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# Centralizing Equality Reasoning in MCSAT\*

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## Abstract

MCSAT is an approach to SMT-solving that uses assignments of values to first-order variables in order to try and build a model of the input formula. When different theories are combined, as formalized in the CDSAT system, equalities between variables and terms play an important role, each theory module being required to understand equalities and which values are equal to which. This paper broaches the topic of how to reason about equalities in a centralized way, so that the theory reasoners can avoid replicating equality reasoning steps, and even benefit from a centralized implementation of equivalence classes of terms, which is based on a equality graph (Egraph). This paper sketches the design of a prototype based on this architecture.

## 1 Introduction

Model-constructing satisfiability (MCSAT) [6, 11] is an approach to SMT-solving that applies the principles of Conflict-Driven Clause Learning (CDCL) not only to propositional reasoning but also to theory reasoning. For instance, the main procedure is a loop that alternates *model building* phases with *conflict analysis* phases.

MCSAT is specifically tuned to theories that have a standard model, in the sense that a (quantifier-free) formula is satisfiable in the theory if and only if it evaluates to true in this particular model for some interpretation of its free variables. The MCSAT transition system, when given an input formula to satisfy, organises the search for such an interpretation similarly to CDCL. It gradually builds a candidate interpretation by aggregating on a *trail* explicit assignments of truth values to Boolean variables, *e.g.*, ( $l \leftarrow \text{true}$ ), but in contrast to CDCL it also aggregates explicit assignments of model values to first-order variables, *e.g.*, ( $x \leftarrow 3/4$ ). It relies on a *theory plugin* to provide an evaluation function and to generate theory lemmas whenever the candidate interpretation fails to satisfy the input formula, a situation known as a *conflict*. MCSAT thus combines with Boolean reasoning any theory for which an MCSAT theory plugin can be defined, including for instance linear and non-linear versions of arithmetic [6, 8, 11], and the theory of bitvectors [5, 13]. In [7], Equality with Uninterpreted Functions (EUF) is added to the combination of Linear Real Arithmetic (LRA) and Boolean reasoning, hinting at a rather systematic approach to theory combination. The full development of this approach, proving soundness, completeness and termination properties for the combination of theories with disjoint signatures, was conducted in a more general framework called CDSAT for *Conflict-Driven Satisfiability* [2, 3]. CDSAT generically combines a collection of abstract *theory modules* where theory reasoning is specified in terms of *inference rules* rather than evaluation and theory lemmas, and therefore CDSAT does not require theories to have a standard model in the sense described above. Indeed the interpretation of sorts as sets, and of symbols as functions and

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predicates, may vary according to theory models, while being more specified than in theory EUF (imagine for instance a theory  $\mathcal{T}_{inj}$  whose unique function symbol  $f$  from sort  $s_1$  to sort  $s_2$  is injective). MCSAT is an instance of CDSAT, and the more traditional Nelson-Oppen scheme [12] for theory combination is another, where each theory  $\mathcal{T}$  comes with a black box procedure that decides  $\mathcal{T}$ -satisfiability. CDSAT can also combine MCSAT theory plugins with black box decision procedures. In all cases, the critical information exchanged between theory modules, whether explicitly or by assigning first-order values, is about *equalities*, *i.e.*, which variables or terms are equal to which.

Indeed, theory combination in MCSAT raises for instance the question: if a theory module for, *e.g.*, LRA communicates assignment  $x \leftarrow 3/4$ , what should another theory module in the combination understand from it? From value  $3/4$  itself it should only understand that it is different from other values, say  $2/3$ . Thus, if the LRA module communicates another assignment  $y \leftarrow 2/3$  (resp.  $y \leftarrow 3/4$ ), other theory modules only have to understand that  $x$  and  $y$  are different (resp. equal). Each theory module is therefore required to understand equality and reason about it taking into account reflexivity, symmetry and transitivity. In practice though, it is desirable to avoid duplicating computation for equality reasoning across different theory modules.

In this paper, we sketch the design of an architecture based on MCSAT where equality reasoning is centralized. A unique component implementing an equality graph (Egraph) lies at the centre of the architecture, and can be queried by the different theory modules.

On the one hand, this departs from the traditional SMT-solving architecture based on DPLL(T), where the SAT-solver, rather than the Egraph, has the central role. Instead, we follow the idea of MCSAT and CDSAT that Boolean reasoning can be considered as one of the theories to be combined, and we argue that it is more important for theory modules to be directly interfaced with the Egraph, delegating equality reasoning to it, rather than to be interfaced with the module handling Boolean connectives.

On the other hand, the literature on MCSAT and CDSAT hardly investigates whether and how the mechanisms controlling the assignments of values to terms can be usefully enhanced by centralizing equality reasoning: For instance, assume that terms  $t_0, \dots, t_n$  are equal, *i.e.*, assume the connectivity of the graph whose vertices are those terms and whose edges are the explicitly known equalities  $t_i = t_j$  between them. There is a risk in MCSAT and CDSAT that deciding the assignment of a value to  $t_0$  triggers  $n$  further assignments of the same value to  $t_1, \dots, t_n$ , via the equality constraints between the terms which, one after the other, all become unit constraints. On the contrary, not performing those  $n$  propagations may be problematic, say if the value of  $t_{42}$  is needed for the evaluation of a bigger term where  $t_{42}$  occurs.

