Quantitative Solution of Omega-Regular Games

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ABSTRACT

We consider two-player games played for an infinite number of rounds, with ω-regular winning conditions. The games may be concurrent, in that the players choose their moves simultaneously and independently, and probabilistic, in that the moves determine a probability distribution for the successor state. We introduce quantitative game μ-calculus, and we show that the maximal probability of winning such games can be expressed as the fixpoint formula in this calculus. We develop the arguments both for deterministic and for probabilistic concurrent games; as a special case, we solve probabilistic turn-based games with ω-regular winning conditions, which was also open. We also characterize the optimality, and the memory requirements, of the winning strategies. In particular, we show that while memoryless strategies suffice for winning games with safety and reachability conditions, Büchi conditions require the use of strategies with infinite memory. The existence of optimal strategies, as opposed to ε-optimal, is only guaranteed in games with safety winning conditions.

1. INTRODUCTION

We consider two-player games played on finite state spaces for an infinite number of rounds. In each round, depending on the current state of the game, the moves of one or both players determine the next state [25]; we consider games in which the set of available moves is finite. Such games offer a model for systems composed of interacting components, and they have been studied under a wide range of winning conditions. The winning conditions are often codified by associating a reward with each state and choice of moves, and by studying the maximal discounted, total, or average reward that player 1 can obtain in such a game; a survey of algorithms for solving games with respect to such winning conditions is e.g. [24, 10]. Here, we consider winning conditions consisting in ω-regular automata acceptance conditions defined over the state space of the game [2, 11, 26]. Given a game with an ω-regular winning condition and a starting state s, we study the maximal probability with which player 1 can ensure that the condition holds from s; we call this maximal probability the value of the game at s for player 1. The determinacy result of [17] ensures that, at all states and for all ω-regular winning conditions, the value of the game for player 1 is equal to one minus the value of the game with complementary condition for player 2.

We distinguish between turn-based and concurrent games, and between deterministic and probabilistic games. Systems in which the interaction between the components is asynchronous give rise to turn-based games, where in each round only one of the two players can choose among several moves. On the other hand, synchronous interaction leads to concurrent games, where in each round both players can choose simultaneously and independently among several moves. The games are deterministic if the current state and the moves uniquely determine the successor state, and are probabilistic if the current state and the moves determine a probability distribution for the successor state. For any ω-regular winning condition, the value of a deterministic turn-based game at a state is either 0 or 1; moreover, player 1 can achieve this value by playing according to a deterministic strategy, that select a move based on the current state and on the history of the game [2, 11]. In contrast, the value of a concurrent game at a state may be strictly between 0 and 1; furthermore, achieving this value may require the use of randomized strategies, that select not a move, but a probability distribution over moves. To see this, consider the concurrent game MATCHONEBIT. The game starts at state s₀, where both players simultaneously and independently choose a bit (0 or 1); if the bits match, the game proceeds to state s₁, otherwise, it proceeds to state s₂. Once at s₁ or s₂ the state is confined there forever. Consider the safety condition Δ{s₀, s₁, s₂}, requiring that s₁ is not entered. For every deterministic strategy of player 1, player 2 has another (complementary) deterministic strategy that ensures a transition to s₂, hence, if player 1 could only use deterministic strategies, he would win with probability 0. However, if player 1 uses a randomized strategy that chooses both bits at random with uniform probability, then the game enters state s₁ with probability 1/2, regardless of the strategy of player 2; indeed, the value of the game at s₀ is 1/2.

The value of deterministic turn-based games with ω-regular winning conditions can be computed with the algorithms of [2, 11, 8, 26]. The algorithms of [8] are based

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on the use of game $\mu$-calculus, obtained by replacing the predecessor operator Pre of classical $\mu$-calculus [14] by the controllable predecessor operator Cpre: for a set of states $U$, the set Cpre($U$) consists of the states from which player 1 can force the game into $U$ in one step. A richer version of game $\mu$-calculus was used in [6] to provide qualitative solutions for concurrent probabilistic games with $\omega$-regular conditions. There, multi-argument predecessor operators are used to compute the set of states from which player 1 can win with probability 1, or arbitrarily close to 1.

We introduce quantitative game $\mu$-calculus, and use it to provide a uniform framework for understanding and solving concurrent games with $\omega$-regular winning conditions. In quantitative game $\mu$-calculus, sets of states are replaced by functions from states to the interval $[0,1]$, and the controllable predecessor operator Cpre is replaced by a quantitative version Ppre. Given a function $f$ from states to the interval $[0,1]$, the function $g = Ppre(f)$ associates with each state the maximal expected value of $f$ that player 1 can ensure in one step. The operator Ppre can be evaluated using results about matrix games [29, 23]. Related quantitative predecessor operators for one-player structures were considered in [13, 20, 12, 18]. We show that the values of concurrent games with $\omega$-regular conditions can be obtained simply by replacing Cpre by Ppre in the solutions of [8]. The result is surprising because concurrent games differ from turn-based deterministic games in several fundamental respects. First, concurrent games require in general the use of randomized strategies, as remarked above. Second, even for the simple winning condition of reachability, optimal strategies may not exist: one can only guarantee the existence of $\varepsilon$-optimal strategies for all $\varepsilon > 0$ [9]. Third, whereas finite-memory strategies suffice for winning deterministic turn-based games, in concurrent games both $\varepsilon$-optimal strategies, and optimal strategies if they exist, may need an infinite amount of memory [6]. Fourth, the standard recursive structure of proofs for deterministic turn-based games [19, 26] breaks down, as both players can choose a distribution over moves at each state.

We develop the arguments both for deterministic and for probabilistic concurrent games. Hence, as a special case we solve probabilistic turn-based games with $\omega$-regular winning conditions, which was also an open problem. The quantitative game $\mu$-calculus solution formulas provide the value also of games with countable, rather than finite, state space. We also characterize the optimality, and the memory requirements, of the winning strategies. In particular, we show that while memoryless strategies suffice for winning games with safety and reachability conditions, Büchi and Rabin chain conditions require the use of strategies with infinite memory. The existence of optimal strategies, as opposed to $\varepsilon$-optimal, is only guaranteed in games with safety winning conditions.

