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# Learning to Prove Theorems by Learning to Generate Theorems Supplementary Material

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Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

## 1 A. Task setup

2 We use the standard theorem proving setup in prior work Irving et al. (2016); Bansal et al. (2019a);  
3 Whalen (2016). Suppose we have a sequence of theorems  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ , where each theorem appear  
4 at the order it is proved by mathematicians. For each theorem  $t_i$ , we construct a proof task that  
5 proving  $t_i$  (as the target theorem) using all its preceding theorems  $(t_1, \dots, t_{i-1})$  (as the background  
6 theorems), such that the prover has the same set of known facts as mathematicians to prove  $t_i$ . Then  
7 we randomly split the five proof tasks into three sets for training, validation and testing.

8 It is important to note that a theorem can serve both as a target theorem in the test set and as a  
9 background theorem in the training set. This is a standard setup and is not “training on the test  
10 set”—a background theorem is used as a known fact in a training proof task and only its statement is  
11 provided, not its proof; seeing the statement of a background theorem during training does not tell us  
12 how to prove it during testing.

## 13 B. Checking reachability between expressions

14 For an expression  $e$ , let  $r_e$  be the root node of the parse tree of  $e$ . Each node in the parse tree represents  
15 either a generating axiom (if internal node) or a token (if leaf node). We check if expression  $b$  can  
16 reach expression  $a$  by comparing their parse trees  $r_a$  and  $r_b$  through the following procedure:

- 17 1. Initialize the substitution  $\phi$  as empty.
- 18 2. Compare the two root nodes.
  - 19 • If root node  $r_b$  represents a variable  $f$ , do the following:
    - 20 – If the substitute expression  $\phi(f)$  is not determined, let  $\phi(f) \leftarrow r_a$ . Return *True*  
21 (i.e. reachable).
    - 22 – If  $\phi(f) = r_a$ , return *True* (i.e. reachable) because we can replace  $f$  with  $r_a$ .
    - 23 – Otherwise return *False* (unreachable), because  $r_a$  conflicts with the current substi-  
24 tution  $\phi$ .
  - 25 • If the two root nodes represent the same generating axiom or constant, repeat Step 2 to  
26 check if each child of  $r_a$  is reachable from the corresponding child of  $r_b$ .
    - 27 – If every child of  $r_a$  is reachable from the corresponding child of  $r_b$ , return *True*.
    - 28 – Otherwise return *False*.
  - 29 • Otherwise return *False*, because the two root nodes have different values and they can  
30 not be matched.

31 This procedure is summarized in Algorithm 1.

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**Algorithm 1** Function `Reachable( $n_a, n_b, \phi$ )`

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**Input:** node  $n_a$ , node  $n_b$ , substitution  $\phi$   
**Output:** *True* if  $n_b$  could reach  $n_a$ , otherwise *False*  
**if**  $n_b$  represents a variable  $f$  **then**  
  **if**  $f$  in  $\phi$  **then**  
    **if**  $\phi(f) = n_a$  **then**  
      **return** *True* {Consistent with the current substitution}  
    **else**  
      **return** *False* {Conflict with a preceding branch}  
    **end if**  
  **else**  
     $\phi(f) = n_a$  {Variable  $f$  should be replaced by  $n_a$ }  
    **return** *True*  
  **end if**  
**else**  
  **if**  $n_a$  and  $n_b$  represent the same generating axiom or constant **then**  
    **for**  $i = 1$  **to**  $\text{len}(c_{n_a})$  **do**  
       $\{c_n$  is the list of children of node  $n\}$   
      **if** `Reachable( $c_{n_a}[i], c_{n_b}[i], \phi$ ) = false` **then**  
        {A pair of child nodes doesn't match}  
        **return** *False*  
      **end if**  
    **end for**  
    {Every child of  $n_b$  could reach a child of  $n_a$ }  
    **return** *True*  
  **else**  
    **return** *False* {Two nodes have different values}  
  **end if**  
**end if**

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### 32 C. Pseudo-code for MetaGen

33 Algorithm 3 summarizes the procedure to construct a proof step and the set  $S$  of existing proof trees.  
34 Algorithm 4 summarizes the complete procedure of *MetaGen*.

