

Almost Linear Büchi Automata

Tomáš Babiak, Vojtěch Řehák, and Jan Strejček

Faculty of Informatics, Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic

{xbabiak, rehak, strejcek}@fi.muni.cz

Received ???

We introduce a new fragment of Linear temporal logic (LTL) called *LIO* and a new class of Büchi automata (BA) called *Almost linear Büchi automata* (ALBA). We provide effective translations between LIO and ALBA showing that the two formalisms are expressively equivalent. As we expect applications of our results in model checking, we use two standard sources of specification formulae, namely Spec Patterns and BEEM, to study practical relevance of LIO fragment, and to compare our translation of LIO to ALBA with two standard translations of LTL to BA via alternating automata. Finally, we demonstrate that the LIO to ALBA translation can be much faster than the standard translation and the produced automata can be substantially smaller.

Contents

1	Introduction	1
2	Preliminaries	4
2.1	Linear temporal logic	4
2.2	Büchi automata	5
2.3	The LIO fragment	6
2.4	Almost linear Büchi automata	6
2.5	Hierarchy of Büchi automata classes	8
3	The ALBA to LIO translation	9
4	The LIO to ALBA translation	10
4.1	Transformation of LIO formulae to normal form	10
4.2	Automata construction for LIO formulae in normal form	12
4.3	Complexity of the translation	16
5	Implementation and experimental results	19
6	Conclusion	25
	References	26

1. Introduction

The growing number of concurrent software and hardware systems puts more emphasis on development of automatic verification methods applicable in practice. One of the most

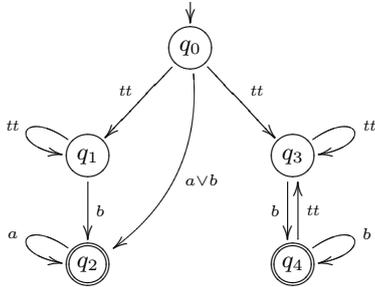


Fig. 1. An ALBA for the formula $G(a \vee Fb)$. The automaton has two terminal strongly connected components: $\{q_2\}$ corresponding to Ga and $\{q_3, q_4\}$ corresponding to GFb .

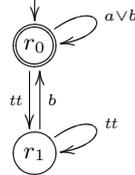


Fig. 2. The Büchi automaton for the formula $G(a \vee Fb)$ produced by `1t12ba` (Gastin & Oddoux, 2001).

promising methods is LTL model checking. The main problem of this verification method is the *state explosion problem* and consequent high computational complexity. While symbolic approaches to model checking partly solve the problem for hardware systems, there is still no satisfactory solution for model checking of software systems. The most auspicious approach is a combination of abstraction methods, reduction methods, and optimized model checking algorithms.

Reduction methods and optimized algorithms are often based on some specific properties of the specification formula or the model. For example, a very effective reduction method called *partial order reduction* employs the fact that specification formulae usually do not use the modality *next* and thus they describe *stutter-invariant* properties (Lampert, 1983). Another example can be found in (Černá & Pelánek, 2003), where the authors show that two classes of Manna and Pnueli’s hierarchy of temporal properties (Manna & Pnueli, 1990), namely *guarantee* and *persistence* formulae, can be translated into *terminal* and *weak* Büchi automata, respectively. Further, the authors of (Černá & Pelánek, 2003) suggest several improvements of standard model checking algorithms employing the specific structure of these automata.

We have realized that all formulae of the *restricted temporal logic* (Perrin & Pin, 2004), i.e. formulae using only temporal operators *eventually* (F) and *always* (G), can be translated to Büchi automata (BA) that are linear (1-weak), possibly with an exception of terminal strongly connected components. These terminal components have also a specific property: they accept only infinite words over a set of letters, where some selected letters appear infinitely often. We call such automata *Almost linear Büchi automata (ALBA)*. Figure 1 provides an example of an ALBA automaton corresponding to the formula $G(a \vee Fb)$.

We believe that the specific shape of ALBA automata brings a potential for improvements of model checking process, especially when terminal strongly connected components are described purely by the mentioned sets of letters. We can already provide an example of an improvement in sanity checking. Sanity checks try to detect basic errors

in a specification and in a system model. For example, a correct specification formula should be satisfiable and its negation too (Rozier & Vardi, 2007). In a standard approach to LTL satisfiability checking, the formula is translated into a Büchi automaton and Tarjan’s algorithm (Tarjan, 1972) or Nested Depth First Search (Nested-DFS) (Courcoubetis et al., 1992; Holzmann et al., 1996) then decides whether the automaton accepts some word or not. If the formula is translated into an ALBA instead of a general BA, we can use arbitrary reachability algorithm to decide the satisfiability (we basically check reachability of a terminal component as nonemptiness check of a terminal component is trivial). Asymptotic complexity of Tarjan’s algorithm, Nested-DFS and all reachability algorithms is the same: linear. The improvement is in the fact that some reachability algorithm can effectively run in parallel and distributed environment, while Tarjan’s algorithm and Nested-DFS cannot as they are based on intrinsically sequential depth first search.

Searching for the precise class of LTL formulae corresponding to ALBA has resulted in the definition of an LTL fragment named *LIO* (the abbreviation for *linear* and *infinitely often*). The fragment is strictly more expressive than the restricted temporal logic. To prove that LIO corresponds to ALBA, we present translations between LIO and ALBA.

Further, we compare the LIO to ALBA translation with standard translations of LTL formulae to Büchi automata (BA). The main theoretical difference is in the size of produced automata: while standard translations produce automata with at most exponentially many states (in length of input formulae), LIO to ALBA can produce double exponential automata. We currently do not know whether this exponential gap is an unavoidable price for the specific form of resulting automata or it is only a weakness of our translation. However, there exist LIO formulae such that the automata created by the standard translations are not ALBA. For example, `1t12ba` (Gastin & Oddoux, 2001) translates the formula $G(a \vee Fb)$ into an automaton depicted on Figure 2, which is not ALBA (if we switch off all optimizations, `1t12ba` produces an automaton with four states, which is also not ALBA).

To get a more realistic view of relevance and practical applicability of the LIO to ALBA translation, the translation has been implemented. The implementation called `lio2alba` is compared with two standard LTL to BA translators, namely with `1t12ba` (Gastin & Oddoux, 2001) and the translation employed in distributed model checker DiVinE (Barnat et al., 2006). For the comparison we use specification formulae of LTL taken from two standard sources: Spec Patterns (Dwyer et al., 1998) and BEEM (Pelánek, 2007). The tests show that LIO to ALBA translation is applicable for majority of these specification formulae and the produced ALBA automata have more or less the same sizes as automata produced by the reference translators. To compare the efficiency on bigger formulae, we run the three mentioned translators also on some parametrised formulae. Despite the double exponential theoretical complexity, `lio2alba` shows to be surprisingly powerful in some cases. For example, the formula

$$\theta_n = \neg((GFp_1 \wedge GFp_2 \wedge \dots \wedge GFp_n) \rightarrow G(p \rightarrow Fr))$$

is translated by `lio2alba` for $n = 320$ approximately in the time needed by `1t12ba` to translate the formula only for $n = 10$. Let us note that the formula θ_n is taken from the

introduction of (Gastin & Oddoux, 2001), where it is used to demonstrate efficiency of `ltl2ba`.

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 provides the definitions of LTL, LIO, BA, and ALBA. Section 3 presents the ALBA to LIO translation. The LIO to ALBA translation and proof of its double exponential complexity is shown in Section 4. Section 5 describes the `lio2alba` implementation (including some optimizations) and discusses experimental comparison of the three implementations. The last section sums up the presented results and mentions some topics for future research.

Some results including a preliminary version of the LIO to ALBA translation with a triple exponential bound have been already presented in (Babiak et al., 2009). The detailed results of our experiments can be found in (Babiak, 2010).

2. Preliminaries

In this section we recall the definitions of LTL and Büchi automata. Then we define the LTL fragment LIO and Almost linear Büchi automata. Finally, we present a hierarchy of language classes corresponding to various types of Büchi automata.

2.1. Linear temporal logic

The syntax of *Linear Temporal Logic* (LTL) (Pnueli, 1977) is defined as follows

$$\varphi ::= tt \mid a \mid \neg\varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid X\varphi \mid \varphi U \varphi,$$

where *tt* stands for *true*, *a* ranges over a countable set AP of *atomic propositions*, X and U are modal operators called *next* and *until*, respectively. The logic is interpreted over infinite words over the alphabet $\Sigma = 2^{AP'}$, where $AP' \subseteq AP$ is a finite subset. Given a word $u = u(0)u(1)u(2)\dots \in (2^{AP'})^\omega$, by u_i we denote the i^{th} suffix of u , i.e. $u_i = u(i)u(i+1)\dots$

The semantics of LTL formulae is defined inductively as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} u \models tt & \\ u \models a & \quad \text{iff } a \in u(0) \\ u \models \neg\varphi & \quad \text{iff } u \not\models \varphi \\ u \models \varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2 & \quad \text{iff } u \models \varphi_1 \text{ or } u \models \varphi_2 \\ u \models \varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2 & \quad \text{iff } u \models \varphi_1 \text{ and } u \models \varphi_2 \\ u \models X\varphi & \quad \text{iff } u_1 \models \varphi \\ u \models \varphi_1 U \varphi_2 & \quad \text{iff } \exists i \geq 0. (u_i \models \varphi_2 \text{ and } \forall 0 \leq j < i. u_j \models \varphi_1) \end{aligned}$$

We say that a word u *satisfies* φ whenever $u \models \varphi$. Given an alphabet Σ , a formula φ defines the language

$$L^\Sigma(\varphi) = \{u \in \Sigma^\omega \mid u \models \varphi\}.$$

We often write $L(\varphi)$ instead of $L^{2^{AP(\varphi)}}(\varphi)$, where $AP(\varphi)$ denotes the set of atomic propositions occurring in the formula φ .

We extend the LTL with derived modal operators

- $F\varphi$ called *eventually* and equivalent to $ttU\varphi$,
- $G\varphi$ called *always* and equivalent to $\neg F\neg\varphi$,
- $\varphi R\psi$ called *release* and equivalent to $\neg(\neg\varphi U\neg\psi)$, and
- $\varphi W\psi$ called *weak until* and equivalent to $(G\varphi) \vee (\varphi U\psi)$.

For a set $\{O_1, \dots, O_n\}$ of modal operators, $LTL(O_1, \dots, O_n)$ denotes the LTL fragment containing all formulae with modalities O_1, \dots, O_n only. We will use mainly the fragments $LTL(F, G)$ with modalities eventually and always and $LTL()$ without any modalities. In the following, we use $\alpha, \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots$ to represent formulae of $LTL()$. Note that an $LTL()$ formula describes only a property of the first letter of an infinite word. Hence, we say that a letter $e \in \Sigma$ satisfies an $LTL()$ formula α , written $e \models \alpha$, iff $ew \models \alpha$ for some $w \in \Sigma^\omega$.

2.2. Büchi automata

Definition 1. A *Büchi automaton* (BA) is a tuple $A = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$, where

- Q is a finite set of *states*,
- Σ is a finite *alphabet*,
- $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow 2^Q$ is a total *transition function*,
- $q_0 \in Q$ is an *initial state*, and
- $F \subseteq Q$ is a set of *accepting states*.

