Brzozowski Goes Concurrent – A Kleene Theorem for Pomset Languages

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Abstract

Concurrent Kleene Algebra (CKA) is a mathematical formalism to study programs that exhibit concurrent behaviour. As with previous extensions of Kleene Algebra, characterizing the free model is crucial in order to develop the foundations of the theory and potential applications. For CKA, this has been an open question for a few years and this paper makes an important step towards an answer. We present a new automaton model and a Kleene-like theorem that relates a relaxed version of CKA to series-parallel pomset languages, which are a natural candidate for the free model. There are two substantial differences with previous work: from expressions to automata, we use Brzozowski derivatives, which enable a direct construction of the automaton; from automata to expressions, we provide a syntactic characterization of the automata that denote valid CKA behaviours.

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1 Introduction

In their CONCUR’09 paper [5], Hoare, Möller, Struth, and Wehrman introduced Concurrent Kleene Algebra (CKA) as a suitable mathematical framework to study concurrent programs, in the hope of achieving the same elegance that Kozen did when using Kleene Algebra (and extensions) to provide a verification platform for sequential programs.

CKA is a seemingly simple extension of Kleene Algebra (KA): it adds a parallel operator that allows to specify concurrent behaviours compositionally. However, extending the existing KA toolkit – importantly, completeness and decidability results – turns out to be challenging. A fundamental missing ingredient is a characterization of the free model for CKA. This is in striking contrast with KA, where these topics are well understood. Several authors [6, 8] have conjectured the free model to be series-parallel pomset languages – a generalization of regular languages to sets of partially ordered words.

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In KA, Kleene’s theorem provided a pillar for developing the toolkit and axiomatization [13], and, by extension, characterizing the free model. In this light, we pursue a Kleene Theorem for CKA. Specifically, we study series-rational expressions, with a denotational model in terms of pomset languages. Our main contribution is a Kleene Theorem for series-rational expressions, based on constructions faithfully translating between the denotational model and a newly defined operational model, which we call pomset automata. In a nutshell, these are finite-state automata in which computations from a certain state $s$ may branch into parallel threads that contribute to the language of $s$ whenever they both reach a final state.

We are not the first to attempt such a Kleene theorem. However, earlier works [16, 8] fall short of giving a precise correspondence between the denotational and operational models, due to the lack of a suitable automata restriction ensuring that only valid behaviours are accepted. We overcome this situation by introducing a generalization of Brzozowski derivatives [3] in the translation from expressions to automata. This guides us to a syntactic restriction on automata (rather than the semantic condition put forward in previous works), which guarantees the existence of a reverse construction, from automata to expressions. Moreover, following the Brzozowski route allows us to bypass a Thompson-like construction [19], avoiding the introduction of $\epsilon$-transitions and non-determinism present in the aforementioned works.

Since series-parallel expressions do not include the parallel analogue of the Kleene star (the “parallel star”), and our denotational model is not sound for the exchange law (which governs the interaction between sequential and parallel composition), our contribution is most accurately described as an operational model for weak Bi-Kleene Algebra. We leave it to future work to extend our construction to work with a denotational model that is sound for the exchange law (thus moving to weak Concurrent Kleene Algebra), as well as add the parallel star operator (arriving at Concurrent Kleene Algebra proper).

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we introduce the necessary notation. In Section 3, we introduce our automaton model as well as some notable subclasses of automata. In Section 4, we discuss how to translate a series-rational expression to a semantically equivalent pomset automaton, while in Section 5 we show how to translate a suitably restricted class of pomset automata to series-rational expressions. We contrast results with earlier work in Section 6. Directions for further work in are listed in Section 7.

To save space, proofs of lemmas are omitted from this paper. For a discussion that includes a proof for every lemma, we refer to the extended version of this paper [9].

2 Preliminaries

Let $S$ be a set; we write $2^S$ for the set of all subsets of $S$, and $\binom{S}{2}$ for the set of multisets over $S$ of size two. An element of $\binom{S}{2}$ containing $s_1, s_2 \in S$ is written $\{s_1, s_2\}$; note that $\{s_1, s_2\} = \{s_2, s_1\}$, and that $s_1$ may be the same as $s_2$. We use the symbols $\phi$ and $\psi$ to denote multisets. If $S$ and $I$ are sets, and for every $i \in I$ there exists an $s_i \in S$, we call $(s_i)_{i \in I}$ an $I$-indexed family over $S$. We say that a relation $\prec \subseteq S \times S$ is a strict order on $S$ if it is irreflexive and transitive. We refer to $\prec$ as well-founded if there are no infinite descending $\prec$-chains, i.e., no family $(s_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ over $S$ such that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, s_{n+1} \prec s_n$. Throughout the paper we fix a finite set $\Sigma$ called the alphabet, whose elements are symbols usually denoted with $a$ and $b$. Lastly, if $\rightarrow \subseteq X \times Y \times Z$ is a ternary relation, we write $x \xrightarrow{y} z$ instead of $(x, y, z) \in \rightarrow$. 
2.1 Pomsets

Partially-ordered multisets, or pomsets [4] for short, generalise words to a setting where events (elements from \( \Sigma \)) may take place not just sequentially, but also in parallel.

**Definition 2.1.** A labelled poset is a tuple \( \langle U, \leq_U, \lambda_U \rangle \) consisting of a carrier set \( U \), a partial order \( \leq_U \) on \( U \) and a labelling function \( \lambda_U : U \to \Sigma \). A labelled poset isomorphism is a bijection between poset carriers that bijectively preserves the labels and the ordering. A pomset is an isomorphism class of labelled posets; equivalently, it is a labelled poset up-to bijective renaming of elements in \( U \). We write \( 1 \) for the empty pomset, \( \text{Pom} \Sigma \) for the set of all pomsets and \( \text{Pom} \Sigma^+ \) for the set of all the non-empty pomsets.

For instance, suppose a recipe for caramel-glazed cookies tells us to *prepare* cookie dough, *bake* cookies in the oven, *caramelize* sugar, and *glaze* the finished cookies. Here, *prepare* precedes *bake* and *caramelize*, while *glaze* succeeds both. A pomset representing this process could be \( \langle C, \leq_C, \lambda_C \rangle \), where \( C = \{a, b, c, \} \) and \( \leq_C \) is such that \( a \leq_C b \leq_C d \) and \( a \leq_C c \leq_C d \), and \( \lambda_C(a) = \text{prepare}, \lambda_C(b) = \text{bake}, \lambda_C(c) = \text{caramelize}, \lambda_C(d) = \text{glaze} \).

Note that words are just finite pomsets with a total order. We will sometimes use \( a \in \Sigma \) to refer to the pomset with a single point labelled \( a \) (and the obvious order); such a pomset is called primitive. A pomset can be represented as a Hasse diagram, where nodes have labels in \( \Sigma \). For instance, the Hasse diagram for the pomset \( C \) above is drawn in Figure 1a.

