# Pushdown Specifications 

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#### Abstract

Traditionally, model checking is applied to finite-state systems and regular specifications. While researchers have successfully extended the applicability of model checking to infinite-state systems, almost all existing work still consider regular specification formalisms. There are, however, many interesting non-regular properties one would like to model check.

In this paper we study model checking of pushdown specifications. Our specification formalism is nondeterministic pushdown parity tree automata (PD-NPT). We show that the model-checking problem for regular systems and PD-NPT specifications can be solved in time exponential in the system and the specification. Our model-checking algorithm involves a new solution to the nonemptiness problem of nondeterministic pushdown tree automata, where we improve the best known upper bound from a tripleexponential to a single exponential. We also consider the model-checking problem for context-free systems and PD-NPT specifications and show that it is undecidable.


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## 1 Introduction

One of the most signifi cant developments in the area of formal design verifi cation is the discovery of algorithmic methods for verifying on-going behaviors of reactive systems [QS81, LP85, CES86, VW86]. In model-checking, we verify the correctness of a system with respect to a desired behavior by checking whether a mathematical model of the system satisfi es a formal specifi cation of this behavior (for a survey, see [CGP00]). Traditionally, model checking is applied to finite-state systems, typically modeled by labeled state-transition graphs, and to behaviors that are formally specifi ed as temporal-logic formulas or automata on infinite objects. Symbolic methods that enable model-checking of very large state spaces, and the great ease of use of fully algorithmic methods, led to industrial acceptance of model-checking [BLM01, $\mathrm{CFF}^{+} 01$ ].

In recent years, researchers have tried to extend the applicability of model-checking to infi nite-state systems. An active fi eld of research is model-checking of infinite-state sequential systems. These are systems in which each state carries a fi nite, but unbounded, amount of information, e.g., a pushdown store. The origin of this research is the result of Müller and Schupp that the monadic second-order theory of context-free graphs is decidable [MS85]. As the complexity involved in that decidability result is nonelementary, researchers sought decidability results of elementary complexity. Various algorithms for simpler logics and more general systems have been proposed. The most powerful result so far is an exponential-time algorithm by Burkart for model checking formulas of the $\mu$-calculus with respect to prefi x-recognizable graphs [Bur97b]. See also [BS95, Cau96, Wa196, BE96, BQ96, BEM97, Bur97a, FWW97, BS99, BCMS00, KV00] and a short summary in [Tho01].

An orthogonal line of research considers the applicability of model checking to infinite-state specifications. Almost all existing work on model checking considers specifi cation formalisms that defi ne regular sets of words, trees, or graphs: formulas of LTL, $\mu$-calculus, and even monadic-second order logic can all be translated to automata [Büc62, Rab69, EJ91], and in fact many model-checking algorithms (for both fi nitestate and infi nite-state systems) first translate the given specifi cation into an automaton and reason about the structure of this automaton (cf., [VW86, BEM97, KV00]). Sometimes, however, the desired behavior is non-regular and cannot be specifi ed by a fi nite-state automaton. Consider for example the property " $p$ is inevitable", for a proposition $p$. That is, in every computation of the system, $p$ eventually holds. Clearly, this property is regular and is expressible as $\forall \diamond p$ in both CTL [CES86] and LTL [Pnu77]. On the other hand, the property " $p$ is uniformly inevitable", namely, there is some time $i$ such that in every computation of the system, $p$ holds at time $i$, is not expressible by a fi nite automaton on infi nite trees [Eme87], and hence, it is non-regular. As another example, consider a system that handles requests and acknowledgments, and the property "every acknowledgment is preceded by some request". Again, this property is regular and is expressible in LTL as $(\neg a c k) \mathcal{W}$ req. On the other hand, consider the property of "no redundant acknowledgments", namely the number of acknowledgments does not exceed the number of requests. The technique of [Eme87] can be used in order to show that the property is non-regular. More examples to useful non-regular properties are given in [SCFG84], where the specifi cation of unbounded message buffers is considered.

The need to specify non-regular behaviors led Bouajjani et al. [BER94, BEH95] to consider logics that are a combination of CTL and LTL with Presburger Arithmetic. The logics, called PCTL and PLTL, use variables that range over natural numbers. The variables are bound to the occurrences of state formulas and comparison between such variables is allowed. The non-regular properties discussed above can be specifi ed in PCTL and PLTL. For example, we can specify uniform inevitability in PCTL as $\widetilde{\exists} i . \forall[x: \operatorname{true}](x=$ $i \rightarrow p$ ), where the $\tilde{\exists}$ quantifi er quantifi es over natural numbers, the $\forall$ quantifi er quantifi es over computations of the system, and the combinator $[x$ : true $]$ binds the variable $x$ to count the number of occurrences of the state formula true. Bouajjani et al. consider the model-checking problem for the logics PCTL and PLTL over fi nite-state (regular) systems and over infi nite-state (non-regular) systems. The logics turned
out to be too strong: the model-checking of both PCTL and PLTL over fi nite-state systems is undecidable. They proceed to restrict the logics to fragments for which model-checking over fi nite-state systems and context-free systems is decidable.

Uniform inevitability is clearly expressible by a nondeterministic pushdown tree automaton. Pushdown tree automata are fi nite-state automata augmented by a pushdown store. Like a nondeterministic fi nite-state tree automaton, a nondeterministic pushdown tree automaton starts reading a tree from the root. At each node of the tree, the pushdown automaton consults the transition relation and splits into independent copies of itself to each of the node's successors. Each copy has an independent pushdown store that diverges from the pushdown store of the parent. We then check what happens along every branch of the run tree and determine acceptance. In order to express uniform inevitability, the automaton guesses the time $i$, pushes $i$ elements into the pushdown store, and, along every computation, pops one element with every move of the system. When the pushdown store becomes empty, the automaton requires $p$ to hold. Similarly, in order to express "no redundant acknowledgments", a nondeterministic pushdown tree automaton can push an element into the pushdown store whenever the system sends a request, pop one element with every acknowledgment, and reject the tree when an acknowledgment is issued when the pushdown store is empty. In [PI95], Peng and Iyer study more properties that are non-regular and propose to use nondeterministic pushdown tree automata as a strong specifi cation formalism. The model studied by [PI95] is empty store: a run of the automaton is accepting if the automaton's pushdown store gets empty infi nitely often along every branch in the run tree.

In this paper we study the model-checking problem for specifi cations given by nondeterministic pushdown tree automata. We consider both fi nite-state (regular) and infi nite-state (non-regular) systems. We show that for fi nite-state systems, the model-checking problem is solvable in time exponential in both the system and the specifi cation, even for nondeterministic pushdown parity tree automata - a model that is much stronger than the one studied in [PI95]. On the other hand, the model-checking problem for contextfree systems is undecidable - already for a weak type of pushdown tree automata. Note that by having tree automata as our specifi cation formalism, we follow here the branching-time paradigm, where the specifi cation describes allowed computation trees and a system is correct if its computation tree is allowed [CES86]. In Remark 4.2, we discuss the undecidability of the linear-time paradigm, and the reasons that make the (seemingly more general) branching-time framework decidable.

In order to solve the model-checking problem for nondeterministic pushdown tree automata and fi nitestate systems, we use the automata theoretic approach to branching time model checking [KVW00]. In [KVW00], model checking is reduced to the emptiness problem for nondeterministic fi nite tree automata, here we reduce the model checking problem to the emptiness problem for nondeterministic pushdown tree automata. The fi rst to show that this emptiness problem is decidable were Harel and Raz [HR94]. The automata considered by Harel and Raz use the Büchi acceptance condition, where some states are designated as accepting states and a run is accepting if it visits the accepting states infi nitely often along every branch in the run tree. It is shown in [HR94] that the problem can be solved in triple-exponential time. Recall that Peng and Iyer [PI95] consider a simpler acceptance condition, where a run is accepting if the automaton's pushdown store gets empty infi nitely often along every branch in the run tree. For this acceptance condition, it is shown in [PI95] that the nonemptiness problem can be solved in exponential time. Nevertheless, empty store pushdown automata are strictly weaker than nondeterministic Büchi pushdown tree automata [PI95] and the algorithm in [PI95] cannot be extended to handle the Büchi acceptance condition.

The main result of this paper is an exponential algorithm for the emptiness problem of nondeterministic parity pushdown tree automata. Thus, apart from improving the known triple-exponential upper bound to a single exponential, we handle a more general acceptance condition. Our algorithm is based on a reduction
of the emptiness problem to the membership problem for two-way alternating parity tree automata with no pushdown store. We note that our technique can be applied also to specifi cations given by alternating pushdown parity tree automata. Indeed, the automata-theoretic approach to branching-time model checking involves some type of a product between the system and the specifi cation automaton, making alternation as easy as nondeterminism [KVW00]. In Remark 4.3, we discuss this point further, and also show that, unlike the case of regular automata, alternating pushdown automata are strictly more expressive than nondeterministic pushdown tree automata.

