

Design and Analysis of Algorithms (XVII)

DPLL Algorithm

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Why SAT Solving

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The First Example



Let $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$ be a set of radio stations, each of which has to be allocated one of k transmission frequencies, for some k < n. Two stations that are too close to each other cannot have the same frequency. The set of pairs having this constraint is denoted by E. Satisfying

- Every station is assigned at least one frequency.
- Every station is assigned not more than one frequency.
- Close stations are not assigned the same frequency.

Give solution to work out that whether k is enough for a given situation.



Define a set of propositional variables

```
{x_{ij} | i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, j \in \{1, \dots, k\}}
```

Intuitively, variable x_{ij} is set to true if and only if station *i* is assigned the frequency *j*.





Every station is assigned at least one frequency:

 $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n}\bigvee_{j=1}^{k}x_{ij}$



Every station is assigned at least one frequency:

 $\bigwedge^n \bigvee^k x_{ij}$ i=1 i=1

Every station is assigned not more than one frequency:

 $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} \bigwedge_{j=1}^{k-1} (x_{ij} \to \wedge_{j < t \le k} \neg x_{it})$



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 $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} \bigwedge_{j=1}^{k-1} (x_{ij} \to \wedge_{j < t \le k} \neg x_{it})$

Close stations are not assigned the same frequency. For each $(i, j) \in E$,

$$\bigwedge_{t=1}^k x_{it} \to \neg x_{jt}$$

The Second Example



Consider the two code fragments. The fragment on the right-hand side might have been generated from the fragment on the left-hand side by an optimizing compiler. We would like to check if the two programs are equivalent.

```
if(!a && !b) h();
else
    if(!a) g();
else f();

if(a) f();
else
if(b) g();
else h();
```



(if x then y else z) $\equiv (x \land y) \lor (\neg x \land z)$



(if x then y else z) $\equiv (x \land y) \lor (\neg x \land z)$

 $\begin{aligned} (\neg a \wedge \neg b) \wedge h \lor \neg (\neg a \wedge \neg b) \wedge (\neg a \wedge g \lor a \wedge f) \\ \leftrightarrow a \wedge f \lor \neg a \wedge (b \wedge g \lor \neg b \wedge h) \end{aligned}$



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The propositional formula can be transformed into an equisatisfiable CNF formula with only a linear increase in the size of the formula.

The price to be paid is n new Boolean variables, known as Tseitin's encoding.



$CNF(\phi)\{$

case

- ϕ is a literal: return ϕ
- ϕ is $\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2$: return $CNF(\varphi_1) \wedge CNF(\varphi_2)$
- ϕ is $\varphi_1 \lor \varphi_2$: return $Dist(CNF(\varphi_1), CNF(\varphi_2))$

$Dist(\varphi_1,\varphi_2)\{$

case

}

}

- φ_1 is $\psi_{11} \wedge \psi_{12}$: return $Dist(\psi_{11}, \varphi_2) \wedge Dist(\psi_{12}, \varphi_2)$
- φ_2 is $\psi_{21} \wedge \psi_{22}$: return $Dist(\varphi_1, \psi_{21}) \wedge Dist(\varphi_1, \psi_{22})$



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Now consider: $\phi_n = (x_1 \land y_1) \lor (x_2 \land y_2) \lor \ldots \lor (x_n \land y_n)$



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Now consider: $\phi_n = (x_1 \land y_1) \lor (x_2 \land y_2) \lor \ldots \lor (x_n \land y_n)$

Q: How many clauses $CNF(\phi_n)$ returns?



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Now consider: $\phi_n = (x_1 \land y_1) \lor (x_2 \land y_2) \lor \ldots \lor (x_n \land y_n)$

Q: How many clauses $CNF(\phi_n)$ returns?

A: 2^n

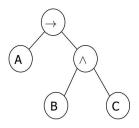


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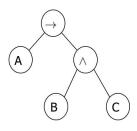
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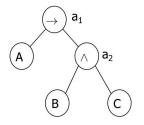
Associate a new auxiliary variable with each gate.

Add constraints that define these new variables.

