

# Binary Decision Diagrams

# Literature

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Some pointers:

H.R. Andersen, *An Introduction to Binary Decision Diagrams*, Lecture notes, Department of Information Technology, IT University of Copenhagen

URL: <http://www.itu.dk/people/hra/bdd97-abstract.html>

Tools:

DDcal (“BDD calculator”)

URL: <http://vlsi.colorado.edu/~fabio/>

# Set representations

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As we have seen, the solution of the model-checking problem for CTL can be expressed by operations on sets:

states satisfying some atomic proposition:  $\mu(p)$  for  $p \in AP$

states satisfying (sub)formulae:  $\llbracket \psi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{K}}$

computation by set operations:  $pre, \cap, \cup, \dots$

How can such sets be represented:

**explicit list:**  $S = \{s_1, s_2, s_4, \dots\}$

**symbolic representation:** compact notation or data structure

# Symbolic representation

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There are many ways of representing sets symbolically. Some are commonly used in mathematics:

**Intervals:**  $[1, 10]$  for  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$

**Characterizations:** “odd numbers” for  $\{1, 3, 5, \dots\}$

Every symbolic representation is suitable for some sets and less so for others (for instance, intervals for odd numbers).

We are interested in a data structure suitable for representing sets of states in hardware systems, and where the necessary operations (*pre*,  $\cap$  etc) can be implemented efficiently.

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In the following, we assume that states can be represented as Boolean vectors

$$S = \{0, 1\}^m \quad \text{for some } m \geq 1$$

Example:

1-safe Petri nets (every place marked with at most one token)

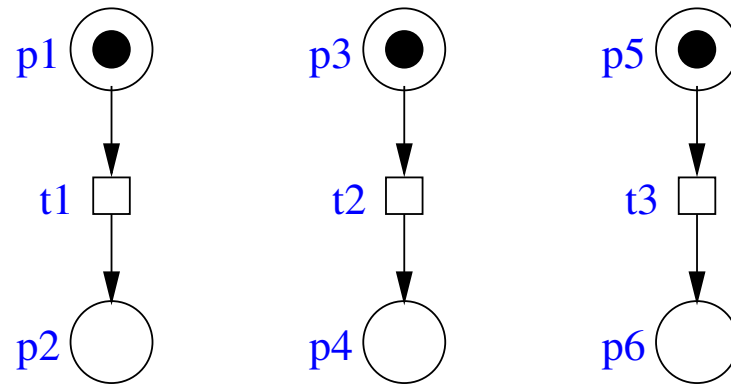
circuits (all inputs and outputs are 0 or 1)

Remark: In general, the elements of *any* finite set can be represented by Boolean vectors if  $m$  is chosen large enough. (However, this may not be adequate for all sets.)

# Example 1: Petri-net

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Consider the following Petri net:



A state can be written as  $(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_6)$ , where  $p_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq 6$  indicates whether there is a token on  $P_i$ .

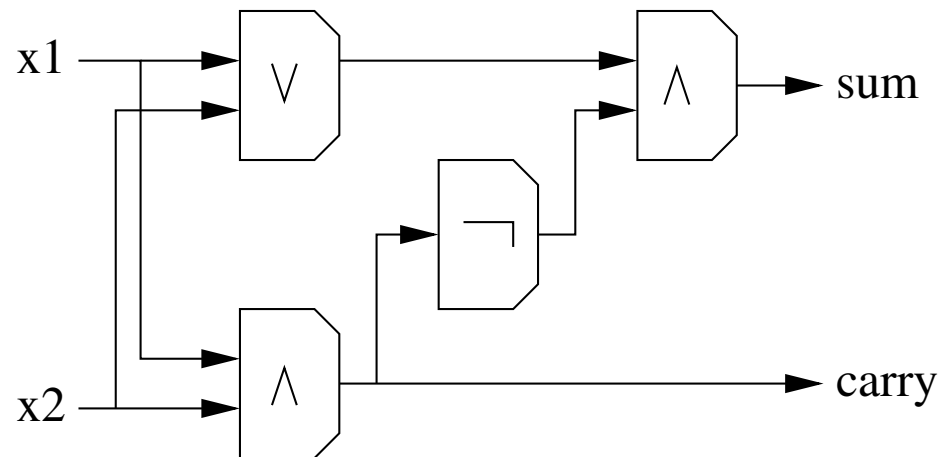
Initial state  $(1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0)$ ;

other reachable states are, e.g.,  $(0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0)$  or  $(1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1)$ .

## Example 2: Circuit

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Half-adder:



The circuit has got two inputs ( $x_1, x_2$ ) and two outputs ( $carry, sum$ ). Their admissible combinations can be denoted by Boolean 4-tuples, e.g.  $(1, 0, 0, 1)$  ( $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0, carry = 0, sum = 1$ ) is a possible combination.

# Characteristic functions

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Let  $C \subseteq S = \{0, 1\}^m$ .

(i.e., a set of Boolean vectors.)

The set  $C$  is uniquely defined by its **characteristic function**  $f_C: S \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  given by

$$f_C(s) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s \in C \\ 0 & \text{if } s \notin C \end{cases}$$

Remark:  $f_C$  is a Boolean function with  $m$  inputs and therefore corresponds to a formula  $F$  of propositional logic with  $m$  atomic propositions.



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The characteristic function of the admissible combinations in Example 2 corresponds to the following formula of propositional logic:

$$F \equiv \left( \textit{carry} \leftrightarrow (x_1 \wedge x_2) \right) \wedge \left( \textit{sum} \leftrightarrow (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge \neg \textit{carry} \right)$$

In the following, we shall treat

sets of states (i.e. sets of Boolean vectors)

characteristic functions

Formulae of propositional logic

simply as different representations of the same objects.

# Representing formulae

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Truth table:

| $x_1$ | $x_2$ | $carry$ | $sum$ | $F$ |
|-------|-------|---------|-------|-----|
| 0     | 0     | 0       | 0     | 1   |
| 0     | 0     | 0       | 1     | 0   |
|       |       | ...     |       |     |
| 0     | 1     | 0       | 1     | 1   |
|       |       | ...     |       |     |

A truth table is obviously *not* a compact representation.

However, we use it as a starting point for a graphical, more compact representation.

# Binary decision graphs

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Let  $V$  be a set of variables (atomic propositions) and  $<$  a total order on  $V$ , e.g.

$$x_1 < x_2 < \textit{carry} < \textit{sum}$$

A **binary decision graph** (w.r.t.  $<$ ) is a directed, connected, acyclic graph with the following properties:

there is exactly one **root**, i.e. a node without incoming arcs;

there are at most two leaves, labelled by **0** or **1**;

