

# The $\mu$ -calculus and model checking

[T.J. Bradfield and I. Walukiewicz, Handbook of MC]

So far: Linear-time properties

Now: Branching time.

## Syntax and Semantics:

Transition systems are finite graphs

whose transitions are labelled by actions from  $Act = \{a, b, c, \dots\}$   
and whose states are labelled by propositions from  $Prop = \{p_1, p_2, \dots\}$ .

Formally,

$$M = (S, f_R, f_a, f_c, f_i)$$

with  $f_R \subseteq S \times S$  and  $f_i \subseteq S$ .

// One can also study the  $\mu$ -calculus  
over infinite structures.

## Syntax:

Let  $Var = \{X, Y, Z, \dots\}$  be a countable set of variables  
that will denote sets of states.

The set of  $\mu$ -calculus formulas  $\alpha$   
is defined by

$$\alpha ::= p \mid \neg p \mid X \mid d_1 \wedge d_2 \mid d_1 \vee d_2$$

$$\mid \langle a \rangle \alpha \mid [a] \alpha \mid \mu X. \alpha \mid \nu X. \alpha$$

Convention:  $\langle a \rangle$  and  $[a]$  bind stronger than Boolean connectives.

We write  $\Diamond X. \alpha$  for  $\mu X. \alpha$  or  $\nu X. \alpha$ .

We write  $\Diamond\Box$  for  $\mu p_1 \vee \neg p_1$ ,  $\Box\Diamond$  for  $\mu p_1 \wedge \neg p_1$ .

### Example:

$\rho$  holds infinitely often along some  $a$ -path:

$$\vee Y. (\mu X. ((\rho \wedge \langle a \rangle Y) \vee \langle a \rangle X)).$$

We write this as

$$\vee Y. \mu X. (\rho \wedge \langle a \rangle Y) \vee \langle a \rangle X.$$

### Semantics:

The meaning of a formula in a transition system  
is the set of states satisfying the formula.

### Definition:

Given a transition system  $M = (S, \{Ra\}_{a \in Act}, \{P_i\}_{i \in Inv})$   
and a valuation  $val : \text{Vars} \rightarrow P(S)$ ,

the meaning of formulas  $\alpha \in D_{val}^M$   
is defined by induction:

$$\llbracket X \rrbracket_{val}^M := val(X)$$

$$\llbracket p_i \rrbracket_{val}^M := P_i \quad \llbracket \neg p_i \rrbracket_{val}^M := S \setminus P_i.$$

$$\llbracket \alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2 \rrbracket_{val}^M := \llbracket \alpha_1 \rrbracket_{val}^M \cap \llbracket \alpha_2 \rrbracket_{val}^M$$

$$\llbracket \alpha \wedge a \cdot \alpha \rrbracket_{val}^M := \{s \in S \mid \exists s'. Ra(s, s') \wedge s' \in \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket_{val}^M\}$$

$$\llbracket \alpha \vee a \cdot \alpha \rrbracket_{val}^M := \{s \in S \mid \forall s'. Ra(s, s') \Rightarrow s' \in \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket_{val}^M\}.$$

To define the semantics of fixed-point operators,  
we understand a formula  $\alpha(X)$  with free variable  $X$   
as an operator

$$\alpha(X) : \mathcal{P}(S) \longrightarrow \mathcal{P}(S)$$

$$S' \mapsto \prod_{\text{val}[X \mapsto S']}^M \alpha$$

This operator is monotonic,  
so we can rely on Knaster-Tarski.

$$\prod_{\mu X. \alpha} \prod_{\text{val}}^M := \bigcap \{ S' \subseteq S \mid \prod_{\text{val}[X \mapsto S']}^M \subseteq S' \}$$

// Meet over all prefix points,

so  $\mu X. \alpha$  is the GP of  $\alpha$ .

$$\prod_{\nu X. \alpha} \prod_{\text{val}}^M := \bigcup \{ S' \subseteq S \mid S' \subseteq \prod_{\text{val}[X \mapsto S']}^M \}$$

// Join over all postfix points,

so  $\nu X. \alpha$  is the GP of  $\alpha$ .

We write  $M, s, \text{val} \models \alpha$  for  $s \in \prod_{\text{val}}^M \alpha$ .

