

INF3170 – Logikk

Forelesning 3: SAT and DPLL

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Dagens plan

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Introduction

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Introduction Introduction

Introduction

- SAT is the problem of determining if a propositional formula is satisfiable.
- SAT can also refer to the problem of determining if a propositional formula on *conjunctive normal form* is satisfiable.
- Both problems are NP-complete.
- The DPLL (Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland) procedure from 1962 [2] is an algorithm solving SAT.
- DPLL is a refinement of the DP (Davis-Putnam) procedure from 1960 [1].
- We present (a version of) DPLL as a calculus.
- DPLL is interesting because it works well in practice, ie. some of the best SAT solvers are based on DPLL.

Preliminaries

A **literal** is a propositional variable or its negation.

We will use the following notation.

- propositional variables: P, Q, R, S (possibly subscripted)
- literals: x, y, z (possibly subscripted)
- general formulae: X, Y, Z

The **complement** of a literal is defined as follows.

- $\overline{P} = \neg P$, and
- $\overline{\neg P} = P$.

NNF

A formula is on **negation normal form (NNF)** if negations occur only in front of propositional variables and implications does not occur at all.

Any formula can be put on NNF using the following rewrite rules.

$$\neg\neg X \rightarrow X$$

$$X \supset Y \rightarrow \neg X \vee Y$$

$$\neg(X \wedge Y) \rightarrow \neg X \vee \neg Y$$

$$\neg(X \vee Y) \rightarrow \neg X \wedge \neg Y$$

Some additional rewrite rules are needed for formula containing \top and \perp .

We will assume that a formula X on NNF does not contain \top or \perp unless $X = \top$ or $X = \perp$.

CNF and DNF

A formula is on **conjunctive normal form (CNF)** if it is a conjunction of disjunctions of literals.

Example

$$(\neg P \vee Q) \wedge (P \vee \neg Q \vee R) \wedge (Q \vee S) \wedge (P \vee \neg R)$$

A formula on NNF can be put on CNF using the following rewrite rules.

$$(X \wedge Y) \vee Z \rightarrow (X \vee Z) \wedge (Y \vee Z)$$

$$Z \vee (X \wedge Y) \rightarrow (Z \vee X) \wedge (Z \vee Y)$$

A formula is on **disjunctive normal form (DNF)** if it is a disjunction of conjunctions of literals.

DNF is like CNF, only with \wedge and \vee exchanged.

Example

The following formula expresses “ $P \wedge Q$ or $R \wedge S$ but not both.”

$$((P \wedge Q) \vee (R \wedge S)) \wedge (\neg(P \wedge Q) \vee \neg(R \wedge S))$$

$$\text{NNF: } ((P \wedge Q) \vee (R \wedge S)) \wedge ((\neg P \vee \neg Q) \vee (\neg R \vee \neg S))$$

$$\text{CNF: } (P \vee R) \wedge (P \vee S) \wedge (Q \vee R) \wedge (Q \vee S) \wedge (\neg P \vee \neg Q \vee \neg R \vee \neg S)$$

The NNF to CNF part of the left conjunct can be performed as follows.

$$(P \wedge Q) \vee (R \wedge S)$$

$$\rightarrow (P \vee (R \wedge S)) \wedge (Q \vee (R \wedge S))$$

$$\rightarrow (P \vee R) \wedge (P \vee S) \wedge (Q \vee (R \wedge S))$$

$$\rightarrow (P \vee R) \wedge (P \vee S) \wedge (Q \vee R) \wedge (Q \vee S)$$

Size increase

Rewriting a formula from DNF to CNF (or vice versa) may cause an exponential increase in size.

$$(P_1 \wedge P_2) \vee (P_3 \wedge P_4) \vee (P_5 \wedge P_6)$$

On CNF:

$$\begin{aligned} &(P_1 \vee P_3 \vee P_5) \wedge (P_1 \vee P_3 \vee P_6) \wedge \\ &(P_1 \vee P_4 \vee P_5) \wedge (P_1 \vee P_4 \vee P_6) \wedge \\ &(P_2 \vee P_3 \vee P_5) \wedge (P_2 \vee P_3 \vee P_6) \wedge \\ &(P_2 \vee P_4 \vee P_5) \wedge (P_2 \vee P_4 \vee P_6) \end{aligned}$$

We will deal with the increase in size later.

