Formalizing Rewriting in the ACL2 Theorem Prover *

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Abstract. We present an application of the ACL2 theorem prover to formalize and reason about rewrite systems theory. This can be seen as a first approach to apply formal methods, using ACL2, to the design of symbolic computation systems, since the notion of rewriting or simplification is ubiquitous in such systems. We concentrate here on formalization and representation aspects of abstract reduction and term rewriting systems, using the first-order, quantifier-free ACL2 logic based on Common Lisp.

1 Introduction

We report in this paper the status of our work on the application of the ACL2 theorem prover to reason about rewrite systems theory: confluence, local confluence, noetherianity, normal forms and other related concepts have been formalized in the ACL2 logic and some results about abstract reduction relations and term rewriting systems have been mechanically proved, including Newman's lemma and the Knuth-Bendix critical pair theorem.

ACL2 is both a logic and a mechanical theorem proving system supporting it. The ACL2 logic is an existentially quantifier-free, first-order logic with equality. ACL2 is also a programming language, an applicative subset of Common Lisp. The system evolved from the Boyer-Moore theorem prover, also known as Nqthm.

A formal proof using a theorem proving environment provides not only formal verification of mathematical theories, but allows us to understand and examine their theorems with much greater detail, rigor and clarity. On the other hand, the notion of rewriting or simplification is a crucial component in symbolic computation: simplification procedures are needed to transform complex objects in order to obtain equivalent but simpler objects and to compute unique representations for equivalence classes (see, for example, [4] or [9]).

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Since ACL2 is also a programming language, this work can be seen as a first step to obtain verified executable Common Lisp code for components of symbolic computation systems. Although a fully verified implementation of such a system is currently beyond our possibilities, several basic algorithms can be mechanically "certified" and integrated as part of the whole system.

We also show here how a weak logic like the ACL2 logic (no quantification, no infinite objects, no higher order variables, etc.) can be used to represent, formalize, and mechanically prove non-trivial theorems. In this paper, we place emphasis on describing the formalization and representation aspects of our work. Due to the lack of space, we will skip details of the mechanical proofs. The complete information is available on the web at http://www-cs.us.es/~jruiz/acl2-rewr.

1.1 The ACL2 system

We briefly describe here the ACL2 theorem prover and its logic. The best introduction to ACL2 is [6]. To obtain more background on ACL2, see the ACL2 user's manual in [7]. A description of the main proof techniques used in Nqthm, also used in ACL2, can be found in [3].

ACL2 stands for A Computational Logic for Applicative Common Lisp. The ACL2 logic is a quantifier-free, first-order logic with equality, describing an applicative subset of Common Lisp. The syntax of terms is that of Common Lisp [14] (we will assume that the reader is familiar with this language). The logic includes axioms for propositional logic and for a number of Lisp functions and data types. Rules of inference include those for propositional calculus, equality, and instantiation. By the principle of definition, new function definitions (using defun) are admitted as axioms only if there exists an ordinal measure in which the arguments of each recursive call decrease. This ensures that no inconsistencies are introduced by new definitions. The theory has a constructive definition of the ordinals up to ε_0 , in terms of lists and natural numbers, given by the predicate e0-ordinalp and the order e0-ord-<. One important rule of inference is the principle of induction, which permits proofs by induction on ε_0 .

In addition to the definition principle, the encapsulation mechanism (using encapsulate) allows the user to introduce new function symbols by axioms constraining them to have certain properties (to ensure consistency, a witness local function having the same properties has to be exhibited). Inside an encapsulate, properties stated with defthm need to be proved for the local witnesses, and outside, those theorems work as assumed axioms. The functions partially defined with encapsulate can be seen as second-order variables, representing functions with those properties. A derived rule of inference, functional instantiation, allows some kind of second-order reasoning: theorems about constrained functions can be instantiated with function symbols known to have the same properties.

The ACL2 theorem prover is inspired by Nqthm, but has been considerably improved. The main proof techniques used by the prover are simplification and induction. Simplification is a combination of decision procedures, mainly term rewriting, using the rules previously proved by the user. The command defthm starts a proof attempt, and, if it succeeds, the theorem is stored as a rule. The

theorem prover is automatic in the sense that once defthm is invoked, the user can no longer interact with the system. However, in a deeper sense, the system is interactive. Very often, non-trivial proofs are not found by the system in the first attempt. The user has to guide the prover by adding lemmas and definitions, used in subsequent proofs as rules. The role of the user is important: a typical proof effort consists of formalizing the problem in the logic and helping the prover to find a preconceived proof by means of a suitable set of rewrite rules.

