# **Parallel Verification of Natural Deduction Proof Graphs**

James T. Oswald

Brandon Rozek

Rensselaer AI & Reasoning (RAIR) Lab, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (RPI) Troy, New York, USA {oswalj, rozekb}@rpi.edu

Graph-based interactive theorem provers offer a visual representation of proofs, explicitly representing the dependencies and inferences between each of the proof steps in a graph or hypergraph format. The number and complexity of these dependency links can determine how long it takes to verify the validity of the entire proof. Towards this end, we present a set of parallel algorithms for the formal verification of graph-based natural deduction ( $\mathcal{ND}$ ) style proofs. We introduce a definition of layering that captures dependencies between the proof steps (nodes). Nodes in each layer can then be verified in parallel as long as prior layers have been verified. To evaluate the performance of our algorithms on proof graphs, we propose a framework for finding the performance bounds and patterns using directed acyclic network topologies (DANTs). This framework allows us to create concrete instances of DANTs for empirical evaluation of our algorithms. With this, we compare our set of parallel algorithms against a serial implementation with two experiments: one scaling the problem size and the other scaling the number of threads. Our findings show that parallelization results in improved verification performance for certain DANT instances. We also show that our algorithms scale for certain DANT instances with respect to the number of threads.

# **1** Introduction

A major role of an interactive theorem prover is to take an existing proof and verify that it is valid with respect to the logical calculi used. This involves iterating over each step of a proof and verifying both that it syntactically matches the transformation of the formula under the rule, and that it is valid with respect to the semantics of the underlying proof system. Interactive theorem provers such as Coq [19], Lean [14], and HyperSlate [4] verify not only that the proof written by the user is correct, but also every underlying proof that the given proof depends on. This generally amounts to verifying large portions of the standard library and other popular libraries such as mathlib [6]. Our work makes a step toward speeding up the proof verification process. We focus on the verification of natural deduction proof graphs, such as those represented in HyperSlate, though the ideas from this approach could be adapted to other interactive theorem provers as well.

In order to speed up verification, we look toward parallel computing. One naive implementation would be to verify all the proof steps in parallel. This assumes, however, that the step has all the semantic information needed to show validity. This is often not the case for many logic calculi. Assumptions are introduced and discharged in the case of natural deduction. Variables may be assigned to constants. These issues present a constraint that in order to parallelize verification, we need to ensure that some steps are verified before others. We achieve this by introducing a layering approach. Given a definition of layering that induces a topological partial order, every step within a layer n only depends on steps within the layers prior. Given these layers, we can then verify all the steps that are from the same layer in parallel without worrying about invalidating the underlying semantics. To illustrate this approach, we present the parallel verification of natural deduction proof graphs.

A. Ciaffaglione and C. Olarte (Eds.): Logical Frameworks and Meta-Languages: Theory and Practice (LFMTP 2023) EPTCS 396, 2023, pp. 36–51, doi:10.4204/EPTCS.396.4 © J. Oswald and B. Rozek This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution License. The underlying dependency nature of each of the steps induces a directed acyclic hypergraphical representation where nodes hold  $\mathcal{ND}$  statements and hyperedges between nodes represent inference rules. This graphical representation not only gives us an easy way to visualize such proofs, but also provides insight on empirically validating our parallel algorithms. Inspired by computer network topologies, we introduce directed acyclic network topologies (DANTs) as a way to identify classes of graphical proofs. These topologies provide a method of comparing the performance of different verification strategies on various proof structures.

The contributions of this work are as follows: (1) A layering approach that decouples the dependencies of proof steps within  $\mathcal{ND}$  proofs. (2) Parallel verification algorithms that outperform serial verification on non-straight topologies and scales with the number of hardware-based threads. (3) Introduction of several classes of graphical proofs, with an eye on empirical evaluation. The relevant background which includes  $\mathcal{ND}$  and hypergraphical representations is discussed in §2. Within §3, we discuss the proof verification algorithm and several optimizations. Then in §4, we discuss directed acyclic network topologies to empirically evaluate common proof structures. In that section, we also discuss our performance and scaling results. We then conclude by talking about related work in §5.

# 2 Background

#### 2.1 Natural Deduction

Natural deduction ( $\mathcal{ND}$ ) is a logic calculus independently proposed in [10, 12] in an effort to emulate human-level reasoning through assumptions and chains of inference. There are many different styles of proof that fall under natural deduction, the three most common come from Gentzen [10], Jaśkowski [12], and Fitch [9]. However, we are mainly interested in a style that interoperates with a hypergraphical representation of natural deduction proofs.

Figure 1: Our inference schemata for natural deduction. Within each schema,  $\Gamma, \Sigma, \Delta$  are sets of formulae, and  $\phi, \psi, \chi$  are meta-logical variables which range over formulae. Note that our formulation of  $\neg I, \neg E, \leftrightarrow I, \leftrightarrow E$  differs from those typically seen in other works such as [17] but are equivalent.

