An Implementation of Three Algorithms for Timing Verification Based on Automata Emptiness

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1 Introduction

Designing correct algorithms for systems involving interaction among state machines, such as communication protocols and concurrent algorithms, is known to be a difficult task. Design errors are often overlooked because of the difficulty in reasoning about all possible executions of a concurrent system. Traditional debugging techniques, such as simulation and prototype testing, may fail because the potential state-space of the system is too large for all bugs to be revealed. Consequently, there has been increasing interest in the use of formal methods for the verification of concurrent systems.

Most work in this field has concentrated on the sequencing and coordination of system events, abstracting away the times at which events occur. However many systems are time-critical: their behaviors may be time-dependent, and their specifications may require events to occur within specific time bounds. For example, most communication protocols require a maximal response time, and an automatic flight controller must guarantee fast reaction times. Recently, much attention has been given to the problem of extending existing verification techniques to such real-time systems [Dill89, AD90, ACD90, Lew90, AH89, LA90].

We consider real-time systems described by timed automata, which have a finite-state control [AD90, ACD90]. These automata have a set of fictitious clocks which measure the passage of time. Clocks may individually be reset on transitions, and each transition is subject to an enabling condition on the clock values. A state of the system consists of the control state of the automaton and the values of all the clocks. It is clear that a timed automaton has infinitely many states. Analysis of such systems involves constructing a finite graph called a regions graph which represents a finite quotient of the infinite state graph. States in the same region are in some sense equivalent, and the regions graph can be used for checking emptiness of an automaton [AD90], deciding bisimulation equivalence between timed automata [Cer91], real-time model-checking [ACD90], deciding reachability questions [CY90], and controller synthesis [WTH91]. The practical difficulty lies in the fact that the regions graph is exponentially large. As well as the state-space explosion due to concurrent components, there is an additional blow-up due to the time bounds. There is therefore great need for the development and testing of heuristics before formal verification becomes practical.

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In this paper, we describe three generic (untimed) algorithms for constructing graphs of the reachable states of a system, and how these graphs can be used for verification. They all have as input an implicit description of a transition system. We then apply these algorithms to real-time systems. The first algorithm performs a straightforward reachability analysis on sets of states of the system, rather than on individual states. This corresponds to stepping symbolically through the system many states at a time. In the case of a real-time system this procedure constructs a graph where each node is the union of some regions of the regions graph. There is therefore no need for an a priori partitioning of the state space into individual regions; however, this approach potentially leads to exponentially worse complexity since its potential state space is the power set of regions [Dil89]. The other two algorithms we consider are minimization algorithms [BFH90, LY92]. These simultaneously perform reachability analysis and minimization from an implicit system description. These can lead to great savings when the minimized graph is much smaller than the regions graph.

Our paradigm for verification is to test for the emptiness of the set of all timed system executions that violate a requirements specification. One way to specify and verify non-terminating processes is to model them as languages of \( \omega \)-sequences of events [Par81, SVW87, MP87, Dil89, Kru90, LT87]. Modular processes can be constructed via operations involving language intersection. Specifications are also given as languages: they contain all acceptable event sequences. Program correctness is then just language containment. If the process language \( P \) has the specification \( \text{Spec} \), to verify \( P \) is to establish that \( P \subseteq \text{Spec} \), or equivalently that \( P \cap \text{Spec} \) (where \( \text{Spec} \) represents the complement of the specification) is empty. In many cases both \( P \) and \( \neg \text{Spec} \) can be expressed naturally by a \textit{fair transition system} (or fts for short). Since fts’s are closed under intersection, program verification reduces to a test of emptiness of a fts. This methodology is suitable for verifying real-time systems since timed automata are a form of fts.

We describe how these algorithms are implemented, and discuss strategies for analyzing only the “non-Zeno” runs of a timed automaton, i.e., runs where time progresses without bound. The performance of the implementations is compared using two examples: a train-gate controller, and Fischer’s timed mutual exclusion algorithm.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In the next section, we give a general description of a fair transition system. This provides the framework for the three algorithms discussed in Sections 3 and 4. Section 5 describes timed automata. In Section 6, we show how these algorithms are adapted for timed systems. A method for representing sets of states of a real-time system is given in Section 7. Performance over the examples of Section 8 is evaluated in Section 9.

2 Analysis of Fair Transition Systems

2.1 Fair Transition Systems

Suppose we have an implicit description of a labeled transition system \( S = (\Sigma, S, s_0, \rightarrow, \mathcal{F}) \). Here \( \Sigma \) is a set of events and the set \( S \) is a not necessarily finite set of states. The state \( s_0 \in S \) is the initial state, and \( \rightarrow \subseteq S \times \Sigma \times S \) is the transition relation. We denote the fact that a transition \( t : (s, \sigma, s') \in \rightarrow \) by the notation \( s \xrightarrow{\sigma} s' \). For \( t : (s, \sigma, s') \in \rightarrow \), the set \( t(s) = \{ s' \} \). For a state \( s \) and a subset \( X \subseteq S \), we write \( s \xrightarrow{\sigma} X \) to mean that \( s \xrightarrow{\sigma} s' \) for some \( s' \in X \). We use \( s \xrightarrow{\cdot} \) to mean that there is some event \( \sigma \) such that \( s \xrightarrow{\sigma} s' \). The notation \( s \xrightarrow{\cdot} X \) for a set \( X \) is used similarly. The fairness constraint set \( \mathcal{F} \) is a subset of \( 2^S \).

A run of a fts \( S \) for an infinite sequence of events \( \sigma_i \in \Sigma \) is an infinite sequence of states \( s_i \in S \).
such that

\[ s_0 \xrightarrow{\sigma_0} s_1 \xrightarrow{\sigma_1} s_2 \xrightarrow{\sigma_2} \ldots \xrightarrow{\sigma_{n-1}} s_n \xrightarrow{\sigma_n} \ldots \]

It is a fair run if for every set \( F_j \in \mathcal{F} \), \( s_i \in F_j \) for infinitely many \( i \). The language accepted by the fts is the set of infinite sequences that have fair runs.

### 2.2 Emptiness

When both \( S \) and \( \Sigma \) are finite, there are many well-known algorithms for constructing the reachable subgraph of \( S \). From such a subgraph, emptiness of \( S \) can be decided by looking for strongly connected components that satisfy the fairness constraints. However in many cases, and indeed for timed systems, this finiteness assumption is not true (the notion of state includes a real-valued time component).

Thus rather than constructing a graph with individual states as nodes, we build from \( S \) instead a set-graph \( G = (\Sigma, \mathcal{N}, N_0, \rightarrow) \), whose nodes \( \mathcal{N} \) are sets of states of \( S \), rather than individual states. We say a set-graph is complete if and only if every state \( s \in S \) appears in some node \( N \in \mathcal{N} \). We now describe two properties that prove useful in relating the emptiness of \( S \), to the emptiness of \( G \).

