

# Formal Specification and Verification

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# Until now

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## Propositional classical logic

- Syntax
- Semantics
  - Models, Validity, and Satisfiability
  - Entailment and Equivalence
- Checking Unsatisfiability
  - Truth tables
  - "Rewriting" using equivalences
  - Proof systems: clausal/non-clausal

# Last time

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## Propositional classical logic

Proof systems: clausal/non-clausal

- non-clausal: Hilbert calculus  
sequent calculus
- clausal: Resolution; DPLL (translation to CNF needed)
- Binary Decision Diagrams

# Today

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## Propositional classical logic

Proof systems: clausal/non-clausal

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- clausal: Resolution; DPLL (translation to CNF needed)
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# Overview

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## Propositional classical logic

Proof systems: clausal/non-clausal

- non-clausal: Hilbert calculus  
sequent calculus
- clausal: Resolution; **DPLL (translation to CNF needed)**
- Binary Decision Diagrams

# The DPLL Procedure

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## Goal:

Given a propositional formula in CNF (or alternatively, a finite set  $N$  of clauses), check whether it is satisfiable (and optionally: output *one* solution, if it is satisfiable).

# Satisfiability of Clause Sets

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$\mathcal{A} \models N$  if and only if  $\mathcal{A} \models C$  for all clauses  $C$  in  $N$ .

$\mathcal{A} \models C$  if and only if  $\mathcal{A} \models L$  for some literal  $L \in C$ .

# Partial Valuations

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Since we will construct satisfying valuations incrementally, we consider **partial valuations** (that is, partial mappings  $\mathcal{A} : \Pi \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ ).

We start with an **empty valuation** and try to extend it step by step to all variables occurring in  $N$ .

If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a partial valuation, then literals and clauses can be **true, false, or undefined** under  $\mathcal{A}$ .

A clause is true under  $\mathcal{A}$  if one of its literals is true; it is false (or **“conflicting”**) if all its literals are false; otherwise it is undefined (or **“unresolved”**).



# Unit Clauses

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## Observation:

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a partial valuation. If the set  $N$  contains a clause  $C$ , such that all literals but one in  $C$  are false under  $\mathcal{A}$ , then the following properties are equivalent:

- there is a valuation that is a model of  $N$  and extends  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- there is a valuation that is a model of  $N$  and extends  $\mathcal{A}$  and makes the remaining literal  $L$  of  $C$  true.

$C$  is called a **unit clause**;  $L$  is called a **unit literal**.

# Pure Literals

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## One more observation:

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a partial valuation and  $P$  a variable that is undefined under  $\mathcal{A}$ . If  $P$  occurs only positively (or only negatively) in the unresolved clauses in  $N$ , then the following properties are equivalent:

- there is a valuation that is a model of  $N$  and extends  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- there is a valuation that is a model of  $N$  and extends  $\mathcal{A}$  and assigns true (false) to  $P$ .

$P$  is called a **pure literal**.

# The Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland Proc.

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```
boolean DPLL(clause set N, partial valuation A) {
  if (all clauses in N are true under A) return true;
  elsif (some clause in N is false under A) return false;
  elsif (N contains unit clause P) return DPLL(N,  $\mathcal{A} \cup \{P \mapsto 1\}$ );
  elsif (N contains unit clause  $\neg P$ ) return DPLL(N,  $\mathcal{A} \cup \{P \mapsto 0\}$ );
  elsif (N contains pure literal P) return DPLL(N,  $\mathcal{A} \cup \{P \mapsto 1\}$ );
  elsif (N contains pure literal  $\neg P$ ) return DPLL(N,  $\mathcal{A} \cup \{P \mapsto 0\}$ );
  else {
    let P be some undefined variable in N;
    if (DPLL(N,  $\mathcal{A} \cup \{P \mapsto 0\}$ )) return true;
    else return DPLL(N,  $\mathcal{A} \cup \{P \mapsto 1\}$ );
  }
}
```

# The Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland Proc.

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Initially, DPLL is called with the clause set  $N$  and with an empty partial valuation  $\mathcal{A}$ .

# The Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland Proc.

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In practice, there are several changes to the procedure:

The pure literal check is often omitted (it is too expensive).

The branching variable is not chosen randomly.

The algorithm is implemented iteratively;

the backtrack stack is managed explicitly

(it may be possible and useful to backtrack more than one level).

# DPLL Iteratively

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An iterative (and generalized) version:

```
status = preprocess();
if (status != UNKNOWN) return status;
while(1) {
    decide_next_branch();
    while(1) {
        status = deduce();
        if (status == CONFLICT) {
            blevel = analyze_conflict();
            if (blevel == 0) return UNSATISFIABLE;
            else backtrack(blevel); }
        else if (status == SATISFIABLE) return SATISFIABLE;
        else break;
    }
}
```

# DPLL Iteratively

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`preprocess()`

preprocess the input (as far as it is possible without branching);  
return CONFLICT or SATISFIABLE or UNKNOWN.

`decide_next_branch()`

choose the right undefined variable to branch;  
decide whether to set it to 0 or 1;  
increase the backtrack level.

# DPLL Iteratively

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deduce()

make further assignments to variables (e.g., using the unit clause rule) until a satisfying assignment is found, or until a conflict is found, or until branching becomes necessary;  
return CONFLICT or SATISFIABLE or UNKNOWN.



# DPLL Iteratively

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`analyze_conflict()`

check where to backtrack.

`backtrack(blevel)`

backtrack to `blevel`;

flip the branching variable on that level;

undo the variable assignments in between.

# Branching Heuristics

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Choosing the right undefined variable to branch is important for efficiency, but the branching heuristics may be expensive itself.

State of the art: use branching heuristics that need not be recomputed too frequently.