Once one realizes that the diffi culties in handling the pushdown store of the tree automaton are similar to the diffi culties in handling the pushdown store of infi nite-state sequential systems, it is possible to solve the nonemptiness problem for pushdown automata with various methods that have been suggested for the latter. In particular, it is possible to reduce the nonemptiness problem for nondeterministic pushdown parity tree automata to the $\mu$-calculus model-checking problem for pushdown systems [Wal01]. The solution we suggest here is the first to suggest the application of methods developed for reasoning about infi nite-state sequential systems to the solution of automata-theoretic problems for pushdown automata. In particular, we believe that methods based on two-way alternating tree automata [KV00, KPV02] are particularly appropriate for this task, as the solution stays in the clean framework of automata.

Finally, in order to show the undecidability result, we reduce the problem of deciding whether a twocounter machine accepts the empty tape to the model-checking problem of a context-free system with respect to a nondeterministic pushdown tree automaton. Intuitively, the pushdown store of the system can simulate one counter, and the pushdown store of the specifi cation can simulate the second counter.

The study of pushdown specifi cations completes the picture described in the table in Figure 1 regarding model checking of regular and context-free systems with respect to regular and pushdown specifications. When both the system and the specifi cation are regular, the setting is that of traditional model checking [CGP00]. When only one parameter has a pushdown store, the problem is still decidable. Yet, when both the system and the specifi cation have a pushdown store, model checking becomes undecidable. The complexities in the table refer to the case where the specifi cation is given by a nondeterministic or an alternating parity tree automaton of size $n$ and index $k$. The size of the system is $m$.

|  | Regular Specifi cations | Pushdown Specifi cations |
| ---: | :---: | :---: |
| Regular Systems | decidable; $O\left((n m)^{k}\right)[$ EJS93] | decidable; $\exp (m n k)$ [Theorem 4.1] |
| Pushdown Systems | decidable; $\exp (m n k)[$ KV00] | undecidable [Theorem 5.1] |

Figure 1: Model checking regular and pushdown systems and specifi cations.

## 2 Definitions

### 2.1 Trees

Given a fi nite set $\Upsilon$ of directions, an $\Upsilon$-tree is a set $T \subseteq \Upsilon^{*}$ such that if $v \cdot x \in T$, where $v \in \Upsilon$ and $x \in \Upsilon^{*}$, then also $x \in T$. The elements of $T$ are called nodes, and the empty word $\varepsilon$ is the root of $T$. For every $v \in \Upsilon$ and $x \in T$, the node $x$ is the parent of $v \cdot x$ and $v \cdot x$ is a successor of $x$. If $z=x \cdot y \in T$ then $z$ is a descendant of $y$. Each node $x \neq \varepsilon$ of $T$ has a direction in $\Upsilon$. The direction of the root is the symbol $\perp$ (we assume that $\perp \notin \Upsilon$ ). The direction of a node $v \cdot x$ is $v$. We denote by $\operatorname{dir}(x)$ the direction of the node $x$. An $\Upsilon$-tree $T$ is a full infinite tree if $T=\Upsilon^{*}$. A path $\pi$ of a tree $T$ is a set $\pi \subseteq T$ such that $\varepsilon \in \pi$ and for every
$x \in \pi$ there exists a unique $v \in \Upsilon$ such that $v \cdot x \in \pi$. Note that our defi nitions here reverse the standard defi nitions (e.g., when $\Upsilon=\{0,1\}$, the successors of the node 0 are 00 and 10 , rather than 00 and 01 .

Given two fin nite sets $\Upsilon$ and $\Sigma$, a $\Sigma$-labeled $\Upsilon$-tree is a pair $\langle T, \tau\rangle$ where $T$ is an $\Upsilon$-tree and $\tau: T \rightarrow \Sigma$ maps each node of $T$ to a letter in $\Sigma$. When $\Upsilon$ and $\Sigma$ are not important or clear from the context, we call $\langle T, \tau\rangle$ a labeled tree. A tree is regular if it is the unwinding of some fi nite labeled graph. More formally, a transducer is a tuple $\mathcal{D}=\left\langle\Upsilon, \Sigma, Q, q_{0}, \eta, L\right\rangle$, where $\Upsilon$ is a fi nite set of directions, $\Sigma$ is a fi nite alphabet, $Q$ is a fin nite set of states, $q_{D} \in Q$ is an initial state, $\eta: Q \times \Upsilon \rightarrow Q$ is a deterministic transition function, and $L: Q \rightarrow \Sigma$ is a labeling function. We defi ne $\eta: \Upsilon^{*} \rightarrow Q$ in the standard way: $\eta(\varepsilon)=q_{0}$ and for $x \in \Upsilon^{*}$ and $A \in \Upsilon$ we have $\eta(A x)=\eta(\eta(x), A)$. Intuitively, a transducer is a labeled fin nite graph with a designated start node, where the edges are labeled by $\Upsilon$ and the nodes are labeled by $\Sigma$. A $\Sigma$-labeled $\Upsilon$-tree $\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau\right\rangle$ is regular if there exists a transducer $\mathcal{D}=\left\langle\Upsilon, \Sigma, Q, q_{0}, \eta, L\right\rangle$, such that for every $x \in \Upsilon^{*}$, we have $\tau(x)=L(\eta(x))$. We then say that the size of the regular tree $\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau\right\rangle$, denoted $\|\tau\|$, is $|Q|$, the number of states of $\mathcal{D}$.

### 2.2 Alternating two-way tree automata

Alternating automata on infi nite trees generalize nondeterministic tree automata and were first introduced in [MS87]. Here we describe alternating two-way tree automata. For a fi nite set $X$, let $\mathcal{B}^{+}(X)$ be the set of positive Boolean formulas over $X$ (i.e., boolean formulas built from elements in $X$ using $\wedge$ and $\vee$ ), where we also allow the formulas true and false, and, as usual, $\wedge$ has precedence over $\vee$. For a set $Y \subseteq X$ and a formula $\theta \in \mathcal{B}^{+}(X)$, we say that $Y$ satisfies $\theta$ iff assigning true to elements in $Y$ and assigning false to elements in $X \backslash Y$ makes $\theta$ true. For a set $\Upsilon$ of directions, the extension of $\Upsilon$ is the set $\operatorname{ext}(\Upsilon)=\Upsilon \cup\{\varepsilon, \uparrow\}$ (we assume that $\Upsilon \cap\{\varepsilon, \uparrow\}=\emptyset$ ). An alternating two-way automaton over $\Sigma$-labeled $\Upsilon$-trees is a tuple $\mathcal{A}=\left\langle\Sigma, Q, \delta, q_{0}, F\right\rangle$, where $\Sigma$ is the input alphabet, $Q$ is a fi nite set of states, $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow \mathcal{B}^{+}(\operatorname{ext}(\Upsilon) \times Q)$ is the transition function, $q_{0} \in Q$ is an initial state, and $F$ specifi es the acceptance condition.

A run of an alternating automaton $\mathcal{A}$ over a labeled tree $\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau\right\rangle$ is a labeled tree $\left\langle T_{r}, r\right\rangle$ in which every node is labeled by an element of $\Upsilon^{*} \times Q$. A node in $T_{r}$, labeled by $(x, q)$, describes a copy of the automaton that is in the state $q$ and reads the node $x$ of $\Upsilon^{*}$. Note that many nodes of $T_{r}$ can correspond to the same node of $\Upsilon^{*}$; there is no one-to-one correspondence between the nodes of the run and the nodes of the tree. The labels of a node and its successors have to satisfy the transition function. Formally, a run $\left\langle T_{r}, r\right\rangle$ is a $\Sigma_{r}$-labeled $\Gamma$-tree, for some set $\Gamma$ of directions, where $\Sigma_{r}=\Upsilon^{*} \times Q$ and $\left\langle T_{r}, r\right\rangle$ satisfi es the following:

1. $\varepsilon \in T_{r}$ and $r(\varepsilon)=\left(\varepsilon, q_{0}\right)$.
2. Consider $y \in T_{r}$ with $r(y)=(x, q)$ and $\delta(q, \tau(x))=\theta$. Then there is a (possibly empty) set $S \subseteq \operatorname{ext}(\Upsilon) \times Q$, such that $S$ satisfi es $\theta$, and for all $\langle c, q\rangle \in S$, there is $\gamma \in \Gamma$ such that $\gamma \cdot y \in T_{r}$ and the following hold:

- If $c \in \Upsilon$, then $r(\gamma \cdot y)=\left(c \cdot x, q^{\prime}\right)$.
- If $c=\varepsilon$, then $r(\gamma \cdot y)=\left(x, q^{\prime}\right)$.
- If $c=\uparrow$, then $x=v \cdot z$, for some $v \in \Upsilon$ and $z \in \Upsilon^{*}$, and $r(\gamma \cdot y)=\left(z, q^{\prime}\right)$.

Thus, $\varepsilon$-transitions leave the automaton on the same node of the input tree, and $\uparrow$-transitions take it up to the parent node. Note that the automaton cannot go up the root of the input tree, as whenever $c=\uparrow$, we require that $x \neq \varepsilon$.

