# **Using Synchronizing Heuristics to Construct Homing Sequences**

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Abstract:

Computing a shortest synchronizing sequence of an automaton is an NP-Hard problem. There are well-known heuristics to find short synchronizing sequences. Finding a shortest homing sequence is also an NP-Hard problem. Unlike existing heuristics to find synchronizing sequences, homing heuristics are not widely studied. In this paper, we discover a relation between synchronizing and homing sequences by creating an automaton called homing automaton. By applying synchronizing heuristics on this automaton we get short homing sequences. Furthermore, we adapt some of the synchronizing heuristics to construct homing sequences.

#### 1 INTRODUCTION

In model based testing (Broy et al., 2005) and in particular, for finite state machine based testing (Lee and Yannakakis, 1996), test sequences are designed to be applied at a designated state. For the test sequence to be applied, the implementation under test must be brought to this particular state, which is accomplished by using a final state recognition sequence, such as a synchronizing sequence or a homing sequence (Kohavi, 1978; Lee and Yannakakis, 1996).

A synchronizing sequence is an input sequence such that when this input sequence is applied, the system moves to a particular state, regardless of the initial state of the system. On the other hand, a homing sequence is an input sequence such that when this sequence is applied to the system, the response observed from the system makes it possible to identify the final state reached. Note that, using homing sequences requires one to observe the reaction of the system under test to the sequence applied. However when a synchronizing sequence is used, no such observation is required. Therefore, one may prefer to use a synchronizing sequence for final state identification. Unfortunately, a synchronizing sequence may not exist for a finite state machine, whereas a homing sequence always exists for a minimal, deterministic, and completely specified FSMs (Kohavi, 1978; Broy et al., 2005; Lee and Yannakakis, 1996).

Whether one uses a synchronizing sequence or a homing sequence, it is obviously preferable to use a sequence as short as possible. Unfortunately, the problem of finding a shortest synchronizing sequence and finding a shortest homing sequence is known to be NP–hard (Eppstein, 1990; Broy et al., 2005).

There exist heuristic algorithms, known as *synchronizing heuristics*, for constructing short synchronizing sequences. Among such heuristics are Greedy (Eppstein, 1990), Cycle (Trahtman, 2004), SynchroP (Roman, 2009), SynchroPL(Roman, 2009), FastSynchro (Kudlacik et al., 2012), and forward and backward synchronization heuristics (Roman and Szykula, 2015).

Although synchronizing heuristics are widely studied in the literature, to the best of our knowledge, there does not exist many (if not any) heuristic algorithm to construct short homing sequences, apart from a variant of the algorithm given as *Fast–HS* in Section 5 (see e.g. (Broy et al., 2005)), which originally appeared in (Ginsburg, 1958; Moore, 1956).

In this paper, we suggest several homing heuristics to construct short homing sequences. We first define an automaton called a *homing automaton* (see e.g. Figure 3) of a given finite state machine (see e.g. Figure 2). We show that a synchronizing sequence of the homing automaton is a homing sequence of the given finite state machine (for example, *aa* is a homing sequence for the finite state machine in Figure 2 and it is also a synchronizing sequence for the automaton in Figure 3.

This allows us to use the existing synchronizing heuristics as heuristic algorithms to construct short homing sequences for the given finite state machine. We then show how the existing synchronizing heuristics can be modified to work directly on the given finite state machine to construct homing sequences. We present an experimental study to assess the performance of these approaches as well.

In (Güniçen et al., 2014), a similar relation was studied between distinguishing sequences of a finite state machine and the synchronizing sequences of an automaton derived from the given finite state machines. Our work has been inspired from (Güniçen et al., 2014). However, we define the automaton from the given finite state machine differently compared to (Güniçen et al., 2014), so that the synchronizing sequences of the automaton corresponds to the homing sequences (not to the distingushing sequences) of the given finite state machine. In addition, we suggest modifications of the existing synchronizing heuristics that allows us to use these heuristics directly on the finite state machine.

A similar work also appeared in (Kushik and Yevtushenko, 2015). However, (Kushik and Yevtushenko, 2015) considers nondeterministic finite state machines, whereas in our work we consider deterministic finite state machines. When the approach is considered as restricted to the deterministic case, it becomes possible to use efficient synchronizing heuristics developed for deterministic automata for computing homing sequences.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the notation and gives the background. Section 3 shows how we form the relation between the synchronizing sequences and the homing sequences. We introduce two synchronizing heuristics existing in the literature that one can use to derive homing sequences in Section 4. We then show in Section 5 how the synchronizing heuristics introduced in Section 4 can be modified to be applied on the finite state machines directly. The experimental study that we have performed together with concluding remarks are given in Section 6.