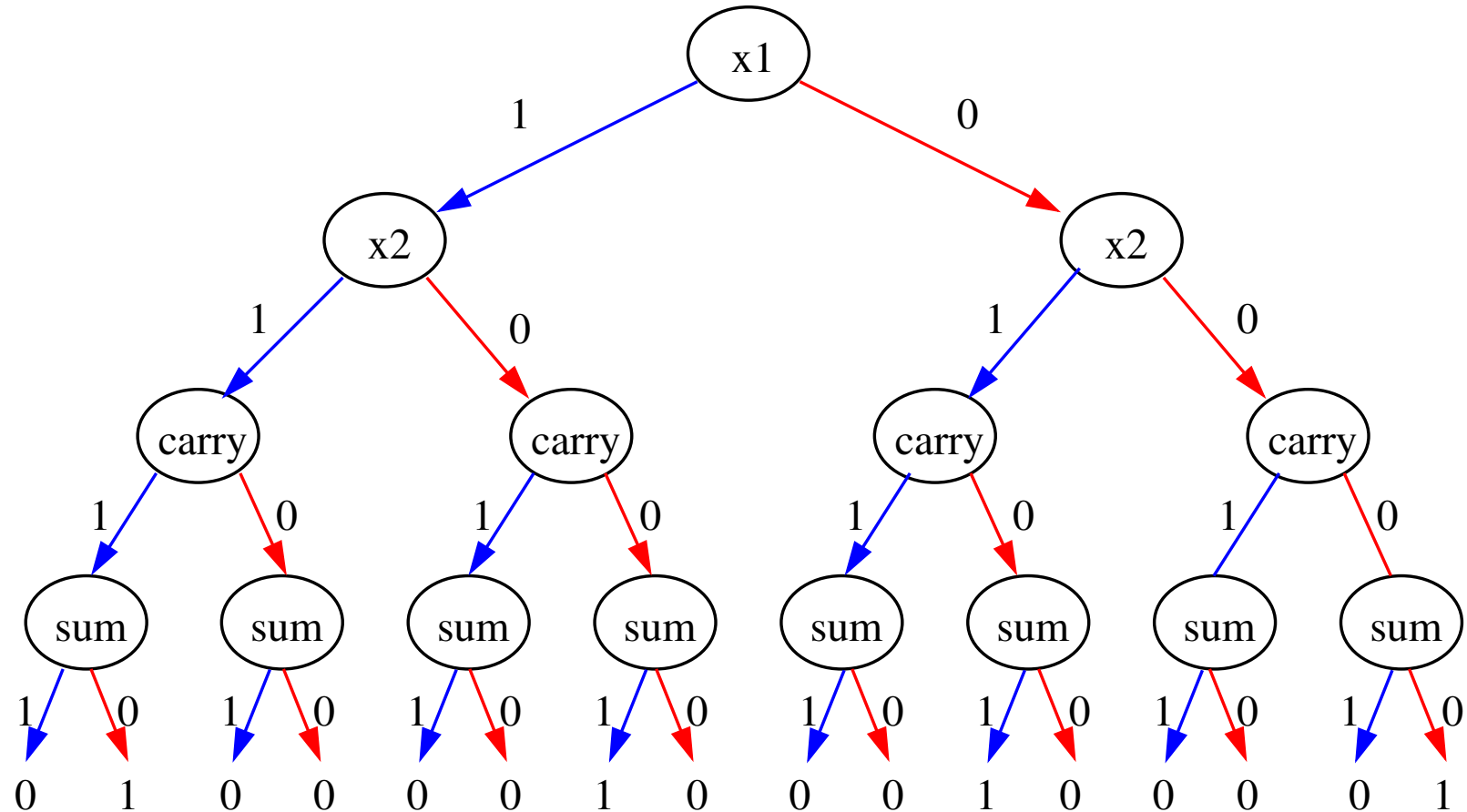
all non-leaves are labelled with variables from  $V$ ;

every non-leaf has two outgoing arcs labelled by **0** and **1**;

if there is an edge from an  $x$ -labelled node to a  $y$ -labelled node, then  $x < y$ .

## Example 2: Binary decision graph (here: a full tree)

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Paths ending in **1** correspond to vectors whose entry in the truth table is 1.

# Binary decision diagrams

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A **binary decision diagram** (BDD) is a binary decision graph with two additional properties:

no two subgraphs are isomorphic;

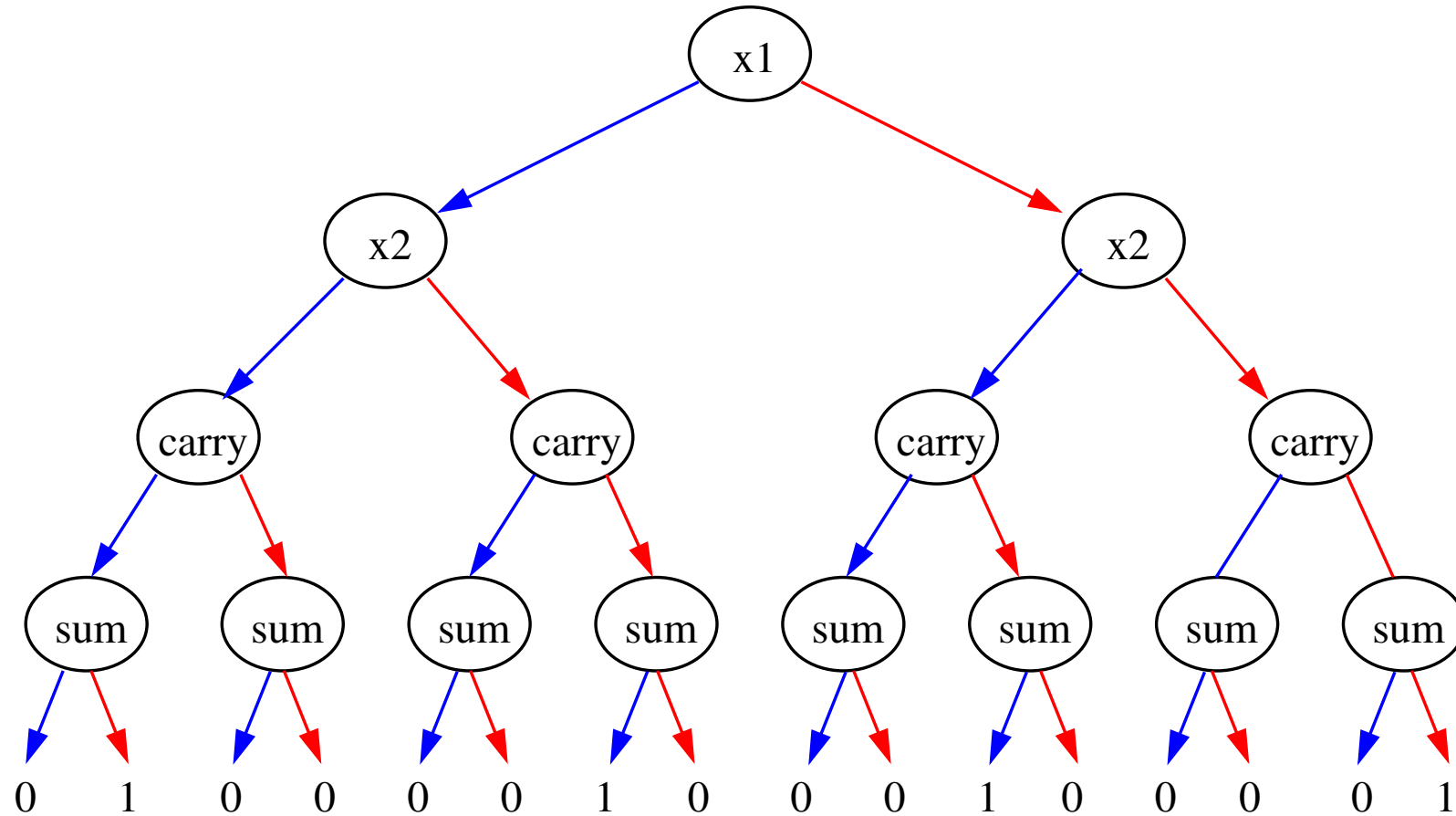
there are no *redundant* nodes, where both outgoing edges lead to the same target node.

We also allow to omit the **0**-node and the edges leading there.

Remarks: On the following slides, the **blue** edges are meant to be labelled by 1, the **red** edges by 0.