A run $\left\langle T_{r}, r\right\rangle$ is accepting if all its infi nite paths satisfy the acceptance condition. We consider here Büchi and parity acceptance conditions [Büc62, EJ91]. A parity condition over a state set $Q$ is a fi nite sequence $F=\left\{F_{1}, F_{2}, \ldots, F_{k}\right\}$ of subsets of $Q$, where $F_{1} \subseteq F_{2} \subseteq \ldots \subseteq F_{k}=Q$. The number $k$ of sets is called the index of $\mathcal{A}$. Given a run $\left\langle T_{r}, r\right\rangle$ and an infi nite path $\pi \subseteq T_{r}$, let $\inf (\pi) \subseteq Q$ be such that $q \in \inf (\pi)$ if and only if there are infi nitely many $y \in \pi$ for which $r(y) \in \Upsilon^{*} \times\{q\}$. That is, inf $(\pi)$ contains exactly all the states that appear infi nitely often in $\pi$. A path $\pi$ satisfi es the parity condition $F$ if there is an even $1 \leq i \leq k$ such that $\inf (\pi) \cap F_{i} \neq \emptyset$ and for all $j<i$, we have $\inf (\pi) \cap F_{j}=\emptyset$. A Büchi acceptance condition consists of a set $F_{1} \subseteq Q$ and it can be viewed as a special case of a parity condition of index 3, where $F=\left\{\emptyset, F_{1}, Q\right\}$. Thus, a run is accepting according to the Büchi condition $F_{1}$ if every path in the run visits $F_{1}$ infi nitely often. An automaton accepts a labeled tree if there exists a run that accepts it. We denote by $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$ the set of all $\Sigma$-labeled trees that $\mathcal{A}$ accepts. The automaton $\mathcal{A}$ is nonempty iff $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A}) \neq \emptyset$.

An automaton is 1 -way if it does not use $\epsilon$-transitions nor $\uparrow$-transitions. Formally, an automaton is 1way if for every state $q \in Q$ and letter $\sigma \in \Sigma$ the transition $\delta(q, \sigma)$ is restricted to formulas in $B^{+}(Q)$. An automaton is nondeterministic if in every transition exactly one copy of the automaton is sent in every direction in $\Upsilon$. Formally, an automaton is nondeterministic if for every state $q \in Q$ and letter $\sigma \in \Sigma$ there exists some set $I$ such that $\delta(q, \sigma)=\bigvee_{i \in I} \wedge_{v \in \Upsilon}\left(s_{i, v}, v\right)$. Equivalently, we can describe the transition function of a nondeterministic automaton as $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow 2^{\left(Q^{|\Upsilon|}\right)}$. The tuple $\left\langle q_{1}, \ldots, q_{\Upsilon}\right\rangle \in \delta(q, \sigma)$ is equivalent to the disjunct $\left(q_{1}, v_{1}\right) \wedge \ldots \wedge\left(q_{|\Upsilon|}, v_{|\Upsilon|}\right)$. We use acronyms in $\{1,2\} \times\{A, N\} \times\{B, P\} \times\{T, W\}$ to denote the different types of automata. The first symbol stands for the type of movement of the automaton: 1 stands for 1-way automata (we often omit the 1) and 2 stands for 2-way automata. The second symbol stands for the branching mode of the automaton: $A$ for alternating and $N$ for nondeterministic. The third symbol stands for the type of acceptance used by the automaton: $B$ for Büchi and $P$ for parity, and the last symbol stands for the object the automaton is reading: $W$ for words (not used in this paper) and $T$ for trees. For example, a 2APT is a 2-way alternating parity tree automaton and an NPT is a 1 -way nondeterministic parity tree automaton.

Theorem 2.1 Given a 2APT $\mathcal{A}$ with $n$ states and index $k$, we can construct an equivalent NPT whose number of states is $(n k)^{O(n k)}$ and whose index is linear in $n k$ [Var98], and we can check the nonemptiness of $\mathcal{A}$ in time $(n k)^{O\left((n k)^{2}\right)}$ [EJS93].

The membership problem of a 2APT $\mathcal{A}$ and a regular tree $\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau\right\rangle$ is to decide whether $\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau\right\rangle \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$. As described in Theorem 2.2 below, the membership problem can be reduced to the emptiness problem.

Theorem 2.2 The membership problem of a regular tree $\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau\right\rangle$ and a $2 A P T \mathcal{A}$ with $n$ states and index $k$ is solvable in time $(|\tau| n k)^{O\left((n k)^{2}\right)}$.

Proof: According to Theorem 2.1, we construct a 1NPT $\mathcal{N}=\left\langle\Sigma, Q, q_{0}, \delta, F\right\rangle$ that accepts the language of $\mathcal{A}$. The number of states of $\mathcal{N}$ is exponential in $n k$ and its index is linear in $n k$. Let $\mathcal{D}=\left\langle\Upsilon, \Sigma, S, s_{0}, \eta, L\right\rangle$ be the transducer generating $\tau$, with $\Upsilon=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{d}\right\}$.

Consider the NPT $\mathcal{N}^{\prime}=\left\langle\{a\}, Q \times S,\left(q_{0}, s_{0}\right), \delta^{\prime}, F\right\rangle$ where $\delta((q, s), a)=\left\{\left\langle\left(q_{1}, s_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(q_{d}, s_{d}\right)\right\rangle \mid\left\langle q_{1}, \ldots q_{d}\right\rangle \in\right.$ $\delta(q, L(s))$ and $\left.s_{c}=\eta\left(s, v_{c}\right)\right\}$. It is easy to see that $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{N}^{\prime}\right) \neq \emptyset$ iff $\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau\right\rangle \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{N})$. As $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{N})=\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$, we are done. Note that the number of states of $N^{\prime}$ is $(|\tau| n k)^{O(n k)}$ and its index is linear in $n k$. Thus, emptiness of $N^{\prime}$ can be determined in time $(|\tau| n k)^{O\left((n k)^{2}\right)}$.

Once we translate $\mathcal{A}$ to $\mathcal{N}$, the reduction above is similar the one described in [KVW00]. The translation of $\mathcal{A}$ to $\mathcal{N}$, however, involves an exponential blow up. In the full version of [KPV02] we show that the
membership problem for 2ABT is EXPTIME-hard. Thus, the membership problem for 2APT is EXPTIMEcomplete.

### 2.3 Pushdown tree automata

Pushdown tree automata are fi nite-state automata augmented by a pushdown store. Like a nondeterministic fi nite-state tree automaton, a nondeterministic pushdown tree automaton starts reading a tree from the root. At each node of the tree, the pushdown automaton consults the transition relation and sends independent copies of itself to each of the node's successors. Each copy has an independent pushdown store that diverges from the pushdown store of the parent. We then check what happens along every branch of the run tree and determine acceptance.

Let $d=|\Upsilon|$ and $\Upsilon=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{d}\right\}$. Formally, a nondeterministic parity pushdown tree automaton (with $\epsilon$-transitions) over infi nite $\Upsilon$-trees (or PD-NPT for short) is $\mathcal{P}=\left\langle\Sigma, \Gamma, P, p_{0}, \alpha_{0}, \rho, F\right\rangle$, where

- $\Sigma$ is a fi nite input alphabet.
- $\Gamma$ is a fi nite set of pushdown symbols.
- $P$ is a fi nite set of states.
- $p_{0} \in P$ is an initial state.
- $\alpha_{0} \in \Gamma^{*} \cdot \perp$ is an initial pushdown store content.
- $\rho: P \times(\Sigma \cup\{\epsilon\}) \times(\Gamma \cup\{\perp\}) \rightarrow 2^{P \times \Gamma^{*}} \cup 2^{\left(P \times \Gamma^{*}\right)^{d}}$ is a transition function such that for every state $p \in P$ and symbol $A \in \Gamma$, we have $\delta(p, a, A) \in 2^{\left(P \times \Gamma^{*}\right)^{d}}$, for $a \in \Sigma$, and $\delta(p, \epsilon, A) \in 2^{P \times \Gamma^{*}}$.
Intuitively, when the automaton is in state $p$, reading a node $x$ labeled by $a \in \Sigma$, and the pushdown store contains a word in $A \cdot \Gamma^{*}$, it can apply one of the following two types of transitions.
- An $\epsilon$-transition in $\delta(p, \epsilon, A)$, where the automaton stays in node $x$. Accordingly, each $\epsilon$-transition is a pair $\left(p^{\prime}, \beta\right) \in P \times \Gamma^{*}$. Once the automaton chooses a pair ( $p^{\prime}, \beta$ ), it moves to state $p^{\prime}$, and updates the pushdown store by removing $A$ and pushing $\beta$.
- An advancing transition in $\delta(p, a, A)$, where the automaton splits into $d$ copies, each reading a different successor of the node $x$. Accordingly, each advancing transition is a tuple $\left\langle\left(p_{1}, \beta_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(p_{d}, \beta_{d}\right)\right\rangle \in\left(P \times \Gamma^{*}\right)^{d}$. Once the automaton chooses a tuple, it splits into $d$ copies, the $i$ th copy moves to the node $i \cdot x$ in the input tree, changes to state $p_{i}$, and updates the pushdown store by removing $A$ and pushing $\beta_{i}$.

