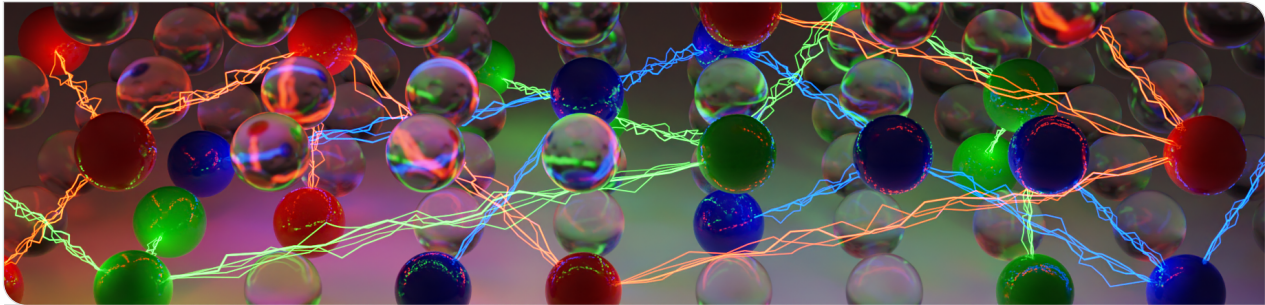


# Practical SAT Solving

## Lecture 4

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## Recap. Lecture 3: Classic Algorithms

- Local Search
- Resolution
- DP Algorithm
- DPLL Algorithm

# Overview

## Recap. Lecture 3: Classic Algorithms

- Local Search
- Resolution
- DP Algorithm
- DPLL Algorithm

## Today's Topics

- Classic Heuristics: Branching Order, Branching Polarity, Restart Strategies
- Modern SAT Solving 1: Conflict Analysis, Clause Learning

# DPLL Algorithm: Iterative Variant

## Decision Heuristics:

- Branching Order:  
Which variable to choose?
- Branching Polarity:  
Which value to assign?

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**Algorithm 1:** iterativeDPLL(CNF Formula  $F$ )

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**Data:** Trail (Stack of Literals)

```

1 while not all variables assigned by Trail do
2   if unitPropagation(F, Trail) has CONFLICT then
3      $L \leftarrow$  last literal not tried both True and False
4     if no such L then return UNSAT
5     pop all literals after and including  $L$  from Trail
6     push  $\{L = 0\}$  on Trail
7   else
8      $L \leftarrow$  pick an unassigned literal
9     push  $\{L = 1\}$  on Trail
10 return SAT
  
```

---

# Decision Heuristics

## Properties of Decision Heuristics

- Desired properties:
  - Fast to compute
  - Yields easy sub-problems  
→ Maximize unit propagations
- Static vs. dynamic:
  - Static: Based on formula statistics
  - Dynamic: Based on formula and current state
- Separate vs. joint:
  - Separate: Choose variable and value independently
  - Joint: Choose variable and value together

# Decision Heuristics: Böhm's Heuristic

- $h_i(x)$ : number of clauses of size  $i$  containing literal  $x$  which are **not yet satisfied**
- $H_i(x) := \alpha \max(h_i(x), h_i(\bar{x})) + \beta \min(h_i(x), h_i(\bar{x}))$  (let  $\alpha := 1$  and  $\beta := 2$ , for example)
- Select literal  $x$  with the **maximal vector**  $(H_1(x), H_2(x), \dots)$  under lexicographic order

## Properties of Böhm's Heuristic

Goal: **satisfy or reduce size** of many and preferably short clauses

- Separate polarity heuristic (note that  $H_i(x) = H_i(\bar{x})$ )  
→ select  $x$  if  $\sum_i h_i(x) \geq \sum_i h_i(\bar{x})$
- depends on literal occurrence counts over the not yet satisfied clauses
- **SAT Competition 1992**: best heuristic for random instances

