Better algorithms for satisfiability problems
for formulas of bounded rank-width

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Abstract. We provide a parameterized polynomial algorithm for the
propositional model counting problem \#SAT, the runtime of which is
single-exponential in the rank-width of a formula. Previously, analogous
algorithms have been known – e.g. [Fischer, Makowsky, and Ravve] –
with a single-exponential dependency on the clique-width of a formula.
Our algorithm thus presents an exponential runtime improvement (since
clique-width reaches up to exponentially higher values than rank-width),
and can be of practical interest for small values of rank-width. We also
provide an algorithm for the Max-SAT problem along the same lines.

Key words: propositional model counting; satisfiability; rank-width;
iclique-width; parameterized complexity.

1 Introduction

The satisfiability problem for Boolean formulas in conjunctive normal form
(known as SAT) has been of great practical and theoretical interest for decades.
It is known to be NP-complete, even though many instances are practically solvable
using the various SAT-solvers. We focus on two well-known generalizations
of this problem, namely \#SAT and Max-SAT. In \#SAT – otherwise known as
the propositional model counting problem, the goal is to compute the number
of satisfying truth assignments for an input formula \( \phi \), whereas in Max-SAT
we ask for the maximum number of simultaneously satisfiable clauses of \( \phi \). It is
known that computing \#SAT is \#P-hard [19] and that Max-SAT is already
NP-hard to approximate within some constant [1].

In light of these hardness results, we may ask what happens if we restrict
ourselves to some subclass of inputs. The parameterized algorithmics approach
is suitable in such a case. Let \( k \) be some parameter associated with the input
instance. Such a decision problem is said to be fixed-parameter tractable (FPT)
if it is solvable in time \( O(n^p \cdot f(k)) \) for some constant \( p \) and a computable
function \( f \). So the running time is polynomial in the size \( n \) of the input, but
can be e.g. exponential in the parameter \( k \). Obviously the specific form of \( f \)

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plays an important role in practical applicability of any such algorithm – while FPT algorithms with single-exponential \( f \) can be feasible for non-trivial values of the parameter, a double-exponential \( f \) would make the algorithm impractical for almost all values of \( k \).

But what are suitable parameters for satisfiability problems? In the particular case of Max-SAT, one can consider the desired number of satisfied or unsatisfied clauses as a parameter of the input, such as in [4, 17], respectively. Although, such approach is not at all suitable for \( \#\text{SAT} \) which is our prime interest in this paper.

Another approach used for instance by Fischer, Makowsky and Ravve [7] represents the formula \( \phi \) as a formula graph \( F_\phi \) (nodes of which are the clauses and variables of \( \phi \), see Definition 2.7), and exploits the fact that for graphs there are many known (and intensively studied) so called width parameters. In [7] the authors presented FPT algorithms for the \( \#\text{SAT} \) problem in the case of two well known width parameters – tree-width and clique-width. A similar idea was used by Georgiou and Papakonstantinou [9] also for the Max-SAT problem and by Samer and Szeider [18] for \( \#\text{SAT} \).

The latter algorithms work by dynamic programming on tree-like decompositions related to the width parameters (tree-decompositions and clique-decompositions – often called \( k \)-expressions – in the cases above). However, there is the separate issue of the complexity of computing the width of the formula graph and its decomposition. In the case of tree-width this can be done in FPT [2]. For the much more general clique-width (every graph of bounded tree-width also has bounded clique-width, while the converse does not hold) there exist no such algorithms and we rely on approximations or an oracle. In [18] the authors made the following statement on this issue:

A single-exponential algorithm (for \( \#\text{SAT} \)) is due to Fisher, Makowsky, and Ravve [7]. However, both algorithms rely on clique-width approximation algorithms. The known polynomial-time algorithms for that purpose admit an exponential approximation error [12] and are of limited practical value.

The exponential approximation error mentioned in this statement results by bounding the clique-width by a another, fairly new, width parameter called rank-width (Definition 2.1). Rank-width is bounded if and only if clique-width is bounded, but its value can be exponentially lower than that of clique-width (Theorem 2.2 a,b). And since clique-width generalizes tree-width, we do so for rank-width (Theorem 2.2 c). Moreover, for rank-width we can efficiently compute the related decomposition (Theorem 2.3), which is in stark contrast to the case for clique-width. Therefore an algorithm which is linear in the formula size and single-exponential in its rank-width challenges the claim quoted above, and can be of real practical value. In this paper we present such algorithms for the problems \( \#\text{SAT} \) and Max-SAT. More precisely we prove the following two results:
Theorem 1.1. Both the \#SAT and Max-SAT problems have FPT algorithms running in time
\[ O(t^3 \cdot 2^{3(t+1)/2} \cdot |\phi|) \]
where \( t \) is the rank-width of the input instance (CNF formula) \( \phi \).

We refer to further Theorems 2.11, 3.1 and 4.1 for details.

Note that our results present an actual exponential runtime improvement in the parameter over any algorithm utilizing the clique-width measure, including aforementioned [7]. This is since any parameterized algorithm \( A \) for a SAT problem has to depend at least exponentially on the clique-width of a formula (unless the exponential time hypothesis fails), and considering typical instances \( \phi \) as from Proposition 2.10b, such an algorithm \( A \) then runs in time doubly-exponential in the rank-width of \( \phi \).

As for potential practical usefulness of Theorem 1.1, note that there are no “large constants” hidden in the \( O \)-notation. One may also ask whether there are any interesting classes of graphs of low rank-width. The answer is a resounding YES, since already for \( t = 1 \) we obtain the very rich class of distance-hereditary graphs. Rank-width indeed is a very general graph width measure.

The approach we use to prove both parts of Theorem 1.1 quite naturally extends the clever and skilled new algebraic methods of designing parameterized algorithms for graphs of bounded rank-width, e.g. [6, 3, 8], to the area of SAT problems. Yet, this is not a trivial extension—we remark that a straightforward translation of the algorithm of [7] from clique-width expressions to rank-decompositions (which is easily possible) would result just in a double-exponential runtime dependency on the rank-width.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: In Section 2 we present the rank-width measure and some related technical considerations. This is applied to signed graphs of SAT formulas. Section 3 then presents our FPT algorithm for the \#SAT problem (Theorem 3.1 and Algorithm 3.6), and Section 4 the similar algorithm for Max-SAT (Theorem 4.1). We conclude with some related observations.