We write $p \xrightarrow{e} q$ instead of $q \in \delta(p, e)$. A Büchi automaton is traditionally seen as a directed graph where nodes are the states and there is an edge leading from p to q and labelled by e whenever $p \xrightarrow{e} q$. An edge $p \xrightarrow{e} p$ is called a *loop* on p .

A *run* π over an infinite word $u(0)u(1)u(2)\dots \in \Sigma^\omega$ is a sequence

$$\pi = r_0 \xrightarrow{u(0)} r_1 \xrightarrow{u(1)} r_2 \xrightarrow{u(2)} \dots$$

where $r_0 = q_0$ is the initial state. The run is *accepting* if some accepting state occurs infinitely often in the sequence r_0, r_1, \dots . The *language* $L(A)$ defined by automaton A is the set of all infinite words u such that the automaton has an accepting run over u .

A state q is *reachable* from p , written $p \rightarrow^* q$, if $p = q$ or there exists a sequence

$$r_0 \xrightarrow{u(0)} r_1 \xrightarrow{u(1)} r_2 \xrightarrow{u(2)} \dots \xrightarrow{u(n)} r_{n+1}$$

where $p = r_0$ and $q = r_{n+1}$.

A *strongly connected component* (SCC or *component* for short) is a maximal set of states $S \subseteq Q$ such that $p \rightarrow^* q$ holds for every $p, q \in S$. Note that every state of an automaton belongs to exactly one strongly connected component.

Several special classes of Büchi automata have been considered in the context of model checking so far. A Büchi automaton $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ is called

- *terminal* if for each $p \in F$ and $a \in \Sigma$ it holds that $\delta(p, a) \neq \emptyset$ and $\delta(p, a) \subseteq F$,
- *weak* if every SCC of the automaton contains only accepting states or only non-accepting states,
- *k-weak* for some $k > 0$ if it is weak and every SCC contains at most k states,

— *linear* or *very weak* if it is 1-weak.

Linear Büchi automata can be alternatively defined as automata where each SCC consists of one state, i.e. each cycle is a loop.

Given an automaton A and its state q , by A_q we denote the automaton A where the initial state is changed to q . Further, a strongly connected component S is called *terminal* if for all $p \in S$ it holds that $p \rightarrow^* q$ implies $q \in S$.

In the following, we assume that Büchi automata use alphabets of the form $2^{AP'}$ for some finite set of atomic propositions $AP' \subseteq AP$. When we draw such an automaton, we usually label transitions with LTL() formulae, where $p \xrightarrow{\alpha} q$ means that there is a transition $p \xrightarrow{e} q$ for each $e \in 2^{AP'}$ satisfying the formula α .

2.3. The LIO fragment

The LIO fragment of LTL is defined on syntactic level as

$$\varphi ::= \psi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \mathbf{X}\varphi \mid \alpha \mathbf{U}\varphi,$$

where α ranges over LTL() and ψ ranges over LTL(F, G), i.e. ψ is defined as

$$\psi ::= \alpha \mid \neg\psi \mid \psi \vee \psi \mid \psi \wedge \psi \mid \mathbf{F}\psi \mid \mathbf{G}\psi.$$

The fragment does not fit into any standard taxonomy of LTL fragments (see (Strejček, 2004)), but it is a strictly more expressive generalization of the fragment LTL(F, G) also known as *restricted temporal logic* (Perrin & Pin, 2004). Let us note that LTL(F, G) covers many specification formulae frequently used in the context of model checking, for example typical response formulae of the form $\mathbf{G}(a \Rightarrow \mathbf{F}b)$. In fact, it is more important that LIO contains negations of these formulae, as only the negations of specification formulae need to be translated into automata in model checking algorithms.

The syntax of LIO can be also extended with other operators that do not modify its expressive power. For example, we can safely add formulae of the form $\varphi \mathbf{R}\alpha$ and $\alpha \mathbf{W}\varphi$ as $\varphi \mathbf{R}\alpha \equiv \mathbf{G}\alpha \vee \alpha \mathbf{U}(\alpha \wedge \varphi)$ and $\alpha \mathbf{W}\varphi \equiv \mathbf{G}\alpha \vee \alpha \mathbf{U}\varphi$.

2.4. Almost linear Büchi automata

Definition 2. *Almost linear Büchi automaton (ALBA)* is a Büchi automaton A over an alphabet $\Sigma = 2^{AP'}$ such that every non-terminal SCC contains just one state and for every terminal component S there exists a formula

$$\rho = \mathbf{G}\alpha_0 \wedge \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n} \mathbf{G}\mathbf{F}\alpha_i$$

such that $n \geq 0$, $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \text{LTL}()$, and for every $q \in S$ it holds that $L(A_q) = L^\Sigma(\rho)$, i.e. each state of the component S accepts exactly words satisfying ρ .

Note that our condition on terminal components is formulated only semantically: it does not describe concrete structure of terminal components. In fact, a formula $\mathbf{G}\alpha_0 \wedge \bigwedge_{0 < i \leq n} \mathbf{G}\mathbf{F}\alpha_i$ can be translated into a (Büchi automaton with a single) component in

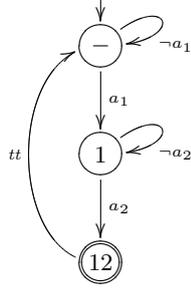


Fig. 3. Minimal number of states and transitions.

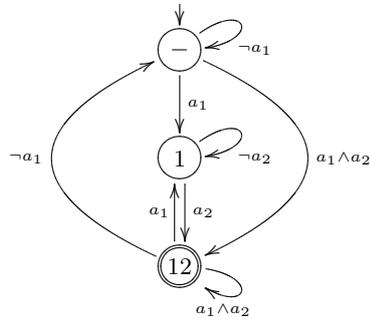


Fig. 4. Minimal number of states and shortcuts.

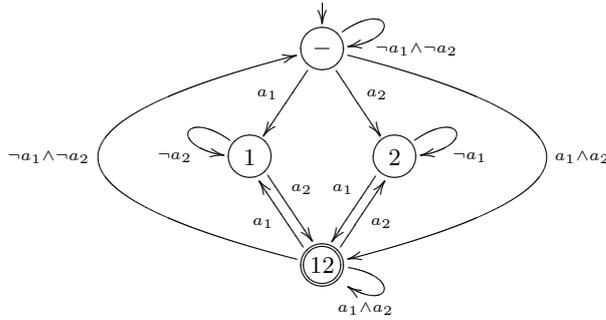


Fig. 5. Shortest cycles in product automata.

at least three reasonable ways. We illustrate them by automata corresponding to the formula $\rho = Gtt \wedge GFa_1 \wedge GFa_2$.

1. If we want to minimize the number of transitions and states of the automaton, we create just a “cycle” depicted on Figure 3.
2. In the context of LTL model checking, a Büchi automaton A derived from an LTL formula is usually used to build a *product automaton* that accepts all words accepted by A and corresponding to some behaviour of the verified system. Model checking algorithms then decide whether there is an accepting cycle in the product automaton or not. If we want to keep the number of states of A minimal and to shorten the length of potential cycles in product automata, we add to the automaton A some shortcuts, see Figure 4.
3. If we want to minimize the length of potential cycles in product automata without regard to the number of states, we translate the formula ρ into the automaton given in Figure 5. Note that the number of states is exponential in the length of ρ , while it is only linear in the previous two cases.

Any of the three mentioned shapes of terminal components can be used to formulate

an alternative, purely syntactic definition of ALBA. Comparing to the original definition, such a syntactic definition would generate a strictly smaller, but expressively equivalent class of automata.

2.5. Hierarchy of Büchi automata classes

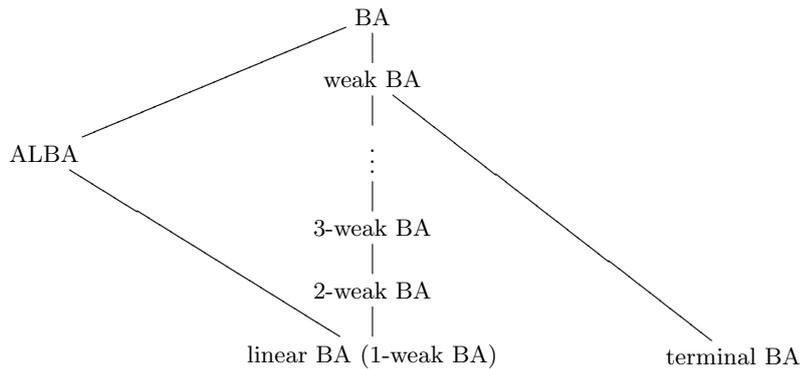


Fig. 6. Hierarchy of Büchi automata classes.

Figure 6 depicts the hierarchy of the mentioned classes of Büchi automata. A line between two classes means that the upper class is strictly more expressive than the lower class. If the figure does not indicate such a relation between a pair of classes, then the two classes are incomparable.

Indicated inclusions follow directly from definitions of the classes. The strictness of these inclusions is easy to prove and the same holds also for the indicated incomparability relations. For example, incomparability of (k) -weak BA (for $k \geq 2$) and ALBA classes is due to the following two observations.

1. One can easily see that only two of the considered automata classes can express the language defined by the formula GFa : ALBA and the general class. Hence, the ALBA class is not included in any other considered class except the general one.
2. The 2-weak BA of Figure 7 is not equivalent to any ALBA automaton. This follows from the fact that the automaton accepts some words with suffix $(\{a\}.\emptyset.\{b\})^\omega$, while it does not accept any word with suffix $(\{a\}.\{b\}.\emptyset)^\omega$. Such a language is not recognizable by any ALBA as no terminal strongly connected component of an ALBA can distinguish between words that differ only in the order of letters. Hence, the ALBA class does not include any class of the (k) -weak automata (for $k \geq 2$).

Let us note that the complement of the language accepted by the 2-weak BA of Figure 7 is accepted by the ALBA automaton given in Figure 8. Hence, the class of ALBA automata is not closed under complementation.

There is also a relation between the ALBA class and the fragment LTL^{det} better known as *the common fragment of CTL and LTL* (Maidl, 2000). As negations of LTL^{det} formulae are expressively equivalent to linear Büchi automata (Maidl, 2000) and ALBA

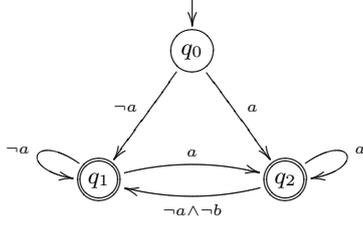


Fig. 7. A 2-weak BA corresponding to the formula $\neg F(a \wedge (a \text{ U } (b \wedge \neg a)))$.

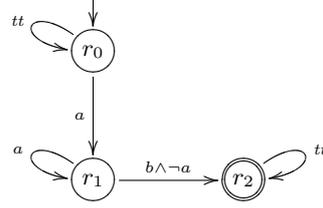


Fig. 8. An ALBA corresponding to the formula $F(a \wedge (a \text{ U } (b \wedge \neg a)))$.

is an extension of linear BA, we get that ALBA automata are strictly more expressive than negated LTL^{det} formulae. As we will show that ALBA and LIO are equivalent, we can derive that LIO is also strictly more expressive than negated LTL^{det} formulae.