### 2 PRELIMINARIES

A Deterministic Finite Automaton (DFA) (or simply an automaton) is a triple  $A = (S, X, \delta)$  where S is a finite set of states, X is a finite set of alphabet (or input) symbols, and  $\delta: S \times X \to S$  is a transition function. When  $\delta$  is a total (resp. partial) function, A is called *complete* (resp. partial). In this work we only consider complete DFAs unless stated otherwise.

A Deterministic Finite State Machine (FSM) is a tuple  $M = (S, X, Y, \delta, \lambda)$  where S is a finite set of states, X is a finite set of alphabet (or input) symbols, Y is a finite set of output symbols,  $\delta : S \times X \to S$  is

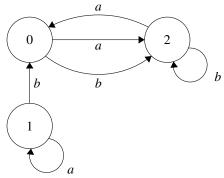


Figure 1: An automaton  $A_0$ .

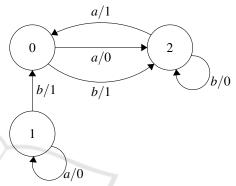


Figure 2: An FSM  $M_0$ .

a transition function, and  $\lambda: S \times X \to Y$  is an output function. In this work, we always consider complete FSMs, which means the functions  $\delta$  and  $\lambda$  are total functions.

An automaton and an FSM can be visualized as a graph, where the states correspond to the nodes and the transitions correspond to the edges of the graph. For an automaton the edges of the graph are labeled by input symbols, whereas for an FSM the edges are labeled by an input and an output symbol. In Figure 1 and Figure 2, an example automaton and an example FSM are given.

An *input sequence*  $\bar{x} \in X^*$  is a concatenation of zero or more input symbols. More formally, an *input sequence*  $\bar{x}$  is a sequence of input symbols  $x_1x_2...x_k$  for some  $k \ge 0$  where  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_k \in \Sigma$ . As can be seen from the definition, an input sequence may have no symbols; in this case it is called the *empty sequence* and denoted by  $\varepsilon$ .

For both automata and FSMs, the transition function  $\delta$  is extended to input sequences as follows. For a state  $s \in S$ , an input sequence  $\bar{x} \in X^*$  and an input symbol  $x \in X$ , we let  $\bar{\delta}(s,\epsilon) = s$ ,  $\bar{\delta}(s,x\bar{x}) = \bar{\delta}(\delta(s,x),\bar{x})$ . Similarly, the output function of FSMs is extended to input sequences as follows:  $\bar{\lambda}(s,\epsilon) = \epsilon$ ,  $\bar{\lambda}(s,x\bar{x}) = \lambda(s,x)\bar{\lambda}(\delta(s,x),\bar{x})$ . By abusing the notation we will continue using the symbols  $\delta$  and  $\lambda$  for  $\bar{\delta}$  and

 $\bar{\lambda}$ , respectively.

Finally for both automata and FSMs, the transition function  $\delta$  is extended to a set of states as follows. For a set of states  $S' \subseteq S$  and an input sequence  $\bar{x} \in X^*$ ,  $\delta(S',\bar{x}) = \{\delta(s,\bar{x}) \mid s \in S'\}.$ 

An FSM  $M = (S, X, Y, \delta, \lambda)$  is said to be *minimal* if for any two different states  $s_i, s_j \in S$ , there exists an input sequence  $\bar{x} \in \Sigma^*$  such that  $\lambda(s_i, \bar{x}) \neq \lambda(s_j, \bar{x})$ .

**Definition 1.** For an FSM  $M = (S, X, Y, \delta, \lambda)$ , a Homing Sequence (HS) of M is an input sequence  $\bar{H} \in X^*$  such that for all states  $s_i, s_j \in S$ ,  $\lambda(s_i, \bar{H}) = \lambda(s_i, \bar{H}) \Longrightarrow \delta(s_i, \bar{H}) = \delta(s_j, \bar{H})$ .

Intuitively, an HS  $\bar{H}$  is an input sequence such that for all states output sequence to  $\bar{H}$  uniquely identifies the final state. In other words, if the current state of an FSM is not known, then a homing sequence can be applied to the FSM and the output sequence produced by the FSM will tell us the final state reached. A homing sequence is also called a *homing word* in the literature.

For FSM  $M_0$  given in Figure 2 aa is an HS. If M is minimal, then there certainly exists an HS for M (Kohavi, 1978). If M is not minimal, there may also be an HS for M. Furthermore, when M is not minimal, it is always possible to find an equivalent minimal FSM M' such that M' is minimal (Kohavi, 1978).

**Definition 2.** For an automaton  $A = (S, X, \delta)$ , a Synchronizing Sequence (SS) of A is an input sequence  $\bar{R} \in X^*$  such that  $|\delta(S, \bar{R})| = 1$ .

A synchronizing sequence is also called a *reset sequence* in the literature. An automaton does not necessarily have an SS. It is known that the existence of an SS for an automaton can be checked in polynomial time (Eppstein, 1990).

