A Reactive Synthesis Approach to Supervisory Control of Terminating Processes

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Abstract: This paper establishes a connection between supervisory control theory (SCT) and reactive synthesis (RS) in the situation where both the plant and the specification are modeled by $\omega$-languages, i.e., formal languages over finite words. In particular, we show that the deterministic finite automaton $G$ typically used in SCT to construct a maximally permissive supervisor $f$ for a plant language $L$ w.r.t. a specification language $E$, can be interpreted as a two-player game which allows to solve the considered synthesis problem by a two-nested fixed-point algorithm in the $\mu$-calculus over $G$. The resulting game turns out to be a cooperative Büchi-type game which allows for a maximally permissive solution in the particular context of SCT. This is surprising, as classical Büchi games do not have this property.

Keywords: Discrete-event systems, supervisory control, reactive synthesis, $\mu$-calculus, game theory.

INTRODUCTION

Supervisory control theory (SCT) is a branch of control theory that addresses the systematic design of controllers for discrete-event systems — dynamical systems whose behavior can be modeled by discrete sequences of so called events, which model a particular value change in a relevant variable of the considered system. Typically, the set of such events is considered finite and all event sequences a system (typically called the plant) can possibly exhibit, are collected in a formal language $L$ functioning as the plant model. On the other hand, a specification language $E$ contains only desired event sequences the plant should exhibit. The controller synthesis problem then asks to construct a so-called supervisor $f$ which appropriately restricts the evolution of the plant $s.t.$ all resulting event sequences respect the specification. Supervisory control theory was originally proposed by Ramadge and Wonham (1987) and now is an established field of research, with standard text books by Cassandras and Lafortune (2008) and Wonham and Cai (2019), as well as recent reviews by Wonham et al. (2018) and Lafortune (2016b), or to optimize sensor activation for these synthesis problems (Yin and Lafortune, 2019). Conversely, it had been shown by Schmuck et al. (2020); Majumdar et al. (2019) that transferring ideas from SCT to RS results in algorithms which handle environment assumptions more satisfactory in the context of cyber-physical-system design.

Within this paper we continue recent efforts, e.g. by Ehlers et al. (2017), Ramezani et al. (2019) and Schmuck et al. (2020), to draw formal connections between SCT and reactive synthesis (RS), a branch of computer science. RS aims at synthesizing a computer program which operates in accordance to a prescribed specification while reacting to external environment inputs. For a comprehensive introduction to RS and its connection to control see e.g. Finkbeiner (2016) and Maler (2002), respectively.

Our continuation of these comparative efforts within this paper is motivated by recent successes stories of the use of comparative insights for solving long-standing open problems both in SCT and RS. On one hand, it has been shown by Yin and Lafortune (2016a) that most permissive supervisors for plants under partial observation can be constructed by utilizing a game-based approach inspired by RS. This insight has also been used to enforce opacity (Hélouët et al., 2018) or fault diagnosability (Cassez and Tripakis, 2008; Yin and Lafortune, 2016b), or to optimize sensor activation for these synthesis problems (Yin and Lafortune, 2019). Conversely, it had been shown by Schmuck et al. (2020); Majumdar et al. (2019) that transferring ideas from SCT to RS results in algorithms which handle environment assumptions more satisfactory in the context of cyber-physical-system design.

It is the aim of this paper to further facilitate the connection between SCT and RS to enhance interesting developments within their intersection. In particular, we show that the connection between SCT and RS established for non-terminating plant and specification processes modelled by regular $\omega$-languages in Schmuck et al. (2020) carries over to terminating processes, i.e., plants and specifications modelled by regular $\omega$-languages.

In contrast to Schmuck et al. (2020), however, we show this connection on the algorithmic level. Given the most basic supervisor synthesis problem defined by $\omega$-languages $L$ and $E$ which are generated by deterministic finite automata $G_I$ and $G_E$, we follow the common approach (see e.g., Cassandras and Lafortune (2008)) to construct a particular product automaton $G$ to synthesize the supervisor $f$. We then interpret the supervisor synthesis problem over $G$ as a two player game, in which the supervisor (player 0) applies a control pattern (i.e., provides a set of enabled events) and in which the plant (player 1) subsequently chooses to append an enabled event to resolve the remaining non-determinism. With this interpretation, we show that there exists a fixed-point in the $\mu$-calculus over $G$. 

which computes the so-called winning states of $G$, that is, all states of $G$ which allow for a supervisor which restricts the plant appropriately, such that all generated event sequences fulfill the specification. The obtained set of winning states then allows us to extract the desired maximally permissive supervisor $f$ for the control problem described by $L$ and $E$ if and only if the initial state of $G$ is contained in the winning state set.

Our work is closely related to supervisor synthesis methods using a game-theoretic interpretation, e.g. by Yin and LaFortune (2016a); Héloüët et al. (2018); Cassez and Tripakis (2008), as discussed above. While these works utilize a game-based approach to compute supervisors for special instances of SCT, our contribution has a more tutorial flavor. For the most basic setting of SCT, we derive the winning conditions and symbolic synthesis procedures à la RS, which capture the exact intend of SCT. In particular, we show that supervisor synthesis corresponds to solving a cooperative Büchi-type game over $G$. Interestingly, this modified Büchi game allows for a maximally permissive control strategy, which is not true for standard Büchi games. This comparative result therefore shows, that an SCT interpretation of control helps to relax synthesis problems s.t. maximally permissive solutions are available.

Our established connection between the synthesis algorithms for solving supervisor and reactive synthesis problems via Büchi-type games extends the connection derived in Ehlers et al. (2017). There, the authors show that the supervisor synthesis problem over $G$ (as described above) corresponds to a particular specification in computational tree logic (CTL). Based on this result, they show that one can transfer $G$ into a so called Kripke-structure which allows to apply standard techniques from RS to solve the synthesis problem w.r.t. the derived CTL specification. Then, they validate that the obtained result indeed solves the posed SCT problem. Our approach, however, does not transfer the synthesis problem into a different modeling formalism to apply RS techniques. We rather show that the supervisor synthesis problem over $G$ coincides with a cooperative Büchi-type game à la RS over $G$.

This paper is by far not the first to combine supervisory controller synthesis with fixed-points in the $\mu$-calculus. There has been notable work on synthesizing supervisors w.r.t. temporal specifications, e.g. given in linear temporal logic (LTL) by Sakakibara and Ushio (2018), computational tree logic (CTL) by Jiang and Kumar (2006), epistemic temporal logic by Aucher (2014) or modal logic by van Hulst et al. (2017). All these works adapt the powerful machinery of reactive synthesis to ensure that computed strategies respect the two fundamental requirements of SCT, namely controllability and non-blockingness, on top of enforcing the imposed temporal specification. In contrast to this, our paper derives the fixed point which exactly captures the “common” intent of SCT and works directly over $G$.

