

Phase Transition and Network Structure in Realistic SAT Problems

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Introduction

Previous research (Gomes and Selman 2005) has shown that 3-SAT problems are easy to solve both when the “constrainedness” (γ , the ratio of the number of clauses to the number of variables) is low and when it is high, abruptly transitioning from easy to hard in a very narrow region of constrainedness. Most of these “phase transition” studies were done on SAT instances that follow uniform random distribution, where variables take part in clauses with uniform probability, and clauses are independent (uncorrelated). These assumptions are not satisfied when we consider SAT instances that result from real problems.

Our project aims for a deeper understanding of the hardness of SAT problems that arise in practice. We study two key questions: (1) *How does the phase transition behavior change with more realistic and natural distributions of SAT problems?* and (2) *Can we gain an understanding of the phase transition in terms of the network structure of these SAT problems?* Our hypothesis is that the network properties help predict and explain how the easy-to-hard problem transition for realistic SAT problems differs from that of uniform random distribution.

Methodology

In aid of the first question, we considered SAT instances generated according to two realistic distributions: (i) **rich-get-richer** and (ii) **neighborhood-sensitive**. In *rich-get-richer* instances, once a variable is chosen to take part in a clause, the probability that it will be picked again is increased. We explored this distribution since in many real world problems such as planning, there are certain “critical variables” that wind up being part of many problem constraints, and clauses tend to be correlated. In *neighborhood sensitive* instances, variables are initially placed into “buckets”. To generate a clause, we start by picking a variable from a bucket b . Each successive variable for this clause is selected from the same bucket b with a probability $1-p$ and any of the buckets with

probability p . This distribution models problems such as circuit verification, that have loosely coupled clusters of variables with more constraints among the variables of the same cluster. Using a SAT solver that we implemented in Python, we investigated the phase transition behavior of the SAT instances from these distributions as γ is varied.

In aid of the second question, we converted SAT problems into *clausal networks* by creating a *node* for every variable in the SAT problem, and creating a *link* between two nodes if the two variables were found in the same clause. Figure 1 shows example clausal networks from rich-get-richer, neighborhood, and uniform random distributions (for 30 nodes, $\gamma=4$). We analyzed these clausal networks through several **social network metrics**.



Figure 1: Clausal Networks for instances from our 3 distributions

Results

Network Properties: We experimented with 500 variable SAT instances. We first computed the eigenvector centrality measure for the nodes, and generated histograms of the node centrality. Figure 2 shows the results for the three distributions. For the uniform random distribution (left plot), we see that most of the centrality values are near the median with only a few slightly more or slightly less. In contrast, the rich-get-richer distribution (middle plot) displays a distinct *long tail*, with a large number of non-influential nodes and a long tail of increasingly influential ones. The neighborhood distribution (plot on the right) straddles the two. In the rich-get-richer distribution, a few key variables are present in a large number of clauses, making them vastly more influential compared to the rest of the variables. Solving these instances should thus be easy once the influential variables are assigned values.



Figure 2: Histograms of the eigenvector centralities of variables in 500-variable SAT instances (with $\gamma = 4.3$) drawn from uniform random (left), rich-get-richer (center) and neighborhood (right).

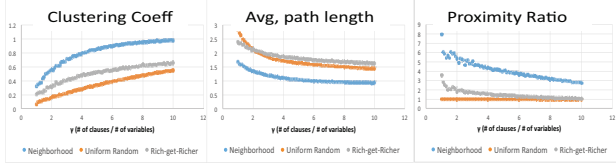


Figure 3: Avg. clustering coefficient, avg. length, and proximity ratio in 50 variable SAT instances with uniform random (orange), rich-get-richer (gray) and neighborhood (blue) distributions

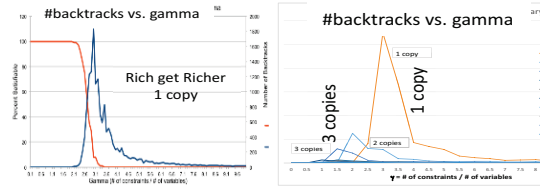


Figure 4: Phase transition behavior for “rich-get-richer.” The left plot shows the transition point shifting left as the number of copies increase.

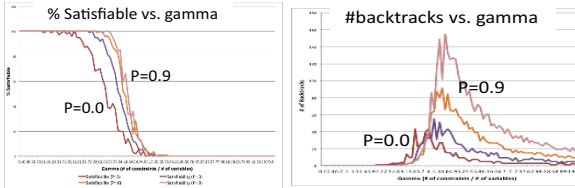


Figure 5: Phase transition point for “neighborhood-sensitive” shifts left as p is varied from 1 (uniform random) to 0.

Figure 3 shows the results for the clustering coefficient, average length and proximity ratio. We see that for any given value of γ , the rich-get-richer and neighborhood distributions produce SAT instances with more clustered clausal networks. The average path length at any γ is significantly lower for the neighborhood distribution. Since variables become more connected within their neighborhoods, path length between nodes inside a neighborhood reduces. The right plot in Figure 3 shows the proximity ratio (Walsh 1999), which compares the ratio of the network’s clustering coefficient and average length to the corresponding ratio of a uniform random network (thus it is always 1 for uniform random). The neighborhood distribution shows a high proximity ratio because it has a higher clustering coefficient and a lower average length. Thus it conforms to the idea of a “small world” network as several loosely connected clusters (Watts and Strogatz 1998). Rich-get-richer distribution also has a higher proximity ratio (especially for low γ values), but not as pronounced as the neighborhood one.

Phase Transition Behavior: We solved random SAT instances from *rich-get-richer* distribution with 150

variables. We found (Figure 4) that the distribution *does* exhibit phase transition, but the transition occurs at around $\gamma=2.8$, which is significantly lower than the phase transition point $\gamma=4.3$ for uniform random distribution. This can be explained in terms of its network properties (Figures 2 and 3). As shown by the long-tailed node centrality in Figure 2 middle plot, clauses in the rich-get-richer distribution are centered on a smaller set of variables. Satisfiability drops earlier because the high concentration of clauses surrounding certain variables raises the chances of unsatisfiability. To test this hypothesis, we increased the probability of rich getting richer (instead of adding one copy of the chosen variable back into the selection pool, we add larger number of copies). As shown by the right plot in Figure 4, this makes the transition occur at even lower γ values. The satisfiable problems are also solved faster--once the few key variables around which the problem is centered are determined, the rest fall into place through unit propagation.

For the *neighborhood* distribution as p is varied from 1 to 0, we note (Figure 5, right plot) that the phase transition occurs earlier, and the median number of backtracks drops significantly. This is because as p goes to zero, the SAT problem gets increasingly localized into several smaller, distinct problems (as confirmed by its high average clustering coefficient, its characteristically small path length, and its high proximity ratio; Figure 3). The rate of satisfiability (Figure 5, left plot) also drops earlier with smaller p values. This is because with several smaller problems, only one local problem has to be unsatisfiable for the entire problem to be unsatisfiable. Furthermore, each smaller problem, with a correspondingly smaller neighborhood of variables to choose from, is more constrained, and thus requires fewer clauses to achieve the same amount of constrainedness.

Conclusion

Our analysis of rich-get-richer and neighborhood distributions showed that they reach the transition point at lower constrainedness values, in comparison to uniform random distribution. We also showed that this shift can be explained in terms of the small-world properties of their clausal networks. In future, we hope to examine the predictive power of these insights on instances from planning and circuit verification problems.

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