In this paper we sketch how to leverage an Egraph in order to avoid such dilemmas and provide other benefits such as recording the *domains* of feasible values for equivalence classes of terms rather than for individual terms. The use of the Egraph during the model building phases, described in Section 2, then impacts how conflict analysis is also performed, as described in Section 3. A prototype is available at <https://github.com/witan-org/witan>.

## 2 Model building

As in CDCL, MCSAT, and CDSAT, the model building phase consists in *making decisions* about the model to be built, and *propagating the consequences* of these decisions to further complete the construction of the model. This section describes how the equality reasoner is used during that phase.

## 2.1 Purpose and general principles of the equality reasoner

The equality reasoner has several purposes:

The first one is to make available, on demand, the information of whether two terms are equal, different, or whether this is unknown, given the knowledge that has been passed to the reasoner so far. This takes into account reflexivity, symmetry, and transitivity, but also (this is specific to MCSAT/CDSAT) the assignment of values to variables and more generally to terms: If  $x \leftarrow 3/4$ ,  $y \leftarrow 3/4$ ,  $z \leftarrow 2/3$  have been communicated to the equality reasoner, then the reasoner can tell (without understanding the semantics of  $3/4$  and  $2/3$ ) that  $x$  is equal to  $y$  and different from  $z$ . This inference power is formally identified in [2, 3], in the form of *equality inferences*.

The second purpose is to make available, on demand, the information of whether a term has a determined value (and if so, which one), either because a value has been assigned to it explicitly, or because a value has been explicitly assigned to another term that is equal to the first one according to equality inferences.

The third one is to record theory-specific information about terms that is meant to be invariant across classes of terms that are known to be equal. For instance, imagine the LRA theory module records that the range of feasible values for a variable  $x$  is in the interval  $[2/3, 3/4]$  (*e.g.*, any other value would violate a constraint that must be satisfied), and wonders about the range of feasible values for variable  $y$ . If  $y$  can be inferred to be equal to  $x$  according to equality inferences, then the feasible values for  $y$  should also be in  $[2/3, 3/4]$ . This is particularly useful in MCSAT, where theory plugins often maintain, for each variable whose value is to be determined, a *domain* of feasible values to pick from. Maintaining one domain for each equivalence class of terms, rather than for each term or variable, is likely to be more efficient, and can be provided by the equality reasoner.

For obvious reasons of efficiency, an equality reasoner that makes all of this information available should avoid eager computations. For reflexivity, symmetry and transitivity, an Egraph based on union-find is the obvious and well-known structure to use, materialising equivalence classes of terms. Making the equality reasoner handle value assignments, so as to capture all equality inferences, only requires a minor adaptation: both terms and values can form nodes of the Egraph, and when  $x \leftarrow 3/4$  is communicated to the reasoner, the equivalence classes of  $x$  and  $3/4$  should be merged. The Egraph can record, for each equivalence class, the value (if any) that has been assigned to some term in the class, and otherwise the domain of feasible values. This allows the Egraph to fulfil the second and third purpose, and detect when merges lead to basic inconsistencies: for instance if in the example above some term in the same class as  $x$  has already been assigned a different value, say  $2/3$ , the merge fails and a *conflict* is raised.

Finally, making all of this information available on demand means that the Egraph can be queried for a direct answer, but also that whichever component sends the query can also ask to be notified when the answer to the query changes in the future: typically, if two terms cannot be determined to be equal or different according to equality inferences, being notified when their equality becomes determined may be useful for a theory module. The Egraph therefore allows components to *subscribe* to a daemon monitoring the query.

In the next section we further detail the implementation and use of the Egraph, describing the objects that are manipulated, how theories could propagate information or be warned that some information have been propagated, and finally how the engine orders these request.

## 2.2 Implementation and use of the Egraph

**Nodes** A node of the Egraph is an inhabitant of an OCaml sum type, being either a term, of type `ThTerms`, or a value, of type `Values`. Both are hashconsed in our implementation.<sup>1</sup> Since each theory module can use its own notion of value, the inhabitants of `Values` can be heterogeneous, implementing the Booleans ( $\top, \perp$ ), the rationals (for LRA), the algebraic reals (for NRA), etc. Type `Values` is actually an *extensible* type, so that it can be defined at runtime according to which theory modules participate to the theory combination. The requirement to hashcons the `Values` just means that an equality function (already needed) and a hash function (for limiting the use of the equality) must be provided, so even with complicated values such as the algebraic reals, there is no need for a costly canonical representation (equality using Thom encoding is NC [9], the hash could use some fixed precision approximation of the real). Perhaps less expectedly, type `ThTerms` is also made of heterogeneous inhabitants: Besides *syntactic terms*, which directly implement the first-order term grammar and are obtained for instance as a result of parsing the input, each theory can use its own notion of term so that, for instance, if the syntactic term  $((x + 7) + (x - y))$  is parsed, the LRA theory immediately creates a *theory term* appropriate for LRA, *i.e.*, an implementation of the polynomial recording the map from variables to coefficients  $\{x \mapsto 2, y \mapsto -1\}$  and the constant 7. Variables  $x$  and  $y$  can more generally be nodes of the Egraph, *e.g.*, composite terms whose head symbol is in the signature of another theory and which LRA treats as variables. Similarly, the Boolean theory can use theory terms of the form  $\pm(\pm n_1 \vee \dots \vee \pm n_j)$  where  $n_1, \dots, n_j$  are nodes ( $\pm$  marks the presence or absence of a negation). Such theory terms can be seen as the *semantical values* of [4]. Type `ThTerms` is an extensible one for the same reason as type `Values`, and syntactic terms are a particular instance of theory terms that is present in every combination. When a theory term is computed as a more appropriate representation of a syntactic term, their respective equivalence classes are immediately merged.

