The SMT-LIB Standard
Version 2.0

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Preface

The SMT-LIB initiative is an international effort, supported by several research groups worldwide, with the two-fold goal of producing an extensive on-line library of benchmarks and promoting the adoption of common languages and interfaces for SMT solvers. This document specifies Version 2.0 of the SMT-LIB Standard. This is a major upgrade of the previous version, Version 1.2, which, in addition to simplifying and extending the languages of that version, includes a new command language for interfacing with SMT solvers.
Acknowledgments

Version 2.0 of the SMT-LIB standard was developed with the input of the whole SMT community and three international work groups consisting of developers and users of SMT tools: the SMT-API work group, led by A. Stump, the SMT-LOGIC work group, led by C. Tinelli, the SMT-MODELS work group, led by C. Barrett.

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Part I

Introduction
Chapter 1

General Information

1.1 About This Document

This document is mostly self-contained, though it assumes some familiarity with first-order logic, aka predicate calculus. The reader is referred to any of several textbooks on the topic [Gal86, Fit96, End01, Men09]. Previous knowledge of Version 1.2 of the SMT-LIB standard [RT06] is not necessary. In fact, Version 1.2 users are warned that this version, while largely based on Version 1.2, is not backward compatible with it. See below for a summary of the major differences.

This document provides BNF-style abstract and concrete syntax for a number of SMT-LIB languages. Only the concrete syntax is part of the official SMT-LIB standard. The abstract syntax is used here mainly for descriptive convenience; adherence to it is not prescribed. Implementors are free to use whatever internal structure they please for their abstract syntax trees.

New releases of the document are identified by their release date. Each new release of the same version of the SMT-LIB standard contains, by and large, only conservative additions and changes with respect to the standard described in the previous release. The only non-conservative changes may be error fixes.

Historical notes and explanations of the rationale of design decisions in the definition of the SMT-LIB standard are provided in Appendix A, with reference in the main text given as a superscript number enclosed in parentheses.

1.1.1 Differences with version 1.2

The concrete syntax of Version 2.0 is generally simpler and leaner than that of the previous version. Moreover, SMT-LIB expressions are now a sublanguage of Common Lisp’s S-expressions. Several syntactic categories, including that of benchmarks, are gone.

The two major additions are (i) a meta-level mechanism that approximates parametric sorts and polymorphic function symbols in theory declarations, and (ii) a command language
for SMT solvers that allows one, among other things, to assert and retract formulas incrementally, to define new sort and function symbols, to check the satisfiability of the asserted formulas and query their found model, if any, or ask for an unsatisfiable core otherwise.

The most notable differences with Version 1.2 are listed below:

- Sort symbols can have arity greater than 0, with sorts now denoted by structured sort terms such as `(Array Int Real)`, as opposed to just sort constants such as `IntRealArray`.
- The syntactic categories for formulas, predicate symbols and formula variables are all gone. Formulas are now terms of a distinguished Boolean sort, predicate symbols are Boolean function symbols, and formula variables are (term) variables of Boolean sort.
- The two `if-then-else` operators of Version 1.2 have been merged into a single one.
- The two `let` binders of Version 1.2 have also been merged into a single one, and extended to a `parallel-let` binder.
- Variables do not have a syntax distinct from that of function symbols anymore.
- Theory function symbols can now be overloaded arbitrarily, although in ambiguous cases their occurrences within a term must be annotated with a return sort. (User-defined function symbols cannot overload any already defined symbol.)
- Indexed identifiers are now denoted by expressions like `(_ name 3 5)`, where `_` is now a reserved operator, instead of lexemes like `name[3:5]`.
- Variadic function symbols are now disallowed. Every function symbol has a fixed arity—or a finite number of fixed arities in case of overloading. Expressions of the form `(f t_1 t_2 \cdots t_n)` are allowed but only for binary theory symbols of a few specific ranks, and as syntactic sugar for expressions in which `f` is applied to two arguments only. The specific desugaring to be used is specified by an annotation in `f`’s declaration.
- The concrete syntax for term annotations has changed to `(! t \alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_n)` where `!` is now a reserved annotation operator, `t` is a term, and `\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_n` are `n \geq 1` annotations.
- Each theory declaration is now parametrized by an additional set of sort and function symbols. It stands for an infinite family of theories, each an instance of the schema, as opposed to a single theory.
- Logic declarations can refer to more than one basic theory. In that case, their background theory is a modular combination of several background theories.
- Benchmarks are superseded by scripts, sequences of commands. Version 1.2 benchmarks are converted into scripts of a very simple form. Such scripts declare a logic, (possibly) declare new sort and function symbols, assert one or more formulas, and ask about their satisfiability.
1.1.2 Typographical and notational conventions

The concrete syntax of the SMT-LIB language is defined by means of BNF-style production rules. In the concrete syntax notation, terminals are written in typewriter font, as in \texttt{false}, while syntactic categories (non-terminals) are written in slanted font and enclosed in angular brackets, as in \langle\textit{term}\rangle. In the production rules, the meta-operator ::= and | are used as usual in BNF. Also as usual, the meta-operators \texttt{*} and \texttt{+} denote zero, respectively, one, or more repetitions of their argument.

Examples of concrete syntax expressions are provided in shaded boxes like the following.

\[
(f\ (\neg\ x)\ x)
\]

In the abstract syntax notation, which uses the same meta-operators as the concrete syntax, words in \texttt{boldface} as well as the symbols \texttt{≈}, \texttt{∃}, \texttt{∀}, and \texttt{Π} denote terminal symbols, while words in \texttt{italics} and Greek letters denote syntactic categories. For instance, \texttt{x}, \texttt{σ} are non-terminals and \texttt{Bool} is a terminal. Parentheses are meta-symbols, used just for grouping—they are not part of the abstract language. Function applications are denoted simply by juxtaposition, which is enough at the abstract level.

To simplify the notation, when there is no risk of confusion, the name of an abstract syntactic category is also used, possibly with subscripts, to denote individual elements of that category. For instance, \texttt{t} is the category of terms and \texttt{t}, together with \texttt{t}_1, \texttt{t}_2 and so on, is also used to denote individual terms.

The meta-syntax \( \bar{x} \) denotes a sequence of the form \( x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n \) for some \( x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \) and \( n \geq 0 \).

1.2 Overview of SMT-LIB

Satisfiability Modulo Theories (SMT) is an area of automated deduction that studies methods for checking the satisfiability of first-order formulas with respect to some logical theory \( \mathcal{T} \) of interest [BSST09]. What distinguishes SMT from general automated deduction is that the background theory \( \mathcal{T} \) need not be finitely or even first-order axiomatizable, and that specialized inference methods are used for each theory. By being theory-specific and restricting their language to certain classes of formulas (such as, typically but not exclusively, quantifier-free formulas), these specialized methods can be implemented in solvers that are more efficient in practice than general-purpose theorem provers.

While SMT techniques have been traditionally used to support deductive software verification, they are now finding applications in other areas of computer science such as, for instance, planning, model checking and automated test generation. Typical theories of interest in these applications include formalizations of arithmetic, arrays, bit vectors, algebraic datatypes, equality with uninterpreted functions, and various combinations of these.
1.2. OVERVIEW OF SMT-LIB

1.2.1 What is SMT-LIB?

SMT-LIB is an international initiative, coordinated by these authors and endorsed by a large number of research groups world-wide, aimed at facilitating research and development in SMT [BST10]. Since its inception in 2003, the initiative has pursued these aims by focusing on the following concrete goals: provide standard rigorous descriptions of background theories used in SMT systems; develop and promote common input and output languages for SMT solvers; establish and make available to the research community a large library of benchmarks for SMT solvers.

The main motivation of the SMT-LIB initiative was the expectation that the availability of common standards and of a library of benchmarks would greatly facilitate the evaluation and the comparison of SMT systems, and advance the state of the art in the field, in the same way as, for instance, the TPTP library [Sut09] has done for theorem proving, or the SATLIB library [HS00] has done initially for propositional satisfiability. These expectations have been largely met, thanks in no small part to extensive benchmark contributions from the research community and to an annual SMT solver competition, SMT-COMP [BdMS05], based on benchmarks from the library.

At the time of this writing, the library contains more than 93,000 benchmarks and keeps growing. Formulas in SMT-LIB format are now accepted by the great majority of current SMT solvers. Moreover, most published experimental work in SMT relies significantly on SMT-LIB benchmarks.

1.2.2 Main features of the SMT-LIB standard

The previous version of the SMT-LIB standard, Version 1.2, provided a language for specifying theories, logics (see later), and benchmarks, where a benchmark was, in essence, a logical formula to be checked for satisfiability with respect to some theory.

Version 2.0 seeks to improve the usefulness of the SMT-LIB standard by simplifying its logical language while increasing its expressiveness and flexibility. In addition, it introduces a command language for interacting with SMT solvers via a textual interface that allows asserting and retracting formulas, querying about their satisfiability, examining their models or their unsatisfiability proofs, and so on.

- a language for writing terms and formulas in a sorted (i.e., typed) version of first-order logic;
- a language for specifying background theories and fixing a standard vocabulary of sort, function, and predicate symbols for them;
- a language for specifying logics, suitably restricted classes of formulas to be checked for satisfiability with respect to a specific background theory;
- a command language for interacting with SMT solvers via a textual interface that allows asserting and retracting formulas, querying about their satisfiability, examining their models or their unsatisfiability proofs, and so on.
Chapter 2

Basic Assumptions and Structure

This chapter introduces the defining basic assumptions of the SMT-LIB standard and describes its overall structure.

2.1 Satisfiability Modulo Theories

The defining problem of Satisfiability Modulo Theories is checking whether a given (closed) logical formula $\varphi$ is satisfiable, not in general but in the context of some background theory $T$ which constrains the interpretation of the symbols used in $\varphi$. Technically, the SMT problem for $\varphi$ and $T$ is the question of whether there is a model of $T$ that makes $\varphi$ true.

A dual version of the SMT problem, which we could call Validity Modulo Theories, asks whether a formula $\varphi$ is valid in some theory $T$, that is, satisfied by every model of $T$. As the name suggests, SMT-LIB focuses only on the SMT problem. However, at least for classes of formulas that are closed under logical negations, this is no restriction because the two problems are inter-reducible: a formula $\varphi$ is valid in a theory $T$ exactly when its negation is not satisfiable in the theory.

Informally speaking, SMT-LIB calls an SMT solver any software system that implements a procedure for satisfiability modulo some given theory. In general, one can distinguish among a solver’s

1. underlying logic, e.g., first-order, modal, temporal, second-order, and so on,
2. background theory, the theory against which satisfiability is checked,
3. input formulas, the class of formulas the solver accepts as input, and
4. interface, the set of functionalities provided by the solver.

For instance, in a solver for linear arithmetic the underlying logic is first-order logic with equality, the background theory is the theory of real numbers, and the input language is
often limited to conjunctions of inequations between linear polynomials. The interface may be as simple as accepting a system of inequations and returning a binary response indicating whether the system is satisfiable or not. More sophisticated interfaces include the ability to return concrete solutions for satisfiable inputs, return proofs for unsatisfiable ones, allow incremental and backtrackable input, and so on.

For better clarity and modularity, the aspects above are kept separate in SMT-LIB. SMT-LIB’s commitments to each of them is described in the following.

### 2.2 Underlying Logic

Version 2.0 of the SMT-LIB format adopts as its underlying logic a version of many-sorted first-order logic with equality [Man93, Gal86, End01]. Like traditional many-sorted logic, it has sorts (i.e., basic types) and sorted terms. Unlike that logic, however, it does not have a syntactic category of formulas distinct from terms. Formulas are just sorted terms of a distinguished Boolean sort, which is interpreted as a two-element set in every SMT-LIB theory.\(^1\) Furthermore, the SMT-LIB logic uses a language of sort terms, as opposed to just sort constants, to denote sorts: sorts can be denoted by sort constants like \(\text{Int}\) as well as sort terms like \((\text{List} \ (\text{Array} \ \text{Int} \ \text{Real}))\). Finally, in addition to the usual existential and universal quantifiers, the logic includes a \(\text{let}\) binder analogous to the local variable binders found in many programming languages.

SMT-LIB’s underlying logic, henceforth SMT-LIB logic, provides the formal foundations of the SMT-LIB standard. The concrete syntax of the logic is part of the SMT-LIB language of formulas and theories, which is defined in Part II of this document. An abstract syntax for SMT-LIB logic and the logic’s formal semantics are provided in Part III.

### 2.3 Background Theories

One of the goals of the SMT-LIB initiative is to clearly define a catalog of background theories, starting with a small number of popular ones, and adding new ones as solvers for them are developed.\(^2\) Theories are specified in SMT-LIB independently of any benchmarks or solvers. On the other hand, each SMT-LIB script refers, indirectly, to one or more theories in the SMT-LIB catalog.

This version of the SMT-LIB standard distinguishes between basic theories and combined theories. Basic theories, such as the theory of real numbers, the theory of arrays, the theory of lists and so on, are those explicitly defined in the SMT-LIB catalog. Combined theories are defined implicitly in terms of basic theories by means of a general modular combination operator. The difference between a basic theory and a combined one in SMT-LIB is essentially operational. Some SMT-LIB theories, such as the theory of finite sets with

---

\(^1\) This is similar to some formulations of classical higher-order logic, such as that of [And86].  
\(^2\) This catalog is available, separately from this document, from the SMT-LIB website ([www.smt-lib.org](http://www.smt-lib.org)).
a cardinality operator, are defined as basic theories, even if they are in fact a combination of smaller theories, because they cannot be obtained by modular combination.

Theory specifications have mostly documentation purposes. They are meant to be standard references for human readers. For practicality then, the format insists that only the signature of a theory (essentially, its set of sort and sorted function symbols) be specified formally—provided it is finite. By “formally” here we mean written in a machine-readable and processable format, as opposed to written in free text, no matter how rigorously. By this definition, theories themselves are defined informally, in natural language. Some theories, such as the theory of bit vectors, have an infinite signature. For them, the signature too is specified informally in English.\(^{(1)}\)

### 2.4 Input Formulas

SMT-LIB adopts a single and general first-order (sorted) language in which to write logical formulas. It is often the case, however, that SMT applications work with formulas expressed in some particular fragment of the language. The fragment in question matters because one can often write a solver specialized on that sublanguage that is a lot more efficient than a solver meant for a larger sublanguage.\(^{(4)}\)

An extreme case of this situation occurs when satisfiability modulo a given theory \(\mathcal{T}\) is decidable for a certain fragment (quantifier-free, say) but undecidable for a larger one (full first-order, say), as for instance happens with the theory of arrays [BMS06]. But a similar situation occurs even when the decidability of the satisfiability problem is preserved across various fragments. For instance, if \(\mathcal{T}\) is the theory of real numbers, the satisfiability in \(\mathcal{T}\) of full-first order formulas built with the symbols \(\{0, 1, +, \ast, <, =\}\) is decidable. However, one can implement increasingly faster solvers by restricting the language respectively to quantifier-free formulas, linear equations and inequations, difference inequations (inequations of the form \(x < y + n\)), and inequations between variables [BBC+05].

Certain pairs of theories and input languages are very common in the field and are often conveniently considered as a single entity. In recognition of this practice, the SMT-LIB format allows one to pair together a background theory and an input language into a sublogic, or, more briefly, logic. We call these pairs (sub)logics because, intuitively, each of them defines a sublogic of SMT-LIB logic for restricting both the set of allowed models—to the models of the background theory—and the set of allowed formulas—to the formulas in the input language.

---

\(^3\) The finiteness condition can be relaxed a bit for signatures that include certain commonly used sets of constants such as the set of all numerals.

\(^4\) By efficiency here we do not necessarily refer to worst-case time complexity, but to efficiency in practice.
2.5 Interface

New to this version is a scripting language that defines a textual interface for SMT solvers. SMT solvers implementing this interface act as interpreters of the scripting language. The language is command-based, and defines a number of input/output functionalities that go well beyond simply checking the satisfiability of an input formula. It includes commands for setting various solver parameters, declaring new symbols, asserting and retracting formulas, checking the satisfiability of the current set of asserted formulas, inquiring about models of satisfiable sets, and printing various diagnostics.
Part II

Syntax
Chapter 3

The SMT-LIB Language

This chapter defines and explains the concrete syntax of the SMT-LIB standard, what we comprehensively refer to as the *the SMT-LIB language*. The SMT-LIB language has three main components: *theory declarations*, *logic declarations*, and *scripts*. Its syntax is similar to that of the LISP programming language. In fact, every expression in this version is a legal *S-expression* of Common Lisp [Ste90]. The choice of the S-expression syntax and the design of the concrete syntax was mostly driven by the goal of simplifying parsing, as opposed to facilitating human readability.\(^{(2)}\)

The three main components of the language are defined in this chapter by means of BNF-style production rules. The language generated by the given rules is actually a superset of the SMT-LIB language. The legal expressions of the language must satisfy additional constraints, such as well-sortedness, also specified in this document.

### 3.1 Lexicon

SMT-LIB source files consists of ASCII characters. A *comment* is any character sequence not contained within a string literal or a quoted symbol (see later) that begins with the semicolon character `;` and ends with the first subsequent line-breaking character. Comments together with the space, tab and line-breaking characters are all considered *whitespace*. The only lexical function of whitespace is to break the source text into tokens\(^{1}\).

The lexical tokens of the language are the parenthesis characters `(` and `)`, the elements of the syntactic categories `⟨numeral⟩`, `⟨decimal⟩`, `⟨hexadecimal⟩`, `⟨binary⟩`, `⟨string⟩`, `⟨symbol⟩`, `⟨keyword⟩`, as well as a number of *reserved words*, all defined below.

