Lookahead in Partitioning SMT

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Abstract—Lookahead in propositional satisfiability has proven efficient as a heuristic in pre- and in-processing, for partitioning instances for parallel solving, and as the main driver of a standalone solver. While applying similar techniques in satisfiability modulo theories is potentially equally useful, adapting lookahead to learning theory clauses and to estimating search space sizes in the presence of first-order structures is not straightforward. This paper addresses both of these observations. We give a hybrid algorithm that integrates lookahead into the state-based representation of an SMT solver and show that in the vast majority of cases it is possible to compute full lookahead up to depth four on inexpensive theories. We also show the role of first-order structures in SMT search space: while in most of our benchmarks the partitions are easier to solve than the original instance, we identify cases where lookahead results in sequences of increasingly difficult instances for a computationally expensive theory.

I. INTRODUCTION

Large scale parallel SMT solving that would result in linear speed-up reliably over any instance in a cloud environment is a lucrative prize that has been intensively studied over the recent years [26], [14], [13], [17]. A central sub-goal in this project is in understanding how to apply successfully the cubeand-conquer [24] approach in SMT solving. The lookahead heuristic in propositional logic [27], in addition to being efficient in solving certain types of structured problems [8], has recently proven to be a powerful tool in constructing partitions for divide-and-conquer-based parallel SAT solvers [10], [9]. The idea is to base the search-space traversal on the explicit principle of branching on literals that reduce maximally the remaining search space. In addition to SAT solvers, the heuristic has been implemented in SMT solvers such as Z3 [20], where it serves for in- and pre-processing, and by us in OpenSMT [11], [12] as an alternative implementation for the main SAT solver.

This paper studies how the literals chosen by lookahead algorithm for SMT affect the difficulty of the instance from the perspective of a standard CDCL-based SMT solver. This question is central to divide-and-conquer-style parallel SMT solving, where the lookahead heuristic is used to build a binary *lookahead tree* of depth *d*, with nodes labeled by the literals chosen with the lookahead heuristic, and root labeled with the true literal \top . Conjoining the literals in each rooted path to the leaves with the original instance produces 2^{d-1} partitioned instances that do not share models. The resulting instances can be solved in parallel, and the original instance is satisfiable if and only if one of the partitioned instances is satisfiable.

Our main contributions are rigorously defining what we mean by lookahead heuristic for an SMT solver, and an experimental study on how the use of this heuristic affects the difficulty of the partitions. In defining the heuristic, we show that lookahead can be integrated tightly into a CDCL(T)style algorithm that fully leverages learned clauses, including determining unsatisfiability while constructing partitions. We summarize our experimental results as follows. First, in many cases the heuristic runs in seconds when producing a nontrivial number of partitions (say, 16). This is already a nontrivial observation given that the full lookahead heuristic in SAT is known to be in most cases prohibitively expensive. Second, usually the approach results in partitions that are easier to solve than the original. While this result seems rather implicit and obvious, it is made interesting by the next observation: There are instances where the above described lookaheadbased parallel algorithm's run time *increases* compared to the original instance even when no overhead from partitioning or communication is considered, and the number of partitions is in the thousands. We show some details on the latter cases that help to understand the underlying phenomena, and identify a possible reason arising from the way the theory solving algorithm for linear real arithmetics is implemented in most SMT solvers. These cases serve to illustrate the complexity of the ultimate goal of an efficient and general parallel solver.

Combining a lookahead algorithm with a CDCL-based SMT solver in a meaningful way is not straightforward. First, the lookahead heuristics assumes that the clauses of an instance are known at computing time. In contrast, an SMT solver produces a new clause whenever a propositional model is inconsistent in the theory. A potentially very large number of clauses remain invisible for the heuristic. Second, the explanation clauses guide the search through non-chronological backtracking. This means that the heuristic scores of variables change with each backtrack, and the algorithm may determine unsatisfiable entire sub-trees of the lookahead tree. The subtrees need to be re-computed to ensure that the approach produces 2^d partitions. Finally, it is not clear how SMT solver's theory specific reasoning part interacts with the lookahead-heuristic that only measures the reduction in the propositional space.

To the best of our knowledge, this paper is the first to build lookahead partitioning into the SMT framework in a way that observes the search space reduction resulting from learned clauses, and guarantees the unit-propagation consistency of the resulting partitions in case instance satisfiability is not de-



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termined. We consider the theories of uninterpreted functions with equality [3] and linear real arithmetic [4]. These are the two central algorithms that constitute, together with a SAT solver, the core of most SMT solvers. Combinations of these two theories with pre-processing techniques are capable of handling the quantifier-free subset of the SMT-LIB benchmark library instances. The algorithm either produces exactly 2^{d-1} instances none of which can be shown unsatisfiable through (theory-aware) unit-propagation in the current state of the SMT solver; or shows the original instance either satisfiable or unsatisfiable. The partitioning algorithm compromises in certain cases the exactness of the lookahead scores for decreased run time. We believe that the efficiency of our proof-of-concept implementation forms a solid basis for future research in this direction. Since the approach also sheds light to the observed slowdowns, we believe that the work will prove useful for designing more general parallelization algorithms for SMT.