# Decision Heuristics: Mom's Heuristic

## Maximum Occurrences in clauses of Minimum Size

- $f^*(x)$ : how often  $x$  occurs in the **smallest not yet satisfied** clauses
- Select variable  $x$  with a maximum  $S(x) = (f^*(x) + f^*(\bar{x})) \cdot 2^k + f^*(x) \cdot f^*(\bar{x})$  (let  $k := 10$ , for example)

### Properties of Mom's Heuristic

Goal: assign variables with **high occurrence in short clauses**

- Separate polarity heuristic
  - for example, select  $x$  if  $f^*(\bar{x}) \geq f^*(x)$
- depends on literal occurrence counts over the not yet satisfied clauses
- Popular in the mid 90s (Find some variants in [Freeman 1995](#))

# Decision Heuristics: Jeroslow-Wang Heuristic

- Choose the literal  $x$  with a maximum  $J(x) = \sum_{x \in c, c \in F} 2^{-|c|}$

## Properties of Jeroslow-Wang Heuristic

Goal: assign variables with **high occurrence in short clauses**

- Considers **all clauses**, but shorter clauses are more important
- Separate polarity heuristic  
→ for example, use conflict-seeking polarity heuristic
- **Two-sided variant**: choose variable  $x$  with maximum  $J(x) + J(\bar{x})$   
→ one-sided version works better
- Much better experimental results than Böhm and MOMS



# (R)DLCS and (R)DLIS Heuristics

## (Randomized) Dynamic Largest (Combined | Individual) Sum

- based on positive  $C_P(x)$  and negative occurrences  $C_N(x)$  of variable  $x$
- used in the famous SAT solver **GRASP** in 2000

### Properties of (R)DLCS and (R)DLIS Heuristics

- **Dynamic:** Take the **current partial assignment** into account
- **Combined:** select  $x$  with maximal  $C_P(x) + C_N(x)$
- **Individual:** select  $x$  with maximal  $\max(C_P(x), C_N(x))$
- **Randomized:** randomly select variable among the best

# Recap

## Decision Heuristics

- Böhm's Heuristic
- Mom's Heuristic
- Jeroslow-Wang Heuristic
- (R)DLCS and (R)DLIS Heuristics

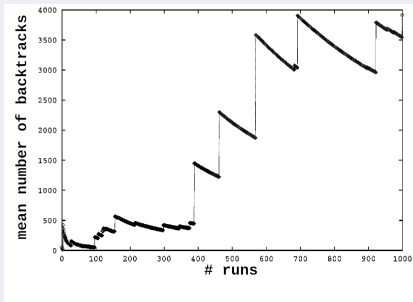
## Next up

Restart Strategies

# Restarts Strategies: Motivation

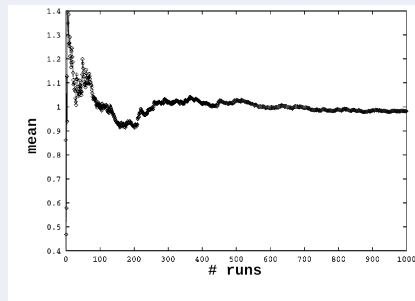
Given  $n$  runs of randomized DPLL search, what is the average number of backtracks per run (relative to  $n$ )?

## Heavy-tailed Distribution



⇒ Heavy-tailed distribution:

$$P[X > x] \sim C \cdot x^{-\alpha}, \quad C > 0, \alpha \in (0, 2)$$



— vs. Standard distribution:  $P[X > x] \sim \frac{1}{x\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$

[From: Gomes et al. 2000]

# Restart Strategies

Clear the partial assignment and backtrack to the root of the search tree.

