

Generalized Büchi Automata versus Testing Automata for Model Checking

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Abstract. Geldenhuys and Hansen have shown that a kind of ω -automaton known as *testing automata* can outperform the Büchi automata traditionally used in the automata-theoretic approach to model checking [8]. This work completes their experiments by including a comparison with generalized Büchi automata; by using larger state spaces derived from Petri nets; and by distinguishing violated formulæ (for which testing automata fare better) from verified formulæ (where testing automata are hindered by their two-pass emptiness check).

1 Introduction

Context The automata-theoretic approach to model checking linear-time properties [23] splits the verification process into four operations:

1. Computation of the state-space for the model M . This state-space can be seen as an ω -automaton A_M whose language, $\mathcal{L}(A_M)$, represent all possible executions of M .
2. Translation of the temporal property φ into a ω -automaton $A_{\neg\varphi}$ whose language, $\mathcal{L}(A_{\neg\varphi})$, is the set of all executions that would invalidate φ .
3. Synchronization of these automata. This constructs a product automaton $A_M \otimes A_{\neg\varphi}$ whose language, $\mathcal{L}(A_M) \cap \mathcal{L}(A_{\neg\varphi})$, is the set of executions of M invalidating φ .
4. Emptiness check of this product. This operation tells whether $A_M \otimes A_{\neg\varphi}$ accepts an infinite word, and can return such a word (a counterexample) if it does. The model M verifies φ iff $\mathcal{L}(A_M \otimes A_{\neg\varphi}) = \emptyset$.

Problem Different kinds of ω -automata have been used with the above approach. In the most common case, a property expressed as an LTL (linear-time temporal logic) formula is converted into a Büchi automaton with state-based acceptance, and a Kripke structure is used to represent the state-space of the model.

In our tools, we prefer to represent properties using *generalized* (i.e., multiple) Büchi acceptance conditions *on transitions* rather than on states [7]. Any algorithm that translates LTL into a Büchi automaton has to deal with generalized Büchi acceptance conditions at some point, and the process of *degeneralizing* the Büchi automaton often increases its size. Several emptiness-check algorithms can deal with generalized Büchi acceptance conditions, making such an a degeneralization unnecessary and even costly [5]. Moving the acceptance conditions from the states to the transitions also reduces the size of the property automaton [3, 10].

Unfortunately, having a smaller property automaton $A_{\neg\varphi}$ does not always imply that the product with the model ($A_M \otimes A_{\neg\varphi}$) will be smaller, and it is the size of this product that really affects the efficiency of the model checking. Instead of targeting smaller property automata, some people have attempted to build automata that are *more deterministic* [21]; however even this does not guarantee the product to be smaller.

Hansen et al. [11] introduced a new kind of ω -automaton called *Testing Automaton*. These automata are less expressive than Büchi automata since are tailored to represent *stuttering-insensitive* properties (such as any LTL property that does not use the X operator). Also they are often a lot larger than their equivalent Büchi automaton, but surprisingly their good determinism often lead to a smaller product. The reasons why and the conditions under which testing automata perform better are still mysterious [8].

Objectives The objective of this paper is to evaluate efficiency of LTL model checking with these three kinds of ω -automata: classical Büchi Automata (BA), Transition-based Generalized Büchi automata (TGBA), and Testing Automata (TA). Our main motivation is to try to establish some rough rules to choose automatically and *a priori* the technique that seems most suitable to check a given *stuttering-insensitive* property on a given model. This is of interest when a tool offers the choice of several techniques, which is the case for our model checker Spot [16].

Contents Section 2 provides a brief summary of the three ω -automaton and pointers to their associated operations for model checking. Then section 3 reports our experimentation procedure and its results before a discussion in section 4.

2 Presentation of the three Approaches

Let AP designate the set of *atomic proposition* of the model that we might want to use to build a linear-time property. Any state of the model can be labeled by a valuation of these atomic propositions. We denote by $K = 2^{AP}$ the set of these valuations. For instance if $AP = \{a, b\}$, then $K = 2^{AP} = \{\bar{a}\bar{b}, \bar{a}b, a\bar{b}, ab\}$. An execution of the model is simply an infinite sequence of such valuations, i.e., an element from K^ω . A property can be seen as a set of sequences, i.e. a subset of K^ω .

This section presents the three kinds of automata we compare in this paper: Transitions-based Generalized Büchi Automata, Büchi Automata and Testing Automata. For all of them, we explain how they recognize subsets of K^ω to show their differences. We do not detail the actual operations that must be performed to model check a system which each approach because this has already been done in other works.

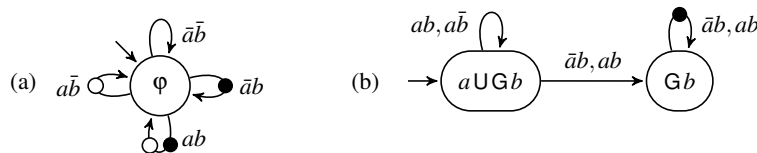


Fig. 1: (a) A TGBA with acceptance conditions $F = \{\bullet, \circ\}$ recognizing the LTL property $\varphi = GFa \wedge GFb$. (b) A TGBA with $F = \{\bullet\}$ recognizing the LTL property $aUGb$.

2.1 Transition-based Generalized Büchi Automata

A Transition-based Generalized Büchi Automata (TGBA) [10] over an alphabet $K = 2^{AP}$ is an ω -automaton where transitions are labeled by letters from K and some acceptance conditions. In our context, the TGBA represents the LTL property to verify.

