

Efficient Reactive Synthesis Using Mode Decomposition*

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Abstract. Developing critical components, such as mission controllers or embedded systems, is a challenging task. Reactive synthesis is a technique to automatically produce correct controllers. Given a high-level specification written in LTL, reactive synthesis consists of computing a system that satisfies the specification as long as the environment respects the assumptions. Unfortunately, LTL synthesis suffers from high computational complexity which precludes its use for many large cases. A promising approach to improve synthesis scalability consists of decomposing a safety specification into a smaller specifications, that can be processed independently and composed into a solution for the original specification. Previous decomposition methods focus on identifying independent parts of the specification whose systems are combined via simultaneous execution.

In this work, we propose a novel decomposition algorithm based on *modes*, which consists on decomposing a complex safety specification into smaller problems whose solution is then composed *sequentially* (instead of simultaneously). The input to our algorithm is the original specification and the description of the modes. We show how to generate sub-specifications automatically and we prove that if all sub-problems are realizable then the full specification is realizable. Moreover, we show how to construct a system for the original specification from sub-systems for the decomposed specifications. We finally illustrate the feasibility of our approach with multiple cases studies using off-the-self synthesis tools to process the obtained sub-problems.

1 Introduction

Reactive synthesis [11] is the problem of constructing a reactive system automatically from a high-level description of its desired behavior. A reactive system interacts continuously with an uncontrollable external environment [12]. The specification describes both the assumptions that the environment is supposed

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to follow and the goal that the system must satisfy. Reactive synthesis guarantees that every execution of the system synthesized satisfies the specification as long as the environment respects the assumptions.

Linear-Time Temporal Logic (LTL) [47] is a widely used formalism in verification [44] and synthesis [48] of reactive systems. Reactive synthesis can produce controllers which are essential for various applications, including hardware design [6] and control of autonomous robotic systems [36,17].

Many reactive synthesis tools have been developed in recent years [25,19] in spite of the high complexity of the synthesis problem. Reactive synthesis for full LTL is 2EXPTIME-complete [48], so LTL fragments with better complexity have been identified. For example, GR(1)—general reactivity with rank 1—enjoys an efficient (polynomial) symbolic synthesis algorithm [6]. Even though GR(1) can express the safety fragment of LTL considered in this paper, translating our specifications into GR(1) involves at least an exponential blow-up in the worst case [32]. Better scalable algorithms for reactive synthesis are still required [38].

Model checking, which consists on deciding whether a *given system* satisfies the specification, is an easier problem than synthesis. Compositional approaches to model checking break down the analysis into smaller sub-tasks, which significantly improve the performance. Similarly, in this paper we aim to improve the scalability of reactive synthesis introducing a novel decomposition approach that breaks down the original specification into multiple sub-specifications.

There are theoretical compositional approaches [21,39], and implementations that handle large conjunctions [4,13,46]. For instance, Lisa [4] has successfully scaled synthesis to significant conjunctions of LTL formulas over finite traces (a.k.a. LTL_f [14]). Lisa is further extended to handling prominent disjunctions in Lydia [13]. These modular synthesis approaches rely heavily on the decomposition of the specification into simultaneous sub-specifications [24]. However, when sub-specifications share multiple variables, these approaches typically return the exact original specification, failing to generate smaller decompositions.

We tackle this difficulty by introducing a novel decomposition algorithm for safety LTL specifications. We chose the safety fragment of LTL [52,40] because it is a fundamental requirement language in many safety-critical applications. Extending our approach to larger temporal fragments of LTL is future work.

To break down a specification we use the concept of *mode*. A mode is a subset of the states in which the system can be during its execution which is of particular relevance for the designer of the system. At any given point in the execution, the system is in a single mode, and during an execution the system can transition between modes. In requirement design, the intention of modes is often explicitly expressed by the requirement engineers as a *high-level state machine*. Using LTL reactive synthesis these modes are boiled down into additional LTL requirements, which are then processed with the rest of the specification. In this paper, we propose to exploit modes to decompose the specification into multiple synthesis sub-problems.

Most previous decomposition methods [33,24] break specifications into independent *simultaneous* sub-specifications whose corresponding games are solved

independently and the system strategies composed easily. In contrast, we propose *sequential* games, one for each mode. For each mode decomposition, we restrict the conditions under which each mode can “jump” into another mode based on the initial conditions of the arriving mode. From the point of local analysis of the game that corresponds to a mode, jumping into another mode is permanently winning. We show in this paper that our decomposition approach is sound—meaning that given a specification, system modes and initial conditions—if all the sub-specifications generated are realizable, then the original specification is realizable. Moreover, we show a synthesis method that efficiently constructs a system for the full specification from systems synthesized for the sub-specifications. An additional advantage of our method is that the automaton that encodes the solution is structured according to the modes proposed, so it is simpler to understand by the user.

Related Work. The problem of reactive synthesis from temporal logic specifications has been studied for many years [20,48,2,6]. Given its high complexity (2EXPTIME-complete [48]) easier fragments of LTL have been studied. For example, reactive synthesis for GR(1) specifications can be solved in polynomial time [6]. Safety-LTL has attracted significant interest due to its algorithmic simplicity compared to general LTL synthesis [53], but the construction of deterministic safety automaton presents a performance bottleneck for large formulas.