For a set of states  $C \subseteq S$  we use the notation  $C^2 = \{\{s_i, s_j\} | s_i, s_j \in C\}$  to denote the set of multisets with cardinality 2 with elements from C, i.e  $C^2$  is the set of all subsets of C with cardinality 2, where repetition is allowed. An element  $\{s_i, s_j\} \in C^2$  is called a *pair*. Furthermore it is called a *singleton pair* (or an s-pair) if  $s_i = s_j$ , otherwise it is called a *different pair* (or a d-pair). The set of s-pairs and d-pairs in  $C^2$  is denoted by  $C_s^2$  and  $C_d^2$  respectively. A sequence (word) w is said to be a *merging sequence* for a pair  $\{s_i, s_j\} \in S^2$  if  $\delta(\{s_i, s_j\}, w)$  is a singleton. Note that for an s-pair, every sequence (including  $\varepsilon$ ) is a *merging sequence*.

## 3 THE RELATION BETWEEN HOMING SEQUENCES AND SYNCHRONIZING SEQUENCES

In this section, we will derive an automaton  $A_M$  from a given FSM M. We call  $A_M$  the *the homing automaton* of M. The construction of  $A_M$  from M is similar to the construction of product automaton (as exists in the literature) from a given automaton to analyse the existence of and to find synchronizing sequences.

**Definition 3.** Let  $M = (S, X, Y, \delta, \lambda)$  be an FSM. The homing automaton (HA)  $A_M$  of M is an automaton  $A_M = (S_A, X, \delta_A)$  which is constructed as follows:

- The set  $S_A$  consists of all 2-element subsets of S and an extra state  $q^*$ . Formally we have  $S_A = \{\{s_i, s_j\} \mid s_i, s_j \in S \land s_i \neq s_j\} \cup \{q^*\}$ .
- The transition function  $\delta_A$  is defined as follows:
- For an input symbol  $x \in X$ ,  $\delta_A(q^*, x) = q^*$ .
- For  $q = \{s_i, s_j\} \in S_A$  and an input symbol  $x \in X$ ,
  - If  $\delta(s_i, x) = \delta(s_j, x)$ , then  $\delta_A(q, x) = q^*$ .
  - If  $\lambda(s_i, x) \neq \lambda(s_j, x)$ , then  $\delta_A(q, x) = q^*$ .
  - Otherwise,  $\delta_A(q,x) = {\delta(s_i,x), \delta(s_i,x)}.$

As an example, the HA for FSM  $M_0$  given in Figure 2 is depicted in Figure 3.

**Lemma 1.** Let  $M = (S, X, Y, \delta, \lambda)$  be an FSM,  $A_M = (S_A, X, \delta_A)$  be the HA of M. For an input sequence  $\bar{x} \in X^*$ ,  $(\lambda(s_i, \bar{x}) \neq \lambda(s_j, \bar{x})) \vee (\delta(s_i, \bar{x}) = \delta(s_j, \bar{x})) \iff \delta_A(\{s_i, s_j\}, \bar{x}) = q^*$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\bar{x} = \bar{x}'x\bar{x}''$  where  $\bar{x}',\bar{x}'' \in X^*$  and  $x \in X$  such that  $(\delta(s_i,\bar{x}') \neq \delta(s_j,\bar{x}')) \wedge (\lambda(s_i,\bar{x}') = \lambda(s_j,\bar{x}'))$ . So the new state according to  $\delta_A$  is  $q' = \{\delta(s_i,\bar{x}'),\delta(s_j,\bar{x}')\}$ . If  $\lambda(s_i,\bar{x}'x) \neq \lambda(s_j,\bar{x}'x)$  then  $\delta_A(q',x) = q^*$  and  $\delta_A(q^*,\bar{x}'') = q^*$ . If  $\lambda(s_i,\bar{x}'x) = \lambda(s_j,\bar{x}'x)$  but  $\delta(s_i,\bar{x}'x) = \delta(s_j,\bar{x}'x)$  then  $\delta_A(q',x) = q^*$  and  $\delta_A(q^*,\bar{x}'') = q^*$ .

For the reverse direction, again writing  $\bar{x} = \bar{x}'x\bar{x}''$  where  $\bar{x}', \bar{x}'' \in X^*$  and  $x \in X$  such that  $\delta_A(\{s_i, s_j\}, \bar{x}') = \{s_i', s_j'\}$  for some states  $s_i', s_j'$  and  $\delta_A(\{s_i, s_j\}, \bar{x}'x) = q^*$ . This means that  $\lambda(s_i, \bar{x}') = \lambda(s_j, \bar{x}')$  and  $\delta(s_i, \bar{x}') \neq \delta(s_j, \bar{x}')$  but after consuming input x,  $\lambda(s_i, \bar{x}'x) \neq \lambda(s_j, \bar{x}'x)$  where x is the first input which forces FSM to produce different outputs. Or  $\delta(s_i, \bar{x}'x) = \delta(s_j, \bar{x}'x)$ , in this case x is the merging input. This proves that  $(\lambda(s_i, \bar{x}) \neq \lambda(s_j, \bar{x})) \vee (\delta(s_i, \bar{x}) = \delta(s_j, \bar{x}))$ .

