Automatic Construction of Parallel Portfolios via Algorithm Configuration

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Abstract

Since 2004, increases in computational power described by Moore’s law have substantially been realized in the form of additional cores rather than through faster clock speeds. To make effective use of modern hardware when solving hard computational problems, it is therefore necessary to employ parallel solution strategies. In this work, we demonstrate how effective parallel solvers for propositional satisfiability (SAT), one of the most widely studied NP-complete problems, can be produced automatically from any existing sequential, highly parametric SAT solver. Our Automatic Construction of Parallel Portfolios (ACPP) approach uses an automatic algorithm configuration procedure to identify a set of configurations that perform well when executed in parallel. Applied to two prominent SAT solvers, Lingeling and clasp, our ACPP procedure identified 8-core solvers that significantly outperformed their sequential counterparts on a diverse set of instances from the application and hard combinatorial category of the 2012 SAT Challenge. We further extended our ACPP approach to produce parallel portfolio solvers consisting of several different solvers by combining their configuration spaces. Applied to the component solvers of the 2012 SAT Challenge gold medal winning SAT Solver portfolioUZK, our ACPP procedures produced a significantly better-performing parallel SAT solver.

Keywords: Algorithm Configuration; Parallel SAT Solving; Algorithm Portfolios; Programming by Optimization; Automated Parallelization

1. Introduction

Over most of the last decade, additional computational power has come primarily in the form of increased parallelism. As a consequence, effective parallel solvers are increasingly key to solving computationally challenging problems.
Unfortunately, the manual construction of parallel solvers is non-trivial, often requiring fundamental redesign of existing, sequential approaches, as identified by Hamadi and Wintersteiger [33] as the challenge of Starting from Scratch. It is thus very appealing to employ generic methods for the construction of parallel solvers from inherently sequential sources as a first step. Indeed, the prospect of a substantial reduction in human development cost means that such approaches can have a significant impact, even if their performance does not reach that of special-purpose parallel designs—just as high-level programming languages are useful, even though compiled software tends to fall short of the performance that can be obtained from expert-level programming in assembly language. One promising approach for parallelizing sequential algorithms is the design of parallel algorithm portfolios—sets of solvers that are run in parallel on a given instance of a decision problem, such as SAT, until the first of them finds a solution [40, 27].

In this work, we study generic methods for solving a problem we call Automatic Construction of Parallel Portfolios (ACPP): automatically constructing a static parallel solver from a sequential solver or a set of sequential solvers. This task can be understood as falling within the *programming by optimization* paradigm [35] in that it involves the design of software in which many design decisions have been deliberately left open during the development process (here exposed as parameters of SAT solvers) to be made automatically later (here by means of an automated algorithm configurator) in order to obtain optimized performance for specific use cases. Hence, all that is required by our ACPP methods is a sequential solver whose configuration space contains complementary configurations.

We study three variants of the ACPP problem. First, we consider building parallel portfolios starting from a single, highly parametric sequential solver design. However, for well-studied problems (e.g., SAT), there often exist a wide range of different solvers that contribute to the state of the art (see, e.g., [74]). Complementarities among such solvers can be exploited by algorithm portfolios, whether driven by algorithm selection (like SATzilla [73]) or by parallel execution (such as ppfolio [64] or pfolioUZK [71]). Thus, the second problem we consider is leveraging such complementarities within the context of the ACPP problem, generating a parallel portfolio based on a design space induced from a set of multiple (possibly parametrized) solvers. Finally, some parallel solvers already exist; these have the advantage that they can increase performance by communicating intermediate results—notably, learned clauses—between different processes. The third problem we study is constructing parallel portfolios from a set containing both sequential and parallel solvers.

We investigate three methods for solving the ACPP problem.

1. **GLOBAL** simultaneously configures all solvers in a $k$-solver parallel portfo-

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1 This paper extends a 2012 workshop publication [38].

2 In contrast to parallel algorithm selection systems [54, 55, 56], we do not dynamically select solvers on a per-instance base but automatically construct a static portfolio.
lio, representing this ACPP problem as a single-algorithm configuration problem with a design space corresponding to the \( k \)th Cartesian power of the design space of the given sequential solver. This has the advantages of simplicity and comprehensiveness (no candidate portfolios are omitted from the design space) but the disadvantage that the size of the design space increases exponentially with \( k \), which quickly produces extremely difficult configuration problems.

2. **Hydra** is a method for building portfolio-based algorithm selectors from a single, highly parameterized solver [72]. It proceeds iteratively. In the first round, it aims to find a configuration that maximizes overall performance on the given dataset. In the \( i+1 \)st round, it aims to find a configuration that maximizes marginal contribution across the configurations identified in the previous \( i \) rounds. In the original version of Hydra, these marginal contributions were calculated relative to the current selector; in the latest version of Hydra, they are determined relative to an idealized, perfect selector [42]. The wall-clock performance of a perfect selector across \( i \) solvers (also known as virtual best solver) is the same as the wall-clock performance of the same \( i \) solvers running in parallel; thus, the same general idea can be used to build parallel portfolios. (Building a parallel portfolio in this way has the added advantage that no instance features are required, since there is no need to select among algorithms.) We introduce some enhancements to this approach for the parallel portfolio setting (discussed in Section 3.1.2), and refer to our method as **parHydra**.

3. Some parallel solvers only achieve strong performance when running on more than one core; such solvers will not be found by a greedy approach like **parHydra**, which only adds one configuration at a time and does not recognize interaction effects that arise between different threads of a parallel solver. To overcome this problem, we introduce a new method called **parHydra\_b**, which augments **parHydra** to train \( b \) solvers per iteration. This method trades off the computational benefit of **parHydra**’s greedy approach with the greater coverage of **Global**.

We evaluated our ACPP methods on SAT. We chose this domain because it is highly relevant to academia and industry and has been widely studied. We thus had access to a wide range of strong, highly parametric solvers and were assured that the bar for demonstrating efficacy of parallelization strategies was appropriately high. We note that our approach is not limited to SAT solvers and can be directly applied to other domains. To evaluate our methods in the single-solver setting, we studied both Lingeling and clasp: prominent, highly parametric state-of-the-art solvers for SAT. Lingeling won a gold medal in the application (wall-clock) track of the 2011 SAT Competition and clasp placed first in the hard combinatorial track of the 2012 SAT Challenge. To evaluate our methods for generating parallel portfolios involving multiple solvers, we started with the set of solvers included by pfolioUZK, a parallel portfolio solver based on several solvers in their default configurations that won the gold medal in the parallel track of the 2012 SAT Challenge. This set includes Plingeling, a parallel
Our results demonstrate that PARHYDRA transforms single solvers into parallel portfolios both well and robustly. Its performance on standard 8-core CPUs compared favourably with that of hand-crafted parallel SAT solvers. For the generation of parallel algorithm portfolios based on a set of both parallel and sequential solvers, we found that PARHYDRA was best among the alternatives we considered, notably outperforming pfolioUZK. More detailed experimental results and open-source code are available at http://www.cs.uni-potsdam.de/acpp.

2. Background and Related Work

We now survey related work on parallel SAT solving and algorithm portfolios.

2.1. Background: SAT Solving

The Boolean satisfiability problem (SAT) is to decide whether it is possible to assign truth values (true, false) to the variables in a given propositional formula $F$ such that $F$ becomes true. If such an assignment exists, $F$ is called satisfiable, otherwise $F$ is called unsatisfiable. A complete SAT solver takes as an input a formula $F$, typically in conjunctive normal form (a conjunction of disjunctions of variables and their negations) and determine a satisfiable assignment or prove that none exists. An incomplete SAT solver can find satisfying assignments, but not prove unsatisfiability.

Most state-of-the-art complete SAT solvers are based on conflict-driven clause learning (CDCL; [58]). Their parameters control variable selection for branching decisions, clause learning and restart techniques. State-of-the-art incomplete SAT solvers use stochastic local search (SLS; [39]), and their parameters control the selection of the variable whose value is modified in each local search step as well as the diversification and additional intensification strategies. Furthermore, there exist several preprocessing techniques (e.g., [21]) to simplify formulas and their parameters control how long and how aggressive preprocessing will be used – too much preprocessing can remove important structural information and hence, it can increase the hardness of formulas. The efficacy of SAT solvers depends on multiple heuristic components whose basic functions and the interplay between them are controlled by parameters. Some parameters are categorical (e.g., choice between different search strategies in SLS), while many others are integer- or real-valued (e.g., the damping factor used in computing heuristic variable scores in CDCL).

