

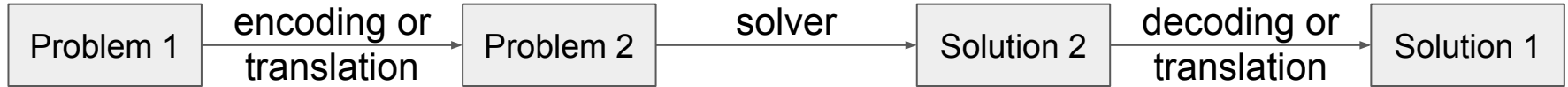
Solver-aided reasoning

UW CSE P 504

Ways to solve a program analysis problem

- Abstract interpretation
- Type checking
- Model checking
 - Exhaustive exploration of a graph of possible executions
- SAT-solving
 - One approach to automated theorem proving

Reducing one problem to another



Examples:

- Want kth largest element in a set. Know how to sort.
- Want to flip a fair coin. Only have a biased coin.
- Want to sort. Know how to compute convex hull. Use points $\langle x, x^2 \rangle$.

Reductions are common in proofs about computational complexity.

Reducing a problem to SAT (boolean satisfiability)



The SAT problem: Given a boolean formula over variables V , assign each variable to true or false to make the formula true.

Example SAT problem: $(a \text{ and } (b \text{ or } \neg c)) \text{ or } (\neg b \text{ and } c)$

One solution: $a=\text{true}, b=\text{true}, c=\text{false}$

The output is also called a “model” of the formula.

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Why SAT?

Reducing a problem to SAT (boolean satisfiability)



Idea: Kautz
& Selman, 1996

First implementation:

This paper appears in *Proceedings of the 15th International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI-97)*, Nagoya, Aichi, Japan, August 23–29, 1997, pp. 1169-1176.

Automatic SAT-Compilation of Planning Problems

Michael D. Ernst, Todd D. Millstein, and Daniel S. Weld*

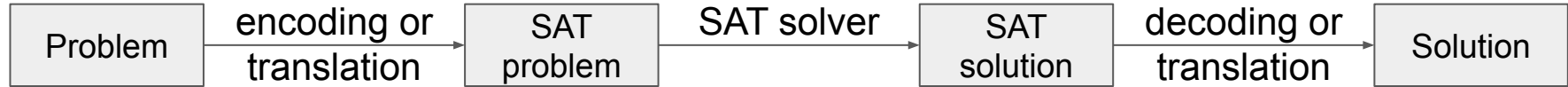
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Abstract

Recent work by Kautz *et al.* provides tantalizing evidence that large, classical planning problems may be efficiently solved by translating them into propositional satisfiability problems, using stochas-

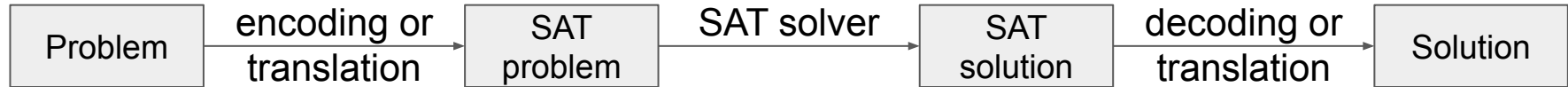
- We present an analytic framework that accounts for all previously reported non-causal encodings,¹ including several novel possibilities. We parameterize the space of encodings along two major dimensions, action and frame representation. For twelve points in this two-dimensional space, we list the axioms necessary for a

Reducing a problem to SAT (boolean satisfiability)



This is just solving the problem with extra steps. Why would we do this?

Reducing a problem to SAT (boolean satisfiability)

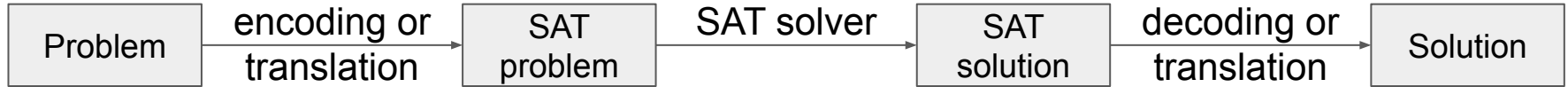


This is just solving the problem with extra steps. Why would we do this?

Counter-arguments:

- Cannot be faster than solving the original problem directly
- SAT is NP-complete

Reducing a problem to SAT (boolean satisfiability)



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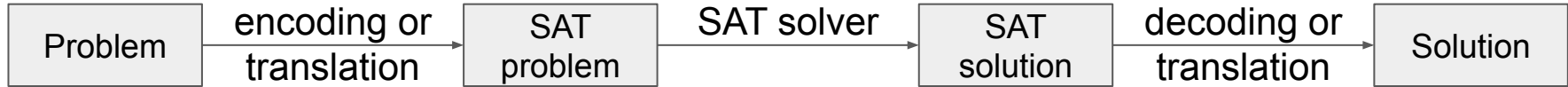
Counter-arguments:

- Cannot be faster than solving the original problem directly (might be slower)
- SAT is NP-complete

Arguments in favor:

- Searching for a SAT solution is *highly* optimized
The solver either returns a solution, or times out

Reducing a problem to SAT (boolean satisfiability)



This is just solving the problem with extra steps. Why would we do this?

Counter-arguments:

- Cannot be faster than solving the original problem directly (might be slower)

- **SAT is NP-complete**

1972: A problem reduces to SAT, therefore it is **hard**.

Today: A problem reduces to SAT, therefore it is **easy**.