2 Overview of the rank-width measure

Graph rank-width [16], the core concept of our paper, is not so well known, and hence we give a detailed technical introduction to this concept and its application to CNF formulas in this section. Readers familiar with the concept of rank-width (and parse trees for rank-width) may proceed directly to Section 2.3.

2.1 Branch-width and rank-width

The usual way of defining rank-width is via the branch-width of the cut-rank function (Definition 2.1). A set function \( f : 2^M \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \) is symmetric if \( f(X) = f(M \setminus X) \) for all \( X \subseteq M \). A tree is subcubic if all its nodes have degree at
most 3. For a symmetric function $f : 2^M \to \mathbb{Z}$ on a finite ground set $M$, the branch-width of $f$ is defined as follows:

A branch-decomposition of $f$ is a pair $(T, \mu)$ of a subcubic tree $T$ and a bijective function $\mu : M \to \{ t : t \text{ is a leaf of } T \}$. For an edge $e$ of $T$, the connected components of $T \setminus e$ induce a bipartition $(X, Y)$ of the set of leaves of $T$. The width of an edge $e$ of a branch-decomposition $(T, \mu)$ is $f(\mu^{-1}(X))$. The width of $(T, \mu)$ is the maximum width over all edges of $T$. The branch-width of $f$ is the minimum of the width of all branch-decompositions of $f$.

**Definition 2.1 (Rank-width [16]).** For a simple graph $G$ and $U, W \subseteq V(G)$, let $A_{G[U,W]}$ be the matrix defined over the two-element field GF(2) as follows: the entry $a_{u,w}$, $u \in U$ and $w \in W$, of $A_{G[U,W]}$ is 1 if and only if $uw$ is an edge of $G$. The cut-rank function $\rho_G(U) = \rho_G(W)$ then equals the rank of $A_{G[U,W]}$ over GF(2) where $W = V(G) \setminus U$. A rank-decomposition (see Figure 1) and rank-width of a graph $G$ is the branch-decomposition and branch-width of the cut-rank function $\rho_G$ of $G$ on $M = V(G)$, respectively.

![Fig. 1. A rank-decomposition of the graph cycle $C_5$, showing the matrices involved in evaluation of its cut-rank function on the edges of the decomposition.](image)

As already mentioned in the introduction, rank-width is closely related to clique-width and more general than better known tree-width. Indeed:

**Theorem 2.2.** Let $G$ be a simple graph, and $\text{tw}(G)$, $\text{bw}(G)$, $\text{cwd}(G)$, $\text{rwd}(G)$ denote in this order the tree-width, branch-width, clique-width, and rank-width of $G$. Then the following hold

a) [16] $\text{rwd}(G) \leq \text{cwd}(G) \leq 2^{\text{rwd}(G)+1} - 1$,
b) [5] the clique-width $\text{cwd}(G)$ can reach up to $2^{\text{rwd}(G)/2-1}$,
c) [15] $\text{rwd}(G) \leq \text{bw}(G) \leq \text{tw}(G) + 1$,
d) [folklore] $\text{tw}(G)$ cannot be bounded from above by $\text{rwd}(G)$, e.g. the complete graphs have rank-width 1 while their tree-width is unbounded,
e) [14] $\text{rwd}(G) = 1$ if and only if $G$ is a distance-hereditary graph.

Although rank-width and clique-width are “tied together” (a), one of the crucial advantages of rank-width is its parameterized tractability (on the other hand, it is not known how to efficiently test $\text{cwd}(G) \leq k$ for $k > 3$):
Theorem 2.3 ([12]). There is an FPT algorithm that, for a fixed parameter $t$ and a given graph $G$, either finds a rank-decomposition of $G$ of width at most $t$ or confirms that the rank-width of $G$ is more than $t$.

2.2 Labeling parse trees for rank-width

Unlike for tree-width and clique-width, the standard definition of rank-decompositions is not suitable for the immediate design of efficient algorithms. To this end, closely following Courcelle and Kanté [6], we have introduced so-called labeling parse trees [8] (Definition 2.5 and Figure 2) – a powerful formalism for dynamic programming design on graphs of bounded rank-width. The basic idea is to transform rank-decompositions into suitable parse trees and have algorithms use them instead of the decomposition.

A t-labeling of a graph is a mapping $\text{lab} : V(G) \rightarrow 2^{[t]}$ where $[t] = \{1, 2, \ldots, t\}$ is the set of labels. Having a graph $G$ with an associated t-labeling $\text{lab}$, we refer to the pair $(G, \text{lab})$ as to a t-labeled graph and use notation $\bar{G}$. We will often view a t-labeling of $G$ equivalently as a mapping $V(G) \rightarrow \text{GF}(2)^t$ to the binary vector space of dimension $t$, where $\text{GF}(2)$ is the two-element finite field.

Definition 2.4. Considering t-labeled graphs $\bar{G}_1 = (G_1, \text{lab}_1)$ and $\bar{G}_2 = (G_2, \text{lab}_2)$, a t-labeling join $\bar{G}_1 \otimes \bar{G}_2$ is defined on the disjoint union of $G_1$ and $G_2$ by adding all edges $(u, v)$ such that $|\text{lab}_1(u) \cap \text{lab}_2(v)|$ is odd, where $u \in V(G_1), v \in V(G_2)$. (Alternatively, $(u, v)$ is an edge of $G_1 \otimes G_2$ if and only if $\text{lab}_1(u) \cdot \text{lab}_2(v) = 1$ over $\text{GF}(2)$.) The resulting graph is unlabeled.

A t-relabeling is a mapping $f : [t] \rightarrow 2^{[t]}$. In linear algebra terms, a t-relabeling $f$ is in a natural one-to-one correspondence with a linear transformation $f : \text{GF}(2)^t \rightarrow \text{GF}(2)^t$, i.e. a $t \times t$ binary matrix $R_f$. For a t-labeled graph $\bar{G} = (G, \text{lab})$ we define $f(\bar{G})$ as the same graph with a vertex t-labeling $\text{lab}' = f \circ \text{lab}$. Here $f \circ \text{lab}$ stands for the linear transformation $f$ applied to the labeling $\text{lab}$, or equivalently $\text{lab}' = \text{lab} \times R_f$ as matrix multiplication over $\text{GF}(2)^t$.