1.2 Abstract reductions and term rewriting systems

This section provides a short introduction to basic concepts and definitions from rewriting theory used in this paper. A complete description can be found in [1].

An abstract reduction is simply a binary relation \to defined on a set A. We will denote as \leftarrow , \leftrightarrow , $\stackrel{*}{\to}$ and $\stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow}$ respectively the inverse relation, the symmetric closure, the reflexive-transitive closure and the equivalence closure. The following concepts are defined with respect to a reduction relation \to . An element x is in normal form (or irreducible) if there is no z such that $x \to z$. We say that x and y are joinable (denoted as $x \downarrow y$) if it exists u such that $x \stackrel{*}{\to} u \stackrel{*}{\leftarrow} y$. We say that x and y are equivalent if $x \stackrel{*}{\to} y$.

An important property to study about reduction relations is the existence of unique normal forms for equivalent objects. A reduction relation has the Church-Rosser property if every two equivalent objects are joinable. An equivalent property is confluence: for all x, u, v such that $u \stackrel{*}{\leftarrow} x \stackrel{*}{\to} v$, then $u \downarrow v$. If a reduction has the Church-Rosser property, then two distinct normal forms cannot be equivalent. If in addition the relation is normalizing (i.e. every element has a normal form, noted as $x \downarrow$) then $x \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} y$ iff $x \downarrow = y \downarrow$. Provided normal forms are computable and identity in A is decidable, then the equivalence relation $\stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow}$ is decidable in this case, using a test for equality of normal forms.

Another important property is termination: a reduction relation is terminating (or noetherian) if there is no infinite reduction sequence $x_0 \to x_1 \to x_2 \to \dots$ Obviously, every noetherian reduction is normalizing. The Church-Rosser property can be localized when the reduction is terminating. In that case an equivalent property is local confluence: for all x, u, v such that $u \leftarrow x \to v$, then $u \downarrow v$. This result is known as **Newman's lemma**.

One important type of reduction relations is defined in the set $T(\Sigma,X)$ of first order terms in a given language, where Σ is a set of function symbols, and X is a set of variables. In this context, an equation is a pair of terms l=r. The reduction relation induced by a set of equations E is defined as follows: $s \to_E t$ if there exist $l=r \in E$ and a substitution σ of the variables in l (the matching substitution) such that $\sigma(l)$ is a subterm of s and t is obtained from s by replacing the subterm $\sigma(l)$ by $\sigma(r)$. This reduction relation is of great interest in universal algebra because it can be proved that $E \models s = t$ iff $s \overset{*}{\leftrightarrow}_E t$. This implies decidability of every equational theory defined by a set of axioms E such that \to_E is terminating and locally confluent. To emphasize the use of the equation l=r from left to right as described above, we write $l\to r$ and

talk about rewrite rules. A term rewriting system (TRS) is a set of rewrite rules. Unless denoted otherwise, E is always a set of equations (equational axioms) and R is a term rewriting system.

Local confluence is decidable for finite and terminating TRSs: joinability has only to be checked for a finite number of pair of terms, called *critical pairs*, accounting for the most general forms of local divergence. The **critical pair theorem** states that a TRS is locally confluent iff all its critical pairs are joinable. Thus, Church-Rosser property of terminating TRSs is a decidable property: it is enough to check if every critical pair has a common normal form. If a TRS R has a critical pair with different normal forms, there is still a chance to obtain a decision procedure for the equational theory of R, adjoining that equation as a new terminating rewrite rule. This is the basis for the well-known *completion algorithms* (see [1] for details).

In the sequel, we describe the formalization of these properties in the ACL2 logic and a proof of them using the theorem prover. For the rest of the paper, when we talk about "prove" we mean "mechanically prove using ACL2".

