

Propositional Satisfiability

Pedro Cabalar

Dept. Computer Science
University of Corunna, SPAIN

March 15, 2023

1 Models of a formula

2 Satisfiability

Models of a formula

- We can define $M(\Gamma)$ = the set of models of a theory (or formula) Γ .
Example: $M(a \vee b) = \{\{a, b\}, \{a\}, \{b\}\}$

Models of a formula

- We can define $M(\Gamma)$ = the set of models of a theory (or formula) Γ .
Example: $M(a \vee b) = \{\{a, b\}, \{a\}, \{b\}\}$
- The models of a formula can be inspected by **structural induction**:

$$M(\alpha \vee \beta) = M(\alpha) \cup M(\beta)$$

$$M(\alpha \wedge \beta) = M(\alpha) \cap M(\beta)$$

$$M(\neg\alpha) = 2^\Sigma \setminus M(\alpha)$$

Models of a formula

- We can define $M(\Gamma)$ = the set of models of a theory (or formula) Γ .
Example: $M(a \vee b) = \{\{a, b\}, \{a\}, \{b\}\}$
- The models of a formula can be inspected by **structural induction**:

$$M(\alpha \vee \beta) = M(\alpha) \cup M(\beta)$$

$$M(\alpha \wedge \beta) = M(\alpha) \cap M(\beta)$$

$$M(\neg\alpha) = 2^\Sigma \setminus M(\alpha)$$

- Two formulas α, β are **equivalent** if $M(\alpha) = M(\beta)$ (same models)

Models of a formula

- From a set S of interpretations: can we get a formula α s.t.
 $M(\alpha) = S$?

Models of a formula

- From a set S of interpretations: can we get a formula α s.t. $M(\alpha) = S$?
- Example: find α to cover $M(\alpha) = \{\{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$

Models of a formula

- From a set S of interpretations: can we get a formula α s.t. $M(\alpha) = S$?
- Example: find α to cover $M(\alpha) = \{\{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$
- Does this formula α always exist?

Models of a formula

- From a set S of interpretations: can we get a formula α s.t. $M(\alpha) = S$?
- Example: find α to cover $M(\alpha) = \{\{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$
- Does this formula α always exist?
- We will see a method (*minterms*) to obtain a **minimal representation**

Models of a formula

- Def. relation $\Gamma \models \alpha$ is called **logical consequence** or **entailment** and defined as $M(\Gamma) \subseteq M(\alpha)$.

Models of a formula

- Def. relation $\Gamma \models \alpha$ is called **logical consequence** or **entailment** and defined as $M(\Gamma) \subseteq M(\alpha)$.
Example $\{happy, (rain \rightarrow \neg happy)\} \models \neg rain$

Models of a formula

- Def. relation $\Gamma \models \alpha$ is called **logical consequence** or **entailment** and defined as $M(\Gamma) \subseteq M(\alpha)$.
Example $\{happy, (rain \rightarrow \neg happy)\} \models \neg rain$
- If $M(\alpha) = \emptyset$ (**no models!**), α is **inconsistent** or **unsatisfiable**

Models of a formula

- Def. relation $\Gamma \models \alpha$ is called **logical consequence** or **entailment** and defined as $M(\Gamma) \subseteq M(\alpha)$.
Example $\{happy, (rain \rightarrow \neg happy)\} \models \neg rain$
- If $M(\alpha) = \emptyset$ (**no models!**), α is **inconsistent** or **unsatisfiable**
Examples: $rain \wedge \neg rain$, \perp , ...

Models of a formula

- Def. relation $\Gamma \models \alpha$ is called **logical consequence** or **entailment** and defined as $M(\Gamma) \subseteq M(\alpha)$.
Example $\{happy, (rain \rightarrow \neg happy)\} \models \neg rain$
- If $M(\alpha) = \emptyset$ (**no models!**), α is **inconsistent** or **unsatisfiable**
Examples: $rain \wedge \neg rain$, \perp , ...
- If $M(\alpha) = 2^\Sigma$ (**all interpretations** are models), α , is **valid** or a **tautology**.

Models of a formula

- Def. relation $\Gamma \models \alpha$ is called **logical consequence** or **entailment** and defined as $M(\Gamma) \subseteq M(\alpha)$.
Example $\{happy, (rain \rightarrow \neg happy)\} \models \neg rain$
- If $M(\alpha) = \emptyset$ (**no models!**), α is **inconsistent** or **unsatisfiable**
Examples: $rain \wedge \neg rain$, \perp , ...
- If $M(\alpha) = 2^\Sigma$ (**all interpretations** are models), α , is **valid** or a **tautology**. Examples: $rain \vee \neg rain$, \top , $b \wedge c \wedge d \rightarrow (d \rightarrow b)$, ...

