

# Static Analysis and Verification

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# SAT and SMT Solving

# Introduction

- ❖ The **SAT problem** is a **decision problem** which asks **whether a given propositional formula is satisfiable**.
- ❖ To solve instances of SAT, the so called **SAT-solvers** are used, which implement a **decision procedure** for SAT.
- ❖ The **SMT problem** extends the SAT problem to satisfiability of **first-order formulae** with **equality** and atoms from various **first-order theories**:
  - linear integer arithmetics, real arithmetics, uninterpreted functions, arrays, bit-vectors, ..., and their **mixtures** allowing variables shared among theories,
  - e.g.,  $(p) \wedge (\neg q) \wedge (a = f(b - c)) \wedge (a - c \geq 7)$ ,

Typically, **decidable theories** are supported. Sometimes, **quantifiers** are allowed.

- ❖ Since satisfiability and validity are dual notions, we may be able to check **validity of formulae** by using a decision procedure for satisfiability (using negation of given formulae).
- ❖ SAT and SMT solving has found **many applications** in verification (e.g., within predicate abstraction or invariant checking), test generation, hardware synthesis, error trace minimisation, artificial intelligence, ...

# SAT Solving

# Propositional Logic

- ❖ The **SAT problem**, which asks whether a given **propositional formula** is **satisfiable**, is the first problem which has been proven to be **NP-complete**.
- ❖ Normally, we consider a **propositional formula** to be given in the **conjunctive normal form (CNF)**, i.e., as a **conjunction** of clauses where a **clause** is a **disjunction** of literals, and a **literal** is a (possibly **negated**) **propositional symbol**.
- ❖ Stated formally, let  $P$  be a finite set of **propositional symbols**.
  - If  $p \in P$ , then  $p$  is an **atom**, and  $p$  and  $\neg p$  are **literals** of  $P$ .
  - A **clause** is a disjunction of literals  $l_1 \vee \dots \vee l_n$ .
  - A **CNF formula** is a conjunction of one or more clauses  $C_1 \wedge \dots \wedge C_n$ .
- ❖ An example: Let  $P = \{p, q, r\}$ . Then,
  - $p, q, r$  are possible atoms,  $\neg p$  and  $r$  are examples of literals,
  - $p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r$  is an example of a clause, and
  - $(p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r) \wedge (\neg p \vee r)$  is an example of a CNF formula.

# Propositional Logic

## ❖ Assignments:

- An **assignment**  $M$  is a **set of literals** such that  $\{p, \neg p\} \subseteq M$  for no  $p$ .
- A literal  $l$  can be either **true**, **false**, or **undefined** in  $M$ . Assuming that  $\neg\neg l = l$ :
  - $l$  is *true* in  $M$  iff  $l \in M$ ,
  - $l$  is *false* in  $M$  iff  $\neg l \in M$ ,
  - $l$  is *undefined* in  $M$  otherwise.
- If  $l$  is either *true* or *false* in  $M$ , we say that  $l$  is **defined**.
- If for any  $p \in P$ , either  $p \in M$  or  $\neg p \in M$ , we say that  $M$  is **total** (in other words, no literal in  $P$  is *undefined* in  $M$ ). Otherwise,  $M$  is **partial**.

❖ An example: Consider the assignment  $M = \{\neg p, q\}$ . In  $M$ ,  $p, q$  are defined ( $p$  is *false* and  $q$  is *true*), whereas  $r$  is *undefined*.

# Propositional Logic

❖ **Semantics of propositional logic.** Let  $C$  be a clause,  $F$  a CNF formula, and  $M$  an assignment.

- In a partial assignment  $M$ ,  $C$  can be either true, false, or undefined:
  - $C$  is **true** in  $M$  iff  $l \in M$  for at least one literal  $l$  in  $C$ ,
  - $C$  is **false** in  $M$  iff  $\neg l \in M$  for each literal  $l$  in  $C$ ,
  - otherwise,  $C$  is **undefined** in  $M$ .
- $F$  is **true (satisfied)** in  $M$  (written  $M \models F$ ) iff all clauses in  $F$  are true in  $M$ .  $M$  is said to be a **model** of  $F$ . If  $F$  has no models, then it is **unsatisfiable**.
- $F$  is **false (falsified)** in  $M$  (written  $M \not\models F$ ) iff some clause in  $F$  is false in  $M$ .

❖ A formula  $F'$  is a **logical consequence** of a formula  $F$  ( $F \models F'$ ) iff  $F'$  is true in every model of  $F$ .  $F$  and  $F'$  are **logically equivalent** iff  $F \models F'$  and  $F' \models F$ .

❖ **An example:** Consider an assignment  $M = \{\neg p, q\}$ , clauses  $C_1 = (\neg p \vee \neg q)$ ,  $C_2 = (q)$ ,  $C_3 = (p \vee \neg q)$ ,  $C_4 = (p \vee \neg q \vee r)$ , and CNF formulae  $F = C_1 \wedge C_2$ ,  $F' = C_3 \wedge C_4$ .

- $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are true in  $M$ ,  $C_3$  is false in  $M$ , and  $C_4$  is undefined in  $M$ .
- $F$  is satisfied in  $M$  ( $M$  is a model of  $F$ ), whereas  $F'$  is falsified in  $M$  ( $M$  is not a model of  $F'$ ).

# Duality of Satisfiability and Validity

- ❖ For propositional logic, **satisfiability** and **validity** are **dual** notions which means that one can be expressed in terms of the other.
- ❖ Let  $F$  be a propositional formula.
  - $F$  is **satisfiable** iff there exists an assignment  $M$  such that  $M \models F$ .
  - $F$  is **valid** iff for all assignments  $M$ ,  $M \models F$ .
- ❖ Clearly, the connection between satisfiability and validity is the following:
  - $F$  is **valid** iff  $\neg F$  is **unsatisfiable**.
- ❖ An example: Checking validity of the formula  $F = p \vee \neg p \vee q$  is equivalent to checking unsatisfiability of the formula  $\neg F = \neg p \wedge p \wedge \neg q$ .
- ❖ *Note:* For some theories (other than propositional logic), the **negation of a formula may be outside of the theory** – then, the above duality is not applicable within the theory, but between the theory and its dual theory.



# Abstract DPLL Systems

- ❖ Most SAT-solvers build on variants of the classical **Davis-Putnam-Longemann-Loveland (DPLL) procedure**, which we will describe in terms of an abstract DPLL system.
- ❖ An **abstract DPLL system** is a pair  $(S, \Rightarrow)$  where  $S$  is a set of **states** of the system and  $\Rightarrow \subseteq (S \times S)$  is its set of **transitions**.
  - A **state** is a pair  $M \parallel F$  where  $M$  is an **assignment** and  $F$  is a **CNF formula**.
  - A special **fail state** is also introduced.
- ❖ A **derivation** over  $(S, \Rightarrow)$  is any sequence of the form  $S_0 \Rightarrow S_1 \Rightarrow S_2 \Rightarrow \dots$  for  $S_0, S_1, S_2, \dots \in S$ .
- ❖ To capture (to some extent) the **evolution of an assignment**, assignments are turned into **sequences** of literals (satisfying the requirements stated previously). The intuition is that the literals **more to the right** have been added to the assignment **more recently**.
- ❖ An example:  $p, \neg q \parallel (p \vee \neg q), (\neg q \vee r)$  is a state.
  - Note: We often use “,” instead of “ $\wedge$ ”.

