



## N7PD Declarative Programming

The SAT problem: theory and solvers

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- 1 **Introduction and basic definitions**
- 2 Complexity
- 3 Resolution and the DPLL procedure
- 4 SAT applications
- 5 SAT implementation

# What is the SAT problem?

**SAT** is the abbreviation of the **Boolean Satisfiability Problem**: given a propositional formula, is there a propositional interpretation that satisfies it?

SAT is an important **theoretical** problem for CS: first problem to be proved to be NP-complete, phase transition...

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SAT is a important **theoretical** problem for CS: first problem to be proved to be NP-complete, phase transition...

But SAT has also lots of **practical applications**:

- scheduling
- planning
- software verification
- tooling
- ...

# The propositional language

## Definition (syntax of $\mathcal{L}_{PL}$ )

Let  $Var$  be a set of propositional variables. The syntax of well-formed formulas of  $\mathcal{L}_{PL}$  is given by the following EBNF:

$$\varphi ::= 'A' \mid 'T' \mid '\perp' \mid \neg\varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \varphi \leftrightarrow \varphi$$

where  $A \in Var$ .

The semantics of propositional logic is defined classically (cf. OMI first year lecture).

## Definition (interpretation)

An **interpretation** is a total function  $Var \mapsto \{T, F\}$ .

The **truth value** of a formula  $\varphi$  can be evaluated in an interpretation  $\mathcal{I}$  using only the truth values of its subformulae.

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The truth value of  $\varphi$  in  $\mathcal{I}$  is denoted by  $\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{I}}$

## Definition (satisfiability)

A wff  $\varphi$  is **satisfiable** iff there is an interpretation  $\mathcal{I}$  s.t.  $\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{I}} = T$ .

## Definition (validity)

A wff  $\varphi$  is **valid** iff for all interpretations  $\mathcal{I}$ ,  $\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{I}} = T$ . This is denoted by  $\models \varphi$ .



# SAT and UNSAT

Notice that if a wff  $\varphi$  is **not satisfiable** (noted **UNSAT**), it means that  $\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{I}} = F$  for **all interpretations**  $\mathcal{I}$ .

Thus, the following equivalence holds:

$$\varphi \text{ is valid} \Leftrightarrow \neg\varphi \text{ is UNSAT.}$$

# Conjunctive Normal Form

We have seen in previous lectures that Conjunctive Normal Form (**CNF**) is a particular form of wff easy to manipulate.

Remember:

- a CNF is a **conjunction** of clauses
- a **clause** is a **disjunction** of literals
- a **literal** is either a prop. variable or the negation of a prop. variable

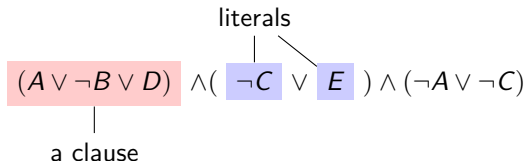
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Example:



# How to compute a CNF?

We have seen a simple algorithm to translate a wff  $\varphi$  into an equivalent CNF:

$$\text{step 1 (remove impl.)} \quad \begin{cases} \varphi \leftrightarrow \psi \equiv (\varphi \rightarrow \psi) \wedge (\psi \rightarrow \varphi) \\ \varphi \rightarrow \psi \equiv \neg\varphi \vee \psi \end{cases}$$

$$\text{step 2 (NNF)} \quad \begin{cases} \neg(\neg\varphi) \equiv \varphi \\ \neg(\varphi \wedge \psi) \equiv \neg\varphi \vee \neg\psi \\ \neg(\varphi \vee \psi) \equiv \neg\varphi \wedge \neg\psi \end{cases}$$

$$\text{step 3 (CNF)} \quad \begin{cases} \varphi \vee (\psi \wedge \gamma) \equiv (\varphi \vee \psi) \wedge (\varphi \vee \gamma) \\ (\psi \wedge \gamma) \vee \varphi \equiv (\psi \vee \varphi) \wedge (\gamma \vee \varphi) \end{cases}$$

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## Problem

This algorithm may lead to an exponentially bigger formula!

# Tseitin's transformation



Tseytin, G. S. (1970).

“On the complexity of derivation in propositional calculus”.

In:

**Studies in Constructive Mathematics and Mathematical Logic, part II.**

Ed. by A. O. Slisenko.

Steklov Mathematical Institute,

Pp. 115–125.

# Tseitin's transformation

Idea: start from the NNF and replace subformulas by new prop. variables.

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{step 3 (CNF)} \end{array} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \varphi \vee \psi \equiv (\varphi \vee \psi \vee \neg X) \wedge (\neg \varphi \vee X) \wedge (\neg \psi \vee X) \\ \varphi \wedge \psi \equiv (\neg \varphi \vee \neg \psi \vee X) \wedge (\varphi \vee \neg X) \wedge (\psi \vee \neg X) \end{array} \right.$$

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## **Property (equisatisfiability of Tseitin's trans.)**

The CNF obtained by Tseitin's transformation is equisatisfiable to the original wff.

## **Property**

The size of the CNF obtained by Tseitin's transformation is linear w.r.t. the size of the original formula.



# Tseitin's transformation

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Example:

$$\text{Formula} \quad \neg((A \wedge B) \vee C) \vee ((\neg A \vee C) \wedge (\neg C \vee A))$$

CNF

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Example:

$$\text{Formula} \quad \neg((\mathbf{A} \wedge \mathbf{B}) \vee \mathbf{C}) \vee ((\neg \mathbf{A} \vee \mathbf{C}) \wedge (\neg \mathbf{C} \vee \mathbf{A}))$$

CNF

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Example:

$$\text{Formula} \quad \neg(\mathbf{X_1} \vee C) \vee ((\neg A \vee C) \wedge (\neg C \vee A))$$

$$\text{CNF} \quad (\neg A \vee \neg B \vee X_1) \wedge (A \vee \neg X_1) \wedge (B \vee \neg X_1)$$

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Example:

$$\text{Formula} \quad \neg(\mathbf{X_2}) \vee ((\neg A \vee C) \wedge (\neg C \vee A))$$

$$\text{CNF} \quad (\neg A \vee \neg B \vee X_1) \wedge (A \vee \neg X_1) \wedge (B \vee \neg X_1) \wedge \\ (X_1 \vee C \vee \neg X_2) \wedge (\neg X_1 \vee X_2) \wedge (\neg C \vee X_2)$$