We can now give the following theorem that states the relation between HSs of M and SSs of  $A_M$ .

**Theorem 1.** Let  $M = (S, X, Y, \delta, \lambda)$  be an FSM and  $A_M = (S_A, X, \delta_A)$  be the HA of M. An input sequence  $\bar{x} \in X^*$  is an HS for M iff  $\bar{x}$  is an SS for  $A_M$ .

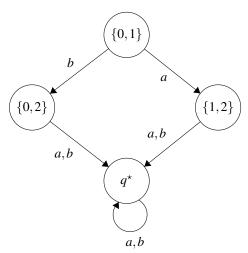


Figure 3:  $A_M$  of  $M_0$  in Figure 2.

*Proof.* If  $\bar{x}$  is an HS of M, for any two states  $s_i$  and  $s_j$  in M,  $\lambda(s_i,\bar{x}) \neq \lambda(s_j,\bar{x})$  or  $\delta(s_i,\bar{x}) = \delta(s_j,\bar{x})$ . Lemma 1 states that  $\delta_A(\{s_i,s_j\},\bar{x}) = q^*$  for any  $\{s_i,s_j\} \in S_A$ . For  $q^*$ ,  $\delta_A(q^*,\bar{x}) = q^*$ . Hence  $\bar{x}$  is an SS for  $A_M$ .

If  $\bar{x}$  is an SS for  $A_M$ , first note that  $\delta_A(q^*,\bar{x}) = q^*$ . For any state of  $A_M$  of the form  $\{s_i,s_j\}$ , we must also have  $\delta_A(\{s_i,s_j\},\bar{x}) = q^*$ . From the other direction of Lemma 1, we have for any pair of states  $\lambda(s_i,\bar{x}) \neq \lambda(s_j,\bar{x})$  or  $\delta(s_i,\bar{x}) = \delta(s_j,\bar{x})$ .

For example, consider the Homing Automaton  $A_M$  given in Figure 3 of the FSM  $M_0$  given in Figure 2. One can see that aa is an HS for  $M_0$  and it is also an SS for  $A_M$ .

# 4 SYNCHRONIZING HEURISTICS FOR HOMING AUTOMATON

Although finding a shortest SS is known to be an NP-Hard problem, finding a short SS by applying heuristics is studied widely. As shown in Theorem 1, finding an HS for an FSM M is equivalent to finding an SS for its corresponding *homing automaton*  $A_M$ . Based on Theorem 1, we can apply widely known SS heuristics to  $A_M$  in order to find a possibly short HS for FSM M. Please recall that an SS may not exist for an automaton in general. However, for a homing automaton of a minimal FSM, an SS will always exist due to Theorem 1.

Among such SS heuristics, *Greedy* is one of the fastest and the earliest that appeared in the literature (Eppstein, 1990). Other than *Greedy* heuristic, *SynchroP* is one of the best known heuristics in terms

of finding short SSs (Roman, 2005). Although, *SynchroP* is good in terms of length, it is slow compared to Greedy since it performs a deeper analysis on the automaton.

Both *Greedy* and *SynchroP* heuristics have two phases. Phase 1 is common in these heuristics. The purpose of Phase 1 is to compute a shortest merging word  $\tau_{\{i,j\}}$  for each  $\{s_i,s_j\} \in S^2$ . This computation is performed by using a backward breadth first search (see e.g. Figure 4 in (Cirisci et al., 2018)), rooted at s-pairs  $\{s_i,s_i\} \in S_s^2$ , where these s-pair nodes are the nodes at level 0 of the BFS forest. A d-pair  $\{s_i,s_j\}$  appears at level k of the BFS forest if  $|\tau_{\{i,j\}}| = k$ . When the automaton has a synchronizing sequence, each d-pair should have a merging word since it is a necessary condition for synchronizing automata (Eppstein, 1990). Phase 1 requires  $\Omega(n^2)$  time since each  $\{s_i,s_j\} \in S^2$  is considered exactly once.

Even though Phase 2 of *Greedy* and Phase 2 of *SynchroP* (e.g. see Figure 5 and Figure 6 in (Cirisci et al., 2018)) are different, they are quite similar. For both algorithms, Phase 2 keeps track of a set of active states C and iteratively reduces the cardinality of C. In each iteration, a d-pair  $\{s_i, s_j\} \in C_d^2$  in the active states is selected to be merged. After selecting  $\{s_i, s_j\}$ , the current (active) state set C is updated by applying  $\tau_{\{i,j\}}$ , i.e. C is updated as  $\delta(C, \tau_{\{i,j\}})$ . Applying  $\tau_{\{i,j\}}$  will definitely merge  $\{s_i, s_j\}$ , and it may merge some more states in C as well. This process will iterate until all states are merged so that C becomes singleton.

