An $n \log n$ Algorithm for Online BDD Refinement^{*}

Nils Klarlund

AT&T Labs Research 600 Mountain Ave. Murray Hill, NJ 07974 klarlund@research.att.com

Abstract. Binary Decision Diagrams are in widespread use in verification systems for the canonical representation of finite functions. Here we consider multi-valued BDDs, which represent functions of the form $\varphi: \mathbb{B}^{\nu} \to \mathcal{L}$, where \mathcal{L} is a finite set of leaves.

We study a rather natural online BDD refinement problem: a partition of the leaves of several shared BDDs is gradually refined, and the equivalence of the BDDs under the current partition must be maintained in a discriminator table. We show that it can be solved in $O(n \log n)$ if nbounds both the size of the BDDs and the total size of update operations. Our algorithm is based on an understanding of BDDs as the fixed points of an operator that in each step splits and gathers nodes.

We apply our algorithm to show that automata with BDD-represented transition functions can be minimized in time $O(n \cdot \log n)$, where n is the total number of BDD nodes representing the automaton. This result is not an instance of Hopcroft's classical algorithm for automaton minimization, which breaks down for BDDs because of their path compression property.

1 Introduction

Binary Decision Diagrams [3] form the backbone of many symbolic methods for verification of hardware and software. BDDs are essentially acyclic automata whose state spaces are shrunk by a technique called *path compression*. More precisely, a BDD is an acyclic, rooted, directed graph that represents a function $\varphi : \mathbb{B}^{\nu} \to \mathcal{L}$ from ν Boolean variables to a finite codomain \mathcal{L} of leaves. (These BDDs are sometimes called Multi-Terminal BDDs to distinguish them from twoterminal BDDs that denote Boolean functions.)

The Problem

We consider the following problem, which is at the heart of the minimization problem for BDD-represented automata. We are given several functions

^{*} This work was carried out while the author was with BRICS, Department of Computer Science, Aarhus, Denmark. An abbreviated version of this article appeared in *Computer Aided Verification, 9th International Conference*, '97, LNCS ???

 $\phi_i : \mathbb{B}^{\nu} \to \mathcal{L}$. They can be represented by a shared BDD, which is an acyclic, directed graph with a distinguished root for each *i*, where each root induces a subgraph that constitutes a BDD for ϕ_i . Now given a partition of the leaves (or codomain), we would like to calculate a *function discriminator*, which associates a discriminator value R(i) to each *i* such that R(i) = R(j) if and only ϕ_i and ϕ_j are equivalent under the leaf partition, i.e., if for all $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{B}$, $\phi_i(\mathbf{u})$ is equivalent to $\phi_j(\mathbf{u})$. Note that the leaf partition itself can also be represented by a discriminator D such that v and v' are equivalent if and only if D(v) = D(v').

The online version of this problem is to maintain the function discriminator after an online operation specifies an *update*, which is a further refinement of the current leaf partition. Initially, the leaf partition consists of only one equivalence class, i.e., all functions ϕ_i are equivalent and D and R are a constant functions.

A simple algorithm for the online BDD refinement problem can be based on the linear time reduction of BDDs [12]: after each refinement operation, the whole BDD structure can be reduced to a canonical BDD for the functions that map into equivalence classes. This strategy implies that each node is touched potentially as many times as the number of operations. Thus an $O(n^2)$ algorithm arises, if we assume *n* online operations.

Our Solution

In this paper, we formulate a more efficient algorithm, which runs in time $O(n \min(k, \log n) + k)$, where n is the number of nodes in the BDDs and k is the total size of all update operations. Thus, if n also bounds k, then the algorithm is $O(n \log n)$.

Unfortunately, no simple solution seems to achieve $O(n \log n)$. Instead, our analysis proceeds roughly as follows.

For BDDs, the *Split* operation of partition refinement algorithms such as [11] does not directly yield a partition refining the current one. Rather, the result of a split operation, which we call a *decision partition* must be followed by a *Grow* operation that gathers all nodes equivalent under path compression. We show that the canonical BDD representation of ϕ can be obtained as the fixed point of *Grow* \circ *Split* (even though this composed operator is not monotone). This characterization is not surprising, since usual BDD algorithms are also able to calculate a canonical representation in one sweep.

The *Grow* operation cannot be used with Hopcroft's "process the lesser half" strategy [8], since all decision blocks must be grown as opposed to the situation in traditional partition refinement algorithms, where the largest blocks created can be ignored.

Fortunately, the canonical BDD can be calculated under weaker assumptions about the fixed point operator. The *Grow* operation can be weakened to an operation, which we call *CGrow* since it allows certain blocks resulting from the normal *Grow* operation to be <u>coalesced</u>. As a result, information is lost. Curiously, it turns out that if a partition is a fixed point under *Split* and *CGrow*, then it is also a fixed point under *Split* and *Grow*. We use this property in our online algorithm to discard any large block that arises during the iteration of the fixed point operator. The block is discarded by being coalesced with another, smaller block, while the expense of calculating it can be attributed to a third block known also to be small.

Consequences and Comparison to Previous Work

It has been known for a long time [8] that deterministic finite-state automata can be minimized in time $O(m \cdot n \log n)$, where n is the number of states and m is the size of the input alphabet. A recent variation on the standard method yields a similar bound [2].

BDDs allow automata with n states and 2^n letters—each inducing a different behavior in the automaton—to be represented by graphs of polynomial size in n; see [5, 7], where also $O(n^2)$ minimization algorithms are presented. In these representations, the BDD leaves designate states; each state is explicitly represented; and the state is associated with a BDD node that represents the transition function from it.

(Another BDD-representation used much in practice codes the old state, the new state, and the letter into a vector of Booleans—allowing the transition function to be represented by a single Boolean-valued BDD. Since there is no canonical encoding of states, the minimization problem for this representation is not immediately well-defined.)

The automaton representation in [5] allows symbolic calculations involving inductive definitions of sequential circuits, whereas the representation in [7] is the backbone of a practical implementation of Monadic Second-order Logic on Strings. For a comparison of these related representations, see [1].

The $O(n^2)$ minimization algorithms are a potential bottleneck for the use of BDD represented automata. In the Mona project at Aarhus (http:://www.brics.dk/~klarlund/MonaFido), we have observed that for big automata (with thousands of states), the time to minimize using the straightforward algorithm is an order of magnitude larger than the time spent in constructing the automata.

