

# Higher-order Logic Programming with $\lambda$ Kanren

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We present  $\lambda$ Kanren, a new member of the Kanren family [2] that is inspired by  $\lambda$ Prolog [5]. With a shallow embedding implementation, the term language of  $\lambda$ Kanren is represented by the functions and macros of its host language. As a higher-order logic programming language,  $\lambda$ Kanren is extended with a subset of higher-order hereditary Harrop formulas [7].

CCS Concepts: • **Computer systems organization** → **Embedded systems**; *Redundancy*; Robotics; • **Networks** → Network reliability.

## ACM Reference Format:

Weixi Ma, Kuang-chen Lu, and Daniel P. Friedman. 2020. Higher-order Logic Programming with  $\lambda$ Kanren. 1, 1 (July 2020), 8 pages. <https://doi.org/10.1145/1122445.1122456>

## 1 INTRODUCTION

$\lambda$ Kanren introduces four new operators to  $\mu$ Kanren [3]: `tie`, `app`, `assume-rel`, and `all`. The operators `tie` and `app` create binding structures. In addition, the  $\equiv$  operator recognizes  $\alpha\beta$ -conversions between binding structures. The `assume-rel` and `all` operators enable more expressive reasoning with Hereditary Harrop formulas [6]. To demonstrate  $\lambda$ Kanren's increment to  $\mu$ Kanren, we first review the two forms of logic, *fohc* and *hohh*, behind these two languages.

$\mu$ Kanren implements First-order Horn clause (fohc) [1]. The grammar of *Horn clause* is shown in Fig 1. We say  $\mu$ Kanren is *first-order*, as its unification algorithm identifies only structural equivalence. As an example that illustrates the correspondence between  $\mu$ Kanren definitions and fohc formulas, consider the relation `appendo`.

```
(defrel (appendo xs ys zs)
  (conde
    [( $\equiv$  nil xs) ( $\equiv$  ys zs)]
    [(fresh (a d r)
      ( $\equiv$  `(,a . ,d) xs)
      (appendo d ys r)
      ( $\equiv$  `(,a . ,r) zs))]))
```

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XXXX-XXXX/2020/7-ART \$15.00  
<https://doi.org/10.1145/1122445.1122456>

48	Goals	$G ::= A \mid G \wedge G \mid G \vee G \mid \exists x G$
49	Definitions	$D ::= A \mid G \supset D \mid D \wedge D \mid \forall x D$
50	Atomic Formulas	$A$

Fig. 1. Horn Clause Formulas

53	Goals	$G ::= A \mid G \wedge G \mid G \vee G \mid \exists x G \mid D \supset G \mid \forall x G$
54	Definitions	$D ::= A \mid G \supset D \mid D \wedge D \mid \forall x D$
55	Atomic Formulas	$A$

Fig. 2. Hereditary Harrop Formulas

59 *D formulas of fohc.* In  $\mu$ Kanren, a `def rel` introduces a *D formula*. For example, the `appendo` definition corresponds to this *D formula*,

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \forall xs \forall ys \forall zs \quad (\equiv xs \text{ nil}) \wedge (\equiv ys \text{ zs}) \\
 & \vee \exists a \exists d \exists r \quad (\equiv xs '(a, d)) \wedge (\text{append}^o d ys r) \wedge (\equiv '(a, r) zs) \\
 & \supset (\text{append}^o xs ys zs).
 \end{aligned}$$

66 Here `appendo` and `≡` both build atomic formulas. For example, `(appendo xs ys zs)` and `(≡ xs nil)` are atomic formulas.

69 *G formulas of fohc.* In  $\mu$ Kanren, a run query contains a *G formula*, e.g.,

```

70 (run 1
71   (fresh (xs)
72     (appendo xs `(1 2) `(1 2))))

```

74 is formulated as

$$\exists xs (\text{append}^o xs '(12) '(12)).$$

77 *Formulas of hohh.*  $\lambda$ Prolog implements a more expressive logic, *higher-order hereditary Harrop formulas* (hohh) [6]. Shown in Figure 2, Hereditary Harrop formulas extend G formulas with implicational goals and forall-quantification. Also, with higher-order unification, the unification algorithm of  $\lambda$ Prolog identifies  $\alpha\beta$ -equivalence between binding structures (that are absent in  $\mu$ Kanren).