1. PRELIMINARIES

For a general introduction to supervisory control see (Cassandras and LaFortune, 2008). We give a summary of common notation and elementary facts relevant for the present paper.

Notation. Let $\Sigma$ be a finite alphabet, i.e., a finite set of symbols $\sigma \in \Sigma$. The Kleene-closure $\Sigma^*$ is the set of finite strings $s = \sigma_1\sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\sigma_i \in \Sigma$, and the empty string $\epsilon \in \Sigma^*$, $\epsilon \notin \Sigma$. The length of a string $s \in \Sigma^*$ is denoted $|s| \in \mathbb{N}_0$, with $|\epsilon| = 0$.

If, for two strings $s, r \in \Sigma^*$, there exists $t \in \Sigma^*$ such that $s = rt$, we say $r$ is a prefix of $s$, and write $r \leq s$.

Formal Languages. A language over $\Sigma$ is a subset $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$. The prefix of a language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is defined by $\text{prefix}(L) := \{ r \in \Sigma^* | \exists s \in L : r \leq s \}$. The prefix operator is also referred to as the prefix-closure, and, a language $L$ is closed if $L = \text{prefix}(L)$. A language $K$ is relatively closed w.r.t. $L$ if $K = \text{prefix}(K) \cap L$. The prefix operator distributes over arbitrary unions of languages. However, for the intersection of two languages $L$ and $M$, we have $\text{prefix}((L \cap M)) \subseteq (\text{prefix}(M)) \cap (\text{prefix}(M))$. If equality holds, $L$ and $M$ are said to be non-conflicting.

Automata. An automaton is a tuple $G = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, Q_m)$, with state set $Q$, initial state $q_0 \in Q$, marked states $Q_m \subseteq Q$, and the partial transition function $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$. We write $\delta(q, \sigma)$! to indicate that $\delta$ is defined for the specified arguments $q \in Q$ and $\sigma \in \Sigma$. The automaton is full if $\delta(q, \sigma)$! for all $q \in Q$ and $\sigma \in \Sigma^*$, i.e., if $\delta$ is a proper function. With the automaton $G = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, Q_m)$, we denote the generated language $L(G) := \{ s \in \Sigma^* | (q_0, s) \in Q_m \}$ and the marked language $L_m(G, Q_m) := \{ s \in \Sigma^* | (q_0, s) \in Q_m \}$. We omit the parameter $Q_m$ in the definition of $L_m(G)$ if it is clear from the context.

Fixpoint Calculus. Let $Q$ denote a finite set and consider a monotone operator $f$, i.e., $f(P') \subseteq f(P'')$ for all $P' \subseteq P'' \subseteq Q$. Then the least fixpoint of $f$ is given by $\bigcup\{f(\emptyset) | i \in \mathbb{N} \}$ and can be obtained by the iteration $P_i := \emptyset$, $P_{i+1} := P_i \cup f(P_i)$. In particular, the fixpoint is attained for some finite $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Likewise, the iteration $P_i := Q$, $P_{i+1} := P_i \cap f(P_i)$ can be used to obtain the greatest fixpoint. As a $\mu$-calculus formula, the least fixpoint of $f$ is denoted $\mu f.p(f)$, whereas the greatest fixpoint is denoted $\nu f.p(f)$. Now consider an operator $g$ that depends on multiple set-valued parameters, e.g., $g(P', P'') \subseteq Q$ for $P', P'' \subseteq Q$. Assuming that $g$ is monotone in its first argument, the formulas $\mu P' . g(P', P'')$ and $\nu P' . g(P', P'')$ are well defined. Provided that $g$ is also monotone in its second argument, the respective fixpoints are monotone in $P'$. In this case, nested $\mu$-calculus formulae are well defined, e.g. $\nu P' . \mu P' . g(P', P'')$ evaluates to the greatest fixpoint of $\mu P' . g(P', P'')$, interpreted as an expression in terms of $P''$.

2. THE SUPERVISOR SYNTHESIS PROBLEM

Before defining the common supervisor synthesis problem formally in Sec. 2.2, we give an intuitive introduction to supervisory control via an illustrative example.

2.1 Illustrative Example

Consider a regular plant $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$, realized by the automaton $G_L = (P, \Sigma, \delta_L, p_0, P_m)$ with $L_m(G_L) = L$, depicted in Fig. 1 (top left). It models a process which can take a controllable (i.e., preventable) action $c$ (indicated by a tick on the respective arrow in Fig. 1) or an uncontrollable (i.e., un-preventable) action $a$ (indicated by normal transition arrows in Fig. 1) in every state, giving the alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, c\}$. States $p_3$, $p_4$ and $p_8$ are marked in $G_L$ (i.e., $L_m = \{p_3, p_4, p_8\}$) indicated by a double boundary line in Fig. 1. Given that $L$ is a $\omega$-language containing possibly arbitrary long but finite event sequences, marked states indicate that the process modeled by $G_L$ can (and eventually will) safely terminate its operation when in any of these marked states. In turn, this means that it can (and eventually will) not...
We show that there exists a two-nested fixed-point algorithm inspired by reactive synthesis which achieves this goal.

Fig. 1. Top: Automata representations $G_L$ of the plant language $L$ (top left) and $G_E$ of the specification language $E$ (top right, black) with its full extension $G'_E$ (top right, black and blue). Bottom: Product automaton $G = G_L \times G'_E$ used for synthesizing the supervisor $f$ (bottom left) and its restriction $G_{cl}$ to its winning states used to extract $f$. Marked states have a double boundary and event labels from $\Sigma = \{c, u\}$ are omitted. Uncontrollable transitions on $u$ are indicated by a tick on the arc; controllable transitions $c$ are indicated by a normal arc.

reside in any other state infinitely long. Given this interpretation of a plant model, the automaton $G_L$ should never be blocking. If it is, it means that the process can terminate its operation in an un-marked state, which should be made explicit by marking this terminal state. However, our developments in this paper do formally not require $G_L$ to be non-blocking.

Similarly, consider the regular specification $E$, realized by the automaton $G_E = (S, \Sigma, \delta E, s_0, S_E)$ with $L_0(G_E) = E$, depicted in Fig. 1 (top right, black/purple). Intuitively, this specification asks us to ensure that the plant at hand only terminates its operation in $s_4$, and to only continue operating (by returning to the initial state $s_0$), when in $s_1$. Whenever the plant reaches $s_4$, it should immediately terminate its operation.

