



Original Article

# Zero-suppressed ternary decision diagram algorithm for solving noncoherent fault trees in probabilistic safety assessment of nuclear power plants

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## ABSTRACT

Probabilistic safety assessment (PSA) plays a critical role in ensuring the safe operation of nuclear power plants. In PSA, event trees are developed to identify accident sequences that could lead to core damage. These event trees are then transformed into a core-damage fault tree, wherein the accident sequences are represented by usual and complemented logic gates representing failed and successful operations of safety systems, respectively. The core damage frequency (CDF) is estimated by calculating the minimal cut sets (MCSs) of the core-damage fault tree.

Delete-term approximation (DTA) is commonly employed to approximately solve MCSs representing accident sequence logics from noncoherent core-damage fault trees. However, DTA can lead to an overestimation of CDF, particularly when fault trees contain many nonrare events. To address this issue, the present study introduces a new zero-suppressed ternary decision diagram (ZTDD) algorithm that averts the CDF overestimation caused by DTA.

This ZTDD algorithm can optionally calculate MCSs with DTA or prime implicants (PIs) without any approximation from the core-damage fault tree. By calculating PIs, accurate CDF can be calculated.

The present study provides a comprehensive explanation of the ZTDD structure, formula of the ZTDD algorithm, ZTDD minimization, probability calculation from ZTDD, strength of the ZTDD algorithm, and ZTDD application results. Results reveal that the ZTDD algorithm is a powerful tool that can quickly and accurately calculate CDF and drastically improve the safety of nuclear power plants.

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Accident sequence logic

Coherent fault trees comprise basic events related to component failures and logic gates. By contrast, noncoherent fault trees comprise complemented basic events or complemented logic gates. Minimal cut sets (MCSs) are the minimal combinations of failures causing the top event of a coherent fault tree. Further, prime implicants (PIs) are the minimal combinations of failures and successes causing the top event of a noncoherent fault tree. In the probabilistic safety assessment (PSA) of nuclear power plants, both MCSs and PIs are usually denoted as MCSs.

The PSA of nuclear power plants is performed using event and fault trees. Each accident sequence in event trees comprises a logical combination of usual and complemented fault trees representing safety system failures and successes, respectively. Some of them lead to core

damage in nuclear power plants. Because the general Boolean expression for an accident scenario  $G_3G_4\dots/G_7/G_8\dots$  is identical to  $G_3G_4\dots/(G_7 + G_8 + \dots)$ , it can be expressed as  $G_1/G_2$ , where  $G_1 = G_3G_4\dots$  and  $G_2 = G_7 + G_8 + \dots$ . Each accident scenario  $G_1/G_2$  is inherently a noncoherent fault tree; thus, the expression should be solved using the appropriate algorithm. This study explains various ways to solve the accident sequence logic given by Eq. (1).

$$\begin{aligned} Top &= G_1/G_2 \\ G_1 &= bG_3 \\ G_2 &= bG_4 \\ G_3 &= a + c + e \\ G_4 &= c + d \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

### 1.2. Approximate solutions by DTA

In PSA, the MCSs of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are separately generated using

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**Table 1**  
Delete-term approximation.

MCS of $G_1$	True events	$G_1$	$G_2$	$G_1/G_2$	MCS of $G_1/G_2$
$ab$	$a$ and $b$	True	Indefinite	Indefinite	Yes
$bc$	$b$ and $c$	True	True <sup>a</sup>	False	No
$be$	$b$ and $e$	True	Indefinite	Indefinite	Yes

<sup>a</sup>  $G_2$  is true when  $b$  and  $c$  are true.

traditional Boolean algebra [1] or the zero-suppressed binary decision diagram (ZBDD) algorithm [2–4]. Then, the approximate MCSs of  $G_1/G_2$  are generated using delete-term approximation (DTA) [4], which compares the MCSs of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  and deletes some nonlogical MCSs of  $G_1$ . Then, the core damage frequency (CDF) is calculated from the approximate MCSs. Here, MCSs and factorized MCSs are calculated using traditional Boolean algebra and the ZBDD algorithm, respectively.

The DTA procedure for calculating the approximate MCSs of  $G_1/G_2$  in Eq. (1) is given by Eq. (2) and presented in Table 1. Among the MCSs of  $G_1$ , i.e.,  $ab$ ,  $bc$ , and  $be$ ,  $bc$  is deleted since it results in false  $G_1/G_2$ , and  $ab$  and  $be$  are captured as final approximate MCSs of  $G_1/G_2$  since they do not result in false  $G_1/G_2$ . In other words, DTA removes the subset MCSs in  $G_1$  that have a superset MCS in  $G_2$ . The DTA is always performed one time with the MCSs of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  at the top event. In other words, the DTA is not performed at the child gates of the top event.

$$\begin{aligned} G_1 &= ab + bc + be \\ G_2 &= bc + bd \\ G_1/G_2 &\cong \text{Delterm}(G_1, G_2) = ab + be \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

### 1.3. Accurate solutions and probabilities

First, a solution of a binary decision diagram (BDD) [5–15] for  $G_1/G_2$  can be directly calculated from the fault tree in Eq. (1) with the BDD algorithm [7–9], and the accurate probability  $p(G_1/G_2)$  is calculated with this BDD. However, the BDD calculation frequently fails for large fault trees in PSA. The structure and algorithm of ternary decision diagram (TDD) [17–19] are variation of the BDD structure and algorithm (see Section 1.5).