Finally, enforce the root node.

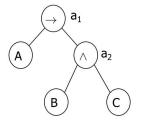


 $(a_1 \leftrightarrow (A \rightarrow a_2)) \land (a_2 \leftrightarrow (B \land C)) \land (a_1)$



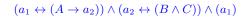


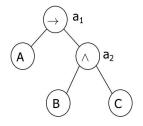
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Each such constraint has a CNF representation with 3 or 4 clauses.







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First: $(a_1 \lor A) \land (a_1 \lor \neg a_2) \land (\neg a_1 \lor A \lor a_2)$

Second: $(\neg a_2 \lor B) \land (\neg a_2 \lor C) \land (a_2 \lor \neg B \lor \neg C)$



$\phi_n = (x_1 \wedge y_1) \lor (x_2 \wedge y_2) \lor \ldots \lor (x_n \wedge y_n)$



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With Tseitin's encoding we need:

- *n* auxiliary variables a_1, \ldots, a_n .
- Each adds 3 constraints.
- Top clause: $(a_1 \vee \ldots \vee a_n)$



$$\phi_n = (x_1 \wedge y_1) \lor (x_2 \wedge y_2) \lor \ldots \lor (x_n \wedge y_n)$$

With Tseitin's encoding we need:

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Hence, we have

- 3n + 1 clauses, instead of 2^n .
- 3n variables rather than 2n.

Methodologies

Two Usual Ways to Implement



Exhaustive Search (DPLL Algorithm): traversing and backtracking on a binary tree.

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Exhaustive Search (DPLL Algorithm): traversing and backtracking on a binary tree.

Stochastic Search: guessing a full assignment, and flipping values of variables according to some heuristic.

A Brief History



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Late 90's and early 00's improvements make DPLL efficient:



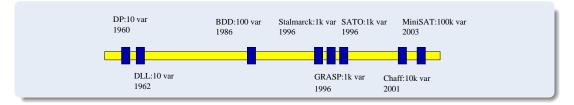
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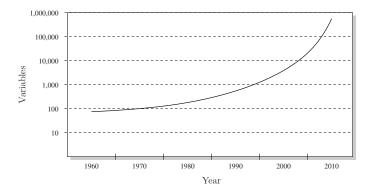
Second paper (Davis, Logemann and Loveland) in 1962: Depth-first-search with backtracking

Late 90's and early 00's improvements make DPLL efficient:

Break-through systems: GRASP, SATO, zChaff, MiniSAT, Z3







Backtracking

Backtracking



It is often possible to reject a solution by looking at just a small portion of it.

An Solution of SAT



For example, if an instance of SAT contains the clause $(x_1 \lor x_2)$, then all assignments with $x_1 = x_2 = false$ can be instantly eliminated.

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To put it differently, by quickly checking and discrediting this partial assignment, we are able to prune a quarter of the entire search space.

An Solution of SAT



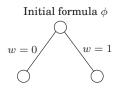
For example, if an instance of SAT contains the clause $(x_1 \lor x_2)$, then all assignments with $x_1 = x_2 = \text{false}$ can be instantly eliminated.

To put it differently, by quickly checking and discrediting this partial assignment, we are able to prune a quarter of the entire search space.

A promising direction, but can it be systematically exploited?

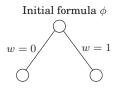


$(w \vee x \vee y \vee z)(w \vee \overline{x})(x \vee \overline{y})(y \vee \overline{z})(z \vee \overline{w})(\overline{w} \vee \overline{z})$





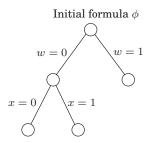
$(w \vee x \vee y \vee z)(w \vee \overline{x})(x \vee \overline{y})(y \vee \overline{z})(z \vee \overline{w})(\overline{w} \vee \overline{z})$



Plugging w = 0 and w = 1 into Φ , we find that no clause is immediately violated and thus neither of these two partial assignments can be eliminated outright.

