Abstract

DPLL and resolution are two popular methods for solving the problem of propositional satisfiability. Rather than algorithms, they are families of algorithms, as their behavior depend on some choices they face during execution: DPLL depends on the choice of the literal to branch on; resolution depends on the choice of the pair of clauses to resolve at each step. The complexity of making the optimal choice is analyzed in this paper. Extending previous results, we prove that choosing the optimal literal to branch on in DPLL is $\Delta^p_2[\log n]$-hard, and becomes $NP^{PP}$-hard if branching is only allowed on a subset of variables. Optimal choice in regular resolution is both $NP$-hard and $coNP$-hard. The problem of determining the size of the optimal proofs is also analyzed: it is $coNP$-hard for DPLL, and $\Delta^p_2[\log n]$-hard if a conjecture we make is true. This problem is $coNP$-hard for regular resolution.

1 Introduction

Several algorithms for solving the problem of propositional satisfiability exist. Among the fastest complete ones are DPLL [12, 13] and resolution [26]. Both of them depend on a specific choice to make during execution. DPLL is a form of backtracking, and therefore depends on how the branching variable is chosen. Resolution runs by iteratively combining (resolving) two clauses to obtain a consequence of them, until contradiction is reached or any other clause that can be generated is subsumed by one already generated. The choice of the variable to branch on and the choice of the clauses to combine (resolve) are crucial to efficiency. Formally, both DPLL and resolution are families of algorithms: each algorithm corresponds to a specific way for making the choices, and can be very different to the other ones of the same family as for its efficiency. Making the right choice is therefore very important for ensuring efficiency. In this paper,
we show that this problem is $\Delta^p_2[\log n]$-hard for DPLL and backtracking, it becomes $\text{NP}^{\text{PP}}$-hard for restricted-branching DPLL (the variant of DPLL in which branching is only allowed on a subset of the variables), and is coNP-hard for regular resolution.

A related problem is that of checking the size of the optimal proofs. Indeed, while satisfiability of propositional formulae can be proved with a very short “certificate” (the satisfying assignment), unsatisfiability (probably) requires exponential proofs, in general. Checking the size of the optimal proofs of an unsatisfiable formula is important for at least two reasons: the unsatisfiability proof may be necessary (for example, it is the input of another program), and its size being too large makes it practically useless; moreover, if the size of optimal proofs can be checked efficiently, we may decide to use incomplete methods to solve the satisfiability problem if the size of the optimal proofs is too large (to be more precise, if we can decide whether the formula is either satisfiable or has a short proof efficiently, then we can check the size of the proof to choose the algorithm.) We prove that the problem of proof size is coNP-hard for DPLL and backtracking ($\Delta^p_2[\log n]$-hard if a conjecture we make is true), $\text{NP}^{\text{PP}}$-hard for restricted-branching DPLL, and coNP-hard for regular resolution.

While the problem of making the right choice is the one that has been more studied in practice [24, 25], it is the proofs size one that has been more investigated from the point of view of computational complexity, perhaps because it is also related to the question of relative efficiency of proof methods. The proof size problem is known to be $\text{NP}$-complete [20, 19, 1]. Membership to $\text{NP}$ only holds if the maximal size of proofs is represented in unary notation, while the results presented in this paper hold for the binary notation. The meaning of the difference between the binary or unary representation is discussed in the Conclusions.

A problem that is related to that of the optimal choice is that of automatizability, which has recently received attention [4, 6, 8]. Roughly speaking, a complete satisfiability algorithm is automatizable if its running time is polynomial in the size of the optimal proofs (and, therefore, it generates an almost-optimal proof.) Some recent results have shown that, in spite of some partially positive and unconditioned results [4, 3], resolution is not automatizable in general [2].

The paper is organized as follows: in Section 2 we give the needed definitions and some preliminary results; in Section 3 we show the complexity of making the optimal choice in DPLL and backtracking; in Section 4 we analyze the restricted-branching version of DPLL; in Section 5 we consider the complexity of making the optimal choice in resolution. Discussion of the results and comparison with related work is given in Section 6.

## 2 Preliminaries

In this paper we analyze solvers for propositional satisfiability. We assume that formulae are in CNF, i.e., they are sets of clauses, each clause being a disjunction of literals. For example, \{x_1 \lor x_2, \neg x_3\} is the set composed by the two clauses
$x_1 \lor x_2$ and $\neg x_3$. We use the following notation: $l \lor F = \{l \lor \gamma \mid \gamma \in F\}$, where $F$ is a formula and $l$ is a literal.

A propositional interpretation is a mapping from the set of variables to the set $\{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$. We denote an interpretation by the set of literals containing $x$ or $\neg x$ depending on whether $x$ is assigned to true or false. This notation is also used to represent partial interpretations: if the set neither contains $x$ nor $\neg x$, then the variable $x$ is unassigned. We denote the set of models (satisfying assignments) of a formula $F$ by $\text{Mod}(F)$. We denote the cardinality of a set $S$ by $|S|$; therefore, $|\text{Mod}(F)|$ is the number of models of $F$.

If $F$ is a formula and $I$ is a partial interpretation, $F|I$ denotes the formula obtained by replacing each variable that is evaluated by $I$ with its value in $F$ and then simplifying the formula. The resulting formula only contains variables that $I$ leaves unassigned.

Proofs of unsatisfiability as built by the DPLL and backtracking algorithms are binary trees whose nodes are variables. We use the recursive definition of binary trees: a tree is either empty, or is a triple composed of a node and two trees. Trees will be represented either graphically or in parenthetic notation. In the parenthetic notation, () denotes the empty tree, and $(x \ T_1 \ T_2)$ denotes the nonempty tree whose label of the root is $x$ and whose left and right subtrees are $T_1$ and $T_2$, respectively. A leaf is a tree composed of a node and two empty subtrees, e.g., $(x ()())$. The size of a tree is the number of nodes it contains. In some points, we write “the empty subtrees of $T$” to indicate any empty tree that is contained in $T$ or in any of its subtrees. By an inductive argument, the number of empty subtrees of a tree is equal to the number of its nodes plus one. The sentence “replace every empty subtree of $T_1$ with $T_2$” has the obvious meaning. The tree that is denoted by $(x \ T_1 \ T_2)$ in parenthetic notation is graphically represented as in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: Graphical representation of the tree $(x \ T_1 \ T_2)$.](image-url)

This graphical representation justifies the use of terms such as “above”, “below”, etc., to refer to the relative position of the nodes in the tree. If $A$ is a tree or a formula, we denote by $\text{Var}(A)$ the set of variables it contains.
2.1 Backtracking and the DPLL Algorithm

The DPLL algorithm is a backtracking algorithm working in the search space of the partial models, enhanced by three rules. The backtracking algorithm can be described as follows: choose a variable among the unassigned ones, and recursively execute the algorithm on the two subproblems that result from setting the value of the variable to false and true. The base case of recursion is when either all literals of a clause are falsified (the formula is unsatisfiable), or when every clause contains at least one true literal (the formula is satisfiable.) The whole formula is satisfiable if and only if either recursive call returns that the sub-formula is satisfiable. Unsatisfiability therefore leads to a tree of recursive calls, in which unsatisfiability is proved in each leaf. This tree is called the search tree of the formula. A formula can have several search trees, each one corresponding to a different way of choosing the variables to branch on.