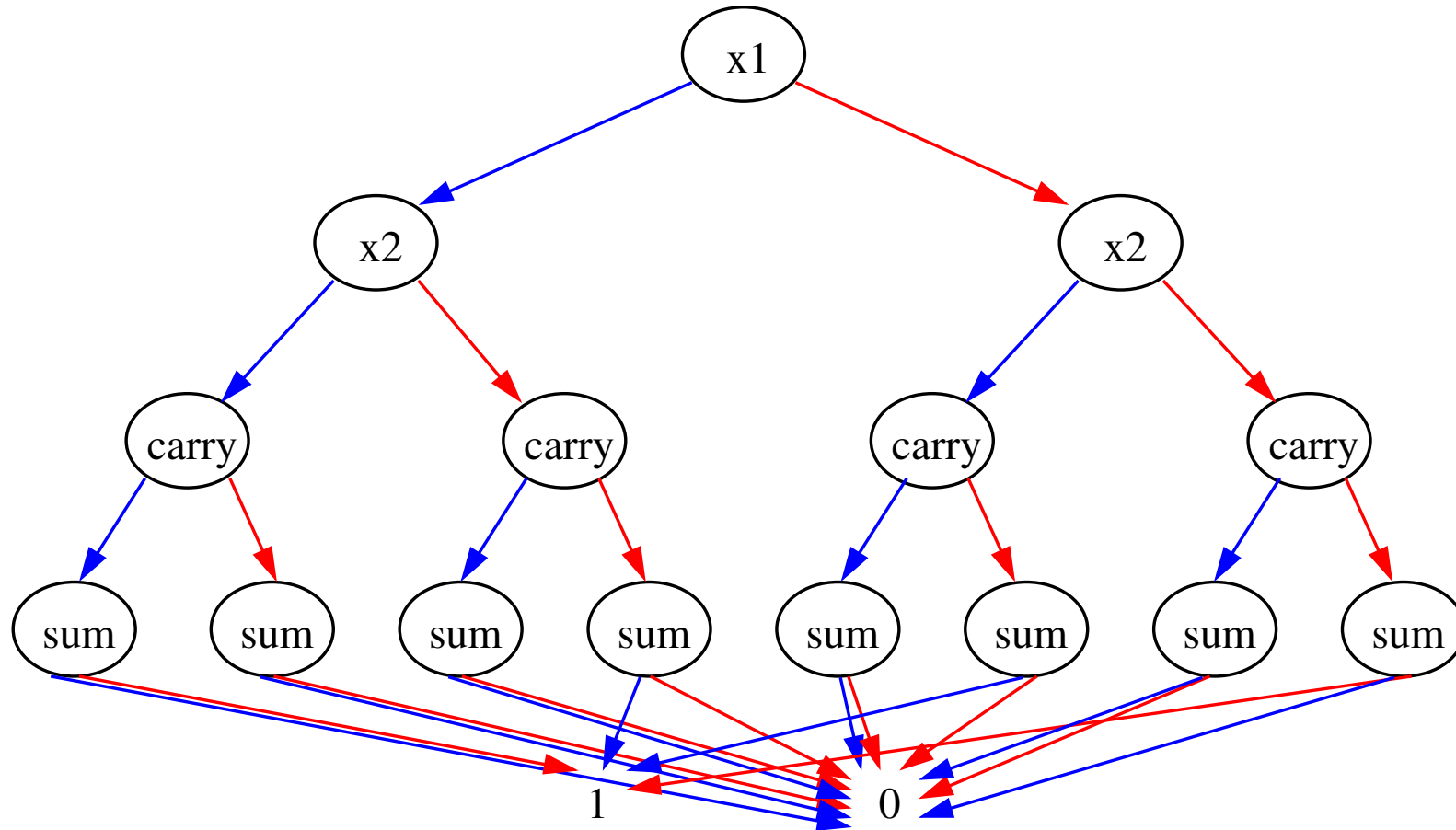
## Example 2: Eliminate isomorphic subgraphs (1/4)

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## Example 2: Eliminate isomorphic subgraphs (2/4)

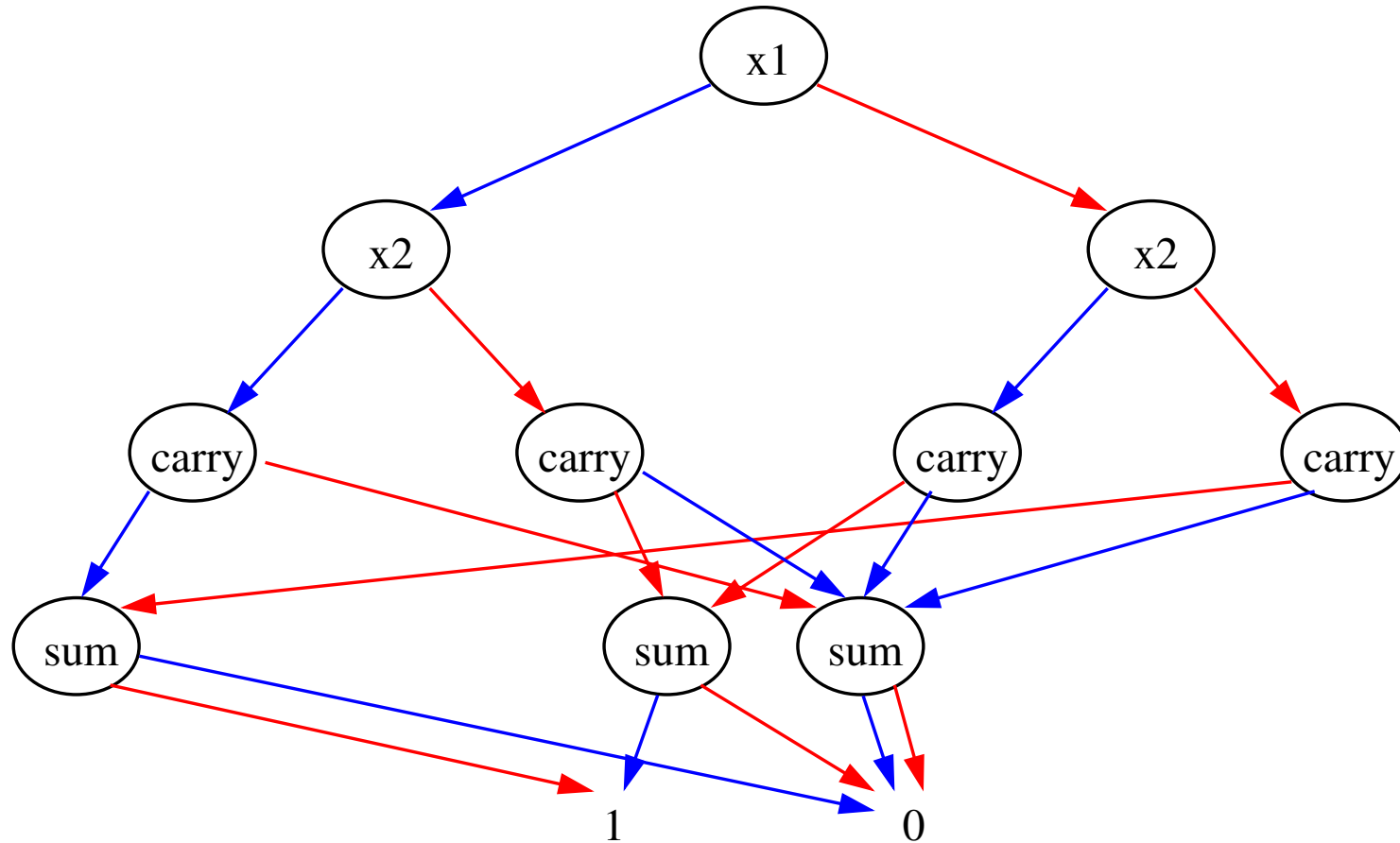
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0-nodes and 1-nodes merged, respectively.