For the model-checking problem, compositional approaches improve the scalability significantly [50], even for large formulas. Remarkably, these approaches break down the analysis into smaller sub-tasks [48]. For model-checking, Dureja and Rozier [18] propose to analyze dependencies between properties to reduce the number of model-checking tasks. Recently, Finkbeiner et al. [24] adapt this idea to synthesis, where the dependency analysis is based on controllable variables, which makes the decomposition impossible when the requirements that form the specification share many system (controlled) variables. We propose an alternative approach for dependency analysis in the context of system specification, by leveraging the concept of *mode* to break down a specification into smaller components. This approach is a common practice in Requirements Engineering (*RE*) [28,27] where specifications typically contain a high-level state machine description (where states are called modes) and most requirements are specific to each mode. Furthermore, this approach finds widespread application in various industries, employing languages such as *EARS* [45] and *NASA’s FRET* language [26]. Recently, a notion of *context* is introduced by Mallozi et al [43] in their recent work on *assume-guarantee* contracts. Unlike modes, contexts depend solely on the environment and are not part of the elicitation process or the system specification.

Software Cost Reduction (SCR) [31,28,27] is a well-established technique that structures specifications around *mode classes* and *modes*. A mode class refers to internally controlled variables that maintain state information with a set of possible values known as modes.

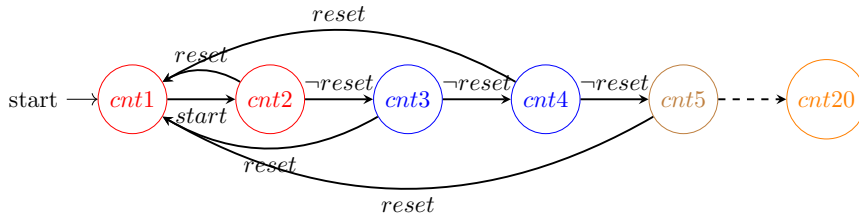
We use modes here provided by the user to accelerate synthesis, exploiting that in RE modes are commonly provided by the engineer during system specification. Recently, Balachander et al. [3] proposed a method to assist the synthesis process by providing a sketch of the desired Mealy machine, which can help to produce a system that better aligns with the engineer’s intentions. This approach is currently still only effective for small systems, as it requires the synthesis of the system followed by the generation of example traces to guide the search for a reasonable solution. In contrast our interest is in the decomposition of the synthesis process in multiple synthesis sub-tasks.

Other compositional synthesis approaches aim to incrementally add requirements to a system specification during its design [39]. On the other hand, [23] and [24] rely extensively on dropping assumptions, which can restrict the ability to decompose complex real-world specifications.

2 Motivating Example

We illustrate the main ideas of our decomposition technique using the following running example of a counter machine (*CM*) with a reset. The system must count the number of ticks produced by an external agent, unless the reset is signaled—also by the environment—in which case the count is restarted. When the count reaches a specific limit, the count has to be restarted as well and an output variable is used to indicate that the bound has been reached. Fig. 1 shows a specification for this system with a bound of 20. This example is written in TLSF (see [34]), a well-established specification language for reactive synthesis, which is widely used as a standard language for the synthesis competition, *SYNTCOMP* [1]. Even for this simple specification, all state-of-the-art synthesis tools from the synthesis competition *SYNTCOMP* [1], including *Strix* [46], are unable to produce a system that satisfies *CM*.

Recent decomposition techniques [24,33] construct a dependency graph considering controllable variable relationships, but fail to decompose this specification due to the mutual dependencies among output variables. Our technique breaks down this specification into smaller sub-specifications, grouping the counter machine for those states with counter value 1 and 2 in a mode, states with counter 3 and 4 in a second mode, etc, as follows:



Smaller controllers are synthesized independently, which can be easily combined to satisfy the original specification 1. In the example, we group the states in pairs for better readability, but it is possible to use larger sizes. In fact, for $N = 20$

the optimal decomposition considers modes that group four values of the counter (see Section 5). The synthesis for each mode is efficient because in a given mode we can ignore those requirements that involve valuations that belong to other modes, leading to smaller specifications.

```

PARAMETERS { N = 20;}
INPUTS {reset;start;} OUTPUTS {counter[N+1];trigger;}
INITIALLY{ (!reset && !start);} ASSUMPTIONS{ G !(reset && start);}
PRESET{counter[0] && (&&[1 <= i <=N]!counter[i]);}
DEFINITIONS {
  mutual(b) = G || [0 <= i < n](b[i] && &&[j IN {0, 1 .. (n-1)} (\) {i}] !
    b[j]);}
GUARANTEES
  mutual(counter); G (reset → X counter[0]);
  G ((counter[0] && start) → X (counter[1] || reset));
  G ((counter[1] && !reset) → X (counter[2] || reset));
  ...
  G ((counter[N-1] && !reset) → X (counter[N] || reset));
  G (counter[N] → X counter[0]);
  G (counter[N] → trigger); G (!counter[N] → !trigger);

```

Fig. 1: Counter machine specification.

```

// common part to all projections.
INPUTS {reset;start;} INITIALLY (!reset && !start); ASSUMPTIONS G !(reset
&& start);

[Projection under m1]
OUTPUTS {counter_0, counter_1; trigger; jump2; s0φ; done}
GUARANTEES
  G (!done → (counter_0 || counter_1));
  G (!done → (reset → X counter_0));
  G (!done → (counter_0 && start) → X (counter_1 || reset));
  G (!done → ((counter_1 && !reset) → s0φ));
  G (!done → (s0φ && !done) → X FALSE);
  G (!done → !trigger);
  G (done → X done);
  G (jump2 → X done);
  G (!jump2 → (!done → X !done));

[Projection under m2]
...

```

Fig. 2: Counter-Machine projection.

In this work, we refer to these partitions of the state space as modes. In requirements engineering (*RE*) it is common practice to enrich reactive LTL specifications with a state transition system based on modes, which are also used to describe many constraints that only apply to specific modes.

Software cost reduction (*SCR*) uses modes in specifications and has been successfully applied in requirements for safety-critical systems, such as an aircraft’s operational flight program [31], a submarine’s communication system [30], nuclear power plant [51], among others [5,35]. *SCR* has also been used in the development of human-centric decision systems [29], and event-based transition systems derived from goal-oriented requirements models [41].