**Definition 1** A backtracking search tree (BST) of a formula $F$ is:

1. the empty tree () if $F$ contains an empty clause (a contradiction);
2. a non-empty tree $(x T_1 T_2)$ otherwise, where $x \in \text{Var}(F)$, and $T_1$ and $T_2$ are BSTs of $F|\{\neg x\}$ and $F|\{x\}$, respectively.

DPLL [12, 13] enhances the backtracking procedure with three rules: unit propagation consists in setting the value of a variable whenever all other variables of a clause are false; the monotone literal rule sets the value of variables that appear with the same sign in the whole formula; clause subsumption consists in removing clauses that are subsumed by other ones. Clause subsumption is not used in modern implementations of DPLL, and we therefore disregard it. The search trees of DPLL are similar to those of backtracking.

**Definition 2** Let $D(F)$ denotes the formula obtained from $F$ by applying the unit propagation and monotone literal rules. A DPLL search tree (DST) of a formula $F$ is:

1. the empty tree () if $D(F)$ contains an empty clause (a contradiction);
2. a non-empty tree $(x T_1 T_2)$ otherwise, where $x \in \text{Var}(D(F))$, and $T_1$ and $T_2$ are DSTs of $D(F|\{\neg x\})$ and $D(F|\{x\})$, respectively.

An optimal (backtracking or DPLL) search tree for a formula $F$ is a minimal-size search tree of $F$ (the size of a tree is the number of nodes it contains.) A variable is an optimal branching variable for $F$ if it is the root of an optimal search tree of $F$.

In general, the BSTs and the DSTs of a formula are not the same. For example, $(x_1(x_2())(x_2())())$ and $(x_1())$ are a BST and a DST of $\{\neg x_1 \lor x_2, x_1 \lor \neg x_2\}$, respectively, but not vice versa. Nevertheless, a correspondence between BSTs and DSTs can be established: for each formula $F$, we can build a new one $G$ in such a way the DSTs of $G$ can be converted into BSTs of $F$. 

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Lemma 1 ([21, Lemma 1]) Let $F$ be a formula over variables $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$, $F'$ be obtained from $F$ by replacing every positive literal $x_i$ with $x_i \lor y_i$ and every negative literal $\neg x_i$ with $\neg x_i \lor \neg y_i$, and $G$ be defined as follows:

$$G = \{x_i \lor \neg y_i, \neg x_i \lor y_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\} \cup F'$$

Every BST of $F$ is a DST of $G$, and every DST of $G$ can be transformed into a BST of $F$ by replacing each node labeled with $y_i$ with a node labeled with $x_i$ and swapping its two subtrees.

This theorem shows that backtracking can be “simulated” by DPLL: we can reproduce the backtracking behavior (and, therefore, its search trees) using DPLL. This result is used to prove the hardness of some problems about DPLL from the corresponding ones about backtracking. For example, the optimal BST size of a formula $F$ is equal to the size of the optimal DST of the corresponding formula $G$; since the translation from $F$ to $G$ can be done in polynomial time, the problem of finding the optimal DST size for DPLL is at least as hard as the corresponding problem for backtracking.

We denote by $s(F)$ the size of the optimal search tree of the set of clauses $F$ if it is unsatisfiable, and $\infty$ otherwise. Whether we consider the backtracking or the DPLL search trees can be inferred from the context.

2.2 Resolution

Resolution is a proof method based on the following rule: if $\gamma \lor x$ and $\delta \lor \neg x$ are two clauses, then $\gamma \lor \delta$ is a consequence of them. This step of generating a new clause from two ones is called the resolution of the two clauses; the generated clause is called the resolvent. Satisfiability can be established using the fact that this rule is complete [26]: if a set of clauses is unsatisfiable, then the empty clause (the clause with no literals) can be generated by repeating the application of the resolution rule. Efficiency clearly depends on how we choose, at each step, the pair of clauses to resolve.

The clauses generated to prove unsatisfiability can be arranged into a DAG, in which the parent of two clauses is their resolvent. The root of this DAG is the empty clause, and the leaves are the clauses of the original set. If no path from the root to a leaf contains two times the resolution of the same variable, the resolution is called regular. Regular resolution is the process of checking unsatisfiability using a regular resolution proof.

2.3 Complexity of What?

The results in this paper are about the complexity of making choices in the DPLL and resolution procedures. Namely, we consider the problem of making the first choice optimally. For DPLL and backtracking, the problem is defined as follows.

NAME: Optimal branching variable (OBV)
INSTANCE: A formula $F$ and a variable $x$;

QUESTION: Is $x$ the root of an optimal search tree of $F$?

This is a decision problem, that is, its solution is either “yes” or “no”. The related problem of finding an optimal branching variable can be solved by checking optimality for all variables of the formula.

A related problem is that of finding the size of the optimal search trees of a given formula. The formal definition is as follows.

NAME: Optimal tree size (OTS)

INSTANCE: A formula $F$ and an integer $k$ in binary notation;

QUESTION: Does $F$ have a search tree of size bounded by $k$?

The variant of OTS where $k$ is in unary notation has already been investigated and proved NP complete [20, 9, 19] (the assumption that $k$ is in unary is necessary to prove the membership to NP.) Assuming that $k$ is in unary notation means that the complexity of the problem is not measured w.r.t. the size of the formula $F$, but rather w.r.t. the size of the proof we are looking for, which can be exponentially larger. We assume that $k$ is in binary notation instead. The difference between the binary and unary notation is discussed in the Conclusions.

About resolution, the problem we consider is whether the resolution of a pair of clauses is at the leaf level of an optimal regular resolution proof. This is again the problem of making the first choice optimally when using regular resolution. Formally, the decision problem we analyze is the following one.

NAME: Optimal resolution pair (ORP)

INSTANCE: A formula $F$ and two of its clauses $\gamma$ and $\delta$;

QUESTION: Is there an optimal regular resolution proof of $F$ that contains the resolution of the leaves $\gamma$ and $\delta$?

We ask whether two clauses are brother leaves of a regular resolution proof (a DAG), while for DPLL the question is about the root of a tree. This difference is due to the way these procedures build their proofs: DPLL starts from the root, resolution starts from the leaves. In both cases, the problem we consider is that of making the first choice optimally.

The problems we have presented in this section will be characterized in terms of complexity classes. Some of the classes we use are not well known as NP and coNP, so we briefly recall their definition. A machine that works with an oracle for the class $C$ is a model of computation that can solve a problem in $C$ in a unit of time. The class $\Delta^p_2$ is the class of problems that can be solved by a machine that works in polynomial time with an oracle in NP. The class $\Delta^p_2[\log n]$ is similar, but the oracle can only be queried at most a logarithmic number of times. The class PP contains all problems that can be reduced to
that of deciding whether a propositional formula is satisfied by at least half of the possible truth assignment of its variables. The class \(D^p\) contains all problems that can be expressed as \(L_1 \cap L_2\), where \(L_1\) and \(L_2\) are in NP and coNP, respectively.

### 2.4 Combining Sets of Clauses

In this section, we prove some general results about BSTs: first, we show a formula whose optimal BSTs have size within a given range; second, we show how to combine two sets of clauses having some control on the size of the optimal BSTs of the result. The first result is simply an adaptation of a result by Urquhart \[30\] to backtracking.