Definition 1 A TGBA can be formally represented by a tuple $G = \langle S, I, R, F \rangle$ where:

- S is finite set of states,
- $I \subseteq S$ is the set of initial states,
- F is a finite set of acceptance conditions,
- $R \subseteq S \times 2^K \times 2^F \times S$ is the transition relation, where each element (s_i, K_i, F_i, d_i) represents a transition from state s_i to state d_i labeled by the non-empty set of letters K_i , and the set of acceptance conditions F_i .

An execution $w = k_0 k_1 k_2 \dots \in K^\omega$ is accepted by G if there exists an infinite path $(s_0, K_0, F_0, s_1)(s_1, K_1, F_1, s_2)(s_2, K_2, F_2, s_3) \dots \in R^\omega$ where:

- $s_0 \in I$, and $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}, k_i \in K_i \subseteq K$ (the execution is recognized by the path),
- $\forall f \in F, \forall i \in \mathbb{N}, \exists j \geq i, f \in F_j$ (each acceptance condition is visited infinitely often).

Fig. 1 shows two examples of TGBA: one deterministic TGBA derived from the LTL formula $\mathbf{GF}a \wedge \mathbf{GF}b$, and one non-deterministic TGBA derived from $a \mathbf{UG}b$. The LTL formulæ that label states represent the property accepted starting from this state of the automaton: they are shown for the reader's convenience but not used for model checking. As can be inferred from Fig. 1(a), an LTL formula such as $\bigwedge_{i=1}^n \mathbf{GF} p_i$ can be represented by a one-state deterministic TGBA with n acceptance conditions.

Model checking using TGBA When doing model checking with TGBA the two important operations are the translation of the linear-time property ϕ into a TGBA $A_{\neg\phi}$ and the emptiness check of the product $A_M \otimes A_{\neg\phi}$. We know of at least four algorithms that purportedly translate LTL formulæ into TGBA [10, 3, 4, 22]. The one we use is based on Couvreur's LTL translation algorithm [3].

Testing a TGBA for emptiness amounts to the search of a strongly connected component that contains at least one occurrence of each acceptance condition. It can be done in two different way: either with a variation of Tarjan or Dijkstra algorithm [3] or using several nested depth-first searches to save some memory [22]. The latter proved to be slower [5], so we are using Couvreur's SCC-based emptiness check algorithm [3]. Another advantage of the SCC-based algorithm is that their complexity does not depend on the number of acceptance conditions.

2.2 Büchi Automata

A Büchi Automaton (BA) has only one acceptance condition that is state-based.

Definition 2 A BA over the alphabet $K = 2^{AP}$ is a tuple $B = \langle S, I, R, F \rangle$ where:

- S is a set of finite set states,
- $I \subseteq S$ is the set of initial states,
- $F \subseteq S$ is a finite set of acceptance states,
- $R \subseteq S \times 2^K \times S$ is the transition relation where each transition is labeled by a set of letters of K .

An execution $w = k_0k_1k_2\dots \in K^\omega$ is accepted by B if there exists an infinite path $(s_0, K_0, s_1)(s_1, K_1, s_2)(s_2, K_2, s_3)\dots \in R^\omega$ such that:

- $s_0 \in I$, and $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}, k_i \in K_i$ (the execution is recognized by the path),
- $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}, \exists j \geq i, s_j \in F$ (at least one acceptance state is visited infinitely often).

Model checking using BA A BA can be obtained from a TGBA by a procedure known as *degeneralization* [3, 10]. In a worst case, a TGBA with s states and n acceptance conditions will be degeneralized into a BA with $s \times (n + 1)$ states (and one acceptance condition). This is what we do in our experiments. Alternatives include the translation of the property into a *state-based* generalized automaton which can then also be degeneralized, or the translation of the property into an alternating Büchi automaton that is then converted into a BA using the Miyano-Hayashi construction [15].

The emptiness check algorithms that can deal with TGBA will also work on BA (a BA can be seen as a TGBA by pushing the acceptance conditions on the transition leaving acceptance states). But it can also be done using two nested depth-first searches. The comparison of these different emptiness checks has raised many studies [9, 20, 5].

Fig. 2 shows the same properties as Fig. 1, but expressed as Büchi automata. The automaton from Fig. 2(a) was built by degeneralizing the TGBA from Fig. 1(a). The worst case of the degeneralization occurred here, since the TGBA with 1 state and n acceptance conditions was degeneralized into a BA with $n + 1$ states. It is known that no BA with less than $n + 1$ states can recognize the property $\bigwedge_{i=1}^n \text{GF } p_i$ so this Büchi automaton is optimal [2]. The property $a \text{UG} b$, on the other hand, is easier to express: the BA has the same size as the TGBA.

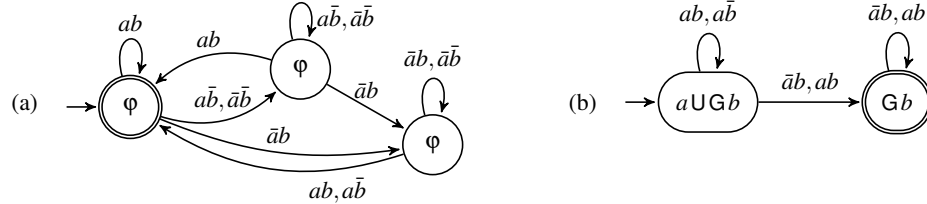


Fig. 2: Two example BA, with acceptance states shown as double circles. (a) A BA for the LTL property $\varphi = \text{GF } a \wedge \text{GF } b$ obtained by degeneralizing the TGBA for Fig. 1(a). (b) A BA for the LTL property $a \text{UG} b$.