Parallel SAT solvers have received increasing attention in recent years. ManySAT [30, 31, 29] was one of the first parallel SAT solvers. It is a static portfolio solver that uses clause sharing between its components, each of which is a manually configured, CDCL-type SAT solver based on MiniSat [22]. PeneLoPec [5, 23] is based on ManySAT and adds several policies for importing and exporting clauses between the threads. Plingeling [12, 13, 14, 15, 16] is based on a similar design; its version 587, which won a gold medal in the application track of the 2011 SAT Competition (with respect to wall clock time on SAT+UNSAT
instances), and the 2012 version *ala*, share unit clauses as well as equivalences between their component solvers. Similarly, *CryptoMiniSat* [66], which won silver in the application track of the 2011 SAT Competition, shares unit and binary clauses. *clasp* [26] is a state-of-the-art solver for SAT, ASP and PB that supports parallel multithreading (since version 2.0.0) for search space splitting and/or competing strategies, both combinable with a portfolio approach. *clasp* shares unary, binary and ternary clauses, and (optionally) offers a parameterized mechanism for distributing and integrating (longer) clauses. Finally, *ppfolio* [64] is a simple, static parallel portfolio solver for SAT without clause sharing that uses *CryptoMiniSat*, *Lingeling*, *clasp*, *TNM* [70] and *march* [34] in their default configurations as component solvers, and that won numerous medals at the 2011 SAT Competition. Like the previously mentioned portfolio solvers for SAT, *ppfolio* was constructed manually, but uses a very diverse set of high-performance solvers as its components. *pfolioUZK* [71] follows the same idea as used for *ppfolio* but uses other component solvers; it won the parallel track of the 2012 SAT Challenge. On one hand, ACPP can be understood as automatically replicating the (hand-tuned) success of solvers like *ManySAT*, *Plingeling*, *CryptoMiniSat* or *clasp*, which are inherently based on different configurations of a single parametric solver; on the other, it is also concerned with automatically producing effective parallel portfolios from multiple solvers, such as *ppfolio* and *pfolioUZK*, while exploiting the rich design spaces of these component solvers.

Katsirelos et al. [47] showed that an effective parallelisation of a CDCL SAT solver does not merely hinge on picking a good clause sharing strategy, since it is not straightforward to obtain shorter resolution proofs by parallelisation without essential changes of the underlying sequential reasoning mechanism. Our ACPP does not aim at parallelising the resolution proof, but rather runs multiple algorithms and algorithm configurations in parallel, in order to maximise the probability that at least one of them finds a short proof quickly.

### 2.2. Related Work

Well before there was widespread interest in multi-core computing, the potential benefits offered by parallel algorithm portfolios were identified in seminal work by Huberman et al. [40]. Their notion of an algorithm portfolio is inspired by the use of portfolios of assets for risk management in finance and amounts to running multiple algorithms concurrently and independently on the same instance of a given problem, until one of them produces a solution. Gomes et al. [27] further investigated conditions under which such portfolios outperform their component solvers. Both lines of work considered prominent constraint programming problems (graph colouring and quasigroup completion), but neither presented methods for automatically constructing portfolio solvers. Parallel portfolios have since made practical impact, both in cases where the allocation of computational resources to algorithms in the portfolio is static [63, 77] and where the component solvers contained in a portfolio or the resources assigned to them change over time [24].

A closely related notion of algorithm portfolios first saw practical application in this domain as the basis for algorithm selectors such as SATzilla [59, 73] and
many conceptually related methods (see, e.g., [49]). In this context, a portfolio is a set of candidate algorithms for a given problem from which one or more solvers are selected to be run, based on characteristics of the problem instance to be solved.

$p3S$ [45, 54] and parCSHC [55, 56] were the first methods to automatically select a parallel portfolio (in the case of $p3S$, actually, a parallel algorithm schedule) from a given set of SAT solvers on a per-instance basis. $p3S$ [54] is a parallel extension of the sequential algorithm selector $3S$ [45]. Similar to the sequential version, $p3S$ uses $k$-nearest neighbour clustering to determine the $k$ training instances closest in the feature space to a new instance to be solved, and computes a per-instance parallel algorithm schedule based on the runtime data of these instances using Integer Linear Programming (ILP; [62, 65]). In contrast to our ACPP method, which trains the portfolio offline, the ILP problem within $p3S$ has to be solved online for each new instance to determine a well-performing parallel portfolio. This quickly becomes very time-consuming as the number of available solvers grows and as more CPU cores are considered. parCSHC was specially designed for the SAT Competition. It always statically and independently runs 4 threads of the parallel SAT solver Pingseling, 1 thread of the sequential SAT solver CCASat, and three solvers selected on a per-instance basis. These latter solvers are selected by models that are trained on application, hard-combinatorial and random SAT instances, respectively. Other approaches to the per-instance selection of parallel portfolios that have emerged since our own are sunny-cp2 [2], which selects a parallel algorithm schedule, and claspfolio 2 [52], which implements several extensions of sequential algorithm selectors to select a parallel portfolio.

One thing that all of these methods have in common—whether parallel, selection-based or both—is that they build a portfolio from a relatively small candidate set of distinct algorithms. While, in principle, these methods could also be applied given a set of algorithms expressed implicitly as the configurations of one parametric solver, in practice, they are useful only when the set of candidates is relatively small. The same limitation applies to existing approaches that combine algorithm selection and scheduling, notably CPHydra [61], which also relies on cheaply computable features of the problem instances to be solved and selects multiple solvers to be run in parallel. Two further, conceptually related approaches are aspeed [36] and MIPSAT [60], which compute (parallel) algorithm schedules by taking advantage of the modelling and solving capacities of Answer Set Programming (ASP [10, 25]) and Mixed Integer Programming (MIP; [62, 65]), respectively.

Recently, automatic algorithm configuration has become increasingly effective, with the advent of high-performance methods such as ParamILS [43], GGA [3], irace [53] and SMAC [41]. As a result, there has been recent interest in automatically identifying useful portfolios of configurations from large algorithm design spaces. As before, such portfolio-construction techniques were first demonstrated to be practical in the case of portfolio-based algorithm selectors. We have already discussed one key method for solving this problem: Hydra [72], which greedily constructs a portfolio by configuring solvers iteratively, changing
the configurator’s objective function at each iteration to direct it to maximize marginal contribution to the portfolio. Another key method is ISAC [46], which clusters instances based on features and runs the configurator separately for each cluster. Malitsky et al. [57] extended ISAC’s scope to the construction of portfolios from a set of different solvers. However, there are three differences between the construction of sequential portfolios and of static parallel portfolios.

1. Whereas we know how many algorithms we need for a parallel portfolio when running exactly one solver per processor core (i.e., the size of the portfolio is limited to the number of processor cores available), the potential size of the portfolio is unlimited in the sequential case, since we may not select all solvers to run.
2. A sequential portfolio solver must somehow select component solvers (which can result in making the wrong decision), while static parallel solvers run the entire portfolio in parallel and thus achieve nearly the same performance as the portfolio’s virtual best solver. We note that both approaches are bounded by the performance of the virtual best solver.
3. Using several cores in parallel introduces overhead which should be considered in the configuration process.

3. Parallel Portfolio Configuration from a Single Sequential Solver

We begin by considering the problem of automatically producing a parallel portfolio solver from a single, highly-parametric sequential solver; this closely resembles the problem (manually) addressed by the developers of solvers like ManySAT, Plingeling, CryptoMiniSat and clasp. First, we define our three ACPP methods. Next, we illustrate the performance of our ACPP portfolio solvers based on Lingeling and clasp and analyze the empirical scalability of our trained ACPP solvers. Finally, in the case where clause sharing is in the design space of the component solvers, we extend our ACPP solvers with clause sharing and investigate how much further performance can be achieved by this extension.

3.1. Approach

We now describe three methods for automatically constructing parallel portfolios from a single parametric solver. We use \( C \) to denote the configuration space of our parametric solver, \( c \in C \) to represent individual configurations, and \( I \) to refer to the given set of problem instances. Our goal is to optimize (without loss of generality, to minimize) performance according to a given metric \( m \). (In our experiments, we minimize penalized average runtime, PAR10.) We use a \( k \)-tuple \( c_{1:k} = (c_1, \ldots, c_k) \) to denote a parallel portfolio with \( k \) component solvers. The parallel portfolio’s full configuration space is \( C^k = \prod_{i=1}^{k} \{c \mid c \in C\} \), where the product of two configuration spaces \( X \) and \( Y \) is defined as \( \{x\|y \mid x \in X, y \in Y\} \).

\(^3\)PARX penalizes each timeout with \( X \) times the given cutoff time [43].
Algorithm 1: Portfolio Configuration Procedure \text{GLOBAL}

Input : parametric solver with configuration space \( C \); desired number \( k \) of component solvers; instance set \( I \); performance metric \( m \); configurator \( AC \); number \( n \) of independent configurator runs; total configuration time \( t \)

Output: parallel portfolio solver with portfolio \( \hat{c}_{1:k} \)

\begin{verbatim}
1 for \( j := 1 \ldots n \) do
2    obtain portfolio \( c_{1:k}^{(j)} \) by running \( AC \) on configuration space \( \prod_{l=1}^{k} \{ (c) \mid c \in C \} \) on \( I \) using \( m \) for time \( t/n \)
3    choose \( \hat{c}_{1:k} \in \arg \min_{c_{1:k}^{(j)} | j \in \{1\ldots n\}} m(c_{1:k}^{(j)}, I) \) that achieved best performance on \( I \) according to \( m \)
4 return \( \hat{c}_{1:k} \)
\end{verbatim}

with \( x || y \) denoting the concatenation (rather than nesting) of tuples. Let \( AC \) denote a generic algorithm configuration procedure; in our experiments, we used SMAC [41]. Following established best practices (see [41]), we performed \( n \) independent runs of \( AC \), obtained configured solvers \( c^{(j)} \) with \( j \in \{1 \ldots n \} \) and retained the configured solver \( \hat{c} \) which achieved the best performance on instance set \( I \) according to metric \( m \). By \( t \) we denote the overall time budget available for producing a parallel portfolio solver.

