Complexity Bounds for the Verification of Real-Time Software

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Abstract. We present uniform approaches to establish complexity bounds for decision problems such as reachability and simulation, that arise naturally in the verification of timed software systems. We model timed software systems as timed automata augmented with a data store (like a pushdown stack) and show that there is at least an exponential blowup in complexity of verification when compared with untimed systems. Our proof techniques also establish complexity results for boolean programs, which are automata with stores that have additional boolean variables.

1 Introduction

Timed automata [3] are a standard model for formally describing real-time systems. They are automata equipped with real-valued clocks that evolve continuously with time and which can be compared to integers, and reset during discrete transitions. When modelling concurrent real-time software systems, this basic model must be augmented with various data structures to capture different features — a program stack (visible [4] or otherwise) to model recursive procedure calls, a bag or buffer to model undelivered messages in a network, or a higher-order stack to capture safe higher-order functions. In this paper, we study the complexity of classical verification problems for such formal models of real-time software, namely, invariant verification, μ -calculus model checking, and simulation and bisimulation checking.

Our main thesis is that there is *at least* an exponential blowup in complexity for verifying real-time systems when compared with non-real-time systems. More precisely, the problem of verifying a property for automata with an auxiliary data store (like stack, bag or higher-order stack) and clocks is exponentially

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harder than checking the same property for the automata model without clocks. In general, the increase in complexity could be worse than exponential. For example, (timed) language containment for timed automata is undecidable [3], but is decidable in PSPACE for finite automata (without clocks). However, we also show that for certain properties (specifically, invariant and μ -calculus model checking, simulation and bisimulation checking) the increase in complexity is *exactly* exponential by establishing upper bounds for solving timed games.

This increase in complexity has been implicitly observed through a series of results that established the complexity of verification problems for the basic timed automata model. It has also been explicitly observed in [19] again for timed automata. In this paper we extend this line of work for timed automata with an auxiliary store. However, there is an important difference in the proof techniques used in the earlier papers and the one we use here. While previous papers established lower bounds by coming up with new, non-trivial reductions for timed automata, we obtain our results by using a *uniform* method to lift lower bound proofs for automata without clocks to automata with clocks, *independent* of the verification problem and the auxiliary data store being considered.

More precisely, our main technical result is that if a verification problem for automata without clocks is hard for complexity class C_1 with respect to *poly-logtime* reductions then the same verification problem is hard for an exponentially larger class C_2 with respect to *polynomial time* reductions. In order to prove this, we rely on the following techniques. First, we draw on the ideas previously used in proving the complexity of problems whose input is succinctly represented as a circuit [14,23,6,28] to show that verifying boolean automata is exponentially harder. Boolean automata are automata with auxiliary data stores that have additional boolean variables. Such models arise when a program is abstracted using predicates [15] inferred through a process of counterexample-guided abstractionrefinement [11]. Thus, our observations about boolean automata are of independent interest. Next, we show that automata with clocks can mimic the behavior of automata with boolean variables, and hence establishing the main lemma for timed systems.

While poly-log-time reductions are a stricter class of reductions than polynomial time reductions, we observe that typically reductions satisfy these stronger conditions because they have a highly regular structure that depends only on certain local bits. We establish that this intuition does indeed hold when considering the reductions that establish lower bounds for the invariant and μ -calculus model checking, and simulation and bisimulation checking for finite state systems and pushdown systems. Thus, using our main technical lemma and our observations about reductions used in classical verification problems, we establish new complexity results for timed automata with data stores, and re-establish old results using new, uniform proof techniques.

Before concluding this introduction, we would like to make a couple of points about our new proofs. First, the new proofs are significantly easier to establish, as new reductions are not required. For the new proof, one needs to re-examine classical reductions for automata problem to check that they are poly-log-time, but this requires much less creativity than constructing a new reduction. Second, and more importantly, from a philosophical standpoint the new proof is appealing since it highlights clearly some reasons why the verification of real-time and embedded systems is harder than that of non-real-time systems. **Our Results:** We show the following complexity results.

- 1. The control state reachability problem for timed automata is PSPACE- complete and for pushdown timed automata is DEXPTIME-complete.
- 2. The bisimulation and simulation problems between timed automata is DEXPTIME-complete.
- 3. The bisimulation and simulation problems between two visibly pushdown timed automata is 2-DEXPTIME-complete.
- 4. The bisimulation and simulation problems between a timed automata and a pushdown timed automata is 2-DEXPTIME-complete.
- 5. Model checking μ -calculus properties for order n higher order pushdown timed systems is (n + 1)-DEXPTIME-complete.

The first two results were previously known, but our proofs for them are new. The remaining three results are completely new¹.

1.1 Related Work

Verification problems for systems implicitly represented as a parallel composition of many processes, or using boolean variables has been studied since the work of Harel et al., and Rabinovich [17,24,25], where the exponential blow-up in complexity was first observed for model checking branching time modal logics. This observation was extended to process algebraic equivalences and to timed automata in [19]. All of these results were established through new reductions for automata without an additional data store. Alur and Dill [3], introduced the model of timed automata, and showed that the reachability problem is PSPACEcomplete. Decidability of simulation and bisimulation was shown in [8], while tight lower bounds were established in [19]. Complexity of model checking μ calculus was shown in [2]. For timed automata A and B, the language containment problem (i.e., whether $L(A) \subseteq L(B)$), was shown to be decidable when B has one clock [22], and undecidable otherwise; for infinite strings the language containment is undecidable even when B has one clock [1]. The model of pushdown timed systems was first studied in [7] where reachability was shown to be decidable; the decidability of binary reachability was demonstrated in [12]. The language containment problem for timed systems with pushdown stacks and visibly pushdown stacks [4], was studied in [13]. For systems A and B, the problem of whether $L(A) \subseteq L(B)$ was shown to be undecidable when both A and B have visibly pushdown stacks. They also conjectured that the problem is decidable when B is a simple timed automata (without stack) with one clock; however, this problem remains open.

 $^{^1}$ Due to lack of space, some proofs have been eliminated which can be found in [9].

