

# TFX: The TPTP Extended Typed First-order Form

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## Abstract

The TPTP world is a well established infrastructure that supports research, development, and deployment of Automated Theorem Proving systems for classical logics. The TPTP language is one of the keys to the success of the TPTP world. Originally the TPTP world supported only first-order clause normal form (CNF). Over the years support for full first-order form (FOF), monomorphic typed first-order form (TF0), rank-1 polymorphic typed first-order form (TF1), monomorphic typed higher-order form (TH0), and rank-1 polymorphic typed higher-order form (TH1), have been added. TF0 and TF1 together form the TFF language family; TH0 and TH1 together form the THF language family. This paper introduces the eXtended Typed First-order form (TFX), which extends TFF to include boolean terms, tuples, conditional expressions, and let expressions.

## 1 Introduction

The TPTP world [12] is a well established infrastructure that supports research, development, and deployment of Automated Theorem Proving (ATP) systems for classical logics. The TPTP world includes the TPTP problem library, the TSTP solution library, standards for writing ATP problems and reporting ATP solutions, tools and services for processing ATP problems and solutions, and it supports the CADE ATP System Competition (CASC). Various parts of the TPTP world have been deployed in a range of applications, in both academia and industry. The web page <http://www.tptp.org> provides access to all components.

The TPTP language is one of the keys to the success of the TPTP world. The language is used for writing both TPTP problems and TSTP solutions, which enables convenient communication between different systems and researchers. Originally the TPTP world supported only first-order clause normal form (CNF) [16]. Over the years support for full first-order form (FOF) [11], monomorphic typed first-order form (TF0) [15], rank-1 polymorphic typed first-order form (TF1) [2], monomorphic typed higher-order form (TH0) [14], and rank-1 polymorphic typed higher-order form (TH1) [4], have been added. TF0 and TF1 together form the TFF language family; TH0 and TH1 together form the THF language family. See [13] for a recent review of the TPTP.

Since the inception of TFF there have been some features that have received little use, and hence little attention. In particular, tuples, conditional expressions (if-then-else), and let expressions (let-defn-in) were neglected, and the latter two were horribly formulated with variants to distinguish between their use as formulae and terms. Recently, conditional expressions and let expressions have become more important because of their use in software verification applications. In an independent development, Evgenii Kotelnikov et al. introduced FOOL [7], a variant of many-sorted first-order logic (FOL). FOOL extends FOL in that it (i) contains an interpreted boolean type, which allows boolean variables to be used as formulae, and allows all formulae to be used as boolean terms, (ii) contains conditional expressions, and (iii) contains let expressions. FOOL can be straightforwardly extended with the polymorphic theory of tuples that defines first class tuple types and terms [8]. Features of FOOL can be used to concisely express problems coming from program analysis [8] or translated from more expressive logics. The

conditional expressions and let expressions of FOOL resemble those of the SMT-LIB language version 2 [1].

The TPTP's new eXtended Typed First-order form (TFX) language remedies the old weaknesses of TFF, and incorporates the features of FOOL. This has been achieved by conflating (with some exceptions) formulae and terms, removing tuples from plain TFF, including fully expressive tuples in TFX, removing the old conditional expressions and let expressions from TFF, and including new elegant forms of conditional expressions and let expressions as part of TFX. (These more elegant forms have been mirrored in THF, but that is not a topic of this paper.) TFX is a superset of the revised TFF language. This paper describes the extensions to the TFF language form that define the TFX language. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 reviews the TFF language, and describes FOOL. Section 3 provides technical and syntax details of the new features of TFX. Section 4 describes the evolving software support for TFX, and provides some examples that illustrate its use. Section 5 concludes.