In general: choose variables that occur frequently.

# The Deduction Algorithm

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For applying the unit rule, we need to know the number of literals in a clause that are not false.

Maintaining this number is expensive, however.

# The Deduction Algorithm

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Better approach: “Two watched literals”:

In each clause, select two (currently undefined) “watched” literals.

For each variable  $P$ , keep a list of all clauses in which  $P$  is watched and a list of all clauses in which  $\neg P$  is watched.

If an undefined variable is set to 0 (or to 1), check all clauses in which  $P$  (or  $\neg P$ ) is watched and watch another literal (that is true or undefined) in this clause if possible.

Watched literal information need not be restored upon backtracking.

# Conflict Analysis and Learning

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**Goal:** Reuse information that is obtained in one branch in further branches.

**Method:** **Learning:**

If a conflicting clause is found, use the resolution rule to derive a new clause and add it to the current set of clauses.

**Problem:** This may produce a large number of new clauses; therefore it may become necessary to delete some of them afterwards to save space.

# Backjumping

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Related technique:

non-chronological backtracking (“backjumping”):

If a conflict is independent of some earlier branch, try to skip that over that backtrack level.

# Restart

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Runtimes of DPLL-style procedures depend extremely on the choice of branching variables.

If no solution is found within a certain time limit, it can be useful to **restart** from scratch with another choice of branchings (but learned clauses may be kept).

# A succinct formulation

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State:  $M||F$ ,

where:

- $M$  partial assignment (sequence of literals),  
    some literals are annotated ( $L^d$ : decision literal)
- $F$  clause set.



# A succinct formulation

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## UnitPropagation

$M \parallel F, C \vee L \Rightarrow M, L \parallel F, C \vee L$       if  $M \models \neg C$ , and  $L$  undef. in  $M$

## Decide

$M \parallel F \Rightarrow M, L^d \parallel F$       if  $L$  or  $\neg L$  occurs in  $F$ ,  $L$  undef. in  $M$

## Fail

$M \parallel F, C \Rightarrow \text{Fail}$       if  $M \models \neg C$ ,  $M$  contains no decision literals

## Backjump

$M, L^d, N \parallel F \Rightarrow M, L' \parallel F$       if  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{there is some clause } C \vee L' \text{ s.t.:} \\ F \models C \vee L', M \models \neg C, \\ L' \text{ undefined in } M \\ L' \text{ or } \neg L' \text{ occurs in } F. \end{array} \right.$

# Example

Assignment:	Clause set:	
$\emptyset$	$\ \neg P_1 \vee P_2, \neg P_3 \vee P_4, \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_6, P_6 \vee \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_2$	$\Rightarrow$ (Decide)