3. The ALBA to LIO translation

The translation of an ALBA to LIO formulae is straightforward. Let $A = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be an ALBA over an alphabet $\Sigma = 2^{A^{P'}}$. For every state $q \in Q$, we recursively define a LIO formula $\varphi(q)$ such that $L(A_q) = L^\Sigma(\varphi(q))$. There are two cases:

- q is in a terminal strongly connected component. Due to the definition of ALBA, there exists a formula

$$\rho = G\alpha_0 \wedge \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n} GF\alpha_i$$

such that $n \geq 0$, $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \text{LTL}()$. We set $\varphi(q) = \rho$. Note that ρ is a formula of $\text{LTL}(F, G)$.

- q is not in any terminal component. Let $q \xrightarrow{a_1} q$, $q \xrightarrow{a_2} q$, \dots , $q \xrightarrow{a_n} q$ be all loops on q and $q \xrightarrow{b_1} q_1$, $q \xrightarrow{b_2} q_2$, \dots , $q \xrightarrow{b_m} q_m$ be all transitions leading from q to other states. For every $a \in \Sigma$, let $\alpha(a)$ be an $\text{LTL}()$ formula satisfied only by the letter a . Then we set

$$\varphi(q) = \begin{cases} \left(\bigvee_{1 \leq i \leq n} \alpha(a_i) \right) \text{ U } \bigvee_{1 \leq j \leq m} (\alpha(b_j) \wedge \text{X}\varphi(q_j)) & \text{if } q \notin F, \\ \left(\left(\bigvee_{1 \leq i \leq n} \alpha(a_i) \right) \text{ U } \bigvee_{1 \leq j \leq m} (\alpha(b_j) \wedge \text{X}\varphi(q_j)) \right) \vee G \bigvee_{0 < i \leq n} \alpha(a_i) & \text{if } q \in F. \end{cases}$$

Note that $\varphi(q)$ is a LIO formula assuming that all $\varphi(q_j)$ are in LIO.

The recursion in the definition of $\varphi(q)$ is bounded as A is linear (except the terminal components). The whole automaton then corresponds to the formula $\varphi(q_0)$. Hence, we can pronounce the following theorem.

Theorem 3. Given an ALBA A over an alphabet $\Sigma = 2^{A^{P'}}$, there exists a LIO formula φ such that

$$L(A) = L^\Sigma(\varphi).$$

4. The LIO to ALBA translation

The translation proceeds in two steps.

1. A given LIO formula is transformed to an equivalent LIO formula in *normal form*.
2. The formula in normal form is translated into an equivalent ALBA.

The two steps are described in the first two subsections. In the third subsection, we analyze the complexity of our translation.

For each LIO formula φ , we define its *size*. If φ is in LTL(), we set $size(\varphi) = 1$. Otherwise, we define $size(\varphi)$ recursively as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 size(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2) &= size(\varphi_1) + 1 + size(\varphi_2) \\
 size(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2) &= size(\varphi_1) + 1 + size(\varphi_2) \\
 size(\neg\varphi_0) &= 1 + size(\varphi_0) \\
 size(\mathbf{F}\varphi_0) &= 1 + size(\varphi_0) \\
 size(\mathbf{G}\varphi_0) &= 1 + size(\varphi_0) \\
 size(\mathbf{X}\varphi_0) &= 1 + size(\varphi_0) \\
 size(\alpha \mathbf{U} \varphi_0) &= 2 + size(\varphi_0)
 \end{aligned}$$

In this section, we always assume that LIO formulae are in *positive form*, i.e. no temporal operator is in scope of any negation. Every LIO formula φ can be transformed into an equivalent LIO formula φ' in positive form using the following equivalences.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \neg\mathbf{F}\varphi_0 &\equiv \mathbf{G}\neg\varphi_0 & \neg(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2) &\equiv \neg\varphi_1 \vee \neg\varphi_2 \\
 \neg\mathbf{G}\varphi_0 &\equiv \mathbf{F}\neg\varphi_0 & \neg(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2) &\equiv \neg\varphi_1 \wedge \neg\varphi_2
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that $size(\varphi') \leq size(\varphi)$, i.e. the transformation to positive form does not increase the size of LIO formulae.

4.1. Transformation of LIO formulae to normal form

We say that a LIO formula φ is in *normal form*, if it is of the following form:

$$\varphi ::= \psi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \mathbf{X}\varphi \mid \alpha \mathbf{U} \varphi,$$

where α ranges over LTL() and ψ is defined as

$$\psi ::= \alpha \mid \mathbf{G}\alpha \mid \mathbf{G}\mathbf{F}\alpha \mid \psi \vee \psi \mid \psi \wedge \psi \mid \mathbf{F}\psi.$$

In other words, normal form says that a formula is in positive form and the modality \mathbf{G} can occur only in subformulae of the form $\mathbf{G}\alpha$ or $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{F}\alpha$. The LIO formulae in normal form are called *nLIO* formulae.

Note that the definition of normal form puts restriction only on subformulae ψ . Hence, to transform a LIO formula to normal form, it is sufficient to transform its LTL(\mathbf{F} , \mathbf{G}) subformulae to LIO formulae in normal form. We assume that LIO formulae are already in positive form. Intuitively, it remains to push the operators \mathbf{G} towards the subformulae of

the form α or $F\alpha$. This can be done by repeated application of the following equivalences:

$$\begin{aligned}
 G(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2) &\equiv G\varphi_1 \wedge G\varphi_2 \\
 G(\varphi_1 \vee (\varphi_2 \wedge \varphi_3)) &\equiv G(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2) \wedge G(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_3) \\
 G(\varphi_1 \vee F\varphi_2) &\equiv G\varphi_1 \vee F(\varphi_2 \wedge XG\varphi_1) \vee GF\varphi_2 \\
 GF(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2) &\equiv GF\varphi_1 \vee GF\varphi_2 \\
 GF(\varphi_1 \wedge (\varphi_2 \vee \varphi_3)) &\equiv GF(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2) \vee GF(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_3) \\
 GF(\varphi_1 \wedge F\varphi_2) &\equiv GF\varphi_1 \wedge GF\varphi_2 \\
 GF(\varphi_1 \wedge G\varphi_2) &\equiv GF\varphi_1 \wedge FG\varphi_2 \\
 GFF\varphi &\equiv GF\varphi \\
 GFG\varphi &\equiv FG\varphi \\
 GG\varphi &\equiv G\varphi \\
 G(\bigvee_{\varphi \in G} G\varphi) &\equiv \bigvee_{\varphi \in G} G\varphi \\
 G(\alpha \vee \bigvee_{\varphi \in G} G\varphi) &\equiv G\alpha \vee \alpha U (\bigvee_{\varphi \in G} G\varphi)
 \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 4. For every formula φ of LTL(F, G), we can effectively construct an equivalent nLIO formula.

Proof. For a given LTL(F, G) formula φ in positive form, we construct an equivalent LIO formula $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi)$ in normal form. The formula $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi)$ is defined recursively. The recursion is bounded as each $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi')$ appearing in the definition of $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi)$ satisfies $size(\varphi') < size(\varphi)$. We define $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi)$ according to the structure of φ .

- $\boxed{\alpha}$ $\mathbf{nf}(\alpha) = \alpha$
In the remaining cases we assume that $\varphi \notin \text{LTL}()$.
- $\boxed{\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2}$ $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2) = \mathbf{nf}(\varphi_1) \vee \mathbf{nf}(\varphi_2)$
- $\boxed{\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2}$ $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2) = \mathbf{nf}(\varphi_1) \wedge \mathbf{nf}(\varphi_2)$
- $\boxed{F\varphi_0}$ $\mathbf{nf}(F\varphi_0) = ttU(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_0))$
- $\boxed{G\varphi_0}$ This case is divided into the following subcases according to the structure of φ_0 :
 - $\boxed{\alpha}$ $\mathbf{nf}(G\alpha) = G\alpha$
In the remaining cases we assume that $\varphi_0 \notin \text{LTL}()$.
 - $\boxed{\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2}$ $\mathbf{nf}(G(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2)) = \mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_1) \wedge \mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_2)$
 - $\boxed{F\varphi_1}$ This case is again divided into the following subcases according to the structure of φ_1 :
 - $\boxed{\alpha}$ $\mathbf{nf}(GF\alpha) = GF\alpha$
In the remaining cases we assume that $\varphi_1 \notin \text{LTL}()$.
 - $\boxed{\varphi_3 \vee \varphi_4}$ $\mathbf{nf}(GF(\varphi_3 \vee \varphi_4)) = \mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_3) \vee \mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_4)$
 - $\boxed{\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4}$ As conjunction is an associative operator, we can see it as an operator of arbitrary arity and we can assume that all conjuncts are not conjunctions. Then either all conjuncts are formulae of LTL() (i.e. $\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4 \in \text{LTL}()$) - this case has been already covered by the Case $GF\alpha$, or at least one conjunct has the form $\varphi_5 \vee \varphi_6$ or $F\varphi_5$ or $G\varphi_5$. Let φ_4 be this conjunct and φ_3 be

conjunction of all the other conjuncts. We proceed according to the structure of φ_4 .

- $\boxed{\varphi_5 \vee \varphi_6}$ As $\mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge (\varphi_5 \vee \varphi_6)) \equiv \mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_5) \vee \mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_6)$, we set $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge (\varphi_5 \vee \varphi_6))) = \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_5)) \vee \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_6))$.
- $\boxed{F\varphi_5}$ As $\mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge F\varphi_5) \equiv (\mathbf{GF}\varphi_3) \wedge (\mathbf{GF}\varphi_5)$, we set $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge F\varphi_5)) = \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}\varphi_3) \wedge \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}\varphi_5)$.
- $\boxed{G\varphi_5}$ As $\mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge G\varphi_5) \equiv (\mathbf{GF}\varphi_3) \wedge (\mathbf{FG}\varphi_5)$, we set $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge G\varphi_5)) = \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}\varphi_3) \wedge ttU(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_5))$.
- $\boxed{F\varphi_3}$ $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GFF}\varphi_3) = \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}\varphi_3)$
- $\boxed{G\varphi_3}$ As $\mathbf{GFG}\varphi_3 \equiv \mathbf{FG}\varphi_3$, we set $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GFG}\varphi_3) = ttU(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_3))$.
- $\boxed{\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2}$ The situation is similar to the Case $\mathbf{GF}(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4)$. Hence, either $\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2 \in \mathbf{LTL}()$ (this has been already solved in Case $\mathbf{G}\alpha$), or we can assume that φ_2 has the form $\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4$ or $F\varphi_3$ or $G\varphi_3$. We proceed according to the structure of φ_2 .
 - $\boxed{\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4}$ As $\mathbf{G}(\varphi_1 \vee (\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4)) \equiv \mathbf{G}(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_3) \wedge \mathbf{G}(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_4)$, we set $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}(\varphi_1 \vee (\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4))) = \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_3)) \wedge \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_4))$.
 - $\boxed{F\varphi_3}$ As $\mathbf{G}(\varphi_1 \vee F\varphi_3) \equiv (\mathbf{G}\varphi_1) \vee \mathbf{F}(\varphi_3 \wedge \mathbf{XG}\varphi_1) \vee \mathbf{GF}\varphi_3$, we set $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}(\varphi_1 \vee F\varphi_3)) = \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi_1) \vee ttU(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_3) \wedge \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi_1))) \vee \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}\varphi_3)$.
 - $\boxed{G\varphi_3}$ $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}(\varphi_1 \vee G\varphi_3))$: We can assume that φ_1 is an $\mathbf{LTL}()$ formula or a formula of the form $\mathbf{G}\varphi'$ or a disjunction of such formulae (all other possibilities are covered by the previous two cases). Hence, the whole subformula $\varphi_1 \vee G\varphi_3$ can be seen either as $\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'$ or as $\alpha \vee \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'$.
 - $\boxed{\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'}$ As $\mathbf{G}(\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi') \equiv \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} (\mathbf{G}\varphi')$, we set $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}(\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi')) = \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi')$.
 - $\boxed{\alpha \vee \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'}$ As $\mathbf{G}(\alpha \vee \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi') \equiv (\mathbf{G}\alpha) \vee (\alpha U (\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'))$, we set $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}(\alpha \vee \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi')) = (\mathbf{G}\alpha) \vee (\alpha U (\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi')))$.
- $\boxed{G\varphi_1}$ $\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GG}\varphi_1) = \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi_1)$

