# Kapitel 6: Model Checking durch Auffalten

Symbolic Model Checking An approach to the state explosion problem

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Model Checking - Kapitel 6 - Teil 1

## Contents

1	Intr	oducti	on	11
	1.1	Backg	round $\ldots$	12
		1.1.1	Temporal logic	12
		1.1.2	Automata theoretic models	14
	1.2	Scope	of the thesis $\ldots$ $\ldots$ $\ldots$ $\ldots$ $\ldots$ $\ldots$	16
	1.3	Relate	$ed research \dots \dots$	18
		1.3.1	Reduction	18
		1.3.2	Induction	20
		1.3.3	Other symbolic methods	20
<b>2</b>	Syn	nbolic 1	model checking	23
	2.1	Tempo	oral logic	25
		2.1.1	Linear time	26
		2.1.2	Discrete time	27
		2.1.3	Branching time	27
	2.2	The te	emporal logic CTL	29
		2.2.1	Syntax and semantics of CTL	29
		2.2.2	Fixed point characterization of CTL	30
	2.3	Symbo	blic CTL model checking	35
		2.3.1	Quantified Boolean formulas	35
		2.3.2	Representing sets and relations	36
		2.3.3	CTL formulas	38
		2.3.4	Binary Decision Diagrams	40
	2.4	Exam	ples	49
		2.4.1	Synchronous state machines	49
		2.4.2	Asynchronous state machines	54
	2.5	Graph	width and OBDDs	62
			7	I

Effective methods to combat state explosion became the hot topic of research – but meanwhile model checking methods were being applied to a number of real systems, with success, finding deepseated bugs in them! In [14, 13], Bryant published many seminal results pertaining to binary decision diagrams (BDD) and following his popularization of BDDs in the area of hardware verification, McMillan [83] wrote his very influential dissertation on *symbolic model checking*. This is one line of work that truly made model checking feasible for certain "well structured," very large state spaces, found in hardware modeling. The industry now employs BDDs in symbolic trajectory evaluation methods (e.g., [2]).

6	Ар	artial order approach	171
	6.1	The unfolding operation	. 172
	6.2	Application example	. 182
	6.3	Deadlock and occurrence nets	. 185
	6.4	Relation to AI techniques	. 189
	6.5	Evaluation	. 190

K.L. McMillan: A Technique of a state space Search Based on Unfolding Formal Methods in System Deergy 6(1985)1, 45-65 a) Petri net b) Unfolded to occurrence net Fig. 1. Unfolding example. 3







n	unfolding size (transitions)	reachable states
2	9	22
3	13	100 .
4	.17	466
5	21	2164

J. Engelfriet: Branching processes of Petri webs. Acta Informatica 28 (1981) 575-591 J. Esparza : Model Checking Using Net Unfoldup Science of computer Programming 23(1994) 151-195 J. Esparza, S. Römer, W. Vogler: An Improvement of Mc Millan's Unfolding Algorithm T. Margaria, B. Sheffer (eal). Tools and Alg. for the Canstruction and Analysis of Septems, LNCS 1055, pp 87-106 \$1

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Unfoldings A Partial-Order Approach to Model Checking

Javier Esparza Keijo Heljanko

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## **Transition Systems and Products**

In this chapter we introduce transition systems as a formal model of sequential systems, and synchronous products of transition systems as a model of concurrent systems.

#### 2.1 Transition Systems

A transition system is a tuple  $\mathcal{A} = \langle S, T, \alpha, \beta, is \rangle$ , where

- S is a set of *states*,
- T is a set of *transitions*,
- $\alpha: T \to S$  associates with each transition its *source* state,
- $\beta: T \to S$  associates with each transition its *target* state, and
- $is \in S$  is the *initial state*.

*Example 2.1.* Figure 2.1 shows a transition system  $\mathcal{A} = \langle S, T, \alpha, \beta, is \rangle$  where  $S = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4\}, T = \{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, t_5\}$ , and  $is = s_1$ . We have for instance  $\alpha(t_1) = s_1$  and  $\beta(t_1) = s_2$ .



