A Partial Approach to Model Checking^{*} (Extended Abstract)

Patrice Godefroid

Pierre Wolper

Institut Montefiore, B28 Université de Liège 4000 Liège Sart-Tilman, Belgium Email: {god,pw}@montefiore.ulg.ac.be

Abstract

This paper presents a model-checking method for linear-time temporal logic that avoids the state explosion due to the modelling of concurrency by interleaving. The method relies on the concept of Mazurkiewicz's trace as a semantic basis and uses automata-theoretic techniques, including automata that operate on words of ordinality higher than ω .

1 Introduction

Model Checking [13, 29, 35, 44] is an effective and simple method for verifying that a concurrent program satisfies a temporal logic formula. It works on finitestate programs and proceeds by viewing the program as a structure for interpreting temporal logic and by evaluating the formula on that structure. It is much simpler than temporal deductive proofs and can be easily and effectively implemented.

It has been intensively studied for linear-time temporal logic [29, 44, 43] branching-time temporal logic [13, 19, 18, 6] and temporal μ -calculi [20, 42, 14, 37]. It has been extended to probabilistic [41, 33, 44, 17] as well as real-time programs and logics [2, 3, 25]. It has been adapted to programs containing arbitrary numbers of identical processes [12, 11, 21, 47, 28]. Methods for making it applicable to very large systems have been investigated [10, 15, 16, 23]. Moreover, the results from its experimental use have been very encouraging [36, 5]. What more can be said about it?

In spite of all its success, almost all work around model checking is based on a very wasteful idea: modelling concurrency by interleaving. Even if one is not inclined to loose sleep about whether interleaving semantics are adequate for concurrency, it remains unarguably silly to investigate the concurrent execution of n events by exploring all n! interleavings of these events!

In this paper, we develop a simple method for applying model checking without incurring the cost of modelling concurrency by interleaving. Our method yields results identical to those of methods based on interleaving semantics, it just avoids most of the associated combinatorial explosion. It is quite orthogonal to model checking based on partial-order logics [32, 27, 31]. Indeed, these logics are designed to be semantically more powerful. We are "only" more efficient. The idea that the cost of modelling concurrency by interleaving can be avoided in finite-state verification already appears in [34, 39, 40, 22]. We build upon this earlier work, specifically that of [22], and bring to it the full capabilities of model checking.

We study model checking for linear-time temporal logic and adopt the automata-theoretic approach of [44, 42, 46]. In this approach, the program is viewed as a collection of communicating automata on infinite words [7]. It can thus include arbitrary fairness conditions. The negation of the formula to be checked is then also converted to an automaton on infinite words and the verification can be done by simply checking that the product of the automata describing the program and the automaton corresponding to the negation of the formula is nonempty. This is traditionally done by computing the product automaton which is where the cost of modelling concurrency by interleaving has to be paid.

In [22] it is shown that the global behavior of a set of communicating processes can be represented by an automaton which can be much smaller than the usual product automaton. The basic idea is to build an automaton that only accepts one interleaving of

 $^{^{*}\}mathrm{This}$ work is supported by the Esprit Basic Research Action SPEC (3096).

each concurrent execution. The method is justified by using partial-order semantics, namely the concept of Mazurkiewicz's trace [30] and the automaton is thus called a *trace automaton*. A trace automaton can be viewed as an automaton accepting at least one, but usually no more than one, interleaving for each *trace* (concurrent computation) of the concurrent program. Thus, together with the independence relation on transitions, this automaton fully represents the concurrent executions of the program. The practical benefit is that this automaton can be much smaller than the automaton representing all interleavings.

The motivating idea behind the method presented here is that, in the automata-theoretic approach to model checking, the trace automaton could be used in place of the product automaton. Unfortunately, this is not directly the case. However, we are able to obtain such a result by using a new type of automaton.

We consider automata operating on infinite words of ordinality higher than ω . Precisely, we define automata operating on words of length $\omega \times n$, $n \in \omega$.¹ We study these automata and give an efficient algorithm to check whether such automata are nonempty. We then show that, when it is viewed as an $\omega \times n$ automaton, the trace automaton can be substituted for the product automaton in linear-time model checking. The efficiency of the method of [22] is thus fully available for model checking.

Finally, we conclude the paper with a comparison between our contributions and related work.

2 Automata and Model Checking

We briefly recall the essential elements of the automata-theoretic approach to model checking. More details can be found in [44, 46] and in Chapter 4 of [38]. The problem we consider is the following. We are given a concurrent program P composed of n processes P_i , each described by a finite automaton A_i on countably infinite words over an alphabet Σ_i . We are also given a linear-time propositional temporal logic formula f. The model-checking problem is then to verify that all infinite behaviors of the program P satisfy the temporal formula f.

The automata we use for describing the processes P_i are generalized Büchi automata², i.e. tuples $A = (\Sigma, S, \Delta, s_0, \mathcal{F})$, where

- Σ is an alphabet,
- S is a set of states,
- $\Delta \subseteq S \times \Sigma \times S$ is a transition relation,
- $s_0 \in S$ is the starting state, and
- $\mathcal{F} = \{F_1, \dots, F_k\} \subseteq 2^S$ is a set of sets of accepting states.

