

# **SAT Solvers: In Practice**

**Type Theory and Mechanized Reasoning  
Lecture 8**

# Introduction

# Administrivia

Homework 2 is due on Thursday 11:59PM. Homework 3 will be released on Thursday (Tomorrow).

I will post about the **Final Project** on Friday. The rough outline:

- » Groups of 1, 2, or 3
- » Implementation, Proof, or Survey
- » Weekly assignments will include progress reports
- » By next week, you should have a group and a rough idea

# Objectives

Finish our discussion on **DPLL**.

Talk about **encoding** with CNF formulas.

Build a **sudoku solver** with a SAT solver.

# Agda Tutorial: Implicit Arguments

# Recall: Polymorphism

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This is an example of **parametric polymorphism** which means that the definition of **k** is *completely agnostic to the types **A** and **B**.*



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So we can replace them with wildcards in the definition of **k**.

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This solving process is call *unification*.

# Unification and Implicit Arguments

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$c : \{A\ B\ C : \text{Set}\} \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C)$   
 $c\ f\ g\ x = g\ (f\ x)$

$i : \{A : \text{Set}\} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A$   
 $i\ x = x$

$f : \{A\ B : \text{Set}\} \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$   
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We will not cover unification, but hopefully we can intuit it somewhat.

When a value can be solved via unification, then can made implicit without issues.

# An Example with Dependent Types

```
head : {A : Set} -> {n : Nat} -> Vec A (suc n) -> A  
head (x :: _) = x
```

```
foo : Nat  
foo = head (1 :: 2 :: [])
```

After applying head to a value, the input `n` can be `solved`, so it can be made `implicit`.

# Passing in Implicit Arguments

```
allVals : {n : Nat} -> List (Vec Bool n)
allVals {zero} = [] :: []
allVals {suc n} = go (allVals {n}) where
  go : List (Vec Bool n) -> List (Vec Bool (suc n))
  go [] = []
  go (x :: xs) = (true :: x) :: (false :: x) :: go xs
```

It is occasionally necessary to work **directly** with implicit arguments. To do this, we pass in values with `{_}`'s.

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# The Takeaway

$$k : (A : \text{Set}) \rightarrow (B : \text{Set}) \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$$
$$k \_ \_ x y = x$$

If you can pass a `wildcard` for argument in the definition of a function, it can be made implicit.

(Even if you can't it may still be useful).

# Question

```
foo : Bool -> Set  
foo true = Nat  
foo false = Nat
```

```
bar : (b : Bool) -> foo b -> Nat  
bar true x = x  
bar false x = x
```

*Can **b** in **bar** be made implicit?*

# Recap: SAT Solvers



# Recall: Satisfiability

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Example.  $(x \vee y) \wedge (\neg x \vee y) \wedge (\neg x \vee \neg y)$  is satisfied by