## 2 The TFF Language and FOOL

The TPTP language is a human-readable, easily machine-parsable, flexible and extensible language, suitable for writing both ATP problems and solutions. The top level building blocks of the TPTP language are *annotated formulae*. An annotated formula has the form

$$\text{language}(\text{name}, \text{role}, \text{formula}, [\text{source}, [\text{useful\_info}]]).$$

The *languages* supported are clause normal form (**cnf**), first-order form (**fof**), typed first-order form (**tff**), and typed higher-order form (**thf**). The *role*, e.g., **axiom**, **lemma**, **conjecture**, defines the use of the formula in an ATP system. In the *formula*, terms and atoms follow Prolog conventions, i.e., functions and predicates start with a lowercase letter or are 'single quoted', variables start with an uppercase letter, and all contain only alphanumeric characters and underscore. The TPTP language also supports interpreted symbols, which either start with a \$, or are composed of non-alphanumeric characters, e.g., the truth constants **\$true** and **\$false**, and integer/rational/real numbers such as 27, 43/92, -99.66. The basic logical connectives are !, ?, ~, |, &, =>, <=, <=>, and <~>, for  $\forall$ ,  $\exists$ ,  $\neg$ ,  $\vee$ ,  $\wedge$ ,  $\Rightarrow$ ,  $\Leftarrow$ ,  $\Leftrightarrow$ , and  $\oplus$  respectively. Equality and inequality are expressed as the infix operators = and !=. The following is an example of an annotated first-order formula, supplied from a file.

```
fof(union,axiom,
  ! [X,A,B] :
    ( member(X,union(A,B))
      <=> ( member(X,A)
          | member(X,B) ) ),
  file('SET006+0.ax',union),
  [description('Definition of union'),relevance(0.9)]).
```

### 2.1 The Typed First-order Form TFF

TFF extends the basic FOF language with *types* and *type declarations*. The TF0 variant is monomorphic, and the TF1 variant is rank-1 polymorphic. Every function and predicate symbol is declared before its use, with a *type signature* that specifies the types of the symbol's arguments and result. Each TF0 type is one of

- the predefined types **\$i** for  $\iota$  (individuals) and **\$o** for  $o$  (booleans);

- the predefined arithmetic types **\$int** (integers), **\$rat** (rationals), and **\$real** (reals); or
- user-defined types (constants).

User-defined types are declared before their use to be of the kind **\$tType**, in annotated formulae with the **type** role — see Figure 1 for examples. Each TF0 type signature declares either

- an individual type  $\tau$ ; or
- a function type  $(\tau_1 * \dots * \tau_n) > \tilde{\tau}$  for  $n > 0$ , where  $\tau_i$  are the argument types, and  $\tilde{\tau}$  is the result type.

The type signatures of uninterpreted symbols are declared like types, in annotated formulae with the **type** role — see Figure 1 for examples. The type of = and != is ad hoc polymorphic over all types except **\$o** (this restriction is lifted in TFX), with both arguments having the same type and the result type being **\$o**. The types of arithmetic predicates and functions are ad hoc polymorphic over the arithmetic types; see [15] for details. Figure 1 illustrates some TF0 formulae, whose conjecture can be proved from the axioms (it is the TPTP problem PUZ130.1.p).

```
%-----
tff(animal_type,type, animal: $tType ).
tff(cat_type,type, cat: $tType ).
tff(dog_type,type, dog: $tType ).
tff(human_type,type, human: $tType ).
tff(cat_to_animal_type,type, cat_to_animal: cat > animal ).
tff(dog_to_animal_type,type, dog_to_animal: dog > animal ).
tff(garfield_type,type, garfield: cat ).
tff(odie_type,type, odie: dog ).
tff(jon_type,type, jon: human ).
tff(owner_of_type,type, owner_of: animal > human ).
tff(chased_type,type, chased: ( dog * cat ) > $o ).
tff(hates_type,type, hates: ( human * human ) > $o ).

tff(human_owner,axiom, ! [A: animal] : ? [H: human] : H = owner_of(A) ).
tff(jon_owns_garfield,axiom, jon = owner_of(cat_to_animal(garfield)) ).
tff(jon_owns_odie,axiom, jon = owner_of(dog_to_animal(odie)) ).
tff(jon_owns_only,axiom,
  ! [A: animal] :
    ( jon = owner_of(A)
      => ( A = cat_to_animal(garfield) | A = dog_to_animal(odie) ) ) ).

tff(dog_chase_cat,axiom,
  ! [C: cat,D: dog] :
    ( chased(D,C)
      => hates(owner_of(cat_to_animal(C)),owner_of(dog_to_animal(D))) ) ).
tff(odie_chased_garfield,axiom, chased(odie,garfield) ).

tff(jon_hates_jon,conjecture, hates(jon,jon) ).
%-----
```

Figure 1: TF0 Formulae

The polymorphic TF1 extends TF0 with (user-defined) *type constructors*, *type variables*, polymorphic symbols, and one new binder. Each TF1 type is one of

- the predefined types `$i` and `$o`;
- the predefined arithmetic types `$int`, `$rat`, and `$real`;
- user-defined  $n$ -ary type constructors applied to  $n$  type arguments; or
- type variables, which must be quantified by `!>` – see the type signature forms below.

