# Model-checking parametric lock-sharing systems against regular constraints 

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#### Abstract

In parametric lock-sharing systems processes can spawn new processes to run in parallel, and can create new locks. The behavior of every process is given by a pushdown automaton. We consider infinite behaviors of such systems under strong process fairness condition. A result of a potentially infinite execution of a system is a limit configuration, that is a potentially infinite tree. The verification problem is to determine if a given system has a limit configuration satisfying a given regular property. This formulation of the problem encompasses verification of reachability as well as of many liveness properties. We show that this verification problem, while undecidable in general, is decidable for nested lock usage.

We show Exptime-completeness of the verification problem. The main source of complexity is the number of parameters in the spawn operation. If the number of parameters is bounded, our algorithm works in Ptime for properties expressed by parity automata with a fixed number of ranks.


2012 ACM Subject Classification Theory of computation $\rightarrow$ Distributed computing models
Keywords and phrases Parametric systems Locks Model-checking
Digital Object Identifier 10.4230/LIPIcs.CONCUR.2023.24

## 1 Introduction

Locks are a widely used concurrency primitive. They appear in classical programming languages such as Java, as well as in recent ones such as Rust. The principle of creating shared objects and protecting them by mutexes (like the "synchronized" paradigm in Java) requires dynamic lock creation. The challenge is to be able to analyze programs with dynamic creation of threads and locks.

Our system model is based on Dynamic Pushdown Networks (DPNs) as introduced in [7], where processes are pushdown systems that can spawn new processes. The DPN model was extended in [20] by adding synchronization through a fixed number of locks. Here we take a step further and allow dynamic lock creation: when spawning a new process, the parent process can pass some of its locks, and new locks can be created for the new thread. This way we model recursive programs with creation of threads and locks. We call such systems dynamic lock-sharing systems (DLSS).

The focus in both [7] and [20] is computing the Pre* of a regular set of configurations, and they achieve this by extending suitably the saturation technique from [6]. Here we consider not only reachability but also infinite behaviors of DLSS under fairness conditions. For this we propose a different approach than saturation from [7,20] as saturation is not suited to cope with liveness properties.

We show that verifying regular properties of DLSS is decidable if every process follows nested lock usage. This means that locally every process acquires and releases the locks according to the stack discipline. Nested locking is assumed in most papers on parametric
verification of systems with synchronization over locks. It is also considered as good programming practice, sometimes even enforced syntactically, as in Java through synchronized blocks.

Without any restriction on lock usage we show that our problem is undecidable, even for finite state processes and reachability properties that refer to a single process. Note that our model does not have global variables. It is well-known that reachability is undecidable already for two pushdown processes with one lock and one global variable.

Outline of the paper. Our starting point is to use trees to represent configurations of DLSS. This representation was introduced in [20]. The advantage is that it does not require to talk about interleavings of local runs of processes. Instead it represents every local run as a left branch in a tree and the spawn operations as branching to the right. At each computation step one or two nodes are added below a leaf of the current configuration. Thus, the result of a run of DLSS is an infinite tree that we call a limit configuration. Our first observation is that it is easy to read out from a limit configuration of a run if the run is strongly process-fair (Proposition 3).

An important step is to characterize those trees that are limit configurations of runs of a given finite state DLSS, namely where every process is a finite state system. This is done in Lemma 11. To deal with lock creation this lemma refers to the existence of some global acyclic relation on locks. We show that this global relation can be recovered from local orderings in every node of the configuration tree (Lemma 12). Finally, we show that there is a nondeterministic Büchi tree automaton verifying all the conditions of Lemmas 11 and 12 . This is the desired tree automaton recognizing limit configurations of process-fair runs. Our verification problem is solved by checking if there is a tree satisfying the specification and accepted by this automaton. This way we obtain the upper bound from Theorem 7. Surprisingly the size of the Büchi automaton is linear in the size of DLSS, and exponential only in the arity of the DLSS, which is the maximal number of locks a process can access. For example, in the dining philosophers setting (cf. Figure 1) the arity is 3, as every philosopher has access only to its left and right forks, implemented as locks; and there is one more fork to close the cycle.

The extension of our construction to pushdown processes requires one more idea to get an optimal complexity. In this case, ensuring that the limit tree represents a computation requires using pushdown automata. Hence, the Büchi tree automaton as described in the previous paragraph becomes a pushdown Büchi automaton on trees. The emptiness of pushdown Büchi tree automata is Exptime-complete, which is an issue as the automaton constructed is already exponential in the size of the input. However, we observe that the automata we obtain are right-resetting, since new threads are spawned with empty pushdown. Intuitively, the pushdown is needed only on left paths of the configuration tree to check correctness of local runs. A right-resetting automaton resets its stack each time it goes to the right child. We show that the emptiness of right-resetting parity pushdown tree automata can be checked in Ptime if the biggest rank in the parity condition is fixed (if it is not fixed then the problem is at least as complex as solving parity games). This gives the upper bound from Theorem 8.

Finally, we obtain the matching lower bound by proving Exptime-hardness of checking if a process of the DLSS has an infinite run (Proposition 22). This holds even for finite state processes. We also show that even for finite state processes the DLSS verification problem is undecidable if we allow arbitrary usage of locks (Theorem 5).

Related work. Parametrized verification has remained an active research area for almost three decades $[1,5,13]$. It has brought a steady stream of works on parametric systems with
locks. As already mentioned, the first directly relevant paper is [7] introducing Dynamic Pushdown Networks (DPNs). These consist of pushdown processes with spawn but no locks. The main idea is to represent a configuration as a sequence of process identifiers, each identifier followed by a stack content. Computing Pre* of a regular set of configurations is decidable by extending the saturation technique from [6].

An important step is made in [20] where the authors introduce a tree representation of configurations. This is essentially the same representation as we use here. They extend DPNs by a fixed set of locks, and show how to adapt the saturation technique to compute Pre* in this case. Their result is an Exptime decision procedure for verifying reachability of a regular set of configurations. This work has been extended to incorporate join operations [12], or priorities on processes [9]. Our work extends [20] in two directions: it adds lock creation, and considers liveness properties. It is not clear how one could extend saturation methods to deal with liveness properties.

The saturation method has been adapted to DPNs with lock creation in the recent thesis [17]. The approach relies on hyperedge replacement grammars, and gives decidability without complexity bounds. Our liveness conditions can express this kind of reachability conditions.

Actually, the first related paper to deal with lock creation is probably [25]. The authors consider a model of higher-order programs with spawn, joins, and lock creation. Apart from nested locking, a new restriction of scope safety is imposed. Under these conditions, reachability of pairs of states is shown to be decidable.

The works above have been followed by implementations [9, 18, 25]. In particular [9] reports on verification of several substantial size programs and detecting an error in xvisor [8].

In all the works above nested locking is assumed. In [16] the interest of nested locking is underlined by showing that reachability with two pushdown processes using locks is undecidable in general, but it is decidable for nested locking. There are only few related works without this assumption. The work [15] generalizes nested locking to bounded lockchain condition, and shows decidability of reachability for two pushdown processes. In [19] the authors consider contextual locking where arbitrary locking may occur as long as it does not cross procedure boundaries. This condition is incomparable with nested locking.

Finally, we comment on shared state and global variables. These are not present in the above models because reachability for two pushdown processes with one lock and one global variable is already undecidable. There is an active line of study of multi-pushdown systems where shared state is modeled as global control. In this model decidability is recovered by imposing restrictions on stack usage such as bounded context switching and variations thereof [2,22-24]. Observe that these are restrictions on global runs, and not on local runs of processes, as we consider here. Another approach to recover decidability is to have shared state but no locks $[10,11,14,21]$. Finally, there is a very interesting model of threaded pools [3, 4], without locks, where verification is decidable once again assuming bounded context switching. But the complexity of this model is as high as Petri net coverability [4].

Structure of the paper. The next section presents the main definitions and results. The main proof for finite state processes is outlined is Sections 3 and 4. Section 5 describes the extension to pushdown processes. All missing proofs are included in the appendix.

## 2 Definitions and results

A dynamic lock-sharing system is a set of processes, each process has access to a set of locks and can spawn other processes. A spawned process can inherit some locks of the spawning

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p_{\text {init }}: \quad \operatorname{spawn}(f i r s t, \text { new, new }) \\
& \operatorname{first}\left(x_{l}, x_{r}\right): \quad \operatorname{spawn}\left(\text { phil }, x_{l}, x_{r}\right) ; \operatorname{spawn}\left(n e x t, x_{r}, \text { new, } x_{l}\right) \\
& n e x t\left(x_{l}, x_{r}, x_{\text {lifst }}\right): \quad \text { or }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\operatorname{spawn}\left(p h i l, x_{l}, x_{\text {lfirst }}\right) \\
\operatorname{spawn}\left(p h i l, x_{l}, x_{r}\right) ; \operatorname{spawn}\left(n e x t, x_{r}, \text { new, } x_{\text {lfirst }}\right)
\end{array}\right. \\
& \operatorname{phil}\left(x_{l}, x_{r}\right): \quad \text { repeat-forever or }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\operatorname{get}_{x_{l}} ; \operatorname{get}_{x_{r}} ; \text { eat } ; \text { rel }_{x_{r}} ; \operatorname{rel}_{x_{l}} \\
\operatorname{get}_{x_{r}} ; \operatorname{get}_{x_{l}} ; \text { eat } ; \text { rel }_{x_{l}} ; \operatorname{rel}_{x_{r}}
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 1 Dining philosophers: process first starts the first philosopher and an iterator process next starts successive philosophers. The forks, modeled as locks, are passed via variables $x_{l}$ and $x_{r}$. The third variable $x_{\text {lfirst }}$ of next is the left fork of the first philosopher used also by the last philosopher. The system is nested as phil takes and releases forks in the stack order. The arity of the system is 3 .
process and can also create new locks. All processes run in parallel. A run of the system must be fair, meaning that if a process can move infinitely many times then it eventually does.

More formally, we start with a finite set of process identifiers Proc. Each process identifier $p \in \operatorname{Proc}$ has an arity $\operatorname{ar}(p) \in \mathbb{N}$ telling how many locks the process uses. The process can refer to these locks through the variables $\operatorname{Var}(p)=\left\{x_{1}^{p}, \ldots, x_{a r(p)}^{p}\right\}$. At each step a process can do one of the following operations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
O p(p)= & \{\operatorname{nop}\} \cup\left\{\operatorname{get}_{x}, \text { rel }_{x} \mid x \in \operatorname{Var}(p)\right\} \\
& \cup\{\operatorname{spawn}(q, \sigma) \mid q \in \operatorname{Proc}, \sigma: \operatorname{Var}(q) \rightarrow(\operatorname{Var}(p) \cup\{\text { new }\})\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Operation nop does nothing. Operation get ${ }_{x}$ acquires the lock designated by $x$, while rel ${ }_{x}$ releases it. Operation $\operatorname{spawn}(q, \sigma)$ spawns an instance of process $q$ where every variable of $q$ designates a lock determined by the substitution $\sigma$; this can be a lock of the spawning process or a new lock, if $\sigma\left(x^{q}\right)=$ new. We require that the mapping $\sigma$ is injective on $\operatorname{Var}(p)$. This is important for the definition of nested stack usage.
$\ulcorner$ A dynamic lock-sharing system (DLSS for short) is a tuple

$$
\mathcal{S}=\left(\operatorname{Proc}, \operatorname{ar},\left(\mathcal{A}_{p}\right)_{p \in \operatorname{Proc}}, p_{\text {init }}, \text { Locks }\right)
$$

where Proc, and ar are as described above. For every process $p, \mathcal{A}_{p}$ is a transition system describing the behavior of $p$. Process $p_{\text {init }} \in$ Proc is the initial process. Finally, Locks is an infinite pool of locks.

Each transition system $\mathcal{A}_{p}$ is a tuple ( $S_{p}, \Sigma_{p}, \delta_{p}, o p_{p}$, init $)_{p}$ with $S_{p}$ a finite set of states, init $_{p}$ the initial state, $\Sigma_{p}$ a finite alphabet, $\delta_{p}: S_{p} \times \Sigma_{p} \rightarrow S_{p}$ a partial transition function, and $o p_{p}: \Sigma_{p} \rightarrow O p(p)$ an assignment of an operation to each action. We require that the $\Sigma_{p}$ are pairwise disjoint, and define $\Sigma=\bigcup_{p \in \operatorname{Proc}} \Sigma_{p}$. We write $o p(b)$ instead of $o p_{p}(b)$ for $b \in \Sigma_{p}$, as $b$ determines the process $p$.

For simplicity, we require that $p_{\text {init }}$ is of arity 0 . In particular, process $p_{\text {init }}$ has no get or rel operations.

An example in Figure 1 presents a DLSS modeling an arbitrary number of dining philosophers. The system can generate a ring of arbitrarily many philosophers, but can also generate infinitely many philosophers without ever closing the ring.