The paper is organized as follows. After discussing related work, in Sec. III we define our SMT-related logical notation. In Sec. IV we adapt the rule-based description of SMT from [25] to the specific case of lookahead and introduce a running example. In Sec. V we present our lookahead partitioning algorithm, then provide experimental results in Sec. VI, and conclude in Sec. VII.¹

II. RELATED WORK

The lookahead heuristic was first introduced in the context of DPLL-based SAT solving in [27]. The original idea uses the number of propagated literals as a measure of search space reduction [23], and is further extended to consider, e.g., equivalence reasoning [5], the clause-based Jeroslow-Wang heuristic [16], and approaches for choosing which variables to consider for lookahead [7].

Lookahead as a pre- and in-processor for clause-learning SAT solvers was formalized in [6]. However, it was not integrated into the CDCL algorithm in the sense that is done in this work. A similar pre- and in-processing approach was recently implemented for the SMT solver Z3 [20]. When used as a pre- and in-processor for an ordinary, CDCL-based solver, the lookahead implementation can be conceptually fairly straightforward. Lookahead is not directly involved in the CDCL search, and therefore the artifacts related to nonchronological backtracking need not be necessarily considered. In [12] we formalized an algorithm inspired by the lookahead heuristic for solving quantifier-free first-order formulas based on CDCL SMT solving. The approach is implemented in our SMT solver OpenSMT [11] and was shown experimentally to be efficient for solving linear integer arithmetic problems with Boolean structure. Compared to the publication, in the current work we give a more formal treatment of the implementation,

¹An extended version of the paper, available at https: //usi-verification-and-security.github.io/opensmt-doc/publications/

lookahead-in-partitioning-smt-extended.pdf, provides an appendix detailing some of the optimizations we implemented for the lookahead approach, further experiments, and a comparison to an alternate scoring for the lookahead algorithm. define the lookahead algorithm for partitioning, and provide experimental data and analysis for parallel solving based on cube-and-conquer.

Our focus is in how SMT lookahead can implement partitioning in divide-and-conquer for parallel solving. The idea was introduced for parallel SAT solving in [10], and an implementation for parallel SMT solving was used in [13], [17]. However, the details of this partitioning approach have not been discussed before. The lookahead-based partitioning implementation in [10] applies essentially lookahead-based binary partitioning recursively. The downside of this design is that it does not use the full information in the CDCL solver, and producing the partitions might miss an unsatisfiability high up in the tree. As a result it construct partitions that are known to be unsatisfiable in an intermediate state of the partitioning algorithm.

The substantial amount of research in SAT heuristics, overviewed in [1] from the perspective of parallel solving, provides a promising foundation for partitioning in SMT. Recent relevant approaches include [15], where the authors recognize high-level information that can be used for better clause learning.

III. PRELIMINARIES

The Satisfiability Modulo Theories (SMT) problem [22], [3] consists of determining whether a propositional formula is satisfiable, given that some of the atoms have an interpretation in first-order logic. A conflict-driven clause learning (CDCL) SMT solver searches first for propositional models, which are then checked for consistency with respect to the theory. If found inconsistent, the propositional structure is enriched with an *explanation*, that is, a clause containing in general theory atoms. If instead during the process the propositional part becomes unsatisfiable, the solver has shown the whole formula unsatisfiable. The formula is satisfiable if the solver finds a theory-consistent model.

1) SMT solving: This section fixes the notation for firstorder logic and SMT. We define sets of function symbols, terms, constants, and predicate symbols as usual, the last containing the special symbols \top , \bot , and = that represent, respectively **true**, **false**, and equality. We call applications of predicate symbols on terms *atoms*. Let U be a possibly infinite set of elements containing at least the truth values **true** and **false**. A *model* \mathcal{M} assigns to each constant a unique element from U, to each function symbol of arity $n \ge 1$ a total function $U^n \to U$, to each predicate symbol of arity zero a truth value **true** or **false**, and to each predicate symbol of arity $n \ge 1$ a total function $U^n \to \{$ **true**, **false** $\}$. An *interpretation* \mathcal{A} is the extension of \mathcal{M} to general terms in the usual sense.

Given a finite set of atoms At, a *clause* is a set of *literals*, that is, positive and negative atoms $x, \neg x, x \in At$. We extend the negation to clauses, and write $\neg(l_1 \lor \ldots \lor l_n)$ for $\neg l_1 \land \ldots \land \neg l_n$. A propositional formula in conjunctive normal form (CNF) is a conjunction of clauses. Throughout the text we use both a set of literals and disjunction, and a set of clauses and a conjunction, interchangeably. We also treat conjunctions of

unit clauses (*cubes*) as sets of literals when this cannot be confused with a disjunction. A sequence of literals is written $l_1 \ldots l_n$, and when the order plays no role, we equate the sequence with the corresponding set $\{l_1, \ldots, l_n\}$.