To simplify notation, we refer to a pomset by the carrier \( U \) of a labelled poset \( \langle U, \leq_U, \lambda_U \rangle \) in its isomorphism class. We use the symbols \( U, V, W \) and \( X \) to denote pomsets. Pomsets being isomorphism classes, the content of the carrier of the chosen representative is of very little importance; it is the order and labelling that matters. For this reason, we tacitly assume that whenever we have two pomsets, we pick representatives that have disjoint carrier sets.

**Definition 2.2.** The width of a pomset \( U \), denoted \( \|U\| \), is the size of the largest antichain in \( U \) with respect to \( \leq_U \), i.e., the maximum \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) such that there exist \( u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \in U \) that are not related by \( \leq_U \).

The pomsets we work with in this paper have a finite carrier. As a result, \( \|U\| \) is always defined. For instance, the width of the pomset \( C \) above is 2, because the nodes (ii) and (iii) are an antichain of size 2, and there is no antichain of size 3.

**Definition 2.3.** Let \( U \) and \( V \) be pomsets. The sequential composition of \( U \) and \( V \), denoted \( U \cdot V \), is the pomset \( \langle U \cup V, \leq_U \cup \leq_V \cup (U \times V), \lambda_U \cup \lambda_V \rangle \). The parallel composition of \( U \) and \( V \), denoted \( U \parallel V \), is the pomset \( \langle U \cup V, \leq_U \cup \leq_V, \lambda_U \cup \lambda_V \rangle \). Here, \( \lambda_U \cup \lambda_V \) is the function from \( U \cup V \) to \( \Sigma \) that agrees with \( \lambda_U \) on \( U \), and with \( \lambda_V \) on \( V \).

Note that \( 1 \) is the unit for both sequential and parallel composition. Sequential composition forces the events in the left pomset to be ordered before those in the right pomset. An example, describing the pomset \( C \cdot C \), is depicted in Figure 1b.
Definition 2.4. The set of series-parallel pomsets, $\text{Pom}_{\Sigma}^{sp}$, is the smallest set that includes the empty and primitive pomsets and is closed under sequential and parallel composition.

In this paper we will be mostly concerned with series-parallel pomsets. For inductive reasoning about them, it is useful to record the following lemma.

Lemma 2.5. Let $U \in \text{Pom}_{\Sigma}^{sp}$. If $U$ is non-empty, then exactly one of the following is true: $U = a$ for some $a \in \Sigma$, or $U = V \cdot W$ for non-empty $V, W \in \text{Pom}_{\Sigma}^{sp}$, strictly smaller than $U$, or $U = V \parallel W$ for non-empty $V, W \in \text{Pom}_{\Sigma}^{sp}$, strictly smaller than $U$.

2.2 Pomset languages

If a sequential program can exhibit multiple traces, we can group the words that represent these traces into a set called a language. By analogy, we can group the pomsets that represent the traces that arise from a parallel program into a set, which we refer to as a pomset language.

Pomset languages are denoted by the symbols $U$ and $V$. For instance, suppose that the recipe for glazed cookies may have an optional fifth step where chocolate sprinkles are spread over the cookies. In that case, there are two pomsets that describe a trace arising from the recipe, $C^+$ and $C^-$, either with or without the chocolate sprinkles. The pomset language $C = \{C^-, C^+\}$ describes the new recipe.

Definition 2.6. Let $U$ be a pomset language. $U$ has bounded width if there is $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $U \in U$ we have $\|U\| \leq n$. The minimal such $n$ is the width of $U$, written $\|U\|$.

The pomset languages considered in this paper have bounded width, and hence $\|U\|$ is always defined. For instance, the width of $C$ is 2, because the width of both $C^+$ and $C^-$ is 2.

The sequential and parallel compositions of pomsets can be lifted to pomset languages. We also define a Kleene closure operator, similar to the one defined on languages of words.

Definition 2.7. Let $U$ and $V$ be pomset languages. We define:

- $U \cdot V = \{U \cdot V : U \in U, V \in V\}$
- $U \parallel V = \{U \parallel V : U \in U, V \in V\}$
- $U^* = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U^n$

Where $U^0 = \{1\}$, and $U^{n+1} = U \cdot U^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Kleene closure models indefinite repetition. For instance, if our cookie recipe has a final step “repeat until enough cookies have been made”, the pomset language $C^*$ represents all possible traces of repetitions of the recipe; e.g., $C^+ \cdot C^+ \cdot C^- \in C^*$ is the trace where first two batches of sprinkled cookies are made, followed by one without sprinkles.

2.3 Series-rational expressions

Just like a rational expression can be used to describe a regular structure of sequential events, a series-rational expression can be used to describe a regular structure of possibly parallel events. Series-rational expressions are rational expressions with parallel composition.

Definition 2.8. The series-rational expressions, denoted $T_{\Sigma}$, are formed by the grammar

$$e, f ::= 0 \mid 1 \mid a \in \Sigma \mid e + f \mid e \cdot f \mid e \parallel f \mid e^*.$$

We use the symbols $d, e, f, g$ and $h$ to denote series-rational expressions.

The semantics of a series-rational expression is given by a pomset language.
"subprocesses" reach an accepting state. The precise meaning is given in Definition 3.2 below.

We are now ready to describe an automaton model that recognises series-rational languages. When \( F \) with \( F \subseteq Q \) the \( \text{accepting states} \), \( \delta : Q \times \Sigma \to Q \) is a function called the \( \text{sequential transition function} \), \( \gamma : Q \times (\Sigma^2) \to Q \) is a function called the \( \text{parallel transition function} \).

Let \( \delta \) and \( \gamma \) be functions such that:

\[
\begin{align*}
\delta : Q \times \Sigma &\to Q \\
\gamma : Q \times (\Sigma^2) &\to Q
\end{align*}
\]

Note that we do not fix an initial state. As a result, a PA does not define a single pomset language but rather a mapping from its states to pomset languages. The language of a state is defined in terms of a trace relation that involves the transitions of both \( \delta \) and \( \gamma \). Here, \( \delta \) plays the same role as in classic finite automata: given a state and a symbol, it returns the new state after reading that symbol. The function \( \gamma \) warrants a bit more explanation. Given a state \( q \) and a binary multiset of states \( \{r,s\} \), \( \gamma \) tells us the state that is reached after reading two input streams in parallel starting at states \( r \) and \( s \), and having both "subprocesses" reach an accepting state. The precise meaning is given in Definition 3.2 below.
We say that \( \gamma \models \pi \) if \( \gamma \) is a derivation of \( \pi \) in the context of some \( A \), denoted \( A(\pi) \), is the set \( \{ q : \exists q' \in F. \ q \to_A q' \} \).