Type constructors are declared before their use to be of the kind  $(\text{\texttt{\$tType}} * \dots * \text{\texttt{\$tType}}) >$  `\$tType`, in annotated formulae with a `type` role. Each TF1 type signature declares either

- an individual type  $\tau$ ;
- a function type  $(\tau_1 * \dots * \tau_n) > \tilde{\tau}$  for  $n > 0$ , where  $\tau_i$  are the argument types and  $\tilde{\tau}$  is the result type (with the same caveats as for TF0); or
- a polymorphic type `!>[ $\alpha_1 : \text{\texttt{\$tType}}$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\alpha_n : \text{\texttt{\$tType}}$ ] :  $\varsigma$`  for  $n > 0$ , where  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  are distinct type variables and  $\varsigma$  is a TF0 type signature.

The `!>` binder in the last form denotes universal quantification in the style of  $\lambda\Pi$  calculi. It is used only at the top level in polymorphic type signatures. All type variables must be of type `\$tType`; more complex type variables are beyond rank-1 polymorphism. An example of TF1 formulae can be found in [4].

## 2.2 FOOL

FOOL [7], standing for First-Order Logic (FOL) + bOoleans, is a variant of many-sorted first-order logic. FOOL extends FOL in that it (i) contains an interpreted boolean type, which allows boolean variables to be used as formulae, and allows all formulae to be used as boolean terms, (ii) contains conditional expressions, and (iii) contains let expressions. FOOL can be straightforwardly extended with the polymorphic theory of tuples that defines first class tuple types and terms [8]. In what follows we consider that extension, and tuples are part of TFX. There is a model-preserving transformation of FOOL formulae to FOL formulae [7], so that an implementation of the transformation makes it possible to reason in FOOL using a FOL ATP system. Formulae of FOOL can also be efficiently translated to a first-order clausal normal form [6]. The following describes these features of FOOL, illustrating them using examples taken from [5] and [8]. The complete formal semantics of FOOL is given in [7].

### 2.2.1 Boolean Terms and Formulae

FOOL contains an interpreted two-element boolean type *bool*, allows quantification over variables of type *bool*, and considers formulae to be terms of type *bool*. This allows boolean variables to be used as formulae, and all formulae to be used as boolean terms. For example, Formula 1 is a syntactically correct tautology in FOOL.

$$(\forall x : \text{bool})(x \vee \neg x) \tag{1}$$

Logical implication can be defined as a binary function *imply* of the type  $\text{bool} \times \text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool}$  using the axiom

$$(\forall x : \text{bool})(\forall y : \text{bool})(\text{imply}(x, y) \Leftrightarrow \neg x \vee y). \tag{2}$$

Then it is possible to express that  $P$  is a graph of a (partial) function of the type  $\sigma \rightarrow \tau$  as

$$(\forall x : \sigma)(\forall y : \tau)(\forall z : \tau)(\text{imply}(P(x, y) \wedge P(x, z), y = z)) \tag{3}$$

Formula 2 can be equivalently expressed with  $=$  instead of  $\Leftrightarrow$ .

### 2.2.2 Tuples

FOOL extended with the theory of tuples contains a type  $(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$  of the  $n$ -ary tuple for all types  $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$ ,  $n > 0$ . Each type  $(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$  is first class, that is, it can be used in the type of a function or predicate symbol, and in a quantifier. An expression  $(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ , where  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  are terms of types  $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$ , respectively, is a tuple term of type  $(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$ . Each tuple term is first class and can be used as an argument to a function symbol, a predicate symbol, or equality.