**Lemma 2** For any given square number \(m\), one can find, in time polynomial in the value of \(m\), a set of clauses \(H_m\) over \(m\) variables whose optimal BSTs have size between \(2^{cm}\) and \(2^m\), where \(c\) is a constant \((0 < c < 1)\).

Since the algorithm that finds \(H_m\) from \(m\) runs in time polynomial in \(m\), the produced output \(H_m\) is necessarily of size polynomial in the value of \(m\).

The first method we use for combining two sets of clauses is the union. If two sets do not share variables, the optimal BSTs of their union are simple to determine.

**Lemma 3** \((21, \text{Lemma 3})\) If \(F\) and \(H\) are two sets of clauses not sharing any variables, and \(F \cup H\) is unsatisfiable, the optimal BSTs of \(F \cup H\) are optimal BSTs of one of the unsatisfiable sets between \(F\) and \(H\).

In other words, if either \(F\) or \(H\) is satisfiable, the optimal BSTs of \(F \cup H\) are the optimal BSTs of the other formula. If both \(F\) and \(H\) are unsatisfiable, the optimal BSTs of \(F \cup H\) are the smallest among the BSTs of \(F\) and \(H\).

The second way for combining two sets of clauses is what we call “addition”. This name has been chosen because the size of the optimal BSTs of the combination is the sum of the size of the optimal BSTs of the components.

**Definition 3** The sum of two sets of clauses \(F\) and \(H\) is:

\[
F +_x H = (F \lor x) \cup (H \lor \lnot x)
\]

where \(x\) is a new variable not contained in any of the two sets. When we do not care about the name of the new variable, we omit it and write \(F + H\).

We remark that, if either \(F\) or \(H\) is satisfiable, their addition is satisfiable.

**Lemma 4** Let \(F\) and \(H\) be two sets of clauses built over two disjoint sets of variables, and let \(x\) be a variable not contained in them. If both \(F\) and \(H\) are unsatisfiable, \(x\) is an optimal backtracking branching literal for \(F +_x H\).
Proof. We prove this lemma by induction over the total number of variables of \( F \) and \( H \). The base case is true: if neither \( F \) nor \( H \) contain any variable, then they can be unsatisfiable only if they both contain the empty clause (the contradiction). Their sum is therefore \( \{ x, \neg x \} \).

For the induction case, if the statement of the theorem holds for \( n \geq 0 \), and \( T \) is an optimal BST of \( F + x H \), then either \( x \) is its root, or it is the root of both its subtrees (because of the induction hypothesis). In the second case, the tree can be reshaped to have \( x \) in the root.

The optimal BSTs of \( F + x H \) having \( x \) in the root have, as subtrees, optimal BSTs of \( F \) and \( H \). As a result, if \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \) are optimal BSTs of \( F \) and \( H \), respectively, then \( (x T_1 T_2) \) is an optimal BST of \( F + x H \). Moreover, the optimal BSTs of \( F + x H \) have size equal to the sum of the size of the optimal search trees of \( F \) and \( H \) plus one. Another simple consequence of this theorem is that, if \( x \) is a variable not in \( F \), then \( x \) is an optimal backtracking branching variable of \( F + x \bot = \{ x \} \cup \neg x \lor F \).

We define the product of two sets of clauses as follows.

**Definition 4** The product of two sets of clauses \( F \) and \( H \) is:

\[
F \cdot H = \{ \gamma \lor \delta \mid \gamma \in F \text{ and } \delta \in H \}
\]

In the following, we will only consider the product of formulae not sharing variables. In this case, \( F \cdot H \) is unsatisfiable if and only if both \( F \) and \( H \) are unsatisfiable.

**Lemma 5** If \( F \) and \( H \) do not share variables and are both unsatisfiable, the tree obtained by replacing every empty subtree of an optimal BST of \( F \) with an optimal BST of \( H \) is an optimal BST of \( F \cdot H \).

Proof. The claim is proved by induction on the total number of variables of \( F \) and \( H \). The base case is when the total number of variables of \( F \) and \( H \) is zero. Since both these formulae are unsatisfiable, they are both composed of the empty clause. Their product is composed by the empty clause only as well, and (\( ) \) is its only BST.

Let us now assume that \( F \) is built over \( n \) variables while \( H \) is built over \( m \) variables. We prove the claim assuming that it holds for any pair of formulae whose total number of variables is \( n + m - 1 \).

Let \( (x T_1' T_2') \) be an optimal BST of \( F \cdot H \). We first consider the case in which \( x \) is a variable of \( F \) and then the case in which it is a variable of \( H \). In both cases, we show that this tree can be modified, without changing its size, in such a way it satisfies the statement of the theorem.

If \( x \) is a variable of \( F \), the two subtrees \( T_1' \) and \( T_2' \) are optimal BSTs of \( (F \setminus \{ \neg x \}) \cdot H \) and of \( (F \setminus \{ x \}) \cdot H \), respectively, because \( x \) is not a variable of \( H \). As a result, they have the same size of any other pair of optimal BSTs of these two formulae. In particular, since these two formulae have \( n + m - 1 \) variables, they have two BSTs \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \) that are as specified in the statement of the
Theorem, i.e., $T_1$ is a tree of $F \{x\}$ where all empty subtrees are replaced with optimal BSTs of $H$, and the same for $T_2$. The tree $(x \ T_1 \ T_2)$ is therefore a tree that satisfies the condition in the statement of the theorem. Note that, if the variables of $F$ and $H$ are not disjoint, what results by this construction is an optimal BST of $F$ whose empty subtrees are replaced by optimal BSTs of $H \{\neg x\}$ and of $H \{x\}$, instead of optimal BSTs of $H$.

Let us now assume that $x$ is a variable of $H$. By definition of BSTs, $T_1'$ and $T_2'$ are optimal BSTs of $(F \cdot H) \{\neg x\}$ and of $(F \cdot H) \{x\}$, respectively, which are the same as $F \cdot (H \{\neg x\})$ and $F \cdot (H \{x\})$, respectively. Since these two formulae contain $n + m - 1$ variables, they have two BSTs $T_1$ and $T_2$ that are as specified in the statement of the theorem. Since $T_1$ and $T_2$ have the same size of $T_1'$ and $T_2'$, respectively, the tree $T = (x \ T_1 \ T_2)$ is an optimal BST of $F \cdot H$. This tree is as in Figure 2.

The optimal BSTs of $H \{\neg x\}$ need not to be the same. However, they have all the same size. As a result, they can all be replaced by the same one $T''_H$. For the same reason, the optimal BSTs of $H \{x\}$ can all be replaced by the same one $T''_H$. Since $x$ is not a variable of $F$, the trees $T_1$ and $T_2$ are both search trees of $F$, and can therefore be replaced by $T_1$. The resulting tree can be rearranged by adding a number of copies of $x$ below $T_1$, as shown in Figure 3.

This tree is exactly as specified by the statement of the theorem, and has been obtained from an optimal BST with transformations that do not modify the size. \[\square\]
Figure 3: The rearrangement of the search tree of $F \cdot H$.

A consequence of this lemma is that the size of the backtracking optimal search trees of $F \cdot H$ is equal to the product of the size of the optimal search trees of $F$ and $H$, plus their sum.

The following corollary summarizes the results obtained so far.