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Example:

Formula  $\neg(X_2) \vee (X_3 \wedge (\neg C \vee A))$

CNF 
$$\begin{aligned} &(\neg A \vee \neg B \vee X_1) \wedge (A \vee \neg X_1) \wedge (B \vee \neg X_1) \wedge \\ &(X_1 \vee C \vee \neg X_2) \wedge (\neg X_1 \vee X_2) \wedge (\neg C \vee X_2) \wedge \\ &(\neg A \vee C \vee \neg X_3) \wedge (A \vee X_3) \wedge (\neg C \vee X_3) \end{aligned}$$

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Example:

Formula  $\neg(X_2) \vee (X_3 \wedge X_4)$

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$$\begin{aligned} &(\neg A \vee \neg B \vee X_1) \wedge (A \vee \neg X_1) \wedge (B \vee \neg X_1) \wedge \\ &(X_1 \vee C \vee \neg X_2) \wedge (\neg X_1 \vee X_2) \wedge (\neg C \vee X_2) \wedge \\ &(\neg A \vee C \vee \neg X_3) \wedge (A \vee X_3) \wedge (\neg C \vee X_3) \wedge \\ &(\neg C \vee A \vee \neg X_4) \wedge (C \vee X_4) \wedge (\neg A \vee X_4) \end{aligned}$$

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Example:

$$\text{Formula} \quad \neg(X_2) \vee X_5$$

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Example:

Formula  $X_6$

CNF 
$$\begin{aligned} &(\neg A \vee \neg B \vee X_1) \wedge (A \vee \neg X_1) \wedge (B \vee \neg X_1) \wedge \\ &(X_1 \vee C \vee \neg X_2) \wedge (\neg X_1 \vee X_2) \wedge (\neg C \vee X_2) \wedge \\ &(\neg A \vee C \vee \neg X_3) \wedge (A \vee X_3) \wedge (\neg C \vee X_3) \wedge \\ &(\neg C \vee A \vee \neg X_4) \wedge (C \vee X_4) \wedge (\neg A \vee X_4) \wedge \\ &(\neg X_3 \vee \neg X_4 \vee X_5) \wedge (X_3 \vee \neg X_5) \wedge (X_4 \vee \neg X_5) \wedge \\ &(\neg X_2 \vee X_5 \vee \neg X_6) \wedge (X_2 \vee X_6) \wedge (\neg X_5 \vee X_6) \end{aligned}$$

# Using CNF

As there is a linear transformation of wff to CNF, **we will restrict our presentation on SAT to CNF.**

For readability, we will denote a CNF by a set of clauses, each clause being denoted by a set of literals.

For instance:

$$\begin{aligned} & (x_1 \vee \neg x_2) \wedge (x_3 \vee x_4 \vee x_5) \wedge (x_5 \vee \neg x_2) \\ & \quad \equiv \\ & \quad \{ \{x_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{x_3, x_4, x_5\}, \{x_5, \bar{x}_2\} \} \end{aligned}$$

# Outline

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First, let us look at the simplest algorithm to check if a wff is SAT or not: **truth tables**.

Truth table complexity is clearly  $O(2^n)$  where  $n$  is the number of propositional variables involved in the wff.

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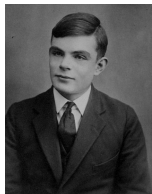
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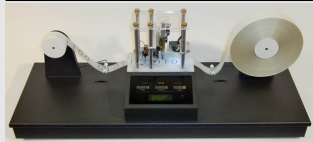
But if there is an efficient (i.e. polynomial) algorithm for SAT, then it would solve the  $P = NP$  question...

In order to explain that, let us go back to the basics of computation: Turing machines.

# A mathematical model for computation: the Turing machine



## The Turing machine (Turing, 1936)



This is the theoretical foundation of computers and **imperative programming**:

- tape: memory with stored program
- automaton: microprocessor



École Normale Supérieure de Lyon (2015).

**The RubENS project.**

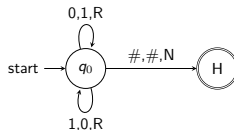
<http://rubens.ens-lyon.fr/>.

# The Turing machine: how does it work?

The Turing machine can be viewed as an **automaton** with an **infinite tape** and a **read/write head**.

- the automaton is composed of **states**
- states can be linked by **transitions**
- transitions are **triggered** by the symbol read by the head
- during a transition, the head may **write** a new symbol and **move** on the new left/right position

current state	current symbol	next state	symbol to write	move head
$q_0$	0	$q_0$	1	RIGHT
$q_0$	1	$q_0$	0	RIGHT
$q_0$	#	HALT	#	NONE



Again, see OMI first year lecture, part on languages.

# Nondeterministic Turing machines

A **Nondeterministic Turing machine** (NTM) is a Turing machine for which transitions are no more represented by functions, but rather by **relations**.

This means that for each pair (state, symbol), there may be **more than one** tuple (state, symbol, action) or none.

# Nondeterministic Turing machines

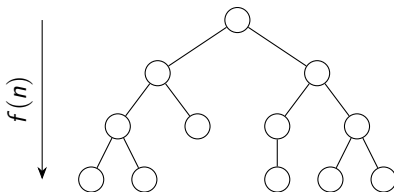
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A NTM will accept an input if there is **some** sequence of **nondeterministic** choices that results in YES.

# Nondeterministic Turing machines

Intuitively, a NTM decides a language  $L$  in time  $f(n)$  where  $n$  is the size of the input if  $f(n)$  bounds the height of the “computational tree” induced by the machine:



For the moment, there is **no polynomial reduction** of NTM to (deterministic) Turing machine, only exponential ones!



# NP problems

**NP** is a class of problems that can be decided in **polynomial time** by a NTM.

Intuitively, a problem in NP is such that verifying if an alternative is a solution is polynomial.

For instance, SAT is in NP: given an interpretation, you can check that the truth value of input formula is  $T$  in polynomial time...

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... but we do not know if SAT is in P.