$$v(y) = \text{true} \quad v(x) = \text{false} \quad v(\_) = \text{false}$$

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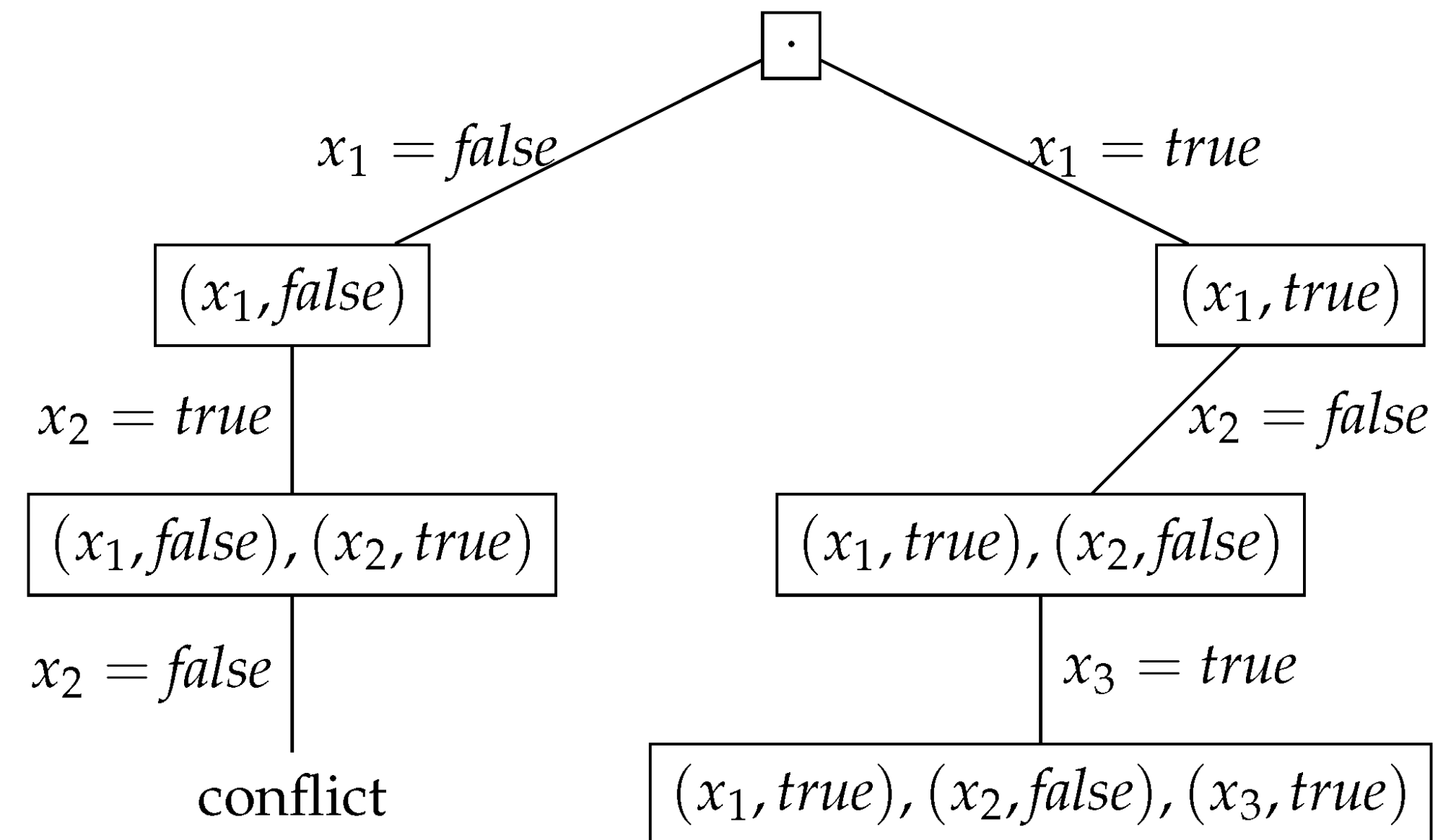
