Verifying Recursive Active Documents with Positive Data Tree Rewriting

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Abstract

This paper considers a tree-rewriting framework for modeling documents evolving through service calls. We focus on the automatic verification of properties of documents that may contain data from an infinite domain. We establish the boundaries of decidability: while verifying documents with recursive calls is undecidable, we obtain decidability as soon as either documents are in the positive-bounded fragment (while calls are unrestricted), or when there is a bound on the number of service calls (bounded model-checking of unrestricted documents). In the latter case, the complexity is \textit{NexpTime}-complete. Our data tree-rewriting framework resembles Guarded Active XML, a platform handling XML repositories that evolve through web services. The model here captures the basic features of Guarded Active XML and extends it by node renaming and subtree deletion.

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1 Introduction

From static in house solutions, databases have become more and more open to the world, offering e.g., half-open access through web services. As usual for open systems, their design requires a careful static analysis process, helping to guarantee that no malicious client may take advantage of the system in a way for which the system was not designed. Static analysis of such systems very recently brought together two areas - databases, with emphasis on semi-structured XML data, and automated verification, with emphasis on model-checking infinite-state systems. Systems modeling dynamical evolution of data are pretty challenging for automated verification, as they involve feedback loops between semi-structured data, possibly with values from unbounded domains, and the workflow of services. If both topics have been studied extensively on its own, very few papers tackle decidability of algorithms when all aspects are present at the same time.

An interesting model emerged recently for handling XML repositories evolving through web services, namely Active XML (AXML) \cite{4}. These are XML documents that evolve dynamically, containing implicit data in form of embedded service calls. Services may be recursive, so the evolution of such documents is both non-deterministic and unbounded in time. A first paper analyzing the evolution of AXML documents considered \textit{monotonous} documents \cite{3}. With this restriction, as soon as a service is enabled in a document, then from this point on the service cannot be disabled and calling it can only extend the document. In particular, information can never be deleted. Recently, a workflow-oriented version of AXML was proposed in \cite{5}: the \textit{Guarded AXML} model (GAXML for short) adds guards
to service calls, thus controlling the possible evolution of active documents. Decidability in \( \text{co-2NexpTime} \) of static analysis for the recursion-free GAXML fragment w.r.t. a variant of LTL with data tree patterns as atomic formulas was established in [5]. Static analysis is more complex in [5], due to the presence of unbounded data. The crucial restriction needed for decidability is a uniform bound on the number of possible service calls. Compared to [3], service invocation can terminate, and more importantly, negative guards can be used. But still, deletion of data is not possible. Finally, the GAXML model relies on a rather involved semantics of service calls.

In this work, our aim is twofold. First, we aim at embedding and extending the GAXML model in a simpler framework based on tree rewriting. Our model DTPRS (data tree pattern rewriting systems) uses the same basic ingredients as GAXML, which are tree patterns for guards and queries. However, our formalism allows to describe several possible effects of a service call: materialization of implicit data like in GAXML, but also deletion and modification of existing document parts. This model is a simplified version of the TPRS model proposed in [15], but in this setting it can additionally handle unbounded data.

Our second, and main objective is to get decidability of static analysis of DTPRS without relying on a bound on the number of service calls. For doing that, we use a technique that emerged in the verification of particular infinite-state systems such as Petri nets and lossy channel systems. The main concept is known in verification as well-structured transition systems (WSTS for short) [1, 13]. WSTSs are one example for infinite-state systems where (potentially) infinite sets of states can be represented (and effectively manipulated) symbolically in a finite way.

Our basic objects are data trees, i.e., trees with labels from an infinite domain. We view data trees as graphs, and define in a natural way a quasi-order on such graphs. Then we show that a uniform bound on the length of simple paths in such graphs, together with positive guards, makes DTPRS well-structured systems [1, 13]. As a technical tool we use here tree decompositions of graphs. In a nutshell we trade here recursion against positiveness, since considering both leads to undecidable static analysis. We show that for positive-bounded DTPRS, termination and tree pattern reachability are both decidable. On the negative side, we show that the verification of very simple Tree-LTL properties is undecidable even for positive-bounded DTPRS. On the positive side, the decidability result for pattern reachability can be extended to the verification of existential positive Tree-LTL properties. We then consider the type-checking problem, another static analysis problem, and show its Co-NexpTime-completeness for arbitrary DTPRS. Finally, we show that bounded model-checking of arbitrary DTPRS is NexpTime-complete.

Related work: Verification of web services often ignores unbounded data (c.f. e.g. [17, 14]). On the other hand, several data-driven workflow process models have been proposed. Document-driven workflow was proposed in [20]. Artifact-based workflow was outlined in [16], in which artifacts are used to represent key business entities, including both their data and life cycles. An early line of results involving data establishes decidability boundaries for the verification of temporal (first-order based) properties of a data-driven workflow processes, based on a relational data model [11, 10, 12]. This approach has been recently extended to the artifact-based model [9].

On the verification side, there is a rich literature on the verification of well-structured infinite transition systems [1, 13], ranging from faulty communication systems [7] to programs manipulating dynamic data [2] (citing only a few recent contributions). The latter work is one of the few examples where well-quasi-order on graphs is used.

Organization of the paper: In the next section, we fix some definitions and notations, then
define the DTPRS model. In Section 3 we show that analysis of DTPRS with recursive DTD or negated tree patterns is undecidable. In Section 4 we define positive-bounded DTPRS and prove our decidability results. Then in Section 5, we show the undecidability of the verification of simple Tree-LTL properties and the decidability of existential positive Tree-LTL properties for positive-bounded DTPRS. In Section 6, we consider the type-checking problem for DTPRS and show its $\text{Co-NexpTime}$ completeness. Finally in Section 7, we consider bounded model-checking problem for DTPRS and show its $\text{NexpTime}$-completeness.

2 Definitions and notations

In this paper, documents are labeled, unranked, unordered trees. We fix a finite alphabet $\Sigma$ (with symbols $a, b, c, \ldots$, called tags) and an infinite data domain $\mathcal{D}$ (with symbols $d, \ldots$). A data tree (see Figure 1) is a (rooted) tree $T$ with nodes labeled by $\Sigma \cup \mathcal{D}$. A data tree $T$ can be represented as a tuple $T = (V, E, \text{root}, \ell)$, with labeling function $\ell : V \to \Sigma \cup \mathcal{D}$. Internal nodes are $\Sigma$-labeled, whereas leaves are $(\Sigma \cup \mathcal{D})$-labeled. We also fix a (finite) set of variables $X$ (with symbols $X, Y, Z, \ldots$) that will take values in $\mathcal{D}$, and use $*$ as special symbol standing for any tag. Let $T$ denote the set $\Sigma \cup X \cup \{\ast\}$.

![Figure 1](image)

Figure 1: A document for a library system: The reader M2036 borrows a book with identifier 826312 from the library, and has capacity 4, namely he or she is able to borrow at most 4 other books.

We now introduce the different components used in our rewriting rules: data tree patterns to locate and specify a pattern of the document, data constraints to express data equalities and inequalities, data tree pattern queries to extract information from a document.

A data constraint is a Boolean combination of relations $X = Y$, with $X, Y \in X$. A data tree pattern (DTP) $P = (V, E, \text{root}, \ell, \tau, \text{cond})$ is a (rooted) $T$-labeled tree $(V, E, \text{root}, \ell)$, together with an edge-labeling function $\tau : E \to \{\mid, \mid\}$ and a data constraint $\text{cond}$. Edges that are $\mid$-labeled denote child edges, and $\mid\mid$-labeled edges denote descendant ones. Internal nodes are $\Sigma$-labeled, whereas leaves are $(\Sigma \cup \mathcal{D})$-labeled. We also fix a (finite) set of variables $X$ (with symbols $X, Y, Z, \ldots$) that will take values in $\mathcal{D}$, and use $*$ as special symbol standing for any tag. Let $T$ denote the set $\Sigma \cup X \cup \{\ast\}$.

For simplicity we disallow here explicit data constants $X = d$ ($d \in \mathcal{D}$): they can be simulated by tags from $\Sigma$. 

We use Boolean combinations of (relative) DTPs as rule guards. DTPs in a Boolean combination are matched independently of each other, except that nodes designated by self...
must be matched to the same node of $T$. Boolean operators are interpreted by the standard meaning.

A data tree pattern query (DTPQ) is of the form $\text{body} \rightsquigarrow \text{head}$, with $\text{body}$ a DTP and $\text{head}$ a tree such that

- the internal nodes of $\text{head}$ are labeled by $\Sigma$ and its leaves are labeled by $(\Sigma \cup D \cup X)$,
- every variable occurring in $\text{head}$ also occurs in $\text{body}$,
- there is at least one variable occurring in $\text{head}$, i.e., at least one leaf of $\text{head}$ is labeled by $X$ (i.e., $\text{head}$ is not a constant tree).

Let $T$ be a data tree and $Q = \text{body} \rightsquigarrow \text{head}$ be a DTPQ. The evaluation result of $Q$ over $T$ is the forest $Q(T)$ of all instantiations of $\text{head}$ by matchings from $\text{body}$ to $T$. For example, the DTPQ $P \rightsquigarrow \text{head}$ with $P$ given by Figure 2 and $\text{head}$ consisting of a unique node labeled by $Y$, returns a forest consisting of one-node trees labeled by identifiers of books which are borrowed by readers with capacity 4. A relative DTPQ is defined like a DTPQ, except that its $\text{body}$ is a relative DTP. A relative DTPQ $Q$ is evaluated on a pair $(T, v)$. The result of $Q(T, v)$ is defined as above, except that matchings of $\text{body}$ must map node self to $v$. For instance, the relative DTPQ $P \rightsquigarrow \text{head}$ where the reader node is labeled self will return a forest of one-node trees labeled by identifiers of books which are borrowed by a particular reader with capacity 4 designated by self.

Similar to GAXML, data tree rewriting rules are guarded by (Boolean combinations of) DTPs and they can add information to a tree via queries. In addition, our rules can rename tags and delete nodes, together with their subtrees. Each rule comes along with a context called locator, that also describes all the operations related to a rewriting step. A locator $L$ is a relative DTP with additional labels $\text{append}$, $\text{del}$, and $\text{ren}_a (a \in \Sigma)$. The meaning of these labels is to add information ($\text{append}$), delete a node and its subtree ($\text{del}$) and rename a tag into a ($\text{ren}_a$). Labels $\text{append}$ and $\text{ren}_a$ are not exclusive. They are restricted to be attached to nodes of $L$ that are labeled by $\Sigma \cup \{\ast\}$. Label $\text{del}$ can be attached to any node. We assume that all descendants in $L$ of a node with $\text{del}$ are also labeled by $\text{del}$, and that nodes labeled by $\text{del}$ cannot be labeled by $\text{append}$ or $\text{ren}_a$.

A data tree pattern rewriting rule (DTP rule for short) $R$ is a tuple $(L, G, Q, F, \chi)$ with:

- $L$ is a locator,
The injectivity of the matching (the rule graph has $\Sigma$ as vertex set and edges $(a,b)$) and let combinations above are positive. A non-recursive any data value), and $k \mid \Sigma$.