**Numerals.** A `⟨numeral⟩` is the digit `0` or a non-empty sequence of digits not starting with `0`.

**Decimals.** A `⟨decimal⟩` is a token of the form `⟨numeral⟩.0*⟨numeral⟩`.

\(^{1}\)Which implies that the language's semantics does not depend on indentation and spacing.
Hexadecimals. A \langle hexadecimal \rangle is a non-empty case-insensitive sequence of digits and letters from A to F preceded by the (case sensitive) characters \#x.

\[
\begin{align*}
\#x0 & \#xA0 \\
\#x01Ab & \#x61ff
\end{align*}
\]

Binaries. A \langle binary \rangle is a non-empty sequence of the characters 0 and 1 preceded by the characters \#b.

\[
\begin{align*}
\#b0 & \#b1 \\
\#b001 & \#b10111
\end{align*}
\]

String literals. A \langle string \rangle is any sequence of printable ASCII characters delimited by double quotes (") and possibly containing the C-style escape sequences \" and \\, both of which are treated as a single character—respectively " and \. The first escape sequence allows as usual the double quote character to appear within a string literal, the second allows the backslash character to end a string literal.

\[
\begin{align*}
" \text{this is a string literal}" & "\text{one}\n\text{two}" \\
"\text{She said: } \text{"Hello!"}" & "\text{Here is a backslash: } \\"
\end{align*}
\]

Note that, \" and \\ are the only escape sequences in SMT-LIB. So, for example—and in contrast to most programming languages—within a \langle string \rangle the character sequences \n, \012, \xA0, and \u0008 are not escape sequences all denoting the same character (new line), but regular sequences denoting their individual characters.(3)

Reserved words. The language uses a number of reserved words, sequences of (non-whitespace) characters that are to be treated as individual tokens. The basic set of reserved words consists of

\[
\text{par \ NUMERAL \ DECIMAL \ STRING \ _ \ ! \ as \ let \ forall \ exists}
\]

Additionally, each command name in the scripting language defined in Section 3.9 (set-logic, set-option, ...) is also a reserved word.(4)

Symbols. A \langle symbol \rangle is either a simple symbol or a quoted symbol. The former is any non-empty sequence of letters, digits and the characters \_ ! @ # $ % ^ & * / that does not start with a digit and is not a reserved word. The latter is any sequence of printable ASCII characters (including space, tab, and line-breaking characters) except for the backslash character \, that starts and ends with \_ and does not otherwise contain \_.(5)
Symbols are case sensitive. They are used mainly as operators or identifiers. Conventionally, arithmetic characters and the like are used, individually or in combination, as operator names; in contrast, alpha-numeric symbols, possibly with punctuation characters and underscores, are used as identifiers. But, as in LISP, this usage is only recommended (for human readability), not prescribed. For additional flexibility, arbitrary sequences of printable characters (except for | and \) enclosed in vertical bars are also allowed as symbols. Following Common Lisp’s convention, enclosing a simple symbol in vertical bars does not produce a new symbol. This means for instance that abc and |abc| are the same symbol.

**Keywords.** A ⟨keyword⟩ is a non-empty sequence of letters, digits, and the characters ~ ! @ $ % ^ & * _ - + = < > . ? / preceded by the character : . Elements of this category have a special use in the language. They are used as attribute names or option names (see later).

The syntax rules in this chapter are given directly with respect to streams of tokens from the set defined above. The whole set of concrete syntax rules is also available for easy reference in Appendix B.

### 3.2 S-expressions

An S-expression is either a non-parenthesis token or a (possibly empty) sequence of S-expressions enclosed in parentheses. Every syntactic category of the SMT-LIB language is a specialization of the category ⟨s_expr⟩ defined by the production rules below.

\[
\langle \text{spec\_constant}\rangle \ ::= \langle \text{numeral}\rangle \ | \langle \text{decimal}\rangle \ | \langle \text{hexadecimal}\rangle \ | \langle \text{binary}\rangle \ | \langle \text{string}\rangle \\
\langle \text{s\_expr}\rangle \ ::= \langle \text{spec\_constant}\rangle \ | \langle \text{symbol}\rangle \ | \langle \text{keyword}\rangle \ | ( \langle \text{s\_expr}\rangle^* )
\]
Remark 1. Elements of the \(\text{⟨spec\_constant⟩}\) category do not always have the expected associated semantics in the SMT-LIB language (i.e., elements of \(\text{⟨numeral⟩}\) denoting integers, elements of \(\text{⟨string⟩}\) denoting character strings, and so on) In particular, in the \(\text{⟨term⟩}\) category (defined later) they simply denote constant symbols, with no fixed, predefined semantics. Their semantics is determined locally by each SMT-LIB theory that uses them. For instance, it is possible in principle for an SMT-LIB theory of sets to use the numerals 0 and 1 to denote respectively the empty set and universal set. Similarly, the elements of \(\text{⟨binary⟩}\) may denote integers modulo \(n\) in one theory and binary strings in another; the elements of \(\text{⟨decimal⟩}\) may denote rational numbers in one theory and floating point values in another.

### 3.3 Identifiers

When defining certain SMT-LIB theories it is convenient to have indexed symbols as identifiers. Instead of having a special token syntax for that, indexed identifiers are defined more systematically as the application of the reserved word \(\_\) to a symbol and one or more indices, given by numerals.

\[
\langle\text{identifier}\rangle \ ::= \langle\text{symbol}\rangle \ | \ (\_\langle\text{symbol}\rangle\langle\text{numeral}^+\rangle)
\]

There are several namespaces for identifiers (sorts, terms, commands, …). Identifiers in different namespaces can share names with no risk of conflict because the particular namespace can always be identified syntactically. Within the term namespace, bound variables can shadow one another as well as function symbol names. Similarly, bound sort parameters can shadow one another and sort symbol names.

### 3.4 Attributes

Several syntactic categories in the language contain attributes. These are generally pairs consisting of an attribute name and an associated value, although attributes with no value are also allowed.

Attribute names belong to the \(\text{⟨keyword⟩}\) category. Attribute values are in general S-expressions other than keywords, although most predefined attributes use a more restricted category for their values.

\[
\langle\text{attribute\_value}\rangle \ ::= \langle\text{spec\_constant}\rangle \ | \ \langle\text{symbol}\rangle \ | \ \langle\text{s\_expr}\rangle^* \\
\langle\text{attribute}\rangle \ ::= \langle\text{keyword}\rangle \ | \ \langle\text{keyword}\rangle\langle\text{attribute\_value}\rangle
\]

:left‐assoc  
:status unsat  
:my_attribute (humpty dumpty)  
:authors ”Jack and Jill”
3.5  Sorts

A major subset of the SMT-LIB language is the language of well-sorted terms, used to represent logical expressions. Such terms are typed, or sorted in logical terminology; that is, each is associated with a (unique) sort. The set of sorts consists itself of sort terms. In essence, a sort term is a sort symbol, a sort parameter, or a sort symbol applied to a sequence of sort terms.

Syntactically, a sort symbol can be either the distinguished symbol Bool or any \langle identifier \rangle. A sort parameter can be any \langle symbol \rangle (which in turn, is an \langle identifier \rangle).

\[
\text{sorts} ::= \text{identifier} \mid (\text{identifier} \; \text{sort}^+)\
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Int</th>
<th>Bool</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(_ BitVec 3)</td>
<td>(List (Array Int Real))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((_ FixedSizeList 4) Real)</td>
<td>(Set (_ Bitvec 3))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6  Terms and Formulas

Well-sorted terms are a subset of the set of all terms. The latter are constructed out of constant symbols in the \langle spec\_constant \rangle category (numerals, rationals, strings, etc.), variables, function symbols, three kinds of binders—the reserved words let, forall and exists—and an annotation operator—the reserved word !.

A variable can be any \langle symbol \rangle, while a function symbol can be any \langle identifier \rangle (i.e., a symbol or an indexed symbol). As explained later, every function symbol \( f \) is separately associated with one or more ranks, each specifying the sort of \( f \)'s arguments and result. To simplify sort checking, a function symbol in a term can be annotated with one of its result sorts \( \sigma \). Such an annotated function symbol is a qualified identifier of the form \( \text{as} \; f \; \sigma \).

In this version, formulas are well-sorted terms of sort \( \text{Bool} \). As a consequence, there is no syntactic distinction between function and predicate symbols.\(^2\)

\(^2\) The latter are simply function symbols whose result sort is \( \text{Bool} \).
\[
\langle \text{qual identifier} \rangle ::= \langle \text{identifier} \rangle \mid (\text{as} \langle \text{identifier} \rangle \langle \text{sort} \rangle)
\]

\[
\langle \text{var binding} \rangle ::= (\langle \text{symbol} \rangle \langle \text{term} \rangle)
\]

\[
\langle \text{sorted var} \rangle ::= (\langle \text{symbol} \rangle \langle \text{sort} \rangle)
\]

\[
\langle \text{term} \rangle ::= \langle \text{spec constant} \rangle \\
| \langle \text{qual identifier} \rangle \\
| (\langle \text{qual_identifier} \rangle \langle \text{term} \rangle^+) \\
| (\langle \text{let} \rangle (\langle \text{var_binding} \rangle^+) \langle \text{term} \rangle) \\
| (\langle \text{forall} \rangle (\langle \text{sorted_var} \rangle^+) \langle \text{term} \rangle) \\
| (\langle \text{exists} \rangle (\langle \text{sorted_var} \rangle^+) \langle \text{term} \rangle) \\
| (\langle \text{!} \rangle \langle \text{term} \rangle \langle \text{attribute} \rangle^+)
\]

In its simplest form, a term is a special constant symbol, a variable, a function symbol, or the application of a function symbol to one or more terms. Function symbols applied to no arguments are used as constant symbols.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(forall } (\text{x } \text{(List Int)}) \text{ y } \text{(List Int)}) \\
\text{(= } \text{(append } x \text{ y)}) \\
\text{(ite } (= \text{x } \text{(as nil } \text{(List Int)}) \text{ y)} \\
\text{(let } ((\text{h } \text{(head x)}) \text{ (t } \text{ (tail x)})) \\
\text{(insert h } \text{(append t y))))
\end{align*}
\]

**Binders.** More complex terms include \text{let}, \text{forall} and \text{exists} binders. The \text{forall} and \text{exists} binders correspond to the usual existential and universal quantifiers of first-order logic, except that the variables they quantify are sorted. A \text{let} binder introduces and defines one or more local variables in parallel. Semantically, a term of the form

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle \text{let} \rangle (\langle x_1 t_1 \rangle \cdots (x_n t_n)) \langle t \rangle
\end{align*}
\]

is equivalent to the term obtained from \langle t \rangle by simultaneously replacing each free occurrence of \text{x}_i in \langle t \rangle by \text{t}_i, for each \text{i} = 1, \ldots, \text{n}, possibly after a suitable renaming of \langle t \rangle’s bound variables to avoid variable capturing. The language does not have a sequential version of \text{let}. Its effect is achieved by nesting lets, as in

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle \text{let} \rangle (\langle x_1 t_1 \rangle) (\langle \text{let} \rangle (\langle x_2 t_2 \rangle) \langle t \rangle)
\end{align*}
\]

All binders follow a lexical scoping discipline, enforced by SMT-LIB logic’s semantics as described in Section 4.3. Note that all variables bound by a binder are elements of the \langle \text{symbol} \rangle category—they cannot be indexed identifiers.

**Well-sortedness requirements.** All terms of the SMT-LIB language are additionally required to be well-sorted. Well-sortedness constraints are discussed in Section 4.2 in terms of the logic’s abstract syntax.
Annotations. Every term $t$ can be optionally annotated with one or more attributes $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ using the wrapper expression $(t \, \alpha_1 \ldots \alpha_n)$. Term attributes have no logical meaning—semantically $(t \, \alpha_1 \ldots \alpha_n)$ is equivalent to $t$—but they are a convenient mechanism for adding meta-logical information for SMT solvers. Currently there is only one predefined term attribute, with keyword :named and values from the $\langle$symbol$\rangle$ category. This attribute can be used in scripts to give a closed term a symbolic name, which can be then used as a proxy for the term (see Section 5.1).

Although not part of the standard yet, other examples of term annotations are instantiation patterns for quantifiers. Instantiation patterns provide heuristic information to SMT solvers that do quantifier instantiation.

$$
(=> (\forall ((x_0 A) (x_1 A) (x_2 A))

(\forall \Rightarrow (\text{and} (r \, x_0 \, x_1) (r \, x_1 \, x_2)) (r \, x_0 \, x_2))

:\text{pattern} ((r \, x_0 \, x_1) (r \, x_1 \, x_2))

:\text{pattern} ((p \, x_0 \, a))

)
$$

In their intended use, instantiation patterns annotate the body $\varphi$ of quantified formula

$$(Q \, ((x_1 \, t_1) \ldots (x_n \, t_n)) \, \varphi)$$

where $Q$ is $\forall$ or $\exists$, yielding for instance the formula

$$(Q \, ((x_1 \, t_1) \ldots (x_n \, t_n)) \, (t' \, :\text{pattern} \, (t'_1 \ldots t'_k)))$$

The value of each annotation is a list of terms, such as $t'_1, \ldots, t'_k$ above, whose well-sortedness requirements are the same as those for the formula’s body.\footnote{In particular, every variable in $t'_1, \ldots, t'_k$ that is not global to the formula must be one of $x_1, \ldots, x_n$.}

3.7 Theory Declarations

The set of SMT-LIB theories is defined by a catalog of theory declarations written in the format specified in this section. This catalog may be found at www.smt-lib.org. In the previous version of the SMT-LIB standard, a theory declaration defined both a many-sorted signature, i.e., a collection of sorts and sorted function symbols, and a theory with that signature. The signature was determined by the collection of individual declarations of sort symbols and function symbols with an associated rank—specifying the sorts of the symbol’s arguments and of its result.

In Version 2.0, theory declarations are similar to those of Version 1.2, except that they may declare entire families of overloaded function symbols by using ranks that contain sort
parameters, locally scoped sort symbols of arity 0. Additionally, a theory declaration now generally defines a class of similar theories—as opposed to a single theory as in Version 1.2.

The syntax of theory declarations follows an attribute-value-based format. A theory declaration consists of a theory name and a list of (attribute) elements. Theory attributes with the following predefined keywords have a prescribed usage and semantics: :definition, :funs, :funs-description, :notes, :sorts, :sorts-description, and :values. Additionally, a theory declaration can contain any number of user-defined attributes.(6)

Theory attributes can be formal or informal depending on whether or not their value has a formal semantics and can be processed in principle automatically. The value of an informal attribute is free text, in the form of a ⟨string⟩ value. For instance, the attributes :funs and :sorts are formal in the sense above, whereas :definition, :funs-description and :sorts-description are not.

A theory declaration ((theory T α₁ ⋯ αₙ)) defines a theory schema with name T and attributes α₁, ..., αₙ. Each instance of the schema is a theory T_{Σ} with an expanded signature Σ, containing (zero or more) additional sort and function symbols with respect to those declared in T. Examples of instances of theory declarations are discussed below.

The value of a :sorts attribute is a non-empty sequence of sort symbol declarations ⟨sort_symbol_decl⟩. A sort symbol declaration (s n α₁ ⋯ αₙ) declares a sort symbol s of arity n, and may additionally contain zero or more annotations α₁, ..., αₙ, each in the form of an (attribute). In this version, there are no predefined annotations for sort declarations.

The value of a :funs attribute is a non-empty sequence of possibly parametric function symbol declarations ⟨par_fun_symbol_decl⟩. A (non-parametric) function symbol declaration
(fun_symbol_decl) of the form (c σ), where c is an element of ⟨spec_constant⟩, declares c to have sort σ. For convenience, it is possible to declare all the special constants in ⟨numeral⟩ to have sort σ by means of the function symbol declaration (NUMERAL σ). This is done for instance in the theory declaration in Figure 3.2. The same can be done for the set of ⟨decimal⟩ and ⟨string⟩ constants by using DECIMAL and STRING, respectively.

A (non-parametric) function symbol declaration (f σ₁ ··· σₙ σ) with n ≥ 0 declares a function symbol f with rank σ₁ ··· σₙ σ. Intuitively, this means that f takes as input n values of respective sort σ₁, ..., σₙ, and returns a value of sort σ. On the other hand, a parametric function symbol declaration (par (u₁ ··· uₖ) (f τ₁ ··· τₙ τ)) with k > 0 and n ≥ 0, declares a whole class of function symbols, all named f and each with a rank obtained from τ₁ ··· τₙ τ by instantiating each occurrence in τ₁ ··· τₙ τ of the sort parameters u₁, ..., uₖ with non-parametric sorts. See Section 4.4 for more details.

As with sorts, each (parametric) function symbol declaration may additionally contain zero or more annotations α₁, ..., αₙ, each in the form of an ⟨attribute⟩. In this version, there are only 4 predefined function symbol annotations, all attributes with no value: :chainable, :left-assoc, :right-assoc, and :pairwise. The :left-assoc annotation can be added only to function symbol declarations of the form

(f σ₁ σ₂ σ₁) or (par (u₁ ··· uₖ) (f τ₁ ··· τₙ τ₁)).

Then, an expression of the form (f t₁ ··· tₙ) with n > 2 is allowed as syntactic sugar (recursively) for (f (f t₁ ··· tₙ₋₁) tₙ). Similarly, the :right-assoc annotation can be added only to function symbol declarations of the form

(f σ₁ σ₂ σ₂) or (par (u₁ ··· uₖ) (f τ₁ τ₂ τ₁)).

Then, (f t₁ ··· tₙ) with n > 2 is syntactic sugar for (f t₁ (f t₂ ··· tₙ)).

The :chainable and :pairwise annotations can be added only to function symbol declarations of the form

(f σ σ Bool) or (par (u₁ ··· uₖ) (f τ τ Bool))

and are mutually exclusive. With the first annotation, (f t₁ ··· tₙ) with n > 2 is syntactic sugar for (and (f t₁ t₂) ··· (f tₙ₋₁ tₙ)) where and is itself a symbol declared as :left-assoc in every theory (see Subsection 3.7.1); with the second, (f t₁ ··· tₙ) is syntactic sugar (recursively) for (and (f t₁ t₂) ··· (f t₁ tₙ) (f t₂ ··· tₙ)).

