

# Practical SAT Solving

## Lecture 3

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# Overview

## Recap. Lecture 2

- Tractable Subclasses
- Constraint Encodings and their Properties

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- Tractable Subclasses
- Constraint Encodings and their Properties

## Today's Topics: Elementary SAT Algorithms

- Local Search
- Resolution
- DP Algorithm
- DPLL Algorithm

# Stochastic Local Search (SLS)

## Minimize the Number of Unsatisfied Clauses

Start with a **random** complete variable assignment  $\alpha$ :

0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Repeatedly **flip** variables in  $\alpha$  to decrease the number of unsatisfied clauses:

0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

# Stochastic Local Search (SLS)

## Properties of SLS Algorithms

Local search algorithms are **incomplete**: They cannot show unsatisfiability!

Challenges:

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  - select variable from an **unsatisfied clause**
  - select variable that **maximizes** the number of satisfied clauses
- How to avoid getting stuck in **local minima**?

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- Which variable should be flipped next?
  - select variable from an **unsatisfied clause**
  - select variable that **maximizes** the number of satisfied clauses
- How to avoid getting stuck in **local minima**?
  - randomization

# Classic SLS Algorithms

## GSAT (Selman et al., 1992)

Greedy local search algorithm

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### Algorithm 1: GSAT

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**Input:** ClauseSet  $S$

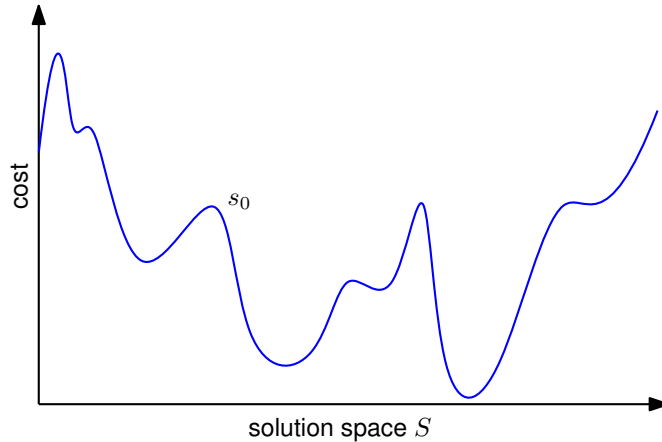
**Output:** Assignment  $\alpha$ , or Nothing

```
1 for  $i = 1$  to  $MAX\_TRIES$  do
2    $\alpha$  = random-assignment to variables in  $S$ 
3   for  $j = 1$  to  $MAX\_FLIPS$  do
4     if  $\alpha$  satisfies all clauses in  $S$  then return  $\alpha$ 
5      $x$  = variable that produces least number of unsatisfied
6       clauses when flipped
7     flip  $x$ 
7 return Nothing                                // no solution found
```

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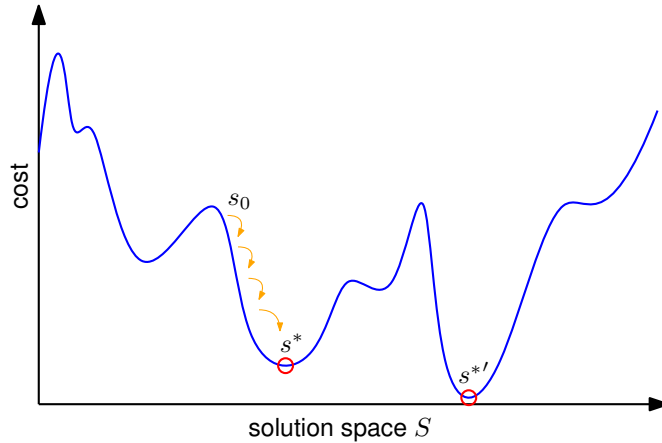


