Propositional Logic Basics

Syntax of propositional logic

Definition

An atomic formula (or atom) has the form A_i where i = 1, 2, 3, ...Formulas are defined inductively:

- \perp ("False") and \top ("True") are formulas
- All atomic formulas are formulas
- For all formulas F, $\neg F$ is a formula.
- For all formulas F und G, (F ∘ G) is a formula, where ∘ ∈ {∧, ∨, →, ↔}
 - ¬ is called negation
 - \land is called conjunction
 - \lor is called disjunction
 - \rightarrow is called implication
 - $\leftrightarrow \quad \text{is called} \quad \text{bi-implication}$

Parentheses

Precedence of logical operators in decreasing order:

$$\neg \land \lor \to \leftrightarrow$$

Operators with higher precedence bind more strongly.

Example

Instead of $(A \rightarrow ((B \land \neg (C \lor D)) \lor E))$ we can write $A \rightarrow B \land \neg (C \lor D) \lor E$.

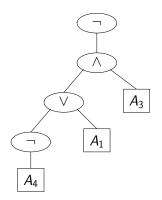
Outermost parentheses can be dropped.

Syntax tree of a formula

Every formula can be represented by a syntax tree.

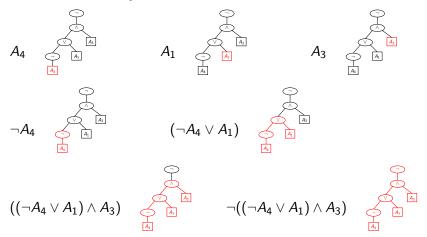
Example

$$F = \neg((\neg A_4 \lor A_1) \land A_3)$$



Subformulas

The subformulas of a formula are the formulas corresponding to the subtrees of its syntax tree.



Induction on formulas

Proof by induction on the structure of a formula:

In order to prove some property $\mathcal{P}(F)$ for all formulas F it suffices to prove the following:

Base cases:

prove $\mathcal{P}(\perp)$, prove $\mathcal{P}(\top)$, and prove $\mathcal{P}(A_i)$ for all atoms A_i

- ► Induction step for ¬: prove P(¬F) under the induction hypothesis P(F)
- Induction step for all ∘ ∈ {∧, ∨, →, ↔}: prove P(F ∘ G) under the induction hypotheses P(F) and P(G)

Operators that are merely abbreviations need not be considered!

Semantics of propositional logic (I)

- The elements of the set $\{0,1\}$ are called truth values. (You may call 0 "false" and 1 "true")
- An assignment is a function $\mathcal{A} : Atoms \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ where Atoms is the set of all atoms.

We extend \mathcal{A} to a function $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$: *Formulas* $\rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

Semantics of propositional logic (II)

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathcal{A}}(A_i) &= \mathcal{A}(A_i) \\ \hat{\mathcal{A}}(\neg F) &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(F) = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \hat{\mathcal{A}}(F \land G) &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(F) = 1 \text{ and } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(G) = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \hat{\mathcal{A}}(F \lor G) &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(F) = 1 \text{ or } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(G) = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \hat{\mathcal{A}}(F \to G) &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(F) = 0 \text{ or } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(G) = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Instead of $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$ we simply write \mathcal{A}

Using arithmetic:
$$\mathcal{A}(F \land G) = min(\mathcal{A}(F), \mathcal{A}(G))$$

 $\mathcal{A}(F \lor G) = max(\mathcal{A}(F), \mathcal{A}(G))$

Abbreviations

 $\begin{array}{lll} A, B, C, \\ P, Q, R, \, \mathrm{or} \, \dots & \text{instead of} & A_1, A_2, A_3 \dots \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{lll} F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2 & \text{abbreviates} & (F_1 \wedge F_2) \vee (\neg F_1 \wedge \neg F_2) \\ & \bigvee_{i=1}^n F_i & \text{abbreviates} & (\dots ((F_1 \vee F_2) \vee F_3) \vee \dots \vee F_n) \\ & & \bigwedge_{i=1}^n F_i & \text{abbreviates} & (\dots ((F_1 \wedge F_2) \wedge F_3) \wedge \dots \wedge F_n) \end{array}$

Special cases:

$$\bigvee_{i=1}^{0} F_{i} = \bigvee \emptyset = \bot \qquad \bigwedge_{i=1}^{0} F_{i} = \bigwedge \emptyset = \top$$

Truth tables (I)

We can compute $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$ with the help of truth tables.

_	٦	Α			V				\wedge			Α	\rightarrow	В
		0	•	0	01	0	-	0	0 0 0	0	-	0	1	0
0		1		0	1	1		0	0	1		0	1	1
				1	1	0		1	0	0		1	0	0
				1	1	1		1	1	1		1	1	1

Truth tables (II)

Α	\leftrightarrow	B
0	1	0
0	0	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

Coincidence Lemma

Lemma Let A_1 and A_2 be two assignments. If $A_1(A_i) = A_2(A_i)$ for all atoms A_i in some formula F, then $A_1(F) = A_2(F)$. Proof.

Exercise.

Models

If
$$\mathcal{A}(F) = 1$$
 then we write $\mathcal{A} \models F$
and say F is true under \mathcal{A}
or \mathcal{A} is a model of F

If $\mathcal{A}(F) = 0$ then we write $\mathcal{A} \not\models F$ and say F is false under \mathcal{A} or \mathcal{A} is not a model of F

Validity and satisfiability

Definition (Validity)

A formula F is valid (or a tautology) if *every* assignment is a model of F. We write $\models F$ if F is valid, and $\not\models F$ otherwise.

Definition (Satisfiability)

A formula F is satisfiable if it has at least one model; otherwise F is unsatisfiable.

A (finite or infinite!) set of formulas S is satisfiable if there is an assignment that is a model of every formula in S.

Exercise

	Valid	Satisfiable	Unsatisfiable
A			
$A \lor B$			
$A \lor \neg A$			
$A \wedge \neg A$			
$A \rightarrow \neg A$			
$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A)$			
$A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$			
$A \leftrightarrow \neg A$			

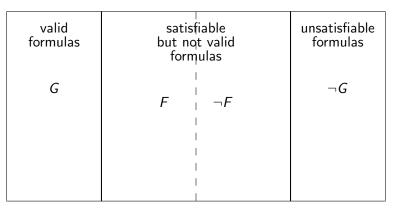
Exercise

Which of the following statements are true?

		Y	C.ex.
If F is valid,	then F is satisfiable		
If F is satisfiable,	then $\neg F$ is satisfiable		
If F is valid,	then $\neg F$ is unsatisfiable		
If F is unsatisfiable,	then $\neg F$ is unsatisfiable		

Mirroring principle

all propositional formulas



Consequence

Definition

A formula G is a (semantic) consequence of a set of formulas M if every model \mathcal{A} of all $F \in M$ is also a model of G. Then we write $M \models G$.

In a nutshell:

"Every model of M is a model of G."