A set-graph \( G \) is bisimulating if and only if \( \forall N_1, N_2 \in \mathcal{N}, \forall \sigma \in \Sigma \)

\[ \exists s \in N_1 : s \xrightarrow{\sigma} N_2 \]

if and only if \( \forall s' \in N_1 : s' \xrightarrow{\sigma} N_2 \)

if and only if \( N_1 \xrightarrow{\sigma} N_2 \)

A set-graph \( G \) is surjective if and only if \( \forall N_1, N_2 \in \mathcal{N}, \forall \sigma \in \Sigma \)

\[ \exists s' \in N_2 \exists s \in N_1 : s \xrightarrow{\sigma} s' \]

if and only if \( \forall s'' \in N_2 \exists s \in N_1 : s \xrightarrow{\sigma} s'' \)

if and only if \( N_1 \xrightarrow{\sigma} N_2 \)

**Proposition:** Let \( G \) be a complete set-graph for \( S \). Assume that \( G \) is either bisimulating or surjective.

If there exists a run \( \{s_i\} \) for \( \{\sigma_i\} \) in \( S \), then there exists a run \( \{N_i\} \) for \( \{\sigma_i\} \) in \( G \) such that \( s_i \in N_i \).

Conversely, if there exists a run \( \{N_i\} \) for \( \{\sigma_i\} \) in \( G \), then there exist a run \( \{s_i\} \) for \( \{\sigma_i\} \) in \( S \) such that \( S_i \in N_i \). \( \Box \)

In order to capture a correspondence between the fair runs of \( S \) and the runs of \( G \), we have to ensure that whenever a state \( s \) in a node \( N \) of \( G \) intersects with some fairness set \( F_1 \in \mathcal{F} \), then all states in \( N \) lie within \( F_1 \). We say that a set of states \( N \) respects a partition \( \rho \) of \( S \), if and only if for every class \( X \in \rho \), \( N \cap X \) is either empty or all of \( X \).

For a set \( A \subseteq S \), we denote its complement with respect to \( S \) by \( \overline{A} \). Let \( A, B \subseteq S \). We let \( \odot \) be the pairwise intersection operator on sets, i.e.

\[ \{A_i\} \odot \{B_j\} = \{A_i \cap B_j\} \]

The operator is generalized to multiple arguments. Consider the partition
\[
\rho_0 = \bigotimes_{F_i \in \mathcal{F}} \{F_i, \overline{F_i}\}
\]

We say a set-graph \( G \) for \( S \) is fairness-respecting if and only if every node \( N \) of \( G \) respects the partition \( \rho_0 \).

**Theorem:** Let \( G \) be a complete, fairness-respecting set-graph for \( S \). Suppose \( G \) is also either bisimulating or surjective. The its \( S \) is non-empty if and only if \( G \) has a strongly connected component which contains for every \( i \) a node \( N_i \) such that \( N_i \cap F_i \neq \emptyset \). \( \square \)

We now outline three algorithms that build complete, fairness-respecting set-graphs. The first algorithm produces only graphs that are surjective, while the last two generate bisimulating graphs.

### 3 Set-Reachability Algorithm

There are familiar algorithms for reachability which perform an exhaustive search over a discrete state-space. When examining one discrete state, all of its successors must also be examined in some order (commonly either depth-first or breadth-first order). A state need not be examined further if it has previously been visited.

This basic methodology can be applied to *sets* of states, rather than individual states. Given a partition of the state space, and an initial reachable set of states respecting that partition, we want to construct a graph where all nodes are sets of states, and there is an edge between two sets of states \( A \) and \( A' \) whenever every state in \( A' \) is directly accessible from some state in \( A \), *i.e.* we want to build a surjective set-graph. Furthermore every node respects the partition.

```plaintext
procedure set_reachability {
    input A0;  /* an initial reachable set of states respecting rho_0 */
    input S;   /* a transition system */
    input rho; /* a partition of the states */
    output G;  /* a graph as described above */

    vertices(G) := \{\};
    edges(G) := \{\};
    stack := emptystack;
    push(A0, stack);
    while (not empty(stack)) do
        A := pop(stack);
        for (t in Transitions(S)) do
            At := successors(A, t);
            if (At <> \{\}) then
                A' := intersect(At, rho);
                while (A' <> \{\}) do
                    B := select(A');
                    A' := A' - B;
                    if (not B in vertices(G)) then
                        vertices(G) := vertices(G) + B;
                        push(B, stack);
                    endif
                    edges(G) := edges(G) + <A, t, B>;
                endwhile
            endif
        endwhile
}
```

4
Let $V(\tilde{I})$ be the set of states that are reachable from $A_0$ via the sequence of transitions $\tilde{I}$. The algorithm will terminate if and only if the cardinality of $\{V(\tilde{I})\}_{\tilde{I} \in T(S)}$ is finite.

4 Minimization Algorithms

We now briefly describe two algorithms for simultaneously minimizing and generating the reachable subgraph of an implicitly defined transition system. First we introduce some common notation.

Let $\rho$ be a partition of $S$. A class $X \in \rho$ is said to be stable with respect to another class $Y \in \rho$ if and only if $\forall \sigma \in \Sigma$

$$\exists x \in X : x \xrightarrow{\sigma} Y \text{ implies } \forall x \in X : x \xrightarrow{\sigma} Y$$

A class is stable with respect to $\rho$ if it is stable with respect to every class in $\rho$, and the partition $\rho$ is called a bisimulation if and only if every class of $\rho$ is stable with respect to $\rho$.

The reduction of $S$ according to a partition $\rho$ is the transition system $S|\rho = (\text{Acc}(\rho), [s_0]_\rho, \rightarrow_\rho)$, where

- $\text{Acc}(\rho)$ is the set of classes of $\rho$ which contain at least one state accessible from $s_0$;
- $[s_0]_\rho$ denotes the class of $\rho$ which contains $s_0$;
- $x \xrightarrow{\sigma}_\rho Y$ iff $x \xrightarrow{\sigma} Y$ for some $x \in X$.

4.1 Minimization Algorithm I

This minimization algorithm is due to Boujani et al [BFH+92, BFH90].

The algorithm starts from a transition system $S$ and an initial partition $\rho$ and constructs a transition system $S|\bar{\rho}$, where $\bar{\rho}$ is the coarsest bisimulation compatible with $\rho_0$ (every class of $\rho_0$ is a union of classes of $\bar{\rho}$). The algorithm will terminate whenever the bisimulation $\bar{\rho}$ has a finite number of classes. The generic algorithm is parameterized by the following functions which are specific to the transition system $S$. For computational efficiency we describe here a variant of the split function found in [BFH+92, BFH90].

- $\text{split}$ is a non-deterministic function which "splits" a class $X$ of a partition $\rho$ into "more stable" subclasses. Let $\gamma$ be the set of classes of $\rho$ for which $X$ is not stable. If $\gamma$ is not empty, then $\text{split}$ returns a minimal set of subclasses of $X$ that are stable with respect to some $Y \in \gamma$. If $\gamma$ is empty, i.e. $X$ is stable with respect to $\rho$, then $\text{split}$ returns $X$.