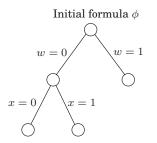


 $\Phi = (w \lor x \lor y \lor z)(w \lor \overline{x})(x \lor \overline{y})(y \lor \overline{z})(z \lor \overline{w})(\overline{w} \lor \overline{z})$





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The partial assignment w = 0, x = 1 violates the clause $(w \lor \overline{x})$ and can be terminated, thereby pruning a good chunk of the search space.



 $\Phi = (w \vee x \vee y \vee z)(w \vee \overline{x})(x \vee \overline{y})(y \vee \overline{z})(z \vee \overline{w})(\overline{w} \vee \overline{z})$



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Backtracking explores the space of assignments, only growing the tree only at nodes where there is uncertainty.



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If w = 0 and x = 0 then any clause with w or x is instantly satisfied and any literal \overline{w} or \overline{x} is not satisfied and can be removed.



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What's left is

$(y \vee z)(\overline{y})(y \vee \overline{z})$



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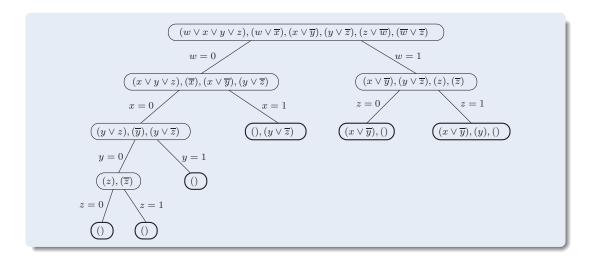
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Thus the nodes of the search tree, representing partial assignments, are themselves SAT subproblems.





Basic Functions



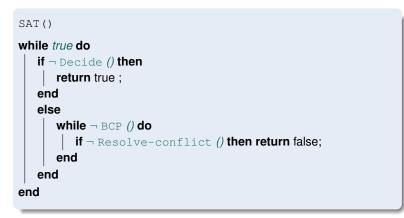
Decide (): Choose the next variable and value. Return False if all variables are assigned.

BCP (): Apply repeatedly the unit clause rule. Return False if reached a conflict.

Resolve-conflict (): Backtrack until no conflict. Return False if impossible.

Algorithm





Basic Backtracking Search



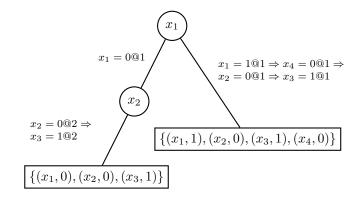
Organize the search in the form of a decision tree

- Each node corresponds to a decision.
- Definition: Decision Level (DL) is the depth of the node in the decision tree.
- Notation: x = v@d, where $x \in \{0, 1\}$ is assigned to v at decision level d.

Backtracking Search in Action



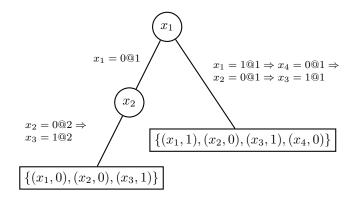
 $(x_2 \lor x_3), (\neg x_1 \lor, \neg x_4), (\neg x_2 \lor x_4)$



Backtracking Search in Action



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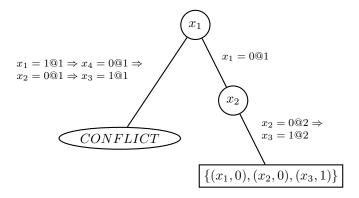


No backtrack in this example, regardless of the decision!

Backtracking Search in Action



 $(x_2 \lor x_3), (\neg x_1 \lor, \neg x_4), (\neg x_2 \lor x_4), (\neg x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \neg x_3)$



Status of a Clause



A clause can be

- · Satisfied: at least one literal is satisfied
- Unsatisfied: all literals are assigned but non are satisfied
- Unit: all but one literals are assigned but none are satisfied
- Unresolved: all other cases

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Example: $C = (x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3)$

x_1	x_2	x_3	C
1	0		Satisfied
0	0	0	Unsatisfied
0	0		Unit
	0		Unresolved

Decision Heuristics - DLIS



DLIS (Dynamic Largest Individual Sum)

Choose the assignment that increases the most the number of satisfied clauses.