A set of literals X is *consistent* if for no x both $x \in X$ and $\neg x \in X$. A consistent set σ is called an assignment. An assignment is *total* if for all atoms $x \in At$ either $x \in \sigma$ or $\neg x \in \sigma$. An atom x is assigned if either $x \in \sigma$ or $\neg x \in \sigma$. The assignment σ satisfies a clause c when $\sigma \cap c \neq \emptyset$, and a formula ϕ if it satisfies all clauses of ϕ . A *theory* T is a non-empty set of models. A CNF formula ϕ is *T*-satisfiable if (i) there exists a satisfying total assignment σ for ϕ and an interpretation \mathcal{A} that is an extension of a model $\mathcal{M} \in T$, and (ii) for each $l \in \sigma$, $l^{\mathcal{A}} \equiv \mathbf{true}$ if l is of the form x; and $l^{\mathcal{A}} \equiv$ false if l is of the form $\neg x$, where x is an atom of ϕ . In particular, given a formula ϕ and an assignment σ that is total (with respect to ϕ), we write $\sigma \models_T \phi$ if σ is such an assignment. In addition we write $\phi' \models_p \phi$ if all assignments that satisfy ϕ' also satisfy ϕ propositionally, and $\models_T c$ if c is entailed by the theory, that is, a *theory lemma* of a theory T. For a formula, clause, literal, or assignment ξ we denote by Ats(ξ) the set of atoms appearing in ξ .

In this work we study two theories: the theory of linear real arithmetic (LRA) and the theory of uninterpreted functions with equality (EUF). The universe of LRA consists of real numbers, function symbols * and + of arity two restricted to expressing linear terms, and the predicate symbol \leq ; all three have their usual interpretations. The EUF theory places no restrictions on the interpretations of constants, functions, or predicates (apart from the inherent ones for equality, \top , and \perp).

2) Parallel SMT solving: Given an SMT instance ϕ , partitioning produces instances ϕ_1, \ldots, ϕ_k such that the satisfiability of ϕ is equal to the satisfiability of the disjunction $\phi_1 \lor \ldots \lor \phi_k$. In addition, we are interested in partitionings such that no two partitions $\phi_i, \phi_j, i \neq j$, share a total satisfying assignment. The partitioning approach Part(k) consists of solving an SMT instance ϕ by first constructing the partitions ϕ_1, \ldots, ϕ_k , and then solving each resulting partition ϕ_i in parallel until one of them is shown satisfiable, or all of them are shown unsatisfiable.

IV. CONFLICT-DRIVEN CLAUSE-LEARNING LOOKAHEAD IN SMT

The *CDCL lookahead algorithm* intuitively guides an SMT solver in a binary tree, using the solver's state to determine how to expand the tree. To more precisely describe the algorithm, we adapt here the rule-based presentation of CDCL(T) from [25], [21] to our needs. As usual, in the first phase an input SMT formula is converted into an equisatisfiable propositional formula ϕ in CNF while preserving the atoms in the theories *T*. The *state* $\langle \sigma | F \rangle$ of an SMT solver consists of σ , an initially empty assignment, and *F*, a set of clauses initially consisting of ϕ . The execution of the solver proceeds according to a set of rules described below. In general, the algorithm alternates between *propagation*, choosing a *decision literal*,

denoted by x^{δ} , and analysing conflicts found in propagation. The labels L and E refer to *learned* and *explanation* clauses. When they appear on the left side of \rightarrow , the corresponding rule matches only to clauses that have the label.

- The propagation rule $\langle \sigma \mid F \land (c \lor l) \rangle \xrightarrow{Prop} \langle \sigma l \mid F \land (c \lor l) \rangle$ where c is a clause, and $\neg c \subseteq \sigma$, $l \notin \sigma$ and $\neg l \notin \sigma$, expands the assignment with literals that are logical consequences in the current state.
- The theory propagation rule $\langle \sigma | F \rangle \xrightarrow{TProp} \langle \sigma l | F \land (c \lor l)^L \rangle$ uses theory lemmas to lift information to the propositional level allowing new literals to propagate. It can be applied if $\sigma \models_T l, l$ or $\neg l$ appears in $F, l \notin \sigma$ and $\neg l \notin \sigma$, and c is a clause such that $\sigma \models_T \neg c$ and $\models_T c \lor l$.
- The decision rule $\langle \sigma | F \rangle \xrightarrow{Dec} \langle \sigma l^{\delta} | F \rangle$ decides a literal l, where l or $\neg l$ appears in F, and $l \notin \sigma$ and $\neg l \notin \sigma$.
- The theory explanation rule $\langle \sigma \mid F \rangle \xrightarrow{TExp} \langle \sigma \mid F \land c^E \rangle$ is used to lift theory to propositional level based on observed conflicts in the theory solver. It can be applied when each atom of *c* appears in $\langle \sigma \mid F \rangle$, $\sigma \models_T \neg c$, and $\models_T c$.
- the propositional explanation rule ⟨σ | F⟩ (PExp)/(F∧(c₁ ∨ c₂)^E⟩ is the standard resolution rule, which can be applied if c₁ ∨ x ∈ F and c₂ ∨ ¬x ∈ F. However, due to the invariants of the underlying SAT solver, we require in addition that ¬c₁ ⊆ σ and ¬c₂ ⊆ σ.
 the backjump rule ⟨σl^δσ' | F ∧ c^E⟩ (SOL)/(F∧(c')) ∨ (C')
- the backjump rule $\langle \sigma l^{\delta} \sigma' | F \wedge c^{E} \rangle \xrightarrow{bJ} \langle \sigma l' | F \wedge (c' \vee l')^{L} \rangle$ learns clauses that steer the search. It is applicable if $\neg c \subseteq \sigma l^{\delta} \sigma'$, there is a clause $c' \vee l'$ such that (1) $F, c \models_{p} c' \vee l'$ and $\neg c' \subseteq \sigma$; (2) $l' \notin \operatorname{Ats}(\sigma)$ and $\neg l' \notin \operatorname{Ats}(\sigma)$; and (3) l' or $\neg l'$ occurs in $\sigma l^{\delta} \sigma'$ or $F \wedge c$.
- The fail rule $\langle \sigma | F \wedge c \rangle \xrightarrow{Fail} \bot$ corresponds to determining unsatisfiability. It is applicable if $\neg c \subseteq \sigma$, and σ contains no decision literals.
- The reset rule $\langle \sigma \mid F \rangle \xrightarrow{Reset} \langle \emptyset \mid F \rangle$ can be applied at any time.
- the *forget* rule $\langle \sigma | F \wedge c^L \rangle \xrightarrow{Forget} \langle \sigma | F \rangle$ is used for forgetting learned clauses, essentially to keep memory usage in control
- The *undo* rule $\langle \sigma l^{\delta} \sigma' | F \rangle \xrightarrow{Undo} \langle \sigma | F \rangle$ is finally required to implement the backtracking while computing lookahead.

