

On the Complexity of Unsatisfiable Primitive Recursively defined Σ_1 -Sentences

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Abstract. We introduce a measure of complexity based on formula occurrence within instance proofs of an inductive statement. Our measure is closely related to *Herbrand Sequent length*, but instead of capturing the number of necessary term instantiations, it captures the finite representational difficulty of a recursive sequence of proofs. We restrict ourselves to a class of unsatisfiable recursively defined negation normal form first-order sentences which captures problems of interest such as variants of the *infinitary pigeonhole principle*. Together these concepts capture a notion of *tractability*. Finally, we provide a complexity analysis of an important example and discuss the analysis of a few related sentences.

1 Introduction

Defining what it means for a logical sentence to be “difficult to prove” provides a baseline from which relative difficulty between problems may be measured. Furthermore, such a measure enables one to study the performance of a given theorem proving method with respect to a particular type of logical sentence. A quite simple example of such a measure of difficulty is provided by the TPTP library [33]. Each problem file contains a header including the percentage of theorem provers (included in system on TPTP) which can solve the problem. A quite different measure of difficulty, which does not take theorem provers into account, is a measurement based on the size of the smallest proof of the statement in a particular formalism¹. A closely related notion concerns the difficulty of proving a skolemized first-order sentence. Its complexity can be measured by considering the length of its shortest *mid-sequent* [34], a corollary of Herbrand’s theorem and cut-elimination. Propositionally, one could consider a sentence’s structural distance from a maximally complex sentence such as the propositional *Pigeonhole Principle*. All of these measures capture different notions of complexity.

Each of these measures is in some way related to the size of a statement’s proof. While such measures of complexity provide most propositional and first-order theories with notion of difficulty, this measure fails to capture essential aspects

¹ This form of complexity is a fundamental notion within the field of proof complexity [7, 16]

of theories which include some form of induction, namely that the structural complexity of the proof is just as important as its size.

To provide an intuitive notion of structural complexity consider a statement of first-order Peano arithmetic $\forall xF(x)$ whose quantifier prefix has been introduced by an induction inference. Let us consider the same formula in ω -arithmetic where instance proofs of $F(i)$ for $i \in \mathbb{N}$ need to be constructed in order to introduce the quantifier prefix. Structural complexity ask how difficult is it to prove the case $n + 1$ with respect to n . Unlike proof size, this is more of a combinatorial enumeration problem than an explicit measure, thus hinting at an application of structural complexity analysis to combinatorial problems, something we plan to investigate in the future. While this notion of structural complexity is somewhat similar to the concept of induction invariant, induction invariant fails to capture an important aspect of our complexity measure. We are particularly interested in provers based on instance analysis and thus want to know how hard is it to transform a proof from one instance into the proof of another. This is a notion which induction invariant does not emphasize.

Structural complexity, as we discuss it, is defined as the complexity of the function which produces a set of term tuples usable to construct a resolution refutation of an instance proof, i.e. find a function which bounds the number of terms required for the n^{th} iteration. This lead us to the development of a function hierarchy based on asymptotic computational complexity [21]. This hierarchy is used to measure the difficulty of refuting unsatisfiable primitive recursively defined Σ_1 -sentences, i.e. a type of inductive definition.

2 Background and Related Work

Our choice to investigate recursively defined Σ_1 -sentences is motivated by *schematic proof analysis* [14, 24] which uses a variant of the CERES method of cut elimination [4, 5] to transform proofs. Schematic proofs are recursively defined proofs used to simulate induction. This form of proof analysis transforms the cut structure of a formal proof into an unsatisfiable negation normal form (NNF) formula. Discovering a proof of the cut structure’s unsatisfiability allows one to reconstruct the initial proof so that it only contains atomic cuts. The schematic version of the method extracts an inductive definition of the cut structure as a NNF formula, from a primitive recursively defined proof. For every instance of the inductive definition, the resulting NNF formula is unsatisfiable.

However finding a sequence of refutations for this inductive definition (as evidenced by [5] and [14]) is hard. The current approach is to perform instance analysis until one has gathered enough information to produce a “proof construction” invariant. In [24], the inductive superposition prover of V. Aravantinos *et al.* [3] was used to provide this proof construction invariant, which is essentially a recursive function which enumerates the term structure.

We designed the above mentioned notion of complexity with the following approaches to inductive theorem proving in mind, cyclic reasoning [10], superposition resolution [3], and instance analysis via tree grammars [18]. While

this specificity seems to fail to take into account notions of complexity applicable to other prominent inductive provers such as HipSpec [15], ACL2s [8], and Zeno [32], we argue that structural complexity, as defined in this work, is a fundamental property of inductive constructions and thus invariant to the approach. However, a full investigation of this idea is beyond the scope of this work and this left for future investigation.

3 A Recursive Formula Construction

The complexity measure we develop in this paper considers a particular type of recursive formula definition construction based on an indexing sort (in our case numerals) and an individual sort. This type of formula has been studied in previous work [2, 3, 12, 24], and is closely related to proof transformation in the presence of induction and cyclic proof theory [9, 11]. Furthermore, V. Aravantinos *et al.* [3] introduced a powerful superposition based prover for formula definitions closely related to the construction we introduce in this work. However, little may be found in literature concerning this construction, and thus, the particular theory handled by their prover is unknown. Recent work points to the Σ_1 -incompleteness of their prover [35], and thus motivates the categorization of unsatisfiable Σ_1 -sentences discussed in this work.

We consider a two sorted first-order language \mathcal{L} . The sorts are ω and ι , that is the *numeric* and *individual* sort, respectively. The numeric sort contains all terms constructed from the signature $\{0, s(\cdot)\}$ and a countably infinite set of variables \mathcal{V}_ω . Ground terms of the ω sort will be referred to as numerals and are ordered using the total linear ordering of the natural numbers denoted by $<$. We denote the set of all ω terms by Ω and the set of all ground ω terms by Ω_G . The numeric sort will be used to index term and formula occurrences within recursive definitions. While restricting ourselves to such a simple term language is not necessary, the additional complications of complex inductive structures, such as list, will not aid our exposition.