Tuples are ubiquitous in mathematics and programming languages. For example, one can use the tuple sort  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$  as the sort of complex numbers. Thus the term  $(2, 3)$  represents the complex number  $2 + 3i$ . A function symbol *plus* that represents addition of complex numbers has the type  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \times (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ .

### 2.2.3 Conditional Expressions

FOOL contains conditional expressions of the form **if**  $\psi$  **then**  $s$  **else**  $t$ , where  $\psi$  is a formula, and  $s$  and  $t$  are terms of the same type. The semantics of such expressions mirrors the semantics of conditional expressions in programming languages, and they are therefore convenient for expressing formulae coming from program analysis. For example, consider the *max* function of the type  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  that returns the maximum of its arguments. Its definition can be expressed in FOOL as

$$(\forall x : \mathbb{Z})(\forall y : \mathbb{Z})(\text{max}(x, y) = \text{if } x \geq y \text{ then } x \text{ else } y). \quad (4)$$

FOOL allows conditional expressions to occur as formulae, as in the following valid property of *max*.

$$(\forall x : \mathbb{Z})(\forall y : \mathbb{Z})(\text{if } \text{max}(x, y) = x \text{ then } x \geq y \text{ else } y \geq x) \quad (5)$$

### 2.2.4 Let Expressions

FOOL contains let expressions of the form **let**  $D_1; \dots; D_k$  **in**  $t$ , where  $k > 0$ ,  $t$  is either a term or a formula, and  $D_1, \dots, D_k$  are simultaneous non-recursive definitions. FOOL allows definitions of function symbols, predicate symbols, and tuples.

The definition of a function symbol  $f : \sigma_1 \times \dots \times \sigma_n \rightarrow \tau$  has the form  $f(x_1 : \sigma_1, \dots, x_n : \sigma_n) = s$ , where  $n \geq 0$ ,  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are distinct variables, and  $s$  is a term of the type  $\tau$ . For example, the following let expression denotes the maximum of three integer constants  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ , using a local definition of the function symbol *max*.

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{let } \text{max}(x : \mathbb{Z}, y : \mathbb{Z}) = \text{if } x \geq y \text{ then } x \text{ else } y \\ &\text{in } \text{max}(\text{max}(a, b), c) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The definition of a predicate symbol  $p : \sigma_1 \times \dots \times \sigma_n$  has the form  $p(x_1 : \sigma_1, \dots, x_n : \sigma_n) = \varphi$ , where  $n \geq 0$ ,  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are distinct variables, and  $\varphi$  is a formula. For example, the following let expression denotes equivalence of two boolean constants  $A$  and  $B$ , using a local definition of the predicate symbol *imply*.

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{let } \text{imply}(x : \text{bool}, y : \text{bool}) = \neg x \vee y \\ &\text{in } \text{imply}(A, B) \wedge \text{imply}(B, A) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

The definition of a tuple has the form  $(c_1, \dots, c_n) = s$ , where  $n > 1$ ,  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  are distinct constant symbols of the types  $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$ , respectively, and  $s$  is a term of the type  $(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$ .

For example, the following formula defines addition for complex numbers using two simultaneous local definition of tuples.

$$(\forall x : (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}))(\forall y : (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}))$$

$$(plus(x, y) = \text{let } (a, b) = x; (c, d) = y \text{ in } (a + c, b + d)) \quad (8)$$

The semantics of let expressions in FOOL mirrors the semantics of simultaneous non-recursive local definitions in programming languages. That is, none of the definitions  $D_1, \dots, D_n$  uses function or predicate symbols created by any other definition. In the following example, constants  $a$  and  $b$  are swapped by a let expression. The resulting formula is equivalent to  $P(b, a)$ .

$$\text{let } a = b; b = a \text{ in } P(a, b) \quad (9)$$

Formula 9 can be equivalently expressed using the following let expression with a definition of a tuple.

$$\text{let } (a, b) = (b, a) \text{ in } P(a, b) \quad (10)$$

Let expressions with tuple definitions are convenient for expressing problems coming from program analysis, namely modelling of assignments [8]. The left hand side of Figure 2 shows an example of an imperative if statement containing assignments to integer variables, and an **assert** statement. This can be encoded in FOOL as shown on the right hand side, using let expressions with definitions of tuples that capture the assignments.