□

4.2. Automata construction for LIO formulae in normal form

States of the constructed automata correspond to finite sets of nLIO formulae. Given an nLIO formula φ_0 , the initial state of the corresponding ALBA is the singleton $\{\varphi_0\}$. Transitions and other states of the automaton are computed by a function R . To every nLIO formula φ , the function assigns a finite set $R(\varphi)$ of pairs of the form (α, S) , where

$\alpha \in \text{LTL}()$ and S is a finite set of nLIO formulae. The set $R(\varphi)$ satisfies

$$\varphi \equiv \bigvee_{(\alpha, S) \in R(\varphi)} (\alpha \wedge \bigwedge_{\sigma \in S} \sigma).$$

In other words, a word u satisfies φ if and only if there is some pair $(\alpha, S) \in R(\varphi)$ such that the first letter of u satisfies α and the suffix u_1 satisfies all nLIO formulae in S . Intuitively, every pair $(\alpha, S) \in R(\varphi)$ encodes a transition $\{\varphi\} \xrightarrow{\alpha} S$ and the set S semantically corresponds to conjunction of its elements.

The set $R(\varphi)$ is defined recursively according to the structure of φ .

$$\text{--- } \boxed{\alpha} \quad R(\alpha) = \{(\alpha, \emptyset)\}$$

In the remaining cases we assume that $\varphi \notin \text{LTL}()$.

$$\text{--- } \boxed{\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2} \quad R(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2) = R(\varphi_1) \cup R(\varphi_2)$$

$$\text{--- } \boxed{\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2} \quad R(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2) = \{(\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2, S_1 \cup S_2) \mid (\alpha_1, S_1) \in R(\varphi_1), (\alpha_2, S_2) \in R(\varphi_2)\}$$

$$\text{--- } \boxed{F\varphi_0} \quad R(F\varphi_0) = \{(tt, \{F\varphi_0\})\} \cup R(\varphi_0)$$

$$\text{--- } \boxed{X\varphi_0} \quad R(X\varphi_0) = \{(tt, \{\varphi_0\})\}$$

$$\text{--- } \boxed{\alpha \text{ U } \varphi_0} \quad R(\alpha \text{ U } \varphi_0) = \{(\alpha, \{\alpha \text{ U } \varphi_0\})\} \cup R(\varphi_0)$$

$$\text{--- } \boxed{G\alpha} \quad R(G\alpha) = \{(\alpha, \{G\alpha\})\}$$

$$\text{--- } \boxed{GF\alpha} \quad R(GF\alpha) = \{(tt, \{GF\alpha\})\}$$

We extend the functions R and $size$ to finite sets of nLIO formulae. For every nonempty finite set $S = \{\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_k\}$ of nLIO formulae, we define

$$R(S) = R\left(\bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq k} \varphi_i\right) \quad size(S) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq k} size(\varphi_i)$$

and for the empty set we define $R(\emptyset) = \{(tt, \emptyset)\}$ and $size(\emptyset) = 0$.

Remark 5. One can readily confirm that for each $(\alpha, S) \in R(\varphi)$, the set S contains only subformulae of φ (possibly including the whole formula). Moreover, for a nonempty set $S = \{\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_k\}$ of nLIO formulae it holds

$$R(S) = \left\{ \left(\bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq k} \alpha_i, \bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq k} S_i \right) \mid (\alpha_i, S_i) \in R(\varphi_i) \text{ for each } 1 \leq i \leq k \right\}.$$

Hence, for each $(\alpha, S') \in R(S)$, the set S' contains only subformulae of $\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_k$ (possibly including the whole formulae).

Before we give a precise description of the automata construction, we formulate and prove three lemmata that are crucial for proving finiteness and ALBA structure of the constructed automata.

Lemma 6. Let φ be an nLIO formula. For every $(\alpha, S) \in R(\varphi)$, either $S = \{\varphi\}$ or $size(S) < size(\varphi)$.

Proof. Let φ be an nLIO formula and S be a set such that $(\alpha, S) \in R(\varphi)$ for some α . The proof is done by induction on $size(\varphi)$.

- If $size(\varphi) = 1$, then $\varphi \in \text{LTL}()$. As $R(\alpha) = \{(\alpha, \emptyset)\}$, we get that $S = \emptyset$ and the statement clearly holds: $size(\emptyset) = 0 < size(\varphi) = 1$.
- If $size(\varphi) > 1$, we distinguish four cases according to the structure of φ .
 - If φ has the form $\boxed{\text{G}\alpha}$ or $\boxed{\text{GF}\alpha}$, then the definition of $R(\varphi)$ implies that $S = \{\varphi\}$.
 - If φ has the form $\boxed{\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2}$, then S comes from $R(\varphi_1) \cup R(\varphi_2)$. Let us assume that S comes from $R(\varphi_1)$. As $size(\varphi) > 1$, we know that $\varphi \notin \text{LTL}()$. Hence, $size(\varphi_1) < size(\varphi)$ and we can apply induction hypothesis to get $size(S) \leq size(\varphi_1)$. This implies $size(S) < size(\varphi)$. The analogous arguments prove the statement for φ of the form $\boxed{\text{X}\varphi_0}$.
 - If φ has the form $\boxed{\text{F}\varphi_0}$ or $\boxed{\alpha \text{U} \varphi_0}$, then either $S = \{\varphi\}$ or S comes from $R(\varphi_0)$ where $size(\varphi_0) < size(\varphi)$ and the statement follows directly from the induction hypothesis.
 - If φ has the form $\boxed{\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2}$, then $S = S_1 \cup S_2$ where $(\alpha_1, S_1) \in R(\varphi_1)$ and $(\alpha_2, S_2) \in R(\varphi_2)$. As $size(\varphi) > 1$, we know that $\varphi \notin \text{LTL}()$ and hence $size(\varphi) > size(\varphi_1) + size(\varphi_2)$. Induction hypothesis gives us $size(S_1) \leq size(\varphi_1)$ and $size(S_2) \leq size(\varphi_2)$. We are done as $size(S) = size(S_1) + size(S_2) \leq size(\varphi_1) + size(\varphi_2) < size(\varphi)$.

□

Lemma 7. Let S be a finite set of nLIO formulae. For every $(\alpha, S') \in R(S)$ it holds that $S' = S$ or $size(S') < size(S)$.

Proof. The lemma clearly holds for $S = \emptyset$. Let us assume that $S = \{\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_k\}$ is nonempty. The definition of $R(S)$ implies that each S' is of the form $S' = S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \dots \cup S_k$ where, for every $1 \leq i \leq k$, $(\alpha_i, S_i) \in R(\varphi_i)$ for some α_i . Lemma 6 says that each S_i satisfies either $S_i = \{\varphi_i\}$ or $size(S_i) < size(\varphi_i)$. If $S_i = \{\varphi_i\}$ holds for all S_i , then $S' = S$. Otherwise, $size(S_i) < size(\varphi_i)$ for some S_i and then

$$size(S') \leq \sum_{1 \leq i \leq k} size(S_i) < \sum_{1 \leq i \leq k} size(\varphi_i) = size(S).$$

□

Lemma 8. Let S be a finite set of nLIO formulae. It holds that

$$S \subseteq \{\text{G}\alpha, \text{GF}\alpha \mid \alpha \in \text{LTL}()\} \iff \forall (\alpha', S') \in R(S). S' = S.$$

Proof. The implication “ \implies ” follows immediately from the definition of $R(\text{G}\alpha)$, $R(\text{GF}\alpha)$, and $R(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2)$.

We prove the contraposition of the implication “ \impliedby ”. We assume that there exists a formula σ in $S \setminus \{\text{G}\alpha, \text{GF}\alpha \mid \alpha \in \text{LTL}()\}$. With Lemma 6 in mind, one can easily observe that the set $R(\sigma)$ contains a pair (α_1, S_1) such that $size(S_1) < size(\sigma)$. Further, let (α_2, S_2) be an arbitrary element of $R(S \setminus \{\sigma\})$. Lemma 7 implies that $size(S_2) \leq size(S \setminus \{\sigma\})$. Then $R(S)$ contains a pair $(\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2, S_1 \cup S_2)$ and

$$size(S_1 \cup S_2) \leq size(S_1) + size(S_2) < size(\sigma) + size(S \setminus \{\sigma\}) = size(S).$$

Hence, $S_1 \cup S_2 \neq S$.

□

Now we are ready to present the automata construction. Let φ be an nLIO formula. First we construct a labelled transition system $T_\varphi = (Q, \Sigma, \delta)$, where Q is a set of states, Σ is an alphabet of transition labels, and $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow 2^Q$ is a transition function. This transition system is later slightly modified into an ALBA corresponding to φ . (Terminal) strongly connected components of transition systems are defined precisely in the same way like for Büchi automata.

For a given nLIO formula φ , we define a transition system $T_\varphi = (Q, \Sigma, \delta)$, where

— Q is the smallest subset of 2^{nLIO} satisfying two conditions:

(i) $\{\varphi\} \in Q$

(ii) for every $S \in Q$ it holds that $(\alpha, S') \in R(S)$ implies $S' \in Q$,

— $\Sigma = 2^{AP(\varphi)}$,

— for each $e \in \Sigma$ and $S \in Q$, we set $\delta(S, e) = \{S' \mid (\alpha, S') \in R(S) \text{ and } e \models \alpha\}$.

The following lemma summarizes basic properties of T_φ . The lemma is a direct corollary of properties of the function R and Lemmata 7 and 8.

Lemma 9. Let φ be an nLIO formula. Then transition system $T_\varphi = (Q, \Sigma, \delta)$ has the following properties.

