

A Bisimulation between DPLL (T) and a Proof-Search Strategy for the Focused Sequent Calculus

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Abstract

We describe how the Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland procedure DPLL is bisimilar to the goal-directed proof-search mechanism described by a standard but carefully chosen sequent calculus. We thus relate a procedure described as a transition system on states to the gradual completion of incomplete proof-trees.

For this we use a focused sequent calculus for polarised classical logic, for which we allow analytic cuts. The focusing mechanisms, together with an appropriate management of polarities, then allows the bisimulation to hold: The class of sequent calculus proofs that are the images of the DPLL runs finishing on UNSAT, is identified with a simple criterion involving polarities.

We actually provide those results for a version of DPLL (T) of the procedure that is parameterised by a background theory for which we can decide whether conjunctions of literals are consistent. This procedure is used for Satisfiability Modulo Theories (SMT) generalising propositional SAT. For this, we extend the standard focused sequent calculus for propositional logic in the same way DPLL (T) extends DPLL: with the ability to call the decision procedure for T.

DPLL (T) is implemented as a plugin for SPICHE, a proof-search engine for this sequent calculus, to provide a sequent-calculus based SMT-solver.

* Categories and Subject Descriptors

F.4.1 [Mathematical Logic]: Mechanical theorem proving

* Keywords

polarised logic; focused sequent calculus; DPLL (T)

1. Introduction

The sequent calculus is a versatile formalism that can be used to describe goal-directed proof-search: the foundational paradigm of a broad range of tools, from higher-order proof-assistants to logic programming. Not only is the gradual bottom-up construction of proof-trees in sequent calculus the basis of tableaux methods, but it has also been shown to describe mechanisms as diverse as, on the one hand, type inhabitation / proof-construction in (the

basic theory of) Coq [24] and, on the other hand, computation in ProLog and λ -ProLog [28].

This paper sets the foundations for applying the same methodology to the automated techniques developed to solve Satisfiability Modulo Theories (SMT) family of problems, making them available to systems based on goal-directed proof-search.

Such problems generalise propositional SAT-problems: instead of considering the satisfiability of conjunctive normal forms (CNF) over propositional variables, SMT problems are concerned with the satisfiability of CNF over atomic propositions from a theory T such as linear arithmetic or bit vectors. Given a procedure deciding the consistency -with respect to T- of a conjunction of atoms or negated atoms, SMT-solving organises a cooperation between this procedure and SAT-solving techniques, thus providing a decision procedure for SMT-problems. This smart extension of the successful SAT-solving techniques opened a prolific area of research and led to the implementation of ever-improving tools, namely SMT-solvers, now crucial to a number of applications in software verification. The architecture of SMT-solvers is based on the extension of the Davis, Putnam, Logemann and Loveland (DPLL) procedure [13, 14] for solving SAT-problems to a procedure called DPLL (T) [32] addressing SMT-problems.

This paper does not try to improve the DPLL (T) technique itself, or current SMT-solvers based on it, but makes a step towards the integration of the technique into a sequent calculus framework.

A now wide literature achieves the integration of SMT-solvers in various tools, using the blackbox approach. For instance, several proof assistants propose an infrastructure allowing the user to call an external SMT-solver as a blackbox and re-interpret its output to reconstruct a proof within the system [2, 8, 9, 35]. This blackbox infrastructure is natural, given the available tools, their development history, and the communities that designed their techniques.

Here, we aim at a new and deeper integration with DPLL (T) is performed within the system. Recently, an internal implementation of some SMT-techniques was made available in the Coq proof assistant [25], but is very specific to Coq's section feature [10] (and therefore can hardly be adapted to a framework without refection).

We rather investigate a broader and more basic context where we can perform each of the steps of DPLL (T) as the standard steps of proof-search in sequent calculus: the gradual and goal-directed construction of a proof-tree. This allows the DPLL (T) algorithm to be applied up-to-a-point where a switch to another technique can be made (depending on the newly generated goals), whereas the use of refection or of a blackbox call only works when the entire goal can be treated by a (full) run of DPLL (T).

The results in this paper can be seen as an abstract description of DPLL (T) that aims at providing a better proof-theoretical understanding of how different theorem proving techniques (e.g. tableaux, resolution, DPLL (T), ...), geared towards different logical fragments, could efficiently cooperate inside the same prover.

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This was not explicitly the concern of previous abstract descriptions of $DPLL(T)$ that have been proposed in the literature for the purpose of studying the non-trivial properties of its implementations in proof-theoretical terms. These use resolution trees [7] or most often transition systems [31, 32] based on rewrite rules.

While offering a seemingly convenient way of representing branching (and hence backtracking), the sequent calculus turns out to be a somewhat more rigid setting (than the aforementioned transition systems), tied to the root-first decomposition of formula-trees. Other descriptions of $DPLL(T)$ based on trees (e.g. [34]) offer some work-arounds, but are specifically designed for the job (of describing $DPLL(T)$).

In this paper we show how proof-search in a rather standard sequent calculus, called $LK^P(T)$, can simulate $DPLL(T)$. More precisely, we identify an elementary version of $DPLL(T)$ that is the direct extension of the classical $DPLL$ procedure to a background theory T , as well as being a restriction of the full $DPLL$ Modulo Theories system¹, both of which can be found in [32].