The syntax of trees. It is defined as a tuple $(\Sigma_r, P)$ such that $\Sigma_r$ is the set of allowed root labels, and $P$ is a finite set of rules $a \rightarrow \psi$ such that $a \in \Sigma$ and $\psi$ is a Boolean combination of inequalities of the form $|b| \geq k$, where $b \in \Sigma \cup \{\text{dom}\}$ (dom is a symbol standing for any data value), and $k$ is a non-negative integer. A positive DTD is one where the Boolean combinations above are positive. A non-recursive DTD is one where the rule graph is acyclic (the rule graph has $\Sigma$ as vertex set and edges $(a,b)$ for every $a,b$ such that $b$ occurs in a $a \rightarrow \psi$). For $\Delta \equiv (\tau, \text{inv})$ we write $T \models \Delta$ for a data tree $T$ satisfying both $\tau$ and $\text{inv}$.

An example of a DTP rule for a reader of capacity 5 to borrow a book from a library is illustrated in Figure 3, including the locator $L$ and $F = \{F\}$.

We first describe the semantics of DTP rules informally. First, the locator is mapped against the data tree in a non-deterministic way. Then, queries are evaluated, thus determining the information that will possibly enhance the tree using the append-labels in the locator. Deletion and renaming are performed as expected. The resulting data tree must satisfy the static invariant $\Delta$.

We now define the semantics formally. Let $T = (V, E, \text{root}, \ell)$ be a data tree with $T \models \Delta$, and let $R = (L, G, Q, F, \chi)$ be a DTP rule.

Let $\mu$ be an injective matching from $L$ to $T$. Let $\nu$ be the assignment of data values to variables in $L$ such that $\nu(X) = \ell(\mu(v))$ for every $v$ labeled by $X \in X$ in $L$.

For each variable $X \in X$ we denote its evaluation as $X(T)$, with $X(T) = \nu(X)$ if defined, and $X(T)$ a fresh data value otherwise. Here a fresh data value is a data value which does not appear in $T$. Furthermore, it is required that all the new variables of $R$, i.e. variables occurring in $F$, but not in $L$, should take mutually distinct fresh values. For each forest $F \in F$, we denote its evaluation by $F(T)$, by replacing labels $Q \in Q$ by $Q(T)$ and labels $X \in X$ by $X(T)$. Recall that all queries $Q \in Q$ are evaluated relatively to $\mu(\text{self})$.

A data tree $T'$ is obtained from $T$ by
- deleting subtrees rooted at nodes $\mu(v)$ whenever $v$ is labeled by $\text{del}$ in $L$,
- changing the tag of a node $\mu(v)$ to $a$ whenever $v$ is labeled by $\text{ren}_a$ in $L$,
- appending $F(T)$ as a subforest of nodes $\mu(v)$ whenever $v$ is labeled by $\text{append}$ in $L$ and $\chi(v) = F$,
- every other node of $T$ keeps its tag or data.

The rule $R$ is enabled on data tree $T$ if there exists an injective matching $\mu$ of $L$ into $T$ such that (1) the guard $G$ is true on $(T, \mu(v))$ with $v$ labeled by $\text{self}$ in $L$, and (2) there is a data tree $T'$, obtained from $T$ and $\mu$ by the operations specified above, satisfying $T' \models \Delta$.

Let $T \rightarrow^R T'$ denote the transition from $T$ to $T'$ using DTP rule $R \in R$.

Remark. 1. The injectivity of the matching $\mu$ ensures that the outcome of a rewriting step is well-defined. In particular, no two nodes with label $\text{del}$ and $\text{append}$ (or $\text{ren}_a$),
resp., can be mapped to the same node in the data tree. Notice that mappings used for
guards or queries may be non-injective.

2. For the new variables occurring in $F$, but not in $L$, we choose mutually distinct fresh
values. We could have chosen arbitrary values instead, and enforce that they are fresh
and mutually distinct \textit{a posteriori} using the data invariant $\text{inv}$. In this case, $\text{inv}$ needs
negation. The $\text{inv}$ (or the locator) can be also used to enforce that the (arbitrarily)
chosen values already occur in $T$. This kind of invariant would be positive.

3. In our definition of DTP rules, it might appear that guards are redundant w.r.t. the
locator. However, this is not the case in general, e.g. in the situation that guards include
disjunctions or negations of DTPs.

Given a DTPRS $(\mathcal{R}, \Delta)$, let $T \rightarrow T'$ denote the union of $T \xrightarrow{R} T'$ for some $R \in \mathcal{R}$,
and $T \xrightarrow{} T'$ (or $T \xrightarrow{} T'$) denote the transitive (or reflexive and transitive) closure of
$T \rightarrow T'$. Moreover, let $T_R^+(T)$ denote the set of trees that can be reached from a data tree
$T$ by rewriting with DTP rules from $\mathcal{R}$, i.e. $T_R^+(T) = \{ T' \mid T \xrightarrow{} T' \}$. For a set of data
trees $I$, let $T_R^+(I)$ be the union of $T_R^+(T)$, for $T \in I$.

We are interested in the following questions, given a DTPRS $(\mathcal{R}, \Delta)$:

- \textit{Pattern reachability}: Given a DTP $P$ and a set of initial trees\footnote{We require that every tree in $\text{Init}$ satisfies $\Delta$.} $\text{Init}$, given as the conjunction of a DTD and a Boolean combination of DTPs, is there some
$T \in T_R^+(\text{Init})$ such that $P$ matches $T$?

- \textit{Termination}: Given an initial data tree $T_0$, are all runs (rewriting paths) $T_0 \rightarrow T_1 \rightarrow \cdots$ starting from $T_0$ finite?

The reason for the fact that termination of DTPRS is defined above w.r.t. a single initial
data tree is that termination from a set of initial trees is already undecidable without data
(see Proposition 3).

3 Undecidability

As one might expect, the analysis of DTPRS is quickly undecidable – and sometimes already
without using any unbounded data. The proof of the proposition below is obtained by a
straightforward simulation of 2-counter machines.

\textbf{Proposition 1.} Both pattern reachability and termination for DTPRS $(\mathcal{R}, \Delta)$ are undeci-
dable whenever one of the following holds:
1. the DTD in $\Delta$ is recursive,
2. either guards in $\mathcal{R}$ or the invariant $\Delta$ contain negated DTPs.

The above result holds already without data.

The next result shows that with data, we can relax both conditions above and still get
undecidability of DTPRS. The main idea is to use data for creating long horizontal paths
(although trees are supposed to be unordered). Such horizontal paths can be obtained
e.g. with a tree of depth 2, with each subtree (of the root) containing three nodes, a node
plus its two children labeled respectively by data values $d_i, d_{i+1}$. Assuming all data values
$d_i$ are distinct (and distinguishing $d_1$), then a linear order on these subtrees is obtained.

\textbf{Theorem 2.} Both pattern reachability and termination are undecidable for DTPRS $(\mathcal{R}, \Delta)$
such that (1) the DTD in $\Delta$ is non-recursive and (2) all DTPs from guards in $\mathcal{R}$ and the
invariant $\Delta$ are positive.
We end this section with a remark on the undecidability of termination from an initial set of trees. First we notice that—already without data—DTPRS can simulate so-called reset Petri nets [15]. These are Petri nets (or equivalently, multi-counter automata without zero test) with additional transitions that can reset places (equivalently, counters) to zero. They can be represented by trees of depth 2, where nodes at depth one represent places, and their respective number of children (leaves) is the number of tokens on that place. A DTPRS (without data) can easily simulate increments, decrements and resets (using deletion in DTPRS). It is known that so-called structural termination and their respective number of children (leaves) is the number of tokens on that place.

Moreover, fresh data values (for the new variables in DTP rules) can be used to allow the data value inequality is $K$ by

\[ v \leq d \].

It follows from Proposition 3 that termination from an initial set of trees, namely to a last restriction, called simple-path bounded: there exists $K > 0$ such that for any $T_0 \in Init$, the length of any simple path in any $T \in T_R', \Delta$ is bounded by $K$.

Notice that the third condition above implies that all data trees have depth bounded by $K$. So we always assume that $B \leq K$. Notice also that in positive-bounded DTPRS, the data value inequality is allowed in DTPs, that is, we can state that two data values are different. Moreover, fresh data values (for the new variables in DTP rules) can be used to model some conceptually negative data constraints, like for instance key properties. Notice also that there is no restriction on the DTD of the initial set $Init$. However, since the DTD in the invariant $\Delta$ is positive, “at most”-constraints must be ensured via the rewriting rules.

4 Positive-bounded DTPRS

In this section we consider positive-bounded DTPRS, a fragment of DTPRS for which we show that pattern reachability and termination are decidable.

From Proposition 1, we know that in order to get decidability, the DTD in the static invariant $\Delta$ must be non-recursive. For a non-recursive DTD, there is some $B$ such that every tree satisfying the DTD has depth bounded by $B$. In the following, we assume the existence of such a bound $B$. Also from Proposition 1, we know that for obtaining decidability we need to restrict ourselves to positive guards and positive data invariants.

However, from Theorem 2, we know that these restrictions alone do not suffice to achieve decidability. We also need to disallow long linear orders created by data. For this, we introduce a last restriction, called simple-path bounded, which is defined in the following.

Let $T = (V, E, \text{root}, \ell)$ be a data tree. The graph $G(T)$ associated with $T$ is the undirected graph obtained from $T$ by merging all the nodes labeled by the same $d \in D$ into a single node $d$. Formally, $G(T) = (V', E')$, where $V' = \{v \in V \mid \ell(v) \in \Sigma\} \cup \{(v, w) \mid v \in V, \ell(w) \in D\}$ and $E' = \{(v, w) \mid \ell(v), \ell(w) \in \Sigma, (v, w) \in E\} \cup \{(v, d) \mid \ell(v) \in \Sigma, \exists w \text{ s.t. } (v, w) \in E, \ell(w) = d\}$. A simple path of $T$ is a simple path in $G(T)$, i.e. a sequence of vertices $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ in $G(T)$ such that for all $i \neq j$, $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\} \in E'$ and $v_i \neq v_j$. The length of a path $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ is $n - 1$.

Formally, a DTPRS $(R, \Delta)$ is positive-bounded with set of initial trees $Init$, if:

- **non-recursive-DTD:** the DTD in the static invariant $\Delta$ is non-recursive. In particular, trees satisfying the DTD have depth bounded by some $B > 0$.
- **positive:** all guards in $R$ and the data invariant in $\Delta$ are positive Boolean combinations of DTPs. The DTD in $\Delta$ is positive as well.
- **simple-path bounded:** there exists $K > 0$ such that for any $T_0 \in Init$, the length of any simple path in any $T \in T_R'(T_0)$, is bounded by $K$.

We show in Section 4.1 that the following question is undecidable: Given a DTPRS $(R, \Delta)$, is there some tree $T_0$ satisfying $\Delta$ and an infinite computation $T_0 \rightarrow T_1 \rightarrow \cdots$ in $(R, \Delta)$? This holds already for non-recursive DTD in $\Delta$ and without data constraints in DTPs.
The library example illustrated in Figure 1 includes DTP rules for book borrowing (Figure 3) and returning, the registration of new books and new readers (where fresh data values can be used to guarantee that the rid and bid are “keys”), and the deletion of reader accounts. It is easy to notice that the library example satisfies the first 2 conditions above. It is also the case for the third condition. Indeed, all simple paths are bounded by 7: A longest path is for instance: library - book - rid - M2036 - rid - reader - capacity - 4. Notice that the bound still holds even if the capacity of a reader is unbounded.