Generalized Büchi automata are used to define languages of ω -words, i.e. functions from the ordinal ω to the alphabet Σ . Intuitively, a word is accepted by a Generalized Büchi automaton if the automaton has an infinite execution that intersects infinitely often each of the sets $F_j \in \mathcal{F}$.

Formally, we define the concept of a run of A over an ω -word, i.e. a function from the ordinal ω to the alphabet Σ . A run σ of A over an ω -word $w = a_1 a_2 \dots$ is an ω -sequence $\sigma = s_0, s_1, \dots$ (i.e. a function from ω to S) where $(s_{i-1}, a_i, s_i) \in \Delta$, for all $i \geq 1$. A run $\sigma = s_0, s_1, \dots$ is accepting if, for each $F_j \in \mathcal{F}$, there is some state in F_j that repeats infinitely often, i.e. for some $s \in F_j$ there are infinitely many $i \in \omega$ such that $s_i = s$. The ω -word w is accepted by A if there is an accepting run of A over w. The set of ω -words accepted by A is denoted $L_{\omega}(A)$.

An automaton A_P representing the joint behavior of the processes P_i can be computed by taking the product of the automata describing each process, actions that appear in several processes are synchronized, others are interleaved. Formally, the product (\times) of two (generalization to the product of *n* automata is immediate) generalized Büchi automata $A_1 =$ $(\Sigma_1, S_1, \Delta_1, s_{01}, \mathcal{F}_1)$ and $A_2 = (\Sigma_2, S_2, \Delta_2, s_{02}, \mathcal{F}_2)$ is the automaton $A = (\Sigma, S, \Delta, s_0, \mathcal{F})$ defined by

- $\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$,
- $S = S_1 \times S_2, s_0 = (s_{01}, s_{02}),$
- $\mathcal{F} = \bigcup_{F_j \in \mathcal{F}_1} \{F_j \times S_2\} \cup \bigcup_{F_j \in \mathcal{F}_2} \{S_1 \times F_j\}$
- $((s,t), a, (u,v)) \in \Delta$ when
 - $a \in \Sigma_1 \cap \Sigma_2 \text{ and } (s, a, u) \in \Delta_1 \text{ and } (t, a, v) \in \Delta_2,$ $- a \in \Sigma_1 \setminus \Sigma_2 \text{ and } (s, a, u) \in \Delta_1 \text{ and } v = t,$ $- a \in \Sigma_2 \setminus \Sigma_1 \text{ and } u = s \text{ and } (t, a, v) \in \Delta_2.$

Note that with this definition, the product automaton can have an infinite accepting computation that corresponds to a finite computation of some (but not all) of

¹Interestingly, a related type of automata on ordinals was used by Büchi [9, 8] to study the decidability of the monadic theory of the ordinals.

 $^{^{2}}$ Generalized Büchi automata differ from Büchi automata [7] in that they have a set of sets of accepting states rather than just one set of accepting states.

its components. Indeed, if a component *i* has a state *s* such that $s \in F_j$ for all $F_j \in \mathcal{F}_i$, then an infinite computation of the product in which component *i* stays indefinitely in state *s* will appear as accepting. This is a counterintuitive consequence of the straightforward definition we have chosen for the product. To avoid this, we adopt the following restriction on the acceptance conditions of the generalized Büchi automata we will use.

- either the acceptance condition is vacuous ($\mathcal{F} = \emptyset$), in which case the automaton can have either finite or infinite computations, or
- the set \mathcal{F} contains at least two disjoint components, in which case the product automaton cannot have an accepting computation corresponding to a finite computation of the automaton

For a given generalized Büchi automaton, it is quite straightforward to construct an equivalent automaton that satisfies this restriction. In programming terms, the restriction is a form of fairness condition imposed on the processes with nonvacuous acceptance conditions: their executions must be infinite (executions that might legitimately not be infinite can be modelled by using an additional "idling" action).

To obtain a model-checking procedure, the only fact we need about linear-time temporal logic is that, for each formula f, it is possible to build a generalized Büchi automaton A_f that accepts exactly the infinite words satisfying the temporal formula f (the alphabet of this automaton is 2^P where P is the set of propositions appearing in the formula f) [48, 44, 46]. This construction is exponential in the length of the formula, but this is usually not a problem since the algorithm often behaves much better than its upper bound. The model-checking procedure is then the following:

- 1. Build the finite-automaton on infinite words for the *negation* of the formula f (one uses the negation of the formula as this yields a more efficient algorithm). The resulting automaton is $A_{\neg f}$.
- 2. Compute the product $A_G = \prod_{1 \le i \le n} A_i \times A_{\neg f}$ (in practice only the reachable states of this product).
- 3. Check if the automaton A_G is nonempty.