Fig. 2.1. A transition system

We call a finite or infinite sequence of transitions a transition word or just a word. Given a transition t, we call the triple  $\langle \alpha(t), t, \beta(t) \rangle$  a step of  $\mathcal{A}$ . A state *s* enables a transition *t* if there is a state *s'* such that  $\langle s, t, s' \rangle$  is a step. A (possibly empty) transition word  $t_1t_2...t_k$  is a computation of  $\mathcal{A}$ if there is a sequence  $s_0s_1...s_k$  of states such that  $\langle s_{i-1}, t_i, s_i \rangle$  is a step for every  $i \in \{1, ..., k\}$ ;<sup>1</sup> we say that the computation starts at  $s_0$  and leads to  $s_k$ . A computation is a history if  $s_0 = is$ , i.e., if it can be executed from the initial state. An infinite word  $t_1t_2...$  is an infinite computation of  $\mathcal{A}$  if there is an infinite sequence  $s_0, s_1, ...$  of states such that  $\langle s_{i-1}, t_i, s_i \rangle$  is a step for every  $i \geq 1$ , and an infinite history if moreover  $s_0 = is$ .

If h is a history leading to a state s and c is a computation that can be executed from s, then hc is also a history. We then say that h can be extended by c.

## 2.2 Products of Transition Systems

Let  $\mathcal{A}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_n$  be transition systems, where  $\mathcal{A}_i = \langle S_i, T_i, \alpha_i, \beta_i, is_i \rangle$ . A synchronization constraint **T** is a subset of the set

$$(T_1 \cup \{\epsilon\}) \times \cdots \times (T_n \cup \{\epsilon\}) \setminus \{\langle \epsilon, \dots, \epsilon \rangle\}$$

where  $\epsilon$  is an special symbol intended to denote inaction (idling). The elements of **T** are called *global transitions*. If  $\mathbf{t} = \langle t_1, \ldots, t_n \rangle$  and  $t_i \neq \epsilon$ , then we say that  $\mathcal{A}_i$  participates in  $\mathbf{t}$ .<sup>2</sup> The tuple  $\mathbf{A} = \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_n, \mathbf{T} \rangle$  is called the *product* of  $\mathcal{A}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_n$  under **T**.  $\mathcal{A}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_n$  are the *components* of **A**.

Intuitively, a global transition  $\mathbf{t} = \langle t_1, \ldots, t_n \rangle$  models a possible move of  $\mathcal{A}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_n$ . If  $t_i = \epsilon$ , then  $\mathbf{t}$  can occur without  $\mathcal{A}_i$  even "noticing".

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This is the reason why  $\langle \epsilon, \ldots, \epsilon \rangle$  is excluded from the set of global transitions: at least one component must participate in every global transition.

*Example 2.2.* Figure 2.2 shows a product of transition systems with two components and seven global transitions. The first component participates in five of them, and the second component in four.



A global state of **A** is a tuple  $\mathbf{s} = \langle s_1, \ldots, s_n \rangle$ , where  $s_i \in S_i$  for every  $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ . The *initial global state* is the tuple  $\mathbf{is} = \langle is_1, \ldots, is_n \rangle$ .

A step of **A** is a triple  $\langle \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{s}' \rangle$ , where  $\mathbf{s} = \langle s_1, \ldots, s_n \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{s}' = \langle s'_1, \ldots, s'_n \rangle$ are global states and  $\mathbf{t} = \langle t_1, \ldots, t_n \rangle$  is a global transition satisfying the following conditions for all  $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ :

- if  $t_i \neq \epsilon$ , then  $s'_i = \beta_i(t_i)$  and  $s_i = \alpha(t_i)$ ; and
- if  $t_i = \epsilon$ , then  $s'_i = s_i$ .

We say that **s** enables **t** if there is a global state **s'** such that  $\langle \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{s'} \rangle$  is a step.