**Corollary 1** There exists a constant $c$, where $0 < c < 1$, such that for every positive integer $m$, there exists a set of clauses $H_m$ such that

$$s(H_m) \in \{2^{cm}, 2^{cm} + 1, \ldots, 2^m\}$$

If $F$ and $H$ are two sets of clauses not sharing variables, then:

$$s(F \cup H) = \min(s(F), s(H))$$

If $F$ and $H$ do not share variables and are both unsatisfiable, then:

$$s(F +_x H) = s(F) + s(H) + 1$$
$$s(F \cdot H) = s(F)s(H) + s(F) + s(H)$$

### 3 DPLL and Backtracking

In this section, we first show that the results about how to combine formulae allow improving the current results on the complexity of choosing the branching literal in DPLL (NP-hardness and coNP-hardness [21].) We then turn to the problem of search tree size.

**Theorem 1** The OBV problem for backtracking is $\Delta^p_2[\log n]$-hard.
Proof. The reduction is from the problem \textsc{parity(sat)}: given a sequence of formulae \(\{F_1, \ldots, F_r\}\), decide whether the first unsatisfiable formula of the sequence is of odd index; this problem is \(\Delta^p_2[\log n]\)-hard. We make the following simplifying assumptions, which do not affect the complexity of this problem:

1. \(r\) is even;
2. each formula is built over its own alphabet of \(n\) variables;
3. both \(F_{r-1}\) and \(F_r\) are unsatisfiable.

We translate the sequence \(\{F_1, \ldots, F_r\}\) into the set of clauses \(F\) below.

\[
G = \perp + x \\
\text{such that } (F_1 \cup (H_m + H_m + \\
(F_3 \cup (H_m + H_m + \\
:\ldots \\
(F_{r-3} \cup (H_m + H_m + \\
(F_{r-1}) \cdots \))
\]

\[
D = H_m + \\
(F_2 \cup (H_m + H_m + \\
(F_4 \cup (H_m + H_m + \\
:\ldots \\
(F_{r-2} \cup (H_m + H_m + \\
(F_r) \cdots ))
\]

In this definition, \(m = 2n/c\), where \(c\) is the constant of Lemma. We neglect the fact that \(m\) should be a square number, and assume that each \(H_m\) is built over a private set of variables. Formula \(F\) can be built in time polynomial in the size of the original instance of \textsc{parity(sat)}, as unions and sums only increase size of a constant amount.

Since \(F\) is the union of two sets of clauses \(G\) and \(D\) not sharing variables, its optimal BSTs are the minimal ones among those of \(G\) and those of \(D\). By Lemma, \(x\) is an optimal branching variable of \(G\). It is therefore an optimal variable of \(F\) if and only if \(s(G) \leq s(D)\). What is left to prove is that \(s(G)\) is less than or equal to \(s(D)\) if and only if the first unsatisfiable formula of the sequence has odd index.

Let \(i\) be the index of the first unsatisfiable formula of the subsequence of \(\{F_1, \ldots, F_r\}\) composed only of the formulae of odd index, and \(j\) the same for the even indexes. The values of \(s(G)\) and \(s(D)\) are:

\[
s(G) = 1 + \frac{i-1}{2}(2s(H_m) + 2) + s(F_i) \\
s(D) = s(H_m) + 1 + \frac{j-2}{2}(2s(H_m) + 2) + s(F_j)
\]
These equations can be proved by observing that \( D \) can be rewritten as \( H_m + (F_2 \cup (H_m + D')) \), where \( D' \) is the formula corresponding to the sequence \( \{F_3, \ldots, F_r\} \). A similar recursive definition can be given for \( G' \), where \( G = \bot + x G', \) i.e., \( G' = F_1 \cup (H_m + H_m + G'') \) and \( G'' \) is the formula corresponding to \( \{F_3, \ldots, F_r\} \). The equations above can be verified against the recursive definitions of \( D \) and \( G \).

Let us now assume that \( i < j \). We have that \( i \leq j - 1 \), therefore:

\[
s(G) \leq 1 + \frac{j - 2}{2}(2s(H_m) + 2) + s(F_i) = s(D) - s(F_j) + s(F_i) - s(H_m) < s(D)
\]

The last step can be done because we have set \( m \) in such a way \( s(H_m) > s(F_i) \) for any formula \( s(F_i) \) of the sequence. If \( j < i \) we have \( j \leq i - 1 \); therefore:

\[
s(D) \leq s(H_m) + 1 + \frac{i - 3}{2}(2s(H_m) + 2) + s(F_j) = s(G) - s(F_i) - s(H_m) - 2 + s(F_j) < s(G)
\]

Since \( x \) is optimal if and only if \( s(G) \leq s(D) \), the claim is proved.

By Lemma 1, for any formula \( F \) we can determine (in polynomial time) a formula \( G \) such that the BSTs of \( F \) corresponds to the DSTs of \( G \). Replacing the formula \( F \) with the corresponding formula \( G \) in the proof above, we obtain a proof of \( \Delta^p_2[\log n] \)-hardness of OBV for DPLL.

**Corollary 2** The problem OBV is \( \Delta^p_2[\log n] \)-hard for DPLL.

Let us now consider the OTS problem. This is the problem of deciding whether a formula has a DPLL proof of size bounded by a number \( k \). This problem has been proved in NP by Buss by showing a nondeterministic Turing machine that works in pseudo-polynomial time. The problem is therefore in NP only assuming that the size \( k \) of the required proof is expressed in unary notation. In fact, we prove that the problem is harder, but we need formulae whose optimal tree size is exponential. This is why the following coNP-hardness result does not contrast with the proof of membership to NP.

**Theorem 2** The problem OTS is coNP-hard for DPLL and backtracking.

**Proof.** We prove that, given a formula \( G \), its unsatisfiability is equivalent to the existence of a BST, of size bounded by \( k \), for a formula \( F \), where \( F \) and \( k \) can be computed from \( G \) in polynomial time.

Namely, \( F = G \cup H_m \), where \( m = (n + 1)/c \), and \( k = 2^n \), where \( n \) is the number of variables of \( G \). If \( G \) is satisfiable, then the optimal BSTs of \( F \) are
those of \( H_m \) and therefore \( s(F) = s(H_m) \geq 2^{m} = 2^n+1 \), which is greater than \( k \). If \( G \) is unsatisfiable, it has BSTs of size bounded by \( 2^m \). These trees are smaller than those of \( H_m \). As a result, the optimal trees of \( F \) are the optimal trees of \( G \), whose size is bounded by \( k \).

This result also holds for DPLL thanks to Lemma 1.

The problem being both coNP-hard and NP-hard \([19]\) suggests it may be \( \text{D}^\text{p} \)-hard. In this paper, we show a proof of \( \text{D}^\text{p} \)-hardness that however relies on the existence of formulae whose optimal BST size is known exactly and is an exponential in the size of the formula.

**Conjecture 1 (Exponential Exact Formulae)** There exists a polynomial-time algorithm that takes an integer \( m \) in unary notation and gives a formula \( L_m \) whose optimal BSTs have size equal to \( 2^m \).

The validity of this conjecture would allow building, in polynomial time, a formula whose optimal BST size is \( k \) even if \( k \) is not a power of two. This formula \( F \) can be built by incrementally as follows:

1. start with \( F = \bot \);
2. if \( s(F) = k \), output \( F \) and stop;
3. set \( F \) to \( F + L_m \), where \( m \) is the maximal value such that \( s(F) + 2^m + 1 \leq k \);
4. go to Point 2.

In a logarithmic number of steps, we end up with a formula whose optimal BSTs are of size \( k \).