Of course,  $P \subseteq NP$ , but we do not know if  $NP \subseteq P$  (this is a 1,000,000\$ prize ☺).

# NP-complete problems

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- is in NP
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Therefore:

- showing that a NP-complete problem is in P implies that **all problems in NP are in P**
- showing that a problem is in NPC gives a good indication on the fact that the problem should be the least likely to be in P...

# SAT is NP-complete

## ***Theorem (Cook-Levin)***

---

*SAT is NP-complete.*



Cook, Stephen (1971).

“The complexity of theorem proving procedures”.

In: **Proc. of the third annual ACM symposium on Theory of computing** ,

Pp. 151–158.

<http://4mhz.de/cook.html>.

# SAT is NP-complete

## ***Theorem (Cook-Levin)***

*SAT is NP-complete.*



Cook, Stephen (1971).

“The complexity of theorem proving procedures”.

In: **Proc. of the third annual ACM symposium on Theory of computing** ,

Pp. 151–158.

<http://4mhz.de/cook.html>.

**Idea:** given a NP problem  $\mathcal{P}$ , a NTM  $\mathcal{M}$  that solves it, and an entry  $\mathcal{I}$  for  $\mathcal{P}$ , build a formula that is satisfiable iff  $\mathcal{M}$  accepts  $\mathcal{I}$  for  $\mathcal{P}$ .

# SAT variants

There are restricted versions of SAT:

<b>Problem</b>	<b>Complexity</b>
CNFSAT	NP-complete
2SAT	P
3SAT	NP-complete
HORNSAT	P

In the following, we will use CNFSAT instead of SAT.

- 1 Introduction and basic definitions
- 2 Complexity
- 3 Resolution and the DPLL procedure**
  - Resolution
  - The original DPPL procedure
  - DPPL: a modern view
- 4 SAT applications
- 5 SAT implementation



- 1 Introduction and basic definitions
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# Back to Resolution

We want to show that a set of clauses is UNSAT.

↳ we could use Resolution to do that!

# Back to Resolution

We want to show that a set of clauses is UNSAT.

→ we could use Resolution to do that!

Remember:

- Resolution has only two rules:

$$\frac{\{l, l_1, \dots, l_n\} \quad \{\bar{l}, l'_1, \dots, l'_m\}}{\{l_1, \dots, l_n, l'_1, \dots, l'_m\}} (R) \qquad \frac{\{l, l, l_1, \dots, l_n\}}{\{l, l_1, \dots, l_n\}} (F)$$

- we can also add a **subsumption** rule:

$$\frac{\{l_1, \dots, l_n\} \quad \{l_1, \dots, l_n, l'_1, \dots, l'_m\}}{\{l_1, \dots, l_n\}} (S)$$

- Resolution is sound and complete for **refutation**

How to **efficiently** use Resolution?

## Resolution: saturation method

A first idea: apply Resolution again and again (there is a fixed point!).

# Resolution: saturation method

---

**Algorithm 3.1:** Resolution by saturation algorithm

---

**Input:** a set of clauses  $S$

**Output:** SAT if  $S$  is satisfiable, UNSAT else

```
1  $S' \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;  
2 while  $S' \neq S$  do  
3    $S' \leftarrow S$ ;  
4   generate all possible resolvent and stores them in  $R$   
5   foreach resolvent  $r$  do  
6     if  $r = \square$  then  
7       return UNSAT;  
8     end  
9     if there is no clause  $C$  such that  $C$  subsumes  $r$  then  
10      remove all clauses subsumed by  $r$  ;  
11       $S = S \cup \{r\}$  ;  
12    end  
13  end  
14 end  
15 return SAT;
```

---

# Resolution: saturation method

But

- huge memory consumption: intermediate resolvent are computed even if they are subsumed by another clause or are tautologies
- how to efficiently find the clauses on which to apply Resolution
- in which order should you apply Resolution to optimize the process?

# The Davis and Putnam procedure

Davis and Putnam developed in 1960 an algorithm using Resolution to check if a set of clauses is SAT or UNSAT.



Davis, Martin and Hilary Putnam (July 1960).  
“A Computing Procedure for Quantification Theory”.  
In: **Journal of the ACM** 7.3,  
Pp. 201–215.  
ISSN: 0004-5411.  
DOI: [10.1145/321033.321034](https://doi.org/10.1145/321033.321034).  
<http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/321033.321034>.

# The Davis and Putnam procedure

Davis and Putnam developed in 1960 an algorithm using Resolution to check if a set of clauses is SAT or UNSAT.

Three rules are used in the procedure:

**taut** a clause  $\{x, \bar{x}, l_1, \dots, l_n\}$  can be eliminated

**pure** if a variable appears **exclusively** as a positive (or negative) literal  $l$ , then all the clauses containing  $l$  can be eliminated

**res(x)** that applies Resolution rule using variable  $x$ :

- for each pair of clauses  $\{x, l_1, \dots, l_n\}$  and  $\{\bar{x}, l'_1, \dots, l'_m\}$  generate  $\{l_1, \dots, l_n, l'_1, \dots, l'_m\}$
- remove all clauses containing either  $x$  or  $\bar{x}$



# The Davis and Putnam procedure

Davis and Putnam developed in 1960 an algorithm using Resolution to check if a set of clauses is SAT or UNSAT.