As remarked by [8] in the context of deterministic turn-based games, the use of $\mu$-calculus for solving games helps in the formulation of the correctness arguments. In order to argue the correctness of a solution formula, we need to show that player 1 has an optimal (or $\varepsilon$-optimal) strategy that realizes the value given by the formula, and that player 2 has a “spoiling” strategy that is optimal (or $\varepsilon$-optimal) for the game with the complementary condition. Since the operator Ppre in the solution formula refers to player 1, an optimal strategy for player 1 can be constructed from the fixpoint of the formula. On the other hand, the derivation of spoiling strategies for player 2 is not immediate: indeed, even for games with safety or reachability conditions, the standard argument involves the consideration of discounted versions of the games (see, e.g., [10]). In contrast, by writing the solution formula in game $\mu$-calculus, we place the burden of the argument on the syntactic complementation of the solution formula. Specifically, for a winning condition $\Psi$, we characterize the maximal probabilities of winning the game by a $\mu$-calculus formula $\phi$, and from $\phi$ we construct an optimal (or $\varepsilon$-optimal) strategy for player 1. The syntactic complements $\neg \phi$ gives the maximal probabilities for player 2 to win the dual game with condition $\neg \Psi$. From $\neg \phi$, we can again construct an optimal (or $\varepsilon$-optimal) strategy for player 2 for the game with condition $\neg \Psi$. The two constructions are enough to conclude the correctness of our solution formulas.

The iterative interpretation of quantitative game $\mu$-calculus leads to algorithms for the computation of approximate solutions. By representing value functions symbolically, these algorithms may be used for the approximate analysis of games with very large state spaces [3, 7]. Unfortunately, except for safety and reachability conditions, the alternance of least and greatest fixpoint operators in the solution formulas leads to approximation schemes that do not converge monotonically to the value of a game. This situation contrasts with the one for Markov decision processes, where monotonically-converging approximation schemes are available, and where the maximal winning probability can be computed in polynomial time by reduction to linear programming [5]. We show that this discrepancy is no accident, since the basic device for solving Markov decision processes with $\omega$-regular conditions, viz., a reduction to reachability, fails for games.

2. CONCURRENT GAMES

For a countable set $A$, a probability distribution on $A$ is a function $p: A \mapsto [0,1]$ such that $\sum_{a \in A} p(a) = 1$. We denote the set of probability distributions on $A$ by $D(A)$. A (two-player) concurrent game structure $G = (S, \text{Moves}, \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, p)$ consists of the following components:

- A finite state space $S$.
- A finite set $\text{Moves}$ of moves.
- Two move assignments $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2: S \mapsto 2^{\text{Moves} \setminus \emptyset}$. For $i \in \{1,2\}$, assignment $\Gamma_i$ associates with each state $s \in S$ the non-empty set $\Gamma_i(s) \subseteq \text{Moves}$ of moves available to player $i$ at state $s$.
- A probabilistic transition function $p$, that gives the probability $p(t \mid s, a_1, a_2)$ of a transition from $s$ to $t$ for all $s, t \in S$ and all moves $a_1 \in \Gamma_1(s)$ and $a_2 \in \Gamma_2(s)$.

At every state $s \in S$, player 1 chooses a move $a_1 \in \Gamma_1(s)$, and simultaneously and independently player 2 chooses a move $a_2 \in \Gamma_2(s)$. The game then proceeds to the successor state $t$ with probability $p(t \mid s, a_1, a_2)$, for all $t \in S$. We assume that the players act non-cooperatively, i.e., each player chooses her strategy independently and secretly from the other player, and is only interested in maximizing her own reward. A path of $G$ is an infinite sequence $s_0, s_1, s_2, \ldots$ of states in $S$ such that for all $k \geq 0$, there are moves
\[ a_1^s \in \Gamma_1(s_k) \text{ and } a_2^s \in \Gamma_2(s_k) \text{ with } p(s_{k+1} \mid s_k, a_1^s, a_2^s) > 0. \]

We denote by \( \Omega \) the set of all paths.

We distinguish the following special classes of concurrent game structures.

- A concurrent game structure \( G \) is deterministic if for all \( s \in S \) and all \( a_1 \in \Gamma_1(s), a_2 \in \Gamma_2(s) \), there is a \( t \in S \) such that \( p(t \mid s, a_1, a_2) = 1 \).

- A concurrent game structure \( G \) is turn-based if at every state at most one player can choose among multiple moves; that is, if for every state \( s \in S \) there exists at most one \( i \in \{ 1, 2 \} \) with \( |\Gamma_i(s)| > 1 \).

For brevity, we refer to concurrent turn-based game structures simply as turn-based game structures.

### 2.1 Randomized strategies

A strategy for player \( i \in \{ 1, 2 \} \) is a mapping \( \pi_i : S^+ \rightarrow D(Moves) \) that associates with every nonempty finite sequence \( \sigma \in S^+ \) of states, representing the past history of the game, a probability distribution \( \pi_i(\sigma) \) used to select the next move. Thus, the choice of the next move can be history-dependent and randomized. The strategy \( \pi_i \) can prescribe only moves that are available to player \( i \); that is, for all sequences \( \sigma \in S^+ \) and states \( s \in S \), we require that \( \pi_i(\sigma(s))(a) > 0 \text{ iff } a \in \Gamma_i(s) \). We denote by \( \Pi_i \) the set of all strategies for player \( i \in \{ 1, 2 \} \). A strategy \( \pi_i \) is deterministic if for all \( \sigma \in S^+ \) there exists a \( a \in Moves \) such that \( \pi_i(\sigma(a)) = 1 \). Thus, deterministic strategies are equivalent to functions \( S^+ \rightarrow Moves \). A strategy \( \pi_i \) is finite-memory if the distribution chosen at every state \( s \in S \) depends only on \( s \) itself, and on a finite number of bits of information about the past history of the game. A strategy \( \pi_i \) is memoryless if \( \pi_i(\sigma) = \pi_i(s) \) for all \( s \in S \) and all \( \sigma \in S^+ \).