Terms of the ι sort are constructed using a finite signature Σ_ι of fixed arity function symbols and a countably infinite set of variables \mathcal{V}_ι . Essentially ι represents the standard term language of first-order predicate logic. We will abbreviate sequences of terms of the ι sort t_1, \dots, t_n by \bar{t} . We will abbreviate terms of the ω sort in similar fashion but using lowercase Greek characters instead, i.e. $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ will be denoted by $\bar{\alpha}$.

Formulas are constructed from a countably infinite set of predicate symbols \mathcal{P} with fixed arity. Note that predicates may take arguments of both the ω and ι sort and thus, as a rule ι sort arguments will precede the arguments of the ω sort. In addition to predicate symbols, formulas may also contain *formula variables* from a countably infinite set \mathcal{V}_{for} denoted by \bullet, \star, \dots .

In order to differentiate between the various free variable types occurring within a given formula or term, we define $\mathcal{V}_x(F)$ where $x \in \{\omega, \iota, for\}$ which denotes the set of free variables of the given type within F . We will refer to a

formula F as ι -closed if $\mathcal{V}_\iota(F) = \emptyset$, formula-free if $\mathcal{V}_{for}(F) = \emptyset$, and static if $\mathcal{V}_\omega(F) = \emptyset$. The following construction defines F_0 , the set of 0-abstract formula:

Definition 1 (0-Abstract Formula). By F_0 we denote the set of formulas constructed using the following inductive definition:

- if $\star \in \mathcal{V}_{for}$, then $(\star, \emptyset) \in F_0$.
- if $P \in \mathcal{P}$ with arity n , and $\bar{\alpha}, \bar{t}$ are tuples of terms of appropriate length and type, then $(P(\bar{t}, \bar{\alpha}), \emptyset), (\neg P(\bar{t}, \bar{\alpha}), \emptyset) \in F_0$.
- if $(P, \emptyset), (Q, \emptyset) \in F_0$ and $\mathcal{V}_{for}(Q) \cap \mathcal{V}_{for}(P) = \emptyset$, then $(P \wedge Q, \emptyset), (P \vee Q, \emptyset) \in F_0$.
- if $(F(x), \emptyset) \in F_0$ and $x \in \mathcal{V}_\iota(F(x))$ then $(\forall x F(x), \emptyset) \in F_0$. We refer to x as being bound by the quantifier $\forall x$.

Note that 0-abstract formula are a pairing of formula and a set of rewrite rules, however, for 0-abstract formula, this set is always empty.

The limit placed on formula variables is to simplify the construction of n -abstract formula. Essentially, Definition 1 is the base case of an inductive formula construction and Definition 2 & 3 are the step case. Once a quantifier binds a variable the variable will be considered *bound* rather than *free*. The set of bound variables of a formula $F \in F_0$ will be denoted by $bd(F)$ and $bd(F) \cap \mathcal{V}_\iota(F) \equiv \emptyset$. Only variables of the ι sort may be bound.

Before we define so called n -abstract formula we need to distinguish a few important categories. The set of context-free n -abstract formulas is referred to as *essential* and otherwise, they are referred to as *expandable*. If the n -abstract formulas are also ι -closed they are referred to as *sentences*. Note that for any *expandable formula* F , each variable of $\mathcal{V}_{for}(F)$ may occur at most once in F .

From F_0 together with countably infinite set of defined predicate symbols \mathcal{P} (defined predicate symbols will be denoted by a $\hat{\cdot}$) we may construct *schematic 0-abstract formulas* which represent an infinite sequence of essential 0-abstract formulas. Normalization of schematic 0-abstract formulas is performed by replacing free occurrences of ω variables by ground terms of the ω sort producing an essential 0-abstract formula. Rather than defining schematic 0-abstract formulas we provide a definition of the more general concept. When helpful we will abbreviate $F(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ by $F(\bar{t})$.

Definition 2 (Schematic n -Abstract Formula). Let $(G, P) \in F_n$ be essential and $(H, Q) \in F_n$ expandable, where $l \in \mathcal{V}_\omega(H)$, $l \notin \mathcal{V}_\omega(G)$, $\mathcal{V}_{for}(H) = \{\star_1, \dots, \star_k\}$, m is a fresh ω variable, and \hat{F} is fresh defined predicate symbol. Let P' be the set of normalization rules $P' =$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \hat{F}(\bar{x}, \bar{\alpha}, s(m)) \Rightarrow H(\bar{x}, \bar{\alpha}, l) \left[\star_1 \setminus \hat{F}(\bar{s}_1, \bar{\alpha}_1, m), \dots, \star_k \setminus \hat{F}(\bar{s}_k, \bar{\alpha}_k, m) \right] \{l \leftarrow s(m)\} \\ \hat{F}(\bar{x}, \bar{\alpha}, 0) \Rightarrow G(\bar{s}_{k+1}, \bar{\alpha}_{k+1}) \end{array} \right\}$$

where $\bar{s}_1, \dots, \bar{s}_{k+1}$ are sequences of individual terms of appropriate length, $\bar{\alpha}_1, \dots, \bar{\alpha}_{k+1}$ are sequences of ω terms of appropriate length which does not contain l , and $|P'| = 2$. Then $(\hat{F}(\bar{t}', \bar{\alpha}', \beta), P' \cup P \cup Q)$ is a schematic n -abstract formula, where $\beta, \bar{\alpha}' \in \Omega$ and \bar{t}' is a sequence of individual sort terms. The set of all schematic n -abstract formulas will be denoted by \mathcal{S}_n .

n -abstract formulas differ slightly from 0-abstract formulas in that they may contain schematic k -abstract formulas for $k < n$.

Definition 3 (n -Abstract Formula). By F_n we denote the set containing formulas constructed using the following inductive definition:

- $(F, P) \in F_k \cup S_k$ for $0 \leq k < n$, then $(F, P) \in F_n$.
- $(F, P), (F', Q) \in F_n$ and $\mathcal{V}_{for}(F) \cap \mathcal{V}_{for}(F') = \emptyset$, then $(F \wedge F', P \cup Q), (F \vee F', P \cup Q) \in F_n$.
- $(F(x), P) \in F_n$ and $x \in \mathcal{V}_i(F(x))$ then $(\forall x F(x), P) \in F_n$ where $\forall x$ binds all free occurrences of x in $F(x)$.