We purposefully omit the empty pomset \( 1 \) as a label in \( \to_A \); doing so would open up the possibility of having traces of the form \( q \to_A q' \) with \( q \neq q' \) (i.e., “silent transitions” or “\( \varepsilon \)-transitions”) for example by defining \( \gamma(q, [r, s]) = q' \) for some \( r, s \in F \). Avoiding transitions of this kind allows us to prove claims about \( \to_A \) by induction on the pomset size, and leverage Lemma 2.5 in the process to disambiguate between the rules that apply. By extension, we can prove claims about \( \to_A \) and \( L_A \) by treating \( U = 1 \) as a special case.

For the remainder of this section, we fix a PA \( A = (Q, \delta, \gamma, F) \), and a state \( q \in Q \). To simplify matters later on, we assume that \( A \) has a state \( \bot \in Q \) such that, for every \( a \in \Sigma \), it holds that \( \delta(\bot, a) = \bot \) and, for every \( \phi \in \langle q \rangle \), it holds that \( \gamma(\bot, \phi) = \bot \). Such a sink state is particularly useful when defining \( \gamma \): for a fixed \( q \in Q \) not all \([r, s] \in \langle q \rangle \) may give a value of \( \gamma(q, [r, s]) \) that contributes to the language accepted by \( q \). In such cases, we can define \( \gamma(q, [r, s]) = \bot \). Alternatively, we could have allowed \( \gamma \) to be a partial function; we chose \( \gamma \) as a total function so as not to clutter the definition of derivatives in Section 4.

We draw a PA in a way similar to finite automata: each state (except \( \bot \) is a vertex, and accepting states are marked by a double border. To represent sequential transitions, we draw labelled edges; for instance, in Figure 1c, \( \delta(q_0, \text{prepare}) = q_1 \). To represent parallel transitions, we draw hyper-edges; for instance, in Figure 1c, \( \gamma(q_1, [q_1, q_4]) = q_2 \). To avoid clutter, we do not draw either of these edges types the target state is \( \bot \). It is not hard to verify that the pomset \( C \) of the earlier example is accepted by the PA in Figure 1c.

In principle, the state space of a PA can be infinite; we use this in Section 4 to define a PA that has all possible series-rational expressions as states. It is however also useful to know when we can prune an infinite PA into a finite PA while preserving the languages of the retained states. In Section 5, we use this to translate the PA to a series-rational expression.

Note that it is not sufficient to talk about reachable states, i.e., states that appear in the target of some trace; we must also include states that are “meaningful” starting points for subprocesses. To do this, we first need a handle on these starting points. Specifically, we are interested in the states where the eventual join of the states yields a state that contributes to the behaviour of the PA, and the states may join again, because they are not the sink state. This is captured in the definition below.

\[ \textbf{Definition 3.3.} \text{ The support of } q, \text{ written } \pi_A(q), \text{ is } \{ [r, s] \in \langle q \rangle : \gamma(q, [r, s]), r, s \neq \bot \}. \]

We can now talk about subsets of states of an automaton that are closed, in the sense that the relevant part of a transition function has input and output confined to this set. As a result, we can confine the structure of a given PA to a closed set.

\[ \text{We also define } \to_A \subseteq Q \times \text{Pom}_\Sigma \times Q \text{ is the smallest relation satisfying the rules } \]

\[ \begin{align*}
q & \overset{a}{\to}_A \delta(q, a) & q & \overset{U}{\to}_A q'' & q'' & \overset{V}{\to}_A q' & r & \overset{U}{\to}_A r' \in F & s & \overset{V}{\to}_A s' \in F & q & \overset{U \mid V}{\to}_A \gamma(q, [r, s])
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We can now talk about subsets of states of an automaton that are closed, in the sense that the relevant part of a transition function has input and output confined to this set. As a result, we can confine the structure of a given PA to a closed set.

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\end{align*} \]
A set of states $Q' \subseteq Q$ is closed when the following rules are satisfied:

$$
\begin{align*}
\bot & \in Q' \\
q & \in Q', a \in \Sigma \quad \Rightarrow \quad \delta(q, a) \in Q' \\
q & \in Q', \phi \in \pi_A(q) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \gamma(q, \phi) \in Q' \\
r, s & \in Q' \\
\end{align*}
$$

If $Q'$ is closed, the generated sub-PA of $A$ induced by $Q'$, denoted $A \mid_{Q'}$, is the tuple $(Q', \delta \mid_{Q'}, \gamma \mid_{Q'}, Q' \cap F)$ where $\delta \mid_{Q'}$ and $\gamma \mid_{Q'}$ are the restrictions of $\delta$ and $\gamma$ to $Q'$.

Because the relevant parts of the transition functions are preserved, it is not surprising that the language of a state in a generated sub-PA coincides with the language of that state in the original PA.

**Lemma 3.5.** Let $Q' \subseteq Q$ be closed. If $q \in Q'$, then $L_{A\mid_{Q'}}(q) = L_A(q)$.

We now work out how to find a closed subset of states that contains a particular state. The first step is to characterize the states reachable from $q$ by means of transitions.

**Definition 3.6.** The reach of $q$, written $\rho_A(q)$, is the smallest set satisfying the rules

$$
\begin{align*}
q & \in \rho_A(q) \\
q' & \in \rho_A(q), a \in \Sigma \quad \Rightarrow \quad \delta(q', a) \in \rho_A(q) \\
q' & \in \rho_A(q), \phi \in \pi_A(q) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \gamma(q', \phi) \in \rho_A(q)
\end{align*}
$$

The reach of a state is closely connected to the states that can be reached from $q$ through the trace relation of the automaton, in the following way:

**Lemma 3.7.** The set $\rho_A(q) \cup \{\bot\}$ contains $\{q' \in Q : \exists U \in \Pom_{\Sigma}^+, q \xrightarrow{U} A q' \} \cup \{q\}$.

Note that $\rho_A(q) \cup \{\bot\}$ is not necessarily closed: we also need the states required by the fourth rule of closure in Definition 3.4. Thus, if we want to “close” $\rho_A(q) \cup \{\bot\}$ by adding the support of its contents, we need to find closed sets of states that contain branching points. In order to do this inductively, we propose the following subclass of PAs.