- For a class $X$ of $\rho$, the set $\text{post}_\rho(X)$ is the set of classes in $\rho$ which contain at least one state directly accessible from a state of $X$: $\text{post}_\rho(X) = \{Y \mid \exists x \in X, x \rightarrow Y\}$.

- The set $\text{pre}_\rho(X)$ is the set of classes in $\rho$ which contain at least one state from which a state of $X$ is directly accessible: $\text{pre}_\rho(X) = \{Y \mid \exists y \in Y, y \rightarrow X\}$.
In the following algorithm, $\rho$ is the current partition, $\alpha$ is the set of classes of $\rho$ which have been found accessible from (the class of) the initial state, and $\sigma$ is the set classes of $\rho$ which have been found stable with respect to $\rho$.

\begin{verbatim}
procedure min_algo_I;
begin
  rho := rho_0;
  alpha := { [s0] };
  sigma := {};
  while (alpha <> sigma) do
    X := select(alpha - sigma);
    alpha' := split(X,rho);
    if (alpha' = { X }) then
      sigma := sigma + {X};
      alpha := alpha + Post(rho)(X);
    else
      alpha := alpha - {X};
      if (there exists Y in alpha' such that s0 in Y) then
        alpha := \alpha + \{Y\};
      endif
      sigma := sigma - Pre(rho)(X);
      rho := (rho - {X}) + alpha';
    endif
  endwhile
endprocedure
\end{verbatim}

4.2 Minimization Algorithm II

This minimization algorithm \cite{LY92} is similar in spirit to the one above. It differs in that it does not compute the exact states in each node of the minimal reachable subgraph. It specifies an explicit strategy for choosing which class of the partition to split next. It also guarantees that no effort is wasted unnecessarily splitting classes that are not reachable (this idea in fact led to the variant of the \textit{split} function we use in Minimization Algorithm I).

The idea behind Lee and Yannakakis's selection strategy is to search forward to find classes that need to be split, and to give every class a fair chance of being split. Space does not permit a detailed account of their algorithm, so we provide instead only a brief description and a pseudo-code outline.

Whenever a class is known to be reachable, a reachable point is chosen from within the class and used to mark the class. Consequently future splitting may be done "around" this reachable point, thereby ensuring that all splitting is done on reachable classes. Once a class is reached, it is placed in a marked graph. An edge between one marked class and another indicates that there is some state in the second class that is directly accessible from the marked state of the first.

The outline below is from \cite{LY92} and uses the following functions:

- \textit{successor}(p,t) — For parameters $p \in S(S)$ and $t \in \mathcal{S}$, this function returns $t(p)$.
- \textit{successor-classes}(p,t) — For parameters $p \in S(S)$ and $t \in \mathcal{S}$, this function returns the set of all classes in the current partition that contains states in $t(p)$.
- \textit{stable-part-of}(B,p,rho) — This returns a subset of $B$ that contains the state $p$ and is stable with respect to the partition $\rho$. This operation involves successively stabilizing $B$ around the state $p$ with respect to each transition.
B' := B;
for (each t in Transitions(S)) do
    D := t(S);
    for (each marked-edge <B,p> -t-> <C,q>) do
        B' := intersection(B', inverse_image(t,C));
        D := D - C;
        endfor;
    B' := B' - inverse_image(t,D);
endfor

• edge-from(q,B) — This function evaluates whether the class B is directly accessible from state q.

We now give the algorithm itself.

global stack; /* holds list of classes to search from */
global queue; /* holds unstable classes */

procedure min_algo_II;
begins

procedure search(stack);
begins
    while (stack not empty AND termination not detected) do
        <B,p> := pop(stack);
        for (each transition t in T(S)) do
            C := successor-classes(p,t);
            D := successors(p,t);
            for (each Ci in C) do
                if (<B,p> not on queue) then
                    if (NOT all of B goes to Ci via transition t) then
                        insert(<B,p>, queue);
                    endif
                endif
            endfor
            if (Ci not marked) then
                mark(<Ci,pi>);
                push(<Ci,pi>, stack);
            endif
            add-edge(<B,p> -> <Ci,pi>);
            D := D - Ci;
            endwhile
        endwhile
        if ((D NOT empty) AND (<B,p> not in queue)) then
            insert(<B,p>, queue);
        endif
    endwhile
endprocedure

setempty(stack);
setempty(queue);
rho := rho_0;
mark(<A0,p0>);
push(<A0,p0>, stack);
search(stack);
while (queue is NOT empty) do
  <B,p> := delete-head(queue);
  B' := stable-part-of(B, p,rho);
  B'' := B - B';
  B := B'
  rho := rho + B'';
  for (each marked edge e from <C,q> -> <B,p>) do
    if (C,q) in queue AND (unstable(C,rho))) then
      insert(<C,q>, queue);
      endif
    if (NOT edge-from(q,B)) then
      delete-marked-edge(e);
    else
      if (B'' unmarked) then
        mark( <B'',p''>);
        push(<B'',p''>, stack);
      endif
      add-marked-edge( <C,q> -> <B'',p''>);
    endif
  endfor
  if (stack is NOT empty) then
    search(stack);
  endif
endwhile
endprocedure

If the minimal subgraph is finite, the algorithm will terminate without any extra termination detection. In the instance of timed transition systems, we know in advance this is the case.

5 Timed Automata

We review the definition of timed automata as a means of specifying timed transition systems and their properties [Dill89, AD90, ACD90]. We show how a timed automaton can be viewed as a fair transition system. Thus the algorithms described above can be applied to timed automata.

5.1 Timed Automata

Timed automata are a form of finite-state automata augmented with a finite set of real-valued clocks. The value of each clock represents the amount of time that has passed since it was last reset. Clocks may only be reset when transitions occur, and each transition has an associated enabling condition. Thus to express a bound on the delay between two transitions, we reset a clock on the first transition, and associate an enabling condition with the other transition.

For each transition, the enabling condition is given as a set of points in \( \mathbb{R}^n \) (\( \mathbb{R} \) denotes the set of nonnegative reals, and \( n \) is the number of clocks in the automaton). The condition is enabled provided the \( n \)-vector of clock values lies in the enabling region. We require enabling conditions to be a form of convex polyhedron of \( \mathbb{R}^n \), consisting of all the solutions of a system of linear inequalities where each inequality is of one of the following forms:

- \( x \leq k \), \( x < k \), \( x \geq k \), \( x > k \), where \( x \) is a clock and \( k \) is an integer constant, or positive infinity (denoted \( \infty \)).
• \( x - y \leq k, x - y < k \), where \( x \) and \( y \) are clocks and \( k \) is an integer constant or \( \infty \).