— For every $S \in Q$ and every word $u = u(0)u(1)u(2) \dots \in \Sigma^\omega$ it holds that

$$u \models \bigwedge_{\sigma \in S} \sigma \iff u_1 \models \bigwedge_{\sigma \in S'} \sigma \text{ for some } S' \in \delta(S, u(0)).$$

— The set Q is finite.

— Every strongly connected component of T_φ contains just one state.

— Every state $S \in Q$ satisfying $S \subseteq \{\mathbf{G}\alpha, \mathbf{GF}\alpha \mid \alpha \in \text{LTL}()\}$ is a terminal strongly connected component and vice versa.

The labelled transition system $T_\varphi = (Q, \Sigma, \delta)$ is modified into a Büchi automaton $A_\varphi = (Q', \Sigma, \delta', \{q_0\}, F)$ as follows. Every state $S \subseteq \{\mathbf{G}\alpha, \mathbf{GF}\alpha \mid \alpha \in \text{LTL}()\}$ (i.e. every terminal SCC) is replaced by a strongly connected component corresponding to the formula

$$(\mathbf{G} \bigwedge_{\mathbf{G}\alpha \in S} \alpha) \wedge \bigwedge_{\mathbf{GF}\alpha \in S} \mathbf{GF}\alpha.$$

The new terminal strongly connected components can be constructed for example in the style of Figure 4. The set F of accepting states is the union of sets of accepting states of the new terminal strongly connected components.

Theorem 10. Given an nLIO formula φ , we can effectively construct an ALBA A such that $L(\varphi) = L(A)$.

Proof. Let A be the automaton A_φ constructed above. Lemma 9 and the construction of the automaton from T_φ imply that the resulting automaton A is ALBA. It remains to show that $L(\varphi) = L(A)$.

Let us recall that A_q stands for the automaton A where the initial state is changed to the state q . Further, for each state q we also define its *distance to terminal SCCs*, written

$dist(q)$, as the maximal length of an acyclic path leading from q to a terminal SCC. In particular, for each state q of a terminal SCCs we set $dist(q) = 0$.

We prove by induction on $dist(q)$ that every state q represents the correct language, i.e. $L(A_q) = L(\bigwedge_{\sigma \in S} \sigma)$, where $S = q$ if q is not in terminal SCC; otherwise $S \subseteq \{\mathbf{G}\alpha, \mathbf{GF}\alpha \mid \alpha \in \text{LTL}()\}$ is the state of T_φ corresponding to the terminal SCC containing q .

If $dist(q) = 0$, then q is a state of a terminal SCC. The correctness follows from the modification of T_φ into A_φ and the fact that the following equivalence holds for each $S \subseteq \{\mathbf{G}\alpha, \mathbf{GF}\alpha \mid \alpha \in \text{LTL}()\}$:

$$\bigwedge_{\sigma \in S} \sigma \iff (\mathbf{G} \bigwedge_{\alpha \in S} \alpha) \wedge \bigwedge_{\mathbf{GF}\alpha \in S} \mathbf{GF}\alpha$$

If $dist(q) > 0$, then q is directly a finite set S of nLIO formulae. Our induction hypothesis says that every successor q' of S (such that $q' \neq S$) represents the correct language. If there is no loop on S , the relation $L(A_S) = L(\bigwedge_{\sigma \in S} \sigma)$ follows directly from the first property of Lemma 9 and the induction hypothesis. Otherwise, S has a loop and the definition of $R(S)$ implies that $S \subseteq \{\mathbf{F}\varphi_0, \alpha \mathbf{U} \varphi_0, \mathbf{G}\alpha, \mathbf{GF}\alpha \mid \alpha \in \text{LTL}(), \varphi_0 \in \text{nLIO}\}$. Further, the construction of the automaton implies that $S \not\subseteq \{\mathbf{G}\alpha, \mathbf{GF}\alpha \mid \alpha \in \text{LTL}()\}$. The correctness follows again from the induction hypothesis and Lemma 9. \square

4.3. Complexity of the translation

In this subsection we show that the number of states of the constructed ALBA is at most double exponential in the size of the input LIO formula φ . First, we prove an exponential upper bound on the size of the nLIO formula $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi)$. Then we prove an exponential upper bound on the size of the resulting ALBA in the size of a given nLIO formula. Finally, we provide a parametrized LIO formula showing that the double exponential upper bound is tight up to a constant factor.

Lemma 11. Given a formula φ of $\text{LTL}(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G})$, we can effectively construct an equivalent nLIO formula $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi)$ such that $size(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi)) \leq 2^{size(\varphi)}$.

Proof. The proof is again done by induction to the size of φ and exhibits the same structure as the proof of Lemma 4.

- $\boxed{\alpha}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(\alpha)) = size(\alpha) = 1 < 2 = 2^{size(\alpha)}$
In the remaining cases we assume that $\varphi \notin \text{LTL}()$.
- $\boxed{\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2)) = size(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_1) \vee \mathbf{nf}(\varphi_2)) = size(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_1)) + 1 + size(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_2)) \leq 2^{size(\varphi_1)} + 1 + 2^{size(\varphi_2)} < 2^{size(\varphi_1)+1+size(\varphi_2)} = 2^{size(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2)}$
- $\boxed{\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2}$ Similarly to the previous case.
- $\boxed{\mathbf{F}\varphi_0}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{F}\varphi_0)) = size(\mathbf{ttU}(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_0))) = 2 + size(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_0)) \leq 2 + 2^{size(\varphi_0)} \leq 2^{size(\varphi_0)+1} = 2^{size(\mathbf{F}\varphi_0)}$
- $\boxed{\mathbf{G}\varphi_0}$ This case is divided into the following subcases according to the structure of φ_0 :

- $\boxed{\alpha}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(G\alpha)) = size(G\alpha) = 2 < 2^2 = 2^{size(G\alpha)}$
 In the remaining cases we assume that $\varphi_0 \notin \text{LTL}()$.
- $\boxed{\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(G(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2))) = size(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_1) \wedge \mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_2)) = size(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_1)) + 1 + size(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_2)) \leq 2^{size(G\varphi_1)} + 1 + 2^{size(G\varphi_2)} = 2^{size(\varphi_1)+1} + 1 + 2^{size(\varphi_2)+1} < 2^{size(\varphi_1)+2+size(\varphi_2)} = 2^{size(G(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2))}$
- $\boxed{F\varphi_1}$ This case is again divided into the following subcases according to the structure of φ_1 :
 - $\boxed{\alpha}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(GF\alpha)) = size(GF\alpha) = 3 < 2^3 = 2^{size(GF\alpha)}$
 In the remaining cases we assume that $\varphi_1 \notin \text{LTL}()$.
 - $\boxed{\varphi_3 \vee \varphi_4}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(GF(\varphi_3 \vee \varphi_4))) = size(\mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_3) \vee \mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_4)) = size(\mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_3)) + 1 + size(\mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_4)) \leq 2^{size(GF\varphi_3)} + 1 + 2^{size(GF\varphi_4)} = 2^{2+size(\varphi_3)} + 1 + 2^{2+size(\varphi_4)} < 2^{size(\varphi_3)+3+size(\varphi_4)} = 2^{size(GF(\varphi_3 \vee \varphi_4))}$
 - $\boxed{\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4}$ We proceed according to the structure of φ_4 .
 - $\boxed{\varphi_5 \vee \varphi_6}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge (\varphi_5 \vee \varphi_6)))) = size(\mathbf{nf}(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_5)) \vee \mathbf{nf}(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_6))) = size(\mathbf{nf}(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_5))) + 1 + size(\mathbf{nf}(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_6))) \leq 2^{size(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_5))} + 1 + 2^{size(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_6))} = 2^{3+size(\varphi_3)+size(\varphi_5)} + 1 + 2^{3+size(\varphi_3)+size(\varphi_6)} < 2^{4+size(\varphi_3)+size(\varphi_5)+size(\varphi_6)} = 2^{size(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge (\varphi_5 \vee \varphi_6)))}$
 - $\boxed{F\varphi_5}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge F\varphi_5))) = size(\mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_3) \wedge \mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_5)) = size(\mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_3)) + 1 + size(\mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_5)) \leq 2^{size(GF\varphi_3)} + 1 + 2^{size(GF\varphi_5)} = 2^{2+size(\varphi_3)} + 1 + 2^{2+size(\varphi_5)} < 2^{4+size(\varphi_3)+size(\varphi_5)} = 2^{size(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge F\varphi_5))}$
 - $\boxed{G\varphi_5}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge G\varphi_5))) = size(\mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_3) \wedge ttU(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_5))) = size(\mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_3)) + 3 + size(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_5)) \leq 2^{size(GF\varphi_3)} + 3 + 2^{size(G\varphi_5)} = 2^{2+size(\varphi_3)} + 3 + 2^{1+size(\varphi_5)} < 2^{4+size(\varphi_3)+size(\varphi_5)} = 2^{size(GF(\varphi_3 \wedge G\varphi_5))}$
 - $\boxed{F\varphi_3}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(GFF\varphi_3)) = size(\mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_3)) \leq 2^{size(GF\varphi_3)} = 2^{2+size(\varphi_3)} < 2^{3+size(\varphi_3)} = 2^{size(GFF\varphi_3)}$
 - $\boxed{G\varphi_3}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(GFG\varphi_3)) = size(ttU(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_3))) = 2 + size(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_3)) \leq 2 + 2^{size(G\varphi_3)} = 2 + 2^{1+size(\varphi_3)} < 2^{3+size(\varphi_3)} = 2^{size(GFG\varphi_3)}$
- $\boxed{\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2}$ We proceed according to the structure of φ_2 .
 - $\boxed{\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(G(\varphi_1 \vee (\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4)))) = size(\mathbf{nf}(G(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_3)) \wedge \mathbf{nf}(G(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_4))) = size(\mathbf{nf}(G(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_3))) + 1 + size(\mathbf{nf}(G(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_4))) \leq 2^{size(G(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_3))} + 1 + 2^{size(G(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_4))} = 2^{2+size(\varphi_1)+size(\varphi_3)} + 1 + 2^{2+size(\varphi_1)+size(\varphi_4)} = 2^{3+size(\varphi_1)+size(\varphi_3)+size(\varphi_4)} = 2^{size(G(\varphi_1 \vee (\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4)))}$
 - $\boxed{F\varphi_3}$ $size(\mathbf{nf}(G(\varphi_1 \vee F\varphi_3))) = size(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_1) \vee ttU(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_3) \wedge X(\mathbf{nf}(G\varphi_1))) \vee \mathbf{nf}(GF\varphi_3)) =$

$$\begin{aligned}
& 6 + \text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi_1)) + \text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_3)) + \text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi_1)) + \text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{GF}\varphi_3)) \leq \\
& 6 + 2^{\text{size}(\mathbf{G}\varphi_1)} + 2^{\text{size}(\varphi_3)} + 2^{\text{size}(\mathbf{G}\varphi_1)} + 2^{\text{size}(\mathbf{GF}\varphi_3)} = \\
& 6 + 2 * 2^{1+\text{size}(\varphi_1)} + 2^{\text{size}(\varphi_3)} + 2^{2+\text{size}(\varphi_3)} = 6 + 2^{2+\text{size}(\varphi_1)} + 2^{\text{size}(\varphi_3)} + 2^{2+\text{size}(\varphi_3)} < \\
& 4 * 2^{1+\text{size}(\varphi_1)+\text{size}(\varphi_3)} = 2^{3+\text{size}(\varphi_1)+\text{size}(\varphi_3)} = 2^{\text{size}(\mathbf{G}(\varphi_1 \vee \mathbf{F}\varphi_3))}
\end{aligned}$$