To synthesize a supervisor enforcing this specification on the given plant, one typically constructs a particular product automaton by first completing $G_E$ to a full automaton $G'_E$ with generated language $L(G'_E) = \Sigma$ and accepted language $L_0(G'_E) = E$. This is done by adding a sink state (called $s_5$ in Fig. 1 (top right, blue)) and re-directing all non-enabled transitions in $G_E$ to this state (see Fig. 1 (top right, blue, dashed)). After this, the usual product automaton $G$ of $G_E$ and $G'_E$ is constructed, depicted in Fig. 1 (bottom left). For simplicity, we have renamed state pairs $(p_i, s_i)$ and $(p_i, s_{i+1})$ in the constructed product automaton to $q_i$.

The underlying plant dynamics modeled by $G_L$, we know that the plant will eventually transition to its markings when in an un-marked state. Given this intuition, the controller only has to ensure that the plant always remains in the co-reachable part of $G$ while respecting uncontrollable transitions. That is, the supervisor can never prevent the plant from taking an un-controllable (i.e., un-preventable) transition in $G$. By inspection, we see that states $q_0 - q_4$ and $q_7$ allow a restriction of enabled events s.t. the plant eventually transitions to (or already is in) $q_3$ and $q_4$. It is however not true for $q_6$, as the supervisor cannot disable uncontrollable events and therefore cannot prevent the plant to transition to $q_8$ from $q_6$, which renders any marked state in $G$ unreachable. Further, it should be noted that, once in $q_4$, the plant can transition to $q_5$ which also renders all marked states of $G$ unreachable. As this transition is uncontrollable, $q_4$ does not allow to properly control the plant, which is only true for states $q_0 - q_3$ and $q_7$, which we term “winning states” of $G$. When restricting $G$ to its winning state set, we obtain the automaton $G_{cl}$ depicted in Fig. 1 (bottom right, black/purple).

When applying standard supervisory controller synthesis algorithms (see e.g. (Cassandras and Lafortune, 2008, p.168)) to this example, we would additionally remove $q_7$ from $G_{cl}$, as this state is not reachable in the constructed sub-automaton. Intuitively, $G_{cl}$ realizes the closed-loop behavior of the plant, i.e., $L_0(G_{cl})$ contains all event sequences the plant produces when supervised in the sense discussed before.

Now let us assume that $p_2$ is also marked in $G_L$, while $s_2$ stays unmarked in $G_E$. Then, by the usual automaton product, $q_6$ will also stay unmarked both in $G$ and in $G_{cl}$. This, however, implies that the plant under supervision cannot (and will never) reside in $q_2$ forever and therefore no finite string ending in $q_2$ is part of $L_0(G_{cl})$. This, however, is counter intuitive given that $G_L$ models the uncontrolled plant behavior correctly, i.e., stating that the plant can (and eventually might) terminate its operation in $p_2$ (and therefore $q_2$). As the supervisor has no means to enforce enabled transitions, the constructed closed loop behavior will turn out incorrect.

This problem is typically circumvented by requiring that the specification language $E$ is closed w.r.t. $L$, that is, $E = \text{pf}(E) \cap L$. Loosely speaking, this requires that $G_E$’s marking respects $G_L$’s marking, i.e., for any pair $(p_i, s_i)$ in the product automaton either both states are marked or none (which is not fulfilled if $p_2$ is marked). In particular, relative closedness of $E$ implies $E \subseteq L$ and, thus, $L_0(G) = E$. I.e., the specification can remove a marking from $G_L$ by removing all traces ending in this state from the marked language (which is the case for $(p_4, s_0)$). Consistent with the original literature, we therefore restrict attention to relatively closed specification languages.

To conclude the example, let us assume that $p_3, s_0$ and therefore $q_9$ are the initial states of the respective automata in Fig. 1 (indicated by the dotted gray arrow pointing at them). Then one can verify that the synthesis problem at hand has no solution as $q_6$ does not allow to control the system as desired. Therefore, existing synthesis algorithms will immediately terminate with an empty closed-loop system $G_{cl}$ after investigating $q_6$. However, it is easy to see that a change in the initial state does not change the general reasoning about states $q_0 - q_4$ and $q_7$ allowing to suitably control the plant. If, for example, the transition from $q_6$ to $q_8$ is a rare event that only happens if the machine at hand needs to be maintained, we can assume that for all interesting operational modes the plant will transfer from $q_6$ to $q_7$. Then knowing that $q_7$ allows to control the plant as desired allows us to provide a controller in this case.

The remainder of this paper formalizes the computation of the set of states of $G$ that we have termed “winning state set”. We show that there exists a two-nested fixed-point algorithm inspired by reactive synthesis which achieves this goal.
2.2 Problem Statement

The supervisory synthesis problem, first stated by Ramadge and Wonham (1987), is defined by a plant language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ modeling the process to be controlled, and a specification language $E \subseteq \Sigma^*$ s.t. $E$ is relatively closed w.r.t. $L$, i.e., $E = \text{pfx}(E) \cap L$. The common alphabet $\Sigma$ of $L$ and $E$ is further partitioned in controllable and uncontrollable events, $\Sigma = \Sigma_c \cup \Sigma_u$. Given this partition, one defines the set of control patterns $\Gamma \subseteq \Sigma_c, \text{s.t.}$

$$\Gamma := \{ \gamma \subseteq \Sigma | \Sigma_u \subseteq \gamma \}. \quad (1)$$

Given a plant $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$, a supervisor is defined as a map $f: \text{pfx}(L) \rightarrow \Gamma$ that maps event sequences $s \in \text{pfx}(L)$ to a control pattern $f(s) \in \Gamma$, where the latter specifies the set of enabled successor events after the occurrence of $s$. A word $s \in \text{pfx}(L)$ is called consistent with $f$ if for all $\sigma \in \Sigma$ and $\tau \in \text{pfx}(s)$ holds that $\sigma \in f(t)$. We collect all words of $\text{pfx}(L)$ consistent with $f$ in the set $L(f(L), f)$ which is non-empty and closed.

With this, the supervisory controller synthesis problem can be stated as follows.

**Problem 1.** Given a plant $L$ and a relatively closed specification $\emptyset \neq E \subseteq L$, synthesize a supervisor $f: \text{pfx}(L) \rightarrow \Gamma$ s.t.

(i) the closed-loop respects the specification, i.e.,

$$L(f(L), f) \cap L \subseteq E \quad (2a)$$

(ii) and the plant and the supervisor are non-conflicting, i.e.,

$$L(\text{pfx}(L), f) = \text{pfx}(L(L(\text{pfx}(L), f)) \cap L) \quad (2b)$$

or determine, that no such supervisor exists.

As $\Sigma$ in (2b) always holds, the constraint is imposed by $\subseteq$ and ensures that the plant is always able to generate events allowed by $f$ s.t. it generates a word in its marked language $L$. Then, by requirement (2a), all such generated words must be contained in the upper bound specification $E$.

