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RAPPORT NON CONFIDENTIEL

Delay Differential Logic for Hybrid Systems with Delay

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Mars – Août 2016

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Abstract

Cyber physical systems incorporate the connection between the physical world and computing devices. This connection (e.g. given by a computer network) often needs to be considered in the system model, if it introduces a delay with non-negligible effects.

In this work we provide a program notation for hybrid systems with delay and introduce a logic to reason about such systems, called *delay differential dynamic logic* ($\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$). It extends *differential dynamic logic* ($\text{d}\mathcal{L}$) with syntax, semantics and axiomatization for dealing with delay differential equations.

We prove the soundness of the axiomatization and give examples demonstrating its usefulness.

Résumé

Le système cyber-physique est le trait d'union entre le monde physique et le périphérique numérique. Cette connexion (par ex. donnée par un réseau numérique) doit souvent être prise en considération dans le modèle du système, si ce dernier introduit un retard avec des effets non négligeables.

Dans cet oeuvre, une notation de programme sera donnée pour des systèmes hybrides avec un retard, ainsi qu'une logique de raisonnement pour de tels systèmes, appelée *logique dynamique différentielle retardée* ($\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$), sera introduite. Elle étend la *logique dynamique différentielle* ($\text{d}\mathcal{L}$) avec une syntaxe, une sémantique et une axiomatisation pour gérer les équations différentielles retardées.

La preuve de correction de l'axiomatisation est également présentée et quelques exemples sont avancés pour montrer son utilité.

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Acknowledgement

I would like to express my sincere thanks to Prof. Dr. André Platzer for supervising this work, the inspirational discussions and his very helpful suggestions and comments.

Also, I would like to thank him and the Carnegie-Mellon-University for having accepted me as a research intern.

My thanks go to my professor Eric Goubault, who introduced me to delay differential equations and who presented me to Prof. Platzer.

A grateful word of thanks to the *Chair Thales* and *La Fondation de l'Ecole Polytechnique* for supporting me financially throughout the period of the internship.

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1. Introduction

Dynamical systems are a mathematical model which describe the evolution of a system's state over time.

There are *discrete dynamical systems*, obeying difference equations and discrete state transition relations, and *continuous dynamical systems*, whose states evolve continuously, described by a (ordinary) differential equation (ODE).

A fusion of both are *hybrid (dynamical) systems*, which combine discrete and continuous dynamics with conditional switching, nondeterminism and repetition.

The fashionable notion of *cyber-physical systems* (CPS) is broadly used to describe technical systems which apply the discrete dynamics of digital computation (the cyber part) to control the continuous dynamics of physical processes.

Hybrid systems well suited for capturing the complex behavior of CPS in a mathematical model.

With the ongoing emergence of technology, cyber-physical systems are getting perceptibly more present in our surroundings and begin to largely interfere in our everyday life. While the complexity of these systems is growing, more and more control and responsibility is handed off to such technical systems. Thus the question of their “safety” is getting increasingly important.

This demands the definition and specification of what is a reasonable and appropriate behavior for a system. This includes not only classical safety properties (something never happens), but also liveness (something eventually happens), controllability and reactivity.

The task of *verification* is to show that the system satisfies its specification and to establish guarantees for its safety- and performance-critical correctness.

However, the complexity of dynamical system usually leads to a (uncountably) infinite state space, what means that any finite number of tests cannot cover all possible states reachable by execution of the system. Thus a finite number of tests cannot prove safety!

Formal methods provide a means to systematically obtaining proofs of specifications, if the system can be described as a model in a certain formal language. This way, safety certificates can be established.

Classical examples for CPS include all applications of automatic control, such as in robotics, automotive (self-driving cars), aviation, railway or power plants. But also models of electrical circuits, chemical and biological processes medical models (events which can be seen as discrete with relation to continuous evolution)

A language for the specification and verification of correctness properties, such as safety and liveness properties, for hybrid systems is *differential dynamic logic* ($\text{d}\mathcal{L}$) (see [30] for a concise introduction and overview).

It provides syntax and semantics for hybrid programs and logic formulas as well as a proof calculus to formally reason about hybrid systems. This logic is based on first-order modal logic and dynamic logic and relies on first-order real arithmetic.

With differential forms, \mathbf{dL} provides a powerful tool to reason about ordinary differential equations by differential invariants (an induction principle for differential equations), differential substitutions and ghosts.

Some important theoretical results, such as *soundness* (everything provable is true) and *completeness* (everything true is provable) have been established for \mathbf{dL} .

Another important property of \mathbf{dL} is its compositionality. denotational semantics, its semantics (of models and formulas) are functions of their parts. This allows a structural decomposition of proofs by splitting complex systems in their parts. The completeness property assures that this decomposition is always possible and successful. Moreover, this modularity makes \mathbf{dL} extendable. New proof rules can be added to the proof calculus, to improve its deductive power.

Different formulations of \mathbf{dL} have been presented. The earliest, given in [29], is a sequent calculus (in Gentzen style), which is tuned for automatic proof search. It is implemented in the proof assistant KeYmaera. automatically find (differential) invariants

The later, Hilbert-type axiomatic formulation of \mathbf{dL} (cf. [25, 33, 30]) is based on uniform substitution and bound variable renaming, which allows a much more concise programmatic implementation. This is done in form of the interactive theorem prover KeYmaera X.

The tutorial [36] shows some examples of systems modeled and proved in \mathbf{dL} .

Moreover, some extensions to \mathbf{dL} have been presented. *Differential-algebraic dynamic logic* (DAL) adds differential-algebraic equations and constraints to \mathbf{dL} [28], whereas *differential temporal dynamic logic* (dTL) is based on a trace semantics, which allows to specify temporal properties of a hybrid system [24]. *Stochastic differential dynamic logic* (SdL) deals with stochastic hybrid systems, which add stochastic differential equations to hybrid systems [32]. Distributed hybrid systems can be verified using *quantified differential dynamic logic* (QdL), cf. [31]. For *differential game logic* (dGL) see [27].

Differential dynamic logic and its extensions have successfully demonstrated their usability by application to a number of real-world problems.

Examples include obstacle avoidance in robotics [23] and the design of a safe controller for medical surgery robots [17].

Contributions to the important field of self-driving cars have been made by the verification of cruise controllers [19, 21], controllers for intersections [18] and speed limit [22].

Safety is paramount in aviation [9] and KeYmaera was used to verify aircraft collision-avoidance systems [16, 15, 20].

For the European Train Control System (ETCS), controllability, safety, liveness, and reactivity properties have been proved [34].

Models in \mathbf{dL} are limited to ordinary differential equations. In this report, we will study a more general class of dynamical systems, called *time-delay systems* (TDS) [39],

which extend dynamical systems by obeying *delay differential equations* (DDEs). Delay differential equations (also called differential-difference equations) belong to the broader class of *functional differential equations* (FDEs).

Delay is mainly an applied problem. Most real world CPSs incorporate sensors and actuators in a feedback loop. This system-internal communication introduces a delay, for example due to computation time, sensing sample-intervals or network transfer, whose effects can often not be ignored.

Thus, time-delay systems have become of high interest in research and application in the recent decades, especially in the systems and control community. By taking the delay into account, they allow to formulate more realistic models with better performance.

Prototypical examples of time-delay systems include networked control systems and tele-operated systems, general communication networks, robotics, combustion engines and manufacturing processes. See [10] for a number of examples.

Even small delays can have a complex effect on the system's behavior (cf. Example 3.12), in particular on its stability, which is an important property for many applications. The presence of a delay can both be destabilizing and stabilizing. This gives rise to the idea of “control via delay value”, leveraging the stabilizing effect by intentional retardation.

One may restrict to point-wise delays, which leads to the special class of delay differential equations with multiple, constant delay. In this work, we will restrict to this type of DDE and present a logic to formally reason about time-delay systems.

2. Introduction to Logic

Logics is a framework for studying “rules of argument” [11] and will be used as a means for the specification of properties of hybrid programs later on.

This chapter gives a concise overview about the concepts of logics on which the later chapters are based and which are essential for their understanding.

2.1. Propositional Logic

The most familiar concept of logics is *propositional logic* (eg. [13]). It deals with *declarative sentences*, so-called *propositions*, which can be declared as either *true* or *false*, their truth value. Declarative sentences can be a composition of atomic (indecomposable) sentences, using the logical connectives: negation (\neg), conjunction (\wedge), disjunction (\vee), implication (\rightarrow), equivalence (\leftrightarrow).

Each connection results a new truth value depending on the the truth values of its sub-sentences. They are defined by truth tables (see Figure 2.1), specifying the result for each combination of input values. They can be partly expressed by each other, demanding for example only the definition of \neg , \wedge , \vee .

2.2. First-Order Logic

First-order logic (FOL) extends propositional logic with quantifiers, variables, functions and predicates. We introduce first-order logic similiar to the definitions given in [29] and [13]. More subtleties are adapted from [11], [3] and [37].

FOL is a class of logics, whose incarnations differ in their set of symbols and their roles, but follow all the same basic structure. Besides the logical connectives from propositional logic, first-order logic comprises extralogical symbols (functions and predicates) as well as logical variables, which altogether form its alphabet.

\neg	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	\wedge	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	\vee	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>
	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>		<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>		<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>
			<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>
	\rightarrow	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>		\leftrightarrow	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	
	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>		<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	
	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>		<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	

Figure 2.1.: Definition of logical connectives.

Logical variables provide a means of abstraction and refer to objects about which one wants to reason. They are usually called x, y, z .

Functions take values as argument and give back a new value, which can be of any type. Function symbols stand for a function and are denoted by f, g, h .

In contrast to functions, *predicates* return a truth value (*true* or *false*), depending on the values of their arguments. Predicate symbols are usually written as p, q, r .

The *arity* of a function or predicate symbol is the number of arguments it demands. Functions can be of arity zero, i.e. without any argument. For clarity, we will treat these so-called *constants* (or nullary functions) separately and write their symbols as a, b, c .

2.2.1. Syntax

First-order logic inductively defines a syntax of well-formed *logical formulae* over an alphabet containing different kinds of symbols.

The syntax only defines rules which specify how the given symbols can be textually combined. At this stage, they have no specific meaning yet.

The alphabet $\Sigma \cup V$ comprises the *signature* Σ of the theory, which is a set of predicate, function and constant symbols, and the set of logical variable symbols V .