In this paper, we show that our online BDD refinement algorithm allows minimization to be carried out in only $O(n \cdot \log n)$ steps, where n is the size of the representation. To our knowledge, the only other algorithm for large alphabets that reaches a similar bound is that of [4], where incompletely specified transition functions are considered. The compression possible with the BDD representation is exponentially greater.

It should also be noted that when automata are represented with BDDs that are not path compressed an $O(n \log n)$ algorithm follows easily by considering the automaton as working on words over \mathbb{B} . Path compression, however, seems to be of major practical significance although the asymptotic gain is only slight [10].

Finally, we mention that online minimization of automata on large, implicitly represented state spaces (not alphabets) have been considered in [9]. Online minimization here refers to incremental exploration of the state space. This algorithm bears a superficial resemblance to ours in that it also alternates between minimal and maximal fixed point iterations.

Overview

In Section 2, we define the online BDD refinement problem. We develop a theoretical framework for understanding BDDs as fixed points in Section 3. We show that a weak composed operator suffices for generating the minimum fixed point. In Section 4, we provide a description of our online algorithm, which is based on the weak operator. Section 5 discusses the application of our algorithm to automaton minimization.

2 Online BDD Refinement

Notation

Assume we are given a set $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_{\nu-1}$ of Boolean variables. A truth assign*ment* to these variables is a vector $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{B}^{\nu}$. An assignment prefix \mathbf{u} up to i is a truth assignment to variables $x_0, \ldots x_i$. A Binary Decision Diagram or BDD φ is a rooted, directed graph with the following properties. The root is named $\wedge \varphi$. Each node v in φ is either an *internal node* or a *leaf*. An internal node possesses an index denoted v.i. Also, it contains edges $v \cdot 0$, which points to a node called the low successor of v, and $v \cdot 1$, which points to the high successor. The index of a successor of v is always greater than the index of v. A leaf has no successors and no index. Let the set of leaves be \mathcal{L} . The graph φ denotes a function, also called φ , from $\mathbb{B}^{\nu} \to \mathcal{L}$. To calculate $\varphi(\mathbf{x})$, one starts at the root. If the root is a leaf, then the value $\varphi(\mathbf{x})$ is the root; otherwise, let *i* be the index of the root. If x_i is 1 then go to the high successor, and if x_i is 0 go to the low successor. Continue in this way until a leaf is reached. This leaf is the value of $\varphi(\mathbf{x})$. (Since there may be jumps greater than one in the index of some of the variables, some of the values in the assignment may be irrelevant.) In general, if v is a node of index i and **u** is a value assignment to x_i, \ldots, x_j , then $v \cdot \mathbf{u}$ denotes the node reached by following \mathbf{u} from v.

The BDD φ defines a partition \equiv_{φ} of assignment prefixes given by $\mathbf{u} \equiv_{\varphi} \mathbf{u}'$ if $\wedge \varphi \cdot \mathbf{u} = \wedge \varphi \cdot \mathbf{u}'$.

We shall consider the case where the leaves are used to differentiate between finer and finer partitions of \mathbb{B}^{ν} . The partition is given by a *leaf discriminator* $D: \mathcal{L} \to \mathbb{N}$. Two assignments **x** and **y** are then equivalent if $D \circ \varphi(\mathbf{x}) = D \circ \varphi(\mathbf{y})$.

BDDs may also be shared. For example, we use $\varphi = \varphi_0, \dots, \varphi_{n-1}$ to denote a directed graph with roots $\wedge \varphi_i$ such that the nodes reachable from each root constitute a BDD. If D is a discriminator for the leaves, then we say that R: $[n] \to \mathbb{N}$ is a function discriminator for $D \circ \varphi$ if $D \circ \varphi_i = D \circ \varphi_i$ iff R(i) = R(j).

Note that if D is a constant discriminator (i.e. if D is a constant function), then all $D \circ \varphi_i$ are equivalent.

The Problem

The BDD online refinement problem is to maintain a function discriminator R for $D \circ \varphi$ when D is updated piecemeal. Each update operation specifies a partial

mapping $E: \mathcal{L} \to \mathbb{N}$, which defines the change to D. Thus, if

 $D'(v) = \begin{cases} D(v) \text{ if } v \notin \mathbf{domain}(E) \\ E(v) \text{ if } v \in \mathbf{domain}(E) \end{cases}$

then the new value of D is D'. In order for the new D to specify a partition refining the one given by the current D, we require that the range of E is disjoint from the range of the current D. The time requirements of our algorithm will prevent it from updating all values R(i) with each iteration. Thus, we require as an additional output after each update operation the list of i for which R(i)has changed. The desired functionality can be summarized as follows.

BDD Online Refinement Problem
Input : <i>n</i> shared BDDs φ with leaves \mathcal{L} and discriminator <i>D</i> ,
which is initially a constant function.
Maintained : A functional discriminator R of length n .
Update : A partial mapping $E : \mathcal{L} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that $\mathbf{range}(E)$ does
not intersect the current leaf discriminator. The leaf discrimina-
tor D is updated according to E as explained above. After each
update operation, the contents of R discriminates $D \circ \varphi$. The size
of operation E is the size of domain (E) .
Output : A list of numbers i for which $R(i)$ has changed.

In Section 4, we prove:

Theorem 1 Multiple BDD Online Refinement can be solved in time $O(n \min(k, \log n) + k)$, where n is the number of nodes in the BDDs and k is the total size of all operations. Thus, if n also bounds k, then the algorithm is $O(n \log n)$.

3 A Theoretical Framework for BDDs

This section develops a theory of how BDDs arise as fixed points. The main insight is the formulation of composed operators that refine partitions and that carry out path compression. We show that canonical BDDs arise as fixed points of such operators; in particular, a weak operator is exhibited that calculates the proper fixed point even as it seemingly loses information.

The Canonical BDD We define the canonical BDD for function $\psi : \mathbb{B}^{\nu} \to D$, where D is finite, as follows. A *partial assignment* **u** *from i to j* is a truth assignment to variables x_i, \ldots, x_j . The partial assignment **u** may be narrowed to a partial assignment from i' to j', where $i \leq i' \leq j' \leq j$. It is denoted $\mathbf{u}[i'..j']$. If only a prefix of **u** up to i' - 1 is cut off, we write $\mathbf{u}[i'..]$.