$P_1^d$	$\ \neg P_1 \vee P_2, \neg P_3 \vee P_4, \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_6, P_6 \vee \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_2$	$\Rightarrow$ (UnitProp)
$P_1^d P_2$	$\ \neg P_1 \vee P_2, \neg P_3 \vee P_4, \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_6, P_6 \vee \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_2$	$\Rightarrow$ (Decide)
$P_1^d P_2 P_3^d$	$\ \neg P_1 \vee P_2, \neg P_3 \vee P_4, \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_6, P_6 \vee \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_2$	$\Rightarrow$ (UnitProp)
$P_1^d P_2 P_3^d P_4$	$\ \neg P_1 \vee P_2, \neg P_3 \vee P_4, \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_6, P_6 \vee \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_2$	$\Rightarrow$ (Decide)
$P_1^d P_2 P_3^d P_4 P_5^d$	$\ \neg P_1 \vee P_2, \neg P_3 \vee P_4, \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_6, P_6 \vee \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_2$	$\Rightarrow$ (UnitProp)
$P_1^d P_2 P_3^d P_4 P_5^d \neg P_6$	$\ \neg P_1 \vee P_2, \neg P_3 \vee P_4, \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_6, P_6 \vee \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_2$	$\Rightarrow$ (Backtrac)
$P_1^d P_2 P_3^d P_4 \neg P_5$	$\ \neg P_1 \vee P_2, \neg P_3 \vee P_4, \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_6, P_6 \vee \neg P_5 \vee \neg P_2$	...

# DPLL with learning

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The DPLL system with learning consists of the four transition rules of the Basic DPLL system, plus the following two additional rules:

## Learn

$M||F \Rightarrow M||F, C$  if all atoms of  $C$  occur in  $F$  and  $F \models C$

## Forget

$M||F, C \Rightarrow M||F$  if  $F \models C$

In these two rules, the clause  $C$  is said to be learned and forgotten, respectively.

## Further Information

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The ideas described so far have been implemented in the SAT checker **Chaff**.

Further information:

Lintao Zhang and Sharad Malik:

The Quest for Efficient Boolean Satisfiability Solvers,  
Proc. CADE-18, LNAI 2392, pp. 295–312, Springer, 2002.

# Overview

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## Propositional classical logic

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- Binary Decision Diagrams

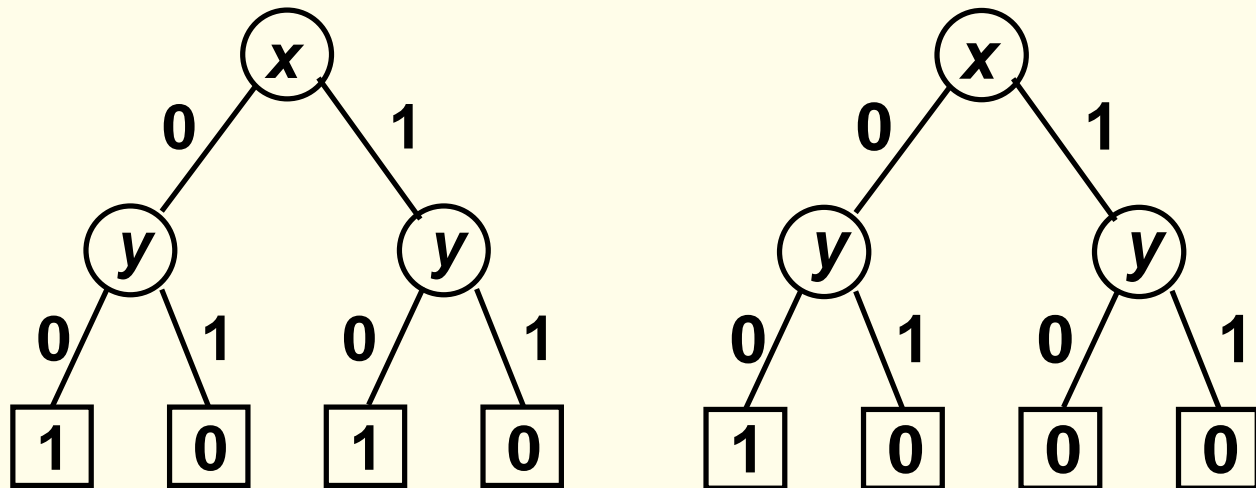
# Binary Decision Diagrams

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Formulae  $\leftrightarrow$  Boolean functions

$F$  ( $n$  Prop.Var)  $\mapsto f_F : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

Binary decision trees:



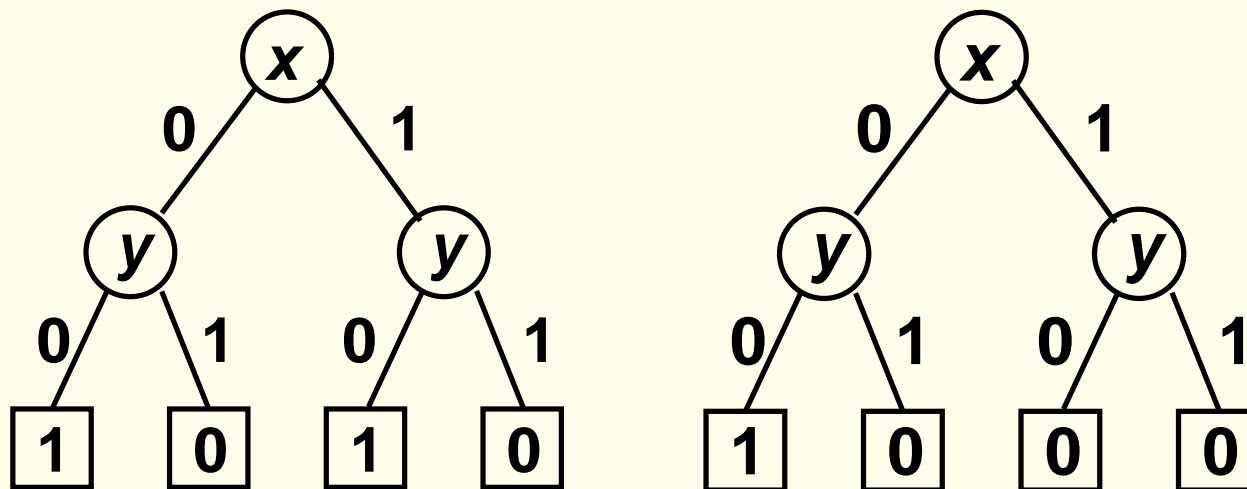
# Binary Decision Diagrams

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Formulae  $\leftrightarrow$  Boolean functions

$F$  ( $n$  Prop.Var)  $\mapsto f_F : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

Binary decision trees:



- exactly as inefficient as truth tables ( $2^{n+1} - 1$  nodes if  $n$  prop.vars.)
- optimization possible: remove redundancies

# Binary Decision Diagrams

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Optimization: remove redundancies

1. remove duplicate leaves
