LEARNING HEURISTICS FOR AUTOMATED REASONING THROUGH REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

Anonymous authors
Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

We demonstrate how to learn efficient heuristics for automated reasoning algorithms through deep reinforcement learning. We focus on backtracking search algorithms for quantified Boolean logics, which already can solve formulas of impressive size - up to 100s of thousands of variables. The main challenge is to find a representation of these formulas that lends itself to making predictions in a scalable way. For challenging problems, the heuristic learned through our approach reduces execution time by $\geq 90\%$ compared to the existing handwritten heuristics.

1 INTRODUCTION

Automated reasoning and machine learning have both made tremendous progress over the last decades. Automated reasoning algorithms are now able to solve challenging logical problems that once seemed intractable, and today are used in industry for the verification of hardware and software systems. At the core of this progress are logic solvers for Boolean Satisfiability (SAT), Satisfiability Modulo Theories (SMT), and recently also Quantified Boolean Formulas (QBF). These solvers rely on advanced backtracking search algorithms, such as conflict-driven clause learning (CDCL) (Marques-Silva & Sakallah, 1997), to solve formulas with thousands or even millions of variables. Many automated reasoning algorithms are not only able to answer challenging queries, but also to explain their answer by providing detailed mathematical proofs. However, when problems lack a formal semantics automated reasoning algorithms are hard to apply, and they tend to scale poorly for problems involving uncertainty (e.g. in form of probabilities).

Machine learning, on the other hand, recently experienced several breakthroughs in object recognition, machine translation, board games, and language understanding. At the heart of the recent progress in machine learning lie optimization algorithms that train deep and overparameterized models on large amounts of data. The resulting models generalize to unseen inputs and can generally deal well with uncertainty. However, the predictions made by learned models are often hard to explain and hard to restrict to safe behaviors.

The complementary strengths of machine learning and automated reasoning raise the question how the methods of the two fields can be combined. In this paper we study how neural networks can be employed within automated reasoning algorithms. We discuss the unique challenges that arise in applying neural networks to vast logical formulas and how reinforcement learning can be used to learn better heuristics for backtracking search algorithms.

Backtracking search algorithms in automated reasoning are highly nondeterministic: at many points in their execution there are multiple options for how to proceed. These choices have a big impact on performance; in fact we often see that some problems cannot be solved within hours of computation that under different heuristics are solved within milliseconds. The most prominent heuristic choice in CDCL-style search algorithms is the *variable selection heuristic*, which is to select a variable (and which value to assign to that variable). Until today, Variable State Independent Decaying Sum (VSIDS) (Moskewicz et al., 2001b) and its variants are used as the variable selection heuristic in some of the most competitive SAT solvers (Biere, 2010; Soos, 2014; Audemard & Simon, 2014) and QBF solvers (Lonsing & Biere, 2010; Rabe & Seshia, 2016). Even small improvements over VSIDS, such as the recent introduction of learning rate branching (Liang et al., 2016), are highly interesting for the automated reasoning community.

Designing heuristics for backtracking search algorithms is often counter-intuitive: For example, it is well-known that heuristics that aim to find a correct solution perform worse than heuristics that aim to quickly cause a *conflict* (i.e. reach a dead-end in the search tree). This is because running into a conflict allows us to apply *clause learning*, a process that (deductively) derives a new constraint that prevents running into the similar conflicts again. This can cut off an exponential number of branches and can therefore save a lot of computation time in the future. Heuristics for search algorithms are an interesting target for machine learning with immediate impact in verification.

The Problem We want to learn a heuristic for a backtracking search algorithm such that it solves more formulas in less time. We view this as a reinforcement learning problem where we are given a formula from some distribution of formulas, and we run the backtracking search algorithm until it reaches a decision point and then query the neural network to predict an action. We iterate this process until termination (at which point the formula is proven or refuted) or a time limit is reached. The input to the neural network is thus the current state of the algorithm, including the formula, and we reward it for reaching termination quickly.

In this work, we focus on learning heuristics for the solver CADET (Rabe & Seshia, 2016; Rabe et al., 2018). CADET is a competitive solver for QBF formulas with the quantifier prefix $\forall X\ \exists Y$, which covers most of the known applications of QBF. For all purposes of this work, we can assume the algorithm works exactly like a SAT solver. The heuristic we address in this work is the variable selection heuristic.

Challenges The setting comes with several unique challenges:

Size: While typical reinforcement learning settings have a small, fixed-size input (a Go board or an Atari screen), the formulas that we consider have up to 700k variables, which appear both as part of the state and as actions in the reinforcement learning environment. At the same time, the size of the formulas varies dramatically and is hardly correlated with their 'difficulty' - while some of the largest formulas can be solved with little effort, some of the formulas with only 100 variables cannot be solved by any modern QBF solver.

Lenth: The length of the episodes (=run of the algorithm on a given formula) varies a lot and can exceed 100k steps. For many of the formulas in our data sets, we have, in fact, never observed a terminating run.

Performance: Our aim is to solve formulas in less time. While learning how to take clever decisions can lead us to the solution in less steps, the added cost of computing these decisions can outweigh the benefit. Typical inference times of neural networks are in the range of milliseconds, but this is 10x to 100x more than it takes the execution to reach the next decision point.[1] Hence, any deep learning approach has to to pick drastically better decisions in order to overcome this gap, while relying on relatively cheap models.