The rest of the section is devoted to the proof of the following result:

\textbf{Theorem 4.} Given a positive-bounded DTPRS \((\mathcal{R}, \Delta)\), pattern reachability and termination are both decidable.

We prove Theorem 4 by using the framework of well-structured transition systems (WSTS) [1, 13], which has been applied to DTPRS without data in [15]. We recall briefly some definitions. A WSTS is a triple \((S, \rightarrow, \preceq)\) such that \(S\) is an (infinite) state space, \(\preceq\) is a well-quasi-ordering\(^3\) (wqo for short) on \(S\), and \(\rightarrow\) is the transition relation on \(S\). It is required that \(\rightarrow\) is compatible w.r.t. \(\preceq\): for any \(s, t, s' \in S\) with \(s \rightarrow t\) and \(s \preceq s'\), there exists \(t' \in S\) such that \(s' \rightarrow t'\) and \(t \preceq t'\).

Let \(T_{B,K}\) denote the set of data trees whose depths are bounded by \(B\) and lengths of simple paths are bounded by \(K\). From the definition of positive-bounded DTPRS, we know that \(T_{B,K}(\text{Init}) \subseteq T_{B,K}\). In the following, we prove Theorem 4 by defining a binary relation \(\preceq\) on \(T_{B,K}\) and showing that \((T_{B,K}, \rightarrow, \preceq)\) is a WSTS.

### 4.1 Well-structure of positive-bounded DTPRS

We define a binary relation \(\preceq\) on \(T_{B,K}\) as follows. Let \(T_1 = \langle V_1, E_1, \text{root}_1, \ell_1 \rangle, T_2 = \langle V_2, E_2, \text{root}_2, \ell_2 \rangle \in T_{B,K}\), then \(T_1 \preceq T_2\) if there is an injective mapping \(\phi\) from \(V_1\) to \(V_2\) such that

- root preservation: \(\phi(\text{root}_1) = \text{root}_2\),
- parent-child relation preservation: \((v_1, v_2) \in E_1\) iff \((\phi(v_1), \phi(v_2)) \in E_2\),
- tag preservation: \(\ell_1(v) \in \Sigma\), then \(\ell_1(v) = \ell_2(\phi(v))\),
- data value (in)equality preservation: \(v_1, v_2 \in V_1\) and \(\ell_1(v_1), \ell_1(v_2) \in D\), then \(\ell_2(\phi(v_1)), \ell_2(\phi(v_2)) \in D\), and \(\ell_1(v_1) = \ell_1(v_2)\) iff \(\ell_2(\phi(v_1)) = \ell_2(\phi(v_2))\).

It is easy to see that \(\preceq\) is reflexive and transitive, so it is a quasi-order. In the following, we first assume that \(\preceq\) is a wqo on \(T_{B,K}\) and show that \(\rightarrow\) is compatible with \(\preceq\), in order to prove Theorem 4. We show in Section 4.2 that \(\preceq\) is indeed a wqo: for any infinite sequence of data trees \(T_0, T_1, \ldots \in T_{B,K}\), there are \(i < j\) such that \(T_i \preceq T_j\).

\textbf{Proposition 5.} Let \((\mathcal{R}, \Delta)\) be a positive-bounded DTPRS. Let \(T_1, T'_1, T_2 \in T_{B,K}\), \(T_1 \xrightarrow{R} T_2\) for some \(R \in \mathcal{R}\), and \(T_1 \preceq T'_1\). Then there exists \(T'_2 \in T_{B,K}\) such that \(T'_1 \xrightarrow{R} T'_2\) and \(T_2 \preceq T'_2\).

Consequently, in the positive-bounded fragment \(\rightarrow\) is compatible w.r.t. \(\preceq\) in \(T_{B,K}\), thus \((T_{B,K}, \rightarrow, \preceq)\) is a WSTS.

In addition, it can be shown that \((T_{B,K}, \rightarrow, \preceq)\) satisfies some additional computability conditions which are needed to show the decidability of pattern reachability and termination, namely, effectiveness of pred-basis for pattern reachability and effectiveness of successor relation for termination. With these computability conditions, Theorem 4 then follows from the properties of WSTS (c.f. Theorem 3.6 and Theorem 4.6 in [13]).

\(^3\) A wqo \(\preceq\) is a reflexive, transitive and well-founded relation with no infinite antichain.
4.2 Well-quasi-ordering for data trees

In order to prove that $\preceq$ is a wqo over $\mathcal{T}_{B,K}$, we first represent a data tree $T$ as a (labeled) undirected graph $G_\ell(T)$, then we encode $G_\ell(T)$ into a tree (without data) of bounded depth using the concept of tree decompositions. Define a binary relation $\preceq$ on labeled trees (without data) of bounded depth as follows: $T_1 \preceq T_2$ if there is an injective mapping from $T_1$ to $T_2$ preserving the root, the tags, and the parent-child relation. It is known that $\preceq$ is a wqo on labeled trees of bounded depth without data [15].

Let $\mathcal{G}_K$ be the set of labeled graphs with the lengths of all simple paths bounded by $K$. In the following, we show that $\preceq$ on $\mathcal{T}_{B,K}$ corresponds to the induced subgraph relation (formally defined later) on $\mathcal{G}_K$, and the fact that $\preceq$ is a wqo for labeled trees of bounded depth implies that the induced subgraph relation is a wqo on $\mathcal{G}_K$.

Given a data tree $T = (V, E, \text{root}, \ell) \in \mathcal{T}_{B,K}$, the labeled undirected graph representation $G_\ell(T)$ of $T$ is obtained from $G(T)$, the graph associated to $T$, by adding labels encoding information of data tree nodes (tag, depth ...). Formally, $G_\ell(T)$, is a $((\Sigma \times [B+1]) \cup \{\$\})$-labeled (where $[B+1] = \{0, 1, \ldots, B\}$) undirected graph $(V', E', \ell')$ defined as follows,

- $V' = \{v \in V \mid \ell(v) \in \Sigma\} \cup \{\ell(v) \mid v \in V, \ell(v) \in \mathcal{D}\}$,
- $E' = \{(v, w) \mid \ell(v) \in \Sigma, v, w \in E\} \cup \{(v, d) \mid \ell(v) \in \Sigma, \exists w, (v, w) \in E, \ell(w) = d\}$.

Let $\ell(v) \in \Sigma$, then $\ell'(v) = (\ell(v), i)$. In addition, $\ell'(d) = \$ \text{ for each } d \in V' \cap \mathcal{D}$.

Let $\Sigma_G$ denote $((\Sigma \times [B+1]) \cup \{\$\})$. For $\Sigma_G$-labeled graphs, we define the induced subgraph relation as follows. Let $G_1 = (V_1, E_1, \ell_1), G_2 = (V_2, E_2, \ell_2)$ be two $\Sigma_G$-labeled graphs, then $G_1$ is an induced subgraph of $G_2$ (denoted $G_1 \subseteq G_2$) iff there is an injective mapping $\phi$ from $V_1$ to $V_2$ such that

- label preservation: $\ell_1(v_1) = \ell_2(\phi(v_1))$ for any $v_1 \in V_1$,
- edge preservation: let $v_1, v'_1 \in V_1$, then $\{v_1, v'_1\} \in E_1$ iff $\{\phi(v_1), \phi(v'_1)\} \in E_2$.

From the definition of the labeled graph representation of data trees, it is not hard to show that the induced subgraph relation $\subseteq$ corresponds to the relation $\preceq$ on data trees.

\textbf{Proposition 6.} Let $T_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{T}_{B,K}$, then $T_1 \preceq T_2$ iff $G_\ell(T_1) \subseteq G_\ell(T_2)$.

Now we show how to encode any $\Sigma_G$-labeled graph belonging to $\mathcal{G}_K$ into a labeled tree of bounded depth by using tree decompositions.

Let $G = (V, E, \ell)$ be a connected $\Sigma_G$-labeled graph, then a tree decomposition of $G$ is a quadruple $T = (U, F, r, \theta)$ such that:

- $(U, F, r)$ is a tree with the domain $U$, the parent-child relation $F$, and the root $r \in U$,
- $\theta : U \to 2^V$ is a labeling function attaching each node $u \in U$ a set of vertices of $G$,
- For each edge $\{v, w\} \in E$, there is a node $u \in U$ such that $\{v, w\} \subseteq \theta(u)$,
- For each vertex $v \in V$, the set of nodes $u \in U$ such that $v \in \theta(u)$ constitutes a connected subgraph of $T$.

The sets $\theta(v)$ are called the bags of the tree decomposition. The depth of a tree decomposition $T = (U, F, r, \theta)$ is the depth of the tree $(U, F, r)$ and the width of $T$ is defined as $\max\{|\theta(u)| - 1 \mid u \in U\}$. The tree-width of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is the minimum width of tree decompositions of $G$. For a tree decomposition of width $K$ of a graph $G$, without loss of generality, we assume that each bag is given by a sequence of vertices of length $K + 1$, $v_0, \ldots, v_K$, with possible repetitions, i.e. possibly $v_i = v_j$ for some $i \neq j$ (tree decompositions in this form are sometimes called ordered tree decompositions).

\textbf{Theorem 7.} ([19, 6]) If $G \in \mathcal{G}_K$, then $G$ has a tree decomposition with both depth and width bounded by $K$.
Now we describe how to encode labeled graphs by trees using tree decompositions.

Let $G = (V, E, \ell) \in \mathcal{G}_K$ be a $\Sigma_G$-labeled graph, and $T = (U, F, r, \theta)$ be a tree decomposition of $G$ with width $K$ and depth at most $K$. Remember that each $\theta(u)$ is represented as a sequence of exactly $K + 1$ vertices, and $[K + 1] = \{0, \ldots, K\}$. Define

$$
\Sigma_{G,K} := (\Sigma_G)^{K+1} \times 2^{[K+1]^2} \times 2^{[K+1]^2} \times 2^{[K+1]^2}.
$$

We transform $T = (U, F, r, \theta)$ into a $\Sigma_{G,K}$-labeled tree $T' = (U, F, r, \eta)$, which encodes in a uniform way the information about $G$ (including edge relations and vertex labels).

\[ \eta : U \rightarrow \Sigma_{G,K} \]

is defined as follows. Let $\theta(u) = v_0 \ldots v_K$, then $\eta(u) = (\ell(v_0) \ldots \ell(v_K), \lambda)$, where $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3)$,

- $\lambda_1 = \{(i,j) \mid 0 \leq i,j \leq K, v_i = v_j\}$,
- $\lambda_2 = \{(i,j) \mid 0 \leq i,j \leq K, \{v_i, v_j\} \in E\}$,
- If $u = r$, then $\lambda_3 = \emptyset$, otherwise let $u'$ be the parent of $u$ in $T$ and $\theta(u') = v_0' \ldots v_K'$, then $\lambda_3 = \{(i,j) \mid 0 \leq i,j \leq K, v_i' = v_j\}$.

