## Outline

- Symbolic model checking
- Binary Decision Diagrams
- Model checking CTL
- Relational $\mu$-calculus
- Bounded Model Checking
- Partial Order Methods


## Symbolic Model Checking: Example

Let $\mathcal{P}=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}\right\}$. Then the formula $\left(v_{1} \wedge v_{2}\right) \vee v_{3}$ represents the set
$\{110,001,011,101,111\}$, where 0 stands for false and 1 for true and the a string denotes the valuation for the variables in increasing index order.

Representing the transition relation of the program can be done by a propositional formula over $\mathcal{P}=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{m}, v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{m}^{\prime}\right\}$.

Let $R=\left(v_{1} \leftrightarrow \neg v_{1}^{\prime}\right) \wedge\left(v_{2} \rightarrow v_{2}^{\prime}\right) \wedge\left(v_{2} \wedge v_{3} \rightarrow v_{3}^{\prime}\right)$ From the state $v=$ $v_{1} \wedge v_{2} \wedge \neg v_{3}$ the reachable states are characterized by $v^{\prime}=\neg v_{1}^{\prime} \wedge v_{2}$.

The propositional expression representing the set of successors is in terms of primed variables is:

$$
\exists \vec{v}(v \wedge R) .
$$

## Symbolic Model Checking: Introduction

- Symbolic model checking tries to alleviate the state space explosion problem by using efficient encodings of the state space.
- The state space is encoded using an implicit representation.
- For model checking we then need a symbolic representation of the transition relation and the temporal operators.
- One symbolic encoding is using boolean functions (propositional logic)


## Symbolic Model Checking: Binary Decision Diagrams

Any formula can be converted to using only Ite with the Shannon expansion:

$$
\varphi \leftrightarrow \operatorname{Ite}(v, \varphi\{v:=\top\}, \varphi\{v:=\perp\})
$$

Example. Let $\varphi=\left(v_{1} \wedge v_{2}\right) \rightarrow v_{3}$. We expand the variables in descending index order. Then the corresponding INF is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi & =\operatorname{Ite}\left(v_{3}, \varphi_{1}, \varphi_{0}\right) \\
\varphi_{1} & =\operatorname{Ite}\left(v_{2}, \varphi_{11}, \top\right) \\
\varphi_{0} & =\operatorname{Ite}\left(v_{2}, \varphi_{01}, \top\right) \\
\varphi_{11} & =\operatorname{Ite}\left(v_{1}, \top, \top\right) \\
\varphi_{01} & =\operatorname{Ite}\left(v_{1}, \perp, \top\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The expression can be visualized as an expression tree called a decision tree.

## Symbolic Model Checking: Binary Decision Diagrams

Finding the shortest formula representing a given set is co-NP-hard. Therefore we need efficient methods for manipulating the formulae, which can become very large. Binary Decision Diagrams provide such methods.

We define the three-place connective $\operatorname{Ite}\left(\varphi, \psi_{T}, \psi_{F}\right)$ ('if-then-else') in the following way:

$$
\operatorname{Ite}\left(\varphi, \psi_{T}, \psi_{F}\right) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left(\varphi \wedge \psi_{T}\right) \vee\left(\neg \varphi \wedge \psi_{F}\right)
$$

Any propositional formula can be expressed using Ite and the constants $\top, \perp$ as $\varphi \rightarrow \psi \leftrightarrow \operatorname{Ite}(\varphi, \psi, \top)$.

## Symbolic Model Checking: Binary Decision Diagrams

- No two distinct nodes $u$ and $v$ have the same variable name and low- and highsuccessor.
- No variable $u$ has identical low- and high-successor, i.e. $\operatorname{low}(u) \neq \operatorname{high}(u)$.


## Symbolic Model Checking: Binary Decision Diagrams

A binary decision diagram (BDD) is a rooted, directed acyclic graph which has the following characteristics.

- There are one or two terminal nodes with zero outdegree labeled 0 and 1 .
- Each variable node $u$ has two outgoing edges $\operatorname{low}(u)$ and $\operatorname{high}(u)$
- Each variable node $u$ is associated with a variable $\operatorname{var}(u)$.
- All paths in the graph respect the given linear ordering $x_{1}<x_{2}<\cdots<x_{n}$.