# Abstract DPLL Systems

- ❖ The **transition relation** of an abstract DPLL system is defined by means of **transition rules**.
  - Intuitively, a transition rule consists of a **condition** and an **effect** on system states.
  - The condition describes situations **when** the transition rule may be applied and the effect describes the **result** of such an application.

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- ❖ The **derivation progresses** by **applying the transition rules**, possibly resulting
  - in an **extension** of the assignment  $M$  by adding a literal for a so far undefined propositional symbol, or
  - when  $M$  falsifies  $F$  and therefore another assignment has to be tried, in **reverting**  $M$  to some previous value and in **extending** it in a different way than before.
  - Some other effects are also possible (learning, restart, ...).

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- ❖ Some transition rules add a literal which should clearly be added, whereas others have a speculative nature—they come with a **choice/decision** of which literal over a given variable to add to the assignment (a literal added in such a way is **annotated**, e.g.,  $\neg p^d$ ).

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- ❖ If there is no transition from a state  $s$ , then  $s$  is **final**.

# Abstract DPLL Systems

- ❖ In what follows, we first describe transition rules of the most basic, **classical DPLL procedure**, yielding the transition relation denoted  $\Rightarrow_{cl}$ .
- ❖ Later, we will extend it by further rules which make the search in the state space progress faster and are therefore used in **modern DPLL procedures**, also called **Conflict-Driven Clause Learning (CDCL)** systems, yielding the transition relations denoted  $\Rightarrow_M$ ,  $\Rightarrow_L$ , and  $\Rightarrow_R$ .

# Classical DPLL Rules: PureLiteral

## ❖ *PureLiteral*:

$$M \parallel F \Rightarrow M l \parallel F \quad \text{if} \quad \begin{cases} l \text{ occurs in some clause of } F \\ \neg l \text{ occurs in no clause of } F \\ l \text{ is undefined in } M \end{cases}$$

## ❖ An example:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \emptyset & \parallel & 1 \vee 2, 2 \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, \bar{1} \vee 3 & \Rightarrow_{cl} [PureLiteral] \\ 2 & \parallel & 1 \vee 2, 2 \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, \bar{1} \vee 3 & \Rightarrow_{cl} [PureLiteral] \\ 2 \bar{4} & \parallel & 1 \vee 2, 2 \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee \bar{3} \vee \bar{4}, \bar{1} \vee 3 & \end{array}$$



# Classical DPLL Rules: Decide

❖ *Decide*:

$$M \parallel F \Rightarrow M l^d \parallel F \quad \text{if} \quad \begin{cases} l \text{ or } \neg l \text{ occurs in a clause of } F \\ l \text{ is undefined in } M \end{cases}$$

❖ An example:

$$\begin{array}{l} \emptyset \quad \parallel \quad 1 \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{1} \vee 3 \\ 1^d \quad \parallel \quad 1 \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{1} \vee 3 \end{array} \Rightarrow_{cl} \quad [Decide]$$

❖ Let  $M \parallel F$  be a state of a system and let  $M$  be written as a sequence of the form  $M_0 l_1^d M_1 l_2^d M_2 \dots l_k^d M_k$  where  $l_i^d$  are all the decision literals in  $M$ . We say that the state  $M \parallel F$  is **at decision level  $k$**  and that all literals of each  $l_i^d M_i$  belong to the decision level  $i$ .

# Classical DPLL Procedures: UnitPropagate

## ❖ *UnitPropagate*:

$$M \parallel F, C \vee l \Rightarrow M l \parallel F, C \vee l \quad \text{if} \quad \begin{cases} M \models \neg C \\ l \text{ is undefined in } M \end{cases}$$

## ❖ An example:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \emptyset & \parallel & 1 \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{1} \vee 3 & \Rightarrow_{cl} \quad [Decide] \\ 1^d & \parallel & 1 \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{1} \vee \mathbf{3} & \Rightarrow_{cl} \quad [UnitPropagate] \\ 1^d \mathbf{3} & \parallel & 1 \vee \bar{2}, 2 \vee \bar{4}, 1 \vee \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{1} \vee 3 & \end{array}$$

# Classical DPLL Procedures: BackTrack

## ❖ *BackTrack*:

$$M \text{ l}^d N \parallel F, C \Rightarrow M \neg \text{l} \parallel F, C \quad \text{if} \quad \begin{cases} M \text{ l}^d N \models \neg C \\ N \text{ contains no decision literals} \end{cases}$$

## ❖ We call the clause $C$ **conflicting**.

## ❖ An example:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \emptyset & \parallel & 1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2} & \Rightarrow_{cl} \quad [Decide] \\ 1^d & \parallel & 1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2} & \Rightarrow_{cl} \quad [UnitPropagate] \\ 1^d \ 2 & \parallel & 1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2} & \Rightarrow_{cl} \quad [BackTrack] \\ \bar{1} & \parallel & 1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2} & \end{array}$$

# Classical DPLL Procedures: Fail

## ❖ *Fail*:

$$M \parallel F, C \Rightarrow \textit{FailState} \quad \text{if} \quad \begin{cases} M \models \neg C \\ M \text{ contains no decision literals} \end{cases}$$

## ❖ An example:

$\emptyset$	$\parallel$	$1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	$[\textit{Decide}]$
$1^d$	$\parallel$	$1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	$[\textit{UnitPropagate}]$
$1^d 2$	$\parallel$	$1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	$[\textit{BackTrack}]$
$\bar{1}$	$\parallel$	$1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	$[\textit{UnitPropagate}]$
$\bar{1} \bar{2}$	$\parallel$	$1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, \mathbf{1 \vee 2}, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	$[\textit{Fail}]$

*FailState*

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## ❖ An example:

$\emptyset$	$\parallel$	$1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[Decide]
$1^d$	$\parallel$	$1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$1^d 2$	$\parallel$	$1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[BackTrack]
$\bar{1}$	$\parallel$	$1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, 1 \vee 2, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$\bar{1} \bar{2}$	$\parallel$	$1 \vee \bar{2}, \bar{1} \vee 2, \mathbf{1 \vee 2}, \bar{1} \vee \bar{2}$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[Fail]

*FailState*

❖ On the other hand, if **no further rule is applicable** and the derivation has **not got to *FailState***, the given formula is **satisfiable**.

- In particular, the assignment in the final state is an example of a **satisfying assignment** for the formula.

# Classical DPLL Procedures: Applying the Rules

- ❖ The rules are **not** applied in a completely random order.
- ❖ The **priorities for applying the rules** are as follows:
  1. If *Fail* or *BackTrack* are applicable, they are applied.
  2. Otherwise, *UnitPropagate* and *PureLiteral* are applied if possible.
  3. Only if no other rule can be applied, *Decide* is used.
- ❖ The motivation is clear: **reducing the amount of guessing** if possible.
- ❖ The **use of *Decide*** is then subject to **various heuristics**:
  - Choose the unassigned variable and value that **satisfies the maximum number** of unsatisfied clauses (expensive: requires going through all clauses for each decision).
  - Choose the unassigned variable and value that **appears in the biggest number** of clauses.
  - MOM, VSIDS, ... – beyond the scope of this lecture.

# Modern DPLL Systems

- ❖ Modern DPLL systems do not use *PureLiteral* in the derivation process.
  - It is used as a preprocessing step for efficiency reasons.
- ❖ Further, a more sophisticated *backtracking* mechanism is used.
  - *BackTrack* tries to solve conflicts by reverting the value of the last decision literal regardless of whether it is relevant for the current conflict or not.
  - This can lead to a series of useless back- and forth-computations.
  - Instead, one would like to move faster to the relevant decision levels and resolve the current conflict earlier. This is achieved by using the *BackJump* rule.