Second, Boolean solutions of  $G_1/G_2$  are generated as Eq. (3) from the fault tree in Eq. (1) without any approximation by the traditional Boolean algebra. However, the Boolean complement of  $G_2$  frequently fails depending on the size of the fault tree for  $G_2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} G_1 &= ab + bc + be \\ G_2 &= bc + bd \\ /G_2 &= /(bc + bd) = (/b + /c)(/b + /d) = /b + /c/d \\ G_1/G_2 &= (ab + bc + be)(/b + /c/d) = ab/c/d + b/c/de \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Then, the solutions of  $G_1/G_2$  in Eq. (3) are converted into a BDD [5–15] or sum-of-disjoint products (SDPs) [16], and the accurate probability  $p(G_1/G_2)$  is calculated with the BDD or SDPs. Since the Boolean solutions in Eq. (3),  $ab/c/d$  and  $b/c/de$ , are not disjoint, they are converted into SDPs of  $ab/c/d$  and  $/ab/c/de$  using Eq. (4). The probability  $p(G_1/G_2)$  is calculated by simply adding the probabilities of SDPs.

$$\begin{aligned} G_1/G_2 &= ab/c/d + /(ab/c/d)b/c/de \\ &= ab/c/d + (/a + a/b + abc + ab/cd)b/c/de \\ &= ab/c/d + /ab/c/de \\ p(G_1/G_2) &= p(ab/c/d) + p(/ab/c/de) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

### 1.4. Comparison of approximate and accurate solutions

As listed in Table 2, three probabilities of rare event approximation (REA) probabilities, min-cut-upper bound (MCUB) probabilities, and SDP probabilities are calculated from  $ab + be$  and  $ab/c/d + b/c/de$  in Eqs. (2) and (3). As summarized by Eq. (5), Table 2 clearly shows that the three probabilities of  $G_1/G_2$  in Eq. (2) are drastically overestimated when the accident sequence logic has nonrare events, such as seismic events. Thus, CDF can be extremely overestimated by DTA when fault trees have many nonrare events.

$$\begin{aligned} p(ab + be) &\cong p(ab/c/d + b/c/de) \text{ for rare events in internal PSA} \\ p(ab + be) &\gg p(ab/c/d + b/c/de) \text{ for nonrare events in seismic PSA} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

### 1.5. ZBDD, BDD, and TDD algorithms

Arbitrary Boolean equations can be encoded into ZBDD [2–4], BDD [5–15], or TDD [17–19] in Table 3. When a fault tree is solved in a bottom-up way, two ZBDDs, BDDs, and TDDs are combined with ZBDD [3,4], BDD [7,8], and TDD [17–19] algorithms, respectively. These ZBDD and BDD structures and algorithms provide efficient calculation of fault trees. As presented in Table 3, The TDD structure is a simple variation of BDD.

Bryant popularized the use of BDD by developing the BDD algorithm to efficiently construct and manipulate BDDs [7,8]. The BDD algorithm has been employed for reliability analysis [9], and the use of BDDs to solve large fault trees and importance measures has been investigated [10–14]. The BDD algorithm calculates an exact top event probability since it does not employ any approximations such as DTA. However, the BDD algorithm frequently fails to solve large fault trees. BDD truncation

**Table 2**  
Comparison of  $p(ab + be)$  and  $p(ab/c/d + b/c/de)$ .

Event probability <sup>a</sup>	Solution	REA probability	MCUB probability	SDP probability	Overestimation
1.0E-03	$ab + be$	2.00E-06 <sup>b</sup>	2.00E-06 <sup>d</sup>	2.00E-06 <sup>f</sup>	0.2% <sup>h</sup>
	$ab/c/d + b/c/de$	2.00E-06 <sup>c</sup>	2.00E-06 <sup>e</sup>	2.00E-06 <sup>g</sup>	
1.0E-01	$ab + be$	2.00E-02	1.99E-02	1.90E-02	23.5%
	$ab/c/d + b/c/de$	1.62E-02	1.61E-02	1.54E-02	
5.0E-01	$ab + be$	5.00E-01	4.38E-01	3.75E-01	300.0%
	$ab/c/d + b/c/de$	1.25E-01	1.21E-01	9.38E-02	
9.0E-01	$ab + be$	1.62E-00	9.64E-01	8.91E-01	9900.0%
	$ab/c/d + b/c/de$	1.62E-02	1.61E-02	8.91E-03	

<sup>a</sup>  $p(a) = \dots = p(e)$ .

<sup>b</sup>  $p(ab) + p(be)$ .

<sup>c</sup>  $p(ab/c/d) + p(b/c/de)$ .

<sup>d</sup>  $1 - (1 - p(ab))(1 - p(be))$ .