## Symbolic Model Checking: Binary Decision Diagrams

Theorem (Canonicity). For any function $f: \mathbb{B}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$ there is exactly one $\operatorname{BDD} u$ with variable ordering $v_{1}<v 2<\cdots<v_{n}$ such that $f^{u}=f\left(v_{1}, v 2, \ldots, v_{n}\right)$.

Proof: (sketch). The proof proceeds by induction on the number of arguments of $f$. For $n=0$ the two possible boolean functions are true and false. Each of these have a unique BDD representation $T$ and $\perp$. Since redundant tests are always removed, a BDD with a variable node must be non-constant. Let $f\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}, v_{n+1}\right)$ be a function of $n+1$ arguments. Define $f_{i}\left(x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n+1}\right)=f\left(i, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n+1}\right), i \in \mathbb{B}$. By the induction hypothesis both $f_{0}$ and $f_{1}$ have unique BDD representations $u_{0}$ and $u_{1}$ such that $f^{u_{0}}=f_{0}$ and $f^{u_{1}}=f_{1}$. By Shannon's expansion we have that:

$$
f\left(v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n+1}\right)=\operatorname{Ite}\left(v_{1}, f_{1}, f_{2}\right)
$$

A simple case analysis ( $u_{0}=u_{1}$ and $u_{0} \neq u_{1}$ ) shows that this resultant BDD is unique.

## Symbolic Model Checking: Binary Decision Diagrams

- We identify a BDD by its root node $u$.
- The true branch of a node is denoted $\operatorname{high}(u)$ and the false branch is denoted $\operatorname{low}(u)$.

A $\operatorname{BDD} \varphi^{u}$ defines a boolean function in the following way

```
\(\varphi^{0}=0\)
\(\varphi^{1}=1\)
    \(\varphi^{u}=\operatorname{Ite}\left(\operatorname{var}(u), \varphi^{h i g h(u)}, \varphi^{\text {low }(u)}\right), u\) is a variable node.
```


## Binary Decision Diagrams: Algorithms and Implementation

function PL2BDD (Formula $\varphi$ ) : (Nodeset, Bdd) $=$
Nodeset table $:=\{ \} ; / *$ Table of BDD nodes*/
Bdd max $:=1$;
Bdd result $:=\operatorname{BDD}(\varphi, 1)$;
return (table, result)
function $\operatorname{BDD}($ Formula $\varphi, \operatorname{Bddvar} i):=\operatorname{Bdd}$
if $i>n$ then return eval $(\varphi) /{ }^{*} \varphi$; is constant*/
else $\delta_{1}:=\operatorname{BDD}\left(\varphi\left\{v_{i}:=\perp\right\}, i+1\right)$;
$\delta_{2}:=\operatorname{BDD}\left(\varphi\left\{v_{i}:=\top\right\}, i+1\right) ;$
if $\delta_{1}=\delta_{2}$ then return $\delta_{1}$;
else if $\exists \delta:\left(\delta, i, \delta_{1}, \delta_{2}\right) \in$ table then return $\delta$;
else $\max :=\max +1$; table $:=$ table $\cup\left\{\left(\max , i, \delta_{1}, \delta_{2}\right)\right\}$; return max;