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Choose the assignment that increases the most the number of satisfied clauses.

For a given variable x:

- C_{xp} : # unresolved clauses in which x appears positively
- C_{xn} : # unresolved clauses in which x appears negatively
- Let x be the literal for which C_{xp} is maximal
- Let y be the literal for which C_{yn} is maximal
- If $C_{xp} > C_{yn}$ choose x and assign it TRUE
- Otherwise choose y and assign it FALSE

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Requires l (\sharp literals) queries for each decision.

Decision Heuristics - JW



Jeroslow-Wang

Compute for every clause w and every literal l in each phase

 $J(l) = \sum_{l \in w, w \in \varphi} 2^{-|w|}$

where |w| the length.

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where |w| the length.

Choose the literal l that maximizes J(l).

This gives an exponentially higher weight to literals in shorter clauses.

Next



We will see other (more advanced) decision Heuristics soon.

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These heuristics are integrated with a mechanism called Learning with Conflict-Clauses, which we will learn next.

Learning New Clause

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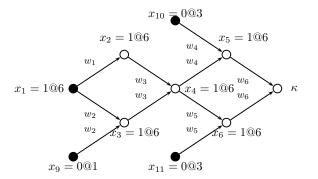
Implication Graphs and Learning



Current truth assignment $\{x_9 = 0@1, x_{10} = 0@3, x_{11} = 0@3, x_{12} = 1@2, x_{13} = 1@2\}$

Current decision assignment $\{x_1 = 1@6\}$

$w_1 = \neg x_1 \lor x_2$
$w_2 = \neg x_1 \lor x_3 \lor x_9$
$w_3 = \neg x_2 \vee \neg x_3 \vee x_4$
$w_4 = \neg x_4 \lor x_5 \lor x_{10}$
$w_5 = \neg x_4 \lor x_6 \lor x_{11}$
$w_6 = \neg x_5 \vee \neg x_6$
$w_7 = x_1 \vee x_7 \vee \neg x_{12}$
$w_8 = x_1 \lor x_8$
$w_9 = \neg x_7 \vee \neg x_8 \vee \neg x_{13}$

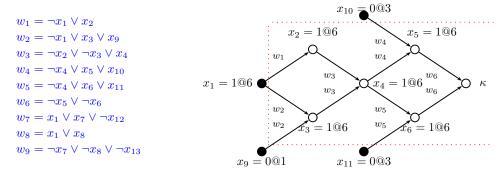


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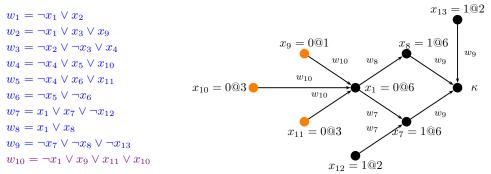
We learn the conflict clause w_{10} : $(\neg x_1 \lor x_9 \lor x_{11} \lor x_{10})$

Flipped Assignment



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Current flipped assignment $\{x_1 = 0@6\}$

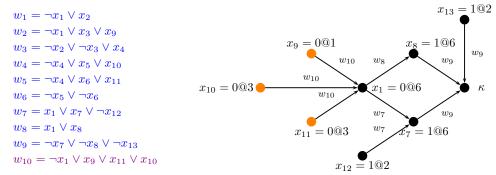


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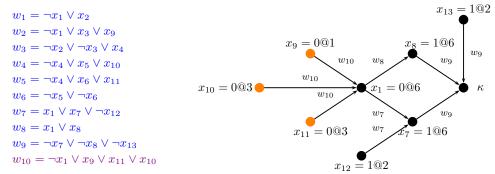
Another conflict clause: $w_{11}: (\neg x_{13} \lor \neg x_{12} \lor x_{11} \lor x_{10} \lor x_9)$

Flipped Assignment



Current truth assignment $\{x_9 = 0@1, x_{10} = 0@3, x_{11} = 0@3, x_{12} = 1@2, x_{13} = 1@2\}$

Current flipped assignment $\{x_1 = 0@6\}$



Another conflict clause: $w_{11} : (\neg x_{13} \lor \neg x_{12} \lor x_{11} \lor x_{10} \lor x_9)$

Where should we backtrack to now?



