CSE 473 Propositional Logic SAT Algorithms

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(With many slides from Dan Weld, Raj Rao, Mausam, Stuart Russell, Dieter Fox, Henry Kautz, Min-Yen Kan...)

Irrationally held truths may be more harmful than reasoned errors.

- Thomas Huxley (1825-1895)

Propositional Logic

- Syntax
 - Atomic sentences: P, Q, ...
 - Connectives: Λ , V, \neg , \Longrightarrow
- Semantics
 - Truth Tables
- Inference
 - Modus Ponens
 - Resolution
 - DPLL
 - GSAT
- Complexity

Truth tables for connectives

P	Q	$\neg P$	$P \wedge Q$	$P \lor Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
false	false	true	false	false	true	true
false	true	true	false	true	true	false
true	false	false	false	true	false	false
true	true	false	true	true	true	true

Types of Reasoning (Inference)

Deduction (showing entailment, |=)

```
S = question
```

Prove that KB = S

Typically use rules to derive new formulas from old (inference)

Model Finding (showing satisfiability)

S = description of problem

Show S is satisfiable

Validity and Satisfiability

A sentence is valid if it is true in all models,

e.g.,
$$True$$
, $A \vee \neg A$, $A \Rightarrow A$, $(A \wedge (A \Rightarrow B)) \Rightarrow B$

Validity is connected to inference via the Deduction Theorem:

$$KB \models \alpha$$
 if and only if $(KB \Rightarrow \alpha)$ is valid

A sentence is satisfiable if it is true in some model

e.g.,
$$A \vee B$$
, C

A sentence is unsatisfiable if it is true in **no** models

e.g.,
$$A \wedge \neg A$$

Satisfiability is connected to inference via the following:

 $KB \models \alpha \text{ if and only if } (KB \land \neg \alpha) \text{ is unsatisfiable}$ i.e., prove α by reductio~ad~absurdum

Inference

 $KB \vdash_i \alpha = \text{sentence } \alpha \text{ can be derived from } KB \text{ by procedure } i$

Consequences of KB are a haystack; α is a needle. Entailment = needle in haystack; inference = finding it

Soundness: i is sound if whenever $KB \vdash_i \alpha$, it is also true that $KB \models \alpha$

Completeness: i is complete if whenever $KB \models \alpha$, it is also true that $KB \vdash_i \alpha$

Preview: we will define a logic (first-order logic) which is expressive enough to say almost anything of interest, and for which there exists a sound and complete inference procedure.

That is, the procedure will answer any question whose answer follows from what is known by the KB.

Truth Tables for Inference

$B_{1,1}$	$B_{2,1}$	$P_{1,1}$	$P_{1,2}$	$P_{2,1}$	$P_{2,2}$	$P_{3,1}$	R_1	R_2	R_3	R_4	R_5	KB
false	true	true	true	true	false	false						
false	false	false	false	false	false	true	true	true	false	true	false	false
:	i	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
false	true	false	false	false	false	false	true	true	false	true	true	false
false	true	false	false	false	false	true	true	true	true	true	true	<u>true</u>
false	true	false	false	false	true	false	true	true	true	true	true	<u>true</u>
false	true	false	false	false	true	true	true	true	true	true	true	<u>true</u>
false	true	false	false	true	false	false	true	false	false	true	true	false
:	÷	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
true	false	true	true	false	true	false						

Enumerate rows (different assignments to symbols), if KB is true in row, check that α is too

Problem: exponential time and space!

Logical Equivalence

Two sentences are logically equivalent iff true in same models:

$$\alpha \equiv \beta$$
 if and only if $\alpha \models \beta$ and $\beta \models \alpha$

```
(\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\beta \wedge \alpha) commutativity of \wedge
           (\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv (\beta \vee \alpha) commutativity of \vee
((\alpha \wedge \beta) \wedge \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \wedge (\beta \wedge \gamma)) associativity of \wedge
((\alpha \vee \beta) \vee \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \vee (\beta \vee \gamma)) associativity of \vee
            \neg(\neg\alpha) \equiv \alpha double-negation elimination
       (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \beta \Rightarrow \neg \alpha) contraposition
      (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \lor \beta) implication elimination
      (\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta) \equiv ((\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \land (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)) biconditional elimination
       \neg(\alpha \land \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \lor \neg \beta) De Morgan
        \neg(\alpha \lor \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \land \neg \beta) De Morgan
(\alpha \wedge (\beta \vee \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \wedge \beta) \vee (\alpha \wedge \gamma)) distributivity of \wedge over \vee
(\alpha \vee (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \vee \beta) \wedge (\alpha \vee \gamma)) distributivity of \vee over \wedge
```

Proof Methods

Proof methods divide into (roughly) two kinds:

Application of inference rules

- Legitimate (sound) generation of new sentences from old
- Proof = a sequence of inference rule applications
 Can use inference rules as operators in a standard search alg.
- Typically require translation of sentences into a normal form

Model checking

```
truth table enumeration (always exponential in n) improved backtracking, e.g., Davis—Putnam—Logemann—Loveland heuristic search in model space (sound but incomplete) e.g., min-conflicts-like hill-climbing algorithms
```