In this paper, our notations do not distinguish values and value nodes, *e.g.*,  $\top, 3/4$  are both values and nodes. On the other hand for clarity our notations distinguish theory terms and nodes, and we use a definitional notation such as  $n \triangleq \pm(\pm n_1 \vee \dots \vee \pm n_j)$  to indicate that  $n$  is the view of the Boolean theory term  $\pm(\pm n_1 \vee \dots \vee \pm n_j)$  as a node.

**Equivalence class information** Information about each equivalence class can be recorded by an Egraph (*e.g.*, at the root of the tree implementing the class in the union-find structure). It can be useful to record:

- a value  $v$  if the equivalence class contains  $v$  as a node;
- if not, a *domain* of *feasible* values that can be assigned to the theory terms in the class;
- a syntactic term in the equivalence class, if there is one (it can be useful if a representative of the class is needed that is expressed in the vanilla first-order term grammar);
- if not, a theory term that can be picked as the class representative.

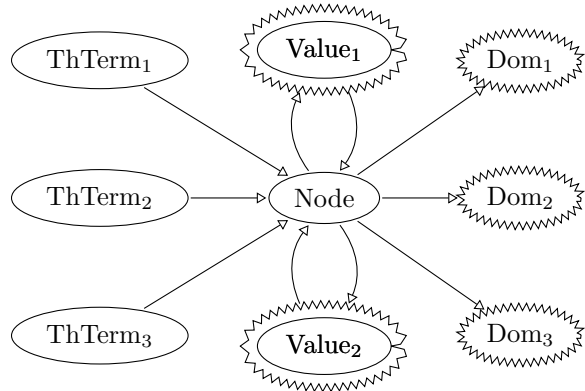


Figure 1: Relations between the object in the Egraph

<sup>1</sup>Two identical values (resp. theory terms) are necessarily at the same memory address.

In fact, we may record for the class different values for different theory modules. Indeed, several modules may want to assign values to the theory terms in an equivalence class, if they share the sort of these terms but are using different kinds of values for that sort [3], *e.g.*, theory  $\mathcal{T}_1$  assigning  $t \leftarrow 3/4$  and theory  $\mathcal{T}_2$  assigning  $u \leftarrow \mathbf{red}$ , with  $t$  and  $u$  in the same class. Having both assignments is not necessarily unsatisfiable:  $3/4$  and  $\mathbf{red}$  will only have to denote the same element in a  $(\mathcal{T}_1 \cup \mathcal{T}_2)$ -model. For instance,  $\mathcal{T}_1$  could be LRA, with  $t$  and  $u$  being of sort  $\mathbb{Q}$  (the rationals), and  $\mathcal{T}_2$  could be a theory whose signature involves this sort while the semantics of its inhabitants is irrelevant (*e.g.*, the sort of values in the theory of arrays):  $\mathcal{T}_2$  is still allowed to use an arbitrary range of values such as  $\mathbf{red}$  for its own reasoning mechanics, and store them in the Egraph. The Egraph does maintain the invariant that one theory module can only have at most one of its values in an equivalence class; and if there is one, it makes it readily available in the class information structure.

Likewise, the Egraph allows each theory module to maintain its own domain for the feasible values of a class. In fact, this domain can even be implemented as a composite domain: for instance the theory of bitvectors may maintain, as in [13], a bitvector interval domain, *e.g.*, [1010, 1110], together with a bitvector mask domain, *e.g.*, 1??0. Values to be picked must be in the intersection of the domains; in this example 1010, 1100, and 1110 are feasible. Disequality information is also recorded as a domain for the class (indicating which other equivalence classes should not be merged with this one).

**Egraph operations** We now describe the operations that transform the Egraph during the model building phase; they each correspond to an exported primitive in the Egraph API. Any node participating to one of the Egraph operations must be *registered*. Until then the node is dormant; separating node creation and registration avoids reasoning on a part of formula that is not needed: *e.g.*, with  $\text{ite}(c, t, e)$  the nodes  $t$  (resp.  $e$ ) could be dormant until we know that  $c$  has value  $\top$  (resp.  $\perp$ ). Four kinds of Egraph operations can be applied to an Egraph  $E$ :

- **Merge**: Two registered nodes  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  have their equivalence classes merged, the resulting Egraph being denoted  $\mathbf{merge} \ n_1 \ n_2 \ \text{in} \ E$ .
- **ThTerms**: The classes of a registered node and a theory term are merged.
- **Value**: The value of a registered node is set, merging the classes of the node and the value.
- **Domain**: The domain of a registered node is set or modified.

Operation **Value** (resp. **ThTerms**) is not subsumed by **Merge**, because the value (resp. the theory term) does not have to be registered. Because of this, none of the four operations above increase the number of equivalence classes, even temporarily.