Given an assignment prefix u up to i, an extension \mathbf{v} of \mathbf{u} up to j is a partial assignment from i + 1 to j. A full extension is one that assigns up to $\nu - 1$. For any assignment prefix \mathbf{u} up to i, we may consider the residue function $\psi_{\mathbf{u}} : \mathbf{v}' \mapsto \psi(\mathbf{uv}')$, where \mathbf{v}' is a full extension. Define $\mathbf{u} \sim_{\psi} \mathbf{u}'$ if $\psi_{\mathbf{u}} = \psi_{\mathbf{u}'}$. The

equivalence class of **u** is denoted $[\mathbf{u}]_{\psi}$. In particular, if $\mathbf{u} \sim_{\psi} \mathbf{u}'$ then **u** and \mathbf{u}' are assignment prefixes up to some *i*, which is called the *index* of the equivalence class $[\mathbf{u}]_{\psi} = [\mathbf{u}']_{\psi}$.

The equivalence classes of \sim_{ψ} correspond to the states of a canonical automaton that upon reading a value assignment is in a state designating the value of ψ .

The path compression of BDDs can now be understood as a least fixed point calculation that involves coalescing equivalence classes. If $[\mathbf{u}0]_{\psi} = [\mathbf{u}1]_{\psi}$, then $[\mathbf{u}]_{\psi}$ and $[\mathbf{u}0]_{\psi} = [\mathbf{u}1]_{\psi}$ are coalesced. Note that if also $[\mathbf{v}0]_{\psi} = [\mathbf{v}1_{\psi}]$ for some \mathbf{v} , then this identity still holds after $[\mathbf{u}]_{\psi}$ and $[\mathbf{u}0]_{\psi} = [\mathbf{u}1]_{\psi}$ are coalesced. Thus there is a unique least fixed point reached by repeatedly coalescing \sim_{ψ} classes. The equivalence classes of the resulting partition \approx_{ψ} is the *canonical* BDD for ψ . Each such new equivalence class M consists of a number of equivalence classes of \sim_{ψ} . When M contains internal nodes, the index M.i of M is defined as the highest index of an old class. It can be seen that there is at most one old class in M of highest index. The high successor M.1, defined if the index is less than ν , is the equivalence class of $\mathbf{u} \cdot 1$, where \mathbf{u} is a prefix of maximal length in M. The low successor is defined similarly.

Lemma 1 Consider *i* and assignment prefix **u** up to j < i. The following are equivalent:

- 1. The residue function $\psi_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}}$ is the same function for all extensions \mathbf{v} up to *i*.
- 2. $u \approx_{\psi} u \cdot v$ for all extensions v up to i.
- 3. $u \approx_{\psi} u \cdot v$ for some extension v up to i.

Proof By induction on the length of \mathbf{v} .

The equivalence \equiv_{φ} , which is derived from the BDD viewed as a graph, refines the equivalence \approx_{φ} , which is derived from the function represented by the BDD.

Lemma 2 \equiv_{φ} refines \approx_{φ} .

Proof Assume $\mathbf{u} \equiv_{\varphi} \mathbf{u}'$. If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{u}' have the same length, then $\mathbf{u} \sim_{\varphi} \mathbf{u}'$ and thus $\mathbf{u} \approx_{\varphi} \mathbf{u}'$. Otherwise, if \mathbf{u} assigns up to *i* and \mathbf{u}' up to *j*, with i < j, then the prefix \mathbf{u}'' of \mathbf{u}' up to *i* is also equivalent (modulo \equiv_{φ}) to \mathbf{u} . Thus, by the previous case, $u \approx_{\varphi} u''$. Also, all extensions \mathbf{v} up to *j* make $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{u}''\mathbf{v}$ equivalent (modulo \equiv_{φ}) to \mathbf{u} . In particular, all residue functions $\phi_{\mathbf{u}''\mathbf{v}}$ are the same, hence by the preceding lemma, $\mathbf{u}'' \approx_{\varphi} \mathbf{u}''\mathbf{v}$, where we in particular may choose \mathbf{v} to be the extension up to *j* such that $\mathbf{u}''\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}'$. So, $\mathbf{u}'' \approx_{\varphi} \mathbf{u}'$, and together with $\mathbf{u} \approx_{\varphi} \mathbf{u}''$ established above, we conclude that $\mathbf{u} \approx_{\varphi} \mathbf{u}'$.

Partitions of BDD Nodes A partition \mathcal{P} of a BDD φ is a set of non-empty, disjoint subsets or *blocks* of nodes, whose union is the set of all nodes. Alternatively, \mathcal{P} may be viewed as an equivalence relation $\equiv_{\mathcal{P}}$ defined by $v \equiv_{\mathcal{P}} v'$ iff $\exists B \in \mathcal{P} : v, v' \in B$. Since any assignment prefix **u** leads to a unique node $\varphi, \equiv_{\mathcal{P}}$ induces an equivalence relation on assignment prefixes that is also denoted $\equiv_{\mathcal{P}}$. To simplify matters, we assume in the following that all partitions are over the same BDD φ . Also for simplicity, we shall often write \mathcal{P} for $\equiv_{\mathcal{P}}$.

For a partition \mathcal{Q} , we may we define a discriminator labeling D of the leaves of φ such that for leaves v and v', D(v) = D(v') iff $v \equiv_{\mathcal{Q}} v'$. The canonical BDD for the function $D \circ \phi$ is denoted $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$. Note that this BDD is dependent only on the partition of the leaves defined by \mathcal{Q} —not the partition of internal nodes. These distinctions will be further elaborated on in the next section. Note here that the partition of internal nodes may not even induce a BDD on equivalence classes. We usually regard the canonical BDD $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$ as a partition of the nodes of φ .

Decision Partitions An important part of our algorithm is to work with partitions that become refinements of canonical partitions only after certain nodes have been moved around.

A node v is a decision node if it is a leaf or it has at least one successor outside its own block. Any other node is *redundant*. A decision partition \mathcal{M} of a partition \mathcal{Q} specifies a partition of the decision nodes of each block B in \mathcal{Q} into decision blocks such that any decision block M either contains internal nodes of the same index or contains only leaves. If for each block B, all decision nodes of B are gathered in just one decision block, then \mathcal{M} is said to be the *stable* decision partition.