---

**Algorithm 3.2:** Davis and Putnam algorithm

---

**Input:** a set of clauses  $S$

**Output:** SAT if  $S$  is satisfiable, UNSAT else

```
1  $S' \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;  
2 while  $S' \neq S$  do  
3    $S' \leftarrow S$ ;  
4   apply taut rule ;  
5   apply unit rule ;  
6   apply pure rule ;  
7   choose a variable  $x$  and apply res using  $x$  ;  
8 end  
9 if  $S = \emptyset$  then  
10  | return UNSAT;  
11 else  
12  | return SAT;  
13 end
```

---

# DP procedure: example

init.		$\{\{x_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3\} \{\bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3\} \{x_2 x_3\} \{x_3 x_4\} \{x_3 \bar{x}_4\} \{\bar{x}_3\} \{\mathbf{x}_5\} \{\bar{x}_5 x_4\}\}$
pure on $x_5$ .	$\leadsto$	$\{\{\mathbf{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3\} \{\bar{\mathbf{x}}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3\} \{x_2 x_3\} \{x_3 x_4\} \{x_3 \bar{x}_4\} \{\bar{x}_3\}\}$
res on $x_1$	$\leadsto$	$\{\{\bar{\mathbf{x}}_2 \bar{x}_3\} \{\mathbf{x}_2 x_3\} \{x_3 x_4\} \{x_3 \bar{x}_4\} \{\bar{x}_3\}\}$
res on $x_2$	$\leadsto$	$\{\{\mathbf{x}_3 \bar{\mathbf{x}}_3\} \{x_3 x_4\} \{x_3 \bar{x}_4\} \{\bar{x}_3\}\}$
taut	$\leadsto$	$\{\{x_3 \mathbf{x}_4\} \{x_3 \bar{\mathbf{x}}_4\} \{\bar{x}_3\}\}$
res on $x_4$	$\leadsto$	$\{\{\mathbf{x}_3\} \{\bar{\mathbf{x}}_3\}\}$
res on $x_3$	$\leadsto$	$\emptyset$
UNSAT		

# DP procedure: example

init.		$\{\{x_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3\} \{\bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3\} \{x_2 x_3\} \{x_3 x_4\} \{x_3 \bar{x}_4\} \{\bar{x}_3\} \{\mathbf{x}_5\} \{\bar{x}_5 x_4\}\}$
pure on $x_5$ .	$\leadsto$	$\{\{\mathbf{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3\} \{\bar{\mathbf{x}}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3\} \{x_2 x_3\} \{x_3 x_4\} \{x_3 \bar{x}_4\} \{\bar{x}_3\}\}$
res on $x_1$	$\leadsto$	$\{\{\bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3\} \{\mathbf{x}_2 x_3\} \{x_3 x_4\} \{x_3 \bar{x}_4\} \{\bar{x}_3\}\}$
res on $x_2$	$\leadsto$	$\{\{\mathbf{x}_3 \bar{x}_3\} \{x_3 x_4\} \{x_3 \bar{x}_4\} \{\bar{x}_3\}\}$
taut	$\leadsto$	$\{\{x_3 \mathbf{x}_4\} \{x_3 \bar{x}_4\} \{\bar{x}_3\}\}$
res on $x_4$	$\leadsto$	$\{\{\mathbf{x}_3\} \{\bar{x}_3\}\}$
res on $x_3$	$\leadsto$	$\emptyset$
UNSAT		

In practise, DP is **not efficient**:

- takes a lot of time to find clauses on which res can be applied
- memory is saturated with the computed resolvents

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The DPPL procedure is a refinement of the DP procedure.



Davis, Martin, Georges Logemann, and Donald Loveland (1962).  
“A machine program for theorem proving”.

In: **Communications of the ACM** 5.7,  
Pp. 394–397.

DOI: [10.1145/368273.368557](https://doi.org/10.1145/368273.368557).

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The principles of the procedure are the following:

- an interpretation/a model  $M$  satisfying the formula  $\varphi$  is built incrementally
- $M$  is extended
  - either by **deduction** of the value of a literal  $l$  from  $M$  and  $\varphi$
  - either by **deciding** the value of a literal  $l$  that does not appear in  $M$
- if a decision leads to a failure node (a clause is valuated to  $F$ ), the algorithm **backtracks** and inverse the decision

# DPLL: example

Operation	<i>Model</i>	Formula
		$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$

# DPLL: example

Operation	<i>Model</i>	Formula
Deduce $x_1$	$x_1$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$ $\{\textcolor{blue}{x}_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\textcolor{red}{\bar{x}}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\textcolor{red}{\bar{x}}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{\textcolor{blue}{x}_1\}$



# DPLL: example

Operation	Model	Formula
		$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Deduce $x_1$	$x_1$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Deduce $x_2$	$x_1, x_2$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$

# DPLL: example

Operation	Model	Formula
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Deduce $x_1$	$x_1$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Deduce $x_2$	$x_1, x_2$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Decide $x_3$	$x_1, x_2, x_3$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$

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Deduce $x_1$	$x_1$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Deduce $x_2$	$x_1, x_2$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Decide $x_3$	$x_1, x_2, x_3$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Deduce $x_4$	$x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$

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Deduce $x_1$	$x_1$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Deduce $x_2$	$x_1, x_2$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Decide $x_3$	$x_1, x_2, x_3$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Deduce $x_4$	$x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Undo $x_3$	$x_1, x_2$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$

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Deduce $x_1$	$x_1$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Deduce $x_2$	$x_1, x_2$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Decide $x_3$	$x_1, x_2, x_3$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Deduce $x_4$	$x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Undo $x_3$	$x_1, x_2$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$
Decide $x_3$	$x_1, x_2, x_3$	$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, \bar{x}_3, x_4\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2\}, \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_3, \bar{x}_4\}, \{x_1\}$

# SAT: an abstract framework

In Nieuwenhuis, Oliveras, and Tinelli 2004, Nieuwenhuis et al. give an abstract framework for SAT algorithms.



Nieuwenhuis, R., A. Oliveras, and C. Tinelli (2004).  
“Abstract DPLL and Abstract DPLL Modulo Theories”.  
In: **LPAR** ,  
Pp. 36–50.

This framework is based on an **abstract transition system**.

## Definition (states)

---

A state in the transition system is either

- *fail*
- $M \parallel \varphi$  where
  - $\varphi$  is a CNF
  - $M$  is a (partial) interpretation  $l_1, \dots, l_i^d, \dots, l_k$  where the  $l_i$  are literals and  $d$  a **decision level**

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## Definition (initial and final states)

- initial state:  $\emptyset \parallel \varphi$
- final states:
  - *fail* if  $\varphi$  is UNSAT
  - $M \parallel \psi$  where  $\psi$  is equivalent to  $\varphi$  and  $M$  is a model of  $\psi$



# How does DPPL work?

DPPL builds incrementally a model for the initial formula.

