# Logic for Verification 3

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# Today's lecture

We'll look at the following:

- LTL (linear temporal logic)
- CTL (computation tree logic)
  CTL\*
- Transition systems
- Bisimulation

# What is temporal logic?

Types of temporal logic include:

- □ Linear Temporal Logic (LTL)
- □ Computation Tree Logic (CTL)
- CTL\*
- □ Lots of others too.







x = 6; y = false





#### States

For non-temporal logics, we are thinking of the value just at one point, but for temporal logics, we need to think of the value across different points in time.



#### Simple Formulas

Does the property x = 0 hold at state s0? **Yes** 

Does the property x = 0 hold at state s2? **No** 

Does the property (x = 2 AND y = 0) hold at state s2? Yes



#### Simple Formulas

Does the property (x = 0) hold **on the execution trace starting at s0**?

This means the property must hold at **s0**. **Yes** 

The rest of the states don't matter because there was no **G** operator (explained soon!)



#### Simple Formulas

- Does the property (x = 2) hold **on the execution trace starting at s0**? **No**
- Does the property (x = 0 AND y = 0) hold **on the execution trace starting at s0**? **Yes**
- Does the property (x = 2 AND y = 0) hold **on the execution trace starting at s0**? **No**



## A Simple Case Study

#### Case study: A microwave oven.



Does (door = closed) hold on this transition system?YesAssume that itDoes (light = off) hold on this transition system?YesmeansDoes (light = on) hold on this transition system?Nofirst state, s0.

# Safety Properties

A *labelled transition system* is a tuple (S, I,  $A, \rightarrow$ ), where S is a set of states, I is the set of initial states, A is a set of actions and  $\rightarrow \subseteq S \times A \times S$  is the transition relation.

A *Kripke Structure*, is a tuple  $T = (S, AP, L, I, \rightarrow)$ , where S is a set of states, *AP* is a set of atomic propositions, L is a labelling function which labels each state with the set of atomic propositions that hold in that state, I is a set of initial states and  $\rightarrow \subseteq S \times S$  is the transition relation.

A *doubly-labelled transition system* labels both states and actions.

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A *doubly-labelled transition system* labels both states and actions.

## **CTL\* Properties**

A CTL\* *state formula*  $\psi$  is defined as follows, where  $p \in AP$  is an atomic proposition,  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$  are state formulas and  $\varphi$  is a *path* formula:

 $\psi = true \mid \mathbf{p} \mid \psi_1 \land \psi_2 \mid ! \psi_1 \mid \mathsf{E}\varphi$ 

A CTL\* *path formula* is defined as follows, where  $\varphi 1$  and  $\varphi 2$  are path formulas and  $\psi$  is a state formula:

 $\boldsymbol{\phi} = \boldsymbol{\psi} \mid \boldsymbol{\phi}_1 \land \boldsymbol{\phi}_2 \mid ! \boldsymbol{\phi}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\phi}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{\phi}_1 ~ \mathsf{U} ~ \boldsymbol{\phi}_2$ 

#### **CTL\* Formulas**

Let  $T = (S, AP, L, I, \rightarrow)$  be a transition system. A CTL\* state formula  $\psi$  holds in a state  $s \in S$ , denoted  $T, s \models \psi$ , or simply  $s \models \psi$ , according to the following, where  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$  are CTL\* state formulas and  $\varphi$  is a CTL\* path formula:

 $s \models true,$   $s \models a \in AP \text{ iff } a \in L(s),$   $s \models ! \psi_1 \text{ iff } s \not\models \psi_1,$   $s \models \psi_1 \land \psi_2 \text{ iff } s \models \psi_1 \text{ and } s \models \psi_2,$  $s \models \mathsf{E}\varphi \text{ iff there exists a path } \pi = \langle s_0, s_1, s_2, \dots \rangle, \text{ such that } s_0 = s \text{ and } \pi \models \varphi.$ 

