

Boosting Large Language Model Reasoning with Theorem Proving

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Abstract

Large Language Models (LLMs) frequently face challenges with complex reasoning tasks. A recent structured AI methodology addresses this by distinctly dividing tasks into symbolic formalization, managed by LLMs, and problem-solving, conducted by symbolic solvers. While solvers like SymPy and Pyke prevent hallucinations, they often struggle with advanced reasoning tasks. This study addresses their limitations by leveraging the extensive reasoning data in Lean, a programming language for theorem proving. Training a custom model using Lean’s rich theorem proving data greatly enhances our model’s reasoning capacity, allowing it to outperform traditional solvers. We achieve state-of-the-art result on FOLIO, a logical reasoning dataset, indicating the potential of our method for natural language reasoning.¹

1 Introduction

Reasoning, a bedrock of intelligence and a core capability of humans, has long been a challenging issue for machine learning systems, even for the latest, powerful large language models (LLMs). LLMs, despite their impressive abilities to understand and generate natural language, often fall short when dealing with complex reasoning tasks. They frequently suffer from "hallucinations", wherein the model makes statements or predictions not grounded in its inputs, leading to spurious results (Saparov and He, 2023; Dasgupta et al., 2022).

Recent advances in AI have adopted a structured approach to tackling reasoning problems by splitting them into symbolic formalization and problem-solving phases (He-Yueya et al., 2023; Pan et al., 2023; Ye et al., 2023). The formalization step is often handled by a large language model (LLM), while problem-solving is tackled by an out-of-the-box solver. In this approach, symbolic reasoning essentially acts as a rigorous checkpoint, ensuring

that the model outputs align with logical and factual standards, thereby mitigating the issue of hallucination. Here, solvers may range from being completely deterministic, like SymPy (He-Yueya et al., 2023), or rely on a combination of heuristics and basic machine learning techniques, as is the case with Pyke (Pan et al., 2023) and Z3 (Ye et al., 2023; de Moura and Bjørner, 2008). While this approach successfully addresses hallucinations, it still struggles with more complex problems. The limitation mainly lies in the capabilities of the solvers themselves; they lack the ability to extract and use the vast wealth of reasoning data and information available in large language resources as LLMs do. This absence of information integration leaves them underpowered when dealing with intricate reasoning tasks.

Serving as a powerful theorem prover and a versatile programming language, Lean (de Moura et al., 2015) presents a compelling solution to connect symbolic reasoning with extensive linguistic resources. Much like symbolic solvers, Lean has a strict check system, ensuring each reasoning step is certified. Every day, a substantial amount of code is written in Lean, capturing reasoning “nuggets” with step-by-step rationals that are useful for training LLMs. A few recent studies have already tapped into Lean for automatic theorem proving tasks (Polu et al., 2023; Han et al., 2022a; Lampl et al., 2022), showing its potential in tackling difficult reasoning challenges.

In this paper, we develop a Lean-based framework to tackle natural language reasoning with datasets such as ProofWriter (Tafjord et al., 2021) and FOLIO (Han et al., 2022b). We use LLMs to formalize these datasets into Lean’s formalized language, and fine-tune a custom model on these problems using a modest amount of data we collected ourselves. Our contributions in this paper are twofold.

- We show that incorporating theorem proving data

¹Our code and data will be released upon publication.

081 in training a custom model achieves competitive
082 performance with substantially less training data.
083 This strategy outperforms conventional out-of-
084 the-box solvers, especially when tackling more
085 complex problems. The model also obtained
086 state-of-the-art results on FOLIO.

- 087 • We make available the training data gathered
088 in this study, which includes 100 fully veri-
089 fied formalization of natural language reasoning
090 problems from ProofWriter to Lean, as well as
091 27 similar translations from FOLIO. Addition-
092 ally, we are releasing the corresponding theorem
093 proofs for these problems.

094 2 Problem Definition and Notation

095 The underlying task we aim to solve is providing
096 an answer to a natural query, where background
097 natural language context is given, such that it would
098 be possible to logically deduce the answer to the
099 query based on the context. This task, referred
100 to as *natural language reasoning*, along with our
101 solution to it, consists of the following components:

- 102 • **Context**, which represents natural language ut-
103 terances, composing a set of rules and facts. For
104 example: *Hudson is a cat, all cats are animals,*
105 and *cats often meow*.
- 106 • **Question**, which denotes the posed question. For
107 example, *Does Hudson often meow?*
- 108 • **Options** is an available set of answers (discrete
109 categories) from which an answer can be chosen.
110 For example, *True, False* or *Unknown*.
- 111 • **Formalized context** is the formalization of the
112 context in the underlying logical language, in our
113 case, in Lean. For example, the formalized con-
114 text for our example would be: *axiom A1 is_cat*
115 *Hudson, axiom A2 $\forall x, is_cat\ x \rightarrow is_animal\ x$*
116 and *axiom A3 $\forall x, is_cat\ x \rightarrow often_meow\ x$* .

117 **Formalized question:** Given that Lean operates
118 as a theorem prover, questions are transformed
119 into dual theorems: one asserting the positive
120 stance and the other negating it. For the given ex-
121 ample, the formalized questions would be: *Theo-*
122 *rem hudson_often_meows: often_meow Hudson*
123 and *Theorem not_hudson_often_meows: $\neg of-$*
124 *ten_meow Hudson*.

- 125 • **Goal:** In the Lean theorem proving context, a
126 "goal" is a logical statement that needs to be
127 proven true, given a set of axioms and rules.
128 When we set out to answer a question using the

Lean prover, this question (or its formalized rep-
resentation) becomes our root goal. As we apply
various **Tactics** to simplify or break down this
primary goal, we generate intermediate goals.
These intermediate goals can be thought of as
subproblems or sub-questions derived from the
primary question. The proof process in Lean is
essentially a journey from the root goal through
a series of intermediate goals until we reach a
point where all goals have been resolved based
on our axioms and rules.