Special Syntactic Forms

General Form:

$$((q \land \neg r) \rightarrow s)) \land \neg (s \land t)$$

Conjunction Normal Form (CNF)

```
(\neg q \lor r \lor s) \land (\neg s \lor \neg t)
Set notation: \{(\neg q, r, s), (\neg s, \neg t)\}
empty clause () = false
```

Binary clauses: 1 or 2 literals per clause

$$(\neg q \lor r)$$
 $(\neg s \lor \neg t)$

Horn clauses: 0 or 1 positive literal per clause

$$(\neg q \lor \neg r \lor s)$$
 $(\neg s \lor \neg t)$
 $(q \land r) \rightarrow s$ $(s \land t) \rightarrow false$

Propositional Logic: Inference Algorithms

- 1. Backward & Forward Chaining
- Resolution (Proof by Contradiction)



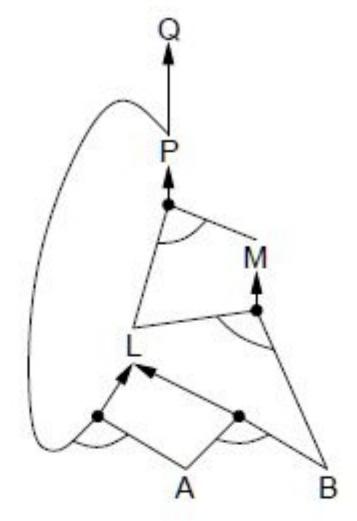
- 3. Exhaustive Enumeration
- 4. DPLL (Davis, Putnam Loveland & Logemann)
- GSAT

Example

KB with Horn Clauses

$$P \Rightarrow Q$$
 $L \land M \Rightarrow P$
 $B \land L \Rightarrow M$
 $A \land P \Rightarrow L$
 $A \land B \Rightarrow L$
 $A \land B \Rightarrow C$

Proof And/Or Graph



Inference Technique II: Forward/ Backward Chaining

Require sentences to be in Horn Form:

KB = conjunction of Horn clauses

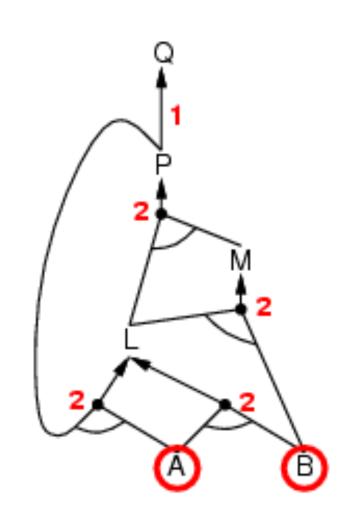
- Horn clause =
 - proposition symbol or
 - "(conjunction of symbols) ⇒ symbol"
 (i.e. clause with at most 1 positive literal)
- E.g., KB = C \land (B \Rightarrow A) \land (C \land D \Rightarrow B)
- F/B chaining based on "Modus Ponens" rule:

$$\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \qquad \qquad \alpha_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_n \Rightarrow \beta$$
B

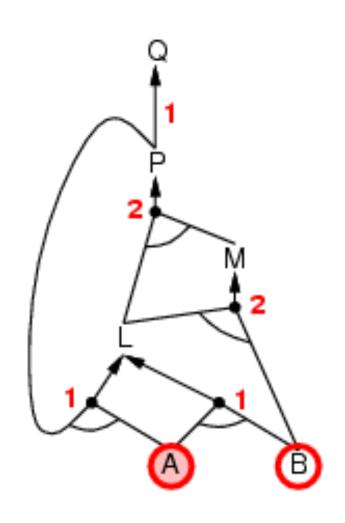
Sound and complete for Horn clauses

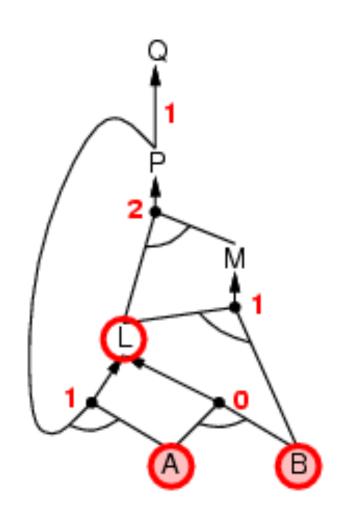
Forward chaining algorithm

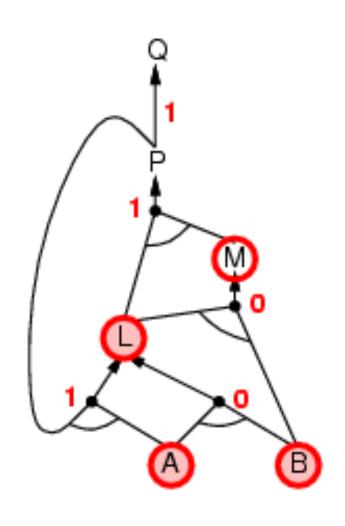
```
function PL-FC-Entails? (KB, q) returns true or false
  local variables: count, a table, indexed by clause, initially the number of premises
                      inferred, a table, indexed by symbol, each entry initially false
                      agenda, a list of symbols, initially the symbols known to be true
   while agenda is not empty do
       p \leftarrow \text{Pop}(agenda)
       unless inferred[p] do
            inferred[p] \leftarrow true
            for each Horn clause c in whose premise p appears do
                 decrement count[c]
                 if count[c] = 0 then do
                      if HEAD[c] = q then return true
                      Push(Head[c], agenda)
   return false
```

