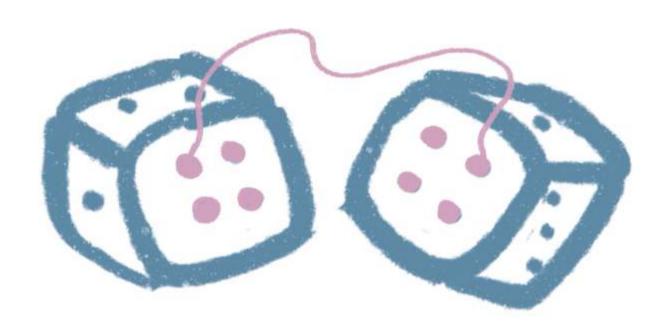
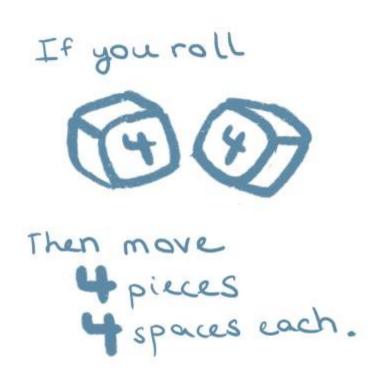
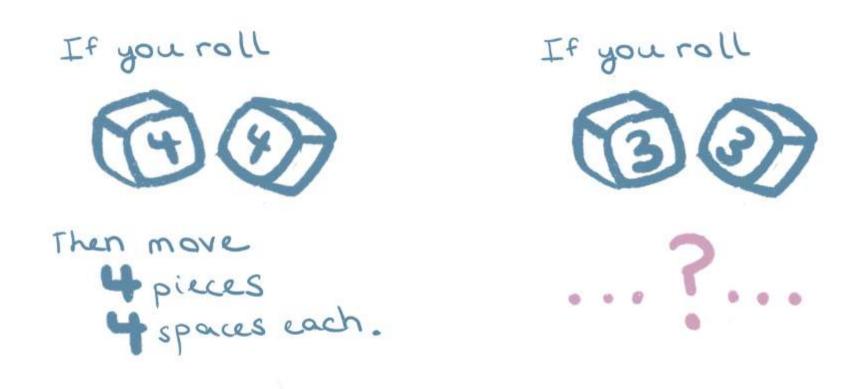
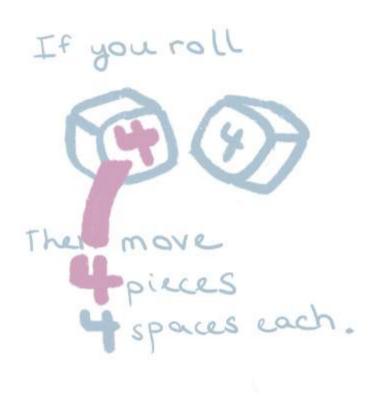
# Automatically Generalizing Proofs Containing Linked Constants



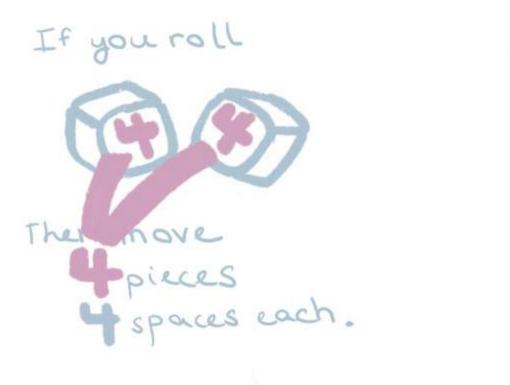
Anshula Gandhi | PhD Candidate, University of Cambridge
Anand Rao Tadipatri | PhD Candidate, University of Cambridge
Timothy Gowers | Professor, University of Cambridge



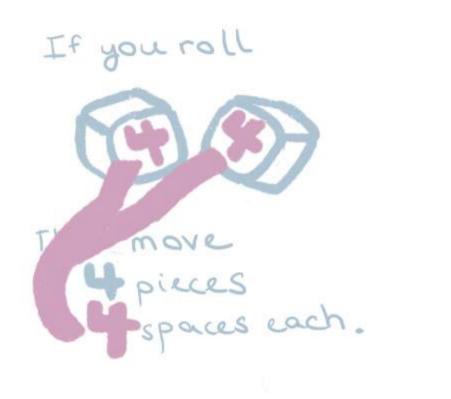








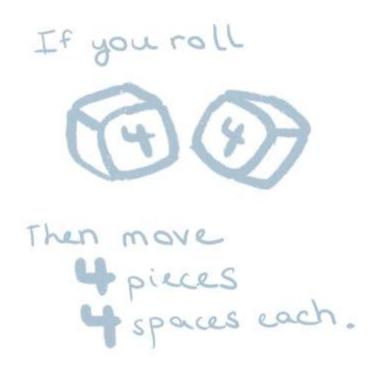


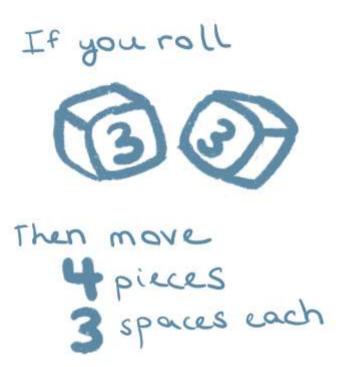


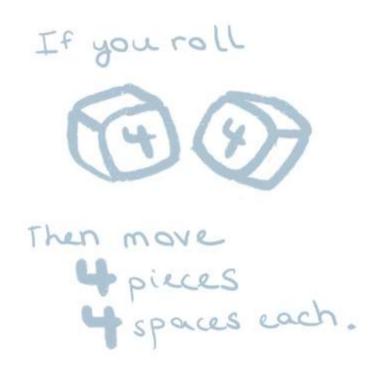


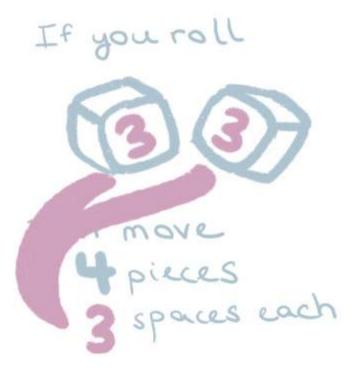


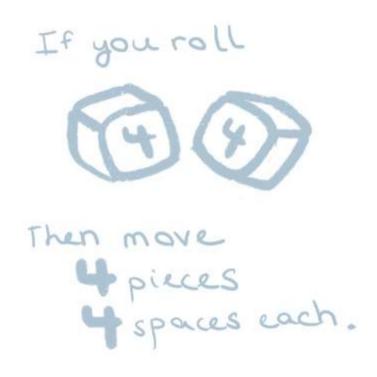






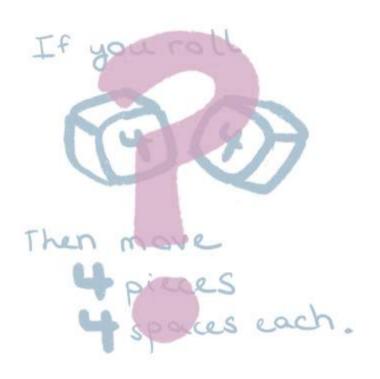








Generalization is more difficult when the expression you want to generalize appears multiple times.



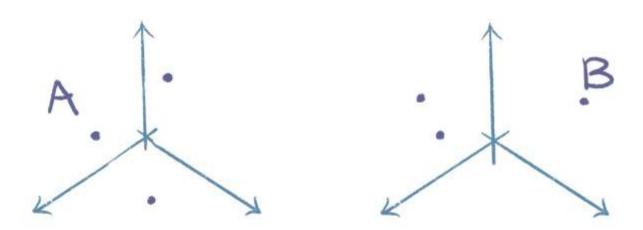


So often (but of course not always), the fewer repeated constants, the easier the generalization.