<sup>e</sup>  $1 - (1 - p(ab/c/d))(1 - p(b/c/de))$ .

<sup>f</sup>  $p(ab) + p(/abe)$  by  $ab + be = ab + (/ab)be = ab + /abe$ .

<sup>g</sup>  $p(ab/c/d) + p(/ab/c/de)$  by Eq. (4).

<sup>h</sup>  $((f) - (g))/(g) * 100\%$ .

**Table 3**  
Comparison of BDD, TDD, and ZBDD algorithms.

Algorithm	Encoding	Solutions
ZBDD <sup>a</sup>	$\langle x, L, R \rangle_{ZBDD} = xL + R$	Factorized MCSs
BDD <sup>b</sup>	$\langle x, L, R \rangle_{BDD} = xL + /xR$	Disjoint solutions
TDD <sup>c</sup>	$\langle x, L, R, LR \rangle_{TDD} = xL + /xR + LR$	Variation of BDD

<sup>a</sup> For mainly solving coherent fault trees.

<sup>b</sup> For mainly solving noncoherent fault trees.

<sup>c</sup>  $\langle x, L, R, LR \rangle_{TDD} = xL + /xR + LR = x(L + LR) + /x(R + LR) = xL + /xR = \langle x, L, R \rangle_{BDD}$ .

during the solving of a fault tree was impossible before the development of the BDD truncation algorithm [15].

### 1.6. Objectives and structure of the paper

The complemented logic gate of  $/G_2$  can be solved using the Boolean complement of ZBDD in Eq. (6), and two ZBDDs for  $G_1$  and  $/G_2$  can be combined to generate the exact solutions of  $G_1/G_2$ . However, it is not practically used since the simultaneous encoding of  $x$  and  $/x$  in ZBDD is very complex and drastically increases the computational burden depending on the number of complemented events. Thus, a noncoherent fault tree is solved using the ZBDD algorithm with DTA instead of the exact calculation of  $G_1/G_2$ . Owing to the use of DTA, the seismic CDF is drastically overestimated since the seismic PSA model has many nonrare events as explained in Section 1.4.

$$\begin{aligned} / \langle x, L, R \rangle_{ZBDD} &= \langle x, /L/R, \langle /x, /R, 0 \rangle \rangle_{ZBDD} \\ / \langle xL + R \rangle &= / \langle xL \rangle / R = (/x + x/L) / R = /x/R + x/L/R \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Although the ZBDD algorithm is a successful replacement of traditional Boolean algebra, generating the accurate solution of  $G_1/G_2$  is a practically impossible task. This was a motivation for developing the zero-suppressed ternary decision diagram (ZTDD) algorithm [20]. The ZTDD algorithm was developed by the author of this paper, and it was very briefly introduced in Ref. 20.

This study introduces the ZTDD algorithm and its features that were developed for efficiently solving noncoherent fault trees in PSA. By using the ZTDD algorithm, (1) the approximate solution is calculated by DTA or (2) the accurate solution can be calculated without DTA.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. The ZTDD structure, formula of the ZTDD algorithm, deletion of the nonminimal solutions in ZTDD, DTA with the ZTDD algorithm, and probability calculation of ZTDD are explained in Section 2. The strength of the ZTDD Algorithm is summarized in Section 3. Furthermore, the results of applications to a sample and PSA fault trees that demonstrate the efficiency of the ZTDD algorithm are summarized in Sections 4 and 5. Finally, conclusions are provided in Section 6.

## 2. ZTDD structure and algorithm

In this section, the ZTDD algorithm is introduced. The ZTDD algorithm has two major strengths: (1) It can calculate a solution of  $G_1/G_2$  without DTA (see Sections 2.2 and 2.3). (2) It can calculate approximate solutions of  $G_1/G_2$  with DTA (see Sections 2.2 and 2.5).

### 2.1. ZTDD structure

ZTDD is newly defined for encoding the factorized MCSs or PIs that have complemented basic events. ZTDD has a Boolean structure that comprises recursively connected if-then-else connectives (ITEs) that have three terms of  $L$ ,  $R$ , and  $N$  as given by Eq. (7). ZTDD encodes the Boolean equation  $xL + /xR + N$  into three Boolean equations as  $xL$ ,  $/xR$ , and  $N$ , where  $L$ ,  $R$ , and  $N$  are child ZTDDs. The ZTDD can be interpreted as a factorized form of MCSs or PIs.

$$xL + /xR + N = \langle x, L, R, N \rangle \quad (7)$$

The ZTDD in Eq. (7) can be encoded into BDD through Eq. (8) or converted into two connected ZBDDs through Eq. (9). Clearly, the ZTDD in Eq. (7) is much more intuitive and simpler than the BDD and ZBDD in Eqs. (8) and (9).

$$xL + /xR + N = xL + /xR + (x + /x)N = \langle x, L + N, R + N \rangle_{BDD} \quad (8)$$

$$xL + /xR + N = \langle x, L, \langle /x, R, N \rangle \rangle_{ZBDD} \quad (9)$$