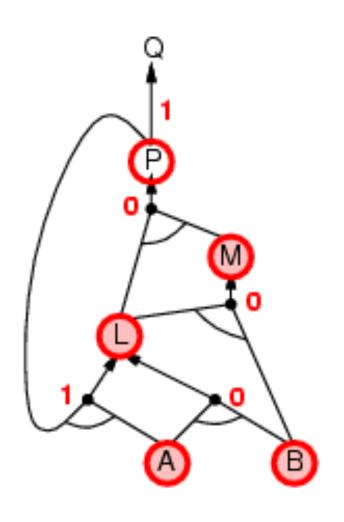


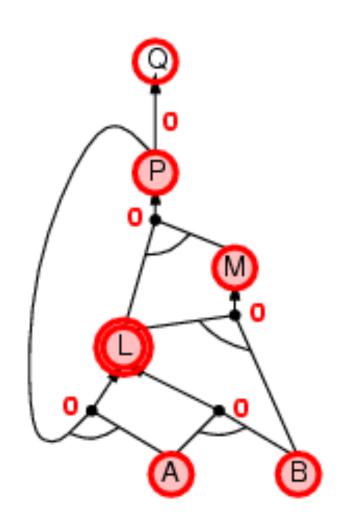
Query = Q (i.e. "Is Q true?")











Backward chaining

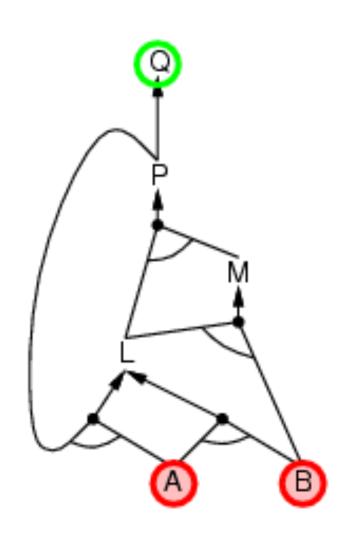
Idea: work backwards from the query q:

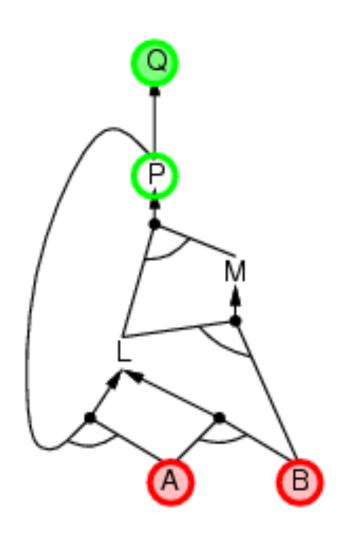
```
to prove q by BC,
check if q is known already, or
prove by BC all premises of some rule concluding q
```

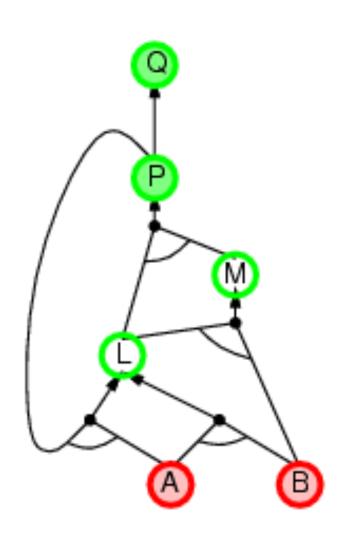
Avoid loops: check if new subgoal is already on goal stack

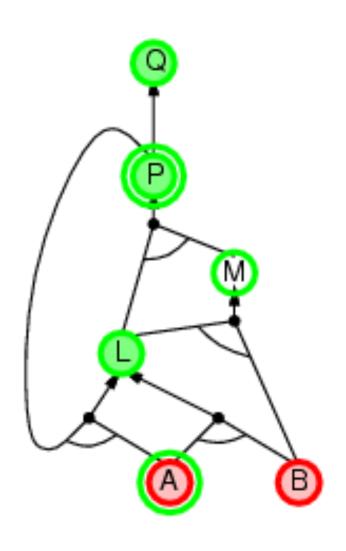
Avoid repeated work: check if new subgoal

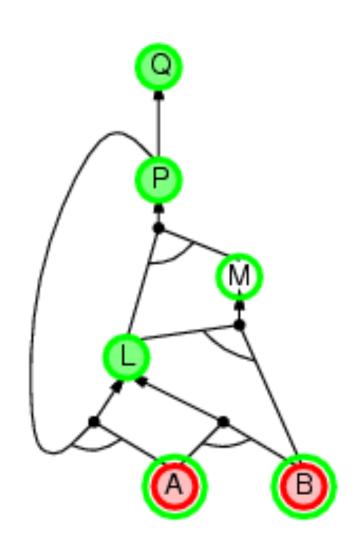
- 1. has already been proved true, or
- has already failed