# SLS: Local Minima



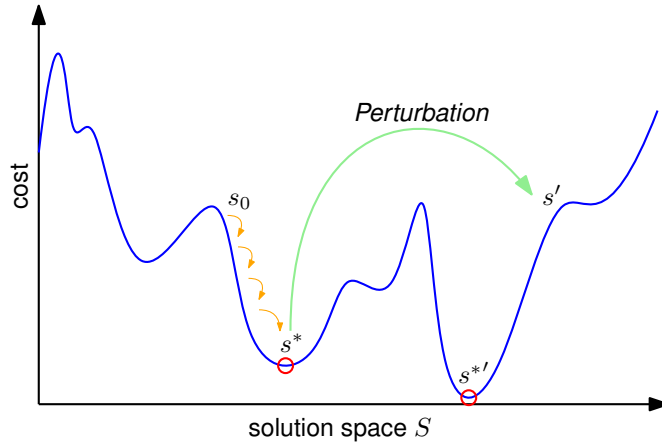
[Illustration Adapted from: Alan Mackworth, UBC, Canada]

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# SLS: Local Minima



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# Classic SLS Algorithms

## WalkSAT (Selman et al., 1993)

Variant of GSAT

Try to avoid local minima by introducing **random noise**.

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### Algorithm 2: WalkSAT( $S$ )

---

```

1 for  $i = 1$  to  $MAX\_TRIES$  do
2    $\alpha$  = random-assignment to variables in  $S$ 
3   for  $j = 1$  to  $MAX\_FLIPS$  do
4     if  $\alpha$  satisfies all clauses in  $S$  then return  $\alpha$ 
5      $C$  = random unsatisfied clause in  $S$ 
6     if by flipping an  $x \in C$  no new unsatisfied clauses
       emerges then flip  $x$ 
7     else with probability  $p$  flip an  $x \in C$  at random
8     otherwise, flip a variable that changes the least number
       of clauses from satisfied to unsatisfied
9 return Nothing                                // no solution found

```

---

# SLS: Important Notions

Consider a flip taking  $\alpha$  to  $\alpha'$

- breakcount**    number of clauses satisfied in  $\alpha$ , but not satisfied in  $\alpha'$
- makecount**    number of clauses not satisfied in  $\alpha$ , but satisfied in  $\alpha'$
- diffscore**      # unsatisfied clauses in  $\alpha$  — # unsatisfied clauses in  $\alpha'$

Typically, breakcount, makecount, and/or diffscore are used to select the variable to flip.

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## Recap using new nomenclature

- GSAT**        select variable with highest diffscore
- WalkSAT**    select variable with minimal breakcount

# Stochastic Local Search (SLS)

## Legacy of SLS

- Extremely **successful and popular** in early days of SAT
  - SLS outperformed early resolution-based solvers, e.g., based on DP or DPLL
  - for example, state of the art engine for **automated planning** in the 90s

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  - Faster, more reliable, and **complete!**



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  - for example, state of the art engine for **automated planning** in the 90s
- Today, sophisticated resolution-based systematic search solvers dominate in most practical applications
  - Faster, more reliable, and **complete!**
- Still useful as a component in more complex solvers
  - Part of (parallel) **algorithm portfolios**
  - Control **branching heuristics** in complete search algorithms
  - Detection of autarkies in **formula simplification** algorithms
  - In combination with complete solvers for optimization problems (e.g., **MaxSAT**)

# Recap

## Elementary Algorithms

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## Next Up

- Resolution

# Resolution

## The Resolution Rule

$$\frac{P_1 \cup \{x\}, \quad P_2 \cup \{\neg x\}}{P_1 \cup P_2}$$

Resolution is a logical **inference rule** to infer a **conclusion** (resolvent) from given **premises** (input clauses).

## Example (Resolution)

$$\{x_1, x_3, \neg x_7\}, \{\neg x_1, x_2\} \vdash \{x_3, \neg x_7, x_2\}$$

$$\{x_4, x_5\}, \{\neg x_5\} \vdash \{x_4\} \quad (\text{Fact})$$

$$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{\neg x_1, \neg x_2\} \vdash \{x_1, \neg x_1\} \quad (\text{Tautological Resolvent})$$

$$\{x_1\}, \{\neg x_1\} \vdash \{\} \quad (\text{Empty Clause})$$

# Resolution

## Theorem: Resolution is Sound

Given a CNF formula  $F$  with two resolvable clauses  $C_1, C_2 \subseteq F$  with resolvent  $R(C_1, C_2)$ , the following holds:

$$F \equiv F \wedge R(C_1, C_2)$$

## Proof

Let  $C_1 := \{x\} \cup P_1$  and  $C_2 := \{\neg x\} \cup P_2$  such that  $R(C_1, C_2) = P_1 \cup P_2 =: D$ .

