Developing Efficient SMT Solvers ESARLT 2007

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Introduction

- Satisfiability Modulo Theories (SMT)
 - ▶ The next generation of verification engines.
 - ▶ SAT solvers + Theories
 - Arithmetic
 - Arrays
 - Uninterpreted Functions
 - Some problems are more naturally expressed in SMT.
 - More automation.

Applications

- Applications have different requirements.
- Predicate abstraction
 - Fast when unsat.
 - May be incomplete.
 - Examples: Microsoft SLAM/SDV (device driver verification).
- Testing
 - Fast when sat.
 - Model generation.
 - May be unsound.
 - Examples: Microsoft MUTT and Sage.

Applications (cont.)

- Extended Static Checking.
 - Fast when sat & unsat.
 - Must be sound.
 - "Counterexamples" (execution trace).

 - ▶ Examples: ESC/Java, *Microsoft Spec# and ESP*.
- \blacktriangleright Bounded Model Checking (BMC) & k-induction.
- Planning & Scheduling.
- Symbolic Simulation.
- Equivalence Checking.

Roadmap

- Background
- Architecture
- ▶ Implementation Techniques
- Applications

Language

- A signature Σ is a finite set of: function symbols $\Sigma_F = \{f, g, \ldots\}$, predicate symbols $\Sigma_P = \{p, q, \ldots\}$, and an arity function $\Sigma \mapsto N$.
- Function symbols with arity 0 are called constants.
- A countable set $\mathcal V$ of *variables* $\{x,y,\ldots\}$ disjoint of Σ .
- Terms:

$$t := f(t_1, \dots, t_n) \mid x$$

▶ Formulas:

$$\phi := p(t_1, \dots, t_n) \mid \phi_1 \lor \phi_2 \mid \phi_1 \land \phi_2 \mid \neg \phi_1 \mid \exists x : \phi_1 \mid \forall x : \phi_1$$

- Free (occurrences) of variables in a formula are those not bound by a quantifier.
- A sentence is a first-order formula with no free variables.

Theories

- A (first-order) theory \mathcal{T} (over a signature Σ) is a set of (deductively closed) sentences (over Σ and \mathcal{V}).
- Let $\mathit{DC}(\Gamma)$ be the deductive closure of a set of sentences Γ .
 - For every theory \mathcal{T} , $\mathit{DC}(\mathcal{T}) = \mathcal{T}$.
- A theory $\mathcal T$ is *consistent* if *false* $otin \mathcal T$.
- We can view a (first-order) theory \mathcal{T} as the class of all *models* of \mathcal{T} (due to completeness of first-order logic).

Models (Semantics)

- lacktriangle A model M is defined as:
 - Domain S: set of elements.
 - Interpretation $f^M:S^n\mapsto S$ for each $f\in \Sigma_F$ with $\operatorname{\it arity}(f)=n.$
 - Interpretation $p^M \subseteq S^n$ for each $p \in \Sigma_P$ with arity(p) = n.
 - Assignment $x^M \in S$ for every variable $x \in \mathcal{V}$.
- \blacktriangleright A formula ϕ is true in a model M if it evaluates to true under the given interpretations over the domain S.
- lacktriangledown M is a model for the theory ${\mathcal T}$ if all sentences of ${\mathcal T}$ are true in M .

Satisfiability and Validity

A formula $\phi(\vec{x})$ is *satisfiable* in a theory \mathcal{T} if there is a model of $DC(\mathcal{T} \cup \exists \vec{x}.\phi(\vec{x}))$. That is, there is a model M for \mathcal{T} in which $\phi(\vec{x})$ evaluates to true, denoted by,

$$M \models_{\mathcal{T}} \phi(\vec{x})$$

- This is also called \mathcal{T} -satisfiability.
- A formula $\phi(\vec{x})$ is *valid* in a theory \mathcal{T} if $\forall \vec{x}. \phi(\vec{x}) \in \mathcal{T}$. That is $\phi(\vec{x})$ evaluates to true in every model M of \mathcal{T} .
- T-validity is denoted by $\models_{\mathcal{T}} \phi(\vec{x})$.
- The quantifier free T -satisfiability problem restricts ϕ to be quantifier free.

Combination of Theories

- In practice, we need a combination of theories.
- Examples:

 - $f(f(x) f(y)) \neq f(z), x + z \le y \le x \Rightarrow z < 0$
- Given

$$egin{array}{lcl} \Sigma &=& \Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2 \\ {\mathcal T}_1, {\mathcal T}_2 &: & ext{theories over } \Sigma_1, \Sigma_2 \\ {\mathcal T} &=& ext{DC}({\mathcal T}_1 \cup {\mathcal T}_2) \end{array}$$

- \blacktriangleright Is $\mathcal T$ consistent?
- Given satisfiability procedures for conjunction of literals of \mathcal{T}_1 and \mathcal{T}_2 , how to decide the satisfiability of \mathcal{T} ?