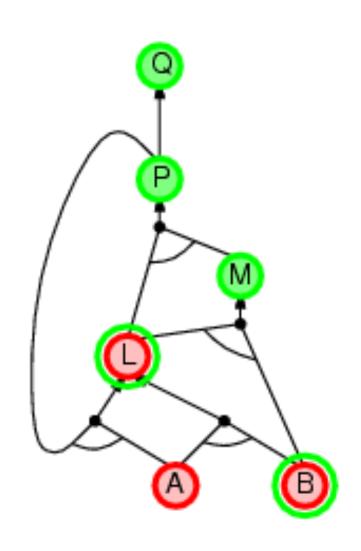


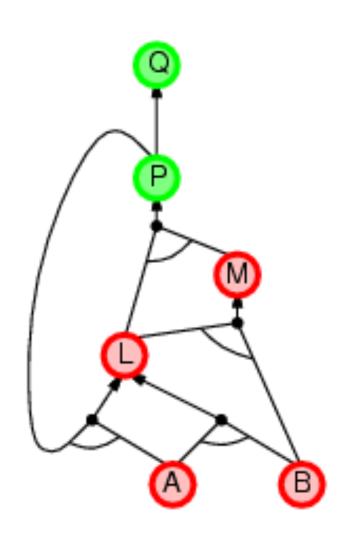


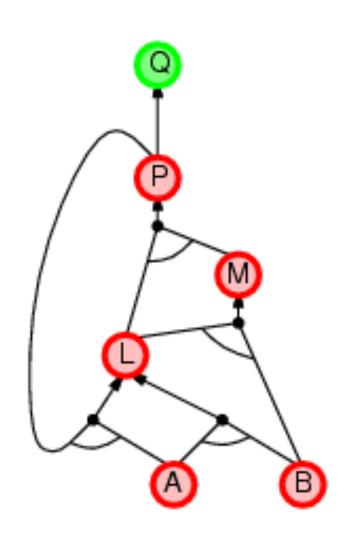


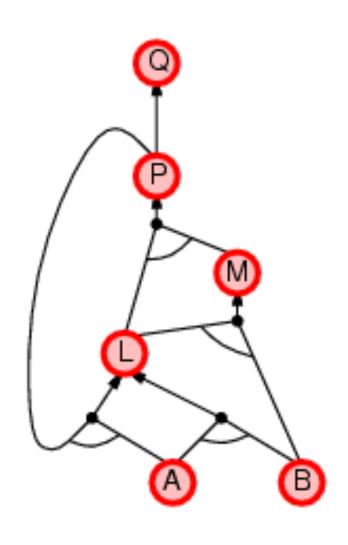












Forward vs. backward chaining

- FC is data-driven, automatic, unconscious processing,
 - e.g., object recognition, routine decisions
- FC may do lots of work that is irrelevant to the goal
- BC is goal-driven, appropriate for problem-solving,
 - e.g., How do I get an A in this class?
 - e.g., What is my best exit strategy out of the classroom?
 - e.g., How can I impress my date tonight?
- Complexity of BC can be much less than linear in size of KB

Inference 2: Resolution

[Robinson 1965]

{ (p
$$\vee \alpha$$
), (¬ p $\vee \beta \vee \gamma$) } [-R ($\alpha \vee \beta \vee \gamma$)

Correctness

If
$$S1 - S2$$
 then $S1 = S2$

Refutation Completeness:

If S is unsatisfiable then
$$S \mid -R$$
 ()

Conversion to CNF

$$B_{1,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1})\beta$$

- 1. Eliminate \Leftrightarrow , replacing $\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta$ with $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \land (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)$. $(B_{1,1} \Rightarrow (P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1})) \land ((P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1}) \Rightarrow B_{1,1})$
- 2. Eliminate \Rightarrow , replacing $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$ with $\neg \alpha \lor \beta$. $(\neg B_{1,1} \lor P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1}) \land (\neg (P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1}) \lor B_{1,1})$
- 3. Move ¬ inwards using de Morgan's rules and double-negation:

$$(\neg B_{1,1} \lor P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1}) \land ((\neg P_{1,2} \lor \neg P_{2,1}) \lor B_{1,1})$$

4. Apply distributivity law (∧ over ∨) and flatten:

$$(\neg B_{1,1} \lor P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1}) \land (\neg P_{1,2} \lor B_{1,1}) \land (\neg P_{2,1} \lor B_{1,1})$$

Resolution algorithm

• To show **KB** $\vdash \alpha$, use proof by contradiction, i.e., show **KB** $\land \neg \alpha$ unsatisfiable