Terms are the expressions which denote feasible arguments for functions and predicates. always denotes an element of universe

Definition 2.1 (Terms). For a given *signature* Σ and set of variable symbols V , the well-formed terms are either logical variables, constants or functions applied to terms: The set of all *terms* $\text{Trm}(\Sigma, V)$ is the smallest set with

1. If $x \in V$ then $x \in \text{Trm}(\Sigma, V)$.
2. If $c \in \Sigma$ is a constant symbol, then $c \in \text{Trm}(\Sigma, V)$.
3. If $f \in \Sigma$ is a function symbol of arity $n \geq 1$ and $\theta_i \in \text{Trm}(\Sigma, V)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, then $f(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n) \in \text{Trm}(\Sigma, V)$.

This definition can alternatively be written as grammar in Backus-Naur form

$$\theta, \theta_i ::= x \mid c \mid f(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n) \quad (2.1)$$

where x is ranging over the set of logical variables V , c over the nullary functions in Σ and f over the elements in Σ with arity $n \geq 1$.

Formulas are expressions which admit a truth value.

Definition 2.2 (First-Order Formulas). For given Σ and V , the well-formed *formulae* of a first-order logic are words formed by recursive combination of signature-symbols with logical operator symbols: The set of formulas $\text{Fml}_{\text{FOL}}(\Sigma, V)$ is the smallest set with

1. If $p \in \Sigma$ is a predicate symbol of arity $n \geq 0$ and $\theta_i \in \text{Trm}(\Sigma, V)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$ then $p(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n) \in \text{Fml}_{\text{FOL}}(\Sigma, V)$.

2. If $\phi, \psi \in \text{Fml}_{\text{FOL}}(\Sigma, V)$, then $\neg\phi, (\phi \wedge \psi), (\phi \vee \psi), (\phi \rightarrow \psi) \in \text{Fml}_{\text{FOL}}(\Sigma, V)$.
3. If $\phi \in \text{Fml}_{\text{FOL}}(\Sigma, V)$ and $x \in V$ then $(\forall x \phi) \in \text{Fml}_{\text{FOL}}(\Sigma, V)$ and $(\exists x \phi) \in \text{Fml}_{\text{FOL}}(\Sigma, V)$.

We may again write this as

$$\phi, \psi ::= p(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n) \mid \neg\phi \mid \phi \wedge \psi \mid \phi \vee \psi \mid \phi \rightarrow \psi \mid \forall x \phi \mid \exists x \phi \quad (2.2)$$

where $p \in \Sigma$ ranges over the predicate symbols (of arity $k \geq 1$), $\theta_i \in \text{Trm}(\Sigma, V)$ over the terms and $x \in V$ over the variable symbols.

2.2.2. Semantics

The *semantics* of a first-order logic specifies the meaning of each symbol occurring in terms and formulae with the goal to assign a *truth value* to a full formula. Moreover, this requires the *assignment* of a concrete value to each variable symbol, chosen from a *universe*, the domain of discourse containing all objects of consideration.

Definition 2.3 (Universe). A non-empty set D_M containing the concrete objects of discourse, is called *universe*.

Definition 2.4 (Interpretation). An *interpretation* I assigns concrete elements to their corresponding symbols in a given signature Σ . It consists of

1. For each constant symbol $c \in \Sigma$ a value $I(c) \in D_M$.
2. For each function symbol $f \in \Sigma$ of arity $k \geq 1$, $I(f): D_M^k \rightarrow D_M$ is a function with k arguments.
3. For each predicate symbol p of arity $k \geq 1$, $I(p) \subseteq D_M^k$ is a relation.

A predicate p is *true* at position $(d_1, \dots, d_n) \in D_M^k$ under M if and only if $(d_1, \dots, d_n) \in I(p)$. An alternative but equivalent formulation uses the characteristic function $I(p): D_M^k \rightarrow \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$, where p is true at $(d_1, \dots, d_n) \in D_M^k$ if and only if $I(p)(d_1, \dots, d_n) = \text{true}$.

As mentioned above, logical variables are only place holders and need, at some stage, refer to a concrete value. This interpretation is realized by an assignment.

Definition 2.5 (Assignment). An *assignment* is a map $\nu: V \rightarrow D_M$ which assigns a value of the universe to each variable symbol $x \in V$.

Definition 2.6 (Model). A *model* is the triple $M = (D_M, I, \nu)$ of a universe D_M , an interpretation I and an assignment ν .

We write $M[x \mapsto a]$ for the model which differs from the model M only in the assignment to the logical variable x , to which the value $a \in D_M$ is allocated.

Given the information of a model, we can finally evaluate a formula, i.e. decide on its truth value.

The valuation of terms and formulae is again defined inductively.

Definition 2.7 (Valuation of Terms). For $\text{Trm}(\Sigma, V)$ a *valuation* $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket_\nu^I$ is defined by

1. $\llbracket x \rrbracket_\nu^I = \nu(x)$ for each logical variable $x \in V$
2. constant
3. $\llbracket f(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n) \rrbracket_\nu^I = I(f)(\llbracket \theta_1 \rrbracket_\nu^I, \dots, \llbracket \theta_n \rrbracket_\nu^I)$ for each function symbol $f \in \Sigma$ of arity $n \geq 1$.

The meaning of the logical connective symbols, how they preserve a truth value, is defined in the truth tables Figure 2.1.

Definition 2.8 (Valuation of First-Order Formulas). The *valuation* of the first-order formulas $\text{Fml}_{\text{FOL}}(\Sigma, V)$ in the interpretation I under the assignment ν is given by

1. predicate $\llbracket p(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n) \rrbracket_\nu^I = I(p)(\llbracket \theta_1 \rrbracket_\nu^I, \dots, \llbracket \theta_n \rrbracket_\nu^I)$
2. The conjunction $\llbracket \theta \wedge \eta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ iff $\llbracket \theta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ and $\llbracket \eta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$.
3. The disjunction $\llbracket \theta \vee \eta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ iff $\llbracket \theta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ or $\llbracket \eta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$.
4. The negation $\llbracket \neg \theta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ iff $\llbracket \theta \rrbracket_\nu^I \neq \text{true}$.
5. The implication $\llbracket \theta \rightarrow \eta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ iff $\llbracket \theta \rrbracket_\nu^I \neq \text{true}$ or $\llbracket \eta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$.
6. The universal quantifier $\llbracket \forall x \theta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ iff $\llbracket \theta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$.
7. The existential quantifier $\llbracket \exists x \theta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ iff $\llbracket \theta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

The statement $\llbracket \theta \rrbracket_\nu^I = \text{true}$ can also be written as $I, \nu \models \theta$, the so-called *satisfaction/satisfiability relation*. One says that (I, ν) *satisfies* ϕ , that (I, ν) is a model for ϕ or that ϕ is *true* in I under ν .

A formula ϕ is called *valid* (or a *tautology*) if $I, \nu \models \phi$ for every model M (i.e. for all possible interpretations I and assignments ν). In this case, one writes shortly $\models \phi$.

2.2.3. Variable Binding and Substitution

Quantifiers in formulas bind occurrences of variables in such way that a *bound variable* does not need an assignment in order to determine a truth value for the formula. In contrast, a *free variable* requires an assignment.

Definition 2.9 (Variable binding). A variable x in a formula ϕ which occurs in subformulas of the form $\forall x \psi$ or $\exists x \psi$ is *bound* in ϕ . If it appears in ϕ outside the scope (ψ) of a quantifier, is called *free*.

Variables are place holders and hence demand a means for being replaced with concrete information. With a little restriction, it is possible to substitute free variables by another term.

Definition 2.10 (Admissible substitution). The term θ is an *admissible substitution* for x in $\phi(x)$, if no free occurrence of x in ϕ is in the scope of a $\forall y$ or $\exists y$ for any variable y appearing in t .

In this case, we define the *substitution* $\phi(\theta/x)$ of the variable x by the admissible term θ in the formula ϕ as the formula obtain from ϕ by replacing each occurrence of the free variable x outside the scope of a quantifier by θ .

This restriction is necessary for the soundness of the quantifier axioms given in the next section.

We agree on the following notational convention (which is not to be confused with syntax for functions and predicates with arguments): When we mention $\phi(x)$ and $\phi(\theta)$ in the same context, we mean that x is a free variable of the formula ϕ and that $\phi(\theta)$ is $\phi(\theta/x)$.

2.2.4. Proof Theory

Given an interpretation and assignment the semantics of a logic allow to compute the truth value of a formula. This means, checking satisfaction is easy. However to check the validity of a formula by the semantics is difficult. We would need to check all possible interpretations and assignments.

To tackle that problem, one introduces the concept of a proof calculus, which allows to show the validity of a formula. A *formal proof* derives an obviously valid formula from the initial formula, using a set of *sound* derivation rules.

In general, it can be difficult to find a proof. But once a proof is found, it can easily be verified by the validity of the proof rules. This means, as opposed to the semantics, showing that a formula is not valid using the proof calculus, is difficult. Using the semantics, it is sufficient to find a counter-example, but how can one show that there is no proof?

A counterexample is a witness for not validity, a (formal) proof is a witness for validity.

These two characterisations of truth, semantics and proof calculus, need to be equivalent. A proof calculus is *sound* if invalid sequents are not derivable and *complete* if every valid sequent can be derived.

There are different styles of formal logical argumentation. We consider two different deduction systems in which a proof can be represented.

Hilbert Calculus

A Hilbert-style deduction system is based on a finite set of selected tautologies with the role of axioms and only a small number of inference rules.

In such a calculus, a formal *proof* is a derivation of the formula to be shown (conclusion) from the axioms and premises by applying in each step one of the deduction rules. In such a proof, every line is again an unconditional tautology. A formula ϕ is called *derivable* from the premises in the given calculus, if there exists a derivation with conclusion ϕ .

The axiomatization consists of logical *axiom schemes*. They describe the countably infinite number of axioms the deduction system comprises. A concrete axiom is obtained by replacing the placeholders by concrete formulas.

There are many possible selections of an axiom system. However it should be sufficiently strong, such that each tautology is deriveable by the given inference rules and depends of course on the signature, too.