To check if the automaton A_G is nonempty, it is sufficient to check that its graph contains a strongly connected component that is reachable from the initial

state and that includes a state from each of the sets F_j of its set \mathcal{F} of accepting sets. This can be done with a linear-time algorithm [1]. The complexity of this model-checking method is thus determined by the size of A_G . Note that model checking is often said to be of complexity "linear in the size of the program" which is correct if one measures the size of the program as the size of $\prod_{1 \leq i \leq n} A_i$. In practice, the limits of all model-checking methods come from the often excessive size of this product. The frustrating fact is that a lot of this excessive size is unnecessary: it is due to the modelling of concurrency by interleaving. This is what we are tempting to eliminate. Let us therefore turn to partial-order semantics.

3 Partial-Order Semantics and Trace Automata

In partial-order semantics, the possible behaviors of a concurrent system are described in terms of partial orders instead of sequences. More precisely, we use Mazurkiewicz's traces [30] as semantic model. We briefly recall some basic notions of Mazurkiewicz's trace theory.

Definition 3.1 A concurrent alphabet is a pair $\Sigma = (A, D)$ where A is a finite set of symbols, called the alphabet of Σ , and where D is a binary, symmetrical, and reflexive relation on A called the dependency in Σ .

 $I_{\Sigma} = A^2 \setminus D$ stands for the *independency* in Σ .

Definition 3.2 Let Σ be a concurrent alphabet, let A^* represent the set of all finite sequences (words) of symbols in A, let \cdot stand for the concatenation operation, and let ε denote the empty word. We define the relation \equiv_{Σ} as the least congruence in the monoid $[A^*; \cdot, \varepsilon]$ such that

$$(a,b) \in I_{\Sigma} \Rightarrow ab \equiv_{\Sigma} ba.$$

The relation \equiv_{Σ} is referred to as the *trace equivalence* over Σ .

Definition 3.3 Equivalence classes of \equiv_{Σ} are called traces over Σ .

A trace characterized by a word w and a concurrent alphabet Σ is denoted by $[w]_{\Sigma}$. Thus a trace over a concurrent alphabet $\Sigma = (A, D)$ represents a set of words defined over A that only differ by the order of adjacent symbols which are independent according to *D*. For instance, if *a* and *b* are two symbols of *A* which are independent according to *D*, the trace $[ab]_{\Sigma}$ represents the two words *ab* and *ba*. A trace is an equivalence class of words.

Let us now return to a concurrent program described as the composition of n finite-state transition systems A_i and of a property f represented by the automaton $A_{\neg f}$. From now on, $A_{\neg f}$ will be denoted by A_{n+1} . Let $\Delta \subseteq S \times \Sigma \times S$ denote the transition relation of the product A_G of these automata.

For each transition $t = (\mathbf{s}, a, \mathbf{s}') \in \Delta$ with $\mathbf{s} = (s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_{n+1})$ and $\mathbf{s}' = (s'_1, s'_2, \ldots, s'_{n+1})$, the sets (by extension, we consider the states of A_G as sets in the following definitions³)

- $\bullet t = \{s_i \in \mathbf{s} : (s_i, a, s'_i) \in \Delta_i\}$ - $t^\bullet = \{s'_i \in \mathbf{s}' : (s_i, a, s'_i) \in \Delta_i\}$ - $\bullet t^\bullet = \bullet t \cup t^\bullet$

are called respectively the *preset*, the *postset* and the *proximity* of the transition t. Intuitively, the *preset*, resp. the *postset*, of a transition $t = (\mathbf{s}, a, \mathbf{s}')$ of A_G represents the states of the A_i 's that synchronize together on a, respectively *before* and *after* this transition. We say that the A_i 's with a nonempty preset and postset for a transition t are *active* for this transition.

Two transitions $t_1 = (\mathbf{s}_1, a_1, \mathbf{s}'_1), t_2 = (\mathbf{s}_2, a_2, \mathbf{s}'_2) \in \Delta$ are said to be equivalent (notation \equiv) iff

$$\bullet t_1 = \bullet t_2 \wedge t_1^\bullet = t_2^\bullet \wedge a_1 = a_2$$

Intuitively, two equivalent transitions represent the same transition but correspond to distinct occurrences of this transition. These occurrences can only differ by the states of the A_i 's that are not active for the transition. We denote by T the set of equivalence classes defined over Δ by \equiv .

We define the *dependency* in A_G as the relation $D_{A_G} \subseteq T \times T$ such that:

$$(t_1, t_2) \in D_{A_G} \Leftrightarrow {}^{\bullet}t_1^{\bullet} \cap {}^{\bullet}t_2^{\bullet} \neq \emptyset.$$

The complement of D_{A_G} is called the *independency* in A_G . If two independent transitions occur next to each other in a computation, the order of their occurrences is irrelevant (since they occur concurrently in this execution).

Let $\Sigma_{A_G} = (T, D_{A_G})$ be the concurrent alphabet associated with A_G and let $L(A_G)$ be the language of finite words accepted by A_G (all states of A_G considered accepting). We define the *trace behavior* of A_G as the set of equivalence classes of $L(A_G)$ defined by the relation $\equiv_{\sum_{A_G}}$. These equivalence classes are called *traces* of A_G . Such a class (trace) corresponds to a partial order (i.e. a set of causality relations) and represents all its linearizations (words).