Clauses and clause sets

For the sake of notational simplicity, instead of using formula on CNF, we will use *clause sets*.

- A **clause** is a finite set $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ of literals,
 - written as $[x_1 \dots x_n]$, and
 - interpreted disjunctively.
- A **unit clause** is a singleton clause
 - i.e. of the form $[x]$.
- A **clause set** is a finite set $\{C_1, \dots, C_n\}$ of clauses,
 - interpreted conjunctively.

We use '[' and ']' for *clauses*, and '{' and '}' for *clause sets* because they are interpreted differently:

$$\begin{aligned} v([x_1 \dots x_n]) &= v(x_1) \vee \dots \vee v(x_n) \\ v(\{C_1, \dots, C_n\}) &= v(C_1) \wedge \dots \wedge v(C_n) \end{aligned}$$

Example

Some clauses and the formulae they represent:

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------------|
| ① $[P \neg Q R]$ | $P \vee \neg Q \vee R$ |
| ② $[P \neg P]$ | $P \vee \neg P$ |
| ③ $[],$ the empty clause | $\perp,$ the empty disjunction |

Some clause sets and the formulae they represent:

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| ① $\{[P \neg Q R]\}$ | $P \vee \neg Q \vee R$ |
| ② $\{[P \neg P], [], [P \neg Q R]\}$ | $(P \vee \neg P) \wedge \perp \wedge (P \vee \neg Q \vee R)$ |
| ③ $\{\},$ the empty clause set | $\top,$ the empty conjunction |

Clauses and clause sets

We will use the following notation.

- clauses: C, D (possibly subscripted)
- clause sets: Γ, Δ, Λ

We will also write \perp for $[],$ and \emptyset for $\{\}.$

Define $\Gamma_x = \{C \cup [x] \mid C \in \Gamma\},$ i.e. x is added to every clause.

Example

- ① $\{[P Q], [\neg Q], [\neg P \neg Q]\}_x = \{[P Q x], [\neg Q x], [\neg P \neg Q x]\}.$
- ② $\{[P Q], [\neg Q], [\neg P \neg Q]\}_P = \{[P Q], [P \neg Q], [P \neg P \neg Q]\}.$
- ③ $\{\perp\}_x = \{[]\}_x = \{[x]\}.$
- ④ $\emptyset_x = \emptyset.$

Subsumption

If $C \subseteq D$, we say that C **subsumes** D .

Example: $[\neg Q]$ subsumes $[P \neg Q]$.

Subsumption Lemma

If C subsumes D , then $v(C) = 1$ implies $v(D) = 1$.

Proof.

- If $v(C) = 1$, then $v(x) = 1$ for some $x \in C$.
- If $C \subseteq D$, then $x \in D$, thus $v(x) = 1$ for some $x \in D$.
- Hence $v(D) = 1$. □

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Introduction

The DPLL calculus operates not on formulae but on a clause sets.

Let Γ and Δ be clause sets and C a clause.

- Γ, Δ means $\Gamma \cup \Delta$.
- Γ, C means $\Gamma \cup \{C\}$.

We say that x **occurs** in Γ if $x \in C$ for some $C \in \Gamma$.

- $\neg Q$ occurs in $\{[P \neg Q], [\neg P R]\}$, while Q does not.

In derivations we drop '{' and '}' from clause sets.

Introduction

A branch is **closed** if the empty clause occurs in its leaf node.