**Theorem 3** If the Exponential Exact Formulae Conjecture is true, then the problem OTS is \( \text{D}^\text{p} \)-hard for DPLL and backtracking.

**Proof.** This theorem is proved by combining the formulae used in the proofs of NP-hardness and coNP-hardness in a single one. Iwama \([19]\) proved that the problem of checking whether an unsatisfiable formula has a tree-like resolution proof of bounded size is NP-hard. Since tree-like optimal resolution proofs are also optimal backtracking proofs and vice versa, this is also a proof of NP-hardness for backtracking. A minor technical difference is that the size of the proof is defined to be the total number of literals in Iwama’s proof; however, his result still holds if the size of the proof is defined to be the number of nodes.

Since the problem is NP-hard, there exist two polynomial-time functions \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) such that a formula \( F \) is satisfiable if and only if the unsatisfiable formula \( \alpha(F) \) has search trees of size bounded by the integer \( \beta(F) \).

We use the problem sat/unsat: given two formulae, decide whether the first is satisfiable but the second is not. Two formulae \( F \) and \( E \) are in sat/unsat if and only if the formula \( D \) has search trees of size bounded by the number \( k \).

\[
D = ((\alpha(F) \cdot L_r) + E) \cup L_m
\]

\[
k = \beta(F) \cdot 2^r + \beta(F) + 2^r + 1 + 2^n
\]
The numbers \(r\) and \(m\) are defined as \(r = n + 1\) and \(m = 2\log k\), where \(n\) is the number of variables of \(E\).

Let us first assume that \(E\) is satisfiable. Since \((\alpha(F) \cdot L_r) + E\) is satisfiable in this case, the optimal search trees of \(D\) are exactly those of \(L_m\). Therefore, \(s(D) = s(L_m) = 2^n > k\).

Let us now assume that \(E\) is unsatisfiable. Since \(E\) contains \(n\) variables, we have \(s(E) \leq 2^n - 1 \leq k\). If \(F\) is satisfiable, we have \(s(\alpha(F)) \leq \beta(F)\). As a result, \(s((\alpha(F) \cdot L_r) + E) \leq \beta(F) \cdot 2^r + \beta(F) + 2^r + 1 + 2^n - 1 < k\), which implies \(s(D) < k\).

If \(E\) is unsatisfiable and \(F\) is unsatisfiable as well, we have \(s(\alpha(F)) > \beta(F)\). As a result, \(s(\alpha(F)) \geq \beta(F) + 1\), which implies \(s(\alpha(F) \cdot L_r) \geq (\beta(F) + 1) \cdot 2^r + (\beta(F) + 1) + 2^r = \beta(F) \cdot 2^r + 2^r + \beta(F) + 1 + 2^r > k\).

We have therefore proved that \(E\) is unsatisfiable and \(F\) is satisfiable if and only if \(s(D) \leq k\). This proves that the OTS problem is \(D^P\)-hard. By Lemma 4, the same complexity result holds for DPLL.\(\square\)

This hardness result can be used as an intermediate step for the proof of a more precise complexity characterization of the OTS problem.

**Theorem 4** If the Exponential Exact Formulae Assumption is true, the problem OTS is \(\Delta^P_2[\log n]\)-hard for DPLL and backtracking.

**Proof.** As a consequence of the last theorem, there exists a pair of polynomial-time functions \(\alpha\) and \(\beta\) such that \(F\) is satisfiable and \(G\) is unsatisfiable if and only if \(s(\alpha(F, G)) \leq \beta(F, G)\). We use these two functions for showing that \(\text{PARITY}(	ext{SAT})\) can be reduced to the problem of search tree size for backtracking.

Given a set of formulae \(\{F_1, \ldots, F_r\}\), each built over its private set of variables, the question of whether the first unsatisfiable formula has odd index has positive answer if either \(F_1\) is unsatisfiable, or \(F_1 \land F_3\) is satisfiable and \(F_3\) is unsatisfiable, or \(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_3\) is satisfiable and \(F_5\) is unsatisfiable, etc. This question can be expressed as an OTS problem as follows.

\[
D = (\alpha(\text{true}, F_1) + G_1) \cup (\alpha(F_1 \land F_2, F_3) + G_3) \cup (\alpha(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_4, F_5) + G_5) \cup \cdots
\]

\[
k = \max(\{\beta(\text{true}, F_1), \beta(F_1 \land F_2, F_3), \beta(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_4, F_5), \ldots\}) + 1
\]

where \(G_i\) is the formula obtained by adding a number of formulae \(L_m\) in such a way \(s(G_i) = k - 1 - \beta(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_{i-1}, F_i)\).

Let us first assume that the index \(i\) of the first unsatisfiable formula of the sequence \(F_1, \ldots, F_r\) is odd. We have:

\[
s(\alpha(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_{i-1}, F_i)) \leq \beta(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_{i-1}, F_i)
\]

Since \(s(G_i) = k - 1 - \beta(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_{i-1}, F_i)\), then \(s(\alpha(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_{i-1}, F_i) + G_i) = s(\alpha(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_{i-1}, F_i)) + s(G_i) + 1 \leq k\). Since \(D\) is a union that contains a term whose proof size is less than or equal to \(k\), the proof size of \(D\) (being the minimal among its terms) is less than or equal to \(k\).
Let us now instead assume that the first unsatisfiable formula of the sequence is of even index. In this case, for every odd index \(i\), either \(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_{i-1}\) is unsatisfiable, or \(F_i\) is satisfiable. As a result, we have:

\[
s(\alpha(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_{i-1}, F_i)) > \beta(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_{i-1}, F_i)
\]

As a result, \(s(\alpha(F_1 \land \cdots \land F_{i-1}, F_i) + G_i) > k\) for every odd index \(i\). Since all parts of \(D\) have optimal search tree size greater than \(k\), the proofs of \(D\) all have size greater than \(k\). As an immediate consequence of Lemma 11 the same complexity result holds for DPLL.

4 Restricted-Branching DPLL

Satisfiability provers are often used for solving real-world problems that can be reduced to the problem of satisfiability. Formulae produced this way often contain variables whose value can be uniquely determined from the values of the other ones. If branching is not allowed on these variables, DPLL not only remains a complete satisfiability algorithm, but is even made more efficient in most cases [16, 10, 17, 15, 27] (but not always [11].)

Backtracking is incomplete if we cannot branch over all variables. However, the algorithm obtained by adding unit propagation to backtracking (or, equivalently, deleting the monotone literal rule from DPLL) is complete as DPLL is. We call DPLL-Mono this algorithm. The search trees it generates are called DPLL-Mono search trees, and abbreviated DMST. The following theorem relates the search trees of DPLL and of DPLL-Mono.

**Lemma 6** Let \(F\) be a formula over variables \(\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}\), and let \(G\) be defined as follows:

\[
G = \{x_i \lor \neg y_i, \neg x_i \lor y_i\} \cup F
\]

Any DST of \(G\) can be transformed into a DMST of \(F\) by replacing each \(y_i\) with \(x_i\).

**Proof.** The monotone literal rule cannot be used on \(G\) because all variables occur both positive and negative. We have to prove that the same happens for any partial assignment. Given an assignment, the value of \(x_i\) can be inferred by the monotone literal rule only if one clause between \(x_i \lor \neg y_i\) and \(\neg x_i \lor y_i\) is satisfied. This can only happen when either \(x_i\) or \(y_i\) are set to a value; if this is the case, unit propagation assigns a value to the other one. As a result, the monotone literal rule cannot be applied on \(G\), making its DSTs exactly the same as its DMSTs, which are in turn equivalent to the DMSTs of \(F\).