Arguments in favor:

- Searching for a SAT solution is *highly* optimized
- The solver either returns a solution, or times out

SAT solver input must be in CNF form

Example SAT problem: $(a \text{ and } (b \text{ or } \neg c)) \text{ or } (\neg b \text{ and } c)$

The same formula in CNF (conjunctive normal form):

$$(x1 \vee x2) \wedge (\neg x1 \vee a) \wedge (\neg x1 \vee b \vee \neg c) \wedge (\neg x2 \vee \neg b) \wedge (\neg x2 \vee c)$$

CNF = **conjunction** of **disjunctions** of possibly-negated **variables**

Satisfiability modulo theories

Extend a SAT solver:

- Input format permits equations in a “theory”
 - Example theories: real arithmetic, modular arithmetic, arrays, bit vectors
- The SAT solver calls a solver or checker for the theory

SAT solving

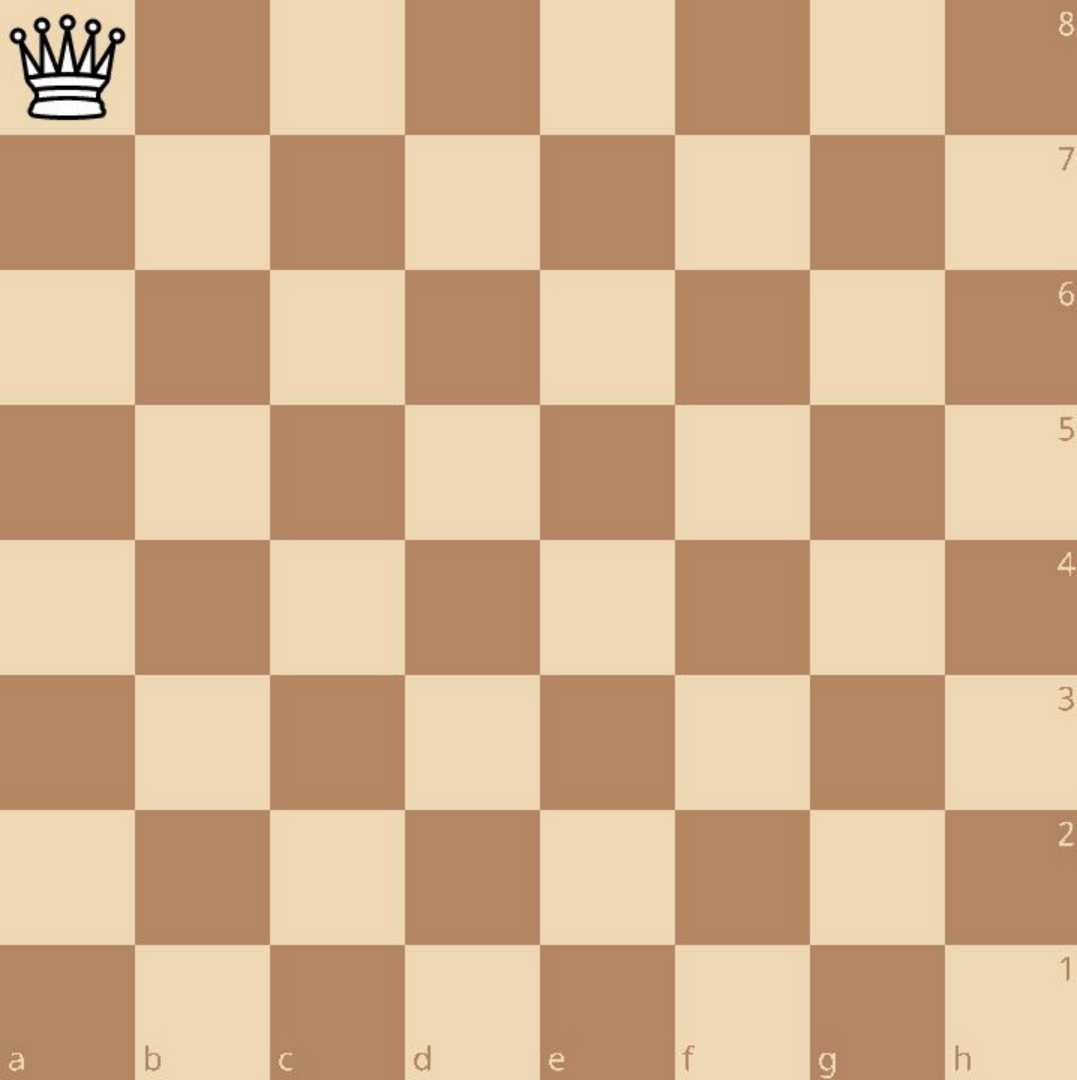
Brute force checking of all possible assignments, with some smarts

The n -queens problem [Bezzel, 1848]