We assume that the bottom symbol on the pushdown store is $\perp$. This symbol cannot be removed (so, when we say that the pushdown store is empty, we mean that it contains only $\perp$ ). Every transition that removes $\perp$ also pushes it back. Formally, if $\left(p^{\prime}, \beta\right) \in \delta(p, \epsilon, \perp)$, then $\beta \in \Gamma^{*} \cdot \perp$. Similarly, if $\left\langle\left(p_{1}, \beta_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(p_{d}, \beta_{d}\right)\right\rangle \in \delta(p, a, \perp)$, then $\beta_{i} \in \Gamma^{*} \cdot \perp$ for all $1 \leq i \leq d$. The symbol $\perp$ is not used in another way.
The size $|\rho|$ of the transition function is the sum of all the lengths of the words used in the function. Formally, $|\rho|=\left(\Sigma_{\left\langle\left(p_{1}, \beta_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(p_{d}, \beta_{d}\right)\right\rangle \in \rho(p, a, A)}\left|\beta_{1}\right|+\ldots+\left|\beta_{d}\right|\right)+\left(\Sigma_{\left(p^{\prime}, \beta\right) \in \rho(p, \epsilon, A)}|\beta|\right)$.

- $F$ is a parity condition over $P$.

We note that the automata defi ned above assume input trees with a fi xed and known branching degree, and can distinguish between the different successors of the node (say, impose a requirement only on the leftmost successor). In many cases, it is useful to consider symmetric tree automata [JW95], which refer to the successors of a node in a universal or an existential manner, and thus can handle trees with unknown and varying branching degrees. While symmetry is naturally defi ned for alternating automata, it can also be defi ned for nondeterministic automata [KV01], and for PD-NPT.

Example 2.3 In Section 1, we mentioned the non-regular property " $p$ is uniformly inevitable", namely there is some time $i$ such that $p$ hold at time $i$ in all the computations. We now describe a PD-NPT for the property. We defi ne $\mathcal{P}=\left\langle 2^{\{p\}},\{a\},\left\{q_{0}, q_{1}, q_{2}\right\}, q_{0}, \perp, \delta, F\right\rangle$, where $F=\left\{\left\{q_{0}, q_{1}\right\},\left\{q_{0}, q_{1}, q_{2}\right\}\right\}$ is such that $q_{0}$ and $q_{1}$ has to be visited only fi nitely often, and the transition function is as follows.

- $\rho\left(q_{0}, \epsilon, \perp\right)=\left\{\left(q_{0}, a \perp\right),\left(q_{1}, \perp\right)\right\}$,
- $\rho\left(q_{0}, \epsilon, a\right)=\left\{\left(q_{0}, a a\right),\left(q_{1}, a\right)\right\}$,
- $\delta\left(q_{1},\{p\}, a\right)=\delta\left(q_{1}, \emptyset, a\right)=\left\langle\left(q_{1}, \epsilon\right), \ldots,\left(q_{1}, \epsilon\right)\right\rangle$,
- $\delta\left(q_{1},\{p\}, \perp\right)=\left\langle\left(q_{2}, \perp\right), \ldots,\left(q_{2}, \perp\right)\right\rangle$, and
- $\delta\left(q_{2}, \epsilon, \perp\right)=\left\{\left(q_{2}, \perp\right)\right\}$.

Intuitively, $\mathcal{P}$ starts reading the tree in state $q_{0}$ with empty pushdown store. It stays in state $q_{0}$ taking $\epsilon-$ transitions while pushing $a$ 's into the pushdown store. In some stage, $\mathcal{P}$ takes a nondeterministic choice to move to state $q_{1}$, from which it proceeds with advancing transitions while removing $a$ 's from the pushdown store. When the pushdown store becomes empty, $\mathcal{P}$ takes an advancing transition to state $q_{2}$ while checking that the label it reads is indeed $\{p\}$.

A run of the PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}$ on an infi nite tree $\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau\right\rangle$ is an $\left(\Upsilon^{*} \times P \times \Gamma^{*}\right)$-labeled $\mathbb{N}$-tree $\left\langle T_{r}, r\right\rangle$. A node $y \in T_{r}$ labeled by $(x, p, \alpha)$ represents a copy of $\mathcal{P}$ in state $p$, with pushdown store content $\alpha$, reading node $x$ in $\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau\right\rangle$. Formally, $r(\epsilon)=\left(\epsilon, p_{0}, \alpha_{0}\right)$, and for all $x \in T_{r}$ such that $r(x)=(y, p, A \cdot \alpha)$ one of the following holds.

- There is a unique successor $c \cdot x$ of $x$ in $T_{r}$ such that $r(c \cdot x)=\left(y, p^{\prime}, \beta \cdot \alpha\right)$ for some $\left(p^{\prime}, \beta\right) \in \delta(p, \epsilon, A)$.
- There are $d$ successors $1 \cdot x, \ldots, d \cdot x$ of $x$ in $T_{r}$ such that for all $1 \leq c \leq d$, we have $r(c \cdot x)=$ $\left(v_{c} \cdot y, p_{c}, \beta_{c} \cdot \alpha\right)$ for some $\left\langle\left(p_{1}, \beta_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(p_{d}, \beta_{d}\right)\right\rangle \in \delta(p, V(y), A)$.

Given a path $\pi \subseteq T_{r}$, we defi ne $\inf (\pi) \subseteq P$ to be such that $p \in \inf (\pi)$ if and only if there are infi nitely many nodes $y \in \pi$ for which $r(y) \in \Upsilon^{*} \times\{p\} \times \Gamma^{*}$. As with 2APTs, a path satisfi es the parity condition $F=\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{k}\right\}$ if there is an even $1 \leq i \leq k$ such that $\inf (\pi) \cap F_{i} \neq \emptyset$ and for all $j<i$, we have $\inf (\pi) \cap F_{j}=\emptyset$. A run is accepting if every path $\pi \subseteq T$ is accepting. A PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}$ accepts a tree $\langle T, \tau\rangle$ if there exists an accepting run of $\mathcal{P}$ over $\langle T, \tau\rangle$. The language of $\mathcal{P}$, denoted $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$ contains all trees accepted by $\mathcal{P}$. The PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}$ is empty if $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})=\emptyset$.

Harel and Raz consider only the Büchi acceptance condition (PD-NBT for short). They showed that the emptiness problem of PD-NBT can be reduced to the emptiness problem of a PD-NBT with one-letter input alphabet [HR94]. The parity acceptance condition is more general than the Büchi acceptance condition. The following theorem generalizes the result of [HR94] to PD-NPT.

Theorem 2.4 The emptiness problem for a PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}$ with $n$ states, index $k$, and input alphabet $\Sigma$, is reducible to the emptiness problem for a PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ with $n \cdot|\Sigma|$ states and index $k$ that has a one-letter input alphabet.

Note that since our automata have $\epsilon$-transitions, we cannot use the classical reduction to one-letter input alphabet [Rab69]. For a nondeterministic tree automaton $\mathcal{N}=\left\langle\Sigma, P, p_{0}, \rho, F\right\rangle$, Rabin constructs the automaton $\mathcal{N}^{\prime}=\left\langle\{a\}, P, p_{0}, \rho^{\prime}, F\right\rangle$ such that for every state $p \in P$ we have $\rho^{\prime}(p, a)=\bigcup_{\sigma \in \Sigma} \rho(p, \sigma)$. Thus, $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ guesses which of the input letters $\sigma \in \Sigma$ labels the node and chooses a state in $\rho(p, \sigma)$. For automata with $\epsilon$-transitions, we have to make sure that successor states that read the same node guess the same label for the node, and we augment the automaton $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ with a mechanism that remembers the guessed input letter.

## 3 The Emptiness Problem of PD-NPT

In this section we give an algorithm to decide the emptiness of a PD-NPT. According to Theorem 2.4, we can restrict attention to PD-NPT with one-letter input alphabet. We reduce the emptiness of a PD-NPT with one-letter input alphabet $\mathcal{P}$ to the membership of a regular tree in the language of a 2APT $\mathcal{A}$. The idea behind the construction is that since the one-letter tree is homogeneous, the location of a copy of $\mathcal{P}$ in the input tree is not important. Accordingly, when a copy of $\mathcal{A}$ simulates a copy of $\mathcal{P}$, it does not care about the location on the input tree, and it has to remember only the state of the copy and the content of the pushdown store.

It is easy for a copy of $\mathcal{A}$ to remember a state of $\mathcal{P}$. How can $\mathcal{A}$ remember the content of the pushdown store? Let $\Gamma$ denote the pushdown alphabet of $\mathcal{P}$. Note that the content of the pushdown store of $\mathcal{P}$ corresponds to a node in the full infi nite $\Gamma$-tree. So, if $\mathcal{A}$ reads the tree $\Gamma^{*}$, it can refer to the location of its reading head in $\Gamma^{*}$ as the content of the pushdown store. We would like $\mathcal{A}$ to "know" the location of its reading head in $\Gamma^{*}$. A straightforward way to do so is to label a node $x \in \Gamma^{*}$ by $x$. This, however, involves an infi nite alphabet, and results in trees that are not regular. Since $\mathcal{P}$ does not read the entire pushdown store's content and (in each transition) it only reads the top symbol on the pushdown store, it is enough to label $x$ by its direction.