## Why Restart?

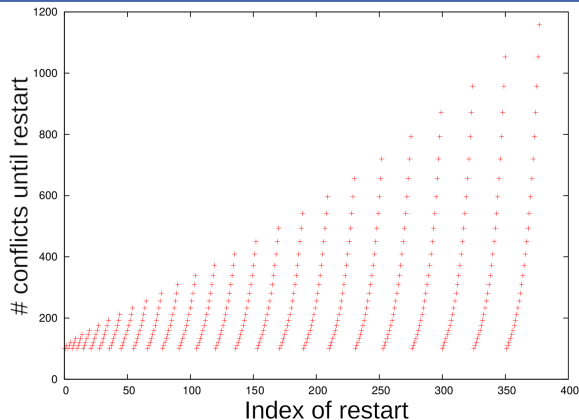
- To recover from **bad branching decisions** and solve more instances
- Might decrease performance on **easy instances**

## When to Restart?

- After **some number of conflicts / backtracks**
- The intervals between restarts should increase to **guarantee completeness**
- How much increase?
  - Linear increase – too slow
  - Exponential increase – ok with small exponent
  - MiniSat:  $k$ -th restart happens after  $100 \times 1.1^k$  conflicts

# Restart Strategies: Inner / Outer Pattern

## Inner / Outer Pattern (MiniSat)



### Algorithm 2: Inner / Outer

**Data:** int inner = 100, outer = 100

```

1 while true do
2   run DPLL() with conflict-limit inner
3   restarts++
4   if inner ≥ outer then
5     outer *= 1.1
6     inner = 100
7   else
8     inner *= 1.1
  
```

# Restart Strategies: Luby Sequence

## Theorem (Luby, Sinclair, Zuckerman 1993)

Consider a *Las Vegas* algorithm  $A$  (i.e., correct but with *random run time*) and a *restart strategy*  $S = \langle t_1, t_2, \dots \rangle$  (i.e., run  $A$  for time  $t_1$ , then for time  $t_2$ , etc.). Up to a constant factor, the Luby sequence is the *best possible universal strategy* to minimize the *expected run time* until a run is successful.

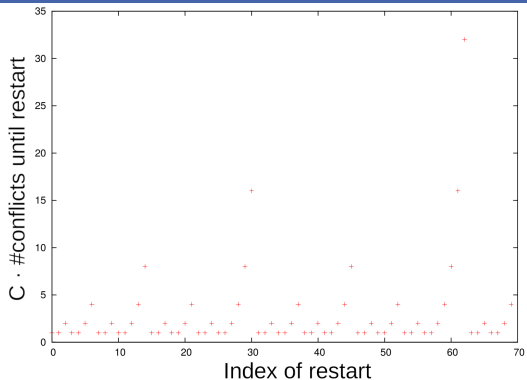
$$\text{Luby} = u \cdot (t_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \quad \text{with} \quad t_i = \begin{cases} 2^{k-1} & \text{if } i = 2^k - 1 \\ t_{i-2^{k-1}+1} & \text{if } 2^{k-1} \leq i \leq 2^k - 1 \end{cases}$$

## Example (Luby Sequence)

1, 1, 2, 1, 1, 2, 4, 1, 1, 2, 1, 1, 2, 4, 8, ...

# Restart Strategies: Luby Sequence

## Luby Sequence: Naive Implementation



### Algorithm 3: Luby Sequence

**Input:** int  $i$

- 1 **for**  $k = 1$  **to**  $32$  **do**
- 2     **if**  $i == (1 \ll k) - 1$  **then**
- 3         **return**  $1 \ll (k - 1)$
- 4 **for**  $k = 1$  **to**  $\infty$  **do**
- 5     **if**  $(1 \ll (k - 1)) \leq i \leq (1 \ll k) - 1$  **then**
- 6         **return**  $\text{Luby}(i - (1 \ll (k - 1)) + 1)$

run DPLL() with conflict-limit  $512 \cdot \text{Luby}(++\text{restarts})$

# Restart Strategies: Luby Sequence

## Luby Sequence: Reluctant Doubling

A more efficient implementation of the Luby sequence invented by Donald Knuth

Use the  $v_n$  of the following pairs  $(u_n, v_n)$ :