Contributions We introduce a deep reinforcement learning approach to improve a backtracking search algorithm for logical reasoning. The model builds on Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) (Scarselli et al., 2009) and enables us to take decisions in a scalable manner. We show that the learned heuristics drastically reduce the number of steps the algorithm needs to prove or disprove formulas, and that this translates into $\geq 90\%$ reduction of the overall execution time for challenging problems.

After a primer on Boolean logics in Section 2 we define the problem in Section 3, and describe the network architecture in Section 4. We describe our experiments in Section 5.

2 Boolean Logics and Search Algorithms

We start with describing *propositional* (i.e. quantifier-free) Boolean logic. Propositional Boolean logic allows us to use the constants 0 (false) and 1 (true), variables, and the standard Boolean operators $\wedge$ (*"and"*), $\vee$ (*"or"*), and $\neg$ (*"not"*).

A *literal* of variable v is either the variable itself or its negation $\neg v$. By $\bar{l}$ we denote the logical negation of literal l. We call a disjunction of literals a *clause* and say that a formula is in *conjunctive*

[1] For SAT solvers, this factor one or two orders of magnitude larger than for the QBF solver we focus on, which is one of the reasons we focus on QBF in this work.

normal form (CNF), if it is a conjunction over clauses. For example, $(x \vee y) \wedge (\neg x \vee y)$ is in CNF. It is well known that any Boolean formula can be transformed into CNF. It is less well known that this increases the size only linearly, if we allow the transformation to introduce additional variables (Tseitin transformation (Tseitin, 1968)). Thus, we can assume that all formulas are given in CNF.

2.1 DPLL AND CDCL

The satisfiability problem of propositional Boolean logics (SAT) is to find a satisfying assignment for a given Boolean formula or to determine that there is no such assignment. SAT is the prototypical NP-complete problem and many other problems in NP can be easily reduced to it. The first backtracking search algorithms for SAT are attributed to Davis, Putnam, Logemann, and Loveland (DPLL) (Davis & Putnam, 1960; Davis et al., 1962). Backtracking search algorithms gradually extend a partial assignment until it becomes a satisfying assignment, or until a *conflict* is reached. A conflict is reached when the current partial assignment violates one of the clauses and hence cannot be completed to a satisfying assignment. In case of a conflict, the search has to backtrack and continue in a different part of the search tree.

Conflict-driven clause learning (CDCL) is a significant improvement over DPLL due to Marques-Silva and Sakallah (Marques-Silva & Sakallah, 1997). CDCL combines backtracking search with *clause learning*. While DPLL simply backtracks out of conflicts, CDCL "analyzes" the conflict by performing a couple of *resolution* steps. Resolution is an operation that takes two existing clauses $(l_1 \vee \cdots \vee l_n)$ and $(l'_1 \vee \cdots \vee l'_n)$ that contain a pair of complementary literals $l_1 = \neg l'_1$, and derives the clause $(l_2 \vee \cdots \vee l_n \vee l'_2 \vee \cdots \vee l'_n)$. The conflict analysis adds new clauses over time, but thereby helps to cut off large parts of the search space.

Since the introduction of CDCL in 1997, countless refinements of CDCL have been explored and clever data structures improved its efficiency significantly (Moskewicz et al., 2001a; Eén & Sörensson, 2003; Goldberg & Novikov, 2007). Today, the top-performing SAT solvers, such as Lingeling (Biere, 2010), Crypominisat (Soos, 2014), Glucose (Audemard & Simon, 2014), and MapleSAT (Liang et al., 2016), all rely on CDCL and they solve formulas with millions of variables for industrial applications such as bounded model checking (Biere et al., 2003).

2.2 QUANTIFIED BOOLEAN FORMULAS

QBF extends propositional Boolean logic by *quantifiers*, which are statements of the form "for all x" ($\forall x$) and "there is an x" ($\exists x$). The formula $\forall x.\ \varphi$ is true if, and only if, φ is true if x is replaced by 0 (false) and also if x is replaced by 1 (true). The semantics of $\exists$ arises from $\exists x.\ \varphi = \neg \forall x.\ \neg \varphi$. We say that a QBF is in prenex normal form if all quantifiers are in the beginning of the formula. W.l.o.g., we will only consider QBF that are in prenex normal form and whose propositional part is in CNF. Further, we assume that for every variable in the formula there is exactly one quantifier in the prefix. An example QBF in prenex CNF is $\forall x.\ \exists y.\ (x \vee y) \wedge (\neg x \vee y)$.

We focus on 2QBF, a subset of QBF that admits only one quantifier alternation. W.l.o.g. we can assume that the quantifier prefix of formulas in 2QBF starts with a sequence of universal quantifiers $\forall x_1 \ldots \forall x_n$ followed by a sequence of existential quantifiers $\exists y_1 \ldots \exists y_m$. While 2QBF is less powerful than QBF, we can encode many interesting applications from verification and synthesis, e.g. program synthesis (Solar-Lezama et al., 2006; Alur et al., 2013). The algorithmic problem considered for QBF is to determine the truth of a quantified formula (TQBF). After the success of CDCL for SAT, CDCL-like algorithms have been explored for QBF as well (Giunchiglia et al., 2001; Lonsing & Biere, 2010; Rabe & Seshia, 2016; Rabe et al., 2018). We focus on CADET, a solver that implements a generalized CDCL backtracking search algorithm (Rabe & Seshia, 2016; Rabe et al., 2018). It is one of the state-of-the-art solvers for 2QBF and has the ability to prove its results, which allows us to ensure that the reinforcement learning algorithm does not find any loopholes in the environment.