## Binary Decision Diagrams: Algorithms and Implementation

- The set of BDD nodes is implemented as a hash table.
- Let $\delta=\operatorname{Ite}\left(v, \delta_{1}, \delta_{2}\right)$, then the hash table maps triples $\left(v, \delta_{1}, \delta_{2}\right)$ to $\delta$.
- Each BDD is identified by its variable and two children. A reduced BDD can now be created by recursively performing the Shannon expansion on the formula.

```
Binary Decision Diagrams: Algorithms and Implementation
function BDDImp (Bdd }\varphi,\mathrm{ Bdd }\psi\mathrm{ ) : Bdd =
    if }\varphi=0\mathrm{ or }\psi=1\mathrm{ then return 1;
    else if \varphi=1 return \psi;
    else if \psi}=0\mathrm{ and ( }\varphi,i,\mp@subsup{\varphi}{1}{},\mp@subsup{\varphi}{2}{})\in\mp@subsup{\operatorname{table}}{\varphi}{
        then return new_node(i, BDDImp( }\mp@subsup{\varphi}{1}{},0),\operatorname{BDDImp}(\mp@subsup{\varphi}{2}{},0))
    else /* (\varphi,i,\mp@subsup{\varphi}{1}{},\mp@subsup{\varphi}{2}{})\mathrm{ and ( }\psi,j,\mp@subsup{\psi}{1}{},\mp@subsup{\psi}{2}{}\mp@subsup{)}{}{*}/
        if (i=j) then
        return new_node(i, BDDImp ( }\mp@subsup{\varphi}{1}{},\mp@subsup{\psi}{1}{}),\operatorname{BDDImp}(\mp@subsup{\varphi}{2}{},\mp@subsup{\psi}{2}{}))
        else if (i<j) then
        return new_node(i,BDDImp ( }\mp@subsup{\varphi}{1}{},\psi),\operatorname{BDDImp}(\mp@subsup{\varphi}{2}{},\psi))\mathrm{ ;
        else if (i>j) then
        return new_node(i,\operatorname{BDDImp}(\varphi,\mp@subsup{\psi}{1}{}),\operatorname{BDDImp}(\varphi,\mp@subsup{\psi}{2}{}));
function new_node(Bddvar i, Bdd }\mp@subsup{\delta}{1}{},\operatorname{Bdd}\mp@subsup{\delta}{2}{}):=\operatorname{Bdd
    if }\mp@subsup{\delta}{1}{}=\mp@subsup{\delta}{2}{}\mathrm{ then return }\mp@subsup{\delta}{1}{}\mathrm{ ;
    else if }\exists\delta:(\delta,i,\mp@subsup{\delta}{1}{},\mp@subsup{\delta}{2}{})\in\mathrm{ table then return }\delta\mathrm{ ;
    else max }:=\operatorname{max}+1;\mathrm{ table }:=\mathrm{ table }\cup{(\operatorname{max},i,\mp@subsup{\delta}{1}{},\mp@subsup{\delta}{2}{\prime})};\mathrm{ return max;
```


## Binary Decision Diagrams: Algorithms and Implementation

- The size of the constructed BDD can greatly depend on the ordering of the variables. Example $\left(v_{1} \leftrightarrow v_{3}\right) \wedge\left(v_{2} \leftrightarrow v_{4}\right)$.
- A good ordering can result in a BDD linear w.r.t the number of variables while a bad ordering may result in an exponential BDD.
- Finding the optimal ordering is an NP-hard problem.
- There provably exists boolean expression which always result in an exponential BDD, irrespectively of the variable ordering.


## Symbolic Model Checking for CTL

- We describe algorithms for computing a BDD representation $\varphi^{\mathcal{F}}$ of the set states where the formula $\varphi$ holds.
- The system is described by variables $\vec{v}=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$. The transition relation $R$ is over the variables $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}, v_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{n}^{\prime}\right\}$.
- For each $p \in \mathcal{P}$ a BDD is given which represents the set $\mathcal{I}(p)$.
- Computing the BDDs for the propositional case is easy. We simply use the algorithms described the in the previous section.
- How do we compute $\mathbf{A}\left(\varphi \mathbf{U}^{+} \psi\right)$ and $\mathbf{E}\left(\varphi \mathbf{U}^{+} \psi\right)$ ?


## Binary Decision Diagrams: Algorithms and Implementation

- Any boolean operation can be implemented linear time w.r.t. input BDDs
- Most BDD-packages use separate algorithms for each operator for increased efficiency.
- For model checking we still need existential quantification.

```
function BDDExists (Bdd }\varphi\mathrm{ , Vars }\vec{v}\mathrm{ ) : Bdd =
    if \varphi=\in{0,1} then return \varphi;
    else /* (\varphi,i, \varphi , , \varphi ) ) table*/
        \delta
        if }i\in\vec{v}\mathrm{ then return BDDApply ( }\vee,\mp@subsup{\delta}{1}{},\mp@subsup{\delta}{2}{})\mathrm{ ;
    else return new_node(i, \delta},\mp@code{,}\mp@subsup{\delta}{2}{})\mathrm{ ;
```


## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Introduction

- The relational $\mu$-calculus is rich logical language. It can be seen as a first order predicate logic with a recursion operator.
- The symbolic techniques presented previously can also be extended for model checking this expressive logic.