**Definition 3.8.** We say that $A$ is fork-acyclic if there exists a fork hierarchy, which is a strict order $\prec_A \subseteq Q \times Q$ such that the following rules are satisfied:

$$
\begin{align*}
\emptyset, s & \prec_A q \\
a & \in \Sigma \quad r \prec_A \delta(q, a) \\
\phi & \in \pi_A(q) \quad r \prec_A \gamma(q, \phi)
\end{align*}
$$

The fork hierarchy is connected with the reach of a state in the following way:

**Lemma 3.9.** Let $q', r \in Q$. If $A$ is fork-acyclic, $q' \in \rho_A(q)$ and $r \prec_A q'$, then $r \prec_A q$.

The term fork-acyclic has been used in literature for similar automata [16, 7]. However, in op. cit., it is defined in terms of the traces that arise from the transition structure of the automaton. In contrast, our definition is purely syntactic: it imposes an order on states such that forks cannot be nested. To show that, as in [16], our definition implies that languages of the PA have bounded width, we present the following lemma. Since the state space of a PA can be infinite, we additionally require that the fork hierarchy is well-founded.

**Lemma 3.10.** If $A$ is fork-acyclic and $\prec_A$ is well-founded then $L_A(q)$ is of finite width.

We introduce the notion of a bounded PA, which is sufficient to guarantee the existence of a closed, finite subset containing a given state, even when the PA has infinitely many states.

**Definition 3.11.** Let $A$ be fork-acyclic. We say that $A$ is bounded if $\prec_A$ is well-founded, and for all $q \in Q$, both $\pi_A(q)$ and $\rho_A(q)$ are finite.
Theorem 3.12. If $A$ is bounded, then for every state $q$ of $A$ there exists a finite set of states $Q_q \subseteq Q$ that is closed and contains $q$.

Proof. The proof proceeds by $\prec_A$-induction; this is sound, because $\prec_A$ is well-founded.

Suppose the claim holds for all $r \in Q$ with $r \prec_A q$. If $q' \in \rho_A(q)$ and $\{r, s\} \in \pi_A(q')$, then $r \prec_A q'$ and thus $r \prec_A q$ by Lemma 3.9; by induction we obtain for every such $r$ a finite set of states $Q_r \subseteq Q$ that is closed and contains $r$. We choose:

$$Q_q = \{q\} \cup \rho_A(q) \cup \bigcup \{Q_r : q' \in \rho_A(q), \{r, s\} \in \pi_A(q')\}.$$  

This set is finite because $\rho_A(q)$ and $\pi_A(q')$ are finite for all $q, q' \in Q$ since $A$ is bounded. To see that $Q_q$ is closed, it suffices to show that the last rule of closure holds for $q' \in \rho_A(q)$; it does, since if $q' \in \rho_A(q)$ and $\{r, s\} \in \pi_A(q')$, then $r \in Q_r$ and $s \in Q_s$, thus $r, s \in Q_q$. ▶

4. Expressions to automata

We now turn our attention to the task of translating a series-rational expression $e$ into a PA that accepts $\llbracket e \rrbracket$. We employ Brzozowski’s method [3] to construct a single syntactic PA where every series-rational expression is a state accepting exactly its denotational semantics. To this end we must define which expressions are accepting, and how the sequential and parallel transition functions transform states — what are, in Brzozowski’s vocabulary, their sequential and parallel derivatives?

We start with the accepting states. In Brzozowski’s construction, a rational expression is accepting if its denotational semantics includes the empty word. Analogously, a series-rational expression is accepting if its denotational semantics includes the empty pomset.

Definition 4.1. We define the set $F_\Sigma$ to be the smallest subset of $T_\Sigma$ satisfying the rules:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$e \in F_\Sigma$</th>
<th>$f \in T_\Sigma$</th>
<th>$e, f \in F_\Sigma$</th>
<th>$e \parallel f, f \parallel e \in F_\Sigma$</th>
<th>$e \in T_\Sigma$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| $1 \in F_\Sigma$ | $e + f, f + e \in F_\Sigma$ | $e \cdot f, f \cdot e \in F_\Sigma$ | $e \parallel f, f \parallel e \in F_\Sigma$ | $e^* \in F_\Sigma$

It is not hard to see that $e \in F_\Sigma$ if and only if $1 \in \llbracket e \rrbracket$. We use $e \cdot f$ as a shorthand for $f$ if $e \in F_\Sigma$, and 0 otherwise. For an equation $E$, we write $\llbracket E \rrbracket$ as a shorthand for 1 if $E$ holds, and 0 otherwise. We now define sequential and parallel derivatives:

Definition 4.2. We define the function $\delta_\Sigma : T_\Sigma \times \Sigma \rightarrow T_\Sigma$ as follows:

$$\delta_\Sigma(0, a) = 0 \quad \delta_\Sigma(1, a) = 0 \quad \delta_\Sigma(b, a) = [a = b] \quad \delta_\Sigma(e^*, a) = \delta_\Sigma(e, a) \cdot e^*$$

$$\delta_\Sigma(e + f, a) = \delta_\Sigma(e, a) + \delta_\Sigma(f, a) \quad \delta_\Sigma(e \cdot f, a) = \delta_\Sigma(e, a) \cdot f + e \cdot \delta_\Sigma(f, a)$$

$$\delta_\Sigma(e \parallel f, a) = e \cdot \delta_\Sigma(f, a) + f \parallel \delta_\Sigma(e, a)$$

Furthermore, the function $\gamma_\Sigma : T_\Sigma \times \left(\frac{T_\Sigma}{2}\right) \rightarrow T_\Sigma$ is defined as follows:

$$\gamma_\Sigma(0, \phi) = 0 \quad \gamma_\Sigma(1, \phi) = 0 \quad \gamma_\Sigma(b, \phi) = 0 \quad \gamma_\Sigma(e^*, \phi) = \gamma_\Sigma(e, \phi) \cdot e^*$$

$$\gamma_\Sigma(e + f, \phi) = \gamma_\Sigma(e, \phi) + \gamma_\Sigma(f, \phi) \quad \gamma_\Sigma(e \cdot f, \phi) = \gamma_\Sigma(e, \phi) \cdot f + e \gamma_\Sigma(f, \phi) \quad \gamma_\Sigma(e \parallel f, \phi) = [\phi \simeq \llbracket e, f \rrbracket] + e \gamma_\Sigma(f, \phi) + f \gamma_\Sigma(e, \phi)$$

The definition of $\delta_\Sigma$ coincides with Brzozowski’s derivative on rational expressions. The definition of $\gamma_\Sigma$ mimics the definition of $\delta_\Sigma$ on non-parallel terms except $b \in \Sigma$. 
The definition of $\gamma_\Sigma$ on parallel terms includes (in the first term) the possibility that the starting states provided to the parallel transition function are (congruent to) the operands of the parallel, in which case the target join state is the accepting state 1. The other two terms (as well as the definition of $\delta_\Sigma$ on a parallel term) account for the fact that if $1 \in [e]$, then $[f] \subseteq [e \parallel f]$. Since we do not allow traces labelled with the empty pomset, traces that originate from these operands are thus lifted to the composition when necessary.

