

# CS 512, Spring 2017, Handout 12

## **SAT Solvers**

Assaf Kfoury

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# Origins and background

- ▶ As its name indicates, a **SAT solver** deals with *satisfiability* of propositional WFF's.
- ▶ Like the **tableau method** and the **resolution method**, **SAT solvers** are **refutation-based**, *i.e.*, they try to find reasons why a WFF  $\varphi$  is a logical contradiction.
- ▶ A **SAT solver** always terminates; if it terminates in what is called “failed state”, then  $\varphi$  is a logical contradiction, otherwise  $\varphi$  is a satisfiable WFF.
- ▶ Like the **tableaux method** and the **resolution method**, a **SAT solver** as a decision procedure is only **refutation complete**, not **complete**, though this does not prevent us from using a SAT solver to decide semantic entailment in general.
- ▶ **Refutation completeness** of a **SAT solver** means that, if  $\psi$  is an unsatisfiable WFF (the last column in the truth-table of  $\psi$  are all **F**'s, expressed by the semantic entailment  $\psi \models \perp$  or  $\models \psi \rightarrow \perp$ ), then a **SAT solver** will confirm it by a terminating process of **symbolic manipulation** (pattern-matching, backtracking, term-rewriting) ending with “failed state” (which we can express by writing  $\psi \vdash_{\text{SAT solver}} \perp$ ).
- ▶ There are many restrictions and extensions of the **satisfiability problem** (not covered in this course), some efficiently solvable and some just as hard (or harder) to solve as the unrestricted **satisfiability problem**. Click [here](#) for a survey.

# Preprocessing required by SAT solvers

- ▶ **SAT solvers**, like the **resolution method** but unlike the **tableaux method**, require that an input WFF  $\varphi$  be in CNF.
- ▶ Typically the input WFF  $\varphi$  in CNF is written as a finite set of clauses, *i.e.*,  $\varphi = \{C_1, \dots, C_n\}$  where every  $C_i$  is a finite disjunction of literals (propositional variables and negated propositional variables).
- ▶ A **SAT solver** can start from a WFF  $\varphi$  in CNF, rather than in some other special form (*e.g.*, DNF), because  $\varphi$  can be translated into an **equisatisfiable** WFF  $\varphi'$  efficiently, specifically, in **linear time** – see pp 3-6 in Handout 11.

(We already know that converting a propositional WFF  $\psi$  into an equivalent DNF  $\psi'$  is a NP-hard problem. See Handout 10, the slides with heading “Why DNF?”, and also click [here](#) . But how about instead converting a propositional WFF  $\psi$  into an **equisatisfiable**, not necessarily **equivalent**, DNF  $\psi'$ ? **No**, it is a bad idea .)

**Exercise:** Show it is unlikely we will ever find an algorithm to transform an arbitrary propositional WFF  $\psi$  into an equisatisfiable DNF  $\psi'$  efficiently – unless  $P = NP$ .

*Hint:* Satisfiability of a DNF can be carried out in low-degree polynomial time.

- ▶ Depending on the underlying algorithm and data structures it uses, a **SAT solver** requires further **preprocessing**, and also **inprocessing**, of the input WFF  $\varphi$  for the purpose of speeding up its execution.

## Two main approaches to SAT solvers

1. **SAT solvers** based on **stochastic search**: The solver first guesses a **full assignment** (also called **full valuation**), *i.e.*, an assignment of truth-values to all propositional atoms. If the WFF evaluates to **F** under this assignment, it starts to flip truth-values of the atoms according to some heuristics. Typically, it counts the number of unsatisfied clauses and chooses the flip that minimizes this number.

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2. **SAT solvers** based on **exhaustive search**: The solver traverses a binary tree, in which internal nodes are **partial valuations** and leaves are **full valuations**, and repeatedly **backtracks** in search of a satisfying full valuation.

**SAT solvers** based on exhaustive search use what is known as the **DPLL** procedure, or a refined and more efficient version of the original **DPLL** procedure.

