



FLOW* 1.2: More Effective to Play with Hybrid Systems

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Abstract

This paper gives a brief overview of the new features introduced in the latest version of the tool FLOW*. We mainly describe the new efficient scheme for integrating linear ODEs. We show that it can efficiently handle the challenging benchmarks on which, to the best of our knowledge, only SpaceEx works. Moreover, it is also possible to extend the method to deal with unbounded initial sets. A comparison between FLOW* 1.2 and SpaceEx on those benchmarks is given. Besides, we also investigate the scalability of FLOW* 1.2 based on our non-linear line circuit benchmarks.

1 Introduction

Nowadays *Cyber-Physical Systems (CPSs)* are ubiquitous in various areas such as automotive, biology, medicine, electrical engineering and etc.. A wide class of CPS are hybrid systems which exhibit both continuous flow and discrete jumps. Since hybrid systems are often safety-critical, we are interested in answering the problem of whether a hybrid system can reach an unsafe state or not. To do that, we need to explore the state space of the system, and determine whether a given state or a region is reachable. It is already known that there is no *decision procedure* to answer the reachability problem for general hybrid systems [1], people thereby resort to approximation techniques.

In safety verification, we could compute a superset of the exact reachable set. If there is no unsafe state included, then the system is safe. In the past two decades, a great amount of work was devoted to investigating new techniques for over-approximating the reachable sets of hybrid systems whose dynamics are defined by linear expressions. Such systems are also called *linear hybrid systems*. The popular over-approximate representations are convex polytopes [9], ellipsoids [18], zonotopes [14] and support functions [19]. Along with their computation techniques, the tools CheckMate [23], Ellipsoidal Toolbox, PHAVer [11] and SpaceEx [12] are developed. On the other hand, few reachable set representations other than intervals (boxes) [21] are successfully applied to non-linear hybrid systems. The typical tools are Ariadne [2], iSAT [10], dReach [13] and HyCreate [17]. Since interval representation suffers from bad scalability, handling systems with more than 4 variables is still a difficult task in general.

In [4], we proposed a method of using Taylor models as the over-approximate representation for a reachable set segment which is also called *flowpipe*. It has good performance on both

linear and non-linear hybrid systems. We later released a tool named FLOW* [5] which mainly focuses on safety verification of non-linear hybrid systems. Our experimental results show that the technique provides a very promising way of using higher-order over-approximations for hybrid system reachable sets.

In this paper, we give a brief introduction to the new enhancement of FLOW* in the version 1.2. It mainly consists of (1) an efficient scheme of computing Taylor model flowpipes for linear Ordinary Differential Equations (ODEs), (2) scalability improvement, and (3) improving the intersection and aggregation algorithm. We address (1) and (2) in the rest of the paper.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we give the basic definitions of Taylor model arithmetic as well as the standard algorithm of Taylor model integration.

Interval arithmetic. A (closed and bounded) *interval* is represented in the form of $[a, b]$ wherein a, b are rational numbers and $a \leq b$. It defines the set of reals between a and b . The operations on reals can be extended to handling intervals. For example, $[a, b] + [c, d] = [a + c, b + d]$, and $[a, b] \cdot [c, d] = [\min\{ac, ad, bc, bd\}, \max\{ac, ad, bc, bd\}]$. Intervals can also be organized as vectors or matrices. Given an $n \times m$ interval matrix M , we have that $M' \in M$ for a real matrix M' of the same size iff $M'_{ij} \in M_{ij}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq m$, such that A_{ij} denotes the entry of a matrix A in the i -th row and j -th column.

Taylor models are introduced as over-approximate representations for continuous functions which are not necessarily of closed form. **A Taylor Model (TM) is denoted as a pair (p, I) such that p is a polynomial over a finite set of variables each of which ranges in an interval, while I is an interval which is an enclosure of the remainder part.**

Given a continuous function $f(\vec{x})$ with $\vec{x} \in D$, we say that f is over-approximated by a TM (p, I) , denoted by $f \in (p, I)$, iff $f(\vec{x}) \in p(\vec{x}) + I$ for all $\vec{x} \in D$. TMs can also be organized as vectors to over-approximate vector-valued functions. Here, we also call them TMs. To recognize that **a TM $(p(\vec{x}), I)$ with $\vec{x} \in D$ defines a convex set of continuous functions over D** , we pick any functions $f, g \in (p, I)$, then all continuous functions between f, g also belong to (p, I) , i.e., for any h such that $h(\vec{x})$ is between $f(\vec{x}), g(\vec{x})$ for all $\vec{x} \in D$ is also in (p, I) . For simplicity, we call (p, I) a TM of f when $f \in (p, I)$.