To describe the behavior of A_G by means of traces rather than sequences, we need the dependency D_{A_G} of A_G and only one linearization for each trace of A_G . So, the behavior of A_G is fully characterized by the dependency D_{A_G} and an automaton which generates (at least) one linearization for each trace. We call such an automaton a trace automaton (denoted A_T) for A_G [22].

Formally, the language $L(A_T)$ accepted by a trace automaton A_T satisfies the following relation:

$$L(A_G) = \bigcup_{w \in L(A_T)} Pref(lin([w]_{\Sigma_{A_G}}))$$

where $lin([w]_{\Sigma_{A_G}})$ denotes the set of linearizations (words) of the trace (equivalence class) $[w]_{\Sigma_{A_G}}$ and Pref(w) denotes the prefixes of w.

In [22] an algorithm for constructing a trace automaton corresponding to a concurrent program⁴ is given. To construct such an automaton A_T , we do not need to compute all the reachable states of A_G : whenever several independent transitions are executable, we execute only one of these transitions in order to generate only one interleaving (linearization) of these transitions. By construction, A_T is a "sub-automaton" of A_G (i.e. the states of A_T are states of A_G and the transitions of A_T are transitions of A_G). The order of the time complexity for the algorithm presented in [22] is given by the number of transitions in A_T times the maximum number of simultaneous executable transitions. In practice it turns out that building A_T often requires much less time and memory than building A_G .

For instance, the behavior of a simple protocol like the 5-dining-philosophers problem (see [22]) that would classically require the use of a state-graph A_G containing 2163 states and 8770 transitions can be represented by a trace automaton A_T containing only 72 states and 83 transitions.

³We assume that the sets S_1, \ldots, S_{n+1} (where S_i is the set of states of A_i) are pairwise disjoint.

 $^{^{4}}$ In [22] a concurrent program is represented by a contact-free one-safe P/T-net instead of a parallel composition of sequential processes as defined here; since the former is a more general formalism (it allows the modelling of process creation/deletion) than the latter, the algorithm described in [22] is still applicable in the context considered here.

4 Using Trace Automata for Model Checking

In order to use the results of Section 3 for doing model checking, we would like to be able to proceed as follows.

- 1. Build the finite-automaton on infinite words for the *negation* of the formula f. The resulting automaton is $A_{\neg f}$.
- 2. Compute the trace automaton A_T corresponding to the concurrent executions of the processes A_i , $1 \le i \le n$, and of the automaton $A_{\neg f}$.
- 3. Check if the automaton A_T is nonempty.

Unfortunately, this is incorrect. First, there is an obvious reason that makes this incorrect which is that the trace automaton A_T is not defined as an automaton on infinite words and hence does not have a set \mathcal{F} . However, this problem can be easily solved. Let S_G and S_T respectively be the set of states of A_G and A_T . By construction, $S_T \subseteq S_G$. Let $\mathcal{F}_G = \{F_1, \ldots, F_k\}$ be the set of sets of accepting states of A_G . The set \mathcal{F}_T of sets of accepting states of A_T is then defined by $\mathcal{F}_T = \{F'_1, \ldots, F'_k\}$ with $F'_i = F_i \cap S_T$.

Even if we extend the definition of A_T to include the set \mathcal{F}_T defined above (let us call the result A_T^{∞}), we still cannot use A_T^{∞} for model checking. Indeed it is quite possible that the automaton A_G obtained by the traditional computation of the product accepts some infinite word whereas A_T^{∞} does not accept any infinite word. This might seem counter intuitive because one could expect that, if A_G accepts some word w, then by permuting independent transitions of the computation accepting w, one would obtain an accepting computation of A_T^{∞} which would then be nonempty. This is actually true for finite computations but not for infinite computations. Indeed, consider two processes that are totally independent (their alphabets are completely disjoint). The trace automaton for these two processes can be one that allows any number of transitions of the first process *followed* by any number of transitions of the second process. This is is fine for finite computations, but for infinite computations, one will be left with either an infinite computation of the first process or one of the second process, but not an infinite computation of *both* processes. One can summarize this by saying that A_T^{∞} represents the infinite computations of all processes, but not the joint infinite computations of unsynchronized processes. The following example illustrates this situation. Consider the generalized Büchi automata A and A' of Figures 1 and 2 where

 $\mathcal{F} = \{\{s_1\}, \{s_2\}\} \text{ and } \mathcal{F}' = \{\{s'_1\}, \{s'_2\}\} \text{ respectively.}$ A possible trace automaton A_T^{∞} is given in Figure 3. Its set of sets of accepting states is defined by $\mathcal{F}_T = \{\{(s_1, s'_0), (s_1, s'_1), (s_1, s'_2)\}, \{(s_2, s'_0)\}, \{(s_1, s'_1)\},$

 $\{(s_1, s'_2)\}\}$. This automaton does not accept any word whereas there is a joint infinite execution of the automata A and A' that would be accepted by the corresponding global automaton.