## Symbolic Model Checking for CTL

Essentially, we only convert the previously presented algorithm to symbolic terms.
$\mathbf{E}\left(\psi_{2} \mathbf{U}^{+} \psi_{1}\right)$ : We must compute the least fixpoint of the the set $\left\{w \mid \exists w^{\prime}\left(w \prec w^{\prime} \wedge\left(w^{\prime} \in\left(\psi_{1}^{\mathcal{F}} \cup \psi_{2}^{\mathcal{F}} \cap E\right)\right)\right\}\right.$, where $E$ is an intermediate result of the iteration
$\mathbf{A}\left(\psi_{2} \mathbf{U}^{+} \psi_{1}\right)$ : The greatest least of the set
$\left\{w \mid \forall w^{\prime}\left(w \prec w^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(w^{\prime} \in\left(\psi_{1}^{\mathcal{F}} \cup \psi_{2}^{\mathcal{F}} \cap E\right)\right)\right\}\right.$ must be computed.
For $\mathbf{E}\left(\psi_{2} \mathbf{U}^{+} \psi_{1}\right)$ :
$E_{0}\left(w^{\prime}\right)=\emptyset$
$E_{i+1}(w)=E_{i}(w) \vee \exists w^{\prime}\left(R\left(w, w^{\prime}\right) \wedge\left(\psi_{1}^{\mathcal{F}}\left(w^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(\psi_{2}^{\mathcal{F}}\left(w^{\prime}\right) \wedge E_{i}\left(w^{\prime}\right)\right)\right)\right.$, where $\psi_{1}^{\mathcal{F}}, \psi_{2}^{\mathcal{F}}$ and $E$ are BDDs.

Fixpoint calculations with BDDs are easy, as equality checking is a constant time operation.

## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Syntax

Assume that the symbols $(),, \perp, \rightarrow,=, \exists, \mu, \lambda$ are not in the signature. A well-formed formula has the following syntax:

- $\perp,(\varphi \rightarrow \psi)$, where $\varphi$ and $\psi$ are well-formed formulas,
- $x_{1}=x_{2}$, where $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are individual variables of the same type,
- $\exists x \varphi$, where $\varphi$ is a well-formed formula, and $x$ is an individual variable, or
- $\rho x_{1} \ldots x_{n}$, where $\rho$ is a relation term of type $\left(D_{1}, \ldots, D_{n}\right)$, and $x_{i}$ is an individual variable of type $D_{i}$.


## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Preliminaries

- A collection of disjoint sets with a collection of relations over the sets is called a (typed) structure.
- A pair $\Sigma=(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R})$ is called a signature, where $\mathcal{D}$ is a finite set of domain names and $\mathcal{R}$ is is a set of relation symbols.
- Each relation symbol has an associated type $\tau$.
- An interpretation $\mathcal{I}$ assign a structure $S$ to signature $\Sigma$. Formally, $\mathcal{I}: \Sigma \rightarrow S$.
- For relation a $R$ with type $\tau(R)=\left(D_{1}, \ldots, D_{n}\right)$ the interpretation is $\mathcal{I}(R) \subseteq$ $\mathcal{I}\left(D_{1}\right) \times \cdots \times \mathcal{I}\left(D_{n}\right)$.


## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Models and Semantics

A relation model $\mathcal{M}=(S, \mathcal{I}, \mathbf{v})$ for a signature $\Sigma$ consists of a structure $S$, an interpretation $\mathcal{I}$ and variable valuation $\mathbf{v}$. The semantics are as follows:

- $x^{\mathcal{M}}=\mathbf{v}(x)$, if $x$ is an individual variable,
- $\perp^{\mathcal{M}}=$ false,
- $(\varphi \rightarrow \psi)^{\mathcal{M}}=$ true iff $\varphi^{\mathcal{M}}=$ false or $\psi^{\mathcal{M}}=$ true
- $\left(x_{1}=x_{2}\right)^{\mathcal{M}}=$ true iff $x_{1}^{\mathcal{M}}=x_{2}^{\mathcal{M}}$,
- $(\exists x \varphi)^{\mathcal{M}}=\operatorname{true}$ iff $\varphi^{\left(S, \mathcal{I}, \mathbf{v}^{\prime}\right)}=$ true and $\mathbf{v}^{\prime}$ differs from $\mathbf{v}$ at most in $x$.


## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Syntax

The relation terms have their own syntax. Very complex relation can be formed using $\lambda$-abstraction or $\mu$-recursion. A relation term of type $\left(D_{1}, \ldots, D_{n}\right)$ is

- a relation symbol $R$ or a relation variable $X$ of type $\left(D_{1}, \ldots, D_{n}\right)$,
- $\lambda x_{1} \ldots x_{n} \varphi$, where $\varphi$ is a well-formed formula and each $x_{i}$ is an individual variable of type $D_{i}$, or
- $\mu X \rho$, where $X$ is a relation variable of type $\left(D_{1}, \ldots, D_{n}\right)$, and $\rho$ a relation term which is positive in $X$.

A relational term $\rho$ is positive in $X$ if every occurrence of $X$ is under an even number of negation signs.

## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Expressivity

- The expressive power of the relational $\mu$-calculus is between first-order logic and second order logic.
- With the $\mu$-recursion operator all recursive functions of arithmetic can be defined. This means that on infinite domains the relational $\mu$-calculus has the expressive power of Turing machines.
- The addition-relation on natural numbers can be defined in the following way.
- Let $Z$ be the constant zero and $S$ the successor relation. The addition-relation is defined by

$$
\mu X(\lambda x y z(Z x \wedge y=z \vee \exists u v(S u x \wedge S v z \wedge X u y v)))
$$

## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Models and Semantics

- $\left(\rho x_{1} \ldots x_{n}\right)^{\mathcal{M}}=$ true iff $\left(x_{1}^{\mathcal{M}}, \ldots, x_{n}^{\mathcal{M}}\right) \in \rho^{\mathcal{M}}$,
- $R^{\mathcal{M}}=\mathcal{I}(R)$, if $R$ is a relation symbol, i.e. the name is connected to the preselected interpretation,
- $X^{\mathcal{M}}=\mathrm{v}(X)$, if $X$ is a relation variable,
- $\left(\lambda x_{1} \ldots x_{n} \varphi\right)^{\mathcal{M}}=\left\{\left(d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}\right) \mid \varphi^{\left(S, \mathcal{I}, \mathbf{v}^{\prime}\right)}=\right.$ true where $\mathbf{v}^{\prime}$ differs form $\mathbf{v}$ only in the assignment of $d_{i}$ to $x_{i}$, i.e. $\left(\lambda x_{1} \ldots x_{n} \varphi\right)^{\mathcal{M}}$ is the relation consisting of all tuples of objects for which $\varphi$ is true, and
- $(\mu X \rho)^{\mathcal{M}}=\cap\left\{Q \mid \rho^{\mathcal{F}}(Q) \subseteq Q\right\}$, where $\rho^{\mathcal{F}}(Q)=\rho^{\left(S, \mathcal{I}, \mathbf{v}^{\prime}\right)}$, and $\mathbf{v}^{\prime}$ differs from $\mathbf{v}$ only in $\mathbf{v}^{\prime}(X)=Q . \mu \bar{X} \rho$ is the least fixpoint of the functional $\rho^{\mathcal{F}}$.


## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Model checking

- A term or a formula with free individual variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ is represented as a BDD and BDD variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$.
- As the variables can appear as successors in the BDDs, substitution is simple matter replacing the variable with a relation.
- The algorithm recursively evaluates the given formula with a case analysis.


## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Model checking

Problem: given a relational frame $\mathcal{F}=(S, \mathcal{I})$ and a relational term $\rho$ or a formula $\varphi$, what is the denotation of $\rho^{\mathcal{F}}$ or $\varphi^{\mathcal{F}}$.

- Model checking for finite domains is polynomial in the size of the structure.
- Assume binary domains
- BDDs are tuples $\left(\delta, i, \delta_{1}, \delta_{2}\right)$, where $\delta$ is the name of the node, $i$ is a variable from the set $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}$ and each $\delta_{j}$ is one of the constants 0 or 1 , the name of a relation variable, or the name of another BDD node.


## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Model checking

```
function BDDTerm(RelationalTerm }\rho\mathrm{ , Interpreation }\mathcal{I}):=\mathrm{ Bdd
    case }\rho\mathrm{ of
        R\in\mathcal{R}: return \mathcal{I}}(R);/*\mathrm{ pointer to BDD for R*/
        X\in\mathcal{V}: return X; /*name of }\mp@subsup{X}{}{*}
        \lambdax
        \muX\rho:r:= BDDTerm( }\rho,\mathcal{I}\mathrm{ ); return BDDIfp(r,0);
```

function $\operatorname{BDDIfp}\left(\mathrm{BDD} r, \mathrm{BDD} X^{i}\right): \mathrm{BDD}=$
$X^{i+1}:=r\left\{X:=X^{i}\right\} ;$
if $\left(X^{i+1}=X^{i}\right)$ then return $X^{i}$;
else return $\operatorname{BDDIfp}\left(r, X^{i+1}\right)$;

## Relational $\mu$-calculus: Model checking

```
function BDDForm (Formula }\varphi\mathrm{ , Interpretation I) : Bdd =
    /*Calculates the BDD of formula }\varphi\mathrm{ in the interpretation I}\mp@subsup{\mathcal{I}}{}{*
    case }\varphi\mathrm{ of
        x\in\mathcal{V}: return Ite( }x,1,0)
```



```
         return 0;
        ( }\mp@subsup{\psi}{1}{}->\mp@subsup{\psi}{2}{2}\mathrm{ ): return BDDImp(BDDForm( }\mp@subsup{\psi}{1}{},\mathcal{I}),\operatorname{BDDForm}(\mp@subsup{\psi}{2}{},\mathcal{I}))
        \existsx\varphi: return BDDExists(x,\operatorname{BDDForm( }\varphi,\mathcal{I}));
```



- The interpretation $\mathcal{I}$ of a relation is a BDD over the variables $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$.


## Bounded Model Checking: Example

We consider a three-bit shift register. We wish to verify $\mathbf{A F}(x=0)$.
The contents of the register function as state variables. The transition relation:

$$
R\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\left(x^{\prime}[0]=x[1]\right) \wedge\left(x^{\prime}[1]=x[2]\right) \wedge\left(x^{\prime}[2]=1\right)
$$

In the initial state, all registers contain 1 , as represented by the predicate $I\left(x_{i}\right)=$ $x_{i}[0]=1 \wedge x_{i}[1]=1 \wedge x_{i}[2]=1$.

We identify $x_{i}$ with vector containing a copy of the state varibles. By unrolling the transition relation we get formula

$$
f_{m} \equiv I\left(x_{0}\right) \wedge R\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right) \wedge R\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)
$$

which represents the legal paths $x_{0} x_{1} x_{2}$ of length two of the system.

## Bounded Model Checking

- For some cases the BDD-based approach to model checking does not perform very well.
- There are systems for which an exponential BDD is required to represent the system w.r.t. the number of state variables.
- An alternative approach to symbolic model checking is to encode the problem as an instance of propositional satisfiability and use state of the art satisfiability solvers to attack the problem.
- The encoding is possible for finite domains, as translating first-order logic to linear temporal logic is possible

Let $\mathcal{M}$ be a Kripke structure, $I(w)$ the initial predicate and $T(w)$ the terminal predicate.

Each state $w$ is a vector of $n$ propositional variables $w_{i}$.

The following formula $[[\mathcal{M}]]$ describes the legal maximal paths $w^{0} \ldots w^{k}$ of length $k$.

$$
[[\mathcal{M}]]=I\left(w^{0}\right) \wedge \bigwedge_{i=1}^{k} R\left(w^{i-1}, w^{i}\right) \wedge\left(T\left(w^{k}\right) \vee \bigvee_{l=0}^{k} R\left(w^{k}, w^{l}\right)\right)
$$

The path represented by $w^{0} \ldots w^{k}$ can represent infinite behaviour if it contains a loop.

