

## CS208 (Semester 1) Topic 9 : Automating Logic

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## Automating Logic, Part 1 Automating Logic

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#### What to Automate?

Given a formula P, we can ask:

- 1. Does P have a proof?
- 2. Is P valid?
- **3.** Is P satisfiable?
- **4.** For a model  $\mathcal{M}$ , do we have  $\mathcal{M} \models P$ ?
- **5.** Can we generate  $\mathcal{M}$ , such that  $\mathcal{M} \models P$ ?
- **6.** How many models does P have?

Given the expressiveness of Predicate Logic, this covers a large range of questions.



#### The Bad News

Lots of things are undecidable:

- 1. Validity in Predicate Logic
- 2. Entailment in Predicate Logic
- 3. Checking models of Predicate Logic
- 4. Model generation for Predicate Logic

Undecidable: No program that can perfectly say "yes" or "no".



#### **More Bad News**

#### Or theoretically intractable:

- 1. Validity / Satisfiability checking in Propositional Logic
- 2. Synthesis of finite models
- 3. Checking of finite models

Intractable: there is no (known) program to solve it that runs in better than  $O(2^n)$  on inputs of size n.



#### The Good News

For undecidable problems, there are good *semi-decision* procedures. Semi-decision: says "yes" exactly when the problem is solved. No guarantees otherwise.

For intractable problems, there are heuristics that solve common cases quickly.



## **Many Algorithms**

- Proof Search
   Try all possible proof rules, under some strategy
- **2.** Resolution Provers
  A proof system specialised to proof search
- **3.** Specific tools for sub-languages of Predicate Logic E.g., "Horn" clause provers
- 4. SAT / SMT Solvers SATisfiabilty solvers SATisfiabilty Modulo Theory solvers



## **Many Algorithms**

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   Try all possible proof rules, under some strategy
- **2.** Resolution Provers
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- 4. SAT / SMT Solvers SATisfiabilty solvers SATisfiabilty Modulo Theory solvers

We will look at SAT / SMT solvers here.

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### SAT / SMT

SAT solvers work on Propositional Logic.

SMT solvers work on a quantifier-free fragment of Predicate Logic.

Lots of industrial strength tools: Z3, CVC5, Yices, ...

Used by (e.g.) Amazon Web Services to check access control rules, Microsoft to verify software, ...



## Automating Logic, Part 2 SAT Solvers



### **SAT solvers**

SATisfiability solvers.

#### The problem they solve:

▶ Given a formula P (in *conjunctive normal form*), find a valuation  $\nu$  that makes it T and return SAT( $\nu$ ), or if there is no such valuation, return UNSAT.



## **Solving SAT**

- In the worst case, there are 2<sup>n</sup> cases to check, where n is the number of atomic propositions.
  - Checking each case is quick ... but there are a lot of cases.
- This is the archetypal NP problem:
  - If we knew the answer, it would be easy to check (Polynomial time)
  - But there are exponentially many to check (Nondeterminism)
- It is unknown if there is a better way. Does P = NP?



## **Encoding Problems into SAT**

In general, if we want to prove that P is valid, then it suffices to show that  $\neg P$  is not satisifable:

- 1. Take P
- **2.** Put  $\neg P$  into a SAT solver:
  - **2.1** if  $\neg P$  is satisfiable, then we have a counter example to P
  - **2.2** if  $\neg P$  is not satisfiable, then P is valid

Also, there are *many* problems that can be encoded as Propositional Logic formulas.



## **But SAT is useful: Solving Problems**

1. Package installations

(satisfying valuation = good package installation)

2. Solving Sudoku

(satisfying valuation = correct solution)

3. Solving Resource allocations

(satisfying valuation = feasible resource allocation)



## **SAT** is Useful: Finding Bugs

1. Finding faults in systems

(satisfying valuation = path to a bad state)

2. Finding flaws in Access Control rules

(satisfying valuation = unexpectedly permitted request)

3. Verifying hardware

(satisfying valuation = counterexample to correctness)



## An alluring proposition

Instead of writing custom solvers for all these problems, we:

- 1. translate into propositional logic; and
- 2. use an off the shelf SAT solver.