### Examples:

The way to read a formula

- $\nu X. \alpha$  is There is an infinite set of positions  $X$  in the run tree for which  $\alpha$  holds.
- $\mu X. \alpha$  is There is a finite set of positions  $X$  in the run tree for which  $\alpha$  holds.

(1) There is an  $\langle a \rangle$ -labeled transition:  $\langle a \rangle t t$ .

(2) Termination, all sequences of  $a$ -transitions are finite:  $\mu X. L_a X$ .

To understand what this is the meaning, consider

$$M, \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{a \rightarrow s_1} \\ s \end{array} \cdot \text{Is } s \text{ a prefix point?}$$

$$\prod_{\text{val}[X \mapsto \{s\}]}^M$$

$$= \{s \in S \mid \forall s_1. \text{Rels}(s, s_1) \Rightarrow s_1 \in \emptyset\}$$

$$= \{s_1, s_2 \in S \mid \emptyset\}$$

The least fixed point  
actually is

$$\{s, s_1, s_2\}.$$

(3) Non-termination, there is an infinite sequence of  $\alpha$ -transitions:  $\nu X. \langle a \rangle X$ .

Note that (2) and (3) only need one fixed point.

(4) There is an infinite sequence of  $\alpha$ -transitions and all states on the sequence satisfy  $p: \nu Y. p \wedge \langle a \rangle Y$ .

(5)  $\mu X. \langle a \rangle X$  is false.

Intuitively, this says that there is a finite set of positions so that from every position in the set

one can take an  $\alpha$ -transition to a position in the set.

The only finite set for which this holds is  $\emptyset$ , which is the semantics of false.

All other sets would have to be infinite.

Formally, the empty set is a prefix point:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi \langle a \rangle X Y \}_{[X \mapsto \emptyset]}^{\mu} &= \{ s \in S \mid \exists s'. R_a(s, s') \wedge s' \in \emptyset \} \\ &= \emptyset \subseteq \emptyset. \end{aligned}$$

(6) There is a sequence of  $\alpha$ -transitions

to a state where  $p$  holds:  $\mu X. p \vee \langle a \rangle X$ .

(7) Two fixed points allow us to define fairness:

on some  $\alpha$ -path there are infinitely many states where  $p$  holds:  $\nu Y. \mu X. (p \wedge \langle a \rangle Y) \vee \langle a \rangle X$

(8) On some  $\alpha$ -path, almost always  $p$  holds:  $\mu X. \nu Y. (p \wedge \langle a \rangle Y) \vee \langle a \rangle X$

Note that the fixed points are swapped between (7) and (8).

Why do formulas mean what they mean? Introduce alternative semantics?

The inductive way of reading nested fixed points like

$$\nu Y. \mu X. (p \wedge \langle a \rangle Y) \vee \langle a \rangle X$$

is to say:

The arrows say:  
when I arrive at  $X/Y$ ,  
I continue with the  
formula: the arrow leads to.

there is an infinite set of positions  $Y$  in the run tree

so that for every position  $y \in Y$

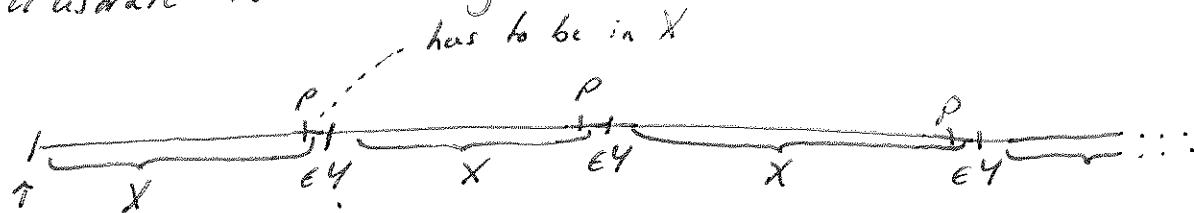
there is a finite set of positions  $X_y$

so that  $(p \wedge \langle a \rangle Y) \vee \langle a \rangle X$  holds.

So the alternation  $\nu Y. \mu X. \alpha$  translates into

for all  $y \in Y$  there is a set  $X_y$ .