Thus, the set of all abstract formulas, denoted by \mathcal{L}_F^ω , is equivalent to $\bigcup_{i=0}^\infty F_i$. As we shall see this is quite an expressive class of formula even though one cannot define recursive function symbols directly. The formulas we discuss here are quite similar to those discussed in [3, 24], namely arithmetic statements provable by so called n -induction, though n -abstract formula are more expressive. While the precise expressive power of this formalism is not clear, analogs of the infinitary pigeonhole principle and related statements can be constructed.

Example 1. $C = (\forall x(E(g(x), n) \vee L(x, n)) \wedge \forall x(E(x, n) \vee L(x, n))) \wedge \hat{Q}(n)$, P is a \mathcal{L}_F^ω sentence, where P consists of the following normalization rules:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{Q}(0) &\implies \neg L(a, 0) \wedge \forall x(\neg E(x, 0) \vee \neg E(g(x), 0)) \\ \hat{Q}(s(n)) &\implies \forall x(\neg E(x, s(n)) \vee \neg E(g(x), s(n))) \forall x(\neg L(x, s(n)) \vee E(x, n) \vee L(x, n)) \\ &\quad \wedge \forall x(\neg L(g(x), s(n)) \vee E(g(x), n) \vee L(x, n)) \wedge \hat{Q}(n) \end{aligned}$$

and $\Sigma_i = \{a, g(\cdot)\}$. The normalization rules for the defined predicate symbol \hat{Q} are constructed from the following 0-abstract sentences: $\neg L(a, 0) \wedge \forall x(\neg E(x, 0) \vee \neg E(g(x), 0))$ and

$$\begin{aligned} &\forall x(\neg E(x, s(m)) \vee \neg E(g(x), s(m))) \forall x(\neg L(x, s(m)) \vee E(x, n) \vee L(x, m)) \\ &\wedge \forall x(\neg L(g(x), s(m)) \vee E(g(x), m) \vee L(x, m)) \wedge \bullet \end{aligned}$$

4 Evaluation of Abstract Sentences

Abstract sentences of \mathcal{L}_F^ω can be evaluated to static essential sentences by applying *ground substitutions* which replace the free ω variables by numerals. After applying such ground substitutions one can apply the normalization rules associated with the abstract sentence resulting in a sentence without defined symbols.

The domain of a ground substitution σ will be denoted by $dom(\sigma)$ and the set of all ground substitutions with domain V will be denoted by \mathcal{G}_V . Ground substitutions can be partially ordered with respect to their domains. We say that $\sigma \leq_V \sigma'$ for ground substitutions $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{G}_V$, if for all $x \in V$, $x\sigma \leq x\sigma'$ (where \leq is the standard ordering of the natural numbers). We say that $\sigma \prec_V \sigma'$ if for at least one $x \in V$, $x\sigma < x\sigma'$. We can apply a ground substitution σ to a sentence $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$. The essential sentence resulting from application of a ground substitution $\sigma \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{V}_\omega(F)}$ to an abstract sentence $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$ will be referred to as

the *normalization of F by σ* . Note that the essential sentences resulting from normalization are *static* if the domain of σ is super set of the free ω variables of F . Note that $\mathcal{V}_\omega(F)$ includes variables occurring with the rewrite rules of an n -abstract formula.

Theorem 1. *Let $C = (F, S) \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$ s.t. $\mathcal{V}_\omega(F) = V$ and σ a ground substitution s.t. $\text{dom}(\sigma) = V$. Then $N(F\sigma, S)$ is a static essential formula where $N(G, S)$ is defined as follows:*

$$\begin{aligned} N(P(\bar{t}, \bar{\alpha}), S) &\implies (P(\bar{t}, \bar{\alpha}), \emptyset) & N(\forall x Q(x), S) &\implies (\forall x N(Q(x), S), \emptyset) \\ N(\neg P(\bar{t}, \bar{\alpha}), S) &\implies (\neg P(\bar{t}, \bar{\alpha}), \emptyset) & N(\hat{P}(s(t)), S) &\implies N(Q(n) \{n \leftarrow t\}, S) \\ N(\hat{P}(0), S) &\implies N(G, S) & N(P \wedge Q, S) &\implies (N(P, S) \wedge N(Q, S), \emptyset) \\ N(P \vee Q, S) &\implies (N(P, S) \vee N(Q, S), \emptyset) \\ \text{where } \hat{P}(s(n)) &\implies Q(s(n)) \text{ , } \hat{P}(0) &\implies G \in S. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Given that $\mathcal{L}_F^\omega \equiv \bigcup_{i=0}^\infty F_i$ and $F_i, S_i \subset F_{i+1}$, the theorem easily follows by induction on i , i.e. the abstraction complexity.

From now on, when we write $F\sigma$ where σ is a ground substitution, we assume that normalization is also performed, i.e. $N(F\sigma, S)$ where $(F, S) \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$.

Example 2. The normalization of C (See Example 1) by the ground substitution $\{n \leftarrow s^2(0)\}$ results in the following static essential sentence:

$$\begin{aligned} &\forall x (EQ(g(x), s^2(0)) \vee LE(x, s^2(0)) \wedge \forall x (EQ(x, s^2(0)) \vee LE(x, s^2(0))) \wedge \\ &\forall x (\neg LE(g(x), s^2(0)) \vee EQ(g(x), s(0)) \vee LE(x, s(0))) \wedge \\ &\forall x (\neg LE(x, s^2(0)) \vee EQ(x, s(0)) \vee LE(x, s(0))) \wedge \forall x (\neg EQ(x, s^2(0)) \vee \neg EQ(g(x), s^2(0))) \wedge \\ &\forall x (\neg LE(g(x), s(0)) \vee EQ(g(x), 0) \vee LE(x, 0)) \wedge \forall x (\neg LE(x, s(0)) \vee EQ(x, 0) \vee LE(x, 0)) \wedge \\ &\forall x (\neg EQ(x, s(0)) \vee \neg EQ(g(x), s(0))) \wedge \forall x (\neg EQ(x, 0) \vee \neg EQ(g(x), 0)) \wedge \neg LE(a, 0) \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, we will represent the resulting static essential sentences in *conjunctive normal form* (maintaining logical equivalence), in other words, a sequence of *clauses*. A *clause* is defined as a disjunction of literals (i.e. P or $\neg P$ where P is an atomic formula). This implies that the result of normalizing a formula F by a substitution σ can be translated to a clause set which we denoted by $C(F, \sigma)$. We assume that $F\sigma$ is transformed into $C(F, \sigma)$ using a transformation preserving logical equivalence. Given an abstract sentence $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$, a clause c is said to be in F if there exists $\sigma \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{V}_\omega(F)}$ such that $c \in C(F, \sigma)$. When an abstract sentence is normalized and placed in clausal form the quantifiers may be prenexified, i.e. only the individual clauses occur within the scope of a quantifier making syntactic representation of quantifiers superfluous.