We call such a polyhedron a (time) zone. Let \( \mathcal{Z}(n) \) be the set of zones of \( \mathbb{R}^n \). We consider also a set of reset actions \( \mathcal{A}(n) \), which are functions from \( \mathbb{R}^n \) to \( \mathbb{R}^n \). For each \( a \in \mathcal{A} \), there is a set of indexes \( I_a \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\} \) such that

\[
\forall \bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall i = 1, \ldots, n, \quad a(\bar{x})_i = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{if } i \in I_a \\
(\bar{x})_i & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

**Definition:** A timed automaton \( G \) is a tuple \((\Sigma, Q, C, q_{init}, T, F)\) where

1. \( \Sigma \) is a finite set of events,
2. \( Q \) is a finite set of locations,
3. \( C = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \) is a (finite) set of clocks,
4. \( q_{init} \in Q \) is an initial location,
5. \( T \subseteq Q \times \Sigma \times \mathcal{Z}(n) \times \mathcal{A}(n) \times Q \) is a transition relation.
6. \( F \subseteq 2^Q \) is a set of fairness constraint.

\( \Box \)

Control of the automaton starts in location \( q_{init} \). Initially all clocks have value 0. A transition \((q, \sigma, z, a, q')\) in \( T \), denoted by \( q \xrightarrow{\sigma, z, a} q' \), means that control may pass from location \( q \in \mathcal{S} \) in the automaton to location \( q' \in Q \) via the event \( \sigma \) provided the \( n \)-vector of clock values lies in the enabling region \( a \). At the same time the reset action \( a \) is applied to the current clock values, setting to 0 all the clocks in \( I_a \).

At any instant, the state of the system can be fully described by the current location and the values of all its clocks. So, a state of the system is a pair \((q, \bar{x})\), where \( q \in Q \) and \( \bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \). We must consider two forms of events in the evolution of the transition system: either real events from \( \Sigma \) occur, or \( t \) time units pass. All events occur instantaneously: an event \( \delta_t \) represents the event that \( t \) time units have passed since the last event. Thus let \( \hat{\Sigma} = \Sigma \cup \{\delta_t | t \in \mathbb{R}\} \). Now we can define a timed consecution relation on the states of a timed automaton.

**Definition:** For \( e \in \hat{\Sigma} \), a state \((q', \bar{x}')\) is said to be an \( e \)-successor of another state \((q, \bar{x})\), written \((q, \bar{x}) \xrightarrow{e} (q', \bar{x}')\), if and only if either

- \( e = \sigma \in \Sigma \) and there is a transition \( q \xrightarrow{\sigma, z, a} q' \) such that \( \bar{x} \in z \) and \( \bar{x}' \) equals \( a(\bar{x}) \), or
- \( e = \delta_t \) and \( q' = q \) and \( \bar{x}' = \bar{x} + t' \) (where \( t' \) denotes the \( n \)-vector \([t, t, \ldots] \in \mathbb{R}^n \)).

\( \Box \)

A run of the automaton started in a state \((q, \bar{x})\) is obtained by iterating the relation \( \xrightarrow{e} \). Formally, a run \( r \) is an infinite sequence of locations \( q_i \in Q \), clock vectors \( \bar{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n \), and events \( e_i \in \hat{\Sigma} \) of the form

\[
(q_0, \bar{x}_0) \xrightarrow{e_0} (q_1, \bar{x}_1) \xrightarrow{e_1} (q_2, \bar{x}_2) \xrightarrow{e_2} \cdots \xrightarrow{e_{n-1}} (q_n, \bar{x}_n) \xrightarrow{e_n} \cdots
\]
We allow the possibility of more than one event occurring at a given time instant. One may
imagine time stopping momentarily. The occurrence of an event may be immediately followed by
another event, provided it is enabled by the new clock valuation.

Not all runs represent the unbounded passing of time; in fact there is no guarantee that any
non-zero time passes at all. However if we are to model the execution of non-terminating runs of
a timed system we wish to rule out such runs. A run \( \tau \) is \textit{progressive} (or non-Zeno) if and only if
\( \Sigma_{i=0} f(e_i) \) is unbounded, where

\[
f(e) = \begin{cases} 0 & e \in \Sigma \\ t & e = \delta_t. \end{cases}
\]

This property ensures that only a finite number of real events can occur in any finite interval of
time.

6 Verification of Timed Systems

We now describe how each of three schemes above can be adapted to check the perform verification
of timed transition systems by checking for emptiness. The graphs we construct as set-graphs for a
timed transition system have nodes of the form \( \langle q, Z \rangle \), where \( q \in Q \) and \( Z \in \mathcal{Z}(n) \). We demonstrate
how the operations required by each algorithm can be expressed as operations on time zones, and
show that each algorithm will terminate.

6.1 Zones and regions

6.1.1 Time operations

The following partial order will be considered on \( \mathbb{R}^n \):

\[
\bar{x} \leq \bar{y} \text{ iff } \exists \bar{z} \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } \bar{y} = \bar{x} + \bar{z}.
\]

The \textit{set of time successors} of a zone \( Z \) is \( Z_\leq = \{ \bar{y} \mid \bar{x} \leq \bar{y} \} \).

The \textit{set of time predecessors} of a zone \( Z \) is \( Z_\geq = \{ \bar{y} \mid \exists \bar{x} \in Z, \bar{x} \leq \bar{y} \} \).

If \( Z \) is a zone and \( Z' \) is a zone, then \( Z \setminus Z' \) is some set of disjoint zones satisfying
\( Z = Z' \cup \bigcup_i Z_i' \).

Notice that in general the region \( Z \setminus Z' \) is not a zone.

If \( Z \) and \( Z' \) are two zones, then define

\[
Z \cup Z' = \{ Z \cap Z' \} \cup (Z \setminus Z') \cup (Z' \setminus Z).
\]

In the following, we will consider regions of the form \( \langle s, Z \rangle \), for some zone \( Z \). By convention,
\( \langle s, Z \rangle \cup \langle s, Z' \rangle = \{ \langle s, Z'' \rangle \mid Z'' \in Z \cup Z' \} \).

A zone \( Z' \) is \textit{directly time-accessible} from another zone \( Z \) (noted \( Z_\leq Z' \)) if and only if it is
possible to continuously pass from any point of \( Z \) to a point of \( Z' \) by letting time elapse:

\[
Z_\leq Z' \text{ iff } \forall \bar{x} \in Z, \exists \bar{y} \in Z', \exists \bar{w} \in Z \cup Z' \text{ such that }
\begin{align*}
&\bar{x} \leq \bar{w} \leq \bar{y} \\
&\forall \bar{x} \leq \bar{x}' \times \bar{w}, \bar{x}' \in Z \\
&\forall \bar{w} < \bar{y}' \leq \bar{y}, \bar{y}' \in Z'
\end{align*}
\]
Let $Z \uparrow Z'$ denote the largest subset $Z''$ of $Z$ such that $Z'' \cap Z'$ holds:

$$Z \uparrow Z' = \bigcup \{Z'' \mid Z'' \subseteq Z \land Z'' \cap Z'\}$$

It is easy to show that $Z \uparrow Z'$ is a zone.

### 6.1.2 Transitions

We need to be able to compute the images and inverse images of transitions in a timed transition system.

The *image* of a class $(q, Z)$ under the transition $t : q_1 \xrightarrow{a,q} q_2$, denoted $t((q, Z))$, is empty if $q \neq q_1$, or $Z \cap z = \emptyset$. Otherwise it is simply $(q_2, Z')$ where $Z' = a(Z \cap z)$.