The acronym “**DPLL**” stands for Martin **D**avis (1928-), Hilary **P**utnam (1926-2016), George **L**ogemann (1938-2012), and Donald **L**oveland (1934-) – the four mathematical logicians and computer scientists behind the early development of the procedure in the 1960’s and the 1970’s.

**D**avis and **P**utnam here are the same who introduced the **resolution method** and, naturally enough, the **DPLL procedure** can be viewed as an extension and refinement of the **resolution method**.

# Focus on DPLL

- ▶ The rest of this handout is on **SAT solvers** based on **exhaustive search**, *i.e.*, based on the **DPLL procedure** or one of its many variants.
- ▶ Good reason for this: Most modern **SAT solvers** are based on **exhaustive search**.

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- ▶ Good reason for this: Most modern **SAT solvers** are based on **exhaustive search**.
- ▶ I choose a presentation in two parts:
  1. What I call the “**Classical DPLL**” procedure, which explains the basic DPLL approach.

More than one way of doing this. My presentation is based on:  
R. Nieuwenhuis, A. Oliveras, and C. Tinelli, “Solving SAT and SAT Modulo Theories”, *Journal of the ACM*, Vol. 53, No. 6, November 2006, pp. 937-977.

2. What I call “**Modern Extensions of Classical DPLL**” (some of them, not all of them), which explains ways that make the classical procedure perform more efficiently.

# Classical DPLL Procedure: What Is a *Partial Valuation*?

- ▶ We formulate the **Classical DPLL** procedure as a *transition system* consisting of 5 *transition rules*, which are used to operate over a domain of *states*.
- ▶ The notion of a state requires a preliminary definition of *partial valuation*.



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## Definition

- ▶ If  $\varphi$  is a propositional WFF, then a *partial valuation* (or *model*)  $\mathcal{M}$  for  $\varphi$  is an assignment of truth values *to some* (and possibly – but not necessarily – *to all*) the propositional atoms in  $\varphi$ .

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- ▶ If  $\mathcal{M}$  is a partial valuation for  $\varphi$ , we write  $\mathcal{M}$  as a sequence of atoms or negated atoms occurring in  $\varphi$ .
- ▶ For example, if  $\varphi := \neg((q_1 \vee \neg q_2) \wedge q_3)$ , then a partial valuation  $\mathcal{M}$  for  $\varphi$  may be the sequence  $\neg q_1 q_3$  meaning that  $\mathcal{M}$  assigns **F** to  $q_1$  and **T** to  $q_3$ .  
**Fact:** In this example,  $\mathcal{M}$  can be extended to a total valuation that satisfies  $\varphi$  by assigning **T** to  $q_2$ .

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**Fact:** In this example,  $\mathcal{M}$  can be extended to a total valuation that satisfies  $\varphi$  by assigning **T** to  $q_2$ .
- ▶ Another partial valuation  $\mathcal{M}'$  for  $\varphi := \neg((q_1 \vee \neg q_2) \wedge q_3)$  may be the sequence  $q_1 q_3$  meaning that  $\mathcal{M}$  assigns **T** to both  $q_1$  and  $q_3$ .  
**Fact:**  $\mathcal{M}'$  cannot be extended to a total valuation that satisfies  $\varphi$ .

# Classical DPLL Procedure: What Is a *State*?

## Definition

- ▶ A *state* in the Classical DPLL is a pair of the form  $\mathcal{M} \parallel \varphi$  where  $\varphi$  is a propositional WFF in CNF and  $\mathcal{M}$  is a partial valuation for  $\varphi$ .

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- ▶ For example, a state of Classical DPLL may look like:

$$p_1 p_2 \neg q_1 \parallel \{ p_2, \neg p_1 \vee \neg q_1, \neg p_1 \vee q_2, q_1 \vee \neg q_2 \vee p_1, \\ \neg p_2 \vee p_1 \vee \neg q_3, \neg p_1 \vee p_2, q_3 \vee p_2 \}$$

where

- ▶ the partial valuation (left of “ $\parallel$ ”) assigns **T** to  $p_1$ , **T** to  $p_2$ , and **F** to  $q_1$ ,
- ▶ the CNF (right of “ $\parallel$ ”) is here written as a set of 7 clauses.