Despite the long-standing use of modes in *SCR*, state-of-the-art reactive synthesis tools have not fully utilized this concept. The approach that we introduce in this paper exploits mode descriptions to decompose specifications significantly reducing synthesis time. For instance, when decomposing our motivating example *CM* using modes, we were able to achieve 90% reduction in the specification size, measured as the number of clauses and the length of the specification (see Section 5). Fig. 2 shows the projections with a bound $N = 4$ for mode $m_1 = (\text{counter}_0 \vee \text{counter}_1)$. In each sub-specification, we introduce new variables (controlled by the system). These variables encode mode transitions using *jump* variables. When the system transitions to a new mode, the current sub-specification automatically wins the ongoing game, encoded by the *done* variable. A new game will start in the arriving mode. Furthermore, the system can only jump to new modes if the arriving mode is prepared, i.e., if its initial conditions—as indicated by the $s_{\circ\varphi}$ variables—can satisfy the pending obligations. The semantics of these variables is further explained in the next section.

In this work, we assume that the initial conditions are also provided manually as part of the mode decomposition. While modes are common practice in requirement specification, having to manually provide initial conditions is the major current technical drawback of our approach. We will study in the future how to generate these initial conditions automatically. In summary, our algorithm receives the original specification S , a set of modes and their corresponding initial conditions. Then, it generates a sub-specification for each mode and discharges these to an off-the-self synthesis tool to decide their realizability. If all the sub-specifications are realizable, the systems obtained are then composed into a single system for the original specification, which also shares the structure of the mode decomposition.

3 Preliminaries

We consider a finite set of *AP* of atomic propositions. Since we are interested in reactive systems where there is an ongoing interaction between a system and its environment, we split *AP* into those propositions controlled by the environment \mathcal{X} and those controlled by the system \mathcal{Y} , so $\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y} = \text{AP}$ and $\mathcal{X} \cap \mathcal{Y} = \emptyset$. The alphabet induced by the atomic propositions is $\Sigma = 2^{\text{AP}}$. We use Σ^* for the set

of finite words over Σ and Σ^ω for the set of infinite words over Σ . Given $\sigma \in \Sigma^\omega$ and $i \in \mathbb{N}$, $\sigma(i)$ represents the element of σ at position i , and σ^i represents the word σ' that results by removing the prefix $\sigma(0) \dots \sigma(i-1)$ from σ , that is σ' s.t. $\sigma'(j) = \sigma(j-1)$ for $j \geq i$. Given $u \in \Sigma^*$ and $v \in \Sigma^\omega$, uv represents the ω -word that results from concatenating u and v . We use LTL [47,44] to describe specifications. The syntax of LTL is the following:

$$\varphi ::= true \mid a \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \neg \varphi \mid \bigcirc \varphi \mid \varphi \mathcal{U} \varphi \mid \square \varphi$$

where $a \in AP$, and \vee , \wedge and \neg are the usual Boolean disjunction, conjunction and negation, and \bigcirc is the next temporal operator (a common derived operator is *false* = $\neg true$). A formula with no temporal operator is called a Boolean formula, or predicate. We say φ is in negation normal form (*NNF*), whenever all negation operators in φ are pushed only in front of atoms using dualities. The semantics of LTL associate traces $\sigma \in \Sigma^\omega$ with formulae as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma \models true & \quad \text{always holds} \\ \sigma \models a & \quad \text{iff } a \in \sigma(0) \\ \sigma \models \varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2 & \quad \text{iff } \sigma \models \varphi_1 \text{ or } \sigma \models \varphi_2 \\ \sigma \models \neg \varphi & \quad \text{iff } \sigma \not\models \varphi \\ \sigma \models \bigcirc \varphi & \quad \text{iff } \sigma^1 \models \varphi \\ \sigma \models \varphi_1 \mathcal{U} \varphi_2 & \quad \text{iff for some } i \geq 0 \ \sigma^i \models \varphi_2, \text{ and for all } 0 \leq j < i, \sigma^j \models \varphi_1 \\ \sigma \models \square \varphi & \quad \text{iff for all } i \geq 0 \ \sigma^i \models \varphi \end{aligned}$$

A Syntactic Fragment for Safety. A useful fragment of LTL is LTL_X where formulas only contain \bigcirc as a temporal operator. In this work, we focus on a fragment of LTL we called GX_0 :

$$\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \wedge \square \psi)$$

where α , β and ψ are in LTL_X .

This fragment can only express safety properties [44,10] and includes a large fragment of all safety properties expressible in LTL. This format is supported by tools like Strix [46] and is convenient for our reactive problem specification.

Definition 1 (Reactive Specification). A reactive specification $S = (A, G)$ is given by $A = (I_e, \varphi_e)$ and $G = (I_s, \varphi_s)$ (all LTL_X formulas), where I_e and I_s are the initial conditions of the environment and the system, and φ_e and φ_s are called assumptions and guarantees. The meaning of S is the GX_0 formula:

$$(I_e \rightarrow (I_s \wedge \square(\varphi_e \rightarrow \varphi_s)))$$

In TLSF I_e and I_s are represented as *INITIALLY* and *PRESET*, resp.

Reactive Synthesis. Consider a specification φ over $AP = \mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}$. A trace σ is formed by the environment and the system choosing in turn valuations for their propositions. The specification φ is realizable with respect to $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$

if there exists a strategy $g : (2^{\mathcal{X}})^+ \rightarrow 2^{\mathcal{Y}}$ such that for an arbitrary infinite sequence $X = X_0, X_1, X_2, \dots \in (2^{\mathcal{X}})^\omega$, φ is *true* in the infinite trace $\rho = (X_0 \cup g(X_0)), (X_1 \cup g(X_0, X_1)), (X_2 \cup g(X_0, X_1, X_2)), \dots$. A play ρ is *winning* (for the system) if $\rho \models \varphi$.