A possible sound and complete axiomatization for first-order logic is given in [2] and shown in Figure ???. It combines axioms for classical propositional logic with axioms for quantifiers and relies only on two deduction rules: *modus ponens* (MP), which infers formula ψ from the hypotheses ϕ , and $\phi \rightarrow \psi$ and *quantifier-generalization* (\forall).

2.3. Modal Logic

In propositional and first-order logic is each formula either true or false for a given model. In this section, we present another concept of logics, called *modal logic*, which allows different *modes of truth*. An example is truth with respect to time. To that end, modal logic extends the language of propositional logic with two new unary connectives, \Box and \Diamond , whose exact meaning depends on a specific incarnation of modal logics.

We define modal logic as in [13] [14] [**BlackburnModalLogic**]

2.3.1. Syntax

Definition 2.11 (Syntax). The syntax of *modal logic* is defined by the grammar

$$\phi, \psi ::= \text{false} \mid \text{true} \mid p \mid \neg\phi \mid \phi \wedge \psi \mid \phi \vee \psi \mid \phi \rightarrow \psi \mid \phi \leftrightarrow \psi \mid \Box\phi \mid \Diamond\phi$$

with an atomic formula p from the set of propositions P .

2.3.2. Semantics

Kripke Model

$\Lambda 1 \quad \phi \rightarrow (\psi \rightarrow \phi)$ $\Lambda 2 \quad (\phi \rightarrow (\psi \rightarrow \varphi)) \rightarrow ((\phi \rightarrow \psi) \rightarrow (\phi \rightarrow \varphi))$ $\Lambda 3 \quad (\neg\phi \rightarrow \neg\psi) \rightarrow ((\neg\phi \rightarrow \psi) \rightarrow \phi)$ $\Lambda 4 \quad \forall x \phi(x) \rightarrow \phi(y) \quad (y \text{ admissible for substitution})$ $\Lambda 5 \quad \forall x (\phi \rightarrow \psi) \rightarrow (\phi \rightarrow \forall x \psi) \quad (x \text{ is not free in } \phi)$	$\text{MP} \quad \frac{\phi \rightarrow \psi \quad \phi}{\psi}$ $\forall \quad \frac{\phi}{\forall x \phi}$
---	---

Figure 2.2.: A complete axiomatization of FOL and Hilbert-calculus deduction rules.

Definition 2.12 (Model). A *model* $M = (W, \rho, L)$ of modal logic consists of

1. a nonempty set of *worlds/states* W
2. an accessibility relation $\rho \subseteq W \times \omega$ between the worlds
3. a labelling function $L: W \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(P)$

write $\rho(\nu, \omega)$ for $(\nu, \omega) \in \rho$, world ω accessible from ν

forcing relation \Vdash between worlds and propositional variables (is L), extended to formulas

Definition 2.13 (Semantics of modal formulas). The semantics of modal formulas is defined by a *satisfaction relation*. It specifies inductively the truth value of each symbolic expression with regard to the worlds. A formula ϕ is true in a world ν or equivalently the world ν satisfies formula ϕ , iff $\nu \models \phi$.

1. $\nu \not\models \text{false}$
2. $\nu \models \text{true}$
3. $\nu \models p$ iff $p \in L(\nu)$
4. $\nu \models \neg\phi$ iff $\nu \not\models \phi$
5. $\nu \models \phi \wedge \psi$ iff $\nu \models \phi$ and $\nu \models \psi$
6. $\nu \models \phi \vee \psi$ iff $\nu \models \phi$ or $\nu \models \psi$
7. $\nu \models \phi \rightarrow \psi$ iff $\nu \models \psi$ whenever $\nu \models \phi$
8. $\nu \models \phi \leftrightarrow \psi$ iff $\nu \models \phi$ if and only if $\nu \models \psi$
9. $\nu \models \Box\phi$ iff $\omega \models \phi$ for each $\omega \in W$ with $\rho(\nu, \omega)$
10. $\nu \models \Diamond\phi$ iff there is a $\omega \in W$ with $\rho(\nu, \omega)$ such that $\omega \models \phi$

A model satisfies a formula if and only if each world of the model satisfies the formula. In this case, we write $M \models \phi$ and say ϕ is *valid* in M . A formula ϕ is *valid*, if and only if it is true in every world of every model, written as $\models \phi$.

3. Delay Differential Equations

Differential equations are often used to describe the dynamics of a deterministic system, whose future behavior depends on the present state. For an *ordinary differential equation* (ODE), this state is an element of \mathbb{R}^n . The rate of change only depends on the current time instant.

In *delay differential equations* (DDEs) however, the system is influenced by the past through the appearance of a deviated time argument, the current state needs to contain the previous evolution. This leads to a functional state space, its elements are functions on a past time interval. For that reason, DDEs belong to the class of *functional differential equations* (FDEs).

DDEs often appear in automatic control, where a controller monitors the state of a system in order to make control decisions to adjust this state. If there is a delay between the observation and the control action, the differential equation describing the system not only depends on its current state, but also on its past. These previous values need to be specify in an initial condition, for at least the time of the longest delay.

Examples of phenomena which have been modeled using delay differential equations include epidemics, traffic flow and vibrations/chattering. See [6] and the references therein.

Some methods to solve basic DDEs analytically are presented in [6]. Numerical procedures are not as far developed as for ODEs. See [1] or [43] for a rigorous integration algorithm.

3.1. Piecewise Continuous Functions

The following definition is motivated by the character of evolution arising from hybrid systems. We define the main functional space of operation for the following chapters.

Definition 3.1 (Piecewise Continuously Differentiable). Let $D = [a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a closed interval (this includes the cases when $a = -\infty$ or $b = \infty$, or both). The mapping $x: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is called *n-times piecewise continuously differentiable* if and only if there is a finite partition (ordered set) $\{a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_m = b\}$ of D (i.e. $a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_m = b$) such that x is *n-times continuously differentiable* on each interval (t_i, t_{i+1}) with *càdlàg* (« continue à droite, limite à gauche ») derivative.

This means that everywhere on D , the function x and each of its derivatives $x^{(k)}$ are right continuous and have left limits.

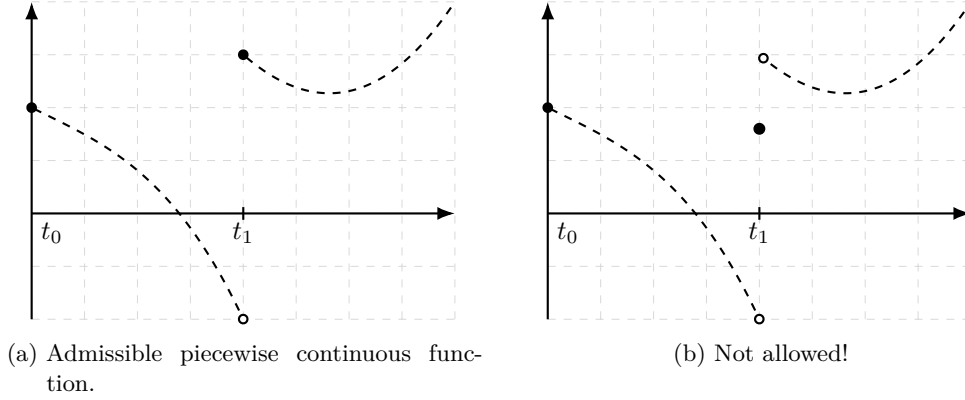


Figure 3.1.: Examples to Definition 3.1.

More precisely, for all $i = 0, \dots, m - 1$ and for all $k = 0, \dots, n$ exist the left limits

$$\lim_{\substack{t \nearrow t_{i+1} \\ t \in (t_i, t_{i+1})}} x^{(k)}(t)$$

as well as the right limits

$$\lim_{\substack{t \searrow t_i \\ t \in (t_i, t_{i+1})}} x^{(k)}(t) = x^{(k)}(t_i)$$

which additionally coincide with the value of $x^{(k)}$ at this knot t_i . Hence x can have an isolated point only in the right interval limit b .

In the case $n = 0$, we say x is *piecewise continuous*. For a compact interval $D \subset \mathbb{R}$ (this excludes the cases with $\pm\infty$), we denote by $C_{\text{pw}}^n(D, \mathbb{R}^n)$ the set of n -times *piecewise continuously differentiable functions* on D mapping to \mathbb{R}^n , and respectively, by $C_{\text{pw}}^0(D, \mathbb{R}^n)$ the set of *piecewise continuous functions* on D .

The supremum norm $\|\cdot\|_{\text{sup}}$ of the Banach space of continuous functions on the compactum D can be extended to $C_{\text{pw}}^n(D, \mathbb{R}^n)$, since each element consists of a finite number of continuous parts.

In the following, when we talk about *piecewise continuous* and *piecewise continuously differentiable*, we refer to it in the sense of Definition 3.1. Let us note some basic observations which will be used subsequently.

Lemma 3.2. *The composition of a continuous (outer) and a piecewise continuous function (inner) is again piecewise continuous with the same partition.*

Proof. The limits exist, because they commute with the continuous function and exist for the piecewise-continuous function. \square

Lemma 3.3. *A piecewise continuous function is (Riemann) integrable.*

Proof. This proof is usually given in every standard analysis book, see for example Theorem 6.10 in [41] or Example 11.16b in [8]. \square

The following lemma generalizes the fundamental theorem of calculus to piecewise continuous derivatives.

Lemma 3.4. *Let $F \in C^0([a, b]) \cap C_{\text{pw}}^1([a, b])$ with piecewise derivative f . Then*

$$F(t) - F(a) = \int_a^t f(s) \, ds$$

for all $t \in [a, b]$.

Proof. On each compact interval $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$ of the partition, f is piecewise continuous and hence integrable (Lemma 3.3).