## Bounded Model Checking: Example

The universal model checking problem is converted to an existential by negating the formula: $\mathbf{E G}(x \neq 0)$. Any witness to $\mathbf{G}(x \neq 0)$ must contain a loop. Thus we require that there is a transition from $x_{2}$ to itself, or to $x_{1}$ or to $x_{0}$. This transition is defined as

$$
L_{i} \equiv R\left(x_{2}, x_{i}\right)
$$

The constraint imposed by the formula is that $x \neq 0$ at each state. This can be captured by the formula

$$
S_{i} \equiv\left(x_{i}[0]=1\right) \vee\left(x_{i}[1]=1\right) \vee\left(x_{i}[2]=1\right)
$$

Putting this together we get

$$
f_{m} \wedge \bigvee_{i=0}^{2} L_{i} \wedge \bigwedge_{i=0}^{2} S_{i}
$$

This formula is satisfiable iff there is a counterexample of length 2 for the original formula $\mathbf{F}(x=0)$.

## Bounded Model Checking: Translation to Propositional Logic

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\left[\left(\varphi \mathbf{U}^{+} \psi\right)\right]\right]_{k}^{i}=} & \bigvee_{j=i+1}^{k}\left([[\psi]]_{k}^{j} \wedge \bigwedge_{m=i+1}^{j-1}[[\varphi]]_{k}^{m}\right) \vee \\
& \bigvee_{l=0}^{k}\left(\bigwedge_{m=i+1}^{k}[[\varphi]]_{k}^{m} \wedge R\left(w^{k}, w^{l}\right) \wedge \bigvee_{j=l}^{i}\left([[\psi]]_{k}^{j} \wedge \bigwedge_{m=l}^{j-1}[[\varphi]]_{k}^{m}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The translation as it has been presented here is not very efficient. By introducing translations $\mathbf{G}^{+}, \mathbf{F}^{+}$, etc. it is possible to make a more efficent translation.

## Bounded Model Checking: Translation to Propositional Logic

We define $[[\psi]]_{k}^{i}$ recursively on the structure of $\psi$. In this recursion $k$ is fixed while $i$ depends on the evaluation point. Let $k, i \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\vee_{j=l}^{k} \psi=\perp$ for $l>i$.

- $[[p]]_{k}^{i}=p\left(w^{i}\right)$
- $[\text { [ } \perp]_{k}^{i}=\perp$
- $[[(\varphi \rightarrow \psi)]]_{k}^{i}=\left([[\varphi]]_{k}^{i} \rightarrow[[\psi]]_{k}^{i}\right)$


## Partial Order Methods: Introduction

- The interleaving semantics for parallel processes causes all independent events to interleave.
- The global state space includes these interleavings.
- Partial order methods aim at only generating the neccessary part of the state space needed for the evaluation of a formula.
- Only representatives of these interleavings are generated.


## Bounded Model Checking

Theorem. There exists a maximal path of length $k$ generated by $\mathcal{M}$ which initially validates $\psi$ iff $\left([[\mathcal{M}]]_{k} \wedge[[\psi]]_{k}^{0}\right)$ is propositionally satisfiable.

- Without knowing an upperbound for $k$, bounded model checking can only be used for falsification and not proving.
- For LTL, the upperbound for $k$ is $|\mathcal{M}| \times 2^{|\psi|}$.
- It is likely that for many cases a better upper bound exists, it is however difficult to compute.


## Partial Order Methods: Stuttering Invariance

Stuttering equivalence is the concept which allows us to identify which interleavings are identical and group them into equivalence classes.

- Let $P=\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}\right\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}$. Two natural models $\mathcal{M}$ and $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ are strongly equivalent w.r.t. $P$, if they are of the same cardinality and for all $i \geq$ and all $p \in P$, $w_{i} \in \mathcal{I}(p)$ iff $w_{i}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{I}^{\prime}(p)$.
- A point $w_{i+1}$ in $\mathcal{M}$ is stuttering w.r.t. $P$, if $w_{i} \in \mathcal{I}(p)$ iff $w_{i+1} \in \mathcal{I}(p)$.
- The stutter-free kernel $\mathcal{M}^{0}$ of a model $\mathcal{M}$ is obtained by retaining all non-stuttering states of $\mathcal{M}$.


## Partial Order Methods: Introduction

- The semantics of the concurrency is not changed, but the partial order nature of events is utilized
- The partial order methods will be presented in the contex of elementary Petri nets and Linear Temporal Logic.