Let $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle$ be the $\Gamma$ labeled $\Gamma$-tree such that for every $x \in \Gamma^{*}$, we have $\tau_{\Gamma}(x)=\operatorname{dir}(x)$. Note that $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle$ is a regular tree of size $|\Gamma|+1$. We reduce the emptiness of a one-letter PD-NPT to the membership problem of $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle$ in the language of a 2 APT . Given a PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}$ we construct a $2 \mathrm{APT} \mathcal{A}$ such that $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}) \neq \emptyset$ iff $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$. The 2APT memorizes a control state of the PD-NPT as part of its fin nite control. When it has to apply some transition of $\mathcal{P}$, it consults its fi nite control and the label of the tree $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle$. Knowing the state of $\mathcal{P}$ and the top symbol of the pushdown store, the 2APT can decide which transition of $\mathcal{P}$ to apply. Moving to a new state of $\mathcal{P}$ is done by changing the state of the 2APT. Adjusting the pushdown store's content is done by navigating to a new location in $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle$.

Theorem 3.1 Given a one-letter PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}=\left\langle\{a\}, \Gamma, P, p_{0}, \alpha_{0}, \rho, F\right\rangle$ with $n$ states and index $k$, there exists a $2 A P T \mathcal{A}$ with $n \cdot|\rho|$ states and index $k$ such that $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}) \neq \emptyset$ iff $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$.

As before, let $d=|\Upsilon|$ and $\Upsilon=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{d}\right\}$. Formally, given the PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}=\left\langle\{a\}, \Gamma, P, p_{0}, \alpha_{0}, \delta, F\right\rangle$, we construct the 2APT $\mathcal{A}=\left\langle\Gamma, Q, q_{0}, \eta, F^{\prime}\right\rangle$, where

- $Q=P \times \operatorname{tails}(\delta)$ where $\operatorname{tails}(\delta) \subseteq \Gamma^{*}$ is the set of all suffi xes of words $x \in \Gamma^{*}$ for which one of the following holds.
- There are states $p, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{d} \in P$, words $\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{d} \in \Gamma^{*}$, and a letter $\gamma \in \Gamma$ such that $\left\langle\left(p_{1}, \beta_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(p_{d}, \beta_{d}\right)\right\rangle \in \delta(p, \gamma, a)$ and $x=\beta_{i}$ for some $1 \leq i \leq d$.
- There are states $p, p^{\prime} \in P$ and a letter $\gamma \in \Gamma$ such that $\left(p^{\prime}, x\right) \in \delta(p, \epsilon, \gamma)$.
- $x=\alpha_{0}$.

Intuitively, when $\mathcal{A}$ visits a node $x \in \Gamma^{*}$ in state $\langle p, y\rangle$, it checks that $\mathcal{P}$ with initial confi guration $(p, y \cdot x)$ accepts the one-letter $\Upsilon$-tree. In particular, when $y=\varepsilon$, then $\mathcal{P}$ with initial confi guration ( $p, x$ ) needs to accept the one-letter $\Upsilon$-tree.
States of the form $\langle p, \varepsilon\rangle$ are called action states. From these states $\mathcal{A}$ consults $\delta$ in order to impose new requirements on $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle$. States of the form $\langle p, y\rangle$, for $y \in \Gamma^{+}$, are called navigation states. From these states $\mathcal{A}$ only navigates downward $y$ to reach new action states.

- $q_{0}=\left(p_{0}, \alpha_{0}\right)$. Thus, in its initial state $\mathcal{A}$ checks that $\mathcal{P}$ with initial confi guration $\left(p_{0}, \alpha_{0}\right)$ accepts the one-letter $\Upsilon$-tree.
- The transition function $\eta$ is defi ned for every state $\langle p, x\rangle \in P \times \operatorname{tails}(\delta)$ and $A \in \Gamma$ as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\eta((p, \epsilon), A)=\left[\bigvee_{(t, \alpha) \in \delta(p, \epsilon, A)}(\uparrow,(t, \alpha))\right] \vee\left[\bigvee_{\left(\left(t_{1}, \beta_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(t_{d}, \beta_{d}\right)\right) \in \delta(s, a, A)} \bigwedge_{i=1}^{d}\left(\uparrow,\left(t_{i}, \beta_{i}\right)\right)\right] \\
& -\eta((p, B \cdot \alpha), A)=(B,(p, \alpha))
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, in action states, $\mathcal{A}$ reads the direction of the current node and applies a transition from $\delta$. In navigation states, $\mathcal{A}$ needs to go downward to $B \cdot \alpha$, so it continues in direction $B$.

- $F^{\prime}=F \times\{\epsilon\}$. Note that only action states can be accepting states.

We show that $\mathcal{A}$ accepts $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle$ iff $\mathcal{P}$ accepts the one letter $\Upsilon$-tree. Let $\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau_{a}\right\rangle$ denote the labeled tree such that for all $x \in \Upsilon^{*}$, we have $\tau_{a}(x)=a$.

Claim 3.2 $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}) \neq \emptyset$ iff $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$.

Proof: We have to work with four different trees. We have a PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}$ and a 2APT $\mathcal{A}$, each has an input tree and a run tree. We introduce a special notation as follows.

1. Let $T_{i}^{P D}=\left\langle\Upsilon^{*}, \tau_{a}\right\rangle$ denote the input tree read by $\mathcal{P}$.
2. Let $T_{i}^{A}=\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle$ denote the input tree read by $\mathcal{A}$.
3. Let $\left\langle T_{r}^{P D}, r^{P D}\right\rangle$ denote the run tree of $\mathcal{P}$ and its labeling.
4. Let $\left\langle T_{r}^{A}, r^{A}\right\rangle$ denote the run tree of $\mathcal{A}$ and its labeling.

Assume first that $T_{i}^{P D} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$. Then, there exists an accepting run $\left\langle T_{r}^{P D}, r^{P D}\right\rangle$ of $\mathcal{P}$ on $T_{i}^{P D}$. Given $T_{i}^{P D}$ and $\left\langle T_{r}^{P D}, r^{P D}\right\rangle$, we have to construct an accepting run tree $\left\langle T_{r}^{A}, r^{A}\right\rangle$ of $\mathcal{A}$ on $T_{i}^{A}$. Consider a node $x \in T_{r}^{P D}$ labeled by $r^{P D}(x)=(y,(p, \gamma))$. Recall that $x$ stands for a copy of $\mathcal{P}$ in state $p$ with pushdown store content $\gamma$, reading node $y \in T_{i}^{P D}$. We associate with $x$ a node $x^{\prime} \in T_{r}^{A}$ labeled by $r^{A}(\gamma)=(\gamma,(p, \epsilon))$.

Recall that $x^{\prime}$ stands for a copy of $\mathcal{A}$ is in state $(p, \epsilon)$, reading node $\gamma \in T_{i}^{A}$. Both nodes are labeled by the state $p$ of $\mathcal{P}$. The pushdown store content of $\mathcal{P}$ is the location of $\mathcal{A}$ in $T_{i}^{A}$.

We prove by induction that we can build $\left\langle T_{r}^{A}, r^{A}\right\rangle$ in such a way. We start from the root $\epsilon \in T_{r}^{P D}$ labeled by $r^{P D}(\epsilon)=\left(\epsilon,\left(p_{0}, \alpha_{0}\right)\right)$. The root $\epsilon \in T_{r}^{A}$ is labeled by $r^{A}(\epsilon)=\left(\epsilon,\left(p_{0}, \alpha_{0}\right)\right)$. The behavior of the 2APT is deterministic until it reaches the next action state. Thus, there is some $x^{\prime} \in T_{r}^{A}$ labeled by $r^{A}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=\left(\alpha_{0},\left(p_{0}, \epsilon\right)\right)$ which serves as the base case for the induction.

Given a node $x \in T_{r}^{P D}$ labeled by $r^{P D}(x)=(y,(p, A \cdot \alpha))$, by the induction assumption it is associated with a node $x^{\prime} \in T_{r}^{A}$ labeled by $r^{A}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=(A \cdot \alpha,(p, \epsilon))$.

Suppose $x$ has one successor $c \cdot x$ labeled by $r^{P D}(c \cdot x)=\left(y,\left(p^{\prime}, \beta \cdot \alpha\right)\right)$, that resulted from the transition $\left(p^{\prime}, \beta\right) \in \delta(p, \epsilon, A)$. Then there is a disjunct $\left(\uparrow,\left(p^{\prime}, \beta\right)\right) \in \eta(p, A)$. We add $c \cdot x^{\prime}$ to $T_{r}^{A}$, the unique successor of $x^{\prime}$, and label it $r^{A}\left(c \cdot x^{\prime}\right)=\left(\alpha,\left(p^{\prime}, \beta\right)\right)$. Obviously, this satisfi es $\eta$. Again the behavior below $c \cdot x^{\prime}$ is deterministic until reaching a node $z \cdot x^{\prime} \in T_{r}^{A}$ labeled by $r^{A}\left(z \cdot x^{\prime}\right)=(\beta \cdot \alpha,(p, \epsilon))$.