The next result we prove is that a formula can be modified in such a way we can obtain an optimal search tree by branching first on a subset of its variables of our choice.
Definition 5 Let $F = \{\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_m\}$ be a formula over a set of variables $X \cup Y \cup Z$, such that the value of $Z$ can be obtained from any truth evaluation of $X \cup Y$ by applying unit propagation in $F$. Let $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$. We define $c_X(F)$ as follows:

$$
c_X(F) = \{\gamma_i \lor \neg a \lor \neg b \mid \gamma_i \in F\} \cup \{\neg x_i \lor v_i \mid x_i \in X\} \cup \{x_i \lor v_i \mid x_i \in X\} \cup \{\neg v_1 \lor \cdots \lor \neg v_n \lor a\} \cup \{\neg v_1 \lor \cdots \lor \neg v_n \lor b\}
$$

where $a$, $b$, and $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ are new variables not appearing in $F$.

Once the values of $X \cup Y$ are determined, $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ are set to true by unit propagation because of $x_i \lor v_i$ and $\neg x_i \lor v_i$: the variables of $a$ and $b$ are set to true by unit propagation because of $\neg v_1 \lor \cdots \lor \neg v_n \lor a$ and $\neg v_1 \lor \cdots \lor \neg v_n \lor b$. Simplifying $c_X(F)$ with these values we obtain $F$. At this point, unit propagation sets the values of $Z$ by assumption. We can therefore conclude that $F$ is satisfiable if and only if $c_X(F)$ is. Moreover, if $F$ is unsatisfiable, then restricting branching on $X \cup Y$ still allows DPLL-Mono to prove that $c_X(F)$ is unsatisfiable.

What is interesting about $c_X(F)$ is that some optimal DMSTs of it are obtained by branching on the variables $X$ before those of $Y$.

Theorem 5 Let $F$ be an unsatisfiable formula over variables $X \cup Y \cup Z$, such that the value of $Z$ can be obtained from that of $X \cup Y$ by unit propagation. Restricting branching on the variables in $X \cup Y$, there exists an optimal DMST of $c_X(F)$ made of a complete tree over $X$ in which trees over $Y$ replace the empty subtrees.

Proof. By induction on the number of variables of $X \cup Y$. If $F$ contains no variable, the empty tree is an optimal DMST of it, and the empty tree satisfies the condition of the theorem. If $F$ contains one variable, either it is a variable of $X$ or it is a variable of $Y$. The second case is easy to deal with, as $c_X(F) = \{y_1 \lor \neg a \lor \neg b, \neg y_1 \lor \neg a \lor \neg b, a, b\}$, and the empty tree is again an optimal DMST of this formula. If the only variable $F$ contains is $x_1 \in X$, then $c_X(F) = \{x_1 \lor \neg a \lor \neg b, \neg x_1 \lor \neg a \lor \neg b, \neg x_1 \lor v_1, x_1 \lor v_1, \neg v_1 \lor a, \neg v_1 \lor b\}$. This formula cannot be proved unsatisfiable just by applying unit propagation. Since branching is allowed only on $x_1$, the tree $(x_1 () ()$ is the only DMST of it. This tree satisfies the conditions of the theorem.

Let us now prove the induction case. If the root of an optimal DMST of $c_X(F)$ is $x_i$, then its left and right subtrees are DMSTs of $c_X(F)\{-x_i\}$ and of $c_X(F)\{x_i\}$, which are the same formulae as $c_X(F)\{-x_i\}$ and $c_X(F)\{x_i\}$, respectively. By the induction hypotheses, these subtrees obey the statement of the theorem, and the claim is proved.

Let us now consider the case in which the root of an optimal DMST of $c_X(F)$ is a variable $y_i$. If $c_X(F)$ does not contain any variable $x_i$, the statement of the theorem is true, as $c_X(F)$ is equal to $F$ after the propagation of $a$ and $b$. If there
are some variables \( x_i \), setting the value of \( y_i \) does not have any consequence on the other variables. We can therefore use the induction hypothesis: both subtrees satisfy the condition of the theorem, as 
\[
c_X(F)|\{\neg y_i\} = c_X(F)|\{-y_i\}
\]
and 
\[
c_X(F)|\{y_i\} = c_X(F)|\{y_i\}.
\]

![Diagram of DMST](Image)

**Figure 4:** An optimal DMST of \( F \cdot H \).

The tree \( T \) is therefore as represented in Figure 4. This tree can be modified, without changing neither its size nor the property of being a search tree, as follows: replace \( T_2 \) with \( T_1 \). This is possible because both trees are complete, so they have exactly the same set of assignments at the leaves. Therefore, by suitably changing the position of the trees on \( Y \) (i.e., \( T_1^1, T_2^2, \ldots, T_m^m \)) we obtain another search tree, which has exactly the same size of the original one.

Another step of the transformation is to replace \( (y_i, T_1, T_1) \) with the tree obtained by replacing each empty subtree with \( (y_i, ()()) \) in \( T_1 \). This tree has exactly the same size of the original one, and the same assignments in the leaves. As a result, by adding the subtrees \( T_1^i \) and \( T_2^i \) we still obtain a search tree, which is shown in Figure 5.

![Diagram of modified tree](Image)

**Figure 5:** The result of the transformation.
This tree satisfies the condition of the theorem.

From the shape of the optimal DMST of \( c_X(F) \), we can infer their size.

**Corollary 3** Let \( F \) be a formula over \( X \cup Y \cup Z \), where \( |X| = n \). Assuming branching is allowed only on \( X \cup Y \), we have:

\[
s(c_X(F)) = 2^n - 1 + \sum_{X' \text{ is a model over } X} s(F|X')
\]

The previous theorem also shows that the sum of formulae can be defined as \( F + x \cdot G = c\{x\}((F \lor x) \cup (G \lor \neg x)) \) for DPLL-Mono (this is useful, as it is not clear whether Lemma 4 holds for DPLL-Mono.) By Theorem 5, indeed, there exists an optimal search tree of \( F + x \cdot G \) containing \( x \) in the root, and the two subtrees are optimal DMST of \( F \) and \( G \), respectively. As a result, the size of the optimal DPLL-Mono search trees of \( F + x \cdot G \) is \( s(F) + s(G) + 1 \).

The property about the union of two formulae \( F \cup G \) still hold for backtracking with unit propagation (the proof is like the one for backtracking). Formulae \( H_m \) can be replaced with formulae whose optimal search trees have an exact exponential value.

**Corollary 4** The optimal DMST of \( V_n = c_X(X \cup \{y, \neg y\}) \), where \( X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \), have size \( 2^n - 1 \).

Formulae that have exact size can be built easily even if the size is not equal to \( 2^n - 1 \) for some \( n \); using the same construction reported after Conjecture 1, we can build a formula \( I_m \) that has optimal DMST size equal to \( m \) in polynomial time, for every \( m > 0 \). These formulae allow for reducing the OTS problem to the OBV problem.

**Theorem 6** For restricted-branching DPLL-Mono, the OTS problem can be polynomially reduced to the OBV problem.

**Proof.** Given a formula \( G \), we know that \( s(G) \leq k \) if and only if \( a \) is the optimal branching variable of \( (\bot +_a G) \cup I_{k+1} \).