5 Refutations, Associations, and Complexity

Formulas of \mathcal{L}_F^ω , when normalized with respect to a ground substitution are essentially first-order formula. Thus, a formula $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$ is satisfiable if for any

ground substitution whose domain is at least $\mathcal{V}_\omega(F)$ the resulting first-order formula is satisfiable. In general, this problem is undecidable as well as proving that a given $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$ is unsatisfiable under the same normalization conditions.

However, restricting ourselves to the static formula resulting from normalization standard theorem proving techniques may be applied, i.e. if $F\sigma$ is unsatisfiable there is a closed *semantic tree* constructible from $F\sigma$ [23]. In this work, we only consider $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$ which are unsatisfiable and focus on the representation problem, that is providing a finite representation of a proof that F is indeed unsatisfiable for every instance. Proof analysis in the presence of induction involves the construction of such finite representations. Global cut-elimination methods such as CERES [6] when used for proof analysis, extract the cut structure of a formal proof as a negation normal form formula (NNF) [24] or as a clause set [6] which is always unsatisfiable. Generalizations of the method [17, 24] which handle infinite sequences of formal proofs representing an inductive argument, extract the cut structure as a recursively define NNF formula. These formula, resulting from *schematic proof analysis*, are \mathcal{L}_F^ω formulas.

However, even for this restricted subset of \mathcal{L}_F^ω resulting from proof analysis, the representation problem requires finding a recursive function with certain properties, a problem known to be undecidable (a corollary of Rice's theorem [31]), though certain aspects of the full decision problem are simplified. For example, knowing that every instance is unsatisfiable allows one to take advantage of existing theorem proving technology, see [14] where instance analysis lead to a uniform finite representation. Furthermore, associations between various instances of the same abstract formula can be drawn allowing one to develop an alternative concept of complexity based on the occurrences of formula within a given proof of unsatisfiability.

In this section we develop the structures necessary for drawing these associations and defining a complexity measure based on these associations. Our complexity measure differs from the Herbrand sequent size or proof length in that it measures how associated clauses occur within the proofs of unsatisfiability for various instances of an abstract formula F . This allows us to avoid certain aspects of \mathcal{L}_F^ω which contribute to standard complexity measures but do not imply much about the inductive complexity of the sentence. For example, the complexity of the inductive propositional structure, a problem handled at length by V. Aravantinos *et al.*[2, 3].

5.1 Refutations: Proof of Unsatisfiability

First-order resolution [23] may be used to provide a proof of unsatisfiability for normalizations of $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$. The resolution refutations which result from the application of resolution theorem provers (such as SPASS [36] or Vampire [22]) to normalizations of $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$ can be translated into **LK**-calculus [34] as a particular type of **LK**-derivation. The leaves of these **LK**-derivations are instances of clauses, and only contain cut and contraction inferences. We will refer to them as **LK**-refutations. Note that such **LK**-derivations always end in the empty sequent and the unifications associated with resolution inferences are pushed to the leaves of

the derivation. An implementation of this translation may be found in the GAP system [19].

Concerning the representation of clauses within the **LK**-refutations, we consider the classical interpretation of a sequent, namely $(\bigvee_{p \in \Pi} \neg p \vee \bigvee_{p \in \Delta} p) \equiv \Pi \vdash \Delta$ where each $p \in \Pi \cup \Delta$ is atomic. For a given $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$ and ground substitution σ we say a clause $c \in C(F, \sigma)$ *occurs in a* **LK**-refutations R if there exists an initial sequent whose clausal form is an instance of c (modulo substitutions applied to variables of the ι sort). Furthermore, if a clause $c \in C(F, \sigma)$ occurs in a **LK**-refutation R we refer to the initial sequent which is an instance of c as an *occurrence of c in R* . By $\mathcal{R}(F, \sigma)$ we denote the **LK**-refutations of $C(F, \sigma)$.

5.2 Associations: Constructing Coverings

Let us consider $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$ and two ground substitutions σ and σ' s.t. $dom(\sigma) = dom(\sigma') = \mathcal{V}_\omega(F)$ and $\sigma \leq_{\mathcal{V}_\omega(F)} \sigma'$. If we are to pick two refutations $R \in \mathcal{R}(F, \sigma)$ and $R' \in \mathcal{R}(F, \sigma')$ we can ask which clauses $c \in C(F, \sigma)$ occur in both R and R' . If such clauses do exist, this would provide insight into the relationship between the two refutations. This is a simple form of *association*.

Consider instead $c \in C(F, \sigma)$ which occurs in R but not in R' and a $c' \in C(F, \sigma')$ which does not occur in R but does occur in R' . Obviously these need not be occurrences of the same clause but may be instances of a more general pattern. A *cover* is a set of abstract formulas which capture all instances of an $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$. In particular, we are interested in covers which are *finite* and *most general*. Covers are in some sense generalized clause sets which allow us to abstract away from certain aspects of a refutation.

In order to provide a proper definition of a cover, we need to introduce the concept of ι -substitutions which map ι variables to variable-free ι -terms.

Definition 4. Let $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$, s.t. $\mathcal{V}_\omega(F) = V$, c_1, c_2 are clauses of F s.t. $c_1 \in C(F, \sigma)$, $c_2 \in C(F, \sigma')$, σ and σ' are ground ω -substitutions such that $\sigma \leq_V \sigma'$, and $\tau_\sigma, \tau'_\sigma$, $\tau_{\sigma'}$, and $\tau'_{\sigma'}$ are ι -substitutions dependent on the choice of σ and σ' . We refer to c_1 and c_2 as *siblings* if there exists a sentence $c \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$, where $\mathcal{V}_\omega(c) \subseteq V$ and $c\sigma\tau_\sigma = c_1\tau_\sigma$ and $c\sigma'\tau_{\sigma'} = c_2\tau'_{\sigma'}$. We refer to c as a *parent* of c_1 and c_2 . A *parent* can have more than two children. We denote the set of all clauses of F which are children of c by $Ch(c, F)$. Note that a clause may have multiple parents.