Realizability is the decision problem of whether a specification has a winning strategy, and synthesis is the problem of computing one winning system (strategy). Both problems can be solved in double-exponential time for an arbitrary LTL formula [48]. If there is no winning strategy for the system, the specification is called *unrealizable*. In this scenario, the environment has at least one strategy to falsify φ for every possible strategy of the system. Reactive safety synthesis considers reactive synthesis for safety formulas.

We encode system strategies using a deterministic Mealy machine $W = (Q, s, \delta, L)$ where Q is the set of states, s is the initial state, $\delta : Q \times 2^{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow Q$ is the transition function that given valuations of the environment variables it produces a successor state and $L : Q \times 2^{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow 2^{\mathcal{Y}}$ is the output labeling that given valuations of the environment it produces valuations of the system. The strategy g encoded by a machine $W : (Q, s, \delta, L)$ is as follows:

- if $e \in 2^{\mathcal{X}}$, then $g(e) = L(s, e)$
- if $u \in (2^{\mathcal{X}})^+$ and $e \in 2^{\mathcal{X}}$ then $g(ue) = L(\delta^*(s, u), e)$ where δ^* is the usual extension of δ to $(2^{\mathcal{X}})^*$.

It is well known that if a specification is realizable then there is Mealy machine encoding a winning strategy for the system.

4 Mode Based Synthesis

We present now our mode-based solution to reactive safety synthesis. The starting point is a *reactive specification* as a GX_0 formula written in TLSF. We define a mode m as a predicate over $\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}$, that is $m \in 2^{\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}}$. A mode captures a set of states of the system during its execution. Given a trace $\sigma = s_0, s_1, \dots$, if $s_i \models m$ we say that m is the *active mode* at time i . In this paper, we consider mutually exclusive modes, so only one mode can be active at a given point in time. As part of the specification of synthesis problems the requirement engineer describes the modes $M = \{m_1, \dots, m_n\}$, partially expressing the intentions of the structure of the intended system. A set of modes $M = \{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n\}$ is legal if it partitions the set of variable valuations, that is:

- **Disjointness:** for all $i \neq j$, $(m_i \rightarrow \neg m_j)$ is valid.
- **Completeness:** $\bigvee_i m_i$ is valid.

Within a trace σ there may be instants during execution there are transitions between modes. We will refer to the modes involved in this transition as *related modes*. Formally:

Definition 2 (Related Modes). Consider a trace $\sigma = \sigma(0)\sigma(1)\sigma(2)\dots$ and two modes $m_1, m_2 \in M$. We say that m_1 and m_2 as related, denoted as $m_1 \prec m_2$ if, at some point i : $(\sigma(i) \models m_1)$ and $(\sigma(i+1) \models m_2)$.

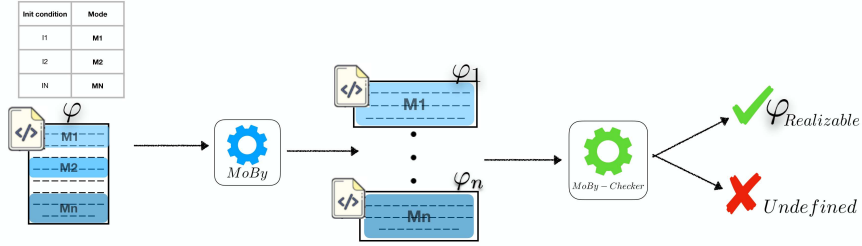


Fig. 3: Overview of MoBy

A key element of our approach is to enrich the specification of the synthesis sub-problem corresponding to mode m_i forbidding the system to jump to another mode m_j unless the initial condition of mode j satisfying the pending “obligations” at the time of jumping. To formally capture obligations we introduce fresh variables for future sub-formulas that appear in the specification.

Definition 3 (Obligation Variables). For each sub-formula $\bigcirc\psi$ in the specification, we introduce a fresh variables $s_{\bigcirc\psi}$ to encodes that the system is obliged to satisfy ψ .

These variables will be controlled by the system and their dynamics will be captured by $s_{\bigcirc\psi} \rightarrow \bigcirc\psi$ introduced in every mode (unless the system leaves the mode, which will be allowed only if the arriving system satisfy ψ). These variables are similar to temporal testers [49] and allow a simple treatment of obligations that are left pending after a mode jump. We also introduce variables $jump_j$ which will encode (in the game and sub-specification corresponding to mode m_i) whether the system decides to jump to mode m_j (see Alg. 2 below).

4.1 Mode Based Decomposition

We present now the $MoBy$ algorithm, which decomposes a reactive specification S into a set of (smaller) specifications $\Pi = \{S_1, \dots, S_n\}$, using the provided system modes $M = \{m_1, \dots, m_n\}$ and initial mode-conditions $I = \{I_1, \dots, I_n\}$. Fig. 3 shows an overview of $MoBy$. Particularly, $MoBy$ receives a specification together with modes and one initial condition per mode. The algorithm decompose the specification into smaller sub-specifications one per mode.

The main result is that the decomposition that $MoBy$ performs guarantees that if each projection $S_i \in \Pi$ is realizable then the original specification is also realizable, and that the systems synthesized independently for each sub-specification can be combined into an implementation for the original specification S (See Lemma 1 and Corollary 1).