2 Preliminaries

Transition Systems. Given a set of edge labels Σ_E , a Σ_E -transition system (transition system when Σ_E is clear from the context) **S** is a tuple $(S, \longrightarrow, s_0)$ such that S is a set of configurations; Σ_E is a finite set of labels; $\longrightarrow \subseteq S \times \Sigma_E \times S$ is a set of transitions and $s_0 \in S$ is the initial configuration. A transition system is said to be finite if Σ_E and S are finite. We often write $s \stackrel{a}{\longrightarrow} s'$ instead of $(s, a, s') \in \longrightarrow$. As usual, we can define $s \stackrel{w}{\longrightarrow} s'$ for all $w \in \Sigma_E^*$. We say that $s \stackrel{w}{\longrightarrow} s'$ if there exists $w \in \Sigma_E^*$ such that $s \stackrel{w}{\longrightarrow} s'$. We assume the reader is familiar with the definitions of reachability, simulation and bisimulation for transition systems and the logic μ -calculus.

Decision problems, succinct and long representations. We assume that inputs to decision problems are encoded as finite words over the alphabet $\Gamma = \{0, 1\}$. A problem L over Γ is a subset of Γ^* . Following [6], a succinct representation of a word $w \in \Gamma^*$ is a boolean circuit that on input (the binary representation of) i outputs two boolean values, one indicating whether i is less than or equal to the length of w and the other indicating, in that case, the *i*-th bit of w. Given a problem L, the succinct representation of L, denoted s(L), is the set of all boolean circuits which are succinct representations of words in L [6]. The set long(L) is the set of all strings whose length is equal to the number represented by some binary string 1w in L [6].

Indirect access Turing Machines and polylog-time computations. We recall the definition of *indirect access turing machines* [6] used to define complexity classes of low computational power. The Turing machines accepting languages in these classes do not have enough time to read the whole input. Hence *indirect access turing machines* are defined. The machine includes the following elements:

- an input tape;
- a fixed number of work tapes;
- a special tape (henceforth called the pointer tape) to point to a bit of the input, which may be subsequently read in;
- a special tape (henceforth called the symbol tape) on which the symbol just read from the input appears written;
- a "read" state.

The machine is otherwise standard. It reads its input in the following way: the machine can write on the pointer tape the number of position i of the input tape; whenever the "read" state is entered the machine gets (in one computation step) in the symbol tape the contents of the i-th position of the input tape. If the input has length less than i, then the machine does not get anything. The previous content of the symbol tape is overwritten, but the contents of the pointer tape and position of its head remain untouched.

We will denote by LT, the class of languages accepted by deterministic indirect access Turing machines within a computation time bounded by $O(\log n)$. The class PLT is the class of languages accepted by deterministic indirect access Turing machines within a computation time bounded by $O((\log n)^k)$ for some natural number k and the class FLT is the class of all functions computable by such machines in $O((\log n)^k)$ time for some natural number k.

Polylog time and polynomial time reductions. Given two problems A and B, A is polynomial time m-reducible to B, denoted $A \leq_m^P B$, if and only if there is a polynomial time computable function f such that $w \in A \Leftrightarrow f(w) \in B$ for every string w. Polylog time m-reducibility (abbreviated as PLT-reducibility and denoted \leq_m^{PLT}) is defined as follows. A is PLT-reducible to B if and only if there is a function f such that i) $w \in A \Leftrightarrow f(w) \in B$ for every w; and ii) the following function φ is computable in polylogarithmic time: for $w \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and $i \in N$, $\varphi(w, i)$ is the *i*-th bit of f(w) if *i* is less than or equal to the length of f(w) and is undefined otherwise.

We now present two results from [6]. The first result relates *PLT*-reducibility and polynomial-time *m*-reducibility². The second result shows that the succinct version of long(A) is at least as hard as *A*.

Lemma 1. If $A \leq_m^{PLT} B$, then $s(A) \leq_m^P s(B)$.

Lemma 2. $A \leq_m^P s(long(A)).$

Automata with auxiliary stores. An automata with auxiliary store [10] consists of a control and an auxiliary store. Formally, an auxiliary store is a tuple $\mathcal{D} = (D, \widetilde{pred}, \widetilde{op}, d_i)$ such that D is a set, elements of which are called data values; \widetilde{op} is a finite collection of functions $f: D \to D$; \widetilde{pred} is a finite collection of unary predicates on D; and d_i is an element of D, called the *initial data value*. It is assumed that the identity function $\mathrm{id} \in \widetilde{op}$ and the always true predicate true $\in \widetilde{pred}$. Pushdown stores, visibly pushdown stores [5], and higher-order pushdown stores [16] can be seen as instances of auxiliary stores.

An automaton is defined over an auxiliary store and a *finite* alphabet (the alphabet is used to annotate the transitions of the automaton). Formally, given an auxiliary store $\mathcal{D} = (D, \widetilde{pred}, \widetilde{op}, d_i)$ and an alphabet Σ_E , a (\mathcal{D}, Σ_E) -automaton \mathcal{A} is a tuple (Q, δ, q_i) , where

- -Q is a *finite* set of *control states*.
- $-\delta \subseteq Q \times pred \times \Sigma_E \times \widetilde{op} \times Q$ is a transition relation.
- $-q_i$ is the *initial state* of the automaton \mathcal{A} .

The semantics of \mathcal{A} is described in terms of a Σ_E -labeled transition system $(\mathcal{S}, \longrightarrow_{\delta}, s_i)$. The set of configurations is $\{(q, d) | q \in Q \text{ and } d \in \mathcal{D}\}$ and (q_i, d_i) is the initial configuration. The transition relation \longrightarrow_{δ} is defined as follows- $(q, d) \xrightarrow{a}_{\delta} (q', d')$ iff there exists $p \in pred$ and $g \in op$ such that $(q, p, a, g, q') \in \delta$, p(d) is true and g(d) = d'. We will assume the definition of *isomorphism* between automata.