### 2.2. ZTDD algorithm

To solve a fault tree in a bottom-up way, two ZTDDs need to be combined in a logical manner. In this study, a set of ZTDD formulae are developed for combining two ZTDDs as given by Eq. (10). If  $x$  and  $y$  are two variables with a given variable ordering  $x < y$ ,  $x$  is located at a higher position in ZTDD than  $y$ . Thereafter, the ZTDD combining operation with  $G(x) = \langle x, L_1, R_1, N_1 \rangle$  and  $H(y) = \langle y, L_2, R_2, N_2 \rangle$  is recursively performed from top to bottom ITEs following Eq. (10). Thus, a coherent or noncoherent fault tree can be solved in a bottom-up way using Eq. (10).

$$\begin{aligned} G(x) \cdot H(x) &= \langle x, (L_1L_2 + L_1N_2 + N_1L_2), (R_1R_2 + R_1N_2 + N_1R_2), N_1N_2 \rangle \\ G(x) + H(x) &= \langle x, (L_1 + L_2), (R_1 + R_2), (N_1 + N_2) \rangle \\ G(x) \cdot H(y) &= \langle x, L_1H, R_1H, N_1H \rangle \\ G(x) + H(y) &= \langle x, L_1, R_1, (N_1 + H) \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

### 2.3. ZTDD for Boolean complement

Eq. (11) displays the Boolean complement of ZTDD. Here, the Boolean complements  $/ \langle xL \rangle = /x + x/L$  and  $/ \langle /xR \rangle = x + /x/R$  are applied instead of  $/ \langle xL \rangle = /x + /L$  and  $/ \langle /xR \rangle = x + /R$  to maintain disjoint solutions as much as possible. To calculate the accurate solutions of  $G_1/G_2$ , the ZTDD of  $G_2$  is complemented into  $/G_2$  by Eq. (11) and the two ZTDDs of  $G_1$  and  $/G_2$  are combined using Eq. (10).

$$\begin{aligned} / \langle x, L, R, N \rangle &= \langle x, /L/N, /R/N, 0 \rangle \\ / \langle xL + /xR + N \rangle &= (/x + x/L)(x + /x/R) / N = x/L/N + /x/R/N \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

### 2.4. ZTDD minimization

When a fault tree is solved in a bottom-up way using Eq. (10), non-minimal solutions (subsets) are introduced in ZTDD, and they need to be deleted. These nonminimal solutions exist in the  $L$  and  $R$  of  $\langle \alpha, L, R, N \rangle$  since ZTDD is  $\alpha L + / \alpha R + N$ . The subsets in  $L$  and  $R$  are deleted if their minimal solutions (supersets) exist in  $N$ , through the  $Subsume(L, N)$  and  $Subsume(R, N)$  operations in Eq. (12).

$$\begin{aligned} Subsume(G, H) = G \setminus H &= \begin{cases} G \setminus N_2 & , x > y \\ \langle x, L_1 \setminus H, R_1 \setminus H, N_1 \setminus H \rangle & , x < y \\ \langle x, L_1 \setminus (L_2 \text{ or } N_2), R_1 \setminus (R_2 \text{ or } N_2), N_1 \setminus N_2 \rangle & , x = y \end{cases} \\ G(x) = \langle x, L_1, R_1, N_1 \rangle &= xL_1 + /xR_1 + N_1 \\ H(y) = \langle y, L_2, R_2, N_2 \rangle &= yL_2 + /yR_2 + N_2 \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

The term  $L_1 \setminus (L_2 \text{ or } N_2)$  denotes that each solution in  $L_1$  is tested and

deleted if  $L_2$  or  $N_2$  has a superset.

2.5. ZTDD for DTA

To calculate the approximate solutions of  $G_1/G_2$ , DTA is employed. It is accomplished through the subsuming operation given by Eq. (13).

$$G_1 / G_2 \approx Delterm(G_1, G_2) = Subsume(G_1, G_2) \tag{13}$$

2.6. ZTDD probability calculation

First, the sum of PI probabilities is calculated by recursively calculating the probability given by Eq. (14) from the bottom to top of the ZTDD.

$$p(f) = p_x \times p(L) + (1 - p_x) \times p(R) + p(N) \tag{14}$$

Second, the MCUB probability of PIs can be optionally calculated by navigating all minimal solutions in the ZTDD. Third, the exact probability can be calculated from BDD by converting the ZTDD into BDD if necessary (see Eq. (8)).

3. Strength of the ZTDD algorithm

Both ZTDD and ZBDD algorithms can generate MCSs from coherent and noncoherent fault trees. However, the ZBDD algorithm aims to solve coherent fault trees. When a ZBDD algorithm solves a noncoherent fault tree, complemented basic events should be converted into temporary basic events such as  $/x = x_{not}$  as listed in Table 4. Owing to this conversion, the Boolean equations  $x/x = 0$  and  $x + /x = 1$  cannot be applied during MCS generation of logic gates in a bottom-up way, and they are applied at the final stage after generating MCSs of a top event. For this reason, MCS generation becomes very explosive when a fault tree has many complemented events and logic gates. This is a serious limitation of a ZBDD algorithm.