*Example 2.3.* Consider the product of Fig. 2.2. The initial global state is  $\langle s_1, r_1 \rangle$ . The global transition word  $\langle t_1, \epsilon \rangle \langle \epsilon, u_1 \rangle \langle t_3, u_2 \rangle$  is a global computation, because of the following three steps:

$$\begin{array}{l} \left\langle \left\langle s_{1}, r_{1} \right\rangle, \left\langle t_{1}, \epsilon \right\rangle, \left\langle s_{2}, r_{1} \right\rangle \right\rangle, \\ \left\langle \left\langle s_{2}, r_{1} \right\rangle, \left\langle \epsilon, u_{1} \right\rangle, \left\langle s_{2}, r_{2} \right\rangle \right\rangle, \text{ and} \\ \left\langle \left\langle s_{2}, r_{2} \right\rangle, \left\langle t_{3}, u_{2} \right\rangle, \left\langle s_{4}, r_{3} \right\rangle \right\rangle. \end{array}$$

The sequence  $\langle t_1, \epsilon \rangle \langle t_3, u_1 \rangle$  is not a global computation, because  $\langle t_3, u_1 \rangle$  is not a global transition.

Model Checking - Kapitel 6 - Teil 1

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The Petri net representation of a product  $\mathbf{A} = \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n, \mathbf{T} \rangle$  of transition systems  $\mathcal{A}_i = \langle S_i, T_i, \alpha_i, \beta_i, is_i \rangle$  is the Petri net  $(P, T, F, M_0)$  given by:

• 
$$P = S_1 \cup \ldots \cup S_n, {}^4$$

•  $T = \mathbf{T}$ ,

• 
$$F = \{(s, \mathbf{t}) \mid t_i \neq \epsilon \text{ and } s = \alpha_i(t_i) \text{ for some } i \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{(\mathbf{t}, s) \mid t_i \neq \epsilon \text{ and } s = \beta_i(t_i) \text{ for some } i \in \{1, \dots, n\}\},$$
  
where  $t_i$  denotes the *i*-th component of  $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbf{T}$ ; and

• 
$$M_0 = \{is_1, \dots, is_n\}.$$



Formally, the *interleaving semantics* of a product  $\mathbf{A} = \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n, \mathbf{T} \rangle$  is the transition system  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbf{A}} = \langle S, T, \alpha, \beta, is \rangle$ , where

- S is the set of global states of  $\mathbf{A}$ ,
- T is the set of steps  $\langle \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{s}' \rangle$  of  $\mathbf{A}$ ,
- for every step  $\langle \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{s}' \rangle \in T$ :  $\alpha(\langle \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{s}' \rangle) = \mathbf{s}$  and  $\beta(\langle \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{s}' \rangle) = \mathbf{s}'$ ; and
- is = is.

Observe that  $|S| = \prod_{i=1}^{n} |S_i|$ , and so the interleaving semantics of **A** can be exponentially larger than **A**, even if we consider only the states that are reachable from the initial state.



3

## **Unfolding Products**



Fig. 3.1. The transition system of Fig. 2.1 (a) and its unfolding (b) as a transition system

We now address the question of how to unfold a product. The answer is easy if we take the interleaving representation of products as defined in Sect. 2.4: The unfolding of a product **A** can be defined as the unfolding of the transition system  $T_{\mathbf{A}}$ . However, in this book we investigate a different notion of unfolding, which corresponds to taking the Petri net representation of products. In Sect. 3.1 we introduce, first intuitively and then formally, the notion of *branching processes*, and the notion of *the unfolding* of a product as the "largest" branching process. In Sect. 3.2 we present some basic properties of branching processes. Section 3.3 explains why unfolding-based verification can be more efficient than verification based on the interleaving representation of products. Section 3.4 discusses the algorithmic problem of computing the unfolding. Section 3.5 introduces the notion of a search procedure for solving a verification problem. Finally, Sect. 3.6 sets the plan for the next chapters.





**Convention 1.** In order to avoid confusion, it is convenient to use different names for the transitions of a transition system or product of transition systems, and for the transitions of its unfolding. We call the transitions of an unfolding events. An event corresponds to a particular occurrence of a transition. In the figures we use the natural numbers  $1, 2, 3, \ldots$  as event names.