During the space exploration:

- a variable may have for value T (true), F (false) or X (unassigned)

- a clause can be

<b>sat</b>	iff one of its literals is T
<b>unit</b>	iff all of its literals are F except one
<b>conflict</b>	iff all of its literals are F
<b>undef</b>	otherwise

- a CNF is **SAT** iff all its clauses are sat

## Rule (UnitProp)

---

$$M \models \varphi, C \vee I \rightarrow M \models \varphi, C \vee I \text{ if } \begin{cases} M \models \neg C \\ I \text{ is not defined in } M \end{cases}$$

## Rule (UnitProp)

---

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## Rule (Decide)

---

$$M \models \varphi \rightarrow M \models I^d \text{ if } \begin{cases} I \text{ or } \bar{I} \text{ is in } \varphi \\ I \text{ is not defined in } M \end{cases}$$

$I^d$  is identified as a literal of decision level  $d$ .

## Rule (Fail)

---

$$M \parallel \varphi', C \rightarrow \text{fail} \text{ if } \begin{cases} M \models \neg C \\ M \text{ has no decision literal} \end{cases}$$

## Rule (Fail)

---

$$M \parallel \varphi', C \rightarrow \text{fail} \text{ if } \begin{cases} M \models \neg C \\ M \text{ has no decision literal} \end{cases}$$

## Rule (Backtrack)

---

$$M \text{ } l^d \text{ } N \parallel \varphi', C \rightarrow M \bar{l} \parallel \varphi', C \text{ if } \begin{cases} M \text{ } l^d \text{ } N \models \neg C \\ l^d \text{ is the last decision literal} \end{cases}$$

## Definition (DPLL basic procedure)

The original DPLL algorithm from Davis, Logemann, and Loveland 1962 uses the following rules:

- UnitProp
- Decide
- Fail
- Backtrack

until a model or *fail* is produced.

# Correction of the basic DPLL procedure

Some definitions:

<b>Irreducible state</b>	state from which no transition can be fired
<b>Execution</b>	sequence of transitions allowed by the rules from an initial state $\emptyset \parallel \varphi$
<b>Saturated execution</b>	execution finishing with an irreducible state

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## ***Theorem (strong termination)***

*Every execution of DPPL is **finite**.*



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## ***Theorem (strong termination)***

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## ***Theorem (soundness)***

*For each saturated execution from  $\emptyset \parallel \varphi$  finishing in  $M \parallel \varphi$ ,  $M \models \varphi$ .*

# Correction of the basic DPLL procedure

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## ***Theorem (strong termination)***

*Every execution of DPPL is **finite**.*

## ***Theorem (soundness)***

*For each saturated execution from  $\emptyset \parallel \varphi$  finishing in  $M \parallel \varphi$ ,  $M \models \varphi$ .*

## ***Theorem (completeness)***

*If  $\varphi$  is UNSAT, every saturated execution from  $\emptyset \parallel \varphi$  finishes in fail.*

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# DPLL: from backtracking to backjumping

## Rule (Backtrack)

---

$$M \mid^d N \parallel \varphi', C \rightarrow M \bar{\mid} \parallel \varphi', C \text{ if } \begin{cases} M \mid^d N \models \neg C \\ \mid^d \text{ is the last decision literal} \end{cases}$$

# DPLL: from backtracking to backjumping

## Rule (Backtrack)

$$M \mid^d N \parallel \varphi', C \rightarrow M \bar{\mid} \parallel \varphi', C \text{ if } \begin{cases} M \mid^d N \models \neg C \\ \mid^d \text{ is the last decision literal} \end{cases}$$

## Rule (Backjump)

$$M \mid^d N \parallel \varphi', C \rightarrow M k \parallel \varphi', C \text{ if } \begin{cases} 1. M \mid^d N \models \neg C \\ 2. \text{ there is a clause } D \vee k \text{ s.t.} \\ \quad \varphi', C \models D \vee k \text{ and } M \models \neg D \\ \quad k \text{ is not defined in } M \\ \quad k \text{ or } \bar{k} \text{ occurs in } \varphi' \vee C \end{cases}$$

# CDCL: learning from errors

How to avoid repeating the same errors when encountering a *fail* branch?

# CDCL: learning from errors

How to avoid repeating the same errors when encountering a *fail* branch?

**Idea:** find the clause “responsible” for the conflict, add it and backjump to the highest decision level.

Adding the clause avoids getting in the same subtree if encountering the same subinterpretation.

This technique is called Conflict-Driven Clause Learning (CDCL).

## Rule (Learn)

---

$$M \parallel \varphi \rightarrow M \parallel \varphi, C \text{ if } \begin{cases} \text{all atoms of } C \text{ appear in } \varphi \\ \varphi \models C \end{cases}$$



## Rule (Learn)

---

$$M \parallel \varphi \rightarrow M \parallel \varphi, C \text{ if } \begin{cases} \text{all atoms of } C \text{ appear in } \varphi \\ \varphi \models C \end{cases}$$

## Rule (Forget)

---

$$M \parallel \varphi, C \rightarrow M \parallel \varphi \text{ if } \varphi \models C$$

## Rule (Learn)

---

$$M \parallel \varphi \rightarrow M \parallel \varphi, C \text{ if } \begin{cases} \text{all atoms of } C \text{ appear in } \varphi \\ \varphi \models C \end{cases}$$

## Rule (Forget)

---

$$M \parallel \varphi, C \rightarrow M \parallel \varphi \text{ if } \varphi \models C$$

## Rule (Restart)

---

$$M \parallel \varphi \rightarrow \emptyset \parallel \varphi \text{ if you want...}$$

# Strategies for modern DPLL

- applying a rule of basic DPPL between each Learn and applying Restart less and less often maintains termination.
- in practise, Learn is applied just after each Backjump
- the most common strategy uses these priorities:
  - ① if  $n > 0$  conflicts have been found, then increment  $n$  and apply Restart
  - ② if a clause is falsified by the current interpretation, apply Fail or Backjump + Learn
  - ③ apply UnitProp until saturation

## ***Theorem (termination)***

---

*Every execution in which*

- *Learn/Forget are applied a fixed number of times*
- *Restart is applied with a growing periodicity*

*is finite.*

## ***Theorem (termination)***

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*Every execution in which*

- *Learn/Forget are applied a fixed number of times*
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*is finite.*