## **CTL\* Formulas**

A CTL\* path formula  $\varphi$  holds for a path  $\pi = \langle s_0, s_1, s_2, ... \rangle$ , denoted  $\pi \models \varphi$ , according to the following, where  $\varphi_1$  and  $\varphi_2$  are CTL\* path formulas and  $\psi_1$  is a CTL\* state formula:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi &\models \psi_1 \text{ iff } s_0 &\models \psi_1, \\ \pi &\models \varphi_1 \land \varphi_2 \text{ iff } \pi &\models \varphi_1 \text{ and } \pi &\models \varphi_2, \\ \pi &\models ! \varphi_1 \text{ iff } \pi &\neq \varphi_1, \\ \pi &\models \mathsf{X} \varphi_1 \text{ iff } \pi[s_1...] &\models \varphi_1, \\ \pi &\models \varphi_1 \lor \varphi_2 \text{ iff } \exists j > 0 \text{ such that } \pi[s_j...] &\models \varphi_2 \text{ and } \forall i, \text{ where } 0 \leq i < j, \pi[s_i...] &\models \varphi_1. \end{aligned}$$

#### **CTL\* Formulas**

All LTL formulas implicitly hold over all paths.

All CTL path operators have to be preceded by an A or E.

Some formulas can be expressed in LTL but not CTL and vice versa.

FGp (liveness) is a valid LTL formula but cannot be expressed in CTL.

 $E(Xp \land XXq)$  can be expressed in CTL\* but not in CTL.

## **CTL Formulas**





#### **CTL Formulas**





**G** means **G**lobally – holds on **all** states.

Does the property G(x = 0) hold on this execution trace? No

Does the property G(y < 2) hold on this execution trace? Yes

If the question doesn't mention other states, assume it means s0.





Compare that to the answers if there is a **G** operator:

Does **G**(door = closed) hold on this transition system? **Yes** 

Does **G**(light = off) hold on this transition system? **No** 

Does **G**(light = on) hold on this transition system? **No** 



Does G((door = closed) AND (light = off)) hold on this transition system?

Counterexample: s0, s1.

This is because at s1 the property is violated.

**G** means look at **all** the states.

It is also violated at s2 but the counterexample stops at the first violation.

# Case Study

Each of those traces corresponds to a possible path in the transition system.

Here is a more complex transition system for the oven:



#### **Execution Traces**

What are the possible execution traces?

Some are: s0, s1, s2, s0, .... s0, s1, s3, s0, ....

and so on...



**G**(door = closed) holds on the execution trace below, but does it hold for **all** the possible traces?



When we ask: does **G**(door = closed) hold, we are talking about **all** the possible execution traces.

See whether you can find a trace where it **doesn't** hold – if no such trace exists, the property holds. Otherwise, it is false and that trace is a **counterexample**.

s0	s1	s2	s0	s1
door = closed	door = closed	door = closed	door = closed	
light = off	light = on	light = off	light = off	
oven = idle	oven = cooking	oven = timeout	t oven = idle	

**G**(door = closed) holds on the execution trace below, but does it hold for **all** the possible traces?

What about this one below?

This is a **counterexample**. The property is false.



What about **G**(door = open OR door = closed)? **Yes** 

On every trace, on all the steps, either door = open or door = closed.



A new operator: **F** (Future or eventually).

Does **F**(x = 3) hold on the trace below? **Yes** 

Starting at s0, we can eventually get to a state where x = 3.



Does F(x = 2) hold on the trace below? **Yes** Starting at s0, we can eventually get to a state where x = 2. What about G(F(x = 2))?



What about G(F(x = 2))?

Remember what we do for **G**(p) – the property p must hold on **every** state, not just the first one.

So at every state, check whether you can reach x = 2. No – not from s4.



Does **G**(**F**(oven = idle) hold? **Yes** 

On every trace, on all the steps, eventually you can get to oven = idle.



**G**(**F**(oven = idle):

Here is one trace. The state s0 is continuously reached, so from any state, you can eventually reach oven = idle.



**G**(**F**(oven = idle):

This is called **infinitely often**.