Definition 2.5 (Labeling parse tree [6, 8]). Let $\otimes$ be a nullary operator creating a single new graph vertex of label $\{1\}$. For t-relabelings $f_1, f_2, g : [t] \rightarrow 2^{[t]}$, let $\otimes[g \mid f_1, f_2]$ be a binary operator — called t-labeling composition — over pairs of t-labeled graphs $\bar{G}_1 = (G_1, \text{lab}_1)$ and $\bar{G}_2 = (G_2, \text{lab}_2)$ defined (cf. 2.4)

$$G_1 \otimes[g \mid f_1, f_2] \bar{G}_2 = \bar{H} = (G_1 \otimes g(\bar{G}_2), \text{lab})$$

where the new labeling is $\text{lab}(v) = f_i \circ \text{lab}_i(v)$ for $v \in V(G_i), i = 1, 2$. In other words, $(u, v) \in E(H)$ where $u \in V(G_1), v \in V(G_2)$, if and only if $\text{lab}_1(u) \times R_{g}^{T} \times \text{lab}_2(v)^T = 1$ over $\text{GF}(2)$ (cf. Courcelle and Kanté [6]).

A t-labeling parse tree $T$ is a finite rooted ordered subcubic tree (with the root degree at most 2) such that

- all leaves of $T$ contain the $\otimes$ symbol, and
- each internal node of $T$ contains one of the t-labeling composition symbols.
Fig. 2. An example of a 2-labeling parse tree which generates a cycle $C_5$, with symbolic relabelings at the nodes ($id$ denotes the relabeling preserving all labels, and $\emptyset$ is the relabeling “forgetting” all labels).

Fig. 3. “Bottom-up” generation of $C_5$ by the parse tree from Fig. 2.

A parse tree $T$ then generates (parses) the graph $G$ which is obtained by successive leaves-to-root applications of the operators in the nodes of $T$.

See Figures 2 and 3. The crucial statement is that rank-decompositions are exactly equivalent to labeling parse trees:

**Theorem 2.6 ([6, 8])**. A graph $G$ has rank-width at most $t$ if and only if (some labeling of) $G$ can be generated by a $t$-labeling parse tree. Furthermore, a width-$t$ rank-decomposition of $G$ can be transformed into a $t$-labeling parse tree on $\Theta(|V(G)|)$ nodes in time $O(t^2 \cdot |V(G)|^2)$.

### 2.3 Signed graphs and rank-width of CNF formulas

Although there are several methods for converting formulas to graphs, the most common and perhaps most natural approach uses so-called signed graphs (e.g. [7, 18, 11]). A signed graph is a graph $G$ with two edge sets $E^+(G)$ and $E^-(G)$. We refer to its respective positive and negative subgraphs as to $G^+$ and $G^–$. Notice that $G^+$ and $G^–$ are edge-disjoint and $G = G^+ \cup G^–$. 
Definition 2.7. The signed graph $F_\phi$ of a CNF formula $\phi$ is defined as follows:

- $V(F_\phi) = W \cup C$ where $W$ is the set of variables occurring in $\phi$ and $C$ is the set of clauses of $\phi$.
- For $w \in W$ and $c \in C$, it is $wc \in E^+(F_\phi)$ iff the literal `$w$' occurs in $c$.
- For $w \in W$ and $c \in C$, it is $wc \in E^-(F_\phi)$ iff the literal `$\neg w$' occurs in $c$.

Since signed graphs have two distinct edge sets, the definition of rank-width needs to be modified to reflect this. It should be noted that simply using two separate, independent decompositions would not work – the bottom-up dynamic programming algorithm we are going to use will need information from both edge sets at every node to work properly. Instead, one may define, analogically to Definition 2.1, the signed rank-width of a signed graph $G$ as the branch-width of the signed cut-rank function $\rho^\pm_G(U) = \rho^+_G(U) + \rho^-_G(U)$.

Definition 2.8 (Rank-width of formulas). The (signed) rank-width $\text{rwd}(\phi)$ of a CNF formula $\phi$ is the signed rank-width of the signed formula graph $F_\phi$.

Although our signed rank-width is essentially equivalent to an existing concept of bi-rank-width of directed graphs as introduced by Kanté [13] (in the bipartite case, at least), the latter concept is not widely known and its introduction in the context of CNF formulas would bring only additional technical complications. In the SAT context, it is more natural and easier to deal with undirected signed graphs. Hence we introduce, following previous Definition 2.5, $(t^+, t^-)$-labeling parse trees which will be equivalent to signed rank-width (up to a factor of 2, see Theorem 2.11) in a way analogous to Theorem 2.6.

Definition 2.9. A $(t^+, t^-)$-labeling parse tree $T = (T^+, T^-)$ of a signed graph $G$ is a pair $(T^+, T^-)$ of two labeling parse trees $T^+$ and $T^-$ such that:

I. $T^+$ ($T^-$) is a $t^+$-labeling ($t^-$-labeling) parse tree generating $G^+$ ($G^-$), and
II. The underlying rooted ordered trees of $T^+$ and $T^-$ are identical.

With a slight abuse of terminology, we will refer to the pair of subtrees of $T^+$ and $T^-$ rooted at a common node $s$ as to a subtree of $T$ rooted at $s$.

Analogically to labeled graphs of Section 2.2, we call a signed graph $G$ with associated pair of labelings $\text{lab}^+: V(G) \to 2^{[t^+]}, \text{lab}^- : V(G) \to 2^{[t^-]}$ a $(t^+, t^-)$-labeled graph $\tilde{G} = (G, \text{lab}^+, \text{lab}^-)$. We shortly refer to the $t^+$-labeled graph $(G^+, \text{lab}^+)$ as to $\tilde{G}^+$, and analogically to $\tilde{G}^-$. The scope of the join operation $\otimes$ (Definition 2.4) can then be extended in a natural way as

$$\tilde{G}_1 \otimes \tilde{G}_2 = (\tilde{G}^+_1 \otimes \tilde{G}^+_2) \cup (\tilde{G}^-_1 \otimes \tilde{G}^-_2).$$

In our paper we propose signed rank-width as a way of measuring complexity of formulas that fares significantly better than previously considered signed clique-width of $F_\phi$ (e.g., [7]). Signed clique-width is the natural extension of clique-width having two separate operators for creating the ‘plus’ and the ‘minus’ edges. The advantage of our approach is witnessed by the following two claims.
Proposition 2.10. Let $\phi$ be an arbitrary CNF formula and $F_\phi$ its signed graph of signed clique-width $cwd(\phi)$. Then the following are true

a) $rwd(\phi) \leq 2cwd(\phi)$,

b) there exist instances $\phi$ such that $cwd(\phi) \geq 2^{rwd(\phi)/4-1}$.