In this paper, we focus on propositional natural deduction. Let p denote an atomic proposition. The language of propositional logic may be defined inductively using Backus Naur Form (BNF) as the following:

$$\phi ::= p |\neg \phi| (\phi \land \phi) | (\phi \lor \phi) | (\phi \to \phi) | (\phi \leftrightarrow \phi)$$

Our inference rules for  $\mathcal{ND}$  are summarized in Figure 1<sup>1</sup>. This formalization is modeled after Bringsjord [3] and fully captures the notion of discharging of assumptions. It is also particularly well suited to hypergraphical representation, which will be discussed in §2.2. These inference rules can be broadly split into two categories: (1) introduction rules ( $\wedge I, \vee I_l, \vee I_r, \neg I, \rightarrow I, \leftrightarrow I$ ), in which a logical connective is introduced into the conclusion, and (2) elimination rules ( $\wedge E_l, \wedge E_r, \vee E, \neg E, \rightarrow E, \leftrightarrow E_l, \leftrightarrow E_r$ ), in which a connective in a rule's premise is removed in its conclusion. The outlier here is the Assumption rule (A) which allows us to assert { $\phi$ }  $\vdash \phi$ , or in English, "assuming  $\phi$ ,  $\phi$  follows".

For a natural deduction proof, a step is considered valid if the formula is well-formed and it is justified by a rule of inference. Valid formulae with no assumptions are called tautologies. A proof is considered valid iff all of its steps are valid. An example of a valid proof can be seen in Figure 2.

$$\frac{\overline{\{\neg A\} \vdash \neg A} \land \overline{\{\neg B\} \vdash \neg B} \land A}{\frac{\{\neg B\} \vdash \neg A \land \neg B}{\{\neg B, \neg A\} \vdash \neg A \land \neg B} \land I} \land I}{\frac{\{\neg B, \neg A\} \vdash \neg A \land \neg B}{\{\neg B, \neg A\} \vdash \neg A} \land E_{l}}{\frac{\{A\} \vdash A}{\{A\} \vdash A}} \land E} \xrightarrow{A}{\frac{\{\neg A, A\} \vdash B}{\{A \lor B, \neg A\} \vdash B}} \lor E}$$

Figure 2: An example of a valid proof of *B* from  $\{A \lor B, \neg A\}$ . All steps are valid since at each step (1) all formulae are well formed and (2) the provided rule of inference can be legally applied at each stage given the current assumptions and premises.

#### 2.2 Hypergraphical Representation

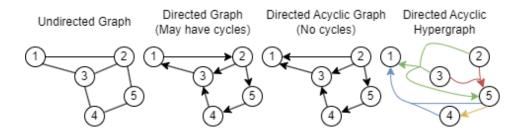


Figure 3: Visualizations of 4 different types of graphs, note that in the hypergraph, edges that share the same color are the same edge.

A natural deduction proof can be represented diagrammatically as a directed acyclic hypergraph [20, 1]. A directed acyclic hypergraph is a generalization of a directed acyclic graph (DAG) which is a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>While on the surface this formalization may appear similar to sequent natural deduction[16], we use " $\vdash$ " in this formalism to mean syntactic entailment, with  $\Gamma \vdash \phi$  being read as "Assuming  $\Gamma$ , then  $\phi$ " or " $\phi$  can be derived from  $\Gamma$ ".

mathematical structure (V, E) where V is a set of vertices and  $E : (V \times V)$  is a set of pairs of vertices. Acyclic in this context means that for any vertex v, it is not possible to find a path following the directed edges that leads to v. Directed acyclic hypergraphs extend this by allowing a set of vertices to be connected to a set of vertices by a single edge, thus a directed acyclic hypergraph is a structure (V, E) where V is a set of vertices and  $E : \mathscr{P}(V) \times \mathscr{P}(V)$ , where  $\mathscr{P}(V)$  is the power-set of the set of vertices. Figure 3 shows visualizations of the three graph formalisms described.

To represent natural deduction proofs as hypergraphs, vertices represent premises and conclusions, and edges represent inference rules. A *proof graph* will be defined as a hypergraph of the form (V, E) where V is a set of statements in the form  $\Gamma \vdash \phi$  and  $E : \mathscr{P}(V) \times V$  is the set of directed hypergraphical edges representing inference rules applied between statements in the proof.<sup>2</sup> This formalism underlies the representation of proofs in graphical interactive theorem provers such as [4, 15]. Figure 4 provides examples of two natural deduction proofs that have been converted to hypergraphical form.

Interactive theorem provers often do not force the user to keep track of proof state. Therefore, it is important to note that we are interested in verifying proof graphs where the assumptions on each node are yet to be known. We are only given the  $\phi$  on each node and must compute the  $\Gamma$  based on how the assumptions update within the inference rules. If we had both  $\Gamma$  and  $\phi$ , parallelization would be trivial, since we can then verify all the nodes in parallel.