The **Split** Operator We say that the *behavior* of an internal node v with respect to a partition Q is the pair $([v \cdot 0]_Q, [v \cdot 1]_Q)$; the behavior of a leaf v is just itself.

Given \mathcal{Q} , we can form a decision partition $\mathcal{M} = Split(\mathcal{Q})$ as follows. For every block B, put all decision nodes v with the same index and the same behavior in the same decision block. All leaves in B are also put into a decision block. Formally, \mathcal{M} is defined as

$$\{M \neq \emptyset \mid \exists B, B_0, B_1 \in \mathcal{M} : \exists i : \\ M = \{v \mid v \in B \text{ and } v \text{ is a leaf} \} \text{ or } \\ M = \{v \mid v.i = i \text{ and } v \in B, v0 \in B_0, \text{ and } v1 \in B_1\} \}$$

Partition \mathcal{Q} is *stable* if $Split(\mathcal{Q})$ is the stable decision partition.

Note that if Q is stable, then both successors of any internal decision node are outside its own block—for if some block B contained a decision node v with only one successor not in B, then by following the other successor, we would reach another node in B (which may be a decision node or a redundant node); by continuing, we would eventually reach a decision node in B that is either a leaf or both of whose successors are outside B and in both cases, this node would have a different behavior than that of v, and that would contradict that Q is stable.

Note also that $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$ is stable.

The Grow Operator Let \mathcal{M} be a decision partition for a partition \mathcal{Q} . For any node v in a block B and any extension \mathbf{u} , there will be a first decision node w in some decision block M along the path induced by following nodes from v according to u. In this case, we say that extension \mathbf{u} from v hits M. In particular, if $v \in M$, then any extension hits M, since v is the first node in a path.

If M is a decision block of B, then its *closure*, denoted $Cl(\mathcal{Q}, M)$, is the set of nodes in B all of whose extensions hit M. This set can also be defined inductively by *growing* the decision block: initially, let $Cl(\mathcal{Q}, M)$ be the decision block and add any node both of whose successors are in $Cl(\mathcal{Q}, M)$ until there are no more such nodes. Note that if M and M' are different decision blocks, then $Cl(\mathcal{Q}, M)$ and $Cl(\mathcal{Q}, M')$ are disjoint.

For each block B, let the remainder, denoted $Rem(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M}, B)$, be defined as B minus all nodes in Cl(M), where M is contained in B, i.e. $Rem(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M}, B) = B \setminus \bigcup_{M \in \mathcal{M}, M \subseteq B} Cl(\mathcal{Q}, M)$. Then, all sets $Cl(\mathcal{Q}, M), M \in \mathcal{M}$, together with $Rem(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M}, B), B \in \mathcal{Q}$, form a partition, called $Grow(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M})$. Since, $Grow(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M})$ is gotten from \mathcal{Q} by carving out closures of decision blocks, $Grow(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M})$ refines \mathcal{Q} . Note that \mathcal{Q} is stable if and only if it is a fixed point under $Grow \circ Split$.

Sometimes it is convenient to assume that $Split(\mathcal{Q})$ really stands for $(\mathcal{Q}, Split(\mathcal{Q}))$. Then, we refer to the composed operator $Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$ as an abbreviation of $Grow(\mathcal{Q}, Split(\mathcal{Q}))$.

It is not necessarily the case that if \mathcal{P} refines \mathcal{Q} , then $Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{P})$ refines $Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$. This non-monotonicity can be illustrated by the following example, where the original partitions are shown in solid lines and the additional subdivisions introduced by the $Grow \circ Split$ operator are shown in dotted lines:



Here, \mathcal{P} refines \mathcal{Q} , but the two top-most nodes are equivalent in $Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{P})$, but not in $Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$.

Lemma 3 Let \mathcal{P} be a stable partition and let $v \equiv_{\mathcal{P}} v'$, where v is of index i and v' of index j with $i \leq j$. Then for any extension \mathbf{u} from $v, v \cdot \mathbf{u} \equiv_{\mathcal{P}} v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..]$.

Proof Let $v, v' \in B \in \mathcal{P}$. We proceed by an inductive argument, where we assume that leaves have index ν . If the decision nodes of the single decision block in B are leaves, then all extensions from nodes in B remain in B, so $v \cdot \mathbf{u} \equiv_{\mathcal{P}} v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..]$.

Otherwise, all decision nodes of B have the same index and have successors that point to blocks below B, so we assume by induction that the Lemma holds for all blocks below B. We must now show that it holds for v, v' in B. Now there is an h such that $v \cdot \mathbf{u}[..h]$ and $v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..h]$ are the first nodes outside B from v and v' along \mathbf{u} and $\mathbf{u}[j..]$ (unless both $v \cdot \mathbf{u}$ and $v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..]$ are in B, which is a trivial case). But by assumption that \mathcal{P} is stable

$$v \cdot \mathbf{u}[..h] \equiv_{\mathcal{P}} v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..h].$$

Thus, by inductive hypothesis

$$v \cdot \mathbf{u} = v \cdot \mathbf{u}[..h] \cdot \mathbf{u}[h+1..] \equiv_{\mathcal{P}} v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..h] \cdot \mathbf{u}[h+1..] = v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..].$$

Let \mathcal{M} be a decision partition of \mathcal{Q} . We say that \mathcal{P} refines \mathcal{M} if whenever v and v' in are different decision blocks of \mathcal{M} , they are in different blocks of \mathcal{P} .

Lemma 4 Let stable \mathcal{P} refine \mathcal{Q} and \mathcal{M} , where \mathcal{M} is a decision partition of \mathcal{Q} . Then \mathcal{P} refines $Grow(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M})$.

Proof Let $Q' = Grow(Q, \mathcal{M})$. We consider $v, v' \in B \in Q$ with $v \equiv_{\mathcal{P}} v'$, and we must prove that $v \equiv_{Q'} v'$. We establish this by proving that any extension hits the same decision block in \mathcal{M} whether followed from v or v'; for if this is the case, then v and v' belong to the same closure or they are both in the remainder of B.

Assume now that $i \leq j$ where $i = v \cdot i$ and $j = v \cdot i$. Consider an extension **u** from v such that $v \cdot \mathbf{u}$ is the first decision node met along **u**. There are now three cases.