## ***Theorem (soundness)***

---

*For each saturated execution from  $\emptyset \models \varphi$  finishing in  $M \models \varphi$ ,  $M \models \varphi$ .*

## ***Theorem (termination)***

---

*Every execution in which*

- *Learn/Forget are applied a fixed number of times*
- *Restart is applied with a growing periodicity*

*is finite.*

## ***Theorem (soundness)***

---

*For each saturated execution from  $\emptyset \parallel \varphi$  finishing in  $M \parallel \varphi$ ,  $M \models \varphi$ .*

## ***Theorem (completeness)***

---

*If  $\varphi$  is UNSAT, every saturated execution from  $\emptyset \parallel \varphi$  finishes in fail.*

# Actual solvers

Current solvers combine

- a **preprocessing** phase using Resolution to simplify the initial formula before using DPLL
- a **parallel** implementation of modern DPLL
- **inprocessing** phases using Resolution to simplify Resolution the formula during DPLL

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Some interesting solvers:

- [Chaff](#) (2000), [minisat](#) (2004), [PicoSAT](#) (2006)
- [SAT4J](#) (written in Java, integrated in Eclipse for libraries dependency)
- [Glucose](#) 4.0 (written in C++, winner of several contests)
- [Lingeling](#) (written in C, winner of several contests)



# Outline

- 1 Introduction and basic definitions
- 2 Complexity
- 3 Resolution and the DPLL procedure
- 4 SAT applications**
- 5 SAT implementation

# Prover Technology

Prover - Prover Certifier - Mozilla Firefox

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prover.com/products/prover\_certifier/ glucose

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Introduction

Prover Lock Process

RIPEC

Prover Lock

Prover Lock for American Railroads

**Prover Certifier**

Prover Extractor

Prover Plugin

**PRODUCTS**

**Prover Certifier™**

Formal Verification for CENELEC Certification

Prover Certifier is the only software product on the market that allows you to automatically produce complete safety evidence for CENELEC EN50128 SIL 4 certification using formal verification. Rather than spending resources on time-consuming tasks such as manual reviews and safety testing, you let Prover Certifier construct a formal correctness proof of your system.

Not only is the proof completed in a fraction of the time it takes to produce traditional safety evidence, it also provides 100 % coverage as formal verification is guaranteed to discover every error, even those that are extremely hard to find by testing.

Since Prover Certifier has been carefully developed in a CENELEC SIL 4-compliant process, its judgment can be fully trusted and can replace other evidence.

There is no need to perform extensive reviews and safety testing anymore, so you save both time and costs, and minimise the risk of human error in the review process. Your system will be taken into revenue service much earlier and you can be certain that it will always be safe.

**Applications**

Prover Certifier provides certifiable safety verification for a wide range of systems, including:

- Communication Based Train Control (CBTC) systems
- European Rail Traffic Management Systems (ERTMS)
- Railway interlocking systems

**Features**

- Independent and certifiable formal safety verification of high-level design as well as implementation code languages
- CENELEC SIL 4-compliance based on techniques such as identification, preflagging and proof checking
- Mature and proven formal verification technology

Functional Requirement Specification

Design Development

System Configuration

Generic Safety Requirements

Specific Requirements

**Frontend Modules**

- Ada
- C (ANSI)
- RIPEC
- Proprietary design and code languages
- SCADA (v6 and v7)

**Supported Workflows**

- Prover Lock
- SCADA
- Proprietary development environments

# Scade Design Verifier

SCADE Suite Design Verifier | Esterel Technologies - Mozilla Firefox

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www.esterel-technologies.com/products/scade-suite/verification-validation/scade-suite-design-verifier/

SCADE Suite Design Verifier

SCADE Suite Design Verifier (DV) is a formal verification assistant to formally express and assess safety requirements providing a productive way to find bugs early in the development process. Properties to verify are defined with SCADE itself. The boolean outputs are the proof objectives for DV that then automatically produces counter-examples. DV can also be used to find divisions by zero operations.

- Verification of safety properties expressed in SCADE Suite
- Automatic counter-example production in case of property failure
- Early detection of division-by-zero errors
- Easy and intuitive use of proof or bug-chasing modes



Property definition

Design Verifier report

Generated counter example


Verification and Validation

- > SCADE Suite Simulator
- > SCADE Suite Design Verifier
- > SCADE Suite Timing and Stack Verifiers

Downloads

- Handbook - DO-178C for Avionics
- Datasheet - SCADE Suite Technical Datasheet
- Training - Getting Started with SCADE Suite
- Demos - SCADE Demos
- White Paper - Understanding How SCADE Suite RCU Generates Safe C Code

\*SCADE Suite Design Verifier is based on Prover Plug-in® a registered trademark of Prover Technology AB in Sweden, the United States and in other countries.



# Simulink Design Verifier

Simulink Design Verifier - MathWorks France - Mozilla Firefox

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fr.mathworks.com/products/simulinkdesignverifier/ | simulink design verifier

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## Simulink Design Verifier

MISE À JOUR IMPORTANTE

Identification des erreurs de conception, génération de cas de test et vérification de la conformité des conceptions aux spécifications

[Présentation](#) | [Fonctionnalités](#) | [Exemples de modèles](#) | [Vidéos](#) | [Webinars](#) | [Produits connexes](#) | [Dernières actus](#) | [Evaluation du produit](#)

Simulink Design Verifier™ utilise des **méthodes formelles** afin d'identifier les erreurs de conception cachées dans les modèles, le tout sans exécution de simulations extensives. Il détecte les blocs au sein du modèle qui entraînent des erreurs telles que le dépassement d'entier, la logique morte, les violations de l'accès aux tableaux, la division par zéro et les violations des spécifications. Pour chaque erreur rencontrée, il produit un cas de test de simulation permettant le débogage.

Simulink Design Verifier génère des jeux de tests pour la couverture de modèle et les objectifs personnalisés. Il vous permet également de compléter et développer les cas de test déjà existants. Grâce à ces cas de test, vous pouvez vous assurer que votre modèle satisfait aux conditions, décisions, conditions/décisions modifiées (MCDC) et objectifs de couverture personnalisés.