By precondition is F differentiable on $[t_{i-1}, \zeta]$ with $F' = f$ for all $\zeta \in (t_{i-1}, t_i)$. For that reason, the fundamental theorem of calculus (cf. standard analysis literature, e.g. [8, 41]) yields

$$\int_{t_{i-1}}^{\zeta} f(s) \, ds = F(\zeta) - F(t_{i-1})$$

and by the continuity of F that

$$\int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} f(s) \, ds = \lim_{\zeta \rightarrow t_i} \int_{t_{i-1}}^{\zeta} f(s) \, ds = \lim_{\zeta \rightarrow t_i} F(\zeta) - F(t_{i-1}) = F(t_i) - F(t_{i-1})$$

For any $t \in [a, b]$, there is a $k \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ such that $t \in [t_{k-1}, t_k]$ (in the case $t = b$, set $k = m$), summation over $i = 1, \dots, k$ yields the telescoping series

$$F(t) - F(a) = \sum_{i=1}^k \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} f(s) \, ds + \int_{t_j}^t f(s) \, ds$$

what is by the additivity of the integral equivalent to

$$F(t) - F(a) = \int_a^t f(s) \, ds.$$

\square

3.2. Definition of DDEs

There are different possibilities to define delay differential equations, depending on what application one has in mind. We restrict to a class adapted to our needs and often found in literature, see for example [40] and which cover a wide range of applications.

Definition 3.5 (Delay Differential Equation). Given a function $f: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ and a set of time delays $\{\tau_j : 0 < \tau_1 < \dots < \tau_k\}$, a functional equation of the form

$$x'(t) = f(t, x(t), x(t - \tau_1), \dots, x(t - \tau_k)) \quad (3.1)$$

is called (first order) *delay differential equation* (DDE) with *multiple constant, discrete delays* τ_j . It is said to be *autonomous* if its right hand side f is time independent and *pure*, if the right hand side only depends on $x(t - \tau_j)$ but not on $x(t)$. We define its *maximal* and *minimal delay* as $\tau_{\max} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \tau_k$ and $\tau_{\min} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \tau_1$, respectively.

A DDE can be equipped with an *initial condition* $x_\sigma: [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. It specifies the initial state, i.e. the values of x , on which the right hand side depends at $t = \sigma$. Such a pair is called *initial value problem* (IVP):

$$\begin{cases} x'(t) = f(t, x(t), x(t - \tau_1), \dots, x(t - \tau_k)) & \text{for } t \geq \sigma \\ x(t) = x_\sigma(t) & \text{for } t \in [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma] \end{cases} \quad (3.2)$$

Definition 3.6 (Solution of DDE). A function $x: [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma + T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is called (*local*) *solution* of the initial value problem (3.2), if and only if there exists a $T > 0$ such that x obeys the initial condition

$$x(t) = x_\sigma(t) \quad \text{for } t \in [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma]$$

and x is continuous and piecewise continuously differentiable on $[\sigma, \sigma + T]$, fulfilling

$$x'(t) = f(t, x(t), x(t - \tau_1), \dots, x(t - \tau_k))$$

on each (open) interval (t_i, t_{i+1}) of its partition $\{\sigma = t_0 < \dots < t_m = \sigma + T\}$.

If the function x is a solution for all $T > 0$, it is called *global*.

The piecewise continuity of the derivative means

$$\lim_{s \searrow t_i} x'(s) = f(t_i, x(t_i), x(t_i - \tau_1), \dots, x(t_i - \tau_k))$$

for the right limits in the knots t_i , $i \in \{0, \dots, m - 1\}$. This is equivalent to the fact that it holds for the *right derivative*

$$x'_+(t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lim_{s \searrow t} \frac{x(s) - x(t)}{s - t} = f(t, x(t), x(t - \tau_1), \dots, x(t - \tau_k))$$

for all $t \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]$.

There can be a T such that left limit does not exist. explosion The left limits $\lim_{s \nearrow t_m} x'(s)$ exists not necessarily in the last knot $t_m = \sigma + T$. If it does, the solution is continuable.

3.3. Method of Steps

If we restrict the IVP (Eq. 3.2) onto an interval $[\sigma, \sigma + T_1]$ with $T_1 \leq \tau_{\min}$, then the values of all $x(t - \tau_j)$ are specified by the initial condition and can thus be replaced by $x_\sigma(t - \tau_j)$. We obtain an *initial value problem* for an *ordinary differential equation*. If we can solve this IVP, i.e. if we can find a solution of the ODE on $[\sigma, \sigma + T_1]$, then we can reapply this method by plugging the computed solution into the DDE and solving the resulting ODE on the interval $[\sigma + T_1, \sigma + T_2]$, where again $T_2 \leq \tau_{\min}$. As long as one can solve the resulting ODE (for suitable f and x_σ , the existence (and uniqueness) of a solution for the ODE is guaranteed by Picard-Lindelöf's theorem), this step can be iterated.

This method, which allows to convert DDE into a ODE on a certain interval, eliminating the explicit dependence on the past by inserting the initial condition, is known as *method of steps*. See [6] for examples.

3.4. Existence and Uniqueness of Solutions

In this section, we show that under certain conditions, we can guarantee the existence of a solution for the DDE-IVP (Eq. 3.2) and that in general, it cannot have more than one.

Definition 3.7 (Lipschitz Continuity). A function $f: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is called (locally) *Lipschitz continuous* (in its j -th argument, referring to t as zeroth argument) if and only if for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $M > 0$ there is a $L > 0$, such that

$$\|f(t, x_1, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_k) - f(t, x_1, \dots, y_j, \dots, x_k)\| \leq L\|x_j - y_j\|$$

for all $t \in [a, b]$ and $x_j, y_j \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\|x_j\|, \|y_j\| \leq M$.

Lemma 3.8. *Finding a solution of the initial value problem (3.2) is equivalent to solving the integral equation*

$$\begin{cases} x(t) = x_\sigma(\sigma) + \int_\sigma^t f(s, x(s), x(s - \tau_1), \dots, x(s - \tau_k)) \, ds & \text{for } t \geq \sigma \\ x(t) = x_\sigma(t) & \text{for } t \in [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma] \end{cases}$$

where $f: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is continuous and Lipschitz continuous in all but its zeroth argument. The integral is meant to be componentwise, if f is vector-valued.

Proof. Let x be a solution of the IVP. Thus x is (by definition) piecewise continuous on $[\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma]$ and continuous and piecewise continuously differentiable on $[\sigma, \sigma + T]$ with (piecewise) derivative $t \mapsto f(t, x(t), x(t - \tau_1), \dots, x(t - \tau_k))$. By Lemma 3.4 it follows

$$x(t) = x_\sigma(\sigma) + \int_\sigma^t f(s, x(s), x(s - \tau_1), \dots, x(s - \tau_k)) \, ds$$

for $t \geq \sigma$, since $x_\sigma(\sigma) = x(\sigma)$.

Conversely, let x be a solution of the integral equation. By the fundamental theorem of calculus, x is continuous on $[\sigma, \sigma + T]$.

From the partition $\{t_0 < \dots < t_m\}$ of x_σ , we define a partition of $[\sigma, \sigma + T]$ by

$$\mathcal{Z} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{\hat{t}_0 < \dots < \hat{t}_p\} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{\sigma, \sigma + T\} \cup \bigcup_{j=1}^k \bigcup_{\substack{i=1 \\ t_i \geq \sigma - \tau_j}}^m \{t_i + \tau_j\} \quad (3.3)$$

Let $t \in (\hat{t}_{l-1}, \hat{t}_l)$ for any $l \in \{1, \dots, p\}$. If for any $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ and $i \in \{0, \dots, m\}$ was $t - \tau_j = t_i$, then $t = t_i + \tau_j = \hat{t}_r$ for a $r \in \{1, \dots, p\}$, which would be a contradiction to the choice of t . Hence $t - \tau_j \neq t_i$ for all $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ and $i \in \{0, \dots, m\}$, what implies that all $s \mapsto x(s - \tau_j)$ are continuous in t . Thus the composition

$$s \mapsto f(s, x(s), x(s - \tau_1), \dots, x(s - \tau_k))$$

is continuous in t . The fundamental theorem of calculus states in this case that x is differentiable in t and that $x'(t) = f(t, x(t), x(t - \tau_1), \dots, x(t - \tau_k))$.

For the right limits it follows by the continuity of f and $\lim_{t \searrow \hat{t}_l} x(t - \tau_j) = x(\hat{t}_l - \tau_j)$, since $t - \tau_j \neq t_i$, that

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \searrow \hat{t}_l} x'(t) &= \lim_{t \searrow \hat{t}_l} f(t, x(t), x(t - \tau_1), \dots, x(t - \tau_k)) \\ &= f(\hat{t}_l, x(\hat{t}_l), x(\hat{t}_l - \tau_1), \dots, x(\hat{t}_l - \tau_k)) \end{aligned}$$

The left limits

$$\lim_{t \nearrow \hat{t}_l} x'(t) = \lim_{t \nearrow \hat{t}_l} f(t, x(s), x(t - \tau_1), \dots, x(t - \tau_k))$$

exist for the same reason. Summarily, x is continuous and piecewise continuously differentiable on $[\sigma, \sigma + T]$ with piecewise derivative f and it obviously obeys the initial condition, i.e. $x(t) = x_\sigma(t)$ for all $t \in [\sigma - \tau, \sigma]$. \square

The most important result for the considered class of delay differential equations is the following theorem. Its proof is an adaption and extension of the existence theorem (Theorem 3.7) given in [42] and the proof of uniqueness in [35]. It essentially reduces the DDE locally to an ODE by applying the method of steps.

Theorem 3.9 (Existence of a unique solution). *For a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, satisfying the Lipschitz condition (Def. 3.7) in all but its zeroth argument, consider the IVP for a delay differential equation*

$$\begin{cases} x' = f(t, x(t), x(t - \tau_1), \dots, x(t - \tau_k)) & \text{for } t \geq \sigma \\ x(t) = x_\sigma(t - \sigma) & \text{for } t \in [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma] \end{cases} \quad (3.4)$$

with zero-aligned initial function.

Then, for each initial condition $x_\sigma \in C_{\text{pw}}^1([-\tau_{\max}, 0], \mathbb{R}^n)$ and start time $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists a unique local solution of the IVP on a time interval $[\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma + T]$. The duration $T > 0$ depends on the sup-norm and the partition of the initial condition, as well as the right hand side f .

Proof. Let $\{-\tau_{\max} = t_0 < \dots < t_m = 0\}$ be the partition of x_σ . As a piecewise continuous function, the initial condition can be bounded on $[-\tau, 0]$ by any $M \geq \|x_\sigma\|_{\sup}$.

Since f is continuous, its sup-norm admits a maximum $K > 0$ on the compact set

$$S \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} [\sigma, \sigma + \tau_{\max}] \times \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\| \leq 2M\}^k$$

Let $L > 0$ be the Lipschitz constant of f for that set with respect to its first argument.