Another consequence of Theorem 5 is the possibility of relating the search tree size of a formula with the number of models of another one.

**Corollary 5** Let \( G \) be a formula over \( X \). Restricting branching over the variables in \( X \cup \{y\} \), where \( y \) is a new variable not in \( X \), the size of the optimal DMSTs of \( e_X(G) \) is \( 2^{n+1} - 1 + 2|\text{Mod}(G)| \), where \( e_X(G) \) is defined as follows:

\[
e_X(G) = c_X(G \cup \{y, \neg y\})
\]

We prove that the problem of search tree size is hard for the class \( \text{NP}^{\text{PP}} \). First of all, we need a complete problem for this class. We use \( \text{e-minsat} \): given a formula \( F \) over variables \( X \cup Y \), decide whether there exists a truth assignment over \( X \) such that at most half of the models extending it satisfy \( F \). The similar problem where “at most” is replaced by “at least” is called \( \text{e-majsat} \), and is \( \text{NP}^{\text{PP}} \)-complete [22]. Proving that \( \text{e-minsat} \) is complete for the same class is an easy exercise.
Theorem 7 Checking whether the size of the optimal DMST of a formula is bounded by a number in binary notation is \textit{NP}-hard for restricted-branching DPLL-Mono.

Proof. We reduce e-minsat to the problem of search tree size. Let $F$ be a formula over $X \cup Y$, where $|X| = |Y| = n$. Given a truth evaluation $X'$ over $X$, the number of models of $F|X'$ are related to the formula $c_Y((F|X') \cup I_1)$ by Corollary 3:

$$s(c_Y((F|X') \cup I_1)) = 2^n - 1 + \sum_{Y' \text{ is a model of } Y} s((F|X' \cup Y') \cup I_1)$$

The optimal tree size of $c_Y((F|X') \cup I_1)$ linearly depends on the number of models of $F|X'$. The reduction is completed by the addition of a formula $I_k$, where $k = 2^{n+1} + 2^{n-1}$. Indeed, the formula $c_Y((F|X') \cup I_1) \cup I_k$ has the following property:

$$s(c_Y((F|X') \cup I_1) \cup I_k) < k \text{ if } F|X' \text{ has at most half of the models}$$
$$s(c_Y((F|X') \cup I_1) \cup I_k) = k \text{ otherwise}$$

By combining Corollary 3 with the above inequalities, we obtain a way for summing up the size of the search trees of all formulae $F|X'$. The optimal search trees of $c_X(c_Y(F \cup I_1) \cup I_k))$ have indeed the following size:

$$s(c_X(c_Y(F \cup I_1) \cup I_k))) = 2^n - 1 + 2^n k \text{ if all } F|X' \text{ have more than half models}$$
$$< 2^n - 1 + 2^n k \text{ otherwise}$$

This proves that $c_X(c_Y(F \cup I_1) \cup I_k)$ has search trees of size bounded by $2^n + 2^n k - 2$ if and only if there exists $X'$ such that $F|X'$ has at most half of the models.

Theorem 7 shows that the OTS problem can be polynomially reduced to the OBV problem. Moreover, Lemma 6 shows that any formula can be translated into another one whose DST are the DMST of the original one. This is therefore a reduction from the OTS problem for DPLL-Mono to the OTS problem for DPLL.

Corollary 6 The problems OTS and OBV for restricted-branching DPLL are NP\textsuperscript{PP}-hard.

NP\textsuperscript{PP} contains P\textsuperscript{PP} [28], which in turn contains the whole polynomial hierarchy. As a result, the above theorem shows that the problem of search tree size is hard for any class of the polynomial hierarchy.
5 Regular Resolution

In this section, we consider the problems of the proof size and of the optimal choice for regular resolution. We proceed by first checking which results for backtracking and DPLL continue to hold for regular resolution, and then proving hardness results from them. Formulae having exponential optimal resolution proofs exist both for regular and general resolution \[29, 18, 30\]. The result 
\[ s(F \cup H) = \min(s(F), s(H)) \] 
holds for resolution: since the clauses of \(F\) and \(H\) do not share variables, resolution can only be applied between two clauses of \(F\) or between two clauses of \(H\). This implies that any optimal resolution proof either contains clauses of \(F\) only or of \(H\) only. It is not clear whether the properties of multiplication and sum hold for resolution.

The problem of proof size is NP-hard because of a result by Iwama \[19\] (this result also holds if the size of a resolution proof is defined to be the number of generated clauses instead of the total number of literals.) Using the union of formulae, we can prove that the problem is coNP-hard as well: if \(H_m\) is a formula whose optimal proof size is greater than \(2^n\), then the formula \(G \cup H_m\) have proof size less than or equal to \(2^n\) if and only if \(G\) is unsatisfiable, where \(G\) is a formula over \(n\) variables.

**Theorem 8** Deciding whether there exists a regular resolution proof of a formula, of size bounded by a number, is coNP-hard.

Let us now consider the problem of the optimal choice, i.e., whether two clauses are brother leaves of an optimal proof. In order to prove a hardness result, we need a way for building formulae for which an optimal choice is known.

**Lemma 7** Let \(F\) be an unsatisfiable formula such that \(F \setminus \{\gamma\}\) is satisfiable, \(x\) a new variable not in \(F\), and \(g_x(F)\) the following formula:
\[ g_x(F) = \{x, \neg x \lor \gamma\} \cup F \setminus \{\gamma\} \]
All optimal regular resolution proofs of \(g_x(F)\) contain exactly one resolution step involving \(x\). Such a step can be pushed to the leaves of the proof.

**Proof.** Since \(\gamma\) is needed to make \(F\) unsatisfiable, the clauses \(x\) and \(\neg x \lor \gamma\) are both needed to make \(g_x(F)\) unsatisfiable. Therefore, they are both leaves of any resolution proof of \(g_x(F)\). We can also show that some optimal proofs of \(g_x(F)\) actually contain the resolution of these two clauses.

Since \(\neg x \lor \gamma\) is a leaf of all regular resolution proofs of \(g_x(F)\) but the root of the proof does not contain literals then, in any path from \(\neg x \lor \gamma\) to the root, there is a resolution step that eliminates \(\neg x\). The only clause that can eliminate \(\neg x\) is \(x\). As a result, every path from \(\neg x \lor \gamma\) to the root contains the resolution of a clause \(\neg x \lor \delta\) with the clause \(x\). Since the proof is a DAG, there may be more than one such path. However, since we assume we are using regular resolution, no path contains more than one resolution with \(x\). Figure 6 shows an example of such a proof.
We show that, if \( \neg x \lor \delta_1, \ldots, \neg x \lor \delta_m \) are the clauses that are resolved with \( x \), then all these resolution steps can be replaced by the single resolution of \( x \) with \( \neg x \lor \gamma \). This is possible because, in the path from \( \neg x \lor \gamma \) to \( \neg x \lor \delta_i \), the variable \( \neg x \) is present in all clauses (because this is a regular resolution proof).

The transformation is as follows: we first identify the three nodes \( \neg x \lor \delta_i \), \( x \), and \( \delta_i \) for each \( i \); we then remove all literals \( \neg x \) from internal nodes of the DAG; we then replace the leaf \( \neg x \lor \gamma \) with the resolution of \( \neg x \lor \gamma \) and \( x \). This leads to a new regular resolution proof, made like the one in Figure 7.