As listed in Table 5, the Boolean equations of  $x/x$ ,  $x + /x$ , and  $/(xy)$  can be directly solved with the ZTDD algorithm without the substitution of  $/x = x_{not}$  and  $/y = y_{not}$ . This is a great strength of the ZTDD algorithm over the ZBDD algorithm when a fault tree has many complemented events and logic gates.

4. ZTDD application to sample fault tree

4.1. ZTDD algorithm without DTA

The fault tree in Eq. (1) is solved in a bottom-up way with the ZTDD algorithm in Eq. (10) and Boolean complement in Eq. (11). The resultant ZTDDs for  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$ , and  $/G_2$  are depicted in Figs. 1–3. By combining the two ZTDDs of  $G_1$  and  $/G_2$ , the ZTDD for  $G_1/G_2$  is calculated as shown in

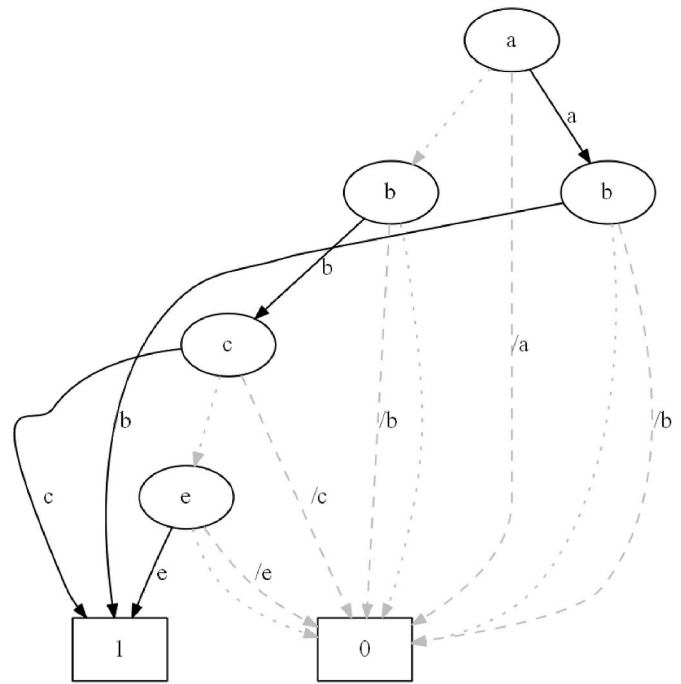


Fig. 1. ZTDD for  $G_1$   
 $G_1 = \langle a, \langle b, 1, 0, 0 \rangle, 0, \langle b, \langle c, 1, 0, \langle e, 1, 0, 0 \rangle \rangle, 0, 0 \rangle \rangle$   
 Identical to  $G_1 = ab + bc + be$  in Eq. (3).

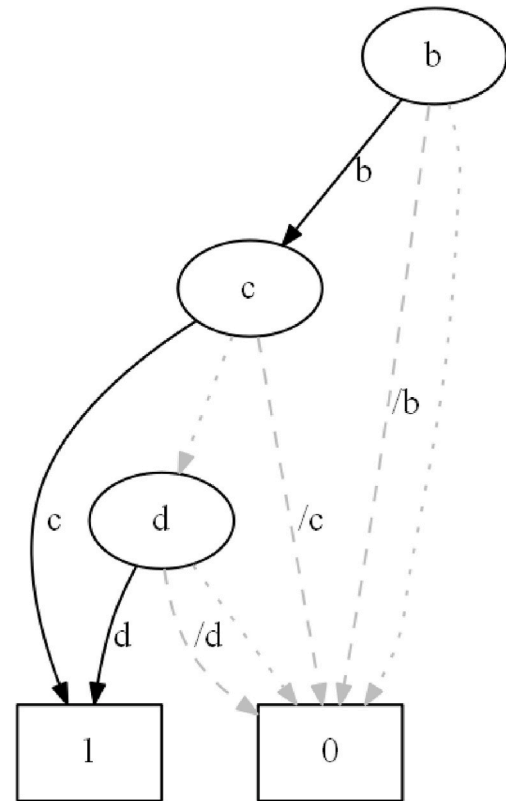


Fig. 2. ZTDD for  $G_2$   
 $G_2 = \langle b, \langle c, 1, 0, \langle d, 1, 0, 0 \rangle \rangle, 0, 0 \rangle$   
 Identical to  $G_2 = bc + bd$  in Eq. (3).

Table 4  
 Examples of ZBDD Boolean operations.