Definition 4.3. The syntactic PA is the PA $A_\Sigma = \langle T_\Sigma, \delta_\Sigma, \gamma_\Sigma, F_\Sigma \rangle$.

We use $L_\Sigma$ as a shorthand for $L_{A_\Sigma}$, and $\rightarrow_\Sigma^- (\rightarrow_\Sigma^\neg)$ as a shorthand for $\rightarrow_{A_\Sigma^-} (\rightarrow_{A_\Sigma^\neg})$.

The remainder of this section is devoted to showing that if $e \in T_\Sigma$, then $L_\Sigma(e) = [e]$.

4.1 Traces of congruent states

In the analysis of the syntactic trace relation $\rightarrow_\Sigma$, we often encounter sums of terms. To work with these, it is useful to identify terms modulo $\simeq$. In this section, we establish that such an identification is in fact sound, in the sense that if two expressions are related by $\simeq$, then the languages accepted by the states representing those expressions are also identical.

In the first step towards this goal, we show that $F_\Sigma$ is well-defined with respect to $\simeq$.

Lemma 4.4. Let $e, f \in T_\Sigma$ be such that $e \simeq f$. Then $e \in F_\Sigma$ if and only if $f \in F_\Sigma$.

Also, $\delta_\Sigma$ and $\gamma_\Sigma$ are well-defined with respect to $\simeq$, in the following sense:

Lemma 4.5. Let $e, f \in T_\Sigma$ such that $e \simeq f$. If $a \in \Sigma$, then $\delta_\Sigma(e, a) \simeq \delta_\Sigma(f, a)$. Moreover, if $\phi = \langle g, h \rangle \in (T_\Sigma^2)$ with $g, h \neq 0$, then $\gamma_\Sigma(e, \phi) \simeq \gamma_\Sigma(f, \phi)$, and if $\psi \in (T_\Sigma^2)$ with $\phi \simeq \psi$, then $\gamma_\Sigma(e, \phi) = \gamma_\Sigma(e, \psi)$.

With these lemmas in hand, we can show that $\simeq$ is a “bisimulation” with respect to $\rightarrow_\Sigma$.

Lemma 4.6. Let $e, f \in T_\Sigma$ be such that $e \simeq f$. If $e \uparrow_\Sigma e'$, then there exists an $f' \in T_\Sigma$ such that $f \uparrow_\Sigma f'$ and $e' \simeq f'$.

Let $I$ be a finite set, and let $(e_i)_{i \in I}$ be an $I$-indexed family of terms. In the sequel, we treat $\sum_{i \in I} e_i$ as a term, where the $e_i$ are summed in some arbitrary order or bracketing. The lemmas above guarantee that the precise choice of representing this sum as a term makes no matter with regard to the traces allowed.

4.2 Trace deconstruction

We proceed with a series of lemmas that characterise reachable states in the syntactic PA. More precisely, we show that the expressions reachable from some expression $e$ can be written as sums of expressions reachable from subexpressions of $e$. For this reason, we refer to these observations as trace deconstruction lemmas: they deconstruct a trace of an expression into traces of “smaller” expressions. The purpose of these lemmas is twofold; in Section 4.4, they are used to characterise the languages of expressions as they appear in the syntactic PA, while in Section 4.5 they allow us to bound the reach of an expression.

We start by analysing the traces that originate in base terms, such as 0, 1, or $a \in \Sigma$.

Lemma 4.7. Let $e, e' \in T_\Sigma$ and $U \in \text{Pom}_\Sigma^\text{\textit{P}}$ such that $e \uparrow_\Sigma e'$. If $e \in \{0, 1\}$, then $e' = 0$. Furthermore, if $e = b \in \Sigma$, then either $e' = 1$ and $U = b$, or $e' = 0$.\n
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Note, however, that 0 and 1 are not indistinguishable, for $0 \not\in F_{\Sigma}$ while $1 \in F_{\Sigma}$.

We also consider the traces that originate in a sum of terms. The intuition here is that the input is processed by both terms simultaneously, and thus the target state must be the sum of the states that are the result of processing the input for each term individually.

**Lemma 4.8.** Let $e_1, e_2 \in T_{\Sigma}$ and $U \in \text{Pom}^{\Sigma}$ be such that $e_1 \cdot e_2 \xrightarrow{U \cdot \Sigma} f$. There exist $e'_1, e'_2 \in T_{\Sigma}$ such that $e' = e'_1 + e'_2$, and $e_1 \xrightarrow{U \cdot \Sigma} e'_1$ and $e_2 \xrightarrow{U \cdot \Sigma} e'_2$.

We now consider the traces starting in a sequential composition. The intuition here is that, starting in $e$, the PA either processes parallel components of the pomset, or processes according to one operand, provided that the other operand allows immediate acceptance. Intuitively, the syntactic PA either processes parallel components of the pomset, or processes according to one operand, provided that the other operand allows immediate acceptance.

**Lemma 4.9.** Let $e_1, e_2 \in T_{\Sigma}$ and $U \in \text{Pom}^{\Sigma}$ be such that $e_1 \cdot e_2 \xrightarrow{U \cdot \Sigma} f$. There exist an $f' \in T_{\Sigma}$ and a finite set $I$ as well as $I$-indexed families $(f'_i)_i \in I$ over $F_{\Sigma}$ and $(e_i)_i \in I$ over $T_{\Sigma}$, and $I$-indexed families $(U'_i)_i \in I$ over $\text{Pom}^{\Sigma}$, such that:

- $f \simeq f' \cdot e_2 + \sum_{i \in I} f_i$ and $e_1 \xrightarrow{U \cdot \Sigma} f'$, and
- for all $i \in I$, $e_1 \xrightarrow{U'_i \cdot \Sigma} f'_i$, $e_2 \xrightarrow{U_i \cdot \Sigma} f_i$, and $U = U'_i \cdot U_i$.

The next deconstruction lemma concerns traces originating in a parallel composition.

**Lemma 4.10.** If $e_1 \parallel e_2 \xrightarrow{U \cdot \Sigma} f$, then there exist $f_1, f_2, f_3 \in T_{\Sigma}$, such that

- $f \simeq f_1 + f_2 + f_3$,
- either $f_1 = 0$, or $e_2 \in F_{\Sigma}$ and $e_1 \xrightarrow{U \cdot \Sigma} f_1$,
- either $f_2 = 0$, or $e_1 \in F_{\Sigma}$ and $e_2 \xrightarrow{U \cdot \Sigma} f_2$, and
- either $f_3 = 0$, or $f_3 = 1$ and there exist $f'_1, f'_2 \in F_{\Sigma}$ and $U_1, U_2 \in \text{Pom}^{\Sigma}$ such that $U = U_1 \parallel U_2$ and $e_1 \xrightarrow{U'_1 \cdot \Sigma} f'_1$ and $e_2 \xrightarrow{U'_2 \cdot \Sigma} f'_2$.

