

Efficient Model Checking Via Büchi Tableau Automata^{*}

Girish S. Bhat¹, Rance Cleaveland², and Alex Groce³

¹ Cosine Communications, Inc. girish23@hotmail.com

² Department of Computer Science, SUNY at Stony Brook, rance@cs.sunysb.edu

³ School of Computer Science, Carnegie-Mellon University, agroce+@cs.cmu.edu

Abstract. This paper describes an approach to engineering efficient model checkers that are generic with respect to the temporal logic in which system properties are given. The methodology is based on the “compilation” of temporal formulas into variants of alternating tree automata called *alternating Büchi tableau automata* (ABTAs). The paper gives an efficient on-the-fly model-checking procedure for ABTAs and illustrates how translations of temporal logics into ABTAs may be concisely specified using inference rules, which may be thus seen as high-level definitions of “model checkers” for the logic given. Heuristics for simplifying ABTAs are also given, as are experimental results in the CWB-NC verification tool suggesting that, despite the generic ABTA basis, our approach can perform better than model checkers targeted for specific logics. The ABTA-based approach we advocate simplifies the retargeting of model checkers to different logics, and it also allows the use of “compile-time” simplifications on ABTAs that improves model-checker performance.

1 Introduction

Temporal-logic model-checking algorithms determine whether or not a given system’s behavior conforms to requirements formulated as properties in an appropriate temporal logic. Numerous algorithms for different logics and system modeling formalisms have been developed and implemented [2, 6, 8, 9, 14, 20, 24, 25, 27], and case studies have demonstrated the utility of the technology (see [10] for a survey).

Traditional model checkers work for one logic and one class of system models. For example, the algorithm in [9] checks whether systems given as Kripke structures obey properties expressed in CTL, while the automaton-based approach of [29] works on Kripke structures and properties given in linear-time temporal logic. Other algorithms have been developed in the context of labeled transition systems and the modal mu-calculus [14], Modecharts and real-time logics [32], and so on. This paradigm for model checking has yielded great research insights, but it has the disadvantage that changes to the modeling formalism (e.g. by changing the interpretation of state and transition labels) or the logic (e.g. by introducing domain-specific operators) necessitate a redesign and reimplementa-tion of the relevant model-checking algorithm. The amount of work needed to “retarget” a model checker can be an important factor hampering the uptake of the technology.

The goal of this paper is to demonstrate the utility of an alternative view of model checking that relies on translating temporal formulas into intermediate structures, *alternating Büchi tableau automata* (ABTA) [6], that a model checker then works on. ABTAs are variants of alternating tree automata [23] that support efficient model checking while enabling various “compile-time” optimizations to be performed. They also support the abstract definition, via “proof rules,” of translation procedures for different

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temporal logics. By factoring out the formulation of model-checking questions from the routines that answer them, our framework simplifies retargeting model checkers to different system formalisms and temporal logics.

The remainder of this paper develops as follows. The next section presents the system models considered in this paper and defines ABTAs. Section 3 then develops an efficient on-the-fly model-checking algorithm for a large class of ABTAs, and the section following describes simplifications that may be performed on ABTAs. A method for translating temporal logics into ABTAs is given via an extended example in Section 5, and the section following describes an implementation and experimental results. Section 7 discusses related work, while the final section contains our conclusions and future work. An appendix contains full pseudo-code for the model-checking algorithm.

2 Transition Systems and Tableau Automata

This section defines our system models and introduces alternating Büchi tableau automata. In what follows we fix disjoint sets $(p, p', p_1, \dots) \in \mathcal{A}$ and $(\theta, \theta', \theta_1, \dots) \in \mathcal{A}_{\text{act}}$ of atomic *state* and *action* propositions, respectively.

2.1 Transition Systems

Transition systems encode the operational behavior of systems.

Definition 1 A transition system (TS) is a tuple $\langle S, A, \ell_S, \ell_A, \longrightarrow, s_I \rangle$ where S is a set of states; A is a set of actions; $\ell_S : S \rightarrow 2^{\mathcal{A}}$ is the *state labeling function*; $\ell_A : A \rightarrow 2^{\mathcal{A}_{\text{act}}}$ is the *action labeling function*; $\longrightarrow \subseteq S \times A \times S$ is the *transition relation*; and s_I is the *start state*. ■

Intuitively, S contains the states a system may enter and A the atomic actions a system may perform. The labeling functions ℓ_S and ℓ_A indicate which atomic propositions hold of a given state or action, while \longrightarrow encodes the execution steps the system may engage in and s_I the initial state of the system. We write $s \xrightarrow{\alpha} s'$ in lieu of $\langle s, \alpha, s' \rangle \in \longrightarrow$.

Definition 2 Let $\mathcal{T} = \langle S, A, \ell_S, \ell_A, \longrightarrow, s_I \rangle$ be a TS.

1. A *transition sequence* from $s_0 \in S$ is a sequence $\sigma = s_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} s_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} \dots \xrightarrow{\alpha_k} s_k$, where $0 \leq k \leq \infty$. We define the *length* of σ , $|\sigma|$, to be k . If $|\sigma| = \infty$ we call σ *infinite*; otherwise, it is *finite*.
2. An *execution* from s_0 is a maximal transition sequence from s_0 , that is, a sequence σ with the property that either $|\sigma| = \infty$, or $|\sigma| < \infty$ and $s_{|\sigma|} \not\xrightarrow{\alpha} s'$ for any $\alpha \in A$ and $s' \in S$.