For example, a pushdown store on an alphabet Γ in a pushdown automaton can be formalized as an auxiliary store in the following way. The set Γ^* (set

 $^{^2}$ The result in [6] is only shown for log time *m*-reducibility, but the extension is straightforward.

of all finite strings over Γ) can be taken as the set of data values with the empty string ϵ as the initial value. The set of predicates \widetilde{pred} can be chosen as $\{\mathsf{empty}\} \cup \{\mathsf{top}_{\gamma} \mid \gamma \in \Gamma\} \cup \{\mathsf{true}\}, \text{ where empty} = \{\epsilon\}, \mathsf{top}_{\gamma} = \{w\gamma \mid w \in \Gamma^*\}$ (the top of stack is γ) and $\mathsf{true} = \Gamma^*$ (any stack). The set of functions \widetilde{op} can be defined as $\{id\} \cup \{\mathsf{push}_{\gamma} \mid \gamma \in \Gamma\} \cup \{\mathsf{pop}_{\gamma} \mid \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ where push_{γ} and pop_{γ} are defined as follows. For all $w \in \Gamma^*$, $\mathsf{push}_{\gamma}(w) = w\gamma$ and $\mathsf{pop}_{\gamma}(w) = w_1$ if $w = w_1\gamma$ and w otherwise. In a pushdown system the function pop_{γ} will be enabled only when the store satisfies top_{γ} . The function push_{γ} is enabled when the store satisfies true .

We also consider visibly pushdown automata (VPA) [5]. A VPA is a special kind of pushdown automaton in which every symbol of the input alphabet is designated as a call, return or internal. Every transition labelled by a call pushes a symbol, those labelled by return pop a symbol and transitions labelled by internal symbols do not push or pop any symbols.

The other kind of automata that will be considered are higher order pushdown systems. First let us define a higher order store. Given an alphabet Σ , an order 1 store is a stack of elements from Σ , and an order n store for n > 1 is a stack of elements from the set of stores of order n-1. The different kinds of operation that can be performed on an order n store include $push_w$ where w is a word of the input alphabet, $push_l$ where $l \leq n$, pop_l where $l \leq n$. A stack is written with the top most element to the left. The first order 1 store in an order 2 store ABC, where A, B and C are order 1 stores, is A, and the first order 2 store is ABC itself. $push_w$ pushes w onto the first order 1 stack in the store. $push_l$ pushes a copy of the first element of the first order l store to the first order lstore in the store, and pop_l pops the top element of the first order l store in the store. There is another operation *top* which returns the top element of the first order 1 store in the store. A higher order pushdown system of order n is an automaton equipped with an order n store. A transition can be taken only if the element returned by *top* matches the input symbol and the data store is modified according to the operation. A formal description can be found in [16].

Automaton Problem. A k-tuple of automata with auxiliary store has signature $Sig = ((\mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{L}_{E1}), \dots, (\mathcal{D}_k, \mathcal{L}_{Ek}))$ if the *i*-th automaton in the tuple has auxiliary store \mathcal{D}_i and alphabet \mathcal{L}_{Ei} . A (k, Sig)-automaton problem is a set of k-tuples of automata having signature Sig. For the rest of the paper, we assume that an automaton problem is closed under isomorphism, *i.e.*, if \mathcal{P} is a k-automaton problem, then for any k-tuple $(\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots, \mathcal{A}_k), 1 \leq i \leq k$, and \mathcal{A}'_i such that \mathcal{A}_i is isomorphic to $\mathcal{A}'_i, (\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots, \mathcal{A}_i, \dots, \mathcal{A}_k) \in \mathcal{P}$ iff $(\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots, \mathcal{A}'_i, \dots, \mathcal{A}_k) \in \mathcal{P}$.

For example, the *simulation* poblem between pushdown automata over the same pushdown store over the same input alphabet Σ_E is the set of pairs $(\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2)$ such that \mathcal{A}_1 is simulated by \mathcal{A}_2 .

Encoding of an automaton. We encode the automaton over an auxiliary store \mathcal{D} and an alphabet Σ_E as a binary string. Let n_1, n_2, n_3 and n_4 be the least integers such that $|Q| \leq 2^{n_1}, |\Sigma_E| \leq 2^{n_2}, |\widetilde{pred}| \leq 2^{n_3}$ and $|\widetilde{op}| \leq 2^{n_4}$, respectively. We will assume some enumeration of the elements in Q (the initial state will always be numbered 0), Σ_E , pred and \widetilde{op} . The automaton is then encoded as a binary string w of length 2^n , where $n = n_2 + n_3 + n_4 + 2n_1$ as follows. We basically encode the transition function. Note that any position of the encoding can be represented by a binary number of length $n_2 + n_3 + n_4 + 2n_1$. The first n_2 bits index the edge symbol of a transition, the next n_3 bits index the predicate of the transition, the next n_4 bits index the operation and the next n_1 bits index the "current control state" and the final n_1 bits index the "next control state".

Before giving the formal encoding, let us fix some notation. Given a binary string $w \in \Gamma^*$, let |w| denote the length of w and w_i denote its *i*-th symbol (counting from left to right) of w. Given a binary string w, \hat{w} represents the natural number whose binary expansion is w.

Let w be the encoding of the automaton. Then $w_i = 1$ if and only if $i = \hat{s}$ and s = xvyuz where $|x| = n_2$, $|v| = n_3$, $|y| = n_4$, $|u| = n_1$ and $|z| = n_1$, and $(q_1, p_1, e_1, o_1, q_2) \in \delta$, where q_1 is the \hat{u} -th symbol of |Q|, p_1 is the \hat{v} -th symbol of *pred*, e_1 is the \hat{x} -th symbol of Σ_E , o_1 is the \hat{y} -th symbol of \widetilde{op} and q_2 is the \hat{z} -th symbol of Q. $w_i = 0$, otherwise.

We now describe how a tuple $(\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n)$ of automata is encoded. Let x_1, \dots, x_n be the encoding of the automata $\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n$, respectively as explained above. Let k be the length of the maximum of the lengths of x_i s. We pad 0s to the end of the x_i s if required so that their length is k. Let these new strings be x'_1, \dots, x'_n . Let y_i be a string of length k with j_i 1s followed by 0s, where j_i is the number of bits required to index the states of \mathcal{A}_i (which was n_1 in the encoding of the individual automaton). The encoding of the automata tuple would be $y_1x'_1y_2x'_2\cdots y_nx'_n$.