Case 1. The node $v \cdot \mathbf{u}$ is a leaf. Then $v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..]$ is a leaf. If they are in different blocks of \mathcal{M} , then—since \mathcal{P} refines \mathcal{M} —they are in different blocks of \mathcal{P} , but that contradicts Lemma 3.

Case 2. No decision node is encountered along $v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..]$ and both $v \cdot \mathbf{u}$ and $v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..]$ are not leaves. Now, since $v \cdot \mathbf{u}$ is a decision node, either $v \cdot \mathbf{u} \cdot 0$ or $v \cdot \mathbf{u} \cdot 1$ is not in B. Thus, there is an extension \mathbf{u}' such that $v \cdot \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}'$ is not in B while $v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..]\mathbf{u}'$ is the first decision node in B encountered from v'. Thus $v \cdot \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}'$ and $v' \cdot (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}')[j..]$ are in different blocks of Q, which is a contradiction for the same reason as above.

Case 3. A decision node is encountered along $v' \cdot \mathbf{u}[j..]$ and $v \cdot \mathbf{u}$ and $v' \cdot [j..]$ are not leaves. Then reasoning similar to that of Case 2 applies.

Lemma 5 If stable \mathcal{P} refines \mathcal{Q} , then \mathcal{P} refines $Split(\mathcal{Q})$.

Proof There are three cases to consider.

Case 1. Internal nodes v and v' equivalent in \mathcal{Q} can become inequivalent in $Split(\mathcal{Q})$ only when $v \cdot 0$ and $v' \cdot 0$ or $v \cdot 1$ and $v' \cdot 1$ are inequivalent in \mathcal{Q} . But

then v and v' cannot be equivalent in \mathcal{P} since \mathcal{P} is assumed to be stable and assumed to refine \mathcal{Q} .

Case 2. An internal decision node v in Q and a leaf v' cannot be equivalent in \mathcal{P} , since \mathcal{P} is stable.

Case 3. Two leaves v and v' become inequivalent in $Split(\mathcal{Q})$ only if they are already inequivalent in \mathcal{Q} .

Proposition 1 If stable \mathcal{P} refines \mathcal{Q} , then \mathcal{P} refines $Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$.

Proof By Lemma 4 and by Lemma 5.

Proposition 2 If $\mathcal{Q} = Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$, then \mathcal{Q} refines $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$.

Proof For $v, v' \in B \in Q$, we must prove that $v \approx_Q v'$. We proceed by induction. If v and v' are leaves, then certainly $v \approx_Q v'$.

If v and v' are decision nodes of B, then by assumption that $\mathcal{Q} = Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$, they have the same index and behave similarly with respect to hitting lower classes of \mathcal{Q} along their 0 and 1 successor. By inductive assumption, lower classes are contained in $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$ classes. Thus, the mappings $\mathbf{w} \mapsto [v \cdot \mathbf{w}]_{\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}}$ and $\mathbf{w} \mapsto [v' \cdot \mathbf{w}]_{\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}}$ are the same and, consequently, $v \approx_{\mathcal{Q}} v'$.

If v is a redundant node of B at level j and all decision nodes of B are of index i in a block M of $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$, then $\mathbf{w} \mapsto [v \cdot \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}]_{\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}}$ is the same function for all extensions from v up to i, since v is contained in the closure of the decision nodes of B by assumption that $\mathcal{Q} = Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$. Thus $v \in M$ by Lemma 1.

Proposition 3 If $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$ refines \mathcal{Q} and if $\mathcal{Q}' = (Grow \circ Split)^i(\mathcal{Q})$ is stable, then \mathcal{Q}' is $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$.

Proof By Proposition 2, Q' refines \approx_Q . By repeated applications of Proposition 1, it can be seen that \approx_Q refines Q', since \approx_Q is stable.

The CGrow Operator The CGrow operator is defined as $Grow(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M})$ except that for each block B of \mathcal{Q} , $Rem(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M}, B)$ may or may not be coalesced with some designated $Cl(\mathcal{Q}, M)$, where M is a decision block in B. Thus the operation is not fully specified, but whether coalescing takes place or not and with which $Cl(\mathcal{Q}, M)$ will be inconsequential for establishing the following general properties. Note that $Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$ refines $CGrow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$. Even though information is dropped by CGrow, a fixed point involving CGrow is also a fixed point involving Grow:

Proposition 4 If $CGrow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q}) = \mathcal{Q}$, then $Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q}) = \mathcal{Q}$.

Proof Assume $CGrow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q}) = \mathcal{Q}$. Let $\mathcal{M} = Split(\mathcal{Q})$. We prove that for each $B \in \mathcal{Q}$, $Rem(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M}, B)$ is empty. For a contradiction, assume that $v \in Rem(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M}, B)$. Then there are at least two decision blocks of \mathcal{M} in B.

Therefore, there is at least one decision block M such that $Cl(\mathcal{Q}, M)$ is not coalesced with $Rem(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M}, B)$. But this contradicts that $CGrow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q}) = \mathcal{Q}$.

Since all remainder sets are empty, the effect of CGrow is the same as that of Grow on $Split(\mathcal{Q})$. Thus, $Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q}) = \mathcal{Q}$.

Theorem 2 If $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$ refines \mathcal{Q} and if $\mathcal{Q}' = (CGrow \circ Split)^i(\mathcal{Q})$ is stable, then \mathcal{Q}' is $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$.

Proof By Proposition 1, $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$ refines $Grow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$, which refines $CGrow \circ Split(\mathcal{Q})$. Repeated applications of Proposition 1 show that $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$ refines \mathcal{Q}' .

On the other hand, Q' is a fixed point for $Grow \circ Split$ by the preceding Proposition. So Q' refines \approx_Q by Proposition 2.

Our concept of leaf partition can then be understood as a decision partition \mathcal{E} of the current canonical partition \mathcal{Q} . The only non-trivial decision blocks of a leaf partition are those that contain leaves. A canonical equivalence relation $\approx_{\mathcal{E}}$ is defined as before for $\approx_{\mathcal{Q}}$.

Theorem 2 then can be formulated:

Theorem 2' If $\approx_{\mathcal{E}}$ refines \mathcal{Q} and if $\mathcal{Q}' = CGrow \circ (Split \circ CGrow)^i(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{E})$ is stable, then \mathcal{Q}' is the canonical partition $\approx_{\mathcal{E}}$.