A CDCL(T)-based SMT solver works by applying the above rules with two restrictions. (i) The solver always computes the *unit propagation closure* before deciding a new literal, i.e. the rule *Dec* is never applied if the rule *Prop* is applicable; and (ii) to notice any theory inconsistencies when a propositional assignment is found, if the rule *Dec* cannot be applied (i.e., all atoms are assigned) the solver applies the rule *TProp*. The solver always terminates if both the rules *Reset* and *Forget* are applied with an increasing interval [2].

Since the unit-propagation closure has a central role in computing lookahead, we give here two useful, related definitions in the above notation. Given a solver state $\langle \sigma | \phi \rangle$, the *unit* propagation closure $UP(\sigma, \phi)$ is the set of literals $\sigma' \supseteq \sigma$, where $\langle \sigma' | \phi \rangle$ is the state obtained by applying the rules *Prop* and *TProp* until neither one applies. A solver state $\langle \sigma | \phi \rangle$ is called *unit propagation consistent* or *consistent* if the set $UP(\sigma, \phi)$ is consistent.

The following running example illustrates the use of the rules. The notation $Prop^*$ indicates a sequence of propagations.

Example 1: Consider the conjunction $F = (\neg x \lor (b \le c))^{(1)} \land (\neg x \lor (a \le b))^{(2)} \land (\neg (a \le d) \lor \neg (a \le b) \lor \neg (a \le c))^{(3)} \land ((c \le d) \lor \neg (b \le c) \lor (a \le d))^{(4)} \land ((c \le d) \lor \neg (a \le d) \lor (a \le c))^{(5)}$ where the numbers in parentheses label the clauses. The following is a possible computation of the CDCL(T) system.

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle \emptyset \mid F \rangle \xrightarrow{Dec} \langle x^{\delta} \mid F \rangle \xrightarrow{Prop^{*}} \langle x^{\delta}(b \leq c)(a \leq b) \mid F \rangle \xrightarrow{Dec} \\ \langle x^{\delta}(b \leq c)(a \leq b) \neg (c \leq d)^{\delta} \mid F \rangle \xrightarrow{Prop^{*}} \\ \langle x^{\delta}(b \leq c)(a \leq b) \neg (c \leq d)^{\delta}(a \leq d) \neg (a \leq c) \mid F \rangle \xrightarrow{PExp} \\ \langle x^{\delta}(b \leq c)(a \leq b) \neg (c \leq d)^{\delta}(a \leq d) \neg (a \leq c) \mid F \rangle \xrightarrow{PExp} \\ \langle x^{\delta}(b \leq c)(a \leq b) \neg (c \leq c) \vee (a \leq c) \rangle^{E} \rangle \xrightarrow{BJ} \\ \langle x^{\delta}(b \leq c)(a \leq b) \mid F \land C_{1}^{L} \rangle \end{array}$$

where the learned clause, obtained by resolution, is $C_1^L := (c \le d \lor \neg b \le c \lor \neg a \le b)^L$. Continuing the example, we get

$$\xrightarrow{\text{Prop}} \langle x^{\delta}(b \leq c)(a \leq b)(c \leq d)(a \leq c) \mid F' \rangle$$

where $F' := F \wedge C_1^L \wedge (\neg (a \le b) \vee \neg (b \le c) \vee (a \le c))^L$, the last being a valid clause in the theory, and

$$\begin{array}{l} \xrightarrow{Prop} \langle x^{\delta}(b \leq c)(a \leq b)(c \leq d)(a \leq c) \neg (a \leq d) \mid F' \rangle \\ \xrightarrow{TExp} \langle x^{\delta}(b \leq c)(a \leq b)(c \leq d)(a \leq c) \neg (a \leq d) \mid \\ F' \land (\neg (a \leq c) \lor \neg (c \leq d) \lor (a \leq d))^{E} \rangle \\ \xrightarrow{BJ} \langle \neg x \mid F' \land \neg x^{L} \rangle \end{array}$$

where $\neg x^L$ is obtained through a resolution derivation on clauses in F' and the explanation.