3 Boolean Automata with Stores

In this section, we establish complexity bounds for the verification of boolean automata, which we later use (in Section 4) to prove complexity bounds on the verification of real-time software. Boolean automata with stores are automata with auxiliary stores that are equipped with additional boolean variables that influence the enabling condition for transitions. We show that solving an automaton problem when the inputs are given as boolean automata is at least as hard as solving the same when the input automata are represented succinctly using circuits. This observation allows us to lift lower bound proofs for automata uniformly to those for boolean automata. Next we show that solving any problem on boolean automata is at most exponentially worse than solving the same problem for automata without boolean variables. We conclude this section by using these observations to establish the exact complexity for a variety of verification problems for boolean automata.

Definitions and notations. Let $Var = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a finite set of boolean variables. A valuation of Var is a function $v : Var \to \{0, 1\}$. The set of boolean formulas over Var, denoted BFor(Var) is defined inductively as: $\varphi := \top |x| \neg \varphi | \varphi \lor \varphi | \varphi \land \varphi$, where $x \in Var$. Given $\varphi \in BFor(Var)$, and a valuation v of Var, $(\varphi)_v$ is defined inductively as $(\top)_v = 1, (\neg \varphi)_v = 1 - (\varphi)_v, (\varphi_1 \lor \varphi_2)_v = \max((\varphi_1)_v, (\varphi_2)_v)$, and

 $(\varphi_1 \land \varphi_2)_v = \min((\varphi_1)_v, (\varphi_2)_v)$. Next we define the set of reset expressions over Var, denoted BReset(Var), as the expressions of the form x := y, x := 0, x := 1, or nondet(x), where $x, y \in Var$. Let us fix $Var = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ with the ordering x_1, \dots, x_n for the rest of this section. We define TReset(Var) to be *n*-tuples over BReset(Var) where the *i*-th component of the tuple is of the form $x_i := x_j, x_i = 0, x_i = 1$ or $nondet(x_i)$. Given $\eta \in TReset(Var)$ we denote by η_i , the *i*-th component of η . $(\eta)_v$ gives the valuations resulting from the application of η to v and is defined as follows. $(\eta)_v$ is the set of valuations v' such that for each $i, v'(x_i)$ is $v(x_j)$ if η_i is $x_i := x_j$, is 0 if η_i is $x_i := 0$, is 1 if η_i is $x_i := 1$, is either 0 or 1 if $\eta_i = nondet(x_i)$. Given a valuation v, \bar{v} will denote the tuple $(v(x_1), \dots, v(x_n))$.

We now define a boolean automaton as an automaton augmented with a finite set of boolean variables on which the transitions could depend. We have the following definition.

Boolean Automaton. Let \mathcal{D} be a store and Σ_E be an alphabet. A (\mathcal{D}, Σ_E) -boolean automaton \mathcal{B} is a tuple $(Q, Var, \delta, q_i, v_i)$, where

- Q is a finite set of *control states*.
- Var is a finite set of control variables.
- $-\delta \subseteq Q \times BFor(Var) \times pred \times \Sigma_E \times \widetilde{op} \times TReset(Var) \times Q$ is a finite set of transitions.
- $-q_i$ is the initial state of the automaton.
- $-v_i$ is the initial valuation of the variables.

The semantics of \mathcal{B} is the same as that of the (\mathcal{D}, Σ_E) -automaton $\llbracket \mathcal{B} \rrbracket = (Q', \delta', q'_i)$, where $Q' = Q \times \{0, 1\}^n$; $q'_i = (q_i, \bar{v}_i)$; and $((q, \bar{v}), p, e, o, (q', \bar{v}')) \in \delta'$ iff there exists g and r such that $(q, g, p, e, o, r, q') \in \delta$, and $(g)_v = 1$ and $v' \in (r)_v$.

In order to avoid clutter, we do not give the binary encoding of a boolean automaton, but it follows the same lines as the encoding of an automaton. The signature of a k-tuple of Boolean automata with auxiliary stores is defined as for the case of automata. A k-boolean automaton problem is a set of k-tuples which have the same signature. The boolean version of a k-automaton problem \mathcal{P} , which we denote $b(\mathcal{P})$, is defined as $b(\mathcal{P}) = \{(B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k) \mid ([B_1]], [[B_2]], \dots, [[B_k]]) \in \mathcal{P}\}.$

3.1 Lower Bounds for Boolean Automata

We now show that the boolean version of an automaton problem is at least exponentially harder than the automaton problem itself. We first show that the boolean version of an automaton problem is at least as hard as its succinct version. This result will allow us to lift lower bound proofs uniformly. In order to carry out these steps, we need the technical definition of a *two-step automaton* which follows next.

Two-step automaton. Informally, a two-step of an automaton \mathcal{A} is a collection of automata, where an automaton in this collection is obtained by replacing each transition of \mathcal{A} by two consecutive transitions having the same label as the original transition. In addition there are one or more transitions out of every state

to some dead states. Formally, given a (\mathcal{D}, Σ_E) -automaton $\mathcal{A} = (Q, \delta, \Sigma_E)$, an automaton $\mathcal{A}' = (Q', \delta', \Sigma'_E)$ is in *two-step*(\mathcal{A}), if there exists a set Y (disjoint from Q and δ) such that the following conditions hold. The states of Q' are $Q \cup \delta \cup Y$. For every transition $x = (q_1, p, e, o, q_2)$ in \mathcal{A} , there are transitions $(q_1, \mathsf{true}, e, id, x)$ and (x, p, e, o, q_2) in \mathcal{A}' . For every $q_1 \in Q$ and e, there are transitions $(q_1, \mathsf{true}, e, id, q_2)$ in \mathcal{A}' , for one or more $q_2 \in Y$. Y represents the dead states. There are no other transitions.