2.3 Testing Automata

A property, i.e., a set of infinite sequences $\mathcal{P} \subseteq K^\omega$, is *stuttering-insensitive* iff any sequence $k_0k_1k_2\dots \in \mathcal{P}$ remains in \mathcal{P} after repeating any valuation k_i . In other words, \mathcal{P} is stuttering-insensitive iff

$$k_0k_1k_2\dots \in \mathcal{P} \iff k_0^{i_0}k_1^{i_1}k_2^{i_2}\dots \in \mathcal{P} \text{ for any } i_0 > 0, i_1 > 0 \dots$$

It is well known that any $\text{LTL} \setminus X$ formula (i.e. an LTL formula that does not use the X operator) describes a stuttering-insensitive property. (It is possible to build some stuttering-insensitive LTL formulæ using the X operator [6].)

Testing Automata (TA) were introduced by Hansen et al. [11] to represent stuttering-insensitive properties. While a Büchi automaton observes the value of the atomic propositions AP , the basic idea of TA is to detect the *changes* in these values; if a valuation of AP does not change between two consecutive valuations of an execution, the TA can stay in the same state. To detect execution that ends by stuttering in the same TA state, a new kind of acceptance states is introduced: "livelock acceptance states".

If A and B are two valuations, let us note $A \oplus B$ the symmetric set difference, i.e. the set of atomic propositions that changed. E.g. $a\bar{b} \oplus ab = \{b\}$.

Definition 3 A TA over the alphabet $K = 2^{AP}$ is a tuple $T = \langle S, I, U, R, F, G \rangle$. where:

- S is a finite set of states,
- $I \subseteq S$ is the set of initial states,
- $U : I \rightarrow K$ is a function mapping each initial state to a symbol of K interpreted as a valuation (the initial configuration),
- $R \subseteq S \times K \times S$ is the transition relation where each transition (s, k, d) is labeled by a changeset: $k \in K = 2^{AP}$ is interpreted as a set of atomic propositions that should change between states s and d ,
- $F \subseteq S$ is a set of Büchi acceptance states,
- $G \subseteq S$ is a set of livelock acceptance states.

An execution $w = k_0 k_1 k_2 \dots \in K^\omega$ is accepted by T if there exists an infinite sequence $(s_0, k_0 \oplus k_1, s_1)(s_1, k_1 \oplus k_2, s_2) \dots (s_i, k_i \oplus k_{i+1}, s_{i+1}) \dots \in (S \times K \times S)^\omega$ such that:

- $s_0 \in I$ with $U(s_0) = k_0$,
- $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}$, either $(s_i, k_i \oplus k_{i+1}, s_{i+1}) \in R$ (we are progressing in the testing automaton), or $k_i = k_{i+1} \wedge s_i = s_{i+1}$ (the execution is stuttering and the TA does not progress),
- Either, $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}$, $(\exists j \geq i, k_j \neq k_{j+1}) \wedge (\exists l \geq i, s_l \in F)$ (the automaton is progressing in a Büchi-accepting way), or, $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$, $(s_n \in G \wedge (\forall i \geq n, s_i = s_n \wedge k_i = k_n))$ (the sequence reaches a livelock acceptance state and then stay on that state because the execution is stuttering).

Construction of a Testing Automaton from a Büchi Automaton From a BA $B = (S_B, I_B, R_B, F_B)$ over the alphabet $K = 2^{AP}$, we obtain a TA $T = (S_T, I_T, U_T, R_T, F_T, G_T)$ representing the same property in two steps [8]:

1. Converting B into an intermediate form of T with $G_T = \emptyset$:
 - $S_T = S_B \times K$, $I_T = I_B \times K$, $F_T = F_B \times K$, and $G_T = \emptyset$
 - $\forall (s, k) \in I_T$, $U_T((s, k)) = k$
 - $\forall (s_1, k_1) \in S_T, \forall (s_2, k_2) \in S_T$,
 $((s_1, k_1), k_1 \oplus k_2, (s_2, k_2)) \in R_T \iff \exists k \in 2^K, ((s_1, k, s_2) \in R_B) \wedge (k_1 \in k)$
2. Filling G_T to simplify T . For that, compute all strongly connected components using only stuttering transitions (i.e., transitions labeled by \emptyset). If such a SCC is not trivial (i.e., it contains a cycle) and contains a Büchi acceptance state, then add all its states to G_T . Add to I_T or G_T any state that can respectively reach I_T or G_T using only stuttering transitions. Finally remove all stuttering transitions from R_T .

Additionally, the TA can be minimized by merging bisimilar states.

Fig. 3 shows the automaton constructed for $aUGb$ by applying the above construction on the automaton from Fig. 2(b). The TA for $GFa \wedge GFb$ is too big to be shown: it has 11 states and 64 transitions.

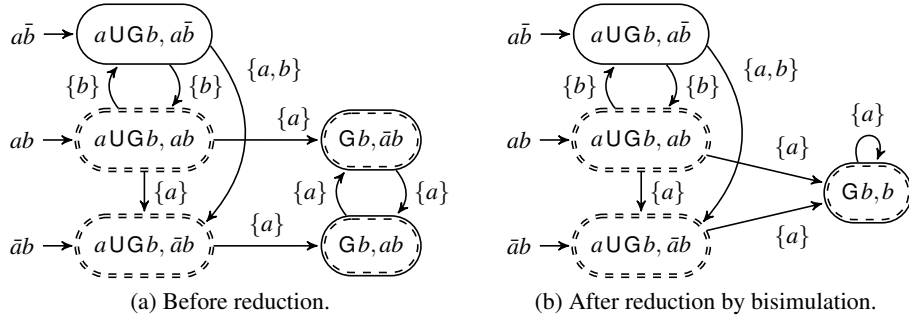


Fig. 3: Two TA for the LTL formula $aUGb$. States with a double enclosure belong to either F or G : states in $F \setminus G$ (none here) have a double plain line, states in $G \setminus F$ have a double dashed line, and state in $F \cap G$ use a mixed dashed/plain style.