Preamble

- ▶ Disjoint signatures: $\Sigma_1 \cap \Sigma_2 = \emptyset$.
- Stably-Infinite Theories.
- Convex Theories.

Stably-Infinite Theories

- A theory is stably infinite if every satisfiable QFF is satisfiable in an infinite model.
- ▶ Example. Theories with only finite models are not stably infinite.

$$\mathcal{T}_2 = DC(\forall x, y, z. (x = y) \lor (x = z) \lor (y = z)).$$

The union of two consistent, disjoint, stably infinite theories is consistent.

Convexity

- A theory \mathcal{T} is *convex* iff for all finite sets Γ of literals and for all non-empty disjunctions $\bigvee_{i\in I} x_i = y_i$ of variables, $\Gamma \models_{\mathcal{T}} \bigvee_{i\in I} x_i = y_i$ iff $\Gamma \models_{\mathcal{T}} x_i = y_i$ for some $i\in I$.
- Every convex theory \mathcal{T} with non trivial models (i.e., $\models_T \exists x, y. \ x \neq y$) is stably infinite.
- All Horn theories are convex this includes all (conditional) equational theories.
- Linear rational arithmetic is convex.

Convexity (cont.)

- Many theories are not convex:
 - Linear integer arithmetic.

$$y = 1, z = 2, 1 \le x \le 2 \models x = y \lor x = z$$

Nonlinear arithmetic.

$$x^{2} = 1, y = 1, z = -1 \models x = y \lor x = z$$

- ▶ Theory of Bit-vectors.
- Theory of Arrays.

$$v_1 = \mathit{read}(\mathit{write}(a,i,v_2),j), v_3 = \mathit{read}(a,j) \models$$

$$v_1 = v_2 \lor v_1 = v_3$$

Convexity: Example

- Let $\mathcal{T}=\mathcal{T}_1\cup\mathcal{T}_2$, where \mathcal{T}_1 is EUF (O(nlog(n))) and \mathcal{T}_2 is IDL (O(nm)).
- \mathcal{T}_2 is not convex.
- Satisfiability is NP-Complete for $\mathcal{T}=\mathcal{T}_1\cup\mathcal{T}_2$.
 - \blacktriangleright Reduce 3CNF satisfiability to \mathcal{T} -satisfiability.
 - For each boolean variable p_i add the atomic formulas: $0 \le x_i, x_i \le 1$.
 - For a clause $p_1 \vee \neg p_2 \vee p_3$ add the atomic formula: $f(x_1, x_2, x_3) \neq f(0, 1, 0)$

Nelson-Oppen Combination

- Let \mathcal{T}_1 and \mathcal{T}_2 be consistent, stably infinite theories over disjoint (countable) signatures. Assume satisfiability of conjunction of literals can decided in $O(T_1(n))$ and $O(T_2(n))$ time respectively. Then,
 - 1. The combined theory \mathcal{T} is consistent and stably infinite.
 - 2. Satisfiability of quantifier free conjunction of literals in \mathcal{T} can be decided in $O(2^{n^2} \times (T_1(n) + T_2(n))$.
 - 3. If \mathcal{T}_1 and \mathcal{T}_2 are convex, then so is \mathcal{T} and satisfiability in \mathcal{T} is in $O(n^4 \times (T_1(n) + T_2(n)))$.

Nelson-Oppen Combination Procedure

▶ The combination procedure:

Initial State: ϕ is a conjunction of literals over $\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$.

Purification: Preserving satisfiability transform ϕ into $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$, such that, $\phi_i \in \Sigma_i$.

Interaction: Guess a partition of $\mathcal{V}(\phi_1) \cap \mathcal{V}(\phi_2)$ into disjoint subsets. Express it as conjunction of literals ψ . Example. The partition $\{x_1\}, \{x_2, x_3\}, \{x_4\}$ is represented as $x_1 \neq x_2, x_1 \neq x_4, x_2 \neq x_4, x_2 = x_3$.

Component Procedures : Use individual procedures to decide whether $\phi_i \wedge \psi$ is satisfiable.

Return: If both return yes, return yes. No, otherwise.

Purification

Purification:

$$\phi \wedge P(\dots, s[t], \dots) \leadsto \phi \wedge P(\dots, s[x], \dots) \wedge x = t,$$
 t is not a variable.

- Purification is satisfiability preserving and terminating.
- As most of the SMT developers will tell you, the purification step is not really necessary.
- Given a set of mixed (impure) literal Γ , define a *shared term* to be any term in Γ which is *alien* in some literal or sub-term in Γ .
- In our examples, these were the terms replaced by constants.
- Assume that each satisfiability procedure treats alien terms as constants.