For a k-automaton problem \mathcal{P} , we define $two\text{-}step(\mathcal{P})$ to be $\{(\mathcal{A}'_1, \mathcal{A}'_2, \ldots, \mathcal{A}'_k) | \mathcal{A}'_i \in two\text{-}step(\mathcal{A}_i) \text{ and } (\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_k) \in \mathcal{P}\}$. Given an automaton problem \mathcal{P} , we say that \mathcal{P} is two-step expansion invariant if $two\text{-}step(\mathcal{P}) \subseteq \mathcal{P}$. For example, consider an automaton problem \mathcal{P} which corresponds to pairs of automata which are bisimilar. Then \mathcal{P} is two-step expansion invariant, since whenever \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are bisimilar and $\mathcal{A}' \in two\text{-}step(\mathcal{A})$ and $\mathcal{B}' \in two\text{-}step(\mathcal{B}), \mathcal{A}'$ and \mathcal{B}' are bisimilar.

The following important lemma states that the succinct version of an automaton problem can be reduced to the boolean version of its two-step expansion.

Lemma 3. Let \mathcal{P} be an automaton problem, then $s(\mathcal{P}) \leq_m^P b(two\text{-step}(\mathcal{P}))$.

Proof (Sketch.) We show the reduction for a 1-automaton problem, the extension to the k-automaton problem is direct. Let \mathcal{P} be an automaton problem. Let $\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{P}$ be an automaton and C be its succinct representation. We construct in time polynomial in |C|, the boolean automaton \mathcal{B} such that $[\mathcal{B}] \in two-step(\mathcal{A})$, i.e., $\mathcal{B} \in b(two-step(\mathcal{A}))$.

The circuit C computes the encoding of the automaton \mathcal{A} . The first half of the encoding consists of n 1s followed by zero or more 0s where n is the number of bits used to represent the states in \mathcal{A} . The second half encodes the transition relation. Hence in time polynomial in the size of |C|, we can compute the value of n and also fix the most significant bit of the input of C to 1 to obtain the circuit C_{δ} which encodes only the transition relation. From now on by C we mean C_{δ} .

Let us name the inputs of C by variables in sets X, P, O, E and Y (will assume the sets are ordered) such that the inputs corresponding to variables X are used to index the current state; similarly the inputs labelled by P, O, E and Y are used to index the predicates, operations, edge labels and next states of a tuple (q_1, p, o, e, q_2) , respectively. A valuation v to the variables corresponding to the tuple (q_1, p, o, e, q_2) when input to C evaluates to 1 if and only if (q_1, p, o, e, q_2) is a transition of \mathcal{A} . (Note the number of variables in X and Y are the same.)

The idea is to encode the states of \mathcal{A} using boolean variables and use the circuit to somehow verify the transition relation. Since the boolean automaton can have boolean formulas as guards and not circuits, we verify the transition relation by converting the circuit C(X, P, O, E, Y) to a boolean guard $\varphi(X, P, O, E, Y, I)$ such that for a transition $t = (q_1, p, o, e, q_2), C(q_1, p, o, e, q_2) = 1$ iff $\varphi(q_1, p, o, e, q_2, I)$ is satisfiable, when I is a new set of variables.

However to check the satisfiability of $\varphi(X, P, O, E, Y, I)$ we need to guess the values of the variables in *I*. Hence the boolean automaton \mathcal{B} we construct has two states, namely, the *current* and the *guess* state. There are six sets of variables X, P, O, E, Y and *I*. In the current state only the variables of X are non-zero

and they correspond to an encoding of a state of the automaton \mathcal{A} . From the current state there is a transition to the guess state in which the variables in X remain intact but the variables in P, O, E, Y and I are all non-deterministically set to 0 or 1. The transition is labelled by the label encoded in E, the predicate is a boolean formula which checks that the edge label of the transition is same as that encoded by the variables in E, and the operation is the identity operation *id*. The values of the variables in P, O, E and Y are used to encode the predicate, operation, edge label and the next state, whereas the variables in I correspond to the intermediate variables which arise in the conversion from the circuit to the boolean guard. From the guess state there is a transition to the current state only if the variables satisfy the guard φ . Then the values of the variables in Y are copied to the corresponding variables of X and all variables other than those in X are set to 0. The edge label, predicate, operation of this transition are those encoded in E, P and O respectively.

This construction takes time polynomial in |C| since the number of states is 2, the number of variables is less than the size of |C| (it is just all the input variables and one intermediate variable for each gate in the circuit), and boolean formula is polynomial in the size of |C| (in fact linear) and can be computed in time polynomial in |C|. Hence the boolean automaton constructed is polynomial in the size of |C| and the reduction takes polynomial time.

It is easy to see that $\llbracket \mathcal{B} \rrbracket$ is in $two-step(\mathcal{A})$. Different valuations in the current state correspond to different states of \mathcal{A} . Every transition of \mathcal{A} is mimicked in $\llbracket \mathcal{B} \rrbracket$ by two consecutive transition, the first one going into the guess state and the other from the guess state to the current state. There are some transitions into the guess state which cannot be verified in the sense that the values of the variables do not satisfy the guard on the transition to the current state, these will occur as transitions from the current state to dead states (which are accommodated in the definition of two-step).

The next theorem establishes the fact that the boolean version of an automaton problem is at least exponentially harder than the automaton problem.

Theorem 1. Let C_1 and C_2 be arbitrary complexity classes such that for every problem \mathcal{P}_1 in C_1 , $long(\mathcal{P}_1)$ is in C_2 . Then for every automaton problem \mathcal{P}_2 which is two-step expansion invariant, if \mathcal{P}_2 is hard for C_2 under PLT-reducibility, then $b(\mathcal{P}_2)$ is hard for C_1 under polynomial time m-reducibility.

Proof Let $\mathcal{P}_1 \in C_1$, we need to show that $\mathcal{P}_1 \leq_m^P b(\mathcal{P}_2)$. Since $long(\mathcal{P}_1) \in C_2$, and $long(\mathcal{P}_1) \leq_m^{PLT} \mathcal{P}_2$, we have from Lemma 1, that $s(long(\mathcal{P}_1)) \leq_m^P s(\mathcal{P}_2)$. But $\mathcal{P}_1 \leq_m^P s(long(\mathcal{P}_1))$, from Lemma 2. Hence $\mathcal{P}_1 \leq_m^P s(\mathcal{P}_2)$. Now from Lemma 3, we have $s(\mathcal{P}_2) \leq_m^P b(two\text{-step}(\mathcal{P}_2))$. But since \mathcal{P}_2 is expansion invariant we have $s(\mathcal{P}_2) \leq_m^P b(\mathcal{P}_2)$. Hence $\mathcal{P}_1 \leq_m^P b(\mathcal{P}_2)$. Therefore $b(\mathcal{P}_2)$ is hard for C_1 under *m*-reducibility. \Box

Note that if C_1 is an exponentially larger class than C_2 , then they satisfy the condition in the above theorem. Hence if an automaton problem is hard for C_2 , then its boolean version is at least exponentially harder.