3.1.1. Simultaneous configuration of all component solvers (GLOBAL)

Our first portfolio configuration method is the straightforward extension of standard algorithm configuration to the construction of a parallel portfolio (see Algorithm 1). Specifically, if the given solver has \( \ell \) parameters, we treat the portfolio \( c_{1:k} \) as a single algorithm with \( \ell \cdot k \) parameters inducing a configuration space of size \( |C|^k \), and configure it directly. As noted above, we identify a single configuration as the best of \( n \) independent runs of \( AC \). These runs can be performed in parallel, meaning that this procedure requires wall clock time \( t/n \) if \( n \) machines – one for each \( AC \) run – with \( k \) cores are available. The used CPU time will be the given time budget \( t \) for Lines 1 and 2 in Algorithm 1 and some small overhead \( \epsilon \) to choose the best portfolio in Line 3. The scalability of this approach is limited by the fact that the global configuration space \( C^k \) to which \( AC \) is applied grows exponentially with \( k \). However, given a powerful configurator, a moderate value of \( k \) and a reasonably sized \( C \), this simple approach can be effective, especially when compared to manual parallel portfolio construction.

3.1.2. Iterative configuration of component solvers (PARHYDRA)

The key problem with GLOBAL is that \( C^k \) may be so large that \( AC \) cannot effectively search it. We thus consider an extension of the Hydra methodology to the ACPP problem, which we dub PARHYDRA (see Algorithm 2). This method has the advantage that it adds and configures component solvers one at a time.
Algorithm 2: Portfolio Configuration Procedure PARHYDRA

Input: parametric solver with configuration space $C$; desired number $k$ of component solvers; instance set $I$; performance metric $m$; configurator $AC$; number $n$ of independent configurator runs; total configuration time $t$

Output: parallel portfolio solver with portfolio $\hat{c}_{1:k}$

1. for $i := 1 \ldots k$ do
2.   for $j := 1 \ldots n$ do
3.     obtain portfolio $c_{1:j} := \hat{c}_{1:i-1}||c(j)$ by running $AC$ on configuration space $\{\hat{c}_{1:i-1}\} \times \{(c) \mid c \in C\}$ and initial incumbent $\hat{c}_{1:i-1}||c_{init}$ on $I$ using $m$ for time $t/(k \cdot n)$
4.     let $\hat{c}_{1:i} \in \operatorname{arg\ min}_{c_{1:j} : j \in \{1 \ldots n\}} m(c_{1:j}, I)$ be the configuration which achieved best performance on $I$ according to $m$
5.     let $c_{init} \in \operatorname{arg\ min}_{c_{1:j} : j \in \{1 \ldots n\}} m(\hat{c}_{1:i}||c(j), I)$ be the configuration that has the largest marginal contribution to $\hat{c}_{1:i}$
6. return $\hat{c}_{1:k}$

The key idea is to use $AC$ only to configure the component solver added in the given iteration, leaving all other components clamped to the configurations that were determined for them in previous iterations. The procedure is greedy in the sense that in each iteration $i$, it attempts to add a component solver to the given portfolio $\hat{c}_{1:i-1}$ in a way that myopically optimizes the performance of the new portfolio $\hat{c}_{1:i}$ (Line 4). While the sets of $n$ independent configurator runs in Line 2 can be performed in parallel (as in GLOBAL), the choice of the best-performing configuration $\hat{c}_{1:i}$ must be made after each iteration $i$, introducing a modest overhead compared to the cost of the actual configuration runs.

A disadvantage of the original Hydra approach is that it discards any intermediate results learned during configuration when it proceeds to the next iteration. In particular, configurations that were examined but not selected may turn out to be useful later on. We thus introduce a new idea here—which, indeed, can also be applied to the construction of portfolio-based algorithm selectors—as follows. We identify the unselected configuration $c(j) \neq \hat{c}_{1:i}$ with the best marginal contribution to the current portfolio $\hat{c}_{1:i}$ (Line 5), and use it to initialize the configuration procedure in the next iteration (Line 3). This idea helps when using different initial configurations in each iteration more quickly guides the configuration procedure to complementary parts of the configuration space.

Another way that PARHYDRA differs from the original Hydra methodology is that it runs entire portfolios on each instance considered during configuration. Because we target multicore machines, we consider these computational resources to be available without cost. While Hydra explicitly modifies the performance metric in each round, PARHYDRA thus achieves the same modification implicitly, optimizing marginal contribution to the existing portfolio because only the $i$th
element of the portfolio is available to be configured in the $i$th iteration. Because \textsc{parHydra} only runs portfolios of size $i$ in iteration $i$, if there is a cost to CPU cycles, we achieve some savings relative to \textsc{Global} in iterations $i < k$. If the overhead for the evaluation of the portfolios after each iteration is bounded by $\epsilon$, the CPU cycles used in \textsc{parHydra} are bounded by $\sum_{i=1}^{k} i \cdot (\frac{t}{k} + n \cdot \epsilon)$ as compared to $t + n \cdot k \cdot \epsilon$ for \textsc{Global}. If $k > 1$ and $\frac{t}{k} > \epsilon$, \textsc{parHydra} will use fewer CPU cycles than \textsc{Global}. This is particularly important if ACPP is used on commercial cloud infrastructure, where saving CPU cycles means saving money. Table 1 gives an overview about the required wall clock time and CPU time for \textsc{Global} and \textsc{parHydra}.

Table 1: Required wall clock time and CPU time of \textsc{Global} and \textsc{parHydra} for a configuration budget $t$, desired number $k$ of component solvers, $n$ algorithm configurator runs, $n \cdot k$ available CPU cores, and a small overhead $\epsilon$ for evaluating the performance of a parallel portfolio.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Wall Clock Time</th>
<th>CPU Time</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\textsc{Global}</td>
<td>$t/n + \epsilon$</td>
<td>$t + n \cdot k \cdot \epsilon$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textsc{parHydra}</td>
<td>$t/n + k \cdot \epsilon$</td>
<td>$\sum_{i=1}^{k} i \cdot (\frac{t}{k} + n \cdot \epsilon)$</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Obviously, for $k > 1$, even if we assume that AC finds optimal configurations in each iteration, the \textsc{parHydra} procedure is not guaranteed to find a globally optimal portfolio. For instance, since the configuration found in the first iteration will be optimized to perform well on average on all instances $I$, the configuration added in the second iteration will then specialize to some subset of $I$. A combination of two configurations that are both specialized to different sets of instances may perform better; however, the configuration tasks in each \textsc{parHydra} iteration will be much easier than those performed by \textsc{Global} for even a moderately sized portfolio, giving us reason to hope that under realistic conditions, \textsc{parHydra} might perform better than \textsc{Global}, especially for large configuration spaces $C$ and for comparatively modest time budgets $t$.

3.1.3. Independent configuration of component solvers (Clustering)

We also investigated adapting the ISAC approach [46, 57] to the ACPP setting. Specifically, we identified clusters in a space of instance features, ran a configurator to identify a configuration that performed well on each cluster, and combined these configurations into a parallel portfolio. However, our experiments (see on-line Appendix A) showed that this approach achieved consistently worse performance than \textsc{Global} and \textsc{parHydra}. In particular, we identified two main issues. First, normalization of instance features was very important; we struggled to determine a way of normalizing that produced good clusterings across different solvers. Second, we did not consistently observe that clusters of instances that were distinct in feature space necessarily led to solver configurations with complementary performance (which, obviously, is necessary for good performance in the ACPP setting). Thus, we do not further consider this approach in what follows.
3.2. Experiments

To empirically evaluate our methods for solving the ACPP problem, we applied GLOBAL and PARHYDRA to two state-of-the-art SAT solvers: clasp and Lingeling. Specifically, we compared our automatically configured parallel portfolios alongside performance-optimized sequential solvers, running on eight processor cores. Furthermore, we investigated the scalability of PARHYDRA by assessing the performance of our portfolio after each iteration, thereby also assessing the slowdown observed for increasing number of component solvers due to hardware bottlenecks. Finally, we integrated our configured portfolio based on clasp into clasp’s flexible multithreading architecture and configured the clause sharing policy to investigate the influence of clause sharing on our trained ACPP solvers.

3.2.1. Scenarios

We compared six evaluation scenarios for each solver. We denote the default configuration of a single-process solver as DEFAULT-SP and that of a multi-process solver with 8 processes and without clause sharing as DEFAULT-MP(8); DEFAULT-MP(8)+CS denotes the additional use of clause sharing, which is activated by default in both Plingeling and clasp. We contrasted these solver versions with three versions obtained using automated configuration: CONFIGURED-SP denotes the best (single-process) configuration obtained from configurator runs on a given training set, while GLOBAL-MP(8) and PARHYDRA-MP(8) represent the 8-component portfolios obtained using our GLOBAL and PARHYDRA methods. We chose this portfolio size to reflect widely available multi-core hardware, as used, for example, in the 2013 SAT Competition and also supported by the Amazon EC2 cloud (CC2 instances). We note that our approach is not inherently limited to eight cores and can be expected to scale to higher degrees of parallelism as long as sufficiently many complementary configurations can be found in the given design space.