Models of a formula

- Def. relation $\Gamma \models \alpha$ is called **logical consequence** or **entailment** and defined as $M(\Gamma) \subseteq M(\alpha)$.
Example $\{happy, (rain \rightarrow \neg happy)\} \models \neg rain$
- If $M(\alpha) = \emptyset$ (**no models!**), α is **inconsistent** or **unsatisfiable**
Examples: $rain \wedge \neg rain$, \perp , ...
- If $M(\alpha) = 2^\Sigma$ (**all interpretations** are models), α , is **valid** or a **tautology**. Examples: $rain \vee \neg rain$, \top , $b \wedge c \wedge d \rightarrow (d \rightarrow b)$, ...
- We write $\models \alpha$ to mean that α is a tautology

Models of a formula

- Def. relation $\Gamma \models \alpha$ is called **logical consequence** or **entailment** and defined as $M(\Gamma) \subseteq M(\alpha)$.
Example $\{happy, (rain \rightarrow \neg happy)\} \models \neg rain$
- If $M(\alpha) = \emptyset$ (**no models!**), α is **inconsistent** or **unsatisfiable**
Examples: $rain \wedge \neg rain$, \perp , ...
- If $M(\alpha) = 2^\Sigma$ (**all interpretations** are models), α , is **valid** or a **tautology**. Examples: $rain \vee \neg rain$, \top , $b \wedge c \wedge d \rightarrow (d \rightarrow b)$, ...
- We write $\models \alpha$ to mean that α is a tautology
Note: this is $\emptyset \models \alpha$, so we require $M(\emptyset) = 2^\Sigma$

Models of a formula

- Def. relation $\Gamma \models \alpha$ is called **logical consequence** or **entailment** and defined as $M(\Gamma) \subseteq M(\alpha)$.
Example $\{happy, (rain \rightarrow \neg happy)\} \models \neg rain$
- If $M(\alpha) = \emptyset$ (**no models!**), α is **inconsistent** or **unsatisfiable**
Examples: $rain \wedge \neg rain$, \perp , ...
- If $M(\alpha) = 2^\Sigma$ (**all interpretations** are models), α , is **valid** or a **tautology**. Examples: $rain \vee \neg rain$, \top , $b \wedge c \wedge d \rightarrow (d \rightarrow b)$, ...
- We write $\models \alpha$ to mean that α is a tautology
Note: this is $\emptyset \models \alpha$, so we require $M(\emptyset) = 2^\Sigma \subseteq M(\alpha)$

Propositional Logic: Semantics

Theorem

$\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is equivalent to $\alpha \models \beta$.

Definition (Weaker/stronger formula)

When $\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$, or just $M(\alpha) \subseteq M(\beta)$, we say that α is *stronger* than β (or β is *weaker* α).

Propositional Logic: Semantics

Theorem

$\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is equivalent to $\alpha \models \beta$.

Definition (Weaker/stronger formula)

When $\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$, or just $M(\alpha) \subseteq M(\beta)$, we say that α is *stronger* than β (or β is *weaker* α).

- Which are the strongest and weakest possible formulae?

Propositional Logic: Semantics

Theorem

$\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is equivalent to $\alpha \models \beta$.

Definition (Weaker/stronger formula)

When $\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$, or just $M(\alpha) \subseteq M(\beta)$, we say that α is *stronger* than β (or β is *weaker* α).

- Which are the strongest and weakest possible formulae?
- Examples: for each pair, which is the strongest?

p	$p \wedge q$
p	$p \vee \neg q$
$p \vee q$	$p \wedge q$
p	$(q \rightarrow p)$
$p \wedge \neg q$	$\neg p \wedge q$

Propositional Logic: Semantics

Theorem

$\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is equivalent to $\alpha \models \beta$.

Definition (Weaker/stronger formula)

When $\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$, or just $M(\alpha) \subseteq M(\beta)$, we say that α is *stronger* than β (or β is *weaker* α).

- Which are the strongest and weakest possible formulae?
- Examples: for each pair, which is the strongest?

p	$p \wedge q$
p	$p \vee \neg q$
$p \vee q$	$p \wedge q$
p	$(q \rightarrow p)$
$p \wedge \neg q$	$\neg p \wedge q$

Propositional Logic: Semantics

Theorem

$\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is equivalent to $\alpha \models \beta$.