We first introduce some useful notation before presenting the main algorithm. We denote by $\varphi[\phi \setminus \psi]$ the formula that is obtained by replacing in φ occurrences of ϕ by ψ . We assume that all formulas have been converted to NNF , where \bigcirc

operators have been pushed to the atoms. It is easy to see that a formula in *NNF* is a Boolean combination of sub-formulas of the form $\bigcirc^i p$ where $p \in \text{AP}$ and sub-formulas ψ that do not contain any temporal operator. We use some auxiliary functions:

- The first function is $ASF(\varphi)$, which returns the set of sub-formulas ψ of φ such that (1) ψ does not contain \bigcirc (2) ψ is either φ or the father formula of ψ contains \bigcirc . We call these formulas maximal next-free sub-formulas of φ .
- The second function is $NSF(\varphi)$, which returns the set of sub-formulas ψ such that (1) the root symbol of ψ is \bigcirc and (2) either ψ is φ , or the father of ψ does not start with \bigcirc . It is easy to see that all formulas returned by NSF are of the form $\bigcirc^i p$ for $i > 0$, and indeed are the sub-formulas of the form $\bigcirc^i p$ not contain in other formulas other sub-formulas of these forms. We call these formulas the maximal next sub-formulas of φ .

For example, let $\varphi = \bigcirc p \rightarrow (\bigcirc q \wedge r)$, which is in *NNF*. $ASF(\varphi) = \{r\}$, as r is the only formula that does not contain \bigcirc but its father formula does. $NSF(\varphi) = \{\bigcirc p, \bigcirc q\}$. We also use the following auxiliary functions:

- $\text{SIMPL}(\varphi)$, which performs simple Boolean simplifications, including $true \wedge \varphi \mapsto \varphi$, $false \wedge \varphi \mapsto false$, $true \vee \varphi \mapsto true$, $false \vee \varphi \mapsto \varphi$, etc.
- RMNEXT , which takes a formula of the form $\bigcirc^i \varphi$ and returns $\bigcirc^{i-1} \varphi$.
- VAR , which takes a formula of the form $\bigcirc^i \varphi$ and returns the obligation variable $s_{\bigcirc^i \varphi}$. This function also accepts a proposition $p \in \text{AP}$ in which case it returns p itself.

The output of $\text{SIMPL}(\varphi)$ is either *true* or *false*, or a formula that does not contain *true* or *false* at all. The simplification performed by SIMPL is particularly useful

Algorithm 1 Simplify (remove)

```

1: function RMMODES( $\varphi, m$ )
2:   for each  $f \in ASF(\varphi)$  do
3:     if ( $m \rightarrow f$ ) is valid then
4:        $\varphi \leftarrow \varphi[f \setminus True]$ 
5:     if ( $m \rightarrow \neg f$ ) is valid then
6:        $\varphi \leftarrow \varphi[f \setminus False]$ 
7:   return SIMPL( $\varphi$ )

```

simplifying ($false \rightarrow \psi$) to *true*, because given a requirement of the form $C \rightarrow D$, if C is simplified to *false* in a given mode then $C \rightarrow D$ will be simplified to *true* ignoring all sub-formulas within D . We introduce $\text{RMMODES}(\varphi, m)$ on the left, which given a mode m and a formula φ simplifies φ under the assumption that the current state satisfies m , that is, specializes φ for mode m .

Example 1. Consider $m_1 : (counter_1 \wedge \neg counter_2)$, and $\varphi_1 : \neg counter_2 \rightarrow \neg trigger$ and $\varphi_2 : (counter_1 \wedge \neg reset) \rightarrow \bigcirc(counter_2 \vee reset)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RMMODES}(\varphi_1, m_1) &= \neg trigger \\ \text{RMMODES}(\varphi_2, m_1) &= \neg reset \rightarrow \bigcirc(counter_2 \vee reset) \end{aligned}$$

Finally, $\text{VAR}(\bigcirc \psi) = s_{\bigcirc \psi}$.

4.2 The Mode-Base Projection Algorithm MoBy

As mentioned before our algorithm takes as a input a reactive specification S an indexed set $M = \{m_1, \dots, m_n\}$ of modes and an indexed set $I = \{I_1, \dots, I_n\}$ of

initial conditions, one for each mode. We first add to each I_i the predicate $\neg done$, to encode that in its initial state a sub-system that solves the game for mode m_i has not jumped to another mode yet. For each mode m_i , MoBy specializes all guarantee formulas calling RMMODES, and then adds additional requirements for the obligation variables and to control when the system can exit the mode. Alg. 2 presents MoBy in pseudo-code.

Line 5 simplifies all requirements specifically for mode m_i , that is, it will only focus on solving all requirements for states that satisfy m_i . Line 7 starts the goals for mode i establishing that unless the system has jumped to another mode, the mode predicate m_i must hold in mode i . Lines 8 to 10 substitute all temporal formulas in the requirements with their obligation variables, establishing that all requirements must hold unless the system has left the mode. Lines 11 to 12 establish the semantics of obligation variables, forcing their temporal behavior as long as the system stays within the mode ($\neg done$). Lines 13 to 15 precludes the system to jump to another mode m_j if m_j cannot fulfill pending promises. Lines 16 to 18 establish that once the system has jumped the game is considered finished, and that the system is only finished jumping to some other mode. Finally, line 19 limits to jump to at most one mode.

Algorithm 2 MoBy: Mode-Based Projections.