For instance, using our earlier examples,
if the root goal is proving *Theorem hudson_often_meows: often_meow Hudson*, an in-
termediate goal might be proving that *Hudson is*
a cat. As we apply **Tactics**, we aim to resolve
each intermediate goal using our provided con-
text, gradually working our way towards proving
the root goal. Once all intermediate goals are ad-
dressed, we have effectively proven our root goal,
and the proof search concludes successfully.

- **Tactics** are instructions in the Lean theorem
prover language used to manipulate goals to ob-
tain a proof for a given goal. For example, *apply*
A3 Hudson is a tactic that uses modus ponens on
the **Goal** *often_meow Hudson* and transforms it
to a new **Goal** *is_cat Hudson*

A diagram of these components and the relations
between them is depicted in Figure 1. This proce-
dure is framed within the language of the Lean
theorem prover as a goal-satisfying process.

The environment we use for theorem proving
is Lean.² Lean is an open source theorem prov-
ing programming language, originally developed
for mathematical theorem proving, with a vibrant
community support. Its current base includes over
100,000 theorems and 1,000,000 lines of code.³
Lean can also be used as a generic theorem prover,
not necessarily in the area of mathematics. This is
the way we use it for our case.

3 Methodology

Our methodology is composed of four main com-
ponents: a *formalizer*, a *tactic generator*, a *proof*
search mechanism, and a *result interpreter*. The
formalizer converts context and question to formal-
ized context and formalized question. The tactic

²<https://leanprover.github.io/>.

³[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lean_\(proof_assistant\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lean_(proof_assistant)).

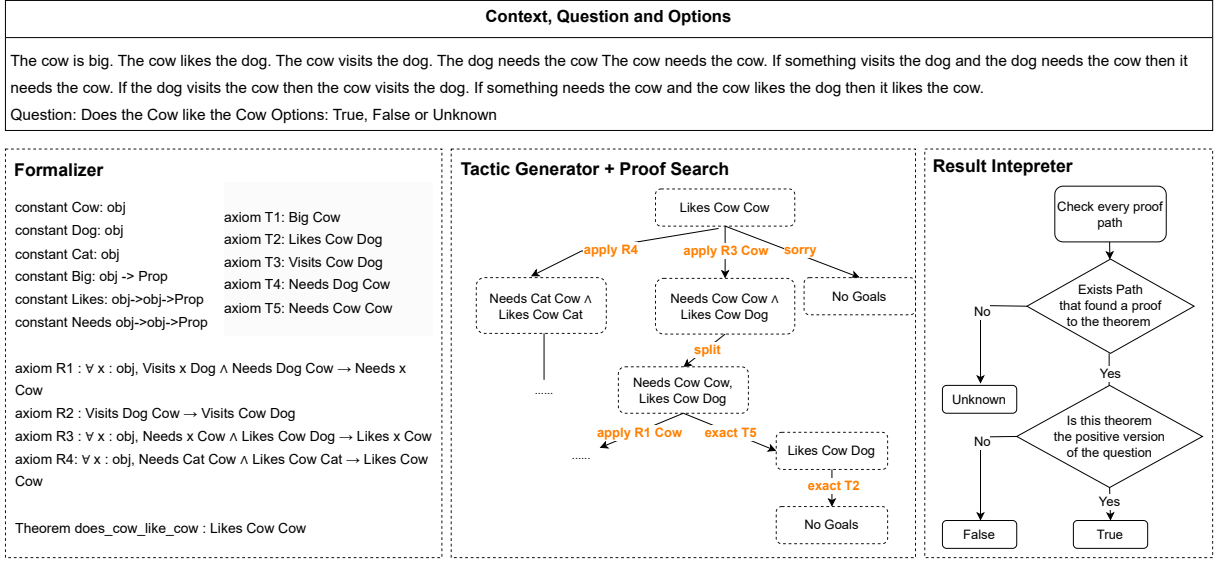


Figure 1: An overview of our approach: The natural language context is first processed by the “formalizer”. It then advances to the proof search stage, where all the orange tactics are generated by the “tactic generator”. Finally, the outcome is interpreted by the “result interpreter”.

generator then generates tactics based on premises extracted from the formalized context. The proof search mechanism oversees tactic execution and goal expansion. Lastly, the result interpreter analyses the output of the proof search and identifies the correct answer in options. In this section, we provide detailed explanations of each component.

3.1 Formalizer

In this process of formalization, we used the OpenAI models text-davinci-003 (GPT-3) and GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023). For text-davinci-003, we followed the same prompting approach as Logic-LM (Pan et al., 2023) to separate the task specification and problems, thereby enabling the model to continue with the task of formalization through next-token-prediction. For GPT-4, we used similar prompts, but included the task specification in the system prompt.

There is no definitive way to assert that a formalized result is correct since there is no deterministic Automated Theorem Prover (ATP) that can confirm the accuracy of formalization. However, the syntax of the formalized result can be checked, as correct syntax is a prerequisite for downstream theorem proving. If an error is encountered during compilation, we provide the error message generated by Lean along with the faulty formalization and ask the formalizer to reformulate the result. We further conduct manual inspections of the formalizer in §5. We note that we take a strict approach, and if the

formalizer fails more than once, then the example is counted as not being correctly solved.

3.2 Tactic Generator

The model we used for tactic generation is ReProver (Yang et al., 2023). This model employs retrieval mechanisms to explicitly select premises. When provided with the current state of proof, this generator retrieves a selected set of potentially useful premises from formalized context and generates tactic using both the goal and the retrieved premises.

The premise retrieval component of our process draws from the Dense Passage Retriever (DPR) (Karpukhin et al., 2020). Provided with a goal g as the query and a set of candidate premises P , it generates a ranked list of m premises from P . In DPR, both g and P are treated as raw texts that are embedded in a vector space. We then retrieve the top m premises that maximize the cosine similarity between the state and the premise.

The division of the problem-solving task into premise selection and tactic generation simplifies the process and facilitates easier troubleshooting. It isolates the source of potential issues, be it in the premise selection or the tactic generation, thus reducing the complexity of the problem. This division of duties also lightens the load for the tactic generator by allowing it to concentrate solely on its specific role, rather than grappling with the entirety of the problem. An added advantage of this

approach is that it makes the system’s reasoning steps more transparent and understandable.