## Example 2: Eliminate isomorphic subgraphs (3/4)

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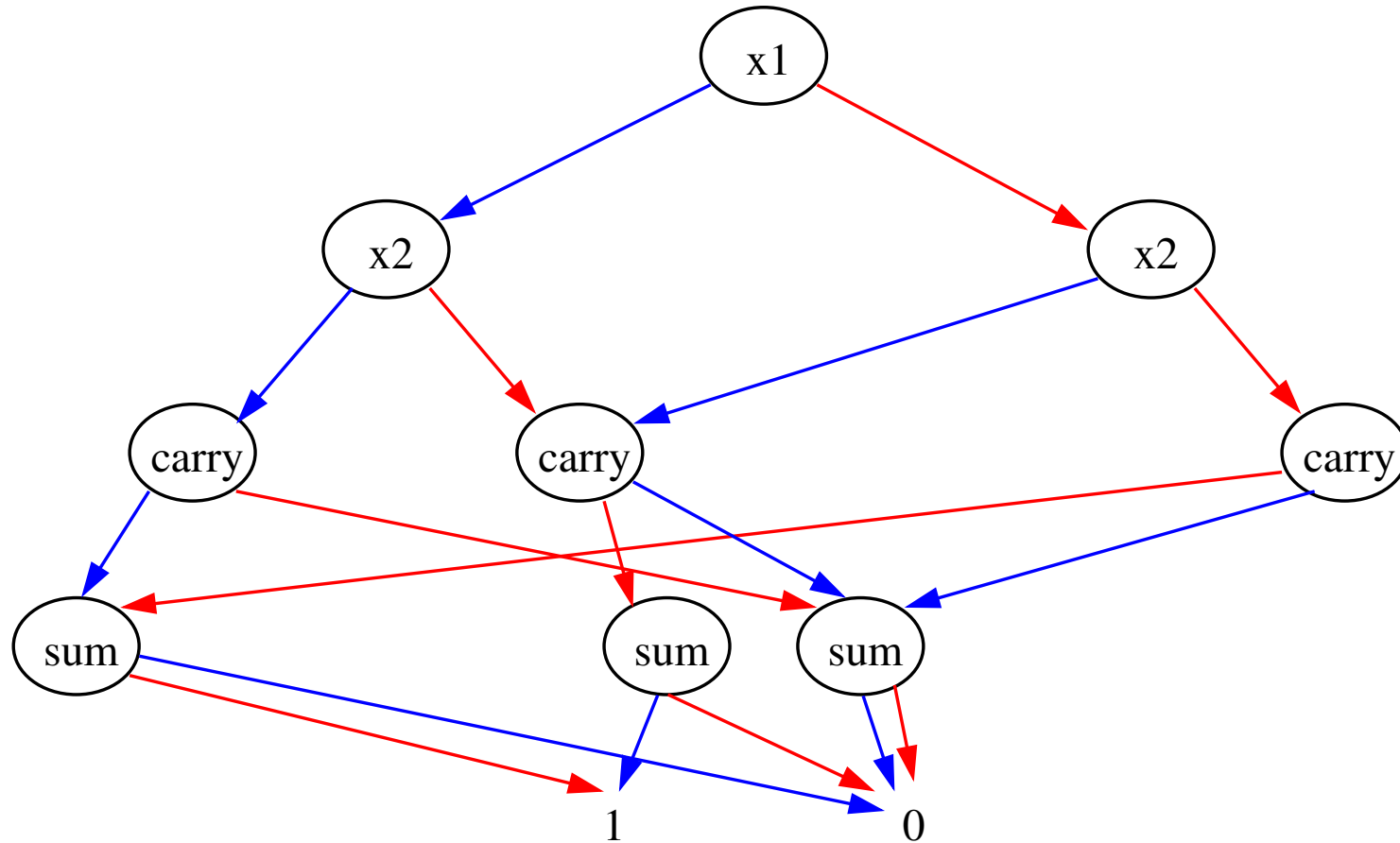


Merged the isomorphic *sum*-nodes.



## Example 2: Eliminate isomorphic subgraphs (4/4)

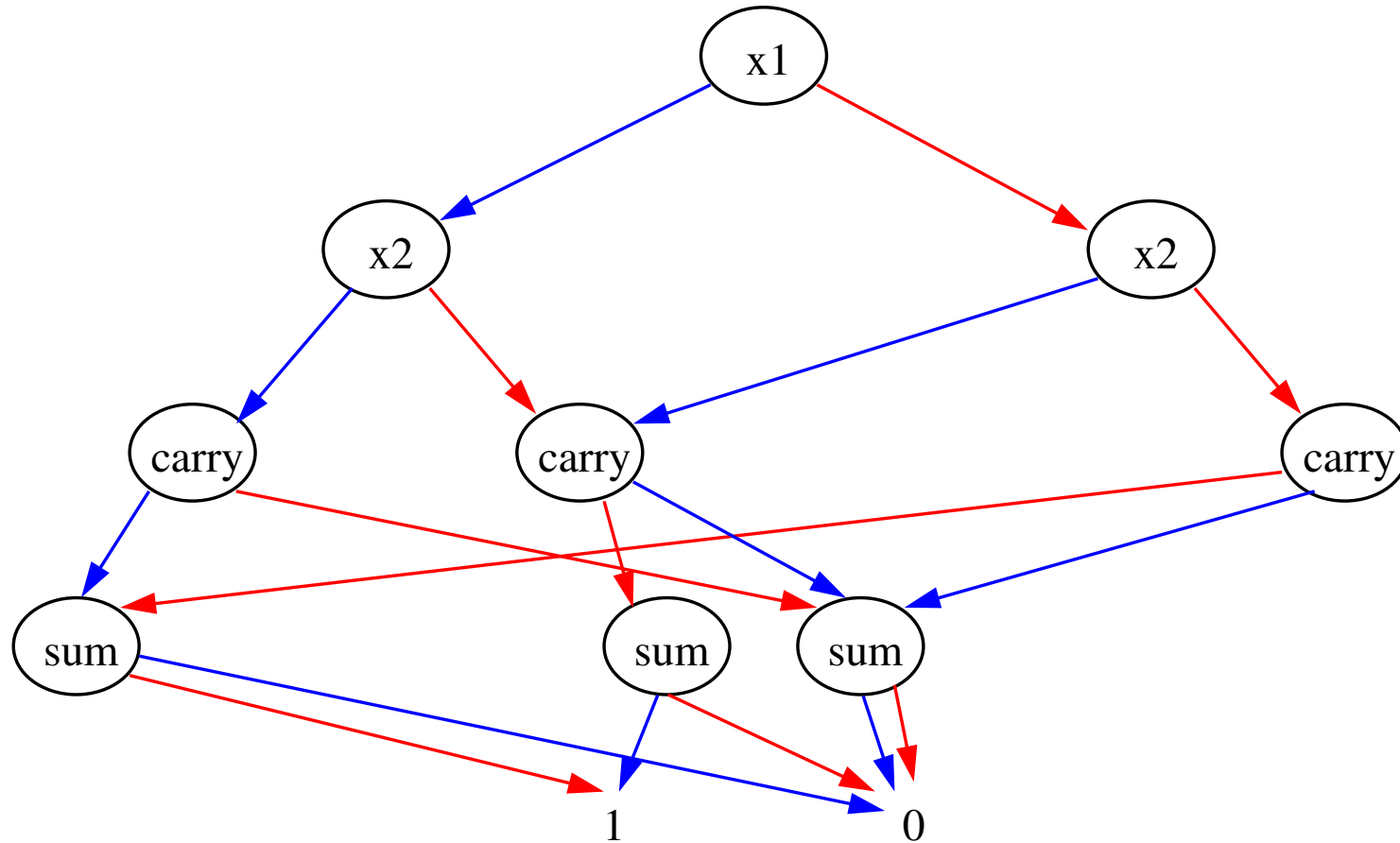
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No isomorphic subgraphs are left → we are done.

## Example 2: Remove redundant nodes (1/2)

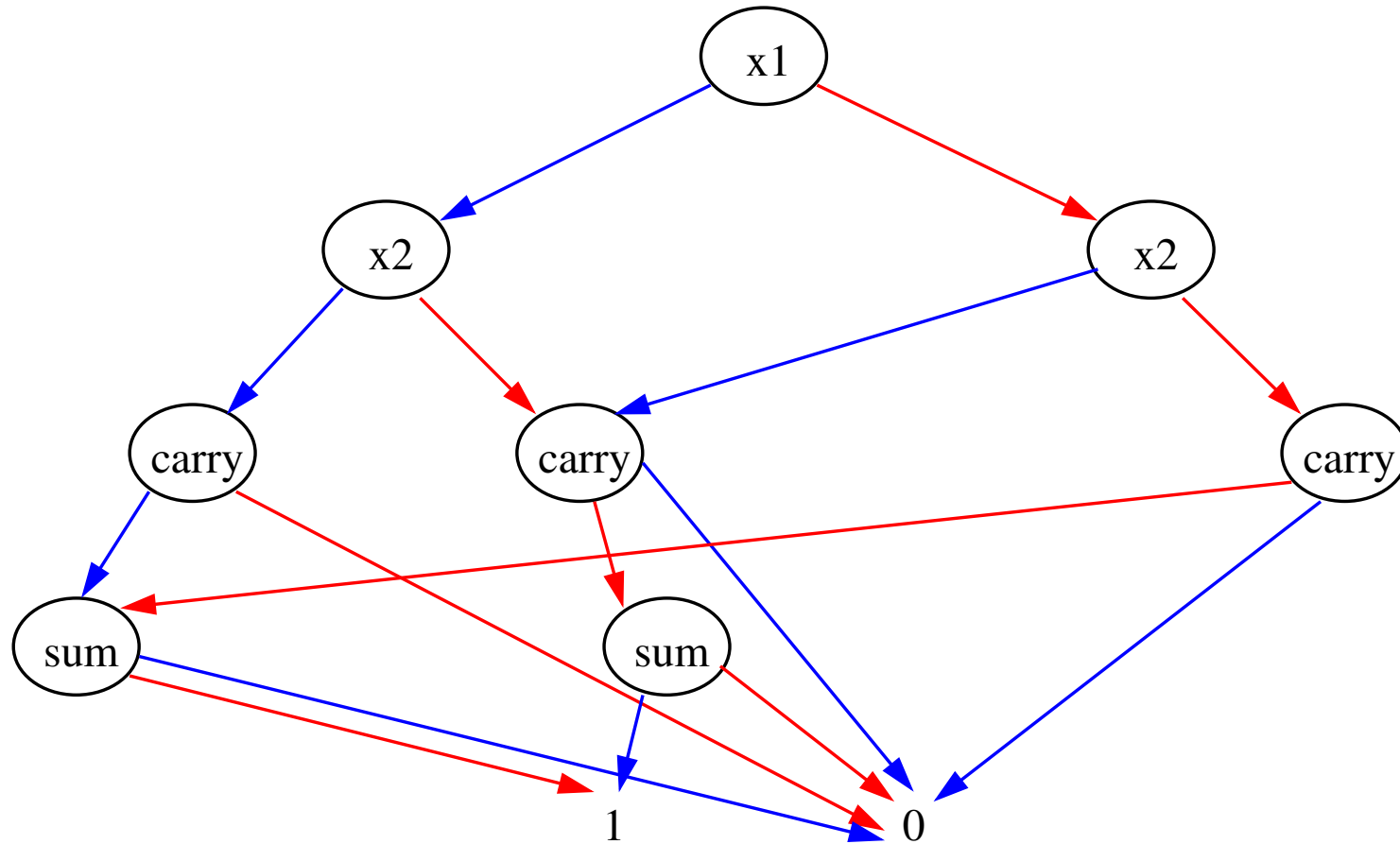
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Both edges of the right *sum*-node point to 0.