3 PROBLEM DEFINITION

In this section, we first revisit reinforcement learning and explain how it maps to the setting of logic solvers. In reinforcement learning, we consider an agent that interacts with an environment $\mathcal{E}$ over discrete time steps. The environment is a Markov decision process (MDP) with states $\mathcal{S}$, action space $\mathcal{A}$, and rewards per time step denoted $r_t \in \mathbb{R}$. A *policy* is a mapping $\pi : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}$, such that

$\sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(s, a) = 1 \; \forall s$, defining the probability to take action a in state s. The goal of the agent is to maximize the expected (possibly discounted) reward; formally $J(\pi) = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t | \pi\right]$.

In our setting, the environment $\mathcal{E}$ is the solver CADET (Rabe & Seshia, 2016). The environment is deterministic except for the initial state, where a formula is chosen randomly from a distribution. At each time step, the agent gets an observation, which consists of the QBF formula and the solver state. The agent has to select from a subset of the available variables (only variables that do not have a value yet are valid actions). Formally, the space of actions is the set of all variables in all possible formulas in all solver states, where at every state only a small finite number of them is available. Practically, the agent will never see the effect of even a small part of these actions, and so it must generalize over unseen actions, by learning dense embeddings of actions in $\mathbb{R}^n$. We assume that the set of available actions is part of the observation.

An *episode* is the result of the interaction of the agent with the environment. We consider an episode to be *complete*, if the solver reaches a terminating state in the last step. As there are arbitrarily long episodes, we want to abort them after some step limit and consider these episodes as *incomplete*.

3.1 Baselines

While there are no competing learning approaches yet, human researchers and engineers have tried many heuristics for selecting the next variable. VSIDS is the best known heuristic for the solver we consider (and is still one of the state-of-the-art heuristics in SAT solving). We therefore consider VSIDS as the main baseline. VSIDS maintains an *activity score* per variable and always chooses the variable with the highest activity that is still available. The activity reflects how often a variable recently occurred in conflict analysis. To select a literal of the chosen variable, VSIDS uses the Jeroslow-Wang heuristic (Jeroslow & Wang, 1990), which selects the polarity of the variable that occurs more often, weighted by the size of clauses they occur in. For reference, we also consider the *Random* heuristic, which chooses one of the available actions uniformly at random.

4 The Neural Network Architecture

Our model has to read a formula and the state of the algorithm, and select one of the available variables. The representational challenges to applying deep learning techniques in this setting include that the input can be very large, may have vastly different size depending on the formula, and the action space is infinite (though only a finite subset of the actions is available in any step).

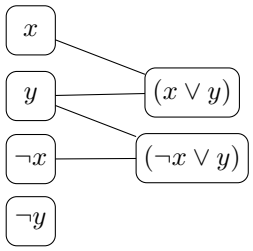

Figure 1: A graph representation for the formula $(x \vee y) \wedge (\neg x \vee y)$.

It may seem reasonable to treat Boolean formulas as text and apply embedding techniques such as word2vec (Mikolov et al., 2013). However, unlike words in natural language, individual variables in Boolean formulas are completely devoid of meaning. The meaning of variable x in one formula is basically independent from variable x in a second formula. This is amplified in our setting as we start from the QDIMACS format, which does not admit naming variables with anything but a number. (See Appendix C for an example file.) Also sequence-based or tree-based LSTMs are hardly applicable: They would have to remember the possibly thousands of variable names and their associated semantics in the current formula in order to understand the interactions between distant occurrences of the same variable. In other words, the semantics of Boolean formulas in CNF arises from their structure, which we can represent as a graph as depicted in Fig. 1. The nodes in this graph are the literals and the clauses of the formula, and each clause has edges to the literals it contains.

We suggest the use of Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) to compute an *embedding* for every literal in the formula. Based on this embedding, we then use a policy network to predict the *quality* of each literal independently. Fig. 2 depicts an overview of our neural network architecture.

In this way, we only need to learn two operators: (1) to compute a clause embedding based on the embeddings of its literals, and (2) to compute the literal embedding based on the clause embeddings in which it occurs. Since the network is completely agnostic of variable names, it is easy to apply it to arbitrarily large formulas and unseen formulas. Through the careful choice of operations in the GNN, we can enforce the invariance of the network under reordering the clauses of the formula

and reordering literals within each clause. We describe the GNN in Subsection 4.1 and the policy network in Subsection 4.2.

4.1 A GNN FOR BOOLEAN FORMULAS

The GNN maps the formula and the algorithm state to an embedding for each literal. For the embedding, we will only consider the part of the solver state that is specific to the variables and clauses. The information that goes into the GNN consists of the formula and the solver state. The formula is represented by the connectivity of the graph and the quantifiers for each variable. The (formula-specific) algorithm state only indicates for each variable whether it currently has a value assigned, whether it was selected previously in the same search branch, and the VSIDS activity score. For each clause, the algorithm state states if the clause was original or derived by the conflict analysis. We can summarize all this information, except for the graph structure, in a label $\mathbf{lit}$ of dimension $\lambda_L = 8$ for each literal and a label $\mathbf{c} \in \{0, 1\}$ of dimension $\lambda_C = 1$ for each clause. See Appendix B for details.