Proof graphs implicitly provide additional useful features for representing collections of natural deduction proofs, particularly those that are commonly added onto natural deduction via additional formalisms. First, proof graphs provide the ability to compactly represent proofs that contain reoccurring subproofs. This is because each hyper-node may have multiple outgoing hyper-edges, representing multiple inferences it is used in. While this feature is implicitly captured by proof graphs, natural deduction proofs require an additional formalism allowing named theorems that can be used in other proofs to provide this functionally. Another feature is that a single proof graph can have multiple conclusions or even contain multiple proofs where each proof is a disjoint hyper-subgraph. Without proof graphs, the ability to represent this feature would require a formalism in which a set of proofs can be be treated as a single proof.

#### 2.3 Multiprocessing

In this work we use a shared memory model for multiprocessing. This involves multiple threads independently operating over the same shared memory space. More specifically, we make heavy use of single program multiple data (SPMD) style programs. With a fixed number of threads instantiated, we attempt to distribute work evenly across all the threads. Our work makes use of two important concepts from multi-processing: thread-safety and reductions (see [13] for more extensive coverage). *Thread-safety* within a shared memory model is the notion that parallel algorithms are safe from errors due to concurrent writes and reads from the same piece of memory, known as a *race condition*. The second concept is the notion of a parallel reduction. A *parallel reduction* is an operator that takes a list of elements and computes a single element in parallel. A small example of this would be parallel sum over the list (1,2,3,4): if we add 1 and 2 on one thread and 3 and 4 on another thread in parallel, and then sum their results, we can sum the entire list in 2 steps rather than the 3 steps it would take to sum the list in serial.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Note we use  $\mathscr{P}(V) \times V$  rather than  $\mathscr{P}(V) \times \mathscr{P}(V)$  since for all inference rules enumerated in Figure 1 there is only one conclusion, thus each hyper-edge representing an inference rule will only ever have one outgoing connection.

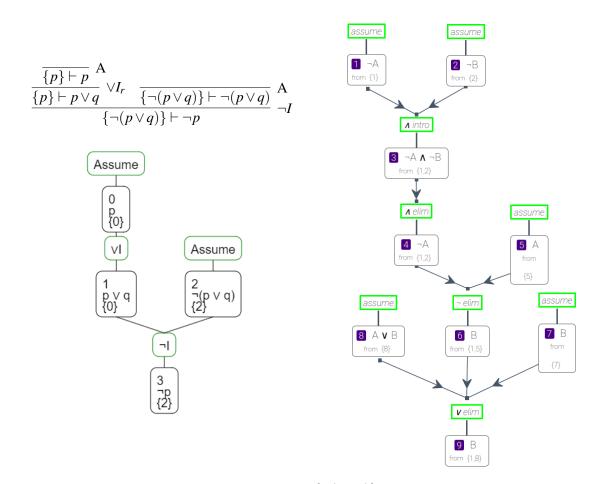


Figure 4: (Top Left) A valid natural deduction proof that  $\{\neg(p \lor q)\} \vdash \neg p$  (Bottom Left) The same proof represented as a hypergraphical proof graph structure in the Lazyslate interactive theorem prover[15]. (Right) Proof graph of the proof from Figure 2 of  $\{A \lor B, \neg A\} \vdash B$  in the HyperSlate [4] interactive theorem prover.

# 3 Approach

We mentioned in §2 that natural deduction makes use of assumptions and chains of inference in its proofs. In the hypergraphical representation, to show that a given node is valid, we need to show both that the *syntactic transformation* is valid and that the *assumption constraints* are met with respect to the justification used inside that proof. Let us consider the rule disjunction elimination (more commonly known as proof by cases) from Figure 1 and its usage in the right proof of Figure 4. For example, we wish to show that bottom node *B* is valid. For the syntactic check, we need to ensure that there are three parent nodes, one of them is a disjunct, and two of the other parent nodes match the current node. Then for the assumption constraints, we need to make sure that for one parent node *B* it has *A* in its assumption set, and for the other parent node *B* it has *B* in its assumption set. Note from our discussion of the hypergraphical representation in §2.2 that the underlying nodes do not contain the assumption information themselves, but they are computed by the application of each inference rule. This creates the need of an additional data structure that we call assumptions during the verification process. We obtain the justification of a given step by calling just on the node. This will return the justification that

is stored on the incoming edge of the node.

For a baseline comparison with the parallel verification algorithms, we designed a single-threaded implementation that shares the same algorithmic structure as the parallel ones minus the usage of shared memory and threading. The benchmark results are further discussed in §4. Our algorithm works by maintaining a global map of nodes to their set of assumptions. To ensure that a node does not get verified before its parent, we make use of a layering approach which induces a *topological partial ordering* on the nodes. A topological partial ordering, also referred to as *topological generations*, of a proof graph G = (V, E) is a partial ordering  $\preccurlyeq$  on the nodes V where for each hyperedge  $(\{v_{i0}, \dots, v_{in}\}, v_o)$ , all incoming nodes  $\{v_{i0}, \dots, v_{in}\}$  appear before the outgoing node  $v_o$ , that is  $\forall (V_i, v_o) \in E : \forall v_{ij} \in V_i : v_{ij} \preccurlyeq v_o$ . This layering approach for generating a topological partial ordering is similar to the well known serial topological sort algorithm [7] which generates a topological linear ordering of the nodes but lacks parallelizability. Figure 5 provides a colored example of the nodes on each layer. More formally, we define node n to be on a layer L(n) inductively as follows:

$$L(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is an assumption} \\ 1 + \max_{m \in P(n)}(L(m)), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(1)

where P(n) maps a node to its parents.