We illustrate the meaning on a run (not a tree):



we can make this

belong to  $Y$

to be able to pick  $X$

$p \wedge \langle a \rangle Y$  after seeing  $P$   
we have to be in  $Y$ .

### Conventions:

- $\mu X$  and  $\nu X$  bind the variable  $X$ .
- The meaning of  $\alpha X. \alpha$  does not depend on the valuation of  $X$ .
- A formula is closed or a sentence, if it does not contain free variables.
- We write  $\alpha[\beta/x]$  to denote the substitution of  $\beta$  for every free occurrence of  $X$  in  $\alpha$ .

We assume that the free variables of  $\beta$  are disjoint from the bound variables in  $\alpha$ .

This can always be achieved by renaming bound variables.  
 $\sigma Y. \alpha$  is equivalent to  $\sigma Z. \alpha[Z/Y]$ .

- We write  $\sigma X. \alpha(X)$  to indicate that  $\alpha$  depends on the value of  $X$ .

We write  $\alpha(\beta)$  for  $\alpha[\beta/X]$ .

- It fixed point formula  $\sigma X. \alpha(X)$  is equivalent to its unfolding  $\alpha(\sigma X. \alpha(X))$ .  
This means we can delay reasoning about fixed points.

Semantics based on approximations:

Idea: Use Kleene's theorem to obtain the meaning of fixed point constructs.

Definition:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu^0 X. \alpha(X) &:= \emptyset \\ \mu^{n+1} X. \alpha(X) &:= \alpha(\mu^n X. \alpha(X)) \\ \mu^\omega X. \alpha(X) &:= \bigcup_{n \in \omega} \mu^n X. \alpha(X).\end{aligned}$$

If  $\mu^{n+1} X. \alpha(X) = \mu^n X. \alpha(X)$ , we say the approximation closes at  $X$ .

Examples:

$$(1) \quad \mu^0 X. [a]X = \emptyset \quad // \text{false}$$

$$\mu^1 X. [a]X = [a]\emptyset \quad // \text{states without a-transitions.}$$

$$\mu^2 X. [a]X = [a][a]\emptyset \quad // \text{states without an aa-path.}$$

$$(2) \vee Y. \mu X. \langle a \rangle ((p \wedge Y) \vee X)$$

// along some a-path there are  
infinitely many states where p holds.

We have to calculate the approximation of  $\mu$   
relative to the current approximation of  $v$ .

Let  $v^i$  represent  $\vee Y. \mu X. \langle a \rangle ((p \wedge Y) \vee X)$   
 $\mu^{i,j}$  represent  $\mu X. \langle a \rangle ((p \wedge Y) \vee X)[v^j/Y]$

$v^0$	$S$
$\mu^{0,0}$	$\emptyset$
$\mu^{0,1}$	$\llbracket \langle a \rangle ((p \wedge S) \vee \mu^{0,0}) \rrbracket = \llbracket \langle a \rangle p \rrbracket$
$\mu^{0,2}$	$\llbracket \langle a \rangle ((p \wedge S) \vee \mu^{0,1}) \rrbracket = \llbracket \langle a \rangle (p \vee \langle a \rangle p) \rrbracket$
:	
$v^1 = \mu^{0,\infty}$	$\langle a \rangle - \text{eventually } p$
$\mu^{1,1}$	$\llbracket \langle a \rangle ((p \wedge v^1) \vee \emptyset) \rrbracket = \llbracket \langle a \rangle (p \wedge v^1) \rrbracket$
$\mu^{1,2}$	$\llbracket \langle a \rangle ((p \wedge v^1) \vee \mu^{1,1}) \rrbracket = \llbracket \langle a \rangle ((p \wedge v^1) \vee \langle a \rangle (p \wedge v^1)) \rrbracket$
:	
$v^2 = \mu^{1,\infty}$	$\langle a \rangle - \text{eventually} (p \wedge \langle a \rangle - \text{eventually } p)$
:	
$v^\infty$	infinitely often p.

### Negation:

Our logic does not have negation.