If $s \in S$ then we use $\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{T}}(s)$ to denote the set of executions in \mathcal{T} from s . ■

2.2 Alternating Büchi Tableau Automata

In this paper we use *alternating Büchi tableau automata* (ABTAs) as an intermediate representation for system properties. ABTAs are alternating tree automata, although they differ in subtle and noteworthy ways from the automata introduced in [23]; Section 7 gives details. To define ABTAs formally we first introduce the following syntactic sets. Let \neg be a distinguished negation symbol; we define $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{A} \cup \{ \neg p \mid p \in \mathcal{A} \}$ to be the set of state literals and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{act}} = \mathcal{A}_{\text{act}} \cup \{ \neg \theta \mid \theta \in \mathcal{A}_{\text{act}} \}$ to be the set of action literals. We also use Θ, Θ', \dots to range over subsets of \mathcal{L}_{act} . ABTAs may now be defined as follows.

Definition 3 An *alternating Büchi tableau automaton* (ABTA) is a tuple $\langle Q, \ell, \rightarrow, q_I, \mathcal{F} \rangle$, where Q is a finite set of *states*; $\ell : Q \rightarrow \mathcal{L} \cup \{\neg, \wedge, \vee, [\Theta], \langle \Theta \rangle\}$ is the *state labeling*; $\rightarrow \subseteq (Q \times Q)$, the *transition relation*, satisfies the condition below for all $q \in Q$; $q_I \in Q$ is the start state; and $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^S$ is the acceptance condition. The additional condition \rightarrow must satisfy is:

$$|\{q' \mid q \rightarrow q'\}| \begin{cases} = 0 & \text{if } \ell(q) \in \mathcal{L} \\ \geq 1 & \text{if } \ell(q) \in \{\wedge, \vee\} \\ = 1 & \text{if } \ell(q) \in \{\neg, \langle \Theta \rangle, [\Theta]\} \end{cases}$$

■

As ABTAs are special node-labeled graphs we use typical graph-theoretic notions, including cycle, path, strongly-connected component, etc. We also write $q \rightarrow^* q'$ if there exists a path from q to q' in ABTA \mathcal{B} . We say that an ABTA is *well-formed* if, whenever $\ell(q) = \neg$, then q does not appear on a cycle of \rightarrow edges. We only consider well-formed ABTAs in what follows.

Besides alternating tree automata, ABTAs may be viewed as abstract syntax for a fragment of the mu-calculus [6]. They may also be seen as defining system properties in terms of how the property in question is to be “proved”, and we develop this intuition in presenting their semantics. More specifically, an ABTA defines a property of transition systems by encoding a “proof schema” for establishing that the property holds for a transition system. The states in the ABTA can be seen as goals, with the labels in the states defining the relationship that must hold between a state and its “subgoals”. So if one wishes to show that a transition-system state s “satisfies” a state q in an ABTA, and the label of q is \wedge , then one must show that s satisfies each of q ’s children. The $[\Theta]$ and $\langle \Theta \rangle$ labels correspond to single-step modalities; for a transition-system state s to satisfy an ABTA state q whose label is $[\Theta]$, one must show that for each s' such that $s \xrightarrow{\alpha} s'$ for some α “satisfying” Θ , s' must satisfy the (unique) successor of q . Finally, the acceptance sets enable “proofs” to be infinite: an “infinite positive” proof is deemed valid if every “path” in the proof “touches” each set in F infinitely often, while an infinite “negative proof” is valid if it fails to “touch” at least one set in F infinitely often. (The first clause is the same as the generalized Büchi acceptance condition defined in [15]. It should also be noted that the second clause indicates that ABTAs have a “co-Büchi” component to their acceptance condition.) These intuitions may be formalized in terms of “runs” of an ABTA. To define these we first introduce the following terminology.

Definition 4 Let $\mathcal{T} = \langle S, A, \ell_S, \ell_A, \rightarrow, s_I \rangle$ be a TS with $s \in S$.

1. Let $p \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $s \models_{\mathcal{T}} p$ if and only if $p \in \ell_S(s)$, and $s \models_{\mathcal{T}} \neg p$ if and only if $p \notin \ell_S(s)$.
2. Let $\theta \in \mathcal{A}_{\text{act}}$. Then $\alpha \models_{\mathcal{T}} \theta$ if and only if $\theta \in \ell_A(\alpha)$, and $\alpha \models_{\mathcal{T}} \neg \theta$ if and only if $\theta \notin \ell_A(\alpha)$.
3. Let $\Theta \subseteq \mathcal{L}_{\text{act}}$. Then $\alpha \models_{\mathcal{T}} \Theta$ if and only if $\alpha \models \theta$ for every $\theta \in \Theta$. We write $s \xrightarrow{\Theta} s'$ if and only if $s \xrightarrow{\alpha} s'$ for some $\alpha \in A$ such that $\alpha \models_{\mathcal{T}} \Theta$ and $s \not\xrightarrow{\Theta} s'$ if there is no s' such that $s \xrightarrow{\Theta} s'$.

■

Definition 5 A *run* of an ABTA $\mathcal{B} = \langle Q, \ell, \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}}, q_I, \mathcal{F} \rangle$ on a TS $\mathcal{T} = \langle S, A, \ell_S, \ell_A, \rightarrow_{\mathcal{T}}, s_I \rangle$ is a maximal tree in which the nodes are classified as *positive* or *negative* and are labeled by elements of $Q \times S$ as follows.

- The root of the tree is a positive node and is labeled with $\langle q_I, s_I \rangle$.