## Solving the problem in practice

Despite the  $2^n$  worst case time, practical SAT solvers are possible:

- 1. Solvers don't blindly check all cases:
  - Use the formula to guide the search;
  - Analyse dead ends to avoid finding them more than once;
  - Very efficient data structures.
- 2. Human-made problems tend to be quite regular.
- 3. Modern SAT solvers can handle
  - ► 10s of thousands of variables
  - millions of clauses
- 4. Practical tools for solving real-world problems.



## **Input for SAT solvers**

SAT solvers take input in *Conjunctive Normal Form* (CNF):

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

$$\land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d)$$

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

$$\land b$$

- **1.** Entire formula is a conjunction  $C_1 \wedge C_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge C_n$
- **2.** where each *clause*  $C_i = L_{i,1} \vee L_{i,2} \vee \cdots \vee L_{i,k}$
- **3.** where each *literal*  $L_{i,j} = x_{i,j}$  or  $L_{i,j} = \neg x_{i,j}$

Every formula can be put into CNF (later)



### **Conjunctive Normal Form**

The restriction to CNF may seem like a massive restriction.

Every Propositional Logic formula can be translated into CNF.

- Slow way: "multiply out the brackets"
   Resulting formula might be exponentially larger
- **2.** Fast way: "Tseytin translation" Resulting formulas is at most 3 times larger

We'll just assume this can be done for now.

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## A SAT Solver's job

Given clauses that look like:

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

$$\land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d)$$

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

$$\land b$$

To find a valuation v for the a, ... such that at least one literal in every clause is true.

Returns either: SAT(v) or UNSAT.



## Basic idea of the algorithm

- 1. The clauses  $C_1, \ldots, C_n$  to be satisfied are fixed;
- 2. The state is a partial valuation (next slide);
- 3. At each step we pick a way to modify the current partial valuation by choosing from a collection of rules;
- **4.** Algorithm terminates when either a satisfying valuation is constructed, or it is clear that this is not possible.

This is known as the DPLL Algorithm.



#### **Partial Valuations**

To describe what a SAT solver does, we need partial valuations.

#### A partial valuation $v^2$ is a:

- sequence of assignments to atoms; with each one marked
  - 1. decision point, if we guessed this value.
  - 2. forced, if we were forced to have this value.

Examples: 
$$v_1^2 = [a :_d T, b :_d F, c :_f T]$$
  
 $v_2^2 = [a :_f F, b :_d F]$ 



### **Differences with Valuations**

1. The order matters

(we keep track of what decisions we make during the search)

2. Not all atoms need an assignment

(we want to represent partial solutions during the search)

**3.** We mark decision points and forced decisions.



### **Notation**

We write

$$v_1^?$$
,  $a:_d x, v_2^?$ 

for a partial valuation with  $a :_d x$  somewhere in the middle.

We write

$$decisionfree(v^?)$$

if none of the assignments in  $v^2$  are marked d

(i.e., all decisions in  $v^2$  are forced)



#### 1. Initialisation

We start with the *empty partial valuation*  $v^? = []$ .

(We make no commitments)

We must extend this guess to a valuation that satisfies all the clauses.

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## 2. Guessing

If there is an atom  $\alpha$  in the clauses that is not in the current partial valuation  $v^2$ , then we can make a guess. We pick one of:

$$v^2$$
,  $a:_d T$  or  $v^2$ ,  $a:_d F$ 

(Note: we have marked this as a decision point)



#### 3. Success

If the current  $v^?$  makes all the clauses true (for all i,  $[\![C_i]\!]v^? = T$ ), then stop with SAT $(v^?)$ .



$$(\neg a \lor \neg b \lor \neg c) \land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d) \land (\neg a \lor \neg b \lor c) \land b$$

(Need at least one cyan in every clause)

#### Sequence of (lucky) guesses

1. [

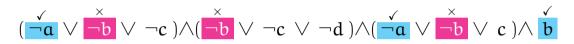


$$(\neg a \lor \neg b \lor \neg c) \land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d) \land (\neg a \lor \neg b \lor c) \land b$$

(Need at least one cyan in every clause)

- 1.
- **2.**  $[a :_d F]$

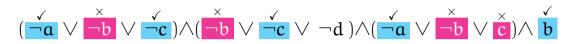




(Need at least one cyan in every clause)