Definition (Weaker/stronger formula)

When $\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$, or just $M(\alpha) \subseteq M(\beta)$, we say that α is *stronger* than β (or β is *weaker* α).

- Which are the strongest and weakest possible formulae?
- Examples: for each pair, which is the strongest?

$$\begin{array}{ll} p & \leftarrow p \wedge q \\ p & p \vee \neg q \\ p \vee q & p \wedge q \\ p & (q \rightarrow p) \\ p \wedge \neg q & \neg p \wedge q \end{array}$$

Propositional Logic: Semantics

Theorem

$\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is equivalent to $\alpha \models \beta$.

Definition (Weaker/stronger formula)

When $\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$, or just $M(\alpha) \subseteq M(\beta)$, we say that α is *stronger* than β (or β is *weaker* α).

- Which are the strongest and weakest possible formulae?
- Examples: for each pair, which is the strongest?

$$p \quad \leftarrow \quad p \wedge q$$

$$p \quad \rightarrow \quad p \vee \neg q$$

$$p \vee q \quad \quad p \wedge q$$

$$p \quad \quad (q \rightarrow p)$$

$$p \wedge \neg q \quad \quad \neg p \wedge q$$

Propositional Logic: Semantics

Theorem

$\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is equivalent to $\alpha \models \beta$.

Definition (Weaker/stronger formula)

When $\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$, or just $M(\alpha) \subseteq M(\beta)$, we say that α is *stronger* than β (or β is *weaker* α).

- Which are the strongest and weakest possible formulae?
- Examples: for each pair, which is the strongest?

$$p \quad \leftarrow \quad p \wedge q$$

$$p \quad \rightarrow \quad p \vee \neg q$$

$$p \vee q \quad \leftarrow \quad p \wedge q$$

$$p \quad \quad (q \rightarrow p)$$

$$p \wedge \neg q \quad \quad \neg p \wedge q$$

Propositional Logic: Semantics

Theorem

$\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is equivalent to $\alpha \models \beta$.

Definition (Weaker/stronger formula)

When $\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$, or just $M(\alpha) \subseteq M(\beta)$, we say that α is *stronger* than β (or β is *weaker* α).

- Which are the strongest and weakest possible formulae?
- Examples: for each pair, which is the strongest?

$$p \quad \leftarrow \quad p \wedge q$$

$$p \quad \rightarrow \quad p \vee \neg q$$

$$p \vee q \quad \leftarrow \quad p \wedge q$$

$$p \quad \rightarrow \quad (q \rightarrow p)$$

$$p \wedge \neg q \quad \quad \neg p \wedge q$$

1 Models of a formula

2 Satisfiability

Satisfiability

Definition (SAT decision problem)

Decision problem $SAT(\alpha) \in \{yes, no\}$ checks whether a formula α has some model. That is: $SAT(\alpha) = yes$ iff $M(\alpha) \neq \emptyset$.

- Time complexity: NP-complete problem.

Satisfiability

Definition (SAT decision problem)

Decision problem $SAT(\alpha) \in \{yes, no\}$ checks whether a formula α has some model. That is: $SAT(\alpha) = yes$ iff $M(\alpha) \neq \emptyset$.

- Time complexity: **NP-complete** problem. Furthermore, it was the first problem identified problem in this class, and crucial for proving that other problems belong to it.

Satisfiability

Definition (SAT decision problem)

Decision problem $SAT(\alpha) \in \{yes, no\}$ checks whether a formula α has some model. That is: $SAT(\alpha) = yes$ iff $M(\alpha) \neq \emptyset$.

- Time complexity: **NP-complete** problem. Furthermore, it was the first problem identified problem in this class, and crucial for proving that other problems belong to it.
- Nowadays, SAT is an outstanding state-of-the-art research area for **search algorithms**. There exist many efficient tools and commercial applications. See www.satlive.com

Satisfiability

Definition (SAT decision problem)

Decision problem $SAT(\alpha) \in \{\text{yes}, \text{no}\}$ checks whether a formula α has some model. That is: $SAT(\alpha) = \text{yes}$ iff $M(\alpha) \neq \emptyset$.

- Time complexity: **NP-complete** problem. Furthermore, it was the first problem identified problem in this class, and crucial for proving that other problems belong to it.
- Nowadays, SAT is an outstanding state-of-the-art research area for **search algorithms**. There exist many efficient tools and commercial applications. See www.satlive.com
- SAT keypoint: instead of designing an *ad hoc* search algorithm, encode the problem into propositional logic and use **SAT as a backend**.