$$(u_1, v_1) = (1, 1);$$

$$(u_{n+1}, v_{n+1}) = u_n \ \& \ -u_n == v_n ? (u_{n+1}, 1) : (u_n, 2v_n);$$

## Example (Luby Sequence)

$(1,1), (2,1), (2,2), (3,1), (4,1), (4,2), (4,4), (5,1), \dots$



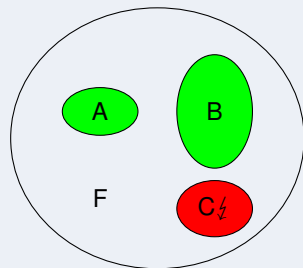
# Branching Polarity: Phase Saving

Observation: Frequent restarts **decrease performance** on some satisfiable instances

## Assignment Caching

Idea: Remember **last assignment** of each variable and use it **first** in branching

- First implemented in **RSAT (2006)**
- Result: **Phase saving** stabilizes positive effect of restarts
- Best results in combination with **non-chronological backtracking**



Example: *A* and *B* are satisfied, search works on component *C*

# Recap

## Decision Heuristics

## Restart Strategies

- Inner / Outer Pattern
- Luby Sequence / Reluctant Doubling
- Phase Saving / Assignment Caching

## Next up

Clause Learning

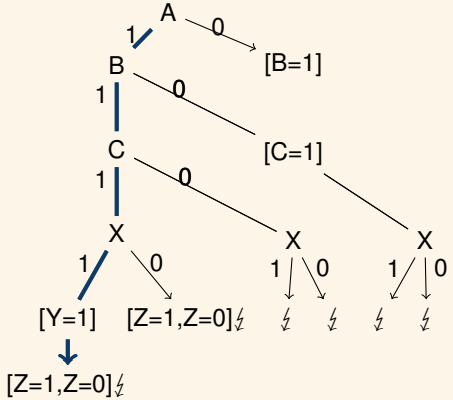
# DPLL: Backtracking

## Example: Chronological Backtracking

$\{\{A, B\}, \{B, C\}, \{\neg A, \neg X, Y\},$   
 $\{\neg A, X, Z\}, \{\neg A, X, \neg Z\},$   
 $\{\neg A, \neg Y, Z\}, \{\neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z\}\}$  (Formula)

$A, B, C, X, Y, Z$  (Trail)

$\{\neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z\}$  (Conflicting Clause)



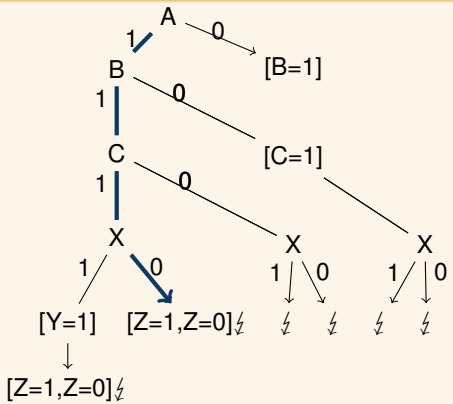
# DPLL: Backtracking

## Example: Chronological Backtracking

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 $\{\neg A, \neg Y, Z\}, \{\neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z\}\}$  (Formula)

$A, B, C, \neg X, Z$  (Trail)

$\{\neg A, X, \neg Z\}$  (Conflicting Clause)



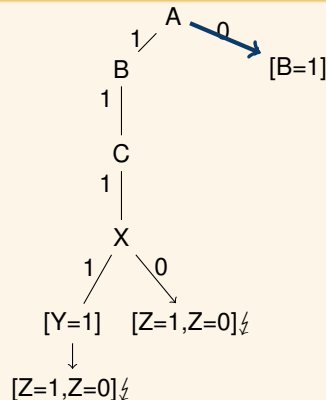
# DPLL: Backtracking

## Example: Chronological Backtracking

$\{\{A, B\}, \{B, C\}, \{\neg A, \neg X, Y\},$   
 $\{\neg A, X, Z\}, \{\neg A, X, \neg Z\},$   
 $\{\neg A, \neg Y, Z\}, \{\neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z\}\}$  (Formula)

**Observation:** Conflicting clauses  $\{\neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z\},$   
 $\{\neg A, X, \neg Z\}$  constrain only a fraction of the trail  
*(B and C irrelevant)*

How to find out which assignments on the trail are  
**relevant for the actual conflict** and **immediately**  
**backtrack to A?**



# Implication Graph

Given: Formula  $F$ , assignment trail  $T$  and conflicting clause  $C$ .