2 Formalizing abstract reductions in ACL2

Our first attempt to represent abstract reduction relations in the ACL2 logic was simply to define them as binary boolean functions, using encapsulate to state their properties. Nevertheless, if $x \to y$, more important than the relation between x and y is the fact that y is obtained from x by applying some kind of transformation or operator. In its most abstract formulation, we can view a reduction as a binary function that, given an element and an operator, returns another object, performing a one-step reduction. Consider, for example, equational reductions: elements in that case are first-order terms and operators are the objects constituted by a position (indicating the subterm replaced), an equation (the rule applied) and a substitution (the matching substitution).

Of course not any operator can be applied to any element. Thus, a second component in this formalization is needed: a boolean binary function to test if it is *legal* to apply an operator to an element. Finally, a third component is introduced: since computation of normal forms requires searching for legal operators to apply, we will need a unary function such that when applied to an element, it returns a legal operator, whenever it exists, or nil otherwise (a reducibility test).

The above considerations lead us to formalize the concept of abstract reductions in ACL2, using three partially defined functions: reduce-one-step, legal and reducible. This can be done with the following encapsulate (dots are used to omit technical details, as in the rest of the paper):

```
(encapsulate
  ((legal (x u) t) (reduce-one-step (x u) t) (reducible (x) t))
   ...
  (defthm legal-reducible-1
      (implies (reducible x) (legal x (reducible x))))
```

```
(defthm legal-reducible-2
  (implies (not (reducible x)) (not (legal x op))))
...)
```

The first line of every encapsulate is a signature description of the non-local functions partially defined. The two theorems assumed above as axioms are minimal requirements for every reduction we defined: if further properties (for example, local confluence, confluence or noetherianity) were assumed, they had to be stated inside the encapsulate. This is a very abstract framework to formalize reductions in ACL2. We think that these three functions capture the basic abstract features every reduction has. On the one hand, a procedural aspect: the computation of normal forms, applying operators until irreducible objects are obtained. On the other hand, a declarative aspect: every reduction relation describes its equivalence closure. Representing reductions in this way, we can define concepts like Church-Rosser property, local confluence or noetherianity and even prove non-trivial theorems like Newman's lemma, as we will see.

To instantiate this general framework, concrete instances of reduce-one-step, legal and reducible have to be defined and the properties assumed here as axioms must be proved for those concrete definitions. By functional instantiation, results about abstract reductions can then be easily exported to concrete cases (as we will see for the equational case).

2.1 Equivalence and proofs

Due to the constructive nature of the ACL2 logic, in order to define $x \overset{*}{\leftrightarrow} y$ we have to include an argument with a sequence of steps $x = x_0 \leftrightarrow x_1 \leftrightarrow x_2 \ldots \leftrightarrow x_n = y$. This is done by the function equiv-p defined in figure 1. (equiv-p x y p) is t if p is a proof justifying that $x \overset{*}{\leftrightarrow} y$. A $proof^1$ is a sequence of legal steps and each proof step is a structure r-step with four fields: elt1, elt2 (the elements connected), direct (the direction of the step) and operator. Two proofs justifying the same equivalence will be said to be equivalent. A proof step is legal (as defined by proof-step-p) if one of its elements is obtained applying the (legal) operator to the other (in the sense indicated by direct).

Church-Rosser property and local confluence can be redefined with respect to the form of a proof (subsections 2.2 and 2.3). For that purpose, we define (omitted here) functions to recognize proofs with particular shapes (valleys and local peaks): local-peak-p recognizes proofs of the form $v \leftarrow x \rightarrow u$ and steps-valley recognizes proofs of the form $v \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} x \stackrel{*}{\leftarrow} u$.

2.2 Church-Rosser property and decidability

We describe how we formalized and proved the fact that every Church-Rosser and normalizing reduction relation is decidable. Valley proofs can be used to

¹ Do not confuse with proofs done using the ACL2 system.

Fig. 1. Definition of proofs and equivalence

reformulate the definition of the Church-Rosser property: a reduction is Church-Rosser iff for every proof there exists an equivalent valley proof. Since the ACL2 logic is quantifier-free, the existential quantifier in this statement has to be replaced by a Skolem function, which we call transform-to-valley. The concept of being normalizing can also be reformulated in terms of proofs: a reduction is normalizing if for every element there exists a proof to an equivalent irreducible element. This proof is given by the (Skolem) function proof-irreducible (note that we are not assuming noetherianity yet). Properties defining a Church-Rosser and normalizing reduction are encapsulated as shown in figure 2, item (a).