An example derivation is:

$$\frac{\frac{\times}{[], [S]} \quad \frac{[Q], [S]}{[Q], [\neg Q], [S]}}{[P Q], [P \neg Q], [\neg P Q], [\neg P \neg R], [S]}}{[Q], [\neg R], [S]}$$

The left branch is closed; the right branch is not.

The Idea

The main idea is to try to satisfy the clause set.

If we make a literal x true, we can

- remove every clause containing x , and
- remove \bar{x} from every clause containing it.

Example

Let $\Gamma = \{[P \ Q], [\neg P \ \neg Q], [Q \ \neg R]\}$. If $v(P) = 1$, we can

- remove $[P \ Q]$ from Γ , and
- remove $\neg P$ from $[\neg P \ \neg Q]$.

Then $v(\Gamma) = v(\{[\neg Q], [Q \ \neg R]\})$.

The Idea

We start by removing

- any clause C such that $\{x, \bar{x}\} \subseteq C$ for some x .

This does not affect satisfiability.

Let Γ , Λ and Δ be clause sets without any occurrence of x or \bar{x} such that

- Γ and Λ are non-empty.

Then given the clause set $\Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta$,

- Γ_x is the subset where x occurs;
- $\Lambda_{\bar{x}}$ is the subset where \bar{x} occurs;
- Δ is the subset where neither occur.

Monotone literal fixing

We say that x is **monotone** in a clause set if it is the case that

- x occurs in some clauses and
- \bar{x} does not occur in any clause.

If x is monotone in a clause set, we make x true, because this makes the clauses x occurs in true and does not affect the other clauses.

Monotone literal fixing

$$\frac{\Delta}{\Gamma_x, \Delta} \text{ Mon}$$

This rule is also called the Affirmative-Negative Rule.

Unit subsumption

Observe: $[x]$ subsumes every clause where x occurs.

If it is the case that

- the unit clause $[x]$ occurs,
- x occur in some other clauses, and
- \bar{x} occurs in yet others,

we may remove the clauses where x occurs (except $[x]$).

Unit subsumption

$$\frac{[x], \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta}{[x], \Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{ Sub}$$

Examples

Example: $\neg Q$ is monotone in $[P \rightarrow Q, R], [\neg P \rightarrow R], [P \rightarrow R]$.

$$\frac{[P \rightarrow Q, R], [\neg P \rightarrow R], [P \rightarrow R]}{[P \rightarrow Q, R], [\neg P \rightarrow R], [P \rightarrow R]} \text{Mon}$$

Example: $[Q]$ subsumes $[\neg P, Q]$.

$$\frac{[Q], [\neg P, Q], [\neg P \rightarrow Q], [R]}{[Q], [\neg P, Q], [\neg P \rightarrow Q], [R]} \text{Sub}$$

Unit resolution

If it is the case that

- the unit clause $[x]$ occurs,
- x does not occur anywhere else but
- \bar{x} does,

make x true.

Unit resolution

$$\frac{\Lambda, \Delta}{[x], \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{Res}$$

Split

If it is the case that

- x occurs in some clauses, and
- \bar{x} occurs in others,

we can make two branches: one where x is true and one where x is false.

Split

$$\frac{\Gamma, \Delta \quad \Lambda, \Delta}{\Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{Split}$$

Note: x is true in the right branch.

Examples

Example: Q occurs only in $[Q]$, while there are occurrences of $\neg Q$.

$$\frac{[Q], [P \rightarrow Q], [\neg P \rightarrow Q], [R]}{[Q], [P \rightarrow Q], [\neg P \rightarrow Q], [R]} \text{Res}$$

Example: Split on P .

$$\frac{[P \rightarrow Q], [\neg P, Q] \quad [P \rightarrow Q], [\neg P, Q]}{[P \rightarrow Q], [\neg P, Q]} \text{Split}$$

Example 1

The following formula is valid.