3.2.2. Solvers

We applied our approach to the SAT solvers clasp version 2.1.3 [26] and Lingeling version ala [14]. We chose these two solvers because they were demonstrated to achieve state-of-the-art performance on combinatorial and industrial SAT instances in the 2012 SAT Challenge and therefore, represent an appropriately high bar for demonstrating the efficacy of our ACPP approach. Furthermore, both solvers are suitable for ACPP because they are highly parameterized; clasp has 81 parameters and Lingeling has 118. Hence, the configuration space for 8 processes has 648 parameters for clasp and 944 parameters for Lingeling.

We ruled out from our study other state-of-the-art parameterized solvers like glucose that have no parallelized counterpart for comparison with our automatically constructed solvers. We did not study Plingeling, the “official” parallel version of Lingeling, because it lacks configurable parameters for individual threads. We also disregarded the native parallel version of clasp, because clasp’s clause sharing mechanism, which cannot be turned off, results in highly non-deterministic runtime behaviour, rendering the configuration process much more
difficult. Instead, we investigated the impact of clause sharing in a separate experiment. We executed all automatically constructed parallel portfolios via a simple wrapper script that runs a given number of solver instances independently in parallel and without communication between the component solvers.

3.2.3. Instance Sets

We conducted our experiments on instances from the application and hard combinatorial tracks of the 2012 SAT Challenge. Our configuration experiments made use of disjoint training and test sets, which we obtained by randomly splitting both instance sets into subsets with 300 instances each.\(^4\)

To ensure that our experiments would complete within a feasible amount of time, we made use of an instance selection technique [37] on our training set to obtain a representative and effectively solvable subset of 100 instances for use with a runtime cutoff time of 180 seconds. We did this by (i) removing instances that we judged too easy and too hard from the instance set, (ii) clustering the instances in the feature space, and (iii) subsampling the instance set to ensure approximately equal coverage of the different clusters and normally distributed runtimes. As a reference for the selection process, we used the base features of SATzilla [73] and employed SINN [76], Lingeling [14], glucose [6], clasp [26] and CCASat [18] as representative set of state-of-the-art solvers, following [37].

3.2.4. Resource Limits and Hardware

We chose a cutoff time of 180 seconds for algorithm configuration on the training set and 900 seconds for evaluating solvers on the test set (as in the 2012 SAT Challenge). Additionally, we performed three repetitions of each solver and test instance run and report the median of those three runs. We restricted all solver runs (on both training and test sets) to use at most 12 GB of memory (as in the 2012 SAT Challenge). If a solver terminated because of memory limitations, we recorded it as a timeout. We performed all solver and configurator runs on Dell PowerEdge R610 systems with 48GB RAM and two Intel Xeon E5520 CPUs with four cores each (2.26GHz and 8MB Cache), running 64-bit Scientific Linux (2.6.18-348.6.1.el5).

3.2.5. Configuration Experiments

We performed configuration using SMAC (version 2.04.01) [41], a state-of-the-art algorithm configurator. SMAC allows the user to specify the initial incumbent, as required in the context of our parHydra approach (see Lines 2 and 5 of Algorithm 2). We specified PAR10 as our performance metric, and gave SMAC access to the base features of SATzilla [73]. (SMAC builds performance models internally; it can operate without instance features, but often performs

\(^4\)A random split into training and test set is often used in machine learning to obtain unbiased performance estimates. However, such a simple split has a higher variance in its performance estimation than using a cross validation. Because of the large amount of CPU resources needed for our experiments, we could not afford to measure the performance of our ACPP methods on more splits, for example, based on cross validation.
Table 2: Runtime statistics on the test set from application and hard combinatorial SAT instances achieved by single-processor (SP) and 8-processor (MP8) versions. Default-MP(8) was Plingeling in case of Lingeling and clasp -t 8 for clasp where both use clause sharing (CS). The performance of a solver is shown in boldface if it was not significantly different from the best performance, and is marked with an asterisk (*) if it was not significantly worse than Default-MP(8)+CS (according to a permutation test with 100,000 permutations and significance level $\alpha = 0.05$). The best ACPP portfolio on the training set is marked with a dagger (†). To enable fair performance comparisons, in the case of Configured-SP ($n = 80$) and Global-MP(8) ($n = 10$) we allowed 80 hours of configuration time and 2 hours of validation time to determine the best-performing portfolio on the training instances from our 10 independent configuration runs, which amounts to a total of 6560 CPU hours for $k = 8$. For parHydra-MP(8), we allowed for 10 hours of configuration time and 2 hours of validation time ($\epsilon$) per configurator run ($n = 10$) in each iteration, amounting to a total of 3360 CPU hours (see Section 3.1.2). When using a cluster of dedicated machines with 8-core CPUs, each of these solver versions could be produced within 96 hours of wall-clock time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Solver Set</th>
<th>Lingeling (application)</th>
<th>clasp (hard combinatorial)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#TOs</td>
<td>PAR10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default-SP</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>2317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Configured-SP</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default-MP(8)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default-MP(8)+CS</td>
<td>53*</td>
<td>1730*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global-MP(8)</td>
<td>52*</td>
<td>1702*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(8)</td>
<td>55†</td>
<td>1788†</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.6. Results and Interpretation

To evaluate our ACPP solvers, we present the number of timeouts (#TOs), PAR10 and PAR1 based on the median performance of the three repeated runs for each solver–test instance pair in Table 2. The best ACPP portfolio on the training set is marked with a dagger (†) to indicate that we would have chosen this portfolio if we had to make a choice only based on training data. Furthermore, we applied a statistical test (a permutation test with 100,000 permutations and significance level $\alpha = 0.05$) to the (0/1) timeout scores, the PAR10 scores and the PAR1 scores to determine whether performance differences between the solvers were significant. In Table 2, performance of a given solver is indicated in bold face if it was not significantly different from the performance of the best solver. We use an asterisk (*) to indicate that a given solver’s performance was not significantly worse than the performance of Default-MP(8)+CS—the official parallel solver with clause sharing produced by experts.

Table 2 summarizes the results of our experiments with Lingeling and clasp. Running a configurator to obtain an improved, single-processor solver (Configured-SP) made a statistically insignificant impact on performance.
We thus believe that these default configurations are nearly optimal, reflecting the status of Lingeling and clasp as state-of-the-art solvers. With Lingeling as the component solver, GLOBAL-MP(8) produced the best-performing portfolio. There was no significant difference on any of these scores between PARHYDRA-MP(8), GLOBAL-MP(8) and DEFAULT-MP(8)+CS. However, the portfolio performance of DEFAULT-MP(8) (Plingeling with deactivated clause sharing) was significantly worse than the performance of all other parallel portfolios and not even significantly better than CONFIGURED-SP in terms of timeout scores or PAR10 scores. Note that Plingeling (without clause sharing) builds a parallel portfolio only in a degenerate sense, simply using different random seeds and thus making different choices in the default phase [14]. Hence, it is not surprising that Plingeling without clause sharing performed significantly worse than Plingeling with clause sharing.

With clasp as the component solver, the portfolio constructed by PARHYDRA-MP(8) was the best ACPP solver and matched (up to statistically insignificant differences) the performance of DEFAULT-MP(8)+CS (the expert-constructed portfolio solver with clause sharing) according to all metrics we considered, despite incurring six more timeouts. All other ACPP solvers fell short of this (high) bar; however, the portfolios of GLOBAL-MP(8) performed as well as the default portfolio of clasp without clause sharing (DEFAULT-MP(8)). All parallel solvers significantly outperformed the single-threaded versions of clasp.

Overall, PARHYDRA-MP(8) was the only ACPP solver that matched the performance of DEFAULT-MP(8)+CS on both domains. PARHYDRA-MP(8)’s portfolio had also the best training performance and therefore, out of the ACPP solvers, we would choose it. However, while DEFAULT-MP(8)+CS uses clause sharing, PARHYDRA-MP(8) does not. This is surprising, because the performance of Plingeling and clasp without clause sharing was significantly worse than with clause sharing. Thus, PARHYDRA-MP(8) was the best performing method among those that did not perform clause sharing.

3.2.7. Scalability and Overhead

Although 8-core machines have become fairly common, 4-core machines are still more commonly used as desktop computers. Furthermore, Asin et al. [4] observed that parallel portfolios scale sublinearly in the number of cores—in part, because component solvers share the same CPU cache. Therefore, we investigated how the performance of our automatically constructed portfolios scaled with the number of processors. The PARHYDRA approach has the advantage that the portfolio is extended by one configuration at each iteration, making it easy to perform such scaling analysis.