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where

- ▶ the partial valuation (left of “ $\parallel$ ”) assigns **T** to  $p_1$ , **T** to  $p_2$ , and **F** to  $q_1$ ,
- ▶ the CNF (right of “ $\parallel$ ”) is here written as a set of 7 clauses.
- ▶ **Fact:** In the preceding example, the partial valuation (left of “ $\parallel$ ”) can be extended to a total valuation, namely, “ $p_1 p_2 \neg q_1 q_2$ ”, that satisfies the CNF (right of “ $\parallel$ ”).

# Classical DPLL Procedure: 5 Transition Rules

## UnitPropagate

$\mathcal{M} \parallel \varphi \cup \{C \vee \ell\} \implies \mathcal{M} \ell \parallel \varphi \cup \{C \vee \ell\}$  **if**  $\mathcal{M} \models \neg C$  and  
 $\ell$  is undefined in  $\mathcal{M}$ .

## PureLiteral

$\mathcal{M} \parallel \varphi \implies \mathcal{M} \ell \parallel \varphi$  **if**  $\ell$  occurs in a clause of  $\varphi$ ,  
 $\neg \ell$  occurs in no clause of  $\varphi$ ,  
and  $\ell$  is undefined in  $\mathcal{M}$ .

## Decide

$\mathcal{M} \parallel \varphi \implies \mathcal{M} \ell^d \parallel \varphi$  **if**  $\ell$  or  $\neg \ell$  occurs in a clause of  $\varphi$   
and  $\ell$  is undefined in  $\mathcal{M}$ .

## Fail

$\mathcal{M} \parallel \varphi \cup \{C\} \implies \text{FailState}$  **if**  $\mathcal{M} \models \neg C$  and  
 $\mathcal{M}$  contains no decision literals.

## Backtrack

$\mathcal{M} \ell^d \mathcal{N} \parallel \varphi \cup \{C\} \implies \mathcal{M} \neg \ell \parallel \varphi \cup \{C\}$  **if**  $\mathcal{M} \ell^d \mathcal{N} \models \neg C$  and  
 $\mathcal{N}$  contains no decision literals.



# Classical DPLL Procedure: Example

Below is a derivation by Classical DPLL. For better readability:

- ▶ We denote the atoms  $q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots$  by their indices  $1, 2, 3, \dots$
- ▶ We denote the negation  $\neg q_k$  by  $\bar{k}$ .

# Classical DPLL Procedure: Example

Below is a derivation by Classical DPLL. For better readability:

- ▶ We denote the atoms  $q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots$  by their indices  $1, 2, 3, \dots$
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$$\begin{aligned} \emptyset & \parallel \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee 3, \bar{1} \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, 2 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee 4 \implies (\text{Decide}) \\ 1^d & \parallel \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee 3, \bar{1} \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, 2 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee 4 \implies (\text{UnitPropagate}) \\ 1^d \bar{2} & \parallel \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee 3, \bar{1} \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, 2 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee 4 \implies (\text{UnitPropagate}) \\ 1^d \bar{2} 3 & \parallel \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee 3, \bar{1} \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, 2 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee 4 \implies (\text{UnitPropagate}) \\ 1^d \bar{2} 3 4 & \parallel \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee 3, \bar{1} \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, 2 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee 4 \implies (\text{Backtrack}) \\ \bar{1} & \parallel \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee 3, \bar{1} \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, 2 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee 4 \implies (\text{UnitPropagate}) \\ \bar{1} 4 & \parallel \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee 3, \bar{1} \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, 2 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee 4 \implies (\text{Decide}) \\ \bar{1} 4 \bar{3}^d & \parallel \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee 3, \bar{1} \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, 2 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee 4 \implies (\text{UnitPropagate}) \\ \bar{1} 4 \bar{3}^d 2 & \parallel \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee 3, \bar{1} \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, 2 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee 4 \end{aligned}$$