For this we do not tailor the sequent calculus $DPLL(T)$ but we do use well-known sequent calculus features: not only do we allow the use of analytic cuts but we also use polarities and focusing. Arising from Linear Logic [1, 17], the last two features also make sense in classical logic [18, 22, 26]: while Gentzen's original rules offer a lot of non-determinism in the proof-search, these features provide a tight control on the breadth of the search space.²

Such control allows us to derive a stronger result than the mere simulation of $DPLL(T)$: the proofs in $LK^P(T)$ that are the images of $DPLL(T)$ runs finishing on UNSAT can be characterised by a simple criterion only involving the way polarities are assigned to literals and the way formulae are placed into the focus of sequents (the device implementing focusing). From this criterion we directly get a simple proof-search strategy that is bisimilar to $DPLL(T)$ runs: that which performs the depth-first completion of incomplete proof-trees (starting with the leftmost open leaf), using any inference steps satisfying the given criterion on polarities and focusing.

That way, we ensure that bottom-up proof-search in sequent calculus can be as efficient as the $DPLL(T)$ procedure.

In order to validate the theoretical simulation of $DPLL(T)$, and to evaluate its efficiency as a proof-search method in $LK^P(T)$, we have implemented the simulation as a plugin for PSYCHE [20, 33], a proof-search tool based on $LK^P(T)$. This tool has a modular architecture in a style similar to LCF [29]: a simple kernel offers proof-search primitives for $LK^P(T)$, and plugins are programmed with these primitives to drive the kernel through the construction of a proof-tree. Thanks to this modularity, the correctness of PSYCHE's output only relies on that of the simple kernel, while efficiency of proof-search is left to the plugin that implements an identified proof-search strategy of interest. We discuss the performance of our $DPLL(T)$ plugin on a standard benchmark.

The paper is organised as follows: section 2 describes the sequent calculus $LK^P(T)$ and section 3 presents the elementary system for $DPLL(T)$; section 4 presents the simulation of that system in $LK^P(T)$; section 5 identifies the corresponding proof-search strategy in $LK^P(T)$ to complete the bisimulation. Finally, section 6 provides an overview of the PSYCHE proof-search tool and of its $DPLL(T)$ plugin, before we discuss related works and perspectives in sections 7 and 8.

2. Focusing for proof-search

In this section we briefly review the proof-search motivation for focused proof systems, and present the focused sequent calculus $LK^P(T)$ for propositional classical logic modulo a theory

2.1 Background

At the basis of logic programming, proof-search Horn clauses can be understood as a meaningful computational paradigm because this class of formulae makes a simple goal-directed proof-search strategy logically complete (with well-identified backtrack points and a reasonably efficient covering of the proof-search space). This still holds when the class is extended to Hereditary Harrop formulae [28], and can hold on a wider class of formulae if logical connectives and atoms are tagged with polarities positive or negative. Polarities emerged with the help of linear logic [17] and Andreoli's focusing results [1], informally described below:

Negative connectives can be decomposed, in sequent calculus style, with invertible inference rules that are called asynchronous. A proof-search strategy can perform the bottom-up application of those rules as basic proof-search steps without loss of generality (if the goal was provable, it remains provable after applying the step); in other words, no backtracking is necessary on the application of such steps, even though other steps were possible.

Positive connectives are the (De Morgan's) duals of negative connectives, and their decomposition rules, which are called synchronous, are not necessarily invertible.

Clearly, asynchronous rules can be applied eagerly, i.e. can be chained, without creating backtrack points and losing completeness; it turns out that synchronous rules (although possibly creating backtrack points) can also be chained without losing completeness. This result can be expressed as the completeness of a sequent calculus with a focus device, which syntactically highlights a formula in the sequent and forces the next proof-search step to decompose it with a synchronous rule, keeping the focus on its newly-revealed sub-formulae. Focusing considerably reduces the proof-search space, otherwise heavily redundant when Gentzen-style inference rules are used.

A sequent with a positive atom in focus must be proved immediately by an axiom on that atom; hence, the polarity of atoms greatly affects the shape of proofs. As illustrated in e.g. [26], the following sequent expresses the Fibonacci program (in some language where addition is primitive) and a goal $(n; p)$ (where n and p are closed terms):

$$\begin{array}{l} b(0; 0); \\ b(1; 1); \\ \exists p_1 p_2 (b(i; p_1) \quad b(i + 1; p_2) \quad b(i + 2; p_1 + p_2)) \\ \quad b(n; p) \end{array}$$

The goal will be proved with backward-reasoning if the atoms are negative (yielding a proof of exponential size) and forward-reasoning if they are positive (yielding many proofs, one of which being linear).

In classical logic, polarities of connectives and atoms do not affect the provability of formulae, but still greatly affect the shape of proofs, and hence the basic proof-construction steps. This paper shows how the $DPLL(T)$ steps correspond to proof-construction steps for an appropriate management of polarities. Our focused sequent calculus $LK^P(T)$ for classical logic builds on previous systems based on LC [12, 18, 22], and is syntactically closest to LKF [26], now quite standard.

In order to make logical sense of e.g. the primitive addition in the Fibonacci example above, we only enrich LKF with the ability to call a decision procedure to decide the consistency of conjunctions of literals w.r.t. a theory (i.e. the same as $DPLL(T)$): for

¹ that allows more advanced features such as backjumping

² In brief, the inference rules decomposing the connectives of the same polarity can be chained without losing completeness - see e.g. [1, 28].

a theory that equates \perp and \top , a call to the procedure proves $p(2); p^? (1 + 1)'$ in one step (unlike LKF's syntactic checks).

System LKF also assumes that all atoms come with a pre-determined polarity, where $\text{atom}^P(T)$ allows on-the-fly polarisation of atoms: the root of a proof-tree might have none of its atoms polarised, but atoms may become positive or negative as progress is made in the proof-search.

2.2 The $LK^P(T)$ sequent calculus with analytic cuts

This sequent calculus (and this logic) involves a notion of literal and a notion of theory. The reader can safely see behind this terminology the standard notions from proof theory and automated reasoning. However at this point, very little is required from or assumed about those two notions.