**Soundness:**  $F \vdash F \wedge D \implies F \models F \wedge D$

Any satisfying assignment  $\phi$  of  $F$  is also a satisfying assignment of  $D$ : Since  $\phi$  satisfies both  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , it necessarily **satisfies at least one literal in  $D$** . If  $\phi$  satisfies  $x$  then it satisfies some literal in  $P_2$ . Otherwise, if  $\phi$  satisfies  $\neg x$  then it satisfies some literal in  $P_1$ .

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**Equivalence:**  $F \vdash F \wedge D \implies F \wedge D \models F$

Since  $D$  does not introduce new variables,  $F \wedge D$  can not have more satisfying assignments than  $F$ .

# Resolution

## Resolution is Sound and Refutation Complete

- If we manage to infer the **empty clause** from a CNF formula  $F$ , then  $F$  is unsatisfiable. (sound)
- If  $F$  is unsatisfiable, then there **exists a refutation by resolution**. (complete)
- **Not all possible** consequences of  $F$  can be derived by resolution. (“only” refutation complete)

## Resolution Proof

A **resolution proof** for  $F$  is a sequence of clauses  $\langle C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{k-1}, C_k = \emptyset \rangle$  where each  $C_i$  is either an original clause of  $F$  or a resolvent of two earlier clauses.

## Example (Resolution Proof)

$$F = \{x_1, x_2\}, \{\neg x_1, x_2\}, \{x_1, \neg x_2\}, \{\neg x_1, \neg x_2\}$$

(Formula)

(Refutation)

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## Example (Resolution Proof)

$$\begin{aligned}
 F &= \{x_1, x_2\}, \{\neg x_1, x_2\}, \{x_1, \neg x_2\}, \{\neg x_1, \neg x_2\} && \text{(Formula)} \\
 &\equiv \{x_1, x_2\}, \{\neg x_1, x_2\}, \{x_1, \neg x_2\}, \{\neg x_1, \neg x_2\}, \{x_2\}, \{\neg x_2\}, \{\} && \text{(Refutation)}
 \end{aligned}$$



# Saturation Algorithm

## Properties

- **sound and complete** – always terminates and answers correctly
- **exponential** time and space complexity

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### Algorithm 3: Saturation Algorithm

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**Input:** CNF formula  $F$

**Output:** {**SAT**, **UNSAT**}

```
1 while true do  
2    $R := \text{resolveAll}(F)$   
3   if  $R \cap F \neq R$  then  $F := F \cup R$   
4   else break  
5 if  $\perp \in F$  then return UNSAT  
6 else return SAT
```

---

# Unit Propagation

## Unit Resolution

Resolution where at least one of the resolved clauses is a **unit clause**, i.e. has size one.

## Example (Unit Resolution)

$$R((x_1 \vee x_7 \vee \neg x_2 \vee x_4), (x_2)) = (x_1 \vee x_7 \vee x_4)$$

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## Example (Unit Resolution)

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## Unit Propagation

Apply unit resolution until fixpoint is reached.

## Example (Unit Propagation)

Usually, we are only interested in the inferred facts (unit clauses) and conflicts (empty clauses).

$$\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}, \{x_1, \neg x_2\}, \{\neg x_1\} \vdash_1 \{\neg x_2\}, \{x_3\}$$

## Elementary Algorithms

- Local Search
  - Examples: GSAT, WalkSAT
  - Terminology: breakcount, makecount, diffscore
- Resolution
  - Soundness and Completeness
  - Saturation Algorithm (Exponential Complexity)
  - Unit Propagation

# Recap

## Elementary Algorithms

- Local Search
  - Examples: GSAT, WalkSAT
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  - Soundness and Completeness
  - Saturation Algorithm (Exponential Complexity)
  - Unit Propagation

## Next Up

Davis Putnam (DP) Algorithm (Improving upon saturation-based resolution)

# Davis-Putnam Algorithm (Davis & Putnam, 1960)

Presented in 1960 as a SAT procedure for first-order logic.