## Example 2: Remove redundant nodes (2/2)

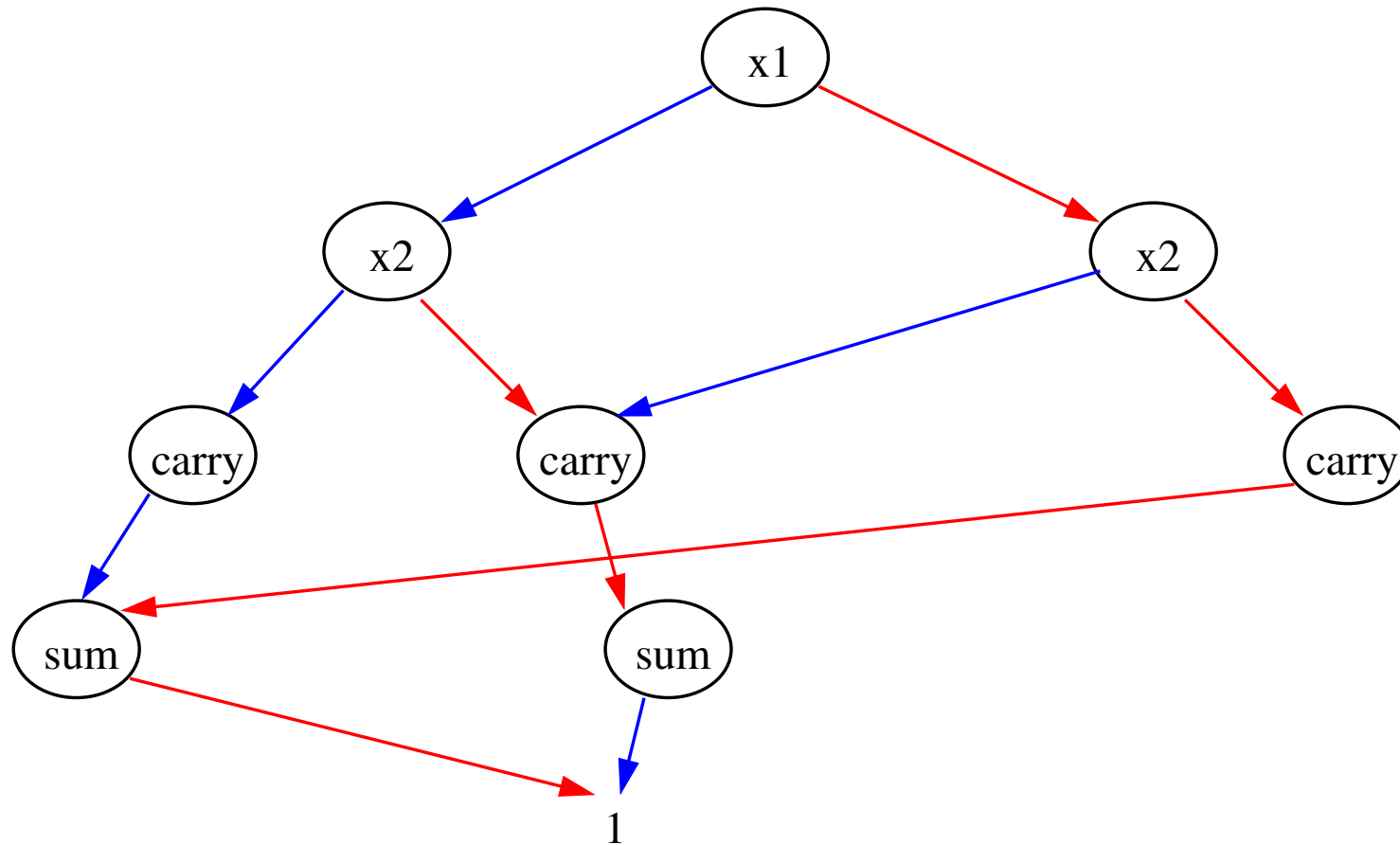
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No more redundant nodes → we are done.

## Example 2: Omit 0-node

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Optionally, we can remove the 0-node and edges leading to it, which makes the representation clearer.

# Preview

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In the following, we shall investigate operations on BDDs that are needed for CTL model checking.

Construction of a BDD (from a PL formula)

Equivalence check

Intersection, complement, union

Relations, computing predecessors

# Propositional logic with constants

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In the following, we will consider formulae of propositional logic (PL), extended with the constants **0** and **1**, where:

**0** is an unsatisfiable formula;

**1** is a tautology.

# Substitution

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Let  $F$  and  $G$  be formulae of PL (possibly with constants), and let  $x$  be an atomic proposition.

$F[x/G]$  denotes the PL formula obtained by replacing each occurrence of  $x$  in  $F$  by  $G$ .

In particular, we will consider formulae of the form  $F[x/0]$  and  $F[x/1]$ .

**Example:** Let  $F = x \wedge y$ . Then  $F[x/1] = 1 \wedge y \equiv y$  and  $F[x/0] = 0 \wedge y \equiv 0$ .

# If-then-else

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Let us introduce a new, ternary PL operator. We shall call it *ite* (if-then-else).

Note: *ite* does not extend the expressiveness of PL, it is simply a convenient shorthand notation.

Let  $F, G, H$  be PL formulae. We define

$$ite(F, G, H) := (F \wedge G) \vee (\neg F \wedge H).$$

The set of **INF formulae** (if-then-else normal form) is inductively defined as follows:

**0** and **1** are INF formulae;

if  $x$  is an atomic proposition and  $G, H$  are INF formulae, then  $ite(x, G, H)$  is an INF formula.



# Shannon partitioning

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Let  $F$  be a PL formula and  $x$  an atomic proposition. We have:

$$F \equiv \text{ite}(x, F[x/1], F[x/0])$$

**Proof:** In the following,  $G$  denotes the right-hand side of the equivalence above. Let  $\nu$  be a valuation s.t.  $\nu \models F$ . Either  $\nu(x) = 1$ , then  $\nu$  is also a model of  $F[x/1]$  and of  $x$  and therefore also of  $G$ . The case  $\nu(x) = 0$  is analogous. For the other direction, suppose  $\nu \models G$ . Then either  $\nu(x) = 1$  and the “rest” of  $\nu$  is a model of  $F[x/1]$ . Then, however,  $\nu$  will be a model for any formula in which some of the ones in  $F[x/1]$  are replaced by  $x$ , in particular also for  $F$ . The case  $\nu(x) = 0$  is again analogous.