Taylor model arithmetic. Given two continuous functions f, g as well as their TMs (p_1, I_1) , (p_2, I_2) respectively. A TM for $f + g$ can be computed by adding the polynomial and remainder parts respectively, i.e., $(p_1 + p_2, I_1 + I_2)$, while an order k TM for their product $f \cdot g$ can be computed as $(p_1 \cdot p_2 - r_k, I_1 \cdot B(P_2) + I_2 \cdot B(P_1) + I_1 \cdot I_2 + B(r_k))$ wherein $B(p)$ denotes an interval enclosure of the range of p , and the *truncated part* r_k consists of the terms in $p_1 \cdot p_2$ of degrees $> k$. More TM operations are defined in [20].

Taylor model integration. Given an ODE $\dot{\vec{x}} = f(\vec{x}, t)$, wherein f is at least *locally Lipschitz continuous* w.r.t. \vec{x} , and a TM initial set X_0 , we want to compute an over-approximation of the solutions from X_0 within the bounded time interval $[0, \Delta]$. It is done by computing a set of TMs $\mathcal{F}_1, \dots, \mathcal{F}_N$ which over-approximate the reachable set over the time intervals $[0, \delta], \dots, [(N-1)\delta, N\delta]$ respectively, wherein $\Delta = N\delta$. The value of δ is called a *step-size*, and it is also unnecessary to use a uniform step-size for all TM flowpipes. The algorithm of computing TM flowpipes are given as follows.

- 1: **for** $i = 1, \dots, N$ **do**
- 2: Compute a Taylor expansion $p_i(\vec{x}_i, t)$ for the ODE solution from \vec{x}_i .
- 3: Evaluate an interval remainder I_i such that (p_i, I_i) is a TM for the ODE solution when $\vec{x}_i \in X_{i-1}$ and $t \in [0, \delta]$.
- 4: Compute a TM X_i for $(p_i(X_{i-1}, \delta), I_i)$.
- 5: **end for**

To find a proper remainder interval, we start with a user given estimation I and check the **contractiveness of the Picard operator**

$$\mathbb{P}_f(g)(\vec{x}_0, t) = \vec{x}_0 + \int_0^t f(g(\vec{x}_0, s), s) ds$$

over the TM (p_i, I) by TM arithmetic. If it is contractive, by *Schauder fixed point theorem*, a fixed point which is the unique solution is contained in (p_i, I) . Such a remainder can be further refined by repeatedly applying the Picard operator to the resulting TM.

The most time-costly step in the above algorithm is the remainder evaluation, and we will see in the next section that it can be replaced by a more efficient method for linear ODEs.

3 Efficient flowpipe construction for linear ODEs

Without loss of Generality, we consider the linear ODE of the form $\dot{\vec{x}} = A\vec{x} + \vec{u}$ such that A is a real-valued square matrix and \vec{u} is a time-varying uncertainty whose range is defined by a bounded interval \mathcal{U} . The flowpipe construction for such ODEs has already been extensively studied, several representations such as zonotopes [14] and support functions [19] are shown to be effective to deal with large scale cases. Here, we describe an efficient Taylor model-based method which also has a good scalability. It can be viewed as a combination of the methods described in [15] and [22].

The linear ODE has the following closed form solution w.r.t. an initial condition $\vec{x}(0) = \vec{x}_0$.

$$\varphi(\vec{x}_0, t) = e^{At}\vec{x}_0 + \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)}\vec{u} ds \quad (1)$$

However, the matrix e^{At} is hard to approximate when the time t is large. Therefore, it is more convenient to use the following recurrence relation to generate flowpipe over-approximations,

$$\mathcal{F}_i = \Phi \mathcal{F}_{i-1} \oplus \mathcal{B} \quad \text{for } i = 2, 3, \dots, N \quad (2)$$

such that \mathcal{F}_1 is an over-approximation of the first flowpipe, i.e., the set $\{\varphi(\vec{x}_0, t) \mid t \in [0, \delta]\}$. Here, \oplus denotes the operator of Minkowski sum¹, $\Phi = e^{A\delta}$, and $\mathcal{B} = \{\int_0^\delta e^{A(\delta-s)}\vec{u}(s) ds \mid \vec{u}(s) \in \mathcal{U}\}$. Then \mathcal{F}_i is an over-approximation of $\{\varphi(\vec{x}_0, t) \mid t \in [(i-1)\delta, i\delta]\}$ for $i = 2, \dots, N$.