**Daemon** Constraint Programming as known in the CP community, uses domains extensively with the help of *daemons* also called suspension [1, p. 185]. Daemons specify on which events they are waiting (*e.g.*, the domain of specific node is modified, two equivalence classes are merged). They also provide a call-back function, to be run when the daemon is woken. In our design, daemons can wait on the following events:

- **Domains**: wake up when the specific kind of domain for a specific node is modified.  
We write  $(t \triangleleft_E D)$  when, in Egraph  $E$ , the theory term  $t$  has domain  $D$  in its class;
- **Values**: wake up when the specified node gets a value of the specified kind in its class.  
We write  $(t \leftarrow_E v)$  when, in Egraph  $E$ , the theory term  $t$  has value  $v$  in its class.  
If on the contrary the class of  $t$  has no values of the specified kind we write  $(t \not\leftarrow_E)$ .
- **Node Registered**: wake up when the specified node is registered;
- **Theory Terms Registered**: wake up when a theory term of the specified kind is registered;
- **Value Registered**: wake up when a value of the specified kind is registered;

- **Repr**: wake up when this node is no longer the representative of its equivalence class.

The events **Domains** and **Values** could be used for example for Boolean or arithmetic propagation. The events **Node Registered** can be used when delaying the registration of a sub-term, to know that it has been registered from somewhere else. The events **Theory Terms Registered** and **Value Registered** are used for initializing other daemons, for example to perform domain or value propagations. The events **Repr** is used for congruence closure, as indeed for  $n \triangleq f(x)$  we should merge the theory term  $f(y)$  with  $n$  when  $x$  is not the representative anymore.

**Ordering** The daemons are not woken immediately when an Egraph operation is performed. Otherwise a wake-up chain could be triggered, leading to potential loops or stack overflows. More importantly, this would make reasoning a lot harder. So most of the wake-ups are delayed. Also a merge between two classes cannot be done before the domains of the two classes are merged and therefore identical. Some daemon must be run with a higher priority than merging, for example because they ensure some invariant of a domain (for example for keeping a normalized linear polynomial as a domain), we call these daemons *impatient*. In order to satisfy these constraints the Egraph processes the actions using different queues in the following order of preference:

1. The registration of a node is done immediately, the woken daemons are queued.
2. Modification of domain is done immediately, the woken daemons are queued.
3. Setting of a value is done immediately if it is not registered and the woken daemons are queued, otherwise the merging of the nodes is queued.
4. Setting of a theory term is done immediately if it is not registered and the woken daemons are queued, otherwise the merging of the nodes is queued.
5. Running of impatient daemons.
6. Merging domains of the nodes that are going to be merged
7. Finish the merging of the nodes and the woken daemons are queued. This queue has always at most one element.
8. Start the merge of a pair of nodes, marked as **merging**  $n_1$   $n_2$  in  $E$  by expl. It is done in two steps: first, queuing their domains, if different, for merging (priority **6**); second, queuing the finishing of the merge (priority **7**).
9. Run the other daemons.
10. Run the decisions.

The last two queues could be handled by an external scheduler that also handles the backtrack points and the alternation between the model building phase and conflict analysis phase.

**Explanation** Triggering most of the Egraph-transforming operations requires providing a piece of data called *explanation*. That data is later used during *conflict analysis* so as to remember why the operation was performed. The format of that data is specific to the module having triggered the operation, since the data will be passed back to the module if and when conflict analysis asks why this operation was performed. Explanations are similar to the *theory proofs* of [2]. Here, a particular case of explanation is the dummy one that marks the operation as having been performed “for no reason”, *i.e.*, as a *decision*. Such unjustified operations will be potential points of backtrack during search, as discussed in the next paragraph. An explanation is required for the **Merge**, **Value** and **ThTerms** operations, but not for the **Domain** one. It is required for the former because the equality is a central notion that any theory could use. On the other hand, the latter is specific to the theory that maintains this domain. Nonetheless at any time an explanation can be stored on the trail; we will see an example of this in Section 4.2.

**Decisions** During the model building phases, theory modules can declare their interest in some decisions being made (*e.g.*, “I need the value of that variable to be decided”). The format of such declarations is again theory-specific, but it contains at least a declared Egraph node of interest. Such declarations are recorded centrally in a decision queue, which is a priority queue that uses the usual VSIDS heuristics [10], based here on the activity of nodes. When a clause is learnt, a set of useful nodes is identified in order to update their activity. When no more propagations are to be done, the scheduler selects one possible decision out of the decision queue, and asks the theory module that created it whether the decision is still needed. Indeed, since the proposed decision was placed into the queue, events might have happened (*e.g.*, propagations) that make it obsolete. If the decision is not needed after all (*e.g.*, the value of a variable has been already determined by propagation), the scheduler moves on without creating a backtrack point. If the decision is needed, the scheduler creates a backtrack point and applies the Egraph operation specified by the decision.