81 This paper presents  $\lambda$ Kanren.  $\lambda$ Kanren implements implicational goals and forall-quantification with two new operators, `assume-rel` and `all`, respectively. Also,  $\lambda$ Kanren incorporates higher-order pattern unification [4] for the binding structures (that are created by another two new operators, `tie` and `app`).

84 The rest of this paper demonstrates the uses of these four operators and their implementation details when appropriate. Our implementation of  $\lambda$ Kanren is available at <https://github.com/mvccccc/MK2020>.

## 86 2 HIGHER-ORDER UNIFICATION

88 This section shows the power of higher-order pattern unification. By adapting Miller [4]'s unification algorithm,  $\lambda$ Kanren is equipped with two new operators: `tie` and `app`. `tie` expressions are abstractions and `app` is the shorthand for application. The `≡` operator in  $\lambda$ Kanren identifies  $\alpha\beta$ -equivalence between terms that involve `tie` and `app`.

92 Consider the following example that demonstrates  $\alpha$ -equivalence. This example, metaphorically, tests the equivalence between `(λ (a b) (a b))` and `(λ (x y) (x y))`.

```

95 > (run 1 q
96   (== (tie (a b) (app a b))
97       (tie (x y) (app x y))))
98 '(_0)
99

```

tie is implemented as the following macro. It takes a list of variable names and a term. It then creates a Tie structure that is internally used for curried binders. Hereafter, we call a variable that is introduced by fresh a *unification variable* and a variable that is introduced by tie a *binding variable*.

```

103 (define-syntax tie
104   (syntax-rules ()
105     [(_ () t) body]
106     [(_ (x0 x ...) body)
107       (let ([x0 (Var 'x0)])
108         (Tie x0 (tie (x ...) body))))])
109

```

app is implemented as the following macro that elaborates a list of terms to an App structure that is internally used for curried applications.

```

112 (define-syntax app
113   (syntax-rules ()
114     [(_ rator rand) (App rator rand)]
115     [(_ rator rand0 rand ...)
116       (app (App rator rand0) rand ...)])
117

```

Next, consider the following example that queries for two instantiations of f. This example demonstrates (1)  $\beta$ -conversions during unification and (2) how binding structures are reified.

```

121 > (run 2 f
122   (== (tie (a b) (app a b))
123       (tie (x y) (app f x y))))
124 '((tie (_0) (tie (_1) (app _0 _1))))
125

```

There is only one instantiation: f is a function (a Tie structure) of two inputs and f outputs an application form (a App structure) that applies its first input on the second one.

The internal structures, Tie and App, are reified as tagged lists. These tagged lists reflect their corresponded user interfaces, tie and app. During reification, binding variables and unification variables are both converted to underscore-digit symbols.

The power of higher-order unification, however, comes in with limits. To ensure decidability,  $\beta$ -conversion in Miller [4]'s algorithm restricts application forms: when the operator of an app is a unification variable, its operands must be distinct binding variables, otherwise unification fails. For example, the following query has no solution because the operands, the two bs, of the unification variable f are not distinct. In this case, with f being a function of two input bs, we cannot decide which b takes control.

```

136 > (run 1 f
137   (== (tie (a) a)
138       (tie (b) (app f b b))))
139 '()
140
141

```

To enforce this restriction, Miller [4]’s algorithm imposes another restriction on variable scopes: the instantiation of a unification variable may only contain its *visible* binding variables. A binding variable  $x$  is visible to a unification variable  $q$  if the introduction of  $x$  lexically precedes that of  $q$ . Given the following example, it seems that  $q$  can be instantiated by  $y$ . Unfortunately,  $y$  is not visible to  $q$  and the query has no solution.

```

142 > (run 1 q
143     (== (tie (a b) (app a b))
144         (tie (x y) (app x q))))
145 '()

```

### 3 IMPLICATIONAL GOALS

This section introduces the `assume-rel` operator that implements implicational goals ( $D \supset G$ ). An `assume-rel` operator takes two inputs: (1) the hypothesis in the form of a  $D$  formula and (2) the goal in the form of a  $G$  formula. The `assume-rel` operator then uses the hypothesis as a fact and moves on to the goal.