Once the starting state \( s \) and the strategies \( \pi_1 \) and \( \pi_2 \) for the two players have been chosen, the game is reduced to an ordinary stochastic process. Hence, the probabilities of events are uniquely defined, where an event \( A \subseteq \Omega \) is a measurable set of paths. For an event \( A \subseteq \Omega \), we denote by \( \Pr_{\pi_1,\pi_2}(A) \) the probability that a path belongs to \( A \) when the game starts from \( s \) and the players use the strategies \( \pi_1 \) and \( \pi_2 \). Similarly, for a measurable function \( f \) that associates a number in \( \mathbb{R} \cup \{ \infty \} \) with each path, we denote by \( \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1,\pi_2}(f) \) the expected value of \( f \) when the game starts from \( s \) and the strategies \( \pi_1 \) and \( \pi_2 \) are used. We denote by \( \Theta_i \) the random variable representing the \( i \)-th state of a path; formally, \( \Theta_i \) is a variable that assumes value \( s_i \) on the path \( s_0, s_1, s_2, \ldots \).

### 2.2 Winning conditions

Given a concurrent game structure \( G = (S, Moves, \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, p) \), we consider winning conditions expressed by linear-time temporal logic (LTL) formulas, whose atomic propositions correspond to subsets of the set \( S \) of states [16]. We focus on winning conditions that correspond to safety or reachability properties, as well as winning conditions that correspond to the accepting criteria of Büchi, co-Büchi, and Rabin-chain automata [21, 8]. We call games with such winning conditions safety, reachability, Büchi, co-Büchi, and Rabin-chain games, respectively. The ability to solve games with Rabin-chain conditions suffices for solving games with arbitrary LTL (or \( \omega \)-regular) winning conditions: in fact, it suffices to encode the \( \omega \)-regular condition as a deterministic Rabin-chain automaton, solving then the game consisting of the synchronous product of the original game with the Rabin-chain automaton [21, 26].

Given an LTL winning condition \( \Psi \), by abuse of notation we denote equally by \( \Psi \) the set of paths \( \mathcal{P} \in \Omega \) that satisfy \( \Psi \); this set is measurable for any choice of strategies for the two players [28]. Hence, the probability that a path satisfies \( \Psi \) starting from state \( s \in S \) under strategies \( \pi_1, \pi_2 \) for the two players is \( \Pr_{\pi_1,\pi_2}(\Psi) \). Given a state \( s \in S \) and a winning condition \( \Psi \), we are interested in finding the maximal probability with which player \( i \in \{ 1, 2 \} \) can ensure that \( \Psi \) holds from \( s \). We call such probability the value of the game \( \Psi \) at \( s \) for player \( i \in \{ 1, 2 \} \). This value for player 1 is given by the function \( \langle 1 \rangle \Psi : S \mapsto [0, 1] \), defined for all \( s \in S \) by

\[
\langle 1 \rangle \Psi(s) = \sup_{\pi_1 \in \Pi_1} \inf_{\pi_2 \in \Pi_2} \Pr_{\pi_1,\pi_2}(\Psi).
\]

The value for player 2 is given by the function \( \langle 2 \rangle \Psi \), defined symmetrically. Concurrent games satisfy a quantitative version of determinacy [17], stating that for all LTL conditions \( \Psi \) and all \( s \in S \), we have

\[
\langle 1 \rangle \Psi(s) = 1 - \langle 2 \rangle \Psi(s).
\]

A strategy \( \pi_1 \) for player 1 is optimal if for all \( s \in S \) we have

\[
\inf_{\pi_2 \in \Pi_2} \Pr_{\pi_1,\pi_2}(\Psi) = \langle 1 \rangle \Psi(s).
\]

For \( \varepsilon > 0 \), a strategy \( \pi_1 \) for player 1 is \( \varepsilon \)-optimal if for all \( s \in S \) we have

\[
\inf_{\pi_2 \in \Pi_2} \Pr_{\pi_1,\pi_2}(\Psi) \geq \langle 1 \rangle \Psi(s) - \varepsilon.
\]

Note that the quantitative determinacy of concurrent games is equivalent to the existence of \( \varepsilon \)-optimal strategies for all \( \varepsilon > 0 \) at all states \( s \in S \). For the special case of deterministic turn-based games, it is known that the value of any \( \omega \)-regular game at a state is either 0 or 1, and finite-memory deterministic optimal strategies always exist; the value of the game can be computed with the algorithms of [2, 11, 8].

### 2.3 Predecessor operators

Let \( F \) be the space of all functions \( S \mapsto [0, 1] \) that map states into the interval \([0, 1]\). Given two functions \( f, g \in F \), we write \( f > g \) (resp. \( f \geq g \)) if \( f(s) > g(s) \) (resp. \( f(s) \geq g(s) \)) at all \( s \in S \), and we define \( f \wedge g \) and \( f \vee g \) by

\[
(f \wedge g)(s) = \min\{f(s), g(s)\}
\]
\[
(f \vee g)(s) = \max\{f(s), g(s)\}
\]

for all \( s \in S \). We denote by \( 0 \) and \( 1 \) the constant functions that map all states into 0 and 1, respectively. For all \( f \in F \), we denote by \( 1 - f \) the function defined by \( (1 - f)(s) = 1 - f(s) \) for all \( s \in S \). Given a subset \( Q \subseteq S \) of states, by abuse of notation we denote also by \( Q \) the indicator function of \( Q \), defined by \( Q(s) = 1 \) if \( s \in Q \) and \( Q(s) = 0 \) otherwise. We denote by \( -Q = S \setminus Q \) the complement of the subset \( Q \) in \( S \), and again we denote equally by \( -Q \) the indicator function of \( -Q \). We denote by \( F_1 \subseteq F \) the set of indicator functions. The quantitative predecessor operators \( \text{Pre}_{\pi_1}, \text{Pre}_{\pi_2} : F \mapsto F \) are defined for every \( f \in F \) by

\[
\text{Pre}_{\pi_1}(f)(s) = \sup_{\pi_2 \in \Pi_2} \inf_{\pi_1 \in \Pi_1} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1,\pi_2} \{f(\Theta_1)\}
\]
and symmetrically for \( P_{\text{pre}} \). Intuitively, the value \( P_{\text{pre}}(f)(s) \) is the maximum expectation for the next value of \( f \) that player \( i \in \{1, 2\} \) can achieve. Given \( f \in F \) and \( i \in \{1, 2\} \), the function \( P_{\text{pre}}(f) \) can be computed by solving the following matrix game at each \( s \in S \):

\[
P_{\text{pre}}(f)(s) = \max \left[ \sum_{t \in S} f(t)p(t, s, a_1, a_2) \right]_{a_1 \in \Gamma_1(s), a_2 \in \Gamma_2(s)}
\]

The existence of solutions to the above matrix games, and the existence of optimal randomized strategies for players 1 and 2, is guaranteed by the minmax theorem [29]. The matrix games may be solved using traditional linear programming algorithms (see, e.g., [23]). From properties of matrix games we have the following facts. For \( i \in \{1, 2\} \), the operator \( P_{\text{pre}} \) is monotonic and continuous, that is, for all \( f, g \in F \), if \( f \geq g \) then \( P_{\text{pre}}(f) \geq P_{\text{pre}}(g) \); and for all \( f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \ldots \in F \), we have \( \lim_n P_{\text{pre}}(f_n) = P_{\text{pre}}(\lim_n f_n) \).