A configuration of $\mathcal{S}$ is a tree representing the runs of all active processes. The leftmost branch represents the run of the initial process $p_{i n i t}$, the left branches of nodes to the right of the leftmost branch represent runs of processes spawned by $p_{\text {init }}$ etc. So a leaf of a configuration represents the current situation of a process that is started at the first ancestor above the leaf that is a right child. A node of a configuration is associated with a process, and tells in what state the process is, which locks are available to it, and which of them it holds.
$\left\ulcorner\quad\right.$ More formally, a configuration is a, possibly infinite, tree $\tau \subseteq\{0,1\}^{*}$, with each node $\nu$ labeled by a tuple $(p, s, a, L, H)$ where $p \in \operatorname{Proc}$ is the process executing in $\nu, s \in \Sigma_{p}$ the state of $p, a \in \Sigma_{p}$ the action $p$ executed at $\nu$, or $\perp \notin \Sigma$ if $\nu$ is a root, $L: \operatorname{Var}(p) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}$ ocks an assignment of locks to variables of $p$, and $H \subseteq L(\operatorname{Var}(p))$ the set of locks $p$ holds before executing $a$. We use $p(\nu), s(\nu), a(\nu), L(\nu)$ and $H(\nu)$ to address the components of the label of $\nu$. For ease of notation we will write $\operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ instead of $\operatorname{Var}(p(\nu))$.
$\ulcorner\quad$ We write $H(\tau)$ for the set of locks ultimately held by some process in $\tau$, that is, $H(\tau)=$ $\left\{\ell:\right.$ for some $\nu, \ell \in H\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$ for all $\nu^{\prime}$ on the leftmost path from $\left.\nu\right\}$. If $\tau$ is finite this is the same as to say that $H(\tau)$ is the union of $H(\nu)$ over all leaves $\nu$ of $\tau$.

The initial configuration is the tree $\tau_{\text {init }}$ consisting only of the root $\varepsilon$ labeled by ( $p_{\text {init }}$, init $\left._{p}, \perp, \emptyset, \emptyset\right)$. Suppose that $\nu$ is a leaf of $\tau$ labeled by $(p, s, b, L, H)$, and there is a transition $s \xrightarrow{a} s^{\prime}$ for some $s^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{A}_{p}$. A transition between two configurations $\tau \xrightarrow{\nu, a} \tau^{\prime}$ is defined by the following rules.

- If $o p(a)=\operatorname{spawn}(q, \sigma)$ then $\tau^{\prime}$ is obtained from $\tau$ by adding two children $\nu 0, \nu 1$ of $\nu$. The label of the left child $\nu 0$ is $\left(p, s^{\prime}, a, L, H\right)$. The label of the right child $\nu 1$ is $\left(q\right.$, init $\left._{q}, \perp, L^{\prime}, \emptyset\right)$ where $L^{\prime}\left(x^{q}\right)=L\left(\sigma\left(x^{q}\right)\right)$ if $\sigma\left(x^{q}\right) \neq$ new and $L^{\prime}\left(x^{q}\right)=\ell_{\nu, x^{q}}$ is a fresh lock, otherwise.
- Otherwise, $\tau^{\prime}$ is obtained from $\tau$ by adding a left child $\nu 0$ to $\nu$. The label of $\nu 0$ must be of the form ( $p, s^{\prime}, a, L, H^{\prime}$ ) subject to the following constraints:
- If $o p(a)=$ nop then $H^{\prime}=H$,
- If $o p(a)=$ get $_{x}$ and $L(x) \notin H(\tau)$ then $H^{\prime}=H \cup\{L(x)\}$,
- If $o p(a)=\operatorname{rel}_{x}$ and $L(x) \in H$ then $H^{\prime}=H \backslash\{L(x)\}$.
$\ulcorner\quad$ Note that we do not allow a process to acquire a lock it already holds, or release a lock it does not have. We call this property soundness.
$\left\ulcorner\quad\right.$ A run is a (finite or infinite) sequence of configurations $\tau_{0} \xrightarrow{\nu_{1}, a_{1}} \tau_{1} \xrightarrow{\nu_{2}, a_{2}} \ldots$. As the trees in a run are growing we can define the limit configuration of that run as its last configuration if it is finite, and as the limit of its configurations if it is infinite.
- Remark 1. Note that in a run, at every moment distinct variables of a process are associated with distinct locks: $L\left(\nu_{i}\right)(x) \neq L\left(\nu_{i}\right)(y)$ for all $x, y \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ with $x \neq y$.
- Remark 2. The labels $L$ and $H$ can be computed out of the other three labels in the tree just following the transition rules. We could have defined configurations as trees with only three labels $(p, s, a)$, but we preferred to include $L$ and $H$ for readability. Yet, later we will work with tree automata recognizing configurations and there it will be important that the labels come from a finite set.
$\left\ulcorner\quad\right.$ A configuration $\tau$ is fair if for no leaf $\nu$ there is a transition $\tau \xrightarrow{\nu, a} \tau^{\prime}$ for some $a$ and $\tau^{\prime}$. We show that this compact definition of fairness captures strong process fairness of runs. Recall that a run is strongly process-fair if whenever from some position in the run a process is enabled infinitely often then it moves after this position.

Proposition 3. Consider a run $\tau_{0} \xrightarrow{\nu_{1}, a_{1}} \tau_{1} \xrightarrow{\nu_{2}, a_{2}} \cdots$ and its limit configuration $\tau$. The run is strongly process-fair if and only if $\tau$ is fair.

Objectives. Instead of using some specific temporal logic we stick to a most general specification formalism and use regular tree properties for specifications. A regular objective is given by a nondeterministic tree automaton $\mathcal{B}$ over $\Sigma \cup\{\perp\}$, which defines a language of accepted limit configurations. The trees we work with can have nodes of rank 0,1 , or 2 . So we suppose that the alphabet is partitioned into $\Sigma_{0}, \Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$. The nondeterministic transition function reflects this with $\delta(q, a) \subseteq\{\top\}$ if $a \in \Sigma^{0}, \delta(q, a) \subseteq Q$ if $a \in \Sigma_{1}$, and $\delta(q, a) \subseteq Q \times Q$ if $a \in \Sigma_{2}$. A run of the automaton on a tree $t$ is a labeling of $t$ with states respecting $\delta$. In particular if $\nu$ is a leaf of $t$ then $\top \in \delta(q, a)$, where $q$ is the state and $a$ is the letter in $\nu$. A run is accepting if for every infinite path the sequence of states on this path is in the accepting set of the automaton. We will work with accepting sets given by parity conditions. We say that a configuration $\tau$ satisfies $\mathcal{B}$ when $\mathcal{B}$ accepts the tree obtained from $\tau$ by restricting only to action labels.

Regular objectives can express many interesting properties. For example, "for every instance of process $p$ its run is in a regular language $\mathcal{C}$ ". Or more complicated "there is an instance of $p$ with a run in a regular language $\mathcal{C}_{1}$ and all the instances of $p$ have runs in the language $\mathcal{C}_{2}$ ". Of course, it is also possible to talk about boolean combinations of such properties for different processes. Observe that the resulting automaton $\mathcal{B}$ for these kinds of properties can be a parity automaton with ranks $1,2,3$ (properties of sequences can be expressed by Büchi automata, and rank 3 is used to implement existential quantification on process instances).

Regular objectives can express deadlock properties. Since we only consider process-fair runs, a finite branch in a limit configuration indicates that a process is blocked forever after some point. Hence, we can express properties such as "there is an instance of $p$ that is blocked forever after a finite run in a regular language $\mathcal{C}$ ". We can also express that all branches are finite, which is equivalent to a global deadlock since we are considering only process-fair runs.

Reachability properties are also expressible with regular objectives. We can check simultaneous reachability of several states in different branches, for instance "there is a reachable configuration in which some process $p$ reaches $s$ while some process $p^{\prime}$ reaches $s^{\prime \prime \prime}$. There are ways to do it directly, but the shortest argument is through a small modification of the DLSS. We can simply add transitions to stop processes non-deterministically in desired states: adding new nop transitions from $s$ and $s^{\prime}$ to new deadlock states. Using ideas from [19] we can also check reachability of a regular set of configurations.

Going back to our dining philosophers example from Figure 1, we can see also other types of properties we would like to express. For example, we would like to say that there are finitely many philosophers in the system. This can be done simply by saying that there are not infinitely many spawns in the limit configuration. (In this example it is equivalent to saying that there is no branch turning infinitely often to the right.) Then we can verify a property like "if there are finitely many processes in the system and some philosopher eats infinitely often then all philosophers eat infinitely often". This property holds under process-fairness, as philosophers release both their forks after eating.

- Definition 4 (DLSS verification problem). Given a $D L S S \mathcal{S}$ and a regular objective $\mathcal{B}$ decide if there is a process-fair run of $\mathcal{S}$ whose limit configuration $\tau$ satisfies $\mathcal{B}$.

Without any further restrictions we show that our problem is undecidable:

- Theorem 5. The DLSS verification problem is undecidable. The result holds even if the DLSS is finite-state and every process uses at most 4 locks.

This result is obtained by creating an unbounded chain of processes simulating a Turing machine. Each process memorizes the content of a position on the tape, and communicates with its neighbours by interleaving lock acquisitions. The trick for processes to exchange information by interleaving lock acquisitions was already used in [16], and requires a nonnested usage of locks.

The situation improves significantly if we assume nested usage of locks.

- Definition 6. A process $\mathcal{A}_{p}$ is nested if it takes and releases locks according to a stack discipline, i.e., for all $x, y \in \operatorname{Var}(p)$, for all paths $s_{0} \xrightarrow{a_{1}} \cdots \xrightarrow{a_{n}} s_{n}$ in $\mathcal{A}_{p}$, with op $\left(a_{1}\right)=\operatorname{get}_{x}$, $o p\left(a_{n}\right)=\mathrm{rel}_{x}$, op $\left(a_{m}\right) \neq \mathrm{rel}_{x}$ for all $m<n$ : if op $\left(a_{i}\right)=\operatorname{get}_{y}$ for some $i<n$ then there exists $i<k<n$ such that op $\left(a_{k}\right)=\mathrm{rel}_{y}$. A DLSS is nested if all its processes are nested.

We can state the first main result of the paper. Its proof is outlined in the next two sections.

- Theorem 7. The DLSS verification problem for nested DLSS is Exptime-complete. It is in Ptime when the number of priorities in the specification automaton, and the maximal arity of processes are fixed.

We can extend this result to DLSS where transition systems of each process are given by a pushdown automaton (see definitions in Section 5). The complexity remains the same as for finite state processes.

- Theorem 8. The DLSS verification problem for nested pushdown DLSS is Exptimecomplete. It is in Ptime when the number of priorities in the specification automaton, and the maximal arity of processes is fixed.


## 3 Characterizing limit configurations

A configuration is a labeled tree. We give a characterization of such trees that are limit configurations of a process-fair run of a given DLSS. In the following section we will show that the set of limit configurations of a given DLSS is a regular tree language, which will imply the decidability of our verification problem.

- Definition 9. Given a configuration $\tau$ with nodes $\nu, \nu^{\prime}$ and variables $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu), x^{\prime} \in$ $\operatorname{Var}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$, we write $x \sim x^{\prime}$ if $L(\nu)(x)=L\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)\left(x^{\prime}\right)$, so if $x$ and $x^{\prime}$ are mapped to the same lock. The scope of a lock $\ell$ is the set $\{\nu: \ell \in L(\nu)(\operatorname{Var}(\nu))\}$.
- Remark 10. It is easy to see that in any configuration, the scope of a lock is a subtree.

We say that a node $\nu$ is labeled by an unmatched get if it is labeled by some get ${ }_{x}$ and there is no $\mathrm{rel}_{x}$ operation in the leftmost path starting from $\nu$. Recall that $H(\tau)$ is the set of locks $\ell$ for which there is some node $\nu$ with an unmatched get $_{x}$ and $L(\nu)(x)=\ell$.

We define a relation $\prec_{H}$ on $H(\tau)$ by letting $\ell \prec_{H} \ell^{\prime}$ if there exist two nodes $\nu, \nu^{\prime}$ such that $\nu$ is an ancestor of $\nu^{\prime}, \nu$ is labeled with an unmatched get of $\ell$, and $\nu^{\prime}$ is labeled with a get of $\ell^{\prime}$.

After these preparations we can state a central lemma giving a structural characterization of limit configurations of process-fair runs.

- Lemma 11. A tree $\tau$ is the limit configuration of a process-fair run of a nested DLSS $\mathcal{S}$ if and only if
F1 The node labels in $\tau$ match the local transitions of $\mathcal{S}$.

F2 For every leaf $\nu$ every possible transition from $s(\nu)$ has operation get $_{x}$ for some $x$ with $L(\nu)(x) \in H(\tau)$.
F3 For every lock $\ell \in H(\tau)$ there are finitely many nodes with operations on $\ell$, and there is a unique node labeled with an unmatched get of $\ell$.
F4 The relation $\prec_{H}$ is acyclic.
F5 The relation $\prec_{H}$ has no infinite descending chain.
Before presenting the proof of the previous lemma note that the main difficulty is the fact that some locks can be taken and never released. If $H(\tau)=\emptyset$ then from $\tau$ we can easily construct a run with limit configuration $\tau$ by exploiting the nested lock usage. This is because any local run can be executed from a configuration where all locks are available.

Proof. We start with the left-to-right implication. Suppose that we have a process-fair run $\tau_{0} \xrightarrow{\nu_{1}, a_{1}} \tau_{1} \xrightarrow{\nu_{2}, a_{2}} \cdots$ with limit configuration $\tau$.

With every lock $\ell \in H(\tau)$ we associate the maximal position $m=m_{\ell}$ such that op $\left(a_{m}\right)=$ get ${ }_{x}$ and $L\left(\nu_{m}\right)(x)=\ell$, so the position $m_{\ell}$ where $\ell$ is acquired for the last time (and never released after).

It remains to check the conditions of the lemma. The first one holds by definition of a run. The second condition is due to process fairness and soundness, since a process can always execute transitions other than acquiring a lock, and locks not in $H(\tau)$ are free infinitely often. All actions involving $\ell \in H(\tau)$ must happen before position $m_{\ell}$, hence there are finitely many of them. Moreover, a lock cannot be acquired and never released more than once. This shows condition F3. Conditions F4 and F5 are both satisfied because if $\ell \prec_{H} \ell^{\prime}$ then $m_{\ell}<m_{\ell^{\prime}}$. Thus $\prec_{H}$ is acyclic and it cannot have infinite descending chains.