(+ Real Real Real Real :left-assoc)
(and Bool Bool Bool :left-assoc)
(par (X) (insert X (List X) (List X) :right-assoc))
(< Real Real Bool :chainable)
(equiv Elem Elem Bool : chainable)
(par (X) (Disjoint (Set X) (Set X) Bool : pairwise))
(par (X) (distinct X X Bool : pairwise))

For many theories in SMT-LIB, in particular those with a finite signature, it is possible to declare all of their symbols using a finite number of sort and function symbol declarations in :sorts and :funs attributes. For others, such as for instance, the theory of bit vectors, one would need infinitely many such declarations. In those cases, sort symbols and function symbols are defined informally, in plain text, in :sorts-description, and :funs-description attributes, respectively.\(^{(7)}\)

:sorts_description
"All sort symbols of the form (BitVec m) with m > 0."

:funs_description
"All function symbols with rank of the form

\[(\text{concat} \; \text{BitVec} \; i \; \text{BitVec} \; j \; \text{BitVec} \; m)\]

where \(i, j > 0\) and \(i + j = m\)."

The :definition attribute is meant to contain a natural language definition of the theory. While this definition is expected to be as rigorous as possible, it does not have to be a formal one.\(^{(8)}\) For other theories, a mix of formal notation and natural language might be more appropriate. In the presence of parametric function symbol declarations, the definition must also specify the meaning of each instance of the declared symbol.\(^{(9)}\)

The attribute :values is used to identify for each sort \(\sigma\) in a certain class of sorts, a particular set of ground terms of sort \(\sigma\) that are to be considered as values for \(\sigma\). Intuitively, given an instance theory containing a sort \(\sigma\), a set of values for \(\sigma\) is a set of terms (of sort \(\sigma\)) that denotes, in each countable model of the theory, all the elements of that sort. These terms might be over a signature with additional function symbols with respect to those specified in the theory declaration. See the next subsection of examples of value sets, and Section 4.5 for a more in-depth explanation.

The attribute :notes is meant to contain documentation information on the theory declaration such as authors, date, version, references, etc., although this information can also be provided with more specific, user-defined attributes.
Constraint 1 (Theory Declarations). The only legal theory declarations of the SMT-LIB language are those that satisfy the following restrictions.

1. They contain exactly one instance of the :definition attribute\(^4\).

2. Each sort symbol used in a :funs attribute is previously declared in some :sorts attribute.

3. The definition of the theory, however provided in the :definition attribute, refers only to sort and function symbols previously declared formally in :sorts and :funs attributes or informally in :sorts-description and :funs-description attributes.

4. In each parametric function symbol declaration \(\text{par} (u_1 \cdots u_k) (f \tau_1 \cdots \tau_n \tau)\), any symbol other than \(f\) that is not a previously declared sort symbol must be one of the sort parameters \(u_1, \ldots, u_k\).

The :funs attribute is optional in a theory declaration because a theory might lack function symbols (although such a theory would not be very interesting).

3.7.1 Examples

Core theory

To provide the usual set of Boolean connectives for building formulas, in addition to the predefined logical symbol distinct, Version 2.0 defines a basic core theory which is implicitly included in every other SMT-LIB theory\(^{10}\). Concretely, every theory declaration is assumed to contain implicitly the :sorts and :funs attributes of the Core theory declaration shown in Figure 3.1, and to define the symbols in those attributes in the same way as in Core.

Note the absence of a symbol for double implication. Such a connective is superfluous because now the equality symbol = can be used in its place. The if.then_else connective of Version 1.2 is also absent for a similar reason. Note how the attributes specified in the declarations of the various symbols of this theory allow one to write such expression as

\[(\Rightarrow x y z), (\text{and} x y z), (= x y z), \text{and} (\text{distinct} x y z)\]

respectively as abbreviations of the terms

\[(\Rightarrow x (\Rightarrow y z)), (\text{and} (\text{and} x y) z), (\text{and} (= x y) (= y z)) \text{, and} (\text{and} (\text{distinct} x y) (\text{distinct} x z) (\text{distinct} y z)).\]

The simplest instance of Core is the theory with no additional sort and function symbols. In that theory there is only one sort, Bool, and ite has only one rank, (ite Bool Bool Bool), and plays the role played by the if.then_else connective in Version 1.2. In other words, this is just the theory of the Booleans with the standard Boolean operators plus ite. The set of values for the Bool sort is, predictably, \{true,false\}.

\(^4\) Which makes that attribute non-optional.
(theory Core
  :sorts ((Bool 0))
  :funs ((true Bool) (false Bool) (not Bool Bool) 
    (=> Bool Bool Bool :right-assoc) (and Bool Bool Bool :left-assoc) 
    (or Bool Bool Bool :left-assoc) (xor Bool Bool Bool :left-assoc) 
    (par (A) (= A A Bool :chainable)) 
    (par (A) (distinct A A Bool :pairwise)) 
    (par (A) (ite Bool A A A)) 
  )
  :definition "For every expanded signature Sigma, the instance of Core with that signature 
is the theory consisting of all Sigma-models in which:
- the sort Bool denotes the set \{true, false\} of Boolean values;
- for all sorts s in Sigma,
  - (= s s Bool) denotes the function that
    returns true iff its two arguments are identical;
  - (distinct s s Bool) denotes the function that
    returns true iff its two arguments are not identical;
  - (ite Bool s s) denotes the function that
    returns its second argument or its third depending on whether 
    its first argument is true or not;
- the other function symbols of Core denote the standard Boolean operators 
as expected.
" :values "The set of values for the sort Bool is \{true, false\}." )

Figure 3.1: The Core theory declaration.

Another instance has a single additional sort symbol U, say, of arity 0, and a (possibly infinite) set number of function symbols with rank in U⁺. This theory corresponds to EUF, the (one-sorted) theory of equality and uninterpreted functions (over those function symbols). In this theory, ite has two ranks: (ite Bool Bool Bool Bool) and (ite Bool U U U). A many-sorted version of EUF is obtained by instantiating Core with more than one nullary sort symbol—and possibly additional function symbols over the resulting sort set.

Yet another instance is the theory with an additional unary sort symbol List and an additional number of function symbols. This theory has infinitely many sorts: Bool, (List Bool), (List (List Bool)), etc. However, by the definition of Core, all those sorts and function symbols are still “uninterpreted” in the theory. In essence, this theory is the same as a many-sorted version of EUF with infinitely many sorts. While not very interesting in isolation, the theory is useful in combination with a theory of lists that, for each sort σ, interprets (List σ) as the set of all lists over σ. The combined theory in that case is a theory of lists with uninterpreted functions.
(theory Ints
  :sorts ((Int 0))
  :funs ((NUMERAL Int)
    (- Int Int) ; negation
    (- Int Int Int :left-assoc) ; subtraction
    (+ Int Int Int :left-assoc)
    (* Int Int Int :left-assoc)
    (<= Int Int Bool :chainable)
    (< Int Int Bool :chainable)
    (>= Int Int Bool :chainable)
    (> Int Int Bool :chainable)
  )
  :definition
  "For every expanded signature Sigma, the instance of Ints with that
  signature is the theory consisting of all Sigma-models that interpret
  - the sort Int as the set of all integers,
  - the function symbols of Ints as expected.
  "
  :values
  "The Int values are all the numerals and all the terms of the form (- n)
  where n is a non-zero numeral."
)

Figure 3.2: A possible theory declaration for the integer numbers.

Integers

The theory declaration of Figure 3.2 defines all theories that extend the standard theory of the (mathematical) integers to additional uninterpreted sort and function symbols. The integers theory proper is the instance with no additional symbols. More precisely, since the Core theory declaration is implicitly included in every theory declaration, that instance is the two-sorted theory of the integers and the Booleans. The set of values for the Int sorts consists of all numerals and all terms of the form (- n) where n is a numeral other than 0.

Arrays with extensionality

A schematic version of the theory of functional arrays with extensionality is defined in the theory declaration ArraysEx in Figure 3.3. Each instance gives a theory of (arbitrarily nested) arrays. For instance, with the addition of the nullary sort symbols Int and Real, we get an instance theory whose sort set S contains, inductively, Bool, Int, Real and all sorts of the form (Array σ₁ σ₂) with σ₁,σ₂ ∈ S. This includes flat array sorts such as (Array Int Int), (Array Int Real), (Array Real Int), (Array Bool Int),

---

5 For simplicity, the theory declaration in the figure is an abridged version of the declaration actually used in the SMT-LIB catalog.
(theory ArraysEx
  :sorts ((Array 2))
  :funs ((par (X Y) (select (Array X Y) X Y))
    (par (X Y) (store (Array X Y) X Y (Array X Y))))
  :notes
  "A schematic version of the theory of functional arrays with extensionality."
  :definition
  "For every expanded signature Sigma, the instance of ArraysEx with that
  signature is the theory consisting of all Sigma-models that satisfy all
  axioms of the form below, for all sorts s1, s2 in Sigma:
  - (forall ((a (Array s1 s2)) (i s1) (e s2))
    (= (select (store a i e) i) e))
  - (forall ((a (Array s1 s2)) (i s1) (j s1) (e s2))
    (=> (distinct i j) (= (select (store a i e) j) (select a j))))
  - (forall ((a (Array s1 s2)) (b (Array s1 s2))
    (=>
      (forall ((i s1)) (= (select a i) (select b i))) (= a b)))
  "
)

Figure 3.3: The ArraysEx theory declaration.

conventional nested array sorts such as

(Array Int (Array Int Real)),

as well as nested sorts such as

(Array (Array Int Real) Int), (Array (Array Int Real) (Array Real Int))

with an array sort in the index position of the outer array sort.(11)

The function symbols of the theory include all symbols with name select and rank of
the form ((Array σ1 σ2) σ1 σ2) for all σ1, σ2 ∈ S. Similarly for store.

Remark 2. For some applications, the instantiation mechanism defined here for theory
declarations will definitely over-generate. For instance, it is not possible to define by instan-
tiation of the ArraysEx declaration a theory of just the arrays of sort (Array Int Real),
without all the other nested array sorts over {Int,Real}.

This, however, is a problem neither in theory nor in practice. It is not a problem in
practice because, since a script can only use formulas with non-parametric sorts6, any theory
sorts that are not used in a script are, for all purposes, irrelevant. It is not a problem in
theory either because scripts refer to logics, not directly to theories. And the language of
a logic can always be restricted to contain only a selected subset of the sorts in the logic’s
theory.

6 Note that sort parameters cannot occur in a formula.
3.8 Logic Declarations

The SMT-LIB format allows the explicit definition of sublogics of its main logic—a version of many-sorted first-order logic with equality—that restrict both the main logic’s syntax and semantics. A new sublogic, or simply logic, is defined in the SMT-LIB language by a logic declaration; see www.smt-lib.org for the current catalog. Logic declarations have a similar format to theory declarations, although most of their attributes are informal.(12)

Attributes with the following predefined keywords have a prescribed usage and semantics in logic declarations: :theories, :language, :extensions, :notes, and :values. Additionally, as with theories, a logic declaration can contain any number of user-defined attributes.

\[
\text{\langle logic\_attribute\rangle} := \text{:theories (\langle symbol\rangle\^\text{+})} \\
\text{\hspace{1cm}} | \text{:language (string)} \\
\text{\hspace{1cm}} | \text{:extensions (string)} \\
\text{\hspace{1cm}} | \text{:values (string)} \\
\text{\hspace{1cm}} | \text{:notes (string)} \\
\text{\hspace{1cm}} | \langle attribute\rangle
\]

\[
\text{\langle logic\rangle} ::= (\text{logic (\langle symbol\rangle \langle logic\_attribute\rangle\^\text{+})})
\]

A logic declaration (logic \(L \alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_n\)) defines a logic with name \(L\) and attributes \(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\).

**Constraint 2 (Logic Declarations).** The only legal logic declarations in the SMT-LIB language are those that satisfy the following restrictions:

1. They include exactly one instance of the theories attribute and of the language attribute.
2. The value \(T_1, \ldots, T_n\) of the theories attribute lists names of theory schemas that have a declaration in SMT-LIB.
3. If two theory declarations among \(T_1, \ldots, T_n\) declare the same sort symbol, they give it the same arity.

When the value of the :theories attribute is \((T_1 \cdots T_n)_n\), with \(n > 0\), the logic refers to a combination \(T\) of specific instances of the theory declaration schemas \(T_1, \ldots, T_n\). The exact combination mechanism that yields \(T\) is defined formally in Section 4.5. The effect of this attribute is to declare that the logic’s sort and function symbols consist of those of the combined theory \(T\), and that the logic’s semantics is restricted to the models of \(T\), as specified in more detail in Section 4.5.

The :language attribute describes in free text the logic’s language, a specific class of SMT-LIB formulas. This information is useful for tailoring SMT solvers to the specific sublanguage of formulas used in an input script.(13) The formulas in the logic’s language
are built over (a subset of) the signature of the associated theory \( T \), as specified in this attribute.

The optional :extensions attribute is meant to document any notational conventions, or syntactic sugar, allowed in the concrete syntax of formulas in this logic.\(^{14}\)

The :values attribute has the same use as in theory declarations but it refers to the specific theories and sorts of the logic. It is meant to complement the :values attribute specified in the theory declarations referred to in the :theories attribute.

The textual :notes attribute serves the same purpose as in theory declarations.

### 3.8.1 Examples

#### Propositional logic

Standard propositional logic can be readily defined by an SMT-LIB logic declaration. The logic’s theory is the instance of the Core theory declaration whose signature adds infinitely-many function symbols of arity \( \text{Bool} \) (playing the role of propositional variables). The language consists of all binder-free formulas over the expanded signature. Extending the language with let binders allows a faithful encoding of BDD’s as formulas, thanks to the ite operator of Core.

#### Quantified boolean logic

The logic of quantifier Boolean formulas (QBFs) can be defined as well. The theory is again an instance of Core but this time with no additional symbols at all. The language consists of (closed) quantified formulas all of whose variables are of sort \( \text{Bool} \).

#### Linear integer arithmetic

Linear integer arithmetic can be defined as an SMT-LIB logic. This logic is indeed part of the official SMT-LIB catalog of logics and is called QF_LIA there. Its theory is an extension of the theory of integers and the Booleans with uninterpreted constant symbols. That is, the instance of the theory declaration Ints from Figure 3.2 whose signature adds to the symbols of Ints infinitely many free constants, new function symbols of rank \( \text{Int} \) and of rank \( \text{Bool} \).

The language of the logic is made of closed quantifier-free formulas (over the theory’s signature) containing only linear atoms, that is, atomic formulas with no occurrences of the function symbol \( * \). Extensions of the basic language include expressions of the form \((* n t)\) and \((* t n)\), for some numeral \( n > 1 \), both of which abbreviate the term \((+ t \cdots t)\) with \( n \) occurrences of \( t \). Also included are terms with negative integer coefficients, that is, expressions of the form \((*(- n) t)\) or \((* t (*- n))\) for some numeral \( n > 1 \), both of which abbreviate the expression \((- (* n t))\).
3.9 Scripts

Scripts are sequences of commands. In line with the LISP-like syntax, all commands look like LISP-function applications, with a command name applied to zero or more arguments. To facilitate processing, each command takes a constant number of arguments, although some of these arguments can be (parenthesis delimited) lists of variable length.

The intended use of scripts is to communicate with an SMT-solver in a read-eval-print loop: until a termination condition occurs, the solver reads the next command, acts on it, prints a response, and repeats. Possible responses vary from a single symbol to a list of attributes, to complex expressions like proofs.

\[
\langle \text{command} \rangle ::= \text{(set-logic } \langle \text{symbol} \rangle) \ |
\text{(set-option } \langle \text{option} \rangle) \ |
\text{(set-info } \langle \text{attribute} \rangle) \ |
\text{(declare-sort } \langle \text{symbol} \rangle \langle \text{numeral} \rangle) \ |
\text{(define-sort } \langle \text{symbol} \rangle (\langle \text{symbol}\rangle^* \langle \text{sort} \rangle) \ |
\text{(declare-fun } \langle \text{symbol} \rangle (\langle \text{sort} \rangle^* \langle \text{sort} \rangle) \ |
\text{(define-fun } \langle \text{symbol} \rangle (\langle \text{sorted}_{\text{var}} \rangle^* ) \langle \text{sort} \rangle \langle \text{term} \rangle) \ |
\text{(push } \langle \text{numeral} \rangle) \ |
\text{(pop } \langle \text{numeral} \rangle) \ |
\text{(assert } \langle \text{term} \rangle) \ |
\text{(check-sat) \ |
\text{(get-assertions) \ |
\text{(get-proof) \ |
\text{(get-unsat-core) \ |
\text{(get-proof } (\langle \text{term} \rangle^+) \ |
\text{(get-assignment) \ |
\text{(get-option } \langle \text{keyword} \rangle) \ |
\text{(get-info } \langle \text{info-flag} \rangle) \ |
\text{(exit) \ |
\langle \text{script} \rangle ::= \langle \text{command} \rangle^*
\]

The command set-option takes as argument expressions of the syntactic category \langle option \rangle which have the same form as attributes with values. Options with the predefined keywords below have a prescribed usage and semantics. Additional, solver-specific options are also allowed.
\[ \langle b\_value \rangle ::= \text{true} \mid \text{false} \]

\[ \langle \text{option} \rangle ::= :\text{print-success}\ \langle b\_value \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{expand-definitions}\ \langle b\_value \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{interactive-mode}\ \langle b\_value \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{produce-proofs}\ \langle b\_value \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{produce-unsat-cores}\ \langle b\_value \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{produce-models}\ \langle b\_value \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{produce-assignments}\ \langle b\_value \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{regular-output-channel}\ \langle \text{string} \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{diagnostic-output-channel}\ \langle \text{string} \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{random-seed}\ \langle \text{numeral} \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{verbosity}\ \langle \text{numeral} \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid \langle \text{attribute} \rangle \]

The command \texttt{get-info} takes as argument expressions of the syntactic category \( \langle \text{info-flag} \rangle \) which are flags with the same form as keywords. The predefined flags below have a prescribed usage and semantics.

\[ \langle \text{info-flag} \rangle ::= :\text{error-behavior} \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{name} \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{authors} \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{version} \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{status} \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{reason-unknown} \]
\[ \quad \mid \langle \text{keyword} \rangle \]
\[ \quad \mid :\text{all-statistics} \]

Additional, solver-specific flags are also allowed. Examples might be, for instance, flags such as :\text{time} and :\text{memory}, referring to used resources, or :\text{decisions}, :\text{conflicts}, and :\text{restarts}, referring to typical statistics for SMT solvers based on some extension of the DPLL procedure.