- If σ is a positive (negative) node with label $\langle q, s \rangle$ such that $\ell(q) = \neg$ and $q \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}} q'$, then σ has one negative (positive) child labeled $\langle q', s \rangle$.
- Otherwise, for a positive node σ labeled with $\langle q, s \rangle$:
 - If $\ell(q) \in \mathcal{L}$ then σ is a leaf.
 - If $\ell(q) = \wedge$ and $\{q' \mid q \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}} q'\} = \{q_1, \dots, q_m\}$, then σ has positive children $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_m$, with σ_i labeled by $\langle q_i, s \rangle$.
 - If $\ell(q) = \vee$ then σ has one positive child, σ' , and σ' is labeled with $\langle q', s \rangle$ for some $q' \in \{q' \mid q \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}} q'\}$.
 - If $\ell(q) = [\Theta]$, $q \rightarrow q'$, and $\{s' \mid s \xrightarrow{\Theta}_{\mathcal{T}} s'\} = \{s_1, \dots, s_m\}$ then σ has positive children $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_m$, with σ_i is labeled by $\langle q', s_i \rangle$.
 - If $\ell(q) = \langle \Theta \rangle$ and $q \rightarrow q'$ then σ has one positive child σ' , and σ' is labeled by $\langle q', s' \rangle$ for some s' such that $s \xrightarrow{\Theta}_{\mathcal{T}} s'$.
- Otherwise, for a negative node σ labeled with $\langle q, s \rangle$:
 - If $\ell(q) \in \mathcal{L}$ then σ is a leaf.
 - If $\ell(q) = \wedge$ then σ has one negative child labeled with $\langle q', s \rangle$ for some $q' \in \{q' \mid q \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}} q'\}$.
 - If $\ell(q) = \vee$ and $\{q' \mid q \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}} q'\} = \{q_1, \dots, q_m\}$, then σ has negative children $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_m$, with σ_i labeled by $\langle q_i, s \rangle$.
 - If $\ell(q) = [\Theta]$ and $q \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}} q'$ then σ has one negative child σ' labeled by $\langle q', s' \rangle$ for some s' such that $s \xrightarrow{\Theta}_{\mathcal{T}} s'$.
 - If $\ell(q) = \langle \Theta \rangle$, $q \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}} q'$, and $\{s' \mid s \xrightarrow{\Theta}_{\mathcal{T}} s'\} = \{s_1, \dots, s_m\}$ then σ has negative children $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_m$, with σ_i is labeled by $\langle q', s_i \rangle$.

■

In a well-formed ABTA, every infinite path has a suffix that contains either positive or negative nodes, but not both. Such a path is referred to as *positive* in the former case and *negative* in the latter. We now define the notion of *success* of a run.

Definition 6 Let R be a run of ABTA $\mathcal{B} = \langle Q, \ell, \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}}, q_I, \mathcal{F} \rangle$ on a TS $\mathcal{T} = \langle S, A, \ell_S, \ell_A, \rightarrow_{\mathcal{T}}, s_I \rangle$.

1. A *positive leaf* labeled $\langle q, s \rangle$ is *successful* if and only if $s \models_{\mathcal{T}} \ell(q)$ or $\ell(q) = [\Theta]$ and $s \xrightarrow{\Theta}_{\mathcal{T}}$.
2. A *negative leaf* is *successful* if and only if $s \not\models_{\mathcal{T}} \ell(q)$ or $\ell(q) = \langle \Theta \rangle$ and $s \xrightarrow{\Theta}_{\mathcal{T}}$.
3. A *positive path* is *successful* if and only if for each $F \in \mathcal{F}$ some $q \in F$ occurs infinitely often.
4. A *negative path* is *successful* if and only if for some $F \in \mathcal{F}$ there is no $q \in F$ that occurs infinitely often.

Run R is *successful* if and only if every leaf and every infinite path in R is successful. TS \mathcal{T} *satisfies* \mathcal{B} ($\mathcal{T} \models \mathcal{B}$) if and only if there exists a successful run of \mathcal{B} on \mathcal{T} . ■

It is straightforward to establish the following, where if \mathcal{B} is an ABTA with state q then $\mathcal{B}[q]$ is the ABTA \mathcal{B} with the start state changed to q .

Lemma 1. Let \mathcal{T} be a TS, let $\mathcal{B} = \langle Q, \ell, \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}}, q_I, \mathcal{F} \rangle$ be an ABTA, and let $q, q' \in Q$ be such that $q \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}} q'$ and $\ell(q) = \neg$. Then $\mathcal{T} \models \mathcal{B}[q]$ if and only if $\mathcal{T} \not\models \mathcal{B}[q']$.

Next we define the subset of *and-restricted* ABTAs.

Definition 7 ABTA $\langle Q, \ell, \rightarrow, q_I, \mathcal{F} \rangle$ is *and-restricted* if and only if every $q \in Q$ satisfies:

1. if $\ell(q) = \wedge$ then there is at most one q' such that $q \rightarrow q'$ and $q' \rightarrow^* q$; and
2. if $\ell(q) = [\Theta]$ and $q \rightarrow q'$ then $q' \not\rightarrow^* q$. ■

And-restriction plays an important role in our model-checking procedure, and we comment more on it here. In an and-restricted ABTA the strongly-connected component of a state labeled by \wedge can contain at most one of the state’s children; a state labeled by $[\Theta]$ on the other hand is guaranteed to belong to a different strongly-connected component than its child. And-restrictedness differs from the notion of *hesitation* introduced in [23]; an ABTA would be hesitant if, roughly speaking, every strongly-connected component of a node labeled by \wedge or $[\Theta]$ would contain only nodes labeled by \wedge or Θ . Nevertheless, and-restrictedness plays the same role in our theory that hesitation does in [23]: automata obeying these conditions give rise to more efficient model-checking routines while still providing sufficient expressiveness to encode logics such as CTL*.

3 ABTAs and Model Checking

Checking whether or not $\mathcal{T} \models \mathcal{B}$ for TS \mathcal{T} and ABTA \mathcal{B} reduces to searching for the existence of a successful run of \mathcal{B} on \mathcal{T} . This section presents an efficient on-the-fly algorithm for this check in the setting of and-restricted ABTAs.