For the right-to-left implication, let $\tau$ satisfy all conditions of the lemma. In order to construct a run from $\tau$ we first build a total order $<$ on $H(\tau)$ that extends $\prec_{H}$ and has no infinite descending chain. Let $\ell_{0}^{\prime}, \ell_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots$ be some arbitrary enumeration of $H(\tau)$ (which exists as $\tau$ is countable, thus so is $H(\tau))$. For all $i$ let $\downarrow \ell_{i}^{\prime}=\left\{\ell^{\prime} \in H(\tau) \mid \ell^{\prime} \prec_{H}^{+} \ell_{i}^{\prime}\right\}$. As $\tau$ satisfies condition F3, the set of nodes that are ancestors of a node with an operation on $\ell_{i}^{\prime}$ is finite. Since additionally by condition F5 there are no infinite descending chains for $\prec_{H}$, the set $\downarrow \ell_{i}^{\prime}$ is finite as well (by König's lemma). As $\prec_{H}$ is acyclic by condition F4, we can chose some strict total order $<_{i}$ on $\downarrow \ell_{i}^{\prime}$ that extends $\prec_{H}$. We define for all $\ell \in H(\tau)$ the index $m_{\ell}=\min \left\{i \in \mathbb{N} \mid \ell \in \downarrow \ell_{i}^{\prime}\right\}$. Finally, we set $\ell<\ell^{\prime}$ if either $m_{\ell}<m_{\ell^{\prime}}$ or if $m_{\ell}=m_{\ell^{\prime}}$ and $\ell<_{m_{\ell}} \ell^{\prime}$. By definition $<$ is a strict total order on $H(\tau)$ with no infinite descending chains. Moreover it is easy to see that if $\ell \prec_{H} \ell^{\prime}$ then $\ell<\ell^{\prime}$. This is the case because $\ell \prec_{H} \ell^{\prime}$ and $\ell^{\prime} \prec_{H}^{+} \ell_{i}$ implies $\ell \prec_{H}^{+} \ell_{i}$, so $m_{\ell} \leq m_{\ell^{\prime}}$.

Using the order $<$ on $H(\tau)$ we construct a process-fair run $\tau_{0} \xrightarrow{+} \tau_{1} \xrightarrow{+} \cdots$ with $\tau$ as limit configuration. During the construction we maintain the following invariant for every $i$ :

There exists $k_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that all operations on locks $\ell_{j}$ with $j<k_{i}$ are already executed in $\tau_{i}$ (there is no operation on these locks in $\tau \backslash \tau_{i}$ ). Moreover, all other locks are free after executing $\tau_{i}: H_{i}:=H\left(\tau_{i}\right)=\left\{\ell_{0}, \ldots, \ell_{k_{i}-1}\right\}$.

For $i=0$ the invariant is clearly satisfied as all locks are free $\left(k_{0}=0\right)$.
For $i>0$ we assume that there is a run $\tau_{0} \xrightarrow{+} \tau_{i}$ and $\tau_{i}$ satisfies the invariant. Thus, all locks $\ell_{j}$ with $j<k_{i}$ are ultimately held and all other locks are free in $\tau_{i}$.

We say that a leaf $\nu$ of $\tau_{i}$ is available if one of the following holds:

1. either there is a descendant $\nu^{\prime} \neq \nu$ on the leftmost path from $\nu$ in $\tau$ with $H\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)=H(\nu)$ in $\tau$,
2. or the left child $\nu^{\prime}$ of $\nu$ in $\tau$ is labeled with an unmatched get of $\ell_{k_{i}}$, and there is no further operation on $\ell_{k_{i}}$ in $\tau \backslash \tau_{i}$.

In particular, leaves of $\tau$ cannot be available. The strategy is to find the smallest available node $\nu$ in BFS order, and execute the actions on the left path from $\nu$ to $\nu^{\prime}$. The execution is possible as on this path there are no actions using locks from $H_{i}$ and all other locks are free. Let $\tau_{i+1}$ denote the configuration thus obtained from $\tau_{i}$. The invariant is satisfied after this execution, with $H_{i+1}=H_{i}$ in the first case above, resp. $H_{i+1}=H_{i} \cup\left\{\ell_{k_{i}}\right\}$ in the second case.

It remains to show that if a node is a leaf in $\tau_{i}$ for all $i$ after some point, then it is a leaf in $\tau$. This shows, in particular, that there always exists some available node.

Suppose that $\nu$ and $i_{0}$ are such that $\nu$ is a leaf of $\tau_{i}$ for all $i \geq i_{0}$. If $\nu$ becomes available at some point then it stays available in all future configurations, and there are finitely many nodes before $\nu$ in the BFS order. Thus $\nu$ cannot be available in some $\tau_{i}$, as otherwise it would eventually be taken. Note that by the invariant (and soundness), no leaf of $\tau_{i}$ has the left child labeled by some rel operation. Moreover, every leaf $\nu$ of $\tau_{i}$ with left child $\nu^{\prime}$ in $\tau$ labeled by nop, spawn(), or by some matched get, is available (the latter because we consider nested DLSS). Hence, the left child of $\nu$ must be labeled with an unmatched get of some $\ell \in H(\tau)$. Thus there is some unmatched get on a lock of $H(\tau)$ that is never executed.

Let $m$ be the minimal index in the enumeration of $H(\tau)$ such that an unmatched get of $\ell_{m}$ in $\tau$ is never executed. By minimality of $m$, there exists $i_{1}$ such that $m=k_{i}$ for all $i \geq i_{1}$. After $i_{1}$, all operations on locks $\ell<\ell_{m}$ have been executed. Thus, as $<$ extends $\prec_{H}$, all unmatched get operations that have some descendant in $\tau$ with operation on $\ell_{m}$, have been executed. By the previous argument, the nodes with left child not labeled with an unmatched get cannot stay leaves forever. Hence, all nodes whose left child has some operation on $\ell_{m}$ eventually become leaves. The ones with matched get or other operations are then available and eventually executed.

Hence, after some point the only remaining operations on $\ell_{m}$ are unmatched get. Furthermore by the condition F3 of the lemma there is exactly one. As a result, when it is reached and all other operations on $\ell_{m}$ have been executed, it becomes available, and is thus eventually executed, contradicting the definition of $m$.

This proves that the limit of the run we have constructed is $\tau$. Observe finally that the run is process-fair because of condition F2 of the lemma.

The next lemma is an important step in the proof as it simplifies condition F4 of Lemma 11. This condition talks about the existence of a global order on some locks. The next lemma replaces this order with local orders in each of the nodes. These orders can be guessed by a finite automaton.

- Lemma 12. Suppose that $\tau$ satisfies the first three conditions of Lemma 11. The relation $\prec_{H}$ is acyclic if and only if there is a family of strict total orders $<_{\nu}$ over a subset of variables from $\operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ such that:
F4.1 $x$ is ordered by $<_{\nu}$ if and only if $L(\nu)(x) \in H(\tau)$.
F4.2 if $x<_{\nu} x^{\prime}, \nu^{\prime}$ is a child of $\nu$, and $y, y^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Var}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$ are such that $x \sim y$ and $x^{\prime} \sim y^{\prime}$ then $y<\nu_{\nu^{\prime}} y^{\prime}$.
F4.3 if $x, x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ and $L(\nu)(x) \prec_{H} L(\nu)\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ then $x<_{\nu} x^{\prime}$.


## 4 Recognizing limit configurations

Recall that a configuration is a possibly infinite tree with five labels $p, s, a, L, H$. As we have mentioned in Remark 2, configurations need actually only three labels $p, s, a$. The other two can be calculated from the tree. Hence, configurations are labeled trees with node
labels coming from a finite alphabet. Our goal in this section is to define a tree automaton recognizing limit configurations of process-fair runs of a given DLSS.

Our plan is to check the conditions (F1-5) of Lemma 11. Actually we will check (F1-3,5) and the conditions of Lemma 12 that are equivalent to F4 of Lemma 11.
$\ulcorner\quad$ We first observe that since our processes are finite state it is immediate to construct a nondeterministic tree automaton $\mathcal{B}_{1}$ verifying condition $F 1$. This automaton just verifies local constraints between the labeling of a node and the labelings of its children. The constraints talk only about the labels $p, s, a$. The automaton does not need any acceptance condition, every run is accepting. We will say $\tau$ is process-consistent if it is accepted by $\mathcal{B}_{1}$.

Checking condition F2 is more complicated because it refers to a set $H(\tau)$ of locks that are ultimately held by some process. Our approach will be to define four types of predicates and color the nodes of $\tau$ with these predicates. From a correct coloring of $\tau$ it will be easy to read out $H(\tau)$. Then we will show that the correct coloring can be characterized by conditions verifiable by finite tree automata. The coloring will be also instrumental in checking the remaining conditions F3, F4, F5.

For a configuration $\tau$, a node $\nu$ and a variable $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ we define four predicates.

- $\nu \models \operatorname{keeps}(x)$ if at $\nu$ process $p(\nu)$ holds the lock $\ell=L(\nu)(x)$ and never releases it: $\ell \in H\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$ for every left descendant $\nu^{\prime}$ of $\nu$.
- $\nu \models \operatorname{ev}$ - $k e e p s(x)$ if $\nu \not \models \operatorname{keeps}(x)$ and there is a descendant $\nu^{\prime}$ of $\nu$ and a variable $x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Var}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$ with $x \sim x^{\prime}$ and $\nu^{\prime} \models \operatorname{keeps}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$.
- $\quad \nu \models \operatorname{avoids}(x)$ if neither $p(\nu)$ nor any descendant takes $\ell=L(\nu)(x)$, namely $\ell \notin H\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$ for every descendant $\nu^{\prime}$ of $\nu$ (including $\nu$ ).
- $\nu \models \operatorname{ev-avoids}(x)$ if $\nu \not \models \operatorname{avoids}(x)$ and on every path from $\nu$ there is $\nu^{\prime}$ such that $\nu^{\prime} \models \operatorname{avoids}(x)$.
Observe a different quantification used in ev-keeps and ev-avoids. In the first case we require one $\nu^{\prime}$ to exist, in the second we want that such a $\nu^{\prime}$ exists on every path.

The next lemma shows how we can use the coloring to determine $H(\tau)$.

- Lemma 13. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration. A lock $\ell \in H(\tau)$ if and only if there is a node $\nu$ of $\tau$ and a variable $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ such that $\nu \models \operatorname{keeps}(x)$ and $L(\nu)(x)=\ell$.

Proof. Follows from the definitions, since $\nu \models \operatorname{keeps}(x)$ if and only if $\ell \in H\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$ for every left descendant $\nu^{\prime}$ of $\nu$.
$\ulcorner\quad$ The above conditions define a semantically correct coloring of nodes of a configuration $\tau$ by sets of predicates

$$
\mathcal{C}(\nu)=\{P(x): x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu), \nu \models P(x)\}
$$

where $P(x)$ is one of $\operatorname{keeps}(x), \operatorname{ev-keeps}(x)$, avoids $(x)$, ev-avoids $(x)$. Observe that the four predicates are mutually exclusive, but it may be also the case that none of them holds. We say that a variable $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ is uncolored in $\nu$ if $\mathcal{C}(\nu)$ contains no predicate on $x$.

We now describe consistency conditions on a coloring of configurations guaranteeing that a coloring is semantically correct.

Before moving forward we introduce one piece of notation. A node that is a right child, namely a node of a form $\nu 1$ is due to $\operatorname{spawn}(q, \sigma)$ operation. More precisely $o p(\nu 0)=$ $\operatorname{spawn}(q, \sigma)$. We refer to this $\sigma$ as $\sigma(\nu 1)$.
$\ulcorner$ A coloring of a configuration $\tau$ is branch-consistent if for every node $\nu$ of $\tau$ and every variable $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ the following conditions are satisfied.

- If $\nu$ has one successor $\nu 0$ then $\nu 0$ inherits the colors from $\nu$ except for two cases depending on $o p(\nu 0)$, i.e, the operation used to obtain $\nu 0$ :
= If ev-keeps $(x)$ is in $\mathcal{C}(\nu)$ and the operation is $\operatorname{get}_{x}$ then $\mathcal{C}(\nu 0)$ must have either ev-keeps $(x)$ or $k e e p s(x)$.
= If ev-avoids $(x)$ is in $\mathcal{C}(\nu)$ and the operation is $\mathrm{rel}_{x}$ then $\mathcal{C}(\nu 0)$ must have either ev-avoids $(x)$ or avoids $(x)$.
- If $\nu$ has two successors $\nu 0, \nu 1$, and there is no $y$ with $\sigma(\nu 1)(y)=x$ then $\nu 0$ inherits $x$ color from $\nu$ and there is no constraint due to $x$ on colors in $\nu 1$.
- If $\nu$ has two successors and $x=\sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)(y)$ for some $y \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu 1)$ then
- If keeps $(x)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu)$ then $k e e p s(x)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu 0)$ and $\operatorname{avoids}(y)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu 1)$.
- If avoids $(x)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu)$ then $\operatorname{avoids}(x)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu 0)$ and $\operatorname{avoids}(y)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu 1)$.
- If ev-keeps $(x)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu)$ then either
* ev-keeps $(x)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu 0)$ and either avoids $(y)$ or ev-avoids $(y)$ in $\nu 1$, or
* ev-keeps $(y)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu 1)$ and either avoids $(x)$ or ev-avoids $(x)$ in $\nu 0$.
= If ev-avoids $(x)$ is $\nu$ then ev-avoids $(x)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu 0)$ and ev-avoids $(y)$ in $\mathcal{C}(\nu 1)$.
$\ulcorner\quad$ Next we describe when a coloring is eventuality-consistent. An ev-trace is a sequence of pairs $\left(\nu_{1}, x_{1}\right),\left(\nu_{2}, x_{2}\right), \ldots$ where :
- $\nu_{1}, \nu_{2}, \ldots$ is a path in $\tau$,
- $x_{i} \in \operatorname{Var}\left(\nu_{i}\right)$; moreover $x_{i+1}=x_{i}$ if $\nu_{i+1}$ is the left successor of $\nu_{i}$, and $\sigma\left(\nu_{i+1}\right)\left(x_{i+1}\right)=x_{i}$ if $\nu_{i+1}$ is the right successor of $\nu_{i}$.
- ev-keeps $\left(x_{i}\right)$ or ev-avoids $\left(x_{i}\right)$ is in $\mathcal{C}\left(\nu_{i}\right)$.