Except for the avoidance of an explicit reference to an automaton representation of $L$, Problem 1 is equivalent to the synthesis problem studied by Ramadge and Wonham (1987). From the given reference we recall that if a solution exists there also exists a maximally permissive one; i.e. a supervisor $f: \text{pfx}(L) \rightarrow \Gamma$ that solves Problem 1, such that $L(f(L), f') \subseteq L(f(L), f)$ for all other solutions $f'$: $\text{pfx}(L) \rightarrow \Gamma$. Although maximal permissiveness is not the main concern in our discussion, we will establish this property for supervisors obtained by our alternative synthesis procedure.

2.3 Automata Realizations for Synthesis

In the basic setting of supervisory control theory discussed by Ramadge and Wonham (1987), both $L$ and $E$ are assumed to be realizable by deterministic finite automata $G_L = (P, \Sigma, \delta_L, p_0, P_m)$ and $G_E = (Q, \Sigma, \delta_E, q_0, Q_m)$, respectively. Then one can apply the method discussed in Sec. 2.1 to first extend $G_E$ to the full automaton $G''_E$ and then construct the product automaton $G = G_L \times G''_E = (Q \times \Sigma, \delta, q_0, Q_m)$. As $E$ is assumed to be non-empty and relatively closed w.r.t. $L$, one obtains $\emptyset \neq E \subseteq L$ and, hence, $L(0_m) = L(0_m(G_L \times G''_E)) = L \cap E = E$ and $L(G) = L(G_L \times G''_E) = \text{pfx}(L) \cap \Sigma^* = \text{pfx}(L)$.

The automaton $G$ is typically used to compute the maximally permissive supervisor $f$ that solves Problem 1 via the algorithm, e.g., presented in Cassandras and Lafortune (2008). It is known that such an $f$ exists if and only if the standard construction returns a non-empty sub-automaton of $G$.

For our subsequent development of an algorithm to compute the set of winning states to derive $f$ instead, it will turn out convenient to memorize two sets of marked states in $G$, namely $F_L := P_m \times S \subseteq Q$ and $F_E := P \times S_m \subseteq Q$. We denote by $L_m(G, F_L)$ and $L_m(G, F_E)$ the language marked by $G$ when interpreting $F_L$ and $F_E$ as the set of marked states, respectively. It is easy to verify that $L_m(G, F_L) = L$ and $L_m(G, F_E) = E$. As $E$ is assumed to be relatively closed w.r.t. $L$ we further have $F_E \subseteq F_L$ and $F_E = Q_m$.

3. A GAME-THEORETIC PERSPECTIVE

3.1 Supervisory Control as a Two-Player Game

In view of reactive synthesis, we interpret the interaction of a supervisor and the plant as a two-player game played over $G$. Here, player 0 (the supervisor) picks a control pattern $\gamma \in \Gamma$ and player 1 (the plant) resolves the remaining non-determinism by choosing a transition allowed by $\gamma$. In this context, we define a player 0 strategy (or control strategy) as a function $h : q_{init}Q^0 \rightarrow \Gamma$; it is memoryless if $h(q_0) = h(q)$ for all $q \in Q$ and all $q \in Q$. A strategy for player 1 (or plant strategy) is defined as a function $g : q_{init}Q^1 \rightarrow \Sigma \text{s.t.} g(\gamma q) \in \gamma \text{for all } q \in q_{init}Q^1$. The sequence $\pi = q_{init}0q_1\cdots q_k$ is called a play over $G$ if $q_0 = q_{init}$ and for all $i \in \{1; k\}$ it holds that $q_i = \delta(q_{i-1}, \pi_i) \pi$. $\pi$ is consistent with a control strategy $h$ if it additionally holds that $\sigma \in h(q_0 \cdots q_{i-1})$. We denote by $P(G)$ and $P(h, G)$ the set of all plays over $G$ and the set of plays consistent with $h$, respectively. Further, we denote by $L(G, h)$ the set of all strings $s = \sigma_0 \cdots \sigma_k$ s.t. there exists $\pi = q_{init}0\sigma_1q_1\cdots q_k \in P(G, h)$.

Since $G$ is deterministic, a sequence $s \in L(G) = \text{pfx}(L)$ corresponds to exactly one run $v \in q_{init}Q^0$ of $G$. Consequently, given any control strategy $h : q_{init}Q^0 \rightarrow \Gamma$ we can always define the supervisor $f := h \circ s$ with the one-on-one map $s : \text{pfx}(L) \rightarrow q_{init}Q^0 \text{s.t. } L(G, h) = L(\text{pfx}(L), f)$.

On the other hand, given a supervisor $f : \text{pfx}(L) \rightarrow \Gamma$ which solves Problem 1, it follows from Ramadge and Wonham (1987) that there also exists a maximally permissive one $f' : \text{pfx}(L) \rightarrow \Gamma$; see Sec. 2.2 above. The latter supervisor $f'$ has the property that for any two strings $s, s' \in \text{pfx}(L)$ leading to the same state in $G$, i.e. $\delta(q_{init}, s) = \delta(q_{init}, s')$, the control decisions coincide, i.e., we have that $f'(s) = f'(s')$. Consequently, we can always define the strategy $h : f' \circ s^{-1} \text{s.t. } L(G, h) = L(\text{pfx}(L), f')$.

With this correspondence of a supervisor $f : \text{pfx}(L) \rightarrow \Gamma$ and a control strategy $h : q_{init}Q^0 \rightarrow \Gamma$, Problem 1 can be equivalently stated as the following control strategy synthesis problem over a two-player game.

**Problem 2.** Given an automaton $G$ and two sets of marked states $F_L, F_E \subseteq Q \text{s.t. } F_E \subseteq F_L$, synthesize a control strategy $h : q_{init}Q^0 \rightarrow \Gamma \text{s.t.}$

$$L(G, h) \cap L_m(G, F_L) \subseteq L_m(G, F_E), \text{ and }$$

$$L(G, h) = \text{pfx}(L(G, h)) \cap L_m(G, F_{L}), \quad \text{or}$$

determine, that no such strategy exists.

Intuitively, such a control strategy enforces that if a marked state is attained by the plant, it must be a state marked by the specification, Eq. (3a), and it is always possible for the plant to
organize its moves s.t. it will eventually reach one of its marked states, Eq. (3b), and thereby generating a word in $E$.

### 3.2 Appropriate Winning Conditions for Supervision

Given the two player game outlined above, reactive synthesis is typically concerned with synthesizing $h$ s.t. all traces in $L(G,h)$ fulfill a given winning condition $\varphi$. In the context of regular $\ast$-languages, winning conditions can be interpreted as another regular language $M_\varphi \subseteq \Sigma^\ast$. This would amount to synthesizing $h$ s.t. $L(G,h) \subseteq M_\varphi$. However, if we look back at Problem 2, the requirements stated in (3) are of a slightly different form. We therefore cannot use an existing game-solving algorithm “of-the-shelf”. Below we outline, how we can still derive a fixed-point algorithm to compute a control strategy solving Problem 2.