Looking at a math proof, we don't need to *guess* which constants are linked. We *know*.

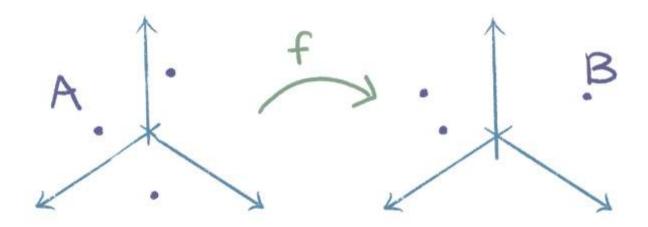
Looking at a math proof, we don't need to *guess* which constants are linked. We *know*.

Theorem: Consider sets  $A\subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  and  $B\subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$ , where |A|=3 and |B|=3.



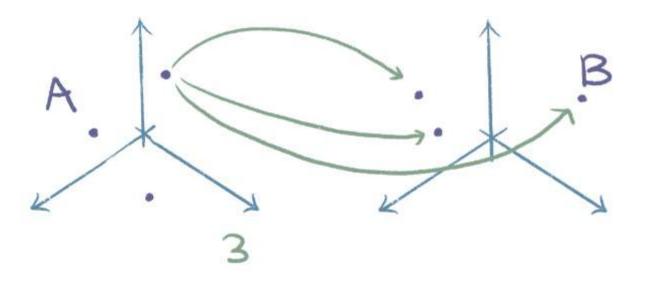
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Theorem: Consider sets  $A\subseteq\mathbb{R}^3$  and  $B\subseteq\mathbb{R}^3$ , where |A|=3 and |B|=3. The number of functions  $f:A\to B$  is  $3^3$ .



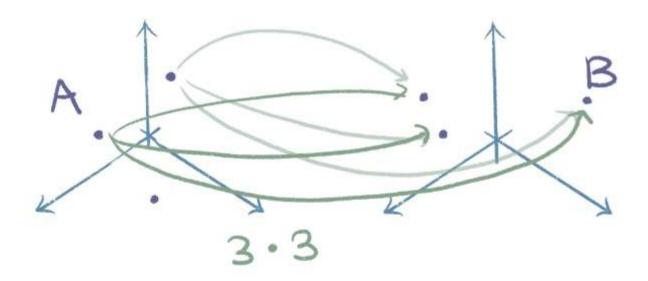
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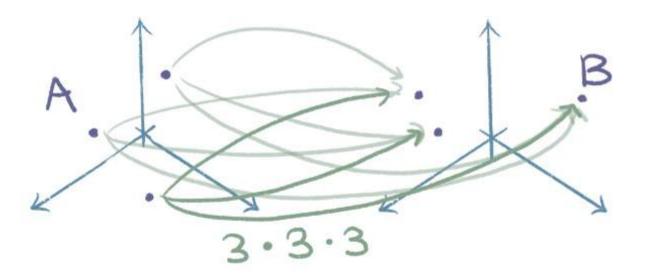
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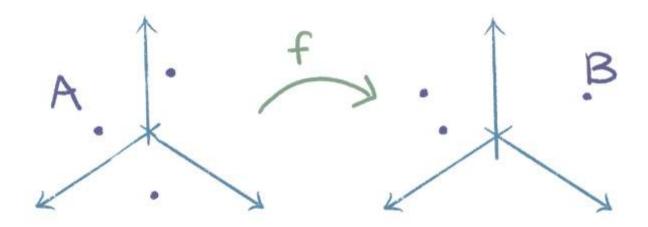
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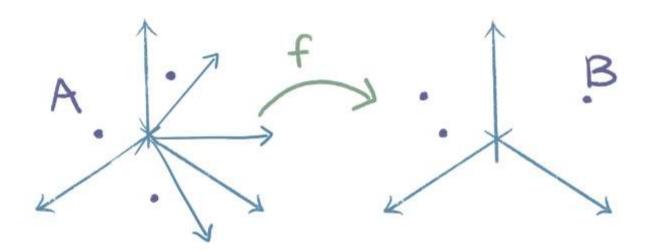
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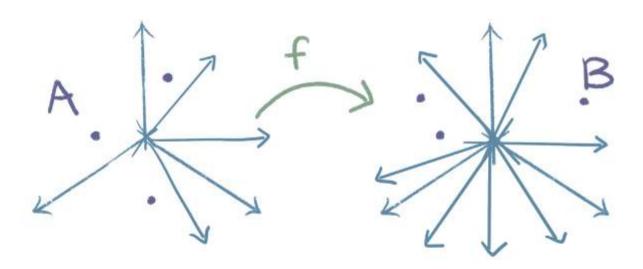
Looking at a math proof, we don't need to *guess* which constants are linked. We *know*.

Theorem: Consider sets  $A\subseteq\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $B\subseteq\mathbb{R}^3$ , where |A|=3 and |B|=3. The number of functions  $f:A\to B$  is  $3^3$ .



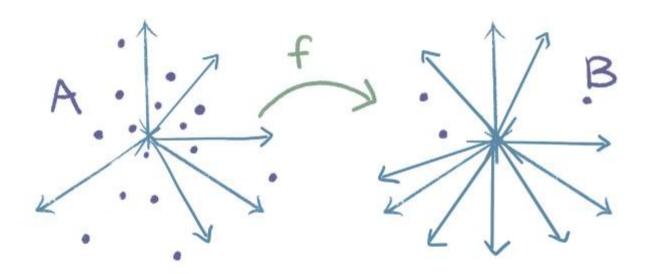
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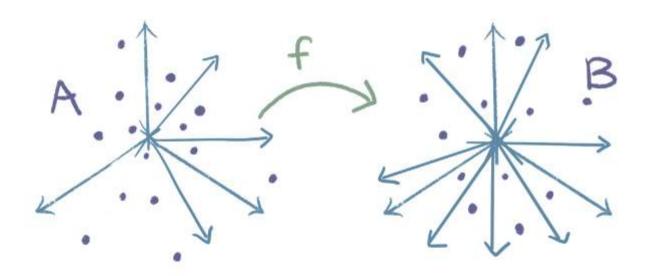
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Theorem: Consider sets  $A\subseteq\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $B\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n$ , where |A|= and |B|= 3. The number of functions  $f:A\to B$  is 3 $\overset{\bullet}{.}$ .



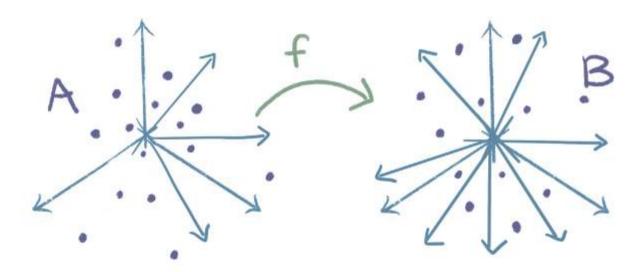
Looking at a math proof, we don't need to *guess* which constants are linked. We *know*.

Theorem: Consider sets  $A\subseteq\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $B\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $|A|=\mathbf{a}$  and  $|B|=\mathbf{b}$ . The number of functions  $f:A\to B$  is



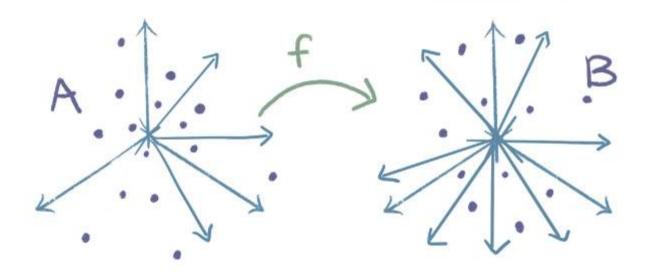
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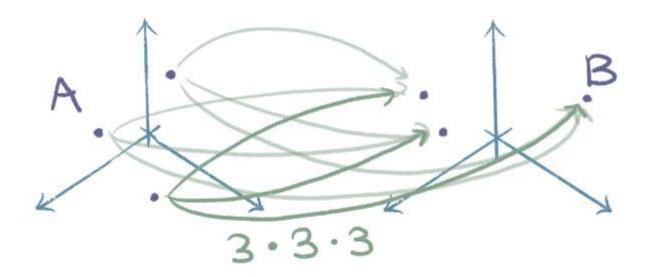
Looking at a math proof, we don't need to *guess* which constants are linked. We *know*.