3.1 TSSs, ABTAs and Product Graphs

Our ABTA model-checking algorithm works by exploring the “product graph” of an ABTA and a TS. In what follows, fix ABTA $\mathcal{B} = \langle Q, \ell, \rightarrow_{\mathcal{B}}, q_I, \mathcal{F} \rangle$ and TS $\mathcal{T} = \langle S, A, \ell_S, \ell_A, \rightarrow_{\mathcal{T}}, s_I \rangle$, and assume that $\mathcal{F} = \{F_0, \dots, F_{n-1}\}$. The *product graph* of \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{T} has vertex set $V = Q \times S \times \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ and edges $E \subseteq V \times V$ defined by $(\langle q, s, i \rangle, \langle q', s', i' \rangle) \in E$ if and only if:

- there exist nodes σ and σ' in some run of \mathcal{B} on \mathcal{T} labeled $\langle q, s \rangle$ and $\langle q', s' \rangle$ respectively and such that $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma'$; and
- either $q \notin F_i$ and $i' = i$, or $q \in F_i$ and $i' = (i + 1) \bmod n$.

$E_N \subseteq E$ consists of those edges $(\langle q, s, i \rangle, \langle q', s', i' \rangle)$ such that q and q' are in different strongly-connected components in \mathcal{B} , while $E_R = E - E_N$. We sometimes refer to E_N as the *nonrecursive* relation and to E_R as the *recursive* relation. A vertex $\langle q, s, i \rangle$ in the product graph is said to be *accepting* if and only if $q \in \mathcal{F}_0$ and $i = 0$.

3.2 Searching the Product Graph

We now present an algorithm for determining if the product graph mentioned above contains a successful run in the case that the ABTA \mathcal{B} is and-restricted. The routine is based on the memory-efficient on-the-fly algorithm for emptiness-checking of Büchi word automata in [15]; as is the case in that algorithm our goal is to eliminate the storage penalty associated with the “strongly-connected component” algorithms [23]. The alterations are necessitated by the fact that ABTAs contain conjunctive as well as disjunctive states and are intended to accept TSs (i.e. trees) rather than words.

Like the algorithm in [15] ours employs two depth-first searches, DFS1 and DFS2, that attempt to mark nodes as either true or false. The purpose of the former is to search for true and false leaves in the product graph, and to “restart” the latter whenever an accepting node is found. The latter determines whether or not the node given to it is reachable from itself via nodes not previously traversed by DFS2. The success of DFS2

has implications for the existence of runs with successful paths. Pseudo-code for these procedures may be found in the appendix.

When exploring $v = \langle q, s, i \rangle$, DFS1 uses the label of q in \mathcal{B} and the transitions from s in \mathcal{T} to guide its search. The non-recursive successors of v are processed first via recursive calls to DFS1; if the results do not immediately imply the truth or falsity of v , then DFS1 is called recursively on v 's recursive children. (Note that this simplifies the treatment of negation: no explicit treatment of “infinite negative paths” is necessary in the algorithm. Also note that since ABTAs are and-restricted, all but one of the children of a node labeled by \wedge can have their truth values determined by recursive calls to DFS1. This latter fact is crucial to the correctness of our algorithm.) If these results are inconclusive, and v is accepting, then DFS2 is called to determine if v is reachable from itself. If this is the case, then v is labeled as true. (DFS2 cycles involving FALSE states are, of course, not allowed).

A subtlety arises in our setting when a recursive child v' of v has been visited previously by DFS1 and v' has not been marked true or false. The node v' cannot necessarily be assumed to be false, as is implicitly done in [15], because there may be a successful cycle in the same strongly-connected component as it that was not detected until after DFS1(v') terminated. To avoid needless recomputation in this case, we maintain a *dependency* set for each node; these sets contain nodes that should become true if the indicated node is found to be true. In the example above we would insert v into the dependency set of v' ; if v' is later marked as true, then v would be as well.

Theorem 8. *DFS1($\langle q_I, s_I, 0 \rangle$) returns “true” if and only if $\mathcal{T} \models \mathcal{B}$.*

Theorem 9. *Let $\mathcal{B} = \langle Q, \ell, \longrightarrow_{\mathcal{B}}, q_I, \mathcal{F} \rangle$ be an ABTA and $\mathcal{T} = \langle S, A, \ell_S, \ell_A, \longrightarrow_{\mathcal{T}}, s_I \rangle$ be a TS. Then DFS1($\langle q_I, s_I, 0 \rangle$) runs in time linear in the size of the product graph of \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{T} , whose vertex set is bounded in size by $|Q| \cdot |S| \cdot |\mathcal{F}|$, where $|\mathcal{F}|$ is the number of component sets in \mathcal{F} .*

4 Reducing ABTAs

The previous theorem indicates that the time needed to check whether or not $\mathcal{T} \models \mathcal{B}$ depends intimately on the number of states in \mathcal{B} . Consequently, any preprocessing that reduces the number of states in \mathcal{B} can have a significant impact on model-checker performance. In this section we present several heuristics that may be used to eliminate states in ABTAs.

Büchi State Set Minimalization The ABTA acceptance condition specifies that an infinite (positive) path in a run is successful if and only if that path contains an infinite number of states from each of the sets of accepting states. This can only occur when a cycle in the ABTA contains at least one state from each set of accepting states. Moreover, a state not part of any such cycle can safely be removed from all member sets in \mathcal{F} , since no infinite path going through that state can satisfy the Büchi condition.

To check for such states we perform a depth-first search for cycles that contain at least one member of each set of accepting states. If for a particular state such a cycle does not exist, that state is removed from all accepting sets that contain it. While not reducing the size of the ABTA directly, this transformation is important for two reasons.