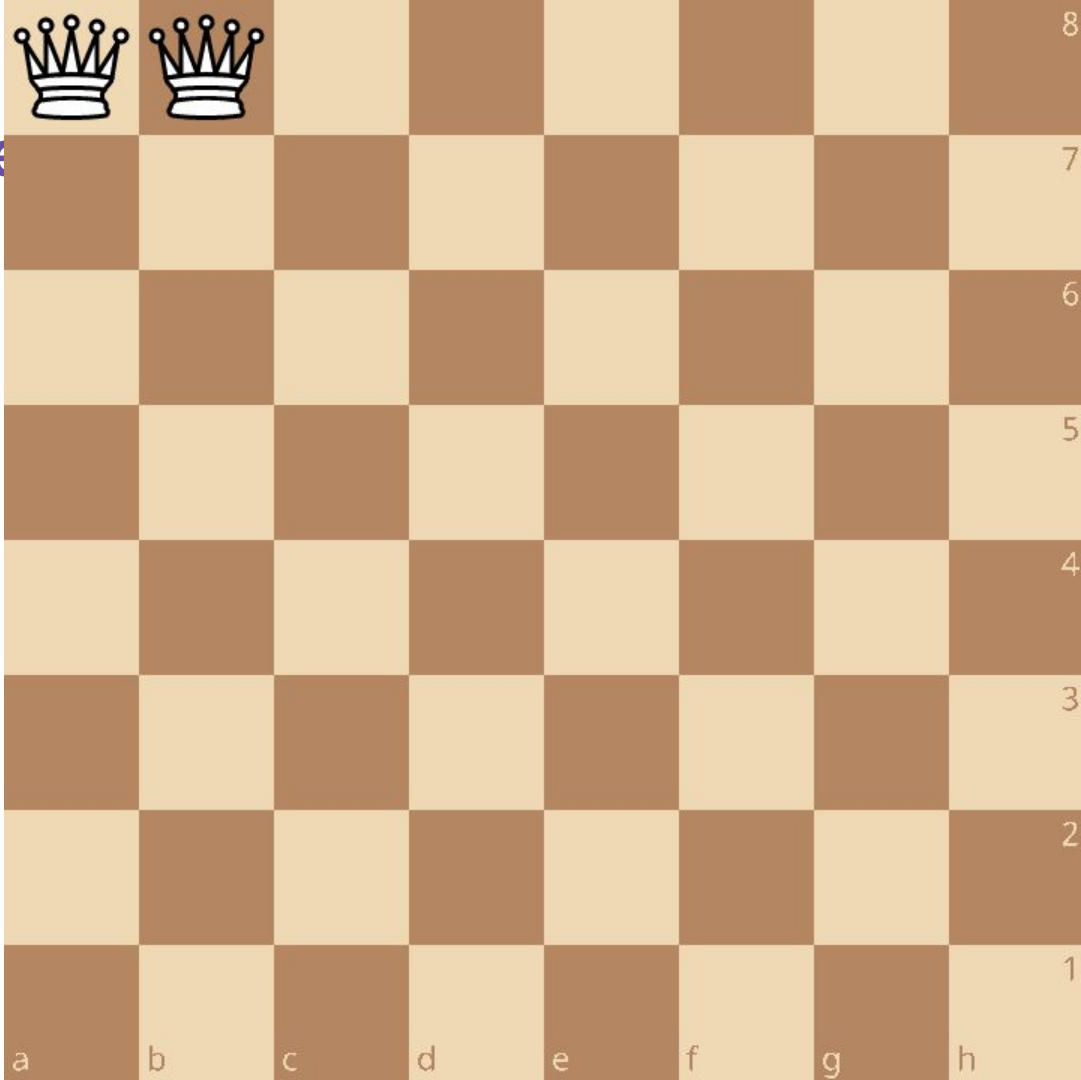
Place n queens on a $n \times n$ chessboard so that none is attacking any other.