Example

 $A \lor B, \ A \to B, \ B \land R \to \neg A, \ R \models (R \land \neg A) \land B$

Consequence

Example

$$\underbrace{A \lor B, \ A \to B, \ B \land R \to \neg A, \ R}_{M} \models (R \land \neg A) \land B$$

Proof:

Assume $\mathcal{A} \models F$ for all $F \in M$. We need to prove $\mathcal{A} \models (R \land \neg A) \land B$. From $\mathcal{A} \models A \lor B$ and $\mathcal{A} \models A \to B$ follows $\mathcal{A} \models B$: Proof by cases: If $\mathcal{A}(A) = 0$ then $\mathcal{A}(B) = 1$ because $\mathcal{A} \models A \lor B$ If $\mathcal{A}(A) = 1$ then $\mathcal{A}(B) = 1$ because $\mathcal{A} \models A \to B$ From $\mathcal{A} \models B$ and $\mathcal{A} \models R$ follows $\mathcal{A} \models \neg A$ because ... From $\mathcal{A} \models B$, $\mathcal{A} \models R$, and $\mathcal{A} \models \neg A$ follows $\mathcal{A} \models (R \land \neg A) \land B$

Exercise

М	F	$M \models F$?
A	$A \lor B$	
A	$A \wedge B$	
A, B	$A \lor B$	
A, B	$A \wedge B$	
$A \wedge B$	A	
$A \lor B$	A	
$A, A \rightarrow B$	В	

Consequence

Exercise

The following statements are equivalent:

1.
$$F_1, \ldots, F_k \models G$$

2. $\models (\bigwedge_{i=1}^k F_i) \rightarrow G$

Proof of "if $F_1, \ldots, F_k \models G$ then $\models \underbrace{(\bigwedge_{i=1}^k F_i) \to G}_{H}$ ".

Assume $F_1, \ldots, F_k \models G$. We need to prove $\models H$, i.e. $\mathcal{A}(H) = 1$ for all \mathcal{A} . We pick an arbitrary \mathcal{A} and show $\mathcal{A}(H) = 1$. Proof by cases. If $\mathcal{A}(\bigwedge F_i) = 0$ then $\mathcal{A}(H) = 1$ because $H = \bigwedge F_i \to G$ If $\mathcal{A}(\bigwedge F_i) = 1$ then $\mathcal{A}(F_i) = 1$ for all *i*. Therefore \mathcal{A} is a model of F_1, \ldots, F_k . Therefore $\mathcal{A} \models G$ because $F_1, \ldots, F_k \models G$. Therefore $\mathcal{A}(H) = 1$

Validity and satisfiability

Exercise

The following statements are equivalent:

- 1. $F \rightarrow G$ is valid.
- 2. $F \land \neg G$ is unsatisfiable.

Exercise

Let M be a set of formulas, and let F and G be formulas. Which of the following statements hold?

	Y/N	C.ex.
If <i>F</i> satisfiable then $M \models F$.		
If F valid then $M \models F$.		
If $F \in M$ then $M \models F$.		
If $F \models G$ then $\neg F \models \neg G$.		

Notation

Warning: The symbol \models is overloaded: $\mathcal{A} \models F$ $\models F$ $\mathcal{M} \models F$

Convenient variations for set of formulas S:

$$\mathcal{A} \models S$$
 means that for all $F \in S$, $\mathcal{A} \models F$
 $\models S$ means that for all $F \in S$, $\models F$
 $\mathcal{M} \models S$ means that for all $F \in S$, $\mathcal{M} \models F$

Propositional Logic Equivalences

Equivalence

Definition (Equivalence)

Two formulas F and G are (semantically) equivalent if $\mathcal{A}(F) = \mathcal{A}(G)$ for every assignment \mathcal{A} .

We write $F \equiv G$ to denote that F and G are equivalent.

Exercise

Which of the following equivalences hold?

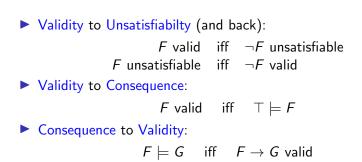
$$(A \land (A \lor B)) \equiv A$$
$$(A \land (B \lor C)) \equiv ((A \land B) \lor C)$$
$$(A \to (B \to C)) \equiv ((A \to B) \to C)$$
$$(A \to (B \to C)) \equiv ((A \land B) \to C)$$
$$(A \to B) \equiv (\neg A \lor B)$$
$$(A \to B) \equiv (\neg A \lor B)$$
$$(A \leftrightarrow B) \equiv (\neg A \to \neg B)$$
$$(A \leftrightarrow (B \leftrightarrow C)) \equiv ((A \leftrightarrow B) \leftrightarrow C)$$

The following connections hold:

$$\models F \to G \quad \text{iff} \quad F \models G \\ \models F \leftrightarrow G \quad \text{iff} \quad F \equiv G$$

NB: "iff" means "if and only if"

Reductions between problems (I)



Reductions between problems (II)

► Validity to Equivalence:

F valid iff $F \equiv \top$

Equivalence to Validity:

 $F \equiv G$ iff $F \leftrightarrow G$ valid

Properties of semantic equivalence

- Semantic equivalence is an equivalence relation between formulas.
- Semantic equivalence is closed under operators:

If
$$F_1 \equiv F_2$$
 and $G_1 \equiv G_2$
then $(F_1 \land G_1) \equiv (F_2 \land G_2)$,
 $(F_1 \lor G_1) \equiv (F_2 \lor G_2)$ and
 $\neg F_1 \equiv \neg F_2$

Equivalence relation + Closure under Operations = Congruence relation

Replacement theorem

Theorem

Let $F \equiv G$. Let H be a formula with an occurrence of F as a subformula. Let H' be the result of replacing an arbitrary occurrence of F in H by G. Then $H \equiv H'$.

Proof by induction on the structure of *H*. We consider only the case $H = \neg H_0$. We analyse where *F* occurs in *H*. If F = H then H' = G and thus $H = F \equiv G = H'$. Otherwise *F* is a subformula of H_0 . Let H'_0 be the result of replacing *F* by *G* in H_0 . IH: $H_0 \equiv H'_0$ Thus $H = \neg H_0 \equiv \neg H'_0 = H'$

Equivalences (I)

Theorem

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (F \wedge F) &\equiv & F \\ (F \vee F) &\equiv & F \\ (F \wedge G) &\equiv & (G \wedge F) \\ (F \vee G) &\equiv & (G \vee F) \\ ((F \wedge G) \wedge H) &\equiv & (F \wedge (G \wedge H)) \\ ((F \vee G) \vee H) &\equiv & (F \vee (G \vee H)) \\ (F \wedge (F \vee G)) &\equiv & F \\ (F \vee (F \wedge G)) &\equiv & F \\ (F \vee (F \wedge G)) &\equiv & F \end{array}$$
(Absorption)

Equivalences (II)

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (F \land (G \lor H)) &\equiv & ((F \land G) \lor (F \land H)) \\ (F \lor (G \land H)) &\equiv & ((F \lor G) \land (F \lor H)) & (\text{Distributivity}) \\ \neg \neg F &\equiv & F & (\text{Double negation}) \\ \neg (F \land G) &\equiv & (\neg F \lor \neg G) & (\text{deMorgan's Laws}) \\ \neg (F \lor G) &\equiv & (\neg F \land \neg G) & (\text{deMorgan's Laws}) \\ \neg \top &\equiv & \bot & \\ \neg \bot &\equiv & \top & \\ (\top \lor G) &\equiv & T & \\ (\top \land G) &\equiv & G & \\ (\bot \lor G) &\equiv & & \\ (\bot \land G) &\equiv & & \bot & \end{array}$$

Warning

The symbols \models and \equiv are not operators in the language of propositional logic but part of the meta-language for talking about logic.