The function r-equiv tests if normal forms are equal. Note that the normal form of an element x is the last element of (proof-irreducible x):

```
(defun normal-form (x)
  (last-of-proof x (proof-irreducible x)))
(defun r-equiv (x y)
  (equal (normal-form x) (normal-form y)))
```

To prove decidability of a Church-Rosser and normalizing relation, it is enough to prove that r-equiv is a complete and sound algorithm deciding the equivalence relation associated with the reduction relation. See figure 2, item (b). We also include the main lemma used, stating that there are no distinct equivalent irreducible elements. Note also that soundness is expressed in terms of a Skolem function make-proof-common-normal-form (definition omitted), which constructs a proof justifying the equivalence. These theorems are proved easily, without much guidance from the user. See the web page for details.

```
;;; (a) Definition of Church-Rosser and normalizing reduction:
(encapsulate
((legal (x u) t) (reduce-one-step (x u) t) (reducible (x) t)
  (transform-to-valley (x) t) (proof-irreducible (x) t))
(defthm Church-Rosser-property
   (let ((valley (transform-to-valley p)))
     (implies (equiv-p x y p)
              (and (steps-valley valley) (equiv-p x y valley)))))
 (defthm normalizing
   (let* ((p-x-y (proof-irreducible x))
          (y (last-of-proof x p-x-y)))
     (and (equiv-p x y p-x-y) (not (reducible y))))))
;;; (b) Main theorems proved:
(defthm if-C-R--two-ireducible-connected-are-equal
  (implies
    (and (equiv-p x y p) (not (reducible x)) (not (reducible y)))
         (equal x y)))
(defthm r-equiv-sound
  (implies (r-equiv x y) (equiv-p x y (make-proof-common-n-f x y))))
(defthm r-equiv-complete
  (implies (equiv-p x y p) (r-equiv x y))
```

Fig. 2. Church-Rosser and normalizing implies decidability

2.3 Noetherianity, local confluence and Newman's lemma

A relation is well founded on a set A if every non-empty subset has a minimal element. A restricted notion of well-foundedness is built into ACL2, based on the following meta-theorem: a relation on a set A is well-founded iff there exists a function $F:A\to Ord$ such that $x< y\Rightarrow F(x)< F(y)$, where Ord is the class of all ordinals (axiom of choice needed). In ACL2, once a relation is proved to satisfy these requirements, it can be used in the admissibility test for recursive functions. A general well-founded partial order rel can be defined in ACL2 as shown in item (a) of figure 3. Since only ordinals up to ε_0 are formalized in the ACL2 logic, a limitation is imposed in the maximal order type of well-founded relations that can be represented. Consequently, our formalization suffers from the same restriction. Nevertheless, no particular properties of ε_0 are used in our proofs, except well-foundedness, so we think the same formal proofs could be carried out if higher ordinals were involved.

In item (b) of figure 3, a general definition of a noetherian and locally confluent reduction relation is presented. Local confluence is easily expressed in terms

```
;;; (a) A well-founded partial order:
(encapsulate
 ((rel (x y) t) (fn (x) t))
 (defthm rel-well-founded-relation
   (and (e0-ordinalp (fn x))
        (implies (rel x y) (e0-ord-\langle (fn x) (fn y))))
   :rule-classes :well-founded-relation)
 (defthm rel-transitive
   (implies (and (rel x y) (rel y z)) (rel x z))))
;;; (b) A noetherian and locally confluent reduction relation:
(encapsulate
 ((legal (x u) t) (reduce-one-step (x u) t)
  (reducible (x) t) (transform-local-peak (x) t))
 (defthm locally-confluent
   (let ((valley (transform-local-peak p)))
     (implies (and (equiv-p x y p) (local-peak-p p))
              (and (steps-valley valley)
                   (equiv-p x y valley)))))
 (defthm noetherian
   (implies (legal x u) (rel (reduce-one-step x u) x))))
;;; (c) Definition of transform to valley:
(defun transform-to-valley (p)
  (declare (xargs :measure (proof-measure p)
                  :well-founded-relation mul-rel))
  (if (not (exists-local-peak p))
      (transform-to-valley (replace-local-peak p))))
;;; (d) Main theorems proved:
(defthm transform-to-valley-admission
  (implies (exists-local-peak p)
           (mul-rel (proof-measure (replace-local-peak p))
                    (proof-measure p))))
(defthm Newman-lemma
  (let ((valley (transform-to-valley p)))
    (implies (equiv-p x y p)
             (and (steps-valley valley)
                  (equiv-p x y valley)))))
```