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1: Inputs:  $S : (A, G), M : \{m_1, \dots, m_n\}, I : \{I_1, \dots, I_n\}$ .
2: Outputs:  $Pr = [II_1, \dots, II_n]$ .
3: function COMPUTEPROJECTION( $S, M, I$ )
4:   for each mode index  $i \in \{1 \dots n\}$  do
5:      $G' \leftarrow \text{REDUCE}(G, m_i)$ 
6:      $Oblig \leftarrow \text{NSF}(G')$ 
7:      $G_i = \{\neg done \rightarrow m_i\}$ 
8:     for each requirement  $\psi \in G'$  do
9:        $\psi' \leftarrow$  replace  $f$  for  $\text{VAR}(f)$  in  $\psi$  (for all  $f \in Oblig$ )
10:       $G_i.add(\neg done \rightarrow \psi')$ 
11:     for each obligation subformula  $f \in Oblig$  do
12:        $G_i.add(\neg done \wedge \text{VAR}(f) \rightarrow \bigcirc \text{VAR}(\text{RMNEXT}(f)))$ 
13:     for each mode  $j \neq i$  such that  $m_i \prec m_j$  and for every  $f \in Oblig$  do
14:       if  $(I_j \rightarrow \text{RMNEXT}(f))$  is not valid then
15:          $G_i.add(jump_j \rightarrow \neg \text{VAR}(f))$ 
16:        $G_i.add(done \rightarrow \bigcirc done)$ 
17:        $G_i.add(\bigvee_j jump_j \rightarrow \bigcirc done)$ 
18:        $G_i.add(\neg \bigvee_j jump_j \rightarrow (\neg done \rightarrow \bigcirc \neg done))$ 
19:        $G_i.add(\bigwedge_{j \neq k} jump_j \rightarrow \neg jump_k)$ 
20:        $Pr[i] \leftarrow (A, G_i)$ 
21:   return  $Pr$ 
22: function REDUCE( $\Phi, m$ )
23: return  $\{\text{RMMODES}(\varphi, m) \mid \varphi \in \Phi\}$ 

```

Example 2. We apply MoBy to the example in Fig. 1 for $N = 2$, with three modes $M = \{m_1 : \{counter_0\}, m_2 : \{counter_1\}, m_3 : \{counter_2\}\}$. The initial conditions only establish the variable of the mode is satisfied $I_1 = m_1, I_2 = m_2, I_3 = m_3$ (only forcing $\neg done$ as well). The MoBy algorithm computes the following projections:

```

INPUTS reset; start;
ASSUMPTIONS G !(reset && start); INITIALLY (!reset && !start) || reset
[Projection_1]
OUTPUTS counter_0; trigger; s0φ; jump2; done
GUARANTEES
G (!done → (counter_0))
G (!done → (reset → X counter_0));
G (!done → (start → s0φ));
G (!done → ((s0φ && !done) → X FALSE));
G (!done → (!trigger));
G (done → X done);
G (jump2 → X done);
G (!jump2 → (!done → X !done));

[Projection_2]
OUTPUTS counter_1; trigger; jump1, jump3 s0φ; s0φ1;
GUARANTEES
G !done → (counter_1)
G !done → (reset → s0φ);
G !done → (s0φ && !done → X FALSE);
G !done → (!reset → s0φ1);
G !done → (s0φ1 && !done → X FALSE);
G !done → (!trigger);
G ((s0φ || s0φ1) → X done);
G jump1 → !s0φ1;
G jump3 → !s0φ;
G (!(s0φ || s0φ1) → (!done → X !done));

[Projection_3]
OUTPUTS counter_2; trigger; jump1; s0φ jump1
GUARANTEES
G (!done → (counter_2))
G (!done → (reset → s0φ))
G (!done → (s0φ && !done → X FALSE));
G (!done → (counter_2 → s0φ));
G (!done → (trigger));
G (jump1 → X done);
G (!jump1 → (!done → X !done));

```

4.3 Composing solutions

After decomposing S into a set of projections $Pr = \{\Pi_1, \dots, \Pi_n\}$ using MoBY, Alg. 3 composes winning strategies for the system obtained for each mode into a single winning strategy for the original specification S .

Lemma 1 (Composition’s correctness). *Let $M = \{m_1, \dots, m_n\}$ and $I = \{I_1, \dots, I_n\}$ be a set of valid mode descriptions for a specification S , and let $St = \{W_1, \dots, W_n\}$ be a set of winning strategies for each projection $p \in Pr = \{\Pi_1, \dots, \Pi_n\}$. Then, the composed winning strategy W obtained using Alg. 3 is a winning strategy for S .*

Proof. Let S be a specification, $M = \{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n\}$ and $I = \{I_1, \dots, I_n\}$ a mode description. Also, let’s consider $Pr = \{\Pi_1, \dots, \Pi_n\}$ be the projection generated by Alg. 2. We assume that all sub-specifications are realizable. Let $St = \{W_1, \dots, W_n\}$ be winning strategies for each of the sub-specifications and let $W : (Q, s, \delta, L)$ be the strategy for the original specifications generated by Alg. 3. We will show now that W is a winning strategy. The essence of the proof is to show that if a mode m_j starts at position i and the system follows W , this corresponds to follow W_j . In turn, this guarantees that $Pr[j]$ holds until the next mode is entered (or ad infinitum if no mode change happens), which guarantees that S holds within the segment after the new mode enters in its initial state. By induction, the result follows.

By contradiction, assume that W is not winning and let $\rho \in 2^{\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}}$ be a play that is played according to W that is loosing for the system. In other words, there is position i such that ρ^i violates some requirement in S . Let i be the first such position. Let m_j be the mode at position i and let $i' < i$ be the position at which m_j is the mode at position i' and either $i' = 0$ or the mode at position $i' - 1$ is not m_j .

Algorithm 3 Composition of Winning Strategies