Boolean equations	ZBDD Boolean operations (see Appendix A)
$x/x$	$\langle x, 1, 0 \rangle \langle x_{not}, 1, 0 \rangle = \langle x, \langle x_{not}, 1, 0 \rangle, 0 \rangle^a$
$x + /x$	$\langle x, 1, 0 \rangle + \langle x_{not}, 1, 0 \rangle = \langle x, 1, \langle x_{not}, 1, 0 \rangle \rangle^a$
$/(xy)$	Impossible encoding

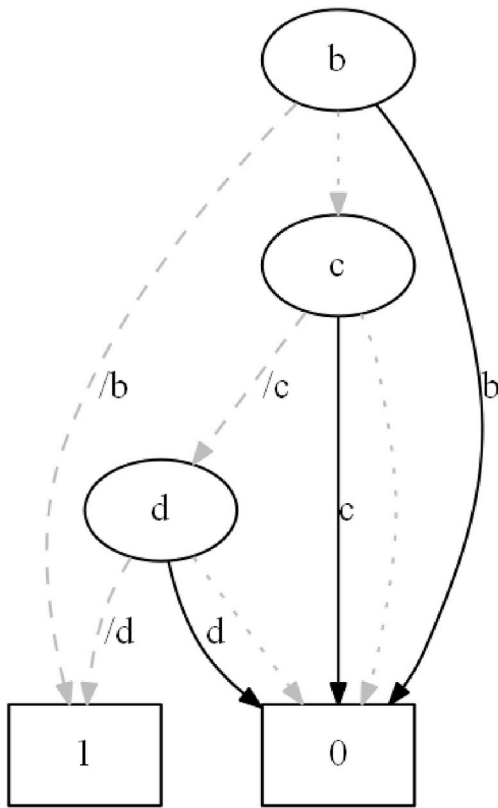
<sup>a</sup>  $x/x = 0$  and  $x + /x = 1$  cannot be applied during MCS generation.

Table 5  
 Examples of ZTDD Boolean operations.

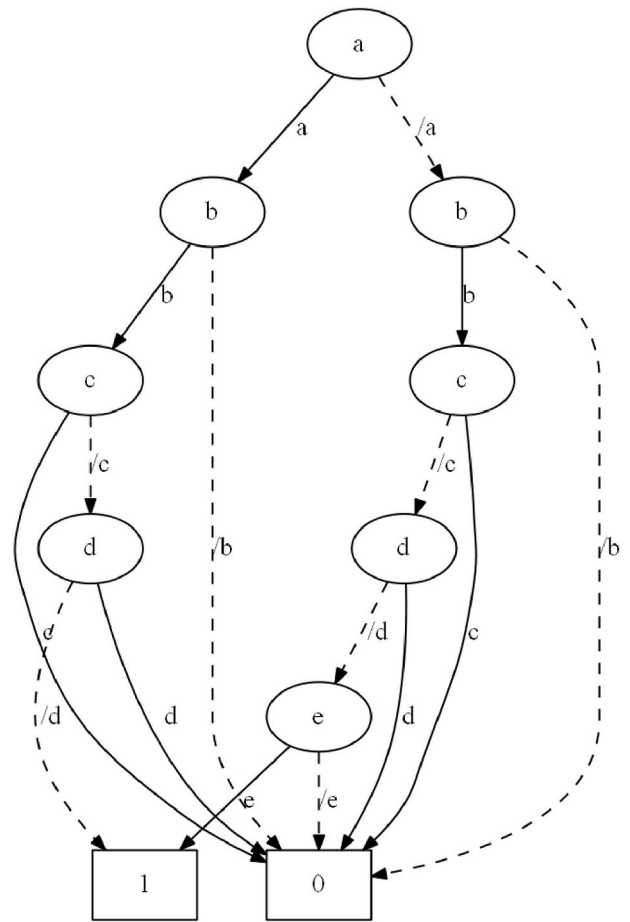
Boolean equations	ZTDD Boolean operations (see Eqs. (10) and (11))
$x/x$	$\langle x, 1, 0, 0 \rangle \langle x, 0, 1, 0 \rangle = \langle x, 0, 0, 0 \rangle = 0$
$x + /x$	$\langle x, 1, 0, 0 \rangle + \langle x, 0, 1, 0 \rangle = \langle x, 1, 1, 0 \rangle = 1$
$/(xy)$	$/( \langle x, \langle y, 1, 0, 0 \rangle, 0, 0 \rangle ) = \langle x, / \langle y, 1, 0, 0 \rangle, 1, 0 \rangle = \langle x, \langle y, 0, 1, 0 \rangle, 1, 0 \rangle = /x + x/y$

Fig. 4.

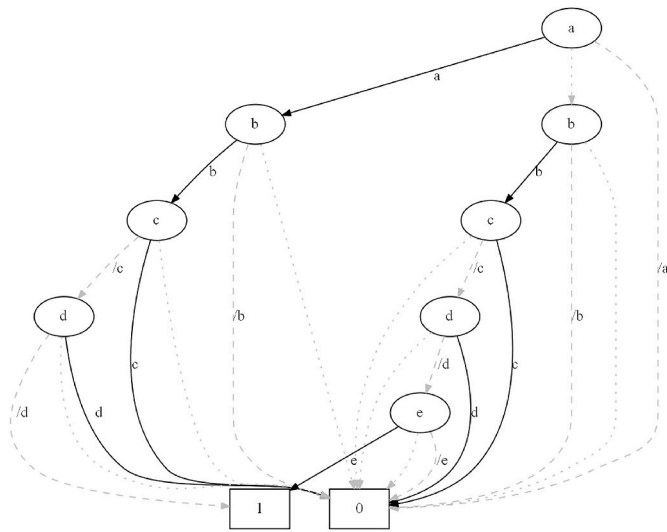
The ZTDD shown in Fig. 4 can be converted into the BDD shown in Fig. 5. This BDD is identical to the SDPs in Eq. (4). In other words, the



**Fig. 3.** ZTDD for  $/G_2$   
 $/G_2 = \langle b, \langle c, 0, \langle d, 0, 1, 0 \rangle, 0 \rangle, 1, 0 \rangle$   
 Identical to  $/G_2 = /b + /c/d$  in Eq. (3).