As a baseline, we also prompt GPT-4 to generate proofs. When the answer aligns with the chosen theorem (say the chosen theorem is the positive stance of the question and the answer is YES), we present GPT-4 with the correct proof as part of the prompt. Conversely, if the answer does not align with the chosen option, signifying that the formalized theorem is unprovable, we still encourage the model to engage in step-by-step reasoning, even though it will eventually hit a roadblock. In instances where the answer is UNKNOWN, implying that neither option can be proven, we provide step-by-step reasoning prompts for each option, acknowledging that the process will not result in a definitive answer. An example of the prompt to GPT-4 can be found in Appendix A.1.

3.3 Proof Search

Different from the tactic generator module that generates tactics, the proof search module controls the overall search process that selects tactics and maintains states during proof construction. LeanDoJo (Yang et al., 2023), a recently released framework that enables interaction with Lean programmatically, provides the mechanism to check the validity of tactics and execute tactics.

The search method involves building a proof tree, which incrementally evolves the goal through tactic invocations. This approach was first introduced in (Polu and Sutskever, 2020). LeanDoJo (Yang et al., 2023) subsequently provided an implementation of this method, which we utilized for our study. As a reference, the middle part of Figure 1 provides a practical illustration of this process. For each given proof goal, we explore 64 possible tactics, commencing from the root goal. All goals are maintained in a priority queue and are expanded based on cumulative log probabilities of the goal, defined as the summation of the log probabilities of the tactics that brought us to the goal from the root. This implies that we tend to expand those goals where our generative model has the highest global confidence. The resulting tendency is towards breadth-first exploration, as goals at greater depths have more parent tactics and hence a typically higher cumulative log probability. During the search process, there are no restrictions on the length of the priority queue.

To enhance search efficiency and circumvent po-

tential loops, we have incorporated a mechanism that stops the expansion of a node N if we have already explored another node M with a state sequence that prefixes N . Essentially, if a current goal or state being explored is a superset (or contains all the elements) of a previously explored goal, the current goal is not further expanded. This is based on the observation that if we have already assessed the potential paths and outcomes for a specific goal, then exploring a more generalized version of the same goal is redundant. Such a mechanism avoids unnecessary repetitions, thereby streamlining the search process and improving overall efficiency. Moreover, we define a valid proof as one that is devoid of “cheating” keywords (such as “sorry”) that tell Lean to assume that the current goal is completed, even though it hasn’t been proven, meaning that every path containing “cheating” keywords is disregarded.

Errors in the search process typically manifest in two ways: a timeout or the exhaustion of nodes to search. We have allocated a three-minute window for each search, which is usually sufficient. We provided more analysis of the errors made by tactic generator in the experiment section.

3.4 Interpreting Results

For options that include “Unknown”, we only regard the result as correct if no other options can be proven. All datasets investigated in this study have questions with only one correct option among the choices. Consequently, if the proof system verifies more than one option, the response is immediately marked as incorrect.

4 Experimental Setup

We now describe our experimental setup: the datasets we used, our model training and our baselines.

4.1 Datasets

In our evaluation, we use as a testbed two common logical reasoning datasets:

ProofWriter: This deductive logical reasoning dataset presents problems in an intuitive language form. We incorporated the Open-World Assumption (OWA) subset as per (Pan et al., 2023), where each instance is characterized by a (problem, goal) pairing, and labels can be categorized as TRUE, FALSE, or UNKNOWN. It encompasses five segments based on the required reasoning depth: 0,

≤ 1 , ≤ 2 , ≤ 3 , and ≤ 5 hops. Our focus is the depth-5 subset, which is the most challenging one. To get a fair comparison against Logic-LM, we used the same 600 sample tests, ensuring an even label distribution.

FOLIO: Unlike ProofWriter, FOLIO is constructed using intricate first-order logic, increasing the complexity of the proving part. Beyond just the logic, the formalization for FOLIO is also challenging. The dataset presents problems in a more natural and intricate wording, with relationships that are considerably more complex. Such a combination of advanced logic and rich linguistic structure renders the formalization task in FOLIO substantially tougher than in ProofWriter. For our analysis, we turned to the entire FOLIO test set, encompassing 204 examples.

4.2 Model Training

Regarding the data for model training, we collected 100 theorem proofs for ProofWriter, where each problem’s proof was either manually annotated or collected from successful proofs generated by GPT-4. A similar approach was employed with FOLIO, albeit with 27 theorems. The data collection took about two days.

The pre-training model structure we adopted was the same as used in the ReProver paper, namely Google’s Byte-T5 (Xue et al., 2022). We also experimented with the pre-trained ReProver from LeanDoJo (Yang et al., 2023), which was pre-trained on mathlib 3. The fine-tuning on our collected data took about six hours on one A100 40G.

4.3 Baselines

For all of our experiments, we tested reasoning ability against textual input to GPT-4. When benchmarking against GPT-4 for all datasets, we strived to leverage prompts from previous work to the greatest extent possible. Our principal focus was GPT-4’s chain-of-thought (CoT) output.

For our own formalization, we use three examples as prompts for both ProofWriter and FOLIO. Because FOLIO uses the same context for different questions, we use a multi-question-style prompt for FOLIO where each prompt contains multiple questions, an example can be found in Appendix A.2.

For ProofWriter and FOLIO, we also compared our results against Logic-LM (Pan et al., 2023). Given that Z3 can also be used within Lean for problem-solving, we also employed Z3 on our formalized context using lean-smt package (Mohamed

et al., 2022), which serves as a comparison against SATLM (Ye et al., 2023). In addition, our findings were compared with other benchmark on these two datasets.

5 Results

We describe the results of our experiments: an analysis of the formalization module, a description of how to improve the tactic generator module and a comparison of our work against the baselines.