Phase 2 of *Greedy* and Phase 2 of *SynchroP* only differ in the way they select the d-pair  $\{s_i, s_j\} \in C_d^2$  to be used in an iteration. While *Greedy* simply considers a d-pair  $\{s_i, s_j\} \in C_d^2$  having a shortest merging word  $\tau_{\{i,j\}}$ , *SynchroP* selects a d-pair  $\{s_i, s_j\} \in C_d^2$  such that  $\varphi(\delta(C, \tau_{\{i,j\}}))$  is minimized, where  $\varphi(S')$  for a set of states  $S' \subseteq S$  is defined as:

$$\varphi(S') = \sum_{s_i, s_j \in S'} |\tau_{\{i,j\}}|$$

 $\varphi(S')$  is a heuristic indication of how hard is to bring set S' to a singleton. The intuition here is that, the larger the cost  $\varphi(S')$  is, the longer a synchronizing sequence would be required to bring S' to a singleton set. For an automaton with p input symbols and n states, the common first phase of *Greedy* and *SynchroP* needs  $O(pn^2)$  time (Eppstein, 1990). The second phase of *Greedy* can be implemented to run in  $O(n^3)$  time (Eppstein, 1990), whereas the second phase of *SynchroP* runs in  $O(n^5)$  time (Roman, 2005). Therefore, the overall time complexity for *Greedy* is  $O(pn^2 + n^3)$  and for *SynchroP* it is  $O(pn^2 + n^5)$ .

As suggested by Theorem 1, in order to construct a homing sequence for an FSM M, one can first con-

struct the homing automaton  $A_M$  of M, and then use Greedy or SynchroP heuristics to find a synchronizing sequence for  $A_M$ , which will be a homing sequence for M. Constructing the homing automaton  $A_M$  of  $M = (S, X, Y, \delta, \lambda)$  would require  $O(pn^2)$  time where p = |X| and n = |S|. Note that the number of states of  $A_M$  is 1 + n(n-1)/2, and  $A_M$  still has p input symbols (see Definition 3). Therefore, applying Greedy to  $A_M$  requires  $O(pn^4 + n^6)$  time, and applying SynchroP to  $A_M$  requires  $O(pn^4 + n^{10})$ . These complexities would allow one to use synchronizing heuristics on homing automaton only for FSMs with small number of states in practice.

In the next section, we consider adapting/modifying the synchronizing heuristics to construct a homing sequence directly from the FSM, without constructing a homing automaton.

# 5 ADAPTING SYNCHRONIZING HEURISTICS FOR HOMING SEQUENCE CONSTRUCTION

The high computational complexity of applying synchronizing heuristics on homing automata results from the fact that, the homing automata already have the number of states squared compared to the number of states of the corresponding FSM. In this section, we present heuristic algorithms that work directly on the FSM.

Inspired by the synchronizing heuristics that are given in Section 4, we implemented three different homing heuristics, *Fast–HS*, *Greedy–HS* and *SynchroP–HS*, for constructing a homing sequence of an FSM. These homing heuristics consist of two separate phases, as in the case of synchronizing heuristics.

Phase 1 is common in all these heuristics and given as Algorithm 4. In Phase 1, a shortest homing word  $\tau_{\{i,j\}}$  for each  $\{s_i,s_j\} \in S^2$  is computed by using a breadth first search. Generation of the BFS forest is very similar to what is done in synchronizing heuristics, except that a d-pair  $\{s_i,s_j\}$  that gives different outputs for its states, i.e. when  $\lambda(s_i,x) \neq \lambda(s_j,x)$  for an input symbol  $x \in \Sigma$ , is located at level 1 of the forest by setting  $\tau_{\{i,j\}} = x$ .

Similar to the synchronizing heuristics, Phase 2 of homing heuristics iteratively builds a homing sequence. In each iteration, again a pair  $\{s_i, s_j\}$  is picked (how this pair is picked depends on the heuristic used), and the corresponding homing word  $\tau_{\{i,j\}}$  is appended to the homing sequence  $\Gamma$  accumulated so far. However, instead of tracking the set of states yet to be merged, the set D of state pairs yet to be homed