### 35 D. Meaningless theorems

36 Tree “grafting” can potentially introduce meaningless theorems by combining conflicting hypotheses.  
37 For example, suppose the shallow tree proves that  $x^2 = 1$  and  $x > 0$  entail  $x = 1$ , we can replace the  
38 leaf node  $x > 0$  with a subtree proving  $x = 5$  entails  $x > 0$ , which leads to a new tree proving that  
39  $x = 5$  and  $x^2 = 1$  entail  $x = 1$ , which is meaningless. Unfortunately, there does not appear to be  
40 an easy way to avoid meaningless theorems resulting from tree grafting, because this would require  
41 checking the consistency of an arbitrary set of expressions, which can be as hard as general theorem  
42 proving. Despite this limitation, however, we still perform tree grafting because a lot of interesting  
43 mathematics do result from nontrivial combination of hypotheses.

### 44 E. Holophrasm

45 In this section we provide more background on the Holophrasm prover Whalen (2016). we refer the  
46 reader to Whalen (2016) for more details.

47 **Backward Reasoning** To construct a proof tree of a target theorem, a straightforward strategy is  
48 to search backwards. We start with a single root node—the assertion of the new theorem—and  
49 pick a proof step that establishes the entailment of the root node. We expand the tree by adding the  
50 preconditions of this proof step as children of the root node. We repeatedly expand the tree by adding  
51 children to leaf nodes, until each leaf node is either empty or a hypothesis of the target theorem. This  
52 construction process can be understood as recursive goal decomposition: the assertion of the target

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**Algorithm 2** Initializing existing proof trees

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**Input:** existing theorems  $E$ , existing proofs  $P$   
**Output:** existing proof trees  $G$   
 $G \leftarrow \emptyset$   
**for** theorem  $t$  **in**  $E$  **do**  
  **for** hypothesis  $h$  **in**  $h_t$  **do**  
    Add  $h$  to  $G$   
  **end for**  
  Add  $t$  to  $G$  as a one-step proof tree  
**end for**  
**for** proof tree  $p$  **in**  $P$  **do**  
  **for** node  $e$  **in**  $p$  **do**  
     $g \leftarrow$  the largest subtree of  $p$  rooted at  $e$ .  
    Add  $g$  to  $G$   
  **end for**  
**end for**

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**Algorithm 3** Constructing a proof step

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**Input:** existing proof trees  $G$ , invocable theorems  $I$   
**Output:** proof step  $(t, \phi)$ , proof trees  $S$   
Sample an invocable theorem  $t \in I$   
 $\phi, S \leftarrow \emptyset, \emptyset$   
**for** hypothesis  $h$  **in**  $h_t$  **do**  
   $C \leftarrow \{g \mid g \in G \wedge \text{Reachable}(h, r_g, \phi)\}$   
   $\{r_g$  is the root node of proof tree  $g$ .  $C$  is the set of compatible existing proof trees}  
  Sample a proof tree  $g \in C$  using softmax of the relevance network scores  
   $\phi' \leftarrow$  the substitution that transforms  $h$  to  $r_g$   
  Add  $\phi', g$  to  $\phi, S$   
**end for**  
**for** variable  $f$  **in**  $b$  **do**  
  **if**  $f$  **not in**  $\phi$  **then**  
    Generate an expression  $e$  using the substitution network  
     $\phi(f) \leftarrow e$   
  **end if**  
**end for**

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**Algorithm 4** MetaGen

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**Input:** existing theorems  $E$ , existing proofs  $P$ , int  $N$   
**Output:** generated theorems  
Initialize existing proof trees  $G$  from  $E$  and  $P$   
**repeat**  
  Construct a proof step  $(t, \phi)$  with proof trees  $S$   
   $g \leftarrow$  the one-step proof tree of  $(t, \phi)$   
  **for** hypothesis  $h$  **in**  $h_t$  **do**  
     $\{h(\phi)$  is a leaf node of the one-step proof tree  $g\}$   
    Find  $s \in S$  such that  $r_s = h(\phi)$   
    Replace  $h(\phi)$  with  $s$  in  $g$  {tree grafting}  
  **end for**  
  Add the new tree  $g$  to  $G$   
**until**  $G$  reaches the expected volume  $N$

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53 theorem is the original goal; by picking a proof step we decompose the original goal into subgoals,  
54 which are the preconditions of the proof step; then for each subgoal we repeat this process until all  
55 subgoals are resolved.