# Classical DPLL Systems: Useless Backtracking

❖ Note: We assume that the “...” in the formula below hide a clause containing 1 and a clause containing 3; hence, *PureLiteral* is not applicable here.

$$1^d \ 2 \ 3^d \ 4 \quad || \quad \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots \quad \Rightarrow_{cl} \ [Decide]$$



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$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6}$		$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5}$		$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5} 6$		$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]

# Classical DPLL Systems: Useless Backtracking

❖ Note: We assume that the “...” in the formula below hide a clause containing 1 and a clause containing 3; hence, *PureLiteral* is not applicable here.

$1^d 2 3^d 4$		$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d$		$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6}$		$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5}$		$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5} 6$		$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3}$		$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]

# Classical DPLL Systems: Useless Backtracking

❖ Note: We assume that the “...” in the formula below hide a clause containing 1 and a clause containing 3; hence, *PureLiteral* is not applicable here.

$1^d 2 3^d 4$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]

# Classical DPLL Systems: Useless Backtracking

❖ Note: We assume that the “...” in the formula below hide a clause containing 1 and a clause containing 3; hence, *PureLiteral* is not applicable here.

$1^d 2 3^d 4$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]

# Classical DPLL Systems: Useless Backtracking

❖ Note: We assume that the “...” in the formula below hide a clause containing 1 and a clause containing 3; hence, *PureLiteral* is not applicable here.

$1^d 2 3^d 4$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]



# Classical DPLL Systems: Useless Backtracking

❖ Note: We assume that the “...” in the formula below hide a clause containing 1 and a clause containing 3; hence, *PureLiteral* is not applicable here.

$1^d 2 3^d 4$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]

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❖ Note: We assume that the “...” in the formula below hide a clause containing 1 and a clause containing 3; hence, *PureLiteral* is not applicable here.

$1^d 2 3^d 4$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>UnitPropagate</i> ]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>BackTrack</i> ]
$\bar{1}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[ <i>Decide</i> ]

# Classical DPLL Systems: Useless Backtracking

❖ Note: We assume that the “...” in the formula below hide a clause containing 1 and a clause containing 3; hence, *PureLiteral* is not applicable here.

$1^d 2 3^d 4$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[Decide]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[BackTrack]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[BackTrack]
$1^d 2 \bar{3}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[Decide]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[BackTrack]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[BackTrack]
$\bar{1}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[Decide]
$\bar{1} 3^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]

# Classical DPLL Systems: Useless Backtracking

❖ Note: We assume that the “...” in the formula below hide a clause containing 1 and a clause containing 3; hence, *PureLiteral* is not applicable here.

$1^d 2 3^d 4$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[Decide]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[BackTrack]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$1^d 2 3^d 4 \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[BackTrack]
$1^d 2 \bar{3}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[Decide]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} 5^d \bar{6}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[BackTrack]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} \bar{5}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$1^d 2 \bar{3} \bar{5} 6$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[BackTrack]
$\bar{1}$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[Decide]
$\bar{1} 3^d$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	[UnitPropagate]
$\bar{1} 3^d 4$	$\parallel$	$\bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots$	$\Rightarrow_{cl}$	...

# Modern DPLL Systems: BackJump

## ❖ *BackJump*:

$$M \text{ } l^d \text{ } N \parallel F, C \Rightarrow M \text{ } l' \parallel F, C \quad \text{if} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} M \text{ } l^d \text{ } N \models \neg C, \text{ and there is} \\ \text{some clause } C' \vee l' \text{ such that:} \\ F, C \models C' \vee l' \text{ and } M \models \neg C', \\ l' \text{ is undefined in } M, \text{ and} \\ l' \text{ or } \neg l' \text{ occurs in } F, C \end{array} \right.$$

❖ In the definition of the *BackJump* rule, the clause  $C$  is called **conflicting**. The clause  $C' \vee l'$  is called a **backjump clause**. The literal  $l^d$  marks the **target** of the backjump.

- The backjump clause must be entailed by  $F, C$  so that the procedure **does not start solving a stronger formula** than the given one (strengthened by assuming  $C' \vee l'$  must hold).
- The fact that  $M \models \neg C'$  implies that  $l'$  **must hold**.
- $l'$  must be undefined in  $M$  so that it **can be made defined**.
- The last requirement requires  $l'$  to be **related** to the given SAT instance.

❖ It can be shown that if there is a **conflicting clause**, one can always **either apply *Fail* or *BackJump***.

# Modern DPLL Systems: BackJump

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## ❖ An example:

$$\begin{array}{llll} 1^d 2 3^d 4 & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots & \Rightarrow_M \quad [Decide] \\ 1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots & \Rightarrow_M \quad [UnitPropagate] \\ 1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6} & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots & \Rightarrow_M \quad [BackJump] \\ 1^d 2 \bar{5} & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots & [\bar{1} \vee \bar{5}] \end{array}$$

Here:

- $\bar{1} \vee \bar{5}$  is the backjump clause  $C' \vee l'$  (to see that  $F, C \models C' \vee l'$ , use resolution on  $\bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}$  and  $\bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}$ ).
- $\bar{5}$  serves as  $l'$ .
- $3^d$  as  $l^d$ .

# BackJump vs. BackTrack

❖ To summarise the differences of *BackJump* and *BackTrack*:

- *BackTrack* undoes the last decision  $l^d$ , going back to the previous decision level and adding  $\neg l$  to it.
- *BackJump* may jump over decision levels that are irrelevant to the conflict.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 1^d \ 2 \ 3^d \ 4 \ 5^d \ \bar{6} & \parallel \quad \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots \Rightarrow_{Cl} \quad [BackJump] \\
 1^d \ 2 \ \bar{5} & \parallel \quad \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots \quad [\bar{1} \vee \bar{5}]
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- *BackJump* jumps over the decision  $3^d$  and its consequence 4, which are totally unrelated with the reasons for the falsity of the conflicting clause  $\bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}$ .

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 1^d \ 2 \ \bar{5} \quad || \quad \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, \dots \quad [\bar{1} \vee \bar{5}]
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- *BackJump* may analyse the reasons that produced the conflicting clause (see further).

❖ Conflict-driven learning:

- To prevent future similar conflicts, backjump clauses (also called lemmas) may be added to the formula being handled.

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- Start with nodes corresponding to negations of the literals in the conflicting clause.
  - For each generated node  $n$  corresponding to some literal  $l''$  from  $MI^dN$ , add as predecessors nodes corresponding to literals in  $MI^dN$  which allowed the propagation rule to be applied and obtain  $l''$  in  $MI^dN$ .

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- To find a backjump clause, it suffices to cut the graph into two parts:
  - The first part must contain (at least) all the literals with no incoming arrows.
  - The second part must contain (at least) all the literals with no outgoing arrows.
  - Exactly one of the literals with cut outgoing edges belongs to the current (i.e., the last) decision level. The negation of this literal will act as the literal  $l'$  in the *BackJump* rule.
- The backjump clause  $C' \vee l'$  is then the disjunction of the negation of the literals with cut outgoing edges.