Definition 1 (Literals)

Let L be a set of elements called literals, equipped with an involutive function called negation from L to L . In the rest of this paper, a possibly primed or indexed lower case letter always denotes a literal, and $l^?$ its negation.

Another ingredient of $LK^P(T)$ is a theory T , given in the form of an inconsistency predicate, a notion that we now introduce:

Definition 2 (Inconsistency predicates)

An inconsistency predicate is a predicate over sets of literals satisfied by the set $I; I^?$ for every literal l ; that is upward closed (if a subset of a set satisfies the predicate, so does the set); such that if the set $B; I$ and $P; I^?$ satisfy it then so does B .

The smallest inconsistency predicate is called syntactical inconsistency predicate. If a set P of literals satisfies the syntactical inconsistency predicate, we say that P is syntactically inconsistent denoted $P \neq$. Otherwise P is syntactically consistent.

The theory T in the notation $LK^P(T)$ is described by means of an (other) inconsistency predicate, called semantical inconsistency predicate which will be a formal parameter of the inference system defining $LK^P(T)$.

If a set P of literals satisfies the semantical inconsistency predicate, we say that P is semantically inconsistent or inconsistent modulo theory denoted by $P \neq_T$. Otherwise P is semantically consistent or consistent modulo theory.

Definition 3 (Formulae, negation)

Let L be a set of literals. The formulae of propositional polarised classical logic are given by the following grammar:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Formulae } A; B; \dots ::= & l \quad \text{where } l \text{ ranges over } L \\ & j \ A^{\wedge+} B \ j \ A_{-}^{+} B \ j \ >^{+} j \ ?^{+} \\ & j \ A^{\wedge-} B \ j \ A_{-}^{-} B \ j \ >^{-} j \ ?^{-} \end{aligned}$$

The size of a formula A , denoted $|A|$, is its size as a tree (number of nodes).

Let $P \subseteq L$ be syntactically consistent.

Intuitively, it represents the set of literals declared to be positive.

We define P -positive formulae and P -negative formulae as the formulae generated by the following grammars:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{P-positive formulae } P; \dots ::= & p \ j \ A^{\wedge+} B \ j \ A_{-}^{+} B \ j \ >^{+} j \ ?^{+} \\ \text{P-negative formulae } P; \dots ::= & p^? \ j \ A^{\wedge-} B \ j \ A_{-}^{-} B \ j \ >^{-} j \ ?^{-} \end{aligned}$$

where p ranges over P .

Formulae that are neither P -positive nor P -negative are said to be P -unpolarised.

³It is the predicate that is true of a set of literals iff P contains both l and $l^?$ for some $l \in L$.

⁴These are necessarily literals.

Negation is recursively extended into an involutive map on formulae as follows:

$(A \wedge^+ B)^?$	$:= A^? _ B^?$	$(A \wedge^- B)^?$	$:= A^? _+ B^?$
$(A _+ B)^?$	$:= A^? \wedge B^?$	$(A _ B)^?$	$:= A^? \wedge^+ B^?$
$(>^+)^?$	$:= ?$	$(>^-)^?$	$:= ?^+$
$(?^+)^?$	$:= >$	$(?^-)^?$	$:= >^+$

Remark 1 Note that, given a syntactically consistent set of literals, negations of P -positive formulae are P -negative and vice versa.

Notation $\{A\}$ possibly primed or indexed always denotes a set of formulae. By lit we denote the subset of elements that are literals, and we write $l \in \text{lit}$ if l or $l^?$ appears in lit .

Definition 5 (System $LK^P(T)$)

The system $LK^P(T)$ is the sequent calculus defined by the rules of Figure 1, which fall into three categories: synchronous, asynchronous and structural rules, and manipulate two kinds of sequents:

$$\frac{\Gamma, P \quad \Delta, [A]}{\Gamma, P \quad \Delta, O} \quad \text{where the formula } A \text{ is in the focus of the sequent}$$

where P is a syntactically consistent set of literals declared to be positive.

A sequent of the second kind where O is empty is called developed.

The gradual proof-tree construction defined by the bottom-up application of the inference rules of $LK^P(T)$, is a goal-directed mechanism whose intuition can be given as follows:

Asynchronous rules are invertible (\wedge^-) and ($_$) are applied eagerly when trying to construct the proof-tree of a given sequent; (Store) is applied when hitting a positive formula or a negative literal on the right-hand side of a sequent, storing its negation on the left; (Pol) is the on-the-fly polarisation rule, applied on demand, for instance when a right-hand side literal is of undetermined polarity and therefore cannot yet be stored.

When the right-hand side of a sequent becomes empty (i.e. the sequent is developed) a sanity check can be made with (Limit₂) to check the semantical consistency of the stored literals (w.r.t. the theory), otherwise a choice must be made to place a positive formula in focus, using rule (Select), before applying synchronous rules like (\wedge^+) and ($_+$). Each such rule decomposes the formula in focus, keeping the revealed sub-formulae in the focus of the corresponding premises, until a positive literal or a non-positive formula is obtained: the former case must be closed immediately with (Init₁) calling the decision procedure, and the latter case uses the (Release) rule to drop the focus and start applying asynchronous rules again. The synchronous and the structural rules are in general not invertible⁵, so each application of those yields in general a backtrack point in the proof-search.

Notice that an invariant of such a proof-tree construction process is that the left-hand side of a sequent only contains negative formulae and positive literals.