The *pre-image* of a class $(q, Z)$ under the transition $t : q_1 \xrightarrow{a,q} q_2$, denoted $t^{-1}((q, Z))$, is $(q_1, \emptyset)$ if $q \neq q_2$, or $a(z) \cap Z = \emptyset$. Otherwise it is $(q_1, Z')$ where $Z' = a^{-1}(Z) \cap z$. To find $Z'$, we compute

$$a^{-1}(Z) = \bigcup \{Z'' \mid a(Z'') \subseteq Z\}$$

We first find $Z_1$, the part of $Z$ that is in the image of $a$. This zone is simply $Z \cap Z_a$ where $Z_a$ is the $a(\mathbb{R})$. We can then express $a^{-1}(Z)$ as

$$a^{-1}(Z) = \Pi_a^{-1}(Z_1)$$

where $\Pi_a^{-1}$ is the inverse projection of all clocks in $I_a$.

A class $(q', Z')$ is *directly accessible* from another class $(q, Z)$ if and only if

1. either $q = q'$ and $Z'$ is directly time-accessible from $Z$, or
2. there exists a transition $q \xrightarrow{a,q} q'$ such that $a(Z \cap z) \cap Z' \neq \emptyset$.

### 6.2 Set Reachability

We represent the nodes of the set-graph as regions, and show each step of the algorithm yields reachable sets that are also regions.

The set-reachability algorithm requires us to specify how to find the successors of a given class, and how to compute the pairwise intersection operator.

The successor sets of a region $(q, Z)$ are themselves regions: they are the time successors $(q, Z_t)$, and the images of $(q, Z)$ under some transition $t$, namely $t((q, Z))$. Both of these operations were given in the previous subsection.

Pairwise intersection is easily handled since the intersection of any two time zones is a time zone.

The initial partition taken here, and also for the other algorithms, is

$$\rho_o = \{q \times \mathbb{R}^n \mid q \in Q\}$$

Clearly this partition is fairness-respecting, and so the set-graph constructed is too.
6.3 Minimization Algorithm I

We briefly describe how to define the functions \textit{split}, \textit{pre}, and \textit{post} in terms of operations on time zones. For a more detailed account see [ACH+92].

A class \((q, Z)\) is \textit{stable} with respect to a transition \(t \in T\) and another class \((q', Z')\) if and only if

\[ t^{-1}((q', Z')) = (q'', Z'') \]

with

\[ q'' = q \text{ implies } Z'' \cap Z = \emptyset \text{ or } Z \]

It is \textit{time-stable} with respect to \((q', Z')\) if and only if

\[ q = q' \text{ implies } Z \uparrow Z'' = \emptyset \text{ or } Z \]

A class is stable with respect to a partition \(\rho\) if and only if it is stable with respect to every transition - class pair, and time-stable with respect to every class in \(\rho\).

Let \(\rho\) be any partition of the states into regions. For any classes \((q, Z)\),

\[
\text{split}((q, Z), \rho) = \begin{cases} 
    (q, Z) & \text{if } \rho(q, Z) \text{ is stable with respect to } \rho \\
    (q, Z) \cup (q, Z \uparrow Z') & \text{for some } (q', Z'), \text{ if } (q, Z) \text{ is not time-stable with respect to } (q', Z') \\
    (q, Z) \cup t^{-1}((q', Z')) & \text{for some } t \in T, (q', Z') \in \rho \text{ such that } \\
    \text{if } (q, Z) \text{ is not time-stable with respect to } t \text{ and } (q', Z') \end{cases}
\]

Notice that this function is non-deterministic. However it always yields a set of classes that are either stable with respect to \(\rho\) or stable with respect to a greater number of transitions – class pairs.

\[
\text{pre}_\rho((s, Z)) = \{(s, Z') \in \rho \mid Z' \uparrow Z \neq \emptyset\} \cup \bigcup_{s' \xrightarrow{a} \nu s} \{(s', Z') \in \rho \mid a(Z' \cap z) \cap Z \neq \emptyset\},
\]

\[
\text{post}_\rho((s, Z)) = \{(s, Z') \in \rho \mid Z \uparrow Z' \neq \emptyset\} \cup \bigcup_{s \xrightarrow{a} s'} \{(s', Z') \in \rho \mid a(Z \cap z) \cap Z' \neq \emptyset\},
\]

6.4 Minimization Algorithm II

This algorithm uses similar procedures to the first two algorithms: images, inverse images, and time successors and predecessors are computed as above.

The only functions that differ are for marking blocks with single points and finding the successors of a single state. It turns out that not every time zone contains a time zone that represents a single point in \(\mathbb{R}^n\): this is because time zones are defined using only integer constants. Consider for example, the time zone defined by \(0 < z < 1\) for \(n = 1\). Thus the algorithm is modified slightly to mark classes not with a single reachable state, but instead with a set of states. Thus marking can also be done using time zones. Consequently, the marked subset must be updated whenever a class is split, so that it always lies within the class it is marking.
6.5 Termination

The termination of the algorithms relies on the fact that there are only finitely many time zones that need be considered in the analysis of a timed system. We merely state the result needed here and refer the reader to [ACD90, AD90, Alu91] for details.

**Theorem:** For any timed graph $G$, there is a finite set-graph (called a regions graph) whose nodes, all of the form $(q, Z)$ for some time zone in $Z$, are a stable partition of the state-space of $G$. □

Notice that the initial partition of the algorithms is coarser than the stable partition represented by the nodes of regions graph, and the minimization algorithms only ever split unstable classes. Thus at any point during the algorithm, every class of the generated set-graph is the union of nodes in the regions graph.

**Theorem:** The minimization algorithms described above terminate. □

The set-reachability algorithm as outline above in fact does not terminate. We briefly describe how it is modified to guarantee termination. The idea is that we may add to each reachable set of states $N$ in the set-graph any states $s'$ for which there exists an $s \in N$ such that $s \not\rightarrow N'$ if and only if $s' \not\rightarrow N'$ for every $N'$ in the regions graph. Thus as each node $N$ is generated it is replaced by the set of nodes in the regions graph with which it has non-empty intersection. Hence only finitely many nodes are generated.

**Theorem:** The set-reachability algorithm terminates. □

6.6 Progressiveness

From the results in [ACD90] it follows that the progressiveness assumption can be modeled as *fairness constraints*. In particular, these fairness conditions assert that every clock either increases without bound or is infinitely often reset, but not continuously so. Let $c_i$ be the largest constant to which clock $i$ is ever compared in the enabling conditions of $G$.

One possibility for handling this fairness condition in the analysis of timed graphs is to distinguish, in the initial partition, the cases where $(\vec{x})_i = 0$ and those where $(\vec{x})_i > c_i$, for every clock $i$. Now an infinite path in the region graph is called progressive if and only if for every $i = 1 \ldots n$:

- it contains an infinite number of regions $(q, F)$ such that for all $\vec{x} \in F$ either $(\vec{x})_i = 0$ or $(\vec{x})_i > c_i$.
- it contains an infinite number of regions $(q, F)$ such that for all $\vec{x} \in F$, $(\vec{x})_i \neq 0$.