Here is *another* trace. The state s0 is continuously reached, so from any state, you can eventually reach oven = idle.



Does **G**(**F**(door = open) hold? **No** 

There is a counterexample!


# **Future Operator**

**G**(**F**(door = open):

Here is the counterexample.

This trace can go on forever without reaching s3, where the door is open.



# **Future Operator**

Counterexamples for **F** always have an infinite cycle, because we have to show that something will **never** happen.



A counterexample is an execution trace showing how the property is violated.

Look for the shortest counterexample if possible.

For properties like G(p) where p is an atomic proposition, then the counterexample is just a trace going up to the state where p does not hold.

Counterexamples must be full traces – start from the starting state.

What is the counterexample for **G**(door=closed AND light=off)?



What is the counterexample for **G**(door = closed AND light = off)?

s0 – door=closed; light=off; oven=idle

s1 – door=closed; light=on; oven=cooking

The property was violated!

Therefore the counterexample is: s0, s1.

Look for the first state where the conditions don't hold and stop the trace there.

What is the counterexample for G(door=closed => (light=off OR oven = cooking))? Proved!



What is the counterexample for G(door=closed => (light=off OR oven = cooking))? Proved!

This is proved because on states s0 to s2, the door is closed and either the light is off or the oven is cooking. On state s3, the door is not closed, so the antecedent is **false**. Therefore, it doesn't matter that the light is not off and the oven is not cooking.

What is the counterexample for **G**(**F**(oven = timeout))?



What is the counterexample for **G**(**F**(oven = timeout))?

- s0 door=closed; light=off; oven=idle
- s1 door=closed; light=on; oven=cooking
- s3 door=open; light=on; oven=open
- s0 door=closed; light=off; oven=idle

... continue as a cycle.

Counterexamples for **F** always need a cycle to show that it never reaches a state where the condition holds.

Counterexample: s0, s1, s3, s0, ... cycle with s1, s3, s0.

# Implies with Globally

What about if it was  $G(x = 2 \Rightarrow y = 0)$ ?

Does the property hold on the path below? **No** 

At s0, s1 and s2 it holds, but not at s3.



# Implies with Globally

At s0, s1 and s2 it holds, but not at s3. Counterexample: s0, s1, s2, s3.

$$G(x = 2 => y = 0)$$

Why does it hold at s0 and s1 when x is not 2? Remember how implies works.



G(x = 2 => F(y = 1)) **Proved** 

From every state where x = 2 holds, we can eventually reach a state where y = 1 holds (sometimes it is the same state).









G(x = 0 => F(y = 0)) False



Does **G**(oven = idle => **F**(door = closed)) hold? **Yes** 

The only state where oven = idle is s0. From here, it is always possible to eventually reach a state where door = closed.



Does **G**(door = closed => **F**(oven = open)) hold? **No** 

Counterexample: s0, s1, s2, then an infinite cycle with s0, s1, s2.



Does **G**(door = closed => **F**(oven = timeout)) hold? **Yes** Even on paths that go through s3, s2 is always still reached.



Does **G**(light = on => **F**(oven = cooking)) hold? **No** 

At s1, oven is already cooking, but from s3, we could keep missing oven = cooking. Counterexample: s0, s3, cycle s2, s0, s3.



# **Next Operator**

Another new operator: **X** (Ne**X**t).

Does **X**(x = 1) hold on the trace below? **Yes** 

Starting at s0, in the next state, x = 1.

If the formula has just an **X** by itself like this one, then you only look at the 2<sup>nd</sup> state (s1 in the example).



What about if it was  $G(x = 2 \Rightarrow X(y = 1))$ ?

Does the property hold on the trace below? **Yes** 

Find the states where x = 2 holds and then look at the next states after them.



Now try  $G(y = 0 \Rightarrow X(y = 1))$ ?

Does the property hold on the trace below?

Find the states where y = 0 holds and then look at the next states after them.



Now try  $G(y = 0 \Rightarrow X(y = 1))$ ?