Moreover, the operators \( P_{\text{pre}} \) and \( P_{\text{post}} \) are dual; for all \( f \in F \), we have \( P_{\text{pre}}(f) = 1 - P_{\text{post}}(1 - f) \).

### 2.4 Quantitative game \( \mu \)-calculus

We write the solutions of games with respect to \( \omega \)-regular winning conditions in quantitative game \( \mu \)-calculus. The formulas of the quantitative game \( \mu \)-calculus are generated by the grammar

\[
\phi ::= Q | x | \phi \lor \psi | \phi \land \psi | P_{\text{pre}}(\phi) | P_{\text{post}}(\phi) \\
| \mu x. \phi | \nu x. \phi,
\]

for proposition \( Q \subseteq S \) and variables \( x \) from some fixed set \( X \). Hence, as for LTL, the propositions of quantitative \( \mu \)-calculus formulas correspond to subsets of states of the game. As usual, a formula \( \phi \) is closed if every variable \( x \) in \( \phi \) occurs in the scope of a fixpoint quantifier \( \mu x \) or \( \nu x \).

Let \( \mathcal{E} : X \rightarrow F \) be a variable valuation that associates a function \( \mathcal{E}(x) \in F \) with each variable \( x \) in \( X \). We write \( \mathcal{E}[x \mapsto f] \) for the valuation that agrees with \( \mathcal{E} \) on all variables, except that \( x \in X \) is mapped to \( f \in F \). Given a valuation \( \mathcal{E} \), every formula \( \phi \) of quantitative game \( \mu \)-calculus defines a function \( \mathcal{E}[\phi] : F \rightarrow F \):

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{E}[f] & = f \\
\mathcal{E}[x] & = \mathcal{E}(x) \\
\mathcal{E}[P_{\text{pre}}(\phi)] & = P_{\text{pre}}(\mathcal{E}[\phi]) \\
\mathcal{E}[P_{\text{post}}(\phi)] & = P_{\text{post}}(\mathcal{E}[\phi]) \\
\mathcal{E}[\mu x. \phi] & = \{ \mathcal{E}[\phi] \mid \mathcal{E}(x) \in \mathcal{E}[\phi] \} \\
\mathcal{E}[\nu x. \phi] & = \{ \mathcal{E}[\phi] \mid \mathcal{E}(x) \in \mathcal{E}[\phi] \}
\end{align*}
\]

The existence and uniqueness of the above fixpoints for the \( \mu \) and \( \nu \) operators is a consequence of the monotonicity and continuity of all the operators, and in particular of \( P_{\text{pre}} \) and \( P_{\text{post}} \). As usual, the fixpoints can be evaluated in an iterative fashion: we have \( \mathcal{E}[\mu x. \phi] = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{E}_n \), where \( \mathcal{E}_0 = 0 \), and \( \mathcal{E}_{n+1} = \{ \mathcal{E}_n \mid \mathcal{E}_n(\cdot) \} \) for \( n \geq 0 \). Similarly, the greatest fixpoint operator \( \nu \) we have \( \mathcal{E}[\nu x. \phi] = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{E}_n \), where \( \mathcal{E}_0 = \mathcal{E} \), and \( \mathcal{E}_{n+1} = \{ \mathcal{E}_n \mid \mathcal{E}_n(\cdot) \} \) for \( n \geq 0 \). A quantitative game \( \mu \)-calculus formula suggests a way to implement approximation algorithms for large state spaces, using a subset \( F' \subseteq F \) of base functions that have compact representations [1, 4, 7]. We note that the solution algorithms presented in this paper apply also to games with countable (rather than finite) state space and finite set of moves (see Theorem 4); in this case, however, the iterative evaluation of the fixpoints needs to be based on transfinite induction.

The quantitative game \( \mu \)-calculus defined by (1) suffices for writing the solution formulas of games with \( \omega \)-regular winning conditions. In some intermediate lemmas, however, we use with slight abuse of notation an extended version of the calculus, in which we have one symbol \( f \) for every function \( f \in F \). Obviously, such functions are interpreted as themselves; for all valuations \( \mathcal{E} \), we have \( \mathcal{E}[f] = f \).

### 2.5 Complementation and correctness

We solve concurrent games with LTL winning condition \( \Psi \) by providing a quantitative game \( \mu \)-calculus formula \( \phi \) such that \( (1) \Psi = [\phi] \). To prove this equality, we exploit the complementation of \( \mu \)-calculus expressions. The complement of a closed \( \mu \)-calculus formula \( \phi \) is a formula \( \neg \phi \) such that \( 1 - [\phi] = [\neg \phi] \); the complement can be obtained by recursively applying the following transformations, which rely on the duality of \( P_{\text{pre}} \) and \( P_{\text{post}} \):

\[
\begin{align*}
\neg Q & \Rightarrow S \setminus Q \\
\neg \phi & \Rightarrow \phi \\
\neg P_{\text{pre}}(\phi) & \Rightarrow P_{\text{post}}(\neg \phi) \\
\neg(\phi_1 \{ x \} \phi_2) & \Rightarrow (\neg \phi_1) \{ x \} (\neg \phi_2) \\
\neg(\mu x. \phi) & \Rightarrow (\nu x. \phi) \Rightarrow (\neg x) [\phi/x] \\
\end{align*}
\]

where \( [\neg x/\neg x] \) denotes the result of replacing \( x \) with \( \neg x \) in \( \phi \). Note that since the formula \( \phi \) is closed, by applying the above transformations to \( \neg \phi \) we obtain again a formula of the syntactic form (1). In fact, the above transformations push the \( \neg \) operator to the leaves of the syntax tree (1), which consist either in subsets \( Q \subseteq S \) or in variables \( x \in X \). The subsets are simply complemented. Since \( \phi \) is closed, each variable \( x \in X \) in \( \phi \) appears in the scope of a \( \mu x \) or \( \nu x \) quantifier; the transformation rules for \( \mu \) and \( \nu \), together with the rule for double negation elimination, ensure that once all transformations have been applied, \( \neg \) operator remains as prefix to a variable.