However this procedure is computationally expensive since it causes the initial partition to be fragmented into exponentially many pieces. The approach we prefer is to add this fairness information iteratively. We first let the initial partition be $\{q \times \mathbb{R} \mid q \in Q\}$, and generate a reachable subgraph, thus ignoring the progressiveness requirement for now. We then test the graph for emptiness. If it is empty, then there are no runs of the timed graph, and thus certainly no progressive runs. The timed graph is empty and we are done.

If not, we may prune from the graph all nodes that do not lie on any fair path. They need no longer be considered since they cannot be reached by any fair run. Now we split each remaining node set $(s, Z)$ into $(s, Z_i)$ such where

\[
\{Z_i\} = \mathbb{R} \otimes \{(\vec{x}) \mid (\vec{x})_i = 0\}, \{\vec{x} \mid 0 < (\vec{x})_i \leq c_1\}, \{\vec{x} \mid (\vec{x})_i > c_1\}
\]
Thus all classes now respect the fairness constraints for clock 1. We now recompute a reachable graph starting from these classes as a partition of the state-space. This iterative step is continued until either the automaton is declared empty, or the fairness information for all clocks has been added.

7 Implementing Operations on Time Zones

Having described how algorithms for emptiness checking can be expressed using operations on time zones, we now discuss how to perform these operations on a particular representation for zones.

We describe a canonical representation due to Dill [Dil89], and provide algorithms for some of the basic operations.

7.1 Difference Bounds Matrices

Recall that a time zone $Z \in \mathcal{Z}(n)$ is any polyhedron described as the set of all points in $\mathbb{R}^n$ satisfying a system of inequalities of the form:

- $x < k$, $x \leq k$, $x > k$ or $x \geq k$, where $k$ is either an integer or $\infty$
- $x - y < k$ or $x - y \leq k$ where $k$ is either an integer or $\infty$.

If we identify a new fictitious clock variable $x_0$ with the constant value 0, each of the inequalities above can be represented as a bound on the difference between two clock values. For instance, $x < 5$ can be expressed as $x - x_0 < 5$. Furthermore, if we introduce $-\infty$ as a bounding value, we can restrict ourselves to upper bounds on differences without loss of generality. More precisely, each inequality can be re-expressed in one of the following forms:

- $x_i - x_j < k$ or $x_i - x_j \leq k$, for some integer $k$,
- $x_i - x_j < -\infty$,
- $x_i - x_j < \infty$

Thus to describe these inequalities in a uniform fashion we introduce the domain of bounds. A bound is an order pair in $\mathbb{Z} \times \{<, \leq\} \cup \{(-\infty, <), (-\infty, \leq)\}$. Each bound is intended to represent an upper bound on a real value. We define an ordering on bounds as

$$(x, r) < (x', r') \text{ iff } \begin{cases} x < x' & \text{or} \\ x = x', r \text{ is } <, \text{ and } r' \text{ is } \leq \end{cases}$$

Bounds can be added, where

$$(x, r) \oplus (x', r') = \begin{cases} (x + x', <) & \text{if } x \text{ and } x' \text{ are finite, and one of } r \text{ or } r' \text{ is } < \\ (x + x', \leq) & \text{if } x \text{ and } x' \text{ are finite, and both } r \text{ and } r' \text{ are } \leq \\ (-\infty, <) & \text{if one of } x \text{ and } x' \text{ is } -\infty \\ (-\infty, <) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

A difference bounds matrix (DBM) for $\mathbb{R}^n$ is an $(n + 1) \times (n + 1)$ matrix of bounds, with rows and column indexed from 0 to $n$. Entries in the matrix represent upper bounds on the differences between clock values. Formally the DBM $A$ represents the polyhedron consisting of all points that satisfy the inequality
\[
\begin{aligned}
&\{ x_i - x_j \leq r \quad \text{if} \quad a_{ij} = (r, \leq) \\
&\{ x_i - x_j < r \quad \text{if} \quad a_{ij} = (r, <) 
\end{aligned}
\]

It is easy to see that every time zone can be described by a DBM. However there are many DBMs defining the same zone, because some of the upper bounds need not be tight. For example, the system

\begin{align*}
x_1 &< 2 \\
x_1 &\geq 1 \\
x_2 &\leq 5
\end{align*}

(1) (2) (3)

can be represented by any matrix

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
(0, \leq) & (-1, \leq) & (0, \leq) \\
(2, <) & (0, \leq) & b_1 \\
(5, <) & b_2 & (0, \leq)
\end{pmatrix}
\]

where \( b_1 \neq (2, <) \) and \( b_2 \neq (-4, \leq) \).

7.2 Canonical form for DBM’s

The key idea in performing operations on zones is to represent them as canonical DBM’s. While a zone \( Z \) has many DBM representations, there is a unique matrix for \( Z \) where all upper bounds are as ‘tight’ as possible. We denote this canonical matrix \( cf(Z) \). Dill [Dil89] showed that this matrix can be computed from an arbitrary matrix for \( Z \) by applying an all-pairs shortest path algorithm. This representation therefore leads to easy tests for equality and emptiness of time zones.

7.3 Intersection

The intersection of two time zones \( Z \) and \( Z' \) can easily be computed from their DBM’s. Intuitively we take the union of all the inequalities for each zone. To achieve this we need only take the lower of the two bounds for each pair of clock differences.

Let \( A \) and \( A' \) be DBM’s for \( Z \) and \( Z' \). The zone \( Z \cap Z' \) is represented by the matrix \( B \) where for all \( i, j \) we have

\[
b_{ij} = \min\{a_{ij}, a'_{ij}\} = \begin{cases} 
  a_{ij} & \text{if } a_{ij} < a'_{ij} \\
  a'_{ij} & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

Notice that the matrices \( A \) and \( A' \) need not be in canonical form, and in general the matrix \( B \) is not canonical.

7.4 Time successors

If \( SI \) is a system of inequalities defining \( Z \), then \( Z \neq \) is defined by the system \( SI' \) obtained from \( SI \) by removing all inequalities that place upper bounds on the absolute values of the clocks, i.e. inequalities of the form \( z \leq k \) or \( z < k \).

The following pseudo-code describes how this operation can be performed on a DBM.

15
procedure time_successors(A,B) {
    input DBM A; /* input is DBM for Z */
    output DBM B; /* output is DBM for time successors */
    
    B := A;
    for i := 1 to n do
        B[i][0] := (inf, <);
    endfor
}

Notice that the input need not be canonical. However if it is, then the output will also be.