3.2 Upper Bounds for Boolean Automata

We can also show that solving the boolean version of an automaton problem is at most exponentially harder than the automaton problem itself.

Proposition 1. Let \mathcal{P} be a k-automaton problem. If $t(n) \geq n$ and $\mathcal{P} \in \mathsf{DTIME}(t(n))$ (or $\mathcal{P} \in \mathsf{NTIME}(t(n))$) then the boolean automaton problem $b(\mathcal{P}) \in \mathsf{DTIME}(t(2^{O(n)}))$ (or $b(\mathcal{P}) \in \mathsf{NTIME}(t(2^{O(n)}))$, respectively). If $s(n) \geq \log(n)$ and $\mathcal{P} \in \mathsf{DSPACE}(s(n))$ (or $\mathcal{P} \in \mathsf{NSPACE}(s(n))$) then $b(\mathcal{P}) \in \mathsf{DSPACE}(s(2^{O(n)}))$ (or $b(\mathcal{P}) \in \mathsf{NSPACE}(s(2^{O(n)}))$, respectively).

As an example of the application of this proposition, problem of deciding whether two boolean automata (with no store) are trace equivalent is easily seen to be in EXPSPACE as the trace equivalence problem between finite automata is in PSPACE.

3.3 Results

We demonstrate that Theorem 1 and Proposition 1 can be used to show that for a variety of automata problems, there is exactly an exponential blowup in complexity when we consider inputs that are boolean automata. For the rest of this section, by pushdown boolean automata we shall mean boolean automata with a pushdown stack as the auxiliary store and by boolean automata we shall mean a boolean automata with no store.³

We can extend the results on bisimulation and simulation between finite state machines [26], bisimulation and simulation between visibly pushdown automata [27], bisimulation and simulation between finite state systems and pushdown automata [20,18] and model-checking μ -calculus properties for higher order pushdown automata [21] to obtain the following result.

Theorem 2.

- 1. The problem of control state reachability in boolean automata is PSPACEcomplete.
- 2. The problem of bisimulation and simulation between boolean automata is DEXPTIME-complete.
- 3. The problem of bisimulation and simulation between two boolean VPAs is 2-DEXPTIME-complete.
- 4. The problem of bisimulation and simulation between boolean automata and pushdown boolean automata is 2-DEXPTIME-complete.
- 5. Model checking μ -calculus properties for order n higher order pushdown boolean automata is (n + 1)-DEXPTIME-complete.

The first two items have been established in [19,25], albeit by different methods. The last three items are new. The last item also implies that the μ -calculus satisfiability of boolean automata is DEXPTIME-complete and that of boolean pushdown automata is 2-DEXPTIME-complete since these correspond to order 0 and 1 higher order pushdown boolean systems respectively.

 $^{^3}$ No store is modeled by taking the set of data values to be a singleton.

4 Timed Automata

In this section we define timed automata with auxiliary stores and prove lower and upper bounds for problems on them. Let C be a finite set of symbols, henceforth called *clocks*. The set Φ_C of *clock constraints* over C is defined by $\phi ::= \operatorname{true} | x \sim k | x \sim y | \neg \phi | \phi \land \phi | \phi \lor \phi$, where $k \in N$ stands for any nonnegative integer and $\sim \in \{=, <, >, \leq, \geq\}$ is a comparison operator. A *valuation* for C is a function from the set of clocks to the set of positive reals, *i.e.*, $v : C \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. Let $\operatorname{ValSet}(C)$ be the set of all valuations of C. We say that v satisfies ϕ , denoted $v \models \phi$, if ϕ is true when the variables of ϕ are replaced by their values, i.e., x is replaced by v(x). We denote by v+t the function mapping x to v(x)+t, and by $v[X \to 0]$ the function which maps x to 0 if $x \in X$ and maps x to v(x)otherwise.

Timed Automaton. Let \mathcal{D} be an auxiliary store and Σ_E be an alphabet. A (\mathcal{D}, Σ_E) -timed automaton is a tuple (Q, C, δ, q_i) , where:

- Q is a finite set of *control states*,
- -C is a finite set of clocks,
- $-\delta \subseteq Q \times \Phi_C \times \widetilde{pred} \times \Sigma_E \times \widetilde{op} \times 2^C \times Q$ is a finite set of transitions, and
- $-q_i \in Q$ is the *initial state*.

The semantics of a (\mathcal{D}, Σ_E) -timed automaton $\mathcal{T} = (Q, C, \delta, q_i)$ is described in terms of a $\Sigma_E \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ -labeled transition system $(\mathcal{S}, \longrightarrow_{\delta}, s_i)$, where $\mathcal{S} = Q \times D \times ValSet(C)$; $s_i = (q_i, d_i, v[C \to 0])$; and $(q_1, d_1, v_1) \xrightarrow{(a,t)}_{\delta} (q_2, d_2, v_2)$ iff there exists a transition $(q_1, \phi, p, a, o, C_1, q_2) \in \delta$ such that $v_1 + t \models \phi, (v_1 + t)[C_1 \to 0] = v_2, p(d_1)$ is true, and $o(d_1) = d_2$.

4.1 Lower Bounds for Timed Automata with Store

Our goal is to show that solving a timed automaton problem with store is at least as hard as solving a corresponding boolean automaton problem with store. First, we will construct a timed automaton $Timed_k(\mathcal{B})$ for a boolean automaton \mathcal{B} which has the following property. The construction of $Timed_k(\mathcal{B})$ is along the lines of [19], and is omitted here for lack of space.