Emptiness check using TA A first difference between the BA and TA approaches appears in the product computation. Indeed, a testing automaton remains in the same state when the Kripke structure executes a stuttering step.

The emptiness check also requires a dedicated algorithm because there are two ways to accept an execution: Büchi acceptance or livelock acceptance. In the algorithm sketched by Geldenhuys and Hansen [8], a first pass is used with an heuristic to detect both Büchi and livelock acceptance cycles. Unfortunately, in certain cases this first pass fails to report existent livelock acceptance cycles. This implies that when no counterexample is found by the first pass, a second one is required to double-check for possible livelock acceptance cycles. These two passes are annoying when the property is satisfied (no counterexample) since the entire state-space has to be explored twice.

Optimizations Looking at Fig. 3 inspires two optimizations. The first one is based on the fact that the construction of testing automata described in previous section will generate a lot of bisimilar states such as $(Gb, \bar{a}b)$ and (Gb, ab) . This is because the construction considers all the elements of K that are compatible with Gb . Had the LTL formula been over $AP = \{a, b, c\}$, e.g., $(a \vee c)UGb$, then we would have had four bisimilar states: $(Gb, \bar{a}b\bar{c})$, $(Gb, \bar{a}bc)$, $(Gb, ab\bar{c})$, and (Gb, abc) . These state are *necessarily* isomorphic, because they only differ in a and c , some propositions that the formula Gb does not *observe*.

A more efficient way to construct the testing automaton (and to construct the automaton from Fig. 3b directly) would be to consider only the subset of atomic propositions that are observed by the corresponding state of the Büchi automaton or its descendants (if the state is labeled by an LTL formula, the atomic propositions occurring in this formula give an over-approximation of that set).

A second optimization relies on the fact any state that no part of a SCC (also called *trivial* SCC) can be added to F without changing the language of the automaton. This is true for the three kinds of automata. For instance on Fig. 3 the state $(aUGb, \bar{a}b)$ can be added to F . Since this state is not part of any cycle, it cannot occur infinitely often and therefore cannot change the accepted language of the automaton.

This change allows further simplifications by bisimulation: the state $(aUGb, \bar{a}b)$ is now obviously equivalent to the (Gb, b) state. Fig. 4 shows the resulting automaton. Note that putting any trivial SCC x in F before performing bisimulation could hinder the reduction if x was isomorphic to some state not in F . However if x has only successors in F , as in our example, then it can be put safely in F : indeed, it can only be isomorphic to an F -state, or to another trivial SCC that will be added to F . This condition is similar to the one used by Löding before minimizing deterministic weak ω -automata [14].

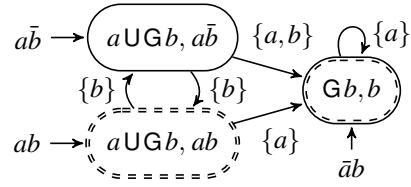


Fig. 4: Reduced TA for $aUGb$.

3 Experimentation

This section presents our experimentation of the various types of automata within our tool Spot [16]. We first present the Spot architecture and the way the variation on the model checking algorithm was introduced. Then we present our benchmarks (formulae and models) prior to the description of our experiments.

3.1 Implementation on top of Spot

Spot is a model-checking library offering several algorithms that can be combined to build a model checker [7]. Fig. 5 shows the building blocks we used to implement the three approaches. The TGBA and BA approaches share the same synchronized product and emptiness check, while a dedicated algorithms is required by the TA approach.

In order to evaluate our approach on “realistic” models, we decided to couple the Spot library with the CheckPN tool [7]. CheckPN implements Spot’s Kripke structure interface in order to build the state space of a Petri net on the fly. This Kripke structure is then synchronized with an ω -automaton (TGBA, BA, or TA) on the fly, and fed to the suitable emptiness check algorithm. The latter algorithm drives the on-the-fly construction: only the explored part of the product (and the associated states of the Kripke structure) will be constructed.

Constructing the state space on-the-fly is a double-edged optimization. Firstly, it saves memory, because the state-space is computed as it is explored and thus, does not need be stored. Secondly, it also saves time when a property is violated because the

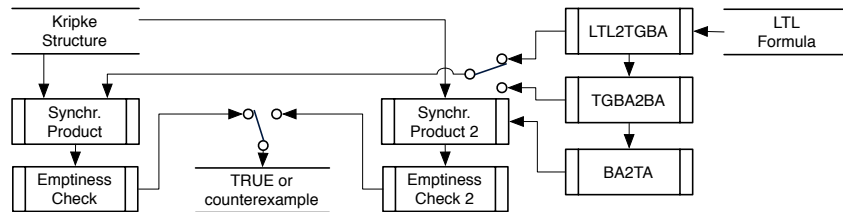


Fig. 5: The experiment’s architecture. Two command-line switches controls which one of the three approaches is used to verify an LTL formula on a Kripke structure.

emptiness check can stop as soon as it has found a counterexample. However, on-the-fly exploration is costlier than browsing an explicit graph: an emptiness check algorithm such as the one for TA [11] that does two traversals of the full state-space in the worst case (e.g. when the property holds) will pay twice the price of that construction.

In the CheckPN implementation of the Kripke structure, the Petri Net marking are compressed to save memory. The marking of a state has to be uncompressed every time we compute its successors, or when we compute the value of the atomic properties on this state. These two operations often occur together, so there is a one-entry cache that prevents the marking from being uncompressed twice in a row.

3.2 Benchmark Inputs

We selected some Petri net models and formulæ to compare these approaches.