Proof. a) Assume a signed $k$-expression tree $S$ for $\phi$ where $k = cwd(\phi)$. Clearly, $S$ gives ordinary $k$-expression trees for each of $F_\phi^+$, $F_\phi^-$. Now, analogically to Theorem 2.2(a) [16], the rank-decompositions of $F_\phi^+$ and $F_\phi^-$ with the same underlying tree as $S$ have widths $\leq k$ each, and hence $rwd(\phi) \leq k+k = 2cwd(\phi)$.

b) We define $\phi$ such that $F_\phi^+ = G$ where, cf. Theorem 2.2(b), $cwd(G) \geq 2^{rwd(G)/2-1}$, and $F_\phi^-$ is arbitrary such that its rank-decomposition inherited from that of $G$ has width $\leq rwd(G)$. Then $rwd(\phi) \leq 2cwd(G)$ and the claim follows since $cwd(\phi) \geq cwd(G)$.

Theorem 2.11 ([12]). There is an FPT algorithm that, for a fixed parameter $t$ and a given CNF formula $\phi$, either finds a $(t^+, t^-)$-labeling parse tree for the formula graph $F_\phi$ where $t^+ \leq t$ and $t^- \leq t$, or confirms that the signed rank-width of $\phi$ is more than $t$.

Proof. We show that the algorithm of [12] (Theorem 2.3) can be used to compute also the signed rank-width $\leq t$ of a signed graph $G = F_\phi$. Indeed, we define a new graph $G'$ as the union of $G^+$ and a vertex-disjoint copy $G^-$ of $G^-$, and a partition $P$ of $V(G')$ as the collection of the corresponding vertex pairs from $V(G^+ \times V(G^-))$. Then we call the algorithm of [12] to either compute a $P$-partitioned rank-decomposition of $G'$ of width $\leq t$, or confirm that the $P$-partitioned width is $> t$. This width is exactly our signed rank-width of $G$ since, for any bipartition $(U, W)$ of $V(G')$ not crossing $P$, the cut-rank $\rho_G(U)$ of $U$ in $G'$ trivially equals our signed cut-rank $\rho_G^+(X) = \rho_G^+(X) + \rho_G^-(X)$ of $X = U \cap V(G)$. Lastly, applying Theorem 2.6, we separately transform the two “inherited” rank-decompositions of $G^+$ and $G^-$ into parse trees $T^+$ and $T^-$, and output together the $(t^+, t^-)$-labeling parse tree $T = (T^+, T^-)$ of $F_\phi$.

3 Algorithm for propositional model counting $\#S\text{AT}$

This section proves our most important result – the $\#S\text{AT}$ part of Theorem 1.1.

We remind the readers that the previous best algorithm [7] for $\#S\text{AT}$ on graphs of bounded clique-width has had a single-exponential runtime dependency on the signed clique-width of a formula (and this dependency cannot be further improved unless the so called exponential time hypothesis fails). Hence by Proposition 2.10.b the worst case scenario for the algorithm of [7] would lead to a double-exponential runtime dependency on the signed rank-width of the formula. On the other hand:

Theorem 3.1. Given a CNF formula $\phi$ and a $(t^+, t^-)$-labeling parse tree (Theorem 2.11) of the formula graph $F_\phi$ (Definition 2.9), there is an algorithm that counts the number of satisfying assignments of $\phi$ in time

$$O(t^3 \cdot 2^{3(t+1)/2} \cdot |\phi|)$$

where $t = \max(t^+, t^-)$. 

8
3.1 Informal notes

Our algorithm (see Algorithm 3.6) proving Theorem 3.1 applies the dynamic programming paradigm on the parse trees of the formula graph $F_\phi$ (constructed by Theorem 2.11). This is, on one hand, a standard approach utilized also by Fischer, Makowsky and Ravve [7]. On the other hand, however, comparing to [7] we achieve an exponential runtime speedup in terms of rank-width. This significant improvement has two main sources (necessary on both sides):

- We heavily apply the basic calculus and tools of linear algebra in the algorithm (which is indeed natural in view of the algebraic definition of rank-width). See the details in Subsection 3.2.
- Our dynamic programming algorithm is built upon the idea of an “expectation” (when processing the parse tree of the input) – in addition to the information recorded about a partial solution processed so far, we also record what is expected from a complementary partial solution coming from the unprocessed part of the input.

Especially the second point deserves an informal explanation before giving a formal description in Definition 3.4 II. The background idea is that the amount of information one has to remember about a partial solution shrinks a lot if one “knows” what the complete solution will look like. Such saving sometimes largely exceeds the cost of keeping an exhaustive list of all possible future “shapes” of complete solutions. This is also our case where the application is quite natural – we may exhaustively preprocess the values of some variables in advance.

The idea of using an “expectation” to speed up a dynamic programming algorithm on a rank-decomposition has first appeared in Bui-Xuan, Telle and Vatshelle [3] in relation to solving the dominating set on graphs of bounded rank-width. This concept has been subsequently formalized and generalized by the authors in [8] (in the so called PCE scheme formalism). Furthermore, it has also been shown [8, Proposition 5.1] that use of the “expectation” concept is unavoidable to achieve speed up for the dominating set problem.

Unfortunately, we cannot simply refer the formalism of [8] here since it was designed for optimization, and not enumeration, problems. We thus have to describe it again from scratch in our Algorithm 3.6.

3.2 Supplementary technical concepts

This part describes several technical concepts needed to formulate all details of coming Algorithm 3.6. It may be skipped during the first reading.