Exercise

- Programming the satisfaction relation \models in Prolog:

```
:- op(210, yfx, &).
:- op(220, yfx, v).
:- op(1060, yfx, <->).
sat(_I, false) :- !, fail.
sat(_I, true) :- !.
sat(I, P) :- atom(P), !, member(P, I), !.
sat(I, -A) :- \+ sat(I, A).
sat(I, A & B) :- sat(I, A), sat(I, B).
sat(I, A v B) :- sat(I, A), ! ; sat(I, B).
sat(I, A -> B) :- sat(I, -A v B).
sat(I, A <-> B) :- sat(I, (A -> B) & (B -> A)).
```


Exercise

- Testing whether a formula is a **tautology**:

```
tautology(S, F) :- \+ (subset(S, I), \+ sat(I, F)).
```

```
subset([], []) :- !.
```

```
subset([X | Xs], S) :- subset(Xs, S).
```

```
subset([X | Xs], [X | S]) :- subset(Xs, S).
```

Conjunctive Normal Form

- The **input** for most SAT solvers is a formula α in **conjunctive normal form**.

Conjunctive Normal Form

- The **input** for most SAT solvers is a formula α in **conjunctive normal form**.
- This is a conjunction of **clauses** = disjunctions of literals. Example:
 $(p_1 \vee \neg p_2) \wedge (\neg p_3 \vee p_1 \vee p_2) \wedge \neg p_1 \wedge (p_2 \vee p_4)$

Conjunctive Normal Form

- The **input** for most SAT solvers is a formula α in **conjunctive normal form**.
- This is a conjunction of **clauses** = disjunctions of literals. Example:
 $(p_1 \vee \neg p_2) \wedge (\neg p_3 \vee p_1 \vee p_2) \wedge \neg p_1 \wedge (p_2 \vee p_4)$
- This is represented as a text file in **DIMACS format**. For instance, the formula above becomes

```
p cnf 3 4      3 variables, 4 clauses
1 -2 0        0 marks the end of a clause
-3 1 2 0
-1 0
2 4 0
```

Reduction to CNF

- Reduction to CNF: **several methods** can be used (for instance, semantic tableaux)

Reduction to CNF

- Reduction to CNF: **several methods** can be used (for instance, semantic tableaux)
- Reducing a formula α to CNF causes an **exponential cost**
- Distributivity blows up

$$(p_1 \wedge q_1) \vee (p_2 \wedge q_2) \vee \cdots \vee (p_n \wedge q_n)$$

2^n **disjunctions** depending on whether we take p or q for each i

Theorem

Reducing $\varphi \rightarrow \text{CNF}(\varphi)$ in classical logic is NP-hard.

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

- [Tseytin 1968] proposed a polynomial reduction but. . .
- Key idea: introduce **auxiliary variables** per each non-atomic subformula, then add equivalences to fix their truth

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

- [Tseytin 1968] proposed a polynomial reduction but. . .
- Key idea: introduce **auxiliary variables** per each non-atomic subformula, then add equivalences to fix their truth

$$(p_1 \wedge q_1) \vee (p_2 \wedge q_2) \vee \cdots \vee (p_n \wedge q_n)$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

- [Tseytin 1968] proposed a polynomial reduction but. . .
- Key idea: introduce **auxiliary variables** per each non-atomic subformula, then add equivalences to fix their truth

$$\underbrace{(p_1 \wedge q_1)}_{a_1} \vee \underbrace{(p_2 \wedge q_2)}_{a_2} \vee \cdots \vee \underbrace{(p_n \wedge q_n)}_{a_n}$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

- [Tseytin 1968] proposed a polynomial reduction but. . .
- Key idea: introduce **auxiliary variables** per each non-atomic subformula, then add equivalences to fix their truth

$$a_1 \vee a_2 \vee \cdots \vee a_n$$
$$a_i \leftrightarrow p_i \wedge q_i$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

- [Tseytin 1968] proposed a polynomial reduction but. . .
- Key idea: introduce **auxiliary variables** per each non-atomic subformula, then add equivalences to fix their truth

$$a_1 \vee a_2 \vee \cdots \vee a_n$$
$$a_i \rightarrow p_i \wedge q_i \quad a_i \leftarrow p_i \wedge q_i$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