Our proofs of (1) \( \Psi = [\phi] \) consist in two steps.

- First, from \( \phi \) we construct for all \( \epsilon > 0 \) a strategy \( \pi_1^\epsilon \) for player 1 that ensures winning with probability at least \( [\phi] - \epsilon \), proving \( [\phi] \geq (1) \Psi \).
- Second, we complement \( \phi \), and we consider the winning condition \( \neg \Psi \). From \( \neg \phi \) we construct for all \( \epsilon > 0 \) a strategy \( \pi_2^\epsilon \) that enables player 2 to win the game with goal \( \neg \Psi \), with probability at least \( [\neg \phi] - \epsilon \); this shows \( [\neg \phi] \geq (2) \neg \Psi \), or equivalently \( [\phi] \leq (1) \Psi \).

Even in the cases where solution formulas for concurrent games are known, such as for the reachability winning condition (see [10], Chapter 4.4), this approach yields simpler arguments than the classical one, where the \( \epsilon \)-optimal strategies for both players have to be constructed from the solution formula \( \phi \) for player 1 alone, and where it is usually necessary to consider discounted versions of the games.

### 3. REACHABILITY AND SAFETY GAMES

Concurrent reachability and safety games can be solved by reducing them to positive stochastic games [27, 10]. We present the solution algorithms, reformulating them in quantitative game \( \mu \)-calculus. As mentioned above, by relying on
the complementation of quantitative game μ-calculus, we are able to prove the correctness of the solutions without resorting to the consideration of discounted versions of the same games.

A concurrent reachability game consists in a concurrent game structure $G = (S, Moves, \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, p)$ together with a winning condition $\square U$, where $U \subseteq S$. Intuitively, the winning condition consists in reaching the subset $U$ of states.

The solution of such a reachability game is given by

$$\mu x (U \cup \text{Pre}_1 (x)) = \{ \square U \} \wedge \mu x (U \cup \text{Pre}_1 (x)).$$

(1)

This solution can be computed iteratively as the limit

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \mu x (U \cup \text{Pre}_1 (x))^k = \{ \square U \} \wedge \mu x (U \cup \text{Pre}_1 (x)).$$

(2)

The solution of such a reachability game is given by

$$\mu x (U \cup \text{Pre}_1 (x)) = \{ \square U \} \wedge \mu x (U \cup \text{Pre}_1 (x)).$$

(3)

which is dual to (2). To this end, we prove the following lemma.

**Lemma 2.** Let $w = \mu x (U \cup \text{Pre}_1 (x))$. Player 1 has a strategy $\pi_1$ such that $\text{Pr}^{\pi_1, \pi_2} (\square U) \geq w(s)$ for all $\pi_2 \in \Pi_2$ and all $s \in S$.

The lemma can be proved using standard arguments about positive reward games [10]. We present here a more direct proof, that will lead to the arguments for Büchi and co-Büchi games.

**Proof.** Let $\pi_1$ be a strategy for player 1 that at all $s \in U$ plays according to an optimal distribution of the matrix game corresponding to $\text{Pre}_1 (w(s))$, and at all $s \in S \setminus U$ plays arbitrarily. Fix a state $s_0 \in S$ and an arbitrary strategy $\pi_2 \in \Pi_2$. The process $(H_n)_{n \geq 0}$ defined by $H_n = w(\Theta_n)$ is a submartingale [30]; in fact, from $w(s) = \text{Pre}_1 (w(s))$ for $s \in U$ and from the choice of $\pi_1$ follows that

$$\text{E}^{\pi_1, \pi_2} (H_{n+1} \mid H_0, H_1, \ldots, H_n) \geq H_n$$

for all $n \geq 0$. Hence, we have $\text{E}^{\pi_1, \pi_2} (H_n) \geq H_0 = w(s_0)$.

Moreover, since $w(s) \leq 1$ at all $s \in S$, by inspection we have $\text{E}^{\pi_1, \pi_2} (H_n) \leq \text{Pr}^{\pi_1, \pi_2} (\square U)$, and the result follows from $\text{Pr}^{\pi_1, \pi_2} (\square U) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \text{Pr}^{\pi_1, \pi_2} (\square U)$.

The following theorem summarizes the properties of concurrent reachability and safety games.

**Theorem 1.** The following assertions hold.

1. Concurrent reachability and safety games can be solved according to (2) and (3).

2. Concurrent reachability games have memoryless $\varepsilon$-optimal strategies; there are deterministic concurrent reachability games without optimal strategies. Turn-based reachability games always have deterministic and memoryless optimal strategies.

3. Concurrent safety games have memoryless optimal strategies; there are deterministic concurrent safety games without memoryless deterministic optimal strategies. Turn-based safety games always have deterministic and memoryless optimal strategies.

Part 1 is classical [9, 10], except for the notation; the result also follows from the combination of Lemmas 1 and 2. The existence of memoryless $\varepsilon$-optimal strategies for concurrent reachability games follows from [22]. The existence of deterministic concurrent reachability games without optimal strategies is demonstrated by Example 2 below, adapted from [9, 15]. The existence of optimal strategies for concurrent safety games is classical; it also follows from the proof of Lemma 2. The existence of deterministic concurrent safety games without optimal deterministic strategies is demonstrated by the game MATCHONEBIT described in the introduction. The results for turn-based games follow from results on perfect-information games; see e.g. [10].
Example 2. Consider a concurrent game with $S = \{s, t, u\}$; the only state where players can choose among more than one move is $s$. We have $\Gamma_1(s) = \{a, b\}$ and $\Gamma_2(s) = \{c, d\}$. The game has a deterministic transition function: $p(s \mid s, a, c) = p(t \mid s, a, d) = p(t \mid s, b, c) = p(u \mid s, b, d) = 1$, all other transition probabilities are 0. We have $(1) \otimes t(s) = 1$. In fact, player 1 can play moves $a$ and $b$ with probability $1 - \varepsilon$ and $\varepsilon$ respectively to ensure a winning probability of $(1 - \varepsilon)$ from $s$, for $\varepsilon > 0$. However, player 1 has no optimal strategy: if he decides to move $b$ at the $n$th round, player 2 can play move $d$ at the $(n-1)$th round, so that the probability of reaching $t$ is always less than 1.