- Each step is satisfiability preserving.
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 - Purification: $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$ is satisfiable.
 - Iteration: for some partition ψ , $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2 \wedge \psi$ is satisfiable.
 - ▶ Component procedures: $\phi_1 \wedge \psi$ and $\phi_2 \wedge \psi$ are both satisfiable in component theories.
 - Therefore, if the procedure return unsatisfiable, then ϕ is unsatisfiable.

- Suppose the procedure returns satisfiable.
 - Let ψ be the partition and A and B be models of $\mathcal{T}_1 \wedge \phi_1 \wedge \psi$ and $\mathcal{T}_2 \wedge \phi_2 \wedge \psi$.

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 - Let h be a bijection between S_A and S_B such that $h(x^A) = x^B$ for each shared variable.
 - Extend B to \bar{B} by interpretations of symbols in Σ_1 : $f^{\bar{B}}(b_1,\ldots,b_n)=h(f^A(h^{-1}(b_1),\ldots,h^{-1}(b_n)))$

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 - ▶ *B* is a model of:

$$\mathcal{T}_1 \wedge \phi_1 \wedge \mathcal{T}_2 \wedge \phi_2 \wedge \psi$$

NO deterministic procedure

▶ Instead of *guessing*, we can *deduce* the equalities to be shared.

Purification: no changes.

Interaction: Deduce an equality x = y:

$$\mathcal{T}_1 \vdash (\phi_1 \Rightarrow x = y)$$

Update $\phi_2 := \phi_2 \wedge x = y$. And vice-versa. Repeat until no further changes.

Component Procedures : Use individual procedures to decide whether ϕ_i is satisfiable.

▶ Remark: $\mathcal{T}_i \vdash (\phi_i \Rightarrow x = y)$ iff $\phi_i \land x \neq y$ is not satisfiable in \mathcal{T}_i .

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 - ▶ The proof now is identical to the nondeterministic case.
 - Sharing equalities is sufficient, because a theory \mathcal{T}_1 can assume that $x^B \neq y^B$ whenever x=y is not implied by \mathcal{T}_2 and vice versa.

Roadmap

- Background
- Implementing SMT solvers
- Applications

Architecture

- Preprocessor/Simplifier.
- > SAT solver.
- ▶ Blackboard: "bus" used to connect the theories.
- Theories:
 - Arithmetic,
 - Bit-vectors,
 - Arrays,
 - etc.
- Heuristic quantifier instantiation.

Preprocessor/Simplifier

- Apply simplification rules:
 - Normalization:
 - Sort arguments of commutative operators.
 - Flat associative operators:

$$\mathit{or}(p_1,\mathit{or}(p_2,p_3)) \leadsto \mathit{or}(p_1,p_2,p_3)$$

Rewrite arithmetic expressions as sums of monomials.

$$x(y+3) = 5 \rightsquigarrow 3x + xy = 5$$

- Hash-consing.
- Lift term if-then-else.
- $x = t \wedge C[x] \leadsto C[t].$
- etc.

Preprocessor/Simplifier

- CNF translation.
- Rewrite formula to simplify atoms that are asserted during the search.
- Example:

$$x \ge 0 \land (x + y \le 2 \lor x + 2y \ge 6) \land (x + y = 2 \lor x + 2y > 4)$$

$$(s_1 = x + y \land s_2 = x + 2y) \land$$

$$(x \ge 0 \land (s_1 \le 2 \lor s_2 \ge 6) \land (s_1 = 2 \lor s_2 > 4))$$

- Only bounds (e.g., $s_1 \le 2$) are asserted during the search.
- Unconstrained variables can be eliminated before the beginning of the search.

SMT solvers before SAT breakthrough

- Ad-hoc support for boolean combination of literals.
- Ad-hoc support for (non-convex) theories.
- "Case-splits" should be avoided.
- Few real benchmarks.
- Breakthrough in SAT solving changed everything.

Breakthrough in SAT solving

- Breakthrough in SAT solving influenced the way SMT solvers are implemented.
- Modern SAT solvers are based on the DPLL algorithm.
- Modern implementations add several sophisticated search techniques.
 - Backjumping
 - Learning
 - Restarts
 - Watched literals

The Original DPLL Procedure

- lacktriangleright DPLL tries to build incrementally a satisfying truth assignment M for a CNF formula F.
- lacksquare M is grown by
 - lacktriangle deducing the truth value of a literal from M and F, or
 - guessing a truth value.
- If a wrong guess leads to an inconsistency, the procedure backtracks and tries the opposite one.