Algorithm 1: Phase 1 of Homing Heuristics.

```
Input : An FSM M = (S, \Sigma, O, \delta, \lambda)
      Output : A homing word for all \{s_i, s_j\} \in S^2
 1: Q \leftarrow an empty queue
                                                    \triangleright Q: BFS frontier
 2: P ← Ø
                       \triangleright P: nodes of BFS forest constructed
 3: for \{s_i, s_i\} \in S_s^2 do
 4:
           push \{s_i, s_i\} onto Q
 5:
           insert \{s_i, s_i\} into P
 6:
           set \tau_{\{i,i\}} \leftarrow \epsilon
 7: end for
 8: for (\{s_i, s_j\} \in S^2) \land (\{s_i, s_j\} \notin P) do
 9:
           for x \in \Sigma do
10:
                 if \lambda(s_i, x) \neq \lambda(s_j, x) then
                      push \{s_i, s_j\} onto Q
11:
                      insert \{s_i, s_i\} into P
12:
13:
                       set \tau_{\{i,j\}} \leftarrow x
14:
                 end if
15:
           end for
16: end for
     while P \neq S^2 do
17:
18:
            \{s_i, s_i\} \leftarrow \text{pop next item from } Q
19:
           for x \in \Sigma do
20:
                 for \{s_k, s_l\} \in \delta^{-1}(\{s_i, s_i\}, x) do
21:
                      if \{s_k, s_l\} \not\in P then
22:

\tau_{\{k,l\}} \leftarrow x\tau_{\{i,j\}} 

\text{push } \{s_k, s_l\} \text{ onto } Q

23:
                            P \leftarrow P \cup \{\{s_k, s_l\}\}
24:
25:
                       end if
                 end for
26:
           end for
27:
28: end while
```

are tracked. Initially, S is set to  $S_d^2$ , i.e. all d-pairs. When the set of d-pairs yet to be merged becomes the empty set, the iterations stop.

Phase 2 of *Fast–HS* (Algorithm 2) does not perform a search in the set of d–pairs but it randomly selects a d–pair from the current d–pair set to home.

Unlike *Fast–HS*, in Phase 2 of *Greedy–HS* (Algorithm 3) the d-pair to be selected is searched among all d–pairs yet to be homed in *D*, and the d-pair that has a shortest homing word is selected.

Phase 2 of *SynchroP–HS* (Algorithm 4) performs a deeper analysis. Similar to synhronizing heuristic *SynchroP*, the homing heuristic *SynchroP–HS* iterates through the all the d–pairs in D and determines the d–pair to be homed according to the  $\Phi$  cost given below, where D is a set of d–pairs and  $\tau_{\{i,j\}}$  is the homing word for the d–pair  $\{s_i, s_j\}$ .

$$\Phi(D) = \sum_{\{s_i,s_j\} \in D} |\mathsf{\tau}_{\{i,j\}}|$$

#### Algorithm 2: Phase 2 of Fast-HS.

```
Input : An FSM M = (S, \Sigma, O, \delta, \lambda), \tau_{\{i,j\}} for
      all \{s_i, s_j\} \in S^2
      Output : Homing sequence \Gamma for M
  1: D \leftarrow S_d^2
                                         \triangleright D: current set of d-pairs
 2: \Gamma \leftarrow \varepsilon
                      ▶ HS to be constructed, initially empty
 3: while D \neq \emptyset do \triangleright There are pairs to be homed
            Let \{s_i, s_i\} be a random pair from D
 5:
            \Gamma \leftarrow \Gamma \tau_{\{i,j\}}
            D' \leftarrow \emptyset
 6:
            for \{s_k, s_l\} \in D do
 7:
 8:
                 if \delta(s_k, \tau_{\{s_i, s_i\}}) \neq \delta(s_l, \tau_{\{s_i, s_i\}})
      \lambda(s_k, \tau_{\{s_i, s_i\}}) = \lambda(s_l, \tau_{\{s_i, s_i\}}) then
                       insert \delta(\{s_k, s_l\}, \tau_{\{i,j\}}) into D'
 9:
10:
                  end if
            end for
11:
            D \leftarrow D'
13: end while
```

#### Algorithm 3: Phase 2 of Greedy-HS.

```
Input : An FSM M = (S, \Sigma, O, \delta, \lambda), \tau_{\{i,j\}} for
      all \{i, j\} \in S^2
      Output : Homing sequence \Gamma for M
  1: D \leftarrow S_d^2
                                          \triangleright D: current set of d-pairs
 2: \Gamma \leftarrow \varepsilon \triangleright HS to be constructed, initially empty
 3: while D \neq \emptyset do

    There are pairs to be homed

            \{s_i, s_j\} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin} |\tau_{\{k,l\}}|
                              \{s_k,s_l\}\in D
            \Gamma \leftarrow \Gamma \mathsf{T}_{\{i,j\}}
 5:
 6:
 7:
            for \{s_k, s_l\} \in D do
                  if \delta(s_k, \tau_{\{i,j\}}) \neq \delta(s_l, \tau_{\{i,j\}})
 8:
      \lambda(s_k, \tau_{\{i,j\}}) = \lambda(s_l, \tau_{\{i,j\}}) then
 9:
                        insert \delta(\{s_k, s_l\}, \tau_{\{i,j\}}) into D'
10:
                  end if
            end for
11:
            D \leftarrow D'
12:
13: end while
```

# 6 EXPERIMENTS AND CONCLUSION

In this section, we explain the experimental study we have conducted to assess the performance of the heuristics suggested in this paper. Similar to the other works in the literature, we used randomly generated FSMs in our experiments, where for each state  $s_i \in S$  and for each input symbol  $x \in X$ , the next state  $\delta(s_i, x)$  is randomly set to a state  $s_j \in S$ , and the output  $\lambda(s_i, x)$  is randomly set to an output symbol  $y \in Y$ .