4 Online Algorithm

The online problem in Section 2 can be solved by maintaining the canonical partition by means of a node discriminator for all nodes, not only the roots. In this way, we may focus on the refinement problem for a single BDD, since multiple BDDs can be embedded within a single one by introducing dummy variables near the root. The modified problem is:

Single BDD Online Refinement Problem
Input : A BDD φ with leaves \mathcal{L} and constant discriminator D .
Maintained : For each node v , the discriminator value $D(v)$ is
maintained so that D expresses the canonical partition $\approx_{\mathcal{E}}$.
Update : A partial mapping $E : \mathcal{L} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that $\operatorname{range}(E) \cap$
$range(D) = \{\}$. E and the current partition of leaves determine
a leaf partition \mathcal{E} .
Output : A list of nodes for which $D(v)$ has changed.

As an example, consider the BDD in Figure 1. The leaf partition at this stage has been refined into two decision blocks. The canonical partition with respect to this decision partition is indicated by dotted lines. An update operation Emight split the two leaves in the left most block, and as a result, the four nodes in the left, bottom corner would each become a singleton equivalence class.

The basic problem encountered when trying to construct a fast algorithm is that after nodes have been split, it is necessary to calculate equivalence under path compression—corresponding to our notion of growing decision blocks.



Figure 1. A canonical BDD

There is no evident way of carrying out the grow phase, which must proceed bottom-up, without touching nodes more than $\Theta(\log n)$ times. Our notion of coalesced growth opens an escape hatch that allows the process to be halted at certain critical moments.

Our algorithm works as follows. The canonical partition $\approx_{\mathcal{E}}$ induced by the leaf partition \mathcal{E} refines the current partition \mathcal{Q} expressed by D. Therefore, according to Theorem 2', we can apply the combined operator *Split* \circ *CGrow* until a new fixed point \mathcal{Q}' is reached. Then, \mathcal{Q}' is the canonical partition $\approx_{\mathcal{E}}$.

To make this abstract description into an algorithm, we must choose data structures and explain how the split and grow operations are implemented. We also must explain how we choose the coalescing of blocks in CGrow.

Each discriminator value d represents a block that we denote by d. We maintain a doubly-linked list L(d) of all v in d. A decision partition is specified for a block d_{old} by *explicit* decision blocks and a *implicit* decision block. They are carved out of the block d_{old} as follows. Each explicit decision block is represented by a discriminator value d, and all nodes in the decision block d are placed in the list L(d), which is carved out of $L(d_{old})$. Later, when the decision blocks are grown, these discriminator values will denote their closures. In addition, the implicit decision block. The algorithm will in a gradual fashion convert the implicit decision nodes to explicit ones carrying some distinct discriminator value $d_{implicit}$ reserved for the explicit version of the implicit block.

The algorithm uses a mapping $new(d_{old})$ that records the set of discriminator values for the decision blocks in d_{old} .

Initially, we call the CGrow algorithm with decision blocks of leaves and new initialized according to E.

The *CGrow* phase is implemented for each decision block L(d) by adding the nodes in $L(d_{old})$ for which both successors are already in L(d); such nodes are removed from $L(d_{old})$. To locate nodes that should be considered for inclusion

in a closure, we assume that the BDD is equipped with a backwards pointer structure such that the parents of any node can be sequentially accessed. This process of exploring parents is done in a tightly controlled manner according to the sizes of the lists L(d) for $d \in new(d_{old})$. When a parent has been explored from both the left and right successor, and both are in the same closure, then the parent is moved into this closure as well. The exploration of a closure finishes when all parents of all nodes in the closure have been explored.

The CGrow phase returns a list of all nodes possessing a successor whose discriminator has changed. These nodes are the explicit decision nodes of the next iteration.

The Split algorithm calculates the new discriminator of the nodes in this list according to their behavior. It also calculates the value of new.

Main Idea

The main idea behind the *CGrow* phase is that all unfinished closures are grown in parallel steps, where each step consists of exploring yet another parent of a node in the closure until either (a) a closure becomes too big, say half the size of d_{old} , or (b) until only one closure is unfinished or (c) until all closures are finished. In case (a) and (b), the closure in question is coalesced with the remainder by moving nodes back to d_{old} . (If the conversion of implicit decision nodes is not yet finished, the step for the implicit block is simply to convert another node to $L_{d_{implicit}}$. When all nodes have been converted, this decision block is treated as an ordinary one.) In case (a), all remaining closures are then finished and they will all be small since a big one already was found. In case (b), all closures, possibly except the last one (if it was finished), will by the absence of the condition in case (a) be small.

In case (a), the work involved in building the aborted closure can be charged to a small, finished closure. For this argument to be correct, it is crucial that the work done is the same (to within a constant factor) for all the closures grown in parallel.

In case (b), there may be no small, finished closure to charge the wasted work to. This situation occurs when there is only one decision block to begin with. In this case, the work involved will be proportional to the size of the decision block, and it can be assumed to be part of the work involved in building the decision block. The algorithm makes sure that the original discriminating value d_{old} of the whole block is maintained despite a possible new value assigned to the decision block. In this way, only blocks that are really split may result in further splitting.

In case (c), all blocks will be small. The work done in building a closure is not proportional to the size of the closure, since each parallel step consists of exploring a parent (of which there may be unboundedly many). But each parent has only two successors, and so, the work of visiting the parent can be charged to the closure of the child from which it is explored (unless the work is attributed to another block as a result of the abandonment of a closure calculation). Thus, every time a parent is explored from the same successor, it will be done when the resulting closure the successor resides in is at most half as big as the last time.

Detailed Description

```
Split(E) = new := [D(v) \mapsto \{\} \mid v \in domain(E)];
for all v in domain(E) do
d_{old} := D(v);
d_{new} := E(v)
move v from L(d_{old}) to L(d_{new});
D(v) := d_{new};
new(d) := new(d_{old}) \cup \{d_{new}\};
CGrow (new);
```

Figure 2. Init.

The different stages of the algorithm are shown in Figures 2 to 5.

Initially, the stage Init in Figure 2 moves the nodes mentioned in E to new lists containing the explicit decision blocks of the leaf partition. The partial mapping *new* describes for each old block that was affected what the discriminator values of the explicit decision blocks are.

The CGrow stage in Figure 4, which is invoked next, considers all blocks that contain explicit decision blocks. If all blocks contain only the implicit block, that is, if $domain(new) = \{\}$, then the partition is stable and the algorithm terminates.