Compute the first flowpipe. The purpose is to compute a TM $(p_1(\vec{x}_0, t), I_1)$ such that $\varphi(\vec{x}_0, t) \in p_1(\vec{x}_0, t) + I_1$ for all $t \in [0, \delta]$. To do so, we first compute an order k TM matrix over-approximation $(p_\Phi(t), I_\Phi)$ for e^{At} ,

$$p_\Phi(t) = \mathcal{I} + At + \frac{1}{2}A^2t^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{k!}A^kt^k$$

¹ $X \oplus Y = \{x + y \mid x \in X, y \in Y\}$.

wherein \mathcal{I} is an identity matrix. The remainder interval matrix I_Φ can be evaluated base on the Lagrange remainder $\frac{A^{k+1}t^{k+1}}{(k+1)!}e^{A\xi}$ with some $\xi \in [0, \delta]$. That is, we first compute the value of $\rho = e^{|A|\delta}$ wherein $|\cdot|$ denotes the maximum norm. Then the matrix $e^{A\xi}$ is contained in the interval matrix M_ρ whose entries are all defined by $[-\rho, \rho]$. Hence, $I_\Phi = \frac{A^{k+1}t^{k+1}}{(k+1)!}M_\rho$ contains the remainder for p_Φ . By choosing k sufficiently large, we are able to obtain arbitrarily good accuracy.

The TM for $e^{A(t-s)}$ can be computed similarly, and then by using TM arithmetic, we are able to obtain a TM $(p_\mathcal{B}(t), I_\mathcal{B})$ for $\int_0^t e^{A(t-s)}\mathcal{U}ds$. Therefore, the first TM flowpipe \mathcal{F}_1 is the result of computing $(p_\Phi(t), I_\Phi) \cdot \vec{x}_0 + (p_\mathcal{B}(t), I_\mathcal{B})$.

Lemma 1. *For all $t \in [0, \delta]$, we have that $\varphi(\vec{x}_0, t) \in (p_\Phi(t), I_\Phi) \cdot \vec{x}_0 + (p_\mathcal{B}(t), I_\mathcal{B})$.*

Compute the remaining flowpipes. By expanding the recurrence relation (2), the i -th TM flowpipe can also be computed as

$$\mathcal{F}_i = \Phi^{i-1}\mathcal{F}_1 \oplus \bigoplus_{j=0}^{i-2} \Phi^j \mathcal{B}$$

In our case, we represent Φ by the interval matrix $(p_\Phi(\delta), I_\Phi)$ and \mathcal{B} by the interval vector $(p_\mathcal{B}(\delta), I_\mathcal{B})$. Hence, we can use TM arithmetic to compute

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}_i(t) &= (p_\Phi(\delta), I_\Phi)^{i-1} \cdot (p_\Phi(t), I_\Phi) \cdot \vec{x}_0 + (p_\Phi(\delta), I_\Phi)^{i-1} \cdot (p_\mathcal{B}(t), I_\mathcal{B}) \\ &\quad + \sum_{j=0}^{i-2} ((p_\Phi(\delta), I_\Phi)^j \cdot (p_\mathcal{B}(\delta), I_\mathcal{B})) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

wherein $t \in [0, \delta]$. Since I_Φ can be made arbitrarily small when the order k is large enough, the main source of the overestimation is $I_\mathcal{B}$ if we use TM arithmetic to evaluate \mathcal{F}_i . To avoid that, we may use support function to represent $I_\mathcal{B}$ during the computation, and then obtain a tight remainder interval for \mathcal{F}_i .

Theorem 2. *For all $1 \leq i \leq N$, we have that $\varphi(\vec{x}_0, (i-1)\delta + t) \in \mathcal{F}_i(t)$ for $t \in [0, \delta]$.*

Unbounded initial sets. The above flowpipe construction method can be easily extended to handle unbounded initial sets which are defined by polynomial constraints. Although we only describe the TM over-approximation method for a forward flowmap, a backward one can be obtained in a similar way, and the approximation quality will still only depend on the step-size and the TM order. Then, given an initial set X_0 defined by a system of polynomial constraints, we are able to compute both over- and under-approximations for the reachable sets by propagating the constraints of X_0 via the backward flowmap over-approximation. Some techniques described in [6] can be used.