#### A Reachability Game

An obvious first attempt to solve the proposed supervisor synthesis problem via the outlined two-player game is to define $M_{eq} := L_m(G,F_E) = E$. This requires that states marked by $F_E$ must eventually be reached by all traces over $G$ consistent with $h$. This defines a reachability game over $G$. It is well known, see e.g., Baier and Katoen (2008), that all states from which the controller can enforce that $F_E$ is eventually reached, can be computed by the fixed-point

$$\mu X . \text{Pre}_{0}(X) \cup F_E,$$

where $X \subseteq Q$. Here, $\text{Pre}_{0}$ defines the controllable predecessor operator which returns all states from which player 0 can provide a control pattern $\sigma$ which ensures that, no matter which $\sigma' \in \gamma$ the plant chooses, it will always end up in the states $X \subseteq Q$. As $\Sigma_m \subseteq \gamma$ by definition, the operator $\text{Pre}_{0}$ is defined for the particular two-player game under consideration by

$$\text{Pre}_{0}(X) := \{ q \in Q | \delta(q,\Sigma) \cap X \neq \emptyset \land \delta(q,\Sigma_m) \subseteq X \}.$$  

As an example for its application, consider the automaton $G$ depicted in Fig. 1 (bottom left) and consider $X = Q_m = F_E$. Now one can verify that $q_1 \notin \text{Pre}_{0}(Q_m)$ as there exists an uncontrollable transition from $q_1$ to $q_2$ which does not lead to $Q_m$. A similar reasoning shows that also $q_3 \notin \text{Pre}_{0}(Q_m)$. Intuitively, the controller cannot enforce the plant to make progress towards its marked states when in $q_1$ or $q_3$. Because of this, the reachability fixed-point, Eq. (4), terminates with only $q_1$ and $q_3$ as winning states. This, however, is not the set we are looking for (as indicated by $G_{cl}$ in Fig. 1 (bottom right)).

#### A Cooperative Reachability Game

In the context of the proposed supervisor synthesis problem, Problem 2, we know that the plant, if allowed to do so, will eventually transition to its markings by itself, without the supervisor enforcing this. Hence, we know that there exists no trace of $G_{cl}$ consistent with $h$ which will loop between $q_1$ and $q_2$ or in $q_7$ forever. This is the reason why (3a) in Problem 2 requires the weaker inclusion $L(G,h) \cap L(G,F_E) \subseteq L_m(G,F_E)$ instead of $L(G,h) \subseteq L_m(G,F_E)$. However, to exclude trivial solutions to this requirement, i.e., the supervisor always blocking the plant before reaching any marking, resulting in $L(G,h) = \{ e \}$ and thereby trivially satisfying (3a), Problem 2 additionally imposes the non-conflictingness requirement, Eq. (3b). That is, in any instance of the play the plant must be able to play such that it will eventually attain some marked state.

It was shown by Majumdar et al. (2019), that for strategy synthesis w.r.t. a particular fragment of linear temporal logic (LTL) specifications, namely GR(1) specifications (Bloem et al., 2012), the non-conflictingness requirement, Eq. (3b), can be incorporated by substituting the player-0 controllable predecessor $\text{Pre}_{0}$ in the original fixed-point algorithm by a cooperative one. Transferring this idea to reachability games with the particular SCT inspired interpretation of player 0, we obtain the cooperative reachability fixed-point

$$vY \cdot \mu X . \text{CondPre}(X,Y) \cup F_E$$

where

$$\text{CondPre}(X,Y) := \{ q \in Q | \delta(q,\Sigma) \cap X \neq \emptyset \land \delta(q,\Sigma_m) \subseteq X \cup Y \}.$$  

Let us now apply (6) to the automaton $G$ in Fig. 1 (bottom left). First, one should note that the outer fixed-point over $Y$ is initialized by the full state set $Q$, while the inner fixed-point over $X$ is initialized by the empty state set. Let us now fix $Y^0 = Q$ and consider the step-by-step evolution of the inner fixed-point. We have $X^0 = \emptyset$ and $X^1 = F_E = \{ q_1, q_4 \}$. Now we see that $q_1$ will indeed be added to the set of winning states in the second iteration, that is $q_1 \in \text{CondPre}(F_E, Q)$. One can therefore verify that the inner fixed-point terminates with $Y^{\infty} = Q \setminus \{ q_5, q_8 \}$, as $q_5$ and $q_8$ are the only states that do not have a path to $Q_m = F_E$. With this, we update $Y$ to $Y^1 := Q \setminus \{ q_5, q_8 \}$ and re-start the inner fixed-point computation. As $q_5 \in Y^1$, this iteration now also removes $p_6$ from the winning state set. Updating $Y$ again to $Y^2 := Q \setminus \{ q_5, q_6, q_8 \}$ finally also removes $q_6$ and the fixed-point algorithm terminates with $Y^{\infty} = \{ q_0, \ldots, q_4, q_7 \}$.

Interestingly, we have $q_4 \in Y^{\infty}$, i.e., the fixed-point in (6) determines $q_4$ to be winning. This is not surprising, as (6) computes the set of states which allow the plant and the controller to cooperate s.t. a marked state will be reached “at least once”. Thereby the algorithm does not care about the behavior of the closed loop after this happened. As control patterns $\Gamma$ are defined such that they always enable all uncontrollable transitions, the closed loop behavior will however still allow the plant to move to $q_5$ and by this cause a live-lock of the controlled system which is obviously unintended. Hence, (3a) will be violated.

#### A Cooperative Büchi-Type Game

To circumvent the above problem with the cooperative reachability game, we need to make sure that whenever the plant is able to leave an attained marking, a marking must be re-reachable. This type of game, where marked states need to be reached, are called Büchi games. It is well known, see e.g., Baier and Katoen, 2008, that the fixed-point algorithm for solving Büchi games is given by

$$vY \cdot \mu X . \text{Pre}_{0}(X) \cup \text{Pre}_{0}(Y) \cap F_E.$$  

Following Majumdar et al. (2019), its cooperative version is given by substituting the inner-most controllable predecessor by the cooperative one, leading to

$$vY \cdot \mu X . \text{CondPre}(X,Y) \cup \text{Pre}_{0}(Y) \cap F_E.$$  

Intuitively, the additional controllable pre-operator $\text{Pre}_{0}(Y)$ conjoined with $F_E$ ensures that in states $q \in F_E$ the supervisor can enforce the plant to continue operating in a manner that allows to re-reach a marked state.