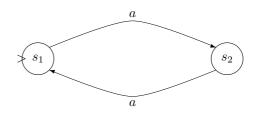


Figure 1: Generalized Büchi automaton A

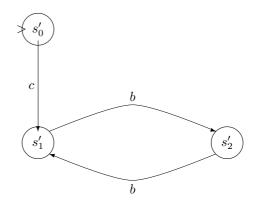


Figure 2: Generalized Büchi automaton A'

We now formalize the above discussion. Let A_G and A_T^{∞} be respectively the product automaton and the trace automaton obtained by composing the generalized Büchi automata A_i , $1 \leq i \leq n+1$. Consider a computation of A_G or A_T^{∞} on an infinite word w. One can view this computation as an infinite sequence of *transitions* each of which is an element $(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{s}')$ of $S \times \Sigma \times S$. For any transition of A_G or A_T^{∞} , one can

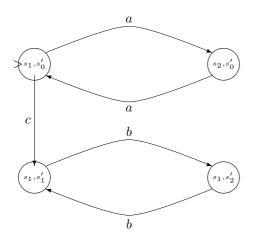


Figure 3: Trace automaton A_T^{∞}

identify the automata A_i that are *active* (as defined in Section 3) for this transition. This enables us to define the restriction of a computation of A_G or A_T^{∞} to one of the components A_i .

Definition 4.1 Given a trace or product automaton A obtained by composing the generalized Büchi automata A_i , $1 \le i \le n+1$, the restriction of a computation κ of A to the automaton A_i (denoted $\kappa | A_i$) is the subsequence of κ that contains only the transitions for which A_i is active.

Note that the restriction of a computation of A_G or A_T^{∞} to an automaton A_i is in fact a computation of A_i . However, the restriction can be finite, even if the the initial computation is infinite. We can nevertheless prove the following.

Theorem 4.1 Let κ be a computation (finite or ω -infinite) of the global automaton A_G obtained by composing the automata A_i , $1 \leq i \leq n+1$. Then, for every A_i , there is a computation κ_i (finite or ω -infinite) of the trace automaton A_T^{∞} such that $\kappa | A_i = \kappa_i | A_i$.

Note that it is not true that there is a single computation κ' of A_T^{∞} such that $\kappa | A_i = \kappa' | A_i$ for all A_i 's. In spite of this, Theorem 4.1 lets us obtain an interesting result, namely that the trace automaton can be used for model checking in cases where only one of the components is required to have an infinite computation. This is the case if all but one of the automata A_i have a vacuous accepting condition, i.e. have an empty set \mathcal{F} . We can prove the following.

Theorem 4.2 Let A_i , $1 \leq i \leq n+1$ be generalized Büchi automata all but one of which have a vacuous accepting condition. Let A_G and A_T^{∞} be the product and trace automata obtained by composing the automata A_i . Then, the automaton A_G is nonempty (has at least one infinite accepting computation) iff the trace automaton A_T^{∞} is nonempty.

Theorem 4.2 is obtained from Theorem 4.1 and from the immediate fact that all computations of the trace automaton are also computations of the product automaton. In practice, Theorem 4.2 enables us to use the trace automaton for model checking in the cases where the program does not operate under some fairness hypothesis. Indeed, in those circumstances, the automata representing the program will have vacuous accepting conditions and the automaton obtained from the formula to be checked will be the only one with a nonempty set \mathcal{F} .

5 Automata on $(\omega \times n)$ -words

Trace automata do not adequately represent the ω computations of the components from which they are built because infinite computations cannot be concatenated. Actually, with the help of a little abstraction, infinite computations could very well be concatenated. One can simply think of computations whose length is an ordinal larger than ω . Since we are only interested in the concatenation of a finite number of infinite computations we will only study computations of length $\omega \times n$ where $n \in \omega$. The definitions of Section 2 can be quite naturally extended to words and computations of length $\omega \times n$ (for other definitions of automata on ordinals, see [9, 8]).

A word of length $\omega \times n$ over the alphabet Σ is a function w from the ordinal $\omega \times n$ to Σ . We use automata that are defined exactly as in Section 2 and simply change the definition of a run. A *run* of an automaton $A = (\Sigma, S, \Delta, s_0, \mathcal{F})$ on a word w of length $\omega \times n$ is a function σ from $\omega \times n$ to S that satisfies the following conditions:

- 1. $\sigma(0) = s_0;$
- 2. for each successor ordinal $\alpha + 1 \in \omega \times n$, $(\sigma(\alpha), w(\alpha), \sigma(\alpha + 1)) \in \Delta;$
- 3. for each limit ordinal $\lambda \in \omega \times n$, there is an infinite sequence of ordinals α whose limit is λ such that $\sigma(\alpha) = \sigma(\lambda)$.

The notions of accepting run and accepted word are essentially unchanged. A run σ is *accepting* if, for each $F_j \in \mathcal{F}$, there is some state in F_j that repeats infinitely often, i.e., for some $s \in F_j$ there are infinitely many $i \in \omega \times n$ such that $s_i = s$. The $\omega \times n$ -word w is *accepted* by A if there is an accepting run of A over w. The set of $\omega \times n$ words accepted by A is denoted $L_{\omega \times n}(A)$.