- 1.
- **2.**  $[a :_d F]$
- 3.  $[a:_d F, b:_d T]$

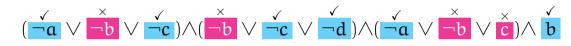




(Need at least one cyan in every clause)

- 1.
- **2.**  $[a :_d F]$
- 3.  $[a:_d F, b:_d T]$
- **4.**  $[a:_d F, b:_d T, c:_d F]$





(Need at least one cyan in every clause)

- 1.
- **2.**  $[a :_d F]$
- 3.  $[a:_d F, b:_d T]$
- **4.**  $[a:_d F, b:_d T, c:_d F]$
- **5.**  $[a:_d F, b:_d T, c:_d F, d:_d F]$ , a satisfying valuation.



But we can't program "luck"!



## 4. Backtracking

If we have a partial valuation:

$$v_1^?$$
,  $a :_d x, v_2^?$ 

and decisionfree( $v_2^2$ ) (so a : x was our most recent guess).

Then we backtrack (throw away  $v_2^?$ ) and change our mind:

$$v_1^?, a :_f \neg x$$

marking the assignment as forced.



#### 5. Failure

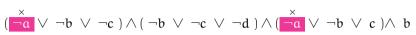
If all decisions are forced ( $decisionfree(v^?)$ ), and there is at least one clause  $C_i$  such that  $[\![C]\!]v^? = F$ , then return UNSAT.

#### **Automating Logic, Part 2: SAT Solvers**



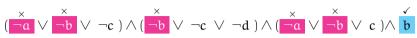
$$(\neg a \lor \neg b \lor \neg c) \land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d) \land (\neg a \lor \neg b \lor c) \land b$$

1. []





- 1.
- **2.** [a:<sub>d</sub> T]





- 1.
- **2.**  $[a:_d T]$
- 3.  $[a:_d T, b:_d T]$



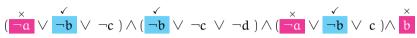


- 1.
- **2.**  $[a:_d T]$
- 3.  $[a:_d T, b:_d T]$
- **4.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_d T]$  *clause 1 failed, backtrack...*





- 1.
- **2.**  $[a:_d T]$
- 3.  $[a:_d T, b:_d T]$
- **4.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_d T]$  *clause 1 failed, backtrack...*
- 5.  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_f F]$  clause 3 failed, backtrack...





- 1.
- **2.**  $[a:_d T]$
- 3.  $[a:_d T, b:_d T]$
- **4.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_d T]$  *clause 1 failed, backtrack...*
- **5.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*
- **6.**  $[a:_d T, b:_f F]$  *clause 4 failed, backtrack...*



- 1.
- **2.**  $[a:_d T]$
- 3.  $[a:_d T, b:_d T]$
- **4.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_d T]$  *clause 1 failed, backtrack...*
- **5.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*
- **6.**  $[a:_d T, b:_f F]$  *clause 4 failed, backtrack...*
- **7.** [a :<sub>f</sub> F]



- 1.
- **2.**  $[a:_d T]$
- 3.  $[a:_d T, b:_d T]$
- **4.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_d T]$  *clause 1 failed, backtrack...*
- **5.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*
- **6.**  $[a:_d T, b:_f F]$  *clause 4 failed, backtrack...*
- **7.** [a :<sub>f</sub> F]
- 8.  $[a:_f F, b:_d T]$





- 1.
- **2.**  $[a:_d T]$
- 3.  $[a:_d T, b:_d T]$
- **4.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_d T]$  *clause 1 failed, backtrack...*
- **5.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*
- **6.**  $[a:_d T, b:_f F]$  *clause 4 failed, backtrack...*
- **7.** [a :<sub>f</sub> F]
- 8.  $[a:_{f} F, b:_{d} T]$
- **9.**  $[a:_f F, b:_d T, c:_d T]$





- 1.
- **2.**  $[a:_d T]$
- 3.  $[a:_d T, b:_d T]$
- **4.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_d T]$  *clause 1 failed, backtrack...*
- **5.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*
- **6.**  $[a:_d T, b:_f F]$  *clause 4 failed, backtrack...*
- **7.** [a :<sub>f</sub> F]
- 8.  $[a:_{f} F, b:_{d} T]$
- 9.  $[a:_f F, b:_d T, c:_d T]$
- **10.**  $[a:_f F, b:_d T, c:_d T, d:_d T]$  clause 2 failed, backtrack