Unfortunately, this requirement turns out too strong in the context of Problem 2. To see this, let us consider a slightly modified version of $G$ in Fig. 1 where the only outgoing transition of $q_3$ is the controllable one reaching $q_4$, i.e., $q_3$ cannot transition via the uncontrollable transition indicated in Fig. 1. Now one can verify that for the first iteration of the inner fixed-point of (8) with $Y^0 = Q$, we again obtain $X^{\infty} = Q \setminus \{ q_5, q_8 \}$ and
therefore update $Y$ to $Y_1 = Q \setminus \{q_5, q_8\}$. Now one can verify that $q_4 \not\preceq 0(Y_1)$. With this, we further have $q_1 \not\preceq 0(Y)$ (as we assume the transition to $q_1$ to be non-existent). Hence, the fixed-point removes $q_1$ and terminates with $Y^* = \emptyset$.

In the context of SCT w.r.t. $\rightarrow$-languages, however, there is no need to remove $q_1$ from the set of winning states. For correctness we only need to make sure that uncontrollable transitions starting in marked states only reach states that allow to re-reach a marked one but we do not need to enforce progress of marked states. We obtain this, by weakening the controllable predecessor operator $\prec_0(Y)$ into the universal predecessor operator $\prec_0(Y)$, defined by
\[
\prec_0(Y) := \{q \in Q | \exists \delta(q, \Sigma) \subseteq X \}.
\] (10)

With this substitution, we obtain the fixed-point
\[
\nu Y . \mu X . \text{CondPre}(X, Y) \cup (\prec_0(Y) \cap F_E).
\] (11)

While we will show shortly that this is indeed the right fixed-point to compute a maximally permissive supervisor solving Problem 2, we first slightly simplify (11). For this, we define the existential predecessor operator
\[
\prec_2(X) := \{q \in Q | \exists \delta(q, \Sigma) \cap X \neq \emptyset \}.
\] (12)

Now, it follows from the monotonicity of the fixed-point in (11) that we always have $X \subseteq Y$ for any iteration of (11). With this, one can verify that $\text{CondPre}(X, Y) = \prec_2(X) \cap \prec_0(Y)$. Using this substitution and applying common de-Morgan laws, we obtain the simplified fixed-point
\[
W := \nu Y . \mu X . (\prec_2(X) \cup F_E) \cap \prec_0(Y).
\] (13)

In the remainder of this section we show that (13) indeed computes the desired set of winning states, and thereby, allows us to extract the desired maximally permissive supervisor if and only if $\text{qwin} \in W$, hence solving Problem 2.

### 3.3 Correctness of Strategy Synthesis

First, consider the set $W \subseteq Q$ computed via (13) and observe that for
\[
h(q) := \begin{cases} \Sigma \cup \{\sigma \in \Sigma | \delta(q, \sigma) \in W\}, & q \in W \\ \Sigma, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
\] (14)

it holds that $h(q) \subseteq \Sigma_w$. Therefore, $h$ is obviously a memoryless control strategy over $G$.

Indeed, we can show that from any state $q \in W$ the strategy $h$ enforces that the plant will evolve s.t. (3) holds. This establishes soundness of (13) as summarized in the following lemma and proven in the appendix.

**Lemma 3.** Given $G$ as in Problem 2, $W \subseteq Q$ computed via (13) and $h : Q \rightarrow \Gamma$ as in (14), it holds for all $q \in W$ that
\[
\text{L}_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{init}}(G, F_E) \subseteq L_{\text{init}}(G, F_E), \quad \text{(15a)}
\]
\[
\text{L}_q(G, h) = \text{pfx}(\text{L}_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{init}}(G, F_E)). \quad \text{(15b)}
\]

This shows that we can extract a memoryless control strategy from $W$ to solve Problem 2 if $\text{qwin} \in W$, as for $q = \text{qwin}$ equation (15) coincides with (3). To fulfill the second requirement of Problem 2, i.e., to surely determine that no controller exists, we

\[1\] Given a state $q \in Q$ we denote by $\text{L}_q(G, \cdot)$ and $L_{\text{init}}(G, \cdot)$ the respective language obtained when interpreting $q$ as the initial state of $G$. also need to prove completeness of (13). That is, we show that for all $q \in Q \setminus W$ there exists no control strategy $h : q \rightarrow Q \rightarrow \Gamma$ s.t. (3) holds. This is formalized in the following lemma and proven in the appendix.

**Lemma 4.** Given $G$ as in Problem 2 and $W \subseteq Q$ computed via (13), it holds for all $q \in \overline{W} = Q \setminus W$ and any $h : q \rightarrow Q \rightarrow \Gamma$

that either
\[
\text{L}_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{init}}(G, F_E) \not\subseteq L_{\text{init}}(G, F_E), \quad \text{or} \quad \text{(16a)}
\]
\[
\text{L}_q(G, h) \not\subseteq \text{pfx}(\text{L}_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{init}}(G, F_E)). \quad \text{(16b)}
\]

With this, it immediately follows that there exists a control strategy $s.t. (3)$ holds, if and only if $\text{qwin} \in W$. As it turns out, the strategy $h$ defined in (14) is maximally permissive in the following sense:

**Proposition 5.** Given the premises of Lem. 3 s.t. $\text{qwin} \in W$, the memoryless strategy $h$ defined in (14) is maximally permissive w.r.t. (3), that is, for all $h' : q \rightarrow Q \rightarrow \Gamma$ s.t. (3) holds, we have that $L(G, h') \subseteq L(G, h)$.

**Proof.** Pick $h'$ s.t. (3) holds and assume, for the purpose of a contradiction, that there exists $s = s_0 \ldots s_k \in L(G, h')$ s.t. $s \notin L(G, h)$. Let $\pi = s(s) = q = q_1 \ldots q_k \in P(G, h')$ and observe that $\pi \notin P(G, h)$. This implies that there exists $i \in [0:k]$ s.t. $\sigma_i \in h'(q_1 \ldots q_i)$ but $\sigma_i \notin h(q_i)$. Now recall from (14) that this implies that $\delta(q_i, \sigma_i) \notin W$ (as otherwise $\sigma_i \in h(q_i)$). With this we have $q_{k+1} \in \overline{W}$. With this, it follows from Lem. 4 that there exists no $h' : q \rightarrow Q \rightarrow \Gamma$ s.t. (3) holds. This immediately implies that (3) cannot hold for $h'$ which concludes the contradiction.

This concludes our evaluation. Recalling the equivalence of Problem 1 and Problem 2 from Sec. 3.1 and combining this with Lem. 3, Lem. 4 and Prop. 5, we have the following corollary to summarize the developments in this paper.

**Corollary 6.** Given a plant $L$ and a relatively closed specification $\emptyset \neq E \subseteq L$, let $G = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, \text{qwin}, \text{Qwin})$ be an automaton with two sets of marked states $F_E \subseteq F_L \subseteq Q$ s.t. $L_{\text{init}}(G, F_L) = L$, $L_{\text{init}}(G, F_E) = E$, and $L(G) = \text{pfx}(L)$. Further, let $W \subseteq Q$ be computed via (13) and $h : Q \rightarrow \Gamma$ as in (14). If and only if $\text{qwin} \in W$, there exists a supervisor $f : \text{pfx}(L) \rightarrow \Gamma$ s.t. (2) holds. In particular, if $\text{qwin} \in W$ the supervisor $f : h \circ s$ fulfills (2) and is maximally permissive.