A useful algebraic concept is that of orthogonality. We say that labeling $\ell$ is orthogonal to a set of labelings $X$ if $\ell$ has even intersection with every element of $X$ (i.e. the scalar product of the labeling vectors is 0 over GF(2)). Remember that for $t$-labeling parse trees, in order for two vertices become adjacent by the join operation $\otimes$, their labelings need to have odd intersection, i.e. to be non-orthogonal. The power of orthogonality comes from the following rather trivial claim occurring already in [3, 8]:
Lemma 3.2. Assume $t$-labeled graphs $\bar{G}$ and $\bar{H}$, and arbitrary $X \subseteq V(\bar{G})$ and $y \in V(\bar{H})$. In the join graph $\bar{G} \otimes \bar{H}$, the vertex $y$ is adjacent to some vertex in $X$ if and only if the vector subspace spanned by the $\bar{G}$-labelings of the vertices of $X$ is not orthogonal to the $\bar{H}$-labeling vector of $y$ in $GF(2)^t$.

In view of Lemma 3.2, the following result will be useful in deriving the complexity of our algorithm.

Lemma 3.3 ([10], cf. [8, Proposition 6.1]). The number $S(t)$ of subspaces of the binary vector space $GF(2)^t$ satisfies $S(t) \leq 2^{t(t+1)/4}$ for all $t \geq 12$.

We recall from Definition 2.7 the signed graph $F_\phi$ of a formula $\phi$ on a vertex set $V(F_\phi) = W \cup C$ where $W$ is the set of variables and $C$ is the set of clauses of $\phi$. An assignment is then a mapping $\nu : W \to \{0,1\}$. In the course of computation of our algorithm we will need to remember some local information about all satisfying assignments for $\phi$. The information to be remembered for each such assignment is formally described by the following definition.

Definition 3.4. Consider an arbitrary $(t^+,t^-)$-labeling $\bar{F}_1 = (F_1, lab^+,$ $lab^-)$ of a signed subgraph $F_1 \subseteq F_\phi$, and any partial assignment $\nu_1 : V(F_1) \cap W \to \{0,1\}$. We say that $\nu_1$ is an assignment of shape $(\Sigma^+,\Sigma^-,\Pi^+,\Pi^-)$ in $\bar{F}_1$ if

I. $\Sigma^+$ is the subspace of $GF(2)^t$ generated by the label vectors $lab^+(\nu_1^{-1}(1))$ and $\Sigma^-$ is the subspace of $GF(2)^t$ generated by $lab^-(\nu_1^{-1}(0))$, and

II. $\Pi^+,\Pi^-$ are subspaces of $GF(2)^t$ such that, for every clause $c$ in $V(F_1) \cap C$, at least one of the following is true

- $c$ is adjacent to some vertex from $\nu_1^{-1}(1)$ in $F_1^+$ or to some vertex from $\nu_1^{-1}(0)$ in $F_1^-$, or
- the label vector $lab^+(c)$ is not orthogonal to $\Pi^+$ or $lab^-(c)$ is not orthogonal to $\Pi^-$ (cf. Lemma 3.2).

Very informally saying, I. states which true literals in $F_1$ (w.r.t. $\nu_1$) are available to satisfy clauses of $F_\phi$, and II. stipulates that every clause in $F_1$ is satisfied by a true literal in $F_1$ or is expected to be satisfied by some literal in $F_\phi - V(F_1)$. Note that one partial assignment $\nu_1$ could be of several distinct shapes, which differ in $\Pi^+,\Pi^-$. (This is true even for complete assignments.) Moreover, there is no requirement on $\Pi^+$ and $\Pi^-$ to have an empty intersection with $\Sigma^+$, $\Sigma^-$ and each other. The useful trivial properties of assignment shapes are:

Proposition 3.5. We consider a CNF formula $\phi$ with the variable set $W$, and any assignment $\nu : W \to \{0,1\}$. Assume $\bar{F}_1, \bar{F}_2$ are $(t^+,t^-)$-labeled graphs such that $F_\phi = \bar{F}_1 \otimes \bar{F}_2$, and let $\nu_1, \nu_2$ denote the restrictions of $\nu$ to $\bar{F}_1, \bar{F}_2$.

a) The assignment $\nu$ is satisfying for $\phi$ if, and only if, there exist subspaces $\Sigma^+,\Sigma^-,\Pi^+,\Pi^-$ of $GF(2)^t$ such that $\nu_1$ is of shape $(\Sigma^+\Sigma^-,\Pi^+,\Pi^-)$ in $\bar{F}_1$ and $\nu_2$ is of shape $(\Pi^+\Pi^-,\Sigma^+,\Sigma^-)$ in $\bar{F}_2$.

b) If, in $\bar{F}_1$, $\nu_1$ is of shape $(\Sigma^+_0,\Sigma^-_0,\Pi^+_0,\Pi^-_0)$ and, at the same time, $\nu_1$ is of shape $(\Sigma^+_1,\Sigma^-_0,\Pi^+_1,\Pi^-_0)$, then $\Sigma^+_0 = \Sigma^+_1$ and $\Sigma^-_0 = \Sigma^-_1$.

c) The assignment $\nu_1$ is satisfying for $\phi_1 = \text{the subformula of } \phi \text{ represented by } F_1$ if, and only if, $\nu_1$ is of shape $(\Sigma^+,\Sigma^-,\emptyset,\emptyset)$ for some subspaces $\Sigma^+,\Sigma^-$. \hfill \Box
3.3 The dynamic processing algorithm

We now return to our Theorem 3.1, considering a \((t^+, t^-)\)-labeling parse tree \(T_\phi\) of a given formula graph \(F_\phi\). The core of our bottom-up dynamic processing of \(T_\phi\) is as follows: At every node \(z\) such that the subtree of \(T_\phi\) rooted at \(z\) parses a \((t^+, t^-)\)-labeled graph \(\tilde{F}_z\), we record an integer-valued array \(Table_z\) indexed by all the quadruples of subspaces of \(GF(2)^t\), where \(t = \max(t^+, t^-)\). The value of the entry \(Table_z[\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-]\) is equal to the number of variable assignments in \(\tilde{F}_z\) that are of the shape \((\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-)\) in \(\tilde{F}_z\) (cf. Definition 3.4).

For a subset \(X \subseteq GF(2)^t\), let \(\langle X \rangle\) denote the vector subspace of \(GF(2)^t\) spanned by the points of \(X\). If \(f\) is a relabeling, i.e. a linear transformation defined by a binary matrix \(R_f\), then \(f(X)\) denotes the image of \(X\) under \(f\), and \(f^T(X)\) denotes the image of \(X\) under the transposed relabeling given by \(R_f^T\).