#### **3.1 Single-Threaded Implementation**

Algorithm 1 Single-Threaded Algorithm		
1:	procedure VERIFY(ProofGraph p)	
2:	Initialize assumptions to be empty.	
3:	Create set of nodes on each layer using Equation 1 and store in layerMap.	
4:	for layerNodes in layerMap do	
5:	for n in layerNodes do	
6:	justification = just(n)	
7:	$ruleInfo = (m, assumptions(m)) \forall m \in parents(n)$	
8:	if not is_valid(n, justification, ruleInfo) then	
9:	return false	
10:	Update assumptions(n) using the justification and ruleInfo.	
11:	return true	

The full single-threaded procedure is described in Algorithm 1. For every layer, the procedure performs the following actions: (1) Verify that the node is valid with respect to the justification claimed using the node's and its parents' syntactic information and the parents' assumption information. (2) If valid, update the assumptions data structure for the current node based on the parents' assumptions and justification.

In order to better highlight the progression of the algorithm, we will walk through an example by looking at the verification of Figure 4 (Right). Subscripts for the propositions help to distinguish between formulae by referencing the ID denoted inside the purple box in the figure. In the beginning of the algorithm, the first layer only contains assumptions:

 $\texttt{currentLayer} = \{ (\neg A)_1, (\neg B)_2, A_5, B_7, (A \lor B)_8 \}$ 

We then go through each node and verify them. Since they are justified as assumptions, they are trivially valid. The nodes then have their assumptions updated. The next layer only contains  $(\neg A \land \neg B)_3$ . This validates and the node's assumptions are updated to  $\{(\neg A)_1, (\neg B)_2\}$ . The third layer only contains  $(\neg A)_4$ . This validates and the assumptions are propagated forward. On the fourth layer, the node  $B_6$  is justified by negation elimination. This validates and the node's assumptions are set to  $\{(\neg A)_1, (A \land B)_2\}$ . The fifth and final layer only contains the node  $B_9$ . As the node is justified by disjunctive elimination and is valid, we update the assumptions to  $\{(\neg A)_1, (A \lor B)_8\}$ . As we have gone through all the layers successfully, the whole hypergraph is valid.

**Theorem 1.** For all Proof Graphs p the single-threaded VERIFY(p) is correct with respect to the validity of the  $\mathcal{ND}$  proof corresponding to p.

*Proof.* An algorithm is *correct* if it is sound and complete (termination is trivial). We prove completeness and soundness follows from symmetry. A natural deduction proof is valid if all steps are valid. For a step to be valid it needs to pass the *syntactic transformation* and the *assumption constraints*. From these, only the assumption constraint check requires information from outside the node and its parents. The rules of natural deduction in Figure 1 show how assumptions are computed based on the parent node's assumption sets. As such, parents of a node must be verified beforehand and have their assumption set only contains itself. Due to the definition of the layering in Equation 1 and its usage in Line 3, assumptions are verified and their assumptions are computed beforehand on lines 6-9. Inductively this means that all nodes are verified and have their assumptions computed successfully. Hence, the hypergraph proof itself is verified.

#### **3.2** Parallel Implementation (Non-optimized Parallel)

Within a layer, each node only depends on nodes in layers prior. This means that a node on some layer *n* does not depend on any other node on layer *n*. For our initial parallel implementation, fully described in Algorithm 2, we take advantage of this and verify the validity of each node on the same layer in parallel. In our implementation, we used a shared memory approach. To combat thread-safety issues we introduce a vector for each given layer called aIds. This vector lives in shared memory. Each entry holds a set of node ids and its length is the number of nodes in the current layer. After computing the layers, each node gets evenly distributed to the available threads. Each individual thread would then verify the nodes it was assigned and update the assumptions of the appropriate index within aIds. This is thread-safe because each entry only gets written to by the thread that its corresponding node id has been assigned to. The parallel portion of the algorithm additionally performs an AND reduction on the verification result of each node. This means that if any result of the individual verifications is false, then the entire verification result is false. After the parallel portion is finished, the global assumption map gets updated using aIds.