**Definition 3.2.** The union  $\bigcup N$  of a (finite or infinite) set N of Petri nets is defined as the Petri net

$$\bigcup N = \left(\bigcup_{(P,E,F,M_0)\in N} P, \bigcup_{(P,E,F,M_0)\in N} E, \bigcup_{(P,E,F,M_0)\in N} F, \bigcup_{(P,E,F,M_0)\in N} M_0\right).$$



We solve this problem by introducing a canonical way of naming nodes. Loosely speaking, an event labeled by a global transition  $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbf{T}$  is given the name  $(\mathbf{t}, X)$ , where X is the set containing the names of the input places of the event. Similarly, a place labeled by a local state  $s \in S_i$  is given the name  $(s, \{x\})$ , where x is the name of the unique input event of the place. We say that  $(\mathbf{t}, X)$  and  $(s, \{x\})$  are the *canonical names* of the nodes.



Formally, given a product  $\mathbf{A} = \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_n, \mathbf{T} \rangle$  we define the set  $\mathcal{C}$  of *canonical names* as the smallest set satisfying the following property: if  $x \in S_1 \cup \ldots \cup S_n \cup \mathbf{T}$  and X is a finite subset of  $\mathcal{C}$ , then  $(x, X) \in \mathcal{C}$ . We call x the *label* of (x, X), and say that (x, X) is *labeled* by x. Notice that  $\mathcal{C}$  is nonempty, because  $(x, \emptyset)$  belongs to  $\mathcal{C}$  for every  $x \in S_1 \cup \ldots \cup S_n \cup \mathbf{T}$ .

**Definition 3.4.** A C-Petri net is a Petri net  $(P, E, F, M_0)$  such that:

 $(1) P \cup E \subseteq C,$   $(2) if (x, X) \in P \cup E, then X = \bullet(x, X); and$   $(3) for every (x, X) \in P, (x, X) \in M_0 \text{ if and only if } X = \emptyset.$   $(s_1, \emptyset) \quad (r_1, \emptyset)$   $\mathcal{N}_1: \qquad \bullet \quad \bullet$   $(\langle t_1, \epsilon \rangle, \{(s_1, \emptyset)\})$   $(s_2, \{(\langle t_1, \epsilon \rangle, \{(s_1, \emptyset)\})\})$ 

26

**Definition 3.5.** The set of branching processes of a product  $\mathbf{A}$  is the smallest set of C-Petri nets satisfying the following conditions:

- (1) Let  $Is = \{(is_1, \emptyset), \dots, (is_n, \emptyset)\}$ , where  $\{is_1, \dots, is_n\}$  is the set of initial states of the components of **A**. The C-Petri net having Is as set of places and no events is a branching process of **A**.
- (2) Let  $\mathcal{N}$  be a branching process of  $\mathbf{A}$  such that some reachable marking of  $\mathcal{N}$  enables a global transition  $\mathbf{t}$ . Let M be the set containing the places of the marking that are labeled by  ${}^{\bullet}\mathbf{t}$ . The C-Petri net obtained by adding to  $\mathcal{N}$  the event  $(\mathbf{t}, M)$  and one place  $(s, \{(\mathbf{t}, M)\})$  for every  $s \in \mathbf{t}^{\bullet}$  is also a branching process of  $\mathcal{N}$ . We call the event  $(\mathbf{t}, M)$  a possible extension of  $\mathcal{N}$ .
- (3) If B is a (finite or infinite) set of branching processes of A, then so is  $\bigcup B$ .  $(s_1, \emptyset)$   $(r_1, \emptyset)$



In particular, Prop. 3.7 implies the existence of a very tight relation between the histories of a product **A** and the occurrence sequences of its unfolding. In order to formulate this result, we extend the labeling function  $\lambda$ to sequences of events. Given a finite or infinite sequence  $\sigma = e_0 e_1 e_2 \dots$ , we define  $\lambda(\sigma) = \lambda(e_0) \lambda(e_1) \lambda(e_2) \dots$ 

**Corollary 3.9.** (a) If  $\sigma$  is a (finite or infinite) occurrence sequence of the unfolding, then  $\lambda(\sigma)$  is a history of **A**.