We now define negation as a derived operator  
and then show that it has the required properties:

$$\neg(\neg p) := p$$

$$\neg(\alpha \vee \beta) := \neg \alpha \wedge \neg \beta$$

$$\neg(\neg \alpha) := \alpha$$

$$\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta) := \neg \alpha \vee \neg \beta.$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \neg \Box \alpha := \Box \neg \alpha & \neg \Box \alpha := \Box \neg \neg \alpha. \\ \neg \mu X. \alpha(X) := \forall X. \neg \alpha(\neg X) & \neg \forall X. \alpha(X) := \mu X. \neg \alpha(\neg X). \\ & \text{the two negations} \\ & \text{cancel out} \end{array}$$

Lemma:

For every formula  $\alpha$ , transition system  $M$  with states  $S$ , and every valuation  $\text{val}$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}[\neg \alpha]_{\text{val}}^M = S \setminus \mathbb{P}[\alpha]_{\text{val}}^M.$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \neg \exists X. p \wedge \Box X &= \mu X. \neg(p \wedge \Box \neg X) \\ \text{everywhere always } p &= \mu X. \neg p \vee \neg \Box \neg X \\ &= \mu X. \neg p \vee \exists X \\ &\quad \text{eventually somewhere } \neg p \text{ holds.} \end{aligned}$$

Normal Forms:

- Well-named:
- Bound and free variables are disjoint
  - Variables are bound at most once.
  - One can even assume variables appear at most once.
- Now?  $\mu X. \alpha(X, X)$  is equivalent to  $\mu X. \mu Y. \alpha(X, Y)$ .

One can also convert a formula

into a guarded one

where every occurrence of a variable  
is preceded by a modality.

We will not need this and it may cause an exponential blow-up.

Iteration Depth

Insight: The nesting of the two fixed point operators  
is what makes the expressiveness of the  $\mu$ -calculus.

Goal: Make this nesting form.

Let  $\alpha$  be a well-named formula,

so for every variable  $Y$

we have a unique subformula  $\sigma Y. \beta_Y$ .

We call  $Y$  a  $\mu$ -variable or  $\nu$ -variable depending on  $\sigma$ .

### Definition:

- The dependency order on the bound variables of  $\alpha$  is the smallest partial order so that

$X \leq_\alpha Y$ , if  $X$  occurs free in  $\sigma Y. \beta_Y$ .

- The alternation depth of a  $\mu$ -variable  $X$  is the maximal length of a chain

$$X = X_1 \leq_\alpha X_2 \leq_\alpha \dots \leq_\alpha X_n$$

$\searrow$   $\swarrow$

p-variables       $\nu$ -variables

For  $\nu$ -variables, the definition is similar.

- The alternation depth of  $\alpha$ ,  $\text{adepth}(\alpha)$ , is the maximal alternation depth of the variables bound in  $\alpha$ .

It is 0 if there are no fixed points.

### Example:

- $\alpha = \nu Y. \mu X. (\rho \wedge \alpha > Y) \vee \alpha > X$  // There are infinitely many states where  $\rho$  holds.

Then  $\text{adepth}(\alpha) = 2$  since  $Y \leq_\alpha X$ ,

$Y$  is a  $\nu$ -variable, and  $X$  is a  $\mu$ -variable.

$$\varphi = \mu X. (\vee Y. (p \wedge (a \triangleright Y) \wedge (a \triangleright X))$$

There is a path where  $p$  holds almost always.

$$\text{We have } \text{adpth}(\varphi) = 1,$$

because  $X$  does not occur in  $\vee Y. p \wedge (a \triangleright Y)$ .

$$\text{Fact: } \text{adpth}(\sigma X. \beta(X)) = \text{adpth}(\beta(\sigma X. \beta(X))).$$

Why? The dependency order of  $\beta(\sigma X. \beta(X))$   
is the dependency order of  $\sigma X. \beta(X)$   
plus (disjoint union) the order of  $\beta(X)$ .

The number of alternations in  $\beta(X)$   
is bounded by the number of alternations in  $\sigma X. \beta(X)$ .

## Verification Game

Goal: Understand when a  $\mu$ -calculus sentence  $\varphi$   
holds in a state  $s$  of  $M$ .

Approach: Characterize  $\varphi$  by the existence  
of a winning strategy in a game  $G(M, \alpha)$ .  
 $M, s \models \varphi$  iff Eve has a winning strategy  
from a position corresponding  
to  $s$  and  $\alpha$ .