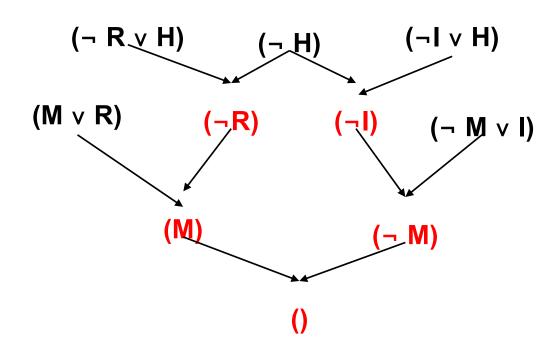
```
function PL-Resolution (KB, \alpha) returns true or false
   clauses \leftarrow the set of clauses in the CNF representation of KB \wedge \neg \alpha
   new \leftarrow \{ \}
   loop do
        for each C_i, C_i in clauses do
              resolvents \leftarrow PL-Resolve(C_i, C_i)
              if resolvents contains the empty clause then return true
              new \leftarrow new \cup resolvents
        if new \subseteq clauses then return false
         clauses \leftarrow clauses \cup new
```

Resolution

If the unicorn is mythical, then it is immortal, but if it is not mythical, it is a reptile. If the unicorn is either immortal or a reptile, then it is horned.

Prove: the unicorn is horned.

M = mythical
I = immortal
R = reptile
H = horned



Resolution as Search

- States?
- Operators

Model Checking: Truth tables for inference

$B_{1,1}$	$B_{2,1}$	$P_{1,1}$	$P_{1,2}$	$P_{2,1}$	$P_{2,2}$	$P_{3,1}$	KB	α_1
false	true							
false	false	false	false	false	false	true	false	true
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
false	true	false	false	false	false	false	false	true
false	true	false	false	false	false	true	\underline{true}	\underline{true}
false	true	false	false	false	true	false	\underline{true}	\underline{true}
false	true	false	false	false	true	true	\underline{true}	\underline{true}
false	true	false	false	true	false	false	false	true
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
true	false	false						

 $alpha_1 = not P_{12} ("[1,2] is safe")$

Inference 4: DPLL (Enumeration of *Partial* Models)

[Davis, Putnam, Loveland & Logemann 1962]

Version 1

```
dpll_1(pa) {
  if (pa makes F false) return false;
  if (pa makes F true) return true;
  choose P in F;
  if (dpll_1(pa U {P=0})) return true;
  return dpll_1(pa U {P=1});
}
```

Returns true if F is satisfiable, false otherwise

- $(a \lor b \lor c)$
- (a ∨ ¬b)
- (a ∨ ¬c)
- $(\neg a \lor c)$

 \widehat{a}

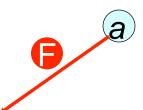
$$(a \lor b \lor c)$$

$$(\neg a \lor c)$$

$$(F \lor b \lor c)$$

$$(\mathsf{F} \vee \neg c)$$

$$(\mathsf{T} \vee c)$$

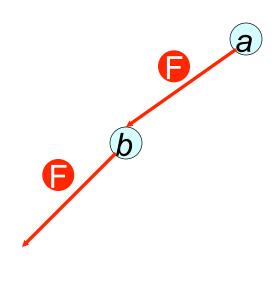


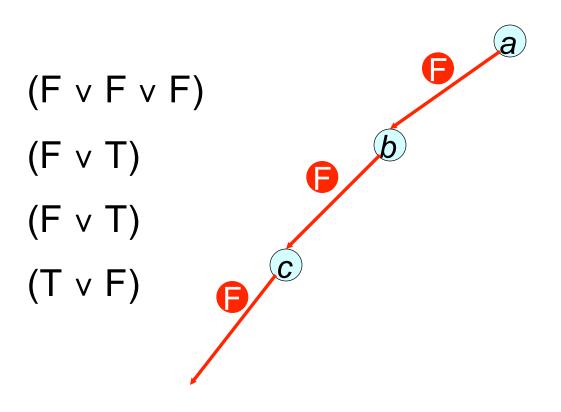


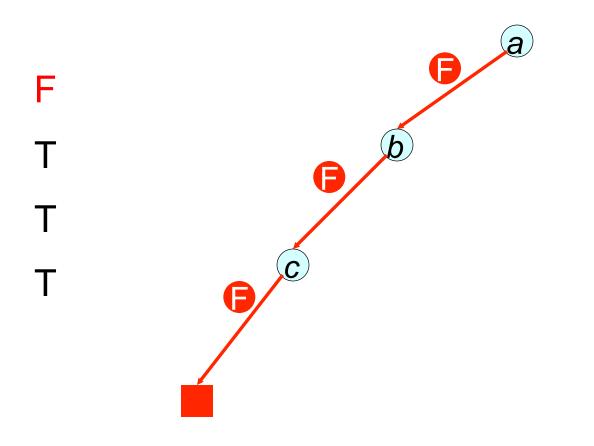
$$(F \lor T)$$

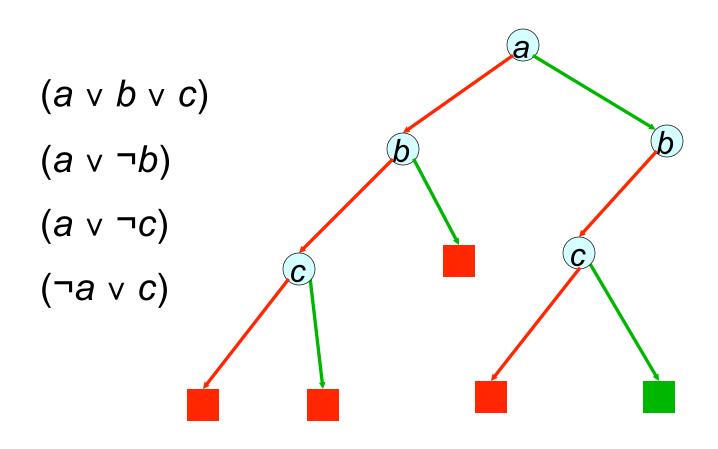
$$(\mathsf{F} \lor \neg c)$$

$$(\mathsf{T} \vee c)$$









DPLL as Search

Search Space?