Which assignments caused the conflicts?

- $x_9 = 0@1$
- $x_{10} = 0@3$
- $x_{11} = 0@3$
- $x_{12} = 1@2$
- $x_{13} = 1@2$

These assignments are sufficient for causing a conflict.



Which assignments caused the conflicts?

- $x_9 = 0@1$
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These assignments are sufficient for causing a conflict.

Backtrack to DL = 3



So the rule is: backtrack to the largest decision level in the conflict clause.

This works for both the initial conflict and the conflict after the flip.

Q: What if the flipped assignment works?



So the rule is: backtrack to the largest decision level in the conflict clause.

This works for both the initial conflict and the conflict after the flip.

Q: What if the flipped assignment works?

A: Change the decision retroactively.



$$x_1 = 0$$

 $x_2 = 0$
 $x_3 = 1$
 $x_4 = 0$
 $x_5 = 0$

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$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= 0 \\
 x_2 &= 0 \\
 x_3 &= 1 \\
 x_4 &= 0 \\
 x_5 &= 0 \\
 x_5 &= 1 \\
 x_7 &= 0 \\
 x_9 &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{array}{l} x_1 = 0 \\ x_2 = 0 \\ x_3 = 1 \\ x_4 = 0 \\ x_5 = 0 \\ x_7 = 0 \\ x_9 = 1 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{l} x_9 = 0 \end{array}$$

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$x_1 = 0$		
$x_{2} = 0$		
$x_3 = 1$		$x_{3} = 0$
$x_4 = 0$		
$x_5 = 0$	$x_{5} = 1$	
	$x_7 = 0$	
	$x_{9} = 1$	$x_9 = 0$

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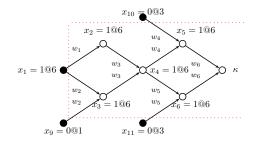


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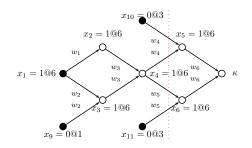


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 $x_{10} \lor \neg x_1 \lor x_9 \lor x_{11}$ $x_{10} \lor \neg x_4 \lor x_{11}$

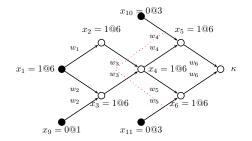


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Conflict Clause



How many clauses should we add?

If not all, then which ones?

- Shorter ones?
- Check their influence on the backtracking level?
- The most "influential"?

Conflict Clause



Definition

An Asserting Clause is a Conflict Clause with a single literal from the current decision level. Backtracking (to the right level) makes it a Unit clause.

Asserting clauses are those that force an immediate change in the search path.

Modern solvers only consider Asserting Clauses.

Unique Implication Points (UIPs)



Definition (Unique Implication Point (UIP))

A Unique Implication Point (UIP) is an internal node in the Implication Graph that all paths from the decision to the conflict node go through it.

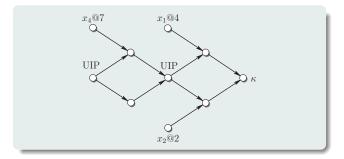
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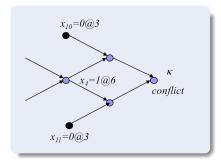
The First-UIP is the closest UIP to the conflict.



Alternative Backtracking

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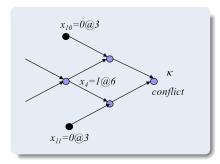
Conflict clause: $(x_{10} \lor \neg x_4 \lor \neg x_{11})$

With standard Non-Chronological Backtracking we backtracked to DL = 6.

Conflict-driven Backtrack: backtrack to the second highest decision level in the clause (without erasing it).

In this case, to DL = 3.