Finally, we analyse the reachable states of an expression of the form $e^*$. The intuition here is that, starting in $e^*$, the PA can iterate traces originating in $e$ indefinitely. The trace should thus be sequentially decomposable, with each component the label of a trace originating in $e$. Furthermore, all but the last target state of these traces should be accepting.

**Lemma 4.11.** If $e^* \xrightarrow{U \cdot \Sigma} f$, then there exists a finite set $I$ and an $I$-indexed family of finite sets $(J_i)_i \in I$, as well as $I$-indexed families $(f_i)_i \in I$ over $T_{\Sigma}$ and $(U_i)_i \in I$ over $\text{Pom}^{\Sigma}$, and for all $i \in I$ also $J_i$-indexed families $(f_{i,j})_{j \in J_i}$ over $F_{\Sigma}$ and $(U_{i,j})_{j \in J_i}$ over $\text{Pom}^{\Sigma}$, such that $f \simeq \sum_{i \in I} f_i \cdot e^*$, and for all $i \in I$:

- $e \xrightarrow{U_i \cdot \Sigma} f_i$,
- for all $j \in J_i$, we have that $e \xrightarrow{U_{i,j} \cdot \Sigma} f_{i,j}$, and
- $U = U'_i \cdot U_i$, where $U'_i$ is some concatenation of all $U_{i,j}$ for all $j \in J_i$.

### 4.3 Trace construction

In the above, we learned how to deconstruct traces in the syntactic PA. To verify that the state in the syntactic PA associated with a series-rational expression $e$ indeed accepts the series-rational pomset language $[e]$, we also need to show the converse, that is, how to construct traces in the syntactic PA from smaller traces. In this context it is often useful to work with the preorder obtained from $\simeq$. 
Definition 4.12. The relation \( \preceq \subseteq T_\Sigma \times T_\Sigma \) is defined by \( e \preceq f \) if and only if \( e + f \simeq f \).

The intuition to \( e \preceq f \) is that \( e \) consists of one or more terms that also appear in \( f \), up to \( \simeq \).

In analogy to Lemma 4.6, we show that \( \preceq \) is a “simulation” with respect to traces.

Lemma 4.13. Let \( e, e', f \in T_\Sigma \) be such that \( e \preceq f \). If \( e U f \Sigma e' \), then there exists an \( f' \in T_\Sigma \) such that \( f U f \Sigma f' \) and \( e' \preceq f' \). Furthermore, if \( e \in F_\Sigma \), then \( f \in F_\Sigma \).

The following lemma tells us that we can create a trace labelled with the concatenation of the labels of two smaller traces, and starting in the sequential composition of the original starting states, provided that the first trace ends in an accepting state. Furthermore, the target state of the newly constructed trace contains the target state of the second trace.

Lemma 4.14. Let \( e_1, e_2, f_2 \in T_\Sigma \) and \( f_1 \in F_\Sigma \). If \( U, V \in \text{Pom}_L \Sigma \) are such that \( e_1 \cdot U \cdot f \Sigma f_1 \) and \( e_2 \cdot V \cdot f \Sigma f_2 \), then there exists an \( f \in T_\Sigma \) such that \( e_1 \cdot e_2 \cdot U \cdot V \cdot f \Sigma f \).

We can also construct traces that start in a parallel composition. One way is to construct traces that start in each operand and reach an accepting state; we obtain a trace in their parallel composition almost trivially. If one of the operands is accepting, we can also construct a single trace that starts in the other operand and obtain a trace with the same label starting in the parallel construction. In both cases, we describe the target of the new trace using \( \preceq \).

Lemma 4.15. Let \( e_1, e_2 \in T_\Sigma \). The following hold:

1. If \( f_1, f_2 \in F_\Sigma \) and \( U, V \in \text{Pom}_L \Sigma \) are such that \( e_1 \cdot U \cdot f \Sigma f_1 \) and \( e_2 \cdot V \cdot f \Sigma f_2 \), then there exists an \( f \in T_\Sigma \) such that \( e_1 \parallel e_2 \cdot U \cdot V \cdot f \) with \( 1 \preceq f \).

2. If \( e_2 \in F_\Sigma \) (respectively \( e_1 \in F_\Sigma \)), and \( f' \in T_\Sigma \) and \( U \in \text{Pom}_L \Sigma \) are such that \( e_1 \cdot U \cdot f' \) (respectively \( e_2 \cdot U \cdot f' \)), then there exists an \( f \in T_\Sigma \) such that \( e_1 \parallel e_2 \cdot U \cdot f \) with \( f' \preceq f \).

Lastly, we present a trace construction lemma to obtain traces originating in expressions of the form \( e^* \). The idea here is that, given a finite number of traces that originate in \( e \), where all (but possibly one) have an accepting state as their target, we can construct a trace originating in \( e^* \), with a concatenation of the labels of the input traces as its label.

Lemma 4.16. Let \( e, f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_n \in T_\Sigma \) (with \( n > 0 \)) be such that \( f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_n-1 \in F_\Sigma \). Also, let \( U, U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_n \in \text{Pom}_L \Sigma \) be such that \( U = U_1 \cdot U_2 \cdots U_n \). If for all \( i \leq n \) it holds that \( e U_1 \cdot f_i \), then there exists an \( f \in T_\Sigma \) such that \( e^* U \Sigma f \), with \( f_n \cdot e^* \preceq f \).

4.4 Soundness for the syntactic PA

With trace deconstruction and construction lemmas in our toolbox, we are ready to show that the syntactic PA indeed captures series-rational languages.

First, note that \( L_\Sigma \) can be seen as a function from \( T_\Sigma \) to \( \text{Pom}_L \Sigma \), like \([-] \). To establish equality between \( L_\Sigma \) and \([-] \), we first show that \( L_\Sigma \) enjoys the same homomorphic equalities as those in the definition of the semantic map, i.e., that \( L_\Sigma(e) \) can be expressed in terms of \( L_\Sigma \) applied to subexpressions of \( e \). The proofs of the equalities below follow a similar pattern: for the inclusion from left to right we use trace deconstruction lemmas to obtain traces for the component expressions, while for the inclusion from right to left we use trace construction lemmas to build traces for the composed expressions given the traces of the component expressions. We treat the case for the empty pomset separately almost everywhere.