Algorithm?

Improving DPLL

If literal L_1 is true, then clause $(L_1 \vee L_2 \vee ...)$ is true If clause C_1 is true, then $C_1 \wedge C_2 \wedge C_3 \wedge ...$ has the same value as $C_2 \wedge C_3 \wedge ...$

Therefore: Okay to delete clauses containing true literals!

Improving DPLL

If literal L_1 is true, then clause $(L_1 \vee L_2 \vee ...)$ is true If clause C_1 is true, then $C_1 \wedge C_2 \wedge C_3 \wedge ...$ has the same value as $C_2 \wedge C_3 \wedge ...$

Therefore: Okay to delete clauses containing true literals!

If literal L_1 is false, then clause $(L_1 \vee L_2 \vee L_3 \vee ...)$ has the same value as $(L_2 \vee L_3 \vee ...)$

Therefore: Okay to delete shorten containing false literals!

Improving DPLL

If literal L_1 is true, then clause $(L_1 \vee L_2 \vee ...)$ is true If clause C_1 is true, then $C_1 \wedge C_2 \wedge C_3 \wedge ...$ has the same value as $C_2 \wedge C_3 \wedge ...$

Therefore: Okay to delete clauses containing true literals!

If literal L_1 is false, then clause $(L_1 \vee L_2 \vee L_3 \vee ...)$ has the same value as $(L_2 \vee L_3 \vee ...)$

Therefore: Okay to delete shorten containing false literals!

If literal L_1 is false, then clause (L_1) is false

Therefore: the empty clause means false!

```
dpll 2(F, literal) {
  remove clauses containing literal
  if (F contains no clauses) return true;
  shorten clauses containing ¬literal
  if (F contains empty clause)
     return false;
  choose V in F;
 if (dpl1 2(F, ¬V))return true;
 return dpll 2(F, V);
```

Partial assignment corresponding to a node is the set of chosen literals on the path from the root to the node

 \widehat{a}

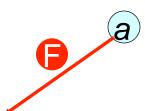
$$(a \lor b \lor c)$$

$$(\neg a \lor c)$$

$$(F \lor b \lor c)$$

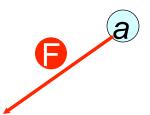
$$(\mathsf{F} \vee \neg c)$$

$$(T \lor c)$$





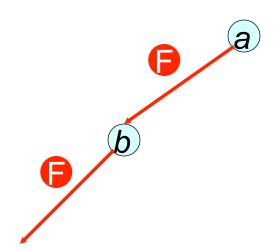
- (¬b)
- (¬c)

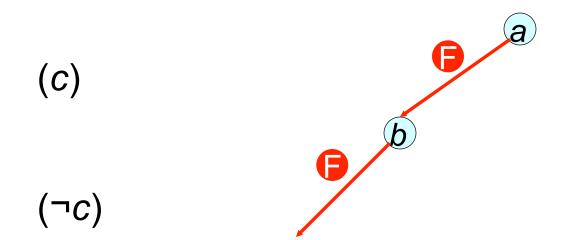


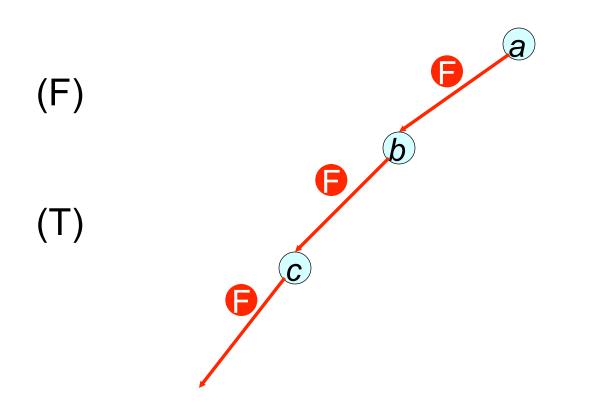


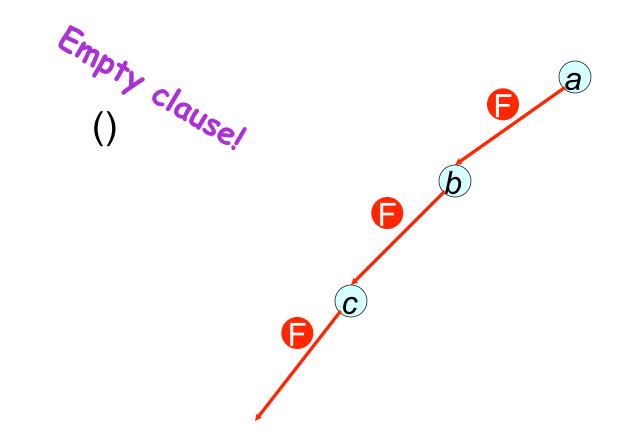
(T)