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Q: why?



x_1	=	0
x_2	=	0
x_3	=	1
x_4	=	0
x_5	=	0

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x_1	=	0
x_2	=	0
x_3	=	1
x_4	=	0
x_5	=	0

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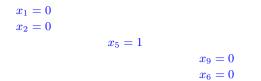




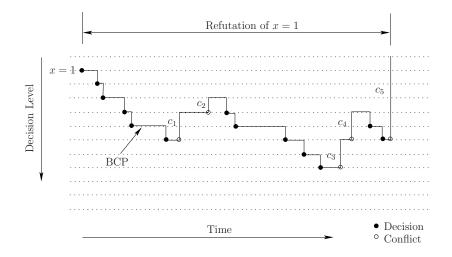


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Conflict-Driven Backtracking



So the rule is: backtrack to the second highest decision level *dl*, but do not erase it.

This way the literal with the currently highest decision level will be implied in DL = dl.

Q: what if the conflict clause has a single literal?

For example, from $(x \lor \neg y) \land (x \lor y)$ and decision x = 0, we learn the conflict clause (x).

Resolution

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Resolution



The binary resolution is a sound inference rule:

 $\frac{(a_1 \lor \ldots \lor a_n \lor \beta) \quad (b_1 \lor \ldots \lor b_m \lor \neg \beta)}{(a_1 \lor \ldots \lor a_n \lor b_1 \lor \ldots \lor b_m)}$ Binary Resolution

Example

 $\begin{array}{c|c} x_1 \lor x_2 & \neg x_1 \lor x_3 \lor x_4 \\ \hline x_2 \lor x_3 \lor x_4 \end{array}$



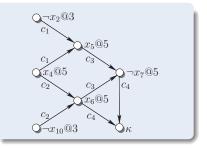
$$c_1 = (\neg x_4 \lor x_2 \lor x_5) c_2 = (\neg x_4 \lor x_{10} \lor x_6) c_3 = (\neg x_5 \lor \neg x_6 \lor \neg x_7) c_4 = (\neg x_6 \lor x_7)$$

 $\begin{array}{c} \neg x_2 @ 3 \\ c_1 \\ c_1 \\ x_4 @ 5 \\ c_2 \\ c_4 \\ \neg x_{10} @ 3 \end{array} \xrightarrow{\neg x_7 @ 5} \\ c_4 \\ \kappa \end{array}$

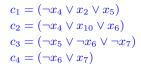
Conflict Clause : $c_5 = (\neg x_4 \lor x_2 \lor x_{10})$

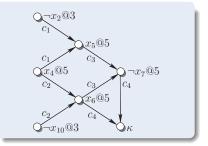


 $c_1 = (\neg x_4 \lor x_2 \lor x_5)$ $c_2 = (\neg x_4 \lor x_{10} \lor x_6)$ $c_3 = (\neg x_5 \lor \neg x_6 \lor \neg x_7)$ $c_4 = (\neg x_6 \lor x_7)$





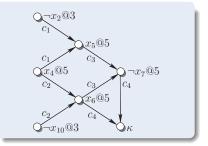




name cl	lit va	r ante
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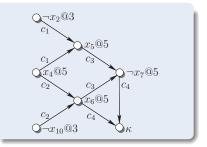
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name	cl	lit	var	ante
c_4	$(\neg x_6 \lor x_7)$	x_7	x_7	<i>C</i> 3



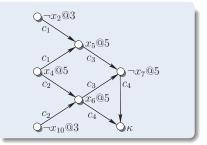
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name	cl	lit	var	ante
c_4	$(\neg x_6 \lor x_7)$	x_7	x_7	c_3
	$(\neg x_5 \lor \neg x_6)$	$\neg x_6$	x_6	c_2



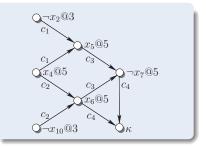
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name	cl	lit	var	ante
c_4	$(\neg x_6 \lor x_7)$	x_7	x_7	<i>C</i> 3
	$(\neg x_5 \lor \neg x_6)$	$\neg x_6$	x_6	c_2
	$(\neg x_4 \lor x_{10} \lor \neg x_5)$	$\neg x_5$	x_5	c_1