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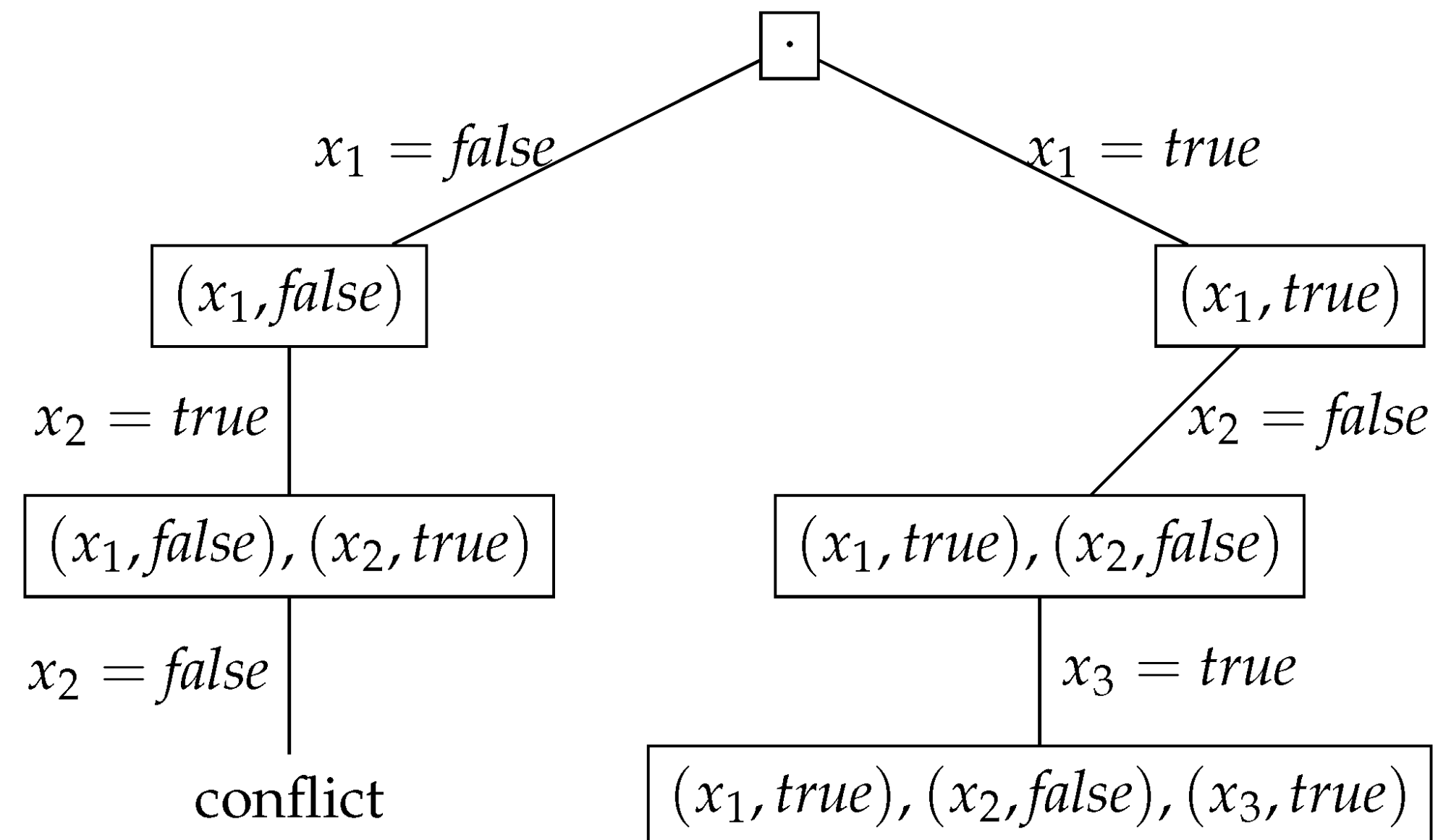
*Given a CNF formula  $\phi$ , determine a satisfying assignment for  $\phi$  or determine that no such satisfying assignment exists.*