**Algorithm 3.6 (Theorem 3.1).** Given is a CNF formula \(\phi\) and a signed \((t^+, t^-)\)-labeling parse tree \(T_\phi\) of the formula graph \(F_\phi\).

1. We initialize all entries of \(Table_z\) for \(z \in V(T_\phi)\) to 0.
2. We process all nodes of \(T_\phi\) in the leaves-to-root order as follows.
   a) At a clause leaf \(c\) of \(T_\phi\), we set \(Table_c[\emptyset, \emptyset, \Pi^+, \Pi^-] \leftarrow 1\) for all subspaces \(\Pi^+, \Pi^-\) such that at least one of them is not orthogonal to the label vector of \(\{1\}\) (and \(\emptyset\) stands for the zero subspace).
   b) At a variable leaf \(\ell\) of \(T_\phi\), we set \(Table_\ell[\{1\}, \emptyset, \Pi^+, \Pi^-] \leftarrow 1\) and \(Table_\ell[\emptyset, \{1\}, \Pi^+, \Pi^-] \leftarrow 1\) for all pairs \(\Pi^+, \Pi^-\).
   c) Consider an internal node \(z\) of \(T_\phi\), with the left son \(x\) and the right son \(y\) such that \(Table_x\) and \(Table_y\) have already been computed.
      - Let the composition operators at \(z\) in the labeling parse trees \(T_\phi^+, T_\phi^-\) be as \(\tilde{F}_z^+ = \tilde{F}_x^+ \otimes [g^+ | f_1^+, f_2^+]\) \(\tilde{F}_y^+\) and \(\tilde{F}_z^- = \tilde{F}_x^- \otimes [g^- | f_1^-, f_2^-]\) \(\tilde{F}_y^-\) (cf. Definition 2.9 for \(T_\phi\)).
      - We loop exhaustively over all indices to \(Table_x\), \(Table_y\), \(Table_z\), i.e. over all 12-tuples of subspaces \(\Sigma^+, \Sigma_-, \Pi^+, \Pi_-\), \(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-\), \(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi_+\), \(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi_-, \Pi^+, \Pi_+\), \(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi_-, \Pi^+\), \(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi_-, \Pi_+\), \(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi_-, \Pi_-\), of \(GF(2)^t\). If all the following are true
        \(\Sigma^+ = \langle f_1^+(\Sigma^+) \cup f_2^+(\Sigma^+)\rangle\) and \(\Sigma^- = \langle f_1^-(\Sigma^-) \cup f_2^-(\Sigma^-)\rangle\),
        \(\Pi_+^+ = \langle f_1^+(\Pi_+^+) \cup g^+(\Sigma^+)\rangle\) and \(\Pi_+^- = \langle f_1^+(\Pi_+^-) \cup g^-(\Sigma^-)\rangle\),
        \(\Pi_-^+ = \langle f_2^-(\Pi_-^+) \cup g^+(\Sigma^+)\rangle\) and \(\Pi_-^- = \langle f_2^-(\Pi_-^-) \cup g^-(\Sigma^-)\rangle\),
        then we add the product \(Table_x[\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-] \cdot Table_y[\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi_+, \Pi_-]\) to the table entry \(Table_z[\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi_+, \Pi_-]\).
3. We sum up all the entries \(Table_r[\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \emptyset, \emptyset]\) where \(r\) is the root of \(T_\phi\) and \(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-\) are arbitrary subspaces of \(GF(2)^t\). This is the resulting number of satisfying assignments of \(\phi\).

**Proof (Algorithm 3.6 / Theorem 3.1).** The task is to prove that the computed value \(Table_z[\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-]\) is indeed equal to the number of assignments in \(\tilde{F}_z\) that are of the shape \((\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-)\). This is done by structural induction on \(z\) ranging from the leaves of \(T_\phi\) to its root. Then, in step 3 of our algorithm, the computed number of satisfying assignments of \(\phi\) is correct by Proposition 3.5 b,c.
2a. If \( z = c \) where \( c \) is a clause leaf, then \( F_c \) defines a formula with one empty (so far false) clause \( c \). There is only one possible assignment in \( F_c \). In order to satisfy \( c \), its labeling \( \text{lab}^+(c) = \text{lab}^-(c) = \{1\} \) should not be orthogonal to expected \( \Pi^+ \) or \( \Pi^- \) (Definition 3.4.II), as done in step 2a.

2b. If \( z = \ell \) where \( \ell \) is a variable leaf, then \( F_{\ell} \) defines a formula with one variable and no clause. There are two assignments of \( \ell \) and no requirement on \( \Pi^+, \Pi^- \) from Definition 3.4.II. Hence these two assignments contribute 1 each to all the indicated table entries by Definition 3.4.1.

2c. This is the hard core of our proof. By induction both Table\(_x\), Table\(_y\) already contain the correct values. Assume we have a partial assignment \( \nu \) in \( \tilde{F}_x \) of shape \((\Sigma_x^+, \Sigma_x^-, \Pi_x^+, \Pi_x^-)\). Then \( \nu \) defines partial assignments \( \nu_x \) in \( \tilde{F}_x \) and \( \nu_y \) in \( \tilde{F}_y \), which, in turn, uniquely determine the corresponding subspaces \( \Sigma^+_y, \Sigma^-_y \) and \( \Sigma^+_x, \Sigma^-_x \) by Proposition 3.5.b). It follows from Definition 3.4.II of a shape and from Definition 2.5 of the composition operators \( \otimes[g^+ | f_1^+, f_2^+] \) and \( \otimes[g^- | f_1^-, f_2^-] \) at \( z \), that \( \nu_x \) is of shape \((\Sigma_x^+, \Sigma_x^-, \Pi_x^+, \Pi_x^-) \) for some \( \Pi^+_x, \Pi^-_x \) if

i. for every clause \( c \) not adjacent to \( \nu_x^{-1}(1) \) in \( F^+_x \), nor to \( \nu_x^{-1}(0) \) in \( F^-_x \),
we have that \( f_1^+(\text{lab}^+_x(c)) \) is not orthogonal to \( \Pi_x^+ \) or \( f_1^-(\text{lab}^-_x(c)) \) is not orthogonal to \( \Pi_x^- \) (informally, \( c \) will be satisfied by the expectation at \( z \) after relabeling),

ii. or \( \text{lab}^+_x(c) \) is not orthogonal to \( g^+(\Sigma^+_y) \) or \( \text{lab}^-_x(c) \) is not orthogonal to \( g^-(\Sigma^-_y) \) (informally, \( c \) is satisfied by a true literal coming from \( \tilde{F}_y \) in the labeling composition at \( z \)).