**Fig. 5.** BDD for  $G_1/G_2$   
 Identical to  $G_1/G_2 = ab/c/d + /ab/c/de$  in Eq. (4).

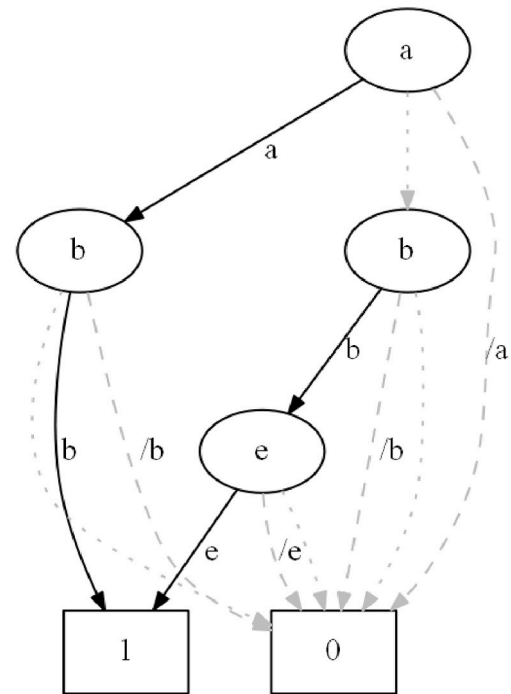


**Fig. 4.** ZTDD without DTA for  $G_1/G_2$   
 Identical to  $G_1/G_2 = ab/c/d + b/c/de$  in Eq. (3).

BDD that is converted from the ZTDD is identical to the BDD that is directly calculated from  $G_1/G_2$ .

4.2. ZTDD algorithm with DTA

The ZTDD that is generated from  $G_1/G_2$  by the ZTDD algorithm with DTA in Eqs. (10) and (13) is depicted in Fig. 6. It can be confirmed that the ZTDD in Fig. 6 is identical to the Boolean equation in Eq. (2).



**Fig. 6.** ZTDD with DTA for  $Delterm(G_1, G_2)$   
 Identical to  $Delterm(G_1, G_2) = ab + be$  in Eq. (2).



### 5. ZTDD application to PSA fault trees

The ZTDD algorithm in Section 2 was implemented in a new tool named ZEBRA (ZTDD Equation Based Risk Analyzer), and its performance was compared with that of the fault tree solver FTREX (Fault Tree Reliability Evaluation eXpert), which employs the ZBDD algorithm [3, 4]. With the large fault trees in Table 6, calculations were performed using FTREX and ZEBRA with DTA by employing the calculation options in Table 7. The calculation results presented in Tables 8–11 reveal that ZEBRA outperforms FTREX in solving large fault trees.

**Table 6**  
PSA fault trees.

Fault trees	Gates	Events	/Gates <sup>a</sup>	/Events <sup>b</sup>	Initiators
Loss of offsite power multi-unit PSA	138,381	24,843	316	9	95
Seismic multi-unit PSA	67,131	19,096	195	0	13
Low power and shutdown PSA	50,220	11,801	4,475	2	45
Internal PSA	8,175	3,982	172	13	17

<sup>a</sup> Complemented gates.  
<sup>b</sup> Complemented events.

**Table 7**  
Calculation options.

Calculations	Parallel computing	Local DTA <sup>a</sup>	Local mutually exclusive event deletion <sup>b</sup>
C1			
C2		O	O
C3	O		
C4	O	O	O

<sup>a</sup> Although the DTA is always performed one time with the MCSs of a top event by  $G_1/G_2 \cong Delterm(G_1, G_2)$ , it can be applied at any child logic gate by  $G_1/G_2 \cong Delterm(G_1, G_2)/G_2$ .

<sup>b</sup> The complemented gate  $/G_2$  of  $G_1/G_2$  for mutually exclusive event deletion can be additionally connected to the child gates of  $G_1$  before solving a fault tree.