Another view. Can we find an assignment which satisfies **at least one literal of every clause**?

# Recall: DPLL

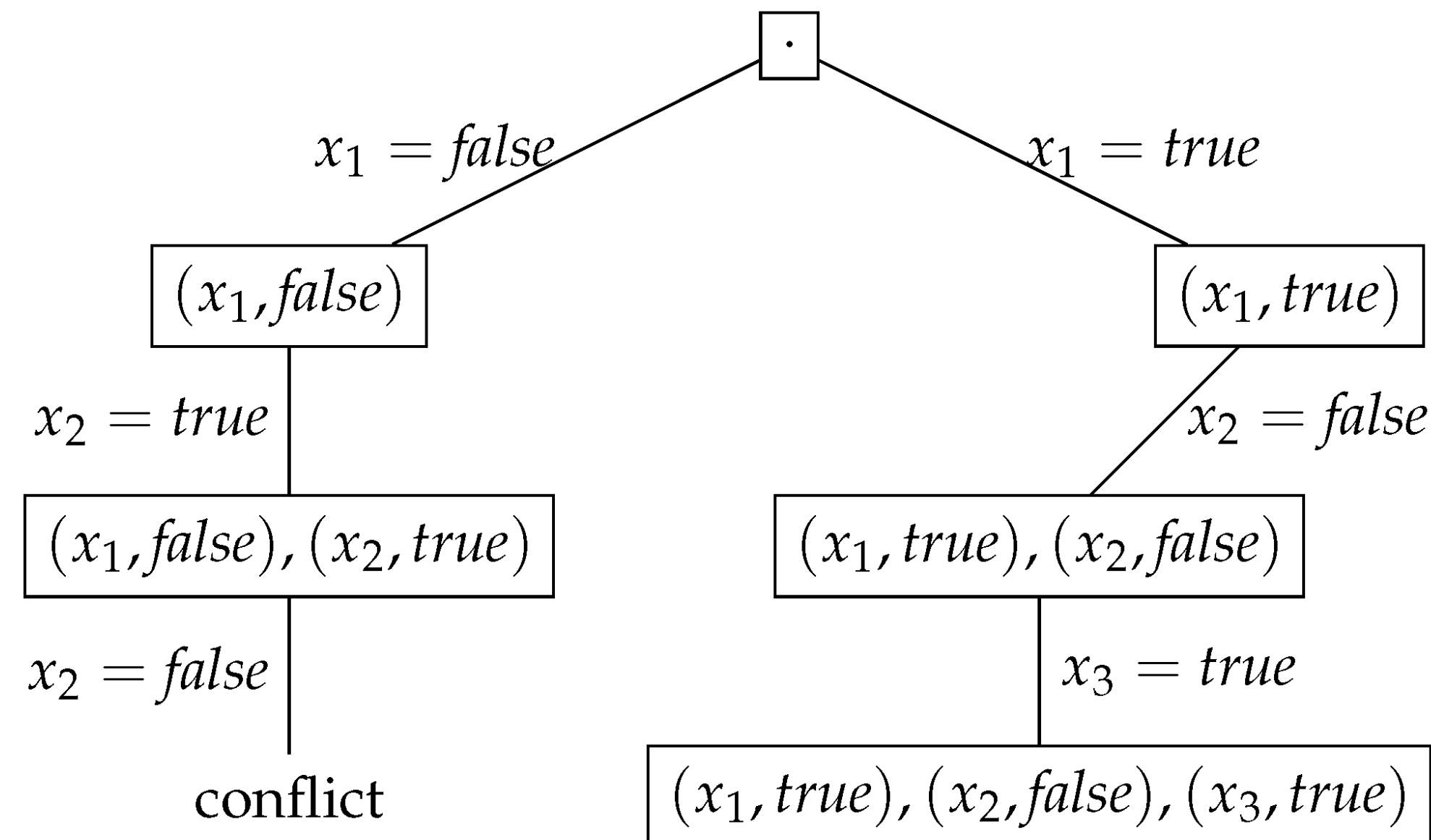


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**Idea.** Build a satisfying assignment **one variable at a time**, updating the formula at each step.

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This is a **backtracking procedure**, where a leaf is a satisfying assignment or a **conflict** (the assignment cannot be satisfying).

# Recall: Partial Assignments

**Definition.** A partial assignment is a set of literals.

Example.  $\{x^1, y^0, z^1\}$

We think of this as a set of *assertions*, i.e.,  $x$  is true and  $y$  is false and  $z$  is true.



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\*This can be made more efficient.