4. BÜCHI AND CO-BÜCHI GAMES

A concurrent Büchi game consists in a concurrent game structure $G = (S, \text{Moves}, \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, p)$ together with a winning condition $\square U$, where $U \subseteq S$. Intuitively, the winning condition consists in visiting the subset $U$ of states infinitely often. The solution of a concurrent Büchi game is given by

$$\langle 1 \rangle \square U = \llbracket vy. \mu x. ((\neg U \land P_{pre_1}(x)) \lor (U \land P_{pre_1}(y))) \rrbracket. \quad (4)$$

The proof of (4) is based on two lemmas. The first lemma generalizes the result about concurrent reachability games. Given a function $g \in \mathcal{F}$ and a subset $U$ of states, we let $g(\square U)$ be the function that associates with each path $s_0, s_1, s_2, \ldots$ the value $g(s_i)$, for $i = \min \{k \mid s_k \in U\} < \infty$, and the value 0 if $s_k \not\in U$ for all $k \geq 0$. Hence, $g(\square U)$ is the value of $g$ at the state where the path first enters $U$, if such a state exists, and is 0 otherwise. The following lemma can be proved similarly to Lemma 1.

**Lemma 3.** For $g \in \mathcal{F}$ and $U \subseteq S$, let

$$w = \llbracket vy. (\neg U \land P_{pre_1}(x)) \lor (U \land P_{pre_1}(y)) \rrbracket. \quad (5)$$

Then, for all $\varepsilon > 0$ player 1 has a strategy $\pi^1_1$ that ensures $E^{\pi^1_1}_{\varepsilon^2} (g(\square U)) \geq w(s) - \varepsilon$ at all $s \in S$.

We call the above game a $g(\square U)$-game; the strategy $\pi^1_1$ is an $\varepsilon$-optimal strategy for it. The following lemma shows that the fixpoint (4) is a lower bound for the maximal probability of winning a concurrent Büchi game. The upper-bound result will follow from results on concurrent co-Büchi games.

**Lemma 4.** Let

$$w = \llbracket vy. (\neg U \land P_{pre_1}(x)) \lor (U \land P_{pre_1}(y)) \rrbracket. \quad (6)$$

For all $\varepsilon > 0$ player 1 has a strategy $\pi^1_2$ such that $E^{\pi^1_2}_{\varepsilon^2} (\square U) \geq w(s) - \varepsilon$ for all $\varepsilon$ and all $s \in S$.

**Proof.** From $\varepsilon$, construct a positive sequence $\{\varepsilon_i\}_{i=0}^{\infty}$ with $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \varepsilon_i < \varepsilon$. The strategy $\pi^1_2$ is as follows. In $S \setminus U$ the strategy $\pi^1_2$ initially coincides with a $\varepsilon_0$-optimal strategy for the game $w(\square U)$. Upon reaching $U$, the strategy $\pi^1_2$ plays according to an optimal distribution of the matrix game corresponding to $P_{pre_1}(w)$, until $U$ is left. In the following $\neg U$-phase, $\pi^1_2$ coincides with a $\varepsilon_i$-optimal strategy for the game $w(\square U)$, and so forth. Fix a state $s_0 \in S$ and a strategy $\pi_2 \in \Pi_2$. Define the process $H_{s_0}^{n,\varepsilon_0}$, where $H_{s_0}$ is the value of $w$ at the $n$-th visit of $U$. From Lemma 3 and from

the construction of $\pi^1_2$, we have $E^{\pi^1_2}_{\varepsilon_2} (H_1) \geq w(s_0) - \varepsilon_0$, and for $n \geq 0$,

$$E^{\pi^1_2}_{\varepsilon_2} (H_{s_0+1} \mid H_1, H_2, \ldots, H_n) \geq H_n - \varepsilon_n.$$ 

By induction, this leads to

$$E^{\pi^1_2}_{\varepsilon_2} (H_{s_0+1}) \geq w(s_0) - \sum_{i=0}^{n} \varepsilon_i$$

for all $n \geq 0$. Denoting by $[\Box U]_n$ the event of visiting $U$ at least $n$ times, we have $P_{\pi^1_2}^{\pi^1_2}(\Box U) \geq E^{\pi^1_2}_{\varepsilon_2} (H_n)$. Combining these two results we obtain

$$P_{\pi^1_2}^{\pi^1_2} ([\Box U]_n) \geq w(s_0) - \varepsilon,$$

and the result then follows from

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P_{\pi^1_2}^{\pi^1_2} ([\Box U]_n) = P_{\pi^1_2}^{\pi^1_2} (\Box U).$$

A concurrent co-Büchi game consists in a concurrent game structure $G = (S, \text{Moves}, \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, p)$ together with a winning condition $\Box U$, where $U \subseteq S$. Intuitively, the winning condition consists in eventually staying forever in the subset $U$ of states. The solution of a concurrent co-Büchi game is given by

$$\langle 1 \rangle \Box U = \llbracket vy. (\neg U \land P_{pre_1}(x)) \lor (U \land P_{pre_1}(y)) \rrbracket. \quad (7)$$

Again, the proof of the above fixpoint equation is based on two lemmas. Let $[\Box U]$ be the function that associates with each path value 1 if the path always stays in $U$, and value 0 otherwise. The first lemma generalizes Lemma 2.

**Lemma 5.** For $g \in \mathcal{F}$ and $U \subseteq S$, let

$$w = \llbracket vy. (\neg U \land P_{pre_1}(y)) \lor (U \land P_{pre_1}(y)) \rrbracket. \quad (8)$$

Then the strategy $\pi^1_1$ of player 1 that plays at each $s \in S$ according to an optimal distribution of the matrix game corresponding to $P_{pre_1}(w)(s)$ is such that $E^{\pi^1_1}_{\varepsilon^2} ([\Box U] + g(\Box U)) \geq w$ for all $s \in S$ and $\varepsilon \in \Pi_2$.