- 1.
- **2.**  $[a:_d T]$
- 3.  $[a:_d T, b:_d T]$
- **4.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_d T]$  *clause 1 failed, backtrack...*
- **5.**  $[a:_d T, b:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*
- **6.**  $[a:_d T, b:_f F]$  *clause 4 failed, backtrack...*
- **7.** [a :<sub>f</sub> F]
- 8.  $[a:_{f} F, b:_{d} T]$
- 9.  $[a:_f F, b:_d T, c:_d T]$
- **10.**  $[a:_f F, b:_d T, c:_d T, d:_d T]$  *clause 2 failed, backtrack*
- **11.**  $[a:_f F, b:_d T, c:_d T, d:_d F]$  SAT



## **Summary**

- SAT solvers are tools that find satisfying valuations for formulas in CNF.
- 2. Having a SAT solver enables solving of problems modelled using logic.
- **3.** The core algorithm is a backtracking search.



#### Automating Logic, Part 3

# Faster SAT by Unit Propagation



# **Backtracking is Oblivious**

The example:

$$(\neg a \lor \neg b \lor \neg c) \land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d) \land (\neg a \lor \neg b \lor c) \land b$$

Backtracking tries the atoms in some order.

But we can see immediately that b must be true.

Other forced assignments occur during the search.



# Making the Search less naive

If we are in a situation like:

$$( b \lor c \lor \neg d )$$

then if the current valuation is to succeed in any way, it must be the case that d: F.

(because we need at least one literal in every clause to be true.)

Using this, we can make the search a little less naive.



# 6. Unit Propagation Step

(a) If there is a clause  $C \vee a$  and  $[\![C]\!]v^? = F$ , then we extend  $v^?$  to:

$$v^?$$
,  $a:_f T$ 

(b) If there is a clause  $C \vee \neg a$  and  $[\![C]\!] v^? = F$ , then we extend  $v^?$  to:

$$v^?$$
,  $a:_f F$ 

(Note: the a needn't necessarily appear at the end of the clause)



$$(\neg a \lor \neg b \lor \neg c) \land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d) \land (\neg a \lor \neg b \lor c) \land b$$

1. do unit propagation...



$$(\neg a \lor \neg b \lor \neg c) \land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d) \land (\neg a \lor \neg b \lor c) \land b$$

- 1. do unit propagation...
- **2.**  $[b:_f T]$



- 1. do unit propagation...
- **2.** [b :<sub>f</sub> T]
- **3.**  $[b:_f T, a:_d T]$  *do unit propagation...*



- 1. do unit propagation...
- **2.** [b :<sub>f</sub> T]
- **3.**  $[b :_f T, a :_d T]$  *do unit propagation...*
- **4.**  $[b:_f T, a:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*



- 1. do unit propagation...
- **2.** [b:<sub>f</sub> T]
- **3.**  $[b :_f T, a :_d T]$  *do unit propagation...*
- **4.**  $[b:_f T, a:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*
- 5.  $[b:_f T, a:_f F]$



$$(\neg a \lor \neg b \lor \neg c) \land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d) \land (\neg a \lor \neg b \lor c) \land b$$

- 1. 🛚 do unit propagation...
- **2.** [b:<sub>f</sub> T]
- **3.**  $[b:_f T, a:_d T]$  *do unit propagation...*
- **4.**  $[b:_f T, a:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*
- 5.  $[b:_f T, a:_f F]$
- **6.**  $[b:_f T, a:_f F, c:_d T]$  *do unit propagation...*



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$$(\neg a \lor \neg b \lor \neg c) \land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d) \land (\neg a \lor \neg b \lor c) \land b$$

- 1. do unit propagation...
- **2.** [b:<sub>f</sub> T]
- **3.**  $[b:_f T, a:_d T]$  *do unit propagation...*
- **4.**  $[b:_f T, a:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*
- 5.  $[b:_f T, a:_f F]$
- **6.**  $[b:_f T, a:_f F, c:_d T]$  *do unit propagation...*
- 7.  $[b:_f T, a:_f F, c:_d T, d:_f F]$  SAT



- 1. do unit propagation...
- **2.** [b :<sub>f</sub> T]
- **3.**  $[b :_f T, a :_d T]$  *do unit propagation...*
- **4.**  $[b:_f T, a:_d T, c:_f F]$  *clause 3 failed, backtrack...*
- 5.  $[b:_f T, a:_f F]$
- **6.**  $[b:_f T, a:_f F, c:_d T]$  *do unit propagation...*
- 7.  $[b:_f T, a:_f F, c:_d T, d:_f F]$  SAT

One backtrack vs. four without unit propagation.