$$(P \supset (Q \supset R)) \supset ((P \supset Q) \supset (P \supset R))$$

In order to prove this, we negate the formula and rewrite it to CNF:

$$\begin{aligned} & \neg((P \supset (Q \supset R)) \supset ((P \supset Q) \supset (P \supset R))) \\ \rightarrow & \neg(\neg(\neg P \vee (\neg Q \vee R)) \vee (\neg(\neg P \vee Q) \vee (\neg P \vee R))) \\ \rightarrow & \neg\neg(\neg P \vee (\neg Q \vee R)) \wedge (\neg\neg(\neg P \vee Q) \wedge (\neg\neg P \wedge \neg R)) \\ \rightarrow & (\neg P \vee \neg Q \vee R) \wedge (\neg P \vee Q) \wedge P \wedge \neg R \quad \text{(NNF/CNF)} \end{aligned}$$

This is equivalent to the following clause set.

$$\{[P], [\neg R], [\neg P \ Q], [\neg P \neg Q \ R]\}$$

Example 1

We prove unsatisfiability using only unit resolution.

$$\begin{array}{c} \times \\ \frac{[P], [\neg R], [\neg P \ Q], [\neg P \neg Q \ R]}{[P], [\neg R], [\neg P \ Q], [\neg P \neg Q \ R]} \text{Res} \\ \frac{[P], [\neg R], [\neg P \ Q], [\neg P \neg Q \ R]}{[P], [\neg R], [\neg P \ Q], [\neg P \neg Q \ R]} \text{Res} \\ \frac{[P], [\neg R], [\neg P \ Q], [\neg P \neg Q \ R]}{[P], [\neg R], [\neg P \ Q], [\neg P \neg Q \ R]} \text{Res} \end{array}$$

Every branch is closed, thus we have a proof.

Example 2

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\frac{\emptyset}{[P \ R], [P \neg R]} \text{Mon}^5}{[\neg P \ Q], [P \neg Q \ R], [P \neg R]} \text{Split}^2}{[\neg P \ Q], [P \neg Q \ R], [Q \ S], [P \neg R]} \text{Mon}^1}{[\neg R]} \text{Mon}^4}{[\neg P], [P \neg R]} \text{Res}^3$$

- 1 S is monotone
- 2 Split on $\neg Q$
- 3 Unit resolution on $\neg P$
- 4 $\neg R$ is monotone
- 5 P is monotone

The rules

These are all the rules.

Monotone literal fixing

$$\frac{\Delta}{\Gamma_x, \Delta} \text{Mon}$$

Unit subsumption

$$\frac{[x], \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta}{[x], \Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{Sub}$$

Unit resolution

$$\frac{\Lambda, \Delta}{[x], \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{Res}$$

Split

$$\frac{\Gamma, \Delta \quad \Lambda, \Delta}{\Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{Split}$$

Derived rules

If we allow Γ and Λ to be empty, the following rule is called *Unit propagation* (on x).

Unit propagation

$$\frac{\Lambda, \Delta}{[x], \Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{Prop}$$

It can be derived from the other rules.

Unit propagation

We can derive **Prop** as follows.

If Γ and Λ are non-empty:

$$\frac{\frac{\Lambda, \Delta}{[x], \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{Res}}{[x], \Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{Sub}$$

If $\Lambda = \emptyset$, then $\Lambda_{\bar{x}} = \emptyset$:

$$\frac{\Lambda, \Delta}{[x], \Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{Mon}$$

If $\Gamma = \emptyset$, then $\Gamma_x = \emptyset$:

$$\frac{\Lambda, \Delta}{[x], \Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \text{Res}$$

Soundness

Recall that a **proof** is a closed derivation.

Theorem (Soundness)

If there exists a proof of Γ , then Γ is unsatisfiable.

Proof.

We show this contrapositively:

- If Γ is satisfiable, then Γ is not provable.

Assume that Γ is satisfiable.