The encoding of labeled graphs into labeled trees establishes a connection between the wqo $\preceq$ of labeled trees and the induced subgraph relation ($\subseteq$) of labeled graphs.

\[ \text{Proposition 8.} \] Let $G_1, G_2$ be two $\Sigma_G$-labeled graphs with tree-width bounded by $K$, and $T_1, T_2$ be two tree decompositions of width $K$ of resp. $G_1, G_2$, then the two $\Sigma_{G,K}$-labeled trees $T'_1, T'_2$ obtained from $T_1, T_2$ satisfy that: If $T'_1 \preceq T'_2$, then $G_1 \preceq G_2$.

Now we are ready to show that $\preceq$ is a wqo for $\mathcal{T}_{B,K}$. Let $T_0, T_1, \ldots$ be an infinite sequence of data trees from $\mathcal{T}_{B,K}$. Consider the infinite sequence of $\Sigma_{G,K}$-labeled trees $T'_0, T'_1, \ldots$ obtained from the tree decompositions (with width $K$ and depth at most $K$) of graphs $G_\ell(T_0), G_\ell(T_1), \ldots$. Then there are $i, j : i < j$ such that $T'_i \preceq T'_j$, because $\preceq$ is a wqo for labeled trees of depth at most $K$. So $G_\ell(T_i) \preceq G_\ell(T_j)$ from Proposition 8, and $T_i \preceq T_j$ from Proposition 6. We thus prove following theorem.

\[ \text{Theorem 9.} \] $\preceq$ is a well-quasi-ordering over $\mathcal{T}_{B,K}$.

\section{5 Verification of temporal properties}

Until now we considered only two properties for static analysis: pattern reachability and termination. (Non-)reachability of a DTP can be expressed easily in Tree-LTL [5], which corresponds roughly to linear time temporal logics where atomic propositions are DTPs.

We show in this section that allowing for runs of unbounded length makes the validation of (even very simple) Tree-LTL properties undecidable, even without data:

\[ \text{Theorem 10.} \] It is undecidable whether a positive-bounded DTPRS satisfies a Tree-LTL formula $F\varphi$, where $\varphi$ is a positive Boolean combination of DTPs. This holds already without data.

The proof of Theorem 10 is by a reduction from the halting problem of two-counter machines. The idea is to simulate a two-counter machine by a positive bounded DTPRS ignoring the zero-tests, and describe them by a Tree-LTL formula $F\varphi$. The proof relies on the universal semantics of Tree-LTL, requiring that every run of the DTPRS satisfies the formula.

\[ \text{\footnote{Such formulas use actually free variables in patterns, which are then quantified universally. This is consistent with the approach of testing whether a model satisfies the negation of a formula.}} \]
If the existential semantics of Tree-LTL formulas is used instead, i.e. requiring that there is a run of the DTPRS satisfying a given Tree-LTL formula, then the problem is still undecidable if negations are available, since the negation of $F\varphi$ in the universal semantics is $G\neg\varphi$ in the existential semantics. If negations are also forbidden, then we get decidability:

\textbf{Proposition 11.} It is decidable whether a positive-bounded DTPRS satisfies a given positive existential Tree-LTL formula defined by the following rules,

$$\varphi ::= \text{true} \mid \text{false} \mid P \mid \varphi_1 \lor \varphi_2 \mid \varphi_1 \land \varphi_2 \mid X\varphi_1 \mid \varphi_1 U\varphi_2,$$

where $P$ is a DTP.

\section{Type-checking DTPRS}

This section shows that it can be checked statically whether DTP rules preserve the static invariant $\Delta = (\tau, \text{inv})$ consisting of a DTD $\tau$ and a data invariant $\text{inv}$.

Recall that in the definition of DTPRS, if $T \xrightarrow{R} T'$, then it is required that $T' \models \Delta$. Here we drop this requirement and consider the following type-checking problem.

\textbf{DTPRS Type-checking:} Given a DTPRS $(\mathcal{R}, \Delta)$ with a non-recursive DTD\(^5\), decide whether for each $T, T'$ and each DTP rule $R$ such that $T \models \Delta$ and $T \xrightarrow{R} T'$, it holds that $T' \models \Delta$.

\textbf{Theorem 12.} DTPRS type-checking is $\text{Co-NexpTime}$-complete.

The upper bound of Theorem 12 is shown by a small model argument. The lower bound follows from \cite{8}, that shows that satisfiability of DTPs on depth-bounded data trees relative to a DTD is $\text{NexpTime}$-hard.

\section{Bounded model-checking DTPRS}

In this section we consider bounded model-checking for DTPRS: Given a DTPRS $(\mathcal{R}, \Delta)$ with a non-recursive DTD\(^6\), a set of initial trees $\text{Init}$, a DTP $P$ and a bound $N$ (encoded in unary) we ask whether there is some $T_0$ satisfying $\text{Init}$ and some $T$ s.t. $P$ matches $T$ and $T_0 \xrightarrow{\leq N} T$. We have the following result:

\textbf{Theorem 13.} Bounded model-checking for DTPRS is $\text{NexpTime}$-complete.

Theorem 13 can be extended to bounded model-checking Tree-LTL properties. Bounded model-checking of a Tree-LTL formula $\varphi$ with a bound $N$ is the problem checking whether a counter-example for $\varphi$ can be obtained in at most $N$ rewriting steps. For instance, bounded model-checking for $G\neg P$ with a bound $N$ is to check whether the DTP $P$ can be reached in $\leq N$ steps.

The proof of Theorem 13 follows the similar line as the proof of $\text{Co-2NexpTime}$ completeness of model-checking Tree-LTL properties over recursion-free GAXML (\cite{5}): The upper-bound is shown by a (exponential) small-model property, and the lower-bound is shown by a simulation of the computations of $\text{NexpTime}$-Turing machines. The gap between

\text{5} If the DTD is recursive, then the problem is undecidable, since the satisfiability of Boolean combinations of DTPs over a recursive DTD is undecidable \cite{8}.

\text{6} The recursive DTD will quickly lead to undecidability, as argued for the type-checking problem.
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the \texttt{NexpTime} complexity above and the \texttt{Co-2NexpTime} complexity in [5] is essentially due to the unary encoding of the bound \(N\) for bounded model checking.

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**References**

A The simulation of GAXML by DTPRS

DTPRS resembles Guarded Active XML (GAXML) [5], and extends GAXML by allowing more flexible modification of XML documents, namely arbitrary relabeling and deletion. To illustrate how GAXML is simulated by DTPRS, we first recall the salient features of GAXML in the following.

GAXML incorporates into XML documents embedded function calls, whose call and return are guarded by a Boolean combination of tree patterns. In GAXML, function calls can be internal or external. More specifically, a GAXML system is a tuple $(\Phi_{\text{int}}, \Phi_{\text{ext}}, \Delta)$, where $\Phi_{\text{int}}$, $\Phi_{\text{ext}}$ are respectively a set of internal and external function calls, and $\Delta$ specifies the static constraints, including a DTD and a Boolean combination of DTPs (data invariant).

An internal function $f$ includes four components,

- a call guard which is a Boolean combination of (relative) DTPs,
- an argument query which is a (relative) DTP query,
- a return guard which is a Boolean combination of DTPs rooted at $a_f$,
- the return query which is a DTP query rooted at $a_f$.

External functions are similar to internal functions, except that the return guard and the return query are missing, thus external functions may return an arbitrary forest that is consistent with the static invariant $\Delta$. A (internal or external) function $f$ can be continuous or non-continuous, in the sense that if it is non-continuous, a call to $f$ is deleted once the result is returned, otherwise, the call is kept after the result is returned, so $f$ can be called again.

The call of an internal function $f$ at a node $n$ (labeled by !$f$) in GAXML goes as follows:

- If the call guard $G$ is satisfied, then the argument query $Q$ is evaluated. The evaluation result of $Q$ is a tree $T_f$ with the root labeled by $a_f$, stored temporarily into a workspace, and the node $n$ is relabeled into ?$f$.

Here is how a call of an internal function $f$ can be modeled in DTPRS: The associated DTP rule (see Figure 4) has the same guard $G$, the set of queries $Q = \{Q\}$, $\mathcal{F} = \{F_1, F_2\}$, and $\chi$ maps the !$f$-node to $F_2$ and the WS-node to $F_1$. Applying the DTP rule amounts to evaluating $Q$ to get the arguments of the call, writing them into the workspace WS, creating a fresh identifier $X$ that it copied both below WS and below the node with the function call (aka return address for $f$), and renaming !$f$ by ?$f$.

![Figure 4](image)

After a function $f$ is called, the function calls embedded in the tree $T_f$ in the workspace can be called before the return of $f$.

The return of an internal function $f$ at a node $n$ ($n$ is labeled by ?$f$) in GAXML goes as follows:

- If the return guard $G$ is satisfied over $T_f$ in the workspace, then evaluate the return query $Q$ of $f$ on $T_f$, and add the resulting forest as a sibling of the node $n$, remove $T_f$ from the workspace, and relabel $n$ by !$f$ if $f$ is continuous, otherwise remove $n$. 
Here is how a return of a continuous internal function $f$ can be simulated in DTPRS. The associated DTP rule (see Figure 5) has the same guard $G$, the set of queries $Q = \{Q\}$, $\mathcal{F} = \{F\}$, and $\chi$ maps the node labeled $append$ with $F$. This DTP rule locates where $T_f$ is in the workspace $WS$ using $X$, evaluates the return query $Q$ to get the return of the call, puts the result of the $Q$ as a sibling of $?f$, deletes the associated data in the workspace, as well as the identifier $X$, and renames $?f$ by $!f$.

![Figure 5](image.png) The DTP rule for the return of a continuous internal function

The rules for other kinds of functions are similar.

**B The library example**

A library system consists of a collection of books and a collection of readers. Each book and each reader have a unique identifier. The system includes the following five functionalities.

1. The reader can borrow at most 5 books from the library.
2. The reader can return the borrowed books to the library.
3. A new book can be registered into the library.
4. A new reader can register in the library and a new account with a unique identifier will be created.
5. The account of a reader can be deleted, if all the books borrowed by a reader have been returned (namely, the capacity is 5).

![Figure 6](image.png) A document for the library system: The reader M2036 borrows a book with identifier 826312 from the library, and has capacity 4, namely he or she is able to borrow at most 4 other books.

Notice that here for simplicity, we do not include the other information (e.g. names) about books and readers, neither put a bound (e.g. one month) on the time between borrowing and return of books. But the example presented here can be easily extended to take these into consideration.

The DTD of the library system is illustrated in Figure 6. Note that the capacity levels $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ are treated as the tags in $\Sigma$, instead of the data values in $\mathcal{D}$.

In the following, we present the DTPRS rules corresponding to the five functionalities.
1. There are five DTP rules borrow-\(i\) \((i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5)\) for a reader with capacity \(i\) to borrow a book from the library. The rule borrow-5 is illustrated in Figure 7, including the locator \(L\) and the \(F = \{F\}\): The state of the node “book” is renamed from “available” to “lent”, a tree \(F\) containing the identifier of the reader is appended as its subtree, and the capacity of the reader is decreased by renaming 5 into 4. The other borrow rules can be defined similarly.