We experimented with FSMs with number of

```
Algorithm 4: Phase 2 of SynchroP-HS.
```

```
: An FSM M = (S, \Sigma, O, \delta, \lambda), \tau_{\{i,j\}} for
      Input
      all \{i, j\} \in S^2
      Output : Homing sequence \Gamma for M
 1: D \leftarrow S_d^2
                                           \triangleright D: current set of d-pairs
 2: \Gamma \leftarrow \epsilon
                      ▶ HS to be constructed, initially empty
 3: while D \neq \emptyset do \triangleright There are pairs to be homed
            for \{s_i, s_i\} \in D do
 5:
                  D_{\{i,j\}} \leftarrow \emptyset
                  for \{s_k, s_l\} \in D do

if \delta(s_k, \tau_{\{i,j\}}) \neq \delta(s_l, \tau_{\{i,j\}})
 6:
 7:
      \lambda(s_k, \tau_{\{i,j\}}) = \lambda(s_l, \tau_{\{i,j\}}) then
                              insert \delta(\{s_k, s_l\}, \tau_{\{i,j\}}) into D_{\{i,j\}}
 8:
 9:
10:
                  end for
            end for
11:
            \{s_i, s_j\} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin} \Phi(D_{\{k,l\}})
12:
                              \{s_k,s_l\}\in D
            D \leftarrow D_{\{i,j\}}
13:
14: end while
```

states  $n \in \{32,64\}$ , the number of input symbols  $p \in \{2,4,8\}$ , and the number of output symbols  $q \in \{2,4,8\}$ . For each combination of n,p,q values, we generated 100 random FSMs. Hence a total of 1800 FSMs are used in the experiments. All algorithms are implemented in C++ and the times elapsed are measured in terms of microseconds.

We implemented 2 synchronizing heuristics which find synchronizing sequences (corresponding to a homing sequence on the FSM) on homing automata. These are Greedy and SynchroP heuristics given in Section 4. After creating the HA  $A_M$  explained in Section 3, we applied the implemented synchronizing heuristics on the  $A_M$ . The time required for constructing the homing automaton can be seen in the column *HA Time* in Table 1. Compared to the rest of the algorithm, the time required for the construction of  $A_M$  is negligible. Greedy and SynchroP share the first phase. The column P1 Time in Table 1 gives the time for this common phase 1. As known from the literature, Phase 1 time dominates Phase 2 time for *Greedy*, whereas the Phase 2 time dominates Phase 1 time for SynchroP. Hence, the running time for *Greedy* is faster compared to *SynchroP*. Also as expected, SynchroP constructs sequences with shorter lengths compared to *Greedy*.

We have also implemented a brute–force exponential time algorithm to construct the shortest homing sequences. For small states sizes like 32 and 64, it is possible to compute the shortest homing sequences. The columns under the *Shortest* in Table 1 give the time required to compute and length of the shortest homing sequences. The experiments show that, at

Table 1: Experiments for using synchronizing heuristics on homing automata.

States	Inputs	Outputs	Shortest		SS based						
			Length	Time	HA Time	P1 Time	Greedy		SynchroP		
							Length	P2 time	Length	P2 time	
32	2	2	6.1	2410	46	11480	7.59	10	6.69	1925547	
32	2	4	4.02	320	27	7372	4.79	5	4.32	1134028	
32	2	8	3.04	96	16	5493	3.54	3	3.21	465578	
32	4	2	5.2	10253	54	10298	7.15	7	6.21	2341436	
32	4	4	3.7	580	53	10158	4.69	5	4.07	1306012	
32	4	8	3	154	33	7649	3.56	3	3.05	516154	
32	8	2	5	41776	127	16875	7.07	7	5.62	2922721	
32	8	4	3.19	1590	80	11880	4.67	4	3.92	1328281	
32	8	8	2.97	394	69	11249	3.56	3	3.1	561097	
64	2	2	7.65	24051	185	240952	9.46	24	8.45	559041289	
64	2	4	4.93	2281	161	203926	5.81	22	5.13	359077761	
64	2	8	3.73	695	123	202362	4.28	21	3.98	145568201	
64	4	2	6.95	278938	447	365706	9.18	24	7.75	795062568	
64	4	4	4.25	10815	298	280419	5.69	16	5	428513432	
64	4	8	3.12	1052	237	367358	4.24	12	3.81	154977902	
64	8	2	6.24	6746717	806	525592	9.04	23	7.33	1000322128	
64	8	4	4	19652	628	400603	5.65	16	4.9	456867018	
64	8	8	3	1222	459	411719	4.24	13	3.78	154973825	

Table 2: Experiments with homing heuristics on FSMs.