# Finding BackJump Clauses

❖ Some intuition behind the use of conflict graphs:

- The fact that  $F, C \models C' \vee l'$  is clear since  $F, C$  and the negation of  $C' \vee l'$  cannot be satisfied (since  $\neg(C' \vee l') \models \neg C$ ).
- $l'$  is chosen as a negation of a literal in  $Ml^dN$ , hence the last requirement of *BackJump* is satisfied.
- At the same time note that it is always possible to find  $\neg l'$  which is the only one at the current decision level with cut outgoing edges.
  - One can (though not necessarily) choose the current decision point and let all other nodes in the first part of the conflict graph be from lower decision levels.

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❖ It remains to choose the *BackJump* target  $l^d$ :

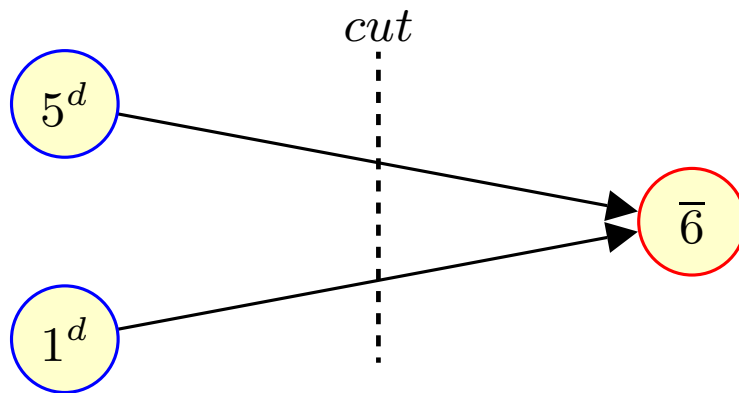
- Due to a single node from the current decision level has cut outgoing edges,  $M \models \neg C'$  for  $M$  preceding the current decision.
- One may proceed from the current decision point as far to the left in the assignment as possible till negations of the literals in  $C'$  appear in  $M$ , and hence  $M \models \neg C'$ . In this way, decisions irrelevant to the conflict are jumped over.
- As  $\neg l'$  is at the current decision level, it is clearly the case that  $l'$  is undefined in  $M$ .

# Finding BackJump Clauses: Example 1

❖ An example:

$$1^d \ 2 \ 3^d \ 4 \ 5^d \ \bar{6} \quad || \quad \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, \bar{5} \vee 6 \vee \bar{1}, 5 \vee \bar{6} \vee \bar{1}$$

❖ The corresponding conflict graph:



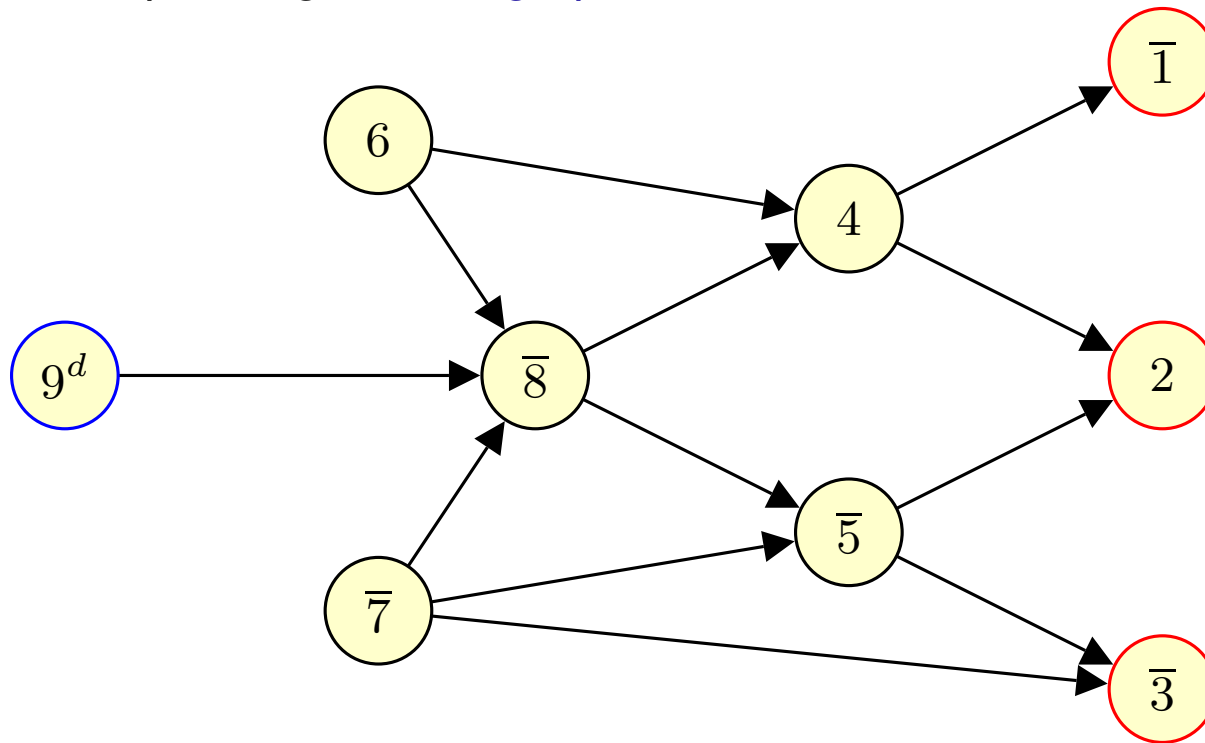
❖ Literals with cut-outgoing edges are 1 and 5. Literal 5 is the only one from the current decision level, hence all the conditions for the construction of a backjump clause are fulfilled and the backjump clause  $\bar{1} \vee \bar{5}$  is obtained with  $l' = \bar{5}$ .

❖ The conflict graph analysis does not give the best backjump clause  $\bar{1}$ , but it is still better than *BackTrace*.

# Finding BackJump Clauses: Example 2

❖ An example:

- Consider a state of the form  $M \parallel F$  where
  - $F$ , among other clauses, contains:  
 $\bar{9} \vee \bar{6} \vee 7 \vee \bar{8}, 8 \vee 7 \vee \bar{5}, \bar{6} \vee 8 \vee 4, \bar{4} \vee \bar{1}, \bar{4} \vee 5 \vee 2, 5 \vee 7 \vee \bar{3}, 1 \vee \bar{2} \vee 3,$
  - $M$  is of the form:  $\dots 6 \dots \bar{7} \dots 9^d \bar{8} \bar{5} 4 \bar{1} \bar{2} \bar{3}.$
- The corresponding conflict graph:





# Finding BackJump Clauses: Example 2

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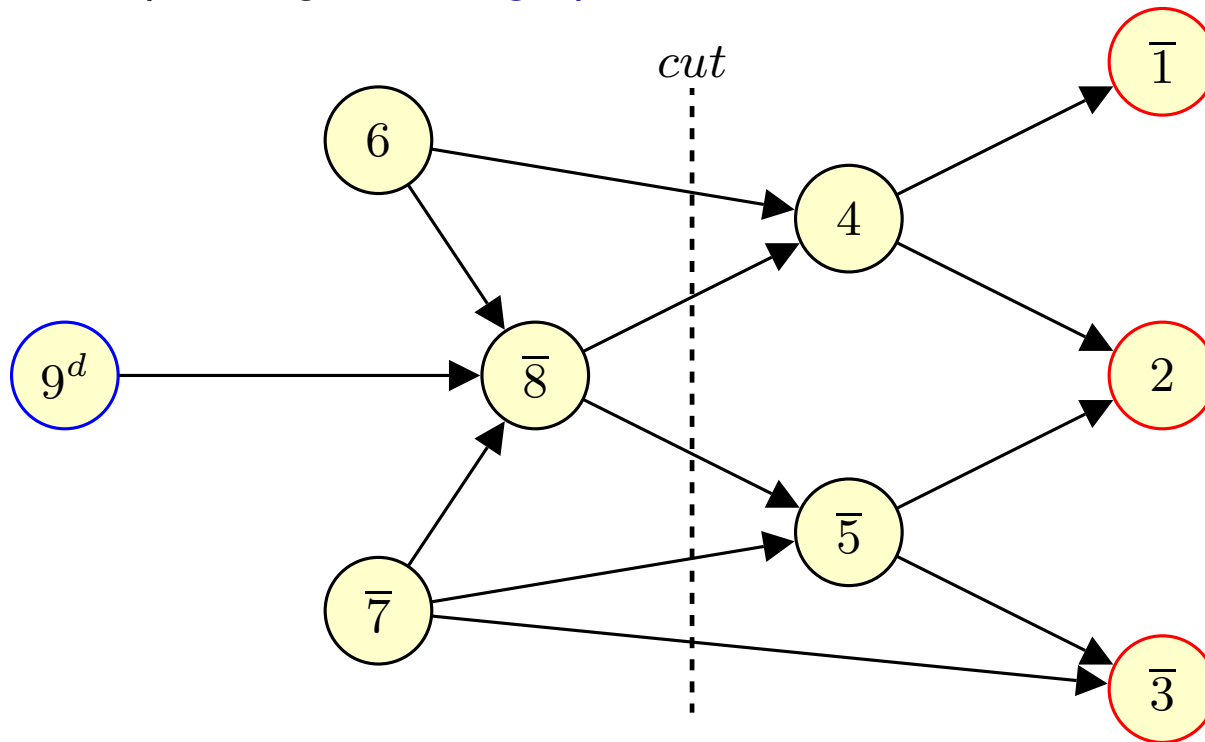
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- $M$  is of the form:  $\dots 6 \dots \bar{7} \dots 9^d \bar{8} \bar{5} 4 \bar{1} \bar{2} \bar{3}$ .

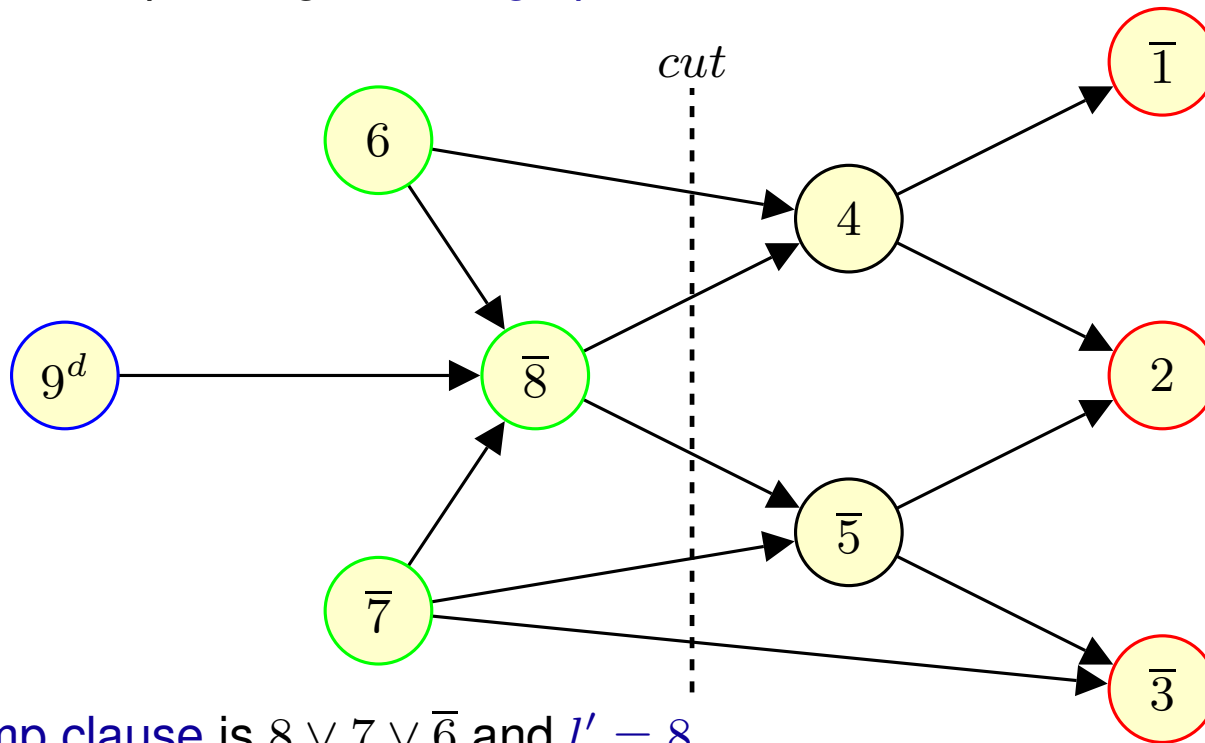
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  - $M$  is of the form:  $\dots 6 \dots \bar{7} \dots 9^d \bar{8} \bar{5} 4 \bar{1} \bar{2} \bar{3}.$
- The corresponding conflict graph:



The backjump clause is  $8 \vee 7 \vee \bar{6}$  and  $l' = 8$ .

# Modern DPLL Systems with Learning

❖ *Learn*:

$$M \parallel F \Rightarrow M \parallel F, C \quad \text{if} \quad \begin{cases} \text{all atoms of } C \text{ occur in } F \text{ or in } M \\ F \models C \end{cases}$$

❖ The clauses to learn may be, e.g., **backjump clauses** used in *BackJump*.

❖ An example:

$$\begin{array}{lll} 1^d 2 3^d 4 5^d \bar{6} & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6}, 6 \vee \bar{5} \vee \bar{2} & \Rightarrow_L & [BackJump] \\ 1^d 2 \bar{5} & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6}, 6 \vee \bar{5} \vee \bar{2} & \Rightarrow_L & [Learn] \\ 1^d 2 \bar{5} & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6}, 6 \vee \bar{5} \vee \bar{2}, \bar{2} \vee \bar{5} & & \end{array}$$

# Modern DPLL Systems: Forgetting

❖ *Forget*:

$$M \parallel F, C \Rightarrow M \parallel F \quad \text{if} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} F \models C \end{array} \right.$$

❖ Forgetting is applied to reduce the number of clauses to deal with.

❖ Typically (though not only), some **learnt lemmas** may be removed when they become **less useful**.

- To detect such situations, notions of **relevance** or **activity** may be used (in the latter case, one can, e.g., monitor the number of unit propagations or conflicts in which a clause was recently involved).

❖ An example:

$$\begin{array}{l} 1^d \ 2 \ \bar{5} \quad \parallel \quad \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6}, 6 \vee \bar{5} \vee \bar{2}, \bar{2} \vee \bar{5} \quad \Rightarrow_L \quad [Forget] \\ 1^d \ 2 \ \bar{5} \quad \parallel \quad \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6}, 6 \vee \bar{5} \vee \bar{2} \end{array}$$

# Modern DPLL System with Restart

❖ *Restart:*

$$M \parallel F \Rightarrow \emptyset \parallel F$$

❖ Applied when the search is **not making enough progress** according to some measure.