![Figure 7 The rule borrow-5](image)

2. There are five DTP rules return-\(i\) \((i = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4)\) for a reader with capacity \(i\) to return a book to the library. The rule return-4 is illustrated in Figure 8: “lent” is renamed into “available”, the \(rid\) subtree is deleted, and the capacity of the reader is increased. The other return rules can be defined similarly.

![Figure 8 The rule return-4](image)

3. The DTP rule new-book (see Figure 9) adds a new book into the library, generating a unique identifier for it.

![Figure 9 The rule new-book](image)

4. The rule new-reader (see Figure 10) adds a new reader into the library, generating a unique identifier for it.

5. The rule del-reader (see Figure 11) checks whether the capacity of a reader is 5, if so, it deletes the account of the reader.

The initial document tree for the library system is a data tree containing no books and no readers. The books and readers can be added one by one into the library by DTP rules new-book and new-reader.

The library example is a positive bounded DTPRS with the length of simple paths bounded by 7: A longest path is for instance: library - book - rid - \(M2036\) - rid - reader - capacity - 4. Moreover, this holds even when the restriction that each reader can borrow at most a bounded number of books is dropped.
This section includes an example to model a MailOrder system for Play.com in DTPRS. For simplicity, we present only what happens on the Play.com peer, although we could also model client peers, bank peers etc. The Play.com example can be compared with the MailOrder example in [5]. Syntactically, GAXML uses guards and queries. Most of the time, guards and queries are very simple and can be encoded in the locator of DTP rules. In this case, we omit the self label in our rules. Unlike MailOrder example in [5], we can express deletion with DTPRS, and thus model the selection of the products in the cart (adding and deleting products), and also handle an inventory (how many items of a product remain - each time an item is added to a cart, it is also deleted from the inventory). More importantly, compared with the recursion-free decidable restriction of GAXML, we are able to represent the process of many customers ordering many different products in our decidable fragment.

On the Play.com peer, there are a product catalog, a customer catalog, a set of carts and a set of orders. The inventory is encoded in the product catalog: If there are three items of a product in the inventory, then there are three tokens as children of the product. Each cart is associated with a customer (at first anonymous, and he can later login in as a registered member). The cart is first in the select mode, which allows the associated customer to add/delete products. Then the customer can check out, the cart gathers the different prices for the products into a bill, and goes into the payment mode. When the customer pays, a corresponding order is created with a receipt, the customer is disconnected and the cart is deleted.

A simple example of a document of Play.com is illustrated in Figure 12. We represent a data value only when it is used by at least two different nodes.

Some key rewriting rules are described in the following. We only describe nontrivial components in these rules.

- An anonymous customer can connect to Play.com with the rule create-cart (Figure 13).
- An anonymous customer can login as a registered member with the rule login (Figure 14). As the customer peer is not modeled, we do not handle the check of a password, although it would not be a problem to do so in our framework.
- The rule Add-Product (Figure 15) checks the cart is in select mode and adds a new
Figure 12 A document of the Play.com system, where the registered customer Blaise has two items of the same product in his cart, with PId 9221. There is one additional product with PId 9221 left (there remains one token).

Figure 13 The rule create-cart

Figure 14 The rule login
product into the cart (and deletes a token from the inventory).

Figure 15 The rule Add-Product

The rule Delete-Product (Figure 16) deletes a product from the cart (and puts the token back).

Figure 16 The rule Delete-Product

The rule Check-out (Figure 17) checks whether the cart is nonempty and retrieves the prices of products in the cart into a bill through a query. It changes the mode of the cart from select to payment. Here $Q = body \rightarrow Y$ with body illustrated in the figure.

Figure 17 The rule Check-Out

The customer can pay with the rule Pay (Figure 18), and a corresponding order is created. For simplicity, it disconnects the customer, and transforms the cart into an order. The order contains the customer ID, an order ID (a fresh unique identifier), and the total price (sum of the prices of each items). As we model prices by data values and we do not use any arithmetics, the total price is a fresh data value. The only important thing is that this data value Total is the same as the one registered in the bank account, which we could check for equality (although we do not explicitly model the bank here). The order does not recall the individual PId of products since there will be no more products to put back in the inventory (and anyway the product can be later removed from the catalog).

The rule Add-member (Figure 19) allows a customer to register as a member. We do not specify the following rules here, which are easy to come up with: shipped, delivered, add product to catalog etc.

The Play.com example satisfies the first 2 conditions of the positive-bounded DTPRS. However, in general, the third condition is not satisfied. PIds can create a long path: a cart...
can be linked to a product, linked to another cart linked to another products etc. So the number of carts or the number of products needs to be bounded (unless a cart can contain at most one product). On the other hand, Name and Total are fresh data values, they cannot be used as links. At last, CId can be used in different carts and orders, but as a cart or order is associated to a unique customer, it cannot create long paths. More formally, if the system can handle only \( C \) active carts at a time (but the number of orders is unlimited), then the system has simple paths bounded by \( 12C + 7 \). If there are at most \( D \) different products in the catalog, then the system has simple paths bounded by \( 12D + 7 \). Finally, if each customer can have only one active cart at a time (but she can have many orders), and each cart has at most one product, then the system has simple paths bounded by 14.

\[\text{Figure 18} \] The rule Pay

\[\text{Figure 19} \] The rule Add-member

\[\text{D} \] Proofs in Section 3

**Proposition 1.** Both pattern reachability and termination for DTPRS \((R, \Delta)\) are undecidable whenever one of the following holds:

1. the DTD in \( \Delta \) is recursive,
2. either guards in \( R \) or the invariant \( \Delta \) contain negated DTPs.

The above result holds even without data.

**Proof.** In both cases we encode a 2-counter machine with counters \( C_1, C_2 \). In the first one, a configuration \((q, n_1, n_2) \in Q \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}\) is encoded by a tree with root labeled \( q \) and two subtrees, one of the form \( a^{n_1}a_q \), and the other of the form \( b^{n_2}b_k \). E.g. a zero test on the first counter corresponds to checking that the root has a child labeled \( a_q \). Decrementing the first counter in state \( q \) (and going to state \( q' \)) is done using the DTP rule (without data) illustrated in Figure 20.

With non-recursive DTDs we can encode a configuration \((q, n_1, n_2)\) by a tree of depth one, with root labeled by \( q \), and \( n_1 \) (\( n_2 \), resp.) leaves labeled by \( a \) (\( b \), resp.). The zero test is now done using a negative guard (e.g. "no \( a \)-leaf") or a negative invariant. In the latter case we split a transition in 2 steps: first we relabel the root by a transition from that state; second, we perform the corresponding rewriting as before. The invariant states that...
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\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Figure 20} & \quad \text{DTP rule for a transition in which the first counter is decremented} \\
q & \rightarrow n_{q'} \\
C_1 & \rightarrow n_{a_1} \\
a_1 & \rightarrow del \\
\end{align*}
\]

whenever the root is labeled by a transition corresponding to a zero test of counter \(C_1\) (resp. \(C_2\)), the tree has no \(a\)-leaf (resp. \(b\)-leaf).

Theorem 2. Both pattern reachability and termination are undecidable for DTPRS \((R, \Delta)\) such that (1) the DTD in \(\Delta\) is non-recursive and (2) all DTPs from guards in \(R\) and the invariant in \(\Delta\) are positive.

Proof. We reduce Post correspondence problem (PCP) first to pattern reachability. We may assume that our PCP instance \((u_i, v_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}\) is such that the following holds for every non-empty sequence \(i_1, \ldots, i_k\) of indices:

- Either \(U = u_{i_1} \cdots u_{i_k}, V = v_{i_1} \cdots v_{i_k}\) are incomparable, or \(V\) is a prefix of \(U\). In the latter case we call \((U, V)\) a partial solution.
- If \((U, V)\) and \((Uu_i, Vv_i)\) are partial solutions and \(U \neq V\), then either \(Uu_i = Vv_i\) or \(Vv_i\) is a prefix of \(U\).
- Every solution starts with with the pair \((u_1, v_1)\) and ends with \((u_n, v_n)\).

It is not hard to verify that the usual Turing machine reduction to PCP satisfies the restrictions above.

A partial solution \((U, V)\) with \(U = a_1 \cdots a_n, V = a_1 \cdots a_{m-1}\) will be represented by the data tree in Figure 21. In this data tree the leaves are labeled by data \(d_i\), with \(d_i \neq d_j\) for all \(i \neq j\). Moreover, notice that the last position has the special marker $, and the first position in \(U \setminus V\) has the special marker #.

\[
\text{Figure 21} \quad \text{data tree for the reduction of PCP to DTPRS}
\]

With each PCP pair \((u_i, v_i), i < n\), we associate DTPRS rules \(R_i = (L, G, Q, \mathcal{F}, \chi)\). For simplicity we describe below the locator \(L\) and the forest \(\mathcal{F}\) for \((u_i, v_i) = (aba, bb)\) (the guard \(G\) and the query set \(Q\) are both empty):

We need a rule \(R_i\) (see Figure 22) for each pair of tags \(c, d \in \Sigma\) (these are the tags at positions \(n\) and \(m+2\) in the example with \(|v_i| = 2\)). Notice that variable \(X_6\) occurs in both \(L\) and \(F(aba)\), whereas \(X_7, X_8, X_9\) will take fresh (and mutually distinct) values.

The pair \((u_n, v_n)\) has similar rules, except that we will not append any forest to the root, but rename the root with a special marker \(\sqrt{\cdot}\). The initial tree \(T_0\) is defined as expected,
from \((u_1, v_1)\). The PCP instance has a solution iff we can reach a data tree with root label √. Notice that all guards and the invariant are empty.

For termination we can modify the above proof in order to ensure that executions that do not correspond to partial solutions, are infinite. More precisely, if \(U, V\) as above is a partial solution, but \(Uu_i, Vv_i\) is not, then we use a DTP rule associated with \((u_i, v_i)\) that forces an infinite execution. In this way, termination will hold iff the PCP instance has a solution.

\section{Proofs in Section 4}

\subsection{Proof of Proposition 5}

**Proposition 5.** Let \(T_1, T'_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{T}_{B,K}, T_1 \xrightarrow{R} T_2\) for some \(R \in \mathcal{R}\), and \(T_1 \preceq T'_1\). Then there exists \(T'_2 \in \mathcal{T}_{B,K}\) such that \(T'_1 \xrightarrow{R} T'_2\) and \(T_2 \preceq T'_2\).

**Proof.** Let \(R = \langle L, G, Q, \mathcal{F}, \chi \rangle\). Taking an injective mapping \(\phi : T_1 \rightarrow T'_1\) preserving the root, parent-child relation, tag, and data (in)equality relation, and an injective matching \(\psi : L \rightarrow T_1\) satisfying the data constraint \(\text{cond}\) of \(L\), we have an injective matching \(\phi \circ \psi : L \rightarrow T'_1\) which respects the parent-child, tags and data (in)equality relation. Hence \(\text{cond}\) is satisfied by \(\phi \circ \psi\) too. As \(G\) is positive, if \(G\) is true at \(T_1\) w.r.t. \(\phi\), then it is true at \(T'_1\) w.r.t. \(\phi \circ \psi\) as well. Applying the rule \(R\) to \(T'_1\) w.r.t. \(\phi \circ \psi\), we get a tree \(T'_2\) such that \(T_2 \preceq T'_2\). As both the DTD and the data invariant in \(\Delta\) are positive and \(T_2\) fulfills \(\Delta\), so does \(T'_2\). Thus \(T'_1 \xrightarrow{R} T'_2\).