- [Tseytin 1968] proposed a polynomial reduction but. . .
- Key idea: introduce **auxiliary variables** per each non-atomic subformula, then add equivalences to fix their truth

$$a_1 \vee a_2 \vee \cdots \vee a_n$$
$$a_j \rightarrow p_j \quad a_j \rightarrow q_j \quad a_j \leftarrow p_j \wedge q_j$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

- [Tseytin 1968] proposed a polynomial reduction but. . .
- Key idea: introduce **auxiliary variables** per each non-atomic subformula, then add equivalences to fix their truth

$$\begin{array}{c} a_1 \vee a_2 \vee \dots \vee a_n \\ \neg a_i \vee p_i \quad \neg a_i \vee q_i \quad a_i \vee \neg p_i \vee \neg q_i \end{array}$$

$1 + 3 \cdot n$ clauses. We have n new atoms: we would **hide** in models

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

Example: reduce the formula below to CNF using Tseytin's technique

$$\neg(p \vee (q \wedge r) \vee \neg(p \vee \neg r))$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

Example: reduce the formula below to CNF using Tseytin's technique

$$\neg(p \vee \underbrace{(q \wedge r)}_{a_1}) \vee \neg(\underbrace{(p \vee \neg r)}_{a_2})$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

Example: reduce the formula below to CNF using Tseytin's technique

$$\neg(p \vee \underbrace{(q \wedge r)}_{a_1}) \vee \neg(\underbrace{(p \vee \neg r)}_{a_2})$$
$$a_1 \leftrightarrow q \wedge r$$
$$a_2 \leftrightarrow p \vee \neg r$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

Example: reduce the formula below to CNF using Tseytin's technique

$$\neg(p \vee a_1 \vee \neg a_2)$$

$$a_1 \leftrightarrow q \wedge r$$

$$a_2 \leftrightarrow p \vee \neg r$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

Example: reduce the formula below to CNF using Tseytin's technique

$$\begin{aligned} & \neg p \wedge \neg a_1 \wedge a_2 \\ a_1 & \rightarrow q \wedge r & q \wedge r & \rightarrow a_1 \\ a_2 & \rightarrow p \wedge \neg r & p \wedge \neg r & \rightarrow a_2 \end{aligned}$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

Example: reduce the formula below to CNF using Tseytin's technique

$$\begin{array}{l} \neg p \wedge \neg a_1 \wedge a_2 \\ a_1 \rightarrow q \quad a_1 \rightarrow r \quad q \wedge r \rightarrow a_1 \\ a_2 \rightarrow p \quad a_2 \rightarrow \neg r \quad p \wedge \neg r \rightarrow a_2 \end{array}$$

Reduction to CNF (with auxiliary atoms)

Example: reduce the formula below to CNF using Tseytin's technique

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \neg p & \neg a_1 & a_2 \\ \neg a_1 \vee q & \neg a_1 \vee r & \neg q \vee \neg r \vee a_1 & \\ \neg a_2 \vee p & \neg a_2 \vee \neg r & \neg p \vee \neg r \vee a_2 & \end{array}$$

SAT solvers

Basic Methods: (we will see them in detail later)

- DPLL (Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland)

- ▶ Backtracking algorithm: picks some atom p and tries two branches: one with $p = \textit{true}$, one with $p = \textit{false}$.

SAT solvers

Basic Methods: (we will see them in detail later)

- DPLL (Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland)

- ▶ Backtracking algorithm: picks some atom p and tries two branches: one with $p = \text{true}$, one with $p = \text{false}$.
- ▶ Once a new assignment is made, it is exploited as much as possible (unit propagation)

Basic Methods: (we will see them in detail later)

- DPLL (Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland)

- ▶ Backtracking algorithm: picks some atom p and tries two branches: one with $p = \text{true}$, one with $p = \text{false}$.
- ▶ Once a new assignment is made, it is exploited as much as possible (unit propagation)
- ▶ Keypoint: good heuristics to choose the most convenient atom p

Basic Methods: (we will see them in detail later)

- DPLL (Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland)

- ▶ Backtracking algorithm: picks some atom p and tries two branches: one with $p = \text{true}$, one with $p = \text{false}$.
- ▶ Once a new assignment is made, it is exploited as much as possible (unit propagation)
- ▶ Keypoint: good heuristics to choose the most convenient atom p

- CDCL (Conflict-Driven Conflict Learning)

- ▶ Maintains an implication graph (each node is a literal, each arrow an implication)
- ▶ When an inconsistent assignment is reached, it extracts from the graph a new clause (reflecting the conflict)
- ▶ back jump: it backtracks several steps backwards to the first-assigned variable involved in the conflict