Notation Δ When F is a formula of unpolarised propositional logic and lit is a set of such formulae, $j \models F$ means that entails F in propositional classical logic. Given a theory (given by a semantical inconsistency predicate), we define the set of theory lemmas as $\text{lit} := \{l_1 _ _ l_n \ j \ l_i^? \ ; \ l_n^? \ j \ T \ g \text{ and generalise the notation } j \models_T \text{ to write } j \models_T F \text{ when } T; \ j \models F. \text{ In that case we say that } F \text{ is a semantical consequence of } T. \text{ For any polarised}$

⁵(but they may be so, e.g. \wedge^+)

Synchronous rules	
$(\wedge^+) \frac{, P [A] \quad , P [B]}{, P [A \wedge B]}$	$(\neg^+) \frac{, P [A_i]}{, P [A_1 \neg A_2]}$
$(>^+) \frac{}{, P [>^+]}$	$(\text{Init}_1) \frac{}{, P; p [p]} \text{lit}; p^? j = \tau$
	$(\text{Release}) \frac{, P N}{, P [N]} N \text{ is not P-positive}$
Asynchronous rules	
$(\wedge^-) \frac{, P A_i;^0 \quad , P B_i;^0}{, P A \wedge B_i;^0}$	$(\neg^-) \frac{, P A_1; A_2;^0}{, P A_1 \neg A_2;^0}$
	$(?) \frac{, P^0}{, P q_i;^?}$
	$(>) \frac{}{, P q_i;^>}$
$(\text{Pol}) \frac{, P; i^0 \quad ^? \quad \text{62 } P}{, P^0 \quad \quad ;^0}$	$(\text{Store}) \frac{; A^? \quad , P^0}{, P A_i;^0} A \text{ is P-positive or a P-negative literal}$
Structural rules	
$(\text{Select}) \frac{; P^? \quad , P [P]}{; P^? \quad , P} P \text{ is P-positive}$	$(\text{Init}_2) \frac{}{, P} \text{lit } j = \tau$

Figure 1. System $LK^P(T)$

formula A , let \underline{A} be the unpolished formula obtained by removing all polarities on connectives.

Theorem 2 (Cut-elimination and Completeness of $LK^P(T)$) [16]

The following analytic cut-rules are admissible in $LK^P(T)$:

$$(\text{cut}) \frac{, P |^? \quad , P |}{, P} |$$

If $j = \tau \vdash F$, then for all A such that $\underline{A} = F$ and all P , we can prove $, P A$ in $LK^P(T)$.

The meta-theory of $LK^P(T)$, in particular the proofs of the above, can be found in [16].

3. The elementary DPLL (T) procedure

Intuitively, DPLL (T) aims at proving the inconsistency of a set of clauses with respect to a theory. We therefore retain from the previous section the notion of literal and inconsistencies, and introduce clauses:

Definition 7 (Clause)

A clause is a finite set of literals, which can be seen as their disjunction.

In the rest of the paper, a possibly indexed upper case letter denotes a clause. The empty clause is denoted by ϵ . The number of literals in a clause C is denoted by $|C|$. The possibly indexed symbol C_1, \dots, C_n always denotes finite sets of clauses $\{C_1, \dots, C_n\}$, which can also be seen as a Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF). We use $\sum C_i$ to denote the sum of the sizes of the clauses in C_i . Finally $\text{lit}(C)$ denotes the set of literals that appear in C or whose negations appear in C .

Viewing clauses as disjunctions of literals and sets of clauses as CNF, we will generalise Notation 6, writing for instance $j = \tau \vdash C$ or $j = \tau \vdash C$, as well as $j = \tau \vdash C$ or $j = \tau \vdash C$.

Definition 8 (Decision literals and sequences)

We consider a (single) copy of the set of literals, denoted by L^d , whose elements are called decision literals which are just tagged clones of the literals in L . Decision literals are denoted by l^d .

We use the possibly indexed symbol to denote a finite sequence of possibly tagged literals, with ϵ denoting the empty sequence. We also use $l_1; l_2$ and $l_1; l_2$ to denote the suggested concatenation of sequences.

For such a sequence, we write \bar{l} for the subset of L^d containing all the literals in l with their potential tags removed. The sequences that DPLL (T) will construct will always be duplicate-free, so the difference between l and \bar{l} is just a matter of tags and ordering. When the context is unambiguous, we will sometimes use l when we mean \bar{l} .

We define $\text{Clo}(l) := \{l' \mid j = \tau \vdash g, l \text{ semantically entails } l'\}$, the closure of a sequence l by semantical entailment. For any set of clauses C the set of literals occurring in that are semantically entailed by C is denoted by $\text{Clo}(C) := \text{Clo}(C) \setminus \text{lit}(C)$.

Remark 3 Semantical consequences are the analogues of the consequences of a partial boolean assignment in the context of DPLL procedure for propositional logic without theory. Obviously, if $C_1 \vdash C_2$, then $C_1 \vdash \text{Clo}(C_2)$. If $C_1 \vdash C_2$, then for any C , $\text{Clo}(C_1) \vdash \text{Clo}(C_2)$.

We can now describe the elementary DPLL (T) procedure as a transition system between states.

Definition 9 (Elementary DPLL (T))

A state of the DPLL (T) procedure is either the state SAT, or a pair denoted by (k, l) , where k is a set of clauses and l is a sequence of possibly tagged literals. The transition rules of the elementary DPLL (T) procedure are given in Fig. 2.

⁶This exponent tag is a standard notation, standing for "decision".