7.5 Time Predecessors

Similar to computation of time successors, we may replace all lower bounds on clocks with \((0, \leq)\). The matrix computation is analogous to that above. However in this case, canonical input does not in general imply the output will be canonical.

procedure time_successors(A,B) {
    input DBM A; /* input is DBM for Z */
    output DBM B; /* output is DBM for time successors */
    
    B := A;
    for j := 1 to n do
        B[0][j] := (0, <=);
    endfor
}

7.6 Inverse Images of Reset Actions

Let \(a\) be a reset action of the variables in \(I_a\). Its inverse \(a^{-1}(Z)\) is computed by first finding the possible image \(a\) within \(Z\), and then taking the inverse projection of the reset variables.

procedure inverse(A,a,A')
begin
    input DBM A; /* A represents Z */
    input reset_action a; /* the reset action */
    output DBM B; /* B will be a DBM for a^{-1}(Z) */
    
    /* compute subset of Z whose clocks in I_a equal 0 */
    B := A;
    for x in I_a do
        B[x][0] := (0, <=);
        B[0][x] := (0, <=);
        B := cf(B);
    endfor
    
    /* inverse projection */
    for x in I_a do
        /* set all bounds relating to x as irrelevant */
        B[0][x] := (0, <=);
        for i := 0 to n do
            if i <> x then

B[i][x] := (0,<=);
endif
endfor
for j := 0 to n do
  if j <> x then
    B[x][j] := (infty,<);
  endif
endfor
endprocedure

7.7 Zone Difference

Given zones Z and Z' we often need to compute the set of points Z - Z'. Unfortunately this set is in general not a zone, but rather a union of zones. We sketch below an algorithm for computing $Z \setminus Z'$, a set of disjoint zones $Z''$ such that $Z = Z' \cup \bigcup_i Z''_i$.

We generate a partition of $Z - Z'$ by successively slicing off parts of Z that do not lie in Z'. We consider in turn each inequality $x_i - x_j < z_{ij}'$ from $Z'$ as a potential face along which to slice Z. A slice is necessary along this face if it "touches" any points in Z. Let $cl(Z')$ denote the closure of $Z'$, i.e. all points in $\mathbb{R}^n$ for which there are arbitrarily close points in $Z'$. If the restriction of $cl(Z')$ to points satisfying $x_i - x_j = k$ intersects $Z$, then slice off from Z all points for which $x_i - x_j < z_{ij}'$ is not satisfied. These points form a zone which is then added to the partition of $Z - Z'$.

procedure difference
begin
  input DBM Z;
  input DBM Z';
  output DBMset Z''; /* Z'' is set of DBMs for Z-Z' */
  done := FALSE;
  Z'' := {};
  C := closure(Z');
  for (i, j distinct clocks) do
    if (NOT done) then
      A := intersect(Z,Z');
      if (A = {}) then
        /* what remains of Z can be put in Z'' */
        Z'' := Z'' + {Z};
        done := TRUE;
      else
        if (A = Z) then
          /* no more of Z does not lie in Z'' */
          done := TRUE;
        else
          /* check whether to slice this face */
          /* val(<k,r>) = k */
          B := restrict(C, x_i-x_j=val(z''_ij));
          if (intersect(B, Z) <> {}) then
            /* slice along this face */
            Z'' := Z'' + restrict(Z, NOT x_i-x_j<z''_ij);
            Z := restrict(Z,x_i-x_j<z''_ij);
          endif
        endif
      endif
    endif
  endfor
endprocedure

17
The restriction operator is implemented by adding new constraints to a DBM and recomputing a canonical form. The closure operation is performed by replacing all strict inequalities on finite bounds with unstrict inequalities.

8 Examples

In the examples below, a global automaton for the system is formed as the composition of automata for each component. Components synchronize their actions through shared events. Associated with each component is an alphabet of event symbols, and an event can occur provided it is enabled in every automaton whose alphabet includes the event.

8.1 Train-Gate Controller

Our first example is an automatic controller that opens and closes a gate at a railway track intersection [Alu91]. The system consists of three components: a train, a gate, and their controller. The automata modeling these components are shown in Figure 8.1.

Whenever a train enters the intersection, it sends an approach signal at least 2 minutes in advance to the controller. The controller also detects the train leaving the intersection, and this event occurs within 5 minutes after it started its approach.

The gate responds to lower and raise commands by moving down and up respectively within certain time bounds. For example, the gate moves down within 1 minute of receiving a lower command.

The controller sends a lower command to the gate exactly 1 minute after receiving an approach signal from the train. It commands the gate to raise within 1 minute of the train’s exit from the intersection.

We verify a simple real-time safety property, namely that whenever the gate goes down, it is moved back up within a certain upper time bound $K$. In other words, the gate is never down for
as long as $K$ minutes. The automaton for this property appears in Figure 2. Its complement is expressed by the same automaton with state $s_2$ final instead of $s_0$ and $s_1$.

Whenever the specification constant is greater than or equal to 7 the specification is satisfied.

8.2 Timed Mutual Exclusion

We examine also a simplified version of a mutual exclusion protocol due to Fischer. A similar example appears in [AL91, SBM91].

There are $n$ processes, each labeled with a unique identifier $i \in 1..n$. Each process $i$ has 4 operating states. In state $a$ it is idle, but at any time may begin executing the protocol provided the value of a global variable $x$ is 0. It then advances to state $b$. It delays here for up to $\Delta_B$ seconds before simultaneously advancing to state $c$ and assigning the value $i$ to the variable $x$. From state $c$ it may enter its critical section within $\delta_c$ seconds provided the value of $x$ is still $i$. Upon leaving its critical section, it reinitializes $x$ to 0.

The automata for the case of two processes is given in Figure 3. Process 1's alphabet has events $start1$ for starting the protocol, $setx1$ for moving from state $b$ to $c$ and setting $x$ to 1, $enter1$ for entering its critical section, and $setx0$ for leaving its critical section and reassigning the global variable $x$ to 0.

The conditions on the value of the global variable $x$ are maintained by the special process called VARIABLE-X. Its states encode the current value of the global variable, i.e. VARIABLE-X in state $s_i$ means that $x = i$. Constraints on each process's behavior are expressed by disallowing certain process events when the value of $x$ would prohibit it. For example the lack of a $start1$ action from states $s_1$ and $s_2$ indicates Process 1 cannot start the protocol if $x$ equals 1 or 2.

We verify the safety property that no two processes are ever in their critical sections at the same time. This property is expressed by the automaton of Figure 4.

A listing of the text input for this problem appears in the appendix.

9 Results and Comparison

9.1 Implementation

All three algorithms above have been implemented in C. As mentioned above they share many common routines.

The input to the program consists of a description of a timed graph. The output indicates whether the graph is empty or not. Composite timed graphs may be specified as the product of individual time graphs. The input is passed through lex-yacc preprocessors to generate source code,
Figure 3: Automata for Mutual Exclusion Protocol

Figure 4: Mutual exclusion specification
which is then compiled and executed. This allows constants to be hard-wired into the executable code: thus the exact amount of space required can be allocated to each DBM. An example input listing appears in the appendix.

As classes are generated, they are stored in a global name table with pointers used to maintain the necessary stacking and queueing data-structures. Although not specified explicitly by the algorithms, information is stored to allow faster checks for stability. For each class \((g, Z)\), there are pointers to classes which may be directly accessible from some state in \((g, Z)\). These are maintained bidirectionally so that whenever a class is split it is easy to determine which classes may now be unstable.