### 4. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have revisited the common problem of supervisory control, Problem 1, as originally proposed by Ramadge and Wonham (1987). We have transformed this problem to a strategy synthesis problem over a two-player game, Problem 2, as it is common in the field of reactive synthesis, and we provide an algorithmic solution via the fixpoint (13). As our main result, summarized in Cor. 6, the closed-loop behaviour achieved by our supervisor is maximally permissive and, hence, in this regard matches the literature (Ramadge and Wonham, 1987; Wonham and Ramadge, 1987). This is an interesting observation, as not only the perspectives taken but also the subsequent technical development differs significantly. To this end, our result contributes to the ongoing discussion on the relationship between reactive synthesis and supervisory control; e.g., Ehlers et al. (2017); Schmuck et al. (2020).

Despite the match in the resulting closed-loop behaviour, the supervisors synthesised by our approach are not identical to
those obtained by the established procedures. For this observation, consider a string outside the prefix of the supremal closed-loop behaviour. In the classical setting, the supervisor may map this string to any control pattern, trusting in the fact that such a string will not occur in the closed loop. Hence, if for whatever reason the actual plant deviates from the design model the supervisor makes no attempt to faithfully operate the plant. In this regard, the supervisors synthesised by our approach perform better in that they apply a well chosen control pattern as long as the design model is within a winning state. If, after a deviation from the nominal behaviour by chance a winning state is again attained, the supervisor will “catch on” to win its play. We envisage this to be of practical relevance in the context of fault-tolerant control, control re-configuration and re-initialisation after break down.

Appendix A. PROOFS

Proof. [of Lem. 3] First, let us consider one entire run of the inner $\mu$-iteration of (13) at a stage where the outer iteration has attained its fixpoint $X^\omega = W$. I.e., we consider the monotone sequence $(X_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ generated by

$$X_0 := \emptyset, \quad X_{j+1} := X_j \cup \left( (\text{Pre}_3(X_j) \cup F_E) \cap \text{Pre}_2(W) \right). \quad (A.1)$$

In particular, we have that $W = X^\omega = X^\omega = \cup \{ X_i | i \in \mathbb{N}_0 \}$ and $W \subseteq \text{Pre}_2(W)$. With this, one can verify that

$$\forall q \in W, \sigma \in h(\sigma), \delta(q, \sigma) \Rightarrow \delta(q, \sigma) \in W. \quad (A.2)$$

For $\sigma \in S_q$ the claim in (A.2) follows directly from the definition of $h$, (14). For $\sigma \in S_q$, the claim in (A.2) follows from the fact that $W \subseteq \text{Pre}_2(W)$ and the definition of $\text{Pre}_2(W)$, (Eq. 10), implies that $\delta(q, \sigma) \in W$ for all enabled uncontrollable transitions.

Now let us introduce the following ranking of states $q \in W$:

$$\text{rank}(q) := i \in \mathbb{N}_0 \text{ if } q \in X_i \setminus X_{i+1}. \quad (A.3)$$

Note that $\text{rank}(q) \geq 1$ for all $q \in W$ and $\text{rank}(q) = 0$ iff $q \in F_E \cap W$ since $X_0 = \emptyset$ and $\text{Pre}_2(\emptyset) = \emptyset$. With this, we show that

$$\forall q \in W, L_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{mc}}(G, F_E) = \emptyset. \quad (A.4)$$

We show this claim by constructing a play $\pi = \pi_0 \sigma_1 \pi_1 \sigma_1 \ldots \pi_k \in P_q(G, h)$ with $\pi_0 = q$ generating the string $\nu = \sigma_0 \sigma_1 \ldots \sigma_{k-1} \in L_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{mc}}(G, F_E)$. As $\sigma_0 = q \in W$ we know $\text{rank}(\sigma_0) = i$ is defined. If $i = 1$ we know $\sigma_0 \in F_E$ and therefore $\sigma \in L_q(G, h)$ and $\sigma \in L_{\text{mc}}(G, F_E)$.

Now assume $i > 1$. Then $\sigma_0 \in X_i$ and we know from the definition of $\text{Pre}_3$, Eq. (12), and the definition of $h$, (Eq. 14), that there exists $\sigma_0 \in h(\sigma_0) \text{ s.t. } \sigma_0 = \delta(q, \sigma_0) \in X_i$. By iteratively applying this argument we reach a state $\sigma_0 \in F_E$. As the constructed sequence is compliant with $h$ and a run on $G$ ending in $F_E$, we have $\nu \in L_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{mc}}(G, F_E)$.

As $F_E \subseteq F_L$ one can verify that (A.4) directly implies (3b). First, recall that $\subseteq$ always holds and we are left with showing $\subseteq$. For this, we pick a play $\pi = \pi_0 \sigma_0 \sigma_1 \ldots \pi_k \in P_q(G, h)$ with $\sigma_0 = q \in W$ generating the string $\nu = \sigma_0 \sigma_1 \ldots \sigma_{k-1} \in L_q(G, h)$. Then we know from inductively applying (A.2), that $\sigma_0 \in W$. Therefore we can use (A.4) to pick a sequence $\beta$ s.t. $\beta \in L_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{mc}}(G, F_E)$. As $F_E \subseteq F_L$, and therefore $L_{\text{mc}}(G, F_E) \subseteq L_{\text{mc}}(G, F)$. We show this by noting that $\nu \in \text{pfx}(L_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{mc}}(G, F))$.

Now it remains to show that (3a) also holds. Towards this goal, we first show that

$$q \in W \cap F_L \Rightarrow q \in F_E. \quad (A.5)$$

As $F_E \subseteq F_L$, the claim immediately holds if $q \in W \cap F_E$. For the sake of a contradiction, let us assume that there exists a state $q \in W \cap F_L \setminus F_E$. As $E$ is relatively closed w.r.t. $L$ we know that there exists some $p \in P$ (of $G_L$) s.t. $q = (p, s_1)$. Further, we have that $\delta'_1(s_1, \Sigma^*) = s_2$ and $s_2 \notin S_{\text{mc}}(G')$. As $G = G_L \times G_E$, this implies $L_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{mc}}(G, F_E) = \emptyset$. Using (A.4) this implies $q \notin W$, which concludes the contradiction.