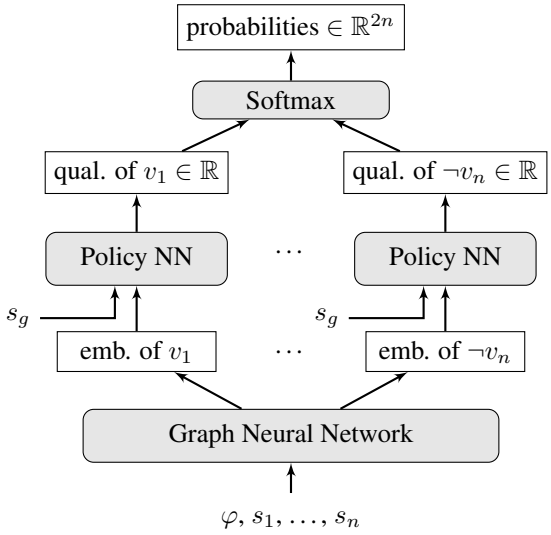

Figure 2: Computation graph for a formula φ with n variables, the global state s_g of the solver, and the variable-specific state $s_1, \ldots, s_n$ of the solver.

Our *hyperparameters* include the embedding dimension $\delta_L \in \mathbb{N}$ for variables, the embedding dimension $\delta_C \in \mathbb{N}$ for clauses, and the number of iterations $\tau \in \mathbb{N}$ of the GNN. Trainable parameters of our model are indicated as bold capital letters. They consist of the matrix $\mathbf{W}_t^L$ of shape $(2\delta_L + \lambda_L, \delta_C)$, the vector $\mathbf{B}_t^L$ vector of dimension δ_C, the matrix $\mathbf{W}_t^C$ of shape $(\delta_C + \lambda_C, \delta_L)$, and the vector $\mathbf{B}_t^C$ of dimension δ_L.

We define the initial literal embedding to be $l_0 = \mathbf{0}$. For each $1 \leq t \leq \tau$, we define the literal embedding $l_t \in \mathbb{R}^{\delta_L}$ for every literal l and the clause embedding $c_t \in \mathbb{R}^{\delta_C}$ for every clause $c \in C$ as follows:

$$c_t = \text{ReLU}\left(\sum_{l \in c} \mathbf{W}_t^L [\mathbf{lit}^\top, l_{t-1}^\top, \bar{l}_{t-1}^\top] + \mathbf{B}_t^L\right), \qquad l_t = \text{ReLU}\left(\sum_{c, l \in c} \mathbf{W}_t^C [\mathbf{c}^\top, c_t^\top] + \mathbf{B}_t^C\right)$$

Sparse Matrices The connectivity matrix of the formula graph can be huge (the largest of our graphs have several million nodes), but is typically very sparse. So in the implementation it is crucial to use sparse matrices to represent the adjacency information of the nodes, which is needed to compute the sums inside the definitions of c_t and l_t.

4.2 POLICY NETWORK

The policy network predicts the quality of each literal based on the literal embedding and the global solver state. The *global solver state* is a collection of $\lambda_G = 30$ values that include the essential solver state as well as statistical information about the execution. We provide the details in Appendix A. The policy network thus maps the literal embedding $[\mathbf{lit}^\top, l_t^\top, \bar{l}_t^\top]$ concatenated with the global solver state to a single numerical value indicating the *quality* of the literal. The policy network thus has $\lambda_L + 2\delta_L + \lambda_G$ inputs, which are followed by two fully-connected layers. The two hidden layers use the ReLU nonlinearity. We turn the predictions of the policy network into action probabilities by a softmax (after masking the illegal actions).

The only information that flows from other variables to the policy network's judgement must go through the graph neural network. Since we experimented with graph neural networks with few iterations this means that *the quality of each literal is decided locally*. The rationale behind this design is that it is simple and computationally efficient.

5 EXPERIMENTS

We conducted several experiments to examine whether we can improve the heuristics of the logic solver CADET through our deep reinforcement learning approach. [2] The specific questions we try to answer are as follows:

- Q1 Can we learn to predict good actions for a family of formulas?
- Q2 How does the policy trained on short episodes generalize to long episodes?
- Q3 Does the learned policy generalize to formulas from a different family of formulas?
- Q4 Does the improvement in the policy outweigh the additional computational effort? That is, can CADET actually solve more formulas in less time with the learned policy?

5.1 DATA

Finding suitable data for our setting is not trivial. Different sets of formulas show very different statistical properties. For example, it is known that while CDCL solvers for SAT perform well on formulas from a broad range of applications, they are drastically outperformed by local search algorithms for randomly generated synthetic formulas (and vice versa). To draw any conclusions about the practical use of our approach, we want to learn heuristics for formulas that are related to applications, in particular form verification, synthesis, and planning. However, we found that many sets of formulas from interesting applications have one of three problems: (1) they contained few formulas that CADET could not solve already; (2) they contained only few formulas that CADET could solve at all in a reasonable time limit; (3) they contained only a handful of formulas in the first place. Each of these problems inhibits the demonstration of effective learning.

We settled for a set of formulas representing the search for reductions between collections of first-order formulas generated by Jordan & Kaiser (2013). This set, which we call *Reductions* in the following, contains formulas on any level of difficulty and is sufficiently large. It consists of 4500 formulas of varying sizes and with varying degrees of hardness. On average the formulas have 316 variables; the largest formulas in the set have over 1600 variables and 12000 clauses. We filtered out 2500 formulas that are solved without any heuristic decisions. In order to enable us to answer question 2 (see above), we further set aside a test set of 200 formulas, leaving us with a training set of 1835 formulas.