1. *It improves the performance of other reductions.* Some of the other reductions may only be applied to states that are members of the same accepting sets. Eliminating states from accepting sets improves their performance.
2. *The size of the product automaton is reduced.* Each state in the product graph contains an index reflecting the member set of \mathcal{F} “currently” being searched for. This search procedure is unnecessary for states not having the kind of cycle just described; by removing these states from acceptance sets, unnecessary vertices associated with this search can be avoided.

Constant Propagation Some atomic state propositions are uniformly true or false of all TS states, and these values can be propagated upwards as far as possible.

Associative Joining Because \vee and \wedge are associative we can also apply another reduction: for any $\wedge(\vee)$ -labeled state q with a transition to another $\wedge(\vee)$ -labeled state q' , where q and q' are in the same sets of accepting states, remove the transition from q to q' and add outgoing transitions from q to every state to which q' had a transition. This is applied recursively (if q' has a transition to another $\wedge(\vee)$ -labeled state q'' we also add its outgoing transitions to q , and so forth). This has two benefits: (1) the state q' may become unreachable and hence removable, thereby reducing ABTA size and (2) model checking avoids passing through q' (and q'' , etc.) in the depth-first searches starting from q . Because q and q' must be in the same sets of accepting states, this simplification is much more effectively performed after accepting-state set minimalization.

Quotienting via Bisimulation The final simplification involves merging states with the same “structure.” We do this using bisimulation [26]. Specifically, we alter the traditional definition of bisimulation to take account of state labels and acceptance set information, and we then quotient \mathcal{B} by this equivalence. To ensure maximum reduction this should always be the last simplification applied.

5 Translating Temporal Formulas into ABTAs

A virtue of ABTA-based model checking is that translation procedures for temporal logics into ABTAs may be defined abstractly via “proof rules.” This section illustrates this idea via an example, by giving the rules needed to translate a variant of CTL* into ABTAs. The logic, which we call *Generalized CTL** (GCTL*), extends CTL* by allowing formulas to constrain actions as well as states. While the logic itself is not very novel, it does contain “deviations” from CTL* that typically require alterations to a CTL* model checker. Our intention is to show that proof-rule-based translations, coupled with generic ABTA technology, can make it easier to define such “alterations”.

The syntax for our logic is given below, where $p \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\theta \in \mathcal{A}_{\text{act}}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S} &::= p \mid \neg p \mid \mathcal{S} \wedge \mathcal{S} \mid \mathcal{S} \vee \mathcal{S} \mid \mathcal{A}\mathcal{P} \mid \mathcal{E}\mathcal{P} \\ \mathcal{P} &::= \theta \mid \neg\theta \mid \mathcal{S} \mid \mathcal{P} \wedge \mathcal{P} \mid \mathcal{P} \vee \mathcal{P} \mid \mathcal{X}\mathcal{P} \mid \mathcal{P}\mathcal{U}\mathcal{P} \mid \mathcal{P}\mathcal{V}\mathcal{P} \end{aligned}$$

The formulas generated by \mathcal{S} are *state* formulas, while those generated by \mathcal{P} are *path* formulas. The state formulas constitute the formulas of GCTL*. In what follows we use $\psi, \psi', \psi_1, \dots$ to range over state formulas and $\phi, \phi', \phi_1, \dots$ to range over path formulas.

Semantically, the logic departs from traditional CTL* in two respects. Firstly, the paths that path formulas are interpreted over have the form $s_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} s_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} \dots$ and thus contain actions as well as states. Secondly, as TSs may contain deadlocked states some provision must be made for finite maximal paths as models. The GCTL* semantics follows a standard convention in temporal logic by allowing the last state in a finite maximal path to “loop” to itself; the action component of these implicit transitions is assumed to violate all atomic action propositions $\theta \in \mathcal{A}_{\text{act}}$.

Mathematically, a state satisfies $\mathcal{A}\phi$ ($\mathcal{E}\phi$) if every execution (some execution) emanating from the state satisfies ϕ . An execution satisfies a state formula if the initial state in the execution does, and it satisfies θ if the execution contains at least one transition and the label of the first transition on the path satisfies θ . A path satisfies $\neg\theta$ if either the first transition on the path is labeled by an action not satisfying θ or the path has no transitions. \mathcal{X} represents the “next-time operator” and has the usual semantics when the path is not deadlocked. A deadlocked path of form s satisfies $\mathcal{X}\phi$ if s satisfies ϕ . $\phi_1 \mathcal{U} \phi_2$ holds of a path if ϕ_1 remains true until ϕ_2 becomes true. The constructor \mathcal{V} may be thought of as a “release operator”; a path satisfies $\phi_1 \mathcal{V} \phi_2$ if ϕ_2 remains true until ϕ_1

$$\begin{array}{l}
R1 \ \wedge : \frac{\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2}{\psi_1 \ \psi_2} \quad R2 \ \vee : \frac{\psi_1 \vee \psi_2}{\psi_1 \ \psi_2} \quad R3 \ \exists : \frac{E(\psi)}{\psi} \quad R4 \ \neg : \frac{\neg\psi}{\psi} \quad R5 \ \neg : \frac{A(\Phi)}{E(\text{neg } \Phi)} \\
R6 \ \wedge : \frac{E(\Phi, \psi)}{E(\Phi) \ E(\psi)} \quad R7 \ \wedge : \frac{E(\Phi, \phi_1 \wedge \phi_2)}{E(\Phi, \phi_1, \phi_2)} \quad R8 \ \vee : \frac{E(\Phi, \phi_1 \vee \phi_2)}{E(\Phi, \phi_1) \ E(\Phi, \phi_2)} \\
R9 \ \vee : \frac{E(\Phi, \phi_1 \vee \phi_2)}{E(\Phi, \phi_1, \phi_2) \ E(\Phi, \phi_2, X(\phi_1 \vee \phi_2))} \quad R10 \ \vee : \frac{E(\Phi, \phi_1 \cup \phi_2)}{E(\Phi, \phi_2) \ E(\Phi, \phi_1, X(\phi_1 \cup \phi_2))} \\
R11 \ \langle \Psi \rangle : \frac{E(\Psi, X\phi_1, \dots, X\phi_n)}{E(\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n)} \quad R12 \ \langle \langle \Gamma \rangle \rangle : \frac{E(\Gamma, X\phi_1, \dots, X\phi_n)}{E(\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n)}
\end{array}$$

Ψ is a positive set of action literals, while Γ is a negative set.