Theorem: Consider sets  $A\subseteq\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $B\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $|A|=\mathbf{d}$  and  $|B|=\mathbf{b}$ . The number of functions  $f:A\to B$  is



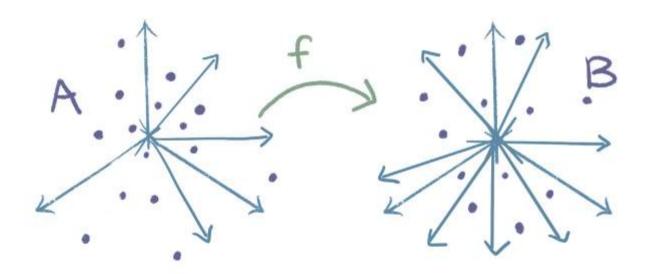
Looking at a math proof, we don't need to *guess* which constants are linked. We *know* **from the proof**.

Theorem: Consider sets  $A\subseteq\mathbb{R}^3$  and  $B\subseteq\mathbb{R}^3$ , where |A|=3 and |B|=3. The number of functions  $f:A\to B$  is  $3^3$ .



Looking at a math proof, we don't need to *guess* which constants are linked. We *know* **from the proof**.

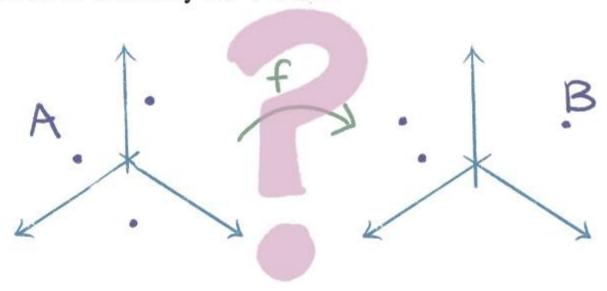
Theorem: Consider sets  $A\subseteq\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $B\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n$ , where |A|= and |B|= b. The number of functions  $f:A\to B$  is b.



A mathematician equipped with the proof would never generalize...

- to something that isn't true (e.g. generalizing all "3"s arbitrarily)...

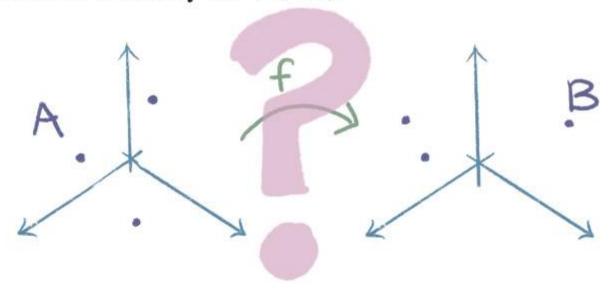
Theorem: Consider sets  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , where |A| = a and |B| = b. The number of functions  $f: A \to B$  is m.



A mathematician equipped with the proof would never generalize...

- to something over-specific (generalizing all "3"s to the same "n")...

Theorem: Consider sets  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , where |A| = n and |B| = n. The number of functions  $f: A \to B$  is n.

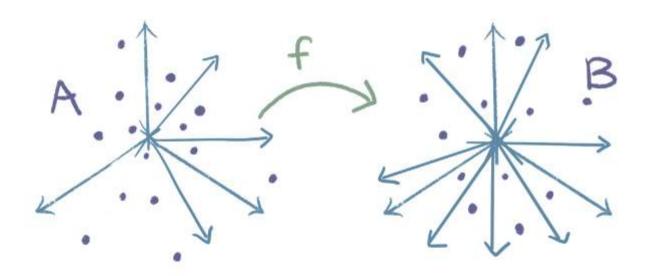


But without a proof, we might come up with generalizations that suffer from these suboptimalities.



How can we mechanize this generalization process, taking advantage of the proof?

Theorem: Consider sets  $A\subseteq\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $B\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $|A|=\mathbf{d}$  and  $|B|=\mathbf{b}$ . The number of functions  $f:A\to B$  is



...without generalizing to something that isn't true?

- ?

...without generalizing to something overly specific?

- ?

...without generalizing to something that isn't true (like below)?

```
Theorem: Consider sets A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m and B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, where |A| = a and |B| = b.
The number of functions f: A \to B is m.
```

...without generalizing to something overly specific?

- ?

...without generalizing to something that isn't true?

- (Already done) An approach is suggested by "Generalization in type theory based proof assistants" by Olivier Pons.

...without generalizing to something overly specific?

- ?

...without generalizing to something that isn't true?

 (Already done) An approach is suggested by "Generalization in type theory based proof assistants" by Olivier Pons.

...without generalizing to something overly specific (like below)?

Theorem: Consider sets  $A\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $B\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n$ , where |A|=n and |B|=n. The number of functions  $f:A\to B$  is n.

...without generalizing to something that isn't true?

- (Already done) An approach is suggested by "Generalization in type theory based proof assistants" by Olivier Pons.

...without generalizing to something overly specific?

 (Our proposal) We suggest an approach (the contribution of this talk), involving unification of metavariables, which builds off the above approach by Pons.

...without generalizing to something that isn't true? (problem #1)

- (Already done) An approach is suggested by "Generalization in type theory based proof assistants" by Olivier Pons.

...without generalizing to something overly specific? (problem #2)

 (Our proposal) We suggest an approach (the contribution of this talk), involving unification of metavariables, which builds off the above approach by Pons.

The next part of this talk will delve into specifics of how we solve these two problems.

The paper (Pons, 2000) proposes an algorithm for risk-free generalization of proofs.

The paper (Pons, 2000) proposes an algorithm for risk-free generalization of proofs. We implemented it in Lean as a tactic: autogeneralize\_basic.

```
▼ Tactic state
example : True := by
                                                                           1 goal
  let _sqrt2Irrational : \neg \exists x : \mathbb{Q}, x*x = (2:\mathbb{Z}) := by \{apq \mathbb{T} \}
                                                                            sgrt2Irrational : ¬∃ x, x * x =
  autogeneralize_basic (2:Z) in _sqrt2Irrational
                                                                            _sqrt2Irrational.Gen : ∀ (n : Z),
                                                                            Prime n \rightarrow \neg \exists x, x * x = tn
                                                                            - True
                                                                           ▼Messages (1)
                                                                            ▼AutoGeneralizeDemo3000.lean:31:2
                                                                             Successfully
                                                                             generalized
                                                                               _sqrt2Irrational
                                                                               sgrt2Irrational.Gen
                                                                             by abstracting 2.
```

Note, however, that the algorithm does not generate the theorem that the square root of any non-perfect-square is irrational (which is also true) – because that is not evident in the proof term.

The algorithm doesn't determine the most general version of a statement – it determines the most general version of a statement that the given proof allows.

So we start from the proof that 2 has an irrational square root:

```
_sqrt2Irrational : \neg \exists x, x * x = \uparrow 2
```

And generalize to the proof that any prime has an irrational square root:

```
_sqrt2Irrational.Gen : \forall (n : \mathbb{Z}),
Prime n → \neg\exists x, x * x = \uparrown
```

Pons's algorithm can be implemented in any type-theory-based theorem prover (it was initially implemented in Rocq, and we implemented it in Lean).

How does the algorithm work?

Suppose we are given ...

- a proof (e.g. that the square root of 2 is irrational).
- an expression to generalize in the proof (e.g. 2).

What do we do?