We additionally consider the 2QBF evaluation set of the annual competition of QBF solvers, QBFEVAL (Pulina, 2016). This will help us to address question 3.

5.2 REWARDS AND TRAINING

We jointly train the encoder network and the policy network using REINFORCE (Williams, 1992). We sample b formulas from our set and run CADET for up to 200 steps on each formula using the latest policy. Then we assign rewards for each of these episodes and use them to estimate the gradient. We apply standard techniques to improve the training, including gradient clipping, normalization of rewards, and whitening of input data.

We assign a small negative reward of -10^{-4} for each decision to encourage the heuristic to solve each formula in fewer steps. When a formula is solved successfully, we assign reward 1 to the last decision. In this way, we effectively treat unfinished episodes ($>$ 200 steps) as if they take 10000 steps, punishing them strongly.

We encountered that the presence of many formulas that regularly run into the step bound harms the learning. So we track the average decision number of the current policy for each formula and skewed the distribution of formulas towards formulas that are easy but not trivial. This is somewhat comparable to *curriculum learning* and significantly improved the quality of the learned policy.

5.3 RESULTS

We trained the model described in Section 4 on the *Reductions* training set. We denote the resulting policy *Learned* and present the aggregate results in Figure 3 as a *cactus plot*, as usual for logic

[2] We provide the code and data of our experiments at `https://github.com/`<*anonymized*>.

solvers. The cactus plot in Figure 3 indicates how the number of solved formulas grows for increasing decision limits on the *test set* of the *Reductions* formulas. In a cactus plot, we record one episode for each formula and each heuristic and determine the number of decisions. We then sort the runs of each heuristic by the number of decisions taken and plot the series. When comparing heuristics, lower lines (or lines reaching further to the right) are thus better, as they indicate that more formulas were solved in less time.

We see that for a decision limit of 200 (dashed line in Fig. 3), i.e. the decision limit during training, Learned solved significantly more formulas than either of the baselines. The advantage of Learned over VSIDS is about as large as VSIDS over purely random choices. This is remarkable for the field and we can answer Q1 positively.

The upper part of Fig. 3 shows us that Learned performs well far beyond the decision limit of 200 steps that was used during its training. Observing the vertical distance between the lines of Learned and VSIDS, we can see that the advantage of Learned over VSIDS even grows exponentially with an increasing decision limit. (Note that the axis indicating the number of decisions is log-scaled.) We can thus answer Q2 positively.

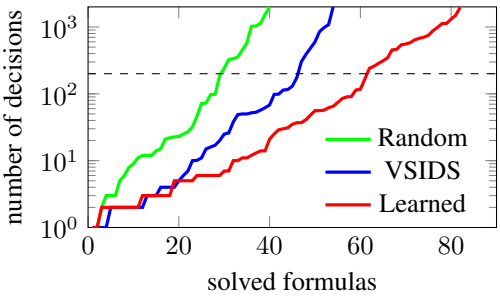

Figure 3: A cactus plot describing how many formulas were solved within growing decision limits. Lower and further to the right is better.

A surprising fact is that small and shallow neural networks already achieved the best results. Our best model uses $\tau = 1$, which means that for judging the quality of each variable, it only looks at the variable itself and the immediate neighbors (i.e. those variables it occurs together with in a constraint). The hyperparameters that resulted in the best model are $\delta_L = 16$, $\delta_C = 64$, and $\tau = 1$, leading to a model with merely 8353 parameters. The small size of our model was also helpful to achieve quick inference times.

To answer Q3, we evaluated the learned heuristic also on our second data set of formulas from the QBF solver competition QBFEVAL. Random solved 67 formulas, VSIDS solved 125 formulas, and Learned solved 101 formulas. So, while the policy trained on *Reductions* significantly improved over random choices, the generalization to this new formula set does not seem to be particularly strong, and it fell short of beating VSIDS.

Since our learning and inference implementation is written in python and not optimized, the performance cost of our approach is enormous compared to the pure C implementation of CADET using VSIDS. Comparing the blue dashed and solid lines in Fig 4, we can see that the original CADET (dashed line) is about 10x to 100x times faster than a version of VSIDS that goes through our python code, but does not even do inference (solid line). The learned heuristic must additionally do inference, slowing down its iterations even further. Despite its huge performance disadvantage, the learned heuristic reduces the overall execution time compared to the pure C implementation using VSIDS. The vertical gap between the curves towards the right end of the plot tells us that the advantage of the Learned heuristic can be as much as 90%. It also significantly improves in terms of the number of solved formulas within the time limit, which is the main performance criterion for logic solvers. Our last question Q4 can be answered positively.