 $(\neg c)$









Representing Formulae

- CNF = Conjunctive Normal Form
 - Conjunction (∧) of Disjunctions (∨)
- Represent as set of sets

```
-((A, B), (\neg A, C), (\neg C))
```

$$-((\neg A), (A))$$

- -(())
- -((A))
- -()

Structure in Clauses

Unit Literals

```
A literal that appears in a singleton clause {{¬b c}{¬c}{a ¬b e}{d b}{e a ¬c}}

Might as well set it true! And simplify {{¬b} {a ¬b e}{d b}}
```

Pure Literals

```
    A symbol that always appears with same sign
```

```
- {{a¬b c} {¬c d¬e} {¬a¬b e}{d b} {e a¬c}}

Might as well set it true! And simplify
{{a¬b c} {¬a¬b e} {e a¬c}}
```

In Other Words

Formula $(L) \wedge C_2 \wedge C_3 \wedge ...$ is only true when literal L is true

Therefore: Branch immediately on unit literals!

May view this as adding constraint propagation techniques into play

In Other Words

Formula $(L) \wedge C_2 \wedge C_3 \wedge ...$ is only true when literal L is true

Therefore: Branch immediately on unit literals!

If literal L does not appear negated in formula F, then setting

L true preserves satisfiability of F

Therefore: Branch immediately on pure literals!

May view this as adding constraint propagation techniques into play

DPLL (previous version)

Davis – Putnam – Loveland – Logemann

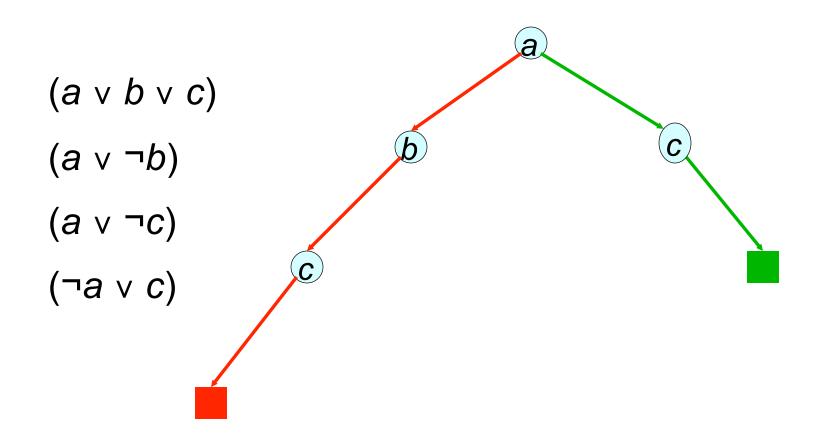
```
dpll(F, literal) {
 remove clauses containing literal
 if (F contains no clauses) return
 true;
 shorten clauses containing ¬literal
 if (F contains empty clause)
    return dpll(F, L);
 choose V in F;
 if (dpl1(F, ¬V))return true;
 return dpl1(F, V);
```

DPLL (for real!)

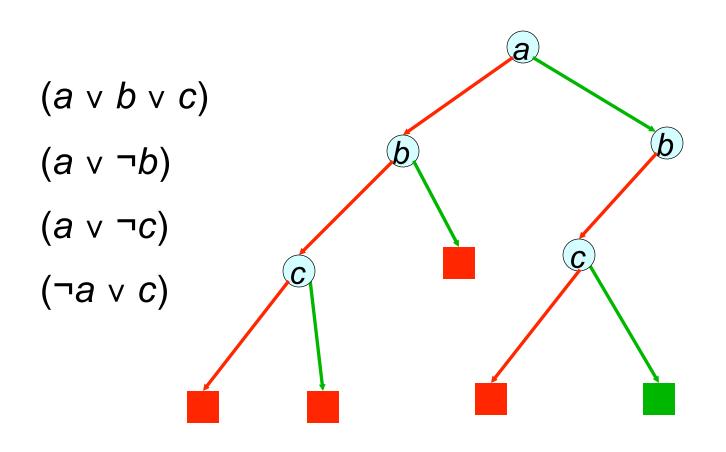
Davis – Putnam – Loveland – Logemann

```
dpll(F, literal) {
 remove clauses containing literal
 if (F contains no clauses) return
 true;
 shorten clauses containing ¬literal
 if (F contains empty clause)
    return false;
 if (F contains a unit or pure L)
    return dpll(F, L);
 choose V in F;
 if (dpl1(F, ¬V))return true;
 return dpll(F, V);
```

DPLL (for real)



Compare with DPLL Version 1



DPLL (for real!)