2. remove unnecessary tests
3. remove duplicate nodes

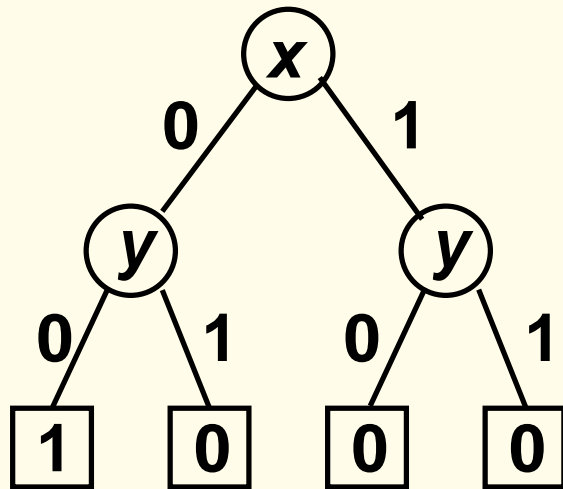


# Binary Decision Diagrams

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1. remove duplicate leaves

Only one copy of 0 and 1 necessary:

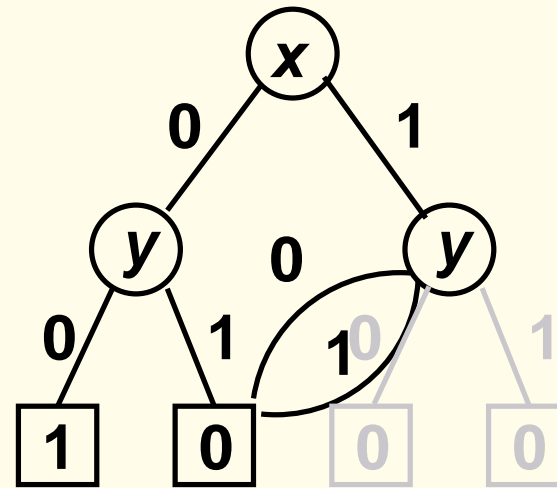
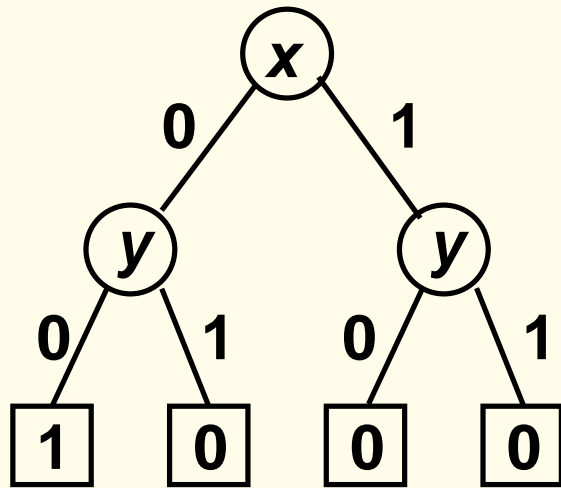


# Binary Decision Diagrams

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1. remove duplicate leaves

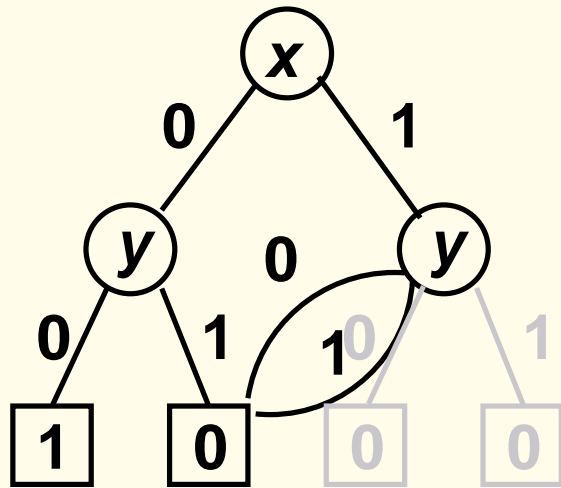
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# Binary Decision Diagrams

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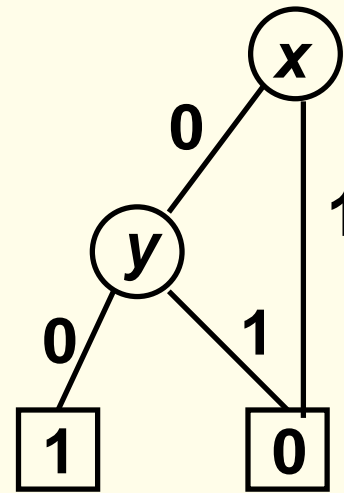
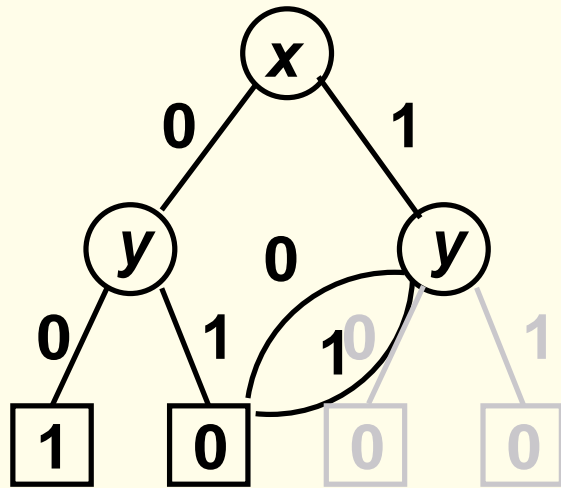
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# Binary Decision Diagrams

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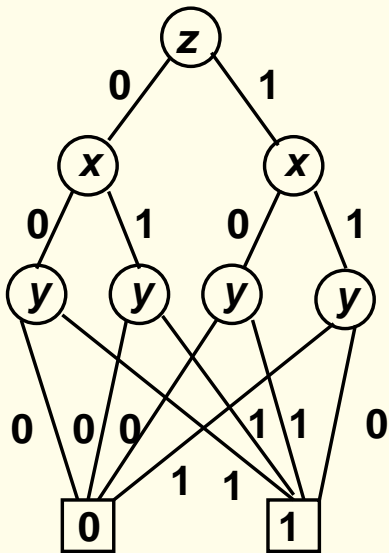
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# Binary Decision Diagrams

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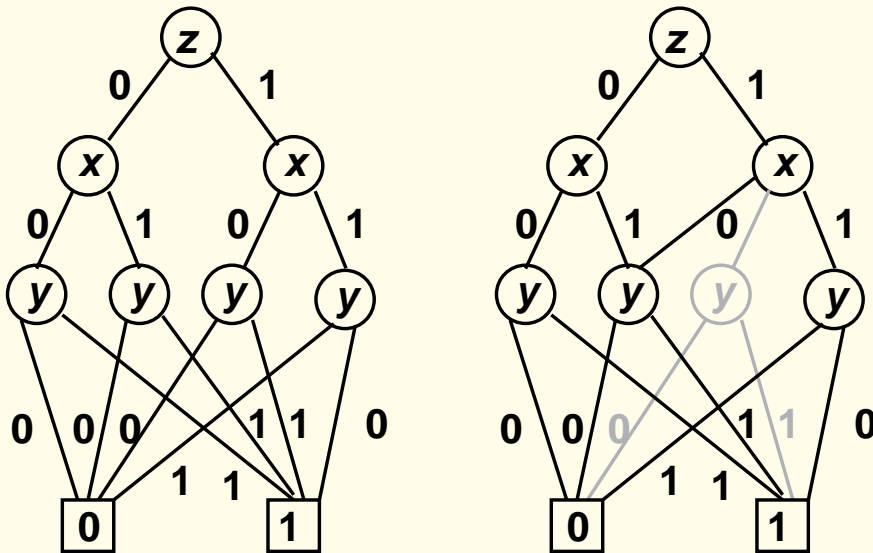
3. remove duplicate non-terminal nodes:



# Binary Decision Diagrams

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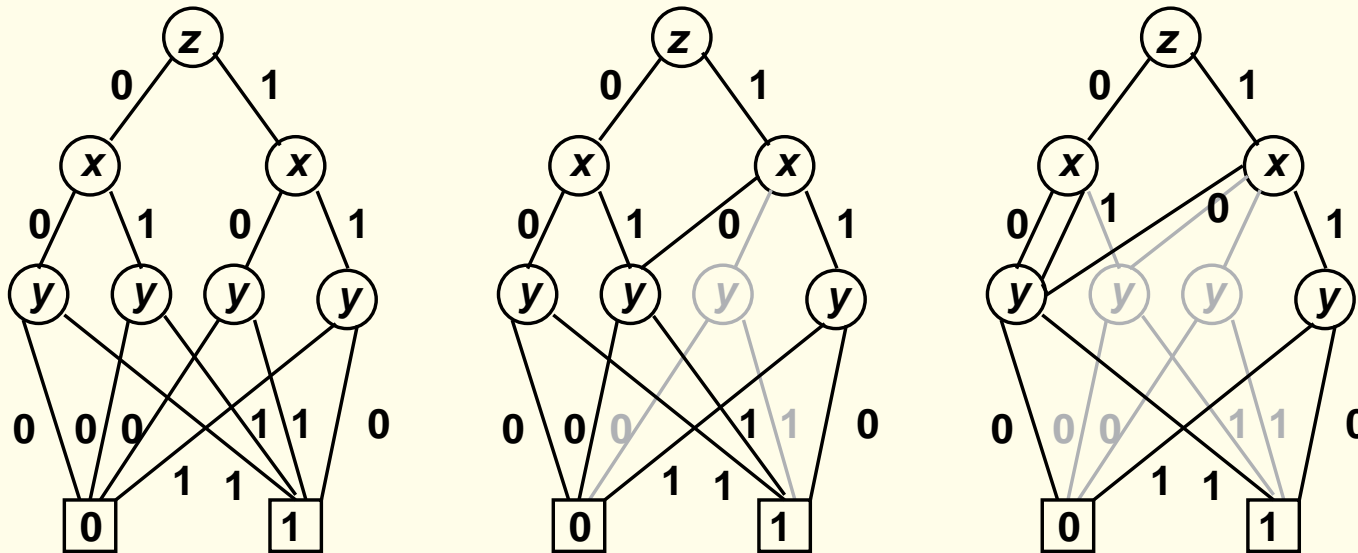
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# Binary Decision Diagrams

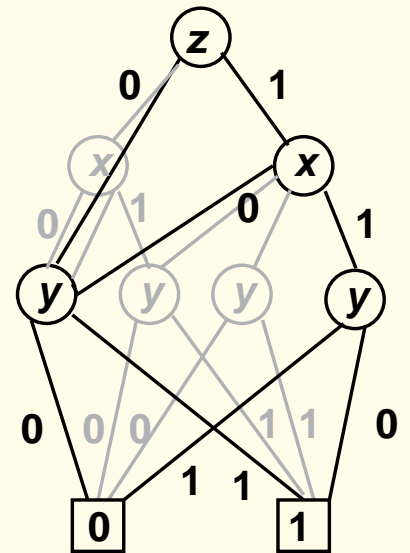
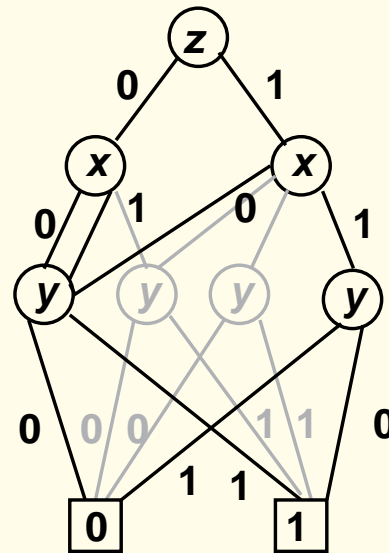
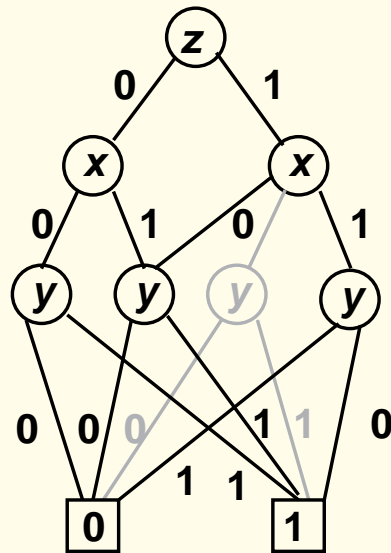
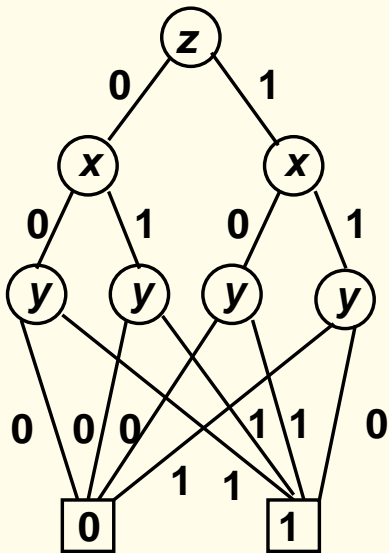
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# Binary Decision Diagrams

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