A full presentation of the semantics of all commands, in terms of abstract syntax, is given in Chapter 5. We briefly highlight here, however, several points, and then provide a couple of examples.

**Assertion-set stack.** Conforming solvers respond to various commands by performing operations on a data structure called the assertion-set stack. This is a single global stack, where each element on the stack is a set of assertions. Assertions include both logical formulas (that is, terms of Boolean type), as well as declarations and definitions of sort symbols and function symbols. Such declarations and definitions are thus local: popping an assertion set from the assertion-set stack removes all declarations and definitions contained in that
set. This feature supports the removal of definitions and declarations, without recourse to *undefining* or shadowing, neither of which are supported or allowed.

**Declared/defined symbols.** Sort and function symbols introduced with a declaration or a definition cannot begin with a dot (.) (such symbols are reserved for future use) or with @ (such symbols are reserved for solver-defined *abstract values*).

**Remark 3.** Unlike version 1.2 of the SMT-LIB format, the current specification does not have a separate syntactic category of benchmarks. Instead, declarative information is included in scripts via the `set-info` command. See Section 5.2 below for more on this.

For more on error behavior, the meanings of the various options and info names, and the semantics of additional commands like `get-unsat-core`, please see Chapter 5.

**Command responses**

The possible responses from commands are defined as follows, where `<gen_response>` defines a general command response. In place of success, one of the elements of `<gen_response>`, some commands provide a more specific response. These responses are defined by

- `<get_info_response>` for `get-info`,
- `<check_sat_response>` for `check-sat`,
- `<get_assertions_response>` for `get-assertions`,
- `<get_proof_response>` for `get-proof`,
- `<get_unsat_core_response>` for `get-unsat-core`,
- `<get_value_response>` for `get-value`,
- `<get_assignment_response>` for `get-assignment`.

```plaintext
<gen_response> ::= unsupported | success | (error <string>)
<error-behavior> ::= immediate-exit | continued-execution
<reason-unknown> ::= memout | incomplete
<status> ::= sat | unsat | unknown
<info_response> ::= :error-behavior <error-behavior>
| :name <string>
| :authors <string>
| :version <string>
| :reason-unknown <reason-unknown>
| <attribute>
<get_info_response> ::= ( <info_response> )
```
Solvers respond to commands with the responses defined above. General responses (gen_response) are used unless more specific responses are specified, for example for get-info ((get_info_response)) or get-value ((get_value_response)). Regular output, including error messages, is printed on the regular output channel; diagnostic output, including warnings or progress information, on the diagnostic output channel. These may be set using set-option and the corresponding attributes (the :regular-output-channel and :diagnostic-output-channel attributes). The values of these attributes should be (double-quote delimited) file names in the format specified by the POSIX standard.\textsuperscript{7} The string literals "stdout" and "stderr" are reserved to refer specially to the corresponding standard process channels (not disk files of the same name).

### Whitespace and responses

The following requirement is in effect for all responses: any response which is not double-quoted and not parenthesized should be followed by at least one whitespace character (for example, a newline).\textsuperscript{(15)}

### Example scripts

We demonstrate some allowed behavior of an imagined solver in response to an example script. Each command is followed by example legal output from the solver in a comment, if there is any. The script in Figure 3.4 makes two background assertions, and then conducts two independent queries. The get-info command requests information on the search using the :all-statistics flag.\textsuperscript{8} The script in Figure 3.5 uses the get-value command to get

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\textsuperscript{7} This is the usual format adopted by all Unix-based operating systems, with / used as a separator for (sub)directories, etc.

\textsuperscript{8} Since output of (get-info :all-statistics) is solver-specific, the response reported in the script is for illustration purposes only.
Figure 3.4: Example script, over two columns (i.e. commands in the first column precede those in the second column), with solver responses in comments.

Figure 3.5: Another example script (excerpt), with solver responses in comments.
information about a particular model of the formula which the solver has reported satisfiable.
Part III

Semantics
Chapter 4

SMT-LIB Logic

In this version of the SMT-LIB standard, the underlying logic is still a variant of many-sorted first-order logic (FOL) with equality [Man93, Gal86, End01], although it now incorporates some features of higher-order logics; in particular, the identification of formulas with terms of a distinguished Boolean sort, and the use of sort symbols of arity greater than 0.

These features make for a more flexible and syntactically more uniform logical language. However, while not exactly syntactic sugar, they do not change the essence of SMT-LIB logic with respect to traditional many-sorted FOL. Quantifiers are still first-order, the sort structure is flat (no subsorts), the logic’s type system has no function (arrow) types, no type quantifiers, no dependent types, no provisions for parametric or subsort polymorphism. The only polymorphism is of the ad-hoc variety (a function symbol can be given more than one rank), although there is a syntactical mechanism for approximating parametric polymorphism. As a consequence, all the classical meta-theoretic results from many-sorted FOL apply to SMT-LIB logic as well.

To define SMT-LIB logic and its semantics it is convenient to work with a more abstract syntax than the concrete S-expression-based syntax of the SMT-LIB language. The formal semantics of concrete SMT-LIB expressions is then given by means of a translation into this abstract syntax. A formal definition of this translation is provided in Appendix D. The translation also maps concrete predefined symbols and keywords to their abstract counterpart. To facilitate reading, usually the abstract version of a predefined concrete symbol is denoted by the symbol’s name in Roman bold font (e.g., Bool for Bool). Similarly for keywords (e.g., definition for :definition).

To define our target abstract syntax we start by fixing the following sets of (abstract) symbols and values:

- an infinite set $S$ of sort symbols $s$ containing the symbol $\text{Bool}$,
- an infinite set $U$ of sort parameters $u$,
- an infinite set $X$ of variables $x$,
4.1. THE LANGUAGE OF SORTS

(Sorts) \( \sigma ::= s \sigma^* \)

(Parametric Sorts) \( \tau ::= u \mid s \tau^* \)

Figure 4.1: Abstract syntax for sort terms

- an infinite set \( F \) of function symbols \( f \) containing the symbols \( \approx, \land, \) and \( \neg, \)
- an infinite set \( A \) of attribute names \( a, \)
- an infinite set \( V \) of attribute values \( v, \)
- the set \( W \) of ASCII character strings \( w, \)
- a two-element set \( B = \{ \text{true}, \text{false} \} \) of Boolean values \( b, \)
- the set \( N \) of natural numbers \( n, \)
- an infinite set \( T N \) of theory names \( T, \)
- an infinite set \( L \) of logic names \( L. \)

It is unnecessary to require that the sets above be pairwise disjoint.

4.1 The language of sorts

In many-sorted logics, terms are typed, or sorted, and each sort is denoted by a sort symbol. In SMT-LIB logic, the language of sorts is extended from sort symbols to sort terms built with symbols from the set \( S \) above. Formally, we have the following.

**Definition 1 (Sorts).** For all non-empty subsets \( S \) of \( S \) and all mappings \( ar : S \to \mathbb{N} \), the set \( \text{Sort}(S) \) of all sorts over \( S \) (with respect to \( ar \)) is defined inductively as follows:

1. every \( s \in S \) with \( ar(s) = 0 \) is a sort;
2. if \( s \in S \) and \( ar(s) = n > 0 \) and \( \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n \) are sorts, then the term \( s \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \) is a sort.

We say that \( s \in S \) has (or is of) **arity** \( n \) if \( ar(s) = n. \)

As an example of a sort, if \( \textbf{Int} \) and \( \textbf{Real} \) are sort symbols of arity 0, and \( \textbf{List} \) and \( \textbf{Array} \) are sort symbols of respective arity 1 and 2, then the expression \( \textbf{List} (\textbf{Array} \textbf{Int} (\textbf{List} \textbf{Real})) \) and all of its subexpressions are sorts.

Function symbol declarations in theory declarations (defined later), use also **parametric sorts**. These are defined similarly to sorts above except that they can be built also over a further set \( U \) of sort parameters, used like sort symbols of arity 0. Similarly to the example above, if \( u_1, u_2 \) are elements of \( U, \) the expression \( \textbf{List} (\textbf{Array} u_1 (\textbf{List} u_2)) \) and all of its subexpressions are parametric sorts.
(Attributes) $\alpha ::= a \mid a = v$

(Terms) $t ::= x \mid f t^* \mid f^\sigma t^*$
| $\exists (x:\sigma)^+ t \mid \forall (x:\sigma)^+ t \mid \text{let } (x = t)^+ \text{ in } t$
| $t \alpha^+$

Figure 4.2: Abstract syntax for unsorted terms

An abstract syntax for sorts $\sigma$ and parametric sorts $\tau$, which ignores arity constraints for simplicity, is provided in Figure 4.1. Note that every sort is a parametric sort, but not vice versa. Also note that parametric sorts are used only in theory declarations; they are not part of SMT-LIB logic. In the following, we say “sort” to refer exclusively to non-parametric sorts.

### 4.2 The language of terms

In the abstract syntax, terms are built out of variables from $\mathcal{X}$, function symbols from $\mathcal{F}$, and a set of binders. The logic considers, in fact, only well-sorted terms, a subset of all possible terms determined by a sorted signature, as described below.

The set of all terms is defined by the abstract syntax rules of Figure 4.2. The rules do not distinguish between constant and function symbols (they are all members of the set $\mathcal{F}$). These distinctions are really a matter of arity, which is taken care of later by the well-sortedness rules.

For all $n \geq 0$, variables $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$ and sorts $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$,

- the prefix construct $\exists x_1:\sigma_1 \cdots x_n:\sigma_n$ is a sorted existential binder (or existential quantifier) for $x_1, \ldots, x_n$;
- the prefix construct $\forall x_1:\sigma_1 \cdots x_n:\sigma_n$ is a sorted universal binder (or universal quantifier) for $x_1, \ldots, x_n$;
- the mixfix construct $\text{let } x_1 = \_ \cdots x_n = \_ \text{ in } \_$ is an (parallel-)let binder for $x_1, \ldots, x_n$.

We speak of bound or free (occurrences of) variables in a term as usual. Terms are closed if they contain no free variables, and open otherwise. Terms are ground if they are variable-free.

For simplicity, the defined language does not contain any logical symbols other than quantifiers. Logical connectives for negation, conjunction and so on and the equality symbol, which we denote here by $\approx$, are just function symbols of the basic theory Core, implicitly included in all SMT-LIB theories (see Subsection 3.7.1).

Terms can be optionally annotated with zero or more attributes. Attributes have no logical meaning, but they are a convenient mechanism for adding meta-logical information,
as illustrated in Section 3.6. Syntactically, an attribute is either an attribute name \( a \in \mathcal{A} \) or a pair the form \( a = v \) where \( a \in \mathcal{A} \) and \( v \) is an attribute value in \( \mathcal{V} \).

Function symbols themselves may be annotated with a sort, as in \( f^\sigma \). Sort annotations simplify the sorting rules of the logic, which determine the set of well-sorted terms.

### 4.2.1 Signatures

Well-sorted terms in SMT-LIB logic are terms that can be associated with a unique sort by means of a set of sorting rules similar to typing rules in programming languages. The rules are based on the following definition of a (many-sorted) signature.

**Definition 2 (SMT-LIB Signature).** An *SMT-LIB signature*, or simply a *signature*, is a tuple \( \Sigma \) consisting of:

- a set \( \Sigma^S \subseteq S \) of sort symbols containing \( \text{Bool} \),
- a set \( \Sigma^F \subseteq \mathcal{F} \) of function symbols containing \( \approx, \land, \) and \( \neg \),
- a total mapping \( \text{ar} \) from \( \Sigma^S \) to \( \mathbb{N} \), with \( \text{ar}(\text{Bool}) = 0 \),
- a partial mapping from the variables \( \mathcal{X} \) to \( \text{Sort}(\Sigma) := \text{Sort}(\Sigma^S) \),
- a left-total relation\(^3\) \( R \) from \( \Sigma^F \) to \( \text{Sort}(\Sigma)^+ \) such that
  - \( (\neg, \text{Bool} \ \text{Bool}) \), \( (\land, \text{Bool} \ \text{Bool} \ \text{Bool}) \) \( \in R \), and
  - \( (\approx, \sigma \sigma \text{Bool}) \) \( \in R \) for all \( \sigma \in \text{Sort}(\Sigma) \).

Each sort sequence associated by \( \Sigma \) to a function symbol \( f \) is a *rank* of \( f \).

The rank of a function symbol specifies, in order, the expected sort of the symbol’s arguments and result. It is possible for a function symbol to be *overloaded* in a signature for being associated to more than one rank in that signature.

This form of *ad-hoc polymorphism* is entirely unrestricted: a function symbol can have completely different ranks—even varying in arity. For example, in a signature with sorts Int and Real (with the expected meaning), it is possible for the minus symbol — to have all of the following ranks: Real Real (for unary negation over the reals), Int Int (for unary negation over the integers), Real Real Real (for binary subtraction over the reals), and Int Int Int (for binary subtraction over the integers).

Together with the mechanism used to declare theories (described in the next section), overloading also provides an approximate form of *parametric polymorphism* by allowing one to declare function symbols with ranks all having the *same shape*. For instance, it is possible

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\(^1\) At this abstract level, the syntax of attribute values is intentionally left unspecified.

\(^2\) Note that \( \text{Sort}(\Sigma) \) is non-empty because at least one sort in \( \Sigma^S \), \( \text{Bool} \), has arity 0. Also, recall that if \( S \) is a set of sort symbols (like \( \Sigma^S \)), then \( \text{Sort}(S) \) is the set of all sorts over \( S \).

\(^3\) A binary relation \( R \subseteq X \times Y \) is *left-total* if for each \( x \in X \) there is (at least) a \( y \in Y \) such that \( xRy \).
to declare an array access symbol with rank \((\text{Array}\sigma_1\sigma_2)\sigma_1\sigma_2\) for all sorts \(\sigma_1,\sigma_2\) in a theory signature. Strictly speaking, this is still ad-hoc polymorphism because SMT-LIB logic itself does not allow parametric sorts.\(^4\) However, it provides most of the convenience of parametric polymorphism while remaining within the confines of the standard semantics of many-sorted FOL.

A function symbol can be \textit{ambiguous} in an SMT-LIB signature for having distinct ranks of the form \(\bar{\sigma}\sigma_1\) and \(\bar{\sigma}\sigma_2\) with \(\sigma_1\) and \(\sigma_2\) different sorts. Thanks to the requirement in Definition 2 that variables have at most one sort in a signature, in signatures with no ambiguous function symbols every term can have at most one sort. In contrast, with an ambiguous symbol \(f\) whose different ranks are \(\bar{\sigma}\sigma_1, \ldots, \bar{\sigma}\sigma_n\), a term of the form \(f\bar{t}\), where the terms \(\bar{t}\) have sorts \(\bar{\sigma}\), can be given a unique sort only if \(f\) is annotated with one of the result sorts \(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n\), that is, only if it is written as \(f^{\sigma_i}\bar{t}\) for some \(i \in \{i, \ldots, n\}\).

In the following, we will work with \textit{ranked} function symbols and \textit{sorted} variables in a signature. Formally, given a signature \(\Sigma\), a \textit{ranked function symbol} is a pair \((f, \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n)\) in \(\mathcal{F} \times \mathcal{S}(\Sigma)^+\), which we write as \(f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n\). A \textit{sorted variable} is a pair \((x, \sigma)\) in \(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{S}(\Sigma)\), which we write as \(x: \sigma\). We write \(f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \sigma \in \Sigma\) and \(x: \sigma \in \Sigma\) to denote that \(f\) has rank \(\sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n\sigma\) in \(\Sigma\) and \(x\) has sort \(\sigma\) in \(\Sigma\).

A signature \(\Sigma'\) is \textit{variant} of a signature \(\Sigma\) if it is identical to \(\Sigma\) possibly except for its mapping from variables to sorts. We will also consider signatures that conservatively expand a given signature with additional sort and function symbols or additional ranks for \(\Sigma\)'s function symbols. A signature \(\Omega\) is a \textit{expansion} of a signature \(\Sigma\) if all of the following hold: \(\Sigma^S \subseteq \Omega^S\); \(\Sigma^F \subseteq \Omega^F\); the sort symbols of \(\Sigma\) have the same arity in \(\Sigma\) and in \(\Omega\); for all \(x \in \mathcal{X}\) and \(\sigma \in \mathcal{S}(\Sigma)\), \(x: \sigma \in \Sigma\) iff \(x: \sigma \in \Omega\); for all \(f \in \mathcal{F}\) and \(\bar{\sigma} \in \mathcal{S}(\Sigma)^+\), if \(f: \bar{\sigma} \in \Sigma\) then \(f: \bar{\sigma} \in \Omega\). In that case, \(\Sigma\) is a \textit{subsignature} of \(\Omega\).

### 4.2.2 Well-sorted terms

Figure 4.3 provides a set of rules defining well-sorted terms with respect to an SMT-LIB signature \(\Sigma\). Strictly speaking then, and similarly to more conventional logics, the SMT-LIB logic language is a family of languages parametrized by the signature \(\Sigma\). As explained later, for each script working in the context of a background theory \(\mathcal{T}\), the specific signature is jointly defined by the declaration of \(\mathcal{T}\) plus any additional sort and function symbol declarations contained in the script.