\subsection{Additional computability conditions for \(\langle \mathcal{T}_{B,K}, \longrightarrow, \preceq \rangle\)}

First consider pattern reachability. To get the decidability of this problem, from Theorem 3.6 in [13], we need to show that \(\langle \mathcal{T}_{B,K}, \longrightarrow, \preceq \rangle\) has effective pred-basis. A WSTS \((S, \longrightarrow, \preceq)\) has effective pred-basis if there exists an algorithm that computes for any state \(s \in S\) the finite basis \(\text{pb}(s)\) of the upward closed set \(\uparrow \text{Pred}(\uparrow s)\). Here, \(\uparrow I = \{s' \in \mathcal{S} \mid \exists s' \in I\ \text{s.t.} \ s \preceq s'\}\) denotes the upward closure of \(I\) w.r.t. \(\preceq\), and \(\text{Pred}(I) = \{s \in S \mid \exists t \in I, s \rightarrow t\}\) the set of immediate predecessors of states in \(I\). A basis of an upward-closed set \(I\) is a minimal set \(I^b\) such that \(I = \bigcup_{x \in I^b} \uparrow x\). Recall that whenever \(\preceq\) is a wqo, the basis \(I^b\) of an upward closed set \(I\) is finite.

\begin{itemize}
  \item \hspace{1em} **Proposition 14.** \(\langle \mathcal{T}_{B,K}, \longrightarrow, \preceq \rangle\) has effective pred-basis.
  
  **Proof.** It is sufficient to consider \(\min(\text{Pred}(\uparrow T))\), the set of minimal elements w.r.t. \(\preceq\) in \(\text{Pred}(\uparrow T)\), for each tree \(T \in \mathcal{T}_{B,K}\).
  Fix a rule \(R = \langle L, G, Q, \mathcal{F}, \chi \rangle\) with
  \[
  L = \langle V_L, E_L, \text{root}_L, \ell_L, \tau_L, \text{cond}_L, \ell'_L \rangle
  \]
such that \( \ell'_L \) attaches additional labels \( \{\text{append, ren}, \text{del}\} \), \( Q = \{Q_1, \ldots, Q_m\} \) (\( Q_i = \text{body}_i \rightarrow \text{head}_i \)), and \( F = \{F_1, \ldots, F_n\} \).

Let \( T_1 = \langle V_1, E_1, \text{root}_1, \ell_1 \rangle \in \min(\text{Pred}(\uparrow T)) \), then

\[
\exists T' \text{ such that } T_1 \xrightarrow{R} T' \text{ with respect to some } \phi : L \rightarrow T_1 \text{ and } T \preceq T' \text{ via some } \psi : T \rightarrow T'.
\]

In the following, we show that the size of \( T_1 \) (number of nodes) is bounded by the following constant (we actually show even more, by exhibiting \( T_1 \) satisfying \( \Delta \)):

\[
B^2 ((|\Sigma| + 1) \max(\Delta))^B \left( |L| + |G| + |T| \max_i |Q_i| \right),
\]

where \( \max(\Delta) \) is the maximum integer used in the definition of DTD in \( \Delta \), and \( \max_i |Q_i| \) is the maximum size (the sum of the size of the body and the head) of DTPQs in \( \mathcal{Q} \).

Thus a finite basis, which is a finite subset of \( \min(\text{Pred}(\uparrow T)) \), is computable.

Let \( T' = \langle V', E', \text{root}', \ell' \rangle \). Then \( V' \) consists of four disjoint subsets,

- \( V'_1 = \{ \phi(v) \mid v \in V_L, v \text{ not labeled by del} \} \),
- \( V'_2 = \text{node}^{-1}(V'_i) \), where \( \text{node}^{-1}(V'_i) \) is the set of nodes \( w \in V_i \setminus \phi(V_L) \) such that the lowest ancestor of \( w \) in \( \phi(V_L) \) is in \( V'_i \),
- \( V'_3 \) contains distinct copies of \( F_i \), excluding the leaves labeled by those \( Q_i \),
- \( V'_4 \) contains distinct copies of the nodes of the forest \( Q_i(T_1) \), one for each node labeled by \( Q_i \) in each copy of \( F_j \).

The node set of \( T_1 \) consists of \( V'_1, V'_2, V_3 = \{ \phi(v) \mid v \in V_L, v \text{ labeled by del} \} \), and \( V'_4 = \text{node}^{-1}(V_3) \).

Now we consider an upper bound on the size of \( T_1 \) that are sufficient to allow \( T_1 \) satisfying (*),

To guarantee the matching \( \phi \) from \( L \) to \( T_1 \):

The nodes in \( V'_1 \cup V'_3 = \phi(V_L) \) and all their ancestors in \( T_1 \) are sufficient.

Note that in \( L \), ancestor relations \( \preceq \) may occur, so the inclusion of the ancestors of nodes in \( V'_1 \cup V'_3 = \phi(V_L) \) is necessary.

Size: \( B|\phi(V_L)|) = B|L| \).

To witness that \( G \) is satisfied over \( T_1 \) w.r.t. \( \phi \):

\( G \) is a positive Boolean combination of DTPs. To witness the satisfaction of each DTP \( P_i \) in \( G \), we need keep a matching \( \phi_i \) from \( P_i \) to \( T_1 \) and all the ancestors of nodes of \( \phi_i(P_i) \) in \( T_1 \).

Size: \( B|G| \).

To guarantee that \( T \preceq T' \):

- Keep \( (V'_1 \cup V'_2) \cap \psi(V_T) \) and all their ancestors in \( T_1 \),
- At most \( |T| \) instantiations of \( \text{head}_i \) on \( T_1 \) by matchings from \( \text{body}_i \) to \( T_1 \) w.r.t. \( \phi \) are sufficient. The ancestors of all the nodes of \( T_1 \) in these instantiations should be preserved as well.

Size: \( B|T| + B|T||\text{body}_i| \leq B|T| \max_i |Q_i| \).

Finally, to satisfy the DTD in \( \Delta \), \( T_1 \) should be completed into a data tree of size at most (c.f. [5])

\[
B \cdot ((|\Sigma| + 1) \max(\Delta))^B |T_1|.
\]
Thus a sufficient upper bound for the size of $T_i$ is

$$B^2 \left( (|\Sigma| + 1) \max(\Delta) \right)^B \left( |L| + |G| + |T| \max_i |Q_i| \right).$$

A solution for reachability of a given DTP $P$ from an initial set of data trees $\text{Init}$ is obtained by backward exploration: we start with $P^0$ as the set of data trees matching $P$ and satisfying $\Delta$. Then compute iteratively the upward closed sets $P^{n+1} = P^n \cup (\text{Pred}(P^n) \cap \Delta)$ by representing each set through its finite basis. Since the sequence $P^n$ is increasing by construction, and since $\preceq$ is a wqo, the sequence must be finite and termination can be effectively tested (c.f. Lemma 2.4 in [13]). If $P^n = P^{n+1}$ then it suffices to check whether $P^n \cap \text{Init} = \emptyset$. Notice that we did not impose any restriction on the set $\text{Init}$ of the initial trees.

We need to test the existence of a data tree from $T_{B,K}$, satisfying an (arbitrary) Boolean combination on DTPs and an (arbitrary) DTD. This problem is in general undecidable [8], but becomes decidable in the special case where trees are of bounded depth [8]. Here we need to talk in addition about trees from $T_{B,K}$, but we can apply the same proof ideas as in [8] in order to infer decidability.

Now consider the termination problem. From Theorem 4.6 in [13], to show the decidability of termination problem from a single initial tree $T_0$, it is sufficient to show that $(T_R(T_0), \rightarrow, \preceq)$ has effective $\text{Succ}$, i.e. for each $T \in T_R(T_0)$, the set $\text{Succ}(T) := \{ T' \mid T \rightarrow T' \}$ is computable. Then we can compute the finite reachability tree starting with $T_0$: we compute trees $T$ s.t. $T_0 \rightarrow T$ and we stop whenever we find $T \preceq T'$ along some branch.

It is not hard to see that $\text{Succ}(T)$ contains only a finite number of equivalence classes induced by the quasi-order $\preceq$. Since the DTPRS $(R, \Delta)$ is not able to distinguish between two distinct data trees belonging to the same equivalence class, by selecting one data tree from each equivalence class, we can get a finite representation of $\text{Succ}(T)$, therefore, $(T_R(T_0), \rightarrow, \preceq)$ has effective $\text{Succ}$.

### E.3 Tree decompositions

**Theorem 7.** ([19, 6]) If $G \in \mathcal{G}_K$, then $G$ has a tree decomposition with both depth and width bounded by $K$.

**Proof.** Let $G = (V, E, \ell) \in \mathcal{G}_K$ and $T = (V, E_T, r)$ be a depth-first-search tree of $G$ with $r \in V$ as the root. Then $T$ is of depth at most $K$. For each $v \in V$, let $\theta(v)$ be the union of $\{v\}$ and the set of all ancestors of $v$ in $T$, then $(V, E_T, r, \theta)$ is a tree decomposition of $G$ of depth at most $K$ and width at most $K$. \hfill \blacktriangleup

As a matter of fact, the converse of Theorem 7 holds as well.

**Proposition 15.** If $G$ has a tree decomposition of width $\leq A$ and depth $\leq B$, then the length of any simple path of $G$ is bounded by $(A + 2)^B + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq B} (A + 2)^i$.

**Proof.** Let $G = (V, E)$ and $T = (W, F, r, \theta)$ be a tree decomposition of $G$ of width at most $A$ and depth at most $B$.

Let $P = v_1 \cdots v_n$ be a path in $G$, and $w_1 \cdots w_m$ be a trace of $P$ in $T$ such that $u_i \in \theta(w_i)$, $w_i = w_{i+1}$ or there is a path in $T$ from $w_i$ to $w_{i+1}$ such that for each $w \neq w_{i+1}$ on the path, $v_i \in \theta(w)$. \hfill \blacktriangleup
Because all bags are of size at most \( A + 1 \), each bag can only occur at most \( A + 1 \) times on the sequence \( w_1 \cdots w_n \).

Let \( B_0 \) be the minimal depth of \( w_i \)'s. Then there is only one bag at depth \( B_0 \), say \( w \), occurring on the sequence \( w_1 \cdots w_n \).

Let \( w_1, \ldots, w_t \) \((l \leq A + 1, i_j < i_{j+1})\) be all the occurrences of \( w \) on the sequence \( w_1 \cdots w_n \). Then all the bags on each subsequence \( w_{i_j+1}w_{i_j+2} \cdots w_{i_{j+1}-1} \) is at depth no less than \( B_0 + 1 \). By induction hypothesis, each subsequence \( w_{i_j+1}w_{i_j+2} \cdots w_{i_{j+1}-1} \) is of length at most

\[
(A + 2)^{B-B_0-1} + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq B-B_0-1} (A + 2)^i,
\]

thus

\[
n \leq l + (l + 1) \left( (A + 2)^{B-B_0-1} + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq B-B_0-1} (A + 2)^i \right)
\]

\[
\leq (A + 2) \left( 1 + (A + 2)^{B-1} + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq B-1} (A + 2)^i \right)
\]

\[
= (A + 2)^B + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq B} (A + 2)^i.
\]

\(\blacksquare\)

So generally speaking, for a class of graphs, all simple paths are length-bounded for each graph in the class iff there is a tree decomposition of bounded depth and width for each graph in the class.