Lemma 4.17. Let \( e_1, e_2 \in T_\Sigma \), and \( a \in \Sigma \). The following equalities hold:

\[
L_\Sigma(0) = \emptyset \quad L_\Sigma(1) = \{1\} \quad L_\Sigma(a) = \{a\} \quad L_\Sigma(e_1 + e_2) = L_\Sigma(e_1) \cup L_\Sigma(e_2) \quad L_\Sigma(e_1 \cdot e_2) = L_\Sigma(e_1) \cdot L_\Sigma(e_2) \quad L_\Sigma(e_1 \parallel e_2) = L_\Sigma(e_1) \parallel L_\Sigma(e_2) \quad L_\Sigma(e_1^*) = L_\Sigma(e_1)^* \]

It is now easy to establish that the Brzozowski construction for the syntactic PA is sound with respect to the denotational semantics of series-rational expressions.

\begin{theo}
Let \( e \in T_\Sigma \). Then \( L_\Sigma(e) = [e] \).
\end{theo}

\textbf{Proof.} The proof proceeds by induction on \( e \). In the base, \( e = 0 \), \( e = 1 \) or \( e = a \) for some \( a \in \Sigma \). In all cases, \( L_\Sigma(e) = [e] \) by Lemma 4.17. For the inductive step, there are four cases to consider: either \( e = e_1 + e_2 \), \( e \equiv e_1 \cdot e_2 \), \( e = e_1 \parallel e_2 \) or \( e = e_1^* \). In all cases, the claim follows from the induction hypothesis and the definition of \([\cdot]\), combined with Lemma 4.17. \(\blacksquare\)

\section{Bounding the syntactic PA}

Ideally, we would like to obtain a single PA with finitely many states that recognizes \([e] \) for a given \( e \in T_\Sigma \). Unfortunately, the syntactic PA is not bounded, and thus Theorem 3.12 does not apply. For instance, the requirement that \( p_\Sigma(e) \) be finite for \( e \in T_\Sigma \) fails; consider the family of distinct terms \( (e_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \) defined by \( e_0 = 1 \cdot a^* \) and \( e_{n+1} = 0 \cdot a^* + e_n \) for \( n \in \mathbb{N} \); it is not hard to show that \( e_n \in p_\Sigma(a^*) \) for \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), and thus conclude that \( p_\Sigma(a^*) \) is infinite. We remedy this problem by quotienting the state space of the syntactic PA by congruence.

In what follows, we write \([e] \) for the congruence class of \( e \in T_\Sigma \) modulo \( \approx \), i.e., the set of all \( e' \in T_\Sigma \) such that \( e \approx e' \). We furthermore write \( Q_\Sigma \) for the set of all congruence classes of expressions in \( T_\Sigma \). We now leverage Lemma 4.5 to define a transition structure on \( Q_\Sigma \).

To save space, this section only summarizes the main stepping stones towards finding a finite PA for an expression; for a full proof, we refer to the full version of this paper [9].

\begin{defi}
We define \( \delta_\approx : Q_\Sigma \times \Sigma \to Q_\Sigma \) and \( \gamma_\approx : Q_\Sigma \times (Q_\Sigma^2) \to Q_\Sigma \) as

\[
\delta_\approx([e], a) = [\delta_\Sigma(e, a)] \quad \gamma_\approx([e], [[f], [g]]) = \begin{cases} [0] & f \approx 0 \text{ or } g \approx 0 \\ [\gamma_\Sigma(e, [g, h])] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
\]

Furthermore, the set \( F_\approx \) is defined to be \( \{[e] : e \in F_\Sigma \} \). The \textit{quotiented syntactic PA} is the PA \( A_\approx = \langle Q_\Sigma, \delta_\approx, \gamma_\approx, F_\approx \rangle \).

Note that, by virtue of Lemma 4.5 and Lemma 4.4, we have that \( \delta_\approx \) and \( \gamma_\approx \), as well as \( F_\approx \), are well-defined. As before, we abbreviate subscripts, for example by writing \( \Rightarrow_\approx \) rather than \( \Rightarrow_{A_\approx} \), and \( L_\approx \) rather than \( L_{A_\approx} \). Of course, we also want the quotiented syntactic PA to accept the same languages as the syntactic PA. This turns out to be the case.

\begin{theo}
Let \( e \in T_\Sigma \). Then \( L_\Sigma(e) = L_\approx([e]) \).
\end{theo}

Furthermore, the quotiented syntactic PA is sufficiently restricted to show the following:

\begin{theo}
The quotiented syntactic PA is fork-acyclic and bounded.
\end{theo}

The desired result then follows from the above, Lemma 3.5 and Theorem 3.12.

\begin{cor}
Let \( e \in T_\Sigma \). There exists a finite PA \( A_e \) that accepts \([e] \).
\end{cor}

\section{Automata to expressions}

To associate with every state \( q \) in a bounded PA \( A = \langle Q, \delta, \gamma, F \rangle \) a series-rational expression \( e_q \) such that \([e_q] = L_A(q) \), we modify the procedure for associating a rational expression with a state in a finite automaton described in [12]. The modification consists of adding
parallel terms to the expression associated with $q$ whenever a fork in $q$ contributes to its language, i.e., whenever $[r,s] \in \pi_A(q)$.

In view of the special treatment of 1 in the semantics of PAs, it is convenient to first define expressions $e_r^+$ with the property that $[e_r^+] = L_A(q) - \{1\}$; then we can define $e_q$ by $e_q = e_r^+ + [q \in F]$. The definition of $e_r^+$ proceeds by induction on the well-founded partial order $\prec_A$ associated with a bounded PA. That is, when defining $e_r^+$ we assume the existence of expressions $e_{q'}^+$ for all $q' \in Q$ such that $q' \prec_A q$.

First, however, we shall define auxiliary expressions $e_{qq'}^Q$ for suitable choices of $Q \subseteq Q$ and of $q,q' \in Q$. Intuitively, $e_{qq'}^Q$ denotes the pomset language characterizing all paths from $q$ to $q'$ with all intermediate states in $Q'$; $e_q^+$ can then be defined as the summation of all $e_{qq'}^Q$ with $q' \in F \cap \rho_A(q)$.

**Definition 5.1.** Let $Q'$ be a finite subset of $Q$, and assume that for all $r \in Q$ such that $r \prec_A q$ for some $q \in Q'$ there exists a series-rational expression $e_r^+ \in \mathcal{T}_\Sigma$ such that $[e_r^+] = L_A(q) - \{1\}$. For all $Q'' \subseteq Q'$ and $q,q' \in Q'$, we define a series-rational expression $e_{qq'}^{Q''}$ by induction on the size of $Q''$, as follows:

1. If $Q'' = \emptyset$, then let $\mathcal{S} = \{a \in \Sigma : q = \delta(q,a)\}$, and let $\mathcal{Q} = \{\phi \in \pi_A(q) : \gamma(q,\phi) = q'\}$. We define
   $$e_{qq'}^{\emptyset} = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{S}} a + \sum_{q,r,s \in \mathcal{Q}} e_r^+ \parallel e_s^+.$$  
   2. Otherwise, we choose a $q'' \in Q''$ and define
   $$e_{qq'}^{Q''} = e_{qq''}^{Q'' - \{q''\}} + e_{qq''}^{Q'' - \{q''\}} \cdot (e_{q''}^{Q'' - \{q''\}})^* \cdot e_{q''}^{Q'' - \{q''\}}.$$  

Note that $e_r^+$ and $e_s^+$, appearing in the first clause of the definition of $e_{qq'}^{Q''}$, exist by assumption, for by fork-acyclicity we have that $r,s \prec_A q \in Q'$.