The format and meaning of the sorting rules in Figure 4.3 is fairly standard and should be largely self-explanatory to readers familiar with type systems. In more detail, the letter \(\sigma\) (possibly primed or with subscripts) denotes sorts in \(\mathcal{S}(\Sigma)\), the integer index \(k\) in the rules is assumed \(\geq 0\). The expression \(\Sigma[x_1: \sigma_1, \ldots, x_{k+1}: \sigma_{k+1}]\) denotes the signature that maps \(x_i\) to sort \(\sigma_i\) for \(i = 1, \ldots, k + 1\), and coincides otherwise with \(\Sigma\). The rules operate over \textit{sorting judgments} which are triples of the form \(\Sigma \vdash t: \sigma\).

\(^4\) Parametric sort terms that occur in theory declarations are meta-level syntax as far as SMT-LIB logic is concerned. They are \textit{schemata} standing for concrete sorts.
4.2. THE LANGUAGE OF TERMS

\[ \Sigma \vdash x : \alpha^\ast : \sigma \quad \text{if } x : \sigma \in \Sigma \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash t_1 : \sigma_1 \ldots \Sigma \vdash t_k : \sigma_k \]
\[ \Sigma \vdash (f t_1 \ldots t_k) : \alpha^\ast : \sigma \]
\[ \begin{cases} f : \sigma_1 \ldots \sigma_k \in \Sigma \quad \text{and} \\ f : \sigma_1 \ldots \sigma_k \sigma' \notin \Sigma \quad \text{for all } \sigma' \neq \sigma \end{cases} \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash t_1 : \sigma_1 \ldots \Sigma \vdash t_k : \sigma_k \]
\[ \Sigma \vdash (f^\sigma t_1 \ldots t_k) : \alpha^\ast : \sigma \]
\[ \begin{cases} f : \sigma_1 \ldots \sigma_k \sigma \in \Sigma \quad \text{and} \\ f : \sigma_1 \ldots \sigma_k \sigma' \in \Sigma \quad \text{for some } \sigma' \neq \sigma \end{cases} \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash \left[ x_1 : \sigma_1, \ldots, x_{k+1} : \sigma_{k+1} \right] : t : \text{Bool} \]
\[ \Sigma \vdash (Q x_1 : \sigma_1 \ldots x_{k+1} : \sigma_{k+1} \ t) : \text{Bool} \]
\[ \text{if } Q \in \{\exists, \forall\} \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash t_1 : \sigma_1 \ldots \Sigma \vdash t_{k+1} : \sigma_{k+1} \]
\[ \Sigma \vdash \left[ x_1 : \sigma_1, \ldots, x_{k+1} : \sigma_{k+1} \right] : t : \sigma \]
\[ \Sigma \vdash \text{let } x_1 = t_1 \ldots x_{k+1} = t_{k+1} \text{ in } t \rangle : \alpha^\ast : \sigma \]

Figure 4.3: Well-sortedness rules for terms

**Definition 3** (Well-sorted Terms). For every SMT-LIB signature \( \Sigma \), a term \( t \) generated by the grammar in Figure 4.2 is well-sorted (with respect to \( \Sigma \)) if \( \Sigma \vdash t : \sigma \) is derivable by the sorting rules in Figure 4.3 for some sort \( \sigma \in \text{Sort}(\Sigma) \). In that case, we say that \( t \) has, or is of, sort \( \sigma \). \( \square \)

With this definition, it is possible to show that every term has at most one sort.\(^{(16)}\)

**Definition 4** (SMT-LIB formulas). For each signature \( \Sigma \), the language of SMT-LIB logic is the set of all well-sorted terms wrt \( \Sigma \). Formulas are well-sorted terms of sort \( \text{Bool} \). \( \square \)

In the following, we will sometimes use \( \varphi \) and \( \psi \) to denote formulas.

**Constraint 3.** SMT-LIB scripts consider only closed formulas, or sentences, closed terms of sort \( \text{Bool} \).\(^{(17)}\)

There is no loss of generality in the restriction above because, as far as satisfiability is concerned, every formula \( \varphi \) with free variables \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \) of respective sort \( \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n \), can be rewritten as

\[ \exists \ x_1 : \sigma_1 \ldots x_n : \sigma_n \ \varphi . \]

An alternative way to avoid free variables in scripts is to replace them by fresh constant symbols of the same sort. This is again with no loss of generality because, for satisfiability modulo theories purposes, a formula’s free variables can be treated equivalently as free symbols (see later for a definition).
4.3 Structures and Satisfiability

The semantics of SMT-LIB is essentially the same as that of conventional many-sorted logic, relying on a similar notion of Σ-structure.

**Definition 5 (Σ-structure).** Let Σ be a signature. A Σ-structure A is a pair consisting of a set A, the universe of A, that includes the two-element set \( \mathcal{B} = \{\text{true}, \text{false}\} \), and a mapping that interprets

- each \( \sigma \in \text{Sort}(\Sigma) \) as subset \( \sigma^A \) of A, with \( \text{Bool}^A = \mathcal{B} \),
- each (ranked function symbol) \( f: \sigma \in \Sigma \) as an element \( (f: \sigma)^A \) of \( \sigma^A \),
- each \( f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \sigma \in \Sigma \) with \( n > 0 \) as a total function \( (f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \sigma)^A \) from \( \sigma_1^A \times \cdots \times \sigma_n^A \) to \( \sigma^A \), with \( \approx^{\sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n} \) interpreted as the identity predicate over \( \sigma_i^A \).

For each \( \sigma \in \text{Sort}(\Sigma) \), the set \( \sigma^A \) is called the extension of \( \sigma \) in A.\(^{(18)}\)

Note that, as a consequence of overloading, a Σ-structure does not interpret plain function symbols but ranked function symbols. Also note that any Σ-structure is also a Σ′-structure for every variant Σ′ of Σ.

If \( \mathcal{B} \) is an Ω-signature with universe \( \mathcal{B} \) and Σ is a subsignature of Ω, the reduct of \( \mathcal{B} \) to Σ is the (unique) Σ-structure with universe \( \mathcal{B} \) that interprets its sort and function symbols exactly as \( \mathcal{B} \).

4.3.1 The meaning of terms

A valuation into a Σ-structure A is a partial mapping \( v \) from \( \mathcal{X} \times \text{Sort}(\Sigma) \) to the set of all domain elements of A such that, for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \) and \( \sigma \in \text{Sort}(\Sigma) \), \( v(x: \sigma) \in \sigma^A \). We denote by \( v[x_1: \sigma_1 \mapsto a_1, \ldots, x_n: \sigma_n \mapsto a_n] \) the valuation that maps \( x_i: \sigma_i \) to \( a_i \in A \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, n \) and is otherwise identical to \( v \).

If \( v \) is a valuation into Σ-structure A, the pair \( \mathcal{I} = (A, v) \) is a Σ-interpretation. We write \( \mathcal{I}[x_1: \sigma_1 \mapsto a_1, \ldots, x_n: \sigma_n \mapsto a_n] \) as an abbreviation for the Σ′-interpretation

\[
(A', v[x_1: \sigma_1 \mapsto a_1, \ldots, x_n: \sigma_n \mapsto a_n])
\]

where \( \Sigma' = \Sigma[x_1: \sigma_1, \ldots, x_n: \sigma_n] \) and \( A' \) is just A but seen as a Σ′-structure.

A Σ-interpretation \( \mathcal{I} \) assigns a meaning to well-sorted Σ-terms by means of a uniquely determined (total) mapping \( \llbracket \cdot \rrbracket^\mathcal{I} \) of such terms into the universe of its structure.

**Definition 6.** Let \( \Sigma \) be an SMT-LIB signature and let \( \mathcal{I} = (A, v) \) be a Σ-interpretation. For every well-sorted term \( t \) of sort \( \sigma \) with respect to \( \Sigma \), \( \llbracket t \rrbracket^\mathcal{I} \) is defined inductively as follows.

1. \( \llbracket x \rrbracket^\mathcal{I} = v(x: \sigma) \)

\(^{5}\) That is, for all \( \sigma \in \text{Sort}(\Sigma) \) and all \( a, b \in \sigma^A \), \( \approx^\sigma(a, b) = \text{true} \) iff \( a = b \).
2. $\llbracket \hat{f} t_1 \ldots t_n \rrbracket^I = (f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n)A(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ if
\[
\begin{cases}
\hat{f} = f \text{ or } \hat{f} = f^a, \\
\Omega \text{ is the signature of } I, \\
\text{for } i = 1, \ldots, n \\
\Omega \vdash t_i : \sigma_i \text{ and } a_i = [t_i]^I
\end{cases}
\]
3. $\llbracket \text{let } x_1 = t_1 \ldots x_n = t_n \text{ in } t \rrbracket^I = [t]^I'$ if
\[
\begin{cases}
\Omega \text{ is the signature of } I, \\
\text{for } i = 1, \ldots, n \\
\Omega \vdash t_i : \sigma_i \text{ and } a_i = [t_i]^I, \\
I' = I[x_1: \sigma_1 \mapsto a_1, \ldots, x_n: \sigma_1 \mapsto a_n]
\end{cases}
\]
4. $\llbracket \exists x_1: \sigma_1 \cdots x_n: \sigma_n t \rrbracket^I = \text{true}$
iff $[t]^I' = \text{true}$ for some
\[
\begin{cases}
(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \sigma_1^A \times \cdots \times \sigma_n^A, \\
I' = I[x_1: \sigma_1 \mapsto a_1, \ldots, x_n: \sigma_1 \mapsto a_n]
\end{cases}
\]
5. $\llbracket \forall x_1: \sigma_1 \cdots x_n: \sigma_n t \rrbracket^I = \text{true}$
iff $[t]^I' = \text{true}$ for all
\[
\begin{cases}
(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \sigma_1^A \times \cdots \times \sigma_n^A, \\
I' = I[x_1: \sigma_1 \mapsto a_1, \ldots, x_n: \sigma_1 \mapsto a_n]
\end{cases}
\]
6. $\llbracket u \ a_1 \cdots a_n \rrbracket^I = [u]^I$. 

One can show that $\llbracket \_ \rrbracket^I$ is well-defined and indeed total over terms that are well-sorted with respect to $I$’s signature.

A $\Sigma$-interpretation $I$ satisfies a $\Sigma$-formula $\varphi$ if $\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket^I = \text{true}$, and falsifies it otherwise. The formula $\varphi$ is satisfiable if there is a $\Sigma$-interpretation $I$ that satisfies it, and is unsatisfiable otherwise.

For a closed term $t$, its meaning $[t]^I$ in an interpretation $I = (A, v)$ is independent of the choice of the valuation $v$—because the term has no free variables. For such terms then, we can write $[t]^A$ instead of $[t]^I$. Similarly, for sentences, we can speak directly of a structure satisfying or falsifying the sentence. A $\Sigma$-structure that satisfies a sentence is also called a model of the sentence.

The notion of isomorphism introduced below is needed for Definition 9, Theory Combination, in the next section.

**Definition 7** (Isomorphism). Let $A$ and $B$ be two $\Sigma$-structures with respective universes $A$ and $B$. A mapping $h : A \to B$ is an homomorphism from $A$ to $B$ if
1. for all $\sigma \in \text{Sort}(\Sigma)$ and $a \in \sigma^A$, $h(a) \in \sigma^B$;
2. for all $f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \in \Sigma$ with $n > 0$ and $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \sigma_1^A \times \cdots \times \sigma_n^A$, $h((f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n)A(a_1, \ldots, a_n)) = (f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n)B(h(a_1), \ldots, h(a_n))$. 


A homomorphism between $A$ and $B$ is an isomorphism of $A$ onto $B$ if it is invertible and its inverse is a homomorphism from $B$ to $A$.

Two $\Sigma$-structures $A$ and $B$ are isomorphic if there is an isomorphism from one onto the other. Isomorphic structures are interchangeable for satisfiability purposes because one satisfies a $\Sigma$-sentence if and only the other one does.

### 4.4 Theories

Theories are traditionally defined as sets of sentences. Alternatively, and more generally, in SMT-LIB a theory is defined as a class of structures with the same signature.

**Definition 8 (Theory).** For any signature $\Sigma$, a $\Sigma$-theory is a class of $\Sigma$-structures. Each of these structures is a model of the theory.

Typical SMT-LIB theories consist of a single model (e.g., the integers) or of the class of all structures that satisfy some set of sentences—the axioms of the theory. Note that in SMT-LIB there is no requirement that the axiom set be finite or even recursive.

SMT-LIB uses both basic theories, obtained as instances of a theory declaration schema, and combined theories, obtained by combining together suitable instances of different theory schemas. The combination mechanism is defined below.

Two signatures $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ are compatible if they have exactly the same sort symbols and agree both on the arity they assign to sort symbols and on the sorts they assign to variables. Two theories are compatible if they have compatible signatures. The combination $\Sigma_1 + \Sigma_2$ of two compatible signatures $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ is the smallest compatible signature that is an expansion of both $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$, i.e., the unique signature $\Sigma$ compatible with $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ such that, for all $f \in F$ and $\bar{\sigma} \in \text{Sort}(\Sigma)^+$, $f: \bar{\sigma} \in \Sigma$ iff $f: \bar{\sigma} \in \Sigma_1$ or $f: \bar{\sigma} \in \Sigma_2$.

**Definition 9 (Theory Combination).** Let $\mathcal{T}_1$ and $\mathcal{T}_2$ be two theories with compatible signatures $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$, respectively. The combination $\mathcal{T}_1 + \mathcal{T}_2$ of $\mathcal{T}_1$ and $\mathcal{T}_2$ consists of all $(\Sigma_1 + \Sigma_2)$-structures whose reduct to $\Sigma_i$ is isomorphic to a model of $\mathcal{T}_i$, for $i = 1, 2$.

Over pairwise compatible signatures the signature combination operation $+$ is associative and commutative. The same is also true for the theory combination operation $+$ over compatible theories. This induces, for every $n > 1$, a unique $n$-ary combination $\mathcal{T}_1 + \cdots + \mathcal{T}_n$ of mutually compatible theories $\mathcal{T}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{T}_n$ in terms of nested binary combinations. Combined theories in SMT-LIB are exclusively theories of the form $\mathcal{T}_1 + \cdots + \mathcal{T}_n$ for some basic SMT-LIB theories $\mathcal{T}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{T}_n$.

SMT is about checking the satisfiability or the entailment of formulas modulo some (possibly combined) theory $\mathcal{T}$. This standard adopts the following precise formulation of such notions.

---

6 Observe that compatibility is an equivalence relation on signatures.
4.4. THEORIES

(Sort symbol declarations) $sdec ::= s n \alpha^*$

(Fun. symbol declarations) $fdec ::= f \sigma^+ \alpha^*$

(Param. fun. symbol declarations) $pdec ::= fdec \mid \Pi u^+ (f \tau^+ \alpha^*)$

(Theory attributes) $tattr ::= \text{sorts} = sdec^+ \mid \text{funs} = pdec^+$

(Theory declarations) $tdec ::= \text{theory } T \ tattr^+$

Figure 4.4: Abstract syntax for theory declarations

Definition 10 (Satisfiability and Entailment Modulo a Theory). For any $\Sigma$-theory $T$, a $\Sigma$-sentence is satisfiable in $T$ iff it is satisfied by one of $T$’s models. A set $\Gamma$ of $\Sigma$-sentences $T$-entails a $\Sigma$-sentence $\varphi$, written $\Gamma \models_T \varphi$, iff every model of $T$ that satisfies all sentences in $\Gamma$ satisfies $\varphi$ as well.

4.4.1 Theory declarations

In SMT-LIB, basic theories are obtained as instances of theory declarations. (In contrast, combined theories are defined in logic declarations.) An abstract syntax of theory declarations is defined in Figure 4.4. The symbol $\Pi$ in parametric function symbol declarations is a (universal) binder for the sort parameters—and corresponds to the symbol $\text{par}$ in the concrete syntax.

To simplify the meta-notation let $T$ denote a theory declaration with theory name $T$. Given such a theory declaration, assume first that $T$ has no $\text{sorts-description}$ and $\text{funs-description}$ attributes, and let $S$ and $F$ be respectively the set of all sort symbols and all function symbols occurring in $T$. Let $\Omega$ be a signature whose sort symbols include all the symbols in $S$, with the same arity. The definition provided in the $\text{definition}$ attribute of $T$ must be such that every signature like $\Omega$ above uniquely determines a theory $T[\Omega]$ as an instance of $T$ with signature $\hat{\Omega}$ defined as follows:

1. $\hat{\Omega}^S = \Omega^S$ and $\hat{\Omega}^F = F \cup \Omega^F$,
2. no variables are sorted in $\hat{\Omega}$, \footnotemark
3. for all $f \in \hat{\Omega}^F$ and $\bar{\sigma} \in (\hat{\Omega}^S)^+$, $f;\bar{\sigma} \in \hat{\Omega}$ iff
   (a) $f;\bar{\sigma} \in \Omega$, or
   (b) $T$ contains a declaration of the form $f \bar{\sigma} \bar{\alpha}$, or
   (c) $T$ contains a declaration of the form $\Pi \bar{u} (f \bar{\tau} \bar{\alpha})$ and $\bar{\sigma}$ is an instance of $\bar{\tau}$.

\footnotetext{Note: The exact definition of $\hat{\Omega}$ might vary slightly depending on the specific case. The above is a general outline to illustrate the concept.}
We say that a ranked function symbol \( f;\sigma \) of \( \widehat{\Omega} \) is declared in \( T \) if \( f;\sigma \in \widehat{\Omega} \) because of Point 3b or 3c above. We call the sort symbols of \( \widehat{\Omega} \) that are not in \( S \) the free sort symbols of \( T[\Omega] \). Similarly, we call the ranked function symbols of \( \widehat{\Omega} \) that are not declared in \( T \) the free function symbols of \( T[\Omega] \).\(^7\) This terminology is justified by the following additional requirement on \( T \).