Davis – Putnam – Loveland – Logemann

```
dpll(F, literal) {
  remove clauses containing literal
  if (F contains no clauses) return true;
                       Where could we use a heuristic to where could we use a heuristic to where could we use a heuristic to the performance?
  shorten clauses containing ¬literal
  if (F contains empty clause)
       return false;
  if (F contains a unit or pure L)
       return dpll(F, L);
  choose V in F;
  if (dpl1(F, ¬V)) return true;
  return dpll(F, V);
}
```

Heuristic Search in DPLL

 Heuristics are used in DPLL to select a (nonunit, non-pure) proposition for branching

- Idea: identify a most constrained variable
 - Likely to create many unit clauses
- MOM's heuristic:
 - Most occurrences in clauses of minimum length

Success of DPLL

- 1962 DPLL invented
- 1992 300 propositions
- 1997 600 propositions (satz)
- Additional techniques:
 - Learning conflict clauses at backtrack points
 - Randomized restarts
 - 2002 (zChaff) 1,000,000 propositions encodings of hardware verification problems

Other Ideas?

How else could we solve SAT problems?

WalkSat (Take 1)

- Local search (Hill Climbing + Random Walk) over space of complete truth assignments
 - With prob p: flip any variable in any unsatisfied clause
 - –With prob (1-p): flip best variable in any unsat clause
 - best = one which minimizes #unsatisfied clauses

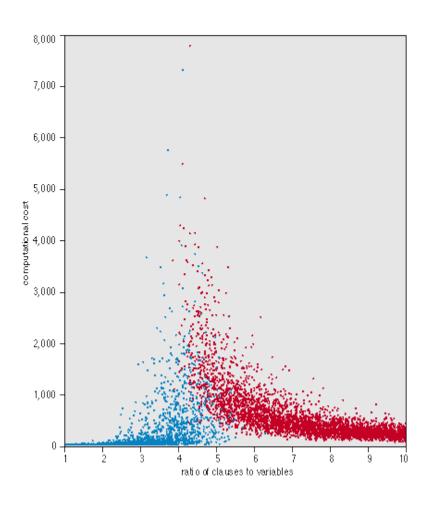
Refining Greedy Random Walk

- Each flip
 - makes some false clauses become true
 - breaks some true clauses, that become false
- Suppose s1→s2 by flipping x. Then:
 #unsat(s2) = #unsat(s1) make(s1,x) + break(s1,x)
- Idea 1: if a choice breaks nothing, it's likely good!
- Idea 2: near the solution, only the break count matters
 - the make count is usually 1

Walksat (Take 2)

```
state = random truth assignment;
while ! GoalTest(state) do
   clause := random member { C | C is false in state };
   for each x in clause do compute break[x];
   if exists x with break[x]=0 then var := x;
   else
       with probability p do
           var := random member { x | x is in clause };
        else
           var := arg x min { break[x] | x is in clause };
   endif
   state[var] := 1 - state[var];
end
                      Put everything inside of a restart loop.
return state;
                      Parameters: p, max_flips, max_runs
```

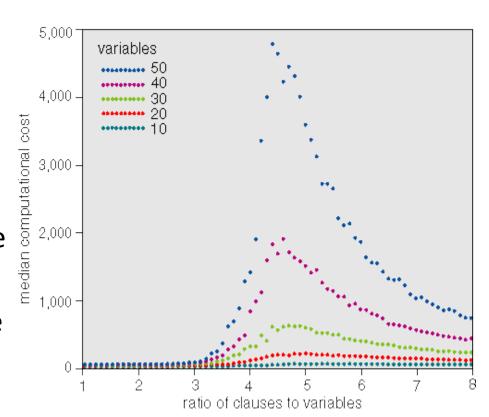
Random 3-SAT



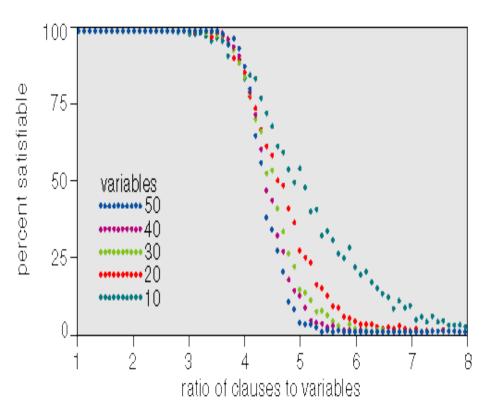
- Random 3-SAT
 - sample uniformly from space of all possible 3clauses
 - n variables, l clauses
- Which are the hard instances?
 - around I/n = 4.3

Random 3-SAT

- Varying problem size, n
- Complexity peak appears to be largely invariant of algorithm
 - backtracking algorithms like
 Davis-Putnam
 - local search procedures like
 GSAT
- What's so special about 4.3?



Random 3-SAT



- Complexity peak coincides with solubility transition
 - I/n < 4.3 problems underconstrained and SAT
 - I/n > 4.3 problems overconstrained and UNSAT
 - I/n=4.3, problems on "knifeedge" between SAT and UNSAT

Prop. Logic Themes

Expressiveness

Expressive but awkward

No notion of objects, properties, or relations

Number of propositions is fixed

Tractability

NP in general
Completeness / speed tradeoff
Horn clauses, binary clauses