Does the property hold on the trace below? **No** 

Counterexample: s0. At this state, y = 0 but on the next state, s1, y is not 1.



Does **G**(oven = idle => **X**(door = closed)) hold? **Yes** 

The only state where oven = idle is s0. From here, the only next step is s1.



Does **G**(door = closed => **X**(light = on)) hold? **No** 



Does **G**(light = off => **X**(oven = cooking)) hold? **No** 

Counterexample: s0, s1, s2, s0. No cycle is needed for **X**.



**U** (**U**ntil) p **U** q – p holds until q holds.

Does (y = 0) U (x = 2) hold on the trace below? Yes

y = 0 holds on all states until it reaches a state where x = 2 holds (s2).



Does (y = 0) **U** (x = 4) hold on the trace below? No

Remember that if the second clause (x = 4) doesn't ever hold, then the property is **false**.



Does G((y = 0) U (x = 2)) hold on the trace below? No

From any state, y should stay 0 until x is 2. Is this true at s4? How about s5?

s0
 s1
 s2
 s3
 s4
 s5
 and so on...

 
$$x = 0$$
 $x = 1$ 
 $x = 2$ 
 $x = 2$ 
 $x = 3$ 
 $x = 2$ 
 $x = 3$ 
 $x = 2$ 
 $y = 0$ 
 $y = 0$ 
 $y = 1$ 
 $y = 1$ 
 $y = 1$ 
 $y = 1$ 
 $x = 1$ 
 $x = 2$ 
 $x = 2$ 
 $x = 3$ 
 $x = 2$ 
 $x = 2$ 
 $x = 3$ 
 $x = 3$ 

Does  $G(x = 1 \Rightarrow ((y = 0) U (x = 2)))$  hold on the trace below? Yes

We're only interested in looking at s1. From here, y stays 0 until x is 2.



# Until

Does **G**(light = off **U** oven = cooking) hold? **Yes** 

The light stays off until s1, where the oven is cooking.



# Until

Does **G**(light = off **U** oven = cooking) hold? **No** 

Counterexample: s0, s3, s1.



## **Implies with Until**

Does **G**(oven = open => (light = on **U** oven = timeout)) hold? **Yes** 





#### $G(p \Rightarrow q) - on$ every state, if p holds then q holds.



Remember that it doesn't matter whether q holds or not on the states where p doesn't hold.

**F**(p) – p must **eventually** hold. There must be a state in the future where p holds.

 $G(p \Rightarrow F(q)) - on every state, if p holds then eventually q holds.$ 



p doesn't have to hold in the same state as q but it can.



G(p => X(q)) – on every state, if p holds then in the next state q holds.





**G**(p **U** q) – from every state, p must hold until q holds.



Remember that from every state, q must hold eventually.


**Integrated Behavior Tree** 

## Behavior Tree Syntax



External Input Event External Output Event

# Behavior Tree Syntax



## When the door is open, the light goes off.

Behavior Trees is a language for writing about the *requirements* of a system.



Microwave Oven requirement 1:

When the door is closed, the light should go off and the oven goes into an idle state.



Microwave Oven requirement 2:

When the oven is idle, when the button is pushed, the light should go on and the oven should begin cooking.



























The motor stays on. The plunger stays at the top.



The user has released the button.













Safety abort:



The plunger is falling below the PONR. The motor is off.









DANGER: The motor cannot turn on below the Point-of-no-return.











The plunger reaches the bottom and immediately starts rising again.





#### Communicating by Message-Passing

Concurrent processes can communicate by **shared-variable** or **message passing**.

The plunger falls below the PONR.

The PONR sensor detects this and changes to the high state (modelled by the plunger sending a message out to the PONR sensor).

The PONR sensor sends a message to the controller.