Let us illustrate the distribution of nodes with the example from Figure 5. In the graphic, the number at the top of each node represents its identifier. For brevity, we will use those numbers when referring to the nodes. As the zeroth layer only contains assumptions that are trivially verifiable, we will start our discussion from layer one. In this layer, we have the following nodes:

$$L(1) = \{5, 6, 8, 9, 15, 14, 21, 25, 17\}$$

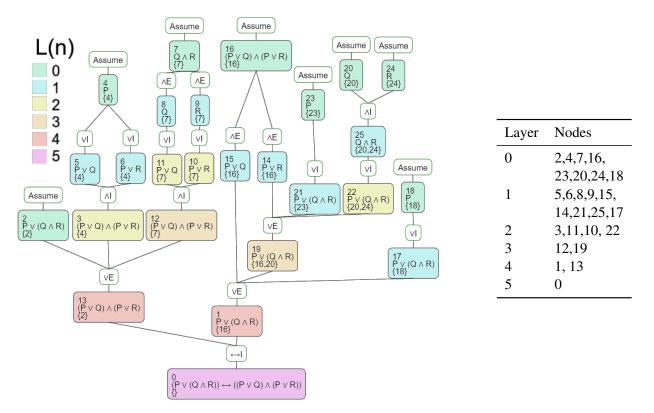


Figure 5: (Left) A proof of logical or ( $\lor$ ) distributivity over logical and ( $\land$ ). (Right) The nodes of the left proof grouped by layer.

For the sake of example, let us say we have three threads. Then thread 0 would be assigned  $\{5,6,8\}$ , thread 1 would be assigned  $\{9,15,14\}$ , and thread 2 would be assigned  $\{21,25,17\}$ . Let us focus on thread 0. Each of the three nodes verifies and the following assignments are made to aIds based on the justification used:

$$aIds(5) = \{assumptions(parent(5))\}$$
$$aIds(6) = \{assumptions(parent(6))\}$$
$$aIds(8) = \{assumptions(parent(8))\}$$

After the parallel portion, the data within aIds are copied into assumptions as a way to ensure threadsafety. On the next layer, we have the following nodes:  $L(2) = \{3, 11, 10, 22\}$ . This then gets distributed with thread 0 getting  $\{3, 11\}$ , thread 1 obtaining  $\{10\}$ , and thread 2 obtaining  $\{22\}$ . Focusing on the first thread again, the nodes verify and the following assignments are made to aIds:

$$aIds(3) = \{assumptions(5), assumptions(6)\}$$
  
 $aIds(11) = \{assumptions(8)\}$ 

Notice that each of the items in those sets contains assumptions that were computed in the previous layer. They were originally assigned within aIds but then copied to assumptions. The results of each individual node verification were stored in NodeValid which is then AND-reduced into the variable LayerValid. Hence after the end of the parallel portion, the variable LayerValid would be true unless one of the nodes in the parallel portion failed to verify.

Algorithm 2 Multi-Threaded Algorithm		
1:	procedure VERIFY(ProofGraph p)	
2:	Initialize assumptions to be empty.	
3:	Create set of nodes on each layer using Equation 1 and store in layerMap.	
4:	for layerNodes in layerMap do	
5:	nl = length(layerNodes)	
6:	aIds = sharedVector(length=nl)	
7:	LayerValid = true	
8:	for n in layerNodes in <i>parallel</i> do	
9:	justification = just(n)	
10:	$ruleInfo = (m, assumptions(m)) \forall m \in parents(n)$	
11:	NodeValid = is_valid(n, justification, ruleInfo)	
12:	if NodeValid then	
13:	Update aIds(n) using justification and ruleInfo	
14:	AND_reduce(LayerValid, NodeValid)	
15:	if not LayerValid then	
16:	return false	
17:	Update assumptions(n) using alds	
18:	return true	

### Algorithm 2 Multi-Threaded Algorithm

### 3.3 Multi-Threaded Static Load Balancing Optimization (Load Balancing)

Notice when going over Figure 5 in the last example that the distribution of nodes in the second layer was uneven. The assignment had one thread verifying two while the others verifying only a single one. In fact, we can speak to this more generally. Let *T* represent the number of threads available and  $l_i$  be the number of nodes in layer *i*. Let us assume that the verification of one node takes two units of work total: one to verify the syntax and one to verify the assumptions. Let  $m = l_i \mod T$ . Then, if  $m \neq 0$  there are (T - m) threads that are doing one less unit of work.

It is with this consideration that we look at static load balancing, presented in Algorithm 3. For the threads with one less unit of work, they take a node from a future layer and syntax verify them. This approach is valid because syntax verification only requires the current node and its parents' formulae which are stored in the proof graph and does not require additional information from the prior layers such as assumption sets. In order to ensure that the nodes that are syntax verified by the remaining (T - m) threads are distinct, we make use of another reduction variable numSyntaxVerified. Each thread would be assigned the node that's the sum of that variable and its thread id. Do note that this is different from dynamic load balancing as the amount of work is evenly distributed and does not take into account during runtime some threads finishing before others.