- Rules preserve satisfiability upwards, (*)
- thus any derivation π has at least one satisfiable leaf node Λ .
- As the empty clause is unsatisfiable, π is not closed,

thus π is not a proof. \square

Maximal Derivations

Recall that a **maximal** derivation is one where no rule is applicable.

Lemma

A leaf node in a maximal derivation is either \emptyset or contains the empty clause.

Proof.

Let Γ be a leaf node in a derivation π . We show the following:

- If Γ is neither \emptyset nor contains the empty clause, then π is not maximal.

Assume that Γ is neither \emptyset nor contains the empty clause.

- Then there is some literal x occurring in Γ .
- If \bar{x} does not occur in Γ , **Mon** is applicable.
- If \bar{x} does occur in Γ , **Split** (or in some cases **Sub**) is applicable.

In either case, π is not maximal. \square

Completeness

Theorem (Completeness)

If Γ is unsatisfiable, there exists a proof of Γ .

Proof.

We show this contrapositively:

- If there exists no proof of Γ , then Γ is satisfiable.

Assume that there exists no proof of Γ .

- Let π be a derivation.
- Termination (*) lets us assume that π is maximal.
- Because π is not a proof, it contains at least one open leaf node Γ .
- By the lemma, $\Gamma = \emptyset$, which is satisfiable.
- Rules preserve satisfiability downwards, (*)

thus Γ is satisfiable. \square

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Size

A **problem** is an instance of SAT, i.e. a clause set. If

- the number of clauses is n ,
- there occurs m distinct propositional variables, and
- every clause is of length k ,

the **problem size** is defined as the triple

$$n \times m \times k.$$

Example

Some problems and their sizes:

- $\{[P \neg Q R], [Q R \neg S]\}$ has size $2 \times 4 \times 3$.
- $\{[P \neg Q], [\neg P Q], [P Q]\}$ has size $3 \times 2 \times 2$.

k -SAT and HORNSAT

Definition (k -SAT)

k -SAT is the subset of SAT with problems of size $n \times m \times k$.

Example: 3-SAT:

$$\{[\neg P \neg Q R], [\neg P \neg Q \neg R], [P Q R], [P Q \neg R]\}$$

Definition (HORNSAT)

HORNSAT is the subset of SAT where every clause is a Horn clause, i.e. contains at most one positive literal.

Example: Both HORNSAT and 2-SAT:

$$\{[\neg P \neg Q], [\neg P R], [\neg Q R]\}$$

k -SAT and HORNSAT

The complexity k -SAT and HORNSAT is well-known:

- 3-SAT is **NP**-complete.
- 2-SAT is **NL**-complete.
- HORNSAT is **P**-complete.

The relationship between the classes is as follows.

$$\text{NL} \subseteq \text{P} \subseteq \text{NP} \subseteq \text{PSPACE}$$

$$\text{NL} \neq \text{PSPACE}$$

Hence

- 2-SAT is not harder than HORNSAT, and
- HORNSAT is not harder than 3-SAT.

Reduction to CNF

As mentioned, reducing a propositional formula to CNF can cause exponential increase in size.

A formula of the form $(x_1 \wedge y_1) \vee \dots \vee (x_n \wedge y_n)$ reduced to CNF has size

$$2^n \times 2n \times n,$$

that is 2^n clauses of length n .

Example

If $n = 3$, we get a $8 \times 6 \times 3$ problem:

$$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee y_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_3 \vee y_2) \wedge (x_1 \vee y_2 \vee y_3) \wedge$$

$$(x_2 \vee x_3 \vee y_1) \wedge (x_2 \vee y_1 \vee y_3) \wedge (x_3 \vee y_1 \vee y_2) \wedge (y_1 \vee y_2 \vee y_3)$$

But the reason for using DPLL in the first place is efficiency!