Lemma 4. Let \mathcal{B}_1 be a $(\mathcal{D}_1, \Sigma_{E_1})$ -boolean automata and \mathcal{B}_2 be a $(\mathcal{D}_2, \Sigma_{E_2})$ boolean automata, and k be the maximum of the number of variables in \mathcal{B}_1 and \mathcal{B}_2 . Then $Timed_k(\mathcal{B}_1)$ and $Timed_k(\mathcal{B}_2)$ are bisimilar iff \mathcal{B}_1 and \mathcal{B}_2 are bisimilar. Also $Timed_k(\mathcal{B}_1)$ is simulated by $Timed_k(\mathcal{B}_2)$ iff \mathcal{B}_1 is simulated by \mathcal{B}_2 .

The above lemma allows us to conclude the following results from the lower bound results of Theorem 2:

Theorem 3.

- 1. The problem of control state reachability in timed automata is PSPACE-hard.
- 2. The problem of bisimulation and simulation between timed automata is DEXPTIME-hard.

- 3. The problem of simulation and bisimulation between two timed VPA is 2-DEXPTIME-hard.
- 4. The problem of bisimulation and simulation between timed automata and pushdown timed automata is 2-DEXPTIME-hard.
- 5. Model checking timed μ -calculus properties for order n higher order pushdown timed systems is (n + 1)-DEXPTIME-hard.

We note that the first result above has also been established in [3], while the second result was established in [19]. The last three results are however new and (to the best of our knowledge) do not appear in literature. As a byproduct we obtain that model-checking timed μ -calculus formulas for timed systems and pushdown timed systems is DEXPTIME-hard and 2-DEXPTIME-hard by instantiating n to 0 and 1 respectively in the last item.

4.2 Upper Bounds for Timed Automata with Store

We now show that the lower bounds for decision problems obtained in Section 4.1 are tight. As these decision problems are mainly concerned with simulation and bisimulation, they can be converted to decision problems on *game graphs* by standard techniques. The game graphs that will arise for timed automata will be infinitely branching and we shall appeal to the region construction [3] in order to deal with the "infinite-branching." We start by recalling the definition of regions and game graphs.

Regions. Regions were introduced in [3] in order to show that reachability in timed systems is decidable. Given a finite set of clocks C and a natural number n_{max} , we can define an equivalence class on the set of real-valuations ValSet(C)as follows. For a real number r, let $\lfloor r \rfloor$ denote the integral value of r and frac(r)the fractional value of r. We say that for valuations $v_1, v_2 \in ValSet(C), v_1$ is equivalent to v_2 (denoted as $v_1 \equiv v_2$) iff for all $c, c_1, c_2 \in C$:

- 1. $v_1(c) > n_{max}$ iff $v_2(c) > n_{max}$;
- 2. if $v_1(c), v_2(c) \le n_{max}$, then $\lfloor v_1(c) \rfloor = \lfloor v_2(c) \rfloor$;
- 3. if $v_1(c), v_2(c) \le n_{max}$, then $frac(v_1(c)) = 0$ iff $frac(v_2(c)) = 0$; and
- 4. if $v_1(c_1), v_1(c_2), v_2(c_1), v_2(c_2) \leq n_{max}$, then $frac(v_1(c_1)) \leq frac(v_1(c_2))$ iff $frac(v_2(c_1)) \leq frac(v_2(c_2))$.

The equivalence relation \equiv is of finite index and the set of equivalence classes under \equiv shall henceforth be denoted as $\text{Reg}(n_{max}, C)$.

Game graphs. A game graph is a graph $G = (V_P \cup V_O, E)$ such that $V_P \cap V_O = \emptyset$ and $E \subseteq (V_P \times V_O) \cup (V_O \times V_P)$. The nodes in the set V_P are called proponent nodes and the nodes in the set V_O are called opponent nodes. A binary relation $R \subseteq (V_P \times V_P) \cup (V_O \times V_O)$ is a game bisimulation if for every $(v_1, v_2) \in R$ the following two conditions hold:

1. For every $v'_1 \in V_P \cup V_O$ such that $(v_1, v'_1) \in E$, there is a $v'_2 \in V_P \cup V_O$ such that $(v'_1, v'_2) \in R$ and $(v_2, v'_2) \in E$.

2. For every $v'_2 \in V_P \cup V_O$ such that $(v_2, v'_2) \in E$, there is a $v'_1 \in V_P \cup V_O$ such that $(v'_1, v'_2) \in R$ and $(v_1, v'_1) \in E$.

The set of *plays* and *strategies* are defined in the standard way. It is well-known that simulation and bisimulation between transition systems can be stated as reachability games on appropriate game graphs.

Consider, for example, the problem of simulation of a timed transition system \mathcal{G}_0 by \mathcal{G}_1 (by a timed transition system we mean a transition system arising out of a timed automaton). A proponent node will correspond to a pair of configurations of \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 . Since every move of \mathcal{G}_0 needs to be simulated by \mathcal{G}_1 , the proponent moves are those of \mathcal{G}_0 . Consider the proponent node (C_1, C_2) where C_1 is the configuration of \mathcal{G}_0 and C_2 the configuration of \mathcal{G}_1 . Suppose \mathcal{G}_0 takes a transition (a,t) and moves to C'_1 . Then, for \mathcal{G}_0 to be simulated by \mathcal{G}_1 , \mathcal{G}_1 has to take a transition (a,t) from C_2 . Therefore, the proponent move corresponding to \mathcal{G}_0 transitioning to C'_1 leads us to the opponent node (C'_1, C_2, a, t) . Now if \mathcal{G}_2 can take a (a,t) transition from C_2 to C'_2 then we move from the opponent node (C'_1, C_2, a, t) to the proponent node (C'_1, C'_2) . It is easy to see that \mathcal{G}_0 is simulated by \mathcal{G}_1 , iff proponent does not have a strategy to reach an opponent node from which there is no transition. The case of bisimulation is similar except that the proponent must have moves corresponding to both \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 , and a proponent move corresponding to \mathcal{G}_0 must be answered by a move of \mathcal{G}_1 (and vice-versa). We formalize these game graphs as *timed game graphs*.