Let us turn to our example from Figure 5 again. Recall that the distribution of work at layer two was the following: thread 0 maps to  $\{3, 11\}$ , thread 1 has  $\{10\}$ , and thread 2 has  $\{22\}$ . We can then squeeze in syntax verification checks in thread 1 and thread 2. Then, the new allocation becomes: thread 0 maps to  $\{3, 11\}$ , thread 1 maps to  $\{10, x_s\}$ , and thread 2 maps to  $\{22, y_s\}$ . The subscript denotes how we are only performing a syntax verification at that step. Recall that we can not perform full verification of nodes in future layers because we do not know if there's a node on the current layer that its assumptions depends on. The question then is: how are  $x_s$  and  $y_s$  calculated? As noted before, this is where we keep track of the total number of nodes that we have syntax verified already. If we have a flat vector of

Algori	thm 3 Multi-Threaded Load Balance Algorithm
1: <b>pr</b>	ocedure VERIFY(ProofGraph p)
2:	Initialize assumptions to be empty.
3:	Create set of nodes on each layer using Equation 1 and store in layerMap.
4:	AllNodes = Flatten(layers)
5:	numSyntaxVerified = 0
6:	for layerNodes in layerMap do
7:	nl = length(layerNodes)
8:	aIds = sharedVector(length=nl)
9:	LayerValid = true
10:	layerSyntaxVerified = 0
11:	for n in layerNodes in <i>parallel</i> do
12:	justification = just(n)
13:	ruleInfo = (m, assumptions(m)) $\forall m \in parents(n)$
14:	NodeValid = is_valid(n, ruleInfo)
15:	if NodeValid then
16:	Update aIds(n) using justification and ruleInfo
17:	threadIterSyntaxVerified = 1
18:	if thread verifying less nodes then
19:	extraN = AllNodes[numSyntaxVerified + threadId]
20:	NodeValid = NodeValid and syntaxVerify(extraN, parents(extraN))
21:	threadIterSyntaxVerified = $2$
22:	SUM_reduce(layerSyntaxVerified, threadIterSyntaxVerified)
23:	AND_reduce(LayerValid, NodeValid)
24:	if not LayerValid then
25:	return false
26:	Update assumptions(n) using aIds
27:	numSyntaxVerified = numSyntaxVerified + layerSyntaxVerified
28:	return true

all nodes that are partially ordered by their layer number, then for thread *i* we can have it syntax verify numSyntaxVerified + *i* element of that flat vector. A sum reduction then keeps track of the total number of syntax verifications performed on a given layer which is later used to update numSyntaxVerified.

### 3.4 Parallel Distribution of Syntax Checks (Syntax-First)

In the last section we discussed that syntax verification can occur beyond the current layer being considered. In fact, syntax verification can occur outside of the layering structure in general which this optimization considers. In this approach we first perform the syntax verification in parallel over all nodes before iterating over the layers. This approach is outlined in Algorithm 4. This not only has the benefit of lowering the time to find a syntactic error, but also more evenly distributes the syntax verification over all threads.

For our example in Figure 5, the proof graph contains node ids 0 through 25. If we have three threads, then thread 0 would be assigned nodes 0 through 8, thread 1 would be assigned nodes 9 through 16, and

thread 2 would be assigned nodes 17 through 25. Each thread would then loop over their assigned nodes and syntax verify them. When the three threads finish, if any of their nodes failed to syntax verify, then the algorithm would end and the proof graph verification would fail. In this example, however, the nodes pass the syntax verification. The rest of the algorithm closely follows Algorithm 2 where instead of performing a full verification, we only verify that the assumption constraints hold.

Algorithm 4 Multi-Threaded Syntax Check First Algorithm				
1:	procedure VERIFY(ProofGraph p)			
2:	syntaxValid = True			
3:	for n in p.nodes in <i>parallel</i> do			
4:	valid = verifySyntax(n, parents(n))			
5:	AND_reduce(syntaxValid, valid)			
6:	if not syntaxValid then			
7:	return false			
8:	Initialize assumptions to be empty.			
9:	Create set of nodes on each layer using Equation 1 and store in layerMap.			
10:	for layerNodes in layerMap do			
11:	nl = length(layerNodes)			
12:	aIds = sharedVector(length=nl)			
13:	LayerValid = true			
14:	for n in layerNodes in <i>parallel</i> do			
15:	justification = just(n)			
16:	ruleInfo = (m, assumptions(m)) $\forall m \in \text{parents}(n)$			
17:	NodeValid = verifyAssumptions(n, justification, ruleInfo)			
18:	if NodeValid then			
19:	Update alds(n) using justification and ruleInfo			
20:	AND_reduce(LayerValid, NodeValid)			
21:	if not LayerValid then			
22:	return false			
23:	Update assumptions(n) using aids			
24:	return true			

# 4 Methodology and Results

To discuss the performance of our algorithms, we provide an empirical investigation. To this end, we look toward a comparison of the number of seconds needed to verify various proof structures using the algorithms described before. Inspired by the topologies used in computer network design [2], we introduce a directed variant that we call directed acyclic network topologies or DANTs. These DANTs represent different classes of possible proofs with which we perform benchmarks over.