Notice that Definition 4 uses a concept similar to anti-unification [28, 30] to define the relation between siblings, though the concept of least general is closer to θ -subsumption [25, 29] in our case. Consider the clauses $C_1 \equiv \forall x(EQ(x, s^2(0)) \vee LE(x, s^2(0)))$ and $C_2 \equiv \forall x(EQ(x, s(0)) \vee LE(x, s(0)))$. Obviously, $C_1 \not\equiv C_2$, but they are indeed variations of the same clause modulo the chosen ground and ι -substitution, their parent being the clause $\forall x(EQ(x, n) \vee LE(x, n))$. Notice that there is an implicit ordering on parents based on their generality.

Definition 5. Let p, p' be parents of a clause c of F . We say p' is *more general* than p if $Ch(p, F) \subseteq Ch(p', F)$. This relationship will be denoted as $p \ll_{(c, F)} p'$.

A parent p is said to be most general if for any clause $c \in Ch(p, F)$ and any p' s.t. $c \in Ch(p', F)$, $p' \ll_{(c, F)} p$.

A sentence F can be covered by a set of parents, that is a set of parents C covers F if for any ground substitution σ , and any clause $c \in C(\sigma, F)$ there exists a parent in $p \in C$ a ground substitution σ' , and two ι -substitutions $\tau_{\sigma'}$ and $\tau'_{\sigma'}$ s.t. $p\sigma'\tau_{\sigma'} = c\tau'_{\sigma'}$. A cover is *minimal* if every $p \in C$ is most general.

Example 3. Consider the formula constructed in Example 2, it has the following minimal cover which we refer to as $Cov(C)$:

$$(\neg L(x, s(n)) \vee E(x, n) \vee L(y, n)), (\neg E(x, n) \vee \neg E(g(x), n)), (E(x, n) \vee L(y, n)), \neg L(a, 0)$$

Lemma 1. *The clauses of Example 3 form a minimal cover of Example 2.*

Proof. Trivial, can be done by checking instantiations.

The cover of a sentence $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$ need not be finite nor need it consists of essential 0-abstract sentences only. Infinite covers can occur when a formula $G \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$ contains a clause whose most general parent is either an schematic 0-abstract sentence or an n -abstract sentence for $n > 0$. However, variable length clauses need not be so complex, for example consider the following:

Example 4. Consider, $NIA = (\forall x L(x, x) \wedge \hat{T}(n) \wedge \forall x (\hat{Q}(n, x)), S)$ where S contains the following normalization rules:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{Q}(s(n), x) &\implies E(x, s(n)) \vee \hat{Q}(n, x) \\ \hat{Q}(0, x) &\implies E(x, 0) \\ \hat{T}(s(n)) &\implies \forall x, y, z (\neg L(m(x, y), z) \vee L(x, z) \wedge \\ &\quad \forall x, y, z (\neg L(m(x, y), z) \vee L(y, z) \wedge \\ &\quad \forall x, y (\neg L(g(y), x) \vee \neg E(y, s(n)) \vee \neg E(x, s(n)))) \wedge \hat{T}(n) \\ \hat{T}(0) &\implies \forall x, y (\neg L(g(y), x) \vee \neg E(y, 0) \vee \neg E(x, 0)) \end{aligned}$$

Notice that $\forall x E(x, 0)$, $\forall x (E(x, 0) \vee E(x, s(0)))$, and $\forall x (E(x, 0) \vee E(x, s(0)) \vee E(x, s(s(0))))$ are clauses of G which are of different size and shape, but are different instances of the same pattern. The most general parent of these three clauses is precisely $(\hat{Q}(n, x), S')$ where S' contains the normalization rules for \hat{Q} . The parent is not always found within the original abstract formula.

5.3 Complexity: Occurrences per Clause in Covering

Our notion of complexity concerns unsatisfiable sentences of \mathcal{L}_F^ω which have finite minimal coverings. While this does avoid a large portion of unsatisfiable sentences of \mathcal{L}_F^ω , restricting ourselves to finite minimal coverings, this allows one to perform proof analysis and use interactive theorem proving methods such as those mentioned in earlier work [14].

Now we can define our counting mechanism. Let $Cov(F)$ be a finite minimal cover of a sentence $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$, $c \in Cov(F)$, and σ a ground substitution such that

$dom(\sigma) = \mathcal{V}_\omega(F)$. We denote by $|R|_c$ for $R \in \mathcal{R}(F, \sigma)$ the number of occurrences of clauses $d \in Ch(c, F)$ in R . By \mathcal{S}_c^F we denote the set of all ground substitutions σ s.t. there exists $c' \in C(F, \sigma)$ and $c' \in Ch(c, F)$. A *chain of substitutions of \mathcal{S}_c^F* , is a total function $C : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_c^F$ s.t. $C(n) <_{\mathcal{V}_\omega(F)} C(n+1)$.

Definition 6. Let $F \in \mathcal{L}_F^\omega$, $Cov(F)$ a finite minimal cover of F , and $f : G_{\mathcal{V}_\omega(F)} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ a total function. We say that $Cov(F)$ is asymptotically bounded by f from above, if for every $c \in Cov(F)$ and for every chain of \mathcal{S}_c^F there exists a sequence of refutations $R_i \in \mathcal{R}(F, C(i))$ such that

$$|R_n|_c \leq \mathcal{O}(f(C(n))) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Furthermore, we say that $Cov(F)$ is asymptotically bounded by f from below, if for every $c \in Cov(F)$, for every chain C of \mathcal{S}_c^F , every sequence of refutations $R_i \in \mathcal{R}(F, C(i))$ such that

$$\Omega(f(C(n))) \leq |R_n|_c \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

If $Cov(F)$ is asymptotically bounded by f from below and from above than we say that $Cov(F)$ is asymptotically enumerated by f denoted by

$$|R_n|_c \approx \Theta(f(C(n))) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

To some extent Definition 6 is a measurement of the Herbrand sequent complexity with respect to a sequence of refutations. However, our notion of complexity ignores the propositional structure captured by Herbrand sequent complexity and is thus more meaningful with respect to inductive theorem proving. It captures the combinatorial complexity of the term structure.