## Partial Order Methods: Analysis of Elementary Nets

We are given an elementary Petri net N and an LTL-X formula $\varphi$, with atomic propositions $P_{\varphi} \subseteq S$.

- Indepependence of two transition $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$
- Independent transitions must neither enable or disable each other
- Independent transitions enabled at $m$ must be able to commute
- This definition is too hard to check. We need a syntactic condition.

A subset $T_{m} \subseteq T$ is persistent in a marking $m$ iff for all $t \in T_{m}$ and all firing sequences $t_{0}, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}, t$ such that $t_{i} \notin T_{m}$, there exists a stuttering equivalent firing sequence starting with $t$.

## Partial Order Methods: Stuttering Invariance

- $\ln \mathcal{M}^{0}: w<w^{\prime}$ iff $w<w^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{M}$ or there are stuttering points $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{k}$ such that $w<w_{1}<\cdots<w_{k}<w^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{M}$.
- A formula $\varphi$ is stuttering invariant if for all stuttering equivalent models $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$, $\mathcal{M}=\varphi$ iff $\mathcal{M}^{\prime} \vDash \varphi$.
- For our reduction to work we can use only stuttering invariant formulae
- Let LTL-X the logic built from propositions $p \in \mathcal{P}$, boolean connectives $\perp, \rightarrow$ and the reflexive unitil operator $\mathbf{U}^{*}$

Lemma. Any LTL-X formula is stuttering invariant.
Theorem Any LTL formula which is stuttering invariant is expressible in LTL-X.

## Partial Order Methods: Analysis of Elementary Nets

Let $t_{f}$ be an enabled transition in $m$ and $t$ a disabled transition.

- $N E C(t, m)=\left\{t^{\prime} \mid p \in t^{\prime} \bullet\right\}$, for some $p \in(\bullet t \backslash m)$.
- $N E C^{*}(t, m)=$ transitive closure of $N E C(t, m)$.
- If $t$ is disabled in $m, t$ cannot fire before some transition in $N E C^{*}(t, m)$ fire.
- A transition is visible for $\varphi$ if $(\bullet t \cup t \bullet) \cap P_{\varphi} \neq \emptyset$.
- The conflict of $t$ is defined as $C(t)=\left\{t^{\prime} \mid \bullet t^{\prime} \cap \bullet t \neq \emptyset\right\} \cup\{t\}$.


## Partial Order Methods: Analysis of Elementary Nets

If $T_{m}$ is persistent at $m$, we do not need to consider transitions outside $T_{m}$, as there will be a stuttering equivalent sequence starting with $t \in T_{m}$.

- The previous definition is still not efficient. No way of efficiently computing a minimal persistent set (NP-hard?).
- We approximate using heuristics.

IDEA: We start with $T_{m}=t$. Then we add all transitions which can "interfere" with some transition in $T_{m}$.

Interfere means either the transition cannot commute with some transition in $T_{m}$ or it enables or disables a transition in $T_{m}$

## Partial Order Methods: Analysis of Elementary Nets

Theorem. For any firing sequence $\rho$ of the net there exists a firing sequence $\rho^{\prime}$ generated only by firing the enabled ready transitions such that $\rho$ and $\rho^{\prime}$ are equivalent w.r.t. all LTL-X safety properties.

- The procedure could be extended to liveness properties by making sure a different set is generated, if a marking is reached again.
- Can at best result in an exponential reduction.
- Worst case complexity cubic in the size of the net. Average example's complexity is linear.


## Partial Order Methods: Analysis of Elementary Nets

- The extended conflict of $t$ is $C(t)$ if $t$ is invisible; otherwise it is $C(t)$ and all other visible transitions.
- A dependent set $\operatorname{DEP}\left(t_{f}, m\right)$ of $t_{f}$ is any set of transitions such that for any $t$ in the extended conflict of $t_{f}$, there exists a set $N E C(t, m) \subseteq D E P\left(t_{f}, m\right)$.
- Transitions which are fired should be transitively closed under dependency.
- $R E A D Y(m)$ is any nonempty set of transitions s.t. $D E P\left(t_{f}, m\right) \subseteq R E A D Y(m)$, if $t_{f} \in R E A D Y(m)$.