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## Definition

A state  $S$  is a **final state** if one of two conditions holds:

1.  $S$  is the token "FailState",
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## Theorem

Let  $\varphi$  be a WFF in CNF. Then:

1. Every derivation by Classical DPLL which starts with the state  $\emptyset \parallel \varphi$  always terminates with a final state, i.e.:

$$\emptyset \parallel \varphi \implies S_1 \implies \dots \implies S_n$$

for some  $n \geq 1$  and where  $S_n$  is a final state.

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3. If the final state  $S_n$  is the token “FailState”, then  $\varphi$  is unsatisfiable.

## Proof.

Left to you. □

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  - ▶ Rule **PureLiteral** is used as a pre-processing step and excluded from the rules driving the solver, *i.e.*, it is applied repeatedly before all other rules until it cannot be applied, after which it is not used.
  - ▶ Rule **Backtrack** is replaced by a more general and powerful backtracking mechanism, the so-called **Backjump** rule.
  - ▶ . . . and other efficiency modifications.

# Modern Extensions of the DPLL Procedure

- ▶ A basic modern SAT solver omits the rule **PureLiteral** from the Classical DPLL procedure, but includes the 3 rules:

**UnitPropagate**, **Decide**, and **Fail** (as before),  
together with (at least) the new rule **Backjump** instead of **Backtrack**.

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<sup>1</sup> If you are interested, an examination is in R. Nieuwenhuis, A. Oliveras, and C. Tinelli, "Solving SAT and SAT Modulo Theories", *Journal of the ACM*, Vol. 53, No. 6, November 2006, pp. 937-977.

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- ▶ **Backjump**

$$\mathcal{M} \ell^d \mathcal{N} \parallel \varphi \cup \{C\} \implies \mathcal{M} \ell' \parallel \varphi \cup \{C\}$$

if  $\mathcal{M} \ell^d \mathcal{N} \models \neg C$  and there is some clause  $C' \vee \ell'$  such that:

1.  $\varphi \cup \{C\} \models C' \vee \ell'$ ,
2.  $\mathcal{M} \models \neg C'$ ,
3.  $\ell'$  is undefined in  $\mathcal{M}$ , and
4.  $\ell'$  or  $\neg \ell'$  occurs in  $\varphi$  or in  $\mathcal{M} \ell^d \mathcal{N}$ .

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3.  $\ell'$  is undefined in  $\mathcal{M}$ , and
4.  $\ell'$  or  $\neg \ell'$  occurs in  $\varphi$  or in  $\mathcal{M} \ell^d \mathcal{N}$ .

- ▶ Although **Backjump** is more efficient than **Backtrack**, it is a little more difficult to understand.<sup>1</sup>

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# Modern Extensions of the DPLL Procedure

- ▶ For efficiency, it turns out that **Backjump** works even better in the presence of two (non-essential, but more helpful for backtracking) rules:

**Forget** and **Learn**

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## Forget

$$\mathcal{M} \models \varphi \cup \{C\} \implies \mathcal{M} \models \varphi \quad \text{if } \varphi \models C$$

## Learn

$$\mathcal{M} \models \varphi \implies \mathcal{M} \models \varphi \cup \{C\} \quad \text{if } \varphi \models C \text{ and}$$

each atom of  $C$  occurs in  $\varphi$  or in  $\mathcal{M}$

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- ▶ Although the soundness of **Forget** and **Learn** is relatively easy to understand, *i.e.*, “their presence does not turn an unsatisfiable WFF into a satisfiable WFF,” it is more difficult to understand why they improve efficiency (in conjunction with **Backjump**).<sup>2</sup>

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