(b) If **h** is a history of **A**, then some occurrence sequence of the unfolding satisfies  $\lambda(\sigma) = \mathbf{h}$ .

## **3.2 Some Properties of Branching Processes**

We list some properties of branching processes. They can all be easily proved by structural induction on the definition of branching processes, and in most cases we only sketch their proofs.

**Definition 3.10.** A place of an unfolding is an *i*-place if it is labeled by a state of the *i*th component. The *i*-root is the unique *i*-place having no input events. An event is an *i*-event if it is labeled by a global transition  $\langle t_1, \ldots, t_n \rangle$  such that  $t_i \neq \epsilon$ . In other words, an event is an *i*-event if the *i*th component participates in the global transition it is labeled with.

**Proposition 3.11.** Let  $\mathcal{N}$  be a branching process of  $\mathbf{A}$ . Then:

- (1)  $\mathcal{N}$  has no cycles, i.e., no (nonempty) path of arcs leads from a node to itself.
- (2) For every  $i \in \{1, \ldots n\}$ , every reachable marking of  $\mathcal{N}$  puts a token in exactly one *i*-place.
- (3) The set of *i*-nodes of the branching process  $\mathcal{N}$  forms a tree with the *i*-root as root. Moreover, the tree only branches at places, *i.e.*, if a node of the tree has more than one child, then it is a place.
- (4) A place of  $\mathcal{N}$  can get marked at most once (i.e., if along an occurrence sequence it becomes marked and then unmarked, then it never becomes marked again), and an event of  $\mathcal{N}$  can occur at most once in an occurrence sequence.



## 3.2.2 Causality, Conflict, and Concurrency

**Definition 3.13.** Let x and y be two nodes of an unfolding.

- We say that x is a causal predecessor of y, denoted by x < y, if there is a (non-empty) path of arcs from x to y; as usual we denote by  $x \le y$  that either x < y or x = y; two nodes x and y are causally related if  $x \le y$  or  $x \ge y$ .
- We say that x and y are in conflict, denoted by x # y, if there is a place z, different from x and y, from which one can reach x and y, exiting z by different arcs.
- We say that x and y are concurrent, denoted by x co y, if x and y are neither causally related nor in conflict.

**Proposition 3.14.** Let  $\mathcal{N}$  be a branching process of  $\mathbf{A}$  and let P be a set of places of  $\mathcal{N}$ . There is a reachable marking M of  $\mathcal{N}$  such that  $P \subseteq M$  if and only if the places of P are pairwise concurrent.

- **Proposition 3.15.** (1) For every two nodes x, y of a branching process exactly one of the following holds: (a) x and y are causally related, (b) x and y are in conflict, (c) x and y are concurrent.
- (2) If x and y are causally related and  $x \neq y$ , then either x < y or y < x, but not both.

#### **3.2.3** Configurations

A realization of a set of events is an occurrence sequence of the branching process in which each event of the set occurs exactly once, and no other events occur. A set of events can have zero, one, or more realizations. For instance, the sets  $\{1,2\}$  and  $\{4,6\}$  in Fig. 3.3 on p. 17 have no realizations (for the latter, recall that occurrence sequences start at the initial marking, which enables neither event 4 nor event 6), and the set  $\{1,3,4,7\}$  has two realizations, namely the sequences 1 3 4 7 and 3 1 4 7.



**Definition 3.17.** A set of events of an unfolding is a configuration if it has at least one realization.

**Proposition 3.18.** Let  $\mathcal{N}$  be a branching process of a product  $\mathbf{A}$  and let E be a set of events of  $\mathcal{N}$ .

- (1) E is a configuration if and only if it is causally closed, i.e., if  $e \in E$ and e' < e then  $e' \in E$ , and conflict-free, i.e., no two events of E are in conflict.
- (2) All the realizations of a finite configuration lead to the same reachable marking of  $\mathcal{N}$ .



We wish to know if the global transition  $\mathbf{c} = \langle c_0, \ldots, c_4 \rangle$  is executable.



The transition system has 24 global states and 40 transitions,

while the unfolding has 11 places and five events.