If every clause has at most two literals, UP means less backtracking:



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 $[\operatorname{progA}_1:_d\mathsf{T}]$ 



If every clause has at most two literals, UP means less backtracking:

 $[\operatorname{progA}_1:_d\mathsf{T},\operatorname{progA}_2:_f\mathsf{F}]$ 



If every clause has at most two literals, UP means less backtracking:

 $[\operatorname{progA}_1:_d\mathsf{T},\operatorname{progA}_2:_f\mathsf{F},\operatorname{libC}_1:_f\mathsf{T}]$ 



If every clause has at most two literals, UP means less backtracking:

$$(\neg libD_1 \lor \neg libD_2) \land (\neg libC_1 \lor \neg libC_2)$$

$$\land (\neg progA_1 \lor \neg progA_2) \land (\neg progA_1 \lor libC_1)$$

$$\land (\neg progA_2 \lor libC_2) \land (\neg libC_1 \lor libD_2)$$

$$\land (\neg libC_2 \lor libD_2) \land (progA_1 \lor progA_2)$$

 $[\operatorname{progA}_1:_d\mathsf{T},\operatorname{progA}_2:_f\mathsf{F},\operatorname{libC}_1:_f\mathsf{T},\operatorname{libC}_2:_f\mathsf{F}]$ 



If every clause has at most two literals, UP means less backtracking:

$$(\neg libD_1 \lor \neg libD_2) \land (\neg libC_1 \lor \neg libC_2)$$

$$\land (\neg progA_1 \lor \neg progA_2) \land (\neg progA_1 \lor libC_1)$$

$$\land (\neg progA_2 \lor libC_2) \land (\neg libC_1 \lor libD_2)$$

$$\land (\neg libC_2 \lor libD_2) \land (progA_1 \lor progA_2)$$

 $[\operatorname{progA}_1:_d \mathsf{T}, \operatorname{progA}_2:_f \mathsf{F}, \operatorname{libC}_1:_f \mathsf{T}, \operatorname{libC}_2:_f \mathsf{F}, \operatorname{libD}_2:_f \mathsf{T}]$ 

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#### 2-SAT

If every clause has at most two literals, UP means less backtracking:

$$(\neg libD_1 \lor \neg libD_2) \land (\neg libC_1 \lor \neg libC_2)$$

$$\land (\neg progA_1 \lor \neg progA_2) \land (\neg progA_1 \lor libC_1)$$

$$\land (\neg progA_2 \lor libC_2) \land (\neg libC_1 \lor libD_2)$$

$$\land (\neg libC_2 \lor libD_2) \land (progA_1 \lor progA_2)$$

 $[\operatorname{progA}_1:_d\mathsf{T},\operatorname{progA}_2:_f\mathsf{F},\operatorname{libC}_1:_f\mathsf{T},\operatorname{libC}_2:_f\mathsf{F},\operatorname{libD}_2:_f\mathsf{T},\operatorname{libD}_1:_f\mathsf{F}]$ 

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#### 2-SAT

If every clause has at most two literals,

- UP means at most one backtrack
- Means that we can solve the problem in polynomial time
- So for the n-SAT problem:
  - ▶ If  $n \le 2$ , there is a fast polynomial time algorithm
  - ▶ If  $n \ge 3$ , no known general fast algorithm



# **Summary of the Rules 1**

DecideTrue  $v^? \implies v^?$ ,  $a:_d T$  if a is not assigned in  $v^?$ 

DecideFalse  $v^? \implies v^?$ ,  $a :_d F$  if a is not assigned in  $v^?$ 

Success  $v^? \implies SAT(v^?)$  if  $v^?$  makes all the clauses true.

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# **Summary of the Rules 2**

BackTrack 
$$v_1^?, a:_d x, v_2^? \implies v_1^?, a:_f \neg x$$

if  $v_2^?$  is decision free

Fail 
$$v^? \Longrightarrow UNSAT$$

if  $v^{?}$  is decision free, and makes at least one clause false.