Idea: (1)

$$\boxed{s \models ?[\alpha](p_1 \vee (p_2 \wedge p_3))} \dots \text{Adam node}$$

↙ ... for all  $t$ ,  $s \sqsupseteq t$

$$\circledcirc \boxed{t \models ?[p_1 \vee (p_2 \wedge p_3)]} \dots \text{Eve node}$$

Owner depends

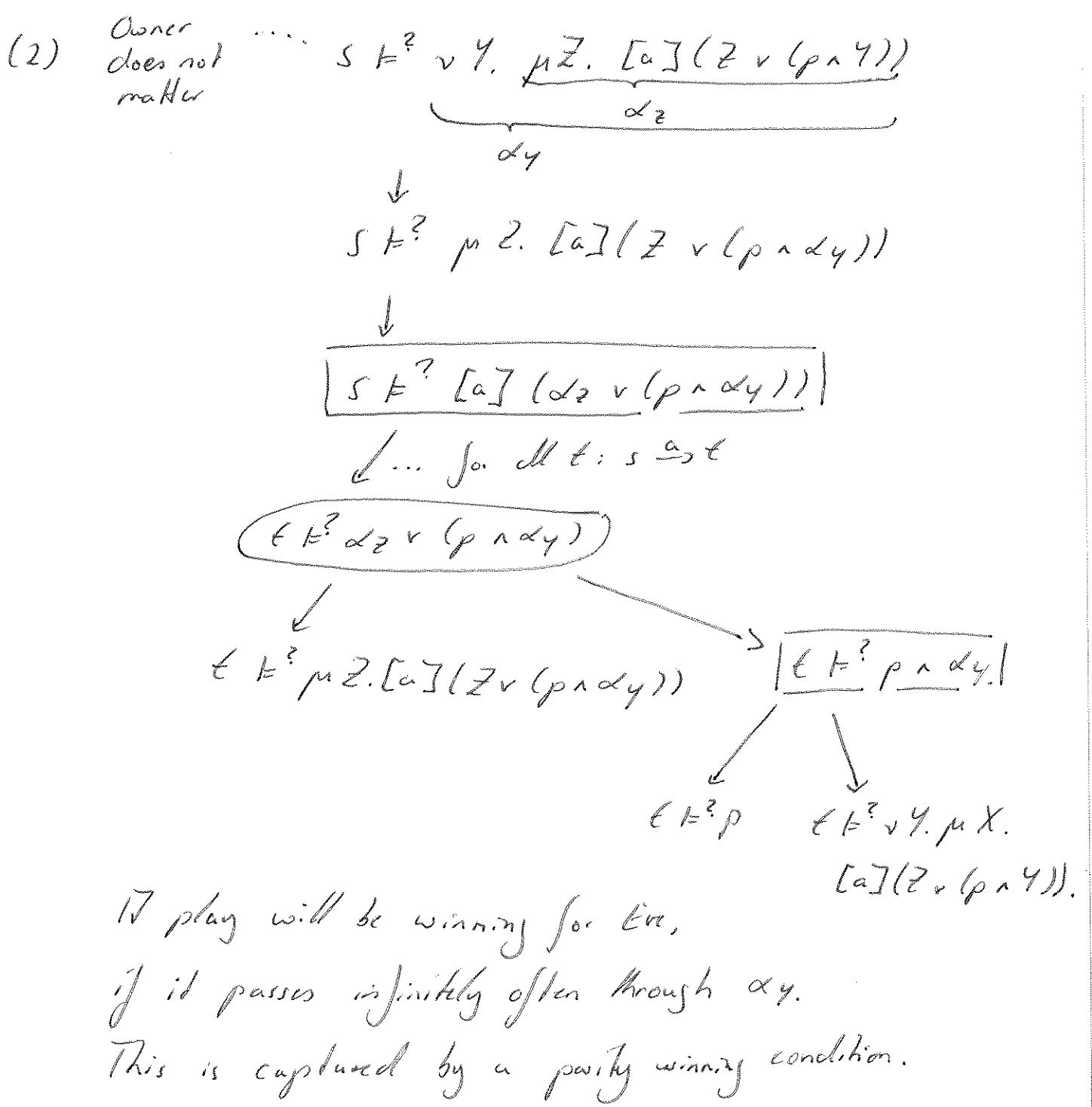
on where  $p_3$  holds

$$\cdots t \models ?p_1$$

$$\rightarrow \boxed{t \models ?p_2 \wedge p_3}$$

$$t \models ?p_2$$

$$t \models ?p_3$$



## Intuition: Games

A game is a structure

$$G = (V = V_A \cup V_E, T \subseteq V \times V, Acc \subseteq V^\omega).$$

The vertices  $V$  we called positions,

the transitions  $T$  are called moves.