### 4.1 Directed Acyclic Network Topologies (DANTs)

We have identified three distinct classes of DANTs which we include in our benchmark of proof graphs for analysis. The pictorial depiction is shown in Figure 6 and is generated as so: **Straight Line** (n):

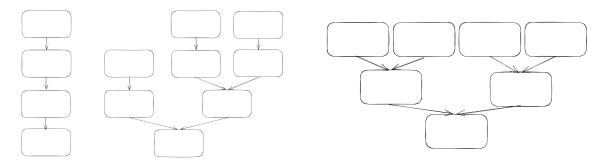


Figure 6: Straight, Parallel-Branch, then Tree Topologies

Parameterized by the total number of nodes n, this topology only contains one assumption at the top and then each future inference is a disjunction introduction. This enforces a straight linear proof with no branching. We do not expect any speedup in the parallel algorithm in this case as each layer only has one node. **Parallel Branches** (b,n): This topology emulates multiple lines of independent reasoning before combining towards the end. It starts off with b separate assumptions and then performs a disjunctive introduction on each assumption n times before iteratively applying conjunctive introduction to each branch until there is one remaining. We expect the number of branches will correlate with the scalability of verification. It should be noted that this topology is isomorphic to a straight topology of length n when b = 1 and emulates a tree like topology of height b when b > 1. **Tree** (h): In this topology we generate  $2^h$  assumptions and iteratively apply conjunction introduction h times until we reach a single node. This creates a balanced binary tree. We hypothesize the greatest amount of speedup from this topology.

# 4.2 Empirical Analysis

We perform two classes of experiments: (1) a parallel strong scaling study in which the proof to be verified is held constant while the number of processors increases; (2) a problem size scaling study in which we hold the number of threads constant and look at how each method performs as the problem gets harder.

# 4.2.1 Implementation Details

Our benchmarks were performed on one node of the IBM DCS supercomputer, AiMOS, at Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. Our code is available at https://github.com/RAIRLab/Parallel-Verifier <sup>3</sup>. The code is implemented in C++11 and makes use of the standard C++ library data structures. For the multiprocessing component, we use the OpenMP library [5]. OpenMP operates over software threads which are assigned to CPUs. We ensure during our scaling study that the system is not *oversubscribed*, meaning that there is just a single thread used per CPU. AiMOS provides us a single node on which ten physical cores are available; however one is reserved for the operating system and IO, therefore nine are used for our experiments. For our benchmarks we do not include the time it took for initialization, file parsing, or proof parsing; we only measure the time taken to verify the proof. For this, we record the clock-cycles before and after the execution of the verification algorithm and use their difference to compute the total cycles. We then compute the number of seconds taken by each method through dividing the number of total cycles by the base clock rate of 512MHz.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>For reproducibility of our results, please see the following link for the specific commit the results of this paper is based on: https://github.com/RAIRLab/Parallel-Verifier/tree/a661abbe5bf038a3fa8645b8af532b0a60daebe5

#### 4.2.2 Strong Scaling

For our strong scaling study we vary the number of threads used while holding the DANT instance constant. For the straight topology, we consider a length *n* of 150. For the branch topology, we consider b = 150 branches each with a length of n = 100. Lastly, for the tree topology, we consider h = 16 conjunction introductions for a total number of  $2^{16}$  vertices. Results can be seen on the left of Figure 7. The strong scaling results show a clear benefit to our parallelized verification approach. In the case of the straight topology the serial algorithm vastly outperforms the parallel algorithms, which is expected as in this topology there is only one node per layer. There are clear overheads to parallelization, such as waiting for all threads to finish, that make timing differences visible as the number of threads increases for the straight topology. For the branch topology with 150 branches we see that our parallel methods scale well, particularly load balancing which beats out syntax-first and non-optimized parallel methods. We hypothesize this is due to the number of remaining nodes on each layer remaining constant which allows for a good balance of syntax checking vs assumption updating. The parallel methods perform quite well on the tree topology significantly beating out the serial method, with non-optimized parallel and syntax-first methods beating out load balancing likely due to the overhead costs.

#### 4.2.3 Problem Scaling

For our problem scaling study we hold the number of threads constant (at AiMOS' maximum value of nine) and vary the problem size. For the straight topology, we consider a chain of disjunctive introductions of lengths (n) 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 350, and 400. For the branch topology, we consider a fixed branch length of n = 100 and vary the number of branches (b) at 30, 50, 70, 90, 110, 130, and 150. Lastly for the tree topology, we create binary trees of heights (h) 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, and 20. Results can be seen on the right side of Figure 7. We hypothesize the straight topology scaling is not linear due to overheads such as the formulae length increasing as the problem size increases. We see that for all problem sizes on the straight topology, the serial implementation outperforms the parallel implementation. This aligns with the observation in the strong scaling study that the parallel methods have overheads and the fact that for all parallel methods, only one node is on each layer, preventing the majority of the threads from doing any work. In the branch topology, the results show that as the number of branches increases, the effectiveness of parallel methods increases. This is particularly shown in load balancing, due to the reasons discussed in §4.2.2. For the tree topology, there is an exponential increase in the time taken as the problem grows, largely due to the fact that the number of nodes to verify increases exponentially  $(2^n)$ as the problem size increases. We see that as the problem size grows, the performance of our parallel methods over the serial method increases substantially.