# **Summary of the Rules 3**

UnitPropTrue 
$$\nu^? \implies \nu^?, \alpha:_f T$$

if there is a clause 
$$C \vee \alpha$$
 and  $[\![C]\!](v^?) = F$ 

UnitPropFalse 
$$v^? \implies v^?, a:_f F$$

if there is a clause 
$$C \vee \neg \alpha$$
 and  $[\![C]\!](v^?) = F$ 



### **Real SAT solvers**

Use very efficient data structures.

(Key is very fast unit propagation)

Use heuristics to guide the search:

- Which atom to try next? (not just a, b, c, ...)
- Whether to try T or F first?

#### Incorporate additional rules:

Non-chronological backjumping

(skip several decision points by analysing conflicts)

- Clause learning to avoid doing the same work over again.
- "CDCL" (Conflict Driven Clause Learning)
- Random walk between possible valuations "WalkSAT".



## **Summary**

- Unit Propagation speeds up SAT Solving (by using the structure of the problem)
- ► This makes 2-SAT very fast
- ► Real SAT Solvers are very sophisticated.



## Conversion to CNF



#### **Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)**

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

$$\land (\neg b \lor \neg c \lor \neg d)$$

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

$$\land b$$

- **1.** Entire formula is a conjunction  $C_1 \wedge C_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge C_n$
- **2.** where each *clause*  $C_i = L_{i,1} \vee L_{i,2} \vee \cdots \vee L_{i,k}$
- **3.** where each *literal*  $L_{i,j} = x_{i,j}$  or  $L_{i,j} = \neg x_{i,j}$



#### **Disjunctive Normal Form (DNF)**

Disjunctive Normal Form (DNF) is similar, but swaps  $\wedge$  and  $\vee$ .

$$(\neg a \land \neg b \land \neg c)$$

$$\lor (\neg b \land \neg c \land \neg d)$$

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

$$\lor b$$

- **1.** Entire formula is a *disjunction*  $D_1 \vee D_2 \vee \cdots \vee D_n$
- **2.** where each *disjunct*  $D_i = L_{i,1} \wedge L_{i,2} \wedge \cdots \wedge L_{i,k}$
- 3. where each *literal*  $L_{i,j} = x_{i,j}$  or  $L_{i,j} = \neg x_{i,j}$

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### Normal Forms and Satisfiability

#### **CNF**

Each clause is a *constraint* and all constraints must be satisfied.

#### **DNF**

At least one of the disjuncts must be satisfied.

Exercise: How would you write a SAT Solver for formulas in DNF? Why don't we do this instead of CNF?



#### **Conversion to CNF**

Not every formula is in CNF, e.g.,

$$(A \wedge B) \rightarrow (B \wedge A)$$

What if we want to use a SAT solver to determine satisfiability?

Two ways to convert a formula to CNF that is "the same":

- "Multiplying out"
- ► Tseytin transformation

First we need to define what we mean by "the same".



#### **Equivalent Formulas**

Define two formulas P and Q to be *equivalent*, written

$$P \equiv Q$$

exactly when, for all valuations v,

$$[\![P]\!]\nu = [\![Q]\!]\nu$$

Equivalent to both  $P \models Q$  and  $Q \models P$  being valid



### **Simplifying Implication**

$$A \rightarrow B \equiv \neg A \lor B$$

valuation			Р	Q
A	В	$\neg A$	$A \rightarrow B$	$\neg A \lor B$
F	F	Т	Т	Т
F	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F	F	F
Т	Т	F	Т	Т



#### **Double Negation**

Negating twice is the same as doing nothing:

$$A \equiv \neg \neg A$$

$$valuation \begin{vmatrix} P & Q \\ A & \neg A & A & \neg \neg A \end{vmatrix}$$

$$F & T & F & F \\ T & F & T & T$$

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#### de Morgan's laws

Negation swaps  $\wedge$  and  $\vee$ :

$$\neg(A \land B) \equiv \neg A \lor \neg B$$

valuation					Р	Q
A	В	$\neg A$	$\neg B$	$A \wedge B$	$\neg(A \land B)$	$\neg A \lor \neg B$
F	F	Т	Т	F	Т	Т
F	Т	Т	F	F	Т	Т
Τ	F	F	Т	F	Т	Т
Т	Т	F	F	Т	F	F