4 Experimental results

4.1 Comparison with SpaceEx

We present a comparison between FLOW* 1.2 and SpaceEx 0.98 over the benchmarks which are included by the package of SpaceEx. Since FLOW* and SpaceEx use different representations

benchmark	var	T	FLOW*				SpaceEx (LGG)				SpaceEx (STC)		
			δ	k	P	time	δ	tol. abs.	box	oct	tol. rel.	box	oct
filtered oscillator 6	6	[0, 4]	0.05	8	128	2.4	0.05	0.01	0.2	3.4	0.05	0.4	6.7
filtered oscillator 10	10	[0, 4]	0.05	8	128	6.1	0.05	0.01	0.5	55	0.05	1.2	36
filtered oscillator 18	18	[0, 4]	0.05	8	128	22	0.05	0.01	1.1	815	0.05	3.0	372
filtered oscillator 34	34	[0, 4]	0.05	8	128	106	0.05	0.01	3.6	T.O.	0.05	8.6	T.O.
helicopter	29	[0, 30]	0.2	70	256	198	0.1	0.001	35	T.O.	0.05	12	340

Table 1: FLOW* v.s. SpaceEx on the SpaceEx benchmarks. Legends: var: # of variables, T : time horizon, δ : time step-size, k : TM order, P: precision, box: box over-approximation, octagon: octagon over-approximation, T.O.: > 2000 seconds (time out).

for flowpipes, a fair overall comparison on their accuracy is not easy. Thereby we choose the computation settings for both of the tools such that the last box flowpipe computed by SpaceEx contains the TM flowpipe(s) over the same time interval. We give the experimental results in Table 1. We consider both of the LGG and STC algorithms implemented in SpaceEx. It seems that the advantage of STC becomes clearer when the system scale grows. The time cost of FLOW* is much higher for each test when the standard TM integration is used.

Since it is difficult to exactly implement support functions, SpaceEx computes boxes or octagons as further wraps. For a system of n variables, a box over-approximation requires to compute n samples on the approximation boundary, whereas an octagon one requires to compute $O(n^2)$ many. Although it is often unnecessary to compute octagon over-approximations according to the critical directions given by users or unsafe sets, we sometimes still need to do that for reusing the over-approximations. On the other hand, TM flowpipes are not optimized for particular directions and can be directly reused with different unsafe specifications.

4.2 Scalability evaluation

Scalability is very important in the applicability of a tool. Here, we investigate the scalability of FLOW* 1.2 based on a non-linear resistor circuit benchmark shown in Figure 1. The model is originally studied by Chen et al. [8], and then adapted to be interesting hybrid case studies [16]. The circuit is composed of $n + 1$ non-linear resistors and the same number of capacitors. Each non-linear resistor consists of a diode and a unit resistor ($r = 1$). For simplicity, we assume that all capacitors have unit capacitance $C = 1$. For each diode, the I-V characteristic is given by $I = e^{\alpha \cdot V} - 1$. The current source $i(t)$ in the figure is the input, and v_1 is the single output of the system. Therefore, the whole circuit system can be described by the following ODE.

$$\begin{cases} \dot{v}_1 &= -2 \cdot v_1 + v_2 + 2 - e^{\alpha \cdot v_1} - e^{\alpha \cdot (v_1 - v_2)} + i(t) \\ \dot{v}_2 &= -2 \cdot v_2 + v_1 + v_3 + e^{\alpha \cdot (v_1 - v_2)} - e^{\alpha \cdot (v_2 - v_3)} \\ &\dots \\ \dot{v}_{n-1} &= -2 \cdot v_{n-1} + v_{n-2} + v_n + e^{\alpha \cdot (v_{n-2} - v_{n-1})} - e^{\alpha \cdot (v_{n-1} - v_n)} \\ \dot{v}_n &= -v_n + v_{n-1} - 1 + e^{\alpha \cdot (v_{n-1} - v_n)} \end{cases}$$

In order to avoid the stiffness in the original model, we reduce the value of α from 40 to 5, but it is still challenging.