1. Look at the proof.

Why? To check which properties of "2" are actually used in the proof.

1. Look at the proof.

```
¬∃ x:0. x * x = 2 :=
irrat def' 2 fun h =>
 Exists.casesOn h fun a h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun b h =>
     And, casesOn h fun copr h =>
        let_fun a_div := let_fun c := (Prime.dvd_mul Int.prime_two).mp
              (dvd iff exists eq mul right.mpr
                (Exists.intro (b * b)
                  (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun a => a * a = a) (mul assoc 2 b b).symm))
                    (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun a => a = 2 * b * b) h)) (Eq.refl (2 * b * b)))));
          Or.casesOn (motive := fun t \Rightarrow c = t \rightarrow 2 | a) c (fun h h 1 \Rightarrow h) (fun h h 1 \Rightarrow h) (Eq.refl c);
        let fun a is pk := dvd iff exists eq mul right.mp a div;
        Exists.casesOn a is pk fun k hk =>
          let fun h := (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a => a * a = 2 * b * b) hk) h).symm;
          let fun b div := let fun c := (Prime.dvd mul Int.prime two).mp
                (dvd_iff_exists_eq_mul_left.mpr
                  (Exists.intro (k * k)
                    (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a => b * b = a) (mul_assoc k k 2).symm)
                      (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun _a => b * b = k * _a) (mul_comm 2 k))
                        ((Int.mul_eq_mul_left_iff (Prime.ne_zero Int.prime_two)).mp
                          (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a => 2 * (b * b) = a) (mul assoc 2 k (2 * k)))
                             (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun _a => _a = 2 * k * (2 * k)) (mul_assoc 2 b b)) h))))));
            Or.casesOn (motive := fun t => c = t \rightarrow 2 | b) c (fun h h 1 => h) (fun h h 1 => h) (Eq.refl c);
          let fun p dvd gcd := (dvd gcd iff 2 a b).mpr { left := a div, right := b div };
          Prime.not dvd one Int.prime two (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a => 2 | a) copr) p dvd gcd)
```

 Look at the proof term. It contains many identifiers (lemmas or inference rules).

```
¬3 x:0, x * x = 2 :=
irrat def' 2 fun h =>
 Exists.casesOn h fun a h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun b h =>
      And casesOn h fun copr h =>
        let fun a div := let fun c := (Prime.dvd mul Int.prime two).mp
              (dvd iff exists eq mul right.mpr
                (Exists.intro (b * b)
                  (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => a * a = _a) (mul_assoc 2 b b).symm))
                    (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun a => a = 2 * b * b) h)) (Eq.refl (2 * b * b)))));
          Or.casesOn (motive := fun t \Rightarrow c = t \rightarrow 2 | a) c (fun h h 1 \Rightarrow h) (fun h h 1 \Rightarrow h) (Eq.refl c);
        let fun a is pk := dvd iff exists eq mul right mp a div;
        Exists.casesOn a is pk fun k hk =>
          let fun h := (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a => a * a = 2 * b * b) hk) h) .symm;
          let_fun b_div := let_fun c :=(Prime.dvd mul Int.prime_two).mp
                (dvd iff exists ed mul left.mpr
                  (Exists.intro (k * k)
                    (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun _a => b * b = _a) (mul assoc k k 2) symm)
                      (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a => b * b = k * a) (mul comm 2 k))
                        ((Int.mul eq mul left iff (Prime.ne zero Int.prime two)).mp
                          (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a => 2 * (b * b) = a) (mul assoc 2 k (2 * k)))
                             (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun _a => _a = 2 * k * (2 * k)) (mul_assoc 2 b b)) h))))));
            Or.casesOn (motive := fun t => c = t \rightarrow 2 | b) c (fun h h 1 => h) (fun h h 1 => h) (Eq.refl c);
          let fun p dvd gcd := (dvd gcd iff 2 a b).mpr { left := a div, right := b div };
          Prime.not dvd one Int.prime two (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a => 2 l a) copr) p dvd gcd)
```

1. For each identifier (a lemma or an inference rule) in the proof...

```
mp (congrArg (fun _a => b '
q.mp (congrArg (fun _a => b
((Int.mul_eq_mul_left_iff (
(Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a
```

1. For each identifier (a lemma or an inference rule) in the proof...

```
(id (congrArg (fun _a => a * a =
)r (id (congrArg (fun _a => _a =
ive := fun t => c = t → 2 | a) c
= dvd_iff_exists_eq_mul_right.mp
is nk fun k hk =>
```

1. For each identifier (a lemma or an inference rule) in the proof...

```
p (congrArg (fun _a => 2 *
.mp (congrArg (fun _a => _;
:= fun t => c = t → 2 | b)
(dvd_gcd_iff 2 a b).mpr {
```

 For each identifier (a lemma or an inference rule) in the proof, examine its statement (type).

```
Prime.dvd_mul.{u_1} {α : Type u_1} [inst† : CommMonoidWithZero α]
{p : α} (hp : Prime p) {a b : α} :
    p | a * b → p | a v p | b
: := (Prime.dvd_mul Int.prime_two).mp
nul_right.mpr
' b)
```

 For each identifier (a lemma or an inference rule) in the proof, examine its statement.

 For each identifier (a lemma or inference rule) in the proof, examine its statement.

 For each identifier (a lemma or inference rule) in the proof, examine its statement.

Collect all identifiers whose statement contains the expression e to be generalized.

```
exists_eq_mul_right.{u_1} {\alpha : Type u_1} [instt : Semigroup \alpha]
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                               Eq. symm. (u) (a : Sort u) (a b : a) (h : a = b) :
Prime.dvd_mul.{u_1} {\alpha : Type u_1} [inst : CommMonoidWithZero \alpha] {\alpha : \alpha :
```

Collect all identifiers whose statement contains the expression e to be generalized.

Collect all identifiers whose statement (type) contains the expression e to be generalized.

Replace all instances of e with a metavariable (hole) with the same type.

```
73 x:0, x * x = 2n :=
                                 replace with
     And casesOn h fun copr h =>
                                              vd mul @gen prime).
                  (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun a => a * a =
       let fun a is pk := dvd iff
       Exists casesOn a is pk fun k hk =>
          let_fun h := (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun _a => _a * _a = 7n * b * b) hk) h).symm;
          let fun b div := let fun c := (Prime.dvd mul ?gen prime).mp
                (dvd iff_exists_eq_mul_left.mpr
                  (Exists intro (k * K)
                    (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun _a => b * b = _a) (mul_assoc k k ?h) symm)
                      (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a \Rightarrow b * b = k * a) (mul comm 2n k)
                        ((Int.mul_eq_mul_left_iff (Prime.ne_zero ?gen_prime)).mp
                          (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a => 7n * (b * b) = a) (mul assoc 7n k (7n * k)))
                            (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun _a >> a = 7n * k * (7n * k)) (mul assoc 7n b b)) h)))))
           Or cases On (motive := fun t \Rightarrow c = t \rightarrow Tn | b) c (fun h h 1 \Rightarrow h) (fun h b 1 \Rightarrow h) (Eq. refl c):
          let fun p dvd gcd := (dvd gcd iff ?n a b).mpr { left := a div, right := b div };
          Prime not dvd one ?gen prime (Eq.mp (congrArg (fun a => 2n 1 a) copr) p dvd gcd)
```

4. For any identifier whose statement contains **e** (that is, for any proposition about **e** used in the proof)...

 For any identifier whose statement contains e (that is, for any proposition about e used in the proof), replace it with a metavariable representing the generalized proposition.

