

Lecture 3: Algorithms for SAT

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Naive Search for SAT

- Naive algorithm: try every possible assignment until we find a satisfying assignment or exhaust the search space
- Can interpret this as a DFS:

(search tree)





Trimming the Search Space

- When we set *x* = *T*, what happens to the clauses containing *x*?
- **Observation 1:** Any clause containing the positive literal *x* becomes satisfied, so we no longer need to consider those clauses
 - In logic: $(T \vee 1 \vee 2 \vee \cdots) = T$
 - Significance: we should remove all clauses containing \boldsymbol{x}



Trimming the Search Space

- When we set x = T, what happens to the clauses containing \overline{x} ?
- **Observation 2:** Any clause containing the negative literal \overline{x} needs to be satisfied by a different literal, so we can ignore \overline{x} in that clause
 - In logic: $(F \vee 1 \vee 2 \vee \cdots) = (1 \vee 2 \vee \cdots)$
 - Significance: we should remove \overline{x} from all clauses containing it

The Splitting Rule



- The previous observations are called the **splitting rule**
- After repeatedly applying the splitting rule to formula arphi:
 - If there are **no clauses left**, then all clauses have been satisfied, so φ is satisfied
 - $\varphi = \emptyset$ denotes that there are no clauses left
 - If φ ever contains an **empty clause**, then all literals in that clause are False, so we made a mistake
 - ϵ denotes the empty clause
 - $\epsilon \in \varphi$ denotes that φ contains an empty clause

The Splitting Rule



- The splitting rule allows us to create a smarter recursive **backtracking** algorithm
- Backtracking: repeatedly make a guess to explore partial solutions, and if we hit "dead end" (contradiction) then undo the last guess



Backtracking Notation

- For a CNF φ and a literal x, define φ|x ("φ given x") to be a new CNF produced by:
 - Removing all clauses containing x
 - Removing \overline{x} from all clauses containing it
- Conditioning is "commutative": $\varphi |x_1| x_2 = \varphi |x_2| x_1$



Backtracking (Pseudocode)

```
# check if \varphi is satisfiable
backtrack(\varphi):
    if \varphi = \emptyset: return True
    if \epsilon \in \varphi: return False
    let x = pick_variable(\varphi)
    return backtrack(\varphi | x) OR backtrack(\varphi | \overline{x})
```



Example: Backtracking

<u>Steps</u>





















Efficient Splitting

- How do we compute $\varphi|x$?
- Goals:
 - Support fast searching for empty clauses
 - Support fast backtracking
 - Fast to actually compute $\varphi|x$

Naïve Idea 1

- Transform φ into $\varphi|x$ by deleting satisfied clauses and False literals from φ
 - Deletion not too expensive if we use linked lists
 - Can quickly recognize an empty clause (linked list will be empty), but need to check all clauses
 - Big issue: how do we backtrack?

Naïve Idea 2

- Simple fix: instead of modifying φ directly, create a copy first and modify that
 - Easy backtracking just restore the old formula
 - Big issue: too expensive (time and memory) to copy formula every time we split
 - What if we have hundreds of thousands, even millions of clauses?





Towards a smarter scheme

- Don't modify or copy the formula
- **Observation:** if we set x = T, the only clauses that become empty must contain \overline{x}
 - Store a dictionary mapping each literal to a list of all clauses that contain it
 - But we can do even better!`



1 Watched Literal Scheme

- **Observation:** a clause can only become empty if it has just one unassigned literal remaining
 - Ideally, only need to check these clauses
- Each clause "watches" one literal and maintains **watching invariant**: the watched literal is True or unassigned
 - o If the watched literal becomes False, watch another
 - If there are no more True/unassigned literals to watch, then the clause must be empty



1 Watched Literal Scheme

- **Watchlists** data structure: maps each literal to a list of clauses currently watching it
- When setting x = T, only need to check watchlist of \overline{x}
 - Suppose we successfully maintain the watching invariant. What can we say about the watchlist of \overline{x} ?