Simple approach: brute-force search

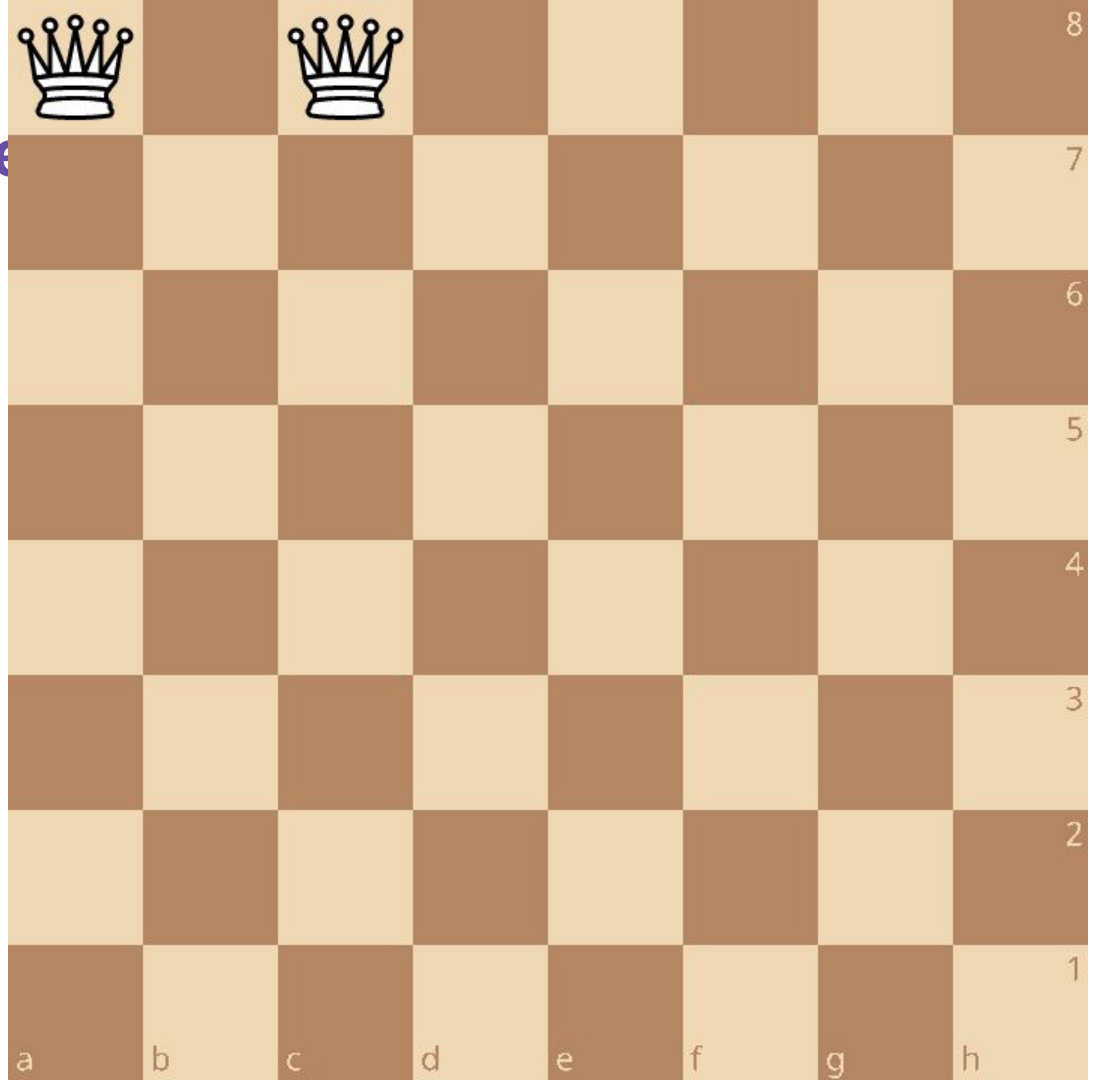
The n-queen



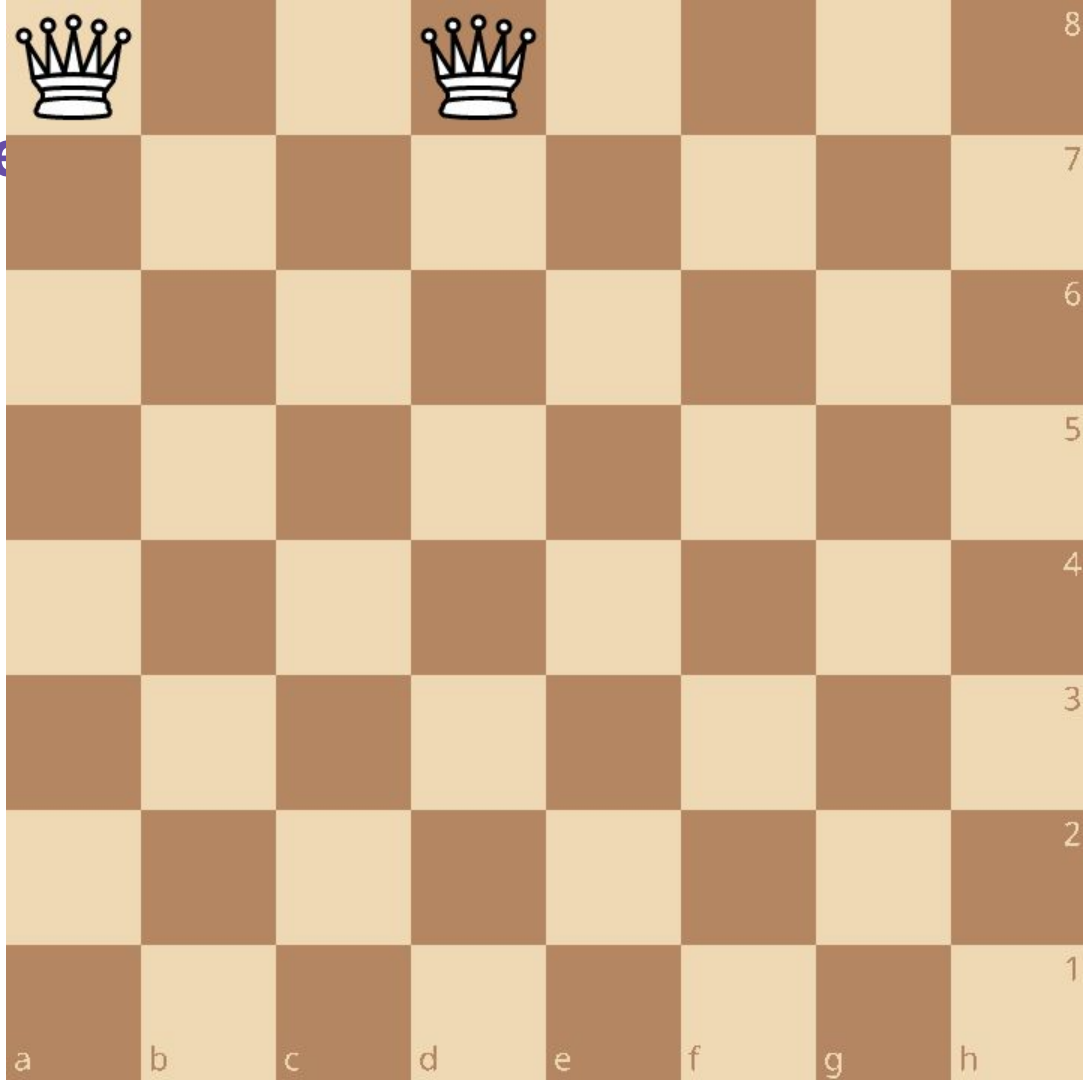
The n-queen



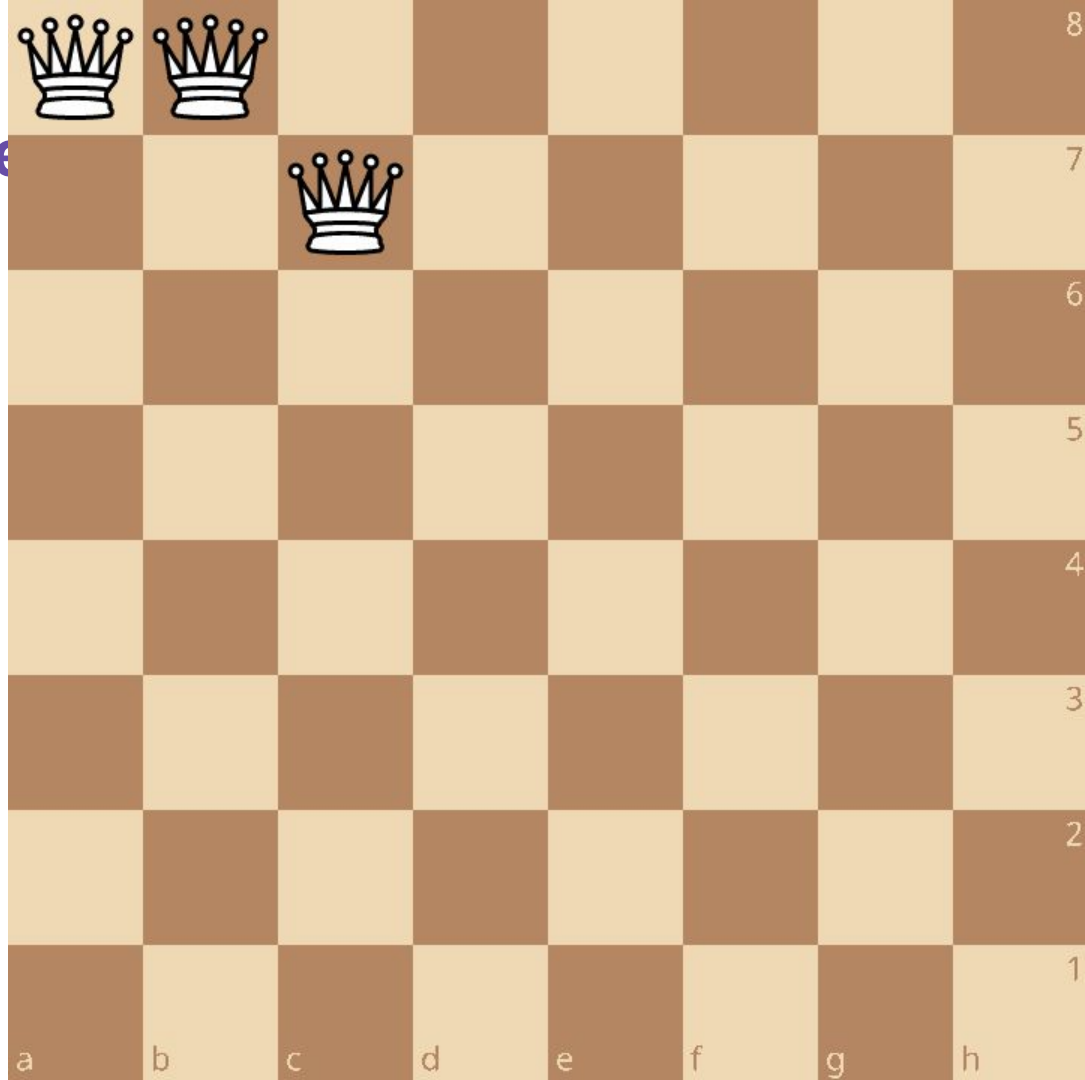
The n-queen