			HS based							
States	Inputs	Outputs	P1 Time	Fast-HS		Greedy-HS		SynchroP-HS		
				Length	P2 time	Length	P2 time	Length	P2 time	
32	2	2	81	7.69	181	7.71	149	7.22	3019	
32	2	4	52	4.8	120	4.8	104	4.65	2127	
32	2	8	33	3.58	86	3.57	55	3.41	1594	
32	4	2	56	7.2	117	7.14	85	6.76	1850	
32	4	4	49	4.7	126	4.7	88	4.59	2272	
32	4	8	16	3.59	89	3.59	56	3.49	1784	
32	8	2	66	7.1	132	7.09	99	6.7	2167	
32	8	4	28	4.7	98	4.7	67	4.54	1823	
32	8	8	18	3.58	95	3.58	63	3.52	2004	
64	2	2	278	9.53	313	9.66	302	9.14	25852	
64	2	4	278	5.68	282	5.84	253	5.64	27990	
64	2	8	231	4.27	231	4.27	194	4.24	26139	
64	4	2	424	9.24	385	9.24	351	8.59	30794	
64	4	4	292	5.69	270	5.73	243	5.57	26754	
64	4	8	222	4.29	217	4.29	193	4.27	25266	
64	8	2	474	9.15	356	9.14	320	8.72	27811	
64	8	4	328	5.69	298	5.69	260	5.54	27936	
64	8	8	164	4.29	217	4.29	182	4.24	24772	

Table 3: Experiments on larger state sizes.

States	Inputs	Outputs	Fas	t HS	Greedy HS		
States			Length	P2 Time	Length	P2 Time	
2048	2	2	19.46	14816	19.57	18509	
4096	2	2	21.62	52520	21.47	63327	
8192	2	2	23.79	168106	23.76	224572	

least for the small state sizes used in these experiments, the heuristics find homing sequences which are not too long compared to the shortest possible.

On the other hand, the time used by these heuristics indicate that the methods based on using synchronizing heuristics on homing automata will not scale well. As noted before, the main reason is the fact homing automata requires squaring the number of states in the computation.

In order to enhance the time performance, we have adapted the approach used in synchronizing heuristics to compute homing sequences directly on FSMs. We implemented 3 homing heuristics introduced in Section 5, namely *Fast–HS*, *Greedy–HS*, and *SyncrhoP–HS*. We experimented with these heuristics using the same set of randomly generated FSMs.

Note that the three homing heuristics share their first phase given as Algorithm 4. In all experiments we measured the time for the Phase 1 of these heuristics (given in *P1 Time* in Table 2) and the time to home all d-pairs, which is Phase 2 of heuristics (given in columns *P2 time* in Table 2), separately. The time performance of homing heuristics in Table 2 are much better compared to the time performance of the synchronizing heuristics given in Table 1. Note that, the time it takes for these heuristics is much faster (especially for *Greedy–HS* and *Fast–HS*) compared to the time needed to find the shortest homing sequence given in Table 1. As expected, however, the performance on the length of the homing sequences degrades slightly, when we use the homing heuristics.

Note that *Fast–HS* picks the d–pair to be used randomly, whereas *Greedy–HS* selects the d–pair with the shortest homing word. Therefore, one would expect *Fast–HS* to have faster Phase 2 time compared to *Greedy–HS*. Although this doesn't seem to be the case for the results given in Table 2, one can see that as the state size increases (especially when the number of inputs is small), the speed of *Fast–HS* becomes apparent. Table 3 shows the experiment that reveals the difference between speeds of *Fast–HS* and *Greedy–HS*. We also see that as state size grows the gap between the Phase 1 and Phase 2 time increases such that Phase 1 of *Greedy–HS* and *Fast–HS* is up to 10 times slower than the Phase 2 of these heuristics.

In this work, we have used an idea taken from (Güniçen et al., 2014) which allows us to use synchronizing heuristics for computing homing sequences. Similar to the results obtained in (Güniçen et al., 2014), this work shows how the existing synchronizing heuristics can be used to compute short homing sequences. As a future work, the same idea can be adapted to compute Unique Input Output (UIO) sequences as well. Since this problem is known to be

hard (Lee and Yannakakis, 1996), there are heuristics to compute short UIO sequences. From a given FSM, one can construct an automaton such that a synchronizing sequence (for a subset of states) on this automaton corresponds to a UIO sequence of the original FSM. This would similarly allow us to use existing synchronizing heuristics to compute UIO sequences.

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