## bei n Transitionen:

2n+1 places and n events.

Model Checking - Kapitel 6 - Teil 1 transition system has  $3 \cdot 2^{n-2}$  global states 37

**Proposition 3.21.** Let  $\mathcal{N}$  be a branching process of a product  $\mathbf{A}$ , and let  $\mathbf{t}$  be a global transition of  $\mathbf{A}$ . Deciding whether  $\mathcal{N}$  can be extended with an event labeled by  $\mathbf{t}$  is NP-complete.

*Proof.* For membership in NP we guess a global transition  $\mathbf{t}$  and a set of places of the unfolding  $M = \{p_1, \ldots, p_k\}$  labeled by  ${}^{\bullet}\mathbf{t} = \{s_1, \ldots, s_k\}$ , and check in polynomial time, using the procedure sketched above, that its input places are pairwise concurrent. After this we still need to check in polynomial time that no event exists in the unfolding labeled with  $\mathbf{t}$  and having preset M to ensure the event is a proper extension of the unfolding.

We prove NP-hardness by a reduction from CNF-3SAT formula over variables  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ . A literal is either a variable  $x_i$  or its negation  $\overline{x}_i$ . Let  $F = C_1 \wedge C_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge C_m$  be a CNF-3SAT formula, where each conjunct  $C_j$ is a disjunction of at most three literals. We construct in polynomial time a product **F** of transition systems defined as follows:



Consider now the prefix of the unfolding of  $\mathbf{F}$  obtained by removing from the full unfolding all events labeled by **sat**. This prefix can be easily constructed in polynomial time in the size of  $\mathbf{F}$  because all global transitions (except for **sat**) have a bounded synchronization degree. The prefix can be extended with an event labeled by **sat** if and only if the formula F is satisfiable.

## **3.5 Search Procedures**

In this book we consider verification questions of the form: "Does the system have a (possibly infinite) history satisfying a given property?" Our computational approach consists of computing larger and larger prefixes of the unfolding, until we have enough information to answer the question. The prefixes are generated by *search procedures*.

A search procedure consists of a *search scheme* and a *search strategy*. The search strategy determines, given the current prefix of the unfolding, which event should be added to it next. Notice that a strategy may be nondeterministic, i.e., it may decide that any element out of the set of possible extensions should be added next. Depth-first and breadth-first are typical strategies for transition systems. The search scheme depends on the property we are interested in. It determines which leaves of the prefix need not be explored further, and whether the search is successful. More precisely, a search scheme consists of two parts:

- A *termination condition* determining which leaves of the current prefix are *terminals*, i.e., nodes whose causal successors need not to be explored.<sup>5</sup>
- A success condition determining which terminals are successful, i.e., terminals proving that the property holds.

**procedure** unfold(product **A**) {  $\mathcal{N} :=$  unique branching process of **A** without events: T the set of terminal events  $T := \emptyset; S := \emptyset; X := Ext(\mathcal{N}, T);$ while  $(X \neq \emptyset)$  { S set of successful choose an event  $e \in X$  according to the search strategy; extend  $\mathcal{N}$  with e: if e is a terminal according to the search scheme then {  $T := T \cup \{e\};$ if e is successful according to the search scheme then {  $S := S \cup \{e\}; /*$  A successful terminal found \*/ }; };  $X := Ext(\mathcal{N}, T);$ }; return  $\langle \mathcal{N}, T, S \rangle$ ; };



 $Ext(\mathcal{N}, T)$  denotes the set of events that can be added to  $\mathcal{N}$  according to Def. 3.5 on p. 18 and have no causal predecessor in the set of terminal events T.

Given a product  $\mathbf{A}$  and a terminating search procedure P, the *final prefix* is the prefix generated by P on input  $\mathbf{A}$  after termination. The final prefix is *successful* if it contains at least one successful terminal. Given a property  $\phi$ , a terminating procedure P is *complete* if the final prefix it generates is successful for every product  $\mathbf{A}$  satisfying  $\phi$ , and *sound* if every product  $\mathbf{A}$  such that the final prefix is successful satisfies  $\phi$ .