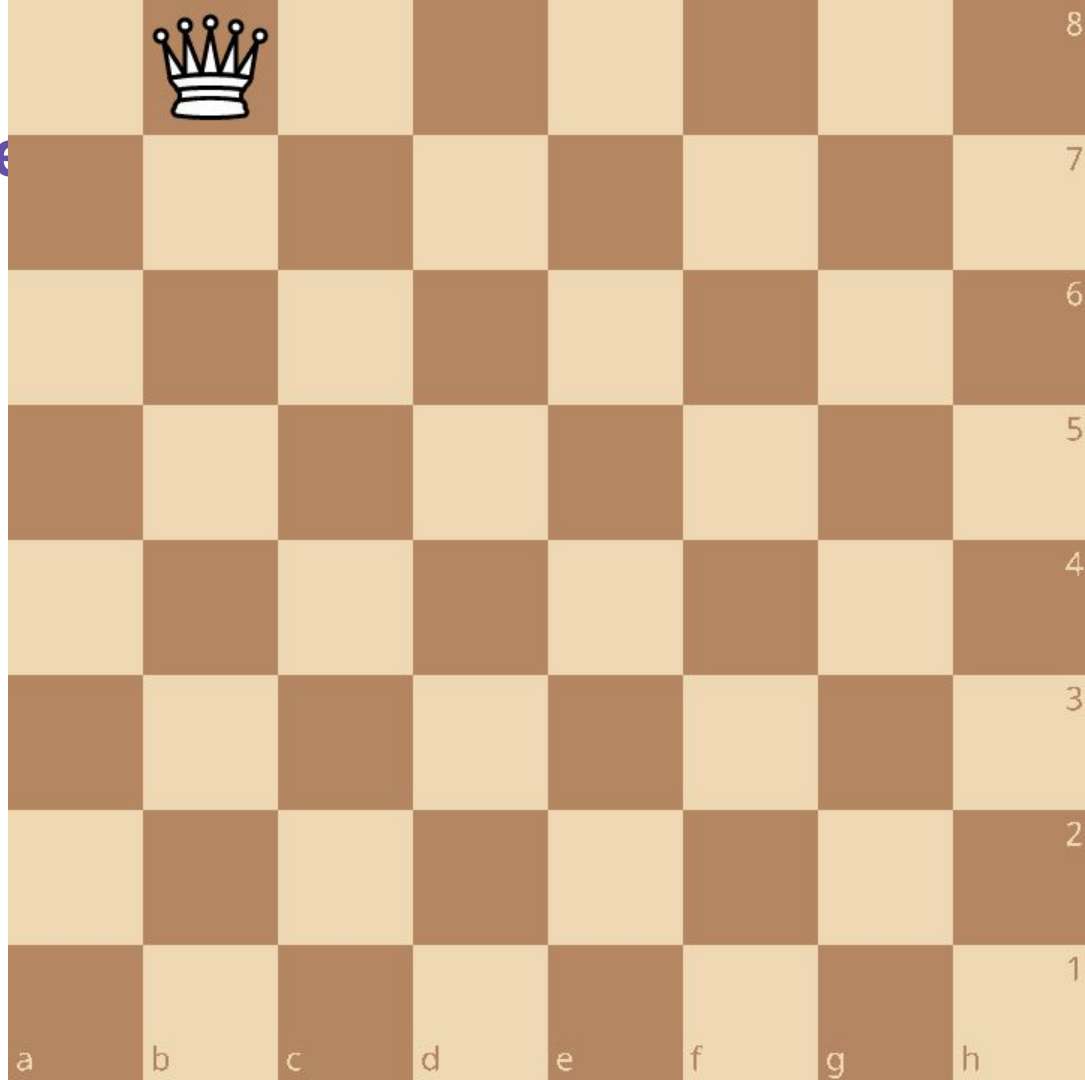
The n-queen



The n-queens



The n-queen



Exercise: Write a SAT formula for the 8-queens problem

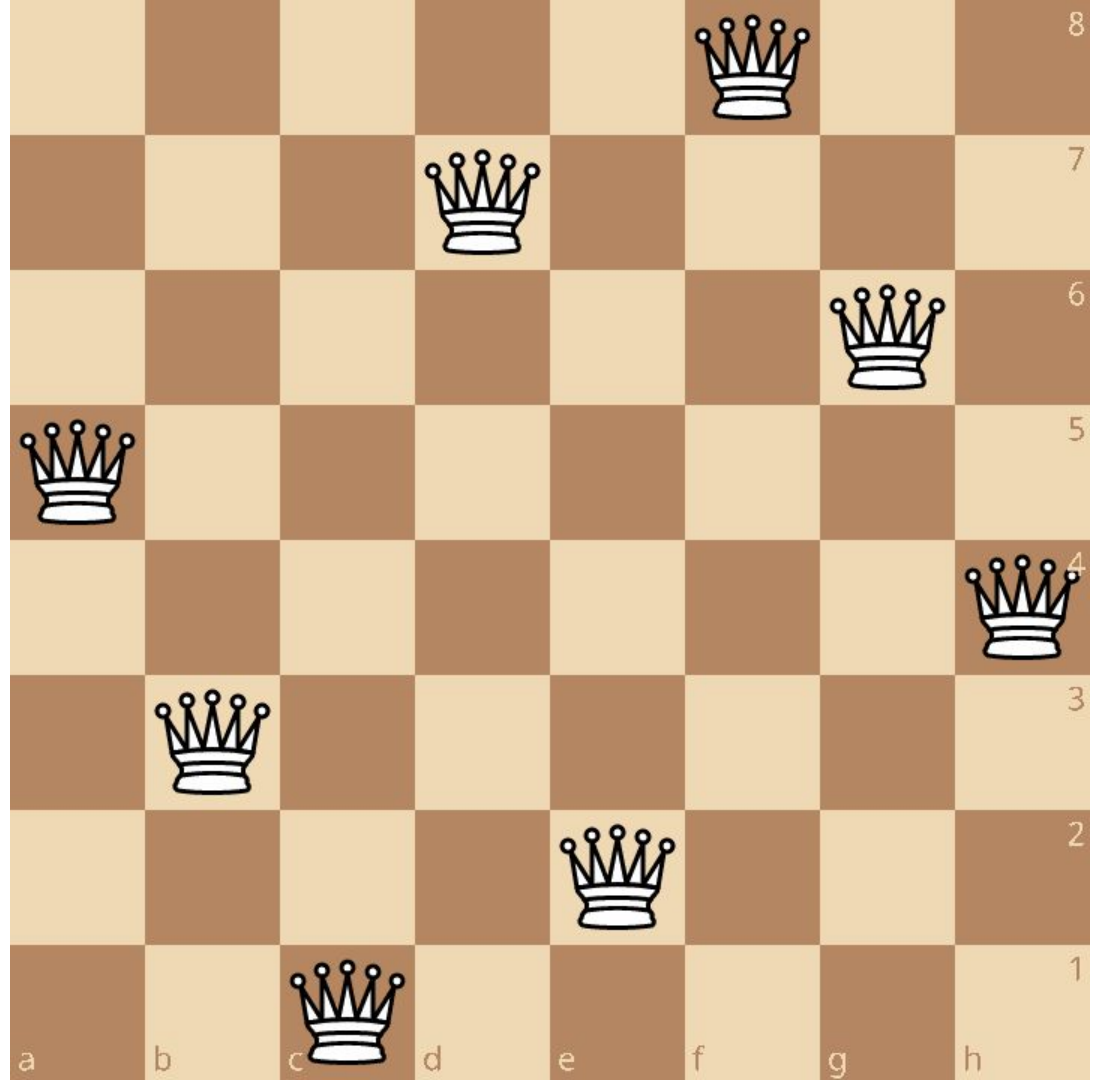
1. Write out the constraints in math or in English
2. Decide encoding as boolean variables
3. Translate the constraints to boolean formulas
Does not have to be in CNF
4. Translate the variable assignment into a chess board