For example, two abstract sentences whose minimal Herbrand sequent complexity differs schematically (is dependent on the instantiations of the ω variables) may be equated by Definition 6. Let us consider $(\hat{O}(n, m), S)$ defined in Example 5 and $\alpha, \beta \in \Omega_G$, s.t. $\alpha \neq \beta$. The complexity of $(\hat{O}(n, \alpha), S)$ and $(\hat{O}(n, \beta), S)$, with respect to Herbrand sequent size ($\alpha \cdot n$ and $\beta \cdot n$ instantiations, respectively), will differ. However, both have the same complexity by the measure presented in Definition 6. Also, not only do they have the same complexity, neither will be in the same complexity class as *NIA* of Example 4 even though they have the same number of free ω variables.

The essential difference between $(\hat{O}(n, \alpha), S)$, $(\hat{O}(n, \beta), S)$, and *NIA*, which is captured by Definition 6, is the hardness of providing a finite representation of the term instantiations within a sequence of refutations. This seems to be more important to inductive complexity than other measures of complexity [18].

An interesting observation is the relationship between $\Theta(1)$ problems and existing work. For example, $\Theta(1)$ problems are structurally *propositional schemata*, as studied in earlier work [1, 3, 12], and are otherwise non-inductive concerning inductive term complexity. One may imagine this class of formula as an inductive Bernays-Schönfinkel-Ramsey Class [20]. Consider, $C_{base} = (\forall x(EQ(x, s(n)) \vee LE(x, s(n))) \wedge \hat{Q}(s(n)), S)$, where S contains the normalization rules:

$$\hat{Q}(0) \implies \neg LE(a, 0) \wedge \forall x(\neg EQ(x, 0))$$

$$\hat{Q}(s(n)) \implies \forall x(\neg EQ(x, s(n))) \wedge \forall x(\neg LE(x, s(n)) \vee EQ(x, n) \vee LE(x, n)) \wedge \hat{Q}(n)$$

Example 1 is asymptotically bounded from above by a linear function, we prove this in the next section, while Example 4, which is discussed in previous work [13], is asymptotically bounded from above by a quadratic function. We conjecture that these problems highlight important boundaries of current inductive theorem proving technology. A closely related abstract formula, which is also asymptotically bounded from above by a quadratic function, can be easily shown to be a “diagonalization” of Example 1, see Example 5.

Example 5. The formula $(\hat{O}(n, m), S)$ is a generalization of Example 1 where S contains the following normalization rules.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \hat{O}(0, m) \implies \hat{M}(a, m) \wedge \hat{P}(0, m) & \hat{P}(0, m) \implies \forall y(\hat{C}(y, 0, m)) \wedge \neg LE(a, 0) \\ \hat{O}(s(n), m) \implies \forall z(\hat{D}(z, z, s(n), m)) \wedge \hat{P}(s(n), m) & \hat{P}(s(n), m) \implies (\forall y(\hat{C}(y, s(n), m)) \wedge \\ \hat{C}(y, n, 0) \implies \neg E(y, n) & \forall z(\hat{T}(z, z, n, m)) \wedge \hat{P}(n, m) \\ \hat{C}(y, n, s(m)) \implies \neg E(y, n) \vee \hat{C}(h(y), n, m) & \hat{M}(y, 0) \implies E(0, y) \\ \hat{T}(y, z, n, 0) \implies \neg LE(y, s(n)) \vee E(y, n) \vee LE(z, n) & \hat{M}(y, s(m)) \implies E(0, y) \wedge \hat{M}(h(y), m) \\ \hat{T}(y, z, n, s(m)) \implies \neg LE(y, s(n)) \vee E(y, n) \vee & \hat{D}(y, z, n, 0) \implies (E(n, y) \vee LE(z, n)) \\ LE(z, n) \wedge \hat{T}(h(y), z, n, m) & \hat{D}(y, z, n, s(m)) \implies (E(n, y) \vee LE(z, n)) \\ & \wedge \hat{D}(h(y), z, n, m) \end{array}$$

Example 1 is equivalent to $(\hat{O}(n, s(0)), S)$.

Example 5 is obviously beyond the scope of the superposition calculus by Peltier *et al.* [3] being that it contains two independent numeric variables. Evidence points towards the problem being beyond the scope of existing tree grammar based methods [18] as well.

In the following section we prove that the finite minimal cover of Example 1 is asymptotically enumerated by $\Theta(\alpha)$. We refrain from repeating the proofs concerning the asymptotic complexity of Example 4 [13]. In this earlier work Example 4 was shown to be asymptotically bounded from above by $O(\alpha^2)$. However, it is unknown whether or not it is asymptotically bounded from below by $\Omega(\alpha^2)$. Example 4 is a variant of the infinitary pigeonhole principle, a problem which is known for its combinatorial difficulty. While by other complexity measures its hardness can be precisely stated we do not have tight lower bounds and can only conjecture its enumeration by $\Theta(\alpha^2)$. Example 5 is quite obviously of quadratic complex, this becomes apparent after the analysis in Section 6 and the fact that it is the diagonalization of a sequence of problems of $\Theta(\alpha)$ complexity with increasing Herbrand sequent complexity.

6 A Linear Complexity Abstract Sentence

In this section we cover the asymptotic complexity of C introduced in Example 1, whose finite minimal cover $Cov(C)$ is given in Example 3. The fact that this cover is asymptotically enumerated by $\Theta(\alpha)$ can be shown by providing a necessary and sufficient sequence of instantiations of the bound variables.