Checking that $L_{\omega \times n}(A)$ is nonempty can be done by computing the strongly connected components of A.

Theorem 5.1 Let $A = (\Sigma, S, \Delta, s_0, \mathcal{F})$ be an automaton. Then, $L_{\omega \times n}(A) \neq \emptyset$ iff there is a sequence of strongly connected components $C_1, \ldots C_n$ in A such that

- C₁ is accessible from s₀ and C_{i+1} is accessible from C_i, for 1 ≤ i < n and
- for each $F_j \in \mathcal{F}$, there is some C_i such that $F_j \cap C_i \neq \emptyset$.

The interesting aspect of the definitions we have just given is that if we consider the trace automaton as an automaton on words of length $\omega \times n$, then it represents all infinite computations of the combined automata. If we extend the notion of computation used in Section 4 to sequences of transitions of length $\omega \times n$, we can prove the following.

Theorem 5.2 Let κ be an ω -computation of the global automaton A_G obtained by composing the automata A_i , $1 \le i \le n+1$. Then, there is a computation κ' of length at most $\omega \times (n+1)$ of the trace automaton A_T^{∞} such that for all $1 \le i \le n+1$, $\kappa | A_i = \kappa' | A_i$.

To use the trace automaton for model checking, we also need the converse of Theorem 5.2. However, this does not hold in general since it requires that a computation of length $\omega \times (n+1)$ be merged into a computation of length ω . For this to be possible we need to put some restrictions on computations. Consider a computation of length $\omega \times (n+1)$. For each ω -sequence in this computation, i.e. part of the computation corresponding to an interval $[\omega \times i, \omega \times (i+1)]$, we define the repeating part of this ω -sequence as its suffix that only contains states that appear infinitely often. The rest of the ω -sequence is then its *finite prefix*. We call a computation *separable* if for all $0 \le i < j \le n$, all transitions in the repeating part of $[\omega \times i, \omega \times (i+1)]$ are independent of all transitions in the finite prefix of $[\omega \times j, \omega \times (j+1)]$. We can then show that the converse of Theorem 5.2 holds for separable computations and hence the following.

Theorem 5.3 Let A_i , $1 \le i \le n+1$ be generalized Büchi automata. Let A_G and A_T^{∞} be the product and trace automata obtained by composing the automata A_i . Then, the automaton A_G is nonempty (has at least one accepting computation) iff the trace automaton A_T^{∞} has at least one separable computation of length at most $\omega \times (n+1)$.

Furthermore, note that Theorem 5.1 can be adapted to separable computations by requiring that for all $1 \leq i < j \leq (n + 1)$, the transitions appearing in C_i are independent from those appearing in the path from C_{j-1} to C_j . Combining this observation with Theorem 5.3 we have a criterion for solving the modelchecking problem in terms of the trace automaton A_T^{∞} .

6 Conclusions and Comparison with Other Work

The closest work to the one presented here is certainly that of Valmari [40]. However, while it has the same goal it does not achieve the same results. Indeed, Valmari only handles a temporal logic where the operator "next" cannot appear. We handle the full logic and, actually, we can also handle extended temporal logics like that of [45]. Also, in [40] concurrency is modelled by interleaving for all actions that appear in the formula. Because in our method the automaton for the formula is combined with the program, we do not have this drawback. Moreover, to solve the problem that trace automata do not adequately represent the infinite behaviors of a set of processes, Valmari has to modify the construction of the automaton and actually build an automaton that will usually have more states and transitions. We solve this problem by viewing the trace automaton as an automaton on $\omega \times n$ -words. Finally, the possibility of modelling fairness conditions within the program is not present in [40]. All the advantages above are linked to the strategy we use for solving the model-checking problem which, as we have shown, is quite distinct from Valmari's. However, at the heart of both methods lies an algorithm for computing an automaton that only represents "some" interleavings of concurrent events: Valmari uses an algorithm based on "Stubborn Sets". we use the construction of the "Trace Automaton" given in [22]. This algorithm also influences the effectiveness of a model-checking method. Unfortunately, this influence is not at all as clear cut as that of the strategy. It is quite possible that for some problems the "Trace Automaton" algorithm is best whereas for others the "Stubborn Sets" one is preferable.

How good really is our method? It is hard to give

a precise answer since it might be no better than interleaving methods when there is very tight coupling between the processes and dramatically better when there is no coupling between the processes. In the latter case, we could claim as is done in [10] that we can check systems with astronomical numbers of (interleaving semantics) states. Of course this is rather meaningless since the trick is not to explore all states either by treating classes of states as one state (the approach of [10]) or by completely avoiding parts of the state space (our approach). The only real fact we can give is that experimental results with trace automata are very encouraging.

Finally, note that our method has the advantages of "on the fly verification" [16, 26, 4, 24]. By this we mean, that we build the automaton for the combination of the program and property without ever building the automaton for the program. Maybe surprisingly, this automaton is often smaller than the automaton for the program alone because the property acts as a constraint on the behavior of the program. Our method thus has a head start over methods that require the state graph of the program to be built.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank David Dill, Antti Valmari and anonymous referees for helpful comments on this paper.