N-queens constraints

Exactly one queen per row

Exactly one queen per column

At most one queen per diagonal



N-queens encoding

One boolean variable per square

Var is true if there is a queen there

a8 = false a7 = false

b8 = false b7 = false

c8 = false c7 = false

d8 = false d7 = true

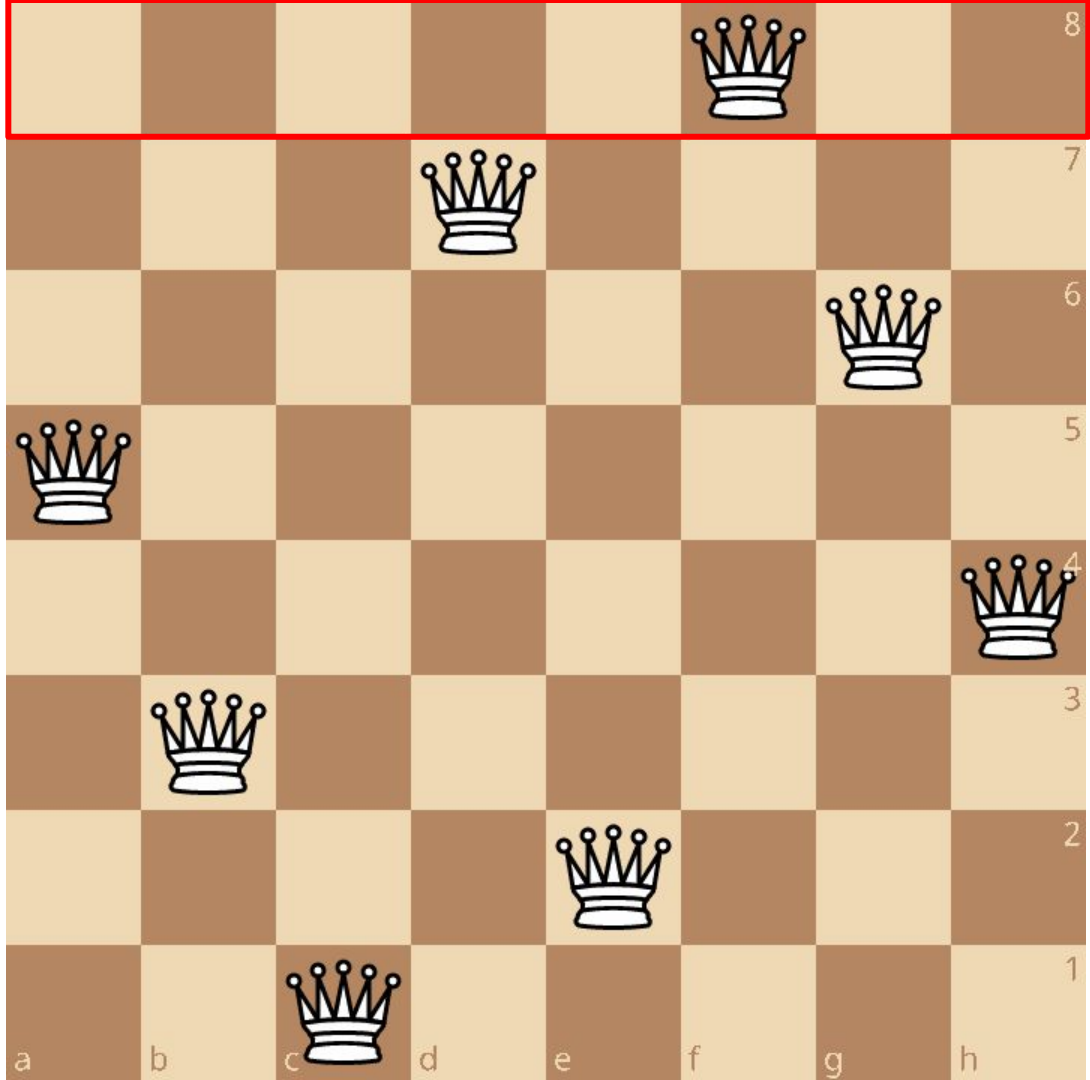
e8 = false e7 = false

f8 = true f7 = false

g8 = false g7 = false

h8 = false h7 = false

etc.



One queen per row

At least one queen per row:

$(a1 \vee b1 \vee c1 \vee d1 \vee e1 \vee f1 \vee g1 \vee h1) \wedge$
 $(a2 \vee b2 \vee c2 \vee d2 \vee e2 \vee f2 \vee g2 \vee h2) \wedge$

No more than one queen per row:

$(\neg a1 \vee \neg b1) \wedge$

$(\neg a1 \vee \neg c1) \wedge$

$(\neg a1 \vee \neg d1) \wedge \dots \wedge$

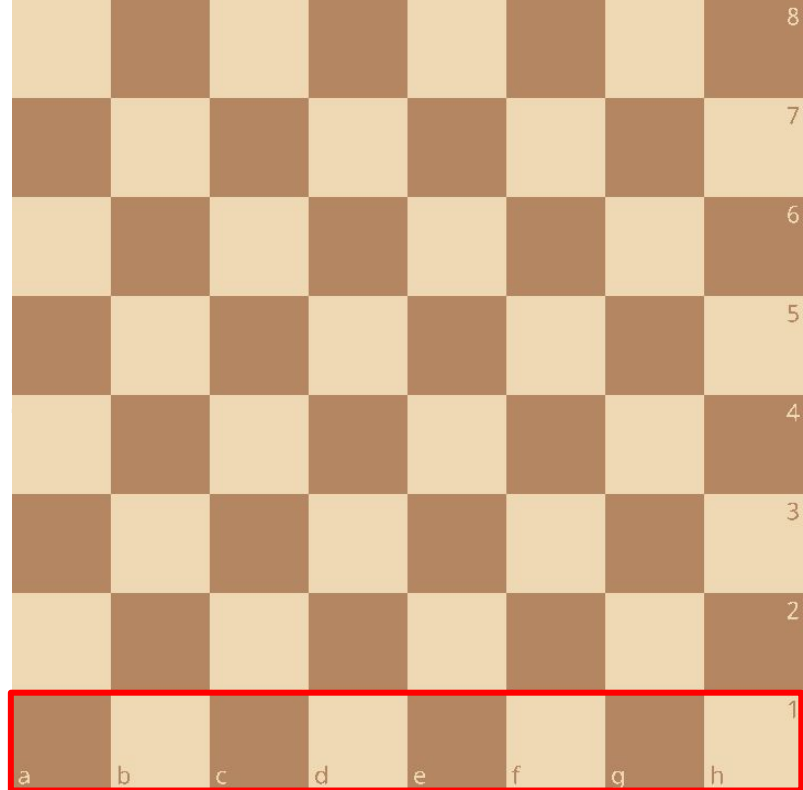
$(\neg b1 \vee \neg c1) \wedge$

$(\neg b1 \vee \neg d1) \wedge \dots \wedge \dots$

$(\neg a2 \vee \neg b2) \wedge$

$(\neg a2 \vee \neg c2) \wedge \dots \wedge$

...



One queen per column

At least one queen per column:

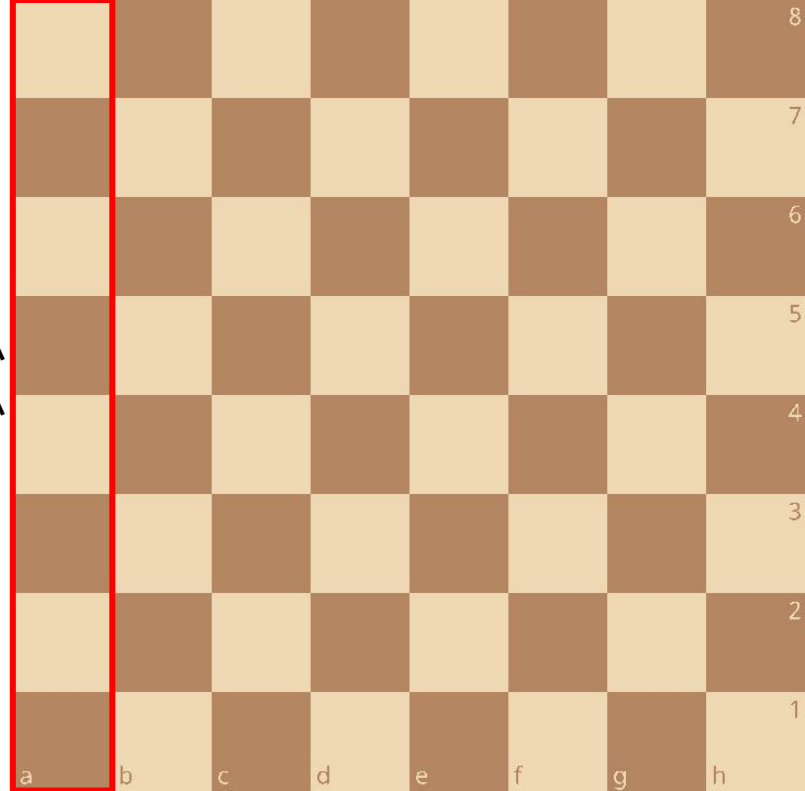
$$(a1 \vee a2 \vee a3 \vee a4 \vee a5 \vee a6 \vee a7 \vee a8) \wedge \\ (b1 \vee b2 \vee b3 \vee b4 \vee b5 \vee b6 \vee b7 \vee b8) \wedge$$