Note that, e.g., \( f_1^+(\text{lab}^+_x(c)) \) is not orthogonal to \( \nu \in \Pi^+_x \) iff

\[
1 = f_1^+(\text{lab}^+_x(c)) \times \nu^T = \left(\text{lab}^+_x(c) \times R_{f_1^+}\right) \times \nu^T = \text{lab}^+_x(c) \times \left(\nu \times R_{f_1^+}^T\right)^T.
\]

Hence putting the two disjoint alternatives i,ii for \( c \) together, we see that \( \text{lab}^+_x(c) \) should not be orthogonal to \( f_1^+(\Pi^+_x) \cup g^+(\Sigma^+_y) \) or \( \text{lab}^-_x(c) \) should not be orthogonal to \( f_1^-(\Pi^-_x) \cup g^-(\Sigma^-_y) \). This exactly corresponds to the condition on \( \Pi^+_x \) and \( \Pi^-_x \) in 2c. Analogical fact is true for \( \Pi^+_y \) and \( \Pi^-_y \).

Therefore, \( \nu_x \) and \( \nu_y \) have been accounted for in Table\(_x\) and Table\(_y\), respectively, and so \( \nu \) is now counted in \( \text{Table}_x[\Sigma_x^+, \Sigma_x^-, \Pi_x^+, \Pi_x^-] \).

On the other hand, we have to prove that no assignment is counted more than once in one particular entry \( \text{Table}_x[\Sigma_x^+, \Sigma_x^-, \Pi_x^+, \Pi_x^-] \). This is not immediate due to a (limited) freedom in a choice of the “expectation” part of shape in the previous arguments. For Table\(_x\), Table\(_y\) this claim is true by induction. Any particular partial assignment \( \nu \) in \( \tilde{F}_x \) uniquely determines \( \Sigma_x^+, \Sigma_x^- \), and \( \Sigma_y^+ , \Sigma_y^- \), as above. Then the conditions in 2c of the algorithm also uniquely determine \( \Pi_x^+, \Pi_x^- \) and \( \Pi_y^+, \Pi_y^- \) (and so their entries in Table\(_x\), Table\(_y\)). Hence the assignment \( \nu \) is counted at most once for every particular choice of \( \Pi_x^+, \Pi_x^- \), too.
Lastly, we analyze the runtime of our algorithm. Let \( S(t) \) be the number of subspaces of \( GF(2)^t \). Every single call to one of the steps 1, 2a, 2b, and 3 of Algorithm 3.6 is proportional to the size of the table which is \( O(S(t)^4) \). One call to 2c in this algorithm actually has to loop over all 6-tuples \( \Sigma^+_x, \Sigma^-_x, \Sigma^+_y, \Sigma^-_y, \Pi^+_x, \Pi^-_x \) of subspaces of \( GF(2)^t \), while the remaining 6 subspaces \( \Pi^+_y, \Pi^-_y \), \( \Sigma^+_z, \Sigma^-_z \) can be computed in time \( O(t^3) \) each using standard algorithms of linear algebra. Hence this point takes time \( O(t^3 \cdot S(t)^6) \).

For the sake of completeness, we note that there exists \( [8, \text{Lemma 6.3}] \) an efficient indexing scheme for all the subspaces of \( GF(2)^t \) with query time \( O(t^2) \). Such a scheme can be built in time \( O(2^{3(t+1)/4} \cdot t^6) \).

Altogether, using Lemma 3.3, our Algorithm 3.6 takes time

\[
O(|V(T_\phi)| \cdot t^3 \cdot S(t)^6) = O(|V(T_\phi)| \cdot t^3 \cdot 2^{6t(t+1)/4}) = O(|\phi| \cdot t^3 \cdot 2^{3t(t+1)/2}). \quad \square
\]

4 Algorithm for the Max-SAT problem

The same ideas as presented in Section 3 lead also to a parameterized algorithm for the Max-SAT optimization problem which asks for the maximum number of satisfied clauses in a CNF formula. We briefly describe this extension, though we have to admit that the importance of the Max-SAT algorithm on graphs of bounded rank-width is not as high as that of \#SAT. The reason for lower applicability is that for “sparse” formula graphs (i.e. those not containing large bipartite cliques) their rank-width is bounded if their tree-width is bounded, while for dense formula graphs the satisfiability problem is easier in general.

**Theorem 4.1.** There is an algorithm that, given a CNF formula \( \phi \) and a \((t^+, t^-)\)-labeling parse tree of the formula graph \( F_\phi \), solves the MAX-SAT optimization problem of \( \phi \) in time \( O(t^3 \cdot 2^{3t(t+1)/2} \cdot |\phi|) \) where \( t = \max(t^+, t^-) \).

In order to formulate this algorithm, we extend Definition 3.4 as follows. Recall \( V(F_\phi) = V \cup C \) where \( V \) are the variables and \( C \) are the clauses of \( \phi \).

**Definition 4.2.** Consider a \((t^+, t^-)\)-labeling \( \tilde{F}_1 = (F_1, \text{lab}^+, \text{lab}^-) \) of a signed subgraph \( F_1 \subseteq F_\phi \), and a partial assignment \( \nu_1 : V(F_1) \cap W \to \{0, 1\} \). We say that \( \nu_1 \) is an assignment of defective shape \((\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-)\) in \( \tilde{F}_1 \) if there exists a set \( C_0 \subseteq C \cap V(F_1) \) such that \( \nu_1 \) is of shape \((\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-)\) in \( \tilde{F}_1 - C_0 \). The value (the defect) of \( \nu_1 \) with respect to this defective shape is the minimum cardinality of such \( C_0 \).

Informally, the defect equals the number of clauses in \( F_1 \) which are unsatisfied there and not expected to be satisfied in a complete assignment in \( F_\phi \).