5. Add the metavariables (holes) as local hypotheses.

```
¬∃ x:Q, x * x = ?n :=

irrat_def' ?n fun h =>
...

congrArg (fun _a => _a * _a = ?n * b * b) hk) h)
...

(Prime.dvd_mul ?gen_prime).mp
...
```

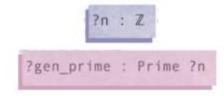
- Remember

```
?n : Z
?gen_prime : Prime ?n
```

5. Add the metavariables (holes) as local hypotheses.

```
irrat_def' ?n fun h =>
    . . .
    congrArg (fun _a => _a * _a = ?n * b * b) hk) h)
    . . .
    (Prime.dvd_mul ?gen_prime).mp
    . . .
```

- Remember



5. Add the metavariables (holes) as local hypotheses.

```
fun n gen_prime =>
  irrat_def' n fun h =>
    . . .
    congrArg (fun _a => _a * _a = n * b * b) hk) h)
    . . .
    (Prime.dvd_mul gen_prime).mp
    . . .
```

5. Add the metavariables (holes) as local hypotheses.

```
fun n gen_prime =>
  irrat_def' n fun h =>
    . . .
    congrArg (fun _a => _a * _a = n * b * b) hk) h)
    . . .
    (Prime.dvd_mul gen_prime).mp
    . . .
```

5. Add the metavariables (holes) as local hypotheses. (That is, we abstract the metavariables in the proof term into bound variables.)

```
fun n gen_prime =>
  irrat_def' n fun h =>
    . . .
  congrArg (fun _a => _a * _a = n * b * b) hk) h)
    . . .
  (Prime.dvd_mul gen_prime).mp
    . . .
```

 Determine the statement of the generalized theorem (In type theory, this can be done automatically by inferring the type of the generalized proof.)

```
V (n : Z), Prime n → ¬∃ x:Q, x * x = n :=

fun n gen_prime =>
    irrat_def' n fun h =>
        . . .
    congrArg (fun _a => _a * _a = n * b * b) hk) h)
        . . .
    (Prime.dvd_mul gen_prime).mp
        . . .
```

#### Summary: Given ...

- a proof **p** of theorem **t**
- an expression e to generalize in t

...the generalization algorithm works as follows:

- Look at the proof term p. For each identifier in the proof, examine its statement.
- Collect all identifiers whose statement contains the expression e to be generalized.
- Replace all instances of e in the proof term with a metavariable of the same type.
- For any identifier whose statement contains e, replace it with a metavariable representing the generalized proposition.
- 5. Add the metavariables (holes) as local hypotheses.
- 6. Determine the statement of the generalized theorem.

The idea here is very simple. Given ...

- a proof
- an expression e to generalize in the proof

...the generalization algorithm works as follows:

 if we ever use a fact about e in the proof, then we add any facts we used about e as hypotheses of the generalized proof. (This lets us reuse most of the original proof.)

This generalization mechanism works fine for this example...

This generalization mechanism works fine for this example...

```
example : True := by

let _sqrt2Irrational : Irrational (sqrt 2) := b

_sqrt2Irrational : Irrational (sqrt 2)

_sqrt2Irrational : Irrational (sqrt 2)

_sqrt2Irrational.Gen : ∀ (n : N),

Nat.Prime n → Irrational (sqrt tn)

⊢ True
```

But when the expression to generalize (e.g. "2") occurs multiple times in the statement...

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This is saying:

For all primes p,  $\sqrt{p} + p$  is irrational.

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This is saying:

For all primes p,  $\sqrt{p} + p$  is irrational.

The above result is technically true, but doesn't take full advantage of the proof to determine a more general statement.

So we build on Pons's mechanism (which we've implemented in Lean as autogeneralize\_basic)...

So we build on Pons's mechanism (which we've implemented in Lean as autogeneralize\_basic)...And create a new mechanism to generalize theorems more robustly (and name it autogeneralize).

```
example : True := by

let _sum_irrat : Irrational ((sqrt (2:N)) + 2) := by

autogeneralize (2:N) in _sum_irrat

sum_irrat : Irrational (sqrt ↑2 + 2)

_sum_irrat.Gen : ∀ (n : N), Nat.Prime n → ∀ (n_1 : N), Irrational (sqrt ↑n + ↑n_1)

⊢ True
```

This is saying:

For any prime p and natural number  $n, \sqrt{p} + n$  is irrational.

### But...sometimes this generalization isn't general enough.

So we build on Pons's mechanism (which we've implemented in Lean as autogeneralize\_basic)...And create a new mechanism to generalize theorems more robustly (and name it autogeneralize).

```
example : True := by

let _sum_irrat : Irrational ((sqrt (2:N)) + 2) := by

autogeneralize (2:N) in _sum irrat

sum_irrat : Irrational (sqrt t2 + 2)

_sum_irrat.Gen : ∀ (n : N), Nat.Prime n → ∀

(n_1 : N), Irrational (sqrt tn + tn_1)

⊢ True
```

We go into details on how this more robust mechanism works in the following slides.

We need to disambiguate constants, somehow.

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Intuitively, to do this, we "check which occurrences of the constant are linked by the proof".

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More technically, but still somewhat vaguely, we "check which metavariables unify in the generalized proof."

We need to disambiguate constants, somehow.

More technically, but still somewhat vaguely, we "check which metavariables unify in the generalized proof."

Let's go into details in an example.

First, given a proof term...

```
Irrational.add_nat 2
  (irrat_def 2 fun h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun a h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun b h =>
    And.casesOn h fun copr h => let_fun a_div := let_fun c :=
        (Nat.Prime.dvd_mul Nat.prime_two).mp (dvd_iff_exists_eq_mul_right.mpr
        (Exists.intro (b * b)
        (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => a * a = _a) (mul_assoc 2 b b).symm))
        (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => _a = 2 * b * b) h)) (Eq.refl (2 * b * b))))));
        ...
```

First, given a proof term, generalize each instance of **e** to *different* metavariables.

```
Irrational.add_nat ?m.484
  (irrat_def ?m.0 fun h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun a h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun b h =>
        And.casesOn h fun copr h => let_fun a_div := let_fun c :=
            (Nat.Prime.dvd_mul ?gen_prime).mp (dvd_iff_exists_eq_mul_right.mpr
            (Exists.intro (b * b)
            (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => a * a = _a) (mul_assoc ?m.1 b b).symm))
            (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => _a = ?m.2 * b * b) h)) (Eq.refl (?m.3 * b * b))))));
            ...
```

First, given a proof term, generalize each instance of **e** to *different* metavariables.

```
Irrational.add_nat ?m.484
  (irrat_def ?m.0 fun h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun a h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun b h =>
    And.casesOn h fun copr h => let_fun a_div := let_fun c :=
        (Nat.Prime.dvd_mul ?gen_prime).mp (dvd_iff_exists_eq_mul_right.mpr
        (Exists.intro (b * b)
        (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => a * a = _a) (mul_assoc ?m.1 b b).symm))
        (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => _a = ?m.2 * b * b) h)) (Eq.refl (?m.3 * b * b))))));
        ...
```

Intuitively, this means every time we see a "2" in the proof, we abstract it to different arbitrary number.

First, given a proof term, generalize each instance of **e** to *different* metavariables.

```
Irrational.add_nat ?m.484
  (irrat_def ?m.0 fun h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun a h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun b h =>
        And.casesOn h fun copr h => let_fun a_div := let_fun c :=
            (Nat.Prime.dvd_mul ?gen_prime).mp (dvd_iff_exists_eq_mul_right.mpr
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            (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => a * a = _a) (mul_assoc ?m.1 b b).symm))
            (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => _a = ?m.2 * b * b) h)) (Eq.refl (?m.3 * b * b))))));
            ...
```

Intuitively, this means every time we see a "2" in the proof, we abstract it to different arbitrary number. But of course, this gives us a proof that barely makes sense.

First, given a proof term, generalize each instance of **e** to *different* metavariables.

One way you can see how nonsensical this is: when we add all of these holes as local hypotheses...we get way too many local hypothesis (more than 484!).

How to fix it?

Intuitively: we want to make sure whenever we prove something about the variable under the square root, we use the same variable. And whenever we prove something about the variable outside the square root, we use a consistently different variable.

Concretely - we need to unify metavariables in the proof.