The definition of \( T \) should be parametric, in this sense: it must not constrain the free symbols of any instance \( T[\Omega] \) of \( T \) in any way. Technically, \( T \) must be defined so that the set of models of \( T[\Omega] \) is closed under any changes in the interpretation of the free symbols. That is, every structure obtained from a model of \( T[\Omega] \) by changing only the interpretation of \( T[\Omega] \)'s free symbols should be a model of \( T[\Omega] \) as well.\(^2\)

The case of theory declarations with sorts-description and funs-description attributes is similar.

### 4.5 Logics

A logic in SMT-LIB is any sublogic of the main SMT-LIB logic obtained by

- fixing a signature \( \Sigma \) and a \( \Sigma \)-theory \( T \),
- restricting the set of structures to the models of \( T \), and
- restricting the set of sentences to some subset of the set of all \( \Sigma \)-sentences.

A model of a logic with theory \( T \) is any model of \( T \); a sentence is satisfiable in the logic iff it is satisfiable in \( T \).

### 4.5.1 Logic declarations

Logics are specified by means of logic declarations. Contrary to the theory declarations, a logic declaration specifies a single logic, not a class of them, so we call the logic \( L \) too. An abstract syntax of theory declarations is defined in Figure 4.5.

Let \( L \) be a logic declaration whose theories attribute has value \( T_1, \ldots, T_n \).

\(^7\) Note that because of overloading we talk about ranked function symbols being free or not, not just function symbols.
4.5. LOGICS

Theory. The logic’s theory is the theory $\mathcal{T}$ uniquely determined as follows. For each $i = 1, \ldots, n$, let $S_i$ be the set of all sort symbols occurring in $T_i$. The text in the language attribute of $L$ may specify an additional set of $S_0$ sort symbols and an additional set of ranked function symbols with ranks over $\text{Sort}(S)^+$ where $S = \bigcup_{i=0}^{n} S_i$. Let $\Omega$ be the smallest signature with $\Omega^S = S$ containing all those ranked function symbols. Then for each $i = 1, \ldots, n$, let $T_i[\Omega]$ be the instance of $T_i$ determined by $\Omega$ as described in Subsection 4.4.1. The theory of $L$ is

$$\mathcal{T} = T_1[\Omega] + \cdots + T_n[\Omega].$$

Note that $\mathcal{T}$ is well defined. To start, $\Omega$ is well defined because any sort symbols shared by two declarations among $T_1, \ldots, T_n$ have the same arity in them. The theories $T_1[\Omega], \ldots, T_n[\Omega]$ are well defined because $\Omega$ satisfies the requirements in Subsection 4.4.1. Finally, the signatures of $T_1[\Omega], \ldots, T_n[\Omega]$ are pairwise compatible because they all have the same sort symbols, each with the same arity in all of them.

Values. The values attribute is expected to designate for each sort $\sigma$ of $\mathcal{T}$ a distinguished set $V_\sigma$ of ground terms called values. The definition of $V_\sigma$ should be such that every sentence satisfiable in the logic $L$ is satisfiable in a model $A$ of $\mathcal{T}$ where each element of $\sigma^A$ is denoted by some element of $V_\sigma$. In other words, if $\Sigma$ is $\mathcal{T}$’s signature, $A$ is such that, for all $\sigma \in \Sigma^S$ and all $a \in \sigma^A$, $a = [t]^A$ for some $t \in V_\sigma$. For example, in a logic of the integers, the set of values for the integer sort might consist of all the terms of the form 0 or $-[n]$ where $n$ is a non-zero numeral.

For flexibility, we do not require that $V_\sigma$ be minimal. That is, it is possible for two terms of $V_\sigma$ to denote the same element of $\sigma^A$. For example, in a logic of rational numbers, the set of values for the rational sort might consist of all the terms of the form $-m/n$ where $m$ is a numeral and $n$ is a non-zero numeral. This set covers all the rationals but, in contrast with the previous example, is not minimal because, for instance, $3/2$ and $9/6$ denote the same rational.

Note that the requirements on $V_\sigma$ can be always trivially satisfied by $L$ by making sure that the signature $\Omega$ above contains a distinguished set of infinitely many additional free constant symbols of sort $\sigma$, and defining $V_\sigma$ to be that set. We call these constant symbols abstract values. Abstract values are useful to denote the elements of uninterpreted sorts or sorts standing for structured data types such as lists, arrays, sets and so on.\(^8\)

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\(^8\) The concrete syntax reserves a special format for constant symbols used as abstract values: they are members of the (symbol) category that start with the character @.
Chapter 5

SMT-LIB Scripts

To enable finer-grained interaction of SMT solvers with other tools, such as verification tools, which wish to call them, this chapter defines a Command Language for commands to and responses from SMT solvers. The calling tool issues commands in the format of the Command Language to the SMT solver via the solver’s standard textual input channel. The SMT solver then responds over two textual output channels, one for regular output and one for diagnostic output. Note that the primary goal is to support convenient interaction with a calling program, not human interaction. This has some influence on the design.

There are many other commands one might wish for an SMT solver to support, beyond those adopted here. A handful of additional commands are planned for the next point release of the standard. In general, it is expected that time and more experience with the needs of applications will drive the addition of further commands, in subsequent versions.

This chapter specifies the formats for commands and their responses to do the following things:

- managing a stack of assertion sets,
- defining sorts and functions in the current assertion set,
- adding assumptions to the current assertion set,
- checking satisfiability for the conjunction of all assertions in the assertion-set stack,
- obtaining further information following a satisfiability check (e.g., model information),
- setting values for standard and solver-specific options,
- getting standard and solver-specific information from the solver.

This chapter, like all those in Part III of this document, gives the semantics for commands expressed in an abstract syntax. Here, we reference syntactic categories defined in previous chapters, in particular from Chapter 4 (e.g., terms $t$ and sorts $\sigma$). In addition to sets of abstract symbols and values fixed in Chapter 4, we add here
5.1 Commands

Commands have the abstract syntax given by the grammar of Figure 5.1. A script is just a sequence of commands. The commands push, pop, declare-sort, define-sort, declare-fun, define-fun, assert, and check-sat are called assertion-set commands, because they operate on the assertion-set stack (explained further below).

The informal semantics of scripts for an SMT solver is given in the following sections. After a few preliminary considerations, we describe how solvers conforming to this specification should respond to the commands related to the assertion-set stack, definitions, asserting

- the set \( \mathcal{R} \) of non-negative rational numbers \( r \),
- a set \( \mathcal{P} \) of proofs \( p \).

In this version, the abstract syntax for proofs is unspecified, hence the use of the abstract set \( \mathcal{P} \) above. In the concrete syntax, proofs are defined for now as arbitrary S-expressions. A specification of proof formats is left to later versions of the language.

The concrete syntax is discussed in Chapter 3 and summarized in Appendix B. The mapping from concrete to abstract syntax is defined in Appendix D.

5.1 Commands

Commands have the abstract syntax given by the grammar of Figure 5.1. A script is just a sequence of commands. The commands push, pop, declare-sort, define-sort, declare-fun, define-fun, assert, and check-sat are called assertion-set commands, because they operate on the assertion-set stack (explained further below).

The informal semantics of scripts for an SMT solver is given in the following sections. After a few preliminary considerations, we describe how solvers conforming to this specification should respond to the commands related to the assertion-set stack, definitions, asserting
and checking satisfiability, getting evidence, setting options, and reporting additional information.

5.1.1 Solver responses, errors, and other output

Regular output, including responses and errors, produced by conforming solvers should be written to the regular output channel. Diagnostic output, including warnings, debugging, tracing, or progress information, should be written to the diagnostic output channel. These channels may be set with set-option (see Section 5.1.7 below). By default they are the standard output and standard error channels, respectively.

When a solver completes its processing in response to a command, by default it should print to its standard output channel a general response:

\[(\text{General response}) \quad gr := \text{unsupported} | \text{success} | \text{error} \ w\]

This response format is the default for all commands. A number of commands discussed below have more detailed responses instead of success, which are noted with those commands. The argument given to error may be the empty string (specified in the concrete syntax as "") or else an otherwise unspecified string with a message describing the problem encountered. Tools communicating with an SMT solver thus can always determine when the solver has completed its processing in response to a command. Several options described in Section 5.1.7 below affect the printing of responses, in particular by suppressing the printing of success, and by redirecting the standard output.

Errors and solver state. This version gives solvers two options when encountering errors. For both options, an error message is first printed, in the above format. Then solvers may either immediately exit with a non-zero exit status, or else continue accepting commands. In the second case, the solver’s state remains unmodified by the error-generating command, except possibly for timing and diagnostic information. In particular, the assertion-set stack, discussed in Section 5.1.3, is unchanged.\(^2\)

The predefined error-behavior keyword can be used with the get-info command to check which error behavior the tool supports (see Section 5.1.8 below).

Printing terms. Several commands request the solver to print sets of terms. While some commands, naturally, place additional semantic requirements on these sets, the general syntactic requirement is that printed terms must be well-sorted with respect to the current signature.

Printing defined symbols. All output from a compliant solver should print defined symbols (both sort and function symbols) just as they are, without replacing them by the expression they are defined to equal. This approach generally keeps output from solvers much more compact than with definitions expanded. An option is included below (Section 5.1.7), however, to expand all definitions in solver output.
5.1.2 Starting and terminating

**Setting the logic.** The command

```plaintext
set-logic L
```

tells the solver what logic (in the sense of Section 4.5) is being used. For simplicity, it is an error for more than one `set-logic` command to be issued to a single running instance of the solver. The argument $L$ can be the name of a logic in the SMT-LIB catalog or of some other solver-specific logic. The logic must be set before any commands can be executed, with the exception of the following: `set-info`, `get-info`, `set-option`, `get-option`, `exit`. Attempting to execute any other kind of command before `set-logic` results in an error.

Note that the following options may be set (by `set-option`) only before `set-logic` is invoked, as explained below: `interactive-mode`, `produce-proofs`, `produce-unsat-cores`, `produce-models`, `produce-assignments`.

**Setting solver options.** The command

```plaintext
set-option o
```

sets a solver’s option to a specific value, as specified by the argument $o$. More details on predefined options and expected behavior are provided in Section 5.1.7.

**Terminating.** The command

```plaintext
exit
```

instructs the solver to exit.

5.1.3 Modifying the assertion-set stack

A compliant solver maintains a stack of sets, containing some locally scoped information: asserted formulas, declarations, and definitions. Some terminology related to this data structure is needed:

- **assertion-set stack**: the single global stack of sets.
- **assertion sets**: the sets which are the elements on the stack.
- **set of all assertions**: the union of all the assertion sets currently on the assertion-set stack.
- **current assertion set**: the assertion set currently on the top of the stack.

**Initial assertion-set stack.** The initial state of the assertion-set stack for the solver consists of a single empty assertion set on the top of the stack.
Growing the stack. The command

\texttt{push }n

pushes \(n\) empty assertion sets (typically, 1) onto the stack. If \(n\) is 0, no assertion sets are pushed.

Shrinking the stack. The command

\texttt{pop }n

pops the top \(n\) assertion sets from the stack. If \(n\) is greater than or equal to the current stack depth, an error results.\(^1\) If \(n\) is 0, no assertion sets are popped.

5.1.4 Declaring and defining new symbols

Four commands allow the declaration or definition of a function symbol or sort symbol. These declarations and definitions are local, in the sense that popping assertion sets removes them.\(^{23}\) So well-sortedness checks, required for commands that use sorts or terms, are always done with respect to the \texttt{current signature}, determined by the logic specified by the \texttt{set-logic} command and by the set of sort symbols and rank associations (for function symbols) in the set of all assertions.

It is an error to declare or define a function or sort symbol that is already in the current signature. This implies in particular that, contrary to theory function symbols, user-defined functions symbols cannot be overloaded.\(^{24}\)

\underline{Declaring a sort symbol.} The command

\texttt{declare-sort} \(s \ n\)

adds the association of arity \(n\) with sort symbol \(s\) to the top assertion set.

\underline{Defining a sort symbol.} The command

\texttt{define-sort} \(s \ u_1 \cdots u_n \ \tau\)

adds the association of arity \(n\) with sort symbol \(s\) to the current assertion set. Also, subsequent well-sortedness checks must treat \(s \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n\) as an abbreviation for the sort obtained by simultaneously substituting \(\sigma_i\) for \(u_i\), for \(i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}\), in \(\tau\).\(^{25}\)

The command reports an error if the argument \(\tau\) is not a well defined parametric sort with respect to the current signature. Note that this restriction prohibits (meaningless) circular definitions where \(\tau\) contains \(s\).

\underline{Declaring a function symbol.} The command

\(^1\) Note that the initial assertion set in the stack, which is not created by a push command, cannot be popped.


\textbf{5.1. COMMANDS}

\textbf{declare-fun} \( f \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \sigma \)

adds the association \( f : \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \sigma \) to the current assertion set.

\textbf{Defining a function symbol.} The command

\textbf{define-fun} \( f (x_1:\sigma_1) \cdots (x_n:\sigma_n) \sigma t \)

adds the association \( f : \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \sigma \) to the current assertion set. In addition, the logical semantics is as if the formula \( \forall (x_1:\sigma_1 \cdots x_n:\sigma_n) (f x_1 \cdots x_n) \approx t \) had been also added to the assertion set.

The command reports an error if the argument \( t \) is not a well-sorted term of sort \( \sigma \) with respect to the current signature extended with the associations \( x_1 : \sigma_1, \ldots, x_n : \sigma_n \). Note that this restriction prohibits recursive (or mutually recursive) definitions.

\textbf{In-line definitions.} Any closed subterm \( t \) occurring in the argument(s) of a command \( c \) can be optionally annotated with a \texttt{named} attribute, that is, can appear as \( (t \texttt{named } f) \) where \( f \) is a fresh function symbol. For such a command \( c \), let \( (t_1 \texttt{named } f_1), \ldots, (t_n \texttt{named } f_n) \) be the inorder enumeration of all the named subterms of \( c \). The effect of those annotations is the same, and has the same requirements, as the sequence of commands

\begin{verbatim}
define-fun f_1 () \sigma_1 t'_1
: 
define-fun f_n () \sigma_k t'_n
\end{verbatim}

where, for each \( i = 1, \ldots, n \), \( \sigma_i \) is the sort of \( t_i \) with respect to the current signature up to the declaration of \( f_i \), \( t'_i \) is the term obtained from \( t_i \) by removing all its \texttt{named} annotations, and \( c' \) is similarly obtained from \( c \) by removing all its \texttt{named} annotations.

By this semantics, each \textit{label} \( f_i \) can occur, as a constant symbol, in any subexpression of \( c \) that comes after \( (t_i \texttt{named } f_i) \) in the inorder traversal of \( c \), as well as after the command \( c \) itself. The labels \( f_1, \ldots, f_n \) can be used like any other user-defined nullary function symbol, with the same visibility and scoping restrictions they would have if they had been defined with the sequence of commands above. However, contrary to function symbols introduced by \textbf{define-fun}, labels have an additional, dedicated use in the commands \textbf{get-assignment} and \textbf{get-unsat-core}.

\textbf{5.1.5 Asserting formulas and checking satisfiability}

\textbf{Asserting formulas.} The command

\textbf{assert}\( t \)
adds term \( t \) to the assertion set on the top of the assertion-set stack if \( t \) is a closed formula (i.e., a well sorted closed term of sort \( \text{Bool} \)). Otherwise, it returns an error.

Instances of this command of the form \texttt{assert} \((t \text{ named } f)\), where the asserted formula \( t \) is given a label \( f \), have the additional effect of adding \( t \) to the formulas tracked by the commands \texttt{get-assignment} and \texttt{get-unsat-core}, as explained later.

**Inspecting asserted formulas.** The command

\[
\texttt{get-assertions}
\]

causes the solver to print the set of all assertions. On success, the response has this format:

\[
\text{(get-assertions response) } \texttt{gar} ::= t^*
\]

The command is intended for interactive use, so it is an error to invoke this command when the solver is not in interactive mode. This mode may be set with the \texttt{set-option} command and the \texttt{interactive-mode} option. Supporting the interactive mode is optional. See Section 5.1.7 below for more details. Solvers supporting the mode must print assertions that, modulo whitespace, are identical to those asserted; they are not allowed to print formulas equivalent to or derived from the asserted formulas.

**Checking satisfiability.** The command

\[
\texttt{check-sat}
\]

instructs the solver to check whether or not the conjunction of all the formulas in the set of all assertions is satisfiable in the logic specified with the \texttt{set-logic} command. Conceptually, it asks the solver to search for a model of the logic that satisfies all the currently asserted formulas. When it has finished attempting to do this, the solver should reply on its regular output channel (see Section 5.1.1) using this response format instead of \texttt{success}:

\[
\text{(check-sat response) } \texttt{csr} ::= \texttt{sat} | \texttt{unsat} | \texttt{unknown}
\]

where \texttt{sat} indicates that the solver has found a model, \texttt{unsat} that the solver has established there is no model, and \texttt{unknown} that the search was inconclusive—because of time limits, solver incompleteness, and so on. If the solver reports \texttt{sat} or, optionally, if it reports \texttt{unknown}, it should respond to the \texttt{get-value} and \texttt{get-assignment} commands. If it reports \texttt{unsat}, it must respond to the \texttt{get-proof} and \texttt{get-unsat-core} commands.

A \texttt{check-sat} command may be followed by other \texttt{assert} and \texttt{check-sat} commands, without an intervening \texttt{pop}. In that case, the semantics is that subsequent \texttt{assert} commands are just extending the current assertion set (as it existed at the time of the \texttt{check-sat} command), and \texttt{check-sat} commands are checking satisfiability of the resulting set of all assertions.
5.1.6 Inspecting proofs and models

Requesting proofs. The command

\texttt{get-proof}

asks the solver for a proof of unsatisfiability for the set of all assertions. It can be issued only following a \texttt{check-sat} command which reports \texttt{unsat}, without intervening assertion-set commands. Also, in recognition that producing proofs can be computationally expensive, the command can only be issued if the \texttt{produce-proofs} option, \texttt{false} by default, is set to \texttt{true} (solvers are not required to support this option, see Section 5.1.7 below). If any of those conditions does not hold, the solver should report an error. Otherwise, the solver should respond by printing a refutation proof on its regular output channel. As mentioned earlier, there is, as yet, no standard SMT-LIB proof format, so this proof will necessarily be in a solver-specific format.