5.1 Analysis of Formalization

To discern whether errors arise during the formalization or proving stages, and to pinpoint the exact mistakes in the formalization process, we prompted the LLM to formalize a selection of 100 questions from ProofWriter’s validation set and 40 questions from FOLIO’s training set and manually examined them. These findings can be viewed in Table 1. Only those formalizations that correctly captured every fact, axiom, and rule were counted as accurate. The striking accuracy on ProofWriter can be attributed to its simpler language structure compared to FOLIO. In the case of FOLIO, using a large language model for formalization helped in filtering out unnecessary details from the natural language context, making it easier to understand the essence of the problem and do reasoning. We have illustrated typical GPT-4 formalization mistakes in B, using a composite sample derived from various error instances. Interestingly, Lean’s formalization accuracy aligns closely with both Prolog and FOL in Logic-LM. This consistency underscores Lean’s versatility, allowing it to uniformly represent both problem types.

We observed improved results when formalized code was paired with descriptive textual comments sourced from the context. This approach split the formalization task into two: 1) linking textual input with formalized code and 2) generating formalized code based on the prior textual comment. These textual cues acted as a bridge between raw text and formalized code, aiding the underlying computation processes.

It is important to highlight that the compilation errors in the formalized Lean code were straightforward to correct. When issues arise during the Lean building process, we present the error message and the original formalized Lean code to LLM for re-formalization. If the subsequent attempt is unsuccessful, we simply categorize it as incorrect.

| Model | ProofWriter | | | FOLIO | | |
|---------------------|-------------|-------|-------|-----------|-------|-------|
| | Formalize | Prove | Total | Formalize | Prove | Total |
| GPT-4 Base | 94% | 15% | 80% | 60% | 10% | 35% |
| GPT-4 Base Comments | 99% | - | 80% | 75% | - | 35% |
| GPT-4 Base Separate | - | 5% | 75% | - | 10% | 40% |
| GPT-3 Base Comments | 77% | 12% | 63% | 45% | 10% | 35% |
| Logic-LM | 98% | 75.5% | 74% | 65% | 69.2% | 55% |

Table 1: Formalization, Proof, and Total accuracies for ProofWriter and FOLIO using the OpenAI language model API. 'Base Comments' provide annotations before each line of formalized code. In 'Base Separate', formalization and proof are segmented into two distinct prompts, reducing the workload on the LLM. For Logic-LM, proof accuracy is determined from correctly formalized problems, while total accuracy is calculated on all problems. For simplicity, we did not use the self-refinement technique when evaluating Logic-LM

The distinction in performance between GPT-3 and GPT-4 is evident. While the formalization for simple concepts is the same, GPT-3 struggles with intricate logic, highlighting its limitations. As such, we opted not to use GPT-3 in further tests.

The proof accuracy section of the table is determined by whether the generated proof can compile successfully in Lean. If the formalization of question to theorem is correct and the proof can be compiled without any error or warning, then we can be confident that the proof is valid. However, the accuracy of generated proof is very low. This could be due to overloading large language model with tasks, making it difficult to complete both on a single prompt. We attempted to separate formalization and proof, but the outcome remained disappointing, indicating GPT-3 and GPT-4's inability to perform proving tasks. Interestingly, the proof accuracy of Logic-LM wasn't as high as we expected. Upon replicating their code, we found the chosen solver Pyke to be suboptimal, struggling to identify an answer when multiple search paths are available and some could result in loops.

Despite the inaccuracies in most of GPT-4's proofs, it achieved a high accuracy rate for final choices on ProofWriter (as shown in Total column). We believe this may be due to GPT-4's training exposure to it, potentially leading to a degree of memorization.

5.2 Enhanced Proving

In this section, we focus on training custom ReProver models to do tactic generation using our annotated training data. To isolate the impact of the tactic generator, we used all the accurate formalizations from the previous subsection. This gave us 99 test examples for ProofWriter and 14 for FOLIO. Furthermore, we annotated an additional 100 fully

correct samples from the ProofWriter training set and 27 from the FOLIO training set. All findings are detailed in Table 2.

We first compare the results on premise selection, using the metrics recall@1 and recall@4. The recall@k metric is defined by the ratio of ground truth premises intersecting with the top predicted premises to the total number of correct premises, represented as:

$$\text{recall@k} = \frac{|\text{GT_Prem} \cap \text{Pred_Prem}[0 : k]|}{|\text{GT_Prem}|}$$

It is clear that relying on ReProver trained solely with math data yielded suboptimal results. This can be attributed to the limited set of tactics available for both ProofWriter and FOLIO. While these datasets have a confined tactic range, the model frequently makes mistakes by attempting to use other, unrelated tactics. The ReProver fine-tuning outperformed T5 fine-tuning in terms of overall results. Furthermore, the accuracy for FOLIO were noticeably poorer than those for ProofWriter. This disparity is likely due to FOLIO's intricate logic and its need for a broader array of first-order-logic tactics such as **cases**, **have**, and **contradiction**. In contrast, ProofWriter primarily employs tactics like **apply**, **exact**, and **split**.

We proceeded to evaluate the overall proof results. Consistently, the ReProver fine-tuning model trained on math theorem proving data outperformed other approaches for both ProofWriter and FOLIO datasets. This advantage can be attributed to the limited data available for fine-tuning our tactic generator, thus highlighting the benefits of our approach. While the premise selector benefits from distinct cues and a limited range of choices, the realm of tactic generation is much broader. This vastness of options renders the Re-

| Model | ProofWriter | | | FOLIO | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|-------|-------|-------------------|-------|-------|
| | Premise Selection | | Proof | Premise Selection | | Proof |
| | Rec@1 | Rec@4 | Acc | Rec@1 | Rec@4 | Acc |
| GPT-4 baseline | N/A | | 15% | N/A | | 10% |
| ReProver baseline | 56.2% | 81.3% | 0% | 23.5% | 38.2% | 0% |
| T5 fine-tuned | 62.5% | 100% | 99% | 54.8% | 95.2% | 71.4% |
| ReProver fine-tuned | 75% | 100% | 99% | 71.4% | 96.8% | 85.7% |