56 Obviously, each time we expand the tree, we may have multiple choices of proof steps and most  
57 of them will lead to dead ends. We thus need to explore multiple alternatives, which gives rise to

Table 1: Training details of the relevance network and the substitution network of the prover.

Network	Human proofs	Ratio of synthetic proofs steps per batch	Training epochs	Initial learning rate	Epoch to halve learning rate
RELEVANCE	0%	100%	5	$10^{-4}$	-
SUBSTITUTION	0%	100%	5	$5 \times 10^{-4}$	-
RELEVANCE	10%	70%	20	$10^{-4}$	[8, 12, 16]
SUBSTITUTION	10%	70%	60	$5 \times 10^{-4}$	[15, 30, 45]
RELEVANCE	100%	50%	16	$10^{-4}$	[5, 12, 14]
SUBSTITUTION	100%	50%	24	$5 \times 10^{-4}$	[10, 15, 20]

58 a search process where we need to keep track of what paths have been explored and decide which  
 59 paths to explore further.

60 **Proof search** Backward reasoning in Holophrasm Whalen (2016) is implemented with a proof search  
 61 tree, which keeps track of the exploration of multiple branches of actions to search for a complete  
 62 proof tree. A proof search tree has two kinds of nodes, expressions and proof steps. An expression  
 63 node has multiple proof steps as children and each proof step establishes the entailment of this  
 64 expression by the preconditions. A proof step node has its preconditions as children. A expression is  
 65 labeled solved if it is a hypothesis of the target theorem or any proof step in its children is solved. A  
 66 proof step is labeled solved if it has no precondition or all of its preconditions are solved. A complete  
 67 proof is found if the root node, which is the assertion of the target theorem, is solved.

68 Holophrasm maintains a payoff of each node in the proof search tree and uses Monte Carlo Tree  
 69 Search (MCTS) to extend the proof search tree. The prover runs in iterations. In each iteration, it  
 70 travels down from the root node. After visiting an expression, it either creates a new proof step as  
 71 a new child or visits its best-performing child according to the UCB (Kocsis & Szepesvári, 2006)  
 72 algorithm. After visiting a proof step, it travels to its worst-performing child with the lowest payoff.  
 73 When an expression node is created, it is assigned an initial payoff and has no children. When a proof  
 74 step node is created, its preconditions are also created as its children and the payoff of this proof step  
 75 is the lowest payoff among its children. A pass continues until a new proof step is created.

76 The main heuristics of the prover are how to construct a proof step and what is the initial payoff of an  
 77 expression. Similar to the generator, the prover constructs a proof step by using a relevance network  
 78 to pick a background theorem, and a substitution network to generate a substitution for the selected  
 79 background theorem. The initial payoff of an expression is calculated by a payoff network.

80 **Relevance network of Holophrasm** The relevance network of the prover is a deep network trained  
 81 to pick a background theorem  $b$  to establish the entailment of an expression  $e$ , for the purpose of  
 82 proving a target theorem  $t$ . It takes as input two sequences of symbols. One sequence represents the  
 83 assertion and hypotheses of  $b$ . Another one represents  $e$  and the hypotheses of  $t$ . Two GRU encoders  
 84 convert each sequence to an embedding vector, followed by a bilinear layer to output a score from two  
 85 embeddings. The background theorem with the highest score is selected to construct the next proof  
 86 step. The relevance network is trained to pick the background theorem that is used in the groundtruth  
 87 proof step.

88 **Substitution network of Holophrasm** The substitution network generates the substitution for a  
 89 target variable of a background theorem  $b$  for the purpose of proving a target theorem  $t$ . It is a  
 90 sequence-to-sequence model with an encoder-decoder GRU network. It takes as input a sequence of  
 91 symbols that represents the hypotheses of  $t$  and the hypotheses of  $b$ . The target variable is replaced  
 92 by a special token. It is trained to generate the substitutions of groundtruth proof steps under teacher  
 93 forcing. When it is called by the prover, it generates multiple substitution candidates for each target  
 94 variable via beam search.

95 **Payoff network of Holophrasm** The payoff network calculates the payoff of an expression as the  
 96 probability of this expression being used in the proof tree of a target theorem. It consists of a GRU  
 97 network followed by two linear layers and the sigmoid, and takes as input a sequence of symbols that  
 98 represents the expression to be evaluated and the hypotheses of the target theorem.