Lazy approach: SAT solvers + Theories

- This approach was independently developed by several groups: CVC (Stanford), ICS (SRI), MathSAT (Univ. Trento, Italy), and Verifun (HP).
- It was motivated also by the breakthroughs in SAT solving.
- SAT solver "manages" the boolean structure, and assigns truth values to the atoms in a formula.
- Efficient theory solvers are used to validate the (partial) assignment produced by the SAT solver.
- When theory solver detects unsatisfiability → a new clause (*lemma*) is created.

SAT solvers + Theories (cont.)

- Example:
 - Suppose the SAT solver assigns

$$\{x=y\to T, y=z\to T, f(x)=f(z)\to F\}.$$

- ▶ Theory solver detects the conflict, and a *lemma* is created $\neg(x=y) \lor \neg(y=z) \lor f(x) = f(z)$.
- Some theory solvers use the "proof" of the conflict to build the lemma.
- Problems in these tools:
 - ▶ The lemmas are imprecise (not minimal).
 - The theory solver is "passive": it just detects conflicts. There is no propagation step.
 - Backtracking is expensive, some tools restart from scratch when a conflict is detected.

Blackboard/Bus

- ▶ The Blackboard/Bus stores the equalities/disequalities known by the solver.
- ▶ The set of known equalities is represented as a set of equivalence classes.
 - Union-Find data structure.
- ▶ The bus is used to connect the theories.

Combining theories in practice

- Propagate all implied equalities.
 - Deterministic Nelson-Oppen.
 - Complete only for convex theories.
 - It may be expensive for some theories.
- Delayed Theory Combination.
 - Nondeterministic Nelson-Oppen.
 - Create set of interface equalities (x = y) between shared variables.
 - Use SAT solver to guess the partition.
 - Disadvantage: the number of additional equality literals is quadratic in the number of shared variables.

Combining theories in practice (cont.)

- Common to these methods is that they are pessimistic about which equalities are propagated.
- Model-based Theory Combination
 - Optimistic approach.
 - $lackbox{ Use a candidate model } M_i$ for one of the theories \mathcal{T}_i and propagate all equalities implied by the candidate model, hedging that other theories will agree.

if
$$M_i \models \mathcal{T}_i \cup \Gamma_i \cup \{u=v\}$$
 then propagate $u=v$.

- If not, use backtracking to fix the model.
- It is cheaper to enumerate equalities that are implied in a particular model than of all models.

$$x = f(y - 1), f(x) \neq f(y), 0 \le x \le 1, 0 \le y \le 1$$

Purifying

$$x = f(z), f(x) \neq f(y), 0 \le x \le 1, 0 \le y \le 1, z = y - 1$$

${\mathcal T}_{\mathcal E}$			${\mathcal T}_{\mathcal A}$	
Literals	Eq. Classes	Model	Literals	Model
x = f(z)	$\{x, f(z)\}$	$x^{\mathcal{E}} = *_1$	$0 \le x \le 1$	$x^{\mathcal{A}} = 0$
$f(x) \neq f(y)$	$\{y\}$	$y^{\mathcal{E}} = *_2$	$0 \le y \le 1$	$y^{\mathcal{A}} = 0$
	$\{z\}$	$z^{\mathcal{E}} = *_3$	z = y - 1	$z^{\mathcal{A}} = -1$
	$\{f(x)\}$	$f^{\mathcal{E}} = \{ *_1 \mapsto *_4,$		
	$\{f(y)\}$	$*_2 \mapsto *_5,$		
		$*_3 \mapsto *_1,$		
		$\textit{else} \mapsto *_6\}$		

Assume x = y

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$f(x) \neq f(y)$	$\{z\}$	$y^{\mathcal{E}} = *_1$	$0 \le y \le 1$	$y^{\mathcal{A}} = 0$
x = y	$\{f(x), f(y)\}$	$z^{\mathcal{E}} = *_2$	z = y - 1	$z^{\mathcal{A}} = -1$
		$f^{\mathcal{E}} = \{ *_1 \mapsto *_3,$	x = y	
		$*_2 \mapsto *_1,$		
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Unsatisfiable

${\mathcal T}_{\mathcal E}$			${\mathcal T}_{\mathcal A}$	
Literals	Eq. Classes	Model	Literals	Model
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		else $\mapsto *_6$		

Backtrack, and assert $x \neq y$.

 $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{A}}$ model need to be fixed.