# General Restriction

Restriction by a partial assignment can be understood as repeated restriction by literals, e.g.\*

$$\phi|_{\{l_1, l_2\}} = (\phi|_{l_1})|_{l_2}$$

\*This elides questions about order of restrictions

# Naive DPLL in Agda

```
{-# TERMINATING #-}
is-sat : CNF -> Bool
is-sat f with find-var f
is-sat f | Nothing = notb (has-empty f)
is-sat f | Just x with is-sat (restrict (x , true) f)
is-sat f | Just x | true = true
is-sat f | Just x | false = is-sat (restrict (x , false) f)
```

*High Level:* is-sat branches the choice of restricting by  $x$  or  $\neg x$ .



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Example.  $((x^0 \vee y^0) \wedge (x^0 \vee y^1) \wedge z^0)|_{x^0}$  becomes  $z^0$

# DPLL Pseudocode

## Algorithm DPLL

Input: A set of clauses  $\Phi$ .

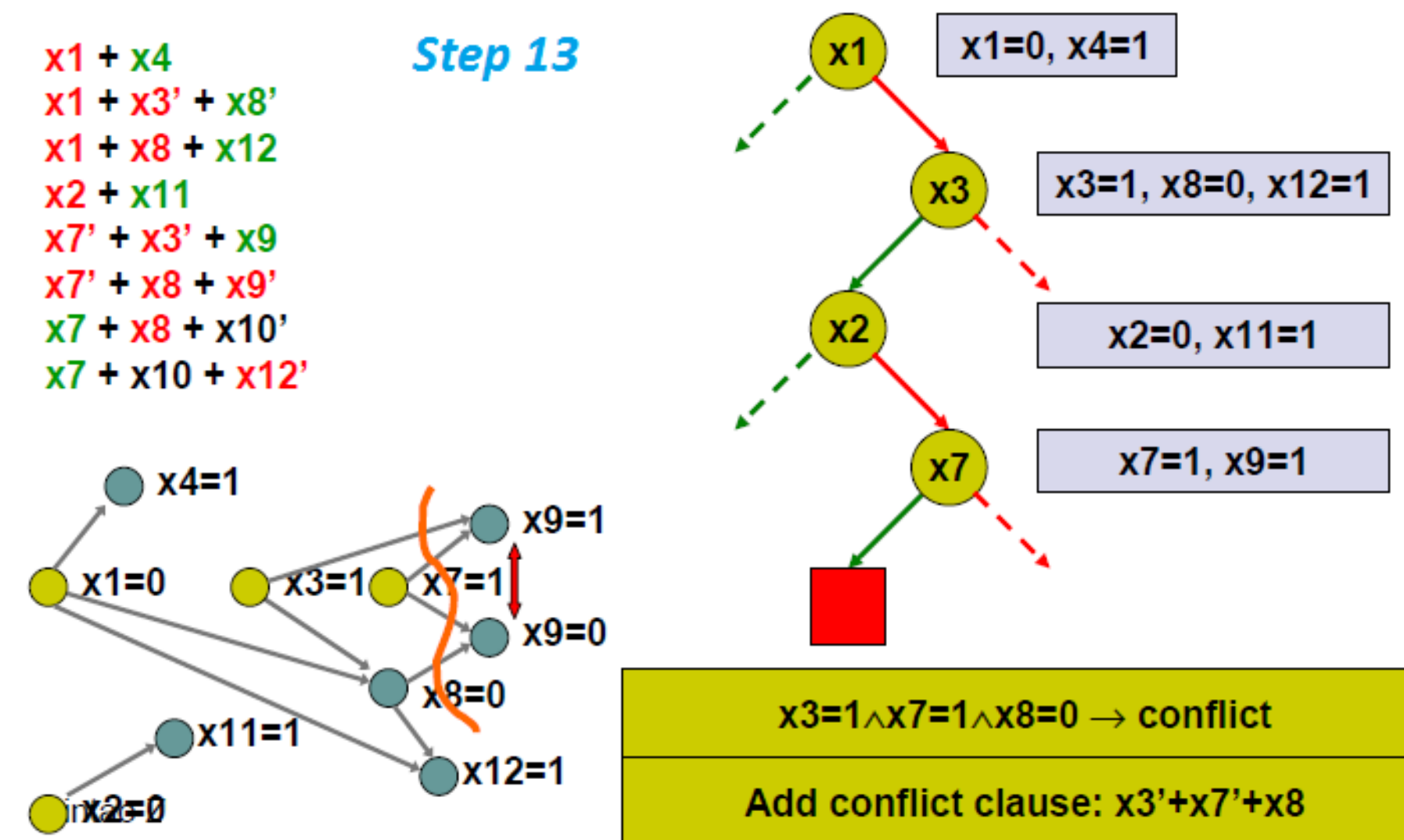
Output: A truth value indicating whether  $\Phi$  is satisfiable.

```
function DPLL( $\Phi$ )  
    // unit propagation:  
    while there is a unit clause  $\{l\}$  in  $\Phi$  do  
         $\Phi \leftarrow \text{unit-propagate}(l, \Phi)$ ;  
    // pure literal elimination:  
    while there is a literal  $l$  that occurs pure in  $\Phi$  do  
         $\Phi \leftarrow \text{pure-literal-assign}(l, \Phi)$ ;  
    // stopping conditions:  
    if  $\Phi$  is empty then  
        return true;  
    if  $\Phi$  contains an empty clause then  
        return false;  
    // DPLL procedure:  
     $l \leftarrow \text{choose-literal}(\Phi)$ ;  
    return DPLL( $\Phi \wedge \{l\}$ ) or DPLL( $\Phi \wedge \{\neg l\}$ );
```