As each block d_{old} is considered, parents of nodes that change discriminator are gathered in Δ . These nodes will form the explicit decision blocks of the next iteration.

When implicit decision nodes are converted to explicit ones, it is important that these nodes can be accessed in constant time so that all parallel steps take the same time to within a constant factor. To do this, we let the algorithm maintain the *list invariant* that all decision nodes in a block d are in the front of the list L_d . Thus, the remaining nodes in L_d are redundant nodes.

Within CGrow, the lists that represent closures are used in a queue-like manner: the exploration of parents start from the first node in the list, and when these parents have been processed, parents of the second node are explored, and so on. New nodes in the closure are added to the end. These nodes are redundant, so the list invariant is maintained.

Some highlights of the calculations in Figure 4 are:

1.3 The total size oldsize of d_{old} is calculated by adding together the sizes of the explicit decision blocks and of what remains in $L_{d_{old}}$. (Sizes of lists

CGrow(new) =1. $\Delta := \{\};$ 2.for each d_{old} in **domain**(new) $oldsize := |L(d_{old})| + \Sigma_{d \in implicit(d_{old})} |L(d)|;$ 3. $d_{implicit} :=$ a new discriminating value; 4. 5. $current := \{d_{implicit}\} \cup new(d_{old});$ $halfsize_found := false;$ 6. $finished_dec_nodes := false;$ 7. 8. while $(|current| \geq 2 \text{ and not } halfsize_found)$ or $(|current| \ge 1 \text{ and } halfsize_found)$ do 9. 10. for each d in *current* do if $d = d_{implicit}$ then 11. 12.if not finished_dec_nodes then 13.if next node v in $L(d_{old})$ is a decision node then 14.move v to $L(d_{implicit})$ 15.else $finished_dec_nodes := true;$ 16. 17.if $d \neq d_{implicit}$ or finished_dec_nodes then $select_new_parent(d, v_d, w_d);$ 18. if w_d is defined then 19. 20.if $D(w_d \cdot 0) = d$ and $D(w_d \cdot 1) = d$ then 21.move w_d to end of L(d); 22.if $L(d) \ge oldsize/2$ then (condition (a)) 23.move L(d) nodes $L(d_{old})$; $current := current \setminus \{d\};$ 24.25. $halfsize_found := true;$ 26.else27. $current := current \setminus \{d\};$ 28.if not $halfsize_found$ and |current| = 1 then (condition (b)) 29.let d be such that $\{d\} = current;$ move L(d) nodes $L(d_{old})$; 30.31.for each $d \in new(d_{old}) \cup \{d_{implicit}\}$ and each v_d in L(d) do 32. for each w_d in $P(v_d)$ 33. if $D(w_d) \neq d$ then 34. $\Delta := \Delta + \{w_d\};$ if $D_{w_d} = d_{old}$ then 35.36. move w_d to front of $L(d_{old})$; 37. if $\Delta \neq \{\}$ then 38. $Split(\Delta);$

Figure 3. CGrow.

 $Select_new_parent(d, v_d, w_d) =$ if v_d is not defined and L(d) is not empty then $v_d :=$ first node in L(d); if w_d is not defined then $w_d :=$ first node in $P(v_d)$; else if w_d is not last node in $P(v_d)$; else if v_d is not last node in L(d); $w_d :=$ next node in L(d); $w_d :=$ first node in $P(v_d)$; else $w_d :=$ first node in $P(v_d)$; else $w_d :=$ next node in L(d); $w_d :=$ first node in $P(v_d)$; else $w_d :=$ undefined;

Figure 4. Select_new_parent.

can be maintained explicitly so that this calculation can be done in time proportional to the number of explicit decision blocks.)

- 1. 5-6 The growing of closures is subject to the conditions (a), (b), and (c). Condition (a) is denoted by a flag *halfsize_found*. When it has occurred, the remaining blocks must be finished. The set *current* consists of all the closures that are not yet finished, and it is used to calculate whether (b) has occurred. Initially, it contains all the discriminators of explicit decision blocks, including the yet unconstructed explicit version of the implicit decision block.
 - When all implicit decision nodes have been converted, the flag finished_ dec_nodes is set.
- 1.8-31 This loop carries out the parallel growing of closures as described in the informal discussion above. The current node considered in the list L(d) is v_d and the current parent under exploration is w_d . The parent nodes are explored according to Figure 4. Note that when coalescing the remainder of d_{old} with an unfinished closure (in 1.22-25 or 1.29-30), the algorithm moves closure nodes back to $L_{d_{old}}$. We here assume that redundant nodes are moved to the end of $L_{d_{old}}$ and that decision nodes are moved to the front so that the invariant is maintained.
- 1. 31-36 Decision nodes outside of d_{old} may behave differently due to the changes to d_{old} . Also, there may be redundant nodes inside d_{old} that have turned to decision nodes. Thus, the parents of all nodes that have changed discriminator are accumulated in Δ for treatment in the *Split* phase. In addition, parents inside d_{old} that are now decision nodes are moved to the beginning of d_{old} so as to preserve the list invariant. The time spent in this part of the algorithm is proportional to the work already done

in constructing the finished closures, and can be ignored for complexity analysis.

The *Split* operation in Figure 5 is similar to the *Init* operation. It uses a perfect hash function h that is assumed not to collide with any previous discriminator value.

```
Split(\Delta) = new := [D(v) \mapsto \emptyset \mid v \in \Delta];
for all v in \Delta do
d_{old} := D(v);
d_{new} := h(v.i, D(v \cdot 0), D(v \cdot 1))
move v from L(d_{old}) to L(d_{new});
D(v) := d_{new};
new(d_{old}) := new(d_{old}) \cup \{d_{new}\};
CGrow (new);
```

Figure 5. Split.

To help understanding the algorithm, let us consider an example where a block B denoted by d_{old} has been split according to a decision partition that has placed all decision nodes of B into a list L(d). Thus $new(d_{old})$ is $\{d\}$ and there are no decision nodes in $L(d_{old})$. Before the first iteration, current has been set to $\{d_{implicit}, d\}$. When $d_{implicit}$ is selected to be grown, the algorithm discovers that there are no more decision nodes in $L(d_{old})$, and the current node v_d cannot be defined, and as a result, $d_{implicit}$ is removed from current. When d is considered, the first node in L(d) is selected as v_d and a first parent v_d is selected as well. This parent may even be moved to L(d) if both of its successors are in L(d). However, since current is now a singleton, there will be no more iterations and the nodes in L(d) are moved to $L(d_{old})$. Therefore, no parents are thrown into Δ at the end of CGrow.