Similar for  $\neg (A \lor B) \equiv \neg A \land \neg B$ 

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#### **Negation Normal Form (NNF)**

Using the equivalences:

$$A \to B \equiv \neg A \lor B$$

$$A \equiv \neg \neg A$$

$$\neg (A \land B) \equiv \neg A \lor \neg B$$

$$\neg (A \lor B) \equiv \neg A \land \neg B$$

We can rewrite any formula into an equivalent one with

- 1. No implications  $(\rightarrow s)$
- 2. All negation signs on the atomic propositions



#### Example

$$\begin{array}{l} (a \wedge (a \rightarrow b)) \rightarrow c \\ \equiv \neg (a \wedge (a \rightarrow b)) \vee c \quad \textit{converted} \rightarrow \\ \equiv \neg (a \wedge (\neg a \vee b)) \vee c \quad \textit{converted} \rightarrow \\ \equiv \neg a \vee \neg (\neg a \vee b) \vee c \quad \textit{converted} \wedge \textit{to} \vee \\ \equiv \neg a \vee (\neg \neg a \wedge \neg b) \vee c \quad \textit{converted} \vee \textit{to} \wedge \\ \equiv \neg a \vee (a \wedge \neg b) \vee c \quad \textit{converted double negation} \end{array}$$

Now in NNF, but not CNF.

## "Push" $\vee$ s into $\wedge$ s



$$A \lor (B \land C) \equiv (A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)$$

valuation					Р	Q	
Α	В	C	$B \wedge C$	$A \vee B$	$A \lor C$	$A \lor (B \land C)$	$(A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)$
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
F	F	Т	F	F	Т	F	F
F	Т	F	F	Т	F	F	F
F	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F	F	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	Т	F	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	Т	F	F	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т



#### **Conversion to CNF**

$$\neg a \lor (a \land \neg b) \lor c 
\equiv multiply out 
\neg a \lor ((a \lor c) \land (\neg b \lor c)) 
\equiv multiply out 
(\neg a \lor a \lor c) \land (\neg a \lor \neg b \lor c)$$

Now in CNF.

(Can further simplify to:  $(\neg a \lor \neg b \lor c)$ )



#### **Exponential Blowup**

If we convert  $(a \land b \land c) \lor (d \land e \land f) \lor (g \land h \land i)$  to CNF, we get:

$$\begin{split} &(a \lor d \lor g) \land (a \lor d \lor h) \land (a \lor d \lor i) \land (a \lor e \lor g) \land (a \lor e \lor h) \land \\ &(a \lor e \lor i) \land (a \lor f \lor g) \land (a \lor f \lor h) \land (a \lor f \lor i) \land (b \lor d \lor g) \land \\ &(b \lor d \lor h) \land (b \lor d \lor i) \land (b \lor e \lor g) \land (b \lor e \lor h) \land (b \lor e \lor i) \land \\ &(b \lor f \lor g) \land (b \lor f \lor h) \land (b \lor f \lor i) \land (c \lor d \lor g) \land (c \lor d \lor h) \land \\ &(c \lor d \lor i) \land (c \lor e \lor g) \land (c \lor e \lor h) \land (c \lor e \lor i) \land (c \lor f \lor g) \land \\ &(c \lor f \lor h) \land (c \lor f \lor i) \end{split}$$

which has 27 clauses.

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#### Summary

- SAT Solvers take their input in CNF
- Some problems are naturally in CNF
- Conversion by "multiplying out" can generate huge formulas
- We need something better



## Tseytin Transformation



#### **Tseytin Transformation**

The Tseytin transformation converts a formula into CNF with at most 3 times as many clauses as connectives in the original formula (versus potentially exponential for multiplying out the brackets).

- 2. Convert each equation into clauses
  One equation → 2-3 clauses

Result is not equivalent, but equisatisfiable.



#### 1. Name subformulas

Take the formula and name all the non-atomic subformulas.

Example:

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

becomes:

$$x_1 = x_2 \lor c$$

$$x_2 = \neg x_3$$

$$x_3 = \alpha \land x_4$$

$$x_4 = x_5 \lor b$$

$$x_5 = \neg \alpha$$



#### 2. Converting Equations to Clauses

Given an equation like  $x = y \land z$ , we want some clauses that are true for every valuation that satisfies the equation.