Equivalence

Two formulae X and Y are **equivalent** if

$$v(X) = v(Y) \text{ for every valuation } v.$$

Equivalence can be expressed in our logical language. Let $(X \equiv Y)$ denote $(X \supset Y) \wedge (Y \supset X)$. Then

$$v(X \equiv Y) = 1 \text{ iff } X \text{ and } Y \text{ are equivalent.}$$

So far we have reduced a formula to an equivalent one on CNF:

- $X \xrightarrow{\text{CNF}} Y$, where
- X and Y are equivalent, and
- Y is on CNF.

This is, in fact, not strictly necessary.

Equisatisfiability

For our purposes, it suffices that X and Y are **equisatisfiable**:

$$X \text{ is satisfiable iff } Y \text{ is satisfiable.}$$

Until now, the procedure for generating input to DPLL has been

- $X \xrightarrow{\text{NNF}} Y \xrightarrow{\text{CNF}} Z$, where
- X , Y , and Z are equivalent, and
- Z may be exponentially larger than Y .

Our next approach is as follows.

- $X \xrightarrow{\text{NNF}} Y \xrightarrow{\text{CNF}} Z$, where
- Y and Z are *not* equivalent, but equisatisfiable, and
- Z is no more than polynomially larger than Y .

Tseitin encoding

Problem given an arbitrary formula on NNF, find an equisatisfiable formula on CNF (or the corresponding clause set).

Solution Represent each subformulae (except for literals) with a new propositional variable, recursively.
Usually attributed to Tseitin [3].

Example

$((P \wedge \neg Q) \vee R)$ has two non-literal subformulae, one of which is itself.

$$\begin{array}{c} P_1 \\ \underbrace{\hspace{2cm}} \\ ((P \wedge \neg Q) \vee R) \\ \underbrace{\hspace{2cm}} \\ P_2 \end{array}$$

Tseitin encoding

For each subformula X , introduce a new variable P_k and generate a formula expressing that P_k is equivalent to X :

- $(P_1 \equiv (P_2 \vee R))$ [not $(P_1 \equiv ((P \wedge \neg Q) \vee R))$]
- $(P_2 \equiv (P \wedge \neg Q))$

In addition we want the variable representing the entire formula – in our case P_1 – to be true. The result is:

$$\begin{array}{l} P_1 \wedge \\ (P_1 \equiv (P_2 \vee R)) \wedge \\ (P_2 \equiv (P \wedge \neg Q)) \end{array}$$

The formula above and $((P \wedge \neg Q) \vee R)$ are both satisfiable, but they are not equivalent.

Tseitin encoding

In order to convert $P_1 \wedge (P_1 \equiv (P_2 \vee R)) \wedge (P_2 \equiv (P \wedge \neg Q))$ to CNF, we use the following functions.

$$\begin{array}{l} [x \wedge y]^P = \{[\neg P x], [\neg P y], [P \bar{x} \bar{y}]\} \\ [x \vee y]^P = \{[P \bar{x}], [P \bar{y}], [\neg P x y]\} \end{array}$$

Lemma (Clause representation)

$[x * y]^P$ is equivalent to $P \equiv (x * y)$ for $* \in \{\wedge, \vee\}$.

Example: $P_2 \equiv (P \wedge \neg Q)$ is equivalent to

- $[P \wedge \neg Q]^{P_2}$, which equals
- $\{[\neg P_2 P], [\neg P_2 \neg Q], [P_2 \neg P Q]\}$.

Tseitin encoding

In conclusion:

$((P \wedge \neg Q) \vee R)$ is equisatisfiable to

$$P_1 \wedge (P_1 \equiv (P_2 \vee R)) \wedge (P_2 \equiv (P \wedge \neg Q))$$

which is *equivalent* to

$$\{[P_1]\} \cup [P_2 \vee R]^{P_1} \cup [P \wedge \neg Q]^{P_2}$$

which *equals* the clause set

$$\begin{array}{l} \{[P_1], \\ [P_1 \neg P_2], [P_1 \neg R], [\neg P_1 P_2 R], \\ [\neg P_2 P], [\neg P_2 \neg Q], [P_2 \neg P Q]\}. \end{array}$$