Fig. 1. Tableau rules for GCTL*

“releases” the path from the obligation. This operator is the dual of the until operator. The details of the semantics are standard and omitted.

In GCTL* X is self-dual. Thus, while the application of negation is restricted in this logic we nevertheless have the following.

Lemma 2. *Let ψ be a state formula in GCTL*. Then there exists a formula $\text{neg}(\psi)$ such that any state in any TS satisfies $\text{neg}(\psi)$ if and only if it does not satisfy ψ .*

Our approach to generating ABTAs from GCTL* formulas uses goal-directed rules to construct tableaux from formulas. These rules operate on “formulas” of the form $E\Phi$ and $A\Phi$, where Φ is a set of path formulas. Intuitively, these terms are short-hand for $E(\bigwedge_{\phi \in \Phi} \phi)$ and $A(\bigvee_{\phi \in \Phi} \phi)$, respectively. We also call a set Θ of action literals *positive* if it contains some $\theta \in \mathcal{A}_{\text{act}}$. Otherwise it is referred to as *negative*. We use Ψ, Ψ_1, \dots and Γ, Γ_1, \dots to denote positive sets and negative sets respectively.

To construct an ABTA for state formula ψ one first generates the states and transitions. Intuitively states will correspond to state formulas, with the initial state being ψ itself. To generate new states from an existing state ψ' , one applies the rules in Figure 1 to ψ' in the order specified. That is, one determines which of R1–12 is applicable to ψ' , beginning with R1, by comparing the form of ψ' to the formula appearing in the “goal position” of each rule. The label of the rule then becomes the label of the state, and the subgoals of the rule are then added as states (if necessary), and transitions from ψ' to these states added. Leaves are labeled by the state literals they contain. This procedure is repeated until no new states are added; it is guaranteed to terminate [6].

For notational simplicity we have introduced a new label in Rule R12. Intuitively, if an ABTA state is labeled $\langle \langle \Gamma \rangle \rangle$ then it behaves like $\langle \Gamma \rangle$ for nondeadlocked TS states. For deadlocked states, the state is required to satisfy the single descendant. This operator can be encoded using the other ABTA constructs.

To define the acceptance condition \mathcal{F} , suppose $\phi \equiv \phi_1 \cup \phi_2 \in q$ and let $F_\phi = \{q' \in Q \mid (\phi \notin q' \text{ and } X\phi \notin q') \text{ or } \phi_2 \in q'\}$. Then $\mathcal{F} = \{F_\phi \mid \phi \equiv \phi_1 \cup \phi_2 \text{ and } \exists q \in Q. \phi \in q\}$. We now have the following [6].

Theorem 10. *Let ψ be a GCTL* formula and let \mathcal{B}_ψ be the BTA obtained by the translation procedure described above. Then the following hold.*

1. \mathcal{B}_ψ is and-restricted.
2. Let $\mathcal{T} \equiv \langle S, \rightarrow, L, s_0 \rangle$ be a TS. Then $s_0 \models_{\mathcal{T}} p$ if and only if \mathcal{T} is accepted by \mathcal{B}_p .

In general B_ψ will be exponential in the size of ψ . However, if ψ falls within the GCTL fragment of GCTL*, then B_ψ is linear in the size of ψ .

We close this section with some comments on and-restrictedness. Our model-checking routine only works on and-restricted ABTAs, which means that the rule-based approach described above for producing model checkers only works if the rules generate and-restricted ABTAs. In practice this means that in rules labeled by \wedge , at most one subgoal can be “recursive”, i.e. can include the formula identified in the goal. For temporal logics based on CTL* this restriction is not problematic, since the recursive characterizations of standard modalities only involve one “recursive call”. For logics such as the mu-calculus in which arbitrary recursive properties may be specified the relevant rules would not satisfy this restriction, and the approach advocated in this paper would not be applicable. (It should be noted, however, that sublogics of the mu-calculus, such as the L2 fragment identified in [17], do fit into our framework.)

6 Implementation and Empirical Assessment

To assess our ideas in practice we implemented ABTAs in the CWB-NC verification tool [12]. The procedures we coded (in Standard ML) included: basic ABTA manipulation routines (819 lines); the ABTA model-checking routine given in Section 3 (631 lines); and ABTA simplification routines described in Section 4 (654 lines). The routines made heavy use of existing CWB-NC data structures for manipulating automata. This code is “generic” in the sense that it would be used by any ABTA-based model checker implemented in the CWB-NC.

We also implemented a front-end for GCTL* using the Process Algebra Compiler (PAC) [13], a parser- and semantic-routine generator for the CWB-NC. We used sets of actions as atomic action propositions and included only “true” and “false” as atomic state propositions, with obvious interpretations. The code for the front-end included 214 lines of yacc and 605 lines of auxiliary code, with most of the latter being devoted to the calculation of acceptance-set information and the implementation of Rule 5 in Figure 1. It should be noted that of this code, approximately 15% is GCTL* specific; the rest could also be used defining e.g. a CTL* model checker.