#### 2. Converting Equations to Clauses

Given an equation like  $x = y \land z$ , we want some clauses that are true for every valuation that satisfies the equation.

Derive by conversion to CNF:

$$x = y \land z$$

$$\equiv (x \to (y \land z)) \land ((y \land z) \to x)$$

$$\equiv (\neg x \lor (y \land z)) \land (\neg (y \land z) \lor x)$$

$$\equiv (\neg x \lor y) \land (\neg x \lor z) \land (\neg y \lor \neg z \lor x)$$



#### 2. Equations to Clauses

Take each equation  $x = y \square z$  and turn it into clauses:

1. If  $x = y \land z$ , add

$$(\neg x \lor y) \land (\neg x \lor z) \land (\neg y \lor \neg z \lor x)$$

2. If  $x = y \lor z$ , add

$$(y \lor z \lor \neg x) \land (\neg y \lor x) \land (\neg z \lor x)$$

3. If  $x = \neg y$ , add

$$(\neg y \lor \neg x) \land (y \lor x)$$



#### 3. Assert the top level variable

If x is the name of the whole formula, add a clause with just x:

equation 1  $\land$  equation 2  $\land$  ...  $\land$  x

This asserts that our original formula must be true.

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### **Example:** $\neg (A \land B) \lor (B \land A)$

1. Name the subformulas:

$$x_1 = x_2 \lor x_4$$
  $x_2 = \neg x_3$   
 $x_3 = A \land B$   $x_4 = B \land A$ 



### **Example:** $\neg (A \land B) \lor (B \land A)$

1. Name the subformulas:

$$x_1 = x_2 \lor x_4$$
  $x_2 = \neg x_3$   
 $x_3 = A \land B$   $x_4 = B \land A$ 

**2+3.** Generate clauses: (One line per equation)

$$(x_{2} \lor x_{4} \lor \neg x_{1}) \land (\neg x_{2} \lor x_{1}) \land (\neg x_{4} \lor x_{1})$$

$$\land (\neg x_{3} \lor \neg x_{2}) \land (x_{3} \lor x_{2})$$

$$\land (\neg A \lor \neg B \lor x_{3}) \land (A \lor \neg x_{3}) \land (B \lor \neg x_{3})$$

$$\land (\neg B \lor \neg A \lor x_{4}) \land (B \lor \neg x_{4}) \land (A \lor \neg x_{4})$$

$$\land x_{1}$$



#### **Efficiency**

In small examples, we get many clauses.

But we *always* get  $\leq 3n$  clauses, where n number of connectives.

Multiplying out can result in exponential number of clauses.

Can also optimise (see the tutorial questions).



#### **Not Equivalent!**

The formulas generated by the Tseytin transformation are **not** equivalent to the original, because they have extra atomic propositions.



#### Example

If the original formula is

 $\neg A$ 

the Tseytin transformed version is: (assuming we don't optimise)

$$(\neg A \lor \neg x) \land (A \lor x) \land x$$

Then  $\{A : F, x : F\}$  satisfies the original, but not the transformed formula.



#### Equisatisfiable

If we write Tseytin(P) for the Tseytin translation of P, then:

- 1. If there exists a valuation  $v_1$  such that  $[P]v_1 = T$ , then there exists a valuation  $v_2$  such that  $[Tseytin(P)]v_2 = T$ ;
- 2. If there exists a valuation  $\nu$  such that  $[Tseytin(P)]\nu = T$ , then the valuation  $\nu' = \nu$  without the additional  $x_i$ s makes  $[P]\nu' = T$ .

This is called "equisatisfiability".



#### Example

$$v = \{A : F\}$$
 satisfies  $\neg A$ 

The corresponding satisfying valuation for

$$(\neg A \lor \neg x) \land (A \lor x) \land x$$

is 
$$\{A : F, x : T\}$$
.

A corresponding satisfying assignment always exists for the Tseytin transformation, because it is built from equations.



#### **Summary**

- Tseytin transformation converts formulas to CNF
- ▶ Generates  $\leq 3n$  clauses, where n is the number of connectives
- Avoids exponential blowup
- Can be further optimised
- Result is equisatisfiable