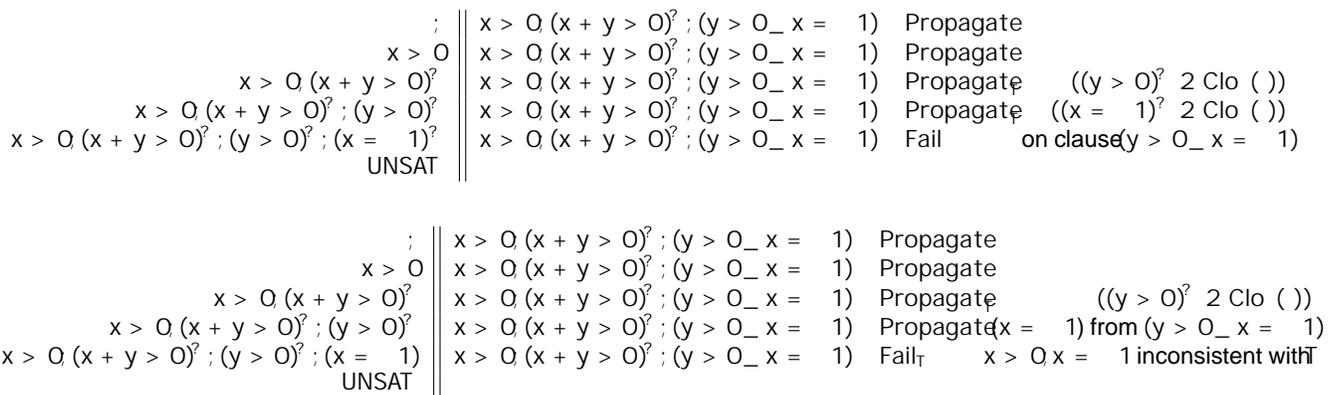


Figure 3. Examples of elementary DPLL(T) runs

Definition 12 (Incomplete proof-tree, extension)

An incomplete proof-tree in $LK^P(T)$ is a tree labelled with sequents,

- whose leaves are tagged as either open or closed
- whose open leaves are labelled with developed sequents;
- and such that every node that is not an open leaf, together with its children, forms an instance of the $LK^P(T)$ rules.

The size of an incomplete proof-tree is its number of nodes.

An incomplete proof-tree Γ is an extension of Γ' , if there is a tree (edge and nodes preserving) homomorphism from Γ to Γ' . It is an n -extension of Γ' , if moreover the difference of size between Γ and Γ' is less than or equal to n .

Remark 6 An incomplete proof-tree that has no open leaf is (isomorphic to) a well-formed complete $LK^P(T)$ proof of the sequent labelling its root. In that case, we say the proof-tree is complete.

The intuition that an intermediate DPLL(T) state describes an "interface" between an incomplete proof-tree and the complete proof-trees that should be plugged into its holes, is formalised as follows:

Definition 13 (Correspondance)

An incomplete proof-tree Γ corresponds to a DPLL(T) state k if:

- the length of $\bar{\Gamma} :: J \ K$ is the number of open leaves of Γ
- if $\bar{\Gamma}_i$ is the i th element of $\bar{\Gamma} :: J \ K$, then the i th open leaf of Γ (taken left-to-right) is labelled by a developed sequent of the form $\frac{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}$, where:
 - Γ_i represents (in the sense of Definition 10);
 - $Clo(\Gamma_i) = Clo(\Gamma_i^?)$.

An incomplete proof-tree Γ corresponds to the state UNSAT if it has no open leaf.

Remark 7 In the general case, different incomplete proof-trees might correspond to the same DPLL(T) state (just like different DPLL(T) runs may reach that state from the initial one).

Note that we do not require anything from the conclusion of an incomplete proof-tree corresponding to a DPLL(T) state: just as our correspondence says nothing about the DPLL(T) transitions taking place after k (nor about the trees to be plugged into the open leaves), it says nothing about the transitions taking place before k (nor about the incomplete proof-tree, except for its open leaves).

If an incomplete proof-tree Γ corresponds to a DPLL(T) state k where there are no decision literals in $\bar{\Gamma}$, then there is exactly

one open leaf in Γ , and it is labelled by a sequent of the form $\frac{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}$, where Γ_i represents and $Clo(\Gamma_i) = Clo(\Gamma_i^?)$.

To the initial state k of a run of the DPLL(T) procedure corresponds the incomplete proof-tree consisting of one node (both root and open leaf) labelled with the sequent $\bar{\Gamma}$, where Γ_i represents $\bar{\Gamma}$.

The simulation theorem below provides a systematic way of interpreting any DPLL(T) transition as a completion of incomplete proof-trees that preserves the correspondence given in Definition 13 and controls the growth of the proof trees.

Theorem 8 (Simulation of DPLL(T) in $LK^P(T)$)

If $k \rightarrow k'$ is a valid DPLL(T) transition, and Γ_1 is an incomplete proof tree in $LK^P(T)$ corresponding to k , then there exists a $(2|\bar{\Gamma}'| + 3)$ -extension Γ_2 of Γ_1 that corresponds to k' .

Proof: By case analysis on the nature of the transition, completing the leftmost open leaf of Γ_1 :

Decide $\frac{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}$ where $\Gamma_i \in \bar{\Gamma}, \Gamma_i^? \in \bar{\Gamma}'$.

Let Γ_1 be an incomplete proof-tree corresponding to k . The leftmost leaf (corresponding to $\bar{\Gamma}_i$) is of the form $\frac{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}$ where Γ_i represents and $Clo(\Gamma_i) = Clo(\Gamma_i^?)$.

We extend Γ_1 into Γ_2 by replacing the leftmost leaf by the following (incomplete) proof-tree:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?} \quad \Gamma_i^?}{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?} \quad \Gamma_i^?}{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}}$$

Note that we use here the analytic cut rule in $LK^P(T)$. Γ_2 is a 3-extension of Γ_1 that corresponds to k' . Indeed, we have $\bar{\Gamma}_2 :: J \ \bar{\Gamma}' \ K = (\bar{\Gamma}_i \ ; \ \bar{\Gamma}_i^?) :: (\bar{\Gamma}_i^? \ ; \ \bar{\Gamma}_i^?) :: J \ K$ and $Clo(\bar{\Gamma}_i \ ; \ \bar{\Gamma}_i^?) = Clo(\bar{\Gamma}_i \ ; \ \bar{\Gamma}_i^?)$ and $Clo(\bar{\Gamma}_i^? \ ; \ \bar{\Gamma}_i^?) = Clo(\bar{\Gamma}_i^? \ ; \ \bar{\Gamma}_i^?)$. The two new leaves are tagged as open.