**Conflict** When a conflict is found by a daemon during propagation, the Egraph is notified and an explanation is given, this time justifying the conflict rather than a propagation. The Egraph could detect a conflict by itself when attempting an operation `merge  $n_1$   $n_2$  in  $E$` , *e.g.*, if  $n_1 \leftarrow_E v_1$  and  $n_2 \leftarrow_E v_2$  for two values  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  of some theory  $\mathcal{T}$  that are different. In that case the merge is not performed (as we prefer to keep the Egraph in a sound state) and, accordingly, the explanation `expl` given for the failed operation `merge  $n_1$   $n_2$  in  $E$`  is not added to the trail. Instead, it contributes to the explanation `DIFF_VALUE(expl,  $n_1$ ,  $v_1$ ,  $n_2$ ,  $v_2$ )` (c.f. Section 4.1) that the Egraph gives to justify the conflict that it detected. When the Egraph detects or is notified of a conflict, it in turn notifies the scheduler, which starts the conflict analysis phase. Conflict analysis computes the backtrack point that the scheduler should go back to, restoring the Egraph datastructure that existed then. The only information kept from this branch exploration is the constraint learnt during conflict analysis (and the VSIDS heuristic score updates). This ensures the Egraph does not grow indefinitely with the arbitrary values used during search.

### 3 Conflict Analysis

The conflict analysis phase should produce a new constraint that forbids at least the last decision that was made. In order to do that, explanations for Egraph operations are recorded in a *trail*, a stack that is similar to that used in CDCL, MCSAT and CDSAT. The number of elements in the trail is the current *age*. Backtrack points corresponds to particular ages of the stack.

**Node history** An additional structure, called the *node history* or `nodehist`, is used to answer the question: “are two nodes  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  in the same equivalence class, and if so, at which age did they first appear in the same class?”. This is useful information because the trail has recorded, at this age, the explanation given for the merge. The node history, given a node  $n$ , indicates (i) at which age  $a_n$  this node stopped being the representative of its class and (ii) what its new representative `newrep( $n$ )` was. Recording that information during the model building phase is done in constant time. To answer the above question during conflict analysis, assume without loss of generality that  $a_{n_1} < a_{n_2}$ ; then if `newrep( $n_1$ )` is  $n_2$  the answer to the question is  $a_{n_1}$ , and otherwise the answer is recursively computed for `newrep( $n_1$ )` and  $n_2$ .

**Hypotheses and split function** The conflict analysis is similar to that in other frameworks such as CDCL, MCSAT or CDSAT. It starts when a conflict is notified to the Egraph. The



analysis maintains a *conflict*, *i.e.*, a list  $H_1, \dots, H_n$  of conflict elements or *hypotheses* such that  $H_1, \dots, H_n \models_{\mathcal{T}_\infty} \perp$ , where  $\mathcal{T}_\infty$  is the union of the combined theories, as in [3]. Hypotheses are theory-specific and called  $\mathcal{T}$ -hypotheses; each  $\mathcal{T}$ -hypothesis  $H$  should hold in the partial model described by the Egraph  $E$ , *i.e.*,  $E \models_{\mathcal{T}} H$  (in [3] the conflict elements had to be explicitly present in the trail; here it can hold in a less direct way). The theory module for  $\mathcal{T}$  must provide a means to retrieve, from  $H$ , the reasons why it holds according to the current Egraph  $E$ . Technically, this is given as a set  $\mathbf{ages}(H)$  of ages, identifying the Egraph operations that contribute to making  $H$  hold. For instance an LRA-hypothesis  $H$  could be  $(0 \leq x + y)$ ; assuming that  $H$  holds according to the Egraph  $E$  because  $x \leftarrow_E 2$  and  $y \leftarrow_E 3$ , we would have  $\mathbf{ages}(H) = \{a_x, a_y\}$ , where  $a_x$  (resp.  $a_y$ ) is the age when  $x$  and 2 (resp.  $y$  and 3) first appeared in the same class.

The analysis starts with  $H_0 \models_{\mathcal{T}_\infty} \perp$  and  $H_0 = \perp$ . Then each step consists of replacing one hypothesis  $H$  by a set of hypotheses such that  $H_1, \dots, H_n \models_{\mathcal{T}_\infty} H$ , as in [3] again. We use the ages of hypotheses in the same way a SAT solver uses the levels of literals in a conflict clause: the maximum  $\mathbf{age}_{max}(H)$  of the set  $\mathbf{ages}(H)$  is greater than or equal to the age of the last decision, if and only if hypothesis  $H$  belongs to the level of the conflict; then

- If only one hypothesis in the conflict belongs to the level of the conflict, it forms a UIP and we can stop conflict analysis;
- Otherwise the hypothesis  $H$  with greatest  $\mathbf{age}_{max}(H)$  is chosen for replacement. The replacement is done by looking up, in the trail, the explanation that was given for the Egraph operation performed at age  $\mathbf{age}_{max}(H)$ , and use that to recover new hypotheses  $H_1, \dots, H_n$  such that  $H_1, \dots, H_n \models_{\mathcal{T}_\infty} H$ .