Table 3 shows the test-set performance of PARHYDRA-MP(i) after each iteration. First of all, PARHYDRA-MP(1) was able to find a better performing configuration than DEFAULT-SP for clasp. In contrast, PARHYDRA-MP(1) found a poorly performing configuration for Lingeling in comparison to DEFAULT-SP, and had to compensate in subsequent iterations. For both solvers, the largest performance improvement occurred between the first and second iterations, with the number of timeouts reduced by 17 for Lingeling and 18 for clasp. In later
iterations, performance can stagnate or even drop: e.g., parHydra-MP(5) solves two more instances than parHydra-MP(6) with Lingeling. This may in part reflect hardware limitations: as the size of a portfolio increases, more processes compete for fixed memory (particularly, cache) resources.

We investigated the influence of these hardware limitations on the performance of our parallel solvers by constructing portfolios consisting of identical copies of the same solver. In particular, we replicated the same configuration multiple times with the same random seed; clearly, this setup should result in worsening performance as portfolio size increases, because each component solver does exactly the same work but shares hardware resources. (We note that these experiments are particularly sensitive to the underlying hardware we used.) To compare directly against Table 3, we used the configurations found in the first iteration of parHydra-MP(1). In Table 4, we see that hardware limitations did seem to impact the portfolio of Lingeling solvers; e.g., a single Lingeling configuration solved 10 more instances than eight such configurations running in parallel on an eight-core machine. In contrast, the performance of clasp varied only slightly as duplicate solvers were added. Based on the results in [1], we suspected that this overhead arose because of memory issues, noting that we evaluated clasp on hard combinatorial instances with an average size of 1.4 MB each, whereas we evaluated Lingeling on application instances with an average size of 36.7 MB. We confirmed that clasp’s portfolio also did experience overhead on instances with large memory consumption, and that Lingeling produced nearly no overhead on instances with low memory consumption.

An interesting further observation is that Lingeling and clasp performed best if two copies of the same configuration ran in parallel, and that running only one copy was worse than two copies. We speculate that this is caused by cache effects known to affect multi-core computations with more than one CPU. For example, the operating system may move a solver from one CPU to another, which may result in the loss of data in the CPU cache. However, if two solvers run on two CPUs, the operating system might run each of them on its own CPU

---

Table 3: Runtime statistics of parHydra-MP(i) after each iteration i (test set). The performance of a solver is shown in boldface if it was not significantly different from the best performance, (according to a permutation test with 100 000 permutations and significance level $\alpha = 0.05$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Solver</th>
<th>#TOs</th>
<th>PAR10</th>
<th>PAR1</th>
<th>#TOs</th>
<th>PAR10</th>
<th>PAR1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEFAULT-SP</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>2317</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>4180</td>
<td>481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(1)</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>2594</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>4136</td>
<td>464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(2)</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>2086</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3607</td>
<td>410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(3)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1933</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>3515</td>
<td>421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(4)</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>1874</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>3507</td>
<td>402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(5)</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>1878</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>3219</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(6)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1935</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>3161</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(7)</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>1902</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>3126</td>
<td>372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(8)</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>1788</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2945</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

15
without moving them.

3.2.8. Algorithm Configuration of Clause Sharing

Our previous experiments did not allow our component solvers to share clauses, despite evidence from the literature that this can be very helpful [31]. The implementation of clause sharing is a challenging task; for example, if too many clauses are shared, the overhead caused by clause sharing may exceed the benefits [50]. Furthermore, the best clause sharing policy varies across instance sets and it is a tedious and time-consuming task to manually determine an effective clause sharing policy. A combination of ACPP and clause sharing will not completely compensate for human efforts to implement effective clause sharing, but ACPP can help developers to automatically determine well-performing clause sharing policies. In the following, we investigate the application of clause sharing to our ACPP portfolio. Since there are many possible clause sharing policies, we used algorithm configuration to identify effective clause sharing policies. This can be understood as an additional instrument for improving the performance of ACPP portfolios in cases where clause sharing is available.

To study the impact of clause sharing on our ACPP procedures, we relied upon the clause sharing infrastructure provided by clasp [26], which has a relatively highly parametrized clause sharing policy (10 parameters) and allows for the configuration of each component solver. Plingeling, on the other hand, does not support the configuration of each component solver. As before, we considered the hard combinatorial instance set.

We started with the portfolio identified by PARHYDRA-MP(8). clasp’s multi-threading architecture performs preprocessing before threading is used. Hence, we ignored the preprocessing parameters identified in the PARHYDRA-MP(8) portfolio, adding them again to the configuration space as global parameters. Since the communication of clause sharing induces greater variation in solving behaviour, we used 50 CPU hours as the configurator’s time budget.

Table 5 shows the performance of clasp’s default portfolio with clause sharing, Default-MP(8)+CS; the portfolio originally returned by PARHYDRA, which

---

Table 4: Runtime statistics of Lingeling and clasp with parallel runs of the same configuration on all instances in the corresponding test sets. The performance of a solver is shown in boldface if it was not significantly different from the best performance (according to a permutation test with 100 000 permutations and significance level \( \alpha = 0.05 \)).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># Processes</th>
<th>#TOs</th>
<th>PAR10</th>
<th>PAR1</th>
<th>#TOs</th>
<th>PAR10</th>
<th>PAR1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>2594</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>4136</td>
<td>464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>2509</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>4079</td>
<td>462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>2509</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>4106</td>
<td>451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>2677</td>
<td>382</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>4107</td>
<td>452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>2707</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>4108</td>
<td>463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>2793</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>4110</td>
<td>465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>2820</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>4110</td>
<td>465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>2877</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>4139</td>
<td>467</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5: Runtime statistics of clasp’s parHydra-MP(8) portfolio with default clause sharing (defCS) and configured clause sharing (confCS) on the test instances of the hard combinatorial set. The performance of a solver is shown in boldface if its performance was at least as good as that of any other solver, up to statistically insignificant differences (according to a permutation test with 100 000 permutations and significance level $\alpha = 0.05$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>clasp variant</th>
<th>#TOs</th>
<th>PAR10</th>
<th>PAR1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default-MP(8)</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2950</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default-MP(8)+CS</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>2763</td>
<td>333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(8)</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2945</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(8)+defCS</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>2777</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parHydra-MP(8)+confCS</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>2722</td>
<td>346</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The performance of a solver is shown in boldface if its performance was at least as good as that of any other solver, up to statistically insignificant differences (according to a permutation test with 100 000 permutations and significance level $\alpha = 0.05$).

Given a solver with a rich design space (such as Lingeling and clasp), all our ACPP methods were able to generate 8-core parallel solvers that significantly
outperformed their sequential counterparts. We have thus demonstrated that our ACPP methods are able to automatically build parallel portfolio solvers, without the need for costly, hand-crafted parallel implementations. However, our scalability analysis indicates that hardware restrictions lead to substantial overhead as more processor cores are used, and the scalability of our ACPP methods depends on the richness of the given sequential solver’s design spaces and the existence of complementary designs within these spaces. We were also able to verify that clause sharing can be used to further improve the performance of an ACPP solver, especially when configuration is performed alongside the component solver instances.

4. Parallel Portfolio Configuration with Multiple Sequential Solvers

So far, we have shown that our procedures were able to construct effective parallel portfolios based on single solvers with rich design spaces. There is considerable evidence from the literature and from SAT competitions that strong portfolios can also be built by combining entirely different solvers in their default configurations (see, e.g., SATzilla [73], ppfolio [64] and ppfolioUZK [71]). For instance, ppfolio was obtained simply by combining the best solvers from the previous competition into a parallel portfolio. ppfolioUZK included more state-of-the-art solvers from 2011 and relied on additional experiments to find the best combination of solvers in a portfolio. Neither portfolio considers the configuration space of the component solvers and therefore both can be seen as simple baselines for other parallelization approaches, including ours. However, ppfolio and ppfolioUZK use Plingeling as a portfolio component. Since we aim to investigate the strength of our ACPP methods without additional human expert knowledge on parallel solving, we first consider only sequential solvers as the basis for our ACPP approach. This section and the following section investigates the extension of our automatic techniques to the construction of portfolios based on the configuration spaces spanned by such solver sets.

4.1. Approach

As long as all of our component solvers are sequential, we can simply use the ACPP procedures defined in Section 3. We can accommodate the multi-solver setting by introducing a solver choice parameter for each portfolio component (see Figure 1), and ensuring that the parameters of solver \(a \in A\) are only active when the solver choice parameter is set to use \(a\). This is implemented by using conditional parameters (see the PCS format of the Algorithm Configuration Library [44]). Similar architectures were used by SATenstein [48] and AutoWEKA [67].

We have so far aimed to create portfolios with size equal to the number of available processor cores. But as observed in Section 3.2.7, each component solver used within a parallel portfolio incurs some overhead. A similar observation was made by the developer of ppfolioUZK (personal communication) and prompted the decision for ppfolioUZK to use only 7 components on an 8-core platform.
for each portfolio component

Figure 1: Using a solver choice parameter, we can specify a single configuration space that spans multiple solvers.

To allow our portfolios to make the same choice, we included “none” as one of choices available for each portfolio component.