Observe that it follows that it cannot be the case that we have ev-keeps $\left(x_{i}\right)$ and ev-avoids ( $x_{i+1}$ ) or vice versa. A coloring is eventuality-consistent if every ev-trace in the coloring of a configuration is finite.
$\ulcorner\quad$ Finally, a coloring is recurrence-consistent if for every $\nu$ and uncolored $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ the lock $\ell=L(\nu)(x)$ is taken and released infinitely often below $\nu$.
$\ulcorner$ A coloring is syntactically correct if it is branch-consistent, eventuality-consistent, and recurrence-consistent. We show that syntactically correct colorings characterize semantically correct colorings. The two implications are stated separately as the statements are slightly different.

Lemma 14. If $\tau$ is a limit configuration and $\mathcal{C}$ is a semantically correct coloring of $\tau$ then $\mathcal{C}$ is syntactically correct.

For the other direction, we prove a more general statement without assuming that $\tau$ is a limit configuration. This is important as ultimately we will use the consistency properties to test if $\tau$ is a limit configuration.

Lemma 15. If $\tau$ is a configuration and $\mathcal{C}$ a syntactically correct coloring of $\tau$, then $\mathcal{C}$ is semantically correct.

Having a correct coloring will help us to verify all conditions of Lemma 11. Condition F2 refers to $L(\nu)(x) \in H(\tau)$. We need another labeling to be able to express this.
$\left\ulcorner\right.$ A syntactic $H$-labeling of $\tau$ assigns to every node $\nu$ a subset $H^{s}(\nu) \subseteq \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$. We require the following properties:

- For the root $\varepsilon$ we have $H^{s}(\varepsilon)=\emptyset$.
- If $\nu 0$ exists: $x \in H^{s}(\nu 0)$ if and only if $x \in H^{s}(\nu)$.
- If $\nu 1$ exists: $y \in H^{s}(\nu 1)$ if and only if either $\sigma(\nu 1)(y)=$ new and $\nu 1 \models$ ev-keeps $(y)$, or $\sigma(\nu 1)(y)=x$ and $\nu \models \operatorname{ev-keeps}(x)$.
It is clear that every configuration tree has a unique $H^{s}$ labelling.
- Lemma 16. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration with syntactically correct coloring. For every node $\nu$ and variable $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ we have: $L(\nu)(x) \in H(\tau)$ if and only if $x \in H^{s}(\nu)$.

Thanks to Lemma 16 we obtain

- Lemma 17. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration with a syntactically correct coloring. Condition F2 of Lemma 11 holds for $\tau$ if and only if for every leaf $\nu$ of $\tau$, every possible transition from $s(\nu)$ has some get $_{x}$ operation with $x \in H^{s}(\nu)$.
- Lemma 18. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration with a syntactically correct coloring. Then condition F3 of Lemma 11 holds for $\tau$.

It remains to deal with conditions F4 and F5 of Lemma 11. Condition F4 is more difficult to check as it requires to find an acyclic relation with some properties. Fortunately Lemma 12 gives an equivalent condition talking about a family of local orders $<_{\nu}$ for every node $\nu$ of a configuration. An automaton can easily guess such a family of orders. We show that it can also check the required properties.
$\left\ulcorner\right.$ A consistent order labeling assigns to every node $\nu$ of $\tau$ a total order $<_{\nu}$ on some subset of $\operatorname{Var}(\nu)$. The assignment must satisfy the following conditions for every node $\nu$ :

1. $x$ is ordered by $<_{\nu}$ if and only if $x \in H^{s}(\nu)$,
2. if $x<_{\nu} x^{\prime}$ and $x, x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu 0)$ then $x<_{\nu 0} x^{\prime}$,
3. if $x<_{\nu} x^{\prime}, \nu 1$ exists, and $\sigma(\nu 1)(y)=x, \sigma(\nu 1)\left(y^{\prime}\right)=x^{\prime}$ then $y<_{\nu 1} y^{\prime}$,
4. if $\nu \models \operatorname{keeps}(x)$ and $y<_{\nu} x$ then $\nu \models \operatorname{keeps}(y)$ or $\nu \models \operatorname{avoids}(y)$.

Lemma 19. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration with a syntactically correct coloring. A family of local orders $<_{\nu}$ is a consistent order labeling of $\tau$ if and only if it satisfies the conditions of Lemma 12.
$\ulcorner$ We consider now condition F5. We say that a consistent order labeling of $\tau$ admits an infinite descending chain if there exist a sequence of nodes $\nu_{1}, \nu_{2}, \ldots$ and variables $\left(x_{i}\right)_{i},\left(y_{i}\right)_{i}$ such that for every $i>0$ : (i) $\nu_{i}$ is an ancestor of $\nu_{i+1}$, (ii) $y_{i} \sim x_{i+1}$, and (iii) $y_{i}<_{\nu_{i}} x_{i}$.

- Lemma 20. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration with a syntactically correct coloring. If $\prec_{H}$ has no infinite descending chain then there is a consistent order labeling of $\tau$ with no infinite descending chain. If $\prec_{H}$ has an infinite descending chain then every consistent order labeling of $\tau$ admits an infinite descending chain.

The next proposition summarizes the development of this section stating that all the relevant properties can be checked by a Büchi tree automaton.

Proposition 21. For a given DLSS, there is a non-deterministic Büchi tree automaton $\widehat{\mathcal{B}}$ accepting exactly the limit configurations of process-fair runs of DLSS. The size of $\widehat{\mathcal{B}}$ is linear in the size of the DLSS and exponential in the maximal arity of the DLSS.

We will show that the previous proposition yields an Exptime algorithm. We match it with an Exptime lower bound to obtain completeness.

- Proposition 22. The DLSS verification problem for nested DLSS and Büchi objective is Exptime-hard. The result holds even if the Büchi objective refers to a single process.

The hardness proof involves a reduction from the problem of determining whether the intersection of the languages of $k$ deterministic tree automata over binary trees is empty. To achieve this, we create a DLSS that simulates all the tree automata concurrently. Each node of the tree in the intersection is simulated by a process, which encodes a state for each automaton through the locks it holds. So each process creates two children with whom it shares locks. The children are able to access the states of the parent by the following technique: Suppose processes $p$ and $q$ share locks 0 and 1 , and $p$ acquires one lock and retains it indefinitely. In this scenario, $q$ can guess the lock chosen by $p$ and try to acquire the other lock. If $q$ guesses incorrectly, the system deadlocks. However, if the guess is correct, the execution continues, and $q$ knows about the lock held by $p$.

Now we have all ingredients for the proof of Theorem 7:
Proof of Theorem 7. The lower bound follows from Proposition 22.
For the upper bound we use the Büchi tree automaton $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$ recognizing limit configurations of the DLSS (Proposition 21).

We build the product of $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$ with the regular objective automaton $\mathcal{A}$, which is a parity tree automaton. From $\hat{\mathcal{B}} \times \mathcal{A}$ we can obtain with a bit more work an equivalent parity tree automaton $\mathcal{C}$ with the same number of priorities, plus one. For this we modify the rank function in order to only store in the state the maximal priority seen between two consecutive occurrences of Büchi accepting states, and make the maximal priority visible at the next Büchi state. When the state of the $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$ component is not a Büchi state, the priority is odd and lower than all the ones of $\mathcal{A}$.

By Proposition 21, $\mathcal{C}$ is non-empty if and only if there exists a limit configuration of the system that satisfies the regular objective $\mathcal{A}$. Moreover, we know that $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$ has size linear in the size of the DLSS and exponential only in the maximal arity of processes. So $\mathcal{C}$ has size that is exponential w.r.t. the DLSS and the objective, and polynomial size if the maximal arity is fixed.

Finally, non-emptiness of $\mathcal{C}$ amounts to solve a parity game of the same size as $\mathcal{C}$ : player Automaton chooses transitions of $\mathcal{C}$, and player Pathfinder chooses the direction (left/right child). To sum up, we obtain a parity game of exponential size, so solving the game takes exponential time since the number of priorities is polynomial. If both the number of priorities and the maximal arity are fixed, the game can be solved in polynomial time.

## 5 Pushdown systems with locks

Till now every process has been a finite state system. Here we consider the case when processes can be pushdown automata. The definition of a pushdown DLSS is the same as before but now each automaton $\mathcal{A}_{p}$ is a deterministic pushdown automaton.

We will reduce our verification problem to the emptiness test of a nondeterministic pushdown automata on infinite trees. These automata will have parity acceptance conditions. While in general testing emptiness of such automata is Exptime-complete, we will notice that the automata we construct have a special form allowing to test emptiness in Ptime for a fixed number of ranks in the parity condition.
$\ulcorner\quad$ We start by defining pushdown tree automata. We work with a ranked alphabet $\Sigma=$ $\Sigma_{0} \cup \Sigma_{1} \cup \Sigma_{2}$, so a letter determines whether a node has zero, one or two children. Our automaton will be quite standard but for an additional stack instruction. Apart standard pop and $\operatorname{push}(a)$, we have a reset instruction that empties the stack. A pushdown tree automaton is a tuple $\left(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, q^{0}, \perp, \delta, \Omega\right)$, where $Q$ is a finite set of states, $\Sigma$ an input alphabet, $\Gamma$ a stack alphabet, $q^{0} \in Q$ an initial state, $\perp \in \Gamma$ a bottom stack symbol, and
$\Omega: Q \rightarrow\{1, \ldots, d\}$ a parity condition. Finally, $\delta$ is a partial transition function taking as the arguments the current state $q$, the current input letter $a$, and the current stack symbol $\gamma$. The form of transitions in $\delta$ depends on the rank of the letter $a$ :

- For $a \in \Sigma_{0}$, we have $\delta(q, a, \gamma)=\mathrm{T}$ for a special symbol T . This means that the automaton accepts in a leaf of the tree if $\delta$ is defined.
- For $a \in \Sigma_{1}$, we have $\delta(q, a, \gamma)=\left(q^{\prime}\right.$, instr) where instr is one of the stack instructions.
- For $a \in \Sigma_{2}$, we have $\delta(q, a, \gamma)=\left(\left(q_{l}\right.\right.$, instr $\left._{l}\right),\left(q_{r}\right.$, instr $\left.\left._{r}\right)\right)$, so now we have two states, going to the left and right, respectively, and two separate stack instructions.

A run of such an automaton on a $\Sigma$-labeled tree is an assignment of configurations to nodes of the tree; each configuration has the form $(q, w)$ where $q \in Q$ is a state and $w \in \Gamma^{+}$ is a sequence of stack symbols representing the stack (top symbol being the leftmost). The root is labeled with $\left(q^{0}, \perp\right)$. The labelling of children must depend on the labeling of the parent according to the transition function $\delta$. In particular, if a leaf of the tree is labeled $a$ and has assigned a configuration $(q, w)$ then $\delta(q, a, \gamma)$ must be defined, where $\gamma$ is the leftmost symbol of $w$. A run is accepting if for every infinite path the sequence of assigned states satisfies the max parity condition given by $\Omega$ : the maximum of ranks of states seen on the path must be even.
$\ulcorner$ We say that a pushdown tree automaton is right-resetting if for every transition $\delta(q, a, \gamma)=$ $\left(\left(q_{l}\right.\right.$, instr $\left._{l}\right),\left(q_{r}\right.$, instr $\left.\left._{r}\right)\right)$ we have that instr $r_{r}$ is reset.

- Proposition 23. For a fixed d, the emptiness problem for right-resetting pushdown tree automata with a parity condition over ranks $\{1, \ldots, d\}$ can be solved in Ptime.

Proof. We consider the representative case of $d=3$. Suppose we are given a right-resetting pushdown tree automaton $\mathcal{A}=\left(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, q^{0}, \perp, \delta, \Omega\right)$.

The first step is to construct a pushdown word automaton $\mathcal{A}^{l}\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}\right)$ depending on three sets of states $G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3} \subseteq Q$. The idea is that $\mathcal{A}^{l}$ simulates the run of $\mathcal{A}$ on the leftmost branch of a tree. When $\mathcal{A}$ has a transition going both to the left and to the right then $\mathcal{A}^{l}$ goes to the left and checks if the state going to the right is in an appropriate $G_{i}$. This means that $\mathcal{A}^{l}$ works over the alphabet $\Sigma^{l}$ that is the same as $\Sigma$ but all letters from $\Sigma_{2}$ have rank 1 instead of 2 . The states of $\mathcal{A}^{l}\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}\right)$ are $Q \times\{1,2,3\}$ with the second component storing the maximal rank of a state seen so far on the run. The transitions of $\mathcal{A}^{l}\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}\right)$ are defined according to the above description. We make precise only the case for a transition of $\mathcal{A}$ of the form $\delta(q, a, \gamma)=\left(\left(q_{l}\right.\right.$, instr $\left._{l}\right),\left(q_{r}\right.$, instr $\left.\left.r_{r}\right)\right)$. In this case, $\mathcal{A}^{l}$ has a transition $\delta^{l}((q, i), a, \gamma)=\left(\left(q_{l}, \max \left(i, \Omega\left(q_{l}\right)\right)\right)\right.$, instr $\left.l_{l}\right)$ if $q_{r} \in G_{\max \left(i, \Omega\left(q_{r}\right)\right)}$. Observe that instr $r_{r}$ is necessarily reset as $\mathcal{A}$ is right-resetting.

