$$

$$\forall x[x \neq 0 \rightarrow \exists y(x \cdot y = 1)] \implies x \neq 0 \rightarrow x \cdot sk_y(x) = 1$$



Lets quickly have a look

./vampire --mode clausify Problems/PUZ031+1.p

Lets quickly have a look

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Inference System

An inference has the form

$$\frac{F_1 \quad \dots \quad F_n}{G}$$

where $n \geq 0$ and F_1, \ldots, F_n, G are formulas.

- ► The formula *G* is called the conclusion of the inference;
- ▶ The formulas F_1, \ldots, F_n are called its premises.
- ▶ An inference rule *R* is a set of inferences.
- ▶ Every inference $I \in R$ is called an instance of R.
- An Inference system I is a set of inference rules.

Derivation, Proof

- Derivation in an inference system I: a DAG built from inferences in I.
- ▶ Derivation of E from $E_1, ..., E_m$: a finite derivation of E whose every leaf is one of the expressions $E_1, ..., E_m$ and the root of which is is E.
- ightharpoonup A refutation is a derivation of the empty clause \square .

Binary Resolution Inference System

The binary resolution inference system, denoted by \mathbb{BR} is an inference system on propositional clauses (or ground clauses). It consists of two inference rules:

Binary resolution, denoted by BR:

$$\frac{p \vee C_1 \quad \neg p \vee C_2}{C_1 \vee C_2} \text{ (BR)}.$$

Factoring, denoted by Fact:

$$\frac{L \lor L \lor C}{L \lor C}$$
 (Fact).

Soundness

- ► An inference is sound if the conclusion of this inference is a logical consequence of its premises.
- ► An inference system is sound if every inference rule in this system is sound.

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\mathbb{BR} is sound.

Consequence of soundness: let S be a set of clauses. If \square can be derived from S in \mathbb{BR} , then S is unsatisfiable.

Example

Consider the following set of clauses

$$\{\neg p \lor \neg q, \ \neg p \lor q, \ p \lor \neg q, \ p \lor q\}.$$

The following derivation derives the empty clause from this set:

$$\frac{p \lor q \quad p \lor \neg q}{\frac{p \lor p}{p} \text{ (Fact)}} \text{ (BR)} \quad \frac{\neg p \lor q \quad \neg p \lor \neg q}{\neg p \lor \neg p} \text{ (Fact)}$$

Hence, this set of clauses is unsatisfiable.

Can this be used for checking (un)satisfiability?

- 1. What if the empty clause cannot be derived from S?
- 2. How can one systematically search for possible derivations of the empty clause?

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Completeness.

Let *S* be an unsatisfiable set of clauses. Then there exists a derivation of \square from *S* in \mathbb{BR} .

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- 1. What if the empty clause cannot be derived from S?
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Completeness.

Let S be an unsatisfiable set of clauses. Then there exists a derivation of \square from S in \mathbb{BR} .

In other words, \mathbb{BR} is complete.

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Idea of Saturation

Completess is formulated in terms of derivability of the empty clause \square from a set S_0 of clauses in an inference system \mathbb{I} . However, this formulations gives no hint on how to search for such a derivation.

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Idea:

- Take a set of clauses S (the search space), initially S = S₀.
 Repeatedly apply inferences in I to clauses in S and add their conclusions to S, unless these conclusions are already in S.
- ▶ If, at any stage, we obtain \square , we terminate and report unsatisfiability of S_0 .

Saturation Algorithm

A saturation algorithm tries to saturate a set of clauses with respect to a given inference system.

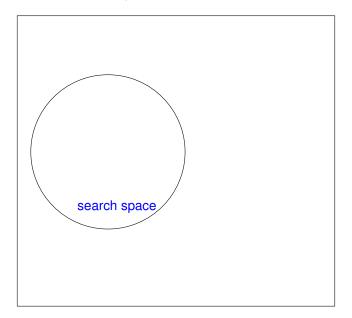
In theory there are three possible scenarios:

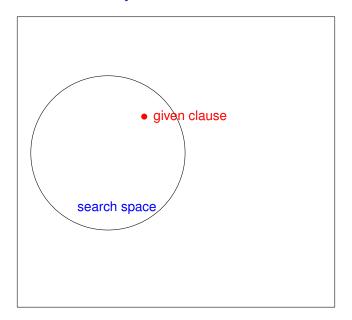
- 1. At some moment the empty clause □ is generated, in this case the input set of clauses is unsatisfiable.
- 2. Saturation will terminate without ever generating \square , in this case the input set of clauses in satisfiable.
- 3. Saturation will run <u>forever</u>, but without generating □. In this case the input set of clauses is <u>satisfiable</u>.

