

Deciding S1S: Down the Rabbit Hole and Through the Looking Glass

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Abstract. Monadic second-order logic of one successor (S1S) is a logic for specifying ω -regular languages in a concise way. In this paper, we revisit the classical decision procedure based on translating S1S formulae into Büchi automata and employ state-of-the-art algorithms for their manipulation, in particular complementation and size reduction. We compare our implementation to the one based on loop-deterministic finite automata and observe cases where the classical approach scales better.

1 Introduction

The study of formalisms allowing reasoning about ω -regular languages still attracts a lot of attention. For instance, ω -regular languages are often used for specifying properties of reactive systems via the formalisms of linear-time temporal logics such as LTL [1] or QPTL [2]. In addition to that, ω -regular languages have also been used for formal verification of programs [3] and, recently, in the context of automated theorem proving, for reasoning about properties of Sturmian words [4, 5]. A prominent logic allowing to describe the whole class of ω -regular properties is *monadic second-order logic of one successor* (S1S). The decidability of S1S was proven by Büchi in 1962 by introducing a connection of the logic with automata over infinite words called Büchi automata (BAs) [6]. S1S offers immense succinctness for the price of nonelementary worst-case complexity.

The many applications of ω -regular languages, often represented using BAs, together with BAs' nice theoretical properties have attracted a lot of attention towards developing efficient algorithms for their manipulation. Unlike the ones for automata over finite words, algorithms for BAs are often much more involved. In particular, the problem of efficiently complementing BAs has been approached from several sides [2, 7–29] and so has been the problem of BA reduction [30–33].

In this paper we revisit the original automata-based decision procedure for S1S and exploit state-of-the-art approaches for handling BAs, in particular approaches for their reduction and techniques of complementation, to obtain an efficient decision procedure. We summarize our observations with the implementation, identify the bottlenecks, and provide an experimental comparison with an approach deciding S1S based on deterministic-loop automata [34].

2 Preliminaries

Functions, words, and alphabets. We use ω to denote the first infinite ordinal $\omega = \{0, 1, \dots\}$. An (infinite) word α over alphabet Σ is represented as a function $\alpha: \omega \rightarrow \Sigma$ where the i -th symbol is denoted as α_i . We abuse notation and sometimes also represent α as an infinite sequence $\alpha = \alpha_0\alpha_1\dots$. We use Σ^ω to denote the set of all infinite words over Σ .

Büchi automata. A (nondeterministic) *Büchi automaton* (BA) over Σ is a quadruple $\mathcal{A} = (Q, \delta, I, F)$ where Q is a finite set of *states*, δ is a *transition function* $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow 2^Q$, and $I, F \subseteq Q$ are the sets of *initial* and *accepting* states respectively. We sometimes treat δ as a set of transitions of the form $p \xrightarrow{a} q$, for instance, we use $p \xrightarrow{a} q \in \delta$ to denote that $q \in \delta(p, a)$. A *run* of \mathcal{A} from $q \in Q$ on an input word α is an infinite sequence $\rho: \omega \rightarrow Q$ that starts in q and respects δ , i.e., $\rho(0) = q$ and $\forall i \geq 0: \rho(i) \xrightarrow{\alpha_i} \rho(i+1) \in \delta$. Let $\text{inf}(\rho)$ denote the states occurring in ρ infinitely often. We say that ρ is *accepting* iff $\text{inf}(\rho) \cap F \neq \emptyset$. A word α is accepted by \mathcal{A} if there is an accepting run ρ of \mathcal{A} from some initial state, i.e., $\rho(0) \in I$. The set $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A}) = \{\alpha \in \Sigma^\omega \mid \mathcal{A} \text{ accepts } \alpha\}$ is called the *language* of \mathcal{A} .

Simulation. The (*maximum*) *direct simulation* on \mathcal{A} is the relation $\preceq_{di} \subseteq Q \times Q$ defined as the largest relation s.t. $p \preceq_{di} q$ implies (i) $p \in F \Rightarrow q \in F$ and (ii) $p \xrightarrow{a} p' \in \delta \Rightarrow \exists q' \in Q: q \xrightarrow{a} q' \in \delta \wedge p' \preceq_{di} q'$ for each $a \in \Sigma$.

3 Monadic Second-order Logic of One Successor (S1S)

In this section we briefly introduce monadic second-order logic of one successor, denoted as S1S, used for expressing ω -regular properties of linear structures.