Table 2: Recall@k for premise selection and overall proof accuracy across various tactic generator, encompassing the entire process from premise selection to tactic generation and proof search. We did not compute the Premise Selection accuracy for the GPT-4 baseline because prompting GPT-4 to select premises using Lean goals is challenging and is a primary concern in this context

| Method | Acc |
|-----------------------------------|-------|
| Abs Biases (Gontier et al., 2022) | 80.6% |
| MetaInduce (Yang et al., 2022) | 98.6% |
| RECKONING (Chen et al., 2023b) | 99.8% |
| GPT-4 CoT (Pan et al., 2023) | 68.1% |
| Logic-LM (Pan et al., 2023) | 79.3% |
| T5 fine-tuned | 95.8% |
| ReProver fine-tuned | 98.3% |

Table 3: Accuracy with different methods on ProofWriter. Abs Biases stands for Abstraction Inductive Biases

| Model | Acc |
|------------------------------|-------|
| Codex (Han et al., 2022b) | 56.0% |
| FOLNet (Chen, 2023) | 70.6% |
| GPT-4 CoT (Pan et al., 2023) | 70.6% |
| Logic-LM (Pan et al., 2023) | 74.5% |
| Lean Z3 (SATLM) | 77.5% |
| T5 fine-tuned | 66.2% |
| ReProver fine-tuned | 78.4% |

Table 4: Accuracy comparisons across different methods for the FOLIO dataset. The Codex baseline employs an 8-shot prompt. The result from 'Lean Z3' is derived from lean-smt applied to formalized Lean Code

Prover baseline’s proof accuracy nearly negligible. But other than that, there is a strong correlation between premise selection accuracy and overall proof accuracy. While the benefits of a pre-trained ReProver baseline may not be as noticeable for simpler datasets like ProofWriter, its value becomes evident for more complex datasets, such as FOLIO.

5.3 Comparing Against Other Baselines

Having demonstrated that fine-tuning on pre-trained math theorem models yields superior performance, we proceed to benchmark our results

against established baselines for both ProofWriter and FOLIO. The evaluation uses the same set of 600 problems from the ProofWriter paper, in addition to the entire FOLIO test set. Given the smaller test set used in the preceding section, it is of interest to also compare our approach with the model not pre-trained on theorem proving data on this larger set. Subsequently, we conduct an analysis of the errors made by the tactic generator in both the FOLIO and ProofWriter, exploring the reason our approach outperforms others.

As illustrated in Table 3, our approach yields results comparable to state-of-the-art methods for the ProofWriter dataset. While other methods except Logic-LM use the entire training set of ProofWriter, our approach relies on just 100 examples, underscoring the efficiency of our method.

Table 4 presents our performance on the FOLIO dataset. For a balanced comparison with SATLM, which utilizes the Z3 solver, we used the lean-smt tool ⁴ on our formalized Lean code. This tool produces outcomes in the form of “sat/unsat”. In Z3, “sat” stands for “satisfiable.” When Z3 returns “sat” as the result, it means that there exists an assignment (a set of variable values) that makes the theorem true, which basically means the answer to the original question is True. “unsat” Stands for “unsatisfiable”. When Z3 returns “unsat”, it means that there is no possible assignment that can make the formula true. In other words, the formula is inherently contradictory and cannot be satisfied under any circumstance. We interpret these results similarly to “found a proof/didn’t find a proof” using our result interpreter. It’s worth noting that there can be instances where a problem is inaccurately formalized because the formalization accuracy on FOLIO is lower than on ProofWriter. If the answer

⁴<https://github.com/ufmg-smite/lean-smt>

to the problem being formalized is unknown, this can inadvertently skew the model’s performance, making it seem better than it truly is because our model can’t prove neither the positive stance nor the negative stance of the problem. Nevertheless, to the best of our knowledge, our approach sets a new benchmark on the FOLIO dataset.

There are two types of error that occur during our proving process: timeout errors and running out of goals errors. The former arises when the time set for tactic generation and proof search is exhausted, while the latter occurs when generated tactics have errors, either due to syntactic invalidity or inability to be executed given the current goal, making them unprocessable by LeanDoJo. The likelihood of each error type can be influenced by the chosen beam size during the proof search. Our current approach utilizes a beam size of 64, meaning we generate 64 tactics for every goal we come across. At present, 81.8% of the errors from the ReProver fine-tuned model and 85.5% from the T5 fine-tuned model stem from timeouts. While a thorough inspection of every out-of-nodes error hasn’t been conducted, a significant portion seems to arise from incorrect formalization.

6 Related Work

Several past studies (Chen, 2023; Creswell and Shanahan, 2022; Chen et al., 2023b) used neuro-symbolic methods to augment neural networks with symbolic reasoning. Many of these approaches grapple with constraints like the necessity for custom or specialized module designs that lack broad applicability. Recent work (Pan et al., 2023; Ye et al., 2023; Poesia et al., 2023) presents an adaptable framework that melds contemporary LLMs with symbolic logic, bypassing the need to train or craft intricate modules tailored for specific problems. While our research aligns with these, we do not exclusively rely on ready-made solvers.

A common method to boost the reasoning skills of Large Language Models (LLMs) is by training them on data that requires some form of inference. As noted by (Lewkowycz et al., 2022), LLMs that are trained on data filled with science and math data do better on tasks that require reasoning, especially when using CoT prompting. Other work (Fu and Khot, 2022; Fu et al., 2023) suggests that LLMs get their advanced reasoning capabilities from being trained on code. This work is a natural extension of this idea to theorem proving data.

LLMs’ intersection with theorem proving has recently become an important topic in NLP. Although some studies delve into various theorem provers (Polu and Sutskever, 2020; Jiang et al., 2023), a consistent focus has been observed around Lean. A distinct advantage of Lean is its array of open-source tools (Yang et al., 2023) which simplify data collection and enable easy interaction with external tools. Predominant research on theorem proving with Lean encompasses strategies such as harnessing intricate proving artifacts as seen in (Han et al., 2022a), resorting to curriculum learning (Polu et al., 2023) which capitalizes on theorem provers’ ability to verify proofs to generate more training data, and high-level planning reminiscent of the tactics used by AlphaGo as detailed by Lample et al. (2022). For future work, we posit that these methodologies could potentially be repurposed for natural language reasoning.