Timed Game Graph. As already described above, simulation and bisimulation between timed automata can be cast as reachability games on game graphs. Given a $(\mathcal{D}_0, \Sigma_E)$ -timed automaton $\mathcal{G}_0 = (Q_0, \mathcal{C}_0, \delta_0, \hat{q}_0)$ and a $(\mathcal{D}_1, \Sigma_E)$ -timed automaton $\mathcal{G}_1 = (Q_1, \mathcal{C}_1, \delta_1, \hat{q}_1)$, let $(\mathsf{Conf}_0, \longrightarrow_{\delta_0}, s_{00})$ and $(\mathsf{Conf}_1, \longrightarrow_{\delta_1}, s_{01})$ be the timed transition systems associated with them. We assume that $\mathcal{C}_0 \cap \mathcal{C}_1 = \emptyset$ (we can always rename clocks). Let Players be a non-empty subset of $\{0, 1\}$ and $\mathsf{Moves} = \Sigma_E \times \mathbb{R}$. The *timed game graph* corresponding to $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$ and Players is given by the game graph $\mathsf{G} = (V_P \cup V_O, E)$ where:

- 1. $V_P = \{ (\mathsf{Players}, Conf_0, Conf_1) \mid Conf_i \in \mathsf{Conf}_i \text{ for } i = 0, 1 \}.$
- 2. Let $V_O^0 = (P \times \mathsf{Conf}_0 \times \mathsf{Conf}_1 \times \mathsf{Moves})$ where $P = \{1 i \mid i \in \mathsf{Players}\}$.
- 3. For $(v, w) \in V_P \times V_O$, $(v, w) \in E$ iff $v = (\mathsf{Players}, Conf_0, Conf_1)$, $w = (P, Conf'_0, Conf'_1, (a, t))$ and there exists $i \in \mathsf{Players}$ such that $Conf_i \xrightarrow{(a,t)}_{\delta_0} Conf'_i$, $P = \{1 i\}$ and $Conf'_{1-i} = Conf_{1-i}$. For $(w, v) \in V_O \times V_P$, $(w, v) \in E$ iff $w = (i, Conf_0, Conf_1, (a, t))$ and $v = (\mathsf{Players}, Conf'_0, Conf'_1)$, where $Conf_i \xrightarrow{(a,t)}_{\delta_0} Conf'_i$ and $Conf'_{1-i} = Conf_{1-i}$.

So the question of simulation can be cast as a question on the game graph G. Note that G is potentially *infinite-branching* and it is not immediately obvious as to how to solve the game problem. We appeal to the region construction to eliminate the infinite branching as follows.

The idea behind our construction is to use regions on clocks of both the systems (a similar strategy has been used in [8] to show that bisimulation

between two timed systems without store is decidable). Let n_{max} be some integer such that n_{max} is greater than any integer occurring in the clock constraints of δ_0 and δ_1 . Given $v_0 \in ValSet(\mathcal{C}_0)$ and $v_1 \in ValSet(\mathcal{C}_1)$, we use $\operatorname{Reg}(n_{max}, v_0, v_1)$ for the region $\operatorname{Reg}(n_{max}, v)$ (the equivalence class of v), where $v \in ValSet(\mathcal{C}_0 \cup \mathcal{C}_1)$ is the valuation such that $v(c) = v_0(c)$ for $c \in \mathcal{C}_0$ and $v(c) = v_1(c)$ for $c \in \mathcal{C}_1$. Let $Conf_0 \in \operatorname{Conf}_0$ and $Conf_1 \in \operatorname{Conf}_1$ be configurations such that $Conf_0 = (q_0, d_0, v_0)$ and $Conf_1 = (q_1, d_1, v_1)$. For a proponent node $v = (\operatorname{Players}, Conf_0, Conf_1)$, let $\mathcal{H}(v) = (q_0, d_0, q_1, d_1, \operatorname{Reg}(n_{max}, v_1, v_2))$. For an opponent node $w = (i, Conf_0, Conf_1, (a, t))$, let $\mathcal{H}(w) = (i, a, q_0, d_0, q_1, d_1, \operatorname{Reg}(n_{max}, v'_0, v'_1))$, where $v'_i = v_i + t$ and $v'_{1-i} = v_{1-i}$. We have the following result.

Theorem 4. The relation $R = \{(u_1, u_2) | \mathcal{H}(u_1) = \mathcal{H}(u_2)\}$ is a game bisimulation on the timed game graph.

Hence, while solving the problems of simulation and bisimulation between timed automata, one can appeal to Theorem 4 and reduce the timed game problem to one without time by constructing the \mathcal{H} -bisimulation quotient. Then a winning strategy for the proponent in the timed game graph is obtained by "mimicking" the strategy in the bisimulation quotient. For example, simulation between timed automata and pushdown timed automata can be converted to a game on pushdown graph by constructing the \mathcal{H} -bisimulation of the graph G. Note that the description of the resulting pushdown game however is exponential in size of the input as one needs to construct the regions on the clocks. Further, since the reachability game can be solved in PTIME for finite game graphs and DEXPTIME for pushdown games, we obtain the following results.

Theorem 5.

- 1. The control state reachability problem of timed automata is in PSPACE.
- 2. The bisimulation and simulation problems between two timed automata is in DEXPTIME.
- 3. The problem of simulation and bisimulation between two timed VPA is in 2-DEXPTIME.
- 4. The bisimulation and simulation problems between a timed automaton and a pushdown timed automaton is in 2-DEXPTIME.
- 5. Model checking timed μ -calculus properties for order n higher order pushdown timed systems is (n + 1)-DEXPTIME-complete.

The first two results are known [3,19,2] and the last three are new.

5 Conclusions

We established the exact complexity of the problems of reachability, simulation, bisimulation, and μ -calculus model checking for timed automata, timed pushdown automata, and timed higher order pushdown automata. Our proof relied on ideas from succinct representations to uniformly lift lower bound proofs for finite automata, pushdown automata, and higher order pushdown automata to the corresponding timed versions. As an intermediate step we established complexity bounds on the verification of boolean automata (without stacks, with stacks, and with higher order stacks), which are also important models that arise in verification. Thus we re-established some previously known results for timed automata using new proof techniques, and proved many new results about timed pushdown automata and timed higher order pushdown automata.

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