4.2. Experiments

While we would presumably have obtained the strongest parallel solver by allowing our portfolio to include a very wide range of modern SAT solvers, this would have made it difficult to answer the question how our automated methods compare to human expertise in terms of the performance of the parallel portfolios thus obtained. In particular, we were interested in pfolioUZK [71], a parallel solver that won the parallel track of the 2012 SAT Challenge with application instances. To compare our automatic methods with the manual efforts of pfolioUZK’s authors, we thus chose the same set of solvers they considered as the basis for our experiments.

4.2.1. Solvers

pfolioUZK uses satUZK, Lingeling, TNM, and MPhaseSAT.M on the same core in its sequential version (DEFAULT-SP) and uses satUZK, glucose, contrasat and Plingeling with 4 threads and clause sharing in its 8-process parallel version (DEFAULT-MP(8)+CS). In all cases, solvers are used in their default configurations. However, in designing pfolioUZK [71], Wotzlaw et al. considered the following, larger set of component solvers:

- **contrasat** [69]: 15 parameters
- **glucose 2.0** [6]: 10 parameters for satelite preprocessing and 6 for glucose
- **Lingeling 587** [13]: 117 parameters
- **march_hi 2009** [34]: 0 parameters
- **MPhaseSAT.M** [19]: 0 parameters
- **satUZK** [28]: 1 parameter
Table 6: Runtime statistics for 8-processor parallel solvers on the application test set. The performance of a solver is shown in boldface if it was not significantly different from the best performance (according to a permutation test with 100,000 permutations at significance level α = 0.05). The best ACPP portfolio on the training set is marked with a dagger (†).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8-Processor Parallel Solver</th>
<th>#TOs</th>
<th>PAR10</th>
<th>PAR1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>pfolioUZK-ST</code></td>
<td>150</td>
<td>4656</td>
<td>606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>pfolioUZK-MP(8)+CS</code></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1168</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>GLOBAL-MP(8)(pfolioUZK w/o Plingeling)</code></td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1463</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>PARHYDRA-MP(8)(pfolioUZK w/o Plingeling)</code></td>
<td>39†</td>
<td>1297†</td>
<td>244†</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- `sparrow2011` [68]: 0 parameters
- `TNM` [51]: 0 parameters

Overall, the configuration space we considered has 150 parameters for each portfolio component (including the top-level parameter used to select a solver), and thus 1200 parameters for an 8-component parallel portfolio.

4.2.2. Instances and Setup

We evaluated `pfolioUZK` as well as our Global and ParHydra approaches on the same 300 application test instances of the 2012 SAT Challenge as used before. Otherwise, our experimental setup was as described in Section 3.2.

4.2.3. Results and Interpretation

The first part of Table 6 shows the results of `pfolioUZK` in its sequential and parallel versions. Recall that `pfolioUZK` uses `Plingeling` with clause sharing as a component solver. Sequential `pfolioUZK` experienced 115 more timeouts than its parallel version; indeed, it was only ranked 16th in the sequential application track of the 2012 SAT Challenge.

The second part of Table 6 summarizes the performance of our ACPP solvers (which do not use `Plingeling` as a component solver). `PARHYDRA-MP(8)` performed best; indeed, there was no significant difference between `PARHYDRA-MP(8)` and `pfolioUZK-MP(8)` in terms of timeout and PAR10 scores. This indicates that our ACPP approach was indeed able to match the performance of parallel portfolios manually constructed by experts, even with the disadvantage of being prohibited from using `Plingeling` and thus clause sharing. `GLOBAL-MP(8)` performed significantly worse than `pfolioUZK-MP(8)`, but not significantly worse than `PARHYDRA-MP(8)` in terms of timeout and PAR10 scores.

Although we allowed our portfolio-building procedures to choose “none” for any component solver, this option was never selected.

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6 Although `sparrow2011` should be parameterized [68], the source code and binary provided with `pfolioUZK` does not expose any parameters.
4.2.4. Conclusion

We have demonstrated that by exploiting the configuration spaces of a set of complementary solvers, even-better-performing ACPP solvers can be obtained, compared to those constructed from a single parametric SAT solver such as Lingeling (compare Table 2 and Table 6). To produce such an ACPP solver, we did not need to modify our ACPP methods, but instead used conditionals in our configuration space to distinguish between the design spaces of the individual solvers. Although we did not use parallel solvers with clause sharing (such as Plingeling) in our portfolio, our PARHYDRA method was able to generate a parallel solver without clause sharing that nevertheless performed as well as perfoUZK.

5. Parallel Portfolio Configuration with Multiple Sequential and Parallel Solvers

Our results reported in Section 3.2.8 confirm the intuition that clause sharing is an important ingredient of high-performance parallel solvers. This section extends the scope of our ACPP methods to allow inclusion of parallel solvers that perform clause sharing as portfolio components. This way, we combine our automatic methods with the human expert knowledge inherent in existing clause sharing mechanisms to boost performance even further.

5.1. Approach: PARHYDRA

To add parallel solvers as components in our ACPP approach, we consider each of them by adding multiple copies of the same solver, where each copy represents one thread of the parallel solver. Thereby, we mark parameters that have to be joined to be used across different cores; for example, the number of threads of a parallel solver. In contrast to other approaches that use scheduling (e.g., [54]), we do not have to decide on which core a solver runs, but only how many cores it will utilize.

The PARHYDRA approach has a drawback when used to configure parallel SAT solvers. This can be seen when considering the solvers Lingeling and Plingeling. First of all, the components of Plingeling are not parameterized, and we can only choose the number of threads it is assigned. If the portfolio can also consist of configured versions of Lingeling, which subsumes single-core Plingeling, and the configurator is run for long enough, there is no reason for the PARHYDRA approach to choose Plingeling as a component, unless Plingeling already belongs to the previous iteration’s portfolio (in which case the benefits of clause sharing can make themselves felt). Obviously then, an argument by induction shows that Plingeling will never be preferred by PARHYDRA, revealing a disadvantage of its greedy optimization strategy. In contrast, GLOBAL does not have this problem, but has difficulties dealing with the large configuration space encountered here.

To overcome both of these limitations and effectively interpolate between PARHYDRA and GLOBAL, we introduce a new approach, which we call PARHYDRA.
Algorithm 3: Portfolio Configuration Procedure PARHYDRA$_b$

**Input**: set of parametric solvers $a \in A$ with configuration space $C_a$; desired number $k$ of component solvers; number $b$ of component solvers simultaneously configured per iteration; instance set $I$; performance metric $m$; configurator $AC$; number $n$ of independent configurator runs; total configuration time $t$

**Output**: parallel portfolio solver with portfolio $\hat{c}_{1:k}$

1. $i := 1$
2. while $i < k$ do
3.     $i' := i + b - 1$
4.     for $j := 1..n$ do
5.         obtain portfolio $c_{1:i'}^{(j)} := \hat{c}_{1:i-1}||c_{i,i'}^{(j)}$ by running $AC$ on configuration space $\{\hat{c}_{1:i-1}\} \times \left( \prod_{l=i}^{i'} \bigcup_{a \in A} \{(c) \mid c \in C_a\} \right)$ and initial incumbent $\hat{c}_{1:i-1}||c_{init}$ on $I$ using $m$ for time $t \cdot b/(k \cdot n)$
6.         let $\hat{c}_{1:i'} \in \arg \min_{j \in \{1..n\}} m(c_{1:i'}^{(j)}, I)$ be the configuration that achieved best performance on $I$ according to $m$
7.         let $c_{init} \in \arg \min_{j \in \{1..n\}} m(\hat{c}_{1:i'}, c_{1:i'}^{(j)}, I)$ be the configuration that has the largest marginal contribution to $\hat{c}_{1:i'}$
8.     $i := i + b$
9. return $\hat{c}_{1:k}$

(Algorithm 3). In brief, unlike PARHYDRA, PARHYDRA$_b$ simultaneously configures $b$ processes in each iteration. Specifically, in Lines 2 and 3, PARHYDRA$_b$ iterates up to the desired number of component solvers with a step size of $b$; in Line 5, the algorithm configurator is used to find a portfolio of $b$ configurations with $b$ times the configuration time budget and adds them to the current portfolio $c_{1:i'}^{(j)}$. After the $n$ independent runs of the algorithm configurator (Line 4 and 5), the best performing portfolio $\hat{c}_{1:i'}$ is selected in Line 6, and in Line 7, the initial incumbent for the next iteration is selected based on the marginal contribution to the currently selected portfolio. The parameter $b$ controls the size of the configuration space in each iteration. Since the configuration space grows exponentially with $b$ but we allow configuration time to grow only linearly, the algorithm configurator has a harder task under PARHYDRA$_b$ than under PARHYDRA. However, for sufficiently small $b$, this additional cost can be worthwhile, because of PARHYDRA$_b$’s reduced tendency to stagnate in local minima.

5.2. Experiments

We used the set of solvers described in Section 4.2, with the addition of Plingeling. We added PARHYDRA$_b$ to the set of ACPP methods considered and allowed $b \in \{2, 4\}$. We use the same setup as before, except that we allowed a 20-hour configuration budget per configured process, twice as much as before, to
take into consideration the greater variation in solving behaviour of Plingeling which induces a harder configuration task.