We put $T \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min\{\sigma + \tau_{\min}, \frac{M}{K}\}$ to restrict f as integrand to S .

We construct a series $(x_{(m)})_{m \in \mathbb{N}_0}$ of piecewise continuous functions, which approximates the solution of the initial value problem. Set

$$x_{(0)}(t) = \begin{cases} x_\sigma(0) & \text{for } t \in [\sigma, \sigma + T] \\ x_\sigma(t - \sigma) & \text{for } t \in [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma] \end{cases}$$

For $m \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ define

$$x_{(m)}(t) = \begin{cases} x_\sigma(0) + \int_\sigma^t f(s, x_{(m-1)}(s), x_{(m-1)}(s - \tau_1), \dots, \\ \quad \dots, x_{(m-1)}(s - \tau_k)) \, ds & \text{for } t \in [\sigma, \sigma + T] \\ x_\sigma(t - \sigma) & \text{for } t \in [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma] \end{cases}$$

The integral exists, because the integrand is a composition of a continuous and piecewise continuous function, which is again piecewise continuous (Lemma 3.2) and hence by Lemma 3.3 integrable on $[\sigma, \sigma + T]$.

It holds for all $m > 0$ and $t \in [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma]$ by the definition of this sequence that

$$\|x_{(m)}(t) - x_{(m-1)}(t)\| = 0$$

We show by induction over m that for all $t \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]$ it holds

$$\|x_{(m)}(t) - x_{(m-1)}(t)\| \leq \frac{K}{L} \frac{L^m (t - \sigma)^m}{m!}.$$

Let $t \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]$. Since for all $s \in [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma + T]$ obviously $\|x_{(0)}(t)\| \leq M$, the statement for $m = 0$ follows from the boundedness of f on S and the triangle inequality for integrals:

$$\|x_{(1)}(t) - x_{(0)}(t)\| = \left\| \int_\sigma^t f(s, x_{(0)}(s), x_{(0)}(s - \tau_1), \dots, x_{(0)}(s - \tau_k)) \, ds \right\| \leq K(t - \sigma)$$

In the inductive step for any $m > 0$, we use that $\|x_{(m-1)}(t)\| \leq 2M$ for all $s \in [\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma + T]$ implies

$$\begin{aligned} \|x_{(m)}(t)\| &\leq \|x_\sigma(0)\| + \int_\sigma^t \|f(s, x_{(m-1)}(s), x_{(m-1)}(s - \tau_1), \dots, x_{(m-1)}(s - \tau_k))\| \, ds \\ &\leq M + K(t - \sigma) \leq M + KT \\ &\leq 2M \end{aligned} \tag{3.5}$$

using the triangle inequality and the choice of $T \leq \frac{M}{K}$.

Given the second restriction for $T \leq \sigma + \tau_{\min}$ It follows by the Lipschitz property of f (for its first argument) that

$$\begin{aligned}
& \|x_{(m+1)}(t) - x_{(m)}(t)\| = \\
& = \left\| \int_{\sigma}^t f(s, x_{(m)}(s), x_{(m)}(s - \tau_1), \dots, x_{(m)}(s - \tau_k)) \right. \\
& \quad \left. - f(s, x_{(m-1)}(s), x_{(m-1)}(s - \tau_1), \dots, x_{(m-1)}(s - \tau_k)) \, ds \right\| \\
& = \left\| \int_{\sigma}^t f(s, x_{(m)}(s), x_{\sigma}(s - \tau_1 - \sigma), \dots, x_{\sigma}(s - \tau_k - \sigma)) \right. \\
& \quad \left. - f(s, x_{(m-1)}(s), x_{\sigma}(s - \tau_1 - \sigma), \dots, x_{\sigma}(s - \tau_k - \sigma)) \, ds \right\| \\
& \leq L \int_{\sigma}^t \|x_{(m)}(s) - x_{(m-1)}(s)\| \, ds \\
& \leq \frac{L^m K}{m!} \int_{\sigma}^t (s - \sigma)^m \, ds = \frac{L^m K}{(m+1)!} (t - \sigma)^{m+1}
\end{aligned}$$

The Cauchy criterion for convergent series ([8] 6.13, [41] 3.22) applied to the exponential series states that

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}_0 \, \forall m \geq k \geq n_0 : \sum_{i=k+1}^m \frac{(LT)^i}{i!} < \varepsilon$$

So for any $\varepsilon > 0$ exist $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $m \geq k$, such that

$$\begin{aligned}
& \|x_{(m)}(t) - x_{(k)}(t)\| \leq \|x_{(m)}(t) - x_{(m-1)}(t)\| + \|x_{(m-1)}(t) - x_{(m-2)}(t)\| + \\
& \quad + \dots + \|x_{(k+1)}(t) - x_{(k)}(t)\| \\
& \leq \frac{K}{L} \frac{L^m (t - \sigma)^m}{m!} + \frac{K}{L} \frac{L^{m-1} (t - \sigma)^{m-1}}{(m-1)!} + \\
& \quad + \dots + \frac{K}{L} \frac{L^{k+1} (t - \sigma)^{k+1}}{(k+1)!} \\
& \leq \frac{K}{L} \sum_{i=k+1}^m \frac{(LT)^i}{i!} < \varepsilon
\end{aligned}$$

for all $t \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]$, i.e. $(x_{(m)})$ is a Cauchy sequence

Since each $x_{(m)}$ is continuous on $[\sigma, \sigma + T]$, this Cauchy sequence admits a limit x in the Banach space $C^0([\sigma, \sigma + T], \mathbb{R}^n)$ with respect to the sup-norm.

Again, we extend x to $[\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma]$ with x_{σ} , such that $x \in C_{\text{pw}}^0([\sigma - \tau, \sigma + T], \mathbb{R}^n)$.

By the continuity of the sup-norm it follows from (3.5) that

$$\|x\|_{\text{sup}} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|x_{(m)}\|_{\text{sup}} \leq 2M$$

can by the Lipschitz property of f

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sup_{t \in [\sigma, \sigma+T]} \|f(s, x_{(m)}(s), x_{(m)}(s - \tau_1), \dots, x_{(m)}(s - \tau_k)) \\
& \quad - f(s, x(s), x(s - \tau_1), \dots, x(s - \tau_k))\| \\
&= \sup_{t \in [\sigma, \sigma+T]} \|f(s, x_{(m)}(s), x_\sigma(s - \tau_1 - \sigma), \dots, x_\sigma(s - \tau_k - \sigma)) \\
& \quad - f(s, x(s), x_\sigma(s - \tau_1 - \sigma), \dots, x_\sigma(s - \tau_k - \sigma))\| \\
&\leq \sup_{t \in [\sigma, \sigma+T]} \|x_{(m)}(t) - x(t)\|
\end{aligned}$$

The uniform convergence (convergence in sup-norm) of $x_{(m)} \rightarrow x$, implies the uniform convergence

$$f(s, x_{(m)}(s), x_{(m)}(s - \tau_1), \dots, x_{(m)}(s - \tau_k)) \xrightarrow{m \rightarrow \infty} f(s, x(s), x(s - \tau_1), \dots, x(s - \tau_k))$$

and hence we can commute the integral and the limit process in

$$\begin{aligned}
x(t) &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} x_{(m+1)} \\
&= x_\sigma(0) + \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \int_\sigma^t f(s, x_{(m)}(s), x_{(m)}(s - \tau_1), \dots, x_{(m)}(s - \tau_k)) \, ds \\
&= x_\sigma(0) + \int_\sigma^t f(s, x(s), x(s - \tau_1), \dots, x(s - \tau_k)) \, ds
\end{aligned}$$

It follows that x solves the integral equation (3.2), which, by Lemma 3.8, proves the existence of a solution to the DDE which fulfills the initial condition.

It remains to show the uniqueness of a solution. Let x and \bar{x} be two solutions of the DDE on $[\sigma, \sigma + T]$, coinciding on $[\sigma - \tau_{\max}, \sigma]$. By Lemma 3.8 they are equivalent to solutions of the integral equations

$$x(t) = x_\sigma(0) + \int_\sigma^t f(s, x(s), x(s - \tau_1), \dots, x(s - \tau_k)) \, ds$$

and

$$\bar{x}(t) = x_\sigma(0) + \int_\sigma^t f(s, \bar{x}(s), \bar{x}(s - \tau_1), \dots, \bar{x}(s - \tau_k)) \, ds$$

For $t \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]$, we set

$$\begin{aligned}
\rho(t) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \|x(t) - \bar{x}(t)\| \leq \int_{\sigma}^t \|f(s, x(s), x(s - \tau)) - f(s, \bar{x}(s), \bar{x}(s - \tau))\| \, ds \\
&= \int_{\sigma}^t \|f(s, x(s), x_{\sigma}(s - \tau_1 - \sigma), \dots, x_{\sigma}(s - \tau_k - \sigma)) \\
&\quad - f(s, \bar{x}(s), x_{\sigma}(s - \tau_1 - \sigma), \dots, x_{\sigma}(s - \tau_k - \sigma))\| \, ds \\
&\leq L \int_{\sigma}^t \|x(s) - \bar{x}(s)\| \, ds = L \int_{\sigma}^t \rho(s) \, ds \\
&= L \int_{\sigma}^t e^{-\alpha s} \rho(s) e^{\alpha s} \, ds \leq L \sup_{s \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]} (e^{-\alpha s} \rho(s)) \int_{\sigma}^t e^{\alpha s} \, ds \\
&\leq \frac{L}{\alpha} e^{\alpha t} \sup_{s \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]} (e^{-\alpha s} \rho(s))
\end{aligned}$$

The continuity of x also asserts the continuity of ρ . Choosing $\alpha = 2L$ and multiplying with $e^{-\alpha t} > 0$ leads to

$$\rho(t) e^{-2Lt} \leq \frac{1}{2} \sup_{s \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]} (e^{-2Ls} \rho(s))$$

for all $t \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]$

$$0 \leq \sup_{t \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]} (\rho(t) e^{-2Lt}) \leq \frac{1}{2} \sup_{s \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]} (e^{-2Ls} \rho(s))$$

That is only possible if $\rho(t) = 0$ for all $t \in [\sigma, \sigma + T]$, which means $x(t) = \bar{x}(t)$. \square

Corollary 3.10. *Continuability of solution. Get existence of unique solution on $[\sigma - \tau, \sigma + S]$ with $S > T$.*

In the following chapters, we will deal with delay differential equations having a polynomial right-hand side.