Requesting unsatisfiable cores. The command

\texttt{get-unsat-core}

asks the solver for an \textit{unsatisfiable core}, a subset of the set of all assertions that the solver has determined to be unsatisfiable. Similarly to \texttt{get-proof}, it can be issued only following a \texttt{check-sat} command which reports unsatisfiability, without intervening assertion-set commands. Also, the \texttt{produce-unsat-cores} option, which is \texttt{false} by default, must be set to \texttt{true} (see Section 5.1.7 below). If any of those conditions does not hold, the solver should report an error. The solver selects from the unsat core only those formulas that have been asserted with a command of the form \texttt{assert (t named f)}, and returns their labels $f$. Unlabeled formulas in the unsat core are simply not reported.\footnote{Thus, the success response in this case is: \texttt{gucr ::= f*}} The semantics of this command’s output is that the reported assertions together with all the unlabeled ones in the set of all assertions are jointly unsatisfiable. In practice then, not labeling assertions is useful for unsat core detection purposes only when the user is sure that the set of all unlabeled assertions is satisfiable.

Evaluating terms. The command

\texttt{get-value t_1 \ldots t_n}

where $n > 1$ and each $t_i$ is a well sorted closed quantifier-free term, can be issued only following a \texttt{check-sat} command that reports \texttt{sat} or, optionally, also one that reports \texttt{unknown}, without intervening assertion-set commands. Similarly to \texttt{get-proof} and \texttt{get-unsat-core}, it can be issued only if the \texttt{produce-models} option, which is \texttt{false} by default, is set to \texttt{true} (see Section 5.1.7 below). Solvers are not required to support this option. The command
reports an error if any of the requirements above are falsified. Otherwise, it returns for each 
$t_i$ a value $v_i$\(^2\) that is equivalent to $t_i$ in some model $A$ (of the given logic) identified by the solver. Specifically, $v_i$ has the same sort as $t_i$ and $\llbracket t_i \rrbracket^A = \llbracket v_i \rrbracket^A$. The model $A$ is guaranteed to be a model of the set of all assertions only if the last \texttt{check-sat} reported \texttt{sat}.\(^2\) The values are returned in a sequence of pairs of the form $(t_i, v_i)$, for each $i = 1, \ldots, n$. So the success response has this format:

$$(\text{get-value responses}) \quad \text{ger} ::= (t \ t)^+$$

This command, and its light-weight version, \texttt{get-assignment}, are the only way for the user to inspect the model $A$ held by the solver. The solver is not required to describe the model $A$ to the outside world except by providing values for the argument of \texttt{get-value}. The internal representation of the model may well be partial, and extended as needed in response to successive \texttt{get-value} calls. In this respect, there is no requirement that different permutations of the same set of \texttt{get-value} calls produce the same value for the input terms. The only requirement is that any two syntactically different values of the same sort returned by the solver should have different meaning in the model.\(^3\)

**Requesting truth assignments.** The command

\texttt{get-assignment}

is a light-weight and restricted version of \texttt{get-value} that asks for a truth assignment for a selected set of previously entered formulas.\(^2\) Similarly to several other commands already discussed (e.g., \texttt{get-proof}), this command can be issued only if the \texttt{produce-assignments} option, which is \texttt{false} by default, is set to \texttt{true} (see Section 5.1.7 below). Solvers are not required to support this option. Like \texttt{get-value}, it can be issued only following a \texttt{check-sat} command that reports \texttt{sat} or, optionally, also one that reports \texttt{unknown}, without intervening assertion-set commands. The command returns a sequence of all pairs $(f \ b)$ where $b$ is either \texttt{true} or \texttt{false} and $f$ is the label of a (sub)term of the form $(t \text{ named } f)$ in the set of all assertions, with $t$ of sort \texttt{Bool}. Similarly to \texttt{get-value}, when the response of the most recent \texttt{check-sat} command was \texttt{sat}, and only then, the set of all assertions is guaranteed to have a model (in the logic) that agrees with the returned truth assignment.\(^4\) The success response has this format:

$$(\text{get-assignment response}) \quad \text{gta} ::= (f \ b)^*$$

\(^2\) Recall that values are particular ground terms defined in a logic for each sort (see Subsection 4.5.1).

\(^3\) So, for instance, in a logic of rational numbers, the solver cannot use both the terms $1/3$ and $2/6$ as output values for \texttt{get-value}.

\(^4\) That is, for each $(f \ b)$ in the assignment, the model satisfies $f$ (or, equivalently, the formula $t$ named by $f$) iff $b$ is \texttt{true}.
5.1.7 Solver options

Solvers options may be set using the `set-option` command, and their current values obtained using `get-option`. If an option is not supported, in either case the solver should print `unsupported` on its regular output channel, and leave the option unchanged from its default value. For `get-option`, it otherwise just prints the current value of the option on its regular output channel. So the success response is just:

\[
\text{(get-option response) } \text{go} ::= v
\]

Solver-specific option names are allowed and indeed expected. A set of standard names is catalogued below and in the next section. This version of the language requires solvers to recognize and reply in a standard way only to a few of these names. The set is likely to be expanded or otherwise revised as further desirable common options and kinds of information across tools are identified. For `set-option`, the following format is required for replies, for both solver-specific and standard options:

\[
\text{(Options) } o ::= \begin{array}{l}
\text{print-success = b} \\
\text{expand-definitions = b} \\
\text{interactive-mode = b} \\
\text{produce-proofs = b} \\
\text{produce-unsat-cores = b} \\
\text{produce-models = b} \\
\text{produce-assignments = b} \\
\text{regular-output-channel = w} \\
\text{diagnostic-output-channel = w} \\
\text{random-seed = n} \\
\text{verbosity = n} \\
\alpha
\end{array}
\]

The current list of standard option names is given next, together with default values and whether or not the option must be supported by conforming solvers. Note that, as discussed in Section 5.1.1 above, some options may not be set after processing the `set-logic` command.

**diagnostic-output-channel**: default "stderr", required. The argument should be a filename to use subsequently for the diagnostic output channel. The input value "stderr" is interpreted specially to mean the solver’s standard error channel. For other filenames, subsequent solver output should be appended to the named file (and the file should be first created if it does not already exist).

**expand-definitions**: default false, optional. If the solver supports this option, setting it to true causes all subsequent output from the solver to be printed with all definitions fully expanded. That is, subsequent output contains no defined symbols at all, only the (full expansions of the) expressions they are defined to equal.
**interactive-mode**: default false, optional. If the solver supports this option, setting it to true should enable the command `get-assertions` (described in Section 5.1.5 above), which otherwise may not be called. This may not be set after `set-logic`.

**print-success**: default true, required. Setting this to false causes the solver to suppress the printing of success in all responses to commands. Other output remains unchanged.

**produce-assignments**: default false, optional. If supported, this enables the command `get-assignment` (see Section 5.1.6 above), which otherwise may not be called. This may not be set after `set-logic`.

**produce-models**: default false, optional. If supported, this enables the command `get-value` (see Section 5.1.6 above), which otherwise may not be called. This may not be set after `set-logic`.

**produce-proofs**: default false, optional. If supported, this enables the command `get-proof` (see Section 5.1.6 above), which otherwise may not be called. This may not be set after `set-logic`.

**produce-unsat-cores**: default false, optional. If supported, this enables the command `get-unsat-core` (see Section 5.1.6 above), which otherwise may not be called. This may not be set after `set-logic`.

**random-seed**: default value 0, optional. The argument is a numeral for the solver to use as a random seed, in case the solver uses (pseudo-)randomization. The default value of 0 means that the solver can use any random seed—possibly a different one for each run of the script.

**regular-output-channel**: default "stdout", required. The argument should be a filename to use subsequently for the regular output channel. The input value "stdout" is interpreted specially to mean the solver’s standard output channel. For other filenames, subsequent solver output should be appended to the named file (and the file should be first created if it does not already exist).

**verbosity**: default 0, optional. The argument is a non-negative numeral controlling the level of diagnostic output written by the solver. All such output should be written to the diagnostic output channel(90) which can be set and later changed via the `diagnostic-output-channel` option below. An argument of 0 requests that no such output be produced. Higher values request more verbose output.

### 5.1.8 Getting information with get-info

The format for responses gir to get-info commands, for both solver-specific and standard information names, is given in Figure 5.2. The different information names and more specific
formats of the info responses are given next. First we discuss statistics, then some additional pieces of information.

**Statistics and get-info.** The *all-statistics* name may be given to *get-info* to get various solver statistics. Supporting it is optional. Solvers reply with a sequence of info responses *i*, giving statistics on the most recent *check-sat* command. (Note that in the concrete syntax, this sequence is delimited by parentheses.) It is required that this *check-sat* command be one without any intervening assertion-set commands. A solver replies to *all-statistics* by giving a list of solver-specific statistics, in the format of Figure 5.2. This version does not currently define any standard statistics yet.\(^{(31)}\)

**Additional standard names for get-info** Further standard names for *get-info* are given here. Some of them have only one possible response value, which we indicate as a *singleton*.

- **authors**: required, a singleton. The response value is string listing the names of the tool’s authors.
- **error-behavior**: required. When the response is *immediate-exit*, the solver is stating that it will exit immediately when an error is encountered. When the response is *continued-execution*, the solver is stating it will leave the state unmodified by the erroneous command, and continue accepting and executing new commands. See Section 5.1.1 above for more on the motivation for these two error behaviors.
- **name**: required, a singleton. The response is a string with the name of the solver.
- **reason-unknown**: optional. If the status of the most recent *check-sat* command is *unknown*, this gives a short reason why the solver could not successfully check satisfiability, from the following options: *memout*, for out of memory; or *incomplete*, if...
the solver knows it is incomplete for the class of formulas containing the most recent query.

version : required, a singleton. The response is a string with the version number of the solver (e.g., "1.2" in concrete syntax).

5.1.9 Metadata in scripts

Metadata may be set in scripts using the set-info command. This is essentially a no-op command that allows the insertion of structured information into a script. Typically then, a solver will just parse the command and do nothing with it except for printing a general response. For generality, support for setting values for arbitrary names with set-info is required.

5.2 A Note on Benchmarks

The previous SMT-LIB Formula Language (Version 1.2) includes a format for benchmarks. The SMT-LIB initiative has collected a large number of benchmarks in this format, for a variety of different logics. These benchmarks are used in the SMT research community for standardized comparison of solvers, as well as for the SMT Competition (SMT-COMP) [BdMS07].

This document does not include a separate syntactic category for benchmarks, for two main reasons. First, there are many more kinds of behaviors allowed by this command language than by Version 1.2 benchmarks. It is reasonable to expect that researchers will be interested in comparing solver performance across this wider set of possible behaviors. Second, benchmarks as they are defined in Version 1.2 are subsumed by scripts, as we now explain.

Version 1.2 benchmarks can be viewed as scripts falling into a particular restricted class, making use of the set-info command to include some declarative information. The restrictions, summarized from Sections 5 and 7 of the Version 1.2 specification, are as follows:

- The (single) set-logic command setting the benchmark's logic is the first command.
- There is exactly one check-sat command.
- There is at most one set-info command for status.
- The formulas in the script belong to the benchmark's logic, with any free symbols declared in the script.
- Extra symbols are declared exactly once before any use, and are part of the allowed signature expansion for the logic.
- The only other commands are assert, declare-sort, declare-fun, and check-sat.
Part IV

Appendices
Appendix A

Notes

1. To define such theory signatures formally, SMT-LIB’s would need to rely on a more powerful underlying logic, for instance one with dependent types.

2. Preferring ease of parsing over human readability is reasonable in this context not only because SMT-LIB benchmarks are meant to be read by solvers but also because they are produced in the first place by automated tools like verification condition generators or translators from other formats.

3. This is to achieve maximum generality and independence from programming language conventions. Future SMT-LIB theories of strings that use string literals as constant symbols will have the liberty to define certain string constants, such as "\n" and "\012", as equivalent (or not).

4. This is to achieve maximum generality and independence from programming language conventions. Future SMT-LIB theories of strings that use string literals as constant symbols will have the liberty to define certain string constants, such as "\n" and "\012", as equivalent (or not).

5. Strictly speaking, command names do not need to be reserved words because of the language’s namespace conventions. Having them as reserved words, however, simplifies the creation of compliant parsers by means of parser generators like Lex/YACC and ANTLR.

6. Backslashes are disallowed in quoted symbols just for simplicity. Otherwise, for Common Lisp compatibility they would have to be treated as escaping symbols (see Section 2.3 of [Ste90]).

7. The rationale for allowing user-defined attributes is the same as in other attribute-value-based languages (such as, e.g., Bib/TeX). It makes the SMT-LIB format more flexible and customizable. The understanding is that user-defined attributes are allowed but need not be supported by an SMT solver for the solver to be considered SMT-LIB compliant. We expect, however, that with continued use of the SMT-LIB format, certain user-defined attributes will become widely used. Those attributes might then be officially adopted into the format (as non-user-defined attributes) in later versions.

8. Ideally, it would be better if :definition were a formal attribute, to avoid ambiguities and misinterpretation and possibly allow automatic processing. The choice of using free text for this attribute is motivated by practicality reasons. The enormous amount of effort needed to first devise a formal language for this attribute and then specify its value for each theory in the library is not justified by the current goals of SMT-LIB. Furthermore, this attribute is meant mainly for human readers, not programs, hence a natural language, but mathematically rigorous definition, seems enough.

9. Version 1.2 allowed one to specify a finitely-axiomatizable theory formally by listing a set of axioms an :axioms attribute. This attribute is gone in Version 2.0, because only one or two theories in the new SMT-LIB catalog can be defined that way. The remaining ones require infinitely many axioms or axioms with quantified sort symbols which are not expressible in the language.

10. The theory declaration Empty in Version 1.2 of SMT-LIB is superseded by the Core theory declaration schema.
One advantage of defining instances of theory declaration schemas this way is that with one instantiation of the schema one gets a single theory with arbitrarily nested sorts—another example being the theory of all nested lists of integers, say, with sorts \((\text{List Int}), (\text{List (List Int)})\). This is convenient in applications coming from software verification, where verification conditions can contain arbitrarily nested data types. But it is also crucial in providing a simple and powerful mechanism for theory combination, as explained later.

The reason for informal attributes is similar to that for theory declarations.

The attribute is text-valued because it is mostly for documentation purposes for the benefit of benchmark users. A natural language description of the logic’s language seems therefore adequate for this purpose. Of course, it is also possible to specify the language at least partially in some formal fashion in this attribute, for instance by using BNF rules.

This is useful because in common practice the syntax of a logic is often extended for convenience with syntactic sugar.

This will enable applications reading the solver’s response output to know when an identifier (like \texttt{success}) has been completely printed. For example, this is needed if one wants to use an off-the-shelf S-expression parser (e.g., \texttt{read} in Common Lisp) to read responses.

It would have been reasonable to adopt an alternative version of the rule for well-sortedness of terms \((f^* t_1 \cdots t_k) \alpha^*\) with annotated function symbols \(f^*\), without the second conjunct of the rule’s side condition. This would allow formation of terms with annotated function symbols \(f^*\), even when it lacked two ranks of the forms \(\sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_k \sigma\) and \(\sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_k \sigma'\), for distinct \(\sigma\) and \(\sigma'\). The rationale for keeping this second conjunct is that with it, function symbols are annotated when used if they are overloaded in this way. This means that it is clear from the use of the function symbol, whether or not the annotation is required. This in turn should help to improve human comprehension of scripts written using overloaded function symbols.

This is mostly a technical restriction, motivated by considerations of convenience. In fact, with a closed formula \(\varphi\) of signature \(\Sigma\) the signature’s mapping of variables to sorts is irrelevant. The reason is that the formula itself contains its own sort declaration for its term variables, either explicitly, for the variables bound by a quantifier, or implicitly, for the variables bound by a \texttt{let} binder. Using only closed formulas then simplifies the task of specifying their signature, as it becomes unnecessary to specify how the signature maps the elements of \(\mathcal{X}\) to the signature’s sorts.

Distinct sorts can have non-disjoint extensions in a structure. However, whether they do that or not is irrelevant in SMT-LIB logic. The reason is that the logic has no sort predicates, such as a subsort predicate, and does not allow one to equate terms of different sorts (the term \(t_1 \approx t_2\) is ill-sorted unless \(t_1\) and \(t_2\) have the same sort). As a consequence, a formula is satisfiable in a structure where two given sorts have non-disjoint extensions iff it is satisfiable in a structure where the two sorts do have disjoint extensions.

This requirement is for concreteness. Again, since we work with closed formulas, which internally assign sorts to their variables, the sorting of variables in a signature is irrelevant.

Admittedly, this requirement on theory declarations is somewhat hand-wavy. Unfortunately, it is not possible to make it a lot more rigorous because theory declarations can use natural language to define their class of instance theories. The point is again that the definition of the class should impose no constraints on the interpretation of free sort symbols and free function symbols.

The motivation for allowing these two behaviors is that the first one (exiting immediately when an error occurs) may be simpler to implement, while the latter may be more useful for applications, though it might be more burdensome to support the semantics of leaving the state unmodified by the erroneous command.

The rationale is that a solver may need to make substantial changes to its internal configuration to provide the functionality requested by these options, and so needs to be notified in advance.
It is desirable to have the ability to remove declarations and definitions, for example if they are no longer needed at some point during an interaction with a solver (and so the memory required for them might be reclaimed), or if a defined symbol is to be redefined. The current approach of making declarations and definitions locally scoped supports removal by popping the containing assertion set. Other approaches, such as the ability to add shadowing declarations or definitions of symbols, or to “undefine” or “undeclare” them, impose some issues: for example, how to print symbols that have been shadowed, undefined or undeclared.