To study the performance of our implementation we used two existing case studies included in the current distribution of the CWB-NC to compare our generic ABTA-based model checker for GCTL* with the model checker for the L2 fragment of the mu-calculus that is included in the CWB-NC release. The systems studied included a rendering of the SCSI-2 Bus Protocol [7] and a description of the Slow-Scan fault-tolerant communications protocol [11]. In both applications mu-calculus formulas encode key properties of the systems in question. We used the existing models but translated the formulas in question into GCTL*; we then ran our ABTA-based model checker for GCTL* in order to compare its efficiency with the CWB-NC’s mu-calculus checker. We also performed a deadlock-freedom check in both logics as well.

The properties included several involving fairness constraints. Emblematic of these is Property 2 in [7], which asserts that any phase in the SCSI-2 protocol eventually ends, provided the initiator in the protocol does not repeatedly issue an ATN signal. This property may be encoded in GCTL* as follows

$$AG(\{\text{@begin_Phase}\} \Rightarrow (\mathbf{F}\{\text{@end_Phase}\} \vee \mathbf{GF}\{\text{@obs_setATN}, \text{@obsplace}\}))$$

This formula asserts that along all paths, whenever the action @begin_Phase occurs, then either the action @end_Phase is performed or at least one of the actions @obs_setATN and @obsplace occurs infinitely often. (The @obsplace action is needed for reasons relating to the modeling.) The corresponding mu-calculus used in the case study is given below.

$$\neg(\mu X.(\text{@begin_Phase})(\mu Y.\nu Z.(\text{@begin_Phase})\mathbf{tt} \vee (\text{@end_Phase})X \vee \{-\text{@obsplace}, \text{@obs_setATN}, \text{@end_Phase}\}Z \vee \{\text{@obsplace}, \text{@obs_setATN}\}Y) \vee \{-\text{@begin_Phase}\}X)$$

Table 1. SCSI-2 performance data for ABTA model checker. All times are in seconds.

Reference # in [7]	Unsimplified ABTA size	Simplified ABTA size	ABTA Time	Mu-calculus Time
1	42	24	2739.670	3423.990
2	54	8	533.400	1022.430
3	12	8	676.220	542.180
4	12	8	401.300	483.470
5	42	20	410.540	943.560
6	57	8	509.420	984.600
NoDeadlock	7	5	593.240	704.850

Tables 1 and 2 give our experimental results. For each of the formulas we record: the size of the ABTA before and after simplification, and the running times of the ABTA-based GCTL* model checker and the CWB-NC model checker on the equivalent mu-calculus formula. Timing information was collected on a Sun Enterprise E450 with two 336 MHz processors and 2 GB of main memory. Some comments are in order.

- Some ABTA state-space reduction is due to our encoding of the constructs **F** and **G** in terms of **U** and **V**. These encodings use constants **tt** (“true”) and **ff** (“false”), which constant-propagation then eliminates. Introducing explicit rules for these constructs would yield smaller initial ABTAs at the expense of a larger set of rules.
- The papers [7] and [11] describes several different models. In each case we used the largest: 62,000, and 12,000 states, respectively.
- The mu-calculus model-checker implements the on-the-fly algorithm given in [5, 17], which runs in $O(|M| \cdot |\phi| \cdot ad(\phi))$, where $|M|$ is the size of the system, $|\phi|$ the size of the formula, and $ad(\phi)$ the alternation depth of ϕ .
- In the SCSI-2 example, Formulas 2, 5 and 6 involve fairness constraints, with 2 and 6 having the same shape. Formulas 1, 3 and 4 are safety properties, with 3 and 4 having the same shape. Thus, the minimized automata for 2 and 6 have the same number of states, as do 3 and 4. That 2 and 3 have the same size is a coincidence.
- In the Slow-Scan example, only Formulas 1, 2, 8 and 9 involve fairness.
- Because the translation procedure in Figure 1 treats **A** by dualizing it (i.e. converting it into $\neg E \neg$), the ABTA for deadlock-freedom has more states than usual.

Based on the figures in the tables, we can draw the following conclusions.

1. *The ABTA checker dramatically outperforms the mu-calculus checker on formulas involving fairness.* The factor by which the time required by the latter exceeded that needed by the former ranged from 1.9 (SCSI-2 Property 6) to 5.3 (Slow-Scan Property 9), with the average being 3.1. This behavior is a result of the fact that due to the fairness constraints, the mu-calculus formulas all have alternation-depth 2, and the time-complexity of the mu-calculus routine is affected by alternation depth.
2. *The ABTA model checker also outperforms the mu-calculus checker for safety properties.* In all but two cases the ABTA routine outperforms the mu-calculus routine, with the over-all average improvement factor being 1.6.

7 Related Work

Alternating tree automata are studied extensively as a basis for branching-time model checking in [23]. However, ABTAs differ from the automata in [23] in ways that we believe ease their use in practice; we summarize these below.

Transition relation: In [23] the authors embed propositional constructs inside the transition relation. In ABTAs propositional constructs are used to label states. This offers advantages when ABTAs are simplified; for example, we may use the traditional notion of bisimulation equivalence to minimize ABTAs.

Table 2. Slow-Scan performance data for ABTA model checker. All times are in seconds.