### E.4 Well-quasi-ordering of data trees

**Proposition 8.** Let \( G_1, G_2 \) be two \( \Sigma_G \)-labeled graphs with tree-width bounded by \( K \), and \( T_1, T_2 \) be two tree decompositions of width \( K \) of resp. \( G_1, G_2 \), then the two \( \Sigma_{G,K} \)-labeled trees \( T'_1, T'_2 \) obtained from \( T_1, T_2 \) satisfy that: If \( T'_1 \leq T'_2 \), then \( G_1 \sqsubseteq G_2 \).

**Proof.** Let \( G_i = (V_i, E_i, \xi_i) \), \( T_i = \langle U_i, F_i, r_i, \theta_i \rangle \) and \( T'_i = \langle U_i, F_i, r_i, \eta_i \rangle \)(\(i = 1, 2\)). Suppose that \( T'_1 \leq T'_2 \). Then there is an injective mapping \( \phi \) from \( U_1 \) to \( U_2 \) preserving the root, the parent-child relation and the node-labels.

Define an injective mapping \( \pi : V_1 \to V_2 \) as follows:

- For \( v \in V_1 \), select some \( u \in U_1 \) such that \( \theta_1(u) = v_0 \cdots v_K \) and \( v = v_i \) for some \( i \).
- Writing \( \theta_2(\phi(u)) = v'_0 \cdots v'_K \), we let \( \pi(v) = v'_i \).

First we show that \( \pi \) does not depend upon the choice of \( i \) such that \( v = v_i \), neither on the choice of \( u \in U_1 \) such that \( v \in \theta_1(u) \). The former holds because \( \eta_1(u) = \eta_2(\phi(u)) \) (and in particular the component \( \lambda_1 \) is preserved), hence if \( v_i = v_j \), then we also have \( v'_i = v'_j \).

For the latter, notice that the \( \lambda_3 \) component of \( \eta_1(u) = \eta_2(\phi(u)) \) is preserved, hence the choice of \( u \) or of its father is irrelevant. Now, the set \( \{ u \in U_1 \mid v \in \theta_1(u) \} \) is a connected subgraph of \( T_1 \) by definition of tree decomposition, hence \( \pi \) does not depend upon the choice of \( u \in U_1 \).

Now we show that \( \pi \) is injective. Let \( v_2 \) be a vertex of \( G_2 \). Because of the preservation of \( \lambda_1 \), no two different vertices \( v, v' \) of \( G_1 \) with \( v, v' \in \theta(u) \) can satisfy \( \pi(v) = \pi(v') = v_2 \). Because of the preservation of \( \lambda_3 \), no two different vertices \( v, v' \) with \( v \in \theta(u) \) and \( v' \in \theta(u') \)
with a father of \( u' \) can satisfy \( \pi(v) = \pi(v') = v_2 \). Again, as the set \( \{ u \in U_1 \mid v_2 \in \theta(u) \} \) is a connected subgraph of \( T_2 \), it means that \( \pi \) is injective.

We finish the proof by showing that \( \pi \) preserves the node-labels and edge relations.

**Node-label preservation:** Suppose \( \pi(v) = v' \). Then there exists some \( u \in U_1 \) such that \( \theta_1(u) = v_0 \cdots v_k, v = v_i \) for some \( i, \theta_2(\phi(u)) = v'_0 \cdots v'_k \), and \( v' = v'_i \). Since \( \eta_1(u) = \eta_2(\phi(u)), \ell_1(v_0) \cdots \ell_1(v_k) = \ell_2(v'_0) \cdots \ell_2(v'_k) \), it follows that \( \ell_1(v) = \ell_2(v'_i) = \ell_2(v') \).

**Edge relation preservation:** We show that \( \{ v, w \} \in E_1 \) iff \( \{ \pi(v), \pi(w) \} \in E_2 \) for any \( v, w \in V_1 \).

If \( \{ v, w \} \in E_1 \), there exists \( u \in U_1 \) such that \( \theta_1(u) = v_0 \cdots v_k, v = v_i \) and \( w = v_j \) for some \( i, j \). So \( (i, j) \in \lambda_2(u) \) in \( T'_2 \). Then \( (i, j) \in \lambda_2(\phi(u)) \). Let \( \theta_2(\phi(u)) = v'_0 \cdots v'_{j_k} \), then \( \{ v'_i, v'_j \} \in E_2 \). Consequently \( \{ \pi(v), \pi(w) \} = \{ v'_i, v'_j \} \in E_2 \).

If \( \{ \pi(v), \pi(w) \} \in E_2 \), then there exists \( u' \in U_2 \) such that \( \pi(v), \pi(w) \in \theta_2(u') \). Without loss of generality, we can choose \( u' \) at minimal depth such that \( \pi(v), \pi(w) \in \theta_2(u') \). It means that for instance, the father \( u'' \) of \( u' \) satisfies \( \pi(v) \notin \theta_2(u'') \). Since \( U'_2 = \{ u'' \in U_2 \mid \pi(v) \in \theta_2(u'') \} \) is connected, it means that \( U'_2 \) is entirely contained in the subtree rooted at \( u' \). By contradiction, if there does not exist \( u \in U_1 \) such that \( \phi(u) = u' \), then \( \phi(U_1) \cap U'_2 = \emptyset \). On the other hand, according to the definition of \( \pi \), there is \( u \in U_1 \) such that \( v \in \theta_1(u) \) and \( \pi(v) \in \theta_2(\phi(u)) \). So \( \phi(u) \in \phi(U_1) \cap U'_2 \), a contradiction. Thus there is \( u \in U_1 \) such that \( u' = \phi(u) \). Let \( \theta_1(u) = v_0 \cdots v_k \) and \( \theta_2(u') = v'_0 \cdots v'_k \), by injectivity of \( \pi \), we have \( \pi(v) = v'_i, \pi(w) = v'_j \). Then \( \{(i, j) \in \lambda_2(u') = \lambda_2(u) \} \), which proves that \( \{ v, w \} \) is an edge of \( G_1 \).

\[ \blacksquare \]

**F Proofs in Section 5**

At first, we briefly recall the syntax and semantics of Tree-LTL defined in [5]. In fact we will only consider a fragment of Tree-LTL defined in [5], namely Tree-LTL formulas without free variables, defined by the following rules,

\[
\varphi ::= P \mid \varphi_1 \lor \varphi_2 \mid \neg \varphi_1 \mid X \varphi_1 \mid \varphi_1 U \varphi_2,
\]

where \( P \) is a DTP.

Intuitively, Tree-LTL is just the extension of LTL to data trees by replacing atomic propositions with DTPs.

The semantics of Tree-LTL formulas are defined universally: Given a DTPRS \( (R, \Delta, \text{Init}) \) and a Tree-LTL formula \( \varphi \), \( (R, \Delta, \text{Init}) \) is said to satisfy \( \varphi \) iff every run of \( (R, \Delta, \text{Init}) \) satisfies \( \varphi \).

Symmetrically, the semantics of Tree-LTL can be defined existentially, namely, a DTPRS satisfies a Tree-LTL formula if there exists a run of the DTPRS satisfying the formula. We call the Tree-LTL with existential semantics as existential Tree-LTL.

**Theorem 10.** It is undecidable whether a positive-bounded DTPRS satisfies a Tree-LTL formula \( F \varphi \), where \( \varphi \) is a positive Boolean combination of DTPs. This holds even without data.

**Proof.** We show this by a reduction from the halting problem of two-counter machines.

Let \( M = (Q, \Sigma, \Delta, q_0, H) \) be a two-counter machine such that

- \( Q = \{ q_0, \ldots, q_m \} \),
- \( \Sigma \): input alphabet,
- \( q_0 \): the initial state,
- \( H \subseteq Q \): the halting states,
- \( \Delta \subseteq Q \times \Sigma \times \{= 0, \neq 0, *\} \times \{= 0, \neq 0, *\} \times Q \times \{+1, -1, \cdot\} \times \{+1, -1, \cdot\} \), where * means the condition is unspecified, and \( \cdot \) means the action is unspecified.

Without loss of generality, it can be assumed that \( M \) is deterministic in the following sense,

for any configuration \((q, \ldots)\) which is reachable from the initial configuration, \((q_0, \ldots)\), it holds that either \( q \in H \), or else there is a unique transition in \( \Delta \) which can be applied to yield another configuration.

The general idea is to simulate \( M \) by a positive bounded DTPRS ignoring the zero-tests, and describe the zero-tests in a Tree-LTL formula \( F\varphi \).

Recall that the semantics of Tree-LTL defined in [5] is universal, namely, a DTPRS satisfies a Tree-LTL formula \( \psi \) if all the runs in the DTPRS satisfy \( \psi \).

Since the halting problem for the two-counter machines with the empty input string is undecidable, the input can be ignored in the reduction and it can be assumed that the transitions \( \Delta \) of \( M \) is of the form

\[
\Delta \subseteq Q \times \{= 0, \neq 0, *\} \times \{= 0, \neq 0, *\} \times Q \times \{+1, -1, \cdot\} \times \{+1, -1, \cdot\}.
\]

Moreover, let \( \Delta = \{\delta_1, \cdots, \delta_n\} \).

Now we define a positive bounded DTPRS \((DTD, \mathcal{R}, \text{Init})\) and a Tree-LTL formula \( F\varphi \) such that

\[
(DTD, \mathcal{R}, \text{Init}) \models F\varphi \text{ iff } M \text{ halts on the empty string } \varepsilon.
\]

The DTD is illustrated in Figure 23.

![Figure 23 DTD](image)

Recall that DTD is required to be positive in positive bounded DTPRS, so what we can do is to guarantee that there is at least one child of the root labeled by \( q \), etc. It follows that the tree in which there are two children of the root labeled by \( q, q' \) respectively satisfies also the DTD.

The \( \text{Init} \) is a Boolean combination of tree patterns describing a tree corresponding to the state \( q_0 \) and the initial values for the two counters in \( M \). Recall that in the definition of positive bounded TPRS, it is not required that \( \text{Init} \) is positive.

Take the transition \( \delta_i = (q_i, 0, \neq 0, q', +1, -1) \) as an example, we illustrate how to simulate the transitions of \( M \) by TPRS rules in \( \mathcal{R} \).

The transition \( \delta_i = (q_i, 0, \neq 0, q', +1, -1) \) is simulated by two rules, \( Try_i \) verifying the conditions of \( \delta_i \), and \( Trans_i \) enforcing the actions of \( \delta_i \).
Figure 24 Rule Try$_i$

Try$_i$ is illustrated in Figure 24, where $F$ is the tree with a single node labeled by try$_i$, and the node labeled by $q$ is renamed as qtry in order to avoid repeated application of Try$_i$. Note that the zero test for the first counter is forgotten in the definition of Try$_i$.

Trans$_i$ is illustrated in Figure 25, the node try$_i$ is deleted, qtry is renamed as q’$_i$, $C_1$ is increased (add a tree $F$, a single node labeled by $\$,), and $C_2$ is decreased (remove one $\$).