Suppose $x$ has $d$ successors $c_{1} \cdot x, \ldots, c_{d} \cdot x \in T_{r}^{P D}$ labeled by $r^{P D}\left(c_{i} \cdot x\right)=\left(y_{i},\left(p_{i}, \beta_{i} \cdot \alpha\right)\right)$, that resulted from the transition $\left\langle\left(p_{1}, \beta_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(p_{d}, \beta_{d}\right)\right\rangle \in \delta(p, a, A)$. Then there is a disjunct $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{d}\left(\uparrow,\left(p_{i}, \beta_{i}\right)\right)$ in $\eta(p, A)$. We add $c_{1} \cdot x^{\prime}, \ldots c_{d} \cdot x^{\prime}$ to $T_{r}^{A}$ as the successors of $x^{\prime}$, and label them $r^{A}\left(c_{i} \cdot x^{\prime}\right)=\left(\gamma,\left(p_{i}, \beta_{i}\right)\right)$. Obviously, this satisfi es $\eta$. The behavior of each path below $\epsilon_{i} \cdot x^{\prime}$ is deterministic until reaching some node $z_{i} \cdot x^{\prime} \in T_{r}^{A}$ labeled by $r^{A}\left(z_{i} \cdot x^{\prime}\right)=\left(\beta_{i} \cdot \alpha,\left(p_{i}, \epsilon\right)\right)$.

We have to show now that $\left(T_{r}^{A}, r^{A}\right)$ is accepting. Take an infi nite path $\pi \subseteq T_{r}^{A}$. Clearly, $\pi$ visits infi nitely many action states. Every action state and the node it labels, is associated by the construction with a node in $T_{r}^{P D}$. It is quite clear that this sequence of nodes in $T_{r}^{P D}$ forms a path $\pi^{\prime} \subseteq T_{r}^{P D}$. Hence if $\pi^{\prime}$ satisfi es $F$, it is also the case that $\pi$ satisfi es $F$.

Assume now that $\mathcal{A}$ accepts $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle$. There exists an accepting run $\left\langle T_{r}^{A}, r^{A}\right\rangle$ of $\mathcal{A}$ on $\left\langle\Gamma^{*}, \tau_{\Gamma}\right\rangle$. We construct an accepting run $\left\langle T_{r}^{P D}, r^{P D}\right\rangle$ of $\mathcal{P}$ on $T_{i}^{P D}$. We convert the set of nodes in $T_{r}^{A}$ labeled by action states of $\mathcal{A}$ to the tree $T_{r}^{P D}$. We update the location of $\mathcal{P}$ in $\Upsilon^{*}$ according to the number of successors of each action state. One successor matches an $\epsilon$-move and $d$ successors match a forward move.

Formally, we assume by induction that every node $x^{\prime} \in T_{r}^{A}$ labeled by $r^{A}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=(\alpha,(p, \epsilon))$ is associated with some node $x \in T_{r}^{P D}$ labeled by $r^{P D}(x)=(y,(p, \alpha))$ for some node $y \in T_{i}^{P D}$. As before the root $\epsilon$ of $T_{r}^{A}$ is labeled by $r^{A}(\epsilon)=\left(\epsilon,\left(p_{0}, \alpha_{0}\right)\right)$. It has some descendant $x^{\prime} \in T_{r}^{A}$ labeled by $r^{A}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=\left(\alpha_{0},\left(p_{0}, \epsilon\right)\right)$. We label the root $\epsilon \in T_{r}^{P D}$ by $r^{P D}(\epsilon)=\left(\epsilon,\left(p_{0}, \alpha_{0}\right)\right)$. This serves as the induction base.

Given some node $x^{\prime} \in T_{r}^{A}$ labeled by $r^{A}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=(A \cdot \alpha,(p, \epsilon))$, by induction assumption there is a node $x \in T_{r}^{P D}$ labeled by $r^{P D}(x)=(y,(p, A \cdot \alpha))$.

Suppose $x^{\prime}$ has one successor $c \cdot x^{\prime}$ labeled by $r^{A}\left(c \cdot x^{\prime}\right)=\left(\alpha,\left(p^{\prime}, \beta\right)\right)$, that resulted from the disjunct $\left(\uparrow,\left(p^{\prime}, \beta\right)\right)$ that appears in $\eta(p, A)$. Again, there is some descendant $z \cdot x^{\prime}$ of $c \cdot x^{\prime}$ that is an action state labeled by $r\left(z \cdot x^{\prime}\right)=\left(\beta \cdot \alpha,\left(p^{\prime}, \epsilon\right)\right)$. We know that $\left(p^{\prime}, \beta\right) \in \delta(p, \epsilon, A)$, we add $c \cdot x$ to $T_{r}^{P D}$, a unique successor of $x$, and label it $r^{P D}(c \cdot x)=\left(y,\left(p^{\prime}, \beta \cdot \alpha\right)\right)$. Note that $c \cdot x$ and $x$ read the same node $y \in T_{i}^{P D}$.

Suppose $x^{\prime}$ has $d$ successors $c_{1} \cdot x^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{d} \cdot x^{\prime} \in T_{r}^{A}$ labeled by $r^{A}\left(c_{i} \cdot x^{\prime}\right)=\left(\alpha,\left(p_{i}, \beta_{i}\right)\right)$, that resulted from the disjunct $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{d}\left(\uparrow,\left(p_{i}, \beta_{i}\right)\right)$ in $\eta(p, A)$. Each one of the nodes $c_{i} \cdot x^{\prime}$ has a descendant $z_{i} \cdot x^{\prime}$, that is labeled by the action state $r\left(z_{i} \cdot x^{\prime}\right)=\left(\beta \cdot \alpha,\left(p_{i}, \epsilon\right)\right)$. We know that $\left\langle\left(p_{1}, \beta_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(p_{d}, \beta_{d}\right)\right\rangle \in \delta(p, a, A)$. We add $c_{1} \cdot x, \ldots c_{d} \cdot x$ to $T_{r}^{P D}$ as the successors of $x$, and label them $r^{P D}\left(c_{i} \cdot x\right)=\left(v_{i} \cdot y,\left(p_{i}, \beta_{i} \cdot \alpha\right)\right)$. Obviously, this satisfi es $\delta$.

Again every path in $T_{r}^{P D}$ is associated with the action states along a path in $T_{r}^{A}$. We conclude that $\left\langle T_{r}^{P D}, r^{P D}\right\rangle$ has to satisfy $F$.

Combining Theorem 3.1 with Theorems 2.2 and 2.4, we get the following.

Corollary 3.3 The emptiness problem for a PD-NPT with $n$ states, index $k$, and transition function $\rho$ can be solved in time exponential in $n k \cdot|\rho|$.

Remark 3.4 Harel and Raz [HR94] show that the emptiness of stack automata on infi nite trees is also decidable. Stack automata can read the entire contents of the stack but can change the content only when standing on the top of the stack. They give a doubly exponential reduction from the emptiness problem of stack automata to the emptiness problem of pushdown automata. As their emptiness of pushdown automata is triple exponential, it induces a fi ve fold exponential algorithm for the emptiness of stack automata on infi nite trees that use the Büchi acceptance condition. Thus, our emptiness algorithm induces a triple exponential algorithm for the emptiness of Büchi stack automata. We believe that the reduction used in [HR94] for Büchi stack automata can be extended to parity stack automata and furthermore that using our techniques, the emptiness of parity stack automata can be solved in less than triple exponential time.

## 4 Model-Checking Pushdown Specifications of Finite-State Systems

The model-checking problem is to decide whether a given system $\mathcal{S}$ satisfi es a specifi cation $\mathcal{P}$. In this section we consider the case where the system is fi nite state and the specifi cation is a PD-NPT. In order to solve the model-checking problem we combine the system with the PD-NPT and get a PD-NPT whose language is empty iff the system satisfi es the specifi cation.