Examples:

 $\mathcal{A} \models F$ and $F \equiv G$ are not propositional formulas. $(\mathcal{A} \models F) \equiv G$ and $(F \equiv G) \leftrightarrow (G \equiv F)$ are nonsense. Propositional Logic Normal Forms

Abbreviations

Until further notice:

 $\begin{array}{rcl} F_1 \rightarrow F_2 & \text{abbreviates} & \neg F_1 \lor F_2 \\ F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2 & \text{abbreviates} & (F_1 \land F_2) \lor (\neg F_1 \land \neg F_2) \\ \top & \text{abbreviates} & A_1 \lor \neg A_1 \\ \bot & \text{abbreviates} & A_1 \land \neg A_1 \end{array}$

Literals

Definition

A literal is an atom or the negation of an atom. In the former case the literal is positive, in the latter case it is negative.

Negation Normal Form (NNF)

Definition

A formula is in negation formal form (NNF)

if negation (\neg) occurs only directly in front of atoms.

Example

In NNF: $\neg A \land \neg B$ Not in NNF: $\neg (A \lor B)$

Transformation into NNF

Any formula can be transformed into an equivalent formula in NNF by pushing \neg inwards. Apply the following equivalences from left to right as long as possible:

$$\neg \neg F \equiv F$$

$$\neg (F \land G) \equiv (\neg F \lor \neg G)$$

$$\neg (F \lor G) \equiv (\neg F \land \neg G)$$

Example

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

Warning: " $F \equiv G \equiv H$ " is merely an abbreviation for
" $F \equiv G$ and $G \equiv H$ "

Does this process always terminate? Is the result unique?

CNF and DNF

Definition

A formula F is in conjunctive normal form (CNF) if it is a conjunction of disjunctions of literals:

$$F = (\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} (\bigvee_{j=1}^{m_i} L_{i,j})),$$

where $L_{i,j} \in \{A_1, A_2, \cdots\} \cup \{\neg A_1, \neg A_2, \cdots\}$

Definition

A formula F is in disjunctive normal form (DNF) if it is a disjunction of conjunctions of literals:

$$F = (\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} (\bigwedge_{j=1}^{m_i} L_{i,j})),$$

where $L_{i,j} \in \{A_1, A_2, \cdots\} \cup \{\neg A_1, \neg A_2, \cdots\}$

Transformation into CNF and DNF

Any formula can be transformed into an equivalent formula in CNF or DNF in two steps:

- 1. Transform the initial formula into its NNF
- 2. Transform the NNF into CNF or DNF:
 - Transformation into CNF. Apply the following equivalences from left to right as long as possible:

$$(F \lor (G \land H)) \equiv ((F \lor G) \land (F \lor H)) ((F \land G) \lor H) \equiv ((F \lor H) \land (G \lor H))$$

Transformation into DNF. Apply the following equivalences from left to right as long as possible:

$$(F \land (G \lor H)) \equiv ((F \land G) \lor (F \land H)) ((F \lor G) \land H) \equiv ((F \land H) \lor (G \land H))$$

Termination

Why does the transformation into NNF and CNF terminate? **Challenge Question:** Find a weight function $w :: formula \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that w(l.h.s.) > w(r.h.s.) for the equivalences

$$\neg \neg F \equiv F$$

$$\neg (F \land G) \equiv (\neg F \lor \neg G)$$

$$\neg (F \lor G) \equiv (\neg F \land \neg G)$$

$$(F \lor (G \land H)) \equiv ((F \lor G) \land (F \lor H))$$

$$((F \land G) \lor H) \equiv ((F \lor H) \land (G \lor H))$$

Define *w* recursively:

$$w(A_i) = \dots$$

 $w(\neg F) = \dots w(F) \dots$
 $w(F \land G) = \dots w(F) \dots w(G) \dots$
 $w(F \lor G) = \dots w(F) \dots w(G) \dots$

Complexity considerations

The CNF and DNF of a formula of size n can have size 2^n

Can we do better? Yes, if we do not instist on \equiv .

Definition Two formulas F and G are equisatisfiable if F is satisfiable iff G is satisfiable.

Theorem For every formula F of size n there is an equisatisfiable CNF formula G of size O(n). Propositional Logic Definitional CNF

Definitional CNF

The definitional CNF of a formula is obtained in 2 steps:

- Repeatedly replace a subformula G of the form ¬A', A' ∧ B' or A' ∨ B' by a new atom A and conjoin A ↔ G. This replacement is not applied to the "definitions" A ↔ G but only to the (remains of the) original formula.
- 2. Translate all the subformulas $A \leftrightarrow G$ into CNF.

Example

$$\begin{array}{c} \neg (A_1 \lor A_2) \land A_3 \\ \hline \neg \\ \neg A_4 \land A_3 \\ \hline A_5 \land A_3 \\ \land (A_4 \leftrightarrow (A_1 \lor A_2)) \\ \hline A_5 \land A_3 \\ \land (A_4 \leftrightarrow (A_1 \lor A_2)) \land (A_5 \leftrightarrow \neg A_4) \\ \end{array}$$

 $\sim \rightarrow$

 $A_5 \land A_3 \land \textit{CNF}(A_4 \leftrightarrow (A_1 \lor A_2)) \land \textit{CNF}(A_5 \leftrightarrow \neg A_4)$

Definitional CNF: Complexity

Let the initial formula have size n.

1. Each replacement step increases the size of the formula by a constant.

There are at most as many replacement steps as subformulas, linearly many.

2. The conversion of each $A \leftrightarrow G$ into CNF increases the size by a constant.

There are only linearly many such subformulas.

Thus the definitional CNF has size O(n).

Notation

Definition

The notation F[G/A] denotes the result of replacing all occurrences of the atom A in F by G. We pronounce it as "F with G for A".

Example

$$(A \land B)[(A \to B)/B] = (A \land (A \to B))$$

Definition

The notation $\mathcal{A}[v/A]$ denotes a modified version of \mathcal{A} that maps A to v and behaves like \mathcal{A} otherwise:

$$(\mathcal{A}[v/A])(A_i) = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} v & ext{if } A_i = A \ \mathcal{A}(A_i) & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

Substitution Lemma

Lemma $\mathcal{A}(F[G/A]) = \mathcal{A}'(F)$ where $\mathcal{A}' = \mathcal{A}[\mathcal{A}(G)/A]$

Example

 $\mathcal{A}((A_1 \wedge A_2)[G/A_2]) = \mathcal{A}'(A_1 \wedge A_2)$ where $\mathcal{A}' = \mathcal{A}[\mathcal{A}(G)/A_2]$

Proof by structural induction on *F*. Case *F* is an atom: If F = A: $\mathcal{A}(F[G/A]) = \mathcal{A}(G) = \mathcal{A}'(F)$ If $F \neq A$: $\mathcal{A}(F[G/A]) = \mathcal{A}(F) = \mathcal{A}'(F)$ Case $F = F_1 \land F_2$: $\mathcal{A}(F[G/A]) =$ $\mathcal{A}(F_1[G/A] \land F_2[G/A]) =$ $min(\mathcal{A}(F_1[G/A]), \mathcal{A}(F_2[G/A])) \stackrel{lH}{=}$ $min(\mathcal{A}'(F_1), \mathcal{A}'(F_2)) = \mathcal{A}'(F_1 \land F_2) = \mathcal{A}'(F)$

Definitional CNF: Correctness

Each replacement step produces an equisatisfiable formula:

Lemma

Let A be an atom that does not occur in G.