7 Conclusion

We augmented LLMs with reasoning capabilities by integrating into them Lean, a theorem proving programming language, originally developed for mathematical theorem proving. We examined the source of errors from the formalization of natural language and from proving based on such formalization. We also examined the performance enhancements from pretraining on theorem proving data, and offered a comprehensive comparison with other techniques that highlights our model’s superior strengths. Our results underscore the potential of integrating theorem proving frameworks with LLMs in advancing natural language reasoning.

Looking ahead, we aim to improve our method’s ability to capture complex real-world situations, especially those filled with commonsense that’s hard to express as symbols. One way to attack this problem might be to separate general knowledge representation from logical reasoning. Furthermore, in future work we would like to devise better ways to exploit the reasoning abilities inherent in theorem proving data. This will allow us to solve reasoning tasks more effectively, given that this is a unique resource that involves step-by-step logic and reasoning with a well-defined method of verifying the correctness of an answer.

649 Limitations

650 Despite our promising results, our method encounters
651 limitations when dealing with problems that
652 involve commonsense and factual reasoning. In
653 these cases, it is challenging to retrieve all the
654 necessary information and accurately represent it
655 in Lean’s formal language. Consider the MMLU
656 (Hendrycks et al., 2020) and SummEdits (Laban
657 et al., 2023) datasets as examples. MMLU requires
658 the model to possess extensive world knowledge
659 and problem-solving abilities, while SummEdits
660 involves determining consistency in summaries of
661 different edits. In both instances, the ability to
662 represent the complexity and nuance of real-world
663 knowledge in Lean is severely limited. Further
664 complications arise when dealing with math word
665 problems (Cobbe et al., 2021) and similar tasks
666 (Hendrycks et al., 2021), where the goal is to derive
667 a numeric solution rather than a proof. The
668 theorem proving approach, while effective for certifying
669 the validity of logical reasoning, does not
670 directly yield a numerical answer, limiting its utility
671 in these scenarios. Lastly, our method grapples
672 with problems found in more complicated
673 theorem proving datasets like TheoremQA (Chen
674 et al., 2023a). These problems require advanced
675 understanding of natural language, alongside the
676 ability to formalize complex theorems into Lean.
677 Our current framework struggles with this level
678 of complexity, underscoring the need for more sophisticated
679 formalization techniques and a deeper
680 integration between language understanding and
681 theorem proving.

682 Even in the context of symbolic problems, there
683 are challenges. For instance, consider a problem
684 from the LogicalDeduction task of the BigBench
685 dataset (Srivastava et al., 2022), involving the arrangement
686 of three books on a shelf: a black book,
687 an orange book, and a blue book. The problem
688 states that the blue book is to the right of the orange
689 book, and the orange book is to the right of the
690 black book. The question is to confirm whether the
691 black book is the leftmost. Although this problem
692 appears straightforward, employing Lean to solve
693 it is neither the most practical nor the most efficient
694 approach. Lean, as a theorem prover, is excellent in
695 abstract reasoning and proof construction, but when
696 faced with tasks involving constraints and variable
697 possibilities, it falls short. In this particular problem,
698 using Lean would require us to formalize the
699 concepts of ordering and relative positioning. Even

700 after doing so, generating a proof would necessitate
701 significant manual labor and wouldn’t necessarily
702 yield a readily interpretable answer. In contrast,
703 a Constraint Satisfaction Problem (CSP) solver,
704 which is specifically designed to handle such problems,
705 can effectively manage constraints like the
706 relative order of books and generate potential solutions
707 efficiently.

Ethical Considerations

708
709 Incorporating Lean’s theorem proving capabilities
710 into Large Language Models (LLMs) represents
711 a significant stride forward in the AI reasoning
712 domain. Our method has not only shown a remarkable
713 improvement in handling complex reasoning
714 tasks but also offers a layer of mathematical rigor
715 that bolsters the reliability of conclusions derived.
716 However, as we elevate the reasoning prowess of
717 LLMs, there’s an amplified potential for embedded
718 biases within the training data to manifest and magnify.
719 Especially in reasoning scenarios, this can
720 inadvertently lead to skewed logic or unintended
721 favoritism in areas of utmost sensitivity such as
722 medical diagnoses or legal interpretations. While
723 our method’s foundation in Lean’s theorem proving
724 data acts as a rigorous check, complete reliance
725 on it is not foolproof. A proactive approach in
726 reviewing both training data and model outcomes is
727 essential to uphold unbiased reasoning.

728 Our integration of Lean provides LLMs with
729 the unique advantage of elucidating detailed logical
730 pathways, reinforcing the transparency of our
731 reasoning process. By tracing reasoning step by
732 step, it not only bolsters confidence in the derived
733 conclusions but also enhances the explainability of
734 these systems. Such transparency is vital in fostering
735 trust, especially when these models are used in
736 pivotal decision-making processes. This robustness
737 coupled with the broader societal implications of
738 advanced reasoning in LLMs underscores the
739 necessity for ongoing ethical reflection and proactive
740 measures to address potential challenges.