Corollary 3.11. *If f is a polynomial over t , $x(t)$ and $x(t - \tau_j)$, then there exists a unique solution to the initial value problem with delay differential equation and piecewise continuous initial condition (3.2).*

Proof. As a polynomial, f is continuously differentiable and hence locally Lipschitz. The existence of a unique solution follows from Theorem 3.9 and Corollary 3.10. \square

[40] If we limit T by τ_{\min} , we can see the solution of a delay differential equation as an operator mapping from functions on $[t - \tau_{\max}, t]$ to functions on $[t, t + \tau_{\min}]$. Then the solution of the initial value problem is the sequence of these functions. The notion of solution for an autonomous DDE as given above can be lifted to be a trajectory γ in the state space

$$\gamma: [0, T] \rightarrow C_{\text{pw}}^1([\tau, 0], \mathbb{R}^n) \quad (3.6)$$

This notion of solution is a *dynamical systems* point of view which later turns out to be useful.

Other results known from ordinary differential equations can be adapted to delay differential equations, such as continuous (or even differentiable) dependence of the solution on initial data, see [4]. In the following chapters, we will only consider autonomous DDEs, i.e. restrict to the case of initial time $\sigma = 0$.

Example 3.12. Delay differential equations can often incorporate a much richer behavior than ordinary differential equations. The basic ordinary IVP

$$\begin{cases} x'(t) = -x(t) \\ x(0) = x_0 \end{cases} \quad (3.7)$$

has the solution $x(t) = x_0 e^{-t}$. However the similar DDE

$$\begin{cases} x'(t) = -x(t - \tau) & t \geq 0 \\ x(t) = x_0(t) & -\tau \leq t \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad (3.8)$$

has a much more complex dynamics, which is shown in Figure 3.2 for $x_0(t) = 1$. The solution can be computed as a series of polynomial pieces by the method of steps.

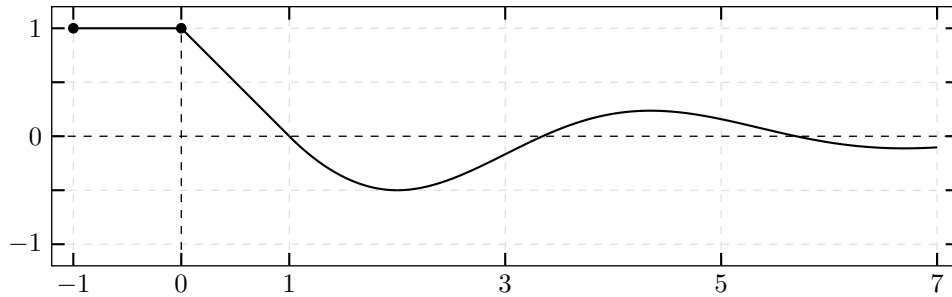


Figure 3.2.: Example 3.12 of a delay differential equation with initial condition.

4. Delay Differential Dynamic Logic

We extend classical differential dynamic logic ($\text{d}\mathcal{L}$) (see e.g. [30]) with syntax, semantics, axiomatization and proof rules to support reasoning about hybrid dynamical systems with delay.

To that purpose, we allow delay differential equations in hybrid programs, which are then called *delay hybrid program* (dHP).

The definition of *delay differential dynamic logic* ($\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$) provides all operators of first-order logic, as well as modal operators, in order to specify and verify reachability properties about the state of such dHPs.

In the language of $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$, we can not only model hybrid programs with DDEs in the continuous part, but also with temporal differences in the discrete fragment. For example a controller which approximates a derivative by a difference quotient.

The logic $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$ is a superset of $\text{d}\mathcal{L}$, i.e. in the absence of any delay, it reduces to classical *differential dynamic logic*.

4.1. Syntax

Terms and formulas in $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$, as well as dHPs are defined as *words* of finite length, produced by their corresponding grammars in Backus-Naur-form (BNF).

We define by \mathcal{V} be the set of *all variables* and by $\mathcal{V}' \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x' \mid x \in \mathcal{V}\}$ the corresponding set of *differential symbols*. Let $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{Q}_0^-$ be the set of *constant parameters*. All three sets are supposed to be finite. We denote $\mathcal{V}[\mathcal{C}] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x[c] \mid x \in \mathcal{V}, c \in \mathcal{C}\}$ as the set of *delay variables* and $\mathcal{V}'[\mathcal{C}] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x'[c] \mid x' \in \mathcal{V}', c \in \mathcal{C}\}$ as the set of *delay differentials*.

We will usually write variables as $x, y, z \in \mathcal{V}$ and their differential symbols as $x', y', z' \in \mathcal{V}'$. *Function symbols* f, g, h and *constant symbols* $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ are as in first-order logic (cf. Section 2.2).

Moreover, we write θ, η for $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$ terms, ϕ, ψ for $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$ formulas and α, β for dHPs. For formulas of first-order logic of real arithmetic ($\text{FOL}_{\mathbb{R}}$), we use the symbols χ and φ .

Definition 4.1 (s-Terms). The syntax of *terms* of *delay differential dynamic logic* is defined by the following grammar:

$$\begin{aligned} \theta(s), \eta(s) ::= & x[s] \mid x'[s] \mid x[c] \mid x'[c] \mid a \mid \\ & f(\theta_1(s), \dots, \theta_k(s)) \mid \theta(s) + \eta(s) \mid \theta(s) \cdot \eta(s) \mid (\theta(s))' \end{aligned}$$

where $x \in \mathcal{V}, x' \in \mathcal{V}'$ and f is a function symbol of arity k . The symbol $a \in \mathcal{C}$ stands for a constant value in \mathbb{Q} . The constant parameters $c \in \mathbb{Q}_0^-$ are not allowed to be positive.

The s-terms listed in the first line are called *atomic*, as opposed to the *composite* s-terms in the second line. S-terms generally depend on the time parameter $s \in \mathbb{R}_0^-$. This is why we write them as $\theta(s)$. If a s-term $\theta(s)$ does neither contain $x[s]$ nor $x'[s]$, we say $s \notin \theta(s)$ and abbreviate its notation to θ . Writing $\theta(b)$ means that all occurrences of s in $\theta(s)$ have been replaced with $b \in \mathbb{Q}_0^-$. Moreover, we agree on abbreviating $x[0]$ to x and $x'[0]$ to x' . Note that $s \notin \mathcal{V} \cup \mathcal{V}' \cup \mathcal{C}$. It is a special variable symbol.

The *differential* $(\theta(s))'$ of a term $\theta(s)$ is its syntactic (total) derivation, obtained by standard differentiation rules. Lemma 4.12 shows the validity of these rules and that the result is again a s-term.

Subtraction can be defined using addition and multiplication, division would also be possible, if we can exclude any division by zero. The grammar allows in particular the construction of polynomial forms.

Example 4.2. Let us consider the s-term

$$\theta(s) = x[s] + x[-\tau].$$

Setting $s = -1$ gives the term

$$\theta(-1) = x[-1] + x[-\tau].$$

Delay differential dynamic logic uses hybrid programs with delay differential equations as system model. The grammar defining these *delayed hybrid programs* is the same as for classical HPs (cf. [25]).

Definition 4.3 (Delay Hybrid Programs). The syntax of *delay hybrid programs* (dHPs) is defined by

$$\alpha, \beta ::= x := \theta \mid x' := \theta \mid ?\phi \mid \alpha \cup \beta \mid \alpha; \beta \mid \alpha^* \mid x' = \theta \& \chi$$

where α, β denote dHPs, x a variable and θ a term (possibly containing x or $x[b]$, but no $x[s]$). The formula χ is of $\text{FOL}_{\mathbb{R}}$, containing only normal variable symbols from \mathcal{V} .

Note that the syntax only allows autonomous DDEs, though with multiple constant delays.

Atomic dHPs are given by instantaneous discrete *assignments* $x := \theta(0)$ and *differential assignments* $x' := \theta(0)$, which change the value of the given variable only at the current time instant, not the past, *tests* $?\phi$, which pass only if the current state satisfies the formula ϕ and aborts the program execution if not, as well as evolutions along *delay differential equation* systems $x' = \theta(0) \& \chi$ of an arbitrary amount of time, but restricted by the evolution domain constraint χ .

Compound dHPs combine atomic programs, and comprise *nondeterministic choices* $\alpha \cup \beta$, running either α or β , *sequential compositions* $\alpha; \beta$, executing β after α and *nondeterministic repetitions* α^* , repeating α any number of times, zero times included.

Observe that ODEs are still expressible by this syntax and that hybrid programs are hence only delayed hybrid programs with zero delay.

The difference between classical HPs (as defined in $\text{d}\mathcal{L}$, cf. [29, 30, 25]) and *delay hybrid programs* is not syntactical, but only given by their semantics.

Definition 4.4 (s-Formulas). The syntax for *formulae of delay differential dynamic logic* is defined by the grammar

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(s), \psi(s) ::= & \theta(s) = \eta(s) \mid \theta(s) \geq \eta(s) \mid p(\theta_1(s), \dots, \theta_k(s)) \mid \forall[-T] \phi(s) \mid \\ & \neg \phi(s) \mid \phi(s) \wedge \psi(s) \mid \forall x \phi(s) \mid \exists x \phi(s) \mid [\alpha] \phi(s) \mid \langle \alpha \rangle \phi(s) \end{aligned}$$

with $\theta(s), \eta(s), \theta_1(s), \dots, \theta_k(s)$ as s-terms, p as predicate symbol, x as variable, and α as dHP.

These formulae combine connectives of propositional logic with first-order quantifiers (which both have standard meaning) and two modalities, describing *necessary* and *possible* properties.

The other comparison operators $<, \leq, >$ and logic connectives $\vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$ can be defined using $=, \wedge, \neg$ and are hence not explicitly mentioned in the grammar. Analogously $\exists x \phi$ is expressible as $\neg \forall x \neg \phi$ and the modal formula $[\alpha] \phi$ (ϕ holds in the state after all runs of α) by its dual $\langle \alpha \rangle \phi \equiv \neg [\alpha] \neg \phi$ (there is at least one state reachable by α such that ϕ holds). The quantifiers \forall and \exists quantify over the state space $C_{\text{pw}}^1([-T, 0], \mathbb{R}^n)$.