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		$\textit{else} \mapsto *_6\}$		

Assume x = z

	${\mathcal T}_{\mathcal A}$			
Literals	Eq. Classes	Model	Literals	Model
x = f(z)	$\left\{ x, z, f(x), f(z) \right\}$	$x^{\mathcal{E}} = *_1$	$0 \le x \le 1$	$x^{\mathcal{A}} = 0$
$f(x) \neq f(y)$	$\{y\}$	$y^{\mathcal{E}} = *_2$	$0 \le y \le 1$	$y^{\mathcal{A}} = 1$
$x \neq y$	$\{f(y)\}$	$z^{\mathcal{E}} = *_1$	z = y - 1	$z^{\mathcal{A}} = 0$
x = z		$f^{\mathcal{E}} = \{ *_1 \mapsto *_1,$	$x \neq y$	
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Satisfiable

	${\mathcal T}_{\mathcal A}$			
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Let h be the bijection between $S_{\mathcal{E}}$ and $S_{\mathcal{A}}$.

$$h = \{ *_1 \mapsto 0, *_2 \mapsto 1, *_3 \mapsto -1, *_4 \mapsto 2, \ldots \}$$

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	$\textit{else} \mapsto *_4\}$		$\textit{else} \mapsto 2\}$

Extending A using h.

$$h = \{ *_1 \mapsto 0, *_2 \mapsto 1, *_3 \mapsto -1, *_4 \mapsto 2, \ldots \}$$

Simplex: a model base theory solver

lacktriangle Tableau: ${\cal B}$ and ${\cal N}$ denote the set of basic and nonbasic variables.

$$x_i = \sum_{x_i \in \mathcal{N}} a_{ij} x_j \quad x_i \in \mathcal{B},$$

- Solver stores upper and lower bounds l_i and u_i , and a mapping β that assigns a value $\beta(x_i)$ to every variable.
- The bounds on nonbasic variables are always satisfied by β , that is, the following invariant is maintained

$$\forall x_j \in \mathcal{N}, \ l_j \leq \beta(x_j) \leq u_j.$$

lacktriangle Bounds constraints for basic variables are not necessarily satisfied by eta, but pivoting steps can be used to fix bounds violations.

Simplex: a model based theory solver

- The current model for the simplex solver is given by β .
- Bound propagation
 - Equations + Bounds can be used to derive new bounds.
 - Example: x = y z, $y \le 2$, $z \ge 3 \rightsquigarrow x \le -1$.

Opportunistic equality propagation

- ▶ Efficient (and incomplete) methods for propagating equalities.
- Notation
 - A variable x_i is *fixed* iff $l_i = u_i$.
 - A linear polynomial $\sum_{x_j \in \mathcal{V}} a_{ij} x_j$ is fixed iff x_j is fixed or $a_{ij} = 0$.
 - Given a linear polynomial $P=\sum_{x_j\in\mathcal{V}}a_{ij}x_j$, $\beta(P)$ denotes $\sum_{x_j\in\mathcal{V}}a_{ij}\beta(x_j)$.

Opportunistic equality propagation

Equality propagation in arithmetic:

FixedEq

$$l_i \leq x_i \leq u_i, \ l_j \leq x_j \leq u_j \Longrightarrow \ x_i = x_j \ \text{if} \ l_i = u_i = l_j = u_j$$

EqRow

$$x_i = x_j + P$$
 $\Longrightarrow x_i = x_j$ if P is fixed, and $\beta(P) = 0$

EqOffsetRows

$$x_i = x_k + P_1 \\ x_j = x_k + P_2 \qquad \Longrightarrow \quad x_i = x_j \quad \text{if} \quad \begin{cases} P_1 \text{ and } P_2 \text{ are fixed, and} \\ \beta(P_1) = \beta(P_2) \end{cases}$$

EqRows

$$x_i=P+P_1 \implies x_i=x_j \text{ if } \begin{cases} P_1 \text{ and } P_2 \text{ are fixed, and} \\ \beta(P_1)=\beta(P_2) \end{cases}$$

Opportunistic theory/equality propagation

- These rules can miss some implied equalities.
- lacktriangle Example: z=w is detected, but x=y is not because w is not a fixed variable.

$$x = y + w + s$$

$$z = w + s$$

$$0 \le z$$

$$w \le 0$$

$$0 \le s \le 0$$

Remark: bound propagation can be used imply the bound $0 \le w$, making w a fixed variable.

Non Stably-Infinite Theories in practice

- Bit-vector theory is not stably-infinite.
- How can we support it?
- Solution: add a predicate is-bv(x) to the bit-vector theory (intuition: is-bv(x) is true iff x is a bitvector).
- ▶ The result of the bit-vector operation op(x, y) is not specified if $\neg is-bv(x)$ or $\neg is-bv(y)$.
- ▶ The new bit-vector theory is stably-infinite.

Precise Lemmas

Lemma:

$$\{a_1 = \mathit{T}, a_1 = \mathit{F}, a_3 = \mathit{F}\}$$
 is inconsistent $\leadsto \neg a_1 \lor a_2 \lor a_3$

- lacktriangle An inconsistent A set is *redundant* if $A' \subset A$ is also inconsistent.
- ▶ Redundant inconsistent sets → Imprecise Lemmas → Ineffective pruning of the search space.
- Noise of a redundant set: $A \setminus A_{min}$.
- ▶ The imprecise lemma is useless in any context (partial assignment) where an atom in the noise has a different assignment.
- ▶ Example: suppose a_1 is in the noise, then $\neg a_1 \lor a_2 \lor a_3$ is useless when $a_1 = F$.