Example: 1 Watched Literal <u>Steps</u> $(\overline{1} \lor \overline{2})$ $\left(\overline{1} \lor 2 \lor \overline{3} \right)$ $(3 \lor \overline{4} \lor \overline{5})$ $(3 \lor 4 \lor \overline{5})$

1

Т

2

3

5























































Unit Propagation (UP)

- A unit clause is a clause containing only one literal
- Unit propagation rule: for any unit clause $\{\ell\}$, we must set $\ell = T$
- Applying unit propagation can massively speed up the backtracking algorithm in practice
 - Combining with the splitting rule can lead to a "domino effect" of cascading unit propagation

The DPLL Algorithm

- Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland (1962)
- Improved upon naive backtracking (search) with unit propagation (inference)
- Still the basic algorithm behind most state-of-the-art SAT solvers today!





DPLL (Pseudocode)

 $\begin{aligned} dpll(\varphi): \\ & \text{if } \varphi = \emptyset: \text{ return TRUE} \\ & \text{if } \epsilon \in \varphi: \text{ return FALSE} \\ & \text{if } \varphi \text{ contains unit clause } \{\ell\}: \\ & \text{ return dpll}(\varphi|\ell) \\ & \text{let } x = \text{pick}_{\text{variable}}(\varphi) \\ & \text{ return dpll}(\varphi|x) \text{ OR dpll}(\varphi|\overline{x}) \end{aligned}$















Engineering Matters

- Since the main DPLL subroutine might run exponentially many times, every speedup counts
- DPLL spends by far the most time on UP
 - How can we speed this up?
- Although DPLL has a natural recursive formulation, recursion is slow lots of overhead
 - We can make DPLL **iterative** using a stack



2 Watched Literals (2WL)

- **Key observation:** a clause can only be unsatisfied or unit if it has at most one non-False literal
 - Optimize unit propagation: only visit those clauses
- Each clause "watches" two literals and maintains watching invariant: the watched literals are not False, unless the clause is satisfied
 - If a watched literal becomes False, watch another
- If can't maintain invariant, clause is unit (can propagate)



2 Watched Literals (2WL)

- Still use watchlists (list of all clauses watching each lit)
- Best part: since backtracking only unassigns variables, it can never break the 2WL invariant
 - Don't need to update watchlists



Iterative DPLL

- A **decision** refers to any time our algorithm *arbitrarily* assigns a variable (without being forced to do so)
 - Selecting a literal and assigning it True is a decision
 - Unit propagation & reassigning selected literal after backtracking are not decisions
- All assignments implied by the *i*th decision are said to be on the *i*th **decision level**
 - Can assignments ever be on the zeroth decision level?

Iterative DPLL



- Maintain an **assignment stack** with the assignments from each decision level
 - Whenever we make a new decision, copy the current assignment onto the top of the stack
- To backtrack: pop the current assignment off the stack, restoring the previous one
- Keep a **propagation queue** of literals that are set to False
 - Take literals from the queue and check if their watching clauses are empty/unit

Assignment Stack



Set 2 = T. Propagate 3 = F.

Set
$$1 = T$$





Iterative DPLL (Pseudocode)

```
dpll(\varphi):
```

```
if unit propagate() = CONFLICT: return UNSAT
 while not all variables have been set:
     let x = pick variable()
     create new decision level
     set x = T
     while unit propagate() = CONFLICT:
         if decision level = 0: return UNSAT
         backtrack()
         set x = F
return SAT
```



Iterative DPLL (Pseudocode)

```
dpll(\varphi):
    if unit propagate() = CONFLICT: return UNSAT
    while not all variables have been set:
        let x = pick variable()
                                                 How to implement this?
        create new decision level
        set x = T
        while unit propagate() = CONFLICT:
             if decision level = 0: return UNSAT
            backtrack()
            set x = F
   return SAT
```

How should we branch?



- Order of assigning variables greatly affects runtime
- Want to find a satisfying assignment quicker and find conflicts (rule out bad assignments) quicker
- Ex: {1234, 123, 1235, 235, 345, ..., 67, 67, 67, 67]

• If we assign 6 first, then we can find conflicts right away

Decision Heuristics



- Static heuristics: variable ordering fixed at the start
- **Dynamic heuristics:** variable ordering is updated as the solver runs
 - More effective, but also more expensive
- Basic examples of decision heuristics:
 - Random ordering
 - Most-frequent static ordering
 - Most-frequent dynamic ordering

References



A. Biere, Handbook of satisfiability. Amsterdam: IOS Press, 2009.

N. Eén and N. Sörensson, "An Extensible SAT-solver," *Theory and Applications of Satisfiability Testing Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pp. 502–518, 2004.