## Deduction Rules of DP Algorithm

- **Unit Resolution:** If there is a unit clause  $C = \{l\} \in F$ , simplify all other clauses containing  $l$
- **Pure Literal Elimination:** If a literal  $l$  never occurs negated in  $F$ , add clause  $\{l\}$  to  $F$
- **Case Splitting:** Put  $F$  in the form  $(A \vee l) \wedge (B \vee \bar{l}) \wedge R$ , where  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $R$  are clause sets free of  $l$ . Replace  $F$  by the clausification of  $(A \vee B) \wedge R$

Apply above deduction rules (prioritizing rules 1 and 2) until one of the following situations occurs:

- $F = \emptyset \rightarrow \text{SAT}$
- $\emptyset \in F \rightarrow \text{UNSAT}$

# Davis-Putnam Algorithm

## Example (DP Algorithm)

$$F = \{\{x, y, \neg z, u\}, \{\neg x, y, u\}, \{x, \neg y, \neg z\}, \{z, v\}, \{z, \neg v\}, \{\neg z, \neg u\}, \{\neg x, \neg y, u\}\} \quad (\text{Split by } x)$$

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# Davis-Putnam Algorithm

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# Davis-Putnam Algorithm

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# Davis-Putnam Algorithm

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$$F_4 = \{\{v\}, \{\neg v\}\} \vdash_1 \{\emptyset\} \quad (\text{Unit Resolution})$$

# DP Variant: Bucket Elimination

## Bucket Elimination

- Fix **order**  $\prec$  on variables.
- **Bucket:** set of clauses with same  $\prec$ -maximal variable
- **Bucket Elimination:** process buckets in **decreasing**  $\prec$ -order
  - resolve all clauses in bucket
  - put resolvents in fitting bucket



# DP Variant: Bucket Elimination

## Example (Bucket Elimination)

$$F = \{(x, y, \bar{z}, u), (\bar{x}, y, u), (x, \bar{y}, \bar{z}), (z, v), (z, \bar{v}), (\bar{z}, \bar{u}), (\bar{x}, \bar{y}, u)\}$$

$$(x \succ y \succ z \succ u \succ v)$$

Variable	Bucket
$x$	$(x, y, \bar{z}, u), (\bar{x}, y, u), (x, \bar{y}, \bar{z}), (\bar{x}, \bar{y}, u)$
$y$	
$z$	$(z, v), (z, \bar{v}), (\bar{z}, \bar{u})$
$u$	
$v$	

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$$(x \succ y \succ z \succ u \succ v)$$

Variable	Bucket
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$y$	$(y, \bar{z}, u), (\bar{y}, \bar{z}, u)$
$z$	$(z, v), (z, \bar{v}), (\bar{z}, \bar{u})$
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# DP Variant: Bucket Elimination

## Example (Bucket Elimination)

$$F = \{(x, y, \bar{z}, u), (\bar{x}, y, u), (x, \bar{y}, \bar{z}), (z, v), (z, \bar{v}), (\bar{z}, \bar{u}), (\bar{x}, \bar{y}, u)\}$$

$$(x \succ y \succ z \succ u \succ v)$$

Variable	Bucket
$x$	processed
$y$	processed
$z$	$(z, v), (z, \bar{v}), (\bar{z}, \bar{u}), (\bar{z}, u)$
$u$	
$v$	

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Variable	Bucket
$x$	processed
$y$	processed
$z$	processed
$u$	$(\bar{u}, v), (u, v), (\bar{u}, \bar{v}), (u, \bar{v})$
$v$	

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$$(x \succ y \succ z \succ u \succ v)$$

Variable	Bucket
$x$	processed
$y$	processed
$z$	processed
$u$	processed
$v$	$(v), (\bar{v})$

## DP: Discussion

*The superiority of the present procedure over those previously available is indicated in part by the fact that a formula on which **Gilmore's routine for the IBM 704** causes the machine to compute for **21 minutes without obtaining a result** was worked successfully **by hand computation using [DP]** in 30 minutes.*

—from Davis' and Putnam's Paper

- Does DP improve on saturation's average time complexity?

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⇒ **yes** — if we split over the right variables
- Does DP avoid saturation's exponential space complexity?