Toy Examples A first class of four models were selected from the Petri net literature [1]: the flexible manufacturing system (FMS), the Kanban system, the dining philosophers, and the slotted-ring system. All these models have a parameter n . For the dining philosophers, and the slotted-ring, the model are composed of n identical 1-safe subnets. For FMS and Kanban, n only influences the number of tokens in the initial marking.

We chose values for n in order to get state space having between 2×10^5 to 3×10^6 nodes. The objective is to have comparable state spaces to be synchronized.

Case Studies The following two bigger models, were taken from actual cases studies. They come with some *dedicated* properties to check.

MAPK models a biochemical reaction: Mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade [12]. For a scaling value of 8 (that influences the number of tokens in the initial marking), it contains 22 places and 30 transitions. Its state space contains 6.11×10^6 states. The authors propose to check that from the initial state, it is necessary to pass through states *RafP*, *MEKP*, *MEKPP* and *ERKP* in order to reach *ERKPP*. In LTL:

$$\Phi_1 = \neg((\neg RafP) \cup MEKP) \wedge \neg((\neg MEKP) \cup MEKPP) \wedge \neg((\neg MEKPP) \cup ERKP) \wedge \neg((\neg ERKP) \cup ERKPP)$$

PolyORB models the core of the μ broker component of a middleware [13] in an implementation using a Leader/Followers policy [18]. It is a Symmetric Net and, since CheckPN processes P/T nets only, it was unfolded into a P/T net. The resulting net, for a configuration involving three sources of data, three simultaneous jobs and two threads (one leader, one follower) is composed of 189 places and 461 transitions. Its state space contains 61 662 states³. The authors propose to check that once a job is issued from a source, it must be processed by a thread (no starvation). It corresponds to:

$$\Phi_2 = G(MSrc_1 \rightarrow F(DOSrc_1)) \wedge G(MSrc_2 \rightarrow F(DOSrc_2)) \wedge G(MSrc_3 \rightarrow F(DOSrc_3))$$

Types of Formulæ As suggested by Geldenhuys and Hansen [8], the type of formula may affect the performances of the various algorithms. In addition to the formulæ Φ_1 and Φ_2 above, we consider two classes of formulæ:

³ This is a rather small value compared to MAPK but, due to the unfolding, each state is a 189-value vector. PolyORB with three sources of data, three simultaneous jobs and three threads would generate 1 137 096 states with 255-value vectors, making the experiment much too slow.

- *RND*: randomly generated LTL formulæ (without X operator). Since random formulæ are very often trivial to verify (the emptiness check needs to explore only a handful of states), for each model we selected only random formulæ that required to explore more than 2000 states with the TGBA approach.
- *WFair*: properties of the form $(\bigwedge_{i=1}^n GF p_i) \rightarrow \varphi$, where φ is a randomly generated LTL formula. This represents the verification of φ under the weak-fairness hypothesis $\bigwedge_{i=1}^n GF p_i$. The automaton representing such a formula has at least n acceptance conditions which means that the BA will in the worst case be $n + 1$ times bigger than the TGBA. For the formulæ we generated for our experiments we have $n \approx 3.19$ on the average.

All formulæ were translated into automata using Spot, which was shown experimentally to be very good at this job [19].

3.3 Results

Table 1 and 2 show how the three approaches deal with toy models and random formulæ (Table 1) and with toy models against WFair formulæ (Table 2). Table 3 shows the results of the two cases studies against random, weak-fairness, and dedicated formulæ.

These tables separate cases where formulæ are verified from cases where they are violated. In the former (left sides of the tables), no counterexample are found and the full state space had to be explored; in the latter (right sides) the on-the-fly exploration of the state space stopped as soon as the existence of a counterexample could be computed.

The numbers displayed in parentheses on both sides of the tables are the number of formulæ involved in the experiment. For instance (reading Table 2) we checked Kanban5 against 98 weak-fairness formulæ that had no counterexample, and against 102 weak-fairness formulæ that had a counterexample. The average and maximum are computed separately on these two sets of formulæ.

Column-wise, these tables show the average and maximum sizes (states and transitions) of: (1) the automata $A_{\neg\varphi_i}$ expressing the properties φ_i ; (2) the products $A_{\neg\varphi_i} \otimes A_M$ of the property with the model; and (3) the subset of this product that was actually explored by the emptiness check. For verified properties, the emptiness check of TGBA and BA always explores the full product so these sizes are equal, while the emptiness check of TA always performs two passes on the full product so it shows double values. On violated properties, the emptiness check aborts as soon as it finds a counterexample, so the explored size is usually significantly smaller than the full product.

The emptiness check values show a third column labeled “T”: this is the time (in hundredth of seconds, a.k.a. centiseconds) spent doing that emptiness check, including the on-the-fly computation of the subset of the product that is explored. The time spent constructing the property automata from the formulæ is not shown (it is negligible compared to that of the emptiness check). These tests were performed on a 64bit Linux system running on an Intel Core i7 CPU 960 at 3.20GHz, with 24GB of RAM. Running this entire benchmark with four tasks in parallel took us two days.