- $\boxed{\mathbf{G}\varphi_3}$ Here we consider only the following two structures of the whole subformula:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \cdot \boxed{\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'} \quad \text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}(\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'))) = \text{size}(\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi')) = \\
& |G| - 1 + \sum_{\varphi' \in G} \text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi')) \leq |G| - 1 + \sum_{\varphi' \in G} 2^{\text{size}(\mathbf{G}\varphi')} < \\
& 2^{1+|G|-1+\sum_{\varphi' \in G} \text{size}(\mathbf{G}\varphi')} = 2^{\text{size}(\mathbf{G}(\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'))}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \cdot \boxed{\alpha \vee \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'} \quad \text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}(\alpha \vee \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'))) = \\
& \text{size}((\mathbf{G}\alpha) \vee (\alpha \bigcup (\bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi')))) = 5 + |G| - 1 + \sum_{\varphi' \in G} \text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi')) \leq 5 + \\
& |G| - 1 + \sum_{\varphi' \in G} 2^{\text{size}(\mathbf{G}\varphi')} < 2^{3+|G|-1+\sum_{\varphi' \in G} \text{size}(\mathbf{G}\varphi')} = 2^{\text{size}(\mathbf{G}(\alpha \vee \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} \mathbf{G}\varphi'))}
\end{aligned}$$

$$- \boxed{\mathbf{G}\varphi_1} \quad \text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}\varphi_1)) = \text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\mathbf{G}\varphi_1)) \leq 2^{\text{size}(\mathbf{G}\varphi_1)} < 2^{\text{size}(\mathbf{G}\mathbf{G}\varphi_1)}$$

□

The definition of normal form and Lemma 11 directly imply the same result for general LIO formulae.

Corollary 12. For every LIO formula φ , we can effectively construct an equivalent nLIO formula $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi)$ such that $\text{size}(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi)) \leq 2^{\text{size}(\varphi)}$.

Lemma 13. Given an nLIO formula φ , we can effectively construct an ALBA automaton A such that $L(\varphi) = L(A)$ and the number of states of A is at most $2^{\text{size}(\varphi)}$.

Proof. Let φ be an nLIO formula and T_φ be the transition system constructed from φ . By $|T_\varphi|$ we denote the number of its states. Due to Remark 5, one can easily see that states of T_φ are sets of subformulae of φ .

Further, some subformulae of φ cannot appear in these sets, for example strict subformulae of α or $\mathbf{G}\alpha$ or $\mathbf{GF}\alpha$ formulae. Let g and f denote the number of subformulae of φ of the form $\mathbf{G}\alpha$ and $\mathbf{GF}\alpha$, respectively. We get that at most $\text{size}(\varphi) - g - 2f$ different subformulae of φ can appear in states of T_φ . Hence,

$$|T_\varphi| \leq 2^{\text{size}(\varphi) - g - 2f}.$$

If $f = 0$, we are done as the transformation of T_φ to A_φ does not change the number of states. Thus, the automaton has at most $2^{\text{size}(\varphi) - g} \leq 2^{\text{size}(\varphi)}$ states.

Now assume that $f > 0$. The transformation of T_φ to A_φ replaces every state $S \subseteq \{\mathbf{G}\alpha, \mathbf{GF}\alpha \mid \alpha \in \text{LTL}()\}$ of T_φ by a strongly connected component with at most 2^f states (this size estimation holds even for the strongly connected components of the type presented by Figure 5). Each T_φ has at most 2^{g+f} such terminal components. Hence, the transformation of T_φ to A_φ adds at most $2^{g+f} \cdot 2^f = 2^{g+2f}$ states. In total, the automaton A_φ has at most $2^{\text{size}(\varphi) - g - 2f} + 2^{g+2f}$ states. We are done as $f > 0$ and $\text{size}(\varphi) > g + 2f$ implies $2^{\text{size}(\varphi) - g - 2f} + 2^{g+2f} \leq 2^{\text{size}(\varphi)}$. □

The following theorem directly follows from Corollary 12 and Lemma 13.

Theorem 14. Given a LIO formula φ , we can effectively construct an ALBA automaton A such that $L(\varphi) = L(A)$ and the number of states of A is at most $2^{2^{\text{size}(\varphi)}}$.

Finally, we present a parametric formula showing that the double exponential upper bound given in the previous corollary is tight up to a constant factor.

Lemma 15. For every $n \geq 1$, let φ_n be a LIO formula $G(\alpha \vee \bigvee_{i=1}^n (G\beta_i \wedge F\gamma_i))$, where $\alpha, \beta_i, \gamma_i \in \text{LTL}()$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. The number of states of A_{φ_n} is at least 2^{2^n} while $\text{size}(\varphi_n) = 2 + 6 * n$.

Proof. During the transformation to normal form, we first apply the rule $G(\varphi_1 \vee (\varphi_3 \wedge \varphi_4)) \equiv G(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_3) \wedge G(\varphi_1 \vee \varphi_4)$ and obtain an equivalent formula $\varphi'_n = \bigwedge_{\mathcal{I} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}} G(\alpha \vee \bigvee_{i \in \mathcal{I}} G\beta_i \vee \bigvee_{i \notin \mathcal{I}} F\gamma_i)$, which consists of 2^n (mutually different) conjuncts. Then each of the conjuncts is transformed using the rule $G(\varphi_1 \vee F\varphi_3) \equiv G\varphi_1 \vee ttU(\varphi_3 \wedge X(G\varphi_1)) \vee GF\varphi_3$ and finally using the rule for $G(\alpha \vee \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} G\varphi')$. This transforms every conjunct into a long disjunction. The resulting normal form formula is of the form

$$\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_n) = \bigwedge_{\mathcal{I} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}} (G\alpha \vee \bigvee_{i \in \mathcal{I}} G\beta_i \vee \bigvee_{i \notin \mathcal{I}} GF\gamma_i \vee \Phi_{\mathcal{I}} \vee \dots)$$

where $\Phi_{\mathcal{I}}$ is a unique subformula of $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_n)$ for every $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$. The formula $\Phi_{\mathcal{I}}$ is obtained as a $ttU(\varphi_3 \wedge X(G\varphi_1))$ part of the transformation rule for $G(\varphi_1 \vee F\varphi_3)$. (In case of $\mathcal{I} = \{1, \dots, n\}$, there is no F operator in the conjunct, and so, the transformation rule is not used at all. Therefore, we set $\Phi_{\{1, \dots, n\}}$ equal to $\alpha U(\bigvee_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}} G\beta_i)$ which is obtained by the transformation rule for $G(\alpha \vee \bigvee_{\varphi' \in G} G\varphi')$ and is also a unique subformula of $\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_n)$.)

The transformation into ALBA continues by the construction of sets $R(\cdot)$. For every $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ there is a formula $\alpha'_{\mathcal{I}} \in \text{LTL}()$ such that we add (except of others) an item $(\alpha'_{\mathcal{I}}, \{\Phi_{\mathcal{I}}\})$ into the set $R(\cdot)$ of the conjunct induced by \mathcal{I} . Hence, the set $R(\mathbf{nf}(\varphi_n))$ generates at least 2^{2^n} pairs with unique second element. Hence, the ALBA automaton for φ contains at least 2^{2^n} states. \square

5. Implementation and experimental results

We decided to implement the translation presented in the previous section in order to answer the following three questions:

1. Is our translation applicable on a substantial part of formulae from the verification practice?
2. Are the ALBA automata produced by our translation comparable (in the sense of their size) with the automata produced by standard LTL to BA translations?
3. Are the resources (time and memory) needed for our translation comparable to the resources needed for standard translations?

We compare our LIO to ALBA translation with the LTL to BA translation introduced by Gastin and Oddoux in (Gastin & Oddoux, 2001). This LTL to BA translation uses alternating co-Büchi automata and generalized Büchi automata as intermediate formalisms and it is considered to be one of the best known LTL to BA translation algorithm: it is

fast and the produced automata are small. In fact, we compare our implementation of LIO to ALBA translation with two implementations of the considered LTL to BA translation: the original implementation `ltl2ba` (Gastin & Oddoux, 2001) and `ltl2ba-divine`, which is the implementation employed in distributed model checker DiVinE (Barnat et al., 2006). Although the two implementations use the same algorithm, they do not always give the same results. The reason is that `ltl2ba` uses some on-the-fly optimizations that do not work the same way in `ltl2ba-divine` and `ltl2ba-divine` applies also post-optimizations described in (Etessami & Holzmann, 2000) whereas `ltl2ba` does not. Our implementation of LIO to ALBA translation uses some parts of `ltl2ba-divine`, in particular the pre- and post-optimizations.

As we are interested in practical relevance of LIO to ALBA translation, we do not evaluate the translation on any randomly generated formulae. We simply use publicly available specification formulae of two different sources: Spec Patterns (Dwyer et al., 1998) (contains 55 LTL formulae available online[†]; we refer to these formulae as $\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_{55}$) and BEEM: benchmark for explicit model checkers (Pelánek, 2007) containing the following 20 LTL formulae.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\psi_1 = \mathbf{G}(a \rightarrow \mathbf{F}b) & \psi_{11} = \neg(\neg(a \vee b) \mathbf{U} c) \wedge \mathbf{G}(d \rightarrow \neg(\neg(a \vee b) \mathbf{U} c)) \\
\psi_2 = ((\mathbf{G}Fa) \wedge (\mathbf{G}Fb)) \rightarrow (\mathbf{G}Fc) & \psi_{12} = (\mathbf{G}\neg a) \rightarrow (\mathbf{G}\neg b) \\
\psi_3 = \mathbf{G}(a \rightarrow (b \wedge (c \mathbf{U} d))) & \psi_{13} = \mathbf{G}(a \rightarrow ((\mathbf{G}\neg b) \vee (\neg c \mathbf{U} b))) \\
\psi_4 = \mathbf{F}(a \vee b) & \psi_{14} = \mathbf{G}(a \rightarrow (b \mathbf{R} (\neg c \vee b))) \\
\psi_5 = \mathbf{G}F(a \vee b) & \psi_{15} = \mathbf{G}((a \wedge b) \rightarrow (\neg b \mathbf{R} (a \vee \neg b))) \\
\psi_6 = (a \mathbf{U} b) \rightarrow ((c \mathbf{U} d) \vee \mathbf{G}c) & \psi_{16} = \mathbf{G}(a \rightarrow (\mathbf{F}(b \wedge c))) \\
\psi_7 = \mathbf{G}(a \rightarrow (\neg b \mathbf{U} (b \mathbf{U} (b \wedge c)))) & \psi_{17} = \mathbf{G}(a \rightarrow (\neg b \mathbf{U} (b \mathbf{U} (\neg b \wedge (c \mathbf{R} \neg b)))) \\
\psi_8 = \mathbf{G}(a \rightarrow (b \mathbf{R} \neg c)) & \psi_{18} = \mathbf{G}(a \rightarrow (\neg b \mathbf{U} (b \mathbf{U} (\neg b \mathbf{U} (b \mathbf{U} (b \wedge c)))))) \\
\psi_9 = \mathbf{G}(\neg a \rightarrow \mathbf{F}a) & \psi_{19} = (\mathbf{G}Fa) \rightarrow (\mathbf{G}Fb) \\
\psi_{10} = \mathbf{G}(a \rightarrow \mathbf{F}(b \vee c)) & \psi_{20} = \mathbf{G}F(a \vee b) \wedge \mathbf{G}F(c \vee b)
\end{array}$$

Note that we do not translate directly the specification formulae, but their negations as model checking algorithms usually need automata representing behaviours violating the specification.