The proof is similar to that of Lemma 2. The following lemma shows that the fixpoint of (8) is a lower bound for the maximal probability of winning the concurrent co-Büchi game.

**Lemma 6.** Let

$$w = \llbracket vy. (\neg U \land P_{pre_1}(x)) \lor (U \land P_{pre_1}(y)) \rrbracket. \quad (9)$$

For all $\varepsilon > 0$ player 1 has a strategy $\pi^1_2$ such that $P_{\pi^1_2}^{\pi^1_2} (\Box U) \geq w(s)$ for all $\varepsilon$ and all $s \in S$.

**Proof.** Denote by $[\Box U]_n$ the event of visiting $\neg U$ at most $n$ times. Let $x_0 = 0$, and for $n > 0$,

$$x_n = \llbracket vy. (\neg U \land P_{pre_1}(x_{n-1})) \lor (U \land P_{pre_1}(y)) \rrbracket.$$

By induction on $n \geq 0$, we show that player 1 has a strategy $\pi^1_2$ such that $P_{\pi^1_2}^{\pi^1_2} ([\Box U]_n) \geq x_n$ for all $s \in S$ and all $\varepsilon$ and all $\varepsilon \in \Pi_2$; the result will then follow by taking the limit $n \to \infty$. The base case is trivial. For $n > 0$, the strategy $\pi^1_2$ plays according to an optimal distribution of the matrix game corresponding to $P_{pre_1}(x_n)$ as long as $U$ is not left. At the first visit to $\neg U$, the strategy $\pi^1_2$ plays one round
according to an optimal distribution of the matrix game corresponding to \( P_{\text{pre}}(x_{n-1}) \), and switchers thereafter to the strategy \( \pi_{n-1} \). By definition of \( \pi_{n-1} \), from the previous lemma we have
\[
\Pr_{\pi_{n-1}}^n [\square U]_n \geq \Pr_{\pi_{n-1}}^{n-1} [\square U]_n + \varepsilon \Pr_{\pi_{n-2}}^{n-1} [x_n-1 (\square - U)]_n \geq x_n.
\]

The following theorem summarizes the results about concurrent Büchi and co-Büchi games.

**Theorem 2.** The following assertions hold.

1. Concurrent Büchi and co-Büchi games can be solved according to (4) and (5).

2. There are deterministic concurrent Büchi games without optimal strategies, and without finite-memory \( \varepsilon \)-optimal strategies. Turn-based Büchi games always have deterministic and memoryless optimal strategies.

3. There are deterministic concurrent co-Büchi games without optimal strategies. Turn-based co-Büchi games always have deterministic and memoryless optimal strategies.

Part 1 follows from Lemmas 4 and 6, and from quantitative game \( \mu \)-calculus complementation. Part 2 follows from the lack of optimal strategies for reachability (see Example 2), and from the fact that Büchi games are equivalent to iterated reachability games (see [6] for an example). Part 3 is a consequence of the lack of optimal strategies for concurrent reachability games.

5. **RABIN-CHAIN GAMES**

A concurrent Rabin-chain game consists in a concurrent game structure \( \mathcal{G} = \langle S, M, \omega, \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, p \rangle \) together with a winning condition
\[
\mathcal{R} = \bigvee_{i=0}^{k-1} (\square U_{2i} \land \neg \square \square U_{2i+1}),
\]
where \( k > 0 \) and \( \emptyset = U_{2k} \leq U_{2k-1} \leq U_{2k-2} \leq \cdots \leq \emptyset = S \).
A more intuitive characterization of this winning condition can be obtained by defining, for \( 0 \leq i \leq 2k - 1 \), the set \( C_i \) of states of color \( i \) by \( C_i = U_i \setminus U_{i+1} \). The total number of colors is \( N = 2k \). Given a path \( \pi \), let \( \text{Inf}_{\pi}(\pi) \subseteq S \) be the set of states that occur infinitely often along \( \pi \), and let
\[
\text{MaxCol}(\pi) = \max \{ i \in \{0, \ldots, N-1\} \mid C_i \cap \text{Inf}_{\pi}(\pi) \neq \emptyset \}
\]
be the largest color appearing along the path. Then,
\[
\mathcal{R} = \{ \pi \in \Omega \mid \text{MaxCol}(\pi) \text{ is even} \}.
\]
The solution (1) of a Rabin-chain condition with \( N \) colors is given by
\[
(1) \mathcal{R} = [\lambda_0 \land \lambda_1 \land \cdots \land \lambda_{N-1} \land \mathcal{P}_{\text{pre}}(x_0) (\bigvee_{i=0}^{N-1} (C_i \land \mathcal{P}_{\text{pre}}(x_i)))]
\]
for \( \lambda_n = \nu \) if \( n \) is even, and \( \lambda_n = \mu \) if \( n \) is odd (compare with [8]). The proof of (6) is based on the following inductive decomposition, inspired by the one of [8].

We denote by \( C_{\leq n} = \bigcup_{i=0}^{n} C_i \) (resp. \( C_{> n} = \bigcup_{i=n+1}^{N-1} C_i \) and \( C_{\leq n} = \bigcup_{i=n}^{N-1} C_i \)) the set of states colored by colors less than or equal to \( n \) (resp., greater than \( n \), and smaller than \( n \)). Let \( z \in \mathcal{F} \), and for \( n \geq 0 \) define \( \mathcal{J}_n \) by \( \mathcal{J}_{n+1} = z \), and
\[
\mathcal{J}_n = \lambda_n \mathcal{J}_{n-1} (C_n \land \mathcal{P}_{\text{pre}}(x_{n-1}) \lor C_{> n} \land z).
\]
We can show by induction on \( n \) that \( [\mathcal{J}_n(z)] \) is the function that gives the maximal expectation of either winning the concurrent Rabin-chain game while visiting only states in \( C_{\leq n} \), or of the value of \( z \langle \mathcal{G} \rangle \) if \( C_{\leq n} \) is exited. Denote by \( [R \land \square C_{\leq n}] \) the random function that has value 1 over a path exactly when the path satisfies condition \( \mathcal{R} \) while visiting only states in \( C_{\leq n} \). The lemma below makes this statement precise.