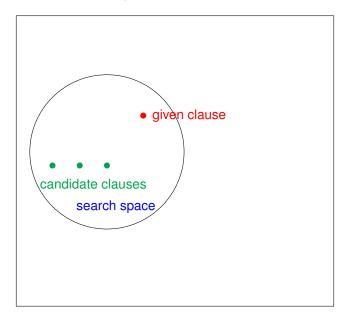
Saturation Algorithm in Practice

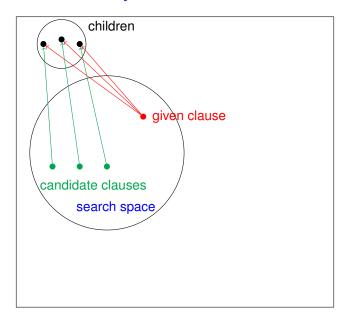
In practice there are three possible scenarios:

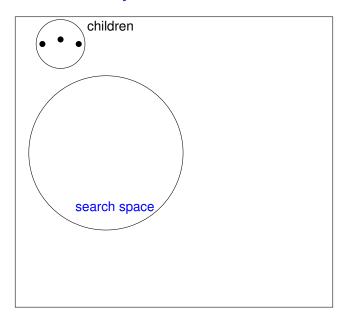
- 1. At some moment the empty clause □ is generated, in this case the input set of clauses is unsatisfiable.
- 2. Saturation will terminate without ever generating \square , in this case the input set of clauses in satisfiable.
- 3. Saturation will run <u>until we run out of resources</u>, but without generating □. In this case it is <u>unknown</u> whether the input set is unsatisfiable.