We compared our results to a variety of state-of-the-art solvers from the 2012 SAT Challenge on this benchmark set. We considered two state-of-the-art sequential solvers: glucose (2.1) [6] (winner of the single-engine application track—like all other competition results cited below, in the 2012 SAT Challenge); and SATzilla-App [75], which is SATzilla trained on application instances (winner of the sequential portfolio application track). We also considered the following high-performance parallel solvers:

- clasp (2.1.3) [26];
- Plingeling (ala) [14] and Plingeling (aqw) [15];
- ppfolio [64] (bronze medal in the parallel track);
- PeneLoPe [5] (silver medal in the parallel track);
- and again ppfolioUZK [71] (winner of the parallel track).

The first part of Table 7 summarizes the performance results for these solvers: first the sequential solvers in their default configurations (DEFAULT-SP), then the parallel solvers using clause sharing in their default configurations (DEFAULT-MP(8)+CS), and finally our ACPP solvers based on the component solvers of ppfolioUZK. As already discussed, the performance of the sequential ppfolioUZK did not achieve state-of-the-art performance; this distinction goes to glucose for a single solver, and SATzilla for a portfolio-based algorithm selector. ppfolioUZK and clasp performed significantly better than ppfolio, PeneLoPe and Plingeling; we observed no significant performance difference between ppfolioUZK and clasp in terms of any of the scores we measured. (Even with further, extensive experiments, we have not been able to determine why clasp performed significantly worse than ppfolioUZK and Lingeling in the 2012 SAT Challenge.)

parHydra-MP(8) produced the best parallel portfolio solver overall, which turned out to be significantly faster than ppfolioUZK. The portfolio solvers produced by parHydra-MP(8) and parHydra2-MP(8) exhibited no significant performance differences from ppfolioUZK. Furthermore, parHydra4-MP(8) also solved more instances than Plingeling(aqw), although Plingeling(aqw) won the 2013 SAT competition and the solvers in parHydra4-MP(8) were mostly published in 2011, which gives Plingeling(aqw) an advantage of two additional years of development.

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7We did not consider the parallel algorithm selection solvers p3S and parCSHC, since the only versions available are optimized for a mixed set of SAT instances (application, handcrafted and random) and there is no trainable version available. Therefore, we had no way of performing a fair comparison between those methods and our ACPP portfolios.

8The work we describe in this study took more than a year. In the meantime, the 2013 SAT Competition took place and the new Plingeling version aqw won the gold medal in the parallel track.
Taking a closer look at these portfolio solvers, \textsc{parHydra-MP}(8), \textsc{parHydra}_4-MP(8) and \textsc{Global-MP}(8) allocated three cores to \textsc{Plingeling}. As expected, \textsc{parHydra-MP}(8) did not include \textsc{Plingeling} in its portfolio; however, it did include three variants of \textsc{Lingeling}. All four portfolio solvers used at most seven processes by selecting “none” on one process; \textsc{Global-MP}(8) selected “none” twice.

### 5.3. Comparison with Sequential Portfolio Solvers

As illustrated in Table 7, our ACPP portfolios outperformed \textsc{SATzilla}—the winning sequential portfolio solver of the SAT Challenge 2012. However, \textsc{SATzilla} used a different set of component solvers. Therefore, one might wonder how well a sequential portfolio solver could perform when using our ACPP methods to obtain a configured portfolio. For all sequential portfolio solvers, such as algorithm selection or scheduling systems, without communication between the components, the best possible performance is achieved by the virtual best solver (VBS). We thus compared such a VBS to our ACPP method. Specifically, we assessed the performance of all components of our best-performing parallel portfolio that does not use any parallel solvers: \textsc{parHydra-MP}(8) (\textsc{pfolioUZK} w/o \textsc{Plingeling}) (see Table 6). In contrast to \textsc{parHydra-MP}(8) (\textsc{pfolioUZK} w/o \textsc{Plingeling}), which gave rise to 39 timeouts, the VBS of \textsc{parHydra-MP}(8) (\textsc{pfolioUZK} w/o \textsc{Plingeling})’s components gave rise to 35 timeouts. This performance difference arises due to hardware overhead, as discussed earlier. Comparing this VBS performance with our \textsc{parHydra}_4-MP(8) with 29 timeouts (see Table 7), we conclude that no sequential portfolio solver would have been able to outperform
Table 8: Comparing Plingeling (ala) and PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8) with increasing number of cores where PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8) with more than 8 cores used more threads for Plingeling.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#Processes</th>
<th>Plingeling(ala)</th>
<th>PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#TOs</td>
<td>PAR10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1009</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>949</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Comparing Plingeling (ala) and PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8) with increasing number of cores where PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8) with more than 8 cores used more threads for Plingeling.

5.4. Scaling to more than 8 cores

Our ACPP methods are able to take advantage of an arbitrary number of cores, as long as we can find a sufficient number of complementary solver configurations within the given configuration space. The comparison of PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8) with only Lingeling (Section 3.2) and with the solvers of pfolioUZK demonstrated that a more extensive configuration space with several solvers can lead to better performance (compare Table 2 and 7). However, PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8)(pfolioUZK) used only 7 out of 8 available CPU cores. This indicates that the configuration space of PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8)(pfolioUZK) was relatively exhausted, to the point where running a further solver produced less benefit than incurring additional hardware overhead.

Looking at the training performance of PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8)(pfolioUZK), we note that the improvement between the first and second iterations (first and last four components, respectively) of PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8) was less than 10%. The performance improvement achieved by the more fine-grained PARHYDRA$_2$-MP(8)(pfolioUZK) between its third and fourth iterations was even lower, less than 3%. Indeed, the majority of our SMAC runs (7 out of 10) found similarly performing portfolios after their last iterations (with a difference of less than 1 CPU seconds), and one of these 7 portfolios showed the overall best performance on our training set. Therefore, given the configuration space we studied, we do not expect the potential for substantial performance improvements by leveraging more than 8 cores.

Using a parallel solver with clause sharing in our ACPP portfolios, we expect that performance could always be improved by increasing the number of parallel threads. Therefore, we studied the effect of increasing the number of parallel threads of Plingeling (ala) in PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8)(pfolioUZK) by using more than 8 cores. Since the machines we used for our previous experiments had only 8 cores, we used another cluster for the following experiment, consisting of machines with 64GB memory and two Intel Xeon E5-2650v2 8-core CPUs with 2.60GHz and 20 MB L2 cache each, running 64-bit Ubuntu 14.04 LTS.

Table 8 shows the scalability of Plingeling (ala) and PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8)(pfolioUZK) in steps of 4 processes, since PARHYDRA$_4$-MP(8)(pfolioUZK) also adds 4 compo-
ments at a time. On this new hardware, we observed that hardware overhead influenced performance less than in our previous experiments. \textsc{parHydra}_4-MP(8)(\textsc{pfolio}UZK) reached a performance peak at 12 processes and performed worse when using all 16 cores. Furthermore, \textsc{parHydra}_4-MP(8)(\textsc{pfolio}UZK) did not solve more instances when using additional \textsc{Plingeling} threads; we note that the original \textsc{parHydra}_4-MP(8) already used 3 threads for \textsc{Plingeling}. However, the average runtime (PAR1) of \textsc{parHydra}_2-MP(8)(\textsc{pfolio}UZK) slightly improved between 8 and 12 cores. Running only \textsc{Plingeling} had similar effects; \textsc{Plingeling} performance improved as cores were added up to 12 and then stagnated.

Based on these results, we conjecture that the number of CPU cores at which hardware overhead becomes important is higher on newer hardware; indeed, perhaps future hardware architectures will permit running even larger parallel portfolios on one machine without significant hardware overhead. We also observe that adding a reasonable number of additional threads to \textsc{Plingeling} did not substantially improve the performance of \textsc{parHydra-MP}(8)(\textsc{pfolio}UZK).

5.4.1. Conclusion

Using our extended \textsc{parHydra}_b method and a parallel solver with clause sharing, we were able to automatically generate an ACPP solver that outperformed \textsc{pfolio}UZK and reached the performance level of \textsc{Plingeling}(aqw), which is based on considerably more advanced solving strategies than are used in the baseline portfolio from \textsc{pfolio}UZK. This shows that the combination of our automatic ACPP methods and expert knowledge can be used not only to generate efficient parallel solvers, but also to automatically (albeit slightly) improve \textsc{Plingeling}(aqw), the 2013 state of the art in parallel SAT solving.

6. Conclusions and Future Work

In this work, we demonstrated that sequential algorithms can be combined automatically and effectively into parallel portfolios, following an approach we call Automatic Construction of Parallel Portfolios (ACPP). This approach enables solver developers to leverage parallel resources without having to be concerned with synchronization, race conditions or other difficulties that arise in the explicit design of parallel code. Of course, inherently parallel solving techniques (e.g., based on clause sharing) can further improve the performance of our ACPP portfolios. In this view, ACPP can also be used to support a human developer by determining a well-performing parallel portfolio which can provide a base for (i) adding clause sharing, (ii) identifying complementary configurations or (iii) as starting point for further manual fine-tuning and development of new techniques.