99 The payoff network is trained as a binary classifier to distinguish the expressions in groundtruth proof  
100 trees (called positive expressions) from other expressions. Since the payoff network is used to evaluate  
101 an expression added to the proof search tree, which is a precondition of a newly generated proof  
102 step, the training examples of the payoff network are generated in a similar way. For each positive  
103 expression, proof steps that establish the entailment of this expression are constructed by using  
104 the pretrained relevance and substitution network. The positive expressions from the preconditions  
105 of these proof steps are filtered out and the payoff network is trained to distinguish the positive  
106 expressions from the rest of preconditions.

## 107 F. Additional Implementation details

108 We implement MetaGen and Holophrasm with the same network architectures as used by Whalen  
109 (2016). For all of our networks in the generator and the prover, we use bidirectional GRUs to encode  
110 input sequences, and use the Adam (Kingma & Ba, 2014) optimizer to update parameters. The batch  
111 size is 100 unless otherwise noted.

112 **Task setup** It is important to note that a theorem can serve both as a target theorem in the test set and  
113 as a background theorem in the training set. This is a standard setup and is not “training on the test  
114 set”—a background theorem is used as a known fact in a training proof task and only its statement is  
115 provided, not its proof; seeing the statement of a background theorem during training does not tell us  
116 how to prove it during testing.

117 **Input representation of the relevance and substitution network** Here we provide more details on  
118 the input representation of the relevance and substitution network, which take sequences as input. We  
119 use the same form of input representations as used by Whalen (2016).

120 To represent an expression in a sequential form, one option is to use its “surface form”. For example,  
121 “(1+1)=2” is simply given as such. Another option is to serialize its parse tree. The parse tree of  
122 “(1+1)=2” has two generating axioms. The first axiom is the root node of its parse tree and generates  
123 an expression in the form of “A=B”. The second axiom is the left child of the root node and generates  
124 an expression in the form of “(C+D)” and this expression is used to substitute the variable A in the  
125 first axiom. The right child of the first axiom is the token “2”. Both of the left child and the right  
126 child of the second axiom are the token “1”. Then we can represent “(1+1)=2” as a sequence of  
127 symbols  $(t_-, t_+, 1, 1, 2)$ , where each symbol is a node in the parse tree and  $t_-$  and  $t_+$  represent two  
128 generating axioms. This new sequence is obtained by traversing the parse tree in pre-order. Following  
129 Whalen (2016), we use the second option to represent expressions as input to our network.

130 Following Whalen (2016), we also make use of the graph structure of the parse tree. Each node in  
131 the input sequence is converted to a feature vector by a learnable embedding layer. Then the feature  
132 of this node is concatenated with another four-dimension vector describing the depth of the node,  
133 the degree of the node, the degree of its parent, and its position into the children of its parent. The  
134 concatenated vector is fed into the GRU encoder of the relevance and substitution network.

135 Multiple expressions are represented by their concatenation.

### 136 F.1. Generator

137 **Configuration of GRUs** All of the GRUs in the generator have two layers and 128-dimensional  
138 hidden units.

139 **Training relevance network of MetaGen-IL** The relevance network of *MetaGen-IL* is updated to  
140 minimize the cross-entropy loss. Each training sample has one groundtruth proof tree and 10 negative  
141 candidates that are randomly sampled from compatible proof trees. It is trained for 60 epochs. The  
142 learning rate is set to  $10^{-4}$  initially and halved after 30, 40 and 50 epochs.

143 **Training substitution network of MetaGen-IL** The substitution network of *MetaGen-IL* is trained  
144 for 40 epochs. The learning rate is set to  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  initially and halved after 20, 26 and 32 epochs.

145 **Training of MetaGen-RL** To train *MetaGen-RL-LM*, we learn the language model of human-written  
146 theorems by utilizing a one-layer GRU with 64-dimensional hidden units. It is trained for 200 epochs.  
147 The learning rate is set to  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  initially and halved after 80, 120 and 160 epochs.

Table 2: Examples of synthetic theorems from *MetaGen-IL* trained on all human proofs.