Rather than providing the instantiations directly, we can instead express the instantiations through the minimal finite cover as done below:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{C}_1(s(n), m, x) &\equiv \hat{C}_1(n, m, g(x)) & \hat{C}_1(0, m, x) &\equiv E(x, m) \vee L(x, m) \\ \hat{C}_2(s(n), m, x) &\equiv \hat{C}_2(n, m, g(x)) & \hat{C}_2(0, m, x) &\equiv \neg E(x, m) \vee \neg E(g(x), m) \\ \hat{C}_3(s(n), m, x) &\equiv \hat{C}_3(n, m, g(x)) & \hat{C}_3(0, m, x) &\equiv \neg L(x, s(m)) \vee E(x, m) \vee L(x, m)\end{aligned}$$

We will refer to this variant of the cover as

$$Cov_g(C) \equiv \left\{ \hat{C}_1(n, m, a), \hat{C}_2(n, m, a), \hat{C}_3(n, m, a), LE(a, 0) \right\}.$$

There exists instantiations of the clauses found $Cov(C)$ which cannot be constructed from the clauses of $Cov_g(C)$, but as we will show, such instantiations are not necessary for constructing a refutation of C . There exists a formulation of C , $C_g = (\hat{R}(n, n, a), S')$, where S' contains the following normalization rules:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{R}(0, m, y) &\implies (EQ(g(y), s(n)) \vee LE(y, s(n))) \wedge (EQ(y, s(n)) \vee LE(y, s(n))) \wedge \\ &\quad \hat{Q}(s(n), y) \\ \hat{R}(s(n), m, y) &\implies (EQ(g(y), s(n)) \vee LE(y, s(n))) \wedge (EQ(y, s(n)) \vee LE(y, s(n))) \wedge \\ &\quad \hat{Q}(s(n), y) \wedge \hat{R}(n, m, g(y)) \\ \hat{Q}(0, y) &\implies \neg LE(a, 0) \wedge (\neg EQ(y, 0) \vee \neg EQ(g(y), 0)) \\ \hat{Q}(s(n), y) &\implies (\neg EQ(y, s(n)) \vee \neg EQ(g(y), s(n))) (\neg LE(y, s(n)) \vee EQ(y, n) \vee LE(y, n)) \\ &\quad \wedge (\neg LE(g(y), s(n)) \vee EQ(g(y), n) \vee LE(y, n)) \wedge \hat{Q}(n, y)\end{aligned}$$

which only contains terms which are covered by $Cov_g(C)$.

Lemma 2. $Cov_g(C)$ is a finite cover of C_g .

Proof. This follows from the definition of \hat{R} .

We show that a particular subset of the clauses of C_g is enough to refute C_g and while a smaller subset might also provide a refutation, it will use precisely the same terms of the ι sort, i.e. asymptotically bounded from below. Note, we do not cover the case when $\alpha = 0$ in Theorem 2 because it is trivial and does not use the induction invariant covered in the proof.

Theorem 2. Let $s(0) \leq \alpha$ be a numeral. Then there exists a refutation of C_g using the following subformula labeled by clause occurrences:

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\bigwedge_{i=0}^{\alpha} \hat{C}_1(i, \alpha, a) \wedge \hat{C}_1(s(i), \alpha, a) \right) \wedge \left(\bigwedge_{i=0}^{\alpha} \bigwedge_{j=0}^i \hat{C}_2(j, i, a) \right) \wedge \neg LE(a, 0) \wedge \\ \left(\bigwedge_{i=0}^{\alpha} \bigwedge_{j=0}^{i-1} \hat{C}_3(j, i-1, a) \wedge \hat{C}_3(s(j), i-1, a) \right)\end{aligned}\tag{1}$$

Where $\bigwedge_{j=0}^{\alpha-1} \hat{C}_3(j, i-1, a) \wedge \hat{C}_3(s(j), i-1, a) \equiv \top$.

Proof. See Appendix A.

A corollary of this result is as follows:

Corollary 1. *The minimal finite cover $Cov(C)$ is asymptotically bounded by $O(\alpha)$ from above.*

Proof (sketch). Theorem 2 provides a sequence of refutations of \mathcal{C} . These refutations can be ordered with respect to the chain of substitutions $C'(\alpha) = \{n \leftarrow \alpha\}$, that is R_α is the refutation corresponding to the clause set $C(C, C'(\alpha))$. Consider the clause $\neg L(x, s(n)) \vee E(x, n) \vee L(x, n)$ from $Cov(C)$, there are precisely $\left(\frac{2 \cdot \alpha \cdot (2 \cdot \alpha + 1)}{2} - 1\right)$ occurrences of this clause in $R_{s(\alpha)}$, but invariant the terms of the ω sort there are only α occurrences. Thus the cover is asymptotically bounded by $O(\alpha)$. \square

The next step is to show that the minimal finite cover $Cov(C)$ is asymptotically bounded by α from below. Unlike showing that a cover is asymptotically bounded from above, which merely asked for a witnessing sequence of refutations, one must show that no refutation sequence exists with a lower asymptotic complexity. However, given the simplicity of the clause set C we can use a *semantic tree* construction [23] to provide the non-existence of a refutation sequence with a lower asymptotic complexity. First consider the Herbrand universe of C with respect to the ι sort, namely, $H = \{a, g(a), g(g(a)), \dots\}$. The refutation sequence provided in Theorem 2 uses the subset $H' = \{a, \dots, g^\alpha(a)\}$ to refute $C \{n \leftarrow \alpha\}$. Essentially to show that there does not exist a refutation sequence with a lower asymptotic complexity we must show that no subset of $G \subset \{a, \dots, g^\alpha(a)\}$ is sufficient for refuting $C \{n \leftarrow \alpha\}$ or that any semantic tree for $C \{n \leftarrow \alpha\}$ constructed from $G \cup (H \setminus H')$ will have an open branch.

Theorem 3. *Let $s(0) \leq \alpha$. Then any semantic tree for $C \{n \leftarrow \alpha\}$ constructed from $G \cup (H \setminus H')$ will have an open branch.*

Proof. See Appendix B.

Corollary 2. *The minimal finite cover $Cov(C)$ is asymptotically enumerated by α .*

Proof. Follows from Theorem 2 & 3.

Given the simplicity of Example 1, it, in some sense, provides a canonical example of what it means to be enumerated by a linear function. Furthermore, if our conjecture concerning the expressive power of certain inductive theorem provers holds, Example 1 can be seen as a benchmark for testing applicability of a theorem proving method to a given problem. As with our proposed proof of the quadratic enumeration of Example 4, showing that there is a bijection between the refutations of Example 1 and the refutations of a given abstract sentence provides evidence that certain inductive theorem provers can, in principal, provide an inductive invariant. Though, it is not clear if any prover is actually complete with respect to linearly enumerated abstract sentences. A good example of this issue is the *eventually constant assertion* presented in [14]. Drawing a bijection between

it's and Example 1's refutations is quite simple, though an implementation of the superposition prover of Peltier *et al.*, which we conjecture to be linear complete, struggles to find an invariant in reasonable time.