We investigated two different ACPP procedures: (i) configuration in the joint configuration space of all portfolio components (GLOBAL); and (ii) iteratively adding one or more component solvers at a time (\textsc{parHydra}). We assessed these procedures on widely studied classes of satisfiability problems: the application and hard combinatorial tracks of the 2012 SAT Challenge. Overall, we found
that **PARHYDRA** was the most practical method. The configuration space of **GLOBAL** grows exponentially with the size of the portfolio; thus, while in principle it subsumes the other methods, in practice, it tended to find worse portfolios than **PARHYDRA** within available time budgets. In contrast to **GLOBAL**, **PARHYDRA** was able to find well-performing portfolios on all of our domains; using **pfolioUZK**’s solvers on *application* instances, it even was able to reach the performance level of **Plingeling**(aqw), which won the 2013 parallel track. We expect that as additional highly parametric SAT solvers become available, **PARHYDRA** will produce even stronger parallel portfolios.

In future work, it would be interesting to investigate how information exchange strategies such as clause sharing can be integrated more deeply into our procedures. This could be done, e.g., by combining our ACPP approach with **HordeSAT** [9], a modular, massively parallel SAT solver with clause sharing that can make use of arbitrary CDCL solvers. Since parameters governing such information exchange are global (rather than restricted to an individual component solver), we also intend to investigate improved methods for handling global portfolio parameters. Finally, we plan to investigate ways of reusing previously-trained portfolios for building new ones, for instance, in cases where the instance set changes slightly or new solvers become available.

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Appendix A. Clustering Approach

**Algorithm 4: Portfolio Configuration Procedure CLUSTERING**

| Input | parametric solvers with configuration space \( C \); desired number \( k \) of component solvers; instance set \( I \); performance metric \( m \); configurator \( AC \); number \( n \) of independent configurator runs; total configuration time \( t \); feature normalizer \( FN \); cluster algorithm \( CA \); features \( f(i) \) for all instances \( i \in I \) |
| Output | parallel portfolio solver with portfolio \( \hat{c}_S \) |

1. normalize features with \( FN \) into feature space \( f' \)
2. cluster instances with \( CA \) in normalized feature space \( f' \) into \( k \) clusters \( S \)
3. foreach \( s \in S \) do
   4. for \( j := 1..n \) do
      5. obtain configuration \( c_s^{(j)} \) by running \( AC \) with configuration space \( C \) on \( I_s \) using \( m \) for time \( t/(k \cdot n) \), where \( I_s \) denotes all instances in cluster \( s \)
      6. let \( \hat{c}_s \in \arg \min_{c_j^{(j)}} \{ c_j^{(j)}(I) \mid j \in \{1,..,n\} \} \) be the configuration which achieved best performance on \( I \) according to \( m \)
   7. let \( \hat{c}_S \) be the portfolio consisting the configurations for each clusters
4. return \( \hat{c}_S \)

ISAC [46, 57] is a second method for automatically designing portfolio-based algorithm selectors. It works by clustering a set of instances in a given (normalized) instance feature space and then independently configuring the given highly parameterized algorithm on each instance cluster (see Algorithm 4). We adapted ISAC to the ACPP problem by generalizing it in two ways. First, ISAC uses a linear normalization of the features, whereas we leave this decision as a parameter open to the user, allowing linear, standard (or so-called \( z \)-score), or no normalization. In general the best normalization strategy may vary between feature sets, and there is no way to assess cluster quality before configuration experiments are complete. Second, we controlled the number of clusters via a parameter, allowing us to set it to the number of cores targeted by the parallel portfolio. Hence, we do not have to use a clustering method to determine how many clusters to choose (e.g., ISAC uses \( g \)-means). To avoid suggesting that ISAC’s authors endorsed these changes, we refer to the resulting method using the neutral moniker CLUSTERING.

Table A.9 shows results of CLUSTERING in addition to Table 2. We note that CLUSTERING-MP(8) clusters the training instances based on instance features; thus, normalizing these features in different ways can result in different instance clusters. There is no way to assess cluster quality before configuration experiments are complete; one can only observe the distribution of the instances in the clusters. For example, the instances in the training set of the application distribution for CLUSTERING-NONE-MP(8) were distributed across clusters of
sizes 2, 2, 3, 11, 13, 18, 21, and 30; we observed qualitatively similar distributions for Clustering-Linear-MP(8) and Clustering-Zscore-MP(8). This is potentially problematic, because running a configurator on sets of 2 or 3 instances can lead to overfitting and produce configurations whose performance does not generalize well to new instances. One reason for these small clusters could be related to our instance selection technique (see Section 3.2.3), which reduced the number of training instances to speed up the configuration process. However, the instance selection technique we used already provides a mechanism to improve the distribution of the instances in the feature space. Kadioglu et al. [46] described how ISAC removes such small clusters by merging them into larger clusters. However, in the case of parallel portfolios, the number of clusters is fixed, because the number of clusters has to match the desired portfolio size, in order to ensure maximal utilization of the given parallel computing resources.

For both solvers, linear feature normalization (Clustering-Linear-MP(8)) produced clusters that were insufficiently complementary, and hence led to relatively poor performance. (We note that linear normalization is used in ISAC.) Using clustering without feature normalization (Clustering-None-MP(8)) led to surprisingly strong performance in the case of Lingeling on the application instances, but failed to reach the performance of Default-MP(8)+CS for clasp on the hard combinatorial scenario. Similarly, the use of z-score normalization (Clustering-Zscore-MP(8)) did not produce portfolios that consistently reached the performance of Default-MP(8)+CS.

Table A.10 shows results of Clustering in addition to Table 6. All Clustering approaches performed significantly worse than the best ACPP approach (ParHydra-MP(8)).

As we previously observed with portfolios based on Lingeling, Clustering-None-MP(8) (no feature normalization) performed best among the Clustering approaches. However, this time, Clustering-Zscore-MP(8) performed worse than Clustering-Linear-MP(8). This indicates that the quality of the clusters depends not only on the instance set but also on the configuration space of the portfolio (which, indeed, is disregarded by the Clustering approach).

Table A.9: Runtime statistics on the test set from application and hard combinatorial SAT instances achieved by Clustering with different feature normalization strategies, Clustering-None-MP(8): no normalization, Clustering-Linear-MP(8): linear normalization ([0,1]), Clustering-Zscore-MP(8): z-score normalization. The performance of a solver is shown in boldface if it was not significantly different from the best performance, and is marked with an asterisk (*) if it was not significantly worse than Default-MP(8)+CS (according to a permutation test with 100 000 permutations and significance level $\alpha = 0.05$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Solver Set</th>
<th>Lingeling (application)</th>
<th>clasp (hard combinatorial)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#TOs</td>
<td>PAR10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clustering-None-MP(8)</td>
<td>47*</td>
<td>1571*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clustering-Linear-MP(8)</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clustering-Zscore-MP(8)</td>
<td>51*</td>
<td>1674*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We observed qualitatively similar distributions for Clustering-Linear-MP(8) and Clustering-Zscore-MP(8). This is potentially problematic, because running a configurator on sets of 2 or 3 instances can lead to overfitting and produce configurations whose performance does not generalize well to new instances. One reason for these small clusters could be related to our instance selection technique (see Section 3.2.3), which reduced the number of training instances to speed up the configuration process. However, the instance selection technique we used already provides a mechanism to improve the distribution of the instances in the feature space. Kadioglu et al. [46] described how ISAC removes such small clusters by merging them into larger clusters. However, in the case of parallel portfolios, the number of clusters is fixed, because the number of clusters has to match the desired portfolio size, in order to ensure maximal utilization of the given parallel computing resources.

For both solvers, linear feature normalization (Clustering-Linear-MP(8)) produced clusters that were insufficiently complementary, and hence led to relatively poor performance. (We note that linear normalization is used in ISAC.) Using clustering without feature normalization (Clustering-None-MP(8)) led to surprisingly strong performance in the case of Lingeling on the application instances, but failed to reach the performance of Default-MP(8)+CS for clasp on the hard combinatorial scenario. Similarly, the use of z-score normalization (Clustering-Zscore-MP(8)) did not produce portfolios that consistently reached the performance of Default-MP(8)+CS.

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As we previously observed with portfolios based on Lingeling, Clustering-None-MP(8) (no feature normalization) performed best among the Clustering approaches. However, this time, Clustering-Zscore-MP(8) performed worse than Clustering-Linear-MP(8). This indicates that the quality of the clusters depends not only on the instance set but also on the configuration space of the portfolio (which, indeed, is disregarded by the Clustering approach).
Table A.10: Runtime statistics for 8-processor parallel solvers on the application test set. The performance of a solver is shown in boldface if it was not significantly different from the best performance (according to a permutation test with 100,000 permutations at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$).

The Clustering approach cannot be effectively applied to sets of component solvers that include parallel solvers. When the configuration of each component solver is performed independently of all other solvers, there is no way to direct a configurator to consider synergies between solvers, such as those arising from clause sharing. Therefore, an unparameterized, parallel solver with clause sharing, such as Plingeling, will never be selected. Thus, we did not consider a variant of Clustering in the experiments of Section 5.2.