6 Related Work

Most previous approaches that applied neural networks to logical formulas used LSTMs or followed the syntax-tree (Bowman et al., 2014; Irving et al., 2016; Allamanis et al., 2016; Loos et al., 2017; Evans et al., 2018). Instead we follow a graph neural network approach, where different occurrences of a variable are inherently connected, and the relevant information is propagated over multiple applications of a network. Independent from our work, this has been explored in NeuroSAT (Selsam et al., 2018), where it has shown far better scalability compared to previous approaches (up to hundreds of variables), and similarly for the analysis of programs (Allamanis et al., 2017). While NeuroSAT relies solely on GNNs to predict the satisfiability of a given formula, we explore the

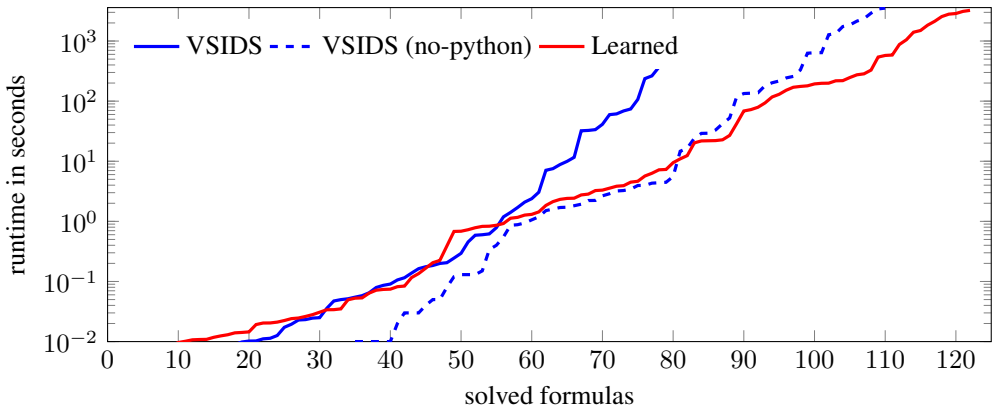

Figure 4: A cactus plot comparing the performance of different heuristics, measured in the wall clock time of CADET on formulas in the *Reductions* set. Lower and further to the right is better.

combination of (graph) neural networks and logic solvers in a reinforcement learning setting. This allows us to leverage and improve the already impressive performance of logic solvers.

Dai et al. used GNNs to learn combinatorial algorithms over graphs (Dai et al., 2017). Compared to our work, the algorithmic problems they considered were much easier. Learning approaches for SAT solvers so far focussed on computationally cheap methods that learn within the run on a single formula (Liang et al., 2016). Our focus is on learning across multiple formulas.

Other competitive QBF algorithms include expansion-based algorithms (Biere, 2004; Pigorsch & Scholl, 2010), CEGAR-based algorithms (Janota & Marques-Silva, 2011; 2015; Rabe & Tentrup, 2015), circuit-based algorithms (Klieber, 2012; Tentrup, 2016; Janota, 2018a;b), and hybrids (Janota et al., 2012; Tentrup, 2017). Recently, Janota suggested the use of (classical) machine learning techniques to address the generalization problem in QBF solvers (Janota, 2018a).

Reinforcement learning has been applied only rarely to logic problems. Kaliszyk et al. (2018) recently explored learning linear policies for tableaux-style theorem proving. Singh et al. (2018) learned heuristics for program analysis of numerical programs. Huang et al. (2018) created a learning environment for the theorem prover Coq.

7 Conclusion

We presented an approach to improve the heuristics of a backtracking search algorithm for Boolean logic. We use deep reinforcement learning to learn a heuristic that outperforms existing heuristic by a large factor, an unusually strong result for this field. The setting is new and challenging to reinforcement learning, featuring an unbounded input-size and action space, a connection between the length of episodes and rewards. Our approach demonstrates that these problems can be overcome, but is still simplistic. We believe that this work motivates more aggressive research efforts in the area and will lead to a significant improvement in the performance of logic solvers.

Our experiments uncover particular challenges to be addressed in the future. The transfer of the learned insights between different sets of formulas is still limited, learning from long episodes seems to be challenging, and—counterintuitively—it does not seem to help to consider multiple iterations of the GNN.

References

Miltiadis Allamanis, Pankajan Chanthirasegaran, Pushmeet Kohli, and Charles Sutton. Learning continuous semantic representations of symbolic expressions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1611.01423*, 2016.

Miltiadis Allamanis, Marc Brockschmidt, and Mahmoud Khademi. Learning to represent programs with graphs. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1711.00740*, 2017.

Rajeev Alur, Rastislav Bodik, Garvit Juniwal, Milo M. K. Martin, Mukund Raghothaman, Sanjit A. Seshia, Rishabh Singh, Armando Solar-Lezama, Emina Torlak, and Abhishek Udupa. Syntax-guided synthesis. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Formal Methods in Computer-Aided Design (FMCAD)*, pp. 1–17, October 2013.

Gilles Audemard and Laurent Simon. Glucose in the SAT 2014 competition. *SAT COMPETITION 2014*, pp. 31, 2014.

Armin Biere. Resolve and expand. In *International conference on theory and applications of satisfiability testing*, pp. 59–70. Springer, 2004.

Armin Biere. Lingeling, plingeling, picosat and precosat at sat race 2010. *FMV Report Series Technical Report*, 10(1), 2010.

Armin Biere, Alessandro Cimatti, Edmund M Clarke, Ofer Strichman, Yunshan Zhu, et al. Bounded model checking. *Advances in computers*, 58(11):117–148, 2003.

Samuel R Bowman, Christopher Potts, and Christopher D Manning. Recursive neural networks can learn logical semantics. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1406.1827*, 2014.

Hanjun Dai, Elias B. Khalil, Yuyu Zhang, Bistra Dilkina, and Le Song. Learning combinatorial optimization algorithms over graphs. *CoRR*, abs/1704.01665, 2017. URL `http://arxiv.org/abs/1704.01665`.