**Remark:**  $G$  is called the **Shannon partitioning** of  $F$ .

**Corollary:** Every PL formula is equivalent to an INF formula.

(Proof: apply the equivalence above multiple times.)

# Construction of BDDs

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We can now solve our first BDD-related problem: Given a PL formula  $F$  and some ordering of variables  $<$ , construct a BDD w.r.t.  $<$  that represents  $F$ .

If  $F$  does not contain any atomic propositions at all, then either  $F \equiv 0$  or  $F \equiv 1$ , and the corresponding BDD is simply the corresponding leaf node.

Otherwise, let  $x$  be the smallest variable (w.r.t.  $<$ ) occurring in  $F$ . Construct BDDs  $B_0$  and  $B_1$  for  $F[x/1]$  and  $F[x/0]$ , respectively (these formulae have one variable less than  $F$ ).

Because of the Shannon partitioning,  $F$  is representable by a binary decision *graph* whose root is labelled by  $x$  and whose subtrees are  $B_0$  and  $B_1$ . To obtain a BDD, we check whether  $B_0$  and  $B_1$  are isomorphic; if yes, then  $F$  is represented by  $B_0$ . Otherwise we merge all isomorphic subtrees in  $B_0$  and  $B_1$ .

# Example: BDD construction

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Consider again the formula from Example 2:

$$F \equiv (\textit{carry} \leftrightarrow (x_1 \wedge x_2)) \wedge (\textit{sum} \leftrightarrow (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge \neg \textit{carry})$$

We have, e.g.:

$$F[x_1/0] \equiv \neg \textit{carry} \wedge (\textit{sum} \leftrightarrow x_2)$$

$$F[x_1/1] \equiv (\textit{carry} \leftrightarrow x_2) \wedge (\textit{sum} \leftrightarrow \neg \textit{carry})$$

$$F[x_1/0][x_2/0] \equiv \neg \textit{carry} \wedge \neg \textit{sum}$$

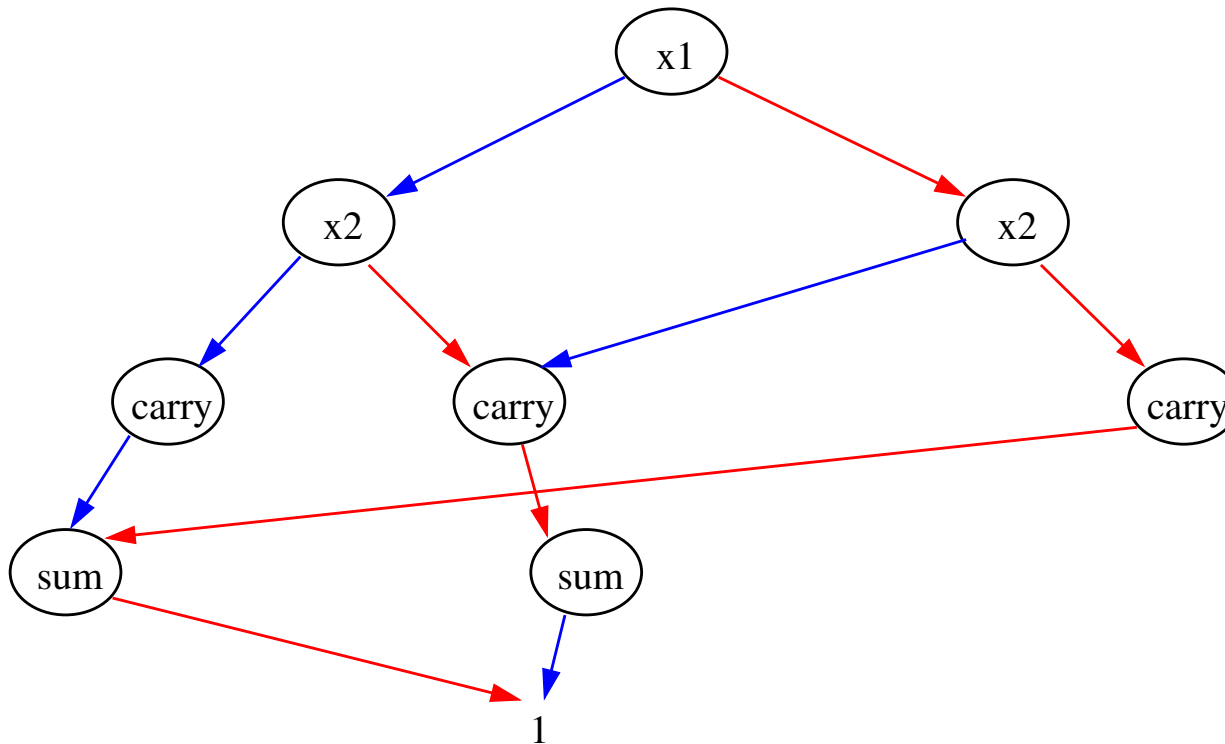
$$F[x_1/0][x_2/1] \equiv F[x_1/1][x_2/0] \equiv \neg \textit{carry} \wedge \textit{sum}$$

$$F[x_1/1][x_2/1] \equiv \textit{carry} \wedge \textit{sum}$$

# Example: BDD construction

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By applying the construction, we obtain the same BDD as before:



**Remark:** Obviously, we can also obtain an INF formula from each BDD.

# BDDs are unique

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**Remark:** The result of the previously given construction is *unique* (up to isomorphism).

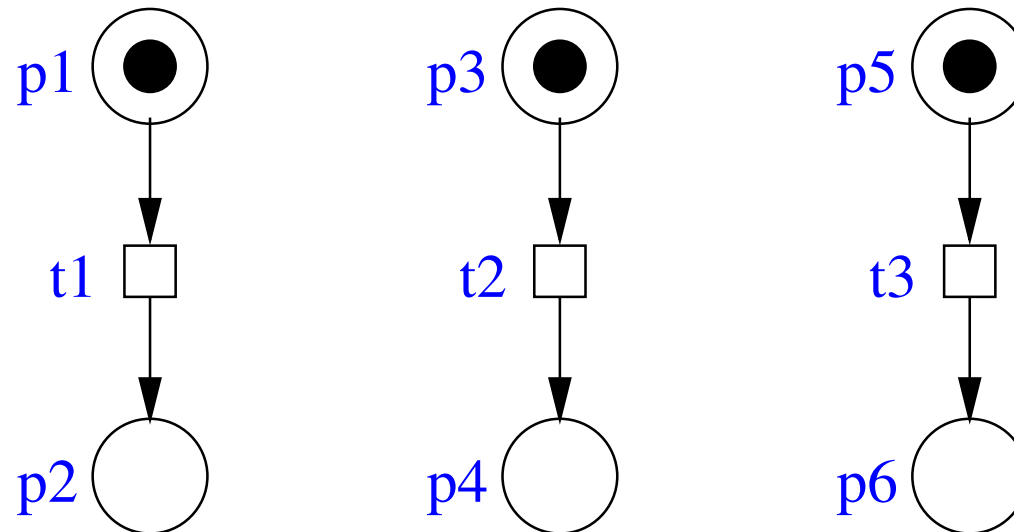
In other words, given  $F$  and  $<$ , there is (up to isomorphism) exactly one BDD that respects  $<$  and represents  $F$ .

Remark: Different orderings still lead to different BDDs.  
(possibly with vastly different sizes!)

# Example: Variable orderings

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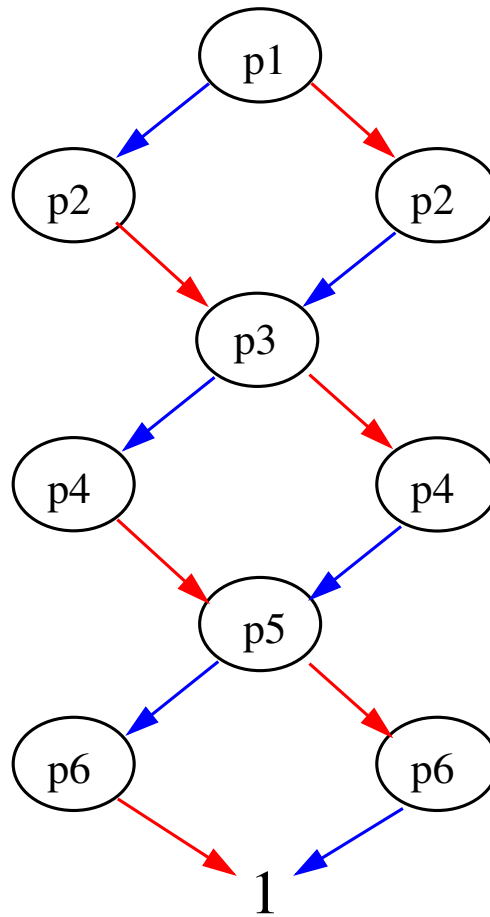
Recall Example 1 (the Petri net), and let us construct a BDD representing the reachable markings:



Remark:  $P_1$  is marked iff  $P_2$  is not, etc.