A play is a maximal sequence in  $V^* \cup V^\omega$   
that respects  $T$ .

If the play is finite,  $v_0 v_1 \dots v_n$ ,

the player who cannot make a move loses  
and the opponent wins.

If the play is infinite,  $v_0 v_1 \dots$ ,

Eve wins and Adam loses if  $v_0 v_1 \dots \in \text{Acc}$ ,  
otherwise Adam wins and Eve loses.

A strategy for player  $P \in \{E, A\}$  is a function

$$\Theta : V^* \times V_P \rightarrow V$$

that respects  $T$ , meaning  $\Theta(\sigma, v) = v'$  implies  $(v, v') \in T$ .  
The strategy is positional, if the history of the play  
does not matter:

$$\Theta(\sigma, v) = \Theta(\sigma', v) \text{ for all } \sigma, \sigma' \in V^*$$

The strategy is winning (for player  $P$ ) from position  $v \in V$ ,

if every play starting in  $v$

that respects the strategy is winning for  $P$ .

A position  $v \in V$  is winning,

if there is a strategy that is winning from that position.

We consider parity winning conditions.

Let  $\mathcal{S} : V \rightarrow \{0, \dots, d\}$ .

Then  $\text{Acc} := \{\sigma = v_0 v_1 \dots \in V^\omega \mid \limsup_{i \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{S}(v_i) \text{ is even}\}$

$\inf \sup \{\mathcal{S}(v_i) \text{ for } i \in \mathbb{N}\}$

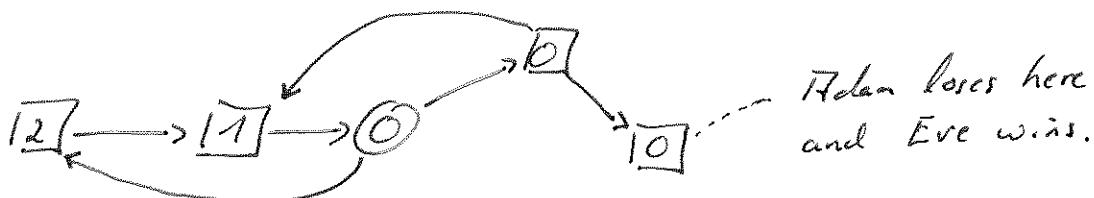
largest number that occurs  
infinitely often is even.

### Theorem:

Every position in a parity game is winning for Adam or Eve (but not for both).

It is in NP ∩ co-NP to check whether a position is winning for a player.

### Example:



Also all other positions are winning for Eve.

### Back to the verification game:

Positions in  $G(M, \alpha)$  are of the form  $(s, \beta)$ ,

where •  $s$  is a state in  $M$  and

- $\beta$  is a formula in the closure of  $\alpha$ :

the smallest set containing  $\alpha$

and closed under • subformulas and

- unfolding.

### Ownership and Moves:

(1)  $\boxed{(s, P)}$ , if  $s \in P$  // Adam loses as there are no moves

$\circled{(s, P)}$ , if  $s \notin P$  // Eve loses

$\circled{(s, \neg P)}$ , if  $s \in P$  // Eve loses

$\boxed{(s, \neg P)}$ , if  $s \notin P$  // Adam loses

(2)  $\circled{(s, \alpha \vee \beta)}$

$\downarrow$        $\searrow$   
 $(s, \alpha)$      $(s, \beta)$

$\boxed{(s, \alpha \wedge \beta)}$

$\downarrow$        $\searrow$   
 $(s, \alpha)$      $(s, \beta)$

(3)  $(s, \langle a \rangle \beta)$

$\downarrow \dots$  for all  $t: s \xrightarrow{a} t$   
 $(t, \beta)$

$\boxed{(s, [a] \beta)}$

$\downarrow \dots$  for all  $t: s \xrightarrow{a} t$   
 $(t, \beta)$

Note that the loser resp. wins if there are no  $a$ -transitions.