Martin Davis and Hilary Putnam. A computing procedure for quantification theory. *Journal of the ACM (JACM)*, 7(3):201–215, 1960.

Martin Davis, George Logemann, and Donald Loveland. A machine program for theorem-proving. *Communications of the ACM*, 5(7):394–397, 1962.

Niklas Eén and Niklas Sörensson. An extensible SAT-solver. In *International conference on theory and applications of satisfiability testing*, pp. 502–518. Springer, 2003.

Richard Evans, David Saxton, David Amos, Pushmeet Kohli, and Edward Grefenstette. Can neural networks understand logical entailment? *arXiv preprint arXiv:1802.08535*, 2018.

Enrico Giunchiglia, Massimo Narizzano, and Armando Tacchella. QUBE: A system for deciding quantified boolean formulas satisfiability. In *International Joint Conference on Automated Reasoning*, pp. 364–369. Springer, 2001.

Eugene Goldberg and Yakov Novikov. Berkmin: A fast and robust sat-solver. *Discrete Applied Mathematics*, 155(12):1549–1561, 2007.

D. Huang, P. Dhariwal, D. Song, and I. Sutskever. GamePad: A Learning Environment for Theorem Proving. *ArXiv e-prints*, June 2018.

Geoffrey Irving, Christian Szegedy, Alexander A Alemi, Niklas Een, Francois Chollet, and Josef Urban. Deepmath-deep sequence models for premise selection. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pp. 2235–2243, 2016.

Mikoláš Janota. Towards generalization in QBF solving via machine learning. In *AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2018a.

Mikoláš Janota. Circuit-based search space pruning in QBF. In *International Conference on Theory and Applications of Satisfiability Testing*. Springer, 2018b.

Mikoláš Janota and Joao Marques-Silva. Abstraction-based algorithm for 2QBF. In *International Conference on Theory and Applications of Satisfiability Testing*, pp. 230–244. Springer, 2011.

Mikolás Janota and Joao Marques-Silva. Solving QBF by clause selection. In *IJCAI*, pp. 325–331, 2015.

Mikoláš Janota, William Klieber, Joao Marques-Silva, and Edmund Clarke. Solving QBF with counterexample guided refinement. In *International Conference on Theory and Applications of Satisfiability Testing*, pp. 114–128. Springer, 2012.

Robert G Jeroslow and Jinchang Wang. Solving propositional satisfiability problems. *Annals of mathematics and Artificial Intelligence*, 1(1-4):167–187, 1990.

Charles Jordan and Łukasz Kaiser. Experiments with reduction finding. In *International Conference on Theory and Applications of Satisfiability Testing*, pp. 192–207. Springer, 2013.

Cezary Kaliszyk, Josef Urban, Henryk Michalewski, and Mirek Olšák. Reinforcement learning of theorem proving. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1805.07563*, 2018.

William Klieber. Ghostq QBF solver system description, 2012.

Jia Hui Liang, Vijay Ganesh, Pascal Poupart, and Krzysztof Czarnecki. Learning rate based branching heuristic for sat solvers. In *International Conference on Theory and Applications of Satisfiability Testing*, pp. 123–140. Springer, 2016.

Florian Lonsing and Armin Biere. DepQBF: A dependency-aware QBF solver. *JSAT*, 7(2-3):71–76, 2010.

Sarah Loos, Geoffrey Irving, Christian Szegedy, and Cezary Kaliszyk. Deep network guided proof search. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1701.06972*, 2017.

João P Marques-Silva and Karem A Sakallah. GRASP - A new search algorithm for satisfiability. In *Proceedings of CAD*, pp. 220–227. IEEE, 1997.

Tomas Mikolov, Kai Chen, Greg Corrado, and Jeffrey Dean. Efficient estimation of word representations in vector space. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1301.3781*, 2013.

Matthew W Moskewicz, Conor F Madigan, Ying Zhao, Lintao Zhang, and Sharad Malik. Chaff: Engineering an efficient SAT solver. In *Proceedings of the 38th annual Design Automation Conference*, pp. 530–535. ACM, 2001a.

Matthew W. Moskewicz, Conor F. Madigan, Ying Zhao, Lintao Zhang, and Sharad Malik. Chaff: Engineering an efficient SAT solver. In *Proceedings DAC*, pp. 530–535. ACM, 2001b. ISBN 1-58113-297-2. doi: 10.1145/378239.379017.

Florian Pigorsch and Christoph Scholl. An AIG-based QBF-solver using SAT for preprocessing. In *Proceedings of the 47th Design Automation Conference*, pp. 170–175. ACM, 2010.

Luca Pulina. The ninth QBF solvers evaluation-preliminary report. In *QBF@ SAT*, pp. 1–13, 2016.

Markus N Rabe and Sanjit A Seshia. Incremental determinization. In *International Conference on Theory and Applications of Satisfiability Testing*, pp. 375–392. Springer International Publishing, 2016.

Markus N Rabe and Leander Tentrup. CAQE: A certifying QBF solver. In *Formal Methods in Computer-Aided Design (FMCAD), 2015*, pp. 136–143. IEEE, 2015.

Markus N Rabe, Leander Tentrup, Cameron Rasmussen, and Sanjit A Seshia. Understanding and extending incremental determinization for 2QBF. In *International Conference on Computer Aided Verification (accepted)*, 2018.