3.1 Syntax and Semantics

In this paper we build S1S formulae from *atomic formulae* of the form (i) $0 \in X$, (ii) $X \subseteq Y$, (iii) $X = \text{Succ}(Y)$, and (iv) $\text{Sing}(X)$ where X and Y are *second-order* variables. Formulae are then obtained as a Boolean combination of atomic formulae and existential quantification. Other connectives and universal quantification can be obtained as a syntactic sugar, e.g., we can define $\varphi \rightarrow \psi$ to denote $\neg\varphi \vee \psi$ and $\forall X. \varphi$ to denote $\neg\exists X. \neg\varphi$.

S1S formulae are interpreted over the set of natural numbers. In particular, second-order variables range over (possibly infinite) subsets of ω . For an S1S formula $\varphi(\mathbb{X})$ with free variables \mathbb{X} an *assignment* is a mapping $\sigma: \mathbb{X} \rightarrow 2^\omega$. The *satisfaction* of an atomic formula φ by an assignment σ , denoted as $\sigma \models \varphi$, is inductively defined as follows: (i) $\sigma \models 0 \in X$ iff 0 is in $\sigma(X)$, (ii) $\sigma \models X \subseteq Y$ iff $\sigma(X)$ is a subset of $\sigma(Y)$, (iii) $\sigma \models X = \text{Succ}(Y)$ iff $\sigma(X) = \{y + 1 \mid y \in \sigma(Y)\}$, and (iv) $\sigma \models \text{Sing}(X)$ iff $|X| = 1$. Satisfaction of an S1S formula by σ is then defined inductively as usual. Formula φ is called *satisfiable* if there is an assignment σ such that $\sigma \models \varphi$.

3.2 Encoding Models as Words

The first step towards automata-based decision procedure is an encoding of assignments as words. In the following, we fix a formula φ with free variables \mathbb{X} . A symbol ξ over \mathbb{X} is a mapping $\xi: \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, e.g., $\xi = \{X:0, Y:1\}$. We use $\Sigma_{\mathbb{X}}$ to denote the set of all symbols over \mathbb{X} . Furthermore, for a set of variables \mathbb{Y} , we define the *projection* of ξ wrt. \mathbb{Y} as $\pi_{\mathbb{Y}}(\xi) = \xi|_{\mathbb{X} \setminus \mathbb{Y}}$. An assignment σ of φ is then encoded as the word α^σ over $\Sigma_{\mathbb{X}}$ s.t. for each variable $X \in \mathbb{X}$ and for each $i \in \omega$ the following two conditions hold (i) if $i \in \sigma(X)$ then α_i^σ contains $X:1$ and (ii) if $i \notin \sigma(X)$ then α_i^σ contains $X:0$. The language of the formula φ is then defined as $\mathcal{L}(\varphi) = \{\alpha^\sigma \mid \sigma \text{ is a model of } \varphi\}$.

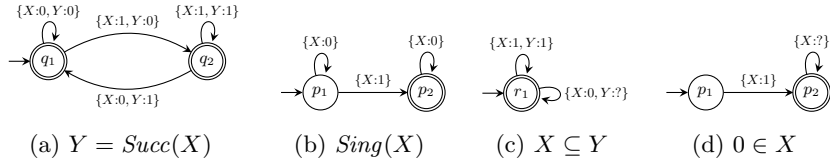


Fig. 1: BAs for atomic formulae.