A careful manual analysis show that negations of 49 out of 55 formulae from Spec Patterns can be translated into ALBA automata (and hence these negations can be expressed in LIO). However, only 10 of these negations are syntactically in LIO (it is due to the fact that negation can appear in a LIO formula only in subformulae of LTL(F, G)). Similarly, only 14 negations of 20 BEEM formulae are syntactically in LIO.

To increase the number of potential input formulae for the LIO to ALBA translation, we have extended the syntax of LIO with temporal operators R and W as mentioned in Subsection 2.3. Further, we employ the following equivalences to rewrite a non-LIO formula into an equivalent LIO formula.

$$\neg(\varphi \mathbf{W} \psi) \equiv \neg\psi \mathbf{U} (\neg\varphi \wedge \neg\psi) \quad \neg(\varphi \mathbf{U} \psi) \equiv (\mathbf{G}\neg\psi) \vee (\neg\psi \mathbf{U} (\neg\varphi \wedge \neg\psi))$$

[†] <http://patterns.projects.cis.ksu.edu/documentation/patterns/ltl.shtml>

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\varphi \text{ U } (F\psi) \equiv F\psi & \neg(\varphi \text{ U } (F\psi)) \equiv G\neg\psi \\
\varphi \text{ U } (G\psi) \equiv FG\psi \wedge G(\varphi \vee G\psi) & \neg(\varphi \text{ U } (G\psi)) \equiv GF\neg\psi \vee F(\neg\varphi \wedge F\neg\psi) \\
\varphi \text{ W } (F\psi) \equiv G\varphi \vee F\psi & \neg(\varphi \text{ W } (F\psi)) \equiv F\neg\varphi \wedge G\neg\psi \\
\varphi \text{ W } (G\psi) \equiv G(\varphi \vee G\psi) & \neg(\varphi \text{ W } (G\psi)) \equiv F(\neg\varphi \wedge F\neg\psi) \\
\\
(F\varphi) \text{ U } \psi \equiv \psi \vee F(X\psi \wedge F\varphi) & \neg((F\varphi) \text{ U } \psi) \equiv \neg\psi \wedge G(X\neg\psi \vee G\neg\varphi) \\
(G\varphi) \text{ U } \psi \equiv \psi \vee (G\varphi \wedge F\psi) & \neg((G\varphi) \text{ U } \psi) \equiv G\neg\psi \vee (F\neg\varphi \wedge \neg\psi) \\
(F\varphi) \text{ W } \psi \equiv GF\varphi \vee F(X\psi \wedge F\varphi) & \neg((F\varphi) \text{ W } \psi) \equiv FG\neg\varphi \wedge G(X\neg\psi \vee G\neg\varphi) \\
(G\varphi) \text{ W } \psi \equiv \psi \vee G\varphi & \neg((G\varphi) \text{ W } \psi) \equiv \neg\psi \wedge F\neg\varphi \\
\\
G(\varphi \vee XG\psi) \equiv G\varphi \vee (\varphi \text{ U } XG\psi) & \\
G(\varphi \vee XF\psi) \equiv G\varphi \vee XF(\psi \wedge G\varphi) \vee GF\psi & \\
GF(\varphi \wedge XG\psi) \equiv GF\varphi \wedge FG\psi & \\
\text{if } \varphi \rightarrow \psi \text{ then } G(\varphi \text{ U } \psi) \equiv G\varphi \wedge GF\psi & \\
\varphi \text{ U } (G\psi) \equiv G(\varphi \text{ U } (G\psi)) & \\
\varphi \text{ W } (G\psi) \equiv G(\varphi \text{ W } (G\psi)) &
\end{array}$$

Using these equivalences, we can automatically translate negations of 33 out of 55 formulae from Spec Patterns and negations of 17 out of 20 formulae from BEEM. Hence, it seems that the answer to our first question is positive.

To answer the other two questions, we executed the three implementations on the mentioned negations of 33 Spec Patterns formulae and 17 BEEM formulae. The implementations were executed with all available optimizations in order to get the smallest automata. It is worth mentioning that all optimizations applied in `lio2alba` preserve the ALBA form of the automata.

The results are presented in Table 1 (negations of Spec Patterns formulae) and Table 2 (negations of BEEM formulae). For each formula and each implementation, tables contain the number of states (st.) and transitions (tr.) of the resulting automaton and the memory (mem.) and time needed for the translation. In the number of transitions, all transitions $p \xrightarrow{e} q$ for a fixed p, q are counted as one transition. The memory is measured in kB and time is in seconds (or in minutes when indicated by “m”).

All computations were done on a server with 8 processors Intel® Xeon® X7560, 448 GiB RAM and a 64-bit version of GNU/Linux (kernel version 2.6.32). To measure the time needed for computation we use a build in system program `time`. To measure the peak memory consumption we use the program `tstime`[‡].

The tables show that for most of the considered inputs, all three implementations produce automata with the same number of states and transitions. The inputs where this is not true are indicated with “■”. For some of them, the size of the automaton produced by `lio2alba` coincides with smaller of the other two produced automata. In some cases, the ALBA produced by `lio2alba` is slightly bigger. Anyway, the difference in sizes is not dramatic.

If we analyze the execution time of the implementations, we can see that `lio2alba` is fully comparable with the other two implementations (`lt12ba` seems to be a bit faster

[‡] Available at <http://bitbucket.org/gsoauthof/tstime/overview/>.

Table 1. Results for negations of Spec Patterns formulae.

φ	lio2alba				lt12ba-divine				lt12ba			
	st.	tr.	mem.	time	st.	tr.	mem.	time	st.	tr.	mem.	time
φ_1	2	3	1280	0.006	2	3	1272	0.009	2	3	592	0.004
φ_2	3	5	1308	0.007	3	5	1272	0.008	3	5	616	0.005
φ_3	3	6	1304	0.006	3	6	1276	0.050	3	6	608	0.005
φ_4	4	8	1320	0.007	4	8	1284	0.006	4	8	632	0.005
φ_5	3	6	1304	0.007	3	6	1288	0.007	3	6	624	0.005
φ_6	1	1	1272	0.007	1	1	1276	0.006	1	1	580	0.005
φ_7	2	3	1288	0.007	2	3	1272	0.006	2	3	620	0.004
φ_8	3	6	1320	0.007	3	6	1280	0.006	3	6	620	0.005
φ_9	3	5	1304	0.007	3	5	1284	0.007	3	5	624	0.005
■ φ_{10}	4	8	1304	0.006	3	5	1280	0.006	3	5	620	0.005
φ_{11}	6	11	1332	0.008	6	11	1324	0.012	6	11	640	0.005
φ_{16}	2	3	1284	0.006	2	3	1268	0.006	2	3	600	0.004
φ_{17}	3	5	1312	0.007	3	5	1276	0.006	3	5	612	0.005
φ_{18}	3	6	1300	0.006	3	6	1280	0.006	3	6	616	0.005
φ_{19}	4	8	1320	0.007	4	8	1280	0.006	4	8	632	0.005
φ_{20}	3	6	1300	0.007	3	6	1284	0.006	3	6	620	0.006
φ_{21}	2	3	1292	0.006	2	3	1276	0.006	2	3	608	0.005
φ_{22}	3	5	1316	0.007	3	5	1272	0.006	3	5	624	0.005
φ_{24}	4	8	1332	0.008	4	8	1288	0.007	4	8	632	0.005
φ_{25}	3	6	1308	0.007	3	6	1288	0.007	3	6	636	0.005
φ_{26}	2	3	1296	0.006	2	3	1272	0.006	2	3	616	0.006
φ_{27}	3	5	1332	0.008	3	5	1280	0.006	3	5	628	0.005
φ_{28}	3	6	1312	0.006	3	6	1276	0.006	3	6	624	0.005
φ_{29}	4	7	1348	0.009	4	8	1292	0.007	4	8	660	0.005
■ φ_{30}	5	12	1328	0.008	4	8	1300	0.007	4	8	660	0.005
■ φ_{36}	3	5	1324	0.008	3	5	1284	0.006	4	8	620	0.005
φ_{37}	4	7	1340	0.008	4	7	1284	0.008	4	7	656	0.005
■ φ_{39}	4	7	1344	0.008	4	7	1292	0.007	5	10	664	0.005
■ φ_{40}	4	8	1372	0.011	4	8	1324	0.008	14	43	668	0.006
φ_{41}	4	8	1324	0.006	4	8	1288	0.007	4	8	632	0.004
■ φ_{46}	4	8	1324	0.006	3	6	1280	0.006	3	6	624	0.005
φ_{48}	4	9	1320	0.007	4	9	1280	0.007	4	9	636	0.005
■ φ_{53}	6	14	1324	0.008	4	10	1292	0.007	4	10	636	0.005

Table 2. Results for negations of BEEM formulae.

ψ	lio2alba				lt12ba-divine				lt12ba			
	st.	tr.	mem.	time	st.	tr.	mem.	time	st.	tr.	mem.	time
ψ_1	2	3	1300	0.006	2	3	1272	0.006	2	3	612	0.004
ψ_2	4	10	1308	0.006	4	11	1300	0.007	4	10	624	0.005
■ ψ_3	4	8	1316	0.007	3	6	1284	0.006	3	6	620	0.005
ψ_4	1	1	1284	0.006	1	1	1272	0.006	1	1	596	0.004
ψ_5	2	3	1300	0.006	2	3	1280	0.006	2	3	616	0.005
ψ_6	4	9	1296	0.007	4	9	1284	0.006	4	9	628	0.005
ψ_8	3	6	1296	0.006	3	6	1276	0.007	3	6	612	0.005
ψ_9	2	3	1300	0.006	2	3	1268	0.006	2	3	612	0.004
ψ_{10}	2	3	1296	0.006	2	3	1276	0.007	2	3	612	0.006
ψ_{11}	4	9	1308	0.007	4	9	1288	0.006	4	9	632	0.005
ψ_{12}	2	3	1304	0.006	2	3	1276	0.006	2	3	608	0.005
ψ_{13}	4	8	1320	0.007	4	8	1284	0.006	4	8	616	0.005
ψ_{14}	3	6	1300	0.007	3	6	1280	0.006	3	6	620	0.004
ψ_{15}	3	5	1300	0.006	3	5	1280	0.007	3	5	624	0.005
ψ_{16}	2	3	1300	0.006	2	3	1280	0.006	2	3	624	0.005
ψ_{19}	3	6	1300	0.006	3	6	1280	0.007	3	6	624	0.005
ψ_{20}	3	5	1308	0.006	3	5	1284	0.007	3	5	620	0.004

in some cases). The memory requirements of `lio2alba` and `lt12ba` are almost the same while `lt12ba-divine` requires roughly one half of this amount.