<pre> if (x &gt; y) {   t := x;   x := y;   y := t; } assert x &lt;= y; </pre>	<pre> let (x, y, t) = if x &gt; y   then let t = x in     let x = y in       let y = t in         (x, y, t)   else (x, y, t) in x ≤ y </pre>
--	--

Figure 2: FOOL encoding of an if statement

### 3 The TFX Syntax

The TPTP TFF syntax has been extended to provide the features of FOOL, and at the same time some of the previous weaknesses have been remedied. Formulae and terms have been conflated (with some exceptions). Tuples have been removed from TFF, and fully expressive tuples included in TFX. The old conditional expressions and let expressions have been removed from TFF, and new elegant forms have been included as part of TFX. The grammar of TFX is captured in version v7.1.0.2 of the TPTP syntax, available online at <http://www.tptp.org/TPTP/SyntaxBNF.html>. In the subsections below, the relevant excerpts of the BNF are provided, with examples and commentary.

### 3.1 Boolean Terms and Formulae

Variables of type `$o` can be used as formulae, and formulae can be used as terms. The following is the relevant BNF excerpt. Formulae and terms are conflated by including logic/atomic formulae as options for terms/unitary terms. The distinction between formulae and terms is maintained for plain TFF.

```

<tff_logic_formula>      ::= <tff_unitary_formula> | <tff_unary_formula> |
                           <tff_binary_formula> | <tff_defined_infix>
<tff_unitary_formula>    ::= <tff_quantified_formula> | <tff_atomic_formula> |
                           <tfx_unitary_formula> | (<tff_logic_formula>)
<tfx_unitary_formula>    ::= <variable>
<tff_term>               ::= <tff_logic_formula> | <defined_term> | <tfx_tuple>
<tff_unitary_term>       ::= <tff_atomic_formula> | <defined_term> |
                           <tfx_tuple> | <variable> | (<tff_logic_formula>)

```

The FOOL tautology on Formula 1 can be written in TFX as

```
tff(tautology,conjecture, ! [X: $o]: (X | ~X) ).
```

The *imply* predicate in Formula 2 can be written in TFX as

```

tff(imply_type,type,imply: ($o * $o) > $o ).
tff(imply_defn,axiom, ! [X: $o,Y: $o]: (imply(X,Y) <=> (~X | Y)) ).

```

The definition of a graph of a function on Formula 3 can be written in TFX as

```

tff(s,type,s: $tType).
tff(t,type,t: $tType).
tff(p,type,p: (s * t) > $o ).
tff(graph,axiom, ! [X: s,Y: t,Z: s] : imply(p(X,Y) & p(X,Z),Y = Z) ).

```

A consequence of allowing formulae as terms is that the default typing of functions and predicates supported in plain TFF (functions default to  $(\$i * \dots * \$i) > \$i$  and predicates default to  $(\$i * \dots * \$i) > \$o$ ) is not supported in TFX.

Note that not all terms can be used as formulae. Tuples, numbers, and “distinct objects” cannot be used as formulae.

### 3.2 Tuples

Tuples in TFX are written in `[]` brackets, and can contain any type of term, including formulae and variables of type `$o`. Signatures can contain tuple types. The following is the relevant BNF excerpt.

```

<tfx_tuple_type>         ::= [<tff_type_list>]
<tff_type_list>          ::= <tff_top_level_type> |
                           <tff_top_level_type>,<tff_type_list>
<tfx_tuple>              ::= [] | [<tff_arguments>]
<tff_arguments>          ::= <tff_term> | <tff_term>,<tff_arguments>

```

The tuple type  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$  can be written in the TFX syntax as `[$real,$real]` and the type of the addition function for complex numbers  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \times (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$  can be written as `([$real,$real] * [$real,$real]) > [$real,$real]`. The tuple term  $(2, 3)$  can be written

as [2,3]. Tuples can occur only as terms, anywhere they are well-typed (i.e., they cannot appear as formulae). In the following example the predicate  $p$  takes a tuple  $(\mathbb{Z}, \iota, o)$  as the first argument.

```
tff(p_type,type,p: ([int,$i,$o] * $o * int) > $o ).
tff(q_type,type,q: (int * int) > $o ).
tff(me_type,type,me: int ).
tff(tuples_1,axiom,! [X: int] : p([33,me,$true],! [Y: int] : q(X,Y),27) ).
```