We process the parse tree \( T_\phi \) of \( F_\phi \) similarly to Algorithm 3.6, but this time the value of the entry Table₂[\( (\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-) \)] will be equal to the minimum defect over all partial assignments in \( \tilde{F}_2 \) that are of defective shape \((\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-)\). Formally:
Algorithm 4.3 (Theorem 4.1). Given is a CNF formula $\phi$ and a signed $(t^+, t^-)$-labeling parse tree $T_\phi$ of the formula graph $F_\phi$.

1. We initialize all entries of $Table_z$ for $z \in V(T_\phi)$ to $\infty$.
2. We process all nodes of $T_\phi$ in the leaves-to-root order as follows.
   a) At a clause leaf $c$ of $T_\phi$, we set $Table_c[0, 0, \Pi^+, \Pi^-] \leftarrow 1$ for all subspaces $\Pi^+, \Pi^-$ that are both orthogonal to the label vector of $\{1\}$, and set $Table_c[0, 0, \Pi^+, \Pi^-] \leftarrow 0$ otherwise.
   b) At a variable leaf $\ell$ of $T_\phi$, we set $Table_\ell[\{(1\}, 0, \Pi^+, \Pi^-] \leftarrow 0$ and $Table_\ell[0, \{(1\}, \Pi^+, \Pi^-] \leftarrow 0$ for all pairs $\Pi^+, \Pi^-$. 
   c) Consider an internal node $z$ of $T_\phi$, with the left son $x$ and the right son $y$ such that $Table_x$ and $Table_y$ have already been computed.
      - Let the composition operators at $z$ in the labeling parse trees $T^+_\phi, T^-_\phi$ be as $\tilde{F}^+_z = \tilde{F}^+_x \otimes [g^+ \mid f^+_1, f^+_2] \tilde{F}^+_y$ and $\tilde{F}^-_z = \tilde{F}^-_x \otimes [g^- \mid f^-_1, f^-_2] \tilde{F}^-_y$.
      - We loop exhaustively over all indices to $Table_x, Table_y, Table_z$, i.e. over all 12-tuples of subspaces $\Sigma^+_x, \Sigma^-_x, \Pi^+_x, \Pi^-_x, \Sigma^+_y, \Sigma^-_y, \Pi^+_y, \Pi^-_y, \Sigma^+_z, \Sigma^-_z, \Pi^+_z, \Pi^-_z$ of $\mathbb{GF}(2)^t$. If all the following are true
        \[
        \Sigma^+_z = \langle f^+_1(\Sigma^+_x) \cup f^+_2(\Sigma^+_y) \rangle \quad \Sigma^-_z = \langle f^+_1(\Sigma^-_x) \cup f^+_2(\Sigma^-_y) \rangle,
        \]
        \[
        \Pi^+_z = \langle f^+_1(\Pi^+_x) \cup g^+(\Sigma^+_x) \rangle \quad \Pi^-_z = \langle f^+_1(\Pi^-_x) \cup g^-(\Sigma^+_x) \rangle,
        \]
        \[
        \Pi^+_y = \langle f^+_2(\Pi^+_x) \cup g^+(\Sigma^+_y) \rangle \quad \Pi^-_y = \langle f^+_2(\Pi^-_x) \cup g^-(\Sigma^-_y) \rangle,
        \]
        then we let $m = Table_z[\Sigma^+_z, \Sigma^-_z, \Pi^+_z, \Pi^-_z] + Table_x[\Sigma^+_x, \Sigma^-_x, \Pi^+_x, \Pi^-_x] + Table_y[\Sigma^+_y, \Sigma^-_y, \Pi^+_y, \Pi^-_y]$. If, furthermore, $m < Table_z[\Sigma^+_z, \Sigma^-_z, \Pi^+_z, \Pi^-_z]$, then we set $Table_z[\Sigma^+_z, \Sigma^-_z, \Pi^+_z, \Pi^-_z] \leftarrow m$.
3. We find the minimum $m$ over all the entries $Table_z[\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, 0, 0]$ where $r$ is the root of $T_\phi$ and $\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-$ are arbitrary subspaces of $\mathbb{GF}(2)^t$. An optimal solution to MAX-SAT of $\phi$ then has $|C| - m$ satisfied clauses.

Proof (Algorithm 4.3/Theorem 4.1, sketch). The main task is to show by means of structural induction that the algorithm correctly computes in $Table_z[\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-]$ the minimum defect over all partial assignments in $\tilde{F}_z$ that are of defective shape $(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \Pi^+, \Pi^-)$.

Our proof proceeds in the same way as the proof of Algorithm 3.6, with a use of the following easy claim (notation as in the referred proof):

- The defect of a partial assignment $\nu$ in $\tilde{F}_z$ w.r.t. $(\Sigma^+_z, \Sigma^-_z, \Pi^+_z, \Pi^-_z)$ equals the sum of the defects of $\nu_x$ in $\tilde{F}_x$ and $\nu_y$ in $\tilde{F}_y$ w.r.t. defective shapes $(\Sigma^+_z, \Sigma^-_z, \Pi^+_z, \Pi^-_z)$ and $(\Sigma^+_y, \Sigma^-_y, \Pi^+_y, \Pi^-_y)$, respectively.

The runtime analysis follows, too. \hfill \Box

5 Conclusions

We have presented new FPT algorithms for the \#SAT and MAX-SAT problems on formulas of bounded rank-width. Our algorithms are single-exponential in
rank-width and linear in the size of the formula, and they do not involve any “large hidden constants”. This is a significant improvement over previous results, for several reasons. In the case of tree-width this follows from the fact that rank-width is much more general than tree-width. If a graph has bounded tree-width it also has bounded rank-width, but there are classes of graphs with arbitrarily high tree-width and small rank-width (e.g. cliques, complete bipartite graphs, or distance hereditary graphs).

As for clique-width (which is bounded iff rank-width is bounded), we have obtained two significant improvements over the existing algorithms such as [7]. Firstly, rank-width can be exponentially smaller than clique-width, and therefore we obtain an exponential speed-up over the existing algorithms in the worst case. Secondly, there is an FPT algorithm for computing the rank-width of a graph (and the associated rank-decomposition) exactly, whereas in the case of clique-width we have to rely on an approximation by an exponential function of rank-width.

Finally, our paper shows that many of the recent ideas and tricks of parameterized algorithm design on graphs of bounded rank-width smoothly translate to certain SAT-related problem instances which may bring new inspiration to related research, too.

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