The next step is to observe that for given sets $G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}$ we can calculate in Ptime the set of states from which $\mathcal{A}^{l}\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}\right)$ has an accepting run.

The last step is to compute the following fixpoint expression in the lattice of subsets of $Q$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
W & =\operatorname{LFP} X_{3} . \operatorname{GFP} X_{2} . \operatorname{LFP} X_{1} . P\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right) \quad \text { where } \\
P\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right) & =\left\{q: \mathcal{A}^{l}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right) \text { has an accepting run from } q\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Observe that $P: \mathcal{P}(Q)^{3} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$ is a monotone function over the lattice of subsets of $Q$. Computing $W$ requires at most $|Q|^{3}$ computations of $P$ for different triples of sets of states.

We claim that $\mathcal{A}$ has an accepting run from a state $q$, if and only if, $q \in W$. The argument is presented in the appendix.

Proof of Theorem 8. The lower bound follows already from Theorem 7.

For the upper bound we reuse the Büchi tree automaton $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$ from Proposition 21. This time $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$ is a pushdown tree automaton, however it is right-resetting because processes are spawned with empty stack. We follow the lines of the proof of Theorem 7, building the product of $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$ with the regular objective automaton $\mathcal{A}$, and constructing an equivalent parity, right-resetting pushdown tree automaton $\mathcal{C}$. Proposition 23 concludes the proof.

## 6 Conclusions

We have considered verification of parametric lock sharing systems where processes can spawn other processes and create new locks. Representing configurations as trees, and the notion of the limit configuration, are instrumental in our approach. We believe that we have made stimulating observations about this representation. It is very easy to express fairness as a property of a limit configuration. Many interesting properties, including liveness, can be formulated very naturally as properties of limit trees (cf. page 6). Moreover, there are structural conditions characterizing when a tree is a limit configuration of a run of a given system (Lemma 12).

We expect that the parameters in Theorem 8 will be usually quite small. As the dining philosophers example suggests, for many systems the maximal arity should be quite small (cf. Figure 1). Indeed, the maximal arity of the system corresponds to the tree width of the graph where process instances are nodes and edges represent sharing a lock. The maximal priority will be often 3 . In our opinion, most interesting properties would have the form "there is a left path such that" or "all left paths are such that", and these properties need only automata with three priorities. So in this case our verification algorithm is in Ptime.

Our handling of pushdown processes is different from the literature. Most of our development is done for finite state processes, while the transition to pushdown process is handled through right-resetting concept. Proposition 23 implies that in our context pushdown processes are essentially as easy to handle as finite processes.

As further work it would be interesting to see if it is possible to extend our approach to treat join operation [12]. An important question is how to extend the model with some shared state and still retain decidability for the pushdown case.

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## A Fairness

- Proposition 3. Consider a run $\tau_{0} \xrightarrow{\nu_{1}, a_{1}} \tau_{1} \xrightarrow{\nu_{2}, a_{2}} \cdots$ and its limit configuration $\tau$. The run is strongly process-fair if and only if $\tau$ is fair.

Proof. Consider the left-to-right implication. Suppose towards a contradiction that the run is not process-fair. So there is a transition $\tau \xrightarrow{\nu, a} \tau^{\prime}$ for some leaf $\nu$. Let $p$ be the process moving in $\nu$, and let $\tau_{i}$ be the first configuration where $\nu$ appears in $\tau$. We show that $p$ moves after this configuration, contradicting the fact that $\nu$ is a leaf.

If $o p(a)$ is not a get operation then $(\nu, a)$ is enabled in every configuration $\tau_{j}$ for $j>i$. By strong fairness $p$ must move after $i$.

A more interesting case is when $o p(a)$ is get $_{x}$ for some $x$. Let $\ell=L(\nu)(x)$ be the lock taken by the transition. As $(\nu, a)$ is enabled in $\tau$, we have that $\ell \notin H(\tau)$. We show that this implies that process $p$ is enabled infinitely often after position $i$. By soundness, as $\nu, a$ is enabled, $p$ cannot hold $\ell$ : so $\ell \notin H(\nu)$. If $\ell \in H\left(\tau_{i}\right)$ and $\ell$ is never released afterwards then there is a node $\nu^{\prime}$ in $\tau_{i}$ (and thus in $\tau$ ) such that for every left descendant of $\nu^{\prime}$ we have $\ell \in H\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$. But this is impossible since we have assumed $\ell \notin H(\tau)$. Hence, either $\ell$ is free in $\tau_{i}$ or it is free in some later configuration $\tau_{i_{1}}$ such that $\tau_{i_{1}} \xrightarrow{\nu^{\prime}, b} \tau_{i_{1}+1}$ and $o p(b)=\operatorname{get}_{y}$ with $L\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)(y)=\ell$. So, $(\nu, a)$ is enabled in $\tau_{i_{1}}$. If $\ell$ is never taken after $i_{1}$ then $(\nu, a)$ is enabled always after $i_{1}$, and we get a move of $p$ by strong fairness as before. If $\ell$ is taken after $i_{1}$ then by the same argument as above there must be also a position $i_{2}$ when $\ell$ is released. So, $(\nu, a)$ is enabled in $\tau_{i_{2}}$. This argument shows that $(\nu, a)$ must be enabled infinitely often after $i$, so by strong fairness there must be a move by $p$ after $i$.

Consider now the right-to-left implication. Suppose that $\tau$ is process-fair, and the process $p$ is enabled infinitely often after position $i$. By contradiction, assume that $p$ does not move after position $i$ and let $\nu$ be the last node of $p$ 's local run. If the action $a$ of $p$ that is enabled infinitely often is not a get then $a$ is enabled in every $\tau_{j}$ with $j \geq i$, and $\tau \xrightarrow{\nu, a} \tau^{\prime}$, contradicting process-fairness. Else, $o p(a)$ is $\operatorname{get}_{x}$ with $L(\nu)(x)=\ell$. Since $a$ is enabled infinitely often, $\ell \notin H(\tau)$. Again we have $\tau \xrightarrow{\nu, a} \tau^{\prime}$, contradicting process-fairness.

## B Characterizing limit configurations

- Lemma 12. Suppose that $\tau$ satisfies the first three conditions of Lemma 11. The relation $\prec_{H}$ is acyclic if and only if there is a family of strict total orders $<_{\nu}$ over a subset of variables from $\operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ such that:
F4.1 $x$ is ordered by $<_{\nu}$ if and only if $L(\nu)(x) \in H(\tau)$.
F4.2 if $x<_{\nu} x^{\prime}, \nu^{\prime}$ is a child of $\nu$, and $y, y^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Var}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$ are such that $x \sim y$ and $x^{\prime} \sim y^{\prime}$ then $y<\nu^{\prime} y^{\prime}$.
F4.3 if $x, x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ and $L(\nu)(x) \prec_{H} L(\nu)\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ then $x<_{\nu} x^{\prime}$.
Proof. For the left-to-right direction we fix a strict total order $<$ on $H(\tau)$ that is compatible with $\prec_{H}$ (for instance the strict order $<$ defined in the proof of Lemma 11). Then we order the variables $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ with $L(\nu)(x) \in H(\tau)$ according to $<$. The three conditions of the lemma then follow directly.

For the converse we define $\prec$ on $H(\tau)$ by $\ell \prec \ell^{\prime}$ if for some node $\nu$ with variables $x \neq x^{\prime}$ such that $L(\nu)(x)=\ell$ and $L(\nu)\left(x^{\prime}\right)=\ell^{\prime}$ we have $x<_{\nu} x^{\prime}$.

We start by showing that $\prec$ is acyclic. Assume by contradiction that $\ell_{0} \prec \ell_{1} \ldots \prec \ell_{k} \prec \ell_{0}$ is a cycle of minimal length, so the locks $\ell_{i} \in H(\tau)$ are all distinct. We use indices modulo $k+1$, so $k+1 \equiv 0$. Note that $k>1$ because of condition F4.2.

By assumption, the scopes of $\ell_{i}$ and $\ell_{i+1}$ intersect, for every $i$. Since scopes are subtrees of $\tau$ (Remark 10) this means that two scopes that intersect have roots that are ordered by the ancestor relation in $\tau$.

Assume first that $k>2$. Let $i$ be such that the depth of the root of the scope of $\ell_{i}$ is maximal. So the roots of the scopes of $\ell_{i-1}$ and $\ell_{i+1}$ are ancestors of the root $\nu$ of the scope of $\ell_{i}$. In the scope of $\ell_{i}$ there exist nodes that belong to the scope of $\ell_{i-1}$ and of $\ell_{i+1}$, respectively. This means that $\nu$ is in the scope of $\ell_{i-1}, \ell_{i}$ and $\ell_{i+1}$. So the scopes of $\ell_{i-1}$ and $\ell_{i+1}$ intersect, and we have either $\ell_{i-1}<_{\nu} \ell_{i+1}$ or $\ell_{i+1}<_{\nu} \ell_{i-1}$. Thus we get from the definition of $\prec$ either $\ell_{i-1} \prec \ell_{i+1}$ or $\ell_{i+1} \prec \ell_{i-1}$. In both cases the cycle $\ell_{0} \prec \ell_{1} \cdots \prec \ell_{k} \prec \ell_{0}$ is not minimal, a contradiction.

It remains to consider the case $\ell_{0} \prec \ell_{1} \prec \ell_{2} \prec \ell_{0}$. With a similar argument as before there exists a node $\nu$ which is in the scope of all of $\ell_{0}, \ell_{1}, \ell_{2}$, so this node gives a total order on these locks and there cannot exist a cycle.

We now show that $\prec_{H}$ is acyclic as well.
Like before, suppose there exists a cycle of distinct nodes $\ell_{0} \prec_{H} \ell_{1} \prec_{H} \cdots \prec_{H} \ell_{k} \prec_{H}$ $\ell_{k+1}=\ell_{0}$ with $k>0$. We consider such a cycle of minimal size. Hence every $\ell_{i}$ is comparable with $\ell_{i-1}, \ell_{i+1}$ and incomparable with all the other $\ell_{j}$ (as otherwise we would obtain a shorter cycle).

Given $\ell, \ell^{\prime} \in H(\tau)$ such that $\ell \prec_{H} \ell^{\prime}$, let $\nu$ be the node with an unmatched get of $\ell$. By condition $F 3$, this node is unique. By the definition $\prec_{H}$ this node has some descendant $\nu^{\prime}$ with an operation on $\ell^{\prime}$. There are two possibilities, one is that the scopes of $\ell, \ell^{\prime}$ intersect, in which case by condition F4.3 we have $\ell \prec \ell^{\prime}$. The other possibility is that the two subtrees do not intersect, in which case the root of $\theta\left(\ell^{\prime}\right)$ is strictly below the unmatched get of $\ell$.

As $\prec$ is acyclic, there exists some $i$ such that the scopes of $\ell_{i-1}$ and $\ell_{i}$ are disjoint, hence all nodes of the scope of $\ell_{i}$ are below the unmatched get of $\ell_{i-1}$. In particular the unmatched get of $\ell_{i-1}$ is an ancestor of the unmatched get of $\ell_{i}$. As a result, by the definition of $\prec_{H}$, $\ell_{i-1} \prec_{H} \ell_{i+1}$.

If $k \geq 2$ then the above argument shows that the cycle was not minimal, yielding a contradiction.

If $k=1$ then we have a contradiction as well, as either the scopes intersect, so we cannot have both $\ell_{0} \prec \ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{1} \prec \ell_{0}$. Or they do not intersect, but then there is a node $\nu$ in the intersection with either $\ell_{0}<_{\nu} \ell_{1}$ or $\ell_{1}<_{\nu} \ell_{0}$, but not both.

As a result, the relation $\prec_{H}$ is acyclic.

## C Recognizing limit configurations

- Lemma 14. If $\tau$ is a limit configuration and $\mathcal{C}$ is a semantically correct coloring of $\tau$ then $\mathcal{C}$ is syntactically correct.

Proof. Suppose $\mathcal{C}$ is a correct coloring of $\tau$. Clearly $\tau$ is process-consistent. Branch consistency follows from Lemma 11 (condition F3). Indeed, all the clauses for $k e e p s(x)$ and $\operatorname{ev}$-keeps $(x)$ hold because of the third condition of this lemma. The clauses for avoids $(x)$ and ev-avoids $(x)$ follow directly from the semantics. Directly from definition of the correct coloring it follows that it is also eventuality-consistent. It is slightly more difficult to verify that it is recurrence-consistent.

To verify recurrence consistency of $\mathcal{C}$ consider an arbitrary node $\nu$ of $\tau$ and an uncolored variable $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$. We find an infinite sequence:

$$
(\nu, x)=\left(\nu_{0}, x_{0}\right),\left(\nu_{1}, x_{1}\right), \ldots
$$

such that

- $x_{i} \in \operatorname{Var}\left(\nu_{i}\right)$ and $x_{i}$ is uncolored in $\nu_{i}$,
- $\nu_{0}, \nu_{1}, \ldots$ is a path,
- $x_{i} \sim x_{i+1}$.