		Property verified (no counterexample)						Property violated (a counterexample exists)								
		Automaton		Full product		Emptiness check		Automaton		Full product		Emptiness check				
		st.	tr.	st.	tr.	st.	tr.	st.	tr.	st.	tr.	st.	tr.			
FMS5 (70)	TGBA	Avg	5.9	67.1	698 449	4 750 201	698 449	4 750 201	740	6.3	75.8	8 190 410	73 457 965	118 742	681 874	109
		Max	24	310	5 961 942	54 621 333	5 961 942	54 621 333	7 685	30	493	35 692 168	462 702 111	4 554 970	28 262 831	4 127
	BA	Avg	7.3	79.6	790 859	5 389 591	790 859	5 389 591	830	7.6	89.9	8 848 201	79 645 055	89 948	451 848	77
		Max	28	338	8 310 792	72 673 494	8 310 792	72 673 494	9 582	63	1 037	37 211 496	473 322 666	3 085 939	23 927 298	3 565
	TA	Avg	27.1	365.5	5 21 260	4 023 469	1 042 519	8 046 939	1 865	26.8	389.6	8 235 551	67 897 061	61 095	338 607	91
		Max	82	2 256	4 078 242	32 815 605	8 156 484	65 631 210	14 490	123	3 255	34 897 110	295 594 539	1 860 929	14 720 770	3 819
Kanban5 (100)	TGBA	Avg	5.2	48.5	852 364	7 279 249	852 364	7 279 249	909	7.0	71.6	7 126 650	77 809 374	47 984	237 295	33
		Max	27	264	6 694 184	70 465 136	6 694 184	70 465 136	8 373	22	292	21 715 730	241 387 835	1 604 560	11 177 672	1 510
	BA	Avg	6.1	56.3	852 493	7 279 889	852 493	7 279 889	910	8.6	87.6	8 041 841	87 518 994	36 085	194 392	25
		Max	29	296	6 694 184	70 465 136	6 694 184	70 465 136	8 335	38	472	23 997 065	270 130 066	1 628 283	11 232 778	1 513
	TA	Avg	20.2	227.2	6 51 299	6 074 858	1 302 598	12 149 717	2 451	29.7	368.3	7 162 575	70 438 470	17 766	141 630	29
		Max	114	1 858	6 409 984	62 033 608	12 819 968	124 067 216	25 344	134	2 221	17 551 016	175 769 251	1 163 547	10 736 232	2 217
Philo8 (100)	TGBA	Avg	6.1	87.0	219 303	1 232 080	219 303	1 232 080	257	7.3	99.2	637 670	4 950 129	36 161	168 189	37
		Max	20	338	830 533	6 366 282	830 533	6 366 282	1 172	27	360	1 489 852	16 311 100	63 4183	5 245 872	963
	BA	Avg	7.1	98.5	220 049	1 234 944	220 049	1 234 944	258	9.1	122.0	737 638	5 767 111	29 216	105 082	25
		Max	21	367	830 533	6 366 282	830 533	6 366 282	1 174	38	604	3 005 819	32 843 222	344 134	1 308 577	317
	TA	Avg	30.9	541.9	148 562	1 029 393	297 124	2 058 786	662	36.6	619.0	636 866	4 677 877	18 925	89 670	33
		Max	110	3 123	554 335	3 980 981	1 108 670	7 961 962	2 472	160	3 225	2 491 222	20 365 681	217 114	1 549 281	497
Ring6 (100)	TGBA	Avg	5.4	58	476 612	2 940 953	476 612	2 940 953	564	7.0	90.4	1 702 969	11 452 375	144 848	694 019	136
		Max	18	236	4 162 012	45 176 784	4 162 012	45 176 784	7 181	20	385	5 172 800	35 474 194	11 729 951	7 407 167	1 401
	BA	Avg	6.3	65.7	494 077	3 012 946	494 077	3 012 946	582	8.5	109.2	1 865 260	12 543 141	117 181	576 625	110
		Max	22	326	4 378 216	46 903 064	4 378 216	46 903 064	7 683	25	401	5 211 769	43 250 640	1 323 327	8 460 521	1 584
	TA	Avg	22.6	310.0	379 088	2 163 360	758 175	4 326 721	1 329	33.8	540.6	1 697 686	10 029 775	68 807	368 600	113
		Max	122	2 382	2 232 820	14 106 432	4 465 640	28 212 864	8 130	141	3 531	4 891 128	28 812 656	946 951	5 415 785	1 726

Table 1: Comparison of the three approaches on toy examples with random formulae, when counterexamples do not exist (left) or when they do (right).