As the data presented by Tables 1 and 2 could awaken a feeling that results of all the three implementations are always more or less the same, we present Table 3 comparing the three implementations on three parametric formulae.

$$\begin{aligned}
\theta_n &= \neg((GFp_1 \wedge GFp_2 \wedge \dots \wedge GFp_n) \rightarrow G(p \rightarrow Fr)) \\
\zeta_n &= G((Fp_1 \wedge Fq_1) \vee (Fp_2 \wedge Fq_2) \vee \dots \vee (Fp_n \wedge Fq_n)) \\
\pi_n &= G(p_1 \vee Fq_1) \vee (G(p_2 \vee Fq_2)) \vee \dots \vee (G(p_n \vee Fq_n))
\end{aligned}$$

The formula θ_n is taken from (Gastin & Oddoux, 2001). Each formula illustrates a different phenomenon:

- Formulae θ_n exemplify a situation where all three implementations produce automata of the same size (only `lt12ba-divine` produces automata with slightly more transitions) but the computation demands differ. More precisely, the time and memory requirements of `lt12ba` and `lt12ba-divine` grow very quickly comparing these of `lio2alba`. Note that after θ_{10} , the index of the formulae grows exponentially. An empty cell indicates that the computation does not finished in one hour. In case of

Table 3. Results for testing formulae.

φ	lio2alba				lt12ba-divine				lt12ba			
	st.	tr.	mem.	time	st.	tr.	mem.	time	st.	tr.	mem.	time
θ_5	7	28	1344	0.009	7	33	2584	0.184	7	28	696	0.033
θ_6	8	36	1364	0.009	8	42	6376	1.727	8	36	744	0.220
θ_7	9	45	1380	0.011	9	52	23044	29.991	9	45	872	1.645
θ_8	10	55	1404	0.012	10	63	95392	8.59m	10	55	1136	19.591
θ_9	11	66	1428	0.015					11	66	1268	3.02m
θ_{10}	12	78	1448	0.016					12	78	1940	45.80m
θ_{20}	22	253	1956	0.035								
θ_{40}	42	903	4964	0.236								
θ_{80}	82	3403	25488	4.005								
θ_{160}	162	13203	177080	1.70m								
θ_{320}	322	52003	1342464	49.54m								
ζ_1	4	9	1296	0.007	3	8	1280	0.007	3	8	608	0.006
ζ_2	15	46	1380	0.012	35	313	1680	0.024	40	549	748	0.011
ζ_3	68	236	2096	0.136	168	2970	5764	0.284	224	9450	2040	0.082
ζ_4	346	1506	80312	24.673	729	24075	43332	6.252	1152	139239	15060	2.495
π_2	9	20	1332	0.011	5	12	1292	0.011	5	12	624	0.008
π_3	27	76	1404	0.016	13	56	1356	0.013	13	56	640	0.009
π_4	114	457	2128	0.085	40	640	3324	0.082	40	640	936	0.020
π_5	324	1587	5048	0.404	96	3072	14832	5.144	96	3072	2008	0.142
π_6	922	5641	21232	3.049	224	14336	88940	3.34m	224	14336	7388	1.336

θ_n formulae, the post-optimizations available in `lt12ba-divine` and `lio2alba` do not affect the size of the produced automata. If we switch these post-optimizations off, `lt12ba-divine` translates θ_8 in 7.86m and θ_9 in 102.12m (which is over the one hour limit), while `lio2alba` translates θ_{320} in 1.78m and even θ_{640} in 27.74m. This shows that post-optimizations of large automata can consume a substantial part of the computation time (e.g. 96% in the case of θ_{320} translated by `lio2alba`).

- Formulae ζ_n demonstrate that `lio2alba` can produce much smaller automata than the other two implementations.
- Formulae π_n document probably the most surprising phenomenon. The number of states of the automata produced by `lio2alba` grows faster than the number of states of automata generated by `lt12ba` and `lt12ba-divine`, while the opposite relation holds for the number of transitions.

6. Conclusion

The paper introduced a new class of Büchi automata called *Almost linear Büchi automata (ALBA)* and an expressively equivalent fragment of LTL called *LIO*. To prove that ALBA and LIO are equivalent, we described a translation of LIO formulae into equivalent ALBA automata and a reverse translation. We provided a double exponential upper bound on the size of ALBA automata produced by our translation from LIO formulae and we show that the bound is tight. As standard LTL to Büchi automata translation are only exponential, there is an open question whether there exists an exponential LIO to ALBA translation.

We have implemented the LIO to ALBA translation and compared it with two implementations of a very popular translation of LTL to Büchi automata suggested by Gastin and Oddoux (Gastin & Oddoux, 2001), namely the original implementation (`lt12ba`) and the one used in DiVinE (Barnat et al., 2006) (`lt12ba-divine`). For the comparison we use negations of specification formulae from Spec Patterns (Dwyer et al., 1998) and BEEM (Pelánek, 2007). If we accept the assumption that Spec Patterns and BEEM provide a representative sample of real-life specification formulae, we can interpret the experimental results as follows:

- Our LIO to ALBA translation (with some presented enhancements) can be applied to a substantial part of negated specification formulae (50 out of 75 considered specification formulae).
- When applied on negated specification formulae, the translation with some standard optimizations produces ALBA automata of approximately the same sizes as Büchi automata produced by the mentioned reference implementations.
- When applied on negated specification formulae, the time and memory consumption of our translation is fully comparable to `lt12ba-divine`, while `lt12ba` runs slightly faster and requires approximately half the memory.

We also present some artificial formulae showing that the LIO to ALBA translation can sometimes outperform the reference implementations in the sense of speed, memory consumption and/or the size of the produced automata. These results provide a clear motivation for further improvements of standard translations of LTL to Büchi automata.

To sum up, the suggested LIO to ALBA translation can generate reasonably small ALBA automata for many negated specification formulae. The current challenge is to develop improvements of the model checking process that profit from the specific shape of ALBA automata.

Acknowledgements

We thank the two anonymous reviewers for interesting suggestions and motivation to improve the paper. The authors have been supported as follows: Tomáš Babiak by the by the Czech Science Foundation, grants No. 201/09/1389 and No. 102/09/H042. Vojtěch Řehák by the research centre “Institute for Theoretical Computer Science (ITI)”, project No. 1M0545, and by the Czech Science Foundation, grants No. 201/08/P459 and No. P202/10/1469. Jan Strejček by the Ministry of Education of the Czech Re-

public, project No. MSM0021622419, and by the Czech Science Foundation, grants No. 201/08/P375 and No. P202/10/1469.

References

- Babiak, T. (2010). Almost linear Büchi automata. Master's thesis, Faculty of Informatics, Masaryk University.
- Babiak, T., Řehák, V., & Strejček, J. (2009). Almost linear Büchi automata. In *EXPRESS 2009*, volume 8 of *Electronic Proceedings in Theoretical Computer Science* (pp. 16–25).
- Barnat, J., Brim, L., Černá, I., Moravec, P., Ročkai, P., & Šimeček, P. (2006). DiVinE – A Tool for Distributed Verification. In T. Ball & R. B. Jones (Eds.), *Computer Aided Verification, 18th International Conference, CAV 2006, Seattle, WA, USA, August 17-20, 2006, Proceedings*, volume 4144 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science* (pp. 278–281).: Springer.
- Černá, I. & Pelánek, R. (2003). Relating hierarchy of temporal properties to model checking. In *Proceedings of the 30th Symposium on Mathematical Foundations of Computer Science (MFCS'03)*, volume 2747 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science* (pp. 318–327).: Springer.
- Courcoubetis, C., Vardi, M. Y., Wolper, P., & Yannakakis, M. (1992). Memory-efficient algorithms for the verification of temporal properties. *Formal Methods in System Design*, 1(2/3), 275–288.
- Dwyer, M. B., Avrunin, G. S., & Corbett, J. C. (1998). Property specification patterns for finite-state verification. In *Proc. 2nd Workshop on Formal Methods in Software Practice (FMSP-98)* (pp. 7–15). New York: ACM Press.
- Etessami, K. & Holzmann, G. J. (2000). Optimizing Büchi automata. In C. Palamidessi (Ed.), *CONCUR 2000 - Concurrency Theory, 11th International Conference, University Park, PA, USA, August 22-25, 2000, Proceedings*, volume 1877 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science* (pp. 153–167).: Springer.
- Gastin, P. & Oddoux, D. (2001). Fast LTL to Büchi automata translation. In G. Berry, H. Comon, & A. Finkel (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 13th International Conference on Computer Aided Verification (CAV'01)*, volume 2102 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science* (pp. 53–65).: Springer-Verlag.
- Holzmann, G., Peled, D., & Yannakakis, M. (1996). On nested depth first search. In *The Spin Verification System* (pp. 23–32).: American Mathematical Society. Proc. of the Second Spin Workshop.
- Lamport, L. (1983). What good is temporal logic? In R. E. A. Mason (Ed.), *Proceedings of the IFIP Congress on Information Processing* (pp. 657–667). Amsterdam: North-Holland.
- Maidl, M. (2000). The common fragment of CTL and LTL. In D. C. Young (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 41st Annual IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science (FOCS'00)* (pp. 643–652).: IEEE Computer Society Press.
- Manna, Z. & Pnueli, A. (1990). A hierarchy of temporal properties. In *Proceedings of ACM Symposium on Principles of Distributed Computing (PODC'90)* (pp. 377–410).: ACM Press.
- Pelánek, R. (2007). BEEM: Benchmarks for explicit model checkers. In *Model Checking Software, 14th International SPIN Workshop, Berlin, Germany, July 1-3, 2007, Proceedings*, volume 4595 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science* (pp. 263–267).: Springer.
- Perrin, D. & Pin, J.-E. (2004). *Infinite words*, volume 141 of *Pure and Applied Mathematics*. Elsevier.
- Pnueli, A. (1977). The temporal logic of programs. In *Proc. 18th IEEE Symposium on the Foundations of Computer Science* (pp. 46–57).

- Rozier, K. Y. & Vardi, M. Y. (2007). LTL satisfiability checking. In D. Bosnacki & S. Edelkamp (Eds.), *Model Checking Software, 14th International SPIN Workshop (SPIN 2007)*, volume 4595 of *LNCS* (pp. 149–167).: Springer.
- Strejček, J. (2004). *Linear Temporal Logic: Expressiveness and Model Checking*. PhD thesis, Faculty of Informatics, Masaryk University in Brno.
- Tarjan, R. E. (1972). Depth-first search and linear graph algorithms. *SIAM J. Comput.*, 1(2), 146–160.