Let us see why it is possible. Since every leaf satisfies either $\nu \models k e e p s(x)$ or $\nu \models \operatorname{avoids}(x)$, node $\nu$ is not a leaf. If $\nu 0$ satisfies $\operatorname{keeps}(x)$ or $\operatorname{ev-keeps}(x)$ then so does $\nu$. If $\nu 0$ satisfies $\operatorname{avoids}(x)$ or ev-avoids $(x)$ and is the unique successor then so does $\nu$. Hence, if $\nu 0$ is the unique successor of $\nu$ then $x$ cannot be colored in $\nu 0$. If $\nu 1$ exists, but there is no $y$ with $x=\sigma(\nu 1)(y)$ then the same verification shows that $x$ cannot be colored in $\nu 0$. Finally, if $x=\sigma(\nu 1)(y)$ and $y$ is colored in $\nu 1$ then $x$ must be colored too. Hence, $y$ is not colored in $\nu 1$ in this last case. This shows how to find $\left(\nu_{1}, x_{1}\right)$. Repeating this argument we obtain the desired sequence.

To terminate we show why the existence of the above sequence implies the recurrence condition. First note that $x_{i} \sim x_{j}$ for all $i, j \geq 0$. Let $\ell=L(\nu)(x)$. We observe that since $\nu_{i}$ does not satisfy avoids $\left(x_{i}\right)$ then there must be an operation on $\ell$ below $\nu_{i}$, and since it does not satisfy $\operatorname{ev-keeps}(x)$ it must be a release. So we have found an infinite path such that in the subtree of every node of this path there is a release operation. This means that there are infinitely many get and release operations on $\ell$ in the tree below $\nu$

- Lemma 15. If $\tau$ is a configuration and $\mathcal{C}$ a syntactically correct coloring of $\tau$, then $\mathcal{C}$ is semantically correct.

Proof. Process consistency guarantees that locally labels follow the transition relations. Branch consistency on keeps $(x)$ and avoids $(x)$ labels guarantees that if $\nu$ is labeled by one of these predicates then the predicate holds in $\nu$. To get the same property for ev-keeps $(x)$ and ev-avoids $(x)$ we need the eventuality-consistent condition.

Finally, if $x$ is uncolored at $\nu$ then the recurrence-consistent condition implies that $x$ satisfies none of the four predicates.

- Lemma 16. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration with syntactically correct coloring. For every node $\nu$ and variable $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ we have: $L(\nu)(x) \in H(\tau)$ if and only if $x \in H^{s}(\nu)$.

Proof. Suppose $\ell=L(\nu)(x)$ and $\ell \in H(\tau)$. Take the node $\nu^{\prime}$ that is closest to the root and has $\ell=L\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ for some $x^{\prime}$. We have $\nu^{\prime} \models \operatorname{ev-keeps}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ and $\nu^{\prime}$ is a right child (it cannot be the root as $\operatorname{Var}(\varepsilon)=\emptyset)$. Hence, $x^{\prime} \in H^{s}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$. By induction on the length of the path from $\nu^{\prime}$ to $\nu$ we show that $x \in H^{s}(\nu)$.

For the other direction, if $\nu \models \operatorname{ev-keeps}(x)$ then $L(\nu)(x) \in H(\tau)$. It is also easy to see that membership in $H(\tau)$ is preserved by all the rules.

- Lemma 17. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration with a syntactically correct coloring. Condition F2 of Lemma 11 holds for $\tau$ if and only if for every leaf $\nu$ of $\tau$, every possible transition from $s(\nu)$ has some get ${ }_{x}$ operation with $x \in H^{s}(\nu)$.

Proof. By Lemma 16.

- Lemma 18. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration with a syntactically correct coloring. Then condition F3 of Lemma 11 holds for $\tau$.

Proof. Consider $\ell \in H(\tau)$. By Lemma 13 there is a node $\nu$ and $x \in \operatorname{Var}(\nu)$ with $\nu \models k e e p s(x)$, $\ell=L(\nu)(x)$. Let $\nu^{\prime}$ be the root of the scope of $\ell$. We have $\nu^{\prime} \models \operatorname{ev-keeps}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ for $x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Var}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$ with $x^{\prime} \sim x$. By consistency conditions on the coloring:

- for every node $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ on the path from $\nu^{\prime}$ to $\nu$ we have $\nu^{\prime \prime} \models \operatorname{ev-keeps(~} x^{\prime \prime}$ ) for $x^{\prime \prime} \sim x$, and for every right child $\nu^{\prime \prime \prime}$ of $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ we have $\nu^{\prime \prime \prime} \models e v$-avoids $\left(x^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)$ for $x^{\prime \prime \prime} \sim x$.
Observe that $\nu^{\prime \prime \prime} \models e v$-avoids ( $x^{\prime \prime \prime}$ ) guarantees that there are only finitely many operations on $\ell$ below $\nu^{\prime \prime \prime}$, and that there is no unmatched get of $\ell$ below $\nu^{\prime \prime \prime}$. Since there are no operations on $\ell$ below $\nu$, we are done.
- Lemma 19. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration with a syntactically correct coloring. A family of local orders $<_{\nu}$ is a consistent order labeling of $\tau$ if and only if it satisfies the conditions of Lemma 12.

Proof. Let us take a family of orders $<_{\nu}$ satisfying conditions F4.1, F4.2, F4.3 of Lemma 12. We show that it is a consistent order labeling of $\tau$. By Lemma 16 the first condition is satisfied. The next two conditions follow from condition F4.2. The fourth condition requires some verification. Consider $\nu$ as in that condition, so with $y<_{\nu} x$ and $\nu \models k e e p s(x)$. It follows that there is some ancestor $\nu^{\prime}$ of $\nu$, together with some $x^{\prime} \sim x, x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Var}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)$, such that the action at $\nu^{\prime}$ is an unmatched get x $_{x^{\prime}}$ of the lock $\ell=L\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)\left(x^{\prime}\right)=L(\nu)(x)$. If there were some operation on $\ell^{\prime}=L(\nu)(y)$ below or at $\nu$ then $\ell \prec_{H} \ell^{\prime}$, implying $x<_{\nu} y$ by F4.3. Thus there is no operation on $\ell^{\prime}$ below or at $\nu$, meaning that $\nu \models k e e p s(y)$ or $\nu \models \operatorname{avoids}(y)$.

For the other direction, take a consistent order labeling $<_{\nu}$. We show that it satisfies the conditions F4.1, F4.2, F4.3 of Lemma 12. From the first condition on $<_{\nu}$ and Lemma 16 we see that $<_{\nu}$ orders only variables associated with locks from $H(\tau)$; this gives us F4.1. Condition F4.2 follows directly from the second and third property of consistent order labeling.

It remains to show F4.3. For this take a node $\nu$ and two locks $\ell=L(\nu)(x)$ and $\ell^{\prime}=L(\nu)(y)$ for some $x, y \in H^{s}(\nu)$. Suppose $\ell \prec_{H} \ell^{\prime}$. This means that there is an unmatched get of $\ell$, say in a node $\nu^{\prime}$, and an operation on $\ell^{\prime}$ at some node $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ below $\nu^{\prime}$.

We show below that we can find some node $\nu_{1}$ in the scope of both $\ell$ and $\ell^{\prime}$, and such that $\nu_{1} \models k e e p s\left(x_{1}\right)$ and $\nu_{1} \not \models \operatorname{keeps}\left(y_{1}\right)$ and $\nu_{1} \not \models \operatorname{avoids}\left(y_{1}\right)$, with $x \sim x_{1}$ and $y \sim y_{1}$. This will show that we cannot have $y_{1}<_{\nu_{1}} x_{1}$, so it must hold that $x_{1}<_{\nu_{1}} y_{1}$, thus also $x<_{\nu} y$ by local consistency.

- If either $\nu, \nu^{\prime}$ are incomparable, or $\nu$ is an ancestor of $\nu^{\prime}$, or $\nu=\nu^{\prime}$, then $\nu^{\prime}$ and $\nu^{\prime} 0$ are in the scope of both $\ell$ and $\ell^{\prime}$ (note that $\nu^{\prime} 0$ is an ancestor of $\nu^{\prime \prime}$, or they can be equal). We choose $\nu_{1}=\nu^{\prime} 0$.
- If $\nu^{\prime} \neq \nu$ is an ancestor of $\nu$, but $\nu$ and $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ are either incomparable, or $\nu$ is an ancestor of $\nu^{\prime \prime}$, then we chose $\nu_{1}$ as the least common ancestor of $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ and $\nu$. Note that $\nu_{1}$ is below or equal to $\nu 0$, and belongs to the scope of both $\ell$ and $\ell^{\prime}$.
- If $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ is an ancestor of $\nu$ then $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ is in the scope of both $\ell$ and $\ell^{\prime}$, so we chose $\nu_{1}$ to be $\nu^{\prime \prime}$.
- Lemma 20. Let $\tau$ be a process-consistent configuration with a syntactically correct coloring. If $\prec_{H}$ has no infinite descending chain then there is a consistent order labeling of $\tau$ with no infinite descending chain. If $\prec_{H}$ has an infinite descending chain then every consistent order labeling of $\tau$ admits an infinite descending chain.

Proof. The first statement is easy: take the well-founded strict order on locks $<$ defined in the proof of Lemma 11, and for each node $\nu$ take as $<_{\nu}$ the order given by $<$ on $L(\nu)(\operatorname{Var}(\nu))$. The well-foundedness of $<$ implies that there is no infinite descending chain in the order labeling.

For the second part, assume $\prec_{H}$ has an infinite descending chain and let $\left(<_{\nu}\right)_{\nu \in \tau}$ be a consistent order labeling of $\tau$. Let $\ell_{0} \succ_{H} \ell_{1} \succ_{H} \cdots$ be an infinite descending chain for $\prec_{H}$. $\left\ulcorner\quad\right.$ For all $i \geq 1$ let $\mu_{i}$ be a node with an unmatched get of $\ell_{i}$ and with a descendant with a get of $\ell_{i-1}$. Let $c_{i}$ be the root of the scope of $\ell_{i}$ in $\tau$. As $\mu_{i+1}$ is an ancestor of a node where $\ell_{i}$ appears, it is comparable with $c_{i}$ (two nodes are comparable if one is an ancestor of the other). As $c_{i+1}$ is an ancestor of $\mu_{i+1}$, it is comparable with $c_{i}$.

Claim 1: For all $a \leq b$, there exists $i \in\{a, \ldots, b\}$ such that $c_{i}$ is an ancestor of all $\left(c_{k}\right)_{a \leq k \leq b}$.
Proof. We proceed by induction on $b-a$. If $b-a=0$ this is clear. If $b-a>0$, by induction hypothesis there exists $i \in\{a, \ldots, b-1\}$ such that $c_{i}$ is an ancestor of all $\left(c_{j}\right)_{a \leq k \leq b-1}$. As $c_{b}$ is comparable with $c_{b-1}$, which is a descendant of $c_{i}, c_{b}$ is comparable with $c_{i}$. If $c_{b}$ is a descendant of $c_{i}$, then $c_{i}$ is an ancestor of all $\left(c_{k}\right)_{a \leq k \leq b}$. If $c_{b}$ is an ancestor of $c_{i}$, then $c_{b}$ is an ancestor of all $\left(c_{k}\right)_{a \leq k \leq b}$.

Consider the subtree of $\tau$ formed by all $c_{i}$ and their ancestors. It is an infinite, but finitely-branching tree, thus it has an infinite branch by König's lemma. We first argue that there must be infinitely many $c_{i}$ on that branch. Let $a \in \mathbb{N}$, let $\nu_{a}$ be the lowest ancestor of $c_{a}$ on the branch. Let $\nu^{\prime}$ be lower on the branch than $\nu_{a}$, then $\nu^{\prime}$ has some descendant $c_{b}$. Note that $\nu_{a}$ is the lowest common ancestor of $c_{a}$ and $c_{b}$. We can assume $a<b$ (the case $b<a$ is symmetric), then by Claim 1 there is some $i \in\{a, \ldots, b\}$ such that $c_{i}$ is an ancestor of all $\left(c_{k}\right)_{a \leq k \leq b}$, and in particular of $c_{a}$ and $c_{b}$. Further, as $\nu_{a}$ is the lowest common ancestor of $c_{a}$ and $c_{b}, c_{i}$ is an ancestor of $\nu_{a}$ and is thus on the branch. As a result, for all $a \in \mathbb{N}$ we can find $i \geq a$ such that $c_{i}$ is on the branch.

We pick a sequence of $c_{i}$ as follows: we start with the highest $c_{i_{0}}$ on the branch, and then define $c_{i_{j+1}}$ as the highest $c_{i}$ on the branch with $i>i_{j}$, for all $j$. By definition for all $j$ we have that no $c_{i}$ with $i>i_{j}$ is a strict ancestor of $c_{i_{j+1}}$.

As a consequence of Claim 1, there exists $i \in\left\{i_{j}+1, \ldots, i_{j+1}\right\}$ such that $c_{i}$ is an ancestor of all $\left(c_{k}\right)_{i_{j}+1 \leq k \leq i_{j+1}}$. As noted above, as $i>i_{j}$ we cannot have $c_{i}$ as a strict ancestor of $c_{i_{j+1}}$, hence $i=i_{j+1}$. As a result, $c_{i_{j+1}}$ is an ancestor of all $\left(c_{k}\right)_{i_{j}<k<i_{j+1}}$.

For the remaining of the proof we fix a consistent order labeling $\left(<_{\nu}\right)_{\nu}$ for $\tau$.
Claim 2: For all $a<b$, if node $\nu$ is in the scope of both $\ell_{a}$ and $\ell_{b}$, and if $\nu$ is ancestor of all $\left(c_{k}\right)_{a<k<b}$, then $x>_{\nu} y$, with $x, y$ such that $L(\nu)(x)=\ell_{a}$ and $L(\nu)(y)=\ell_{b}$.