❖ The **additional knowledge** of the search space **compiled into the newly learned lemmas** will lead the **heuristics for *Decide* to behave differently**, possibly making the procedure to explore the search space in a more compact way.

❖ To ensure termination, the number of derivation steps between restarting is **strictly increasing**.

❖ An example:

$$\begin{array}{rcll}
 1^d \ 2 \ 3^d \ 4 \ 5^d \ \bar{6} & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6}, 6 \vee \bar{5} \vee \bar{2} & \Rightarrow_R \ [Back\ Jump] \\
 1^d \ 2 \ \bar{5} & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6}, 6 \vee \bar{5} \vee \bar{2} & \Rightarrow_R \ [Learn] \\
 1^d \ 2 \ \bar{5} & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6}, 6 \vee \bar{5} \vee \bar{2}, \bar{2} \vee \bar{5} & \Rightarrow_R \ [Restart] \\
 \emptyset & \parallel & \bar{1} \vee 2, \bar{3} \vee 4, \bar{5} \vee \bar{6}, 6 \vee \bar{5} \vee \bar{2}, \bar{2} \vee \bar{5} & 
 \end{array}$$

# SMT Solving

# Motivation

- ❖ For many applications, a logic that is richer than propositional logic is needed.
- ❖ Therefore, using the apparatus of **first-order logic (FOL)** or even **higher-order logics (HOL)** becomes necessary, enabling us to use various interesting theories such as:
  - **difference logic**, **equality with uninterpreted functions**, integer linear arithmetics, real arithmetics, Presburger arithmetics, WSkS, theories of lists, arrays, etc.
- ❖ To deal with at least some formulae of the above kind, **SMT solving**, i.e., checking **satisfiability modulo theories**, extends SAT solving by checking satisfiability of **first-order formulae** with **equality** and atoms from various **first-order theories** (usually decidable ones are only allowed), in some cases even with **quantifiers** (although their support is limited).
- ❖ We restrict ourselves to formulae without quantifiers. Then, the only syntactic difference from the purely propositional case is that we consider the set  $P$  to **contain equality and atomic formulae from various first-order logical theories**.
- ❖ There exist **other approaches for checking satisfiability of first-order formulae** (e.g., **fully automated first-order theorem proving** implemented, for instance, in Vampire), which may be, e.g., better in dealing with quantifiers.
- ❖ Decision procedures for **higher-order logics** (such as WSKS, MSO) do also exist (e.g., **MONA** based on **tree automata**).

# First-Order Theories

- ❖ For the formulae whose satisfiability is to be checked, the same definitions and notations as in the case of propositional logic will be used with the only difference: the set  $P$  over which formulae are built is a countable set of **first-order atomic formulae**.
- ❖ A **theory**  $T$  is a set of closed first-order formulae (axioms). A formula  $F$  is  **$T$ -satisfiable** if  $F \wedge T$  is satisfiable in the first-order sense. Otherwise,  $F$  is  **$T$ -unsatisfiable**.
- ❖ Similarly as before,  $M \models F$  denotes that an assignment  $M$  is a **propositional model** of a formula  $F$  (atomic formulae are viewed as propositional symbols: the **theory is ignored**).
- ❖ If  $M \models F \wedge T$ , then  $M$  is said to be a  **$T$ -model** of  $F$ .
- ❖ Let  $F, G$  be two formulae. If  $F \wedge \neg G$  is  $T$ -unsatisfiable, then  $F$  **entails**  $G$  in  $T$  (written  $F \models_T G$ ). A **theory lemma** is a clause  $C$  such that  $\emptyset \models_T C$ .
- ❖ The **SMT problem** for a theory  $T$  is the problem of determining, given a formula  $F$ , whether  $F$  is  $T$ -satisfiable.



# Difference Logic

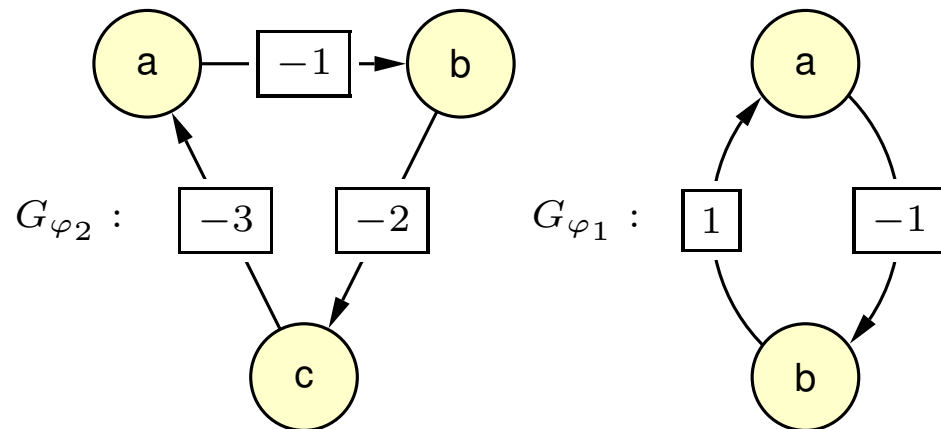
❖ In the theory of **difference logic** (DL), atomic formulae are syntactically restricted to the form  $a - b \leq k$  where  $a, b$  are variables and  $k$  is a constant. The difference logic can be interpreted over integers, rationals, or reals.

❖ Examples:

- $\varphi_1 : a - b \leq -1 \wedge b - a \leq 1$
- $\varphi_2 : a - b \leq -1 \wedge b - c \leq -2 \wedge c - a \leq -3$

❖ A **decision procedure** – given a conjunctive DL formula:

- construct a **weighted graph** with an edge  $a \xrightarrow{k} b$  for each atomic formula  $a - b \leq k$ ,
- the formula is satisfiable iff there is no **cycle** with a **negative accumulated weight** in the graph.



❖ Constraints of the form  $a \leq k$  can be added by transforming them to  $a - zero \leq k$  and subsequently **shifting a satisfying solution** (if there is one) such that  $zero$  gets evaluated to 0.

# The EUF Theory

- ❖ The theory of **equality with uninterpreted functions** (EUF) consists of the following axioms:

---

$A_r :$	$\forall x.x = x$	(reflexivity)
$A_s :$	$\forall x, y.x = y \rightarrow y = x$	(symmetry)
$A_t :$	$\forall x, y, z.x = y \wedge y = z \rightarrow x = z$	(transitivity)
$A_{c_1} :$	for each positive integer $n$ and $n$ -ary function symbol $f$ ,	
	$\forall x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_n.x_1 = y_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_n = y_n$	(function
	$\rightarrow f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(y_1, \dots, y_n)$	congruence)
$A_{c_2} :$	for each positive integer $n$ and $n$ -ary predicate symbol $p$ ,	
	$\forall x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_n.x_1 = y_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_n = y_n$	(predicate
	$\rightarrow p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = p(y_1, \dots, y_n)$	congruence)

---

- ❖ Equality = is an **interpreted** predicate symbol.
- ❖ Other symbols are **uninterpreted**.
- ❖ An example of a lemma:  $a = b \wedge b = c \rightarrow g(f(a), b) = g(f(c), a)$ .

# The EUF Theory: An Example

❖ Show that  $\varphi : (b = c) \wedge (f(b) = c) \wedge (g(f(c)) = a) \wedge (a \neq g(b))$  is unsatisfiable.

- Assume  $\varphi$  is satisfiable, i.e., there is an assignment  $\sigma$  under which  $\varphi$  evaluates to *true*.