Propagate $\frac{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}$ where $\Gamma_i \in \bar{\Gamma}, \Gamma_i^? \in \bar{\Gamma}'$.

Let Γ_1 be an incomplete proof-tree corresponding to k ; $\bar{\Gamma}_i \in \bar{\Gamma}$. The open leaf corresponding to $\bar{\Gamma}_i$ is of the form $\frac{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}{\Gamma_i \quad \Gamma_i^?}$ where Γ_i represents $\bar{\Gamma}_i$ and $Clo(\Gamma_i) = Clo(\Gamma_i^?)$.

Corollary 9

If $k \in \mathbb{N}$ is UNSAT and σ represents then there is a complete proof in $LK^P(T)$ of size smaller than $(2k + 3)n$.

5. Completing the bisimulation

Now the point of having mentioned quantitative information in Theorem 8, via the notion of δ -extension, is to motivate the idea that performing proof-search directly in $LK^P(T)$ is in essence not less efficient than running $\delta PLL(T)$: we have a linear bound in the length of the $\delta PLL(T)$ run (and the proportionality ratio is itself an affine function of the size of the original problem).

We also need to make sure that this final proof-tree is indeed found as efficiently as running $\delta PLL(T)$, which can be done by identifying, in $LK^P(T)$, a (complete) search space that is isomorphic to (and hence no wider than) that of $\delta PLL(T)$. We analyse for this a proof-search strategy, $\text{lik}^P(T)$, that exactly captures the proof-extensions that we have used in the simulation of $\delta PLL(T)$, i.e. the proof of Theorem 8:

Definition 14 $\delta PLL(T)$ -extensions

An incomplete proof tree π_2 is a $\delta PLL(T)$ -extension of an incomplete proof tree π_1 if

1. it extends π_1 by replacing its leftmost open leaf with an incomplete proof-tree of one of the forms:

$$\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ \hline ; A \text{ ? } \text{ , } P \quad [A] \\ \hline ; A \text{ ? } \text{ , } P \end{array} \quad (a) \quad \frac{\text{ , } P \quad | \quad \text{ , } P \text{ ?}}{\text{ , } P} \quad (b)$$

$$\frac{\text{ , } P \text{ ?}}{\text{ , } P} \quad (c) \quad \frac{}{\text{ , } P} \quad \text{lit } j = T$$

where

- (a) A is a (positive) conjunction of literals that are all P -unpolarised except maybe one that is P -unpolarised
- (b) the only instances of P in the above proof are of the form $\text{ , } P \text{ ? } |$

- (c) $|$ with $\text{lit } j = T$

2. any incomplete proof-tree satisfying point 1. and extended by π_2 is π_2 itself.

Given a $\delta PLL(T)$ -extension, we can now identify a $\delta PLL(T)$ transition that the extension simulates, in the sense of Theorem 8:

Theorem 10 (Simulation of the strategy $\text{lik}^P(T)$)

If π_2 is a $\delta PLL(T)$ -extension of π_1 , and π_1 corresponds to k , then there is a (unique) $\delta PLL(T)$ transition $(k) \rightarrow S_2$ such that π_2 corresponds to S_2 .

Proof: By case analysis on the shape of the incomplete proof-tree replacing the leftmost open leaf of π_1 . Out of the four shapes of definition 14:

- for the first one: if there is no P -unpolarised literal in A , it is simulated by fail or Backtrack (depending on whether π_2 is complete) on the clause represented by A ; if not, it is simulated by Propagate on the clause represented by A ;
- the second one is simulated by $\text{decide } l$;
- the third one is simulated by $\text{propagate } l$;
- the fourth one is simulated by fail or Backtrack (depending on whether π_2 is complete).

The details are the same as in the proof of Theorem 8.

If a complete proof-tree of $LK^P(T)$, whose conclusion is an SMT-problem,¹¹ systematically uses the rules in the way described by the above shapes, then it is the image of a $\delta PLL(T)$ run.

While it could be envisaged to simulate $\delta PLL(T)$ in a Gentzen-style sequent calculus (with a variant of Theorem 8), the above definition and theorem reveal the advantage of using a focused sequent calculus for polarised logic: Definition 14 presents different ways of starting the extension of an open branch (whose leaf sequent is developed), each one of them corresponding to a specific $\delta PLL(T)$ transition; the focusing takes care of the following steps of the extension so that, when hitting developed sequents again, the exact simulation of the $\delta PLL(T)$ transition has been performed.

In order for proof-search mechanisms to exactly match $\delta PLL(T)$ transitions, focusing therefore provides the right level of granularity and (together with an appropriate management of polarities) the right level of determinism.

Corollary 11 (Bisimulation)

The correspondance relation (see definition 13) between incomplete proof trees and $\delta PLL(T)$ states is a bisimulation for the transition system defined on incomplete proof-trees of $LK^P(T)$ by the strategy of $\delta PLL(T)$ -extensions and on states of $\delta PLL(T)$.

Finally, obtaining this tight result is the reason why we identified the elementary $\delta PLL(T)$ system, a restriction of the abstract δPLL Modulo Theories system of [32]:

Modern SMT-solvers feature some mechanisms that are not part of our (logically complete) elementary $\delta PLL(T)$ system but increase efficiency, such as backjumping and lemma learning (cf. rules T -Backjump T -Learn in [32]).