```

1: Input: A winning strategy  $W_i = (Q_i, s_i, \delta_i, L_i)$  for each projection  $p_i \in Pr$ .
2: Output: A composed winning strategy  $W = (Q, s, \delta, L)$ .
3: function COMPOSE( $W_1, \dots, W_n$ )
4:    $Q \leftarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^n Q_i$ 
5:    $s \leftarrow s_1$ 
6:    $\delta \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
7:   for each mode index  $i \in \{1 \dots n\}$  do
8:      $(Q_i, s_i, \delta_i, L_i) \leftarrow W_i$ 
9:     for each  $(q, a) \in Q_i \times 2^{\mathcal{X}}$  do
10:       $L(q, a) \leftarrow L_i(q, a)$ 
11:      if  $\delta_i(s, a) \models \text{jump}_j$  for some  $j$  then
12:         $\delta(q, a) \leftarrow s_j$ 
13:      else  $\triangleright \text{jump}_j \notin \delta_i(q, a)$  for any  $j$ 
14:         $\delta(q, a) \leftarrow \delta_i(q, a)$ 
15:   return  $W : (Q, s, \delta, L)$ 

```

- If $i' = 0$, between 0 and i , W coincides with W_j . Therefore, since W_j is winning $\Pi[j]$ must hold at i , which implies that S holds at i , which is contradiction.
 - Consider now the case where $i' - 1$ is not m_j , but some other mode m_l . Then, since in m_l is winning W_l , it holds that $Pr[l]$ holds at $i' - 1$ so, in particular all pending obligations are implied by I_j . Therefore, the suffix trace $\rho^{i'}$ is winning for W_j . Again, it follows that S holds at i , which is a contradiction.
- Hence, the lemma holds. \square

The following corollary follows immediately.

Corollary 1 (Semi-Realizability). *Given a specification S , a set M of valid system modes and a set I of initial conditions. If all projections generated by $M\circ By$ are realizable, then S is also realizable.*

5 Empirical Evaluation

We implemented $M\circ By$ in the *Java* programming language using the well-known *Owl* library [37] to manipulate LTL specifications. $M\circ By$ integrates the LTL satisfiability checker *Polsat* [42], a portfolio consisting of four LTL solvers that run in parallel. To perform all realizability checks, we discharge each sub-specification to *Strix* [46]. All experiments in this section were run on a cluster equipped with a Xeon processor with a clock speed of 2.6GHz, 16GB of RAM, and running the GNU/Linux operating system.

We report in this section an empirical evaluation of $M\circ By$. We aim to empirically evaluate the following research questions:

- **RQ1:** *How effective is $M\circ By$ in decomposing mode-based specifications?*
- **RQ2:** *Does $M\circ By$ complement state of the art synthesis tools?*
- **RQ3:** *Can $M\circ By$ be used to improve the synthesis time?*

To address them, we analyzed specifications from published literature, evaluation of *RE* tools, and case studies on SCR specification and analysis:

- our counter machine running example *CM* with varying bounds.

Case	#A - #G	#Modes	#In	#Out
10-Counter-Machine	2-15	[2,5,10]	2	12
20-Counter-Machine	2-25	[2,5,10,20]	2	22
50-Counter-Machine	2-55	[2,5,10,50]	2	52
100-Counter-Machine	2-105	[2,5,10,50,100]	2	102
Minepump	3-4	[2]	300	5
Sis(n)	2-7	[3]	(2+n)	7
Thermostat(n)	3-4	[3]	(31+n)	4
Cruise(n)	3-15	[4]	(5+n)	8
AltLayer(n)	1-9	[3]	n	5
Lift(n)	1-187	[3]	n	(4+n)

Fig. 4: Assumptions (A), Guarantees (G), Modes, Variables

Specification	#Modes	Synthesis Time (s)		Specification Size			
		Monolithic	MoBy	Monolithic		MoBy	
				#Clauses	Length	#Clauses	Length
<i>CM10</i>	2		0.32			28	117
	5	26	0.67	48	252	8	30
	10		0.58			8	39
<i>CM20</i>	2		3.62			48	252
	5	Timeout	1.15	88	672	24	96
	10		2.06			16	60
	20		1.08			8	49
<i>CM50</i>	2		2.56			136	1036
	5	Timeout	19	208	3132	48	256
	10		3			28	117
	50		1.67			8	79
<i>CM100</i>	2		Timeout			208	3132
	5	Timeout	5.12	408	11232	88	672
	10		4			48	252
	50		9			19	57
	100		3.23			8	129
<i>Minepump</i>	2	140	90	11598	21365	5800	10685
<i>Sis-250</i>	3	18	2	521	1072	133	287
<i>Sis-500</i>	3	96	4	1021	2072	258	538
<i>Sis-1000</i>	3	Timeout	11	2021	4072	508	1035
<i>Sis-1500</i>	3	Timeout	20	3021	6072	758	1538
<i>Sis-2000</i>	3	Timeout	38	4021	8072	1258	2300
<i>Sis-4000</i>	3	Timeout	157	8021	16072	2678	3560
<i>Sis-4500</i>	3	Timeout	172	9020	18040	3006	4002
<i>Sis-5000</i>	3	Timeout	268	10020	20040	3340	4447
<i>Thermostat-10</i>	3	1	1	73	151	42	97
<i>Thermostat-20</i>	3	Timeout	1	172	276	75	152
<i>Thermostat-100</i>	3	Timeout	10	4032	4416	1375	1652
<i>Thermostat-200</i>	3	Timeout	48	12132	12916	4075	4619
<i>Cruise-150</i>	4	75	63	15339	15855	6824	7067
<i>Cruise-200</i>	4	132	100	30039	30756	10025	10294
<i>Cruise-500</i>	4	Timeout	770	118239	120153	39425	40097
<i>AltLayer-50</i>	3	15	9	3685	4147	1234	1395