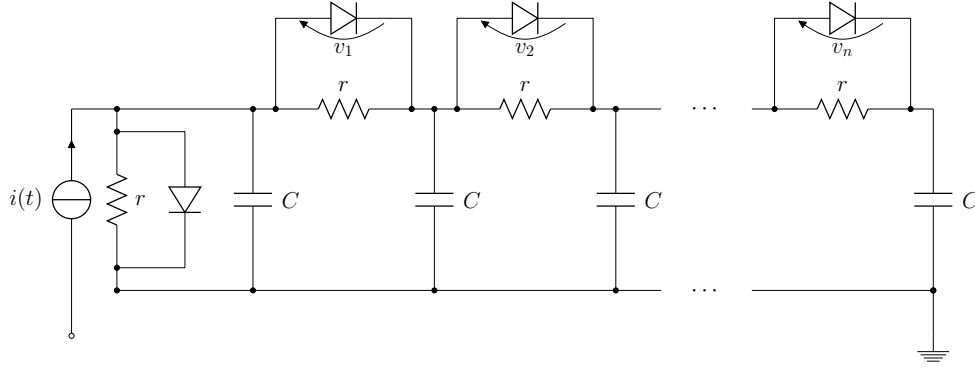


Figure 1: Transmission line circuit

n	continuous					hybrid				
	δ	k	I_e	ε	t (s)	δ	k	I_e	ε	t (s)
2	0.03	$3 \sim 6$	$[-10^{-3}, 10^{-3}]$	10^{-12}	1.4	0.01	$3 \sim 6$	$[-10^{-3}, 10^{-3}]$	10^{-12}	2.3
4	0.01	$3 \sim 6$	$[-10^{-5}, 10^{-5}]$	10^{-10}	56	0.01	$3 \sim 6$	$[-10^{-4}, 10^{-4}]$	10^{-10}	48
6	$0.0002 \sim 0.02$	4	$[-10^{-5}, 10^{-5}]$	10^{-8}	73	$0.0002 \sim 0.02$	4	$[-10^{-5}, 10^{-5}]$	10^{-8}	243
8	$0.0002 \sim 0.01$	4	$[-10^{-5}, 10^{-5}]$	10^{-8}	176	$0.0002 \sim 0.01$	4	$[-10^{-5}, 10^{-5}]$	10^{-8}	851
10	$0.0002 \sim 0.005$	4	$[-10^{-5}, 10^{-5}]$	10^{-7}	205	$0.0002 \sim 0.005$	4	$[-10^{-5}, 10^{-5}]$	10^{-7}	904
12	$0.0002 \sim 0.005$	4	$[-10^{-5}, 10^{-5}]$	10^{-7}	402	$0.0002 \sim 0.005$	4	$[-10^{-5}, 10^{-5}]$	10^{-7}	1933

Table 2: Scalability evaluation of FLOW* on the non-linear line circuit benchmarks. Legends: δ : time step-size, k : TM order, I_e : remainder estimation, ε : cutoff threshold.

Scalable continuous and hybrid benchmarks can be built based on various types of inputs. We consider the following continuous and hybrid ones.

$$\text{continuous: } i(t) = \sin(5t), \quad \text{hybrid: } i(t) = \begin{cases} 2, & t \leq 1 \\ 3 - t, & 1 < t \leq 2 \\ 1, & t > 2 \end{cases}$$

The running time of FLOW* on different scales are listed in Table 2. More case studies could be found in our benchmark collection [7].

5 How to make the best use of Flow*?

It is always tricky to choose a proper computational setting for a reachability problem in FLOW*. We plan to give a short guide in this section. Except the scheme introduced in Section 3 and the one for handling non-polynomial ODEs, FLOW* 1.2 provides 3 different integration schemes for polynomial ODEs. Table 2 summarizes the suggested situations for applying them. Their details are described elsewhere [3].

It is always tricky to choose the parameters for FLOW* to perform a reachability analysis.

scheme	var	degree	TM order
poly ode 1	≤ 3	≤ 5	≤ 5
poly ode 2	≤ 5	≤ 5	≥ 6
poly ode 3	any	≥ 6	any

Figure 2: Suggested situations for applying the integration schemes

An improper setting may easily generate a bad experimental result for a benchmark, but it does not mean the incapability of FLOW*. Our suggestions are as follows.

- (i) Since the purpose of using TMs is to provide higher-order over-approximations, a better performance can usually be obtained by using high TM orders and large step-sizes than the other way around. When we need to improve the approximation quality of a result, a higher TM order is often preferred to a smaller step-size.
- (ii) When a system has more than 6 variables, computing high order TMs may cost too long time. If that is the case, we suggest to increase the cutoff threshold.
- (iii) The reason to use adaptive techniques is to reduce computation time by omitting “trivially small” overestimation. Hence, they work well only in the case that the given remainder estimations are small enough.

6 Conclusion and future work

In the paper, we gave a brief overview of the new enhancement in FLOW*. The performance on linear systems is greatly improved and competitive to SpaceEx. In the future, we plan to extend the functionality of the tool in the following aspects: (a) Scalable computation of both over- and under-approximations for linear continuous systems, such that the initial sets are defined by polynomial constraints; (b) Computing TM flowpipes for time-delay systems; (c) A better scheme to deal with stiff dynamics.

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