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The corresponding BDD for the ordering  $p_1 < p_2 < p_3 < p_4 < p_5 < p_6$ :



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Remarks:

If we increase the number of components from 3 to  $n$  (for some  $n \geq 0$ ), the size of the corresponding BDD will be linear in  $n$ .

In other words, a BDD of size  $n$  can represent  $2^n$  (or even more) valuations.

However, the size of a BDD strongly depends on the ordering!

Example: Repeat the previous construction for the ordering

$$p_1 < p_3 < p_5 < p_2 < p_4 < p_6.$$



# Equivalence test

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To implement CTL model checking, we need a test for equivalence between BDDs (e.g., to check the termination of a fixed-point computation).

**Problem:** Given BDDs  $B$  and  $C$  (w.r.t. the same ordering) do  $B$  and  $C$  represent equivalent formulae?

**Solution:** Test whether  $B$  and  $C$  are isomorphic.

**Special cases:**

Unsatisfiability test: Check if the BDD consists just of the  $0$  leaf.

Tautology test: Check if the BDD consists just of the  $1$  leaf.

# Implementing BDDs with hash tables

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Suppose we want to write an application in which we need to manipulate multiple BDDs.

Efficient BDDs implementations exploit the uniqueness property by storing all BDD nodes in a hash table. (Recall that each node is in fact the root of some BDD.)

Each BDD is then simply represented by a pointer to its root.

Initially, the hash table has only two unique entries, the leaves **0** and **1**.

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Every other node is uniquely identified by the triple  $(x, B_0, B_1)$ , where  $x$  is the atomic proposition labelling that node and  $B_0, B_1$  are the subtrees of that node, represented by pointers to their respective roots.

Usually, one implements a function  $mk(x, B_0, B_1)$  that checks whether the hash table already contains such a node; if yes, then the pointer to that node is returned, otherwise a new node is created.

A multitude of BDDs is then stored as a “forest” (a DAG with multiple roots).

Problem: garbage collection (by reference counting)

# Equivalence test II

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Let us reconsider the equivalence-checking problem.

(Given two BDDs  $B$  and  $C$ , do  $B$  and  $C$  represent equivalent formulae?)

If  $B$  and  $C$  are stored in hash tables (as described previously), then  $B$  and  $C$  are representable by pointers to their roots.

Due to the uniqueness property, one then simply has to check whether the pointers are the same (a **constant-time** procedure).

# Logical operations I: Complement

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Let  $F$  be a PL formula and  $B$  a BDD representing  $F$ .

**Problem:** Compute a BDD for  $\neg F$ .

**Solution:** Exchange the two leaves of  $B$ .

(Caution: This is not quite so simple with the hash-table implementation.)

## Logical operations II: Disjunction/union

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Let  $F, G$  be PL formulae and  $B, C$  the corresponding BDDs (with the same ordering).

**Problem:** Compute a BDD for  $F \vee G$  from  $B$  and  $C$ .

We have the following equivalence:

$$F \vee G \equiv \text{ite}(x, (F \vee G)[x/1], (F \vee G)[x/0]) \equiv \text{ite}(x, F[x/1] \vee G[x/1], F[x/0] \vee G[x/0])$$

If  $x$  is the smallest variable occurring in either  $F$  or  $G$ , then

$F[x/1], F[x/0], G[x/1], G[x/0]$  are either the children of the roots of  $B$  and  $C$  (or the roots themselves).

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We construct a BDD for disjunction according to the following, recursive strategy:

If  $B$  and  $C$  are equal, then return  $B$ .

If either  $B$  or  $C$  are the **1** leaf, then return **1**.

If either  $B$  or  $C$  are the **0** leaf, then return the other BDD.

Otherwise, compare the two variables labelling the roots of  $B$  and  $C$ , and let  $x$  be the smaller among the two (or the one labelling both).

If the root of  $B$  is labelled by  $x$ , then let  $B_1, B_0$  be the subtrees of  $B$ ; otherwise, let  $B_1, B_0 := B$ . We define  $C_1, C_0$  analogously.

Apply the strategy recursively to the pairs  $B_1, C_1$  and  $B_0, C_0$ , yielding BDDs  $E$  and  $F$ . If  $E = F$ , return  $E$ , otherwise  $mk(x, E, F)$ .

# Logical operations III: Intersection

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Let  $F, G$  be PL formulae and  $B, C$  the corresponding BDDs (with the same ordering).

**Problem:** Compute a BDD for  $F \wedge G$  from  $B$  and  $C$ .

**Solution:** Analogous to union, with the rules for **1** and **0** leaves adapted accordingly.

**Complexity:** With dynamic programming:  $\mathcal{O}(|B| \cdot |C|)$  (every pair of nodes at most once).



# Computing predecessors

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In the following, we derive a strategy for computing the set

$$pre(M) = \{s \mid \exists s' : (s, s') \in \rightarrow \wedge s' \in M\}.$$

Note that the relation  $\rightarrow$  is a subset of  $S \times S$  whereas  $M \subset S$ .

We represent  $M$  by a BDD with variables  $y_1, \dots, y_m$ .

$\rightarrow$  will be represented by a BDD with variables  $x_1, \dots, x_m$  and  $y_1, \dots, y_m$  (states “before” and “after”).

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Remark: Every BDD for  $M$  is at the same time a BDD for  $S \times M$ !

Thus, we can rewrite  $pre(M)$  as follows:

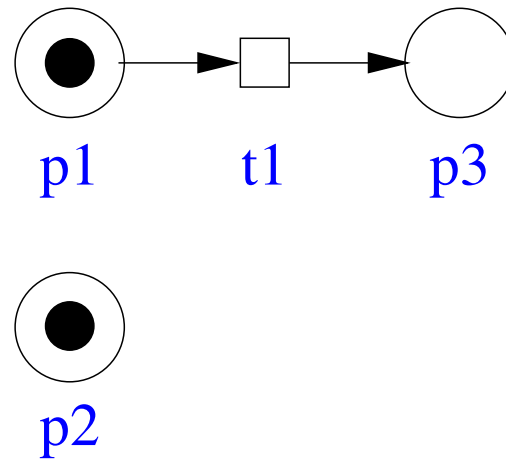
$$\{s \mid \exists s' : (s, s') \in \rightarrow \cap (S \times M)\}$$

Then,  $pre$  reduces to the operations intersection and existential abstraction.

# Example

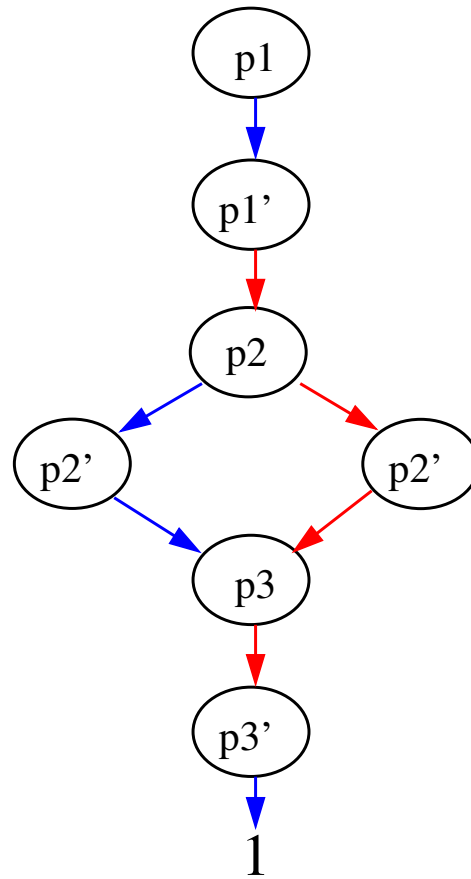
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Let us consider the following Petri net with just one transition:



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The BDD  $F_{t_1}$  describes the effect of  $t_1$ , where  $p_1, p_2, p_3$  describe the state *before* and  $p'_1, p'_2, p'_3$  the state *after* firing  $t_1$ .