The ultimate goal of this book is to present a search procedure for model checking a product  $\mathbf{A}$  against arbitrary properties expressed in Linear Temporal Logic (LTL), a popular specification language.<sup>6</sup> The search procedure is presented in Chap. 8. It is based on search procedures for three central verification problems which are also interesting on their own:

- The executability problem: Given a set  $\mathbf{G} \subseteq \mathbf{T}$  of global transitions, can some transition of  $\mathbf{G}$  ever be executed, i.e., is there a global history whose last event is labeled by an element of  $\mathbf{G}$ ?
- The repeated executability problem: Given a set  $\mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{T}$  of global transitions, can some transition of  $\mathbf{R}$  be executed infinitely often, i.e., is there an infinite global history containing infinitely many events labeled by transitions of  $\mathbf{R}$ ?
- **The livelock problem**: Given a partitioning of the global transitions into *visible* and *invisible*, and given a set  $\mathbf{L} \subseteq \mathbf{T}$  of visible transitions, is there an infinite global history in which a transition of  $\mathbf{L}$  occurs, followed by an infinite sequence of invisible transitions?

**Theorem 3.24.** The executability, repeated executability, and livelock problems are PSPACE-complete for products.

*Proof.* (Sketch.) We only consider the executability problem, since the proof for the other two problems is similar. To prove membership in PSPACE we observe first that, since NPSPACE=PSPACE by Savitch's theorem (see, e.g., [98]), it suffices to provide a nondeterministic algorithm for the problem using only polynomial space. The algorithm uses a variable  $\mathbf{v}$  to store one global state; initially,  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{is}$ . While  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{s}$ , the algorithm repeatedly selects a global transition  $\mathbf{t}$  enabled at  $\mathbf{v}$ , computes the global state  $\mathbf{s}'$  such that  $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{s}' \rangle$ , and sets  $\mathbf{v} := \mathbf{s}'$ . If at some point  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{s}$ , the algorithm stops and outputs the result "reachable". Obviously, the algorithm only needs linear space.

PSPACE-hardness is proved by reduction from the following problem: given a polynomially space-bounded Turing machine M and an input x, does M accept x? We assume w.l.o.g. that M has one single accepting state  $q_f$ .

Let p(n) be the polynomial limiting the number of tape cells that M uses on an input of length n. We construct a product  $\mathbf{A} = \langle \mathcal{A}_Q, \mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_{p(|x|)}, \mathbf{T} \rangle$ . The component  $\mathcal{A}_Q$  contains one state  $s_q$  for each control state q of M. The intended meaning of  $s_q$  is that the machine M is currently in state q. For every  $i \in \{1, \ldots, p(|x|)\}$  and for every tape symbol a of M, the component  $\mathcal{A}_i$  contains two states  $s_{\langle a,0\rangle}$  and  $s_{\langle a,1\rangle}$ . The intended meaning of  $s_{\langle a,0\rangle}$  is: the *i*th tape cell currently contains the symbol a, and the head of M is not reading the cell. The intended meaning of  $s_{\langle a,1\rangle}$  is: the *i*th tape cell currently contains the symbol a, and the head of M is reading the cell. The initial states of the component are chosen according to the initial configuration of M: the initial state of  $\mathcal{A}_Q$  is  $s_{q_0}$ , where  $q_0$  is the initial state of M; the initial state of component  $\mathcal{A}_1$  is  $s_{\langle x_1,1\rangle}$ , where  $x_1$  is the first letter of the input x; and so on. The transitions of the components and the synchronization vector **T** are chosen so that the execution of a global transition of **A** corresponds to a move of M. Additionally, the component  $\mathcal{A}_q$  has a transition  $t_f$  with  $s_{q_f}$  as both source and target state, and **T** contains a synchronization vector  $\mathbf{t}_f = \langle t_f, \epsilon, \dots, \epsilon \rangle.$ 

Clearly, M halts for input x if and only if the instance of the executability problem for  $\mathbf{A}$  given by  $\mathbf{G} = {\mathbf{t}_f}$  has a positive answer.

46