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	$(\neg x_4 \lor x_{10} \lor \neg x_5)$	$\neg x_5$	x_5	c_1
c_5	$(\neg x_4 \lor x_2 \lor x_{10})$			

The Algorithm



```
ANALYZE-CONFLICT()
```

```
if current_desicion_level = 0 then return False;
;
```

```
while \neg STOP-CRITERION-MET (cl) do
```

```
lit := LAST-ASSIGNED-LITERAL (cl);
var := VARIABLE-OF-LITERAL (lit);
```

```
ante := \texttt{Antecedent}(lit);
```

```
cl := \text{RESOLVE}(cl, ante, var);
```

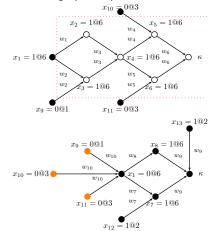
end

```
ADD-CLAUSE-TO-DATABASE (cl);
```

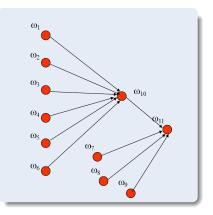
name	cl	lit	var	ante
c_4	$(\neg x_6 \lor x_7)$	x_7	x_7	c_3
	$(\neg x_5 \lor \neg x_6)$	$\neg x_6$	x_6	c_2
	$(\neg x_4 \lor x_{10} \lor \neg x_5)$	$\neg x_5$	x_5	c_1
c_5	$(\neg x_4 \lor x_2 \lor x_{10})$			

Resolution Graph





The resolution graph keeps track of the inference relation.

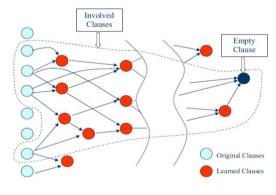


Resolution Graph



What is it good for?

Example: for computing an unsatisfiable core



from SAT'03

Decision Heuristics - VSIDS



VSIDS (Variable State Independent Decaying Sum)

Each literal has a counter initialized to 0.

When a clause is added, the counters are updated.

The unassigned variable with the highest counter is chosen.

Periodically, all the counters are divided by a constant.

Decision Heuristics - VSIDS



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firstly implemented in Chaff





Chaff holds a list of unassigned variables sorted by the counter value.

Updates are needed only when adding conflict clauses.

Thus, decision is made in constant time.

Decision Heuristics - VSIDS



VSIDS is a quasi-static strategy:

- static because it does not depend on current assignment
- dynamic because it gradually changes. Variables that appear in recent conflicts have higher priority.

This strategy is a conflict-driven decision strategy, which dramatically improves performance.

Decision Heuristics - Berkmin



Keep conflict clauses in a stack

Choose the first unresolved clause in the stack (If there is no such clause, use VSIDS)

Choose from this clause a variable + value according to some scoring (e.g. VSIDS)

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Choose the first unresolved clause in the stack (If there is no such clause, use VSIDS)

Choose from this clause a variable + value accvrding to some scoring (e.g. VSIDS)

This gives absolute priority to conflicts.





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There are a SAT Competitions every one or two years.

http://www.satcompetition.org/

SAT Solver



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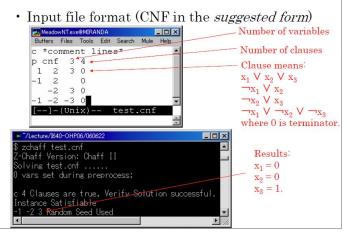
http://www.satcompetition.org/

Zchaff(The champion of 2004) can handle 100,000 variables with millions of clauses (Experiments: 800 variables with 9,000 clauses in 0.0sec).





Using zChaff







SMT solver, string solver.

Referred Materials

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Referred Materials



Daniel Kroening, Ofer Strichman. Decision Procedures: An Algorithmic Point of View, Springer, 2008

Suggest to read:

Marijn J. H. Heule, Oliver Kullmann. The Science of Brute Force. *Communications of the ACM*, Vol. 60(8), 70-79, 2017