**Lemma 7.** For all \( \varepsilon > 0 \) all \( z \in \mathcal{F} \), and all states \( s \in S \), there is a strategy \( \pi_1 \in \Pi_1 \) for player 1 such that for all strategies \( \pi_2 \in \Pi_2 \), we have
\[
\mathcal{E}_{s_1}^{\mathcal{I}_{1\mathcal{R}}} \{ [R \land \square C_{\leq n}] + z \langle \mathcal{G} \rangle \} \geq [\mathcal{J}_n(z)](s) - \varepsilon.
\]

The proof of the lemma is similar to the proof of the lemmas for the Büchi and co-Büchi conditions; we sketch the inductive steps for \( n \) odd (i.e., \( \lambda_n = \nu \)). From \( \varepsilon \), construct a positive sequence \( \{\varepsilon_i\}_{i \geq 0} \) with sum less than \( \varepsilon \). Let \( x_0 = 0 \), and for \( k > 0 \), let
\[
x_k = [\mathcal{J}_{n-1}(C_n \land \mathcal{P}_{\text{pre}}(x_{k-1}) \lor C_{> n} \land z)].
\]
By induction on \( k \), we show that player 1 has a strategy \( \pi_1^k \) such that
\[
\Pr_{\pi_1^k}^s [R \land \square C_{\leq n}] + z \langle \mathcal{G} \rangle \} \geq x_k(s) - \sum_{i=0}^k \varepsilon_i\]
for all \( s \in S \) and \( \pi_2 \in \Pi_2 \). The strategy \( \pi_1^k \) for player 1 coincides with an \( e_k \)-optimal strategy in the game \( \mathcal{J}_{n-1}(C_n \land \mathcal{P}_{\text{pre}}(x_{k-1}) \lor C_{> n} \land z) \) while the game remains in \( C_{\leq n} \); when \( C_n \) is hit for the first time, it plays an optimal strategy in the matrix game \( \mathcal{P}_{\text{pre}}(x_{k-1}) \), and thereafter switches to the inductively constructed strategy \( \pi_1^{k-1} \). Then
\[
\mathcal{E}_{s_1}^{\mathcal{I}_{1\mathcal{R}}} \{ [R \land \square C_{\leq n}] + z \langle \mathcal{G} \rangle \} \geq [\mathcal{J}_n(z)](s) - \sum_{i=0}^k \varepsilon_i;
\]
for all \( s \in S \) and \( \pi_2 \in \Pi_2 \), under the induction hypothesis on \( x_{k-1} \), and the claim follows by taking \( k \to \infty \). A similar argument works for \( n \) even (i.e., \( \lambda_n = \mu \)). The value of the game with condition \( \mathcal{R} \) is then \([\mathcal{J}_{n-1}(0)]\). Both the lower and the upper bounds for the value of the game follow from the lemma, because Rabin-chain games are self-dual (the complement of a concurrent Rabin-chain game is again a concurrent Rabin-chain game). We can now summarize the results for concurrent Rabin-chain games.

**Theorem 3.** The following assertions hold.

1. Concurrent Rabin-chain games can be solved according to \( [6] \).

2. There are deterministic concurrent Rabin-chain games without optimal strategies and without finite-memory \( \varepsilon \)-optimal strategies. Turn-based Rabin-chain games always have deterministic and memoryless optimal strategies.
Finally, the next theorem states that if the state space is countable, rather than finite, the quantitative game $\mu$-calculus solutions presented in this paper still define the value of the game.

**Theorem 4.** Consider a concurrent game structure $G = \langle S, \text{Moves}, T_1, T_2, p \rangle$, where $S$ is countable. Then, formulas (2), (3), (4), (5), and (6) provide the solutions for concurrent reachability, safety, Büchi, co-Büchi, and Rabin-chain games, respectively.

This theorem can be proved by the same arguments used for finite concurrent games, using transfinite induction rather than ordinary induction when arguing about the least and greatest fixpoints of the calculus.

### A comparison with Markov decision processes

A Markov decision process is a concurrent game structure where $|T_2(s)| = 1$ for all $s \in S$. In a Markov decision process, the problem of computing the maximal probability of satisfying a Büchi, co-Büchi, or Rabin-chain condition $\Psi$ can be solved in polynomial time, by reducing it to the problem of computing a maximal reachability probability [5]. From $\Psi$, we can first compute the subset $T_\Psi = \{ s \in S \mid (1) \Psi(s) = 1 \}$ of states where the maximal probability of $\Psi$ is 1. Then, we have $(1)\Psi = (1) \triangleright T_\Psi$, indicating that the maximal probability of satisfying $\Psi$ is equal to the maximal probability of reaching $T_\Psi$. In concurrent games, given a Büchi, co-Büchi, or Rabin-chain condition $\Psi$, we can compute the set $T_\Psi$ with the algorithms of [6], setting $T_\Psi = \{(1) \triangleright \Psi\}$ if the equality $(1)\Psi = (1) \triangleright T_\Psi$ held for concurrent games, it would provide monotonic approximation schemes for computing the value of the game (the problem would still not be reducible to linear programming, since the values may be irrational, as mentioned earlier). However, the following example demonstrates that the equality does not hold for games.

**Example 3.** Consider the turn-based game depicted in Figure 1. Let $U = \{ t_1, t_2, t_4 \}$, and consider the Büchi winning condition $\triangleright U$. The set of states $R_l$ (resp. $R_r$) where player 1 (resp. 2) can ensure winning (resp. losing) with probability 1 are given by

$$R_l = T_\triangleright U = \{ s \in S \mid (1) \triangleright U(s) = 1 \} = \{ t_1 \}$$

$$R_r = \{ s \in S \mid (2) \triangleright U(s) = 1 \} = \{ t_4, t_5 \}.$$

For $i \in \{ 1, 2 \}$, the maximal probability for player $i$ of reaching $R_i$ from outside $R_i$ is zero: $(1) \triangleright R_i(t_4) = 0$ for $k \neq 1$, and $(2) \triangleright R_2(t_4) = 0$ for $k \notin \{4, 5\}$. Nevertheless, we can verify that $(1) \triangleright U(t_2) = 2/3$, and $(1) \triangleright U(t_3) = 1/3$.

### 6. REFERENCES