Figure 25 Rule Trans$_i$

Note that the DTPRS defined above does not use data, thus in fact a TPRS.

For each reachable configuration of $M$, before halting, there is a unique transition enabled. However, for the TPRS ($DTD, R, Init$) defined above, there may be several rules enabled at the same time. For instance, if there are one rule $\delta_i = (q_i = 0, \neq 0, \ldots)$ and another rule $\delta_j = (q, \neq 0, \neq 0, \ldots)$, and there is at least one child ($\$) for both node $C_1$ and node $C_2$ in the current data tree, then both the rule Try$_i$ and Try$_j$ are enabled according to the definition. However, only one of the transitions (Try$_j$ in the example) corresponds to the valid transition in $M$, all the others (Try$_i$ in the example) are cheating.

The Tree-LTL formula $F\varphi$ satisfies that $\varphi$ is a disjunction of tree patterns $P_{q_h}$ ($q_h \in H$) and $P_{\text{cheat}_i}$, where $P_{q_h}$ is a tree pattern specifying that the state $q_h$ is reached, and $P_{\text{cheat}_i}$ (see Figure 26) is a tree pattern specifying that the TPRS is cheating, in the sense that the rule Try$_i$ has been applied (so the transition $\delta_i = (q_i = 0, \neq 0, q'_i, +1, -1)$ of $M$ is simulated), but the node $C_1$ has at least one child (the counter $C_1$ has nonzero value). $P_{\text{cheat}_j}$ can be defined similarly for the other transitions $\delta_j$ in $M$.

Figure 26 Pattern $P_{\text{cheat}_i}$

A run in TPRS ($DTD, R, Init$) is either a cheating run or a valid run corresponding to
Recall that the two-counter machine \( M \) is assumed to either halt, i.e. reach a state in \( H \), or always have a unique transition enabled, thus have an unique infinite run. Since the TPRS \((DTD, R, \text{Init})\) simulates \( M \) by ignoring zero tests, it follows that the TPRS satisfies \( F\varphi \) iff each run of the TPRS is either cheating or a valid halting run (i.e. reaching in a state \( q_h \in H \)). Consequently, the TPRS \((DTD, R, \text{Init})\) satisfies \( F\varphi \) iff \( M \) halts.
We show how to get $T (\varphi)$ and the effectiveness of its finite basis then follow from the fact that $(T_{B,K}, \rightarrow, \preceq)$ is a well-structured transition system.

Now consider the situation that $\varphi = \mu Z. \varphi_1 (Z, Y_1, \ldots, Y_n)$.

First set $Z_0 = \emptyset$, then compute a finite basis of $Z_1 = \varphi_1 (Z_0, T_1, \ldots, T_n)$, which can be done according to the induction hypothesis.

Similarly, compute a finite basis of $Z_2 = \varphi (Z_1, T_1, \ldots, T_n)$, and so on.

Because $Z_0 \subseteq Z_1 \subseteq Z_2 \subseteq \cdots$, and each $Z_i$ is upward-closed, it follows that there is $i$ such that $Z_i = Z_{i+1}$, since $\preceq$ is a wqo over $T_{B,K}$ (c.f. Lemma 2.4 in [13]). Such a $Z_i$ is exactly $T (\mu Z. \varphi (Z, T_1, \ldots, T_n))$. ▶

From the above two lemmas, it follows that given a positive Tree-LTL formula $\varphi$ (with existential semantics), the set of data trees in $T_{B,K}$ satisfying $\varphi$ is upward-closed and a finite basis of it can be effectively constructed.

The decidability of verification of Tree-LTL formula $\varphi$ over the positive-bounded DTPRS $(R, \Delta, \text{Init})$ then follows from the decidability of the satisfiability of Boolean combinations of DTPs over (unordered) data trees of bounded depth with respect to a DTD ([8]). ▶

G Proofs in Section 6

Theorem 12. DTPRS type-checking is Co-NexpTime-complete.

We first show how to decide in NexpTime the existence of data trees $T, T'$ and DTP rule $R$ such that $T \models \Delta, T \xrightarrow{R} T'$, but $T' \not\models \Delta$.

Recall that the DTP $\tau$ is defined by rules $a \rightarrow \psi$, where $\psi$ is a Boolean combination of the inequalities of the form $|b| \geq k$. Let $B$ be maximum depth of trees satisfying $\tau$ and $\max(\Delta)$ be the maximal integer $k$ occurring in the inequalities $b \geq k$ of $\tau$.

At first, it is not hard to show the following result.

▶ Lemma 18 (Completion w.r.t. $\tau$). Let $T, T_1$ be data trees such that $T \models \Delta, T_1 \preceq T$ and $T_1 \models \text{inv}$. Then there exists $T_1'$ with $T_1 \preceq T_1' \preceq T$, $|T_1'| = O(|T_1|(|\max(\Delta)| |\Sigma|)^{B+1})$ and $T_1' \models \Delta$.

▶ Lemma 19. Assume that there exist a data tree $T \models \Delta$, a DTP rule $R = \langle L, G, \varphi, F, \chi \rangle \in R$ and a data tree $T'$ such that $T \xrightarrow{R} T'$ and $T' \not\models \tau$. Then there exists such a tree $T$ of size at most

$$B \left( |\text{inv}| + |L| + |G| + |L|(|\max(\Delta)| + 2)|\Sigma| \max_{F \in F} |F| \max_{Q \in Q} |Q| \right) (|\max(\Delta)| |\Sigma|)^{B+1}.$$

Proof. We show how to get $T_1 \preceq T$ and $T_1' \preceq T'$ with $T_1 \xrightarrow{R} T_1, T_1' \not\models \tau$ and $T_1 \models \Delta$ has size bounded as in the statement of the lemma. The tree $T_1$ is defined in such a way that it satisfies the same DTPs from $\text{inv}$ and $G$, as $T$ does. Let us denote this set of DTPs by $\mathcal{P}$. For each $P \in \mathcal{P}$, the satisfaction of $P$ in $T$ is witnessed by a matching $\varphi_P$ from $P$ to $T$.

- Witness $T \models \text{inv}$ and $T \models G$: The set of nodes in the image of $\varphi_P$ and their ancestors in $T$, size $O(B(|\text{inv}| + |G|))$.
- Witness of the (injective) matching $\varphi_L$ from $L$ to $T$: The set of nodes in the image of $\varphi_L$ and their ancestors in $T$, size $O(B|L|)$. 


Witness of the evaluation of a query on $T$: suppose $Q = \text{body} \leadsto \text{head}$ is a DTPQ labeling some node in a forest of $\mathcal{F}$. Note that at most $(\max(\Delta) + 1)|\Sigma|$ copies of head are needed to witness $T' \neq \tau$.

There are at most $|\mathcal{L}| + \max_{F \in \mathcal{F}} |F|$ possible queries that might be evaluated when applying $R$ to $T$. Each evaluation requires at most $(\max(\Delta) + 1)|\Sigma|$ copies of head-trees. Thus the overall size of witnesses in $T$ is 

$$O(|\mathcal{L}|(\max(\Delta) + 1)|\Sigma|(\max_{F \in \mathcal{F}} |F|)(\max_{Q \in \mathcal{Q}} |Q|)).$$

The sum of the sizes of all those witnesses is at most

$$B \left( |\text{inv}| + |L| + |G| + |L|(\max(\Delta) + 1)|\Sigma| \max_{F \in \mathcal{F}} |F| \max_{Q \in \mathcal{Q}} |Q| \right).$$

Finally, the witness-tree should be completed with respect to $T$ and $\tau$, in order to satisfy the DTD, which gives by Lemma 18 the claimed bound.

**Lemma 20.** Assume that there exists a data tree $T \models \Delta$, a DTP rule $R = \langle L, G, Q, F, \chi \rangle \in \mathcal{R}$ and $T \xrightarrow{R} T'$ such that $T' \neq \text{inv}$. Then there exists such a tree $T$ of size at most

$$B \left( 2|\text{inv}| + |L| + |G| \cdot |L|(\max_{F \in \mathcal{F}} |F|) \max_{Q \in \mathcal{Q}} |Q| \right)^{B+1}. $$

**Proof.** The proof is similar to Lemma 19. We look for some $T_1 \subseteq T$, and $T'_1 \subseteq T'$, such that $T_1 \models \Delta$, but $T'_1 \neq \text{inv}$. The only difference is that we need to witness in $T'$ some DTPs for the negation of inv. This yields the claimed upper bound.

We show the lower bound now. From [8], we know that depth-bounded satisfiability of Boolean combinations of DTPs with respect to a DTD (with depth as part of the input) is \text{NexpTime}-hard.

Let $\varphi$ be a Boolean combination of DTPs and $\tau$ a DTD. The DTPRS $(\mathcal{R}, \Delta)$ is defined as follows: $\Delta$ consists of $\tau$ and the static data invariant $\varphi$. There is a single rule $R$ which relabels the root of the data tree to a label $r$ such that $r$ does not occur in $\tau$. Then $\varphi$ is satisfiable w.r.t. $\tau$ iff there are $T, T'$ such that $T \models \Delta$, $T \xrightarrow{R} T'$ and $T' \neq \Delta$.

**Proof.** The proof is similar to the proof that checking Tree-LTL properties over recursion-free GAXML systems is \text{Co-2NexpTime}-complete [5].

First consider upper bound.

The upper bound for model-checking of recursion-free GAXML in [5] was shown by establishing a double exponential small model property.

By a similar argument, an exponential small model property can be obtained for the bounded model-checking over DTPRS. The exponentiation, instead of double-exponentiation, follows from the fact that in bounded model-checking, the length bound $N$ is given by unary encoding, thus of polynomial size, while for the recursion-free GAXML, the length of runs is exponential over the size of the GAXML system.

**Theorem 13.** Bounded model-checking for DTPRS is \text{NexpTime}-complete.

**Proof.** The proof is similar to the proof that checking Tree-LTL properties over recursion-free GAXML systems is \text{Co-2NexpTime}-complete [5].

First consider upper bound.

The upper bound for model-checking of recursion-free GAXML in [5] was shown by establishing a double exponential small model property.

By a similar argument, an exponential small model property can be obtained for the bounded model-checking over DTPRS. The exponentiation, instead of double-exponentiation, follows from the fact that in bounded model-checking, the length bound $N$ is given by unary encoding, thus of polynomial size, while for the recursion-free GAXML, the length of runs is exponential over the size of the GAXML system.
The lower bound is adapted from the Co-2NexpTime lower bound proof for model-checking of recursion-free GAXML. We only recall the rough idea here.

The main ingredient of the proof is to create/check lists of length $2^n$. This is done using data values, similarly as in the proof of Theorem 2. A “list” of length $k$ corresponds to a tree of depth 2, where each node at depth one has 2 children, with distinct data values $d_i, d_{i+1}$. If each data value $d_i$ occurs twice (except for $d_1$ and $d_{k+1}$, which occur only once) we get a linear order, i.e. a list. Using $n$ queries we can compute $n$ steps of transitive closure and thus verify that $k = 2^n$. Obviously, this suffices for encoding a $(2^n \times 2^n)$ tableau representing a computation of a $2^n$-time bounded TM. Details are fairly easy to complete.