#### **Example Trace**

```
Example trace:
Plunger = falling
Plunger = atBottom
BottomSensor = high
Controller reads BottomSensor
Controller sends out TurnOn message to the motor
Motor = on
Plunger = risingBelowPONR
BottomSensor = low
Plunger = risingAbovePONR
PONRSensor = low
```



**Th1: Uncommanded closing:** The plunger should not start falling without the operator pressing the button.

**Th2: Motor on below PONR:** The motor should not turn on when the plunger is falling below the PONR.

**Th3: Loss of abort:** If the plunger is falling above the PONR and the operator releases the button, the motor should turn on.

**Th4: Plunger falling before reaching the top:** The motor should not turn off unless the plunger is at the top.

**Th1: Uncommanded closing:** The plunger should not start falling without the operator pressing the button.

**G**((plunger = atTop AND operator = releasedButton) => (electric\_Motor = on));

**Th2: Motor on below PONR:** The motor should not turn on when the plunger is falling below the PONR.

**G**((plunger = fallingFast) => (electric\_Motor = off));

**Th3: Loss of abort:** If the plunger is falling above the PONR and the operator releases the button, the motor should turn on.

**G**((plunger = fallingSlow AND operator = releasedButton) => **F**(electric\_Motor = on));

**G**((plunger = fallingSlow AND operator = releasedButton) => (plunger = fallingSlow **U** electric\_Motor = on));

**Th4: Plunger falling before reaching the top:** The motor should not turn off unless the plunger is at the top.

G(NOT((plunger = risingBelowPONR OR plunger = risingAbovePONR) AND (electric\_Motor = off)));

























The motor stays on. The plunger stays at the top.



The user has released the button.





The plunger starts falling. The controller thinks it has reached the bottom and turns on the motor.



The user pushes the button.

No hazard, but the plunger won't fall.

#### Bottom Sensor stuck high half-way



What if the bottom sensor breaks *after* the plunger has fallen below the PONR?



The user is still pushing the button.

The controller thinks the plunger reached the bottom and turns on the motor.


### **Bottom Sensor stuck high**

**Th2: Motor on below PONR:** The motor should not turn on when the plunger is falling below the PONR.

The bottom sensor problem can violate Th2.

This is a serious safety hazard.

Another failure that can cause this is the **PONR sensor stuck low**.

### Safety Properties

**Th2: Motor on below PONR:** The motor should not turn on when the plunger is falling below the PONR.

**G**((plunger = fallingFast) => (electric\_Motor = off));

Counterexample: The plunger is falling fast, then the bottom sensor turns high, the controller reads the bottom sensor as high and turns on the motor.







The motor turns on. The plunger starts rising.









### **PONR Sensor stuck low**



The motor stays on. The plunger stays at the top.



The user has released the button.



### **PONR Sensor stuck low**



The motor turns off. The plunger starts falling.







The controller thinks the plunger is still above the PONR and allows the abort. The motor turns on.





# DANGER: The motor cannot turn on below the Point-of-no-return.

### Safety Properties

**Th2: Motor on below PONR:** The motor should not turn on when the plunger is falling below the PONR.

**G**((plunger = fallingFast) => (electric\_Motor = off));

Counterexample when the PONR sensor is stuck low: The plunger is falling fast, then the operator releases the button. The controller reads the PONR sensor value as low and thinks it is ok to turn on the motor. The controller turns on the motor.

#### What else can happen?

 Table 1. Results of model-checking each component failure mode against the four hazard conditions

Component Failure	HC1	HC2	HC3	HC4
No failures				$\checkmark$
Top Sensor stuck Low	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
Top Sensor stuck High	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	X
Bottom Sensor stuck Low	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
Bottom Sensor stuck High	$\checkmark$	X	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
PONR Sensor stuck Low	$\checkmark$	X	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
PONR Sensor stuck High	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	X	$\checkmark$
Button stuck released	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
Button stuck pushed	X	$\checkmark$	X	$\checkmark$
Motor stuck on	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
Motor stuck off	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$

Key:  $\sqrt{}$  = hazard condition does not arise, X = hazard condition can occur

From: Grunske, L., Lindsay, P., **Yatapanage, N**. and Winter, K. (2005). An Automated Failure Mode and Effect Analysis based on High-Level Design Specification with Behavior Trees. *Integrated Formal Methods: 5th International Conference (IFM 2005), Proc.,* Lecture Notes in Computer Science. Springer-Verlag. 3771:129-149.