*That's it. That's the  
David-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland Procedure.*

***backtracking + unit propagation + pure literal rule***

# A More Complicated Algorithm: CDCL



Modern SAT solvers are built using a heuristic called **conflict driven clause learning (CDCL)**.

**Idea.** When we find that a partial assignment creates a conflict, we can *add* clauses to our formula which might help the solver avoid making the same mistake again.



# CNF Encodings

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Natural encodings in CNF may be very complex, or difficult to work with.

We need to build up a couple tricks for encoding.

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This only introduces **one clause**.

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$$\text{one}_{\leq}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \bigwedge_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \neg(x_i \wedge x_j) \equiv \bigwedge_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \neg x_i \vee \neg x_j$$

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**Question.** *How many clauses does this create?*

# "Exactly one" Encoding

Given  $l_1, \dots, l_n$ , "exactly one of  $l_1, \dots, l_n$  is true" can be encoded as

$$\text{one}(l_1, \dots, l_n) = \text{one}_{\leq}(l_1, \dots, l_n) \wedge \text{one}_{\geq}(l_1, \dots, l_n)$$

Note that this is still a **CNF formula**.

# Understanding Check

*Write a CNF encoding for  $\text{two}_{\geq}(l_1, \dots, l_n)$  which expresses "at least two of  $l_1, \dots, l_n$  hold".*



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Some SAT solvers (e.g., CryptoMiniSat) have built-on XOR solvers.

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Equisatisfiable formulas are not necessarily equivalent.

**Question.** *Why aren't the above formulas equivalent?*

# A Trick using Equisatisfiability

$$\text{one}_{\leq}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_6)$$

and

$$\text{one}_{\leq}(x_1, x_2, y) \wedge \text{one}_{\leq}(\neg y, x_3, x_4, z) \wedge \text{one}_{\leq}(\neg z, x_5, x_6)$$

are equisatisfiable.

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are equisatisfiable.

This gives can be used to create a CNF formula with linearly many clauses.