Then F[G/A] is equisatisfiable with $F \land (A \leftrightarrow G)$.

Proof If F[G/A] is satisfiable by some assignment A, then by the Substitution Lemma, A' = A[A(G)/A] is a model of F. Moreover $A' \models (A \leftrightarrow G)$ because A'(A) = A(G) and A(G) = A'(G) by the Coincidence Lemma (Exercise 1.2).

Thus $F \land (A \leftrightarrow G)$ is satsifiable (by \mathcal{A}'). Conversely we actually have $F \land (A \leftrightarrow G) \models F[G/A]$. Suppose $\mathcal{A} \models F \land (A \leftrightarrow G)$. This implies $\mathcal{A}(A) = \mathcal{A}(G)$. Therefore $\mathcal{A}[\mathcal{A}(G)/A] = \mathcal{A}$. Thus $\mathcal{A}(F[G/A]) = (\mathcal{A}[\mathcal{A}(G)/A])(F) = \mathcal{A}(F) = 1$ by the Substitution Lemma.

Does $F[G/A] \models F \land (A \leftrightarrow G)$ hold?

Summary

Theorem For every formula F of size nthere is an equisatisfiable CNF formula G of size O(n).

Similarly it can be shown:

Theorem For every formula F of size nthere is an equivalid DNF formula G of size O(n). Validity of formulas in CNF can be checked in linear time. A formula in CNF is valid iff all its disjunctions are valid. A disjunction is valid iff it contains both an atomic A and $\neg A$ as literals.

Example

Valid:
$$(A \lor \neg A \lor B) \land (C \lor \neg C)$$

Not valid: $(A \lor \neg A) \land (\neg A \lor C)$

Satisfiability of formulas in DNF can be checked in linear time. A formula in DNF is satisfiable iff at least one of its conjunctions is satisfiable. A conjunction is satisfiable iff it does not contain both an atomic A and $\neg A$ as literals.

Example

Satisfiable: $(\neg B \land A \land B) \lor (\neg A \land C)$ Unsatisfiable: $(A \land \neg A \land B) \lor (C \land \neg C)$ Satisfiability/validity of DNF and CNF

Theorem Satisfiability of formulas in CNF is NP-complete.

Theorem

Validity of formulas in DNF is co-NP-complete.

The standard decision procedure for vailidity of F:

- 1. Transform $\neg F$ into an equisat. formula G in def. CNF
- 2. Apply efficient CNF-based SAT solver to G

Propositional Logic Horn Formulas

Efficient satisfiability checks

In the following:

- A very efficient satisfiability check for the special class of Horn formulas.
- Efficient satisfiability checks for arbitrary formulas in CNF: resolution (later).

Horn formulas

Definition

A formula F in CNF is a Horn formula if every disjunction in F contains at most one positive literal.

A disjunction in a Horn formula can equivalently be viewed as an implication $K \rightarrow B$ where K is a conjunction of atoms or $K = \top$ and B is an atom or $B = \bot$:

$$(\neg A \lor \neg B \lor C) \equiv (A \land B \to C) \ (\neg A \lor \neg B) \equiv (A \land B \to \bot) \ A \equiv (\top \to A)$$