3.3 Automata-based Decision Procedure

The automata-based decision procedure for SIS takes an input formula φ and inductively builds the BA \mathcal{A}_φ accepting the same language as φ . Checking satisfiability of φ is then equivalent to testing whether $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A}_\varphi) \neq \emptyset$. The automaton \mathcal{A}_φ is defined as follows: (i) If φ is an atomic formula, then \mathcal{A}_φ is a predefined BA (see Fig. 1). (ii) If $\varphi = \psi_1 \wedge \psi_2$, then, in the first step, both \mathcal{A}_{ψ_1} and \mathcal{A}_{ψ_2} are adjusted to accept the original models extended to symbols over $\Sigma_{\mathbb{X}_1 \cup \mathbb{X}_2}$ (\mathbb{X}_1 and \mathbb{X}_2 are the free variables of ψ_1 and ψ_2 respectively). This step is called *cylindrification* and can be implemented by modifying the transition functions of \mathcal{A}_{ψ_1} and \mathcal{A}_{ψ_2} . In particular, for \mathcal{A}_{ψ_1} , each transition over a symbol ξ is replaced by multiple transitions over all symbols $\xi' \in \Sigma_{\mathbb{X}_1 \cup \mathbb{X}_2}$ s.t. $\pi_{\mathbb{X}_1}(\xi') = \xi$. The BA \mathcal{A}_φ is then obtained as $\mathcal{A}_\varphi = \mathcal{A}'_{\psi_1} \cap \mathcal{A}'_{\psi_2}$ where \mathcal{A}'_{ψ_1} and \mathcal{A}'_{ψ_2} are cylindrified BAs and \cap is the standard operation of intersection of two BAs. (iii) If $\varphi = \psi_1 \vee \psi_2$ then $\mathcal{A}_\varphi = \mathcal{A}'_{\psi_1} \cup \mathcal{A}'_{\psi_2}$ where \mathcal{A}'_{ψ_1} and \mathcal{A}'_{ψ_2} are cylindrified BAs and \cup is the standard operation of union over BAs. (iv) If $\varphi = \neg\psi$, then $\mathcal{A}_\varphi = \mathcal{A}_\psi^c$ where \mathcal{A}^c denotes the BA accepting $\Sigma^\omega \setminus \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$. (v) If $\varphi = \exists X. \psi$, then $\mathcal{A}_\varphi = \pi_X(\mathcal{A}_\psi)$ where $\pi_X(\mathcal{A})$ is the BA obtained from \mathcal{A} by modifying its transition function, applying $\pi_{\{X\}}$ on the symbol of each transition.

Handling of first-order variables. Although the definition of SIS presented in Section 3.1 uses second-order variables only, first-order variables (denoted by lowercase letters) can be handled using the support of the *Sing* predicate as follows: $\exists x. \varphi$ is transformed into $\exists X. \varphi \wedge \text{Sing}(X)$ and $\forall x. \varphi$ is transformed into $\forall X. \text{Sing}(X) \rightarrow \varphi$.

4 Implementation of the Decision Procedure

In this section, we focus on details related to our prototype implementation of the SIS decision procedure. The implemented tool, called ALICE, is written in PYTHON and is publicly available on GITHUB¹.

Automata-based decision procedure. ALICE implements the classical decision procedure as described in Section 3.3. In particular, it uses the two-copy product construction for intersection and performs union by simply uniting the input automata (making sure they have disjoint sets of states). BA complementation (corresponding to using negation in the input formula) is performed either by

¹ <https://github.com/barbora4/projektova-praxe>

Schewe’s optimal construction [10, Section 3] improving the original rank-based construction [11, 23] or by determinization-based complementation implemented within SPOT [35]. Although the used complementation algorithms meet the lower bound of BA complementation $2^{\mathcal{O}(n \log n)}$, the complexity is still a bottleneck of the decision procedure. Note that development of efficient complementation algorithms for BAs is still a hot topic of current research [8, 13]. In order to avoid the state explosion during complementation, we keep the automata as small as possible using (i) *lightweight reductions*, such as quotienting wrt. the direct simulation equivalence, i.e., two states p, q are merged if $p \preceq_{di} q$ and $q \preceq_{di} p$, or disconnecting little brother states [33], i.e., if there are transitions $p \xrightarrow{a} q$ and $p \xrightarrow{a} r$ with $q \preceq_{di} r$, we can remove the transition $p \xrightarrow{a} q$ from the automaton, and (ii) *heavyweight reductions*, based on a 10-step lookahead simulation relation combined with advanced transition pruning, implemented in the tool RABIT [30].

Alphabet handling. When working with BAs, the number of states is not the only issue. Recall from Section 3.2 that if we consider a formula with n free variables, there are 2^n symbols that can occur in the corresponding automaton. For this reason we implement *symbolic* handling of symbols using a “don’t care” flag (denoted by “?”). For instance two transitions $p \xrightarrow{\xi_1} q$ and $p \xrightarrow{\xi_2} q$ where $\xi_1 = \{X:1, Y:0\}$ and $\xi_2 = \{X:1, Y:1\}$ are represented by a single transition $p \xrightarrow{\kappa} q$ where $\kappa = \{X:1, Y:?\}$. In future, we might consider handling alphabets via *binary decision diagrams* in the similar way as MONA [36].

5 Experimental Evaluation

In this section, we compare our tool with, to the best of our knowledge, the only other existing implementation of a decision procedure for S1S, which is based on loop-deterministic finite automata (denoted as L-DFA) [34]. The evaluation uses a benchmark that consists of 26 hand-crafted S1S formulae obtained from [34]. We compared the approaches with respect to the number of states of the automaton \mathcal{A}_φ (either BA or L-DFA) corresponding to the formula φ .²

In the comparison, we use the following three settings of our tool: ALICE-RANK denotes the setting with Schewe’s complementation and reduction by RABIT, ALICE-SPOT denotes SPOT’s complementation and reduction by RABIT, and, lastly, ALICE-SPOT-LIGHT denotes SPOT’s complementation and lightweight reduction. The timeout (TO) was set to 1 hour. Selected results are in Table 1.