It is possible to simulate those rules in $LK^P(T)$ by using general cuts, by extending with identical steps several open branches of incomplete proof-trees, and possibly by using explicit weakenings (depending on whether we adapt the correspondance between $\delta PLL(T)$ states and incomplete proof-trees).

But the price of this is high at the theoretical level: With such "parallel extensions" of incomplete proof-trees, it is not clear how to count the sizes of proofs and extensions in a meaningful way, so the quantitative aspects of Theorem 8 and Corollary 9 are compromised; neither is it clear which criterion on proof-trees (and on how to extend them) identifies the proof-construction strategy that is the exact image of $\delta PLL(T)$ procedure featuring those advanced mechanisms. In other words, it is not clear how to obtain such a tight correspondance.

6. $\delta PLL(T)$ in PSYCHE

The above description of $\delta PLL(T)$ as a proof-search mechanism of $LK^P(T)$ has been implemented as a plugin for PSYCHE [20, 33], a proof-search engine for $LK^P(T)$.

6.1 PSYCHE'S overview

PSYCHE is a proof-search tool for the sequent calculus presented in Section 2, implemented in OCaml. The construction of a proof-tree for a given formula results from the interaction between a small kernel and plugins, which only agree on the data structures used in their interaction. The former is parametrised by a decision procedure $\text{for } l$ and implements the rules of $LK^P(T)$ (bottom-up), offering an API to apply synchronous rules (mainly, the choice of focus) while automatically applying asynchronous rules which are invertible, and therefore represent no backtrack point. A plugin implements a strategy that drives the kernel, by calling its API

¹¹i.e. it corresponds to an initial state of $\delta PLL(T)$

¹²mostly by specifying the management of polarities

functions, towards either a proof or the guarantee that no proof exists. Plugins can be used to import efficient automated reasoning techniques in this goal-directed framework by specifying in which order (and to which depth) the branches of the search-space should be explored. The implementation of plugins is however not trusted for soundness: the worst that a plugin can do is crash the program, not affect its output. An expanded description of PSYCHE can be found in [20].

6.2 A plugin for DPLL(T)

Version 1.5 of PSYCHE comes with a plugin implementing the simulation of DPLL(T) as described in Section 4. Every time a rule is applied, the plugin calls the API function that takes as input a formula to focus on, feeding it with the appropriate clause. That function also accepts the alternative instruction of making a cut, which is what the plugin uses to simulate decide Backtrack and Propagate are done eagerly by the technique of watched literals [30].

As mentioned in the previous section, the theoretical simulation of the full DPLL(T) system, with backjumping and lemma learning requires extending several branches of open proof-trees with parallel steps. To avoid compromising on efficiency, our plugin for PSYCHE implements these advanced features, without departing from the theory described in this paper but using an alternative technique: it simply uses memoisation for the proof-search function. This is used to close, in one single step, any branch that would otherwise be closed by repeating the same steps as in another subproof. In particular, doing this avoids repeating, several times, the proof-construction steps of a “parallel extension” corresponding to a single backjump.

Memoisation is also a way of performing clause-learning: Even though our DPLL(T) plugin never actually adds a learnt clause to the original set of clauses (which it could actually do with a general cut), it rather relies on the memoisation table: a learnt clause is a clause for which we know that $\models_{\mathcal{T}} C$, and that is made available for Fail, Backtrack or Propagate. Such a clause corresponds to a key $\langle C, \pi \rangle$ of the memoisation table, with its proof as value. A state where C can be used for Fail or Backtrack is necessarily a sequent weakening $\langle C, \pi \rangle$ with extra formulae or literals, so the proof recorded in the memoisation table can be plugged there to close the current branch. When C can be used for Propagate it suffices to make a cut on the missing literal: one branch will be closed by plugging-in the proof recorded in the memoisation table, while the other branch will continue the simulation.

The memoisation table is filled-in by clause-learning: our plugin adds an entry whenever it builds a complete proof of some sequent $\Gamma, C \Rightarrow \Delta$ and no previous entry $\langle \Gamma', C', \pi' \rangle$ exists with $\Gamma \supseteq \Gamma'$, or whenever it concludes that some sequent $\Gamma, C \Rightarrow \Delta$ is not provable and no previous entry $\langle \Gamma', C', \pi' \rangle$ exists with $\Gamma \supseteq \Gamma'$. For the table to cut computation as often as possible, a pre-processing step is applied to a proof-tree before it enters the table: it is pruned from every formula that is not used in the proof, which is easy to do for complete proofs (eager weakening is applied a posteriori by inspection of the inductive structure). PSYCHE’s kernel instead performs pruning on-the-fly, whenever an inference is added to complete proofs. Since proof-completion can be seen as finding a conflict, pruning by eager weakening is a conflict analysis process naturally provided by structural proof theory. Of course, the efficiency of pruning relies on the efficiency of the decision procedure in providing a small inconsistent subset whenever it decides that a set of literals is inconsistent.