Like the s-terms defined above, the s-formulae depend on a time parameter $s \in [-T, 0]$. The symbol T is a symbolic constant related to the length of the domain of the state space, which is induced by the occurrence of delay symbols. Its value is defined by the static semantics and set by proof rules. The only way to bind the variable s in a formula $\phi(s)$ is by using $\forall[-T] \phi(s)$, which quantifies s over the domain of the state space, except for the current time point 0.

We note ϕ to indicate that s is not a free variable of $\phi(s)$ and $\phi(b)$ with $b \in \mathbb{Q}_0^-$ to express that each term $\theta(s)$ in the formula was replaced by its corresponding $\theta(b)$, even if it was bound by a $\forall[-T]$. If we write $\phi(x)$, we mean entire function x , not only the value $x[0]$ (cf. usage for \forall).

A s-formula $\phi(s)$, which contains a $x[c]$ for any $c \in \mathcal{C}$ is called *stiff*.

Formulas of first-order logic of real arithmetic constitute a subset of **ddL**, i.e. every $\text{FOL}_{\mathbb{R}}$ formula is also a formula of delay differential dynamic logic.

Convention 4.5. The frequently appearing fact that $\phi(s)$ is not only supposed to hold for $s \in [-T, 0)$ but also in $s = 0$

$$\forall[-T] \phi(s) \wedge \phi(0)$$

can also be written as

$$\forall[-T] \phi(s)$$

For convenience, we allow the latter, abbreviated notation, which is implicitly replaced by the former, syntactically correct version.

In order to simplify notation by eliminating parentheses, we agree on the following

Convention 4.6. The operators in **ddL** formulae obey the following binding priorities (from highest to lowest):

- the quantifiers \forall, \exists and the modal operators $[\cdot], \langle \cdot \rangle$ bind strongest
- negation \neg binds stronger than
- conjunction \wedge binds stronger than
- disjunction \vee binds stronger than
- implication \rightarrow binds stronger than
- equivalence \leftrightarrow , which binds weakest.

Moreover, when a s-formula does not depend on the quantified parameter s , we can drop the quantifier $\forall[-T]$ in which this formula appears.

Example 4.7. Consider the two well-formed **ddL** formulae:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall[-T] (x + x[s] \geq 0) \\ \forall[-T] (x + x[-\tau] \geq 0) \end{aligned}$$

The quantification over s in the second formula can be dropped, what leads to the equivalent formula

$$x + x[-\tau] \geq 0.$$

4.2. Dynamic Semantics

In this section, we give meaning to the syntax introduced above, by defining its semantics in a compositional way.

Following the remark to the solution of a DDE (cf. Section ??), we define the *state space* in **ddL** as $C_{\text{pw}}^1([-T, 0], \mathbb{R}^n)$, the set of piecewise continuously differentiable functions on $[-T, 0]$, as defined in Definition ??. This means that a variable remembers a limited part of its evolution history, what demands hence an implicit notion of a underlying time.

We denote by \mathcal{S} the *set of states*. A *state* $\nu \in \mathcal{S}$ is a mapping

$$\nu: \mathcal{V} \cup \mathcal{V}' \rightarrow C_{\text{pw}}^1([-T, 0], \mathbb{R}^n) \quad (4.1)$$

which assigns a *history* (function) to each variable and differential symbol.

By $\nu[x \mapsto y]$ we denote the state which is equal to state ν , except for the value of the variable x , which is set to $y \in C_{\text{pw}}^1([-T, 0], \mathbb{R}^n)$.

Definition 4.8 (Semantics of s-terms). The *semantics* of a s-term $\theta(s)$ in the state $\nu \in \mathcal{S}$ with respect to the time instant $r \in [-T, 0]$ is a value in \mathbb{R} and defined inductively as follows:

1. $\llbracket x[s] \rrbracket_{\nu, r}^I = \nu(x)(r)$ for a variable $x \in \mathcal{V}$
2. $\llbracket x'[s] \rrbracket_{\nu, r}^I = \nu(x')(r) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lim_{t \searrow r} \frac{\nu(x)(t) - \nu(x)(r)}{t - r}$ (except in $r = 0$)

3. $\llbracket x[c] \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I = \nu(x)(c)$ for a variable $x \in \mathcal{V}$
4. $\llbracket x'[c] \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I = \nu(x')(c) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lim_{t \searrow c} \frac{\nu(x)(t) - \nu(x)(c)}{t - c}$ (except in $c = 0$)
5. $\llbracket a \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I = I(a)$ for a constant $a \in \mathcal{C}$
6. $\llbracket f(\theta_1(s), \dots, \theta_k(s)) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I = I(f)(\llbracket \theta_1(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I, \dots, \llbracket \theta_k(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I)$ for a function symbol f
7. $\llbracket \theta(s) + \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I = \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I + \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I$
8. $\llbracket \theta(s) \cdot \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I = \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \cdot \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I$
9. $\llbracket (\theta(s))' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I = \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[\mathcal{C}]} \nu(x')(I(c)) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[b]} + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]}$

where $c \in \mathbb{Q}_0^-$ is a non-positive rational number.

The meaning of the variable and differential symbols is determined by the state. Additionally, the value of a differential symbol has to coincide with the right derivative of the corresponding variable, except for $r = 0$.

The meaning of the differential of an arbitrary term is the total derivative of its value with respect to the underlying continuous time. As a composition of smooth functions is $\llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I$ smooth itself and hence these derivatives exist. The sum is finite, since each term only mentions finitely many variables.

In the precondition, no values are associated to the differential symbols. In general, the initial function is only piecewise continuous. Since for later time instances, the values of the differential symbols derive from the DDE, they become (locally) smooth function.

Definition 4.9 (Semantics of s-formulae). The semantics of a **ddL** formula ϕ is the subset of all states $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket_r^I \subseteq \mathcal{S}$ in which ϕ is true. This set is given inductively by

1. $\llbracket \theta(s) = \eta(s) \rrbracket_r^I = \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I = \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \right\}$
2. $\llbracket \theta(s) \geq \eta(s) \rrbracket_r^I = \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \geq \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \right\}$
3. $\llbracket p(\theta_1(s), \dots, \theta_k(s)) \rrbracket_r^I = \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \left(\llbracket \theta_1(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I, \dots, \llbracket \theta_k(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \right) \in I(p) \right\}$
4. $\llbracket \neg \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I = \left(\llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \right)^c = \mathcal{S} \setminus \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$
5. $\llbracket \phi(s) \wedge \psi(s) \rrbracket_r^I = \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \cap \llbracket \psi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$
6. $\llbracket \forall[-T] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I = \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \forall \tilde{r} \in [-T, 0) : \nu \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_{\tilde{r}}^I \right\}$
7. $\llbracket \forall x \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I = \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \nu[x \mapsto y] \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \text{ for all } y \in C_{\text{pw}}^1([-T, 0], \mathbb{R}^n) \right\}$

8. $\llbracket \exists x \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I = \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \nu[x \mapsto y] \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \text{ for some } y \in C_{\text{pw}}^1([-T, 0], \mathbb{R}^n) \right\}$
9. $\llbracket [\alpha] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I = \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \omega \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \text{ for all } \omega \text{ such that } (\nu, \omega) \in \rho(\alpha) \right\},$
i.e. $= \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \forall \omega \in \mathcal{S} : (\nu, \omega) \in \rho(\alpha) \Rightarrow \omega \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \right\}$
10. $\llbracket \langle \alpha \rangle \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I = \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \omega \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \text{ for some } \omega \text{ such that } (\nu, \omega) \in \rho(\alpha) \right\},$
i.e. $= \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \exists \omega \in \mathcal{S} : (\nu, \omega) \in \rho(\alpha) \wedge \omega \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \right\}$

The fact that formula $\phi(s)$ is true in state ν under the interpretation I at past time instant $r \in [-T, 0]$, i.e. $\nu \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$ can also be written as $I, \nu, r \models \phi(s)$. A formula $\phi(s)$ is called valid, written as $\models \phi(s)$, if and only if $\phi(s)$ is true in all states, for all $r \in [-T, 0]$ and under all interpretations.

As in classic first-order logic, the interpretation of a predicate symbol of arity n is a relation $I(p) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$.

Lemma 4.10 (Barcan formula). *The box modality and the quantification over s commute*

$$\llbracket \forall[-T] [\alpha] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I = \llbracket [\alpha] (\forall[-T] \phi(s)) \rrbracket_r^I$$

Proof. Since $\forall x : (p \Rightarrow q(x)) \equiv p \Rightarrow \forall x : q(x)$, it holds

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket \forall[-T] [\alpha] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I &= \\ &= \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \forall \tilde{r} \in [-T, 0] : \forall \omega \in \mathcal{S} : \left((\nu, \omega) \in \rho(\alpha) \Rightarrow \omega \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_{\tilde{r}}^I \right) \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \forall \omega \in \mathcal{S} : \forall \tilde{r} \in [-T, 0] : \left((\nu, \omega) \in \rho(\alpha) \Rightarrow \omega \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_{\tilde{r}}^I \right) \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \forall \omega \in \mathcal{S} : \left((\nu, \omega) \in \rho(\alpha) \Rightarrow \forall \tilde{r} \in [-T, 0] : \omega \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_{\tilde{r}}^I \right) \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \nu \in \mathcal{S} \mid \forall \omega \in \mathcal{S} : \left((\nu, \omega) \in \rho(\alpha) \Rightarrow \omega \in \llbracket \forall[-T] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \right) \right\} \\ &= \llbracket [\alpha] (\forall[-T] \phi(s)) \rrbracket_r^I \end{aligned}$$

□

However, the diamond modality does not commute with the s -quantification.

$$\llbracket \forall[-T] \langle \alpha \rangle \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \neq \llbracket \langle \alpha \rangle \forall[-T] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$$

Definition 4.11 (Transition semantics of dHPs). The interpretation of a dHP is given by a binary *reachability relation* $\rho(\alpha) \subseteq \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{S}$ between states:

$$1. \rho(x := \theta) = \left\{ (\nu, \omega) : \omega = \nu \text{ except } \omega(x) = \left(r \mapsto \begin{cases} \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu, r}^I & r = 0 \\ \nu(x)(r) & r \in [-T, 0) \end{cases} \right) \right\}$$