1.	$\sigma \models \varphi$	(assumption)	8.	$\sigma \models f(c) = c$	(7,3, transitivity)
2.	$\sigma \models b = c$	(1, $\wedge$ )	9.	$\sigma \models c = f(c)$	(8, symmetry)
3.	$\sigma \models f(b) = c$	(1, $\wedge$ )	10.	$\sigma \models b = f(c)$	(2,9, transitivity)
4.	$\sigma \models g(f(c)) = a$	(1, $\wedge$ )	11.	$\sigma \models g(b) = g(f(c))$	(10, congruence)
5.	$\sigma \models \neg(a = g(b))$	(1, $\wedge$ )	12.	$\sigma \models g(b) = a$	(11,4, transitivity)
6.	$\sigma \models f(b) = f(c)$	(2, congruence)	13.	$\sigma \models a = g(b)$	(12, symmetry)
7.	$\sigma \models f(c) = f(b)$	(6, symmetry)	14.	$\sigma \not\models a = g(b)$	(5, $\neg$ )

- Lines 13 and 14 are contradictory, therefore,  $\varphi$  is unsatisfiable.
- An example of entailment:

$$- (b = c) \wedge (f(b) = c) \wedge (g(f(c)) = a) \models_T (a = g(b)).$$

❖ EUF can be decided by computing the **congruence closure** of all equivalences and checking that it does not contradict with any inequality.

# The Eager SMT Approach

- ❖ The idea of **eager techniques** is to take advantage of the power of existing SAT-solvers. The main steps of the approach are:
  1. Translate the input formula  $F$  into a **satisfiability-preserving** propositional formula  $F'$ .
  2. Ask a SAT-solver whether  $F'$  is satisfiable.
  
- ❖ However, this approach is **not often used** in practice since:
  - the translations are **specific for each theory**,
  - the technique may **run out of memory or time** quickly on many practical problems,
  - an alternative **lazy approach** can perform several orders of magnitudes faster.

# The Lazy SMT Approach

- ❖ **Lazy techniques** split tasks of the decision procedure into two **co-operating** components:
  - a **propositional SAT-solver**, which deals with the **boolean skeleton** of the given formula and views atomic formulae as simple propositional symbols, and
  - **theory solvers** (*T-solvers*), which implement decision procedures for the given theories *T*. It is sufficient to consider that a *T*-solver is only able to decide **satisfiability of a conjunction of atomic formulae in *T***.
- ❖ The first step is to build a **dictionary of atomic predicates** that appear in the given formula, recognising their positive and negative appearances.
- ❖ An example. Is  $F : (a > 3) \wedge (a \leq 3 \vee a < 1 \vee a > 2)$  satisfiable in DL over integers?
  - |         |            |         |         |
|---------|------------|---------|---------|
| $a > 3$ | $a \leq 3$ | $a < 1$ | $a > 2$ |
| $p_1$   | $\neg p_1$ | $p_2$   | $p_3$   |
  - The SAT-solver views the formula as  $p_1 \wedge (\neg p_1 \vee p_2 \vee p_3)$ .
- ❖ To switch between the propositional and theory views, functions  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{P}$  will be used.
  - E.g.,  $\mathcal{T}(p_1 \vee p_2) = (a > 3 \vee a < 1)$  and  $\mathcal{P}(a > 3 \vee a < 1) = (p_1 \vee p_2)$ .

# The Lazy SMT Algorithm

- ❖ Given an input formula  $F$ , a basic version of the lazy SMT approach uses the following **interaction** of a SAT-solver and a  $T$ -solver (assume that a single theory is involved):
  1. A SAT-solver **checks if  $\mathcal{P}(F)$  is satisfiable**. If  $\mathcal{P}(F)$  is **unsatisfiable**, then  $F$  is  **$T$ -unsatisfiable**, and the procedure terminates. Otherwise,  $\mathcal{P}(F)$  is **satisfiable**, and the procedure continues by the next step.
  2. Let  $M$  be the satisfying assignment given by the SAT-solver ( $M \models \mathcal{P}(F)$ ). The theory solver **checks whether  $\mathcal{T}(M)$  is  $T$ -satisfiable**. If  $\mathcal{T}(M)$  is  **$T$ -satisfiable**,  $F$  is  **$T$ -satisfiable**, and the procedure terminates. Otherwise,  $\mathcal{T}(M)$  is  **$T$ -unsatisfiable**, and the procedure continues by the next step.
  3. The  $T$ -solver provides a **theory lemma** (a clause  $C = \neg l_1 \vee \dots \vee \neg l_m$  such that  $l_1, \dots, l_m$  appear in  $\mathcal{T}(M)$  and  $\emptyset \models_T C$ ; in an extreme case,  $C = \neg \mathcal{T}(M)$ ) which is **added to the set of clauses**. Then, the SAT-solver is **restarted**, and the whole process repeated from Step 1.
  
- ❖ Having **more theories** requires a more complicated algorithm **combining them**: typically, the **Nelson-Oppen** combination procedure (or some of its variants) is used.
  - We will briefly get to Nelson-Oppen at the end of the lecture – more details are beyond the scope of the lecture.

# Lazy SMT: An Illustration

❖ An example. Is  $F : (a > 3) \wedge (a \leq 3 \vee a < 1 \vee a > 2)$  satisfiable?

$$\bullet \quad \frac{\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} a > 3 & a \leq 3 & a < 1 & a > 2 \\ \hline p_1 & \neg p_1 & p_2 & p_3 \end{array}}{(a > 3) \wedge (a \leq 3 \vee a < 1 \vee a > 2)} \quad \frac{}{p_1 \wedge (\neg p_1 \vee p_2 \vee p_3)}$$

• **Iteration 1.**  $\mathcal{P}(F) : p_1 \wedge (\neg p_1 \vee p_2 \vee p_3)$

1. The SAT-solver finds out that  $F$  is **satisfiable**.
2. The SAT-solver comes with  $M = \{p_1, p_2\}$ . The  $T$ -solver finds out that  $\mathcal{T}(M) = a > 3 \wedge a < 1$  is  **$T$ -unsatisfiable**.
3. The  $T$ -solver returns a theory lemma  $L = a \leq 3 \vee a \geq 1$ , which is added as a new clause to the formula ( $F := F \wedge L$ ).

• **Iteration 2.**  $\mathcal{P}(F) : p_1 \wedge (\neg p_1 \vee p_2 \vee p_3) \wedge (\neg p_1 \vee \neg p_2)$

1. The SAT-solver finds out that  $F$  is **satisfiable**.
2. The SAT-solver comes with  $M = \{p_1, \neg p_2, p_3\}$ . The  $T$ -solver confirms that  $\mathcal{T}(M) = a > 3 \wedge a \geq 1 \wedge a > 2$  is  **$T$ -satisfiable** and the procedure answers that  $F$  is **satisfiable** (for  $a > 3$ , after simplification).