Fig. 3. Newman's lemma

of the shape of proofs involved: a relation is locally confluent iff for every local peak proof there is an equivalent valley proof. This valley proof is given by the partially defined function transform-local-peak. As for noetherianity, our formalization relies on the following meta-theorem: a reduction is noetherian if and only if it is contained in a well-founded partial ordering (AC). Thus, the general well-founded relation rel previously defined is used to justify noetherianity of the general reduction relation defined: for every element x such that a legal operator u can be applied, then reduce-one-step obtains an element less than x with respect to rel.

The standard proof of Newman's lemma found in the literature (see [1]) shows confluence by noetherian induction based on the reduction relation. The proof we obtained in ACL2 differs from the standard one and it is based on the proof given in [8]. In our formalization, we have to show that the reduction relation has the Church-Rosser property by defining a function transform-to-valley and proving that for every proof p, (transform-to-valley p) is an equivalent valley proof.

This function is defined to iteratively apply replace-local-peak (which replaces a local peak subproof by the equivalent proof given by transform-local-peak) until there are no local peaks. See definition in item (c) of figure 3.

Induction used in the standard proof is hidden here by the termination proof of transform-to-valley, needed for admission. The main proof effort was to show that in each iteration, some measure on the proof, proof-measure, decreases with respect to a well-founded relation, mul-rel. This can be seen as a normalization process acting on proofs. The measure proof-measure is the list of elements involved in the proof and the relation mul-rel is defined to be the multiset extension of rel. We needed to prove in ACL2 that the multiset extension of a well-founded relation is also well-founded, a result interesting in its own right (see the web page for details). Once transform-to-valley is admitted, it is relatively easy to show that it always returns an equivalent valley proof. See item (d) of figure 3.

Note that we gave a particular "implementation" of transform-to-valley and proved as theorems the properties assumed as axioms in the previous subsection. The same was done with proof-irreducible. Decidability of noetherian and locally confluent reduction relations can now be easily deduced by functional instantiation from the general results proved in the previous subsection, allowing some kind of second-order reasoning. Name conflicts are avoided by using Common Lisp packages that are capable of removing them.

3 Formalizing rewriting in ACL2

We defined in the previous section a very general formalization of reduction relations. The results proved can be reused for every instance of the general framework. As a major example, we describe in this section how we formalized and reasoned about term rewriting in ACL2.

Since rewriting is a reduction relation defined on the set of first order terms, we needed to use a library of definitions and theorems formalizing the lattice theoretic properties of first-order terms: in particular, matching and unification algorithms are defined and proved correct. See [12] for details of this work. Some functions of this library will be used in the following. Although definitions are not given here, their names suggest what they do.

The very abstract concept of operator can be instantiated for term rewriting reductions. Equational operators are structures with three fields, containing the rewriting rule to apply, the position of the subterm to be replaced and the matching substitution: (defstructure eq-operator rule pos matching).

As we said in section 2, every reduction relation is given by concrete versions of legal, reduce-one-step and reducible. In the equational case:

- (eq-legal term op R) tests if the rule of the operator op is in R, and can be applied to term at the position indicated by the operator (using the matching in op).
- (eq-reduce-one-step term op) replaces the subterm indicated by the position of the operator op, by the corresponding instance (using matching) of the right-hand side of the rule of the operator.
- (eq-reducible term R) returns a legal equational operator to apply, whenever it exists, or nil otherwise.

Note that for every fixed term rewriting system R a particular reduction relation is defined. The rewriting counterpart of the abstract equivalence equiv-p can be defined in an analogous way: (eq-equiv-p t1 t2 p R) tests if p is a proof of the equivalence of t1 and t2 in the equational theory of R. Due to the lack of space, we do not give the definitions here. Recall also from section 2 that two theorems (assumed as axioms in the general framework) have to be proved to state the relationship between eq-legal and eq-reducible. We proved them:

Formalizing term rewriting in this way, we proved a number of results about term rewriting systems. In the following subsections, two relevant examples are sketched.