# Existential abstraction

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Existential abstraction w.r.t. an atomic proposition  $x$  is defined as follows:

$$\exists x : F \equiv F[x/0] \vee F[x/1]$$

I.e.,  $\exists x : F$  is true for those valuations that can be extended with a value for  $x$  in such a way that they become models for  $F$ .

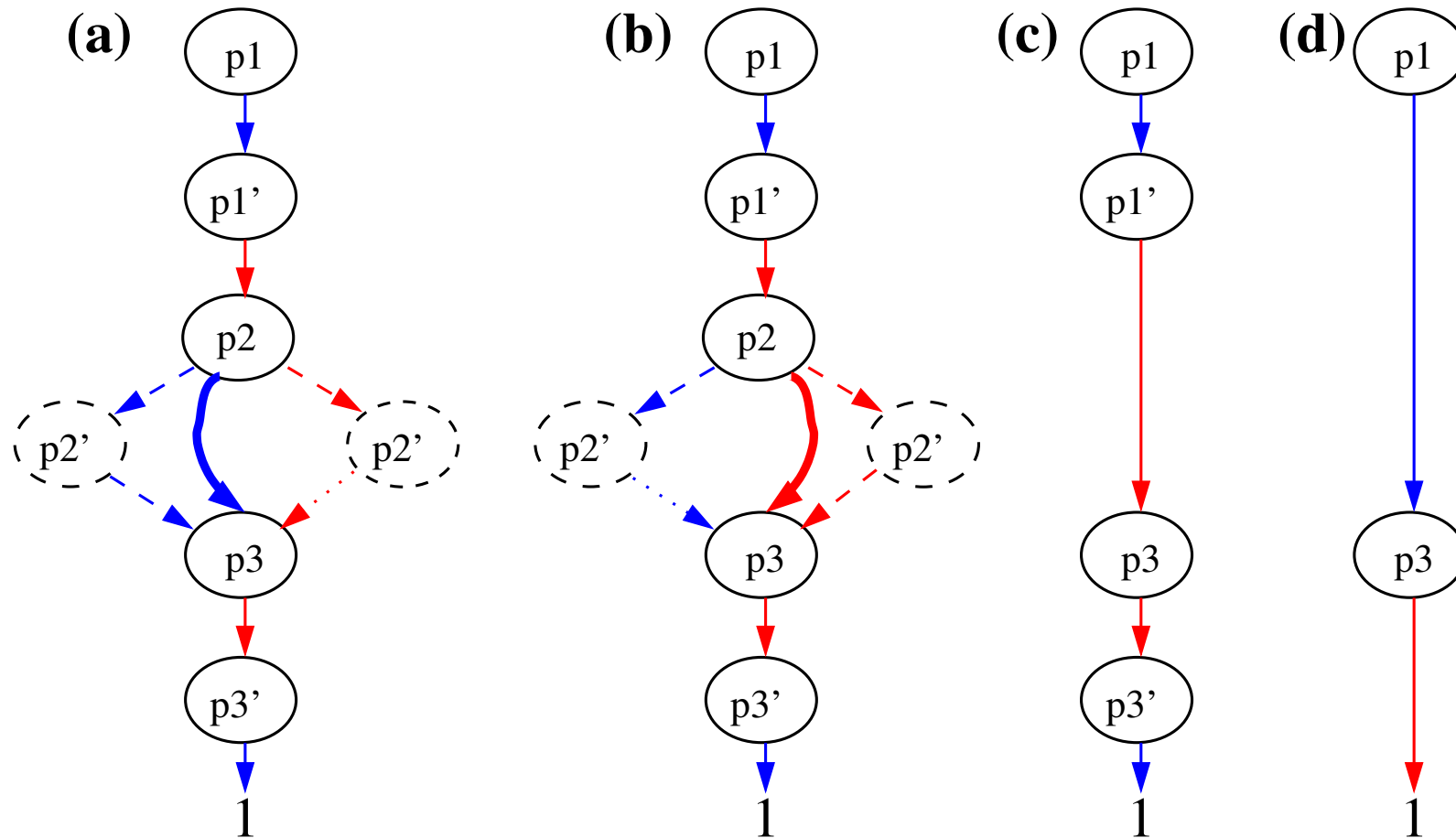
**Example:** Let  $F \equiv (x_1 \wedge x_2) \vee x_3$ . Then

$$\exists x_1 : F \equiv F[x_1/0] \vee F[x_1/1] \equiv (x_3) \vee (x_2 \vee x_3) \equiv x_2 \vee x_3$$

By extension, we can consider existential abstraction over sets of atomic propositions (abstract from each of them in turn).

# Example: Existential abstraction

(a)  $F_{t_1}[p'_2/1]$ ; (b)  $F_{t_1}[p'_2/0]$ ; (c)  $\exists p'_2: F_{t_1}$ ; (d)  $\exists p'_1, p'_2, p'_3: F_{t_1}$



# LTL with BDDs

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**Question:** Can one implement also LTL model checking using BDDs?

**Answer:** Yes and no (worst-case: quadratical, but works ok in practice).

**Problems:** BDD not compatible with depth-first search, combination with partial-order reduction difficult.

# Symbolic algorithms for LTL

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**Idea:** Find non-trivial SCCs with an accepting state, then search backwards for an initial state.

**Algorithms:** Emerson-Lei (EL), OWCTY



# Emerson-Lei (1986)

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1. Assign to  $M$  the set of all states.
2. Let  $B := M \cap F$ .
3. Compute the set  $C$  of states that can reach elements of  $B$ .
4. Let  $M := M \cap \text{pre}(C)$ .
5. If  $M$  has changed, then go to step 2, otherwise stop.

# One-Way-Catch-Them-Young

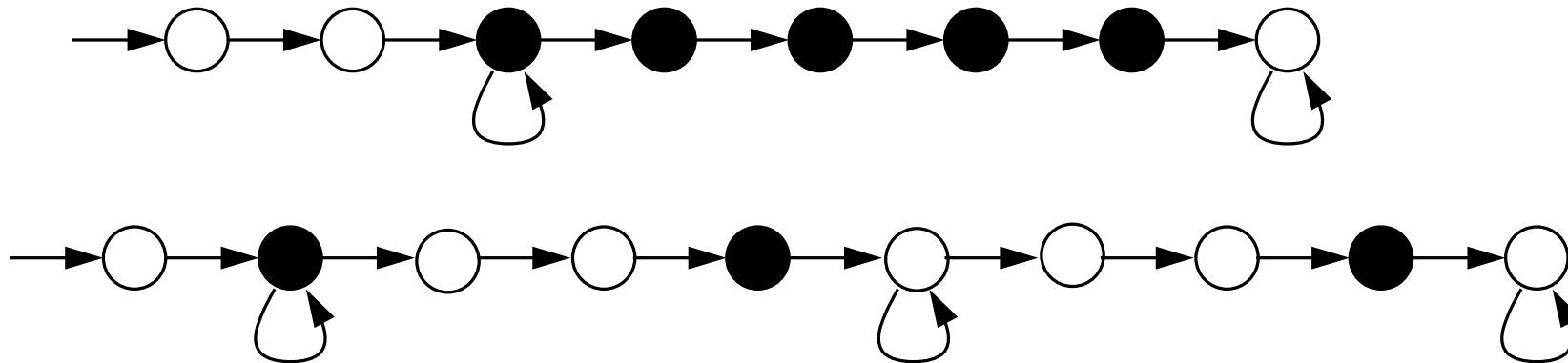
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(Hardin et al 1997, Fisler et al 2001)

Like EL, but after step 4 repeat  $M := M \cap pre(M)$  until  $M$  does not change any more.

# EL and OWCTY

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In the upper case, OWCTY is superior, in the lower case EL is.

In practice, OWCTY appears to work better.