6.3 Examples

PSYCHE’s webpage (examples section) shows the output of PSYCHE when it is run, with its DPLL(T) plugin, on the instance that we

used in Fig. 3 to illustrate the elementary DPLL(T) system. On the left, the source produced by PSYCHE can be compiled, producing in pdf format the proof-tree LK^P(T) that corresponds to the second run of Fig. 3). Treating bigger problems, we have evaluated the efficiency of PSYCHE on two standard benchmarks for automated decision procedures. The first set of problems is composed of purely propositional formulae (SAT problems) and is a subset of the Satisfiability Library (SATLIB) benchmark [21]. The second set of problems is composed of quantifier-free problems in the theory of linear rational arithmetic (QFLRA) and is a fragment of the Satisfiability Modulo Theory Library (SMTLIB) benchmark [3]. All the results can be found on the PSYCHE website [33]. Comparing the current implementation of PSYCHE with state-of-the-art SAT and SMT solvers would make little sense: the current version of PSYCHE plugin does not incorporate techniques that are now folklore for SAT solvers, nor any kind of pre-processing. Moreover the decision procedure used by version 1.5 of PSYCHE for linear arithmetic is a very naive version of the simplex algorithm, and most importantly it does not implement the incremental version of this algorithm which is best suited to the needs of an SMT solver. We however believe that the performance results obtained by PSYCHE are promising and we plan to enrich its collection of plugins in order to benefit at least from pre-processing [15] and restart policies [19]. We also plan to interface PSYCHE with decision procedures for a broader range of theories, in order to be able to cover more benchmarks from the SMTLIB.

7. Related Work

In this paper we used the focused sequent calculus LK^P(T) for polarised classical logic, which considerably narrows the search space provided by Gentzen’s sequent calculus. As already mentioned in Section 2.1, LK^P(T) is a variant of LKF [26], enriched with the ability to polarise atoms on-the-fly, and of course the ability to call a decision procedure as DPLL(T).

We also allow an analytic cut-rule notwithstanding that proof-search in sequent calculus is usually done in a cut-free system, as the cut-rule usually unreasonably widens the search-space. Analytic cuts only concern atomic cut-formulae among the finitely many atoms present in the rest of the sequent. Allowing them does widen the search space (which we narrowed in other ways) but this sometimes permits to draw quicker conclusions, in a way similar to DPLL(T)’s Deciderule.

Miller and Nigam [27] have already shown how to use analytic cuts to incorporate tables into proofs, i.e. make sure that, once an atom is proved or known to be true (from a table of lemmas), the subsequent proof-search never tries to re-prove it. This is achieved by giving, to the atom that is cut, two opposite polarities in the two premisses of the cut. The simulation of DPLL(T)’s Deciderule in LK^P(T) uses the same trick.

Moreover, their approach seems to have strong links with the memoisation table that our PSYCHE implementation uses to avoid re-proving sequents. So far, our memoisation table is not reflected in the sequent calculus itself, but we could envisage adapting their approach, possibly capturing the interaction with the memoisation table by the use of general cuts. Proof-search may then depart from the mere gradual construction of a proof-tree. But an appealing idea is that the cleverness that goes into finding a Theory lemma (i.e. a key of the memoisation table) translates as the cleverness that goes into picking a good cut-formula during proof-search. Indeed, for the mere simulation of our elementary DPLL(T) system, no memoisation table is required, just as no cut-formula ever needs to be picked.

Also note that the simulation of elementary DPLL(T) is tight and can be quantified: the bounds that we computed show that

proof-search $\text{irLK}^P(T)$ is no less efficient. Lifting this to the advanced features would require taking memoisation and/or general cuts into account (future work). This also hints at the field of proof complexity: the power of DPLL with or without backjumping, clause learning, etc., has been connected to proof complexity via Resolution systems [7]. But there is also a literature on proof complexity in sequent calculus (with/without cuts), which our approach should relate to.

While resolution systems have also been a way to relate DPLL and its variants to formal proof theory, the present paper was motivated by the import of such algorithms in a goal-directed framework, on which many systems (e.g. ProLog) are based. Resolution trees have also been used to perform conflict analysis; but since abstract presentations of $\text{DPLL}(T)$ [32] abstract away the conflict analysis method (so as to accommodate any strategy), so did we (in the theory). On the other hand, our implementation of PSYCHE performs a conflict analysis according to a proof-theoretical method: eager weakenings a posteriori; and this we intend to compare to conflict analysis methods based on resolution trees or conflict graphs.

Finally, a similar interaction between generic reasoning mechanisms and domain-specific methods can be found in the field of Constraint Logic Programming (CLP), but usually using traditional fragments of logic such as that of Horn clauses or Hereditary Harrop Formulae [23]. In a sense, system $\text{irLK}^P(T)$ could be seen as going one step further to full (polarised) classical logic, making it a natural candidate framework to relate SMT and CLP techniques. However, the handling of quantifiers is an important aspect of CLP, so relating our work to [23] would require extending $\text{irLK}^P(T)$ with quantifiers, which is work-in-progress.

8. Conclusion and Further work

In this paper we have identified an elementary $\text{DPLL}(T)$ procedure and established a bisimulation with the gradual construction of proof-trees $\text{irLK}^P(T)$ according to a simple strategy.

While $\text{irLK}^P(T)$ differs from the inference system of e.g. [34] (e.g. we still take formulae to be trees and inference rules to organise the root-first decomposition of their connectives, rather than using $\text{DPLL}(T)$'s more flexible structures), it would be interesting to capture some of the related systems that extend $\text{DPLL}(T)$ with e.g. full first-order logic and/or equality [4–6]. The full version of $\text{irLK}^P(T)$ is indeed designed for handling quantifiers and equalities, so we hope to relate it to other techniques such as unification, paramodulation, superposition, etc.

This is also our challenge for the PSYCHE implementation: ideally, try to show how the smart mechanisms that we know to be efficient at proving something, can be emulated or decomposed into an interaction between our kernel and a specific plugin to be programmed. This would turn PSYCHE into a modular and collaborative platform, a standard format of problem-solving mechanisms where each technique can play its part, be it from start to finish, or in collaboration with each other or a human user.

We can imagine using a proof assistant to prove PSYCHE's correctness [11], since the kernel is small, not using any imperative features, and the plugins need not be certified. This approach is an alternative to existing techniques of certification of SMT tools (or of any other technique that could instead be implemented as a PSYCHE plugin).

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