We now look at how the new hypotheses  $H_1, \dots, H_n$  are recovered. If  $H$  is a  $\mathcal{T}_1$ -hypothesis, the theory module for  $\mathcal{T}_1$  can provide  $\mathbf{age}_{max}(H)$ . Typically, the explanation  $\text{expl}$  found in the trail at age  $\mathbf{age}_{max}(H)$  is the explanation of a merge (**merge**  $n_1$   $n_2$  **in**  $E$ ), which was triggered by the theory module for a theory  $\mathcal{T}_2$ . From a logical point of view, we have  $E \wedge (n_1 = n_2) \models_{\mathcal{T}_1} H$  and therefore  $E \models_{\mathcal{T}_1} (n_1 = n_2) \Rightarrow H$ . We then rely on the  $\mathcal{T}_1$  theory module to provide new  $\mathcal{T}_1$ -hypotheses  $H_1, \dots, H_k$ , denoted  $\mathbf{split}_{\mathcal{T}_1}(H, n_1, n_2)$ , that form an interpolant between  $E$  and  $(n_1 = n_2) \Rightarrow H$ , in the sense that  $E \models_{\mathcal{T}_1} H_1 \wedge \dots \wedge H_k$  and  $H_1, \dots, H_k \models_{\mathcal{T}_1} (n_1 = n_2) \Rightarrow H$ .

For example, assume that  $\mathcal{T}_1$  is the theory of pure equality,  $\mathcal{T}_1$ -hypotheses are just equalities,  $H$  is  $x = y$ , and  $H$  holds in  $E$  because there is in  $E$  a chain of equalities, a.k.a. *equality path*, from  $x$  to  $y$ . If the equality that was last added to the chain is  $a = b$ , then  $\mathbf{age}_{max}(H)$  is the age of the merge between the classes of  $a$  and  $b$ , and  $\mathbf{split}_{\mathcal{T}_1}(H, a, b)$  is the set of  $\mathcal{T}_1$ -hypotheses  $\{(x=a), (b=y)\}$ . More interestingly, if  $\mathcal{T}_1$  is LRA and  $0 \leq x + y$  holds in the partial model  $E$  because  $x \leftarrow_E 2$  and  $y \leftarrow_E 3$ ,  $\mathbf{split}_{LRA}(0 \leq x + y, a, b)$  is the set of hypotheses  $\{(0 \leq b + y), (x=a)\}$  if  $a = b$  is on the equality path from  $x$  to 2, and  $\{(0 \leq x + b), (y=a)\}$  if it is on the equality path from  $y$  to 3. This is reminiscent of the substitution mechanism of [6], used during conflict analysis when the last operation that contributed to the conflict was a propagated assignment.

Then the theory module for  $\mathcal{T}_2$  can use  $\mathbf{split}_{\mathcal{T}_1}(H, n_1, n_2)$  to produce  $H_1, \dots, H_n$  such that  $H_1, \dots, H_n \models_{\mathcal{T}_\infty} H$ . Typically, it will add to  $\mathbf{split}_{\mathcal{T}_1}(H, n_1, n_2) = \{H_1, \dots, H_k\}$  some  $\mathcal{T}_2$ -hypotheses  $H_{k+1}, \dots, H_n$  that entail  $n_1 = n_2$  and that can be recovered from the explanation  $\text{expl}$  recorded for the merge (**merge**  $n_1$   $n_2$  **in**  $E$ ). Unless that merge was a decision,  $n_1 = n_2$  is a consequence of  $E$ , and  $H_{k+1}, \dots, H_n$  will capture “what it is about  $E$  that justifies the merge”. If the merge was a decision,  $\{H_{k+1}, \dots, H_n\}$  can simply be  $\{n_1 = n_2\}$  itself, but in that case the hypothesis  $n_1 = n_2$  is marked so that it is never picked for replacement in the next steps of the conflict analysis (if the set  $\{H_1, \dots, H_n\}$  replacing  $H$  contained  $H$ , conflict analysis would loop).

More generally, the production of  $H_1, \dots, H_n$  according to each form  $\text{expl}$  can take is described by *conflict analysis rules*, as illustrated in the next section with different examples of theories  $\mathcal{T}_2$ . Finally, the conflict analysis step replaces  $H$  by  $H_1, \dots, H_n$  in the conflict.

$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{DOWN}(n, n_i) \\
\frac{n \hat{=} + (+n_1 \vee \dots \vee +n_j) \quad n \leftarrow_E \perp}{\text{merge } n_i \perp \text{ in } E}
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{c}
\text{DECIDE}(n) \\
\frac{n \not\leftarrow_E}{\text{merge } n \top \text{ in } E}
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{c}
\text{NOT}(n_i, n_{1-i}) \\
\frac{n_0 \hat{=} -n_1 \quad n_i \leftarrow_E b}{\text{merge } n_{1-i} (-b) \text{ in } E}
\end{array}$$
  

$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{UP}(n, n_j) \\
\frac{n \hat{=} + (+n_1 \vee \dots \vee +n_j) \quad n_j \leftarrow_E \top}{\text{merge } n \top \text{ in } E}
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{c}
\text{BCP}(n \hat{=} + (+n_1 \vee \dots \vee +n_j), n_i) \\
\frac{n \hat{=} + (+n_1 \vee \dots \vee n_i \vee \dots \vee +n_j) \quad \text{for all } k \neq i, n_k \leftarrow_E \perp}{\text{merge } n \ n_i \text{ in } E}
\end{array}$$

Figure 2: Boolean Theory rules for the model building phase (simplified version only the  $\pm$  case of  $\hat{=}$  is shown). The name of the rules (DOWN, DECIDE, NOT, UP, BCP –for Boolean Constraint Propagation, as in SAT) are the name of the explanations. The argument of the names are the information kept for the analysis phase.