V. LOOKAHEAD-BASED PARTITIONING FOR SMT

This section describes the lookahead-based algorithm for partitioning an SMT instance into 2^d partitions or determining whether the instance is satisfiable.

A. The Lookahead Score

n *

Lookahead in a backtracking search consists in general of repeated trial and backtracking on all available branches at a certain point of the search, and committing to the one that seems most promising. We define the relation between SMT solver states before and after the trial branch, and the lookahead score as the difference between the two. The approach is oblivious to the details on how the lookahead score between two states s and s' is defined. Our implementation supports two scoring functions, one based on the number of free atoms in the instance globally [23], and the other on unassigned atoms in the clauses of the instance [8]. Our examples and experiments in this paper use the former.

Lookahead aims to assign with the rule *Dec* the literal that minimizes the upper bound for the remaining search space. Given a state *s* where neither *Prop* nor *TProp* applies, we define the *lookahead step* on a literal *l* as the sequence of rules starting from *s*, having *Dec* on *l* as the first rule, followed by unit propagation closure computation resulting in the state *s'*, and finally an *Undo* on *l* ending in state *s*. This sequence is not always possible, and we describe in Sec. V how we handle the failed cases. For a consistent state $\langle \sigma | \phi \rangle$, the set $UP(\sigma, \phi)$ is unique. Therefore we can define the lookahead score of a literal *l* based on a difference between $\langle UP(\sigma, \phi) | \phi \rangle$ and $\langle UP(\sigma l, \phi) | \phi \rangle$. We denote the *lookahead score* of literal *l* by *score*(*l*) = $|UP(\sigma \cup \{l\}, \phi) \setminus UP(\sigma, \phi)|$, that is, the number of propagated literals after deciding *l*, and extend the definition to atoms *x* as

$$score(x) = \min(score(x), score(\neg x)),$$
 (1)

which minimizes the sum of the upper bounds for the remaining search spaces [23].²

B. Lookahead-Based Partitioning

Algorithm 1: The lookahead partitioning algorithm.
Input : An SMT instance ϕ in CNF; Tree depth d
Output: Sat, Unsat, or a balanced binary tree of depth d
Data : Solver s, DFS stack stack
1 restart \leftarrow true
2 while restart do
3 <i>restart</i> \leftarrow false ;
4 $r \leftarrow \text{empty node};$
5 $stack.push(r);$
6 while $stack.size \neq 0$ do
7 $n \leftarrow stack.pop();$
8 $res \leftarrow setSolverToNode(s, n);$
9 if $res = Unsat$ then return Unsat;
10 if res = BackJump then
11 $restart \leftarrow true;$
12 break;
13 if Depth of n is d then continue ;
14 $c, c', res \leftarrow expandTree(s);$
15 if $res = Unsat$ then return Unsat;
16 if $res = Sat$ then return Sat;
17 if res = BackJump then
18 restart \leftarrow true;
19 break;
20 $stack.push(c);$
21 $ stack.push(c');$
22 end
23 end
24 return the tree rooted at r ;

The approach is presented in Alg. 1. The algorithm constructs a tree with nodes labelled with literals. The tree is constructed depth-first using the *stack*, with the help of a CDCL(T) SMT solver *s*. The intuition is that the tree is being built by guiding the SMT solver along the rooted paths and lookahead heuristic is used to expand a leaf node. The

²There are other definitions for lookahead score, but they all favor atoms that minimize the remaining search space on both polarities [8].

algorithm limits the search depth to the input value d, and is also a sound but incomplete (if $|Ats\phi| > d$) SMT solver.

Let n^i denote a node n at depth i in the tree. Then each path in the tree from the root n^0 to a leaf n^i corresponds to a partition as follows. We label the nodes n with a literal Lab(n), and n^0 is labelled $Lab(n^0) = \top$. A path $n^0 \dots n^i$ is interpreted as a cube, and $n^0 \dots n^d$ in the tree corresponds to the partition $\phi \wedge Lab(n^0) \wedge \dots \wedge Lab(n^d)$.

The main work, done in the loop between lines 6 - 22, consists of two phases: *setting the solver s to a given node* on Line 8, and *expanding the lookahead tree* on Line 14. We describe both phases, referring to the rules in Sec. III.

1) Expanding the lookahead tree: The lookahead tree is expanded with new nodes c, c' by the function expandTree on Line 14. Using the solver s the function computes the lookahead step for each literal $x, \neg x$ not assigned in σ as described in Sec. V-A. The process may be interrupted by three special conditions:

- The rule *Fail* becomes applicable. In this case the function returns Unsat.
- A total assignment is found: the function returns Sat.
- The rule BJ becomes applicable. In this case:
 - If *BJ* becomes applicable with $l^{\delta} = x$ or $l^{\delta} = \neg x$, the function does a *local restart*: it forgets the computed lookahead scores and restarts the lookahead computation.
 - If *BJ* is applicable with $l^{\delta} = y$ or $l^{\delta} = \neg y$ for some earlier decision literal $y \neq x$, the function does a *complete restart* by returning BackJump.