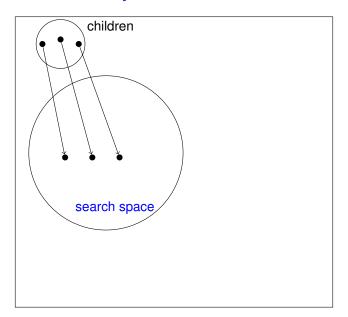


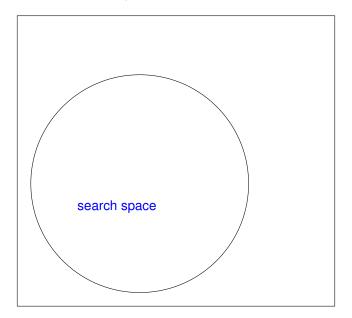


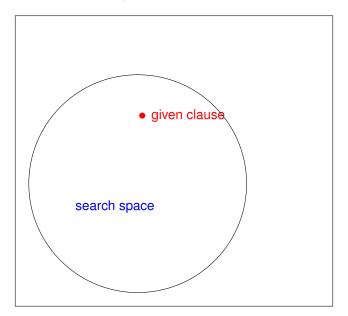


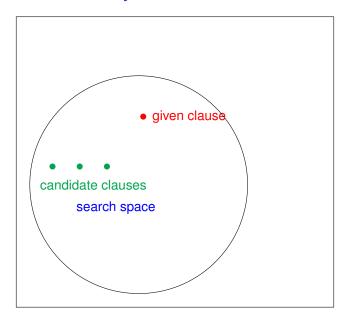


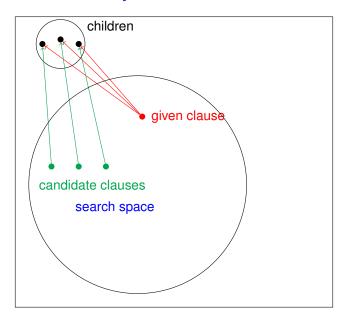


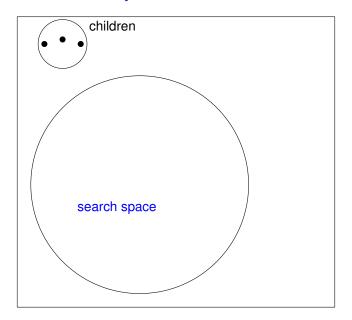


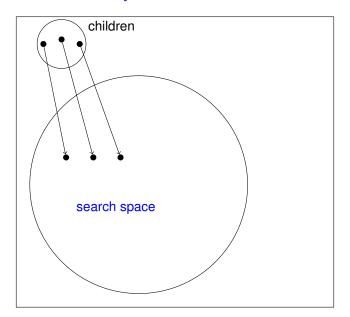


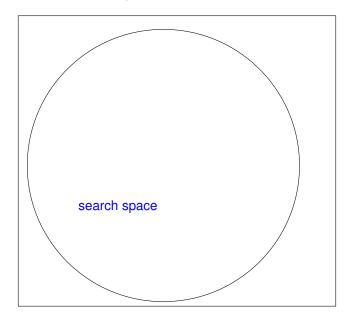


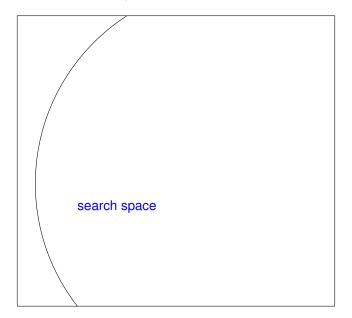


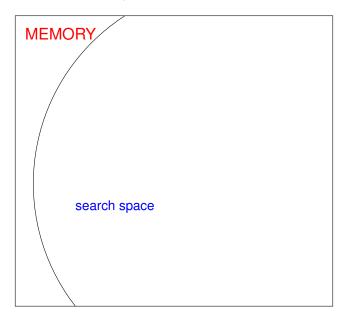












Saturation with the Given-Clause Algorithm

Even when we implement inference selection by clause selection, there are too many inferences, especially when the search space grows.

Saturation with the Given-Clause Algorithm

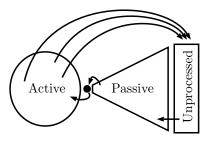
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Solution: only apply inferences to the selected clause and the previously selected clauses.

Saturation with the Given-Clause Algorithm

Even when we implement inference selection by clause selection, there are too many inferences, especially when the search space grows.

Solution: only apply inferences to the selected clause and the previously selected clauses.



Thus, the search space is divided in two parts:

- active clauses, that participate in inferences;
- passive clauses, that do not participate in inferences.

Observation: the set of passive clauses is usually considerably larger than the set of active clauses, often by 2-4 orders of magnitude (depending on the saturation algorithm and the problem).

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Making It Fast in Practice

- Literal selection and ordering constraints
- Redundancy elimination and simplifications
- Saturation loop variants
- Clause selection heuristics
- The AVATAR architecture
- Portfolio mode
- Efficient data structures: term sharing, indexing, ...

Selection Function

A literal selection function selects literals in a clause.

▶ If *C* is non-empty, then at least one literal is selected in *C*.

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$$p \lor \neg q$$

Note: selection function does not have to be a function. It can be any oracle that selects literals.

Binary Resolution with Selection

We introduce a family of inference systems, parametrised by a literal selection function σ .

The binary resolution inference system, denoted by \mathbb{BR}_{σ} , consists of two inference rules:

Binary resolution, denoted by BR

$$\frac{\underline{\rho} \vee C_1 \quad \underline{\neg \rho} \vee C_2}{C_1 \vee C_2} \text{ (BR)}.$$

Positive factoring, denoted by Fact:

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 (Fact).

Completeness considerations!



The Main Rule for Dealing with Equality

Superposition:

$$\frac{\underline{I = \underline{r}} \vee C \quad \underline{\underline{s[l']} = \underline{t}} \vee \underline{D}}{(\underline{s[r]} = \underline{t} \vee C \vee D)\theta} \text{ (Sup)}, \quad \frac{\underline{I = \underline{r}} \vee C \quad \underline{\underline{s[l']} \neq \underline{t}} \vee \underline{D}}{(\underline{s[r]} \neq \underline{t} \vee C \vee D)\theta} \text{ (Sup)},$$

where

- 1. θ is an mgu of I and I';
- 2. /' is not a variable;
- 3. $r\theta \not\succeq l\theta$;
- 4. $t\theta \succeq s[l']\theta$.
- 5. ...

A clause is a propositional tautology if it is of the form $p \lor \neg p \lor C$, that is, it contains a pair of complementary literals.

There are also equational tautologies, for example $a \neq b \lor b \neq c \lor f(c,c) \simeq f(a,a)$.

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Subsumed clauses and tautologies can be removed from the search space.