Implementing `assume-rel` is subtle with shallow embedding. Because the definitions of  $\lambda$ Kanren are kept in the run-time environment of its host language, extending these definitions requires updating the run-time environment. This problem is illustrated in the following example, liberally adapted from Miller and Nadathur [5, p. 80].

```

161 (defrel (taken name class)
162   (conde
163     [(== 'Josh name) (== 'B521 class)]
164     [(== 'Josh name) (== 'B522 class)]))
165 (defrel (pl-major name)
166   (taken name 'B521)
167   (taken name 'B523)
168   (taken name 'B522))

```

One may complete `pl-major` after taking three classes: `B521`, `B522`, and `B523`. And `Josh` currently has taken `B521` and `B522`. In the following query, the `assume-rel` operator extends the definition of `taken` with `(taken 'Josh q)` and then moves on to the goal `(pl-major 'Josh)`.

```

174 > (run 1 q
175     (assume-rel [(taken name class)
176                 (== 'Josh name)
177                 (== 'q class)]
178               (pl-major 'Josh)))
179 '(B523)

```

From the implementation aspect, because the host language is lexically scoped, the definition of `pl-major` is fixed. This means that, the free variable in the definition of `pl-major`, namely `taken`, always uses the original definition of `Josh` taking `B521` and `B522`. To extend definitions on the fly, we need to create dynamic scope so that the free variables may use the latest, updated definitions.

Our approach is to add an extra layer between  $\lambda$ Kanren and the host language (Racket). This extra layer redirects function definitions.

We introduce two global maps, `name->idx` and `idx->def`. Each `defrel` extends these two maps by creating a new index, putting the `name-idx` pair and the `idx-def` pair in the two maps respectively. The `idx->def` map is global. And the `name->idx` map is threaded through during the execution of a query (an invocation of a `run`).

To invoke a definition, one follows `name->idx` and `idx->def`, i.e., first retrieving the index using `name->idx` and then getting the definition using `idx->def`. For example, the user interface

```
(pl-major 'Josh)
```

is macro-expanded to

```
((cdr (assv idx->def (cdr (assv name->idx 'pl-major))))
 'Josh).
```

When an `assume-rel` operator is invoked, the two maps are extended again: (1) a new index is created; (2) `idx->def` contains the pair of the new index and the extended function; and (3) `name->idx` now has a new pair of the definition name and the new index, this new pair shadows the previous one.

In the previous example, let's use  $t_1$  for the taken definition that knows Josh has taken B521 and B522, use  $t_2$  for the extended taken (where we assume-rel Josh has taken B523), and use `p` for the definition of `pl-major`. With `taken` and `pl-major` first defined, `name->idx` is `((pl-major . 2) (taken . 1))` and `idx->body` is `((2 . p) (1 .  $t_1$ ))`. Then, after assuming `(taken 'Josh q)`, the query `(pl-major 'Josh)` runs in an updated environment where `name->idx` is `((taken . 3) (pl-major . 2) (taken . 1))` and `idx->body` is `((3 .  $t_2$ ) (2 . p) (1 .  $t_1$ ))`. The more recent pair in `name->idx` shadows the previous one. And therefore, when `taken` is invoked, we use  $t_2$ .

Many interesting examples only make hypothesis on atomic formulas. And thus we provide the `assume` operator that is a shorter version of the `assume-rel` operator. Instead of any D formula, the `assume` operator only takes an atomic hypothesis.