<i>AltLayer-100</i>	3	41	25	8885	9747	2968	3269
<i>AltLayer-150</i>	3	153	100	30685	31947	10234	10699
<i>AltLayer-200</i>	3	Timeout	269	52485	54147	17500	18064
<i>Lift-5</i>	3	1	2	310	884	122	355
<i>Lift-10</i>	3	34	9	1585	4014	597	1522
<i>Lift-15</i>	3	Timeout	162	4560	10844	1672	3989
<i>Lift-20</i>	3	Timeout	789	6394	14948	3597	8255

Fig. 5: Comparison between MoBy and Monolithic

- Minepump: A mine pump controller [7,9,15,41], which manages a pump with sensors that detect high water levels and methane presence.
- Thermostat(n): A thermostat [22] that monitors a room temperature controls the heater and tracks heating duration.
- Lift(n): A simple elevator controller for n floors [1].
- Cruise(n): A cruise control system [35] which is in charge of maintaining the car speed on the occurrence of any event.
- Sis(n): A safety injection system [16], responsible for partially controlling a nuclear power plant by monitoring water pressure in a cooling subsystem.
- AltLayer(n): A communicating state machine model [8].

Fig. 4 shows the number of input/output variables, assumptions (A), guarantees (G), and the number of modes for each case.

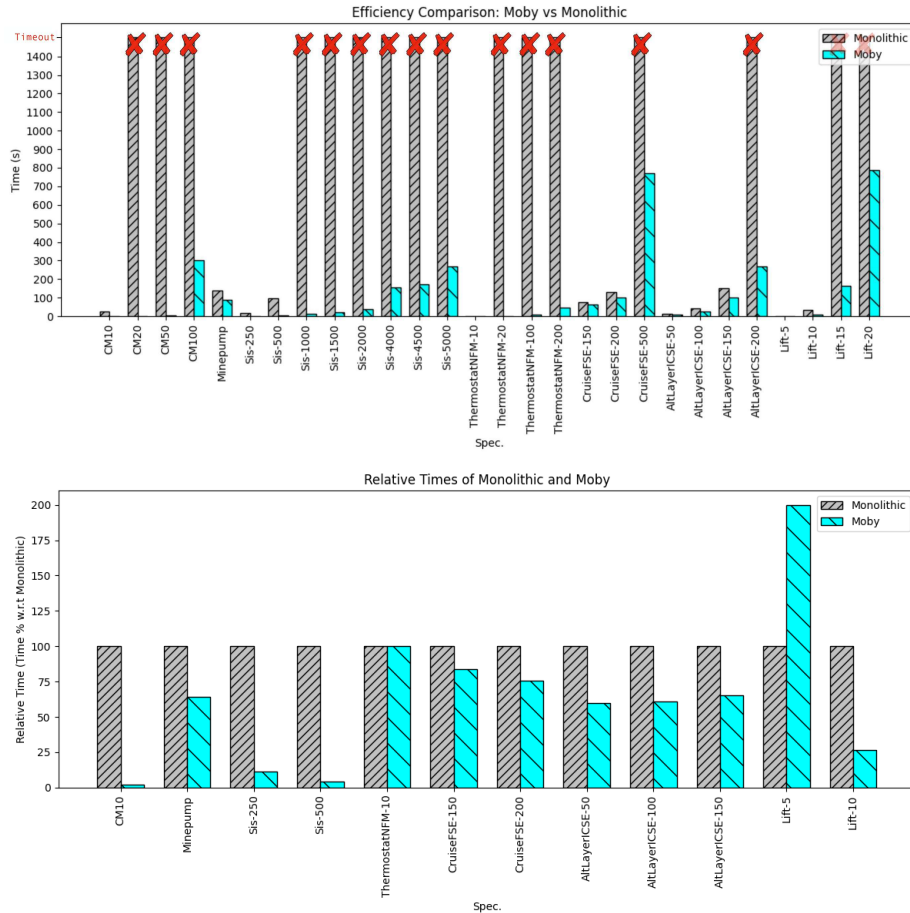


Fig. 6: Speed of Moby vs monolithic synthesis. The figure above shows the time taken by a monolithic synthesis tool and the time taken by Moby. The figure below normalizes the monolithic time to 100 for those that did not reach Timeout.

Experimental Results. To address [RQ1](#) we compare the size of the original specification with the size of each projection measured by the number of clauses and the formula length. To determine the formula’s length, we adopt the methodologies outlined in [7,9]. Additionally, we compared the running time required for synthesizing the original specification with the time taken for each projection, note that we report the aggregated time taken to synthesize the systems for each projection, when they can be solved independently and in parallel to potentially improve efficiency. The summarized results can be found in Fig. 5. We also provide additional insights in Fig.6, which highlights the significance of `Moby` in enhancing the synthesis time.

Our analysis demonstrates that `Moby` successfully decomposes 100% of the specifications in our corpus, which indicates that `Moby` is effective in handling complex specifications. Furthermore, `Moby` consistently operates within the 25-minute timeout limit in all cases. In contrast, other relevant simultaneous decomposition methods [24,23] failed to decompose any of the specifications in our benchmark. This can be attributed to the intricate interdependencies between variables in our requirements, as elaborated in Section 1. This observation not only supports the effectiveness of `Moby` but also validates [RQ2](#).

Expanding on the impact of `Moby`, our results show an average reduction of 64% in specification size and a 65% reduction in the number of clauses. These reductions underscore the advantages of employing `Moby` in synthesizing implementations for LTL specifications that are beyond the capabilities of monolithic synthesizers. Additionally, `Moby`’s ability to achieve faster synthesis times for feasible specifications positions it as a compelling alternative to state-of-the-art synthesis tools. This suggests the validity of [RQ3](#).

6 Conclusion and Future Work

We presented mode based decomposition for reactive synthesis. As far as we know, this is the first approach that exploits modes to improve synthesis scalability. Our method takes an LTL specification, along with a set of modes representing different stages of execution, and a set of initial conditions for each mode. Our method computes projection for each mode ensuring that if all of them are realizable, then the original specification is also realizable.

We performed an empirical evaluation of an implementation of `Moby` on several specifications from the literature. Our evaluation shows that `Moby` successfully synthesizes implementations efficiently, including cases for which monolithic synthesis fails. These results indicate that `Moby` is effective for decomposing specifications and can be used alongside other decomposition tools.

Even though modes are natural in RE, the need to specify initial conditions is the major drawback of our technique. We are currently investigating how to automatically compute the initial conditions, using SAT based exploration. We are also investigating the assessment of the quality of the specifications generated using `Moby`.

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