State of the art:

- they fall under the general notion of redundancy
- redundant clauses can be removed without compromising completeness
- substantial part of prover's work spent on redundancy elimination



An inference

$$\frac{C_1 \quad \dots \quad C_n}{C}$$
.

is called simplifying if at least one premise C_i becomes redundant after the addition of the conclusion C to the search space. We then say that C_i is simplified into C.

A non-simplifying inference is called generating.

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Note. The property of being simplifying is undecidable. So is the property of being redundant. So in practice we employ sufficient conditions for simplifying inferences and for redundancy.

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Note. The property of being simplifying is undecidable. So is the property of being redundant. So in practice we employ sufficient conditions for simplifying inferences and for redundancy.

Idea: try to search eagerly for simplifying inferences bypassing the strategy for inference selection.

Two main implementation principles:

apply simplifying inferences eagerly; apply generating inferences lazily. checking for simplifying inferences should pay off; so it must be cheap.

Redundancy Checking

Redundancy-checking occurs upon addition of a new child \mathcal{C} . It works as follows

- ▶ Retention test: check if C is redundant.
- Forward simplification: check if C can be simplified using a simplifying inference.
- ▶ Backward simplification: check if *C* simplifies or makes redundant an old clause.

Examples

Retention test:

- tautology-check;
- subsumption.

(A clause C subsumes a clause D if there exists a substitution θ such that $C\theta$ is a submultiset of D.)

Simplification:

- demodulation (forward and backward);
- subsumption resolution (forward and backward).

Some redundancy criteria are expensive

- ▶ Tautology-checking is based on congruence closure.
- Subsumption and subsumption resolution are NP-complete.

Observations

- ► There may be chains (repeated applications) of forward simplifications.
- ► After a chain of forward simplifications another retention test can (should) be done.

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- After a chain of forward simplifications another retention test can (should) be done.
- Backward simplification is often expensive.
- In practice, the retention test may include other checks, resulting in the loss of completeness, for example, we may decide to discard too heavy clauses.

How to Design a Good Saturation Algorithm?

A saturation algorithm must be fair: every possible generating inference must eventually be selected.

Two main implementation principles:

apply simplifying inferences eagerly; apply generating inferences lazily. checking for simplifying inferences should pay off; so it must be cheap.

Given Clause Algorithm (no Simplification)

```
input: init: set of clauses;
var active, passive, queue: sets of clauses;
var current: clauses ;
active := \emptyset:
passive := init:
while passive \neq \emptyset do
 current := select(passive);
                                                         (* clause selection *)
 move current from passive to active;
 queue:=infer(current, active);
                                                   (* generating inferences *)
 if \square \in queue then return unsatisfiable;
 passive := passive ∪ queue
od:
return satisfiable
```

Given Clause Algorithm (with Simplification)

In fact, there is more than one ...

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unprocessed clauses and kept (active and passive) clauses

```
--saturation_algorithm {lrs,otter,discount}
```

Otter vs. Discount Saturation

Otter saturation algorithm:

- active clauses participate in generating and simplifying inferences;
- passive clauses participate in simplifying inferences.

Discount saturation algorithm:

- active clauses participate in generating and simplifying inferences;
- passive clauses do not participate in inferences.

Otter vs. Discount Saturation, Newly Generated Clauses

Otter saturation algorithm:

- active clauses participate in generating and simplifying inferences;
- new clauses participate in simplifying inferences;
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Discount saturation algorithm:

- active clauses participate in generating and simplifying inferences;
- new clauses participate in simplifying inferences;
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Otter vs. Discount Saturation, Newly Generated Clauses

Otter saturation algorithm:

- active clauses participate in generating inferences with the selected clause and simplifying inferences with new clauses;
- new clauses participate in simplifying inferences with all clauses;
- passive clauses participate in simplifying inferences with new clauses.

Discount saturation algorithm:

- active clauses participate in generating inferences and simplifying inferences with the selected clause and simplifying inferences with the new clauses;
- new clauses participate in simplifying inferences with the selected and active clauses:
- passive clauses do not participate in inferences.