Proof. Let $x, y$ be such that $L(\nu)(x)=\ell_{a}$ and $L(\nu)(y)=\ell_{b}$. We proceed by induction on $b-a$.

If $b=a+1$ then $\ell_{a} \succ_{H} \ell_{b}$. Since we assume that $\left(<_{\nu}\right)_{n}$ is a consistent order labeling, by Lemma 19 and F4.3 of Lemma 12 we have $x>_{\nu} y$ as claimed.

If $b-a \geq 2$, by Claim 1, there exists $i \in\{a+1, \ldots, b-1\}$ such that $c_{i}$ is an ancestor of all $\left(c_{k}\right)_{a<k<b}$. In particular, $c_{i}$ is an ancestor of $c_{a+1}$, itself an ancestor of $\mu_{a+1}$, itself an ancestor of a node $\nu^{\prime}$ with a get of $\ell_{a}$. Recall that $\nu$ itself is an ancestor of $c_{i}$, by assumption. As the scope of a lock is a subtree, $\ell_{a}$ appears in all nodes between $\nu$ and $\nu^{\prime}$, thus in particular in $c_{i}$.

Moreover, $\mu_{b}$ is an ancestor of some node with a get of $\ell_{b-1}$, which is a descendant of $c_{b-1}$, thus of $c_{i}$, hence $\mu_{b}$ and $c_{i}$ are comparable. If $\mu_{b}$ is an ancestor of $c_{i}$, then as $\nu^{\prime}$ is a descendant of $c_{i}, \nu^{\prime}$ is also a descendant of $\mu_{b}$, hence $\ell_{a} \succ_{H} \ell_{b}$. As a result, $x>_{\nu} y$ as the consistent order labeling satisfies F4.3 (Lemma 19). If $\mu_{b}$ is a descendant of $c_{i}$ then as the scope of a lock is a subtree, $\ell_{b}$ appears in all nodes between $\nu$ and $\mu_{b}$, thus in particular in $c_{i}$. We set $x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}, z^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Var}\left(c_{i}\right)$ such that $L\left(c_{i}\right)\left(x^{\prime}\right)=\ell_{a}, L\left(c_{i}\right)\left(y^{\prime}\right)=\ell_{b}$ and $L\left(c_{i}\right)\left(z^{\prime}\right)=\ell_{i}$ and by induction hypothesis we have $x>_{c_{i}} z$ and $z>_{c_{i}} y$ thus $x>_{c_{i}} y$ as $>_{c_{i}}$ is total. Finally, as we have a consistent order labeling, $x>_{\nu} y$ holds as well.

Recall that $c_{i_{j+1}}$ is an ancestor of all $\left(c_{k}\right)_{i_{j}<k<i_{j+1}}$. In particular, $c_{i_{j+1}}$ is an ancestor of $c_{i_{j}+1}$, thus of $\mu_{i_{j}+1}$, itself an ancestor of some node $\nu^{\prime}$ with a get of $\ell_{i_{j}}$. Thus $\ell_{i_{j}}$ appears in $c_{i_{j+1}}$, because $c_{i_{j+1}}$ is between $c_{i_{j}}$ and $\nu^{\prime}$.

Let $x_{j}, y_{j}$ be such that $L\left(c_{i_{j+1}}\right)\left(x_{j}\right)=\ell_{i_{j}}$ and $L\left(c_{i_{j+1}}\right)\left(y_{j}\right)=\ell_{i_{j+1}}$. By Claim 2, we have $x_{j}>_{\nu} y_{j}$. The sequences $\left(c_{i_{j+1}}\right)_{j>0},\left(x_{j}\right)_{j>0}$ and $\left(y_{j}\right)_{j>0}$ thus form an infinite descending chain, proving the lemma.

Proposition 21. For a given DLSS, there is a non-deterministic Büchi tree automaton $\widehat{\mathcal{B}}$ accepting exactly the limit configurations of process-fair runs of DLSS. The size of $\widehat{\mathcal{B}}$ is linear in the size of the DLSS and exponential in the maximal arity of the DLSS.

Proof. Given a tree $\tau$ labeled with $p, a, s$ the automaton $\widehat{\mathcal{B}}$ guesses a coloring $\mathcal{C}$, labeling $H^{s}$ and an ordering labeling $\mathcal{O}$. It then checks if $\mathcal{C}, H^{s}$ and $\mathcal{O}$ satisfy all the consistency conditions. This automaton is a product of the following automata:

- $\mathcal{B}_{1}$ recognizing process-consistent trees,
- $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{C}}$ checking if the coloring is syntactically correct,
- $\mathcal{B}_{H}$ checking if $H^{s}$ is a syntactic $H$-labeling,
- $\mathcal{B}_{2}$ checking the conditions of Lemma 17,
- $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{O}}$ checking if $\mathcal{O}$ is a consistent order labeling.
- $\mathcal{B}_{5}$ checking the absence of infinite descending chains (Lemma 20).

Apart from $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{C}}$ and $\mathcal{B}_{5}$ the other automata only check relations between a node and its children and some additional conditions local to a node. So they are automata with trivial acceptance conditions. Automaton $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{C}}$ needs a Büchi condition to check that $\mathcal{C}$ is eventualityconsistent and recurrence-consistent. The number of labels is polynomial in the size of DLSS and exponential in the maximal arity as we have sets of predicates and orderings on variables as labels. Automaton $\mathcal{B}_{5}$ can be obtained by first constructing an automaton for its complement: one can easily define a non-deterministic Büchi automaton guessing a branch and following a sequence of variables along that branch witnessing an infinite decreasing sequence of locks. As it only needs to remember a pointer to one of the variables of a node, its number of states is the maximal arity of the DLSS. Thus we can complement it to get a non-deterministic Büchi automaton checking the absence of such sequence, of size exponential in the maximal arity of the DLSS, and polynomial in the alphabet (itself exponential in the arity and polynomial in the DLSS).

We need to check that $\tau$ is a fair limit configuration if and only if it is accepted by $\widehat{\mathcal{B}}$.
If $\tau$ is a limit configuration then it is process consistent, so it is accepted by $\mathcal{B}_{1}$. Guessing $\mathcal{C}$ to be semantically correct coloring ensures that $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{C}}$ accepts $\tau$ with this coloring (Lemma 14). As we have observed, given the coloring there is unique syntactic $H$-labeling, so $\mathcal{B}_{H}$ can accept it. By Lemma 11, configuration $\tau$ satisfies properties F1-5. So $\tau$ is accepted by $\mathcal{B}_{2}$. Finally, by Lemma $12, \tau$ satisfies properties F4.1, F4.2, F4.3, so $\tau$ is accepted by $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{O}}$ thanks to Lemma 19. By Lemma 20, the automaton $\mathcal{B}_{5}$ accepts $\tau$ as well.

For the other direction suppose $\tau$ is accepted by $\widehat{\mathcal{B}}$. Thanks to Lemma 11 it is sufficient to check properties F1-5. Property F1 is verified by automaton $\mathcal{B}_{1}$. Thanks to $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{C}}$ we know that the guessed coloring is syntactically correct. Then $\mathcal{B}_{2}$ ensures that $\tau$ satisfies F 2 thanks to Lemma 17. Lemma 18 ensures that $\tau$ satisfies F3. Finally, automaton $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{O}}$ checks that the guessed orderings are a consistent order labeling. Hence, Lemma 19 guarantees that $\tau$ satisfies the conditions of Lemma 12 giving us F4. Finally, by Lemma 20 automaton $\mathcal{B}_{5}$ verifies condition F5.

## D Pushdown systems

- Proposition 23. For a fixed d, the emptiness problem for right-resetting pushdown tree automata with a parity condition over ranks $\{1, \ldots, d\}$ can be solved in Ptime.

Proof. We consider the representative case of $d=3$. Suppose we are given a right-resetting pushdown tree automaton $\mathcal{A}=\left(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, q^{0}, \perp, \delta, \Omega\right)$.

The first step is to construct a pushdown word automaton $\mathcal{A}^{l}\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}\right)$ depending on three sets of states $G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3} \subseteq Q$. The idea is that $\mathcal{A}^{l}$ simulates the run of $\mathcal{A}$ on the leftmost branch of a tree. When $\mathcal{A}$ has a transition going both to the left and to the right then $\mathcal{A}^{l}$ goes to the left and checks if the state going to the right is in an appropriate $G_{e}$. This means that $\mathcal{A}^{l}$ works over the alphabet $\Sigma^{l}$ that is the same as $\Sigma$ but all letters from $\Sigma_{2}$ have rank 1 instead of 2 . The states of $\mathcal{A}^{l}\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}\right)$ are $Q \times\{1,2,3\}$ with the second component storing the maximal rank of a state seen so far on the run. The transitions of $\mathcal{A}^{l}\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}\right)$ are defined according to the above description. We make precise only the case for a transition of $\mathcal{A}$ of the form $\delta(q, a, \gamma)=\left(\left(q_{l}\right.\right.$, instr $\left._{l}\right),\left(q_{r}\right.$, instr $\left.\left._{r}\right)\right)$. In this case, $\mathcal{A}^{l}$ has a transition $\delta^{l}((q, e), a, \gamma)=\left(\left(q_{l}, \max \left(e, \Omega\left(q_{l}\right)\right)\right)\right.$, instr $\left.l_{l}\right)$ if $q_{r} \in G_{\max \left(e, \Omega\left(q_{r}\right)\right)}$. Observe that instr $r_{r}$ is necessarily reset as $\mathcal{A}$ is right-resetting.

The next step is to observe that for given sets $G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}$ we can calculate in Ptime the set of states from which $\mathcal{A}^{l}\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}\right)$ has an accepting run.

The last step is to compute the following fixpoint expression in the lattice of subsets of $Q$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
W & =\operatorname{LFP} X_{3} . \operatorname{GFP} X_{2} . \operatorname{LFP} X_{1} . P\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right) \quad \text { where } \\
P\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right) & =\left\{q: \mathcal{A}^{l}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right) \text { has an accepting run from } q\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Observe that $P: \mathcal{P}(Q)^{3} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$ is a monotone function over the lattice of subsets of $Q$. Computing $W$ requires at most $|Q|^{3}$ computations of $P$ for different triples of sets of states.

We claim that $\mathcal{A}$ has an accepting run from a state $q$, if and only if, $q \in W$.
Let us look at the right-to-left direction of the claim. For this we recall how the least fixpoint is calculated. Consider any monotone function $R(X)$ over $\mathcal{P}(Q)$, and its least fixpoint $R^{\omega}=\operatorname{LFP} X . R(X)$. This fixpoint can be computed by a sequence of approximations:

$$
R^{0}=\emptyset \quad R^{i+1}=R\left(R^{i}\right)
$$

The sequence of $R^{i}$ is increasing and $R^{\omega}=R^{i}$ for some $i \leq|Q|$.
Now we come back to our set $W$. Observe that $W=\operatorname{LFP}_{3}$. $R$ where $R(X)=$ GFP $X_{2} . \operatorname{LFP} X_{1} . P\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X\right)$. As in the previous paragraph we can define

$$
W^{0}=\emptyset \quad \text { and } \quad W^{i+1}=\operatorname{GFP} X_{2} \cdot \operatorname{LFP} X_{1} . P\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, W^{i}\right) .
$$

So, if $q \in W$ then $q \in W^{i}$ for some $i$. Now observe that $W^{i}=\operatorname{LFP} X_{1} \cdot P\left(X_{1}, W^{i}, W^{i-1}\right)$, since $W^{i}$ is a fixpoint of GFP $X_{2}$. By similar reasoning we define

$$
W^{i, 0}=\emptyset \quad \text { and } \quad W^{i, j+1}=P\left(W^{i, j}, W^{i}, W^{i-1}\right)
$$

Now, $q \in W^{i}$ implies $q \in W^{i, j}$ for some $j$. We write $\operatorname{sig}(q)$ for the lexicographically smallest $(i, j)$ such that $q \in W^{i, j}$.

We examine what $\operatorname{sig}(q)=(i, j)$ means. By definition $q \in P\left(W^{i, j-1}, W^{i}, W^{i-1}\right)$, so there is an accepting run of $\mathcal{A}^{l}\left(W^{i, j-1}, W^{i}, W^{i, j-1}\right)$ from $q$. Looking at the run of $\mathcal{A}$ that $\mathcal{A}^{l}$ simulates we can see that whenever this run branches to the right with some $q^{\prime}$ and $e$ is the maximal rank on the run till this branching then

- if $e=1$ then $q^{\prime} \in W^{i, j-1}$,
- if $e=2$ then $q^{\prime} \in W^{i, k}$ for some $k$,
- if $e=3$ then $q^{\prime} \in W^{i-1, k}$ for some $k$.

With this observation we can construct an accepting run of $\mathcal{A}$ from every state in $W$. If $\operatorname{sig}(q)=(i, j)$ then consider an accepting run of $\mathcal{A}^{l}$ on the left path given by $P\left(W^{i, j-1}, W^{i}, W^{i-1}\right)$. For every state branching to the right from this left path we recursively apply the same procedure. By construction, every path that is eventually a left path is accepting. A path branching right infinitely often is also accepting by the previous paragraph since signatures cannot go below 0 . More precisely, the path cannot see 3 infinitely often because the first component of the signature decreases. If it sees 1 infinitely often then it needs to see also 2 infinitely often, because of the second component that decreases.