**Behavior Tree Syntax** 



# Program Slicing



# Slicing of BTs



# BT-Control Flow Graph

A BT-CFG is similar to a BT except:

Selections, guards and input events have an additional branch to show the false behaviour.



Reversion / reference nodes are replaced by edges.

# **Control Dependence**

Node *q* is control-dependent on node *p* iff:

- *p* has at least 2 successors *m* and *n*, where NOT(Alt(*m*,*n*)) and NOT(Conc(*m*,*n*)),
- + for all maximal paths from *m*, *q* always occurs and
- there exists a maximal path from n on which q never occurs.

Control dependence occurs if *p* is a guard, selection or input event.



- Automatically removes parts of the program which are irrelevant to a given criterion.
- Originally developed by Weiser (1981) for debugging programs.
- Start at a slicing criterion and then follow back dependencies, e.g. control & data dependencies.

## Data Dependence

Node *q* is data/interference-dependent on node *p* iff:

- $\Rightarrow \exists c \in DEF(p) \text{ such that } c \in REF(q) \text{ and } defined a not a constraint of the set of the se$
- ∀k ∈ Path(p,q), c ∉ DEF(k).

*Data dependence* = same thread *Interference dependence* = parallel threads

Interference dependence is intransitive, so can lead to less precise, but still correct slices.

### **Other Dependencies**

Node *q* is message-dependent on node *p* iff:

- type(p) = internalOutput and behavior(q) = m
- + type(p) = internalInput and behavior(q) = m.

Node q is synchronisation-dependent on node p iff:

- flag(p) = flag(q) = synchronisation and
- matching(p,q).

Node *q* is *alternate-dependent* on node *p* iff:

p and q have the same parent node and

p and q are connected by an alternate branching point.

# Creating the Slice

Start at nodes which modify variables that are in the property.

SliceCrit(p) = {n : BTNode |  $\exists c \in REF(p) \bullet c \in DEF(n)$ }

Traverse BTDG backwards, collecting all the nodes encountered.

# Creating the Slice

- Re-form into a Behavior Tree by adding blank placeholder nodes.
- Put reversions and reference nodes back into the slice, unless the entire sub-tree is not in the slice.
- Put for-all and for-some nodes back into the slice, unless the parameter is no longer used in the sub-tree below.

# Bisimulation

Strong Bisimulation – matches every step – preserves full CTL\*

Too restrictive for some applications,
 e.g. slicing, where a model is reduced by eliminating stuttering



# Weak **Bisimulation**

Weak forms of bisimulation

- do not match every step
- are suitable for applications like slicing
- do not preserve the X operator
- e.g. Branching bisimulation with explicit divergence
   preserves CTL\*<sub>-x</sub>

However, the next operator is useful in practice - e.g. for safety properties such as *failure* => X(*set-alarm*)

# Branching Bisimulation with Explicit Divergence

If a state s takes a step  $\alpha$  to s',

- then if  $\alpha = \tau$ , bb(s', t) or
- there exist t', t" such that t is followed by any number of stuttering steps to t', which is then followed by the α step to t", where bb(s, t') and bb(s', t")
- if there exists an infinite stuttering path after *s* then there exists an infinite stuttering path after *t*.

The relation is symmetric.

It is defined so that branching logics can be preserved.

- It preserves CTL\*-X.





 $T_1, s_0 \models \mathsf{AXp}$   $T_2, t_0 \models \mathsf{AXp}$   $T_3, u_0 \not\models \mathsf{AXp}$ 



In the previous example, all three transition systems are related by branching bisimulation, but they don't satisfy the same properties with X.

- shows that the stuttering before an observable step is important.

# Eliminating Stuttering



 $T_1, s_0 \models \mathsf{AXE}(\mathsf{F}p)$   $T_2, t_0 \models \mathsf{AXE}(\mathsf{F}p)$   $T_3, u_0 \not\models \mathsf{AXE}(\mathsf{F}p)$ 

#### **Observable Steps**

These examples illustrate the notion of observable step.