Tseitin encoding

Tseitin encoding:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\frac{\emptyset}{[\neg P Q]} \text{Mon}}{[\neg P_2 P], [\neg P_2 \neg Q], [P_2 \neg P Q]} \text{Split}}{[P_2 R], [\neg P_2 P], [\neg P_2 \neg Q], [P_2 \neg P Q]} \text{Mon}}{[P_1], [P_1 \neg P_2], [P_1 \neg R], [\neg P_1 P_2 R], [\neg P_2 P], [\neg P_2 \neg Q], [P_2 \neg P Q]} \text{Prop}}$$

Equivalent CNF encoding:

$$\frac{\emptyset}{[P R], [\neg Q R]} \text{Mon}$$

Tseitin encoding

Is this any better (in general) than the original CNF translation?

- We will use the number of binary connectives (n) as a measure of the size of our original formula on NNF.
- We let m denote the number of distinct propositional variables.
- Then the size of the equisatisfiable clause set generated is

$$(3n + 1) \times (m + n) \times \leq 3.$$

- This means that that there are
 - $3n + 1$ clauses,
 - m auxiliary variables, and
 - each clause has at most length 3.

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Pseudocode algorithm

A minimal version of DPLL can be implemented as follows.

1. **proc** LookAhead(Γ)
2. **while** Γ contains some unit clause $[x]$
3. perform unit propagation on x
4. **return** Γ
5. **proc** DPLL(Γ)
6. $\Gamma :=$ LookAhead(Γ)
7. **if** $\Gamma = \emptyset$ **return** 1
8. **if** $\perp \in \Gamma$ **return** 0
9. $x :=$ ChooseLiteral(Γ)
10. **return** DPLL($\Gamma, [x]$) **or** DPLL($\Gamma, [\bar{x}]$)

Correctness

Correctness of the algorithm

DPLL(Γ) returns 1 if Γ is satisfiable, and 0 if not.

- The idea is that branching and adding a unit clause $[x]$ to one branch and $[\bar{x}]$ to the other, and then performing unit propagation is basically the same as splitting:

$$\frac{\frac{\Gamma, \Delta}{[\bar{x}], \Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta} \quad \frac{\Lambda, \Delta}{[x], \Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta}}{\Gamma_x, \Lambda_{\bar{x}}, \Delta}$$

- (This is not a proof in the calculus.)
- If x is monotone, it gets a little trickier.

Jeroslow Wang heuristic

- The only non-deterministic part is which literal is chosen.
- Picking the *optimal* literal is in general NP-hard *and* coNP-hard [4].
- Thus it is *harder* than deciding satisfiability of the formula!
- But there exists heuristics [5].
- Let $\Gamma|_x$ denote the subset of Γ where x occurs: $\{C \in \Gamma \mid x \in C\}$
- Pick the x that maximizes $w(\Gamma|_x)$, where w is the weight function

$$w(\Gamma) = \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{n(\Gamma, k)}{2^k},$$

and $n(\Gamma, k)$ is the number of clauses in Γ of length k .

- “Pick an x that occurs in many short clauses.”

Example

Let us apply the algorithm to

$$\Gamma = \{[\neg P Q], [P \neg Q R], [Q S], [P \neg R]\}.$$

What is DPLL(Γ)?

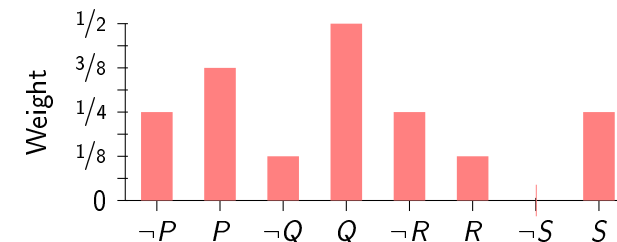
- Γ contains no unit clause, thus LookAhead(Γ) returns Γ , and
- Γ is neither empty nor contains the empty clause,
- hence we must choose some literal to split on.
- In order to do this, we apply the heuristic.