**Theorem 5.2.** Let $Q'$ be a finite subset of $Q$ and assume that for all $r \in Q$ such that $r \prec_A q$ for some $q \in Q'$ there exists a series-rational expression $e_r^+ \in \mathcal{T}_\Sigma$ with $[e_r^+] = L_A(q) - \{1\}$. For all $q,q' \in Q'$, for all $Q'' \subseteq Q'$, and for all $U \in \text{Pom}_\Sigma^+$, we have that $q \stackrel{U}{\rightarrow}_A q'$ according to some path that only visits states in $Q''$ if, and only if, $U \in [e_{qq'}^{Q''}]$.

Using the auxiliary expressions $e_{qq'}^{Q''}$, we can now associate series-rational expressions $e_q,e_q^+ \in \mathcal{T}_\Sigma$ with every $q \in Q$, defining $e_q^+$ by $e_q^+ = \sum_{q' \in \rho_A(q) \cap F} e_{qq'}^{\rho_A(q)}$ and $e_q = e_q^+ + [q \in F]$. Note that $q \in \rho_A(q)$ and, by Lemma 3.9, for all $q' \in Q$ such that $q' \prec_A q''$ for some $q'' \in \rho_A(q)$ we have $q' \prec_A q$, and hence there exists, by induction, a series-rational expression $e_{q'} \in \mathcal{T}_\Sigma$ such that $[e_{q'}] = L_A(q')$. So the expressions $e_{qq'}^{\rho_A(q)}$ are, indeed, defined in Definition 5.1.

**Corollary 5.3.** For every state $q \in Q$ we have $[e_q^+] = L_A(q) - \{1\}$ and $[e_q] = L_A(q)$.

### 6 Discussion

Another automaton formalism for pomsets, *branching automata*, was proposed by Lodaya and Weil [15, 16]. Branching automata define the states where parallelism can start (fork) or end (join) in two relations; pomset automata condense this information in a single function. Lodaya and Weil also provided a translation of series-parallel expressions to branching automata, based on Thompson’s construction [19], which relies on the fact that
their automata encode transitions non-deterministically, i.e., as relations. Our Brzozowski-style translation, in contrast, directly constructs transition functions from the expressions. Lastly, their translation of branching automata to series-parallel expressions is only sound for a semantically restricted class of automata, whereas our restriction is syntactic.

Jipsen and Moshier [8] provided an alternative formulation of the automata proposed by Lodaya and Weil, also called branching automata. Their method to encode parallelism in these branching automata is conceptually dual to pomset automata: branching automata distinguish based on the target states of traces to determine the join state, whereas pomset automata distinguish based on the origin states of traces. The translations of series-parallel expressions to branching automata and vice versa suffer from the same shortcomings as those by Lodaya and Weil, i.e., transition relations rather than functions and a semantic restriction on automata for the translation of automata to expressions.

Lodaya and Weil observed [16] that the behaviour of their automata corresponds to 1-safe Petri nets. Since the behavior of their branching automata can be matched with our (bounded, fork-acyclic) pomset automata, we believe that 1-safe Petri nets also correspond to our automata. We opted to treat semantics of series-rational expressions in terms of automata instead of Petri nets to find more opportunities to extend to a coalgebraic treatment. While the present paper does not reach this goal, we believe that our formulation in terms of states and transition functions offers some hope of getting there.

Prisacariu introduced Synchronous Kleene Algebra (SKA) [17], extending Kleene Algebra with a synchronous composition operator. SKA differs from our model in that it assumes that all basic actions are performed in unit time, and that actors responsible for individual actions never idle. In contrast, our (weak BKA-like) model makes no synchrony assumptions: expressions can be composed in parallel, and the relative timing of basic actions within those expressions is irrelevant for the semantics. Prisacariu axiomatized SKA and extended it to Synchronous Kleene Algebra with Tests (SKAT); others [2] proposed Brzozowski-style derivatives of SKA expressions and used them to test equivalence of SKA(T) expressions.

7 Further work

We plan to extend our results to semantics of series-parallel expressions in terms of downward-closed pomset languages, i.e., sets of pomsets that are closed under Gischer’s subsumption order [4]. Such an extension would correspond to adding the weak exchange law (which relates sequential and parallel compositions), and thus yields an operational model for weak CKA. We conjecture that no change to the automaton model is necessary to accommodate this generalization, just like Struth and Laurence suspect that the downward-closed semantics of series-parallel expressions can be captured by their non-downward closed semantics.

Our series-rational expressions do not include the parallel analogue of the Kleene star (sometimes called “parallel star”, or “replication”). Future work could look into extending derivatives to include this operator, and relaxing fork-acyclicity to allow recovering expressions that include the parallel star from an automaton that satisfies this weaker restriction.

A classic result by Kozen [11] axiomatizes language equivalence of rational expressions using Kleene’s theorem [10] and the uniqueness of minimal finite automata; consequently, the free model for KA can also be characterized in terms of rational languages. It would be interesting to see if the same technique can be used (based on pomset automata) to show that the axioms of weak Bi-Kleene Algebra are a complete axiomatization of pomset language equivalence of series-rational expressions, and thus characterise the free weak Bi-Kleene Algebra (or even the free weak CKA) in terms of series-rational pomset languages. Although an such a result was recently published [14], it does not rely on an automaton model.
Brzozowski derivatives for classic rational expressions induce a coalgebra on rational expressions that corresponds to a finite automaton. We aim to study series-rational expressions coalgebraically. The first step would be to find the coalgebraic analogue of pomset automata such that language acceptance is characterized by the homomorphism into the final coalgebra. Ideally, such a view of pomset automata would give rise to a decision procedure for equivalence of series-rational expressions based on coalgebraic bisimulation-up-to [18].

Rational expressions can be extended with tests to reason about imperative programs equationally [13]. In the same vein, one can extend series-rational expressions with tests [7, 8] to reason about parallel imperative programs equationally. We are particularly interested in employing such an extension to extend the network specification language NetKAT [1] with primitives for concurrency so as to model and reason about concurrency within networks.

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References