How this can be done in a type-theoretic framework (the hard way):

- Recursively visit every function application  $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  in the proof term.
- We know
  - the types of the arguments of f
  - the inferred types of the arguments  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$
- Compare the types of f's arguments with the type of the  $a_i$ s, and set matching metavariables equal to each other.

Concretely -we need to unify metavariables in the proof.

How this can be done in a type-theoretic framework (the easy way):

 In Lean (and possibly other type-theoretic languages), simply running a type check on the proof term will unify metavariables that need to be linked.

Concretely - we need to unify metavariables in the proof.

```
Irrational.add_nat ?m.1
  (irrat_def ?m.0 fun h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun a h =>
    Exists.casesOn h fun b h =>
    And.casesOn h fun copr h => let_fun a_div := let_fun c :=
        (Nat.Prime.dvd_mul ?gen_prime).mp (dvd_iff_exists_eq_mul_right.mpr
        (Exists.intro (b * b)
        (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => a * a = _a) (mul_assoc ?m.0 b b).symm))
        (Eq.mpr (id (congrArg (fun _a => _a = ?m.0 * b * b) h)) (Eq.refl (?m.0 * b * b))))));
```

Concretely – we need to **unify metavariables** in the proof. After that, we can abstract the metavariables as before to get a more general theorem.

And now we have the result shown previously.

```
example : True := by

let _sum_irrat : Irrational ((sqrt (2:N)) + 2) := by

autogeneralize (2:N) in _sum_irrat

sum_irrat : Irrational (sqrt t2 + 2)

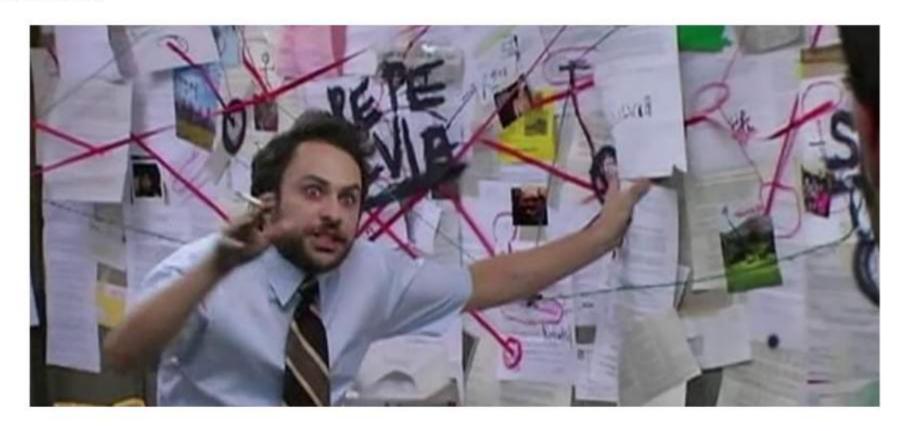
_sum_irrat.Gen : ∀ (n : N), Nat.Prime n → ∀

(n_1 : N), Irrational (sqrt tn + tn_1)

⊢ True
```

In summary, we make the type checker play the role of the conspiracy theorist...

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In summary, we make the type checker play the role of the conspiracy theorist...

The overview of how this more robust mechanism works is as follows.

#### Given ...

- a proof **p** of theorem **t**
- an expression e to generalize in t

#### The autogeneralize tactic...

- 1. For each identifier in the proof  $\mathbf{p}$ , examines its statement.
- Collects all identifier statements containing the e to be generalized.
- Replaces all instances of e in the proof term with different metavariables of the same type.
- 4. Unifies linked metavariables (by recursively unifying at function applications in the proof term.)
- For any identifier whose statement contains e, replaces it with a metavariable representing the generalized proposition.
- 6. Adds the metavariables (holes) as local hypotheses.
- Determines the statement of the generalized theorem.

We can see algorithm in action in the example we mentioned at the beginning, with counting the number of functions from a set of size 3 to a set of size 3.

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We can see this working in the example we mentioned at the beginning, with counting the number of functions from a set of size 3 to a set of size 3.

Here is the way **the basic algorithm** (autogeneralize\_basic) designed by Pons would generalize it.

```
example := by  
let fun_set : Fintype.card \alpha = 3 \rightarrow  
Fintype.card \beta = 3 \rightarrow  
fun_set.Gen : \forall (n : N),  
Fintype.card \beta = 1 \rightarrow  
Fintype.car
```

We can see this working in the example we mentioned at the beginning, with counting the number of functions from a set of size 3 to a set of size 3.

And here's how our **more robust algorithm** (autogeneralize) would generalize it.

```
example := by  

let fun_set : Fintype.card \alpha = 3 \rightarrow  
Fintype.card \beta = 3 \rightarrow  

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And here's how our **more robust algorithm** (autogeneralize) would generalize it.

```
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Fintype.card \beta = 3 \rightarrow  

Fintype.card \beta = 3 \rightarrow  

Fintype.card \beta = 3 \rightarrow  

Fintype.card \beta = 3 \rightarrow  

Fintype.card
```

Takeaway: When tactics detect relevant instances of a manipulated variable through unification, they mimic a more human-oriented style of mathematics.

Consider this theorem (originally in the Pons paper).

```
mult_permute : \forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}),
n * (m * p) = m * (n * p)
```

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```
mult_permute : \forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}),
n * (m * p) = m * (n * p)
```

But this theorem holds for more binary operators than just multiplication.

```
mult_permute : \forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}),
n * (m * p) = m * (n * p)
```

If we generalize all occurrences of multiplication to the same constant, we get a nice generalization to the fact that this equality holds for any binary operator that is commutative and associative.

```
example := by

let mult_permute : \forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}), n * (m * p)

mult_permute : \forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}), n * (m * p)

mult_permute : \forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}), n * (m * p)

mult_permute.Gen : \forall (f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}),

(\forall (n m k : \mathbb{N}), f (f n m) k = f n

(f m k)) \rightarrow (\forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}), f n m = f m

n) \rightarrow \forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}), f n (f m p) = f m

(f n p)
```

```
mult_permute : \forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}),
n * (m * p) = m * (n * p)
```

If we generalize each of the four occurrences of multiplication separately, we get a generalization to four different binary operators, and conditions about joint associativity and commutativity specific to each operator.

```
example := by

let mult_permute : \forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}), n * (m * p)

autogeneralize Mul.mul in mult_permute

autogeneralize Mul.mul in mult_permute

(\forall (n m k : \mathbb{N}), f_2 (f_3 n m) k = f_3 n n) + (\forall (n m p : \mathbb{N}), f_3 n m = f_3 m n) + (f_1 n p)
```

This abstraction is more general than Pons's. But probably less elegant.

But of course, the same generalization behavior that seems undesirable in this context (putting unnecessary hypotheses on *every* occurrence of the generalized \*)...

But of course, the same generalization behavior that seems undesirable in this context (putting unnecessary hypotheses on *every* occurrence of the generalized \*)...

- ...is desirable in the  $Irrational(\sqrt{2}+2)$  context (putting unnecessary hypotheses on *every* occurrence of the generalized 2).

But of course, the same generalization behavior that seems undesirable in this context (putting unnecessary hypotheses on *every* occurrence of the generalized \*)...

- ...is desirable in the  $Irrational(\sqrt{2}+2)$  context (putting unnecessary hypotheses on *every* occurrence of the generalized 2).
- ...and may desirable in the context of vector spaces, where joint associativity between two operators e.g. a vector-vector operator and a scalar-vector operator.

Ideally, we want this choice of generalization to be informed by the context, to strike the right balance between elegance and generality.

#### Computation rules vs. Deduction rules

We can prove that 2 times 3 is even by using **deduction rules** saying that 2 times any number is even.

```
example := by

let two_times_three_is_even : Even (2*3) := by

unfold Even; apply Exists.intro 3; rw [two_mul]

1 goal

two_times_three_is_even : Even
(2 * 3)
```

We can prove that 2 times 3 is even by using **deduction rules** saying that 2 times any number is even.