Precise Lemmas

- Simple approach: track dependencies.
- Record the antecedents ψ_1, \ldots, ψ_n of a consequent ϕ .
- It is the same approach used in SAT solvers: Record the clause $C \vee l$ used to imply a literal l.
- It may be imprecise.

$$x + w + 3 = 0$$
 (1)
 $x + z + 1 = 0$ (2)
 $x + y + 1 = 0$ (3)

$$x + w + 3 = 0$$
 (1)

$$x + z + 1 = 0$$
 (2)

$$x + y + 1 = 0$$
 (3)

$$-w + z - 2 = 0$$
 (4) = (2) - (1)

$$x + w + 3 = 0$$

$$x + z + 1 = 0$$

$$x + y + 1 = 0$$

$$-w + z - 2 = 0$$

$$-w + y - 2 = 0$$

$$(1)$$

$$(2)$$

$$(3)$$

$$(4) = (2) - (1)$$

$$(5) = (3) - (1)$$

$$x + w + 3 = 0$$

$$x + z + 1 = 0$$

$$x + y + 1 = 0$$

$$-w + z - 2 = 0$$

$$-w + y - 2 = 0$$

$$y - z = 0$$

$$(1)$$

$$(2)$$

$$(3)$$

$$(3)$$

$$(4) = (2) - (1)$$

$$(5) = (3) - (1)$$

$$(6) = (5) - (4)$$

▶ Example: assume equations (1), (2) and (3) were asserted into the logical context.

$$x + w + 3 = 0$$

$$x + z + 1 = 0$$

$$x + y + 1 = 0$$

$$-w + z - 2 = 0$$

$$-w + y - 2 = 0$$

$$y - z = 0$$

$$(1)$$

$$(2)$$

$$(3)$$

$$(3)$$

$$(4) = (2) - (1)$$

$$(5) = (3) - (1)$$

$$(6) = (5) - (4)$$

• Equation (6) implies that y = z. It depends on (1), (2), and (3).

$$x + w + 3 = 0$$

$$x + z + 1 = 0$$

$$x + y + 1 = 0$$

$$-w + z - 2 = 0$$

$$-w + y - 2 = 0$$

$$y - z = 0$$

$$(1)$$

$$(2)$$

$$(3)$$

$$(3)$$

$$(4) = (2) - (1)$$

$$(5) = (3) - (1)$$

$$(6) = (5) - (4)$$

- ▶ Equation (6) implies that y = z. It depends on (1), (2), and (3).
- Equation (1) is not necessary to derive y=z.

Precise Lemmas: auxiliary variables

Use <u>auxiliary/zero variables</u> to "name" linear polynomials.

$$x + w + 3 = s_1$$

$$x + z + 1 = s_2$$

$$x + y + 1 = s_3$$

Precise Lemmas: auxiliary variables

Use <u>auxiliary/zero variables</u> to "name" linear polynomials.

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 x + w + 3 & = & s_1 \\
 x + z + 1 & = & s_2 \\
 x + y + 1 & = & s_3 \\
 -w + z - 2 & = & s_2 - s_1
 \end{array}$$

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$$-w + y - 2 = s_{3} - s_{1}$$

$$y - z = s_{3} - s_{1} - s_{2} + s_{1}$$

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lacktriangle The last equation implies y=z when s_2 and s_3 are equal to 0.

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$$-w + y - 2 = s_3 - s_1$$

$$y - z = s_3 - s_2$$

- ▶ The last equation implies y = z when s_2 and s_3 are equal to 0.
- This is the approach used in the Simplex based solver.
- A similar approach is used to implement incremental SAT solvers.

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$$x_i=x_k+P_1 \Longrightarrow x_i=x_j \text{ if } \begin{cases} P_1 \text{ and } P_2 \text{ are fixed, and} \\ \beta(P_1)=\beta(P_2) \end{cases}$$

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- Valley proof problem. Example: arithmetic propagated $x_1 = x_2$ and $x_1 = x_3$ using the rule above.

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- The union of the explanations for the lower and upper bounds of $x \in \mathit{vars}(P_1) \cup \mathit{vars}(P_2)$.
- Valley proof problem. Example: arithmetic propagated $x_1 = x_2$ and $x_1 = x_3$ using the rule above.
- What is the "explanation" for $x_2 = x_3$?

Efficient Backtracking

- One of the most important improvements in SAT was efficient backtracking.
- Until recently, backtracking was ignored in the design of theory solvers.
- Extreme (inefficient) approach: restart from scratch on every conflict.
- Other approaches:
 - Functional data-structures.
 - Backtrackable data-structures
 - Trail-stack.
- Restore to a logically equivalent state.