## Definition: Implication Graph

The implication graph is a DAG  $G = (V \cup \{\downarrow\}, E)$  of

- vertices  $[\ell_i, d_i]$  for each literal  $\ell_i$  with decision level  $d_i$  on the trail
- vertex  $\downarrow$  representing the conflicting assignment
- Note: all literals of  $C$  have edges to  $\downarrow$
- edges  $([\ell_i, d_i], [u_{i,j}, d_i])$  for each propagated literal  $u_{i,j}$  at decision level  $d_i$

## Observations:

The sink is always the **conflicting assignment**, and the sources are the **decision literals** involved in the conflict.

We can use this to determine the **reasons for the conflict**.

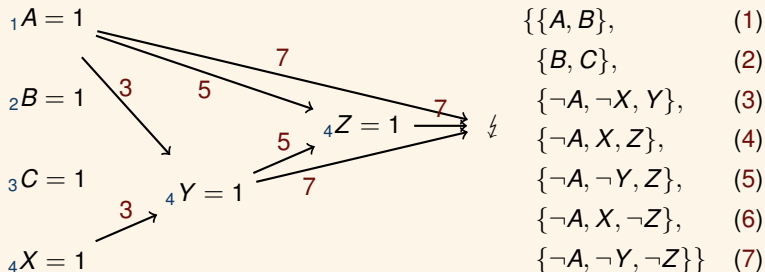
# Conflict Analysis

## Example: Implication Graph

Implication graph for the conflicting state under the trail  $A, B, C, X, Y, Z$ .

The edge labels denote **clauses**, node labels indicate a variable assignment and its **decision level**.

- Consider inferring the clause  $\{\neg A, \neg X\}$  by the following resolution steps:  $(7 \circ_Z 5) \circ_Y 3$ .
- Learning of  $\{\neg A, \neg X\}$  prevents the solver choosing the same partial assignment again.



# Conflict Analysis: Implementation

Implement trail as **stack of literals** together with a pointer to the **reason clause** (nullptr for decisions) and the **decision level**. On each conflict, use the trail to trace back the implications to the conflict sources.

Example (Trail with conflicting clause  $\{\neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z\}$ )

$\zeta$	4	$\{\neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z\}$
Z	4	$\{\neg A, \neg Y, Z\}$
Y	4	$\{\neg A, \neg X, Y\}$
X	4	null
C	3	null
B	2	null
A	1	null

## Trail Resolution:

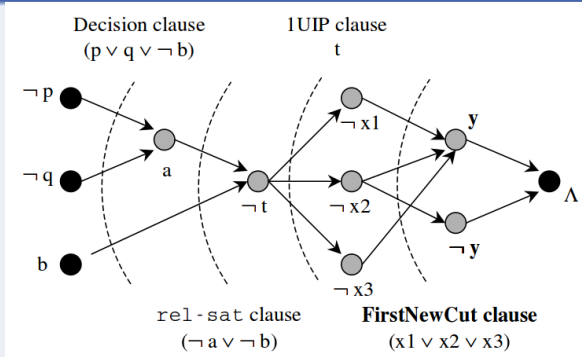
- $\{\neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z\} \otimes_Z \{\neg A, \neg Y, Z\} = \{\neg A, \neg Y\}$
- $\{\neg A, \neg Y\} \otimes_Y \{\neg A, \neg X, Y\} = \{\neg A, \neg X\}$
- Conflict Clause  $C = \{\neg A, \neg X\}$
- Backtrack Level  $b = 1$