Let us now look at the left-to-right direction. Take an accepting run of $\mathcal{A}$ from $q^{0}$. We construct something that we call a skeleton tree of this run. As the nodes of the skeleton tree we take the root and all the nodes that are a right child; so these are the nodes of the tree of the form $\left(0^{*} 1\right)^{*}$. The skeleton has an edge $\nu \xrightarrow{e} \nu 0^{k} 1$ if $e$ is the maximal rank of a state of $\mathcal{A}$ on the path from $\nu$ to $\nu 0^{k} 1$. Observe that a node can have infinitely many children. As we have started with an accepting run, every path in this skeleton tree satisfies the parity condition. In particular, for every node, on every path from this node there is a finite number of 3 edges. Thus, to every node $\nu$ we can assign an ordinal $\theta^{3}(\nu)$ such that if $\nu \xrightarrow{e} \nu^{\prime}$ then $\theta^{3}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right) \leq \theta^{3}(\nu)$ and the inequality is strict if $e=3$. It is also the case that on every path from $\nu$ there is a finite number of 1 edges before some 2 or 3 edge. This allows to define $\theta^{1}(\nu)$ with the property that if $\nu \xrightarrow{1} \nu^{\prime}$ then $\theta^{1}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)<\theta^{1}(\nu)$. Now we can show that for every node $\nu$ of the skeleton tree, if $q$ is the state assigned to $\nu$ then $q \in W^{\theta^{3}(\nu), \theta^{1}(\nu)}$ for $W^{i, j}$ as defined in the computation of $W$ (putting $W^{\theta^{3}}=W$ for every $\theta^{3}>|Q|$, and $W^{\theta^{3}, \theta^{1}}=W^{\theta^{3}}$ for every $\left.\theta^{1}>|Q|\right)$. The proof is by induction on the lexicographic order on $\left(\theta^{3}(\nu), \theta^{1}(\nu)\right)$.

## E Lower bounds

In this section we show the two remaining lower bounds, namely Exptime-hardness for nested DLSS and undecidability for arbitrary ones.

- Proposition 22. The DLSS verification problem for nested DLSS and Büchi objective is Exptime-hard. The result holds even if the Büchi objective refers to a single process.

Proof. We show that the difficulty of the problem stems from the systems and not the specification, by proving that checking if some copy of a process has an infinite run is already Exptime-hard.

We provide a reduction from the emptiness problem for the intersection of top-down tree automata (over finite trees). Let $\mathcal{A}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_{k}$ be finite tree automata over a ranked alphabet $A$, with $\mathcal{A}_{i}=\left(S_{i}, \delta_{i}, s_{0, i}, F_{i}\right)$. We can assume that $A=\{a, b, c\}$ with $a, b$ of arity 2 and $c$ of arity 0 , and that all automata only recognize trees with root labelled by $a$. We are going to construct a DLSS that simulates their computations simultaneously on the same tree $T$, by using locks to memorize their states.

The idea is to have a new process copy for each node of $T$. Each such copy uses the variables $x_{i}^{s}$ and $y_{i}^{s}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$ and $s \in S_{i}$, as well as the variables $z_{1}, z_{2}$ and $t$. Variable $x_{i}^{s}$ is supposed to encode the information about the state of the parent node in the run of $\mathcal{A}_{i}$, while $y_{i}^{s}$ will encode the state of $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ at the current node.

We use processes $p_{0}, q, c h, t k$, plus processes $p_{a}^{0}, p_{a}^{1}, p_{b}^{0}, p_{b}^{1}$ and $p_{c}$. The processes are sketched in Figure 2. Process $p_{0}$ is the initial one. Process $q$ is the root of $T$, and after
spawning its children it takes and releases the lock $\ell_{t}$ associated with variable $t$ indefinitely. Lock $\ell_{t}$ will be shared with all processes, except for $t k$. The specification is that $q$ should keep running forever. Equivalently, lock $\ell_{t}$ should be free infinitely often.

Whenever process $c h$ is spawned, the purpose is to check if some lock is ultimately held. The first get in process $c h$ corresponds to this test. If the lock associated with variable $s$ is not taken, by process-fairness $c h$ eventually takes it, and then it also takes $\ell_{t}$ (forever), preventing $q$ to have an infinite run. As for $t k$, it simply takes the lock that it is given as argument.

The processes representing nodes of $T$ are described next. Each node of $T$ is represented by a copy of process $p_{a}^{i}$ or $p_{b}^{i}$, depending on the letter $a$ or $b$ its parent is labelled with, and on whether it is a left or right child of its parent ( $i=0$ and $i=1$, respectively). The root is represented by process $q$.

Process $p_{a}^{1}$ proceeds as follows: it chooses for each of its children a letter and spawns the associated processes, with each variable $x_{i}^{s}$ of the child mapped to its own variable $y_{i}^{s}$, and all $y_{i}^{s}$ of the child mapped to new (see actions $s p$ in Figure 2). If the node represented by $p_{a}^{1}$ is a leaf, then $p_{a}^{1}$ spans a unique child $p_{c}$. For each $1 \leq i \leq k$, process $p_{a}^{1}$ then guesses the state $s$ of its parent in $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ and spawns a process $c h$ in charge of checking the guess, so whether the lock associated with $x_{i}^{s}$ is taken (see actions $\beta$ in Figure 2). Finally, $p_{a}^{1}$ spawns a copy of process $t k$ in charge of taking the lock associated with $y_{i}^{s^{\prime}}$, where $s^{\prime}=\delta_{i}(s, a, 1)$ is the state of the current node (see actions $\gamma$ in Figure 2).

Processes $p_{a}^{0}, p_{b}^{0}, p_{b}^{1}$ are defined similarly. Process $p_{c}$ simply guesses a final state $s$ of its parent in each $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ and spawns a copy of $c h$ to verify the guesses.

Process $q$ is also in charge of representing the root, which we assumed to be labelled by $a$, hence all it has to do is spawn two children $p_{a}^{0}$ and $p_{a}^{1}$ with the variable assignments described below, and spawn copies of $t k$ to take the locks associated with the variables $x_{i}^{s_{0, i}}$ (actions $\gamma^{i}$ ).

The problem is that we might end up producing an infinity of processes, representing a computation of the automata $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ over an infinite tree. To avoid that, we use variables $z_{0}, z_{1}$ and $z$. Each copy of $p_{a}^{i}$ and $p_{b}^{i}$, after doing all its other operations, takes $z_{0}$ and $z_{1}$ forever, and then takes and releases $z$. When spawning other processes representing nodes, each of $p_{a}^{i}$ and $p_{b}^{i}$ maps the $z$ of the spawned process to its $z_{i}$ (depending on whether it is its first or second spawned process), and the $z_{0}, z_{1}$ to new. We also add edges taking $t$ forever that will eventually be executed, due to process-fairness, if $z$ is taken forever before this process can take and release it. Hence all such processes must first acquire the locks of $z_{0}, z_{1}$ and then use the lock of $z$. This imposes that this part of the run is executed in the current process after it is executed in both children. This is only possible if the tree $T$ is finite.

To sum up, if the $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ all accept a finite tree $T$ then we can construct a process-fair run of this DLSS by spawning all the processes representing nodes of $T$, then having all processes $t k$ execute their get. There is no conflict as no two copies of $t k$ take the same lock. All copies of process $c h$ are then stuck in their first state. We then execute the actions on $z, z_{0}, z_{1}$ of each $p_{a}^{i}, p_{b}^{i}$ in a bottom-up fashion, so that we can execute them all. Finally, we run $q$ forever by having it take and release the lock $\ell_{t}$ indefinitely.

Conversely, if this DLSS has a process-fair run where $q$ runs forever, then we can construct a tree $T$ over $a, b, c$ by taking $q$ as root and defining the children of a node as the processes $p_{a}^{i}, p_{b}^{i}$ spawned by the corresponding process. A node whose children are $p_{a}^{i}$ is labelled $a$, one whose children are $p_{b}^{i}$ is labelled $b$, and the leaves are labelled $c$.

We know that $T$ is finite thanks to the previous argument involving the $z, z_{0}, z_{1}$. We can associate with each node of $T$ a state of each $\mathcal{A}_{i}$, inferred from the set of locks held so

$t k$

ch


Figure 2 DLSS in Proposition 22
that we obtain runs of the automata $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ over $T$ (transitions are respected as otherwise some $c h$ process would get a lock that is not taken by any $t k$ and thus would eventually take $\ell_{t}$ forever). This run is furthermore accepting by definition of processes $p_{c}$.

The DLSS we constructed is clearly nested, which shows the claim.

- Theorem 5. The DLSS verification problem is undecidable. The result holds even if the DLSS is finite-state and every process uses at most 4 locks.

Proof. The proof idea is to simulate an accepting run of TM $M$ using $n$ cells by spawning a chain of $n$ processes, $P_{0}, \ldots, P_{n-1}$. We assume that $M$ accepts when the head is leftmost.

The initial process $P_{0}$ uses three locks, called $a, b, c_{1}$, and acquires $a, b$ before spawning $P_{1}$. Process $P_{1}$ uses locks $a, b, c_{1}$, plus a fresh lock $c_{2}$. It acquires $c_{1}$ before spawning $P_{2}$. More generally, process $P_{k}(1 \leq k<n-1)$ uses locks $a, b, c_{k}, c_{k+1}$, and it acquires $c_{k}$ before spawning the next process $P_{k+1}$. The last process $P_{n-1}$ uses only three locks, $a, b, c_{n-1}$.

A configuration ( $p, k, A_{0} \ldots A_{n-1}$ ) of the TM corresponds to each $P_{j}$ storing $A_{j}$, with process $P_{k}$ storing in addition state $p$. A TM step to the right, from cell $k$ to $k+1$, needs to communicate the next state $q$.

In the following we denote the process that currently owns locks $a$ and $b$, as "sender". The notation $S^{+}, S^{-}$used below indicates that the sender tries to send the state to the right or left neighbour, respectively. Similarly, $R^{+}, R^{-}$indicates that a "receiver" is ready to receive from the right or the left neighbour, respectively.

Sending $q$ from $P_{k}$ to $P_{k+1}$ is implemented by $P_{k}$ using the following sequences of actions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{a}^{+} & =\operatorname{rel}_{a} \text { get }_{c_{k+1}} \operatorname{rel}_{b} \text { get }_{a} \text { rel }_{c_{k+1}} \text { get }_{b} \\
S_{b}^{+} & =\operatorname{rel}_{b} \operatorname{get}_{c_{k+1}} \operatorname{rel}_{a} \text { get }_{b} \text { rel }_{c_{k+1}} \text { get }_{a}
\end{aligned}
$$

Process $P_{k+1}$ ("receiver") uses matching sequences:

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{a}^{-} & =\operatorname{get}_{a} \text { rel }_{c_{k+1}} \operatorname{get}_{b} \operatorname{rel}_{a} \text { get }_{c_{k+1}} \operatorname{rel}_{b} \\
R_{b}^{-} & =\operatorname{get}_{b} \text { rel }_{c_{k+1}} \operatorname{get}_{a} \operatorname{rel}_{b} \operatorname{get}_{c_{k+1}} \operatorname{rel}_{a}
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose now that the sender $P_{k}$ wants to send state $q$ to receiver $P_{k+1}$. This will be done by $P_{k}$ by trying to execute the sequence $\left(S_{a}^{+}\right)^{q} S_{b}^{+}$. Every process $P_{j}$ with $j>k$ is ready to execute either $R_{a}^{-}$or $R_{b}^{-}$. Symmetrically, every process $P_{j}$ with $j<k$ is ready to execute either $R_{a}^{+}$or $R_{b}^{+}$.

We show next that the DLSS deadlocks if $P_{k}, P_{k+1}$ do not execute $\left(S_{a}^{+}\right)^{q} S_{b}^{+}$and $\left(R_{a}^{-}\right)^{q} R_{b}^{-}$, resp., in lockstep manner:

Claim. Assume that $P_{k}$ owns $\{a, b\}$, every $P_{j}, j<k$, owns $c_{j+1}$, and every $P_{j}, j>k$, owns $c_{j}$. Moreover, $P_{k}$ wants to send $a$ to $P_{j+1}$. Then either $P_{k}, P_{k+1}$ execute $S_{a}^{+}$and $R_{a}^{-}$, resp., in lockstep manner, or all processes deadlock.

Proof of claim. Process $P_{k}$ is the only process who can start, since all other processes wait for acquiring either $a$ or $b$.

After releasing $a$, process $P_{k}$ needs $c_{k+1}$. It can only proceed and take $c_{k+1}$ if $P_{k+1}$ starts executing $R_{a}^{-}$, taking $a$ and releasing $c_{k+1}$. Then $P_{k}$ releases $b$, and waits to get back $a$. If $b$ is taken by another process than the receiver, say $P_{j}, j \neq k+1$, then $P_{j}$ will release its lock $c \neq c_{j+1}$, and $c$ is now the only available lock. Lock $a$ will never become available because $P_{j+1}$ will not release it, so all processes deadlock.

Assume that $P_{j+1}$ takes $b$, and releases $a$. If $a$ is taken by another process than the sender, say $P_{j}, j \neq k$, then $P_{j}$ will release its lock $c \neq c_{j+1}$, and $c$ is now the only available lock. Lock $a$ will never become available because $P_{j+1}$ does not release $b$, so all processes deadlock.

Assume that $P_{j}$ takes $a$ back. Then it releases $c_{j+1}$, which can be taken only by $P_{j+1}$, who releases also $b$. If $b$ is taken by another process than the sender, say $P_{j}, j \neq k$, then $P_{j}$ will release its lock $c \neq c_{j+1}$, and $c$ is now the only available lock. Lock $b$ will never become available because $P_{j}$ does not release $a$ anymore. Once again, all processes deadlock.

We conclude the proof by noting that $P_{0}$ reaches a final state of $M$ if and only if $M$ accepts.


[^0]:    References
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