3.1 Equational theories and an algebra of proofs

An equivalence relation on first-order terms is a congruence if it is stable (closed under instantiation) and compatible (closed under inclusion in contexts). Equational consequence, $E \models s = t$, can be alternatively defined as the least congruence relation containing E. In order to justify that the above described representation is appropriate, it would be suitable to prove that, for a given E, the relation

```
(defthm eq-equiv-p-reflexive (eq-equiv-p term term nil E))
(defthm eq-equiv-p-symmetric
 (implies (eq-equiv-p t1 t2 p E)
           (eq-equiv-p t2 t1 (inverse-proof p) E))
(defthm eq-equiv-p-transitive
 (implies (and (eq-equiv-p t1 t2 p E) (eq-equiv-p t2 t3 q E))
                (eq-equiv-p t1 t3 (proof-concat p q) E))
(defthm eq-equiv-p-stable
  (implies (eq-equiv-p t1 t2 p E)
           (eq-equiv-p (instance t1 sigma) (instance t2 sigma)
                       (eq-proof-instance p sigma) E)))
(defthm eq-equiv-p-compatible
 (implies (and (eq-equiv-p t1 t2 p E) (positionp pos term))
       (eq-equiv-p (replace-term term pos t1)
                   (replace-term term pos t2)
                   (eq-proof-context p term pos) E))
```

Fig. 4. Congruence: an algebra of proofs

established by (eq-equiv-p t1 t2 p E), is the least congruence containing E (formally speaking, p has to be understood as existentially quantified).

We proved it in ACL2. In figure 4 we sketch part of our formalization showing that eq-equiv-p is a congruence. The ACL2 proof obtained is a good example of the benefits gained by considering proofs as objects that can be transformed to obtain new proofs. Following Bachmair [2], we can define an "algebra" of proofs, a set of operations acting on proofs: proof-concat to concatenate proofs, inverse-proof to obtain the reverse proof, eq-proof-instance, to instantiate the elements involved in the proof and eq-proof-context to include the elements of the proof as subterms of a common term. The empty proof nil can be seen as a proof constant. Each of these operations corresponds with one of the properties needed to show that eq-equiv-p is a congruence. The theorems are proved easily by ACL2, with minor help from the user.

3.2 The critical pair theorem

The main result we have proved is the critical pair theorem: a rewrite system R is locally confluent iff every critical pair obtained with rules in R is joinable. This result is formalized in our framework and proved guiding the system to the classical proof given in the literature (see [1] for example).

In item (a) of figure 5, a term rewriting system (RLC) is partially defined assuming the property of joinability of its critical pairs. The partially defined

```
;;; (a) A TRS with joinable critical pairs
(encapsulate
 ((RLC () t) (transform-cp (11 r1 pos 12 r2) t))
 (defthm RLC-joinable-critical-pairs
   (implies
     (and (member (cons 11 r1) (RLC)) (member (cons 12 r2) (RLC))
          (positionp pos 11) (not (variable-p (occurence 11 pos))))
      (let* ((cp-r (cp-r l1 r1 pos l2 r2)))
       (implies cp-r
        (and (eq-equiv-p (lhs cp-r) (rhs cp-r)
                         (transform-cp l1 r1 pos l2 r2) (RLC))
             (steps-valley (transform-cp l1 r1 pos l2 r2))))))))
;;; (b) Theorem proved:
(defun transform-eq-local-peak (p) ...)
(defthm critical-pair-theorem
   (let ((valley (transform-eq-local-peak p)))
     (implies (and (eq-equiv-p t1 t2 p (RLC)) (local-peak-p p))
              (and (steps-valley valley)
                   (eq-equiv-p t1 t2 valley (RLC))))))
```

Fig. 5. The critical pair theorem

function (transform-cp 11 r1 pos 12 r2) is assumed to obtain a valley proof for the critical pair determined by the rules (11 . r1) and (12 . r2) at the non-variable position pos of 11. The function (cp-r 11 r1 pos 12 r2) computes such a critical pair, whenever it exists (after prior renaming of the variables of the rules, in order to get them standardized apart).