The motivation for that is to simplify their processing by a solver. This restriction is significant only for users who want to extend the signature of the theory used by a script with a new polymorphic function symbol—i.e., one whose rank would contain parametric sorts if it was a theory symbol. For instance, users who want to declare a “reverse” function on arbitrary lists, must define a different reverse function symbol for each (concrete) list sort used in the script.

Strictly speaking, only sort symbols introduced with `declare-sort` expand the initial signature of theory sort symbols. Sort symbols introduced with `define-sort` do not. They do not construct real sorts, but aliases of sorts built with theory sorts symbols and previously declared sort symbols.

The motivation is to enable interactive users to see easily (exactly) which assertions they have asserted, without having to keep track of that information themselves.

Unsat cores are useful for applications because they circumscribe the source of unsatisfiability in the asserted set. The labeling mechanism allows users to track only selected asserted formulas when they already know that the rest of the asserted formulas are jointly satisfiable.

SMT solvers are incomplete for certain logics, typically those that include quantified formulas. However, even when they are unable to determine whether the set of all assertions $\Gamma$ is satisfiable or not, SMT solvers can typically compute a model for a set $\Gamma'$ of formulas that is entailed by $\Gamma$ in the logic. Value assignments in this model are often useful to a client applications even if they are not guaranteed to come from a model of $\Gamma$.

Since it focuses only on preselected, Boolean terms, `get-assignment` can be implemented much more efficiently than the very general `get-value`.

This is to avoid confusion with the responses to commands, which are written to standard output.

Some commonly used statistics (e.g. `restarts`, for restarts of a propositional reasoning engine) are difficult to define precisely, while the exact semantics of others, including `time` and `memory`, is still being discussed (for example, whether the latter two examples refer to total script time or time for the last command).
Appendix B

Concrete Syntax

Predefined symbols
These symbols have a predefined meaning in Version 2.0. Note that they are not reserved words. For instance, they could also be used in principle as user-defined sort or function symbols in scripts.

*Bool, continued-execution, error, false, immediate-exit, incomplete, logic, memout, sat, success, theory, true, unknown, unsupported, unsat.*

Predefined keywords
These keywords have a predefined meaning in Version 2.0.


Tokens

Reserved Words

General: !, -, as, DECIMAL, exists, forall, let, NUMERAL, par, STRING.

Other tokens

( )

⟨numeral⟩ ::= 0 | a non-empty sequence of digits not starting with 0
⟨decimal⟩ ::= ⟨numeral⟩.0*(numeral)
⟨hexadecimal⟩ ::= #x followed by a non-empty sequence of digits and letters
                 from A to F, capitalized or not
⟨binary⟩ ::= #b followed by a non-empty sequence of 0s and 1s
⟨string⟩ ::= printable ASCII character string in double quotes with
             C-style escape sequences \" and \\n⟨symbol⟩ ::= a non-empty sequence of letters, digits and the characters
           + - / * = % ? ! . $ _ ` ^ `< > @
           that does not start
           a sequence of printable ASCII characters other than \ that
           starts and ends with | and does not otherwise contain |
⟨keyword⟩ ::= : followed by a non-empty sequence of letters, digits and
           the characters + - / * = % ? ! . $ _ ` ^ `< > @

Members of the ⟨symbol⟩ category starting with of the characters @ and . are reserved for solver use. Solvers can use them respectively as identifiers for abstract values and solver generated function symbols other than abstract values.

S-expressions

⟨spec_constant⟩ ::= ⟨numeral⟩ | ⟨decimal⟩ | ⟨hexadecimal⟩ | ⟨binary⟩ | ⟨string⟩
⟨s_expr⟩ ::= ⟨spec_constant⟩ | ⟨symbol⟩ | ⟨keyword⟩ | ( ⟨s_expr⟩* )

Identifiers

⟨identifier⟩ ::= ⟨symbol⟩ | ( _ ⟨symbol⟩ ⟨numeral⟩+ )

Sorts

⟨sort⟩ ::= ⟨identifier⟩ | ( ⟨identifier⟩ ⟨sort⟩+ )

Attributes

⟨attribute_value⟩ ::= ⟨spec_constant⟩ | ⟨symbol⟩ | ( ⟨s_expr⟩* )
⟨attribute⟩ ::= ⟨keyword⟩ | ⟨keyword⟩ ⟨attribute_value⟩
Terms

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle \text{qual\_identifier} \rangle & ::= \langle \text{identifier} \rangle \mid (\text{as} \ \langle \text{identifier} \rangle \ \langle \text{sort} \rangle ) \\
\langle \text{var\_binding} \rangle & ::= (\langle \text{symbol} \rangle \ \langle \text{term} \rangle ) \\
\langle \text{sorted\_var} \rangle & ::= (\langle \text{symbol} \rangle \ \langle \text{sort} \rangle ) \\
\langle \text{term} \rangle & ::= \langle \text{spec\_constant} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid \langle \text{qual\_identifier} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid (\langle \text{qual\_identifier} \rangle \ \langle \text{term} \rangle^+ ) \\
& \quad \mid (\text{let} \ (\langle \text{var\_binding} \rangle^+ ) \ \langle \text{term} \rangle ) \\
& \quad \mid (\text{forall} \ (\langle \text{sorted\_var} \rangle^+ ) \ \langle \text{term} \rangle ) \\
& \quad \mid (\text{exists} \ (\langle \text{sorted\_var} \rangle^+ ) \ \langle \text{term} \rangle ) \\
& \quad \mid (\ ! \ \langle \text{term} \rangle \ \langle \text{attribute} \rangle^+ )
\end{align*}
\]

Theories

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle \text{sort\_symbol\_decl} \rangle & ::= (\langle \text{identifier} \rangle \ \langle \text{numeral\_constant} \rangle \ \langle \text{attribute} \rangle^+ ) \\
\langle \text{meta\_spec\_constant} \rangle & ::= \text{NUMERAL} \mid \text{DECIMAL} \mid \text{STRING} \\
\langle \text{fun\_symbol\_decl} \rangle & ::= (\langle \text{spec\_constant} \rangle \ \langle \text{sort} \rangle \ \langle \text{attribute} \rangle^+ ) \\
& \quad \mid (\langle \text{meta\_spec\_constant} \rangle \ \langle \text{sort} \rangle \ \langle \text{attribute} \rangle^+ ) \\
& \quad \mid (\langle \text{identifier} \rangle \ \langle \text{sort} \rangle^+ \ \langle \text{attribute} \rangle^+ ) \\
\langle \text{par\_fun\_symbol\_decl} \rangle & ::= \langle \text{fun\_symbol\_decl} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid (\text{par} \ (\langle \text{symbol} \rangle^+ ) \\
& \quad \quad (\langle \text{identifier} \rangle \ \langle \text{sort} \rangle^+ \ \langle \text{attribute} \rangle^+ ) ) \\
\langle \text{theory\_attribute} \rangle & ::= :\text{sorts} \ (\langle \text{sort\_symbol} \rangle^+ ) \\
& \quad \mid :\text{funs} \ (\langle \text{par\_fun\_symbol\_decl} \rangle^+ ) \\
& \quad \mid :\text{sorts\_description} \ \langle \text{string} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid :\text{funs\_description} \ \langle \text{string} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid :\text{definition} \ \langle \text{string} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid :\text{values} \ \langle \text{string} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid :\text{notes} \ \langle \text{string} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid \langle \text{attribute} \rangle \\
\langle \text{theory\_decl} \rangle & ::= (\text{theory} \ \langle \text{symbol} \rangle \ \langle \text{theory\_attribute} \rangle^+ ) \\
\end{align*}
\]

Logics

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle \text{logic\_attribute} \rangle & ::= :\text{theories} \ (\langle \text{symbol} \rangle^+ ) \\
& \quad \mid :\text{language} \ \langle \text{string} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid :\text{extensions} \ \langle \text{string} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid :\text{values} \ \langle \text{string} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid :\text{notes} \ \langle \text{string} \rangle \\
& \quad \mid \langle \text{attribute} \rangle \\
\langle \text{logic} \rangle & ::= (\text{logic} \ \langle \text{symbol} \rangle \ \langle \text{logic\_attribute} \rangle^+ )
\end{align*}
\]
Appendix B. Concrete Syntax

Command options

\[
\begin{align*}
(b_value) & ::= \text{true} \mid \text{false} \\
(option) & ::= :\text{print-success} (b_value) \\
         & \mid :\text{expand-definitions} (b_value) \\
         & \mid :\text{interactive-mode} (b_value) \\
         & \mid :\text{produce-proofs} (b_value) \\
         & \mid :\text{produce-unsat-cores} (b_value) \\
         & \mid :\text{produce-models} (b_value) \\
         & \mid :\text{produce-assignments} (b_value) \\
         & \mid :\text{regular-output-channel} (string) \\
         & \mid :\text{ diagnostic-output-channel} (string) \\
         & \mid :\text{random-seed} (numeral) \\
         & \mid :\text{verbosity} (numeral) \\
         & \mid (attribute)
\end{align*}
\]

Info flags

\[
\begin{align*}
(info_flag) & ::= :\text{error-behavior} \\
            & \mid :\text{name} \\
            & \mid :\text{authors} \\
            & \mid :\text{version} \\
            & \mid :\text{status} \\
            & \mid :\text{reason-unknown} \\
            & \mid (keyword) \\
            & \mid :\text{all-statistics}
\end{align*}
\]
Commands

\[
\langle \text{command} \rangle ::= \begin{align*}
&\text{(set-logic } \langle \text{symbol} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(set-option } \langle \text{option} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(set-info } \langle \text{attribute} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(declare-sort } \langle \text{symbol} \rangle \langle \text{numeral} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(define-sort } \langle \text{symbol} \rangle \langle \text{symbol}^* \rangle \langle \text{sort} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(declare-fun } \langle \text{symbol} \rangle \langle \text{sort}^* \rangle \langle \text{sort} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(define-fun } \langle \text{symbol} \rangle \langle \text{sorted_var}^* \rangle \langle \text{sort} \rangle \langle \text{term} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(push } \langle \text{numeral} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(pop } \langle \text{numeral} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(assert } \langle \text{term} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(check-sat)} \\
&\text{(get-assertions)} \\
&\text{(get-proof)} \\
&\text{(get-unsat-core)} \\
&\text{(get-value } \langle \text{term} \rangle^+ \text{)} \\
&\text{(get-assignment)} \\
&\text{(get-option } \langle \text{keyword} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(get-info } \langle \text{info_flag} \rangle \text{)} \\
&\text{(exit)}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\langle \text{script} \rangle ::= \langle \text{command} \rangle^*
\]

Command responses

\[
\langle \text{gen-response} \rangle ::= \text{unsupported} | \text{success} | ( \text{error } \langle \text{string} \rangle )
\]

\[
\langle \text{error-behavior} \rangle ::= \text{immediate-exit} | \text{continued-execution}
\]

\[
\langle \text{reason-unknown} \rangle ::= \text{memout} | \text{incomplete}
\]

\[
\langle \text{status} \rangle ::= \text{sat} | \text{unsat} | \text{unknown}
\]

\[
\langle \text{info-response} \rangle ::= :\text{error-behavior} \langle \text{error-behavior} \rangle \\
| :\text{name} (\text{string}) \\
| :\text{authors} (\text{string}) \\
| :\text{version} (\text{string}) \\
| :\text{reason-unknown} \langle \text{reason-unknown} \rangle \\
| (\text{attribute})
\]

\[
\langle \text{get-info-response} \rangle ::= ( \langle \text{info-response} \rangle^+ )
\]
⟨check_sat_response⟩ ::= ⟨status⟩
⟨get_assertions_response⟩ ::= ( ⟨term⟩* )
⟨proof⟩ ::= ⟨s_expr⟩
⟨get_proof_response⟩ ::= ⟨proof⟩
⟨get_unsat_core_response⟩ ::= ( ⟨symbol⟩* )
⟨valuation_pair⟩ ::= ( ⟨term⟩ ⟨term⟩ )
⟨get_value_response⟩ ::= ( ⟨valuation_pair⟩+ )
⟨tvaluation_pair⟩ ::= ( ⟨symbol⟩ ⟨b_value⟩ )
⟨get_assignment_response⟩ ::= ( ⟨tvaluation_pair⟩* )
⟨get_option_response⟩ ::= ⟨attribute_value⟩
Appendix C

Abstract Syntax

Common Notation

\( b \in B, \) the set of boolean values \( r \in R, \) the set of non-negative rational numbers
\( n \in N, \) the set of natural numbers \( w \in W, \) the set of character strings
\( s \in S, \) the set of sort symbols \( u \in U, \) the set of sort parameters
\( f \in F, \) the set of function symbols \( x \in X, \) the set of variables
\( a \in A, \) the set of attribute names \( v \in V, \) the set of attribute values
\( T \in \mathcal{T}, \) the set of theory names \( L \in \mathcal{L}, \) the set of logic names

Sorts

\[(\text{Sorts}) \quad \sigma ::= s \sigma^*\]

\[(\text{Parametric Sorts}) \quad \tau ::= u \mid s \tau^*\]

Terms

\[(\text{Attributes}) \quad \alpha ::= a \mid a = v\]

\[(\text{Terms}) \quad t ::= x \mid f t^* \mid f^\sigma t^* \mid \exists (x;\sigma)^+ t \mid \forall (x;\sigma)^+ t \mid \text{let } (x = t)^+ \text{ in } t \mid t \alpha^+\]
Well-sorting rules for terms

\[ \Sigma \vdash x \alpha^*: \sigma \quad \text{if } x: \sigma \in \Sigma \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash t_1: \sigma_1 \cdots \Sigma \vdash t_k: \sigma_k \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash (f t_1 \cdots t_k) \alpha^*: \sigma \quad \text{if } \begin{cases} f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_k, \sigma \in \Sigma & \text{and} \\ f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_k, \sigma' \notin \Sigma & \text{for all } \sigma' \neq \sigma \end{cases} \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash t_1: \sigma_1 \cdots \Sigma \vdash t_k: \sigma_k \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash (f^\sigma t_1 \cdots t_k) \alpha^*: \sigma \quad \text{if } \begin{cases} f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_k, \sigma \in \Sigma & \text{and} \\ f: \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_k, \sigma' \in \Sigma & \text{for some } \sigma' \neq \sigma \end{cases} \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash \text{let } x_1 = t_1, \cdots x_{k+1} = t_{k+1} \text{ in } t : \sigma \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash (Qx_1: \sigma_1 \cdots x_{k+1}: \sigma_{k+1} t) \alpha^*: \text{Bool} \quad \text{if } Q \in \{\exists, \forall\} \]

Theories

(Sort symbol declarations) \[ sdec ::= s \ n \ \alpha^* \]

(Fun. symbol declarations) \[ fdec ::= f \ \sigma^+ \ \alpha^* \]

(Param. fun. symbol declarations) \[ pdec ::= fdec \ | \ \Pi \ u^+ (f \ \tau^+ \ \alpha^*) \]

(Theory attributes) \[ tattr ::= \text{sorts} = sdec^+ \ | \ \text{funs} = pdec^+ \]

| \text{sorts-description} = w \\
| \text{funs-description} = w \\
| \text{definition} = w \ | \ \text{axioms} = t^+ \\
| \text{notes} = w \ | \ \alpha \]

(Theory declarations) \[ tdec ::= \text{theory } T \ tattr^+ \]

Logics

(Logic attributes) \[ lattr ::= \text{theories} = T^+ \ | \ \text{language} = w \]

| \text{extensions} = w \ | \ \text{values} = w \\
| \text{notes} = w \ | \ \alpha \]

(Logic declarations) \[ ldec ::= \text{logic } L \ lattr^+ \]
Command options and info names

(Options)  \( o ::= \)

- print-success = \( b \)
- expand-definitions = \( b \)
- interactive-mode = \( b \)
- produce-proofs = \( b \)
- produce-unsat-cores = \( b \)
- produce-models = \( b \)
- produce-assignments = \( b \)
- regular-output-channel = \( w \)
- diagnostic-output-channel = \( w \)
- random-seed = \( n \)
- verbosity = \( n \)
  \( \alpha \)

(Info flags)  \( i ::= \)

- all-statistics
- error-behavior
- name
- authors
- version
- status
- reason-unknown
  \( \alpha \)
Commands

(Commands) \( c \ ::= \)
- \( \text{set-logic } L \)
- \( \text{set-option } o \)
- \( \text{set-info } \alpha \)
- \( \text{declare-sort } s \ n \)
- \( \text{define-sort } s \ u^* \tau \)
- \( \text{declare-fun } f \ \sigma^* \sigma \)
- \( \text{define-fun } f (x:\sigma)^* \sigma \ t \)
- \( \text{push } n \)
- \( \text{pop } n \)
- \( \text{assert } t \)
- \( \text{check-sat} \)
- \( \text{get-assertions} \)
- \( \text{get-value } t^* \)
- \( \text{get-proof} \)
- \( \text{get-unsat-core} \)
- \( \text{get-info } i \)
- \( \text{get-option } a \)
- \( \text{exit} \)

(Scripts) \( scr \ ::= \ c^* \)
Command responses

(General response) \( gr \) ::= unsupported | success | error w

(get-info response) \( gir \) ::= \( i^+ \)

(Info response) \( i \) ::= error-behavior = \( eb \)
| name = \( w \)
| authors = \( w \)
| version = \( w \)
| reason-unknown = \( ru \)
| α

(Error behavior) \( eb \) ::= immediate-exit | continue-execution

(Reason unknown) \( ru \) ::= memout | incomplete

(check-sat response) \( csr \) ::= sat | unsat | unknown

(get-assertions response) \( gar \) ::= \( t^* \)

(get-proof response) \( gpr \) ::= \( p \)

(get-unsat-core response) \( gucr \) ::= \( f^* \)

(get-value responses) \( gvr \) ::= \( (t t)^+ \)

(get-assignment response) \( gta \) ::= \( (f b)^* \)

(get-option response) \( go \) ::= \( v \)
Appendix D

Concrete to Abstract Syntax

[To be provided in a later release]
Part V

References
Bibliography