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A Prompts for Formalization 880

A.1 Prompts for ProofWriter 881

In subsection 5.1, we discussed various formalization approaches. In this section, we present the results using the GPT-4 Base Comments method on ProofWriter when the answer is False. As evident from the last line, the predicted outcome from GPT-4 can be derived easily. 882
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System Message:

You are a logician with background in mathematics that translates natural language reasoning text to Lean code so that these natural language reasoning problems can be solved. During the translation, please keep close attention to the predicates and entities. There is an additional requirement: I also want you to try to prove the theorem you translated to Lean. If you can prove the theorem, give me True at the end of the answer. If you can prove the negation of the theorem, write False at the end of the answer. If you can neither prove whether the original theorem or the negation of the theorem, please give me Unknown at the end of the answer. 888
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Input:

Textual context: The cat is blue. The cat is nice. The cat likes the cow. The cat needs the cow. The cat needs the rabbit. The cow does not need the rabbit. The cow needs the tiger. The rabbit is round. The tiger is nice. The tiger does not like the cow. If someone likes the cat and they chase the cat then they are blue. If someone likes the cow and they are red then the cow is round. If someone needs the tiger and they need the cat then they do not chase the cow. If someone needs the cat and the cat is blue then the cat is red. If someone is round then they need the cat. If someone likes the cat and the cat needs the rabbit then the cat chases the tiger. If the rabbit needs the tiger then the rabbit is not round. 905
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Question: Based on the above information, is the following statement true, false, or unknown? The cow chases the cow. 923
924
925

Output:

```
universe u

constant obj : Type u

constant Cat : obj
constant Cow : obj
constant Rabbit : obj
constant Tiger : obj

constant Blue : obj → Prop
constant Nice : obj → Prop
constant Likes : obj → obj → Prop
constant Needs : obj → obj → Prop
constant Round : obj → Prop
constant Red : obj → Prop
constant Chases : obj → obj → Prop

axiom T1 : Blue Cat
axiom T2 : Nice Cat
axiom T3 : Likes Cat Cow
axiom T4 : Needs Cat Cow
axiom T5 : Needs Cat Rabbit
axiom T6 : ¬ Needs Cow Rabbit
axiom T7 : Needs Cow Tiger
axiom T8 : Round Rabbit
axiom T9 : Nice Tiger
axiom T10 : ¬ Likes Tiger Cow

-- If someone likes the cat and they chase the cat
-- then they are blue
axiom R1 : ∀ x : obj, Likes x Cat ∧ Chases x Cat → Blue x
```

```

961 -- If someone likes the cow and they are red then
962 the cow is round
963 axiom R2 : ∀ x : obj, Likes x Cow ∧ Red x → Round
964 Cow
965 -- If someone needs the tiger and they need the cat
966 then they do not chase the cow
967 axiom R3 : ∀ x : obj, Needs x Tiger ∧ Needs x Cat
968 → ¬ Chases x Cow
969 -- If someone needs the cat and the cat is blue
970 then the cat is red
971 axiom R4 : ∀ x : obj, Needs x Cat ∧ Blue Cat →
972 Red Cat
973 -- If someone is round then they need the cat
974 axiom R5 : ∀ x : obj, Round x → Needs x Cat
975 -- If someone likes the cat and the cat needs the
976 rabbit then the cat chases the tiger
977 axiom R6 : ∀ x : obj, Likes x Cat ∧ Needs Cat
978 Rabbit → Chases Cat Tiger
979 -- If the rabbit needs the tiger then the rabbit is
980 not round
981 axiom R7 : ∀ x : obj, Needs Rabbit Tiger → ¬
982 Round Rabbit
983
984
985 theorem cow_chases_cow : Chases Cow Cow :=
986 begin
987   have H1 : Needs Cow Tiger := T7,
988   have H2 : Needs Cat Cow := T4,
989   have H3 : ¬ Chases Cow Cow := R3 Cow (and.intro
990     H1 H2),
991   contradiction,
992   sorry,
993 end
994
995 -- Looks like the theorem cannot be proven in Lean.
996 -- So let's try to prove the negation of the
997 theorem, which is Cow does not chase Cow
998
999 theorem not_cow_chases_cow : ¬ Chases Cow Cow :=
1000 begin
1001   apply R3 Cow,
1002   split,
1003   exact T7,
1004   apply R5,
1005   apply R2 Cat,
1006   split,
1007   exact T3,
1008   apply R4 Rabbit,
1009   split,
1010   apply R5,
1011   exact T8,
1012   exact T1,
1013 end
1014
1015 -- The negation of the theorem can be proven in
1016 Lean. So
1017 -- The answer is False

```

1019 **A.2 Prompts used for FOLIO**

1020 For FOLIO, the prompts differ slightly from those

1021 used for ProofWriter. Since FOLIO's textual con-

1022 text remains consistent across multiple questions,

1023 we concatenate questions sharing the same context

1024 and prompt the large language model in a single in-

1025 stance. An illustrative example is provided below.

1026 **System Message:**

1027 You are a logician with background in

1028 mathematics that translates natural language

1029 reasoning text to Lean code so that these natural

1030 language reasoning problems can be solved. During

1031 the translation, please keep close attention to the

1032 predicates and entities. There is an additional

1033 requirement: I also want you to try to prove the

1034 theorem you translated to Lean. If you can prove the

1035 theorem, give me True at the end of the answer. If

1036 you can prove the negation of the theorem, write

1037 False at the end of the answer. If you can neither

1038 prove whether the original theorem or the negation

1039 of the theorem, please give me Unknown at the end of

1040 the answer.

1041

```

Input:
Textual context: There are six types of wild
turkeys: Eastern wild turkey, Osceola wild
turkey, 'Goulds wild turkey, 'Merriams wild
turkey, Rio Grande wild turkey, and Ocellated
wild turkey. Tom is not an Eastern wild turkey.
Tom is not an Osceola wild turkey. Tom is
also not a Gould's wild turkey, or a
Merriam's wild turkey, or a Rio Grande wild
turkey. Tom is a wild turkey.

Question 1: Based on the above information, is the
following statement true, false, or uncertain?
Tom is an Ocellated wild turkey.
Question 2: Based on the above information, is the
following statement true, false, or uncertain?
Tom is an Eastern wild turkey.
Question 3: Based on the above information, is the
following statement true, false, or uncertain?
Joey is a wild turkey.