Satisfiablity check for Horn formulas

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Input: a Horn formula F.
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Algorithm building a model (assignment) \mathcal{M}:
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for all atoms A_i in F do \mathcal{M}(A_i) := 0;
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while F has a subformula K \to B
such that \mathcal{M}(K) = 1 and \mathcal{M}(B) = 0
do
if B = \bot then return "unsatisfiable"
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else \mathcal{M}(B) := 1
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```
return "satisfiable"
```

Maximal number of iterations of the while loop: number of implications in *F*

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Each iteration requires at most O(|F|) steps.
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Overall complexity: O(|F|^2)
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[Algorithm can be improved to O(|F|). See Schöning.]

Correctness of the model building algorithm

Theorem

The algorithm returns "satisfiable" iff F is satisfiable.

Proof Observe: if the algorithm sets $\mathcal{M}(B) = 1$, then $\mathcal{A}(B) = 1$ for every assignment \mathcal{A} such that $\mathcal{A}(F) = 1$. This is an invariant. (a) If "unsatisfiable" then unsatisfiable. We prove unsatisfiability by contradiction. Assume $\mathcal{A}(F) = 1$ for some \mathcal{A} . Let $(A_{i_1} \land \ldots \land A_{i_k} \rightarrow \bot)$ be the subformula causing "unsatisfiable". Since $\mathcal{M}(A_{i_1}) = \cdots = \mathcal{M}(A_{i_k}) = 1$, $\mathcal{A}(A_{i_1}) = \ldots = \mathcal{A}(A_{i_k}) = 1$.

Then $\mathcal{A}(A_{i_1} \land \ldots \land A_{i_k} \rightarrow \bot) = 0$ and so $\mathcal{A}(F) = 0$, contradiction. So *F* has no satisfying assignments. (b) If "satisfiable" then satisfiable. After termination with "satisfiable", for every subformula $K \to B$ of F, $\mathcal{M}(K) = 0$ or $\mathcal{M}(B) = 1$. Therefore $\mathcal{M}(K \to B) = 1$ and thus $\mathcal{M} \models F$. In fact, the invariant shows that \mathcal{M} is the minimal model of F. Propositional Logic Compactness

Compactness Theorem

Theorem A set S of formulas is satisfiable iff every finite subset of S is satisfiable.

Equivalent formulation: A set S of formulas is unsatisfiable iff some finite subset of S is unsatisfiable.

An application: Graph Coloring

Definition

A 4-coloring of a graph (V, E) is a map $c : V \to \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ such that $(x, y) \in E$ implies $c(x) \neq c(y)$.

Theorem (4CT)

An finite planar graph has a 4-coloring.

Theorem

A planar graph G = (V, E) with countably many vertices $V = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots\}$ has a 4-coloring.

Proof $G \rightsquigarrow$ set of formulas S s.t. S is sat. iff G is 4-col.

G is planar

- \Rightarrow every finite subgraph of G is planar and 4-col. (by 4CT)
- \Rightarrow every finite subset of S is sat.
- \Rightarrow *S* is sat. (by Compactness)
- \Rightarrow *G* is 4-col.

Proof details

 $G \rightsquigarrow S$:

For simplicity:

atoms are of the form A^c_i where $c \in \{1, \dots, 4\}$ and $i \in \mathbb{N}$

$$S := \{A_i^1 \lor A_i^2 \lor A_i^3 \lor A_i^4 \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\} \cup \\ \{A_i^c \to \neg A_i^d \mid i \in \mathbb{N}, \ c, d \in \{1, \dots, 4\}, \ c \neq d\} \cup \\ \{\neg (A_i^c \land A_j^c) \mid (v_i, v_j) \in E, \ c \in \{1, \dots, 4\}\} \}$$

Subgraph corresponding to some $T \subseteq S$: $V_T := \{v_i \mid A_i^c \text{ occurs in } T \text{ (for some } c)\}$ $E_T := \{(v_i, v_j) \mid \neg (A_i^c \land A_j^c) \in T \text{ (for some } c)\}$

Proof of Compactness

Theorem A set S of formulas is satisfiable iff every finite subset of S is satisfiable.

Proof

 \Rightarrow : If S is satisfiable then every finite subset of S is satisfiable. Trivial.

 $\Leftarrow: \text{ If every finite subset of } S \text{ is satisfiable then } S \text{ is satisfiable.}$ We prove that S has a model.

Proof of Compactness

Terminology: \mathcal{A} is a b_1, \ldots, b_n model of T(where $b_1, \ldots, b_n \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and T is a set of formulas) if $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{A}_i) = b_i$ (for $i = 1, \ldots, n$) and $\mathcal{A} \models T$.

Define an infinite sequence b_1, b_2, \ldots recursively as follows:

$$b_{n+1}$$
 = some $b \in \{0, 1\}$ s.t.
all finite $T \subseteq S$ have a b_1, \ldots, b_n, b model.

Claim 1: For all *n*, all finite $T \subseteq S$ have a b_1, \ldots, b_n model. **Proof** by induction on *n*.

Case n = 0: because all finite $T \subseteq S$ are satisfiable.

Case n + 1: We need to show that a suitable b exists. Proof by contradiction. Assume there is no suitable b. Then there is a finite $T_0 \subseteq S$ that has no $b_1, \ldots, b_n, 0$ model (0) and there is a finite $T_1 \subseteq S$ that has no $b_1, \ldots, b_n, 1$ model (1). Therefore $T_0 \cup T_1$ has no b_1, \ldots, b_n model A: $A(A_{n+1}) = 0$ contradicts (0), $A(A_{n+1}) = 1$ contradicts (1). But by IH: $T_0 \cup T_1$ has a b_1, \ldots, b_n model — Contradiction!

Proof of Compactness

Define $\mathcal{B}(A_i) = b_i$ for all *i*. **Claim 2:** $\mathcal{B} \models S$ We show $\mathcal{B} \models F$ for all $F \in S$. Let *m* be the maximal index of all atoms in *F*. By Claim 1, $\{F\}$ has a b_1, \ldots, b_m model \mathcal{A} . Hence $\mathcal{B} \models F$ because \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} agree on all atoms in *F*.

Corollary

Corollary If $S \models F$ then there is a finite subset $M \subseteq S$ such that $M \models F$. Propositional Logic DPLL: Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland

Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland

DPLL algorithm:

- combines search and deduction to decide satisfiability
- underlies most modern SAT solvers
- is over 50 years old





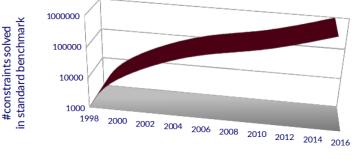




DPLL-based SAT solvers \geq 1990:

- clause learning
- non-chronological backtracking
- branching heuristics
- lazy evaluation

Performance increase of SAT solvers



SAT/SMT solving improvements

year

Clause representation of CNF formulas