Note that while product types and tuple types are semantically equivalent, two separate syntaxes are used to make it easy to distinguish between the following cases.

```
tff(n_type,type,n: [int,int]).
tff(f_type,type,f: [int,int] > int).
tff(g_type,type,g: (int * int) > int).
tff(h_type,type,h: ([int,int] * int) > int).
```

The first case defines  $n$  to be a tuple of two integers. The second case defines  $f$  to be a function from a tuple of two integers to an integer. The third case defines  $g$  to be a function from two integers to an integer. The last case defines  $h$  to be a function from a tuple of two integers and an integer, to an integer.

The tuples syntax cannot be used to simultaneously declare types of multiple constants in an annotated formula with the `type` role. For example, the following expression is not valid.

```
tff(ab_type,type,[a,b]: [int,int]).
```

Instead, one must declare the type of each constant separately.

```
tff(a_type,type,a: int).
tff(b_type,type,b: int).
```

### 3.3 Conditional Expressions

Conditional expressions are polymorphic, taking a formula as the first argument, then two formulae or terms of the same type as the second and third arguments. The type of the conditional expression is the type of its second and third arguments. The following is the relevant BNF excerpt.

```
<tfx_conditional> ::= $ite(<tff_logic_formula>,<tff_term>,<tff_term>)
```

The keyword `$ite` is used for conditional expressions occurring both as terms and formulae, which is different from the old TFF syntax of if-then-else that contained two separate keywords `$ite_t` and `$ite_f`.

The definition and a property of the *max* function on Formulae 4 and 5 can be expressed in TFX as

```
tff(max_type,type,max: (int * int) > int).
tff(max_defn,axiom,
  ! [X: int,Y: int]: max(X,Y) = $ite($greatereq(X,Y),X,Y) ).
tff(max_property,conjecture,
  ! [X: int,Y: int]:
    $ite(max(X,Y) = X,$greatereq(X,Y),$greatereq(Y,X)) ).
```



### 3.4 Let Expressions

Let expressions in TFX contain (i) the type signatures of locally defined symbols; (ii) the definitions of the symbols; and (iii) the term or formula in which the definitions are used. Type signatures in let expressions syntactically match those in annotated formulae with the **type** role. The symbol definitions determine how locally defined symbols are expanded in the term or formulae where they are used. The type signature must include the types for all the local defined symbols. The following is the relevant BNF excerpt.

```

<tfx_let>                ::= $let(<tfx_let_types>,<tfx_let_defns>,<tff_term>)
<tfx_let_types>          ::= <tff_atom_typing> | [<tff_atom_typing_list>]
<tff_atom_typing_list> ::= <tff_atom_typing> |
                           <tff_atom_typing>,<tff_atom_typing_list>
<tfx_let_defns>          ::= <tfx_let_defn> | [<tfx_let_defn_list>]
<tfx_let_defn>           ::= <tfx_let_LHS> <assignment> <tff_term>
<tfx_let_LHS>            ::= <tff_plain_atomic> | <tfx_tuple>
<tfx_let_defn_list>      ::= <tfx_let_defn> | <tfx_let_defn>,<tfx_let_defn_list>

```

The keyword **\$let** is used for let expressions defining both function and predicate symbols, regardless of whether the let expression occurs as a term or a formula. This is different from the old TFF syntax of let expressions that contained four separate keywords **\$let\_tt**, **\$let\_tf**, **\$let\_ft**, and **\$let\_ff**.

In the following example an integer constant **c** is defined in a let expression.

```

tff(p_type,type,p: ($int * $int) > $o ).
tff(let_1,axiom,$let(c: $int,c:= $sum(2,3),p(c,c)) ).

```

The left hand side of a definition may contain pairwise distinct variables as top-level arguments, which can also appear in the right hand side of the definition. Such variables are implicitly universally quantified, and of the type defined by the symbol's type declaration. The variables' values are supplied by unification in the defined symbol's use. Figure 3 shows examples of let expression with definitions of function and predicate symbols.