Discussion. Our tool usually gives better results than L-DFA in terms of state count, as shown in Table 1. In particular, for the case of ALICE-SPOT, the state counts of the resulting automata were in the vast majority of cases lower than for L-DFA. There were only two worse cases, one of them being formula 23 that did not finish in a day (complementing an automaton having 33 states). Furthermore, parametric formulae 18–20 are worth noticing; the number of states of L-DFA

² We do not compare other measurements such as the execution time or the sum of sizes of all automata obtained during the construction of \mathcal{A}_φ , because we were not able to obtain the L-DFA tool and [34] does not provide these values.

Table 1: Comparison of ALICE and L-DFA on SIS formulae. In addition to the atomic formulae from Section 3.1, ALICE also considers $x < y$ to be atomic.

Formula	ALICE-RANK	ALICE-SPOT-LIGHT	ALICE-SPOT	L-DFA
1. $(x \in Y \wedge x \notin Z) \vee (x \in Z \wedge x \notin Y)$	2	5	2	9
2. $\neg \exists x.((x \in Y \wedge x \notin Z) \vee (x \in Z \wedge x \notin Y))$	1	1	1	9
3. $after(X, Y) := \forall x.(x \in X \rightarrow \exists y.(y > x \wedge y \in Y))$	5	3	3	9
4. $fair(X, Y) := after(X, Y) \wedge after(Y, X)$	24	5	5	9
5. $\forall X.(fair(X, Y) \rightarrow fair(Y, Z))$	OOM	29	21	14
6. $suc(x, y) := x < y \wedge \forall z.(\neg x < z \vee \neg z < y)$	3	4	3	10
18. $offset(X, Y) := \forall i \forall j.(suc(i, j) \wedge i \in X \rightarrow j \in Y)$	2	2	2	11
19. $offset(X, Y) \wedge offset(Y, Z) \wedge offset(Z, X)$	8	8	8	107
20. $offset(V, W) \wedge offset(W, X) \wedge offset(X, Y) \wedge offset(Y, Z) \wedge offset(Z, V)$	32	32	32	2331
22. $insm(i, j, U, V, W) := (j \in U \rightarrow i \in V \vee i \in W)$	8	13	8	15
23. $\forall i \forall j (suc(i, j) \rightarrow insm(i, j, U, V, Z) \wedge insm(i, j, V, X, Y) \wedge insm(i, j, X, Y, V) \wedge insm(i, j, Y, Z, X) \wedge insm(i, j, Z, U, Y))$	OOM	TO	TO	198
26. $\forall x \forall y.(x < y \wedge y \in X \wedge y \in Y) \wedge \forall x \forall y.(x < y \wedge y \in X \wedge y \notin Y) \wedge \forall x \forall y.(x < y \wedge y \notin X \wedge y \in Y) \wedge \forall x \forall y.(x < y \wedge y \notin X \wedge y \notin Y)$	21	11	11	18

grows much faster than in our case. If we compare the variants ALICE-RANK and ALICE-SPOT, the setting ALICE-SPOT gives overall better results—e.g., for formula 5, ALICE-RANK ran out of memory (OOM), yet ALICE-SPOT yields an automaton having 21 states. On the other hand, lightweight reduction behaves surprisingly well: ALICE-SPOT outperforms ALICE-SPOT-LIGHT just in 7 cases (most significantly on formulae 7, 9, and 22).

By analyzing the results, we found that the bottleneck of our approach is indeed BA complementation—it caused all the TOs and OOMs in the benchmark. For instance the TO in result of ALICE-SPOT for formula 23 is caused by complementing a BA with 33 states. To keep the sizes of automata small, their reduction is a crucial operation. Therefore, as a future work, we would like to investigate state-of-the-art techniques for BA complementation and identify the most suitable approach in connection with advanced minimization techniques. Although ALICE often produces smaller automata than L-DFA, the number of states is not the only possible measure: with a missing run time the comparison is incomplete, since dealing with BAs is usually harder than dealing with DFAs.

As far as we know, ALICE is the only off-the-shelf publicly available SIS solver. We intend to use it in the following settings: (i) educational (students input SIS formulae and observe the corresponding BAs) and (ii) research (we wish to study the structure of the created BAs and search for potential heuristics).

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