As an example, we define the `eq` relation to be reflexive, transitive, and symmetric as follows.

```
(defrel (eq x y)
 (conde
 [(== x y)]
 [(fresh (z)
 (eq x z)
 (eq z y))])
 [(eq y x)]))
```

Obviously `apple` and `orange` are by no means `eq`. In fact, the following query does not terminate in a naive  $\mu$ Kanren implementation because the third `conde` line is very recursive.

```
> (run 1 q
 (eq 'apple 'orange))
```

Using `assume`, we may temporarily extend the definition of `eq` as follows.

```

236 > (run 5 q
237     (assume (eq 'orange 'apple)
238             (assume (eq 'orange 'dog)
239                     (eq 'orange q))))
240     '(dog apple orange orange dog)
241
242 
```

Because  $\lambda$ Kanren runs backward, as in the following, the hypothesis can be inferred as well.

```

243 > (run 1 q
244     (assume (eq 'orange q)
245             (eq 'apple 'orange))))
246     '(apple)
247
248 
```

#### 4 FORALL-QUANTIFICATION

This section introduces the `all` operator ( $\forall xG$ ) that takes a list of symbols and a goal. These symbols are used to create special variables that are virtually constants (eigenvariables).

Continuing with `taken` and `pl-major`, we create a random person `x` using the `all` operator.

```

249 > (run 1 q
250     (all (x)
251          (assume-rel (taken x 'B521)
252                      (assume-rel (taken x 'B522)
253                                  (assume-rel (taken x 'B523)
254                                              (pl-major x)))))))
255     '(_0)
256
257 
```

Like the `fresh` operator, the `all` operator creates a new variable in the scope. Unlike the `fresh` operator, the `all` operator effectively creates a constant. This semantics is similar to the proof technique of a for-all goal in first-order logic: to prove  $\forall x.P$ , we fix a constant `x` and then prove `P`.

Consider the next example that synthesizes the identity function using the `all` operator.

```

262 > (run 1 f
263     (all (x)
264          (== x (app f x))))
265     '((tie (_0) _0))
266
267 
```

The implementation of the `all` operator follows that of the `fresh` operator, except that the created variable is a constant. In our implementation, we create an `all` variable as a free binding variable. Thus, the `all` variable cannot be unified with anything but itself.

#### 5 $\lambda$ KANREN AS A THEOREM PROVER

$\lambda$ Prolog is often regarded as a proof system. With `hohh`,  $\lambda$ Kanren suits a theorem prover as well. This section shows examples that use  $\lambda$ Kanren to prove intuitionistic style theorems.

We start with the definition of `proved`. At this moment, only `'trivial` is proved.

```

271 (defrel (proved x)
272         (== x 'trivial))
273
274 
```

Obviously, not everything is proved.

```

283
284 > (run 1 g
285     (all (p)
286         (proved p)))
287 '()
288
289 > (run 1 g
290     (proved g))
291 '(trivial)

```

Next, we prove the commutativity of conjunction. I.e.,  $\forall p, q (p \wedge q) \supset (q \wedge p)$ .

```

294 > (run 1 g
295     (all (p q)
296         (assume ((proved p) (proved q))
297                 (proved q)
298                 (proved p))))
299 '(_0)

```

The introduction rule of disjunction can be proved:  $\forall p, q p \supset (p \vee q)$

```

302 (run 1 goal
303     (all (p q)
304         (assume ((proved p))
305                 (conde
306                     [(proved p)]
307                     [(proved q])))))
308 '(_0)

```

## 6 CONCLUSION

$\lambda$ Kanren is based on higher-order hereditary Harrop formulas. It extends  $\mu$ Kanren with four operators, `tie`, `app`, `assume-rel`, and `all`. In addition, unification (`==`) identifies  $\alpha\beta$ -equivalence between the binding operators.

Our implementation of  $\lambda$ Kanren is written in Racket by adding about 40 lines to  $\mu$ Kanren. Overall, we appreciate the simplicity provided by the shallow embedding techniques.

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