We use labeled transition graphs to represent fi nite-state systems. A labeled transition graph is a quadruple $\mathcal{S}=\left\langle W, A c t, R, w_{0}\right\rangle$, where $W$ is a (possibly infi nite) set of states, Act is a fi nite set of actions, $R \subseteq W \times A c t \times W$ is a labeled transition relation, and $w_{0} \in W$ is an initial state. We assume that the transition relation $R$ is total (i.e. for every state there exists some action $a$ and some state $w^{\prime}$ such that $R\left(w, a, w^{\prime}\right)$ ). When $R\left(w, a, w^{\prime}\right)$, we say that $w^{\prime}$ is an $a$-successor of $w$, and $w$ is an a-predecessor of $w^{\prime}$. For a state $w \in W$, we denote by $\mathcal{S}^{w}=\langle W, A c t, R, w\rangle$, the system $\mathcal{S}$ with $w$ as its initial state. A fin nite-state system is given as a labeled transition graph with a fi nite set of states. The unwinding of $\mathcal{S}$ from state $w \in W$ induces an infi nite tree $T_{\mathcal{S}}$. Every node of the tree $T_{\mathcal{S}}$ is associated with some state $w^{\prime} \in W$, the root of $T_{\mathcal{S}}$ is associated with state $w$. A node $x \in T_{\mathcal{S}}$ associated with $w^{\prime} \in W$ has $\mid\left\{w^{\prime \prime} \mid \exists a \in \operatorname{Act}\right.$ s.t. $\left.R\left(w^{\prime}, a, w^{\prime \prime}\right)\right\} \mid$ successors, each associated with a successor $w^{\prime \prime}$ of $w^{\prime}$ and labeled by the action $a$ such that $R\left(w^{\prime}, a, w^{\prime \prime}\right)$. The root of $T_{\mathcal{S}}$ is labeled by $\perp \notin A c t$. As $R$ is total, $T_{\mathcal{S}}$ is infi nite. We say that a system $\mathcal{S}$ satisfies a tree automaton $\mathcal{P}$ over the alphabet $A c t$ if $T_{\mathcal{S}}$ is accepted by $\mathcal{P} .{ }^{1}$

The unwinding of a fi nite labeled transition graph $\mathcal{S}$ results in a regular tree. In order to determine whether $\mathcal{S}$ satisfi es $\mathcal{P}$, we have to solve the membership problem of regular trees in the language of a PDNPT. We reduce the membership problem to the emptiness problem by a construction similar to the one in the proof of Theorem 2.2. Thus, we construct a PD-NPT that either accepts $T_{\mathcal{S}}$ or is empty, and then check its emptiness.

[^1]Theorem 4.1 Given a finite labeled transition graph $\mathcal{S}$ with $m$ states and a PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}$ with $n$ states, index $k$, and transition function $\rho$, the model-checking problem of $\mathcal{S}$ with respect to $\mathcal{P}$ is solvable in time exponential in mnk $\cdot|\rho|$.

Given a PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}=\left\langle 2^{A P}, \Gamma, P, p_{0}, \alpha_{0}, \rho, F\right\rangle$ and a fin nite labeled transition graph $\mathcal{S}=\left\langle W, A c t, R, u_{0}\right\rangle$, we construct the PD-NPT $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}=\left\langle\{b\}, \Gamma, P \times \operatorname{Act} \times W,\left(p_{0}, \perp, w_{0}\right), \alpha_{0}, \rho^{\prime}, F^{\prime}\right\rangle$ that is the product of the two. The states of $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ consists of triplets of states of $\mathcal{P}$, actions of $\mathcal{S}$, and states of $\mathcal{S}$. The acceptance condition $F^{\prime}$ is $F \times A c t \times W$, where we replace each set $F_{i} \in F$ by the set $F_{i} \times A c t \times W$. The transition function $\rho^{\prime}$ maps a triplet ( $p, a, w$ ) to all the $\epsilon$-successors of $p$ tagged again by $a$ and $w$ and to all the " $a$-successors" of $p$ tagged by successors of $w$ and the actions taken to get to them. For technical convenience, we assume that the branching degree of $\mathcal{S}$ is uniform and equivalent to the branching degree of the trees that $\mathcal{P}$ reads. Modifying the algorithm to systems with nonuniform branching degree is not too complicated. Formally, we have the following.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - } \rho^{\prime}((p, a, w), \epsilon, A)=\left\{\left\langle\left(p^{\prime}, a, w\right), \alpha\right\rangle \mid\langle p, \alpha\rangle \in \rho(p, \epsilon, A)\right\} . \\
& \text { - } \rho^{\prime}((p, a, w), b, A)=\left\{\begin{array}{l|l}
\left\langle\left\langle\left(p_{1}, a_{1}, w_{1}\right), \alpha_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle\left(p_{d}, a_{d}, w_{d}\right), \alpha_{d}\right\rangle\right\rangle & \begin{array}{l}
\left\langle\left\langle p_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle p_{d}, \alpha_{d}\right\rangle\right\rangle \in \rho(p, a, A) \text { and } \\
\left\{\left(w, a_{1}, w_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(w, a_{d}, w_{d}\right)\right\} \\
\text { is the set of transitions from } w
\end{array}
\end{array}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is not hard to see that $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ accepts some tree iff $\mathcal{P}$ accepts $T_{\mathcal{S}}$, the unwinding of $\mathcal{S}$.
Remark 4.2 By having PD-NPT as our specifi cation formalism, we follow here the branching-time paradigm to specifi cation and verifi cation, where the specifi cation describes allowed computation trees and a system is correct if its (single) computation tree is allowed. Alternatively, in the linear-time paradigm, the specifi cation describes the allowed linear computations, and the system is correct if all its computations are allowed. When the system is nondeterministic, it may have many computations, and we have to check them all. Thus, while model checking in the branching-time paradigm corresponds to membership checking, model checking in the linear-time paradigm corresponds to checking language containment.

Pushdown specifi cation formalisms are helpful also in the linear-time paradigm [SCFG84]. For example, one can use pushdown word automata to specify unbounded LIFO buffers. Nevertheless, since the containment problem of regular languages in context-free languages is undecidable [HMU00], using pushdown word automata as a specifi cation formalism leads to an undecidable model-checking problem even for fi nite-state systems.

The branching-time paradigm is more general than the linear-time paradigm [Lam80, Pnu85] in the sense that we can view a (universally quantifi ed) linear-time specifi cation as a branching-time specifi cation. This does not contradict the fact that model checking of pushdown specifi cation is decidable in the branchingtime paradigm. Indeed, a translation of a nondeterministic pushdown word automaton that recognizes a language $L$ into a nondeterministic pushdown tree automata that recognizes the language of all the trees derived by $L$ (that is, trees all of whose paths are in $L$ ) is not always possible. For cases where such a translation is possible (in particular, when the pushdown word automaton is deterministic), linear model checking is decidable. This is reminiscent of the situation with dense-time temporal logic, where model checking with respect to linear-time specifi cations is undecidable, while model checking with respect to branching-time specifi cations is decidable, cf. [ACD93].

Remark 4.3 Unlike the case of regular tree automata, it can be proved that alternating pushdown automata are strictly more expressive than nondeterministic pushdown automaton. For example, it is easy to defi ne a
pushdown alternating automaton over words that recognizes the non-context-free language $\left\{a^{i} b^{i} c^{i}: i \geq 1\right\}$. Indeed, the automaton can send two copies, one for comparing the number of $a$ 's with $b$ 's, and one for comparing the number of $b$ 's with $c$ 's. A similar argument shows that alternating pushdown tree automata are stronger than nondeterministic pushdown tree automata.

On the other hand, as studied in [KVW00], the membership problem for alternating automata is not harder than the one for nondeterministic automata. This observation does not change when pushdown automata are involved. In particular, it is easy to extend Theorem 3.1 to alternating automata (without changing the blow up), and to extend the model-checking algorithm described above to the stronger framework of alternating pushdown automata.

## 5 Model-Checking Pushdown Specifications of Context-Free Systems

In this section we show that the decidability results of Section 4 cannot be extended to context-free systems. We show that the model checking problem for context-free systems is undecidable already for pushdown path automata, which are a special case of pushdown tree automata.

We first defi ne context-free systems and pushdown path automata. Again we use labeled transition graphs. This time with an infi nite number of states.

A rewrite system is a quadruple $\mathcal{R}=\left\langle V, A c t, R, x_{0}\right\rangle$, where $V$ is a fi nite alphabet, $A c t$ is a fi nite set of actions, $R$ maps each action $a$ to a fi nite set of rewrite rules, to be defi ned below, and $\mathscr{x} \in V^{*}$ is an initial word. Intuitively, $R(a)$ describes the possible rules that can be applied by taking the action $a$. We consider here context-free rewrite systems. Each rewrite rule is a pair $\langle A, x\rangle \in V \times V^{*}$. We refer to rewrite rules in $R(a)$ as a-rules.

The rewrite system $\mathcal{R}$ induces the labeled transition graph $G_{\mathcal{R}}=\left\langle V^{*}, A c t, \rho_{\mathcal{R}}, x_{0}\right\rangle$, where $\langle x, a, y\rangle \in$ $\rho_{\mathcal{R}}$ if there is a rewrite rule in $R(a)$ whose application on $x$ results in $y$. In particular, when $\mathcal{R}$ is a contextfree rewrite system, then $\rho_{\mathcal{R}}(A \cdot y, a, x \cdot y)$ if $\langle A, x\rangle \in R(a)$. A labeled transition graph that is induced by a context-free rewrite system is called a context-free graph.