# Lazy SMT: Extensions

- ❖ To summarise, there are two causes for the current assignment  $M$  **not to be satisfying** during a run of an SMT decision procedure:
  - standard **propositional** (detected by *BackJump* and *Fail* rules), or
  - **theory-related**: a contradiction occurs in the current assignment. This is not (and cannot be) detected by a SAT-solver itself, and so a  $T$ -solver must be used to discover it.
- ❖ There exist various extensions of the basic lazy SMT, e.g.,:
  - **On-line SAT-solver**. The presented version of a lazy procedure is **off-line**, meaning that the procedure is restarted when a new lemma is learned. Alternatively, in an **on-line** approach, the SAT-solver **continues from the current assignment after learning a lemma** (and since the learned lemma is always a conflicting clause, it can proceed either by applying the *BackJump* or *Fail* rule).
  - **Incremental SAT-solver**. The SAT-solver can query a  $T$ -solver continuously during the construction of an assignment  $M$  about its  $T$ -satisfiability. In other words, it **does not have to wait until a propositionally satisfying assignment is found**. Depending on the cost of such queries, they can be made after each step of the SAT-solver or at regular intervals.



# Theory Propagation

❖ **Theory propagation** is a principle which will later be incorporated into abstract DPLL(T) systems: an extension of abstract DPLL systems for SMT procedures. Similarly as in the propositional DPLL, definitions will be made in terms of rules.

❖ Up to now, the  $T$ -solver has been used to **validate** that an assignment  $M$  is  $T$ -satisfiable only. However, it can also be used to **guide** the SAT-solver. This is achieved by the following rule.

❖ *TheoryPropagate*:

$$M \parallel F \Rightarrow Ml \parallel F \quad \text{if} \quad \begin{cases} M \models_T l \\ l \text{ or } \neg l \text{ occurs in } F \\ l \text{ is undefined in } M \end{cases}$$

❖ In a state  $M \parallel F$ , the rule allows to add all (or at least some) literals  $l_1, \dots, l_m$  undefined in  $M$  where  $l_i$  or  $\neg l_i$  occurs in  $F$  and  $M \models_T l_i$ , i.e., **literals which are entailed in  $T$  by the current assignment**. Then, the system can move to state  $Ml_1, \dots, l_m \parallel F$ .

❖ Depending on how expensive the theory propagation is (for a specific solver), it can be performed **exhaustively** (performs all possible theory propagations) or **non-exhaustively** (propagates only literals which are cheap to compute).

# Abstract DPLL(T)

- ❖ SMT solving can be formalised in terms of **abstract DPLL(T)** systems that extend abstract DPLL systems.
- ❖ The rules of abstract DPLL(T) systems can be split into three groups:
  - **DPLL rules**: *Decide*, *Fail*, *UnitPropagate*, *Restart*, which are exactly the same as in SAT solving. (Note: no *PureLiteral* due to having to consider the theory too.)
  - **DPLL/theory rules**: modified *Learn*, *Forget*, and *BackJump* rules where some of the original propositional entailments are replaced by **theory entailment**.
  - **Theory rules**: the *TheoryPropagate* rule.
- ❖ Note that **each propositional entailment is a theory entailment**, and so purely propositional reasoning may still be used in the modified *BackJump*, *Learn*, and *Forget* – apart from that, theory reasoning is allowed too (used, e.g., to learn **theory lemmas** or **theory-dependent backjump clauses**).
- ❖ We denote derivations in the system with all the above rules  $\Rightarrow_{FT}$  (Full DPLL Modulo Theories).

# Abstract DPLL(T)

## ❖ *T* – BackJump:

$$Ml^dN \parallel F, C \Rightarrow Ml' \parallel F, C \quad \text{if} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} Ml^dN \models \neg C, \text{ and there is} \\ \text{some clause } C' \vee l' \text{ such that:} \\ F, C \models_T C' \vee l' \text{ and } M \models \neg C', \\ l' \text{ is undefined in } M, \text{ and} \\ l' \text{ or } \neg l' \text{ occurs in } F \text{ or in } Ml^dN \end{array} \right.$$

## ❖ *T* – Learn:

$$M \parallel F \Rightarrow M \parallel F, C \quad \text{if} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{all atoms of } C \text{ occur in } F \text{ or in } M \\ F \models_T C \end{array} \right.$$

- Applied in association with *T* – BackJump or when a satisfying *M* is *T*-inconsistent and a theory lemma is to be added.

## ❖ *T* – Forget:

$$M \parallel F, C \Rightarrow M \parallel F \quad \text{if} \quad \left\{ M \models_T C \right.$$

# Theory Propagation: Example 1

❖ Is the following difference logic formula satisfiable?

$$\varphi : ((x > 2) \vee (x < -15)) \wedge (x > -10) \wedge ((x < 0) \vee (x > 0))$$

Let us abbreviate  $\varphi$  as  $(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2) \wedge \varphi_3 \wedge (\varphi_4 \vee \varphi_5)$ .

$\emptyset$	$\parallel$	$\varphi$	$\Rightarrow_{FT}$	$[UnitPropagate \varphi_3]$
$x > -10$	$\parallel$	$\varphi$	$\Rightarrow_{FT}$	$[TheoryPropagate \varphi_2]$
$x > -10, \overline{x < -15}$	$\parallel$	$\varphi$	$\Rightarrow_{FT}$	$[UnitPropagate \varphi_1]$
$x > -10, \overline{x < -15}, x > 2$	$\parallel$	$\varphi$	$\Rightarrow_{FT}$	$[TheoryPropagate \varphi_4]$
$x > -10, \overline{x < -15}, x > 2, \overline{x < 0}$	$\parallel$	$\varphi$	$\Rightarrow_{FT}$	$[UnitPropagate \varphi_5]$
$x > -10, \overline{x < -15}, x > 2, \overline{x < 0}, x > 0$	$\parallel$	$\varphi$		

# Theory Propagation: Example 2

- ❖ Consider the EUF logic and a clause set  $F$  containing:
 

...  
 (1)  $(a = b) \vee (g(a) \neq g(b))$   
 (2)  $(h(a) = h(c)) \vee p$   
 (3)  $(g(a) = g(b)) \vee \neg p$   
 ...
- ❖ Let the DPLL(T) procedure be in a state:  $M, c = b, f(a) \neq f(b) \parallel F$ .

- ❖ Consider the derivation:

Step	New Literal	Reason
(I) <i>Decide</i>	$h(a) \neq h(c)$	
(II) <i>TheoryPropagate</i>	$a \neq b$	since $h(a) \neq h(c) \wedge c = b \models_T a \neq b$
(III) <i>UnitPropagate</i>	$g(a) \neq g(b)$	because of $a \neq b$ and (1)
(IV) <i>UnitPropagate</i>	$p$	because of $h(a) \neq h(c)$ and (2)

- ❖ Now, Clause (3) is **conflicting**. A possible **backjump clause** is, e.g.,  $h(a) = h(c) \vee c \neq b$ .

# Combining Theories

# The Nelson-Oppen Method

- ❖ Assume theories with disjoint sets of function and predicate symbols (up to equality).
- ❖ Variables used in atoms falling into different theories may be shared.
- ❖ The very basic idea of the Nelson-Oppen theory combination method is the following:
  - $T$ -solvers must report all equalities among variables.
  - When the given formula is propositionally satisfiable and the derived assignment  $M$  is  $T$ -consistent for each involved theory  $T$  and the part of  $M$  which involves atoms of  $T$ , all equalities discovered in each theory are added within the theories in which they were not discovered, and the process is re-run till either no new equalities are found or a conflict is found.
- ❖ If a contradiction is ever found, then the formula is clearly unsatisfiable. For satisfiability, the following conditions suffice:
  - Theories must admit countably infinite models.
  - Theories must be convex.
    - A theory is convex iff whenever a satisfiable conjunction of literals entails a disjunction of equalities of variables, then it entails one of the equalities.
    - Biggest obstacle in practice, yet applicable for many common theories.