$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{DOWN}(n, n_i) \\
\frac{H}{\text{split}(H, n_i, \perp) \quad n = \perp}
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{c}
\text{DECIDE}(n) \\
\frac{H}{\text{split}(H, n, \top) \quad n = \top}
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{c}
\text{NOT}(n, n') \\
\frac{H}{\text{split}(H, n', (-b)) \quad b = n}
\end{array}$$
  

$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{UP}(n, n_j) \\
\frac{H}{\text{split}(H, n, \top) \quad n_j = \top}
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{c}
\text{BCP}(n \hat{=} + (+n_1 \vee \dots \vee +n_j), n_i) \\
\frac{H}{\text{split}(H, n, n_i) \quad \text{for all } k \neq i, n_k = \perp}
\end{array}$$

Figure 3: Boolean Theory Conflict Analysis (simplified version). Each rule corresponds to the analysis of the propagation rule of the same name in Figure 2

**Value contradiction** The conflict explanation given when `merge`  $n_1 \ n_2$  `in`  $E$  fails because of a clash of values between  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  is `DIFF_VALUE(expl,  $n_1, v_1, n_2, v_2$ )`. Its conflict analysis inference rule replaces  $\perp$  by `analyze(expl,  $v_1 = v_2$ )`. The analysis of `expl` will usually split the equality into  $v_1 = n_1$  and  $n_2 = v_2$  and add the hypothesis used for propagating  $n_1 = n_2$ .

## 4 Examples

### 4.1 Boolean

As in MCSAT and CDSAT, the Boolean theory does not use a CNF transform, and conjunctions and disjunctions could be arbitrarily nested. But the implementation still uses a two-watched literals mechanism to implement Boolean Constraint Propagation (BCP). Theory terms are of the form  $n \hat{=} \pm (\pm n_1 \vee \dots \vee \pm n_j)$ , as described previously. This format can represent conjunctions and disjunctions, and importantly it reduces the need to create nodes that are just negations of each other. The values are  $\top, \perp$  and there are no domains used for that theory.

Figure 2 shows the propagation rules: the premises of each rule are events that the theory's daemons are notified about, and the conclusion is the Egraph operation that is triggered. The name of the rule and its parameter form the explanation given to the Egraph, *i.e.*, the information kept for the conflict analysis phase. For readability, only the cases when  $\pm$  is  $+$  are

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\text{UPTRUE}(n, n_i, n_k) \quad n \triangleq \{n_1; \dots; n_j\} \quad n_i = n_k}{\text{merge } n \top \text{ in } E} \quad \frac{\text{DOWNTRUE}(n \triangleq \{n_1; n_2\}) \quad n \triangleq \{n_1; n_2\} \quad n = \top}{\text{merge } n_1 \ n_2 \text{ in } E} \quad \frac{\text{DECIDE}(n_i, n_k) \quad n \triangleq \{n_1; \dots; n_j\} \quad \text{not } n_i = n_k}{\text{merge } n_i \ n_k \text{ in } E} \\
\\
\frac{\text{DOWNFALSE}(n \triangleq \{n_1; \dots; n_j\}) \quad n \triangleq \{n_1; \dots; n_j\} \quad n \leftarrow_E \perp \quad \text{for all } i, n_i \triangleleft_E s_i}{\text{for all } i, n_i \triangleleft_E \{n \mapsto \text{next\_age}\} \cup s_i} \\
\\
\frac{\text{UPFALSE}(n_1, D_1, \dots, n_j, D_j) \quad n \triangleq \{n_1; \dots; n_j\} \quad \text{for all } i, n_i \triangleleft_E D_i \quad \text{for all } i, k, D_i \cap D_k \neq \emptyset}{\text{merge } n \top \text{ in } E} \\
\\
\frac{\text{CONTRADICTION}(\text{expl}, n_1, D_1, n_2, D_2) \quad \text{merging } n_1 \ n_2 \text{ in } E \text{ by expl} \quad n_1 \triangleleft_E D_1 \quad n_2 \triangleleft_E D_2 \quad D_1 \cup D_2 \neq \emptyset}{\perp} \\
\\
\frac{\text{MERGE} \quad \text{merging } n_1 \ n_2 \text{ in } E \text{ by expl} \quad n_1 \triangleleft_E D_1 \quad n_2 \triangleleft_E D_2 \quad D_1 \cup D_2 = \emptyset}{D_3 = D_1 \cap D_2 \quad n_1 \triangleleft_E D_3 \quad n_2 \triangleleft_E D_3}
\end{array}$$

Figure 4: Equality Theory Propagation

shown; the other cases can be obtained by switching  $\top$  and  $\perp$  according to whether  $\pm$  is  $+$  or  $-$ .

The rules of figure 3 are the conflict analysis inference rules as described in Section 3: there is one rule for each kind of explanation, which is indicated again in the rule name. The premise of the rule is the hypothesis  $H$  (from another theory  $\mathcal{T}$ ) that needs replacing, and the conclusion of the rule is the set of new hypotheses that  $H$  is replaced with. As mentioned in Section 3, the rules rely on the function  $\text{split}_{\mathcal{T}_1}$  provided by  $\mathcal{T}_1$ , abbreviated as **split** in the figure.