The check for strongly connected components is done using Tarjan’s algorithm [Tar72].

9.2 Results

The train-gate controller was tested for two cases. When the specification constant is \(K = 10\), the controller meets its specification, and there are no violating runs. For \(K = 5\), the specification is not satisfied.

In the timed mutual exclusion example, setting \(\Delta_B > \delta_c\) allows the possibility of two processes entering their critical sections at the same time. The three implementations were tested for the values \(\Delta_B = 5\) and \(\delta_c = 12\), for which the specification is met, and \(\Delta_B = 5\) and \(\delta_c = 4\), where the specification is violated. Results were produced for up to 4 processes.

We analyzed the performance of the set-reachability (SR) algorithm, the minimization algorithm of Lee and Yannakakis (MAII), and two versions of the minimization algorithm of Boujiani et al (MAI). We considered two simple selection strategies for splitting unstable regions in MAI: LIFO ordering, where the region most recently determined to be unstable is split next, and FIFO order, where unstable regions are split in the order they are detected.

The results in Figure 5 were obtained on a DEC 5100 with 40 MB of main memory.

9.3 Comparison

Correctness vs Incorrectness: The first observation is that it is easier to prove a system behaves correctly than to prove it violates its specification. This is because proving non-emptiness of a timed system necessitates the iterative generation of a set-graph that respects the fairness constraints for the progressiveness requirement on every clock. On the other hand, emptiness may be detected much earlier.

Removing Regions Not on Fair Runs: Between iterations of adding fairness constraints for each clock, the implementation removes regions known at the time not to lie on any fair runs. Although the comparative results are given above, this optimization leads to reductions in computation time of around 50\% those examples where there were fair runs in the timed graph.

Minimization vs Set-Reachability: The results are slightly surprising in that the naive set-reachability algorithm often outperforms the minimization algorithms. We outline two possible reasons why it executes faster. First, the minimization algorithms require time to check classes for stability. Second, splitting classes into stable subclasses is an expensive operation: its counterpart in the set-reachability algorithm is simply to find the images of a class under all transitions. However the graphs constructed from each of the minimization algorithms are smaller than those generated by the SR algorithm, and this fact may prove crucial for larger examples.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>SR</th>
<th>MAI</th>
<th>MAII</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Mem</td>
<td>LIFO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MUTEX-2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MUTEX-2-e</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>MUTEX-3-e</td>
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<td>893</td>
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<tr>
<td>MUTEX-4</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>496</td>
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<tr>
<td>MUTEX-4-e</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GTC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GTC-e</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| — indicates could not allocate more memory |
| * indicates managed to complete first iteration |
| MUTEX-i indicates i processes in mutual exclusion protocol |
| GTC Gate, train, controller example |
| -e indicates example contains error run, specification not satisfied |

Time is measured in seconds, and memory in Megabytes

Figure 5: Results Table

Minimization Algorithms I and II: Our implementation of MAI outperforms MAII. We believe this is due to two factors. First, MAII has extra overhead in deciding which class to split next (this work is performed by the "search" routine). Second, our implementation requires extra overhead in marking blocks with regions rather than states. This necessitates updating the marked region. An alternative would be to use floating point arithmetic and implement new routines for finding successors.

10 Conclusion and further work

We have implemented three algorithms for checking the emptiness of a timed transition system. These were applied to two examples to measure their comparative performance. Preliminary results indicate that memory usage is a more limiting factor than time, and that the minimization algorithms, which produce far smaller graphs, are more likely to be successful on larger examples. However, much work needs to be done to make these algorithms more efficient in practice. Possible heuristics include regular checks that regions lie on fair runs (if they do not they may be discarded), and developing efficient yet simple strategies for choosing which region to split next. The algorithms also need to be tested on a wider variety of examples.

The ideas described here for analyzing timed transition systems can be used to solve problems other than emptiness: for example testing bisimulation equivalence of two timed graphs [Cer91], finding simulation relations between timed graphs, timed model-checking [ACD90, ACH+92, HNSY92], and synthesizing supervisory controllers for timed discrete event systems [WTH91]. It would be interesting to see how well the algorithms perform on these problems.
References


Appendix – Sample Input Listing

-- Fischer's timed mutual exclusion algorithm

define(Delta_B, 5)
define(delta_c, 12)

PRODUCT {
    PROCESS { -- P 1
        STATES (a b c cs );
        INITSTATE a ;
        EVENTS (setx1 start1 enter1 setx0 );
        FAIRNESS (a b c cs);
       CLOCKS (yi);
        TRANS (a, start1 -> b : TRUE : y1;
            b, setx1 -> c : y1<Delta_B : y1;
            c, enter1 -> cs : yi>delta_c : ;
            cs, setx0 -> a : TRUE : ;
    )
}
PROCESS { -- P 2
    STATES (a b c cs );
    INITSTATE a;
    EVENTS (setx2 start2 enter2 setx0 );
    FAIRNESS (a b c cs );
   CLOCKS (y2);
    TRANS (
        a, start2 -> b : TRUE : y2 ;
        b, setx2 -> c : y2<DELTA_B : y2 ;
        c, enter2 -> cs : y2>delta_c ;
        cs, setx0 -> a : TRUE ;
    )
}

PROCESS { -- Variable-x
    STATES (s0 s1 s2 ); -- indicates value of x variable.
    INITSTATE s0;
    EVENTS (start1 setx1 enter1
             start2 setx2 enter2
             setx0
    );
    FAIRNESS ( s0 s1 s2);
    CLOCKS ();
    TRANS (s0, setx0 -> s0 : TRUE ;
          s1, setx0 -> s0 : TRUE ;
          s2, setx0 -> s0 : TRUE ;
          -- for each process a set of transition 'enabling conditions'
          s0, start1 -> s0 : TRUE ;
          s0, setx1 -> s1 : TRUE ;
          s1, setx1 -> s1 : TRUE ;
          s2, setx1 -> s1 : TRUE ;
          s1, enter1 -> s1 : TRUE ;
          s0, start2 -> s0 : TRUE ;
          s0, setx2 -> s2 : TRUE ;
          s1, setx2 -> s2 : TRUE ;
          s2, setx2 -> s2 : TRUE ;
          s2, enter2 -> s2 : TRUE ;
    )
}

PROCESS { -- spec complement, mutex violated
    STATES ( nonein onein twoin );
    INITSTATE nonein;
    EVENTS (enter1 enter2 setx0);
    FAIRNESS ( twoin );
    CLOCKS ()
}
TRANS (
    nonein, setx0 -> nonein  : TRUE  : ;
    onein, setx0 -> nonein  : TRUE  : ;
    nonein, enter1 -> onein  : TRUE  : ;
    onein, enter1 -> twoin  : TRUE  : ;
    nonein, enter2 -> onein  : TRUE  : ;
    onein, enter2 -> twoin  : TRUE  : ;
    );
}