If the number of clauses \( \delta_i \) is greater than one, the proof is made smaller, thus contradicting the assumption of optimality. This proves that the optimal proofs only contain one resolution step involving \( x \). In this case, the size of the proof is left unchanged by the transformation that pushes the resolution of \( x \) to the leaves of the DAG.

This lemma tells how to modify a formula in such a way an initial resolution step is known, but it only holds when a clause \( \gamma \) is known to be necessary to make the formula unsatisfiable. We now remove this assumption.

**Lemma 8** If \( F \) is an unsatisfiable formula not containing the variables \( x \) and \( y \), all optimal regular resolution proof of \( f_\gamma^x(F) = \{ x, \neg x \lor y \} \cup \{ \neg y \lor \delta \mid \delta \in F \} \) contain exactly one resolution of \( x \), which can be pushed to the leaf level.

**Proof.** The unit clause \( y \) is needed to make \( \{ \neg y \lor \delta \mid \delta \in F \} \) unsatisfiable, if \( F \) is unsatisfiable. The previous lemma therefore applies.

The complexity of the optimal regular resolution pair is characterized as follows.

**Theorem 9** The ORP problem is both NP-hard and coNP-hard.
Figure 7: Pushing down the resolution of $x$ and $\neg x \vee \gamma$. 

Proof. Let $F$ be a formula on $n$ variables, and let $H_m$ be a formula whose optimal regular resolution proofs are larger than $2^n$. We show that both the satisfiability and the unsatisfiability of $F$ can be reduced to the ORP problem. By the previous lemma, if $F$ is unsatisfiable then the resolution of $x$ with $\neg x \vee y$ is an optimal choice for $f^x_y(F)$. For the same reason, the resolution of $w$ with $\neg w \vee z$ is optimal for $f^w_z(H_m)$.

Consider the formula $f^x_y(F) \cup f^w_z(H_m)$. Since $f^x_y(F)$ and $f^w_z(H_m)$ do not share variables, every resolution proof of it either contains only clauses of $f^x_y(F)$ or only clauses of $f^w_z(H_m)$: otherwise, the proof would not form a connected DAG. Since $H_m$ is unsatisfiable, $f^w_z(H_m)$ is unsatisfiable as well.

On the other hand, the satisfiability of $f^x_y(F)$ depends on that of $F$. If $F$ is satisfiable, then $f^x_y(F)$ is satisfiable as well. As a result, the proofs of $f^x_y(F) \cup f^w_z(H_m)$ are exactly the proofs of the only unsatisfiable formula of the union, that is, $f^w_z(H_m)$. Resolving $w$ and $\neg w \vee z$ is therefore an optimal choice, while resolving $x$ and $\neg x \vee y$ is not.

If $F$ is unsatisfiable, so is $f^x_y(F)$. The optimal proofs of $F$ are at most $2^n$ large. A proof for $f^x_y(F)$ can be obtained by adding $y$ to all nodes of a proof of $F$, and then resolving its root with the result of the resolution of $x$ with $\neg x \vee y$. As a result, $f^x_y(F)$ has a regular resolution tree of size $2^n + 2$.

Since $H_m$ is unsatisfiable, so is $f^w_z(H_m)$. Any regular resolution proof of this formula can be modified in such a way the resolution of $w$ and $\neg w \vee z$ is at the leaf level. The rest of the proof is a proof of $H_m$ with the addition of $z$ to all clauses (otherwise, $z$ would be resolved more than once, leading to a larger proof.) As a result, any proof of $f^w_z(H_m)$ has size greater than or equal than that of $H_m$ plus two.

The smaller between the proofs of $f^x_y(F)$ and of $f^w_z(H_m)$ are the former ones.
We can therefore conclude that, if $F$ is unsatisfiable, then $x$ and $\neg x \lor y$ is an optimal choice for $f^x_y(F) \cup f^w_z(H_m)$, while $w$ and $\neg w \lor z$ is not. Since we have already proved the converse if $F$ is satisfiable, the claim is proved.

6 Conclusions

In this paper, we have enhanced two complexity results about the complexity of DPLL and resolution: namely, the complexity of choosing the best branching variables is not only NP-hard and coNP-hard [21], but is also $\Delta^p_2[\log n]$-hard; the problem of proof size is not only NP-hard [20, 19, 1], but also coNP-hard, if the size bound is in binary notation.

The problem of the search tree size can be also proved to be $\Delta^p_2[\log n]$-hard by assuming the possibility of building, in polynomial time, a formula whose optimal search tree size is exactly known and exponential. While this seems likely, no formal proof of it is in the literature. Namely, we known how to build, in polynomial time, formulae of exponential optimal search tree size, but only a lower bound of this optimal size is known, not the exact value. The possibility of building these formulae is also related to the similarity of the problems of search tree size and that of optimal choice: if this is the case, indeed, the problems of optimal choice and optimal search tree size can be easily reduced to each other.

Let us now compare with other work in the literature. The problem of search tree size has been already analyzed for various proof systems. For backtracking, this problem has been shown NP-complete [20, 19, 1]. The membership into NP, however, only holds if the number $k$ of the question “is there any proof of size bounded by $k$?” is in unary notation. The intuitive meaning of using the unary notation is that the proof to search for should be small enough to be stored. The binary representation makes sense either when the proof is represented in some succinct form, or when we only want to evaluate the proof size (without finding it). Most SAT checkers developed in AI, for example, are not aimed at producing a proof of unsatisfiability, but only at producing a correct answer.

A problem that is related to the complexity of choice and of tree size is that of automatizability of proof systems. A proof system is called automatizable if a proof can be produced in time that is polynomial in that of the optimal proofs (the generated proof can therefore only polynomially larger than the optimal ones.) The problems of optimal choice and automatizability, while somehow close to each other, are however different. Automatizability is about the time needed to generate the whole proof; the optimal choice problem is that of making, at each step, the optimal choice. The first question is “global”, as it involves the whole proof; the second one is “local”, as it is about a single step of the proof. Doing a single step may be hard, while the other steps of the proof are easy: if this is the case, automatizability may be feasible while the problem of the optimal choice remains hard.

The relative importance of automatizability and optimal choice complexity depends on the expected application of the satisfiability algorithms. If a complete proof is required, the running time of a satisfiability checker has to be
measured w.r.t. this output. Therefore, automatizability is important. On the other hand, many applications require a proof only if the formula is satisfiable (i.e., they require a model if it exists.) Most algorithms used in this case are oblivious: each choice is made neglecting the previous ones. These algorithms face the choice of the branching variable.

Finally, let us discuss the questions left open. The problems about DPLL are only known to be hard for classes at the second level of the polynomial hierarchy, while the only class they are known to belong to is PSPACE. The results on restricted branching are more precise, as the problem are hard for all classes of the polynomial hierarchy. Unrestricted branching may be as hard as restricted branching, but no proof of this claim has been found.

A large gap between the hardness and the membership results is present in our results for regular resolution. The method used for proving that problems about DPLL are in PSPACE does not work for resolution. The problem is that resolution proofs are DAGs, not trees. Therefore, iteratively guessing a choice and checking the total size does not work, as two nodes of the DAG may have the same child. This argument is a hint that neither the problem of the optimal choice nor that of the size are in PSPACE for resolution.

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