<pre> tff(max_max,axiom,   \$let(max: (\$real * \$real) &gt; \$real,     max(X,Y) := \$ite(\$greatereq(X,Y),       X,Y),     max(max(a,b),c) ) ). </pre>	<pre> tff(a,type,a: \$o). tff(b,type,b: \$o). tff(a_eq_b,axiom,   \$let(impl: (\$o * \$o) &gt; \$o,     impl(X,Y) := ~X   Y,     impl(a,b) &amp; impl(b,a)) ). </pre>
--	---

Figure 3: TFX encodings of Formulas 6 (left) and 7 (right)

Let expression can use definitions of tuples. Formula 8 can be written in TFX as follows. Notice that the type declaration contains the elements of both tuples in the simultaneous definition.

```

tff(plus,type,plus: ([$real,$real] * [$real,$real]) > [$real,$real]).
tff(plus_def,axiom,
  ! [X: [$real,$real],Y: [$real,$real]] :
    ( plus(X,Y)
      = $let([a: $real,b: $real,c: $real,d: $real],
        [[a,b] := X, [c,d] := Y],
        [$sum(a,c),$sum(b,d)]) ).

```

Sequential let expressions (`let*`) can be implemented by nesting. In the following example `ff` and `gg` are defined in sequence, and the let expression is equivalent to the formula  $p(f(i,i,i,i))$ .

```
tff(i_type,type,i: $int).
tff(f_type,type,f: ($int * $int * $int * $int) > $int).
tff(p_type,type,p: $int > $o ).
tff(let_tuple_3,axiom,
  $let(ff: ($int * $int) > $int,
    ff(X,Y):= f(X,X,Y,Y),
    $let(gg: $int > $int,gg(Z):= ff(Z,Z),p(gg(i)) ) ) ).
```

Let expressions can have simultaneous local definitions with the type declarations and the definitions given in `[]`s (they look like tuples of declarations and definitions, but are specified independently of tuples in the syntax). (Lisp-like programming languages call them `let`, and not `let*` — `let*` can be implemented in TFX by nesting `lets`). The symbols must have distinct signatures. Figure 4 shows two equivalent let expressions, one with a tuple definition, the other with two simultaneous definitions of constants.

<pre>tff(a,type,a: \$i). tff(b,type,b: \$i). tff(p,type,p: (\$i * \$i) &gt; \$o). tff(pba,axiom,   \$let([a: \$i,b: \$i],     [a:= b, b:= a],     p(a,b))).</pre>	<pre>tff(a,type,a: \$i). tff(b,type,b: \$i). tff(p,type,p: (\$i * \$i) &gt; \$o). tff(pba,axiom,   \$let([a: \$i,b: \$i],     [a,b]:= [b,a],     p(a,b))).</pre>
---	--

Figure 4: TFX encodings of Formulas 9 (left) and 10 (right)

In the following example two function symbols are defined simultaneously, and the let expression is equivalent to the formula  $p(f(i,i,f(i,i,i,i),f(i,i,i,i)))$ .

```
tff(i_type,type,i: $int).
tff(f_type,type,f: ($int * $int * $int * $int) > $int).
tff(p_type,type,p: $int > $o ).
tff(let_tuple_2,axiom,
  $let([ff: ($int * $int) > $int, gg: $int > $int],
    [ff(X,Y):= f(X,X,Y,Y), gg(Z):= f(Z,Z,Z,Z)],
    p(ff(i,gg(i)))) ).
```

The defined symbols of a let expression have scope over the formula/term in which the definitions are applied, shadowing any definition outside the let expression. The right hand side of a definition can have symbols with the same name as the defined symbol, but refer to symbols defined outside the let expression. In the following example the local definition of the `array` function symbols shadow the global declaration.

```
tff(array_type,type,array: $int > $real).
tff(p_type,type,p: $real > $o).
tff(let_3,axiom,
  $let(array: $int > $real,
    array(I):= $ite(I = 3,5.2,array(I)),
    p($sum(array(2),array(3))) ) ).
```

## 4 Software Support and Examples

### 4.1 Software for TFX

The BNF provides the automatically generated lex/yacc parsers for TPTP files. At the time of writing this paper, the TPTP4X utility is being upgraded to support TFX.