7 Conclusion

In this paper we present a complexity measure for a particular type of primitive recursively defined unsatisfiable Σ_1 -sentences relevant for proof analysis and inductive theorem proving. The complexity measure is based on term tuple occurrences and the recursive difficulty of constructing the set of term tuples necessary for producing a refutation of a given sentence. We provide a few examples of essential classes in the complexity hierarchy constructed by the measure and prove that a variant of the infinitary pigeonhole principle is of linear complexity. This variant is part of a sequence of sentences whose limit is of quadratic complexity and is provided in Example 5.

In future work, we plan to investigate, in more depth, what problems fall into the various levels of our hierarchy. Especially of interest is the existence of sub-linear and sub-quadratic complexity sentences which are not of constant complexity or linear complexity. Also, of interest is the discovery of a hierarchy of sentences whose complexity is an arbitrarily high polynomial degree. Towards this goal, We are currently investigating the combinatorics of *superstrings* [26] and how it relates to our measure. Note that problems discussed here are special cases of the superstring problems and have already found a connection between the superpermutation problem[27] and a so call super pigeonhole principle.

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A Proof of Theorem 2

Let us consider the basecase when $\alpha = s(0)$, in particular we can first resolve $\hat{C}_1(s(0), s(0), a)$ and $\hat{C}_1(s(s(0)), s(0), a)$ with $\hat{C}_2(s(0), s(0), a)$ and then apply contraction. The result is the clause $L(g(a), s(0))$. Resolving $L(g(a), s(0))$ with $\hat{C}_3(0, s(0), a)$ results in $\hat{C}_1(0, 0, a)$. Furthermore, resolving $\hat{C}_1(0, s(0), a)$ and $\hat{C}_1(s(0), s(0), a)$ with $\hat{C}_2(0, s(0), a)$ results in the clause $LE(a, s(0))$ after contraction. Resolving $L(a, s(0))$ with $\hat{C}_4(s(0), s(0), a)$ results in $\hat{C}_1(s(0), 0, a)$. From $\hat{C}_1(0, 0, a)$ and $\hat{C}_1(s(0), 0, a)$ we can easily arrive at a contradiction by resolving $\neg L(a, 0)$ with both $\hat{C}_1(0, 0, a)$ and $\hat{C}_1(s(0), 0, a)$, resulting in $E(g(a), 0)$ and $E(a, 0)$ which can finally be resolved with $\hat{C}_2(0, 0, a)$.

Let us assume that the statement holds for all numerals $n \leq \alpha$ and show that the statement holds for $s(\alpha)$. Following the procedure outlined in the base case we show that one can derive Equation 2b from Equation 2a using Equation 3a and Equation 3b.

$$\bigwedge_{i=0}^{s(\alpha)} \hat{C}_1(i, s(\alpha), a) \wedge \hat{C}_1(s(i), s(\alpha), a) \quad (2a) \qquad \bigwedge_{j=0}^{s(\alpha)} \hat{C}_2(j, s(\alpha), a) \quad (3a)$$

$$\bigwedge_{i=0}^{\alpha} \hat{C}_1(i, \alpha, a) \wedge \hat{C}_1(s(i), \alpha, a) \quad (2b) \qquad \bigwedge_{j=0}^{\alpha} \hat{C}_3(j, \alpha, a) \wedge \hat{C}_3(s(j), \alpha, a) \quad (3b)$$

By resolving (2a) with (3a) we can derive the sequence

$$\bigwedge_{i=0}^{\alpha} L(g^i(a), s(\alpha)) \quad (4)$$

where $g^i(a)$ is an abbreviation for $\overbrace{g(g(\dots g(a))\dots)}^{i \text{ times}}$. Resolving (4) with (3b) results in Equation 2b. Together with the clauses

$$\bigwedge_{i=0}^{\alpha} \left(\left(\bigwedge_{j=0}^i \hat{C}_2(j, i, a) \right) \wedge \left(\bigwedge_{j=0}^{i-1} \hat{C}_3(s(j), i-1, a) \wedge \hat{C}_3(s(j), i-1, a) \right) \right) \wedge \neg LE(a, 0)$$

we have proven the stepcase. \square

B Proof of Theorem 3

We proceed by induction on α . When $\alpha = s(0)$ we may assume, without loss of generality, that $G = \{a\}$. Furthermore, we assume that a closed semantic tree can be constructed. Let us consider any branch containing $\neg L(a, 0)$. There are only two clauses which can close such a branch:

- a) $\neg L(g(a), s(0)) \vee E(g(a), 0) \vee L(a, 0)$
- b) $\neg L(a, s(0)) \vee E(a, 0) \vee L(a, 0)$

Case (a) contains $g(a)$ and thus is excluded by assumption. Concerning case (b), it implies the existence of a branch b containing $\neg L(a, 0)$, $L(a, s(0))$, and $\neg E(a, 0)$. If we limit ourselves to the terms $\{a\}$ then branch b cannot be closed, thus contradicting our assumption. If we allow literals to contain terms from $H \setminus \{a, g(a)\}$, then there are extensions of b which are closed. However, these extensions imply the existence of a branch which only contains negative occurrences of the symbol E and positive occurrences of L . No clauses can close this extension of the branch and thus such a branch contradicts our assumptions.

Now for the step case, without loss of generality we may assume that

$$G = \{a, \dots, g^{i-1}(a), g^{i+1}(a), \dots, g^{s(\alpha)}(a)\}.$$

Assume that for $\mathcal{C}\{n \leftarrow \alpha\}$ any semantic tree S constructed from $G \cup H \setminus H'$ will have an open branch. We use this hypothesis to prove that any semantic tree S' constructed from $G \cup H \setminus H'$ for $\mathcal{C}\{n \leftarrow s(\alpha)\}$ will have an open branch.

Let us consider the branch b of S closed by the clause $L(g^\beta(a), \alpha) \vee E(g^\beta(a), \alpha)$ where $\beta \neq i$. Now consider the closely related branch b' which contains the literals $L(g^\beta(a), \alpha)$ and $\neg E(g^\beta(a), \alpha)$, and thus cannot be closed by $L(g^\beta(a), \alpha) \vee E(g^\beta(a), \alpha)$. We may construct b' in such a way that it remains open. Extending b' by $\neg E(x, s(\alpha))$ and $L(x, s(\alpha))$ for $x \in G \cup H \setminus H'$ indefinitely can be done without closing the branch, thus, proving the theorem. \square