```

```

Output:
-- Introducing basic types for entities in our
universe.
constant Turkey : Type
constant Tom : Turkey
constant Joey : Turkey

-- Defining properties for the turkeys in our
universe.
constant is_wild_turkey : Turkey → Prop
constant is_eastern_wild_turkey : Turkey → Prop
constant is_osceola_wild_turkey : Turkey → Prop
constant is_goulds_wild_turkey : Turkey → Prop
constant is_merriams_wild_turkey : Turkey → Prop
constant is_rio_grande_wild_turkey : Turkey → Prop
constant is_ocellated_wild_turkey : Turkey → Prop

-- Context from the information

-- Tom is not an Eastern wild turkey.
axiom A1 : ¬ is_eastern_wild_turkey Tom
-- Tom is not an Osceola wild turkey.
axiom A2 : ¬ is_osceola_wild_turkey Tom
-- Tom is also not a Gould's wild turkey.
axiom A3 : ¬ is_goulds_wild_turkey Tom
-- Tom is not a Merriam's wild turkey.
axiom A4 : ¬ is_merriams_wild_turkey Tom
-- Tom is not a Rio Grande wild turkey.
axiom A5 : ¬ is_rio_grande_wild_turkey Tom
-- Tom is a wild turkey.
axiom A6 : is_wild_turkey Tom
-- There are six types of wild turkeys: Eastern
wild turkey, Osceola wild turkey, 'Goulds wild
turkey, 'Merriams wild turkey, Rio Grande wild
turkey, and Ocellated wild turkey.
axiom turkey_type_exclusivity : ∀ (t : Turkey),
is_wild_turkey t → is_eastern_wild_turkey t ∨
is_osceola_wild_turkey t ∨
is_goulds_wild_turkey t ∨
is_merriams_wild_turkey t ∨
is_rio_grande_wild_turkey t ∨
is_ocellated_wild_turkey t

-- Formalizing the Questions

-- Question 1
-- Tom is an Ocellated wild turkey.
-- Let's first prove the positive case.
theorem tom_is_ocellated_wild_turkey :
is_ocellated_wild_turkey Tom :=
begin
cases turkey_type_exclusivity Tom A6, {
have h1 : ¬ is_eastern_wild_turkey Tom,
from A1,
contradiction,
}, {
cases h, {
have h1 : ¬ is_osceola_wild_turkey
Tom, from A2,
contradiction,
}, {
cases h, {
have h1 : ¬ is_goulds_wild_turkey
Tom, from A3,

```



```

1129         contradiction,
1130     }, {
1131         cases h, {
1132             have h1 : ¬
1133             is_merriams_wild_turkey Tom, from A4,
1134             contradiction,
1135         }, {
1136             cases h, {
1137                 have h1 : ¬
1138                 is_rio_grande_wild_turkey Tom, from A5,
1139                 contradiction,
1140             }, {
1141                 assumption,
1142             }
1143         }
1144     }
1145 }
1146 }
1147 end
1148
1149 -- Let's try the negative case.
1150
1151 theorem not_tom_is_ocellated_wild_turkey : ¬
1152     is_ocellated_wild_turkey Tom :=
1153 begin
1154     exact A2,
1155 end
1156
1157 -- The answer is Unknown
1158
1159 -- Question 2
1160 -- Tom is an Eastern wild turkey.
1161 -- Let's first prove the positive case.
1162 theorem tom_is_eastern_wild_turkey :
1163     is_eastern_wild_turkey Tom :=
1164 begin
1165     sorry, -- Placeholder for proof
1166 end
1167
1168 -- Let's try the negative case.
1169
1170 theorem not_tom_is_eastern_wild_turkey : ¬
1171     is_eastern_wild_turkey Tom :=
1172 begin
1173     exact A1,
1174 end
1175
1176 -- The answer is False
1177
1178 -- Question 3
1179 -- Joey is a wild turkey.
1180 -- Let's first prove the positive case.
1181 theorem joey_is_wild_turkey : is_wild_turkey Joey :=
1182 begin
1183     sorry, -- Placeholder for proof
1184 end
1185
1186 -- Let's try the negative case.
1187
1188 theorem not_joey_is_wild_turkey : ¬ is_wild_turkey
1189     Joey :=
1190 begin
1191     sorry, -- Placeholder for proof
1192 end
1193
1194 -- The answer is Unknown

```

```

Output:
constant Turkey : Type
constant Eastern Osceola Goulds : Turkey → Prop
constant weight_86 weight_73 : Turkey → Prop
constant bites stings : Turkey → Prop
constant eastern_bite_causes_death : Turkey → Prop
constant Tom Bob : Turkey

axiom A1 : ¬ Eastern Tom ∧ ¬ Osceola Tom
axiom A2 : Eastern Bob
axiom A3 : weight_86 Bob
axiom A4 : weight_73 Tom
axiom A5 : ∀ (t : Turkey), bites t ∨ stings t
axiom A6 : bites Bob
axiom A7 : ∀ (t : Turkey),
    eastern_bite_causes_death t

```

There are a few errors in the above code, including:

- There is a missing axiom that corresponds to "There are three types of wild turkeys": $Goulds\ Tom \vee Eastern\ Tom \vee Osceola\ Tom$
- The formalization of numbers is incorrect, it should be: $constant\ weight : Turkey \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, axiom A3 : $weight\ Bob = 86$, axiom A4 : $weight\ Tom = 73$
- The formalization of logic is incorrect, it should be: $(\neg\ bite_causes_death\ t \wedge\ bite_causes_itching\ t) \vee (bite_causes_death \wedge \neg\ bite_causes_itching\ t)$
- There is an incorrect division of concepts that would make the proving impossible, the correct version should be: $\forall (t : Turkey), Eastern\ t \rightarrow bite_causes_death\ t$

B Example Errors During Formalization

This is an artificial example highlighting typical errors encountered in the formalization stage.

```

Input:
There are three types of wild turkeys: Eastern
turkey, Osceola turkey, 'Goulds turkey. Tom is
neither an Eastern turkey nor an Osceola turkey.
Tom is a wild turkey. Bob is a Eastern turkey.
Bob weights 86 pounds and Tom weights 73 pounds.
Turkey either bites or stings.Bob bites. Eastern
turkey 's bite would cause death.

Question 1: Tom is a Gould's turkey.
Question 2: Bob is heavier than Tom.
Question 3: If Bob bites you, you will die.

```