An *observable step* is one which either:

- performs an observable (non-stuttering) action,
- passes a critical branching point, or
- performs a *relevant stuttering step* with respect to a particular formula.

Branching bisimulation covers only observable actions and critical branching points (called bb-observable steps).

Next-preserving branching bisimulation additionally considers *relevant stuttering steps*.

The *relevant stuttering steps* are the ones which must be preserved, determined according to the *xdepth* of a formula:

```
xdepth(\varphi) = 0, where \varphi \in AP,
```

```
xdepth(\psi_1 \land \psi_2) = max(xdepth(\psi_1), xdepth(\psi_2)),
```

```
xdepth(\neg \psi_1) = xdepth(\psi_1),
```

```
xdepth(\mathbf{E}\varphi) = xdepth(\varphi),
```

```
xdepth(\varphi_1 \mathbf{U} \varphi_2) = max(xdepth(\varphi_1), xdepth(\varphi_2)),
```

```
xdepth(\mathbf{X}\varphi) = xdepth(\varphi) + 1.
```

e.g. xdepth(Xp) = 1 xdepth((Xp) U (XXq)) = 2

# Relevant Stuttering Steps

If a transition system has more than  $xdepth(\varphi)$  stuttering steps before a bb-observable step, then the validity of  $\varphi$  does not change along the excess stuttering steps (the stuttering steps that are more than  $xdepth(\varphi)$  steps away from the bbobservable step).

#### Next-preserving Branching Bisimulation



The solid ellipses represent nextpreserving branching bisimulation.



If a  $\tau$  step occurs from *s* to *s*', which is not bb-observable, and *s*' is npbb with depth *xd* to state *t*, then *t* is not required to do a matching step.

#### Next-preserving Branching Bisimulation

If a bb-observable step  $\alpha$  occurs after *s*, possibly preceded by non-bb-observable steps, then this must be matched by *t*, also possibly preceded by non-bb-observable steps.

- The non-bb-observable steps which are *xd-relevant* must be preserved.

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### Next-preserving Branching Bisimulation



- if j < xd then k = j
- if  $j \ge xd$  then  $k \ge xd$

Note that the relation is symmetric.

# Next-preserving Branching Bisimulation (Paths)



If j < *xd*, then all the stuttering steps are *xd-relevant*, so must be matched.

Otherwise, only xd stuttering steps must be matched.
# Next-preserving Branching Bisimulation (Paths)



This gives rise to an alternative definition using *xd-equivalent partitions*.

Each *xd-equivalent partition* of a path has to be matched by an *xd-equivalent partition* in the other path.

### Next-preserving Branching Bisimulation

The parameterised next-preserving branching bisimulation gives rise to a heirarchy.

When *xd* = 0, the equivalence coincides with branching bisimulation with explicit divergence. This is the weakest next-preserving branching bisimulation.

When  $xd = \infty$ , the equivalence coincides with strong bisimulation. This is the strongest next-preserving branching bisimulation.

## Next-preserving Branching Bisimulation



The next-preserving branching bisimulation definition was used to create a slicing method that preserves CTL\*.

- requires extra stuttering nodes to be kept in the slice.
- Extra nodes are placed before critical nodes and branching points in the transition system – equivalent to several constructs in the BT diagram, i.e. alternative branching, concurrent branching, conditional nodes.

Alternative branching – need to look for cases where one branch leads to an observable node where the other doesn't.

Concurrent branching – non-determinism arises from the interleaved execution of nodes in different threads

- Therefore any node in a concurrent branch is a branching point
- but most cases are not critical since they do not prevent the other nodes from executing





Conditional nodes – not really branching in the transition system, except if it's external input nodes.

# Next-preserving Branching Bisimulation

- Proof of correctness that it preserves CTL\* including X.

- Useful for applications where the X operator is required, e.g. slicing.