# 5 Related Work

Past work has investigated parallel or concurrent verification of other logical calculi. For example the developers of Isabelle [24], a proof assistant with support for first-order logic, higher-order logic, and Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory, used concurrent programming for the efficient verification of LCF-style proofs [18]. In their work, during the verification of a proof, if a reference to another proof is made, and that proof has yet to be verified, then a promise is deferred. At the end of verification, all promises are resolved and localized errors are then shown to the user [21, 22]. This work operates over entire proofs while we focus on parallelizing steps within a proof. In [23], Wenzel introduces what he calls granularities of concurrency within verifying a single proof. The levels include concurrent verification

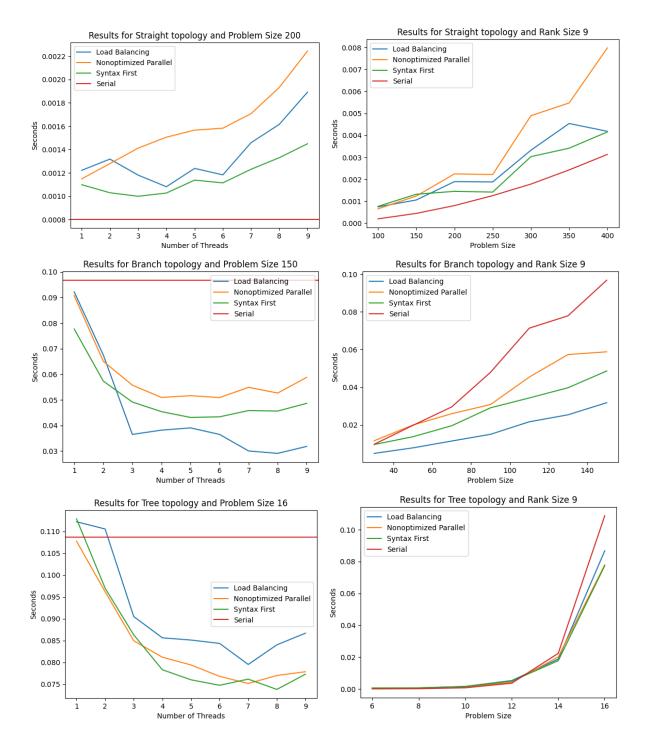


Figure 7: (Left) Strong scaling study results (Right) Problem scaling study results.

of theories, concurrent verification of commands, and concurrent verification of subproofs. In terms of our work, we do not consider extra background theories, commands correspond to our proof steps, and we do not consider subproofs in our work. As discussed in \$2, there is a definition of a subproof in our natural deduction hypergraphs. However, it's not something specified by the creator of the proof and there can be *n* different subproofs for a proof with *n* nodes.

Färber looked at concurrent verification of commands in his work parallelizing proof checking inside the lambda-Pi calculus modulo rewriting [8]. In this work, he breaks up a command into four tasks: parsing, sharing, type inference, and type checking. Similarly, our work breaks up our inference rules into two steps: syntactic checks and assumption checks. We additionally look at the parallel verification of sets of steps or commands, as opposed to only looking at the concurrency within each command.

# 6 Conclusion

In this work, we presented a layering based algorithm that decouples the underlying semantic dependencies of proof steps in natural deduction. Through this, we introduced a suite of new algorithms which use layers to parallelize verification of hypergraphical natural deduction proofs. Directed acyclic network topologies (DANTs) were introduced as a benchmark for hypergraphical proofs and we have shown in our analysis that the parallel algorithms perform better than their serial counterpart on non-straight DANT instances. These parallel algorithms were additionally shown to scale through both the strong scaling and problem scaling studies. This work has applications in formal verification, specifically in proof assistants.

Our future work falls into four categories: theoretical results, empirical results, logic extensions, algorithmic optimizations: (1) For theoretical results, we would benefit from analysis with respect to Amdahl's Law [11] to calculate the overall speedup with respect to different parallelizable tasks in each of the algorithms. (2) For further empirical results, we can test randomized proof topologies or craft a dataset of common natural deduction proofs. (3) We wish to extend our verifier to handle different types of logics, specifically first-order and modal logics. First-order logics are used heavily within proof assistants, and require the ability to represent and reason over formulae at the term level, including the need for checking if variables are free or bound in inference rules. We conjecture that despite these extra requirements, our layer based parallel approaches would still work on first-order proof graphs. In order to handle modal logics such as **K5**, we would have to adapt the algorithm to include additional bookkeeping required for several of the inference rules. (4) We would like to explore approaches to scale beyond a single computer. This involves exploring message-passing parallelism which is often used in distributed computing.

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