Franco Scarselli, Marco Gori, Ah Chung Tsoi, Markus Hagenbuchner, and Gabriele Monfardini. The graph neural network model. *Trans. Neur. Netw.*, 20(1):61–80, January 2009. ISSN 1045-9227. doi: 10.1109/TNN.2008.2005605. URL `http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TNN.2008.2005605`.

Daniel Selsam, Matthew Lamm, Benedikt Bunz, Percy Liang, Leonardo de Moura, and David L Dill. Learning a SAT solver from single-bit supervision. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1802.03685*, 2018.

Jörg Siekmann and Graham Wrightson. *Automation of Reasoning: 2: Classical Papers on Computational Logic 1967–1970*. Springer Science & Business Media, 1983.

Gagandeep Singh, Markus Püschel, and Martin Vechev. Fast numerical program analysis with reinforcement learning. In *Computer Aided Verification (CAV)*, 2018.

Armando Solar-Lezama, Liviu Tancau, Rastislav Bodik, Sanjit Seshia, and Vijay Saraswat. Combinatorial sketching for finite programs. *ACM Sigplan Notices*, 41(11):404–415, 2006.

Mate Soos. Cryptominisat v4. *SAT Competition*, pp. 23, 2014.

Leander Tentrup. Non-prenex QBF solving using abstraction. In *International Conference on Theory and Applications of Satisfiability Testing*, pp. 393–401. Springer, 2016.

Leander Tentrup. On expansion and resolution in CEGAR based QBF solving. In *International Conference on Computer Aided Verification*, pp. 475–494. Springer, 2017.

Grigori S Tseitin. On the complexity of derivation in propositional calculus. *Studies in constructive mathematics and mathematical logic, Reprinted in Siekmann & Wrightson (1983)*, 2(115-125): 10–13, 1968.

Ronald J Williams. Simple statistical gradient-following algorithms for connectionist reinforcement learning. *Machine learning*, 8(3-4):229–256, 1992.

A GLOBAL SOLVER STATE

1. Current decision level
2. Maximal activity
3. Number of restarts
4. Restarts since last major restart
5. Conflicts until next restart
6. Number of variables
7. Ratio of universal variables to existential variables
8. Number of active clauses
9. Ratio of variables that already have a Skolem function to total variables
10. Number of decisions processed
11. Number of conflicts processed
12. Ratio of decisions and conflicts
13. Ratio of decisions and restarts
14. Number of successful propagation steps
15. Number of constants that were propagated
16. Ratio of constant propagations to function propagations
17. Number of pure variable assignments ($\approx$ decisions that cannot cause conflicts and are taken automatically)
18. Number of propagation checks (including unsuccessful checks)
19. Ratio of propagation checks that were successful
20. Number of local conflict checks
21. Number of global conflict checks
22. Ratio of local conflict checks that were successful
23. Ratio of global conflict checks that were successful (i.e. led to conflicts)
24. Number of conflicts caused by propagation of constants
25. Ratio of conflicts that were caused by constant propagation
26. Total length of learned clauses
27. Average length of learned clauses
28. Number of literals removed through clause minimization
29. Ratio of literals removed through clause minimization to total length of learned clauses
30. Maximum activity value over all variables

B VARIABLE LABELS

$y_0 \in \{0, 1\}$	indicates whether the variable is universally quantified,
$y_1 \in \{0, 1\}$	indicates whether the variable is existentially quantified,
$y_2 \in \{0, 1\}$	indicates whether the variable has a Skolem function already,
$y_3 \in \{0, 1\}$	indicates whether the variable was assigned constant True,
$y_4 \in \{0, 1\}$	indicates whether the variable was assigned constant False,
$y_5 \in \{0, 1\}$	indicates whether the variable was decided positive,
$y_6 \in \{0, 1\}$	indicates whether the variable was decided negative, and
$y_7 \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$	indicates the activity level of the variable.

C THE QDIMACS FILE FORMAT

QDIMACS is the standard representation of quantified Boolean formulas in prenex CNF. It consists of a header "`p cnf <num_variables> <num_clauses>`" describing the number of variables and the number of clauses in the formula. The lines following the header indicate the quantifiers. Lines starting with '`a`' introduce universally quantified variables and lines starting with '`e`' introduce existentially quantified variables. All lines except the header are terminated with `0`; hence there cannot be a variable named 0. Every line after the quantifiers describes a single clause (i.e. a disjunction over variables and negated variables). Variables are indicated simply by an index; negated variables are indicated by a negative index. Below give the QDIMACS representation of the formula $\forall x.\, \exists y.\, (x \vee y) \wedge (\neg x \vee y)$:

```
p cnf 2 2
a 1 0
e 2 0
1 2 0
-1 2 0
```

There is no way to assign variables strings as names. The reasoning behind this decision is that this format is only meant to be used for the computational backend.

D HYPERPARAMETERS AND TRAINING DETAILS

We trained a model on the reduction problems training set for 10M steps on an AWS server of type C5. We trained with the following hyperparameters, yet we note that training does not seem overly sensitive:

- Literal embedding dimension: $\delta_L = 16$
- Clause embedding dimension: $\delta_C = 64$
- Learning rate: 0.0006 for the first 2m steps, then 0.0001
- Discount factor: $\gamma = 0.99$
- Gradient clipping: 2
- Number of iterations (size of graph convolution): 1
- Minimal number of timesteps per batch: 1200