Example

- We calculate $w(\Gamma|_x)$ for each x occurring in

$$\Gamma = \{[\neg P Q], [P \neg Q R], [Q S], [P \neg R]\}.$$

- E.g., the weight of P in Γ : $w(\Gamma|_P) = 0/2^1 + 1/2^2 + 1/2^3 = 3/8$.



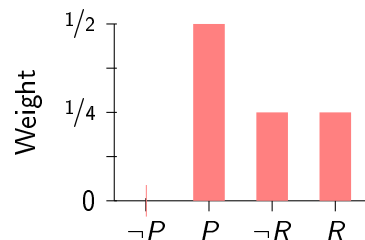
- Q has the highest weight in Γ .

Example

- We add $[Q]$ to Γ and perform unit propagation.

$$\frac{[P \ R], [P \ \neg R]}{[\neg P \ Q], [P \ \neg Q \ R], [Q \ S], [P \ \neg R], [Q]} \text{ Prop}$$

- We calculate $w(\Gamma'_x)$ for each x occurring in $\Gamma' = \{[P \ R], [P \ \neg R]\}$.



- P has the highest weight in Γ' .

Example

- We add $[P]$ to Γ' and perform unit propagation.

$$\frac{\emptyset}{[\neg R]} \text{ Prop}$$

$$\frac{[P \ R], [P \ \neg R], [P]}{[P \ R], [P \ \neg R], [P]} \text{ Prop}$$

- $\text{DPLL}([P \ R], [P \ \neg R], [P], [P])$ returns 1, thus so does
- $\text{DPLL}(\Gamma, [Q])$, thus so does
- $\text{DPLL}(\Gamma)$.
- Hence Γ is satisfiable.

SAT Solvers

- A **SAT solver** is a program that determines whether a propositional formula or clause set is satisfiable.
- Many modern SAT solvers are based on the SAT solver MiniSAT, which again is based on DPLL.
- MiniSAT won all the industrial categories at SAT 2005.



- We can try it on an $3030 \times 1015 \times 3$ problem.

MiniSAT

```

===== [ Problem Statistics ] =====
|
| Number of variables:      1015
| Number of clauses:       3030
| Parse time:               0.00 s
|
|===== [ Search Statistics ] =====
| Conflicts | ORIGINAL | LEARNT | Progress |
|           | Vars    | Clauses | Literals | Limit   | Clauses | Lit/C1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 100 | 627 | 1932 | 5162 | 708 | 100 | 11 | 38.228 % |
| 250 | 627 | 1932 | 5162 | 779 | 250 | 12 | 38.227 % |
| 475 | 627 | 1932 | 5162 | 857 | 475 | 11 | 38.227 % |
| 812 | 627 | 1932 | 5162 | 942 | 812 | 10 | 38.227 % |
| 1318 | 627 | 1932 | 5162 | 1037 | 1318 | 10 | 38.227 % |
| 2077 | 627 | 1932 | 5162 | 1140 | 1359 | 9 | 38.227 % |
| 3216 | 627 | 1932 | 5162 | 1254 | 966 | 8 | 38.227 % |
| 4924 | 627 | 1932 | 5162 | 1380 | 1026 | 8 | 38.227 % |
|=====|=====|=====|=====|=====|=====|=====|
restarts      : 27
conflicts    : 4998          (15971 /sec)
decisions    : 5388          (0.00 % random) (17217 /sec)
propagations : 1131352      (3615098 /sec)
conflict literals : 44646      (31.69 % deleted)
Memory used  : 6.00 MB
CPU time     : 0.312952 s

SATISFIABLE

```

- 1 Introduction
- 2 DPLL
- 3 Complexity
- 4 DPLL Implementation
- 5 Bibliography**

Bibliography I

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