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1 goal

two_times_three_is_even : Even
(2 * 3)
```

And we can generalize the "3" in this proof.

```
example := by

let two_times_three_is_even : Even (2*3) := by

unfold Even; apply Exists.intro 3; rw [two_mul]

two_times_three_is_even : Even (2 * 3)

two_times_three_is_even.Gen : ∀

autogeneralize 3 in two_times_three_is_even

(n : N), Even (2 * n)
```

But we can also prove that 2 times 3 is even by **computing** that 2 times 3 equals 6, and then saying that 6 is even.

But we can also prove that 2 times 3 is even by **computing** that 2 times 3 equals 6, and then saying that 6 is even.

```
example := by

let two_times_three_is_even : Even (2*3) := by

simp only [Nat.reduceMul]; apply six_is_even

1 goal

two_times_three_is_even : Even
(2 * 3)
```

And we can not generalize the "3" in this proof.

```
example := by

let two_times_three_is_even : Even (2*3) := by

simp only [Nat.reduceMul]; apply six_is_even

autogeneralize 3 in two times three is_even

autogeneralize 3 in two times three is_even

computation rule was used?
```

Why?

If some part of the proof is done by **computation** or evaluation, then in Lean, the steps used in that part of proof **does not show in the proof term**.

#### Why?

If some part of the proof is done by **computation** or evaluation, then in Lean, the steps used in that part of proof **does not show in the proof term**.

This is a downside of a language like Lean (which doesn't show these computations in the proof term).

- But, this general issue (i.e. that some theorem-proving tactics are black boxes) is addressed and tackled in other languages like Beluga (by Brigitte Pientka).
- So, theorems proved in these languages may be especially amenable to proof-based generalization.

- Risky generalizers
- Proof-based generalizers

- Risky generalizers...
  - ...generalize to statements that may or may not be true.
     As such, they often rely on conjecture-disprovers to dismiss incorrect conjectures.
- Proof-based generalizers
  - ...only generalize to true statements.

- Risky generalizers...
  - ...generalize to statements that may or may not be true.
     As such, they often rely on conjecture-disprovers to dismiss incorrect conjectures
  - ...for example
    - Boyer and Moore's Generalizer in "A Computational Logic" (1979).
    - Ireland and Bundy's Generalization Proof Critic in "Productive Use of Failure" (1996).
- Proof-based generalizers
  - ...only generalize to true statements.

- Risky generalizers...
  - ...generalize to statements that may or may not be true.
     As such, they often rely on conjecture-disprovers to dismiss incorrect conjectures
- Proof-based generalizers
  - ...only generalize to true statements.
  - for example
    - Best's Typeclass Generalizer in "Automatically Generalizing Theorems Using Typeclasses" (2021).
    - Pons's Generalizer in "Generalization in type theory based proof assistants" (2000).
    - Our autogeneralize tactic.

The most obvious use case is proof reuse.

The most obvious use case is *proof reuse*.

Irrational (sqrt ↑2 + 2)

The most obvious use case is proof reuse.

```
∀ (n: N), Nat.Prime n →
∀ (n_1: N),
Irrational (sqrt ↑n + ↑n_1)
```



```
Irrational (sqrt ↑2 + 2)
```

The most obvious use case is proof reuse.

```
∀ (n: N), Nat.Prime n →
∀ (n_1: N),
Irrational (sqrt ↑n + ↑n_1)
```



instantiate V reuse

```
Irrational (sqrt ↑2 + 2)
```

Irrational (sqrt 3 + 6)

#### In action:

```
example : Irrational (sqrt 3 + 6) := by

let sum_irrat : Irrational (sqrt (2:N) + 2) := 
autogeneralize (2:N) in sum_irrat

sum_irrat : Irrational (sqrt 12 + 2)

sum_irrat : Irrational (sqrt 3 + 6)
```

#### In action:

#### In action:

```
example : Irrational (sqrt 3 + 6) := by

let sum_irrat : Irrational (sqrt (2:N) + 2) :