If *expandTree* determines satisfiability, the algorithm terminates and reports the result immediately. The distinction between local and complete restarts is motivated by efficiency and has deep implications to the algorithm. We discuss this point in Sec. V-B3.

2) Setting the solver to a given node: A lookahead path obtained from the stack is used to set the solver s to the correct state where the lookahead scores of literals can be computed. This is done in Line 8 by the call to the function setSolverToNode that takes as arguments the solver $s = \langle \sigma | F \rangle$, and the current node $n = n^k$. The function initially applies the rule *Reset* on the solver, and computes the unit propagation closure at the root by $\sigma = UP(\emptyset, F)$. Then, for each $n^0 \dots n^k$ the function applies Dec with $l = Lab(n^i)$, and sets $\sigma = UP(\sigma l, F)$. The process may be interrupted in two cases:

- *Fail* becomes applicable. This corresponds to the derivation of unsatisfiability, and the process returns Unsat.
- *BJ* becomes applicable. The node is locally unsatisfiable and our implementation restarts the construction of the lookahead tree to avoid unbalancedness.

Otherwise, setting solver to the node succeeds and the algorithm proceeds with expanding the tree.

To clarify the behavior of the algorithm, we show its execution on the running example (Example 1).

Example 2: Let $\phi = F$ from Ex. 1 and d = 2 for Alg. 1. The algorithm advances to line 14 to compute the lookahead scores of the variables using solver s. No conflicts are detected by s, literal x propagates $\{b \le c, a \le b\}$, and literals $\neg b \le c$ and $\neg a \le b$ propagate $\{\neg x\}$. No other branch results in propagations. Hence the score from Eq. (1) is zero for all atoms.

Say the algorithm expands the tree, that up to now consisted only of the empty root, with nodes labeled $\neg x, x$, and pushes both nodes to the DFS stack. Assume that the algorithm first branches on $\neg x$. None of the free literals propagate, and tree is expanded for example with $\neg a \leq d$ and $a \leq d$. Once these are popped from the stack, the tree would consist so far of branches $(\neg x(a \leq d)), (\neg x \neg (a \leq d))$, and (x).

The algorithm will now pop x on line 7. On line 14, during the execution of the lookahead heuristic, the algorithm will do the lookahead step on $b \le c$. This triggers the conflict-handling sequence shown in Ex. 1 resulting in the solver state $\langle \neg x |$ $F \land ((c \le d) \lor \neg (b \le c) \lor \neg (a \le b))^L \land (\neg (a \le b) \lor \neg (b \le c) \lor (a \le c))^L \rangle$. Backjump is on the earlier decision literal $a \le c$, not on the most recent decision literal $b \le c$ (see the description above for *expandTree*), and therefore *expandTree* will return BackJump, restarting the tree construction.

The algorithm builds now the tree similar to the first time, but when computing lookahead in state $\langle x(b \leq c)(a \leq b)(c \leq d)(a \leq c) \neg (a \leq d) | F' \rangle$ there are no free variables, and the algorithm reports satisfiability.

3) Observations on the backjumps: The backjump during the above execution is critical for the partition quality. It is relatively easy to see that applying recursively a lookahead algorithm on the original problem, as in [10], produces partitions that in a later state of the solver would not be unit-propagation consistent.

First, one could imagine a version of the algorithm that backtracks to the level indicated by the backjump, similar to the underlying SMT solver. This choice would intuitively result in less repeated work as the previously built lookahead tree would be preserved, and therefore conceivably in a more efficient algorithm. However, there are two reasons why the restart is necessary. First, a clause c learned in a backjump at expand Tree on node n^i alters the lookahead scores in an unpredictable way in the solver states closer to the root. The current lookahead tree becomes in general invalid from the heuristic perspective. Without the restart, the clause should be considered in all previous invocations of expandTree at least in the nodes $n^0 \dots n^{i-1}$, and tracking such propagations would be expensive. Second, allowing backjumps in the lookahead tree means that when setting the solver to a new node (Line 8), a learned clause can cause a conflict not present when the node was pushed (lines 20 and 21). In this case it is unclear how the algorithm should proceed to construct the balanced binary tree with consistent partitions.

The distinction between local and complete restarts stems from the above two observations. Complete restarts are too expensive to be performed on every conflict, a relatively common event during the lookahead computation. Instead, they are done only on the long backjumps that are rare in lookahead-based branching. The consequence of having the local restarts is that *setSolverToNode* may result in a conflict. While this introduces a performance overhead, it turns out to be very rare and therefore insignificant in practice.³

We still recompute the lookahead scores in a local restart, since the error caused by omitting this may grow very large, as shown by this example where not recomputing the lookahead after a conflict would mis-calculate a literal's score with a maximum possible error.