Name	Reference # in [11]	Unsimplified ABTA size	Simplified ABTA size	ABTA Time	Mu-calculus Time
<i>failures-responded</i>	1	52	13	2.890	13.600
<i>failures-responded-again</i>	2	59	16	144.720	471.780
<i>can-tick</i>	3	12	8	205.580	328.430
<i>failures-possible</i>	4	5	4	0.020	0.080
<i>failures-possible-again</i>	5	14	9	118.790	189.380
<i>no-false-alarms</i>	6	7	5	1.670	2.760
<i>no-false-alarms-again</i>	7	14	8	139.210	221.540
<i>eventually-silent</i>	8	92	14	159.710	409.190
<i>react-on-repair</i>	9	26	10	137.630	729.550
<i>no-deadlock</i>	-	7	5	205.930	200.220

Negation: The automata in [23] do not use negation in the definition of transitions; ABTAs do allow the use of a negation operator to label states. This allows the acceptance component of an ABTA to be simpler (“Büchi-like”) than the Rabin condition in [23] and also simplifies the model-checking algorithm.

Algorithm: Because of our Büchi-like condition and our consideration of and-restricted ABTAs, we are able to adapt the memory-efficient on-the-fly algorithm of [15], which is also time-efficient. The time-efficient algorithm of [23] relies on the construction of strongly-connected components, which our algorithm avoids.

We reiterate that and-restricted alternating automata differ markedly from hesitant alternating automata as introduced in [23]. In particular, and-restricted ABTAs require no definition of “levels of weakness” or classification of states as existential/universal. The price we must pay is that “recursion through \wedge ” is limited.

Another alternating-tree-automaton-based approach to model checking may be found in [30]. The algorithm relies on the use of games to avoid the construction of the strongly-connected components used in [23]. An implementation is described in [31].

Methods for simplifying Büchi word automata have been given in [19,28]. The papers both present simulation-based techniques for reducing the number of states in such automata, and [28] shows how acceptance sets for generalized Büchi automata may be reduced. Neither paper considers alternating or tree automata.

The mu-calculus [22] has also been proposed as an intermediate language for translation-based model checking [3,6,16,18]. Tool support for this translational-scheme remains problematic, however, owing in part to the complexity of the translation procedures for logics like CTL*. Our performance figures also suggest that the alternation-depth factor in mu-calculus model-checking algorithms has practical impacts: our ABTA model-checker significantly outperforms the mu-calculus checker on formulas with nontrivial alternation-depth.

8 Conclusions and Directions for Future Research

This paper presents a generic approach to building model-checkers that relies on the use of intermediate structures called alternating Büchi tableau automata. These automata support efficient model checking and simplification routines, and they also admit the definition of abstract proof-rule-based translation procedures for temporal formulas into ABTAs. This eases the task of retargeting a model-checker, since one need only specify the translation into ABTAs of the logic in question. We demonstrated the utility of our ideas by developing a translation-based model checker for a variant of CTL*.

As future work we would like to develop automated support for the generation of ABTA translators from proof rules and high-level specifications of acceptance conditions. We are also interested in an efficient model-checking algorithm for all ABTAs, and we would like to investigate compositional techniques for ABTAs based on the partial-model-checking ideas of [4]. Finally, it would be interesting to adapt the simulation-based automaton simplifications presented in [19,28] to ABTAs.

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A Pseudo-code for ABTA Model Checking

```

DFS2( $v = \langle q, s, i \rangle, v' = \langle q', s', i' \rangle$ ) : bool =
  mark  $v$  visited by DFS2.
   $C_r := \{v_r \in V \mid E_R(v, v_r)\}$ .
  if  $v' \in C_r$  then return TRUE.
  foreach  $v_r \in C_r$  s.t.  $v_r$  not marked FALSE do
    if  $v_r$  not marked visited by DFS2 then
      if DFS2( $v_r, v'$ ) then return TRUE.
  return FALSE.

markAndPropagate ( $v = \langle q, s, i \rangle, val : bool$ ) : bool =
  if not val then return FALSE.
  mark  $v$  TRUE.
  foreach  $v' \in Depend(v)$  do
    remove  $v'$  from  $Depend(v)$ ;
    markAndPropagate ( $v', TRUE$ ).
  return TRUE.

DFS1 ( $v = \langle q, s, i \rangle$ ) : bool =
  if  $v$  marked TRUE then return TRUE.
  mark  $v$  visited by DFS1.
   $c_n := \{v' \in Q \mid E_N(v, v')\}$ .
   $c_r := \{v' \in Q \mid E_R(v, v')\}$ .
  case ( $\ell(q)$ ):
     $p \in \mathcal{A}$ :
      return (markAndPropagate ( $v, s \in \ell_S(p)$ )).
     $\neg$ :
      foreach  $v_n \in c_n$  do
        return (markAndPropagate ( $v, not DFS1(v_n)$ )).
  [ $\emptyset$ ],  $\wedge$ :
    foreach  $v_n \in c_n$  do
      if not DFS1( $v_n$ ) then return FALSE.
    if  $c_r = \emptyset$  then
      return (markAndPropagate ( $v, TRUE$ )).
    for the  $v_r \in c_r$  do
      if  $v_r$  marked visited by DFS1 then
        insert  $v$  in  $Depend(v_r)$ .
      else
        if DFS1( $v_r$ ) then
          return (markAndPropagate ( $v, TRUE$ )).
    if (accepting( $v$ )) then
      return (markAndPropagate ( $v, DFS2(v, v)$ )).
    return FALSE.
   $\vee, \langle \emptyset \rangle$ :
    foreach  $v_n \in c_n$  do
      if DFS1( $v_n$ ) then
        return (markAndPropagate ( $v, TRUE$ )).
    foreach  $v_r \in c_r$  do
      if  $v_r$  marked visited by DFS1 then
        insert  $v$  in  $Depend(v_r)$ .
      else
        if DFS1( $v_r$ ) then
          return (markAndPropagate ( $v, TRUE$ ))
    if (accepting( $v$ )) then
      return (markAndPropagate ( $v, DFS2(v, v)$ )).
    return FALSE.

```