No more than one queen per column:

$$(\neg a1 \vee \neg a2) \wedge \\ (\neg a1 \vee \neg a3) \wedge \\ (\neg a1 \vee \neg a4) \wedge \dots \wedge \\ (\neg a2 \vee \neg a3) \wedge \\ (\neg a2 \vee \neg a4) \wedge \dots \wedge \dots$$

$$(\neg b1 \vee \neg b2) \wedge \\ (\neg b1 \vee \neg b3) \wedge \dots \wedge$$

...



At most one queen per diagonal

SW-NE diagonals:

$$(\neg a_7 \vee \neg b_8) \wedge$$

$$(\neg a_6 \vee \neg b_7) \wedge (\neg b_7 \vee \neg c_8) \wedge (\neg a_7 \vee \neg c_8) \wedge$$

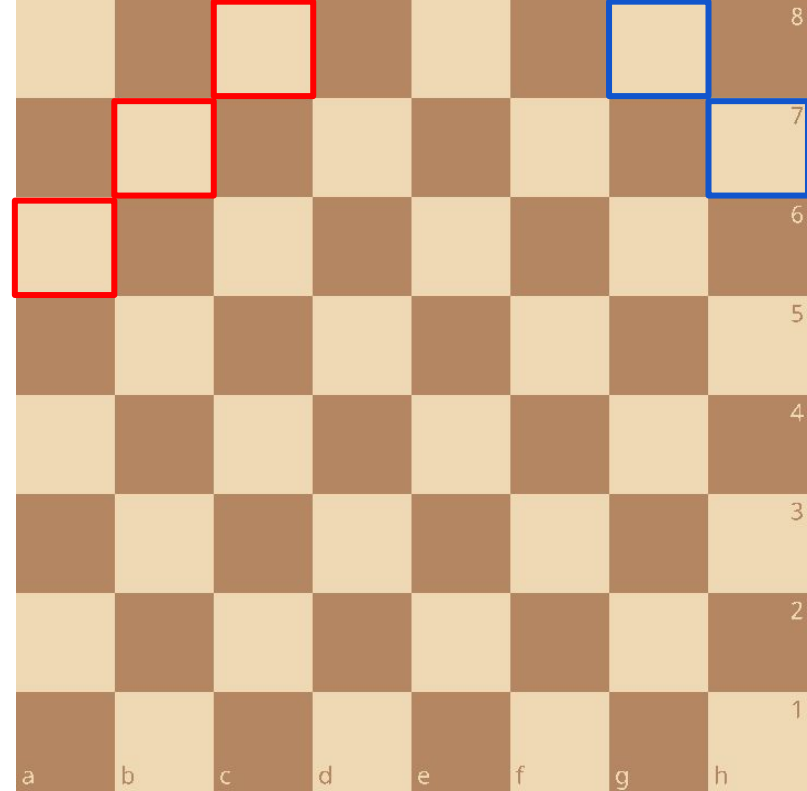
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NW-SE diagonals:

$$(\neg g_8 \vee \neg h_7) \wedge$$

$$(\neg f_8 \vee \neg g_7) \wedge (\neg g_7 \vee \neg h_6) \wedge (\neg f_8 \vee \neg h_6) \wedge$$

...



N-queens demo

SAT solving

Brute force checking of all possible assignments, with some smarts

SAT solving

Brute force checking of all possible assignments, with some smarts

Backtracking search over all 2^n possible assignments

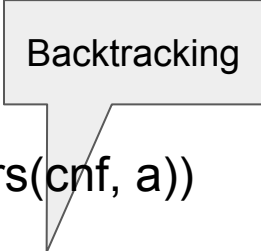
At any point, the **assignment is partial**

If { $a=\text{true}$, $b=\text{false}$ } is inconsistent with the formula, no need to explore c , d , etc.

Unit clause rule: In a clause, if one var is unassigned and **all others are false**, then the unassigned var **must be true**

DPLL algorithm (Davis–Putnam–Logemann–Loveland)

```
DPLL(cnf, a): // cnf is a formula, a is a partial assignment
  a ← unit-clause(cnf, a) // boolean constraint propagation (BCP)
  switch eval(cnf, a):
    case true: return a
    case false: return “unsat”
    case unknown:
      v ← choose(unassigned-vars(cnf, a))
      return DPLL(cnf, a[v ↦ true]) or DPLL(cnf, a[v ↦ false])
```



Backtracking

DPLL algorithm (Davis–Putnam–Logemann–Loveland)

DPLL(cnf, a):

// cnf is a formula, a is a partial assignment

a ← unit-clause(cnf, a)

propagation (BCP)

switch eval(cnf, a):

Idea: remember the combination of variables that made a unassignable. Avoid that combination in the future.

case true: return a

case false: return “unsat”

Idea: choose variables likely to lead to quick resolution.

case unknown:

v ← choose(unassigned-vars(cnf, a))

Idea: backtrack more than one level.

return DPLL(cnf, a[v ↦ true]) or DPLL(cnf, a[v ↦ false])