Given (A.5), one can verify that (3a) holds. For this, pick any $\pi = \pi_0 \sigma_0 \pi_1 \ldots \pi_k \in P_q(G, h)$ where $\pi_0 = q \in W$ s.t. $\nu = \sigma_0 \sigma_1 \ldots \sigma_{k-1} \in L_q(G, h) \cap L_{\text{mc}}(G, F_L)$. Then we know from inductively applying (A.2), that $\sigma_0 \in W \cap F_L$, and therefore from (A.5) that $\sigma_0 \in F_E$. Hence, $\nu \in L_{\text{mc}}(G, F_E)$.

Proof. [of Lem. 4] We first negate the fixed-point in (13) to formally characterize the set of states $W = Q \setminus W$. Using the negation rule of the $\mu$-calculus, i.e., $\neg(\mu X \cdot F(X)) = \nu X \cdot \neg F(\neg X)$, and common de-Morgan laws, we obtain

$$W = \mu Y \cdot \nu X \cdot \left( (\mu X \cap \text{Pre}_3(Y)) \cup \text{Pre}_4(Y) \right) \quad (A.6)$$

with

$$\text{Pre}_3(Y) = \{ q \in Q \mid h(q, \Sigma) \subseteq X \} \quad (A.7)$$

$$\text{Pre}_4(Y) = \{ q \in Q \mid h(q, \Sigma_{\text{mc}}) \cap Y = \emptyset \} \quad (A.8)$$

First, let us consider the last run over the outer $\mu$-iteration before termination. In this case we have $Y_0 = \emptyset$ and denote by $Y_i$ for $i > 0$ the set obtained from the $i$-th iteration of the outer fixed-point. For $i \geq 1$ we have $X^\omega_i = \emptyset$ as the value of the inner fixed-point over $X$ that computes the $i$-th iteration of $Y$. Then we obtain the monotone sequence $(Y_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ which satisfies

$$Y_0 := \emptyset, \quad Y_i = Y_1 \cup \left( \left( Q \cap F_E \cap \text{Pre}_3(Y_i) \cup \text{Pre}_4(Y) \right) \right) \quad (A.9)$$

In particular, we have that $W = X^\omega = X^\omega = \cup \{ X_i | i \in \mathbb{N}_0 \}$. Now let us introduce the following ranking of states $q \in W$:

$$\text{rank}(q) := i \in \mathbb{N}_0 \text{ if } q \in Y_i \setminus Y_{i-1}. \quad (A.10)$$

Note that $\text{rank}(q) \geq 1$ for all $q \in W$ since $Y_0 = \emptyset$. With this, we can verify that for any state $q \in W$ with $\text{rank}(q) = i$ we have that either (a) $q \notin F_E$ and $q' = \delta(q, \sigma) \in Y_i$, i.e., $\text{rank}(q') \leq i$ for all $q$ enabled in $q$, or (b) there exists $\sigma \in S_q$, which is enabled in $q$ and $q' = \delta(q, \sigma) \in Y_i$, i.e., $\text{rank}(q') \leq i - 1$.

Now consider a state $q \in W$ and any control strategy $h : \text{init}(Q)^* \rightarrow \Gamma$. Let us first assume that there exists no $\sigma \in S_q$ s.t. $(q, \sigma)!$. This implies that case (a) holds for $q$, i.e., $q \notin F_E$. Now we can either have $q \in F_L$ in which case (16a) is true, or $q \notin F_L$, in which case (16b) is true, as no outgoing transitions of $q$ implies that no state $q' \notin F_L$ is reachable from $q$, i.e., if $q$ has no enabled transitions, (16) holds.

Now let us assume that there exists an enabled uncontrollable transition $\sigma \in S_q$ in $q$ s.t. $(q, \sigma)!$. If in addition (a) holds, then this transition can always be taken by the plant no matter which control pattern $\gamma$ the strategy $h$ chooses for $q$ and will always result in a state $q' \in W$ with equal or reduced rank. I.e., if $\text{rank}(q) = i$ then $\text{rank}(q') \leq i$. On the other hand, if in addition (b) holds, then we know that there exists a possibly different $\sigma' \in S_q$, which is always enabled no matter which control pattern $\gamma$ chooses for $q$ and allows the plant to transition to a state $q' \in W$ while reducing the rank.

Now let us assume that there exists no enabled uncontrollable transition $\sigma \in S_q$ in $q$ s.t. $(q, \sigma)!$. This implies that (a) must hold. Then we know that all enabled controllable transitions $\sigma'$
lead to a state \( q' \in \overline{W} \) with equal or reduced rank. Now we have two cases. If at least one such \( q' \) is contained in \( W \), we know that the plant can take this transition to \( q' \in \overline{W} \) while not increasing the rank. If this is not the case, we observe from (a) that \( q \notin F_E \). It then follows from the same reasoning as in the blocking scenario above that (16b) is true.

The above reasoning shows that either we encounter a blocking situation (due to disabled events, or due to a control strategy \( h \) disabling all enabled controllable events) and thereby verify that (16) holds, or any control strategy \( h \) allows the plant to proceed to a state in \( \overline{W} \) while never increasing the rank. To show that (16) also holds in the second case, let us iteratively construct a tree \( T \) rooted in \( q \) which collects all traces over \( G \) generated by the plant which ensure it is staying in \( \overline{W} \). Further, let us label each node of \( T \) by either (a) or (b), depending on which case applies, and observe that for all nodes \( q' \) of the tree we have \( q' \in \overline{W} \). Further, we label a node by (\( \perp \)) if it is blocking due to one of the two previously discussed scenarios.

First, let us assume that there exists a node \( q'' \in T \) with label (\( \perp \)) which is reached from \( q \) with trace \( \beta = q_0 \ldots q'' \) generating the event sequence \( \beta' \in \text{L}_q(G,h) \). As \( q'' \in \overline{W} \) we can apply the same reasoning as above to determine that (16) holds. Now, consider the case that there exists no node \( q'' \in T \) with label (\( \perp \)) which is reachable from \( q \), implying that \( T \) is an infinite tree. Now assume by contradiction that case (b) occurs infinitely often in \( T \). By König’s lemma, it follows that there is a path \( \pi \) in \( T \) along which (b) occurs infinitely often. However, whenever (b) occurs, the rank of the node decreases. Further, the occurrence of (a) can never increase the rank. As the rank is finite, this shows that (b) can only happen finitely often along each trace of \( T \). This reasoning implies that along every branch of \( T \) (enumerated by \( k \in \mathbb{N} \)) there exists a finite prefix \( s_k \in \text{pfx} (\text{L}_q(G,h)) \) leading to a state \( q_k \) at which a subtree \( T'_k \) is rooted in which only case (a) occurs. As case (a) renders \( \overline{W} \) closed under any enabled transition, we know that no state \( F_E \) is ever reachable along these traces (as nodes for which case (a) applies are by definition not in \( F_E \)). This implies that \( s_k \notin \text{pfx} (\text{L}_q(G,F_E)) \), which shows that (16b) is true.

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