**Table 8**  
Calculation of loss of offsite power multi-unit PSA (seconds).

Truncation limit		1.00E-11	1.00E-12	1.00E-13
MCSs		154,937	674,332	2,734,715
FTREX 2.0	C1	28	224	1,972
	C2	34	145	2,250
ZEBRA 1.0	C1	14	45	199
	C2	12	29	88

**Table 9**  
Calculation of seismic multi-unit PSA (seconds).

Truncation limit		1.00E-11	1.00E-12	1.00E-13
MCSs		18,173	85,133	410,261
FTREX 2.0	C1	9	45	303
	C2	5	20	107
ZEBRA 1.0	C1	5	18	112
	C2	4	6	15

**Table 10**  
Calculation of low power and shutdown PSA (seconds).

Truncation limit		1.00E-09	1.00E-10	1.00E-11
MCSs		3,100	25,174	170,963
FTREX 2.0	C1	16	49	630
	C2	15	43	341
ZEBRA 1.0	C1	36	150	581
	C2	24	74	218
	C3	18	84	357
	C4	9	28	86

**Table 11**  
Calculation of internal PSA (seconds).

Truncation limit		1.00E-15	1.00E-16	1.00E-17
MCSs		1,359,385	4,494,871	14,139,375
FTREX 2.0	C1	23	55	127
	C2	33	76	180
ZEBRA 1.0	C1	34	71	173
	C2	22	65	157
	C3	20	46	114
	C4	18	43	105

### 6. Conclusions

In this paper, a novel algorithm, the ZTDD algorithm, and its features are introduced. The algorithm was developed to avert the CDF overestimation caused by DTA. Further, the solving of noncoherent fault trees with the ZTDD algorithm is elucidated. The use of the ZTDD algorithm for the PSA of nuclear power plants is strongly recommended. The results of this study can be summarized as follows.

- (1) The ZTDD algorithm can calculate a solution of  $G_1/G_2$  without DTA (Sections 2.2 and 2.3). If this ZTDD is converted into BDD, it is identical to the BDD that is directly calculated from  $G_1/G_2$ . Thus, the extreme overestimation of  $p(G_1/G_2)$  can be avoided using the proposed ZTDD algorithm.
- (2) The ZTDD algorithm can calculate the approximate solution of  $G_1/G_2$  with DTA (Sections 2.2 and 2.5). This ZTDD is identical to the ZBDD that is directly calculated from  $G_1/G_2$  with DTA. In order to calculate the solution of a noncoherent fault tree using the ZBDD algorithm,  $/x$  needs to be replaced with a temporary basic event. Hence, the size of ZBDD exponentially increases when many completed basic events are present (Section 5).
- (3) The ZTDD algorithm can solve a noncoherent fault tree comprising many complemented basic events with or without DTA, which is advantageous. Furthermore, the ZTDDs of logic gates maintain a minimal size when a fault tree is solved in a bottom-up way since a ZTDD simultaneously encodes three Boolean logics that have  $x$ ,  $/x$ , and nothing.

### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## Appendix A. ZBDD algorithm

The Boolean combination of  $G(x) = \langle x, L_1, R_1 \rangle$  and  $H(y) = \langle y, L_2, R_2 \rangle$  is formulated as Eq. (A.1) [3,4]. Here,  $x < y$ ,  $g = G(x)$  and  $h = H(y)$ . That is, the variable  $x$  is located at a higher position in ZBDD than variable  $y$ .

$$\begin{aligned} G(x) \cdot H(x) &= \langle x, (L_1 L_2 + L_1 R_2 + R_1 L_2), R_1 R_2 \rangle \\ G(x) + H(x) &= \langle x, (L_1 + L_2), (R_1 + R_2) \rangle \\ G(x) \cdot H(y) &= \langle x, L_1 h, R_1 h \rangle \\ G(x) + H(y) &= \langle x, L_1, (R_1 + h) \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

When  $ab + abc$  is located in a ZBDD,  $abc$  is a subset of  $ab$ . Specifically,  $ab$  and  $abc$  are minimal and nonminimal solutions, respectively. Therefore,  $abc$  should be deleted (subsumed). When a fault tree is solved in a bottom-up way with Eq. (A.1), nonminimal solutions in the ZBDD of each logic gate should be deleted.

When a ZBDD has  $\langle \alpha, G(x), H(y) \rangle$ , the nonminimal solutions exist in  $G(x)$  since it is  $\alpha G(x) + H(y)$ . The subsuming operation is derived as Eq. (A.2).

$$\text{Subsume}(G, H) = G \setminus H = \begin{cases} G \setminus R_2 & , x > y \\ \langle x, L_1 \setminus H, R_1 \setminus H \rangle & , x < y \\ \langle x, L_1 \setminus (L_2 \text{ or } R_2), R_1 \setminus R_2 \rangle & , x = y \end{cases} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

$$G(x) = \langle x, L_1, R_1 \rangle = xL_1 + R_1$$

$$H(y) = \langle y, L_2, R_2 \rangle = yL_2 + R_2$$

where the term  $L_1 \setminus (L_2 \text{ or } R_2)$  in the last case indicates that each solution in  $L_1$  is tested and deleted if  $L_2$  or  $R_2$  has its minimal solution.

If a fault tree has a logical combination of  $G_1/G_2$ , it is approximated by DTA. Nonminimal solutions in  $G_1$  are deleted if minimal solutions are in  $G_2$ . Then, the remaining solutions of  $G_1$  become the final solutions.

$$G_1 / G_2 \approx \text{Subsume}(G_1, G_2) \quad (\text{A.3})$$

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