Reduction Functions

- A *reduction function* reduces the satisfiability problem for a theory \mathcal{T}_1 to the satisfiability problem of a simpler theory \mathcal{T}_2 .
- Reduction functions simplify the implementation.
- Potential disadvantages:
 - "Information loss".
 - Eager addition of irrelevant information.
- Theory of commutative functions.
 - ▶ Deductive closure of: $\forall x, y. f(x, y) = f(y, x)$
 - Reduction to $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{E}}$.
 - For every f(a,b) in ϕ , add the equality f(a,b)=f(b,a).

Reduction Functions: Ackermann's reduction

- Ackermann's reduction is used to remove uninterpreted functions.
 - For each application $f(\vec{a})$ in ϕ create a fresh variable $f_{\vec{a}}$.
 - For each pair of applications $f(\vec{a})$, $f(\vec{c})$ in ϕ add the clause $\vec{a} \neq \vec{c} \lor f_{\vec{a}} = f_{\vec{c}}$.
 - Replace $f(\vec{a})$ with $f_{\vec{a}}$ in ϕ .
- It is used in some SMT solvers to reduce $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{LA}} \cup \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{E}}$ to $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{LA}}$.
- Main problem: quadratic number of new clauses.
- It is also problematic to use this approach in the context of several theories and when combining SMT solvers with quantifier instantiation.

Reduction Functions: Ackermann's reduction

Congruence closure based algorithms miss the following inference rule

$$f(\overline{n}) \neq f(\overline{m}) \implies \bigvee n_i \neq m_i$$

Following simple formula takes $\mathcal{O}(2^N)$ time to be solved using SAT + Congruence closure.

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N} (p_i \vee x_i = v_0), \ (\neg p_i \vee x_i = v_1), \ (p_i \vee y_i = v_0), \ (\neg p_i \vee y_i = v_1),$$
$$f(x_N, \dots, f(x_2, x_1) \dots) \neq f(y_N, \dots, f(y_2, y_1) \dots)$$

- It can be solved in polynomial time with Ackermann's reduction.
- A similar behavior is also observed in several pipeline verification problems.

Dynamic Ackermann's reduction

- This performance problem reflects a limitation in the current congruence closure algorithms used in SMT solvers.
- It is not related with the theory combination problem.
- Dynamic Ackermannization: clauses corresponding to Ackermann's reduction are added when a congruence rule participates in a conflict.

	CC		Ack		Dyn Ack	
	conflicts	time (s)	conflicts	time (s)	conflicts	time (s)
c10bi	217232	143.87	6880	6.09	5885	1.75
f10id	> 8752181	> 1800	22038	16.20	21220	7.20

Modularity issues

- Modular implementations are attractive.
- Potential problem: theories fail to share relevant information.
 - *Arithmetic:* i = s + 1, j = s + 2
 - Array theory:

$$v_1 = read(write(a_0, i, v_0), j), v_2 = read(a_0, j).$$

- Arithmetic implies $i \neq j$. If this disequality is shared with array theory, then $v_1 = v_2$.
- It is infeasible to propagate all implied disequalities.
- Blackboard solution:
 - Theories post on the blackboard the equations they are "interested".

Delaying inference rules

- ▶ A commonly used approach: delay the application of "expensive" inference rules.
- Examples:
 - Inference rules that produce new case-splits.
 - Non-linear arithmetic.
- Potential problem: solver may waste time searching an infeasible part of the search space.

Quantifiers

- Since first-order logic is undecidable, satisfiability is not solvable for arbitrary quantified formulas.
- Some theories, e.g., datatypes, linear arithmetic over integers, arithmetic over reals, support quantifier elimination.
- Existential quantifiers can be skolemized, but the problem of instantiating universal quantifiers for detecting unsatisfiability remains.

Heuristic Quantifier Instantiation

- Semantically, $\forall x_1, \dots, x_n.F$ is equivalent to the infinite conjunction $\bigwedge_{\beta} \beta(F)$.
- Solvers use heuristics to select from this infinite conjunction those instances that are "relevant".
- The key idea is to treat an instance $\beta(F)$ as relevant whenever it contains enough terms that are represented in the solver state.
- Non ground terms p from F are selected as patterns.
- *E-matching* (matching modulo equalities) is used to find instances of the patterns.
- **Example:** f(a,b) matches the pattern f(g(x),x) if a=g(b).

E-matching

- ▶ E-matching is NP-hard.
- The number of matches can be exponential.
- ▶ It is not refutationally complete.
- In practice:
 - Indexing techniques for fast retrieval.
 - Incremental E-matching.