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- Does DP improve on saturation's average time complexity?  
⇒ **yes** — if we split over the right variables
- Does DP avoid saturation's exponential space complexity?  
⇒ **no** — **quadratic blowup in size** for eliminating one variable

# DPLL Algorithm (Davis et al., 1962)

## Davis Putnam Logemann Loveland (DPLL) Algorithm

- DPLL is a **backtracking** search over partial variable assignments.
- **Case splitting** over a variable  $x$  branches the search over two cases  $x$  and  $\neg x$ :  
resulting in the **simplified formulas**  $F_{|x=\text{true}}$  and  $F_{|x=\text{false}}$
- **Simplification** rules:
  - **Unit Propagation:** If  $\{l\} \in F$ ,  $l$  must be set to **true**.
  - **Pure Literal Elimination:** If  $x$  occurs only positively (or only negatively), it may be fixed to the respective value.

# DPLL Algorithm

start with  
simplifications

recurse on  
subformulas obtained  
by case-splitting

stop if **satisfying  
assignment** found or  
**all branches are  
unsatisfiable**

---

## Algorithm 4: DPLL(ClauseSet $S$ )

---

```

1 while  $S$  contains a unit clause  $\{L\}$  do
2   | delete from  $S$  clauses containing  $L$            // unit-subsumption
3   | delete  $\neg L$  from all clauses in  $S$            // unit-resolution
4 if  $\emptyset \in S$  then return false                 // empty clause
5 while  $S$  contains a pure literal  $L$  do
6   | delete from  $S$  all clauses containing  $L$  // pure literal elimination
7 if  $S = \emptyset$  then return true                 // no clauses
8 choose a literal  $L$  occurring in  $S$                // case-splitting
9 if  $DPLL(S \cup \{\{L\}\})$  then return true         // first branch
10 else if  $DPLL(S \cup \{\{\neg L\}\})$  then return true // second branch
11 else return false

```

---

# DPLL Algorithm with Trail

$(S, \alpha)$  is the clause set  $S$  as “seen” under partial assignment  $\alpha$

No pure literal elimination (it is too slow for the benefit it provides)

trailDPLL() leads to efficient **iterative DPLL** implementation

---

**Algorithm 5:** trailDPLL(ClauseSet  $S$ , PartialAssignment  $\alpha$ )

---

```

1 while  $(S, \alpha)$  contains a unit clause  $\{L\}$  do
2   |   add  $\{L = 1\}$  to  $\alpha$                                 // Unit Propagation
3 if a literal is assigned both 0 and 1 in  $\alpha$  then
4   |   return false                                          // Conflict
5 if all literals assigned then
6   |   return true                                           // Assignment found
7 choose a literal  $L$  not assigned in  $\alpha$  occurring in  $S$    // Case Splitting
8 if trailDPLL( $S, \alpha \cup \{\{L = 1\}\}$ ) then
9   |   return true                                           // first branch
10 else if trailDPLL( $S, \alpha \cup \{\{L = 0\}\}$ ) then
11   |   return true                                           // second branch
12 else return false

```

---

# DPLL Algorithm

## Properties

- DPLL **always terminates**
  - Each recursion eliminates one variable
  - Worst case: **binary tree search** of depth  $|V|$
- DPLL is **sound and complete**
  - If clause set  $S$  is **SAT**, we eventually find a satisfying  $\alpha$
  - If clause set  $S$  is **UNSAT**, the entire space of (partial) variable assignments is searched (but **variable selection still matters!**)
- Space complexity: **linear!**
  - systematic search avoids blowup of “**unfocused**” DP

## Elementary Algorithms

- Local Search
  - Examples: GSAT, WalkSAT
  - Terminology: breakcount, makecount, diffscore
- Resolution
  - Soundness and Completeness
  - Saturation Algorithm (Exponential Complexity)
- DP Algorithm
  - Systematized Resolution
  - Improved Average Time Complexity
- DPLL Algorithm
  - Case Splitting and Unit Propagation
  - Linear Space Complexity

# Next Steps

## Coming Lectures

- How can we implement unit propagation efficiently?
- Which literal  $L$  to use for case splitting?
- How can we efficiently implement the case splitting step?