L'outil Model Slicer de Simulink Design Verifier isole les comportements problématiques au sein d'un modèle en combinant des analyses dynamiques et statiques. Il vous permet de mettre en

**Essayer ou Acheter**

[Contact commercial](#)

[Evaluation du produit](#)

[Tarifs et licences](#)

**Dernières actus**

de Jay Abraham, expert technique de Simulink Design Verifier

[Visionner les webinars enregistrés](#)

Systemerel Smart Solver, Vérification formelle de systèmes ou logiciels développés en SCADE, C, Ada - Mozilla Firefox

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## Systemerel Smart Solver



Vérification formelle de systèmes ou logiciels développés en SCADE, C, Ada

Systemerel propose une gamme de solutions éprouvées industriellement pour l'analyse statique ou la preuve formelle de systèmes ou de logiciels à l'aide de technologies à base de Model Checking.

Systemerel Smart Solver est un moteur d'analyse basé sur les technologies SAT.

### Une large gamme de services

Associé à des traducteurs et outils spécialisés, Systemerel Smart Solver offre une large gamme de services :

- Analyse statique de code
- Preuve de propriétés - certification
- Preuve des propriétés définies par l'utilisateur avec outils d'analyse de contre-exemples
- Génération automatique de tests (fonctionnels/structurels)

The CBMC Homepage - Mozilla Firefox

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www.cprover.org/cbmc/ glucose


**Quick Links**

- [Daniel Kroening](#)
- [Boolean Programs](#)
- [SMT Lists/Sets/Maps](#)
- [CProver Support Group](#)

**Tool Download**

- [CBMC](#)
- [SatAbs](#)
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- [EBMC](#)

**Book on Decision Procedures**




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## Carnegie Mellon

# CBMC

## Homepage

### Bounded Model Checking for Software





## About CBMC

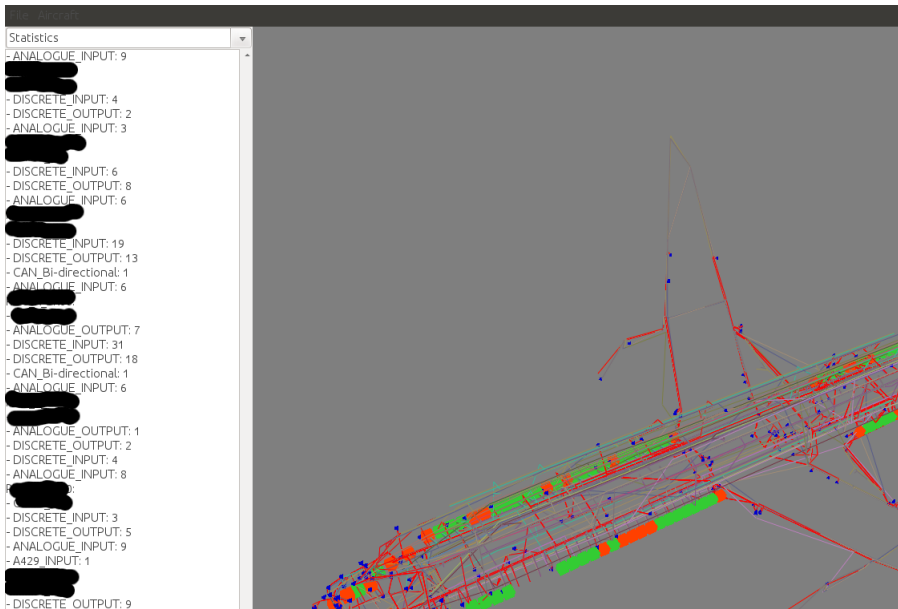
CBMC is a Bounded Model Checker for C and C++ programs. It supports C89, C99, most of C11 and most compiler extensions provided by gcc and Visual Studio. It also supports [SystemC](#) using [Scoop](#). It allows verifying array bounds (buffer overflows), pointer safety, exceptions and user-specified assertions. Furthermore, it can check C and C++ for consistency with other languages, such as Verilog. The verification is performed by unwinding the loops in the program and passing the resulting equation to a decision procedure.

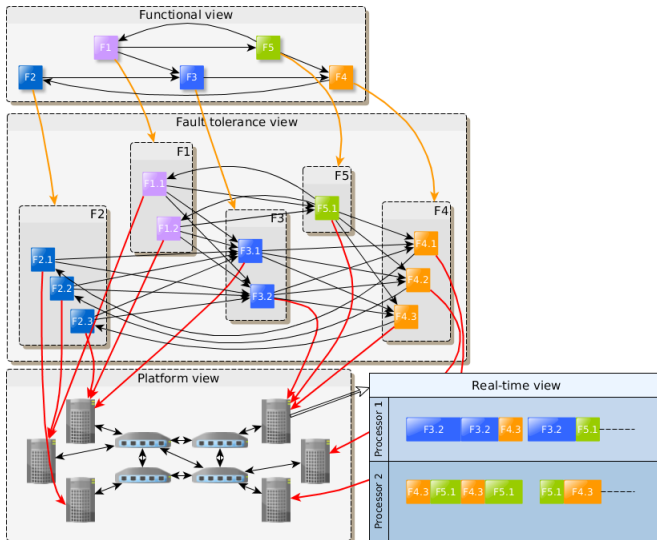
While CBMC is aimed for embedded software, it also supports dynamic memory allocation using malloc and new. For questions about CBMC, contact [Daniel Kroening](#).

CBMC is available for most flavours of Linux (pre-packaged on Debian and Fedora), Solaris 11, Windows and MacOS X. You should also read the [CBMC license](#).

CBMC comes with a built-in solver for bit-vector formulas that is based on MiniSat. As an alternative, CBMC has featured support for external SMT solvers since version 3.3. The solvers we recommend are (in no particular order) [Boolector](#), [MathSAT](#), [Yices 2](#) and [Z3](#). Note that these solvers need to be installed separately and have different licensing conditions.