Otter Saturation Algorithm

```
input: init: set of clauses;
   var active, passive, unprocessed: set of clauses;
   var given, new: clause;
   active := \emptyset;
   unprocessed := init:
   loop
      while unprocessed \neq \emptyset
         new:=pop(unprocessed);
         if new = \square then return unsatisfiable:
         if retained(new) then
                                                              (* retention test *)
           simplify new by clauses in active \cup passive ;(* forward simplification *)
*
           if new = \square then return unsatisfiable;
           if retained(new) then
                                                      (* another retention test *)
             delete and simplify clauses in active and (* backward simplification *)
*
                                             passive using new;
             move the simplified clauses to unprocessed;
             add new to passive
      if passive = 0 then return satisfiable or unknown
      given := select(passive);
                                                           (* clause selection *)
*
      move given from passive to active;
      unprocessed : = infer(given, active);
                                                     (* generating inferences *)
```

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Discount Saturation Algorithm

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input: init: set of clauses;
var active, passive, unprocessed: set of clauses;
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unprocessed := init;
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     new:=pop(unprocessed);
     if new = \Box then return unsatisfiable;
     if retained(new) then
                                                                          (* retention test *)
       simplify \stackrel{\sim}{new} by clauses in active; if \stackrel{\sim}{new} = \Box then return unsatisfiable;
                                                                 (* forward simplification *)
       if retained(new) then
                                                                          (* retention test *)
          delete and simplify clauses in active using new; (* backward simplification *)
          move the simplified clauses to unprocessed;
          add new to passive
  if passive = 0 then return satisfiable or unknown
  given := select(passive);
                                                                       (* clause selection *)
  šimplify given by clauses in active;
                                                                 (* forward simplification *)
  if \overrightarrow{aiven} = \square then return unsatisfiable;
  if retained(given) then
                                                                          (* retention test *)
     delete and simplify clauses in active using given; (* backward simplification *)
     move the simplified clauses to unprocessed;
     add given to active:
     unprocessed : = infer(given, active);
                                                                (* generating inferences *)
```

Age-Weight Ratio

How to select nice clauses?

- Small clauses are nice.
- Selecting only small clauses can postpone the selection of an old clause (e.g., input clause) for too long, in practice resulting in incompleteness.

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Solution:

- A fixed percentage of clauses is selected by weight, the rest are selected by age.
- So we use an age-weight ratio a: w: of each a + w clauses select a oldest and w smallest clauses.

Limited Resource Strategy

Limited Resource Strategy: try to approximate which clauses are unreachable by the end of the time limit and remove them from the search space.

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```
Try: ./vampire -awr 5:1 -fsr off Problems/GRP140-1.p
```

What is AVATAR?

What is AVATAR?

AVATAR [Voronkov'14]

- modern architecture of first order theorem provers
- integrates saturation with a SAT solver
- efficient realization of the clause splitting rule
- instead of one monolithic proof search a sequence of proof searches on (much) smaller sub-problems
- implemented in theorem prover Vampire
- shown highly successful in practice

Clause splitting

Central idea

Let C_1 and C_2 are variable disjoint. Then the clause set

 $S \cup \{C_1 \lor C_2\}$ is unsatisfiable

if and only if

both $S \cup \{C_1\}$ and $S \cup \{C_2\}$ are unsatisfiable.

Clause splitting

Central idea

Let C_1 and C_2 are variable disjoint. Then the clause set

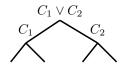
$$S \cup \{C_1 \vee C_2\}$$
 is unsatisfiable

if and only if

both $S \cup \{C_1\}$ and $S \cup \{C_2\}$ are unsatisfiable.

Previous approaches to splitting

splitting with backtracking [Wei01]



splitting without backtracking [RV01]

$$p_1 \vee p_2 \quad \neg p_1 \vee C_1 \quad \neg p_2 \vee C_2$$

Splitting as much as possible

Components of a clause

- (non-empty) sub-clauses which do not share a variable
- finest decomposition with this property

Splitting as much as possible

Components of a clause

- (non-empty) sub-clauses which do not share a variable
- finest decomposition with this property

Example (a clause splittable into two components)

$$\forall X, Y, Z \quad p(X, f(Y)) \lor \neg q(Y) \lor c \simeq Z$$

$$\equiv$$

$$\forall X, Y [p(X, f(Y)) \lor \neg q(Y)] \lor \forall Z c \simeq Z$$

Building blocks of AVATAR

Naming of components

A splittable first-order clause abstracted to a SAT clause

$$C_1 \vee \ldots \vee C_n \quad \leadsto \quad [C_1] \vee \ldots \vee [C_n]$$

SAT solver makes the splitting decisions

the "propositional essence" of the given problem delegated to the efficient dedicated solver