$$\mathsf{CNF}: \quad (L_{1,1} \vee \ldots \vee L_{1,n_1}) \wedge \ldots \wedge (L_{k,1} \vee \ldots \vee L_{1,n_k})$$

Representation as set of sets of literals:

$$\{\underbrace{\{L_{1,1},\ldots,L_{1,n_1}\}}_{clause}, \ldots, \{L_{k,1},\ldots,L_{1,n_k}\}\}$$

Clause = set of literals (disjunction).

Formula in CNF = set of clauses

Degenerate cases:

The empty clause stands for \perp . The empty set of clauses stands for \top .

The joy of sets

We get "for free":

Commutativity:

 $A \lor B \equiv B \lor A$, both represented by $\{A, B\}$

Associativity:

 $(A \lor B) \lor C \equiv A \lor (B \lor C)$, both represented by $\{A, B, C\}$

Idempotence:

 $(A \lor A) \equiv A$, both represented by $\{A\}$

Sets are a convenient representation of conjunctions and disjunctions that build in associativity, commutativity and itempotence

CNF-SAT: Input: Set of clauses *F* Question: Is *F* unsatisfiable?

DPLL — First step: partial evaluation

Simplest algorithm: Construct the truth table. Best-case runtime is $\Theta(m \cdot 2^n)$ for a formula of length *m* over *n* variables.

Improvement: partial evaluation using Boole-Shannon expansion

Lemma (Boole-Shannon Expansion)

Let $F[\perp/A]$ and $F[\top/A]$ be the result of substituting \perp and \top for A in F, respectively. Then:

$$F \equiv (A \land F[\top/A]) \lor (\neg A \land F[\bot/A]).$$

Proof By structural induction on *F* (exercise).

Corollary

F is satisfiable iff $F[\perp/A]$ or $F[\top/A]$ are unsatisfiable.

DPLL — First step: partial evaluation

 $F[\perp/A]$ and $F[\top/A]$ easy to compute in clause normal form: $F[\top/A] \equiv$ take *F*, remove all clauses with *A*, remove all $\neg A$. $F[\perp/A] \equiv$ take *F*, remove all clauses with $\neg A$, remove all *A*.

Partial evaluation algorithm:

Given formula F, total order on the variables \prec :

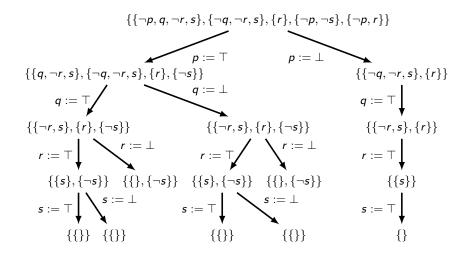
If $\{\} \in F$ return unsatisfiable.

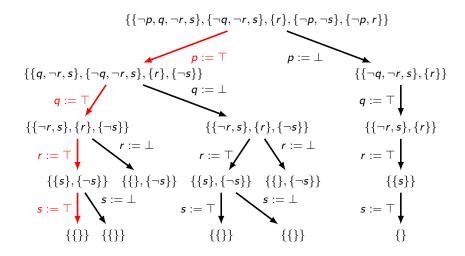
If $F = \emptyset$ return satisfiable.

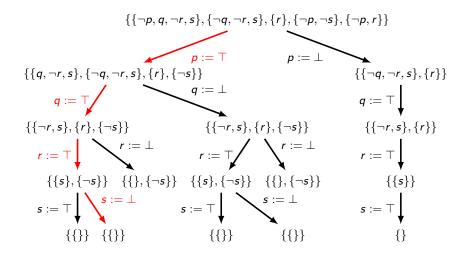
Otherwise:

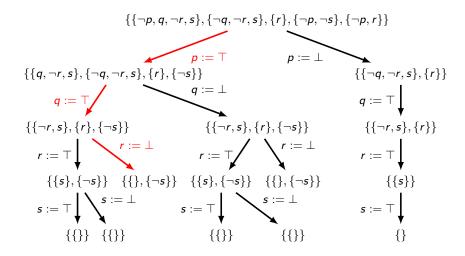
Fix the first variable A in F according to \prec . Recursively check if $F[\perp/A]$ is satisfiable; if yes, return satisfiable. Recursively check if $F[\top/A]$ is satisfiable; if yes, return satisfiable, otherwise unsatisfiable.

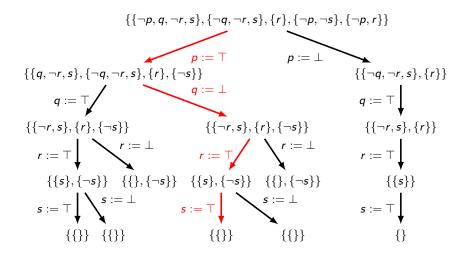
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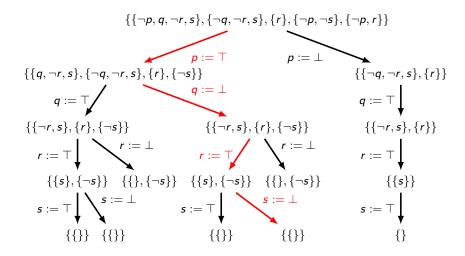


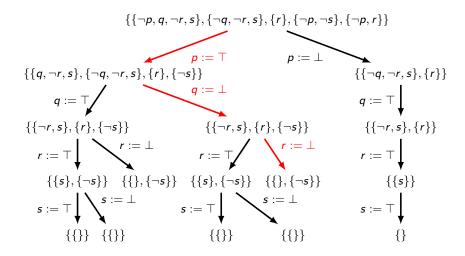


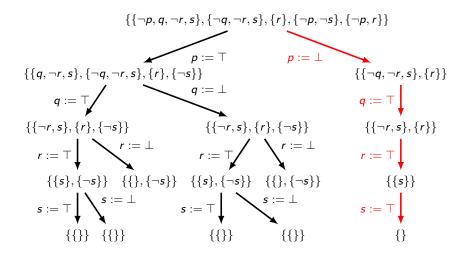












Instead of fixing an order on variables, choose the next variable dynamically.

- OLR: one-literal rule If {L} ∈ F ({L} is called unit clause), then every satisfying assignment sets L to true. So it suffices to check satisfiability of F[⊤/L].
- ▶ PLR: pure-literal rule If *L* appears in *F* and \overline{L} does not, then it also suffices to check satisfiability of $F[\top/L]$ (Why?).

DPLL algorithm: Partial evaluation that gives priority to a variable satisfying OLR, then to a variable satisfying PLR, and otherwise picks the first unpicked variable of \prec .

Applying OLR can generate further unit clauses (unit propagation). Same for PLR, but DPLL often implemented with only OLR for efficiency.

$$\{\{\neg p, q, \neg r, s\}, \{\neg q, \neg r, s\}, \{r\}, \{\neg p, \neg s\}, \{\neg p, r\}\}$$

$$\downarrow \mathsf{OLR} \ r := \top$$

$$\{\{\neg p, q, s\}, \{\neg q, s\}, \{\neg p, \neg s\}\}$$

$$\downarrow \mathsf{PLR} \ p := \bot$$

$$\{\{\neg q, s\}\}$$

$$\downarrow \mathsf{PLR} \ q := \bot$$

$$\{\}$$

In this example PLR and OLR allow us to avoid all case splits.

Example: 4 queens

Problem: place 4 non-attacking queens on a 4x4 chess board



Variable p_{ij} models: there is a queen in square (i, j)

$$\blacktriangleright \geq 1$$
 in each row: $igwedge_{i=1}^4igvee_{j=1}^4p_{ij}$

•
$$\leq 1$$
 in each row: $\bigwedge_{i=1}^4 \bigwedge_{j \neq j'=1}^4 \neg p_{ij} \lor \neg p_{ij'}$

•
$$\leq 1$$
 in each column: $igwedge_{j=1}^4igwedge_{i
eq i'=1}^4
eg p_{ij}ee
eg p_{i'j}$

▶ ≤ 1 on each diagonal: $\bigwedge_{i,j=1}^4 \bigvee_k \neg p_{i-k,i+k} \lor \neg p_{i+k,j+k}$

Total number of clauses: 4 + 24 + 24 + 28 = 80

DPLL: 4 queens

Running the DPLL algorithm:

- Start with p₁₁ → 1 delete {p₁₁, p₁₂, p₁₃, p₁₄}, delete ¬p₁₁: 9 new unit clauses unit propagation: deletes 65 clauses!
- $\blacktriangleright \text{ Set } p_{23} \mapsto 1$

4 new unit clauses: $\{\neg p_{24}\}, \{\neg p_{43}\}, \{\neg p_{32}\}, \{\neg p_{34}\}$ unit propagation of $\{\neg p_{34}\}$: UNSAT

fixing only two literals collapsed from 80 clauses to 1 ruled out 2^{14} of 2^{16} possible assignments!

Backtrack: p₁₁ → 0, p₁₂ → 1 delete {¬p₁₂}: 9 new unit clauses unit propagation: leaves only 1 clause {p₄₃}!

• Answer: $p_{12}, p_{24}, p_{31}, p_{43} \mapsto 1$

DPLL: Evaluation

Oriented towards satisfiability:

- ► 2^{O(n)} time for satisfiable formulas, but 2^{Θ(n)} for unsatisfiable ones.
- DPLL computes a satisfying assignment, if there is one.
- The satisfying assignment is a certificate of satisfiability.
- Satisfiable formulas have short certificates: satisfying assignment never larger than the formula.

Coming next: resolution, a procedure oriented towards unsatisfiability.

- ► 2^{O(n)} time for unsatisfiable formulas, but 2^{Θ(n)} for satisfiable ones.
- Resolution computes a certificate of unsatisfiability.
- However, the certificate is exponentially longer than the formula in the worst case.
- Polynomial certificates for satisfiability implies NP= coNP.

Propositional Logic Resolution

Resolution — The idea

Input: Set of clauses *F* Question: Is *F* unsatisfiable?

Algorithm:

Keep on "resolving" two clauses from ${\it F}$ and adding the result to ${\it F}$ until the empty clause is found

Correctness:

If the empty clause is found, the initial F is unsatisfiable Completeness:

If the initial F is unsatisfiable, the empty clause can be found.

Correctness/Completeness of syntactic procedure (resolution) w.r.t. semantic property (unsatisfiability)

Resolvent

Definition Let L be a literal. Then \overline{L} is defined as follows:

$$\overline{L} = \begin{cases} \neg A_i & \text{if } L = A_i \\ A_i & \text{if } L = \neg A_i \end{cases}$$