Hypothesis	Assertion	Comment
$\emptyset$	$(3 \times 1) + (1 + 0) = 1 + 3$	SIMPLE ARITHMETIC.
$\emptyset$	$(\log e) \times A = A$	$e = 2.71828\dots$
$A \in \mathbb{C}$ $B \in \mathbb{C}$	$\sin(A + B) = (\exp(\mathbf{i} \times (A + B)) - \exp(-\mathbf{i} \times (A + B))) \div (2 \times \mathbf{i})$	$\mathbb{C}$ : COMPLEX NUMBER SET. $\mathbf{i} = \sqrt{-1}$ .
$\emptyset$	$G \in \mathbb{R} \wedge E \in \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \sin(\frac{G+E}{2} + 1) \in \mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$ : REAL NUMBER SET.
$\phi \rightarrow F: X \leftrightarrow Y$	$\phi \rightarrow \text{RAN}(F) \subseteq Y$	$F$ : BIJECTION FROM X TO Y. $\text{RAN}(F)$ : RANGE OF $F$ .
$N = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}   M \leq x\}$	$\phi \wedge K \in N \rightarrow M \in \{x \in \mathbb{Z}   M \leq x \wedge x \leq K\}$	$\mathbb{Z}$ : INTEGER SET
$r = q \times 2 \times y \pmod p$ $s = q \times 2 \times x \pmod p$	$x = y \rightarrow F(r \times y) = F(s \times x)$	MOD: MODULO OPERATION

148 To train *MetaGen-RL-Adv*, we train a binary classifier using the same architecture as the payoff  
 149 network of Holophrasm, which contains a two-layer GRU with 128-dimensional hidden units and two  
 150 subsequent linear layers. It is pretrained to distinguish human-written theorems from 300K synthetic  
 151 theorems generated by *MetaGen-Rand*. Then it is updated on-the-fly to distinguish human-written  
 152 theorems from the synthetic theorems generated in the most recent 20 episodes.

153 For both *MetaGen-RL-LM* and *MetaGen-RL-Adv*, we train the generator for 700 episodes with the  
 154 learning rate fixed to  $10^{-4}$ . We deploy 10 parallel threads to synthesize new theorems by utilizing  
 155 the current generator. Each thread generates 50 theorems in one episode and synchronizes the set  $G$   
 156 of existing proof trees with other threads for every 20 episodes. We clip policy gradients whose norm  
 157 is larger 5.

## 158 F.2. Prover

159 **Configuration of GRUs** In the relevance and substitution network of the prover, all GRUs have two  
 160 layers and 256-dimensional hidden units. We found 256-dimensional GRUs have slightly better  
 161 performance than the 128-dimensional GRUs that are used by Whalen (2016). The GRU in the payoff  
 162 network of the prover has two layers and 128-dimensional hidden units.

163 **Training of the prover** All three networks of the prover are trained by imitation learning. The  
 164 relevance network and the substitution network are trained on both human-written proofs and  
 165 synthetic proofs. The payoff network is trained on human-written proofs only.

166 The relevance network of the prover is trained to minimize the cross-entropy loss. Each training  
 167 sample contains one groundtruth background theorem and 10 negative candidates that are randomly  
 168 sampled from all background theorems that can be applied in this step.

169 Table 1 presents the settings of learning rate schedules and the ratio of synthetic training samples per  
 170 batch, for the training of the relevance and substitution network of the prover.

171 In all experiments, the payoff network is trained for 30 epochs. The learning rate is set to  $10^{-4}$   
 172 initially and halved after 15, 20 and 25 epochs.

173 **Evaluation protocol** Following the evaluation protocol used by Whalen (2016), the prover attempts  
 174 to prove each target theorem in the test set three times with the beam search width of the substitution  
 175 network set to 1, 5, or 20. The prover stops if it has executed 10000 MCTS passes or hit the time  
 176 limit of 5 minutes.

## 177 F.3. Baseline

178 Without human-written proofs, we compare our approach with a baseline that needs no training  
 179 proofs. We remove the relevance network of the prover and pick a background theorem according to  
 180 the tf-idf similarity between an expression and a background theorem, as proposed by Bansal et al.

181 (2019b). We replace the substitution network of the prover with a language model trained on the  
182 statements of human-written theorems. We use this language model to generate an expression as the  
183 substitution of a target variable.

## 184 **G. Examples of generated theorems**

185 Some examples of synthetic theorems are presented in the Table 2. Some are trivial (first and  
186 fourth), whereas others are fairly interesting—the third theorem involves a non-trivial statement about  
187 trigonometric functions and complex numbers.

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