E-matching: example

- $\forall x. f(g(x)) = x$
- ▶ Pattern: f(g(x))
- lacksquare instantiate f(g(b)) = b

Quantifiers in Z3

- Z3 uses a E-matching abstract machine.
 - ▶ Patterns ~> code sequence.
 - Abstract machine executes the code.
- ▶ Z3 uses new algorithms that identify matches on E-graphs incrementally and efficiently.
 - ▶ E-matching code trees.
 - Inverted path index.
- Z3 garbage collects clauses, together with their atoms and terms, that were useless in closing branches.

E-matching code trees

- In practice, there are several similar patterns.
- Idea: combine several code sequences in a code tree.
- Factor out redundant work.
- Match several patterns simultaneously.
- Saturation based theorem provers use a different kind of code tree to implement:
 - Forward subsumption.
 - Forward demodulation.

Incremental E-matching

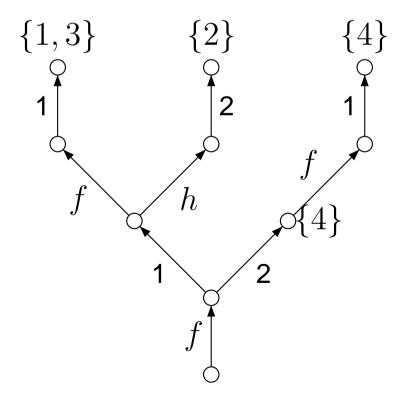
- Z3 uses a backtracking search.
- New terms are created during the search.
 - A code tree for each function symbol f.

 Patterns that start with a f-application.
 - Execute code-tree for each new term.
- New equalities are asserted during the search.
 - New equalities → new E-matching instances.
 - Example:

$$f(a,b)$$
 matches $f(g(x),x)$ after $a=g(b)$ is asserted.

Inverted path index

- It is used to find which patterns may have new instances after an equality is asserted.
- Inverted path index for pc-pair (f,g) and patterns $f(f(g(x),a),x),\,h(c,f(g(y),x)),\,f(f(g(x),b),y),\,f(f(a,g(x)),g(y)).$



E-matching limitations

- E-matching needs ground (seed) terms.
 - It fails to prove simple properties when ground (seed) terms are not available.
 - Example:

$$(\forall x. f(x) \le 0) \land (\forall x. f(x) > 0)$$

Matching loops

$$(\forall x. f(x) = g(f(x))) \land (\forall x. g(x) = f(g(x)))$$

- Inefficiency and/or non-termination.
- Some solvers have support for detecting matching loops based on instantiation chain length.

Quantifiers: future work

- Model checking.
- Superposition calculus + SMT.
- Decidable fragments.

Roadmap

- Background
- Architecture
- Applications

Spec#: Extended Static Checking

- http://research.microsoft.com/specsharp/
- Superset of C#
 - non-null types
 - pre- and postconditions
 - object invariants
- Static program verification
- Example:

Spec#: Architecture

Verification condition generation:

Spec# compiler: Spec# → MSIL (bytecode).

Bytecode translator: MSIL → Boogie PL.

V.C. generator: Boogie PL → SMT formula.

- SMT solver is used to prove the verification conditions.
- Counterexamples are traced back to the source code.
- ▶ The formulas produces by Spec# are not quantifier free.

SLAM: device driver verification

- http://research.microsoft.com/slam/
- SLAM/SDV is a software model checker.
- Application domain: device drivers.
- Architecture
 - c2bp C program → boolean program (*predicate abstraction*).
 bebop Model checker for boolean programs.
 newton Model refinement (*check for path feasibility*)
- SMT solvers are used to perform predicate abstraction and to check path feasibility.
- c2bp makes several calls to the SMT solver. The formulas are relatively small.

MUTT: MSIL Unit Testing Tools

- http://research.microsoft.com/projects/mutt
- Unit tests are popular, but it is far from trivial to write them.
- It is quite laborious to write enough of them to have confidence in the correctness of an implementation.
- Approach: symbolic execution.
- Symbolic execution builds a path condition over the input symbols.
- A path condition is a mathematical formula that encodes data constraints that result from executing a given code path.

MUTT: MSIL Unit Testing Tools

- When symbolic execution reaches a if-statement, it will explore two execution paths:
 - 1. The if-condition is conjoined to the path condition for the then-path.
 - 2. The negated condition to the path condition of the else-path.
- SMT solver must be able to produce models.
- SMT solver is also used to test path feasibility.

Conclusion

- SMT is the next generation of verification engines.
- More automation: it is push-button technology.
- SMT solvers are used in different applications.
- ▶ The breakthrough in SAT solving influenced the new generation of SMT solvers:
 - Precise lemmas.
 - Theory Propagation.
 - Incrementality.
 - Efficient Backtracking.
- Z3 website:

http://research.microsoft.com/projects/z3