To show that the algorithm terminates, it is sufficient to establish that when a block has only one decision block, then the original discriminator is restored and no parents are placed in D. We have just analyzed this case above (it can be seen from the way *new* is constructed in *Init* and *CGrow* that if a block mentioned in *new* has only one decision block, then the decision block is explicit).

To solve the BDD online problem, we also need to collect as output the nodes whose discriminator change. We have not shown this code, which is trivial to add.

Complexity Analysis

The total time spent initializing *new* before *CGrow* is called is O(k). The algorithm guarantees that any decision block that is fully grown is at most half the

size of the containing block. Thus every time any current node or current parent is touched, then computation time is charged to a block, which is at most half as big as the previous time. Thus the time spent on each node is $O(\log n)$. This figure excludes time that is incurred when a block has only one decision block. In the case that the decision block is created during a *Split* phase, the time can be charged to the creation of the decision block (since we have argued that no further calculations arise from such a block). In the case that the decision block is created during initialization, the time (which is proportional to the length of the description of E pertaining to the block) can be attributed to the total length of the input.

Thus the total time is $O(n \log n + k)$. We do not achieve the $n \min(k, \log n) + k$, unless we modify the algorithm: as long as the total size k of the update operations is less than $\log n$, we use the straightforward method of reducing the whole BDD with each update at a total cost of $n \cdot k$. When k becomes greater than $\log n$, we use our online algorithm and initialize with the current leaf partition.

Theorem 1' The Single BDD Online Problem can be solved in time $O(n \min(k, \log n) + k)$, where n is the number of nodes in the BDDs and k is the total size of all operations. Thus, if n also bounds k, then the algorithm is $O(n \log n)$.

Theorem 1 follows from Theorem 1'.

Avoiding Hashing In the *Split* step, a linear time bucket sort technique, see [12], can replace the use of hashing. The idea is to sort all triples $h(v.i, D(v \cdot 0), D(v \cdot 1))$ before new discriminating values are assigned. Thus our time bounds do not depend on perfect hashing.

5 Minimizing BDD Represented Automata

We consider languages over the alphabet \mathbb{B}^{ν} . Thus a letter **u** is a vector $x_0, \dots, x_{\nu-1}$ of ν bits. An *automaton* A over \mathbb{B}^{ν} with state space [N], where $[N] = \{0 \dots N-1\}$, is specified as (φ, F) , where φ consists of N shared BDDs, [N] is the set of leaves of φ and $F \subseteq [N]$ is the set of final states. State 0 is the *initial state*. There is a transition $i \stackrel{\mathbf{u}}{\to} j$ iff $\varphi_i(\mathbf{u}) = j$. This representation is discussed in detail in [7]. A similar, but slightly more complicated, representation is discussed in [5, 6].

The minimization algorithm consists of first reducing φ with respect to initial leaf partition $\{F, [N] \setminus F\}$ and then repeatedly applying the update operation in order to split states. The output of the update operation is conjoined with the previous partition in order to define the leaf partition of the next update operation. This process is continued until a fixed point is reached.

If we assume that n bounds both N and the number of nodes in the shared BDD representation, then the straightforward implementation [7] (or the corresponding algorithm in [5]) carries out each update operation in time O(n) and

there are at most *n* iterations. With the BDD online algorithm, however, we can do better than $\Theta(n^2)$:

Corollary 1 Minimization is $O(n \log n)$ for BDD-represented automata, where n bounds the number of states and the number of BDD nodes.

A similar bound can be obtained for the representation in [5, 6].

Acknowledgments

Thanks to Robert Paige and Theis Rauhe for their careful reading of an earlier version of this paper, for pointing out errors, and for exploring the possible existence of a simpler $n \log n$ BDD online refinement algorithm. The example of non-monotonicity of the composed operator in Section 3 was suggested by Robert Paige to illustrate an error in the earlier version. Michael Yannakakis kindly pointed out the reference [2].

References

- D. Basin and N. Klarlund. Beyond the finite in hardware verification. Submitted. Extended version of: "Hardware verification using monadic second-order logic," CAV '95, LNCS 939, 1996.
- 2. Norbert Blum. An $o(n \log n)$ implementation of the standard mothod for minimizing *n*-state finite automata. Information Processing Letters, 1996.
- R. E. Bryant. Symbolic Boolean manipulation with ordered binary-decision diagrams. ACM Computing surveys, 24(3):293-318, September 1992.
- 4. A. Cardon and M. Crochemore. Partitioning a graph in $O(|A|\log_2 |V|)$. TCS, 19:85–98, 1982.
- Aarti Gupta. Inductive Boolean function manipulation. PhD thesis, Carnegie Mellon University, 1994. CMU-CS-94-208.
- Aarti Gupta and Allan L. Fisher. Representation and symbolic manipulation of linearly inductive boolean functions. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Computer-Aided Design*, pages 192–199. IEEE Computer Society Press, 1993.
- J.G. Henriksen, J. Jensen, M. Jørgensen, N. Klarlund, B. Paige, T. Rauhe, and A. Sandholm. Mona: Monadic second-order logic in practice. In Tools and Algorithms for the Construction and Analysis of Systems, First International Workshop, TACAS '95, LNCS 1019, 1996. Also available through http://www.brics.dk/~klarlund/MonaFido/papers.html.
- J. Hopcroft. An nlog n algorithm for minimizing states in a finite automaton. In Z. Kohavi and Paz A., editors, *Theory of machines and computations*, pages 189–196. Academic Press, 1971.
- D. Lee and M. Yannakakis. Online minimization of transition systems. In Proc. STOC, pages 264-274. ACM, 1992.
- H-T. Liaw and C-S. Lin. On the OBDD-representation of general Boolean functions. *IEEE Trans. on Computers*, C-41(6):661-664, 1992.
- R. Paige and R. Tarjan. Three efficient algorithms based on partition refinement. SIAM Journal of Computing, 16(6), 1987.
- D. Sieling and I. Wegener. Reduction of OBDDs in linear time. *IPL*, 48:139–144, 1993.