Definition

Let C_1 , C_2 be clauses and let L be a literal such that $L \in C_1$ and $\overline{L} \in C_2$. Then the clause

$$(C_1-\{L\})\cup (C_2-\{\overline{L}\})$$

is a resolvent of C_1 and C_2 .

The process of deriving the resolvent is called a resolution step.

Graphical representation of resolvent:

$$C_1 \quad C_2$$
 R

If $C_1 = \{L\}$ and $C_2 = \{\overline{L}\}$ then the empty clause is a resolvent of C_1 and C_2 . The special symbol \Box denotes the empty clause.

Recall: \Box represents \bot .

Resolution proof

Definition

A resolution proof of a clause C from a set of clauses F

- is a sequence of clauses C_0, \ldots, C_n such that
 - ▶ $C_i \in F$ or C_i is a resolvent of two clauses C_a and C_b , a, b < i,

$$\blacktriangleright$$
 $C_n = C$

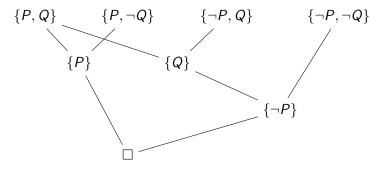
Then we can write $F \vdash_{Res} C$.

Note: F can be finite or infinite

Resolution proof as DAG

A resolution proof can be shown as a DAG with the clauses in F as the leaves and C as the root:

Example



A linear resolution proof

0:
$$\{P, Q\}$$

1: $\{P, \neg Q\}$
2: $\{\neg P, Q\}$
3: $\{\neg P, \neg Q\}$
4: $\{P\}$ (0, 1)
5: $\{Q\}$ (0, 2)
6: $\{\neg P\}$ (3, 5)
7: \Box (4, 6)

Correctness of resolution

Lemma (Resolution Lemma)

Let *R* be a resolvent of two clauses C_1 and C_2 . Then $C_1, C_2 \models R$. **Proof** By definition $R = (C_1 - \{L\}) \cup (C_2 - \{\overline{L}\})$ (for some *L*). Let $\mathcal{A} \models C_1$ and $\mathcal{A} \models C_2$. There are two cases. If $\mathcal{A} \models L$ then $\mathcal{A} \models C_2 - \{\overline{L}\}$ (because $\mathcal{A} \models C_2$), thus $\mathcal{A} \models R$. If $\mathcal{A} \not\models L$ then $\mathcal{A} \models C_1 - \{L\}$ (because $\mathcal{A} \models C_1$), thus $\mathcal{A} \models R$.

Theorem (Correctness of resolution)

Let F be a set of clauses. If $F \vdash_{Res} C$ then $F \models C$.

Proof Assume there is a resolution proof $C_0, \ldots, C_n = C$. By induction on *i* we show $F \models C_i$. IH: $F \models C_j$ for all j < i. If $C_i \in F$ then $F \models C_i$ is trivial. If C_i is a resolvent of C_a and C_b , a, b < i, then $F \models C_a$ and $F \models C_b$ by IH and $C_a, C_b \models C_i$ by the resolution lemma. Thus $F \models C_i$.

Corollary

Let F be a set of clauses. If $F \vdash_{Res} \Box$ then F is unsatisfiable.

Completeness of resolution

Theorem Let F be a finite set of clauses. If F is unsatisfiable then $F \vdash_{Res} \Box$.

Theorem (Completeness of resolution)

Let F be a set of clauses. If F is unsatisfiable then $F \vdash_{Res} \Box$.

Proof If F is infinite, there must be a finite unsatisfiable subset of F (by the Compactness Theorem); in that case let F be that finite subset and apply the previous theorem.

Corollary

A set of clauses F is unsatisfiable iff $F \vdash_{Res} \Box$.

Completeness proof

Lemma (Boole-Shannon Expansion) Let $F[\perp/A]$ and $F[\top/A]$ be the result of substituting \perp and \top for A in F, respectively. Then:

$$F \equiv (A \land F[\top/A]) \lor (\neg A \land F[\bot/A]).$$

Proof By structural induction on *F* (exercise).

Corollary

F is unsatisfiable iff $F[\perp/A]$ and $F[\top/A]$ are unsatisfiable.

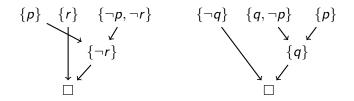
Idea for completeness proof: If A is an atom of F, then $F[\perp/A]$ and $F[\top/A]$ have fewer atoms than F. Use Boole-Shannon to prove completeness by induction on the number of atoms of F: Given F unsatisfiable, construct inductively resolution proofs for $F[\perp/A]$ and $F[\top/A]$ and "combine" them into a resolution proof for F.

Inductive construction of resolution proofs

$$F = \{ \{\neg q, s\}, \{\neg p, q, s\}, \{p\}, \{r, \neg s\}, \{\neg p, \neg r, \neg s\} \}$$

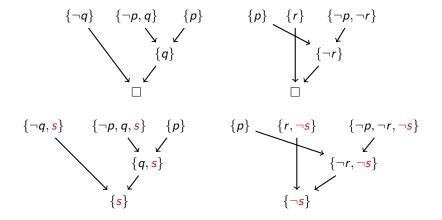
• Compute inductively proofs for $F[\top/s]$ and $F[\perp/s]$.

$$\begin{array}{ll} F[\top/s] &\equiv & \{ \{p\} \,, \, \{r\} \,, \, \{\neg p, \neg r\} \,\} \\ F[\perp/s] &\equiv & \{ \{\neg q\} \,, \, \{\neg p, q\} \,, \, \{p\} \,\} \end{array}$$



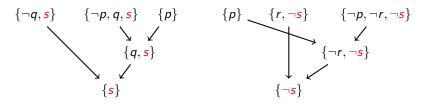
Inductive construction of resolution proofs

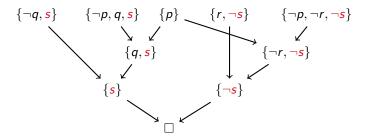
$$F = \{ \{\neg q, s\}, \{\neg p, q, s\}, \{p\}, \{r, \neg s\}, \{\neg p, \neg r, \neg s\} \}$$



Inductive construction of resolution proofs

• Combine the graphs for $\{s\}$ and $\{\neg s\}$.





Completeness proof

Theorem

Let F be a finite set of clauses. If F is unsatisfiable then $F \vdash_{Res} \Box$.

Proof The proof of $F \vdash_{Res} \Box$ is by induction on the number *n* of distinct atoms in *F*.

Basis: If n = 0 then $F = \{\}$ (but F is unsat.) or $F = \{\Box\}$.

Step:

IH: For every unsat. set of clauses F with n dist. atoms, $F \vdash_{Res} \Box$. Let F contain n + 1 distinct atoms. Pick some atom A in F.

 $F[\top/A] \equiv$ take *F*, remove all clauses with *A*, remove all $\neg A$. $F[\perp/A] \equiv$ take *F*, remove all clauses with $\neg A$, remove all *A*.

Completeness proof

By IH: there are res. proofs $C_0, \ldots, C_m = \Box$ from $F[\perp/A]$ and $D_0, \ldots, D_n = \Box$ from $F[\top/A]$. Now transform C_0, \ldots, C_m into a proof C'_0, \ldots, C'_m from F by adding A back into the clauses it was removed from. Then

• either
$$C'_m = \{A\}$$

• or
$$C'_m = \Box$$
 (and we are done).

Similarly we transform D_0, \ldots, D_n into a proof D'_0, \ldots, D'_n from F (by adding $\neg A$ back in). Then $D'_n = \{\neg A\}$ or $D'_n = \Box$ (and we are done). If $C'_m = \{A\}$ and $D'_n = \{\neg A\}$ then $F \vdash_{Res} A$ and $F \vdash_{Res} \neg A$ and thus $F \vdash_{Res} \Box$. Resolution is only refutation complete

Not everything that is a consequence of a set of clauses can be derived by resolution.

Exercise Find F and C such that $F \models C$ but not $F \vdash_{Res} C$.

> How to prove $F \models C$ by resolution? Prove $F \cup \{\neg C\} \vdash_{Res} \Box$

A resolution algorithm

Input: A CNF formula F, i.e. a finite set of clauses

while there are clauses $C_a, C_b \in F$ and resolvent R of C_a and C_b such that $R \notin F$ do $F := F \cup \{R\}$

Lemma

The algorithm terminates.

Proof There are only finitely many clauses over a finite set of atoms.

Theorem