References

- Alfred V. Aho, John E. Hopcroft, and Jeffrey D. Ullman. The Design and Analysis of Computer Algorithms. Addison Wesley, Reading, 1974.
- [2] R. Alur, C. Courcoubetis, and D. Dill. Modelchecking for real-time systems. In *Proceedings of* the 5th Symposium on Logic in Computer Science, pages 414–425, Philadelphia, June 1990.
- [3] R. Alur and T. Henzinger. Real-time logics: complexity and expressiveness. In *Proceedings of the* 5th Symposium on Logic in Computer Science, Philadelphia, June 1990.
- [4] A. Bouajjani, J. C. Fernandez, and N. Halbwachs. On the verification of safety properties. Technical Report SPECTRE L12, IMAG, Grenoble, march 1990.
- [5] M. Browne, E.M. Clarke, and D.L. Dill. Automatic circuit verification using temporal logic: Two new examples. In *IEEE Int. Conf. on Computer Design: VLSI and Computers*, Port Chester, October 1985.

- [6] Michael C. Browne. An improved algorithm for the automatic verification of finite state systems using temporal logic. In *Proceedings of the First* Symposium on Logic in Computer Science, pages 260–266, Cambridge, June 1986.
- [7] J.R. Büchi. On a decision method in restricted second order arithmetic. In Proc. Internat. Congr. Logic, Method and Philos. Sci. 1960, pages 1–12, Stanford, 1962. Stanford University Press.
- [8] J.R. Büchi. Decision methods in the theory of ordinals. Bull of the AMS, 71:767–770, 1965.
- [9] J.R. Büchi. Transfinite automata recursions and weak second order theory of ordinals. In Proc. Internat. Congr. Logic, Method and Philos. Sci. 1964, pages 2–23, Amsterdam, 1965. North Holland.
- [10] J.R. Burch, E.M. Clarke, K.L. McMillan, D.L. Dill, and L.J. Hwang. Symbolic model checking: 10²⁰ states and beyond. In *Proceedings of the* 5th Symposium on Logic in Computer Science, Philadelphia, June 1990.
- [11] E. M. Clarke and O. Grümberg. Avoiding the state explosion problem in temporal logic modelchecking algorithms. In Proc. 6th ACM Symposium on Principles of Distributed Computing, pages 294–303, Vancouver, British Columbia, August 1987.
- [12] E. M. Clarke, O. Grümberg, and M. C. Browne. Reasoning about networks with many identical finite-state processes. In *Proc. 5th ACM Symposium on Principles of Distributed Computing*, pages 240–248, Calgary, Alberta, August 1986.
- [13] E.M. Clarke, E.A. Emerson, and A.P. Sistla. Automatic verification of finite-state concurrent systems using temporal logic specifications. ACM Transactions on Programming Languages and Systems, 8(2):244–263, January 1986.
- [14] R. Cleaveland. Tableau-based model checking in the propositional mu-calculus. Acta Informatica, 27:725–747, 1990.
- [15] O. Coudert, J. C. Madre, and C. Berthet. Verifying temporal properties of sequential machines without building their state diagram. In *Proc. Workshop on Computer Aided Verification*, Rutgers, June 1990.

- [16] C. Courcoubetis, M. Vardi, P. Wolper, and M. Yannakakis. Memory efficient algorithms for the verification of temporal properties. In *Proc. Workshop on Computer Aided Verification*, Rutgers, June 1990.
- [17] C. Courcoubetis and M. Yannakakis. Markov decision processes and regular events. In Proc. 17th Int. Coll. on Automata Languages and Programming, volume 443, Coventry, July 1990. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Springer-Verlag.
- [18] E.A. Emerson and C.-L. Lei. Modalities for model checking: Branching time logic strikes back. In Proceedings of the Twelfth ACM Symposium on Principles of Programming Languages, pages 84– 96, New Orleans, January 1985.
- [19] E.A. Emerson and C.-L. Lei. Temporal model checking under generalized fairness constraints. In Proc. 18th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, Hawaii, 1985.
- [20] E.A. Emerson and C.-L. Lei. Modalities for model checking: Branching time logic strikes back. In *Proceedings of the First Symposium on Logic in Computer Science*, pages 267–278, Cambridge, June 1986.
- [21] S. German and A.P. Sistla. Reasoning with many processes. In Proc. Symp. on Logic in Computer Science, pages 138–152, Ithaca, June 1987.
- [22] P. Godefroid. Using partial orders to improve automatic verification methods. In *Proc. Workshop* on Computer Aided Verification, Rutgers, June 1990.
- [23] S. Graf and B. Steffen. Using interface specifications for compositional reduction. In Proc. Workshop on Computer Aided Verification, Rutgers, June 1990.
- [24] N. Halbwachs, D. Pilaud, F. Ouabdesselam, and A.C. Glory. Specifying, programming and verifying real-time systems, using a synchronous declarative language. In Workshop on automatic verification methods for finite state systems, LNCS 407. Springer Verlag, june 1989.
- [25] E. Harel, O. Lichtenstein, and A. Pnueli. Explicitclock temporal logic. In *Proceedings of the 5th* Symposium on Logic in Computer Science, pages 402–413, Philadelphia, June 1990.