We are illustrating the boolean propagation and learning with an example which is not in CNF ( $n_1 \wedge n_4$  is used as a shorthand for  $\neg(\neg n_1 \vee \neg n_4)$ ),  $n_7$  and  $n_8$  are set to  $\top$

$$\overbrace{n_1 \wedge (n_2 \vee \neg n_3)}^{n_5} \vee \overbrace{n_5 \vee n_6}^{n_7} \quad \overbrace{-n_2 \vee -n_1}^{n_8}$$

$n_4$

at level 0. A sequence of decision and propagation gives the trail:  $\text{DECIDE}(n_3), \text{BCP}(n_4 \triangleq +(+n_2 \vee -n_3), n_3), \text{DECIDE}(n_1), \text{BCP}(n_1 \triangleq n_1 \wedge n_4, n_1)$  and leads to the contradiction  $\text{DIFF\_VALUE}(\text{BCP}(n_8 \triangleq +(-n_2 \vee -n_1), n_1), n_1, \top, n_8, \perp)$ . The conflict analysis start with  $H_0 \triangleq \top = \perp$ , then  $H_0$  is replaced by  $(H_1 \triangleq \top = n_1), (H_2 \triangleq n_2 = \top), (H_3 \triangleq n_8 = \perp)$ , then  $H_2$  is replaced by  $(H_4 \triangleq n_2 = n_4), (H_5 \triangleq n_7 = \top), H_1$  which leads to the new constraints  $\neg H_1 \vee \neg H_4$  ( $H_3$  and  $H_5$  have a level before the first decision).

## 4.2 Equalities

The theory of equality is responsible for the equality symbol but also of the n-ary function **distinct**. So theory terms are of the form  $m \triangleq \{n_1; \dots; n_j\}$ , which intuitively stands for  $\bigvee_i \bigvee_{k, k \neq i} n_i = n_k$ . When this theory term is false we directly have the semantics of **distinct**. The implementation efficiently implements the distinct symbol by (i) tagging all arguments of distinct (when it has the  $\top$  value) with the same tag (the node  $m$ ), and (ii) checking that no merging is done between nodes sharing the same tags. For each node we store the set of tags

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\text{UPTRUE}(n, n_i, n_k)}{H} \quad \frac{\text{DOWNTRUE}(n \triangleq \{n_1; n_2\})}{H} \quad \frac{\text{DOWNFALSE}(n \triangleq \{n_1; \dots; n_j\})}{n_i \neq n_k[\text{age}]} \\
\hline
\text{split}(H, n = \top) \quad n_i = n_k \quad \text{split}(H, n_1 = n_2) \quad n = \top \quad n = \perp \\
\text{CONTRADICTION}(\text{expl}, n_1, n_2, d, \text{age}) \\
\perp \\
\frac{\text{let } n'_1, n'_2, \text{age} = \text{originals}(n_i, D_i, n_k, D_k) \quad n'_1 = n'_2 \quad n'_1 \neq n'_2[\text{age}]}{H} \\
\text{UPFALSE}(n_1, D_1, \dots, n_j, D_j) \\
\hline
\text{for all pairs } i, k, \text{ let } n'_i, n'_k, \text{age} = \text{originals}(n_i, D_i, n_k, D_k) \quad n'_i = n'_k \quad n'_i \neq n'_k[\text{age}] \\
\text{split}(H, n = \perp)
\end{array}$$

Figure 5: Equality Theory Conflict Analysis

$m_1, \dots, m_l$  as a domain:  $\{m_1 \mapsto \text{age}_1; \dots; m_l \mapsto \text{age}_l\}$ . The  $\text{age}_1, \dots, \text{age}_l$  are the age of the trail when the corresponding tag was added. The propagation rules are shown in Fig. 4, where  $n \triangleleft_E D$  means that  $n$  has domain  $D$  in the Egraph  $E$ . Even if **DOWNFALSE** is not a merge we require the explanation to be added to the trail (at age  $\text{next\_age}$ ). **MERGE** is not added to the trail because it does not add any information. Fig. 5 shows the conflict analysis rules. Hypotheses  $H$  are of the form  $n_1 \neq n_2[\text{age}]$ , which is interpreted as a disequality and where  $\text{ages}(H) = \{\text{age}\}$ . The function  $\text{originals}(n_1, D_1, n_2, D_2)$  computes the origin of a disequality, i.e. the two nodes and the age at which the nodes have been made disequal. Formally,  $\text{originals}(n_1, D_1, n_2, D_2)$  computes from  $n_1, n_2$  and two non-disjoint sets of tags  $D_1, D_2$ , the nodes  $n'_1, n'_2$  and age such that it exists  $m \triangleq \{n'_1, n'_2, \dots\}$ ,  $m \mapsto \text{age} \in D_1 \cup D_2$  and  $n_1$  (resp.  $n_2$ ) have been merged with  $n'_1$  (resp  $n'_2$ ). The node history allows to know what has been merged.

## 5 Conclusion

The concepts and the prototype described in this paper can be further developed and extended to other theories, but we hope the initial development illustrates how an Egraph and domains could form useful features of an MCSAT implementation. We would like to thanks Simon Cruanes for his participation to fruitful discussions.

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