# Conflict Analysis: Unit Implication Points (UIP)

## Several possibilities to learn a clause from an implication graph

- UIP is a dominator in the implication graph (restricted to variables assigned at the current decision level)
- A node  $v$  is a dominator for  $\downarrow$ , if all paths to  $\downarrow$  contain  $v$
- FirstUIP: “first” dominator (seen from conflict side)



\*[From: Beame et al. 2003]

# Conflict Analysis: Unit Implication Points (UIP)

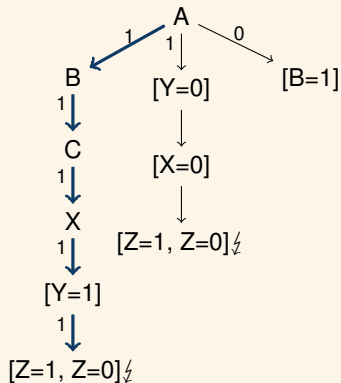
## 1-UIP Learning

- FirstUIP-clause: resolve conflicting clause and reason clauses until only a single literal of the current decision level remains
- Advantage: Stopping at a UIP always leads to an asserting clause. Algorithm becomes easier: backtrack until clause becomes asserting
- The assertion level is the second highest level in a conflict clause

# Backtracking with Clause Learning

1-UIP learning changes the decision tree in our example like this:

## Example: Non-chronological Backtracking



$$\begin{aligned}
 F = & \{ \{A, B\}, \{B, C\}, \\
 & \{ \neg A, \neg X, Y \}, \\
 & \{ \neg A, X, Z \}, \\
 & \{ \neg A, \neg Y, Z \}, \\
 & \{ \neg A, X, \neg Z \}, \\
 & \{ \neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z \} \}
 \end{aligned}$$

Trail:  $A, B, C, X, Y, Z$

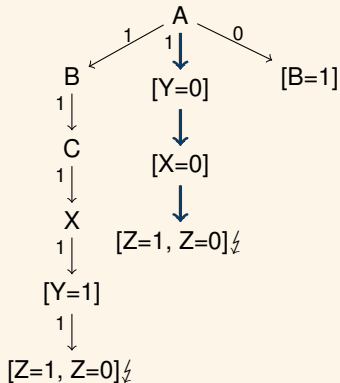
Conflicting Clause:  $\{ \neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z \}$

Conflict Clause (1UIP):  $\{ \neg A, \neg Y \}$

# Backtracking with Clause Learning

1-UIP learning changes the decision tree in our example like this:

## Example: Non-chronological Backtracking



$$\begin{aligned}
 F = & \{ \{A, B\}, \{B, C\}, \\
 & \{ \neg A, \neg X, Y \}, \\
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 & \{ \neg A, \neg Y, Z \}, \\
 & \{ \neg A, X, \neg Z \}, \\
 & \{ \neg A, \neg Y, \neg Z \} \\
 & \{ \neg A, \neg Y \} \}
 \end{aligned}$$

Trail:  $A, \neg Y, \neg X, Z$

Conflicting Clause:  $\{ \neg A, X, \neg Z \}$

# Resolution Proof

## Properties of conflict clause $C$

- $F \models C$
- $F \cup \neg C \vdash_{UP} \perp$
- $D \notin F, \forall D \subseteq C$

## Certificates for Unsatisfiability

- sequence of learned clauses serves as a **proof of unsatisfiability**
- can be used to validate the correctness of the SAT result in **high risk applications** (e.g., verification)

# The End.

## Recap

- Decision Heuristics
  - Böhm's Heuristic
  - Mom's Heuristic
  - Jeroslow-Wang Heuristic
  - (R)DLCS and (R)DLIS Heuristics
- Restart Strategies
  - Inner / Outer Pattern
  - Luby Sequence / Reluctant Doubling
- Branching Polarity: Phase Saving
- Conflict Analysis, Clause Learning