To prove the critical pair theorem in our formalization, we have to define a function transform-eq-local-peak and prove that it transforms every equational local peak proof to an equivalent valley proof. The final theorem is shown in item (b) of figure 5. The ACL2 proof of this theorem is the largest proof we developed. Due to the lack of space, we cannot describe here the proof effort. We urge the interested reader to see the web page.

This theorem and the theorems described in Section 2 for abstract reduction relations were used to prove that equational theories described by a terminating TRS such that every critical pair has a common normal form are decidable. This result (which some authors call the Knuth-Bendix theorem) is easily obtained by functional instantiation from the abstract case, taking advantage of the fact that the whole formalization is done in the same framework. Note how this last result can be used to "certify" decision procedures for equational theories defined by confluent and terminating TRSs.

4 Conclusions and further work

We have presented a case study of using the ACL2 system as a metalanguage to formalize properties of object proof systems (abstract reductions and equational logic) in it. It should be stressed that the task of proving in ACL2 is not trivial. As claimed in [6], difficulties come from "the complexity of the whole enterprise of formal proofs", rather than from the complexity of ACL2. A typical proof effort consists of formalizing the problem, and guiding the prover to a preconceived "hand proof", by decomposing the proof into intermediate lemmas. Most of our lemmas are proved mainly by simplification and induction, without hints from the user. If one lemma is not proved in a first attempt, then additional lemmas are often needed, as suggested by inspecting the failed proof (for example, the proof of the critical pair theorem needed more than one hundred lemmas and fifty auxiliary definitions). Nevertheless, proofs can be simpler if a good library of previous results (books in the ACL2 terminology) is used. We think our work provides a good collection of books to be reused in further verification efforts.

Our formalization has the following main features:

- Reduction relations and their properties are stated in a very general framework, as explained in section 2.
- The concept of proof is a key notion in our formalization. Proofs are treated as objects that can be transformed to obtain new proofs.
- Functional instantiation is extensively used as a way of exporting results from the abstract case to the concrete case of term rewriting systems.

Some related work has been done in the formalization of abstract reduction relations in other theorem proving systems, mostly as part of formalizations on the λ -calculus. For example, Huet [5] in the Coq system or Nipkow [11] in Isabelle/HOL. A comparison is difficult because our goal was different and, more important, the logics involved are significantly different: ACL2 logic is a much weaker logic than those of Coq or HOL. A more related work is Shankar [13], using Nqthm. Although his work is on the concrete reduction relation from the λ -calculus and he does not deal with the abstract case, some of his ideas are reflected in our work.

To our knowledge, no formalization of term rewriting systems has been done yet and consequently the formal proofs of their properties presented here are the first ones we know that have been performed using a theorem prover.

We think the results presented here are important for two reasons. From a theoretical point of view, it is shown that a very weak logic can be used to formalize properties of TRSs. From a practical point of view, this is an example of how formal methods can help in the design of symbolic computation systems. Usually, algebraic techniques are applied to the design of proof procedures in automated deduction. We show how benefits can be obtained in the reverse direction: automated deduction used as a tool to "certify" components of symbolic computation systems. Since ACL2 is also a programming language, this paper shows how computing and proving tasks can be mixed. Although a fully verified

computer algebra system is currently beyond our possibilities, the guard verification mechanism [6] can be used to obtain verified Lisp code (executable in *any* compliant Common Lisp) for some basic procedures of term rewriting systems. There are also several ways in which this work can be extended. For example:

- In order to obtain certified decision procedures for some equational theories (or for the word problem of some finitely presented algebras) work has to be done to formalize in ACL2 well-known terminating term orderings (recursive path orderings, Knuth-Bendix orderings, etc.). Maybe some problems will arise due to the restricted notion of noetherianity supported by ACL2.
- The work presented in [10] suggests another application of this work: other theorem provers can be combined with ACL2 in order to obtain mechanically verified decision algorithms for some equational theories.
- Our goal in the long term is to obtain a certified completion procedure written in Common Lisp. Although for the moment this may be far from the current status of our development, we think the work presented here is a good starting point.

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