Example 3: Consider the following derivation, where a lookahead at $\langle \sigma | G \rangle$ on x^d fails with the learned clause $(c \vee \neg x)^L$:

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle \sigma x^d \mid G \rangle \xrightarrow{PExp} \langle \sigma x^d \mid G \wedge c'^E \rangle \xrightarrow{BJ} \langle \sigma \neg x \mid G \wedge (c \vee \neg x)^L \rangle \\ \xrightarrow{Prop} \langle \sigma \neg x \sigma' \mid G \wedge (c \vee \neg x)^L \rangle. \end{array}$$

Assume now that G has as a subformula $(x \lor v \lor p_1) \land \ldots \land (x \lor v \lor p_n) \land (x \lor \neg v \lor q_1) \land \ldots \land (x \lor \neg v \lor q_n)$, where p_i, q_i and v do not appear in $\operatorname{Ats}(\sigma')$. Then the lookahead score of v at $\langle \sigma \mid G \rangle$ is 0 but in the state $\langle \sigma \neg x \sigma' \mid G \land (c \lor \neg x)^L \rangle$ the score is n. Note that n is upper bounded by $|\operatorname{Ats}\phi|$ which in our scoring is also the highest heuristic value.

4) Correctness and termination: We finish the discussion with proofs on correctness and termination for Alg. 1

Theorem 1: The algorithm either determines the satisfiability of the instance or constructs a balanced binary tree with each rooted path leading to the leaves corresponding to a unit-propagation consistent SMT instance.

Proof. The correctness of the Sat and Unsat results reported by the algorithm follow immediately from the observation that the result is obtained by modifying the solver state with the rules outlined in Sec. IV. Each rooted path of the tree corresponds to a unit propagation consistent instance. This follows from two observations. First, if *setSolverToNode* succeeds on a node *n*, the instance corresponding to the node is unit propagation consistent. Second, if *expandTree* succeeds, similarly by construction the instances corresponding to the nodes *c* and *c'* are consistent. The resulting tree is balanced, since unless the execution terminates in lines 9, 15, or 16, the algorithm performs a DFS with a cutoff at depth *d*.

Theorem 2: The algorithm terminates.

Proof. The procedure *setSolverToNode* terminates since it performs a sequence that is bounded by the depth of the node and consists of rules *Dec* and unit propagation closure computations that both terminate. The procedure *expandTree* terminates in quadratic number of applications of *Dec*, *Undo* and unit propagation closure computations: the computation consists of lookahead steps each bounded by the number of atoms $|Ats(\phi)|$. The local restart at a node *n* can be done at most $|Ats(\phi)|$ times, since each related backjump will assign at least one atom in the truth assignment of the solver state at node *n*.





Fig. 1. Runtime for lookahead partitioning to 16 for QF_LRA and QF_UF. Labeled boxes and crosses refer to specific instances discussed below. Unsatisfiable instances are denoted with boxes (\square), and satisfiable with crosses (\times).

The restarts in tree construction on lines 11 and 18 will not cause non-termination since the solver state is persistent (modulo possible applications of *Reset*) over such restarts. Following [18], the assignments of the solver together with the literals can be seen as a finite ordered sequence that is increased by every backjump and has a maximum element where every atom is assigned with no decision literals.

VI. EXPERIMENTS

We report experiments on our implementation on the nonincremental benchmark divisions QF UF and QF LRA of SMT-LIB.⁴ The two divisions are chosen since they constitute the foundation of most other SMT logics and allow us to directly observe the behaviour of the congruence closure (egraph) and the Simplex algorithms under lookahead. All the experiments were run using the SMT solver OpenSMT [13]. The partitions are constructed with the implementation of Alg. 1, and, when applicable, solved with OpenSMT's default CDCL(T) engine running the VSIDS heuristic [19], a setup similar to most CDCL(T) solvers. The CPU time consumed by the experiments is slightly under 338 CPU days. We used a Linux cluster, equipped with two Intel Xeon E5-2650 v3 @ 2.30GHz CPUs, yielding (2×10) cores per node. Each node has 64GB of DDR4@2133MHz memory. We ran at most ten solvers on each node simultaneously, limiting the memory available for a solver to 4GB. The time out was 7200 s for both the partitioning and solving, except in Fig. 2 where the timeout was 1200 s. We first report on the efficiency of the partitioning implementation, and then show that the partitioning in general works well. Finally we study instances showing a slowdown anomaly. All times are given in seconds and refer to wall-clock times.

1) Lookahead partitioning efficiency: The plots in Fig. 1 illustrate the run times of Alg. 1 on the QF_LRA and QF_UF

⁴The benchmarks are available at https://clc-gitlab.cs.uiowa.edu:2443/ SMT-LIB-benchmarks under commit hash 33961bc4.



Fig. 2. Comparing sequential and Part(2) run times for QF_LRA (*top*) and QF_UF (*bottom*). On the top figure the boxes pointed to by the arrows are from Part(64) and show the approach efficient. The efficiency for QF_LRA is studied separately.

instances when partitioning into 16. The instances are ordered based on the run time. We only report the instances not solved during partitioning. The implementation is efficient in particular for QF_UF, where the maximum stays in the majority of cases within a few seconds. The lookahead on QF_LRA is much more involved, perhaps due to the more expensive theory solving. Our implementation partitions 98% of the benchmarks within two hours, showing that the approach is realistic.