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# DPPL algorithm

```
if (propagate(F, V) == CONFLICT) { return UNSAT; }
dl = 0;
while( !satisfied(F, V) ) {
    (x, p) = decide(F, V); // select variable and phase
    dl += 1;                // bump decision level
    V += (x -> p);          // extend assignment
    if (propagate(F, V) == CONFLICT) {
        (bl, ccl) = analyseConflict(F, V);
        if (bl < 0) { // backjump past root
            return UNSAT;
        } else { // backjump somewhere
            backjump(F, V, bl, ccl);
            dl = bl;
        }
    }
}
return SAT;
```

# Two watched literals

How to detect **efficiently** that a clause is **unit**?

- associate to each variable  $x_i$  the set  $C_{x_i}$  of clauses in which  $x_i$  appears
- for each  $c \in C_{x_i}$ , **watch two literals**  $l$  and  $l'$
- if  $x_i$  is assigned to  $T$  or  $F$ , for each  $c \in C_{x_i}$ 
  - if  $l$  (resp.  $l'$ ) is  $X$ , the clause is **not unit**
  - if  $l$  (resp.  $l'$ ) is  $T$  or  $F$ , look for another literal  $l''$  with value  $X$  in the clause
    - if such a literal exists, watch  $l''$  instead of  $l$  (resp.  $l'$ )
    - else,  $c$  is **unit**, propagate  $l'$  (resp.  $l$ ).

**Advantages:** locality, nothing to modify when backjumping!

# Clause learning

CDCL is performant mainly because it efficiently analyzes conflicts and learns clauses.

# Clause learning

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Some notations:

- **value fixing**

At decision level  $d$ , fixing  $x_i$  to  $T$  is noted  $x_i@d$ , fixing  $x_i$  to  $F$  is noted  $\bar{x}_i@d$

- **antecedents**

When the value of  $x_i$  is fixed by **propagation** through a unit clause  $c$ ,  $c$  is called the **antecedent** of  $x_i$

- **implication graph**

An implication graph is a graph in which

- nodes represent variables fixings at decision levels
- edges represent propagation and are labelled with antecedents
- decisions are nodes without antecedent

# Example

$$F = \{c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, c_5, c_6\}$$

$$c_1 = \{x_1, x_{31}, \bar{x}_2\}$$

$$c_2 = \{x_1, \bar{x}_3\}$$

$$c_3 = \{x_2, x_3, x_4\}$$

$$c_4 = \{\bar{x}_4, \bar{x}_5\}$$

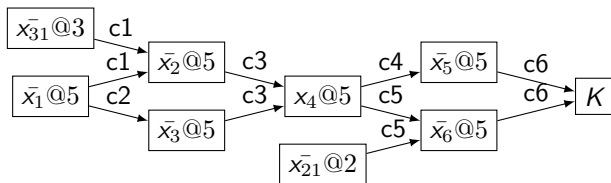
$$c_5 = \{x_{21}, \bar{x}_4, \bar{x}_6\}$$

$$c_6 = \{x_5, x_6\}$$

let us suppose that the decisions are the following:

- $x_{21}@2$
- $x_{31}@3$
- $\bar{x}_1@5$  (current level)

propagate deduces at the same time  $x_5$  and  $\bar{x}_5$ , or  $x_6$  and  $\bar{x}_6$ , i.e. a **conflict** ( $K$ ).



# Conflict analysis

Starting from the conflict clause, a clause avoiding the conflict by Resolution is built by following the antecedents in the implication graph:

$$\begin{aligned} K &\xrightarrow{\{x_5, x_6\}} \{x_5, x_6\} \xrightarrow{\{\bar{x}_4, \bar{x}_5\}} \{x_6, \bar{x}_4\} \xrightarrow{\{x_{21}, \bar{x}_4, \bar{x}_6\}} \{x_{21}, \bar{x}_4\} \xrightarrow{\{x_2, x_3, x_4\}} \\ &\{x_2, x_3, x_{21}\} \xrightarrow{\{x_1, \bar{x}_3\}} \{x_2, x_{21}, x_1\} \xrightarrow{\{x_1, x_{31}, \bar{x}_2\}} \{x_1, x_{21}, x_{31}\} \end{aligned}$$

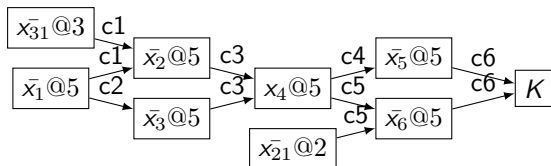
The conflict clause  $\{x_{21}, x_{31}, x_1\}$  is added in the base of clauses and we backtrack to a decision level s.t. the clause is **unit** (to use a different phase for at least one variable in the clause).

# Unique Implication Point

Reducing conflict clauses with Unique Implication Point (UIP):

- a UIP is a **dominant** of the conflict node in the propagation graph
- there is at least one UIP at each decision level (the decision itself)
- stop when the clause contains the first UIP of the current decision level and only decision variables from the lower levels

In the picture below,  $x_4@5$  is the first UIP of level 5. The conflict clause is  $\{x_{21}, \bar{x}_4\}$  instead of  $\{x_{21}, x_{31}, x_1\}$ .





# Dynamic decision heuristics

Score each variable in conflict clause via Variable State Independent Decaying Sum (VSIDS), first seen in Chaff (2000)

- each variable is associated to an activity counter, initialized to 0
- the counter is incremented each time the variable appears in a conflict clause
- each  $n$  conflicts, divide the activity of each variable by a constant to concentrate on most recent conflicts

A revolutionary idea for 2000, improved in Berkmin, MiniSat, picosat, etc.

# Phase heuristics

When backjumping, a part of the current solution is lost and this part could be coherent on a subset of the formula.

The “reasoning” must be redone several times.

**Idea:** when backjumping, save the current assignment of variables for **satisfied clauses** and use it as heuristics.

Allows to reuse lots of decisions.

# And more!

- restarting
- data structures
- clauses erasing
- etc.

# Conclusion

SAT solvers are used in real-life applications, particularly for formal methods:

- they can solve problems with billions of variables and clauses
- plenty of theories can be encoded in SAT:
  - arithmetics modulo  $2^n$
  - arithmetics with arbitrary precision
  - arrays
  - etc.
- lots of available solvers: zChaff, MiniSat, Glucose, SAT4J, Lingeling, ...
- an annual competition to test solvers, [SAT-COMP](#)