(4)  $(s, \mu X. \beta(X)) \dots$  Owner does ...  $(s, \nu X. \beta(X))$   
not matter

$\downarrow$   
 $(s, \beta(\mu X. \beta(X)))$

$\downarrow$   
 $(s, \beta(\nu X. \beta(X)))$

### Priorities:

We focus on formulas whose topmost operator  
is a fixed point.

Starting with  $\mu$ , we give odd priorities,

starting with  $\nu$ , we give even priorities,

If  $\gamma$  is a subformula of  $\beta$ , then  $\gamma$  should get  
smaller priorities.

$$\mathcal{P}((s, \nu X. \gamma(X))) := 2 \cdot \left\lfloor \frac{\text{adep}_{\gamma}(X)}{2} \right\rfloor$$

$$\mathcal{P}((s, \mu X. \gamma(X))) := 2 \cdot \left\lfloor \frac{\text{adep}_{\gamma}(X)}{2} \right\rfloor + 1.$$

$$\mathcal{P}((s, \gamma)) := 0 \quad , \quad \text{otherwise.}$$

### Examples:

$$\mathcal{P}(\nu X. \rho \wedge [a] X) = 0$$

$$\mathcal{P}(\mu X. \rho \vee [a] X) = 1$$

$$\mathcal{P}(\mu X. (\nu Y. (\rho \wedge \langle a \rangle Y) \vee \langle a \rangle X)) = 1$$

$$\mathcal{P}(\nu Y. \mu X. (\rho \wedge \langle a \rangle Y) \vee \langle a \rangle X) = 2.$$

Theorem 1 Reducing model checking to parity games:

$M, s \models \alpha$  iff Eve has a winning strategy  
from  $(s, \alpha)$  in  $G(M, \alpha)$ .

If  $M$  has size  $m$  and  $\alpha$  size  $n$ , then  $G(M, \alpha)$  has size  $O(m \cdot n)$ .

The number of priorities in  $G(M, \alpha)$  is at most  $\text{adepth}(\alpha) + 1$ .

But there will be at most  $\text{adepth}(\alpha)$ -many priorities  
in each strongly connected component of  $G(M, \alpha)$ ,  
so solving the game is not harder than for  $\text{adepth}(\alpha)$ -many  
priorities.

We will now give a reduction  
from parity games to model checking.

Definition:

Let  $G = (V = V_E \cup V_A, T \subseteq V \times V, \mathcal{R})$  be a parity game  
with priorities  $0, \dots, 2d+1$ .

The induced transition system is

$$M_G := (V, R_G := T, (P_i)_{i \in P}).$$

Here,  $P = \{\text{Eve}, \text{Adam}, 0, \dots, 2d+1\}$ .

and  $P_{\text{Eve}} = V_E \quad P_i = \mathcal{R}^{-1}(i) = \{v \in V \mid \mathcal{R}(v) = i\}$ .

$$P_{\text{Adam}} = V_A$$

Theorem (Reducing parity games to model checking):

Given a parity game  $G$ , we can compute  $M_G$

and a  $\mu$ -calculus sentence  $\alpha$  so that

for every position  $s$ :

$s$  is winning for Eve in  $G$  iff  $M_G, s \models \alpha$ .

The size of  $\mathcal{M}_G$  is linear in the size of  $G$ .

The size of  $\alpha$  is linear in the number of priorities of  $G$ .

The alternation depth of  $\alpha$  is at most the number of priorities.

Proof:

We give a formula that characterizes Eve's winning positions, actually, in every game with the given number of priorities.

Let the priorities in  $G$  be 0 to  $2d+1$ .

The formula is

$$\mu Z_{2d+1} \cdot v Z_{2d} \cdot \mu Z_{2d-1} \dots v Z_0. \gamma(Z_0, \dots, Z_{2d+1})$$

with

$$\gamma(Z_0, \dots, Z_{2d+1}) := \bigwedge_{i=0, \dots, 2d+1} p_i \Rightarrow [(\rho_{\text{Eve}} \wedge \langle b \rangle Z_i) \vee (\rho_{\text{Adam}} \wedge \langle b \rangle Z_i)]$$