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Proving under assumptions

Components selected by the SAT solver are exposed as

$$C \leftarrow [C],$$

inferences keep track of dependencies

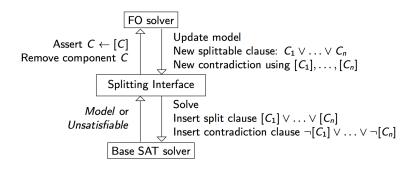
$$\frac{(\textit{I} \lor \textit{C}_1) \leftarrow \textit{A}_1 \qquad (\neg \textit{I} \lor \textit{C}_2) \leftarrow \textit{A}_2}{(\textit{C}_1 \lor \textit{C}_2) \leftarrow \textit{A}_1 \land \textit{A}_2},$$

"conditional empty clauses"; sent back to the SAT solver:

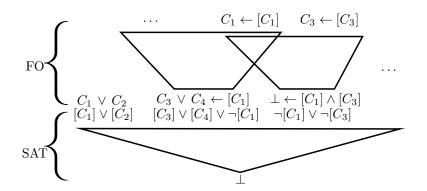
$$\perp \leftarrow [C'_1] \land \ldots \land [C'_k] \quad \leadsto \quad \neg [C'_1] \lor \ldots \lor \neg [C'_k]$$



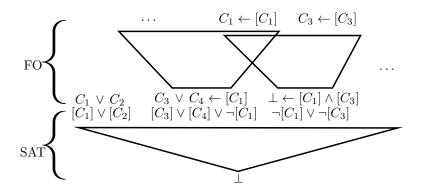
The AVATAR architecture



The shape of AVATAR refutation



The shape of AVATAR refutation



./vampire --proof on PUZ001+1.p

How can one efficiently apply complex operations to hundreds of thousands of terms and clauses?

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Given a set \mathcal{L} (the set of indexed terms), a binary relation R over terms (the retrieval condition) and a term t (called the query term), identify the subset \mathcal{M} of \mathcal{L} consisting of all of the terms I such that R(I,t) holds.

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The problem (and solution) is similar to database query answering, but data are much more complex than relational data (a clause is a finite set of trees, so the search space is a (large) set of finite sets of trees).

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One puts the clauses in $\mathcal L$ in a data structure, called the index. The data structure is designed with the only purpose to make the retrieval fast.

- Different indexes are needed to support different operations;
- ► The set of clauses is dynamically (and often) changes, so that index maintenance must be efficient.
- Memory is an issue (badly designed indexes may take much more space than clauses).
- ► The inverse retrieval conditions (the same algorithm on clauses) may require very different indexing techniques (e.g., forward and backward subsumption).
- Sensitive to the signature of the problem: techniques good for small signatures are too slow and too memory consuming for large signatures.

Term Indexing in Vampire

- Various hash tables.
- Flatterms in constant memory for storing temporary clauses.
- Code trees for forward subsumption;
- Code trees with precompiled ordering constraints;
- Discrimination trees;
- Substitution trees;
- Variables banks;
- Shared terms with renaming lists;
- Path index with compiled database joins;
- **•** . . .

Outline

Preliminaries

Theorem-Proving Workflow

A Static View: Inferences, Soundness, and Completeness

A Dynamic View: Saturation

Making It Fast in Practice

Let's Try Proving Something – a Mini-Challenge

Dark art mini-CHALLENGE

./vampire --show_options on Some options to play with

- 1. Set of support (-sos on)
- AVATAR turned off (-spl off) default: 9552; sploff: 8700, also 234 new
- Discount saturation loop and the age-weight ratio (-sa discount -awr 10) discount only: 9421; with awr10: 9577
- 4. default: 9552; lookahead: 8937 but 839 new
- 5. Backward subsumption (-bs on)

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Ready made solution from the Vizzard

Portfolio mode (a.k.a. CASC mode)

- a conditional portfolio mode
- a cocktail of a strategies optimized for good general performance
- incomplete strategies in the mix; complementarity for coverage
- --mode casc (there is also --mode casc_sat)
- ► The schedule is 5+ minutes long (use with -t 5m)
- --cores <number> for executing in parallel

TPTP 7.0.0 total: 21851 Discarded (hol + poly): 4323 Eligible (cnf, fof, tff): 17528 casc: 13460 76.8 %



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A small experiment (5 minutes time limit)

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Discarded (hol + poly):	4323	
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casc:	13460	76.8 %
casc₋sat:	10434	59.5 %
union:	14125	80.6 %