The Vampire theorem prover [9] supports all features of FOOL. Vampire transforms FOOL formulae into a set of first-order clauses using the VCNF algorithm [6], and then reasons with these clauses using its usual resolution calculi for first-order logic. At the time of writing this paper the latest released version of Vampire, 4.2.2, uses a syntax for FOOL that slightly differs from TFX. Full support for the TFX syntax has been implemented in a recent revision of the Vampire source code<sup>1</sup>, and will be available in the next release of Vampire.

TFX has been used by two program verification tools BLT [3] and Voogie [8]. Both BLT and Voogie read programs written in a subset of the Boogie intermediate verification language and generate their partial correctness properties written in the TFX syntax. BLT and Voogie generate formulae differently, but both rely on features of FOOL, namely conditional expressions, let expressions, and tuples.

### 4.2 Examples

Figures 5–7 show longer examples of useful applications of features of FOOL. Figure 5 shows how tuples, conditional expressions, and let expressions can be mixed, here to place two integer values in descending order as arguments in an atom. Figure 6 shows the TFX encoding of the FOOL formula in Figure 2, which expresses a partial correctness property of an imperative program with an `if` statement. Figure 7 shows an example that uses formulae as terms, in the second arguments of the `says` predicate. The problem is to find a model from which it is possible to determine which of `a`, `b`, or `c` is the only truth teller on this Smullyanesque island [10]. More TFX examples are available from the TPTP web site <http://www.tptp.org/TPTP/Proposals/TFXExamples.tgz>.

```
%-----
tff(v1_type,type,v1: $int).
tff(v2_type,type,v2: $int).
tff(ordered_p,axiom,
    $let([large: $int,small: $int],
        [large,small] := $ite($greater(v1,v2),[v1,v2],[v2,v1]),
        p(large,small)) ).
%-----
```

Figure 5: Mixing tuples, conditional and let expressions

## 5 Conclusion

This paper has introduced the eXtended Typed First-order form (TFX) of the TPTP’s TFF language. TFX includes boolean variables as formulae, formulae as terms, tuple types and terms,

<sup>1</sup><https://github.com/vprover/vampire>

```

%-----
tff(x,type,x:$int).
tff(y,type,y:$int).
tff(t,type,t:$int).
tff(x_leq_y,conjecture,
    $let([x:$int,y:$int,t:$int],
        [x,y,t] := $ite($greater(x,y),
            $let(t:$int, t := x,
                $let(x:$int, x := y,
                    $let(y:$int, y := t,
                        [x,y,t]))),
            [x,y,t]),
        $lesseq(x,y))).
%-----

```

Figure 6: A TFX encoding of the program analysis problem in Figure 2

```

%-----
tff(a_type,type, a: $i ).
tff(b_type,type, b: $i ).
tff(c_type,type, c: $i ).
tff(exactly_one_truthteller_type,type, exactly_one_truthteller: $o ).
tff(says,type, says: ( $i * $o ) > $o ).

%----Each person is either a truthteller or a liar
tff(island,axiom, ! [P: $i] : ( says(P,$true) <~> says(P,$false) ) ).
tff(exactly_one_truthteller,axiom,
    ( exactly_one_truthteller
    <=> ( ? [P: $i] : says(P,$true)
        & ! [P1: $i,P2: $i] :
            ( ( says(P1,$true) & says(P2,$true) )
            => P1 = P2 ) ) ) ).

%----B said that A said that there is exactly one truthteller on the island
tff(b_says,hypothesis, says(b,says(a,exactly_one_truthteller)) ).

%----C said that what B said is false
tff(c_says,hypothesis, says(c,says(b,$false)) ).
%-----

```

Figure 7: Who is the truthteller?

conditional expressions, and let expressions. TFX is useful for (at least) concisely expressing problems coming from program analysis, and translated from more expressive logics.

Now that the syntax is settled, ATP system developers will be able to implement the new language features. It is already apparent from the SMT community that these are useful features, and systems that can already parse and reason using the SMT version 2 language need only new parsers to implement the features of TFX. In parallel, version v8.0.0 of the TPTP will include problems that use TFX, and the automated reasoning community is invited to submit problems for inclusion in the TPTP.

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