# Sudoku Solver

# The Rules

5	3			7				
6			1	9	5			
	9	8					6	
8				6				3
4			8		3			1
7				2				6
	6					2	8	
			4	1	9			5
				8			7	9

5	3	4	6	7	8	9	1	2
6	7	2	1	9	5	3	4	8
1	9	8	3	4	2	5	6	7
8	5	9	7	6	1	4	2	3
4	2	6	8	5	3	7	9	1
7	1	3	9	2	4	8	5	6
9	6	1	5	3	7	2	8	4
2	8	7	4	1	9	6	3	5
3	4	5	2	8	6	1	7	9

Every **row** has the numbers 1 through 9.

Every **column** has the numbers 1 through 9.

Every **3 × 3 box** has the number 1 through 9.

# Variables



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***Question.*** How many variables will the final formula have?

# The Rules as a CNF

We need clauses for:

1. Every square has a one number
2. The **rows** are well-formed
3. The **columns** are well-formed
4. The **boxes** are well-formed

5	3			7				
6			1	9	5			
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8				6				3
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$$\text{one}_{\geq}(x_{i,1,v}, \dots, x_{i,9,v}) = x_{i,1,v} \vee x_{i,2,v} \vee \dots \vee x_{i,9,v} \quad (R_{i,v})$$

Row  $i$  must have at most one  $v$   $:=$

$$\text{one}_{\leq}(x_{i,1,v}, x_{i,2,v}, \dots, x_{i,9,v}) \quad (S_{i,v})$$

The rows are well-formed  $:=$

# Example: Rows

Row  $i$  must have the number  $v$   $:=$

$$\text{one}_{\geq}(x_{i,1,v}, \dots, x_{i,9,v}) = x_{i,1,v} \vee x_{i,2,v} \vee \dots \vee x_{i,9,v} \quad (R_{i,v})$$

Row  $i$  must have at most one  $v$   $:=$

$$\text{one}_{\leq}(x_{i,1,v}, x_{i,2,v}, \dots, x_{i,9,v}) \quad (S_{i,v})$$

The rows are well-formed  $:=$

$$\bigwedge_{1 \leq i, v \leq n} R_{i,v} \wedge S_{i,v} \equiv \bigwedge_{1 \leq i, v \leq n} \text{one}(x_{i,1,v}, \dots, x_{i,9,v})$$

# Example: Rows

**Columns and Boxes are similar.**

Row  $i$  must have the number  $v$   $:=$

$$\text{one}_{\geq}(x_{i,1,v}, \dots, x_{i,9,v}) = x_{i,1,v} \vee x_{i,2,v} \vee \dots \vee x_{i,9,v} \quad (R_{i,v})$$

Row  $i$  must have at most one  $v$   $:=$

$$\text{one}_{\leq}(x_{i,1,v}, x_{i,2,v}, \dots, x_{i,9,v}) \quad (S_{i,v})$$

The rows are well-formed  $:=$

$$\bigwedge_{1 \leq i, v \leq n} R_{i,v} \wedge S_{i,v} \equiv \bigwedge_{1 \leq i, v \leq n} \text{one}(x_{i,1,v}, \dots, x_{i,9,v})$$

# Adding the Board

5	3			7				
6			1	9	5			
	9	8					6	
8				6				3
4			8		3			1
7				2				6
	6					2	8	
			4	1	9			5
				8			7	9

Given a board, we need to add clauses which express that a given position already has a value.

Example.  $x_{0,0,5} \wedge x_{0,1,3} \wedge x_{0,4,7} \wedge \dots$

# PySat

```
>>> from pysat.solvers import Glucose3
>>>
>>> g = Glucose3()
>>> g.add_clause([-1, 2])
>>> g.add_clause([-2, 3])
>>> print(g.solve())
>>> print(g.get_model())
...
True
[-1, -2, -3]
```

PySat is an interface for working with a number of different SAT solvers in Python.

Clauses are represented as lists of nonzero integers.

demo