The initial F is unsatisfiable iff \Box is in the final F **Proof** F_{init} is unsat. iff $F_{init} \vdash_{Res} \Box$ iff $\Box \in F_{final}$ because the algorithm enumerates all R such that $F_{init} \vdash R$.

Corollary

The algorithm is a decision procedure for unsatisfiability of CNF formulas.

Propositional Logic CDCL: Conflict Driven Clause Learning

CDCL: goal and idea

Goal: Combine DPLL and resolution into an algorithm oriented towards both satisfiability and unsatisfiability.

Idea: At every unsuccessful leaf of DPLL (called conflict), compute a conflict clause, and add it to the formula we are deciding about.

Conflict clauses "cache" previous search results, so we "learn from previous mistakes".

Conflict clauses also determine backtracking.

We present a particular way of computing a conflict clause using resolution. There are other ways.

DPLL + CDCL algorithm

Input: CNF formula F.

- 1. Initialise $\mathcal A$ to the empty assignment
- 2. While there is unit clause $\{L\}$ or pure literal L in $F|_{\mathcal{A}}$, update $\mathcal{A} \mapsto \mathcal{A}_{[L \mapsto 1]}$
- 3. If $F|_{\mathcal{A}}$ contains no clauses, stop and output \mathcal{A} .
- 4. If F|_A ∋ □, add new clause C to F by learning procedure.
 If C is the empty clause, stop and output UNSAT.
 Otherwise backtrack to highest level where C is unit clause.
 Go to Line 2.
- 5. Apply decision strategy to update $\mathcal{A} \mapsto \mathcal{A}_{[p \mapsto b]}$. Go to line 2.

 $F|_{\mathcal{A}}$ is set of clauses obtained from deleting any clause containing true literal, and deleting from each remaining clause all false literals.

Terminology

State of algorithm is pair of CNF formula F and assignment A. Successful state when $A \models F$. Conflict state when $A \not\models F$.

- ► Each assignment p_i → b_i classifies as decision assignment or implied assignment.
- ▶ p_i in a decision assignment $p_i \mapsto b_i$ is decision variable.
- ▶ Denote by $p_i \stackrel{C}{\mapsto} b_i$ an implied assignment arising through unit propagation on clause *C*.
- ▶ Decision level of assignment $p_i \mapsto b_i$ in a given state \mathcal{A} is number of decision assignments in \mathcal{A} that precede $p_i \mapsto b_i$.

(Note: conflict state if $F|_{\mathcal{A}} \ni \Box$, successful state if $F|_{\mathcal{A}} = \emptyset$)

Example: start with set of clauses $F = \{C_1, \ldots, C_5\}$, where

$$C_{1} = \{\neg p_{1}, \neg p_{4}, p_{5}\}$$

$$C_{2} = \{\neg p_{1}, p_{6}, \neg p_{5}\}$$

$$C_{3} = \{\neg p_{1}, \neg p_{6}, p_{7}\}$$

$$C_{4} = \{\neg p_{1}, \neg p_{7}, \neg p_{5}\}$$

$$C_{5} = \{p_{1}, p_{4}, p_{6}\}$$

Say current assignment is $(p_1 \mapsto 1, p_2 \mapsto 0, p_3 \mapsto 0, p_4 \mapsto 1)$. Notice $F|_{\mathcal{A}}$ contains unit clause $\{p_5\}$.

Unit propagation further generates $(p_5 \stackrel{C_1}{\mapsto} 1, p_6 \stackrel{C_2}{\mapsto} 1, p_7 \stackrel{C_3}{\mapsto} 1)$. This leads to a conflict, with C_4 being made false.

Conflict analysis

After unit propagation:

- If not in conflict nor successful, make decision (line 5)
- If in conflict, learned clause is added (line 4)

Learned clause desiderata: If unit propagation from state (F, A) leads to conflict, clause C is learned such that:

1.
$$F \equiv F \cup \{C\}$$

- 2. C is conflict clause: each literal is made false by \mathcal{A}
- 3. C mentions only decision variables in \mathcal{A}

Clause learning using resolution

Suppose $\mathcal{A} = (p_1 \mapsto b_1, \dots, p_k \mapsto b_k)$ leads to conflict. Find associated clauses A_1, \dots, A_{k+1} by backward induction:

- 1. Take any conflict clause under A as A_{k+1} .
- 2. If $p_i \mapsto b_i$ is decision assignment or p_i not mentioned in A_{i+1} , set $A_i = A_{i+1}$.
- 3. If $p_i \stackrel{C_i}{\mapsto} b_i$ is implied assignment and p_i mentioned in A_{i+1} , define A_i to be resolvent of A_{i+1} and C_i with respect to p_i .
- $C := A_1$, that is, the final clause A_1 is the learned clause .

Clause learning: example

;

In conflict of above example, learning generates clauses

$$A_8 := \{\neg p_1, \neg p_7, \neg p_5\}$$
 (clause C_4)

 $A_7 := \{\neg p_1, \neg p_5, \neg p_6\}$
 (resolve A_8, C_3)

 $A_6 := \{\neg p_1, \neg p_5\}$
 (resolve A_7, C_2)

 $A_5 := \{\neg p_1, \neg p_4\}$
 (resolve A_6, C_1)

$$A_1:=\{\neg p_1,\neg p_4\}$$

Learned clause A_1 is conflict clause with only decision variables, including top-level one p_4 . Intuitively:

- A₁ records that conflict arose from decision to make p₁, p₄ true.
- Adding A_1 makes assignments setting $p_1, p_4 \mapsto 1$ unreachable
- DPLL backtracks to highest level where A₁ is unit clause (p₁ → 1), unit propagation leads to p₄ → 0.

Clause learning

Proposition: The clause learning procedure satisfies the three desiderata.

Proof sketch: Observation: If $p_i \stackrel{C_i}{\mapsto} b_i$, then the only literal of C_i true under \mathcal{A} is the literal for p_i (that is, C_i contains either p_i or $\neg p_i$, and b_i is chosen to make the literal true).

1. $F \equiv F \cup \{C\}$

Because C is obtained from clauses of F through resolution steps.

2. *C* is conflict clause: each literal is made false by A. We show by induction that $A_{k+1}, A_k, \dots A_1 = C$ are conflict clauses.

 A_{k+1} is conflict clause by definition. If A_{i+1} is conflict clause and $A_i = A_{i+1}$, then so is A_i .

If A_{i+1} is conflict clause and $A_i \neq A_{i+1}$, then A_i is the result of resolving A_{i+1} and C_i . By the observation, all literals of A_i are made false by A.

3. *C* mentions only decision variables in A. Because every other variable, say p_i , dissapears after resolving with A_{i+1} w.r.t. p_i . Indeed, since A makes A_{i+1} false, by the observation p_i has opposite signs in A_{i+1} and C_i .

Example (without PLR)

$$\begin{array}{ll} A_7 := \{p_3, \neg p_4, p_5, \neg p_6\} & (\text{conflict clause}) \\ A_6 := \{p_1, \neg p_2, p_3, \neg p_4, p_5\} & (\text{resolve } A_7, \{p_1, \neg p_2, \neg p_4, p_6\}) \\ A_5 := \{p_1, \neg p_2, p_3, p_5\} & (\text{resolve } A_6, \{p_1, p_3, p_4\}) \\ A_4 := A_5 & \\ A_3 := \{p_1, \neg p_2, p_3\} & (\text{resolve } A_4, \{p_1, p_3, p_4\}) \\ A_2 := A_3 & \\ A_1 := \{\neg p_2, p_3\} & (\text{resolve } A_2, \{\neg p_1\}) \end{array}$$

Backtracking to $\{p_1 \mapsto 0, p_2 \mapsto 1\}$. Unit propagation: $p_3 \mapsto 1$.