autogeneralize (2:N) in sum irrat

specialize sum_irrat.Gen 3 (Nat.prime_three) 6

assumption
```

But in developing this tactic, we had a very specific use case in mind...

But in developing this tactic, we had a very specific use case in mind... *learning from failure*.

By "failure" to prove a conjecture C, we mean:

- Not that the "failure" is an invalid proof of C, and the "learning" is a
  patch.
- **Rather**, that the "failure" is a *valid proof* of the negation  $\neg C$  (e.g. a counterexample to C), and the "learning" is a *generalization* of that proof that helps decrease the size of the proof search space.

Here's an example...

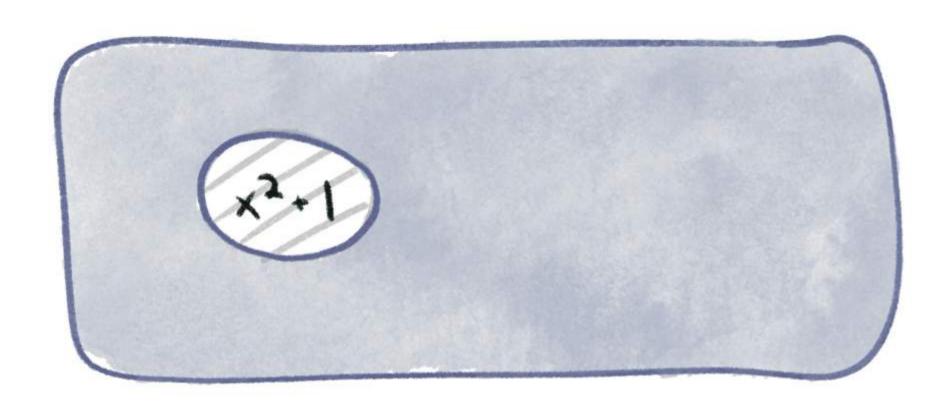
Suppose we want to answer: Which polynomials with real coefficients have a real root?

We might notice that **all degree-1 polynomials have a real root**, and generate the following conjecture...

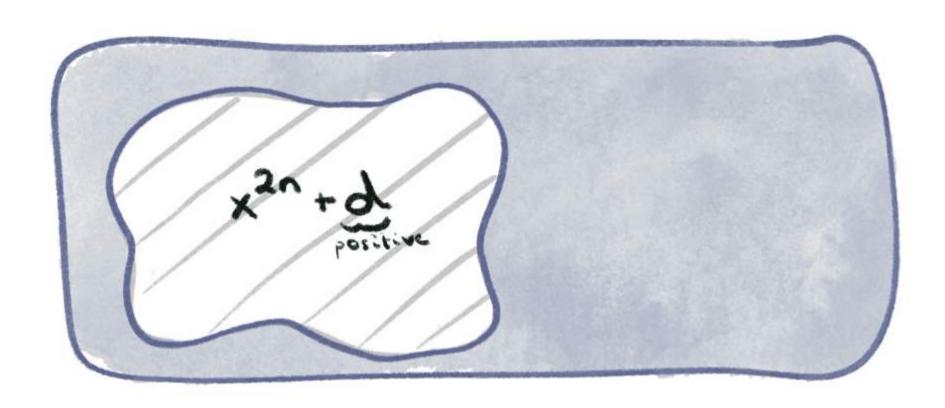
Which polynomials with real coefficients have a real root? We might...

- Generate a conjecture: Every polynomial with real coefficients has a real root.
- **Fail:** The polynomial  $x^2+1$  has no real root.
- **Generalize (learn from) the failure :** Any polynomial of the form  $x^n+d$ , where n is even and d>0 has no real root , by the autogeneralized proof.
- Apply what you learned: It's not straightforward to see whether an even-degree polynomial has a real root. We may want to turn our attention to polynomials of odd-degree.

### Polynomials with Real Coefficients and Real Roots



### Polynomials with Real Coefficients and Real Roots



We found even-degree polynomials with no real root... is it possible that we could find a degree 3 polynomial with no real root?

- **Generate a conjecture:** There exists a cubic with no real root.
- **Fail:** Every cubic polynomial has a real root. (Proof: The cubic term dominates when  $x \ll -1$  and dominates when  $1 \ll x$ , and switches sign between these two cases. So, by intermediate value theorem, the polynomial must have a real root).
- Generalize (learn from) the failure: Any odd-degree polynomial has a real root, by the autogeneralized proof.
- Apply what you learned: We can now drastically cut down on our search space – we can safely restrict our attention to characterizing which even-degree polynomials have a real root.

### Polynomials with Real Coefficients and Real Roots



### Polynomials with Real Coefficients and Real Roots



#### In general, the process is:

- Generate a conjecture.
- Fail.
- Generalize (learn from) the failure.
- Apply what you learned (for example, conjecturing the converse e.g. "no even-degree polynomial has a real root")

#### In general, the process is:

- Generate a conjecture.
- Fail.
- Generalize (learn from) the failure.
- Apply what you learned.

In general, the process is:

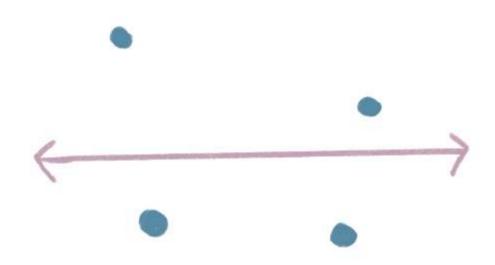
- Generate a conjecture.
- Fail.
- Generalize the failure often means autogeneralize.
- Apply what you learned.

In math, often "generalization" of failure is simply a "proof-based generalization" of failure, as above. A mathematician will trace back through the proof, and notice the "same proof" holds for a much wider set of objects than the proof was applied for.

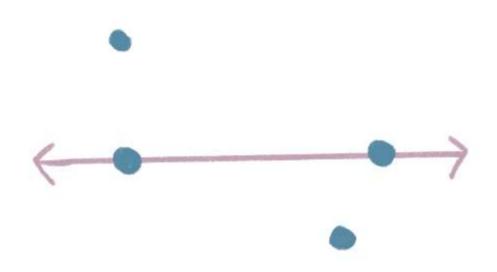
But maybe not everybody uses this exact proof-based generalization process to characterize polynomials with real roots...

The typical problem-solving process is:

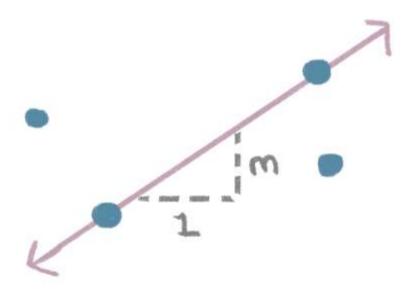
 Generate a conjecture: A moving line will pass through one point at a time. So, any appropriately translated line will bisect the set. Let's conjecture that there always exists a horizontal line which does.



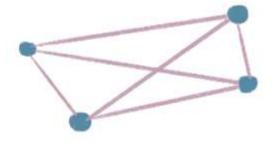
 Fail: If the point set contains two points collinear through a horizontal line, the strategy fails (and there might not exist a horizontal line which bisects the set).



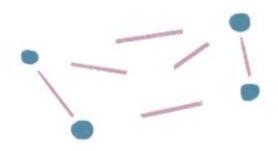
Generalize (learn from) the failure: If the point set contains two
points collinear through any line of gradient m, the strategy fails
(i.e. there might not exist a line of gradient m which bisects the
set).



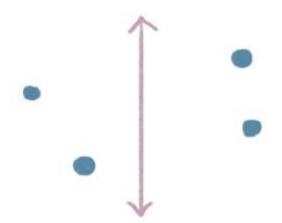
- **Apply what you learned:** Now, the strongest possible statement we could prove is the following strengthening of the inverse: If a point set contains *no* two points collinear through a line with gradient m, there does exist a line with gradient m to bisect it. Once proved, we can finish the proof by noticing at most  $\binom{2n}{2}$  such "forbidden" gradients exist, and any line with a non-forbidden gradient will work.



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The fact that so many people solve this problem in nearly the same way suggests there is **something quite natural about failure and proof-based generalization** of the failure.

Proof-based generalization is also regularly used in research mathematics to refine conjectures.

Tim Gowers & Ryan Alweiss are currently working on an open problem – a particular strengthening of the cap-set conjecture. And they came up with the formulation of the problem using (instinctive) proof-based generalization.

#### The problem statement is:

- For any particular density  $\delta \geq 0$ , we can always find a dimension n big enough so that any subset of vector space  $F_3^n$  with at least density  $\delta$  will contain a three-term arithmetic progression  $\{x,x+d,x+2d\}$  such that the difference vector  $d=e_i+e_j+e_k$  is a sum of 3 standard basis vectors.

How was this conjecture generated? Why the choice of 3 basis vectors?

#### They started with the cap-set problem:

- For any particular density  $\delta \geq 0$ , we can always find a dimension n big enough so that any subset of  $F_3^n$  with density at least  $\delta$  will contain a 3-term AP.

#### Then they did the following:

- **Generate a conjecture:** (Strengthening the above) It's possible to create such a three-term AP where the difference  $d=e_i$  between points is given by **1** standard basis vector  $e_i$ .

#### Then:

- **Fail:** For density  $\delta=1/3$ , there is no vector space  $F_3^n$  where every 1/3-dense subset contains such a 3-term AP. In particular, the 1/3-dense subset made of the vectors whose components add to  $0 \mod 3$  will contain no 3-term AP where the difference  $d=e_i$  between points given by **1** standard basis vector.

#### Then:

- **Generalize (learn from) the failure :** The same 1/3-dense subset contains no 3-term AP when the difference d between points is given by  $k \neq 0 \mod 3$  standard basis vectors.

#### Then:

- **Apply what you learned:** They generated a new conjecture: A  $\delta$ -dense subset contains a three-term AP where the difference  $e_i + e_j + e_k$  between points is given by **3** standard basis vectors.

#### Then:

- **Apply what you learned:** They generated a new conjecture: A  $\delta$ -dense subset contains a three-term AP where the difference  $e_i + e_j + e_k$  between points is given by **3** standard basis vectors.

Note that after learning from failure, mathematicians quite often conjecture the strongest thing left that *could* be true.

### Possible expressions for the difference $\boldsymbol{d}$



### Possible expressions for the difference $\boldsymbol{d}$



This autogeneralization process to find the refined cap-set conjecture was not done explicitly, but **instinctively**.

This account is a **best-guess reconstruction** of what was going on (fleetingly) in these mathematicians' minds.

And so we end up, via (human-implemented) proof-based generalization, at a mathematical research conjecture:

For any particular density  $\delta \geq 0$ , we can always find a dimension n big enough so that any  $\delta$ -dense subset of  $F_3^n$  will contain a line such that the difference vector  $d=e_i+e_j+e_k$  between points is made of the sum of  ${\bf 3}$  standard basis vectors.

These autogeneralizations typically are performed by mathematicians subconsciously, without awareness of any algorithm or heuristic.

Proof-based generalization just happens while mathematicians do math.

So there seems to be something natural about proof-based generalization, and if we want to create a human-style theorem prover, we will likely need to incorporate it.

### **Conclusion**

We've designed and implemented an algorithm to improve robustness of **proof-based generalization**....

```
example : True := by

let _sum_irrat : Irrational ((sqrt (2:N)) + 2) := by

autogeneralize (2:N) in _sum_irrat

sum_irrat : Irrational (sqrt ↑2 + 2)
_sum_irrat.Gen : ∀ (n : N), Nat.Prime n → ∀ (n_1 : N), Irrational (sqrt ↑n + ↑n_1)
⊢ True
```

... which has potential in enabling automated theorem provers to better learn from failure when finding proofs in a human-like way.