		Property verified (no counterexample)						Property violated (a counterexample exists)								
		Automaton		Full product		Emptiness check		Automaton		Full product		Emptiness check				
		st.	tr.	st.	tr.	st.	tr.	st.	tr.	st.	tr.	st.	tr.			
FMS5 (37)	TGBA	Avg	3.1	26	5197375	43078717	5197375	43078717	6191	5.4	49.5	9935828	89550059	627618	3517626	559
		Max	7	104	9866094	91499667	9866094	91499667	13282	12	212	21413973	319212813	5865891	51379790	7313
	Avg	7.3	58.4	7325010	53471546	7325010	53471546	7708	11.8	112.6	17297219	154876145	651799	3894388	593	
BA	Max	35	526	11338161	103816053	11338161	103816053	13394	49	578	64477308	784721607	17345804	148875504	21435	
	Avg	36.0	361.1	3967433	31419765	7934866	62839531	14231	60.6	656.7	15339186	126259786	216321	1526860	364	
	Max	215	3460	9002196	70152851	18004392	140305702	31515	205	2985	47074692	415672995	3732706	30145223	7165	
TGBA	Avg	2.7	14.9	2730709	23071387	2730709	23071387	2788	3.5	25	5484209	55893401	526015	3049738	410	
	Max	7	56	8092182	78624126	8092182	78624126	10214	10	140	13900320	166038726	2895449	24460029	3005	
	Avg	5.9	31	3382871	26705745	3382871	26705745	3183	7.1	53.2	8408110	82426568	531367	3035376	415	
BA	Max	20	150	12307085	113079575	12307085	113079575	11962	30	354	23144848	300434051	6104368	43693336	6384	
	Avg	21.0	123.6	1923597	17403907	3847194	34807815	6891	32.8	281.9	6365280	61028298	146619	1200463	240	
	Max	108	1364	6677524	63784672	13355048	127569344	26651	187	2554	18114712	190516984	1163652	10736394	2146	
TGBA	Avg	3.0	19.1	191233	1072039	191233	1072039	225	4.1	40.9	388356	2836796	11526	22540	8	
	Max	10	72	961946	8584333	961946	8584333	1581	11	110	1106279	10139160	148028	667632	153	
	Avg	7.2	47.7	226231	1219657	226231	1219657	254	9.5	107.3	925540	6664879	13374	32724	10	
BA	Max	24	213	961946	8584333	961946	8584333	1577	29	459	3369900	24286322	290681	1107465	265	
	Avg	32.3	245.9	141303	969063	282607	1938127	615	68.0	839.7	898752	6458513	11212	24675	13	
	Max	128	1746	665509	5048600	1331018	10097200	3026	205	3027	2280459	16828197	99824	619861	200	
TGBA	Avg	3.5	21.3	362296	2072837	362296	2072837	413	3.7	37.3	903909	5518052	27114	105130	23	
	Max	10	98	2116458	13877156	2116458	13877156	2531	12	109	2573186	16268868	831566	4479900	929	
	Avg	7.2	44.9	436729	2370915	436729	2370915	476	8.6	92.8	2112826	12623603	39004	168105	35	
BA	Max	22	240	2868218	17192038	2868218	17192038	3168	37	528	6641645	42624886	1123128	5300114	145	
	Avg	30.3	220.1	329599	1831831	659198	3663661	1121	61.6	732.3	2166241	12573562	27645	141549	44	
	Max	154	2020	1658112	9402736	3316224	18805472	5629	237	3456	5113422	30167566	793363	4498438	1408	
Ring6 (100)																
Philo8 (100)																
Kanban5 (98)																
FMS5 (37)																
Ring6 (100)																
Philo8 (100)																
Kanban5 (102)																
FMS5 (163)																

Table 2: Comparison of the three approaches on toy examples with weak-fairness formulae, when counterexamples do not exist (left) or when they do (right).

				Automaton		Full product		Emptiness check		T		
				st.	tr.	st.	tr.	st.	tr.	st.	tr.	
MAPK 8												
				RND (100)		RND (100)		RND (100)		RND (100)		
				TGBA	4.4	40.7	539552	6674103	539552	6674103	887	5.2
				Max	14	191	15567779	261545658	15567779	261545658	31855	52.5
				Avg	5.2	47.4	539557	6674123	539557	6674123	885	256
				BA	19	227	15567780	261545660	15567780	261545660	31558	6.0
				Max	16.8	192.1	471923	5943950	943846	11887899	2623	59.2
				Avg	16.8	192.1	471923	5943950	943846	11887899	2623	304
				TA	90	2148	12969362	172035602	25938724	344071204	73136	19.4
				Max	90	2148	12969362	172035602	25938724	344071204	73136	263.6
				Avg	2.7	20.3	1536626	16368553	1536626	16368553	2330	61
				TGBA	9	116	11888331	160777864	11888331	160777864	21133	1606
				Max	9	116	11888331	160777864	11888331	160777864	21133	29.4
				Avg	6.8	55.8	1948686	18950258	1948686	18950258	2731	102
				BA	29	234	18595927	201692352	18595927	201692352	29129	7.8
				Max	37.9	360.8	1193177	14474879	2386354	28949758	6473	67.7
				Avg	37.9	360.8	1193177	14474879	2386354	28949758	6473	102
				TA	151	2068	10842174	134517672	21684348	269035344	60556	29
				Max	151	2068	10842174	134517672	21684348	269035344	60556	379
				Avg	6	165	46494	302350	46494	302350	40	47.5
				TGBA	6	165	46494	302350	46494	302350	37	462.0
				BA	6	165	46494	302350	46494	302350	37	18994457
				Max	38	1245	33376	289235	66752	578470	121	18994457
				Avg	38	1245	33376	289235	66752	578470	121	243894317
				TA	607938	6462486	1350					49024627
				Max	607938	6462486	1350					623237293
				Avg	607938	6462486	1350					237293
PolyORB 3/3/2												
				RND (100)		RND (100)		RND (100)		RND (100)		
				TGBA	7.0	98.1	63442	163279	63442	163279	303	6.2
				Max	22	378	185103	528174	185103	528174	888	97.2
				Avg	8.4	114.6	64662	165861	64662	165861	309	832
				BA	38	550	218541	608274	218541	608274	1045	101418
				Max	38	550	218541	608274	218541	608274	1045	251469
				Avg	28.7	492	59497	127607	118994	255214	598	558927
				TA	71	2264	184974	396105	369948	792210	1863	1950778
				Max	71	2264	184974	396105	369948	792210	1863	114641
				Avg	4.1	40.6	58539	132985	58539	132985	278	52554
				TGBA	9	128	122817	373584	122817	373584	582	52554
				Max	9	128	122817	373584	122817	373584	582	193931
				Avg	9.6	103.9	88845	197798	88845	197798	420	193931
				BA	38	612	243637	522549	243637	522549	1145	43652
				Max	38	612	243637	522549	243637	522549	1145	990
				Avg	65.1	771.1	92749	198283	185498	396567	933	443762
				TA	244	4132	288852	618696	577704	1237392	2927	191284
				Max	244	4132	288852	618696	577704	1237392	2927	443762
				Avg	7	576	345241	760491	345241	760491	1642	105868
				TGBA	7	576	345241	760491	345241	760491	1642	232165
				BA	7	576	345241	760491	345241	760491	1642	533
				Max	79	14526	342613	742815	685226	1485630	3532	442369
				Avg	79	14526	342613	742815	685226	1485630	3532	1017
				TA	79	14526	342613	742815	685226	1485630	3532	1017
				Max	79	14526	342613	742815	685226	1485630	3532	1017
				Avg	79	14526	342613	742815	685226	1485630	3532	1017

Table 3: Comparison of the three approaches for the case studies when counterexamples do not exist (left) or when they do (right).