- [26] C. Jard and T. Jeron. On-line model-checking for finite linear temporal logic specifications. In Automatic Verification Methods for Finite State Systems, Proc. Int. Workshop, Grenoble, volume 407, pages 189–196, Grenoble, June 1989. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Springer-Verlag.
- [27] Y. Kornatzky and S. S. Pinter. A model checker for partial order temporal logic. EE PUB 597, Department of Electrical Engineering, Technion-Israel Institute of Technology, 1986.
- [28] R. P. Kurshan and K. McMillan. A structural induction theorem for processes. In *Proceedings of* the Eigth ACM Symposium on Principles of Distributed Computing, Edmonton, Alberta, August 1989.
- [29] O. Lichtenstein and A. Pnueli. Checking that finite state concurrent programs satisfy their linear specification. In *Proceedings of the Twelfth ACM Symposium on Principles of Programming Languages*, pages 97–107, New Orleans, January 1985.
- [30] A. Mazurkiewicz. Trace theory. In Petri Nets: Applications and Relationships to Other Models of Concurrency, Advances in Petri Nets 1986, Part II; Proceedings of an Advanced Course, volume 255 of Lecture Notes in Computer Science, pages 279–324, 1986.
- [31] W. Penczek. Proving partial order properties using cctl. Submitted to Proc. Concurrency and Compositionality Workshop, San Miniato, Italy, 1990.
- [32] S. Pinter and P. Wolper. A temporal logic for reasoning about partially ordered computations. In Proc. 3rd ACM Symposium on Principles of Distributed Computing, pages 28–37, Vancouver, August 1984.
- [33] A. Pnueli and L. Zuck. Probabilistic verification by tableaux. In Proc. 1st Symp. on Logic in Computer Science, pages 322–331, Cambridge, June 1986.
- [34] D. K. Probst and H. F. Li. Using partial-order semantics to avoid the state explosion problem in asynchronous systems. In *Proc. Workshop* on Computer Aided Verification, Rutgers, June 1990.
- [35] J.P. Quielle and J. Sifakis. Specification and verification of concurrent systems in cesar. In *Proc.*

5th Int'l Symp. on Programming, volume 137, pages 337–351. Springer-Verlag, Lecture Notes in Computer Science, 1981.

- [36] J.L. Richier, C. Rodriguez, J. Sifakis, and J. Voiron. Verification in xesar of the sliding window protocol. In Proc. IFIP WG 6.1 7th Int. Conf. on Protocol Specification, Testing and Verification, pages 235–250, Zurich, 1987. North Holland.
- [37] C. Stirling and D. Walker. Local model checking in the modal mu-calculus. In Proc. 15th Col. on Trees in Algebra and Programming. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Springer-Verlag, 1989.
- [38] André Thayse and et al. From Modal Logic to Deductive Databases: Introducing a Logic Based Approach to Artificial Intelligence. Wiley, 1989.
- [39] A. Valmari. Stubborn sets for reduced state space generation. In Proc. 10th International Conference on Application and Theory of Petri Nets, volume 2, pages 1–22, Bonn, 1989.
- [40] A. Valmari. A stubborn attack on state explosion. In Proc. Workshop on Computer Aided Verification, Rutgers, June 1990.
- [41] M. Vardi. Automatic verification of probabilistic concurrent finite-state programs. In Proc. 26th IEEE Symp. on Foundations of Computer Science, pages 327–338, Portland, October 1985.
- [42] M. Vardi. A temporal fixpoint calculus. In Proc. 15th ACM Symp. on Principles of Programming Languages, pages 250–259, San Diego, January 1988.
- [43] M. Vardi. Unified verification theory. In B. Banieqbal, H. Barringer, and A. Pnueli, editors, *Proc. Temporal Logic in Specification*, volume 398, pages 202–212. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Springer-Verlag, 1989.
- [44] M.Y. Vardi and P. Wolper. An automatatheoretic approach to automatic program verification. In Proc. Symp. on Logic in Computer Science, pages 322–331, Cambridge, june 1986.
- [45] P. Wolper. Temporal logic can be more expressive. Information and Control, 56(1-2):72-99, 1983.
- [46] P. Wolper. On the relation of programs and computations to models of temporal logic. In

B. Banieqbal, H. Barringer, and A. Pnueli, editors, *Proc. Temporal Logic in Specification*, volume 398, pages 75–123. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Springer-Verlag, 1989.

- [47] P. Wolper and V. Lovinfosse. Verifying properties of large sets of processes with network invariants. In Automatic Verification Methods for Finite State Systems, Proc. Int. Workshop, Grenoble, volume 407, pages 68–80, Grenoble, June 1989. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Springer-Verlag.
- [48] P. Wolper, M.Y. Vardi, and A.P. Sistla. Reasoning about infinite computation paths. In Proc. 24th IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, pages 185–194, Tucson, 1983.