Consider a labeled transition graph $G=\left\langle S, A c t, \rho, s_{0}\right\rangle$. A nondeterministic pushdown path automaton on labeled transition graphs is a tuple $\mathcal{P}=\left\langle A c t, \Gamma, P, \delta, p_{0}, \alpha_{0}, F\right\rangle$, where $\Gamma, P, p_{0}$, and $\alpha_{0}$ are as in nondeterministic pushdown automata on trees, $A c t$ is a set of actions (the automaton's alphabet), and $\delta$ : $P \times A c t \times \Gamma \rightarrow 2^{P \times \Gamma^{*}}$ is the transition function. We consider the simpler case where $F$ is a Büchi acceptance condition. Intuitively, when $\mathcal{P}$ is in state $p$ with $A \cdot \alpha$ on the pushdown store and it reads a state $s$ of $G$, the automaton $\mathcal{P}$ chooses an atom $\left\langle p^{\prime}, \beta\right\rangle \in \delta(p, a, A)$ and moves to some $a$-successor of $s$ in state $p^{\prime}$ with pushdown store $\beta \cdot \alpha$. Again we assume that the first symbol in $\alpha_{0}$ is $\perp$, and that $\perp$ cannot be removed from the pushdown store.

Like a run of a nondeterministic pushdown automaton on words, a run of a path automaton over a labeled transition graph $G=\left\langle S, A c t, \rho, s_{0}\right\rangle$ is an infi nite word in $\left(S \times P \times \Gamma^{*}\right)^{\omega}$. A letter $(s, p, \alpha)$, describes that the automaton is in state $p$ of $\mathcal{P}$ with pushdown store content $\alpha$ reading state $s$ of $G$. Formally, a run is an infi nite sequence $\left(s_{0}, p_{0}, \alpha_{0}\right),\left(s_{1}, p_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right), \ldots \in\left(S \times P \times \Gamma^{*}\right)^{\omega}$ as follows.

- $s_{0}$ is the initial state of $G, p_{0}$ is the initial state of $\mathcal{P}$, and $\alpha_{0}$ is the initial pushdown store content.
- For every $i \geq 0$ there exists some $a \in A c t$ such that $s_{i+1}$ is an $a$-successor of $s_{i}$ and if $\alpha_{i}=A \cdot \alpha$ then $\left(p_{i+1}, \beta\right) \in \delta\left(p_{i}, a, A\right)$ and $\alpha_{i+1}=\beta \cdot \alpha$.

A run $r$ is accepting if it satisfi es the acceptance condition. The graph $G$ is accepted by $\mathcal{P}$ if there is an accepting run on it. We denote by $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$ the set of all graphs that $\mathcal{P}$ accepts.

We use PD-NBP (pushdown nondeterministic Büchi path automata) as our specifi cation language. We say that a labeled transition graph $G$ satisfi es a PD-NBP $\mathcal{P}$, denoted $G \models \mathcal{P}$, if $\mathcal{P}$ accepts $G$.

Theorem 5.1 The model-checking problem for context-free systems and pushdown path automata is undecidable.

Proof: It is well known that the termination problem of a two-counter machine is undecidable [Min67]. We show that we can reduce the problem of whether a two-counter machine terminates to the problem of whether a context-free graph satisfi es a PD-NBP.

We first defi ne two-counter machines. A two counter machine is $M=\left\langle S, \mapsto, F_{a c c}, F_{r e j}\right\rangle$, where $S$ is a set of states, and $F_{a c c} \subseteq S$ and $F_{r e j} \subseteq S$ are disjoint sets of accepting and rejecting states, respectively. We assume that once $M$ reaches an accepting or rejecting state, it loops there forever. A configuration of $M$ is a triple $\left\langle s, c_{1}, c_{2}\right\rangle \in S \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, indicating the state of the machine and the values of the two counters. The transition function $\mapsto: S \times\{$ zero, not_zero $\} \times\{$ zero, not_zero $\} \rightarrow 2^{S \times\{\text { inc, }, \text { dec }, \text { idle }\} \times\{\text { inc, dec }, \text { idle }\}}$ maps a representation of a confi guration (where the values of the counters are replaced by flags indicating whether they are equal to zero) into possible transitions of the machine, where an action involves a move to a new state and possible updates (increase or decrease) to the counters. We write $\left(s, v_{1}, v_{2}\right) \mapsto\left(s^{\prime}, d_{1}, d_{2}\right)$ for $\left(s^{\prime}, d_{1}, d_{2}\right) \in \mapsto\left(s, v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$.

In order to simulate the two-counter machine by the context-free system and the PD-NBP, we use the state of the context-free system (a word in $V^{*}$ ) to maintain the value of the first counter, and we use the pushdown store of the PD-NBP to maintain the value of the second counter. In order to simulate the two counters, we have to be able to check whether each counter is zero or not, increase each counter, and decrease each counter. Handling of the second counter (maintained by the pushdown store of the path automaton) is straightforward: the path automaton can check whether its pushdown store is empty or not, can push one letter into the pushdown store, and can pop one letter from the pushdown store.

Handling of the first counter (maintained by the state of the context-free system) is a bit more complicated. The context-free system $\mathcal{S}$ has $V=\{a, \perp\}$, and its initial state is $\perp$. The rewrite rules of $\mathcal{S}$ are such that all the reachable states of $\mathcal{S}$ are in $a^{*} \cdot \perp$. The system $\mathcal{S}$ has fi ve possible actions (which are also read by the PD-NBP $\mathcal{P}$ ): push, pop, idle, empty_push, and empty_idle. From the state $\perp$, the system $\mathcal{S}$ may apply the actions empty_push and empty_idle, thus signaling to the specifi cation that its counter is zero. From a state in $V^{+} \cdot \perp$, the system $\mathcal{S}$ may apply the actions push, pop, or $i d l e$. The value of the first counter is simulated by the (number of $a$ 's in the) location of the PD-NBP $\mathcal{P}$ on the context-free graph. In order to apply a transition of $M$ from a confi guration in which the first counter equals zero, $\mathcal{P}$ tries to read the actions empty_push or empty_idle. In order to increase the first counter, $\mathcal{P}$ reads the action push (or empty_push). Decreasing the counter and leaving it unchanged is similar. The path automaton $\mathcal{P}$ memorizes the state of $M$ in its fin nite control. It accepts if it gets to an accepting state of $M$.

More formally, the context-free system is $\mathcal{S}=\langle\{a, \perp\}, A c t, T, \perp\rangle$, with $A c t$ as described above, and the following rewrite rules.

- $T($ empty_push $)=\langle\perp, a \perp\rangle$. Signal that the counter is zero and add $a$ to the state.
- $T($ empty_idle $)=\langle\perp, \perp\rangle$. Signal that the counter is zero and leave the state unchanged.
- $T($ push $)=\langle a, a a\rangle$. Signal that the counter is not zero and add $a$ to the state.
- $T(p o p)=\langle a, \epsilon\rangle$. Signal that the counter is not zero and remove $a$ from the state.
- $T($ idle $)=\langle a, a\rangle$. Signal that the counter is not zero and leave the state unchanged.

The path automaton $\mathcal{P}$ mimics the two-counter machine. Formally, $\mathcal{P}=\left\langle A c t,\{a\}, S, \delta, s_{0}, \perp, F_{a c c} \cup\right.$ $\left.F_{\text {rej }}\right\rangle$, where the transition function $\delta$ is induced by the transition relation $\mapsto$ of $M$ as follows. If $\left(s, v_{1}, v_{2}\right) \mapsto$ $\left(s^{\prime}, d_{1}, d_{2}\right)$ then $\left(s^{\prime}, \alpha\right) \in \delta(s, a, A)$, where

- If $v_{1}=$ empty, then $a \in\{$ empty_push, empty_idle $\}$. Otherwise, $a \in\{p u s h, p o p, i d l e\}$.
- If $v_{2}=e m p t y$, then $A=\perp$. Otherwise $A=a$.
- If $d_{1}=$ inc then $a \in\{$ empty_push,push $\}$, if $d_{1}=$ dec then $a=$ pop, and if $d_{1}=$ idle then $a \in\left\{e m p t y \_i d l e, i d l e\right\}$.
- If $d_{2}=i n c$, then $\alpha \in\{a a, a \perp\}$, if $d_{2}=d e c$, then $\alpha=\epsilon$, and if $d_{2}=i d l e$, then $\alpha \in\{a, \perp\}$.

It is not too diffi cult to see that $G_{\mathcal{S}} \models \mathcal{P}$ iff $M$ terminates.

We note that path automata are indeed weaker than tree automata. Indeed, a PD-NBT can simulate a PDNBP by sending copies in accepting sinks to all directions but the direction to which the PD-NBP chooses to go. It follows that the model checking problem for context-free systems and PD-NPT is also undecidable.

## 6 Conclusions

We consider the model-checking problem for specifi cations given by pushdown tree automata. We describe an exponential-time algorithm for model checking a fi nite-state system with respect to a PD-NPT. The algorithm consists of a reduction to the emptiness problem of PD-NPT. The best upper bound known for the emptiness problem is triple exponential, and we improved it to a single exponential. We also show that model checking a context-free system with respect to a PD-NPT specifi cation is undecidable.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ There is a slight technical diffi culty as in our formalism PD-NPT run on trees with a uniform branching degrees, while labeled transition graphs are not required to have a uniform outdegree. This diffi culty can be fi nessed by allowing automata on non-uniform trees, as, for example, in [KVW00].