4 Discussion

Although the state space of cases studies can be very different from random state spaces [17], a first look at our results confirms two facts already observed by Geldenhuys and Hansen using random state spaces [8]: (1) although the TA constructed from properties are usually a lot larger than BA, the average size of the full product is smaller thanks to the more deterministic nature of the TA. (2) For violated properties, the TA approach explores less states and transitions on the average than the BA.

We complete this picture by showing run times, by separating verified properties from violated properties, and by also evaluating the TGBA approach.

On verified properties, the results are very straightforward to interpret: the BA are slightly worse than the TGBA because they have to be degeneralized. In fact, the average number of acceptance conditions needed in random formulæ (Table 1 and 3) is so close to 1 that the degeneralization barely changes the sizes of the automata. With weak-fairness formulæ (Table 2 and 3), the number of acceptance conditions is greater, so TGBA are favored over BA. Surprisingly, both TGBA and BA, although they are not tailored to *stuttering-insensitive* properties like TA, appear more effective to prove that a *stuttering-insensitive* property is verified. In the three tables, although the full product of the TA approach is smaller than the other approaches, it has to be explored twice (as explained in section 2.3): the emptiness-check consequently explores more states and transitions. This double exploration is not enough to explain the big runtime differences. Two other subtler implementation details contribute to the time difference:

- To synchronize a transition of a Kripke structure with a transition (or a state in case of stuttering) of a TA, we must compute the symmetric difference $l(s) \oplus l(d)$ between the labels of the source and destination states. The same synchronization in the TGBA and BA approaches requires to know only the source label.

Computing these labels is a costly operation in CheckPN because Petri net marking are compressed in memory to save space. Although we implemented some (limited) caching to alleviate the number of such label computation, profiling measures revealed the TA approach was 3 times slower than the TGBA and BA approaches, but that labels were computed 9 times more.

- A second implementation difference, this time in favor of the TA approach, is that transitions of testing automata are labeled by elements of K , while transitions of TGBA and BA are labeled by elements of 2^K . That means that once $l(s) \oplus l(d) \in K$ has been computed, we can use a hash table to immediately find matching transitions of the testing automaton. In the TGBA and BA implementations, we linearly scan the list of transitions of the property automaton until we find one compatible with $l(s)$. The BA and TGBA approaches could be improved by replacing each transition labeled by an element of 2^K by many transitions labeled by an elements of K , and then using a hash table, but we have not implemented it yet.

In an implementation where computing labels is cheap, the run time should be proportional to the number of transitions explored by the emptiness check, so it is important not to consider only the run time provided by our experiments.

On violated properties, it is harder to interpret these tables because the emptiness check will return as soon as it finds a counterexample. Changing the order in which

non-deterministic transitions of the property automaton are iterated is enough to change the number of states and transitions to be explored before a counterexample is found: in the best case the transition order will lead the emptiness check straight to an accepting cycle; in the worst case, the algorithm will explore the whole product until it finally finds an accepting cycle. Although the emptiness check algorithms for the three approaches share the same routines to explore the automaton, they are all applied to different kinds of property automata, and thus provide different transition orders.

This ordering luckiness explains why the BA approach sometimes outperforms the TGBA approach: one very bad case is enough to bias the average case. For instance this occurred on the Philo8 model with random formulæ: the worst TGBA case explored 4 times more transitions than the BA case, although the full product was twice smaller.

We believe that the TA, since they are more deterministic, are less sensible to this ordering. They also explore a smaller state space on the average. This smaller exploration is not always tied a good runtime because of the extra computation of labels discussed previously. Again, looking at the average number of transition explored by the emptiness check indicates that the TA approach would outperform the others if the computation of labels was cheap.

Finally in all of our experiments the TA approach has always found the counterexample in the first pass of the emptiness check algorithm. This supports Geldenhuys and Hansen's claim that the second pass was seldom needed for debugging (less than 0.005% of the cases in their experiments [8]).

5 Conclusion

Geldenhuys and Hansen have evaluated the performance of the BA and TA approaches with small random Kripke structures checked against LTL formulæ taken from the literature [8]. In this work, we have completed their experiments by using actual models and different kinds of formulæ (random formulæ not trivially verifiable, random formulæ expressing weak-fairness formulæ, and a couple of real formulæ), by evaluating the TGBA approach, and by distinguishing violated formulæ and verified formulæ in the benchmark.

For verified formulæ, we found that the state space reduction achieved by the TA approach was not enough to compensate for the two-pass emptiness check this approach requires. It is therefore better to use the TGBA approach to prove that a *stuttering-insensitive* formula is verified and TA approach in an earlier "debugging phase".

When the formulæ are violated, the TA approach usually processes less transitions than the BA approach and TGBA to find a counterexample. This approach should therefore be a valuable help to debug models (i.e. when counterexamples are *expected*). This is especially true on random formulæ. With weak-fairness formulæ, generalized automata are advantaged and are able to beat the TA on the average in 3 of our 6 examples (Philo8, Ring6, PolyORB 3/2/2).

Future work We plan to combine the ideas of TA and TGBA approaches. We believe it would be interesting to have testing automata with transition-based generalized acceptance conditions. We think the LTL translation algorithm we use to produce TGBAs could be adjusted to produce such automata directly.

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