2) Effect of partitioning on instance difficulty: To measure how partitioning affects the instance difficulty, we study instances that OpenSMT can solve between 100 and 1000 seconds sequentially, a range where parallelization is useful but the baseline can still be computed within a reasonable time. This resulted in 13 instances for QF_UF and 144 instances for QF_LRA. The reported times do not include partitioning.

Figure 2 compares Part(2) to sequential solving for QF_LRA (*top*) and QF_UF (*bottom*). We plot the line y = x corresponding to no speed-up, and the dashed line y = 2x corresponding to two-fold slowdown. The dashed horizontal and vertical lines in the top figure show the timeout of 1200 seconds. Crosses (×) and boxes (\Box) indicate satisfiable and unsatisfiable instances, respectively.

Except for three cases, Part(2) provides a consistent speedup in QF_UF. We ran these instances in Part(64) and each became easer to solve than the original instance (as shown by the downwards arrows that point to the corresponding Part(64) measurement). As a conclusion, it seems that lookahead is efficient when combined with the congruence closure algorithm. This is somewhat expected since lookahead is efficient in purely propositional solving, and the congruence closure algorithm is scalable.

It is interesting to compare these results to QF_LRA, where lookahead is efficient in 60% of the instances, but we also observe significant slowdowns, corresponding to up to 6-fold increase in run time. Repeating the experiment of partitioning with Part(64) did not result in a positive result similar to QF_UF (see figures 3 – 4), suggesting that this phenomenon has a different origin.

The partitioning run times for the anomalies are shown with the labels in Fig. 1. Typically their run times are above the average.

3) Slowdown analysis for partitioning: Despite Part resulting in most cases in a consistent speed-up, the significant slowdowns in QF_LRA warrant a separate study, as it poses a threat for lookahead partitioning in SMT. We label with (a) – (i) in Fig. 2 (top) nine instances where the run time more than doubles. We removed the randomness common in heuristic search by solving each partition several times with the **OpenSMT** VSIDS engine while changing the branching heuristic's random seed. We refer to this approach as the simulated parallel solver.

We ran as a pre-processing phase Part(k) for $k = 2, 4, 8, \ldots, 2048$ for the instances (a) – (i) and stored the resulting partitions if the instance was not solved by *Part*. As a result of time outs and one of the instances being solved during partitioning, we could run the full experiment set only for the instances (a), (d), and (f). We concentrate on these three instances since they seem representative for the others as well.

Figure 3 (top) shows run times for the simulated parallel solver on the only satisfiable instance (f). While the slowdown is consistent for Part(2), we observe speedup for $Part(k), k \ge 4$. Figure 3 (*bottom*) shows the simulated parallel median run times on instance (d). The partitions are easy only once a big number, 1024, is reached. We show in addition run time ranges (green bars) and medians (blue starts) for the individual partitions. The instance (i) behaves similarly to this. Figure 4 shows the results for the instance (a), where the minimum, median, and maximum run times consistently increase. We show also the individual Part runs as yellow boxes. Instances (b), (c), (e), (g), and (h) behave similarly to (a). While the lookahead clearly identifies easier partitions, the hardest partitions seem to get more difficult. In particular Figs. 3 (bottom) and 4 show a significant amount of partitions having the median time higher than the sequential median. The slowdown can be argued to result in part directly from these partitions.

The slowdown, affecting not uniformly all instances, seems



Fig. 3. Scalability for a satisfiable instance (*top*) and partition difficulty for an unsatisfiable instance (*bottom*). The horizontal axis refers to number of partitions produced, and the vertical axis to run time in seconds.

to be the result of an intricate interaction between lookahead and the incremental Simplex implementation typically used in SMT solvers [4]. The implementation maintains an internal model for its real valued variables that satisfies all currently asserted inequalities. If a new inequality is not satisfied in the model, this triggers the pivoting sequence of Simplex that is in the worst-case exponential. SMT solvers try to avoid this behavior by branching as much as possible on inequalities that are consistent with the model. Because of lookahead, Simplex is sometimes forced to follow such a sequence, causing the increasing run times for some of the partitions. It is a natural further question how to generalize lookahead to mitigate or avoid these cases.

To conclude, we note that the lookahead partitioning produces in the vast majority of cases very balanced partitions and good speed-up. Nevertheless, the instance run times increase in a significant portion of the benchmarks. In the studied SMT-LIB benchmark divisions, we observed slowdown only for QF_LRA. We believe that it is possible to obtain speedup also for these instances by developing a version of the lookahead heuristic that considers also the configuration of



Fig. 4. Scalability and partition difficulty for an unsatisfiable instance. The horizontal axis refers to number of partitions produced, and the vertical axis to run time in seconds.

the theory solvers run inside the SMT solver.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

We present an algorithm for partitioning SMT with lookahead based on CDCL(T) calculus and show experimentally that the approach is highly promising. We also demonstrate that the classical propositional lookahead is not in general sufficient in SMT, where the theory reasoning engines may unexpectedly interfere with lookahead heuristic's view of the search space. In particular we found that in combination with Simplex as implemented in many SMT solvers, lookahead partitioning sometimes creates instances that are increasingly difficult to solve.

In future we plan to extend the lookahead heuristic to better consider the theories. In parallel, we will also study lookahead partitioning in a more applied setting, including theory combinations and non-convex theories, when new atoms are introduced.

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