2. $\rho(x' := \theta) = \left\{ (\nu, \omega) : \omega = \nu \text{ except } \omega(x') = \left(r \mapsto \begin{cases} \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu, r}^I & r = 0 \\ \nu(x')(r) & r \in [-T, 0) \end{cases} \right) \right\}$
3. $\rho(? \phi) = \{ (\nu, \nu) : \nu \in \llbracket \phi \rrbracket^I \}$
4. $\rho(\alpha \cup \beta) = \rho(\alpha) \cup \rho(\beta)$
5. $\rho(\alpha; \beta) = \{ (\nu, \omega) : (\nu, \mu) \in \rho(\alpha), (\mu, \omega) \in \rho(\beta) \}$
6. $\rho(\alpha^*) = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} \rho(\alpha^n)$ with $\alpha^{n+1} \equiv (\alpha^n; \alpha)$ and $\alpha^0 \equiv (? \text{true})$
7. $\rho(x' = \theta \& \chi) = \{ (\nu, \omega) \mid \forall \zeta \in [0, r] : \gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket x' = \theta \wedge \chi \rrbracket_r^I \text{ and } \nu = \gamma(0) \text{ on } \{x'\}^{\mathbf{C}} \text{ and } \omega = \gamma(r) \text{ for a } \gamma : [0, r] \rightarrow \mathcal{S}, \text{ i.e. there exists a } r \geq 0 \text{ and a trajectory } \gamma : [0, r] \rightarrow \mathcal{S}, \text{ which fulfills } \gamma(\zeta)(x')(s) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{d\gamma(t)(x)(s)}{dt}(\zeta) \stackrel{!}{=} \llbracket \theta \rrbracket_{\gamma(\zeta+s), r}^I \text{ and satisfies } \chi \text{ for all } s \in [-\min\{\zeta, T\}, 0]. \text{ On } [-T, -\min\{\zeta, T\}) \text{ it holds } \gamma(\zeta)(\cdot)(s) = \nu(\cdot)(s + \zeta) \text{ for all variables.} \}$

The semantics of a delay differential equation is motivated by the definition of a solution for a DDE-IVP (cf. Definition 3.6), following the evolution for a nondeterministic period of time, as long as the evolution domain constraint holds.

initial value $\nu(x')$ may not be compatible with derivative final values coincide

For the *discrete assignment*, we only allow the values at the current time instant to be changed. A functional assignment would essentially allow to rewrite history, which is not permitted.

The jump behavior caused by discrete assignments is the actual reason why we need to consider piecewise continuous evolutions.

Time is implicit and usually not revealed. If it is explicitly needed, a clock variable t can be introduced by $t' = 1$.

As a $\text{FOL}_{\mathbb{R}}$ formula, χ do not contain any delayed variables and thus only depends on the values at the current time instant (and not over the entire interval $[-T, 0)$).

Lemma 4.12 (Derivations). *Standard analysis derivation rules also hold in the semantics of $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$ terms, i.e. the following equations are valid $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$ formulas*

$$(x[s])' = x'[s] \tag{4.2}$$

$$(x[c])' = x'[c] \tag{4.3}$$

$$(a)' = 0 \tag{4.4}$$

$$(\theta + \eta)' = (\theta)' + (\eta)' \tag{4.5}$$

$$(\theta \cdot \eta)' = (\theta)' \cdot \eta + \theta \cdot (\eta)' \tag{4.6}$$

$$\tag{4.7}$$

This allows to apply these rules on a syntactic level, what will be done in the form of axioms (see 5.1.1).

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\llbracket (x[s])' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I &= \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[c]} \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket x[s] \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[c]} + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket x[s] \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]} \\ &= \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket x[s] \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]} = \nu(x')(r) = \llbracket x'[s] \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\llbracket (x[c])' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I &= \sum_{x[d] \in \mathcal{V}[c]} \nu(x')(d) \frac{\partial \llbracket x[c] \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[d]} + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket x[c] \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]} \\ &= \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket x[c] \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[c]} = \nu(x')(c) = \llbracket x'[c] \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\llbracket (a)' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I &= \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[c]} \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket a \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[c]} \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\llbracket (\theta(s) + \eta(s))' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I &= \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[c]} \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) + \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[c]} + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) + \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]} \\ &= \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[c]} \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I + \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[c]} + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I + \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]} \\ &= \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[c]} \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[c]} + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]} \\ &\quad + \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[c]} \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[c]} + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]} \\ &= \llbracket (\theta(s))' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I + \llbracket (\eta(s))' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I = \llbracket (\theta(s))' + (\eta(s))' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\llbracket (\theta(s) \cdot \eta(s))' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I &= \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[C]} \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) \cdot \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[c]} + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) \cdot \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]} \\
&= \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[C]} \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \left(\llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \cdot \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \right)}{\partial x[c]} + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \left(\llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \cdot \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \right)}{\partial x[s]} \\
&= \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[C]} \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[c]} \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]} \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \\
&\quad + \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[C]} \nu(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[c]} \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I + \nu(x')(r) \frac{\partial \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I}{\partial x[s]} \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \\
&= \llbracket (\theta(s))' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \cdot \llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I + \llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \cdot \llbracket (\eta(s))' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I \\
&= \llbracket (\theta(s))' \cdot \eta(s) + \theta(s) \cdot (\eta(s))' \rrbracket_{\nu,r}^I
\end{aligned}$$

□

Definition 4.13. We define by

$$\mathcal{C}_\theta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{c \in \mathcal{C} \mid \exists x[] \in \mathcal{V} : x[c] \in \theta(s)\}$$

the set of constant parameter symbols occuring in the s-term $\theta(s)$.

Note that this set does not contain s , since it is, as a special purpose symbol, not in \mathcal{C} .

Definition 4.14 (Sampled trajectory). Since a s-term $\theta(s)$ only comprises a finite number of atomic terms, its valuation can also be seen as a mapping

$$\llbracket \theta(s) \rrbracket^I : \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{K}|} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

from the concrete values for each element of $\mathcal{K} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathcal{V}[\mathcal{C}_\theta] \cup \mathcal{V}'[\mathcal{C}_\theta] \cup \{x[s], x'[s]\}$ into the reals, if we assign a fixed $r \in [-T, 0]$ to s .

This gives rise to the definition of the *sampled trajectory* $\hat{\gamma}_\theta^r : [0, R] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{K}|}$ for a fixed $r \in [-T, 0]$ and s-term $\theta(s)$ (without loss of generality, considering $\mathcal{V} = \{x\}$)

$$\hat{\gamma}_\theta^r(t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} \gamma(t)(x)(c_1) \\ \vdots \\ \gamma(t)(x)(c_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

The following lemma shows the consistency of the semantics for differentials with the semantics of the evolution of a delay differential equation. This means that along a DDE, the values of differential symbols coincide with the time derivative of the value of the corresponding variable.

Lemma 4.15 (Differential Lemma). *The value of a s -term $\eta(s)$ along a trajectory $\gamma: [0, R] \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ satisfying a DDE for any duration $R > 0$, i.e. $I, \gamma \models (x' = \theta \wedge \chi)$, is piecewise continuously differentiable and for all $\zeta \in [0, R]$ and $r \in [-T, 0]$ it holds:*

$$\llbracket (\eta(s))' \rrbracket_{\gamma(\zeta), r}^I = \frac{d\llbracket \eta(s) \rrbracket_{\gamma(t), r}^I}{dt}(\zeta)$$

As in Definition 3.1, the derivative at a discontinuity point of is to be understood as right derivative.

Proof. Without loss of generality, we restrict in this proof to a single variable x . If $\eta(s)$ depends on more variables, consider the union of their partitions in the initial condition. Let $\{-T = t_0 < \dots < t_m = 0\}$ be the partition of the initial condition $\gamma(0)(x) \in C_{\text{pw}}^1([-T, 0], \mathbb{R}^n)$.

We choose an arbitrary but fixed valuation for s from $[-T, 0]$, such that the symbol s can be treated as a constant, in the same way as any $c \in \mathbb{Q}_0^-$. Depending on the s -term $\eta(s)$ and the fixed s , we define a partition $\mathcal{Z}_\eta^s = \{\hat{t}_0 < \dots < \hat{t}_p\}$ of $[0, \infty)$ (which can be limited to $[0, R]$) by

$$\mathcal{Z}_\eta^s \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{0\} \cup \bigcup_{i=0}^m \bigcup_{\substack{c \in \mathcal{K} \\ t_i \geq c}} \{t_i - c\} \cup \bigcup_{i=0}^m \bigcup_{j=1}^k \bigcup_{\substack{c \in \mathcal{K} \\ t_i + \tau_j \geq c}} \{t_i + \tau_j - c\}$$

where $\mathcal{K} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathcal{C}_\eta \cup \{s\}$ is the set of the constants (the interpretations/valuations of the constant symbols) appearing in the term η and $\tau_j \in \mathcal{C}_\theta$ the delays in the right hand side of the DDE. The set \mathcal{Z}_η^s is finite and non-empty, since it contains at least the value 0 and R .

We show first that $\gamma(t)(x)(c)$ is piecewise continuously differentiable in t for all $c \in \mathcal{K}$ with partition \mathcal{Z}_η^s :

Let $c \in \mathcal{K}$ and $\zeta \in (\hat{t}_l, \hat{t}_{l+1})$. Assume that $\zeta + c = t_i$ for some i . This implies $\zeta = t_i - c = \hat{t}_k$ for some k by the definition of the partition. This is not possible by the choice of ζ lying between two consecutive \hat{t}_l . We apply the same argumentation to the assumption $\zeta + c = t_i + \tau_j$. These contradictions show that for $\zeta \in (\hat{t}_j, \hat{t}_{j+1})$, it holds that $\zeta + c \neq t_i$ and $\zeta + c \neq t_i + \tau_j$ for all $c \in \mathcal{K}$ and for all $i \in \{0, \dots, m\}$, $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$. We now distinguish two cases:

If $\zeta + c < 0$, it holds by the definition of the DDE semantics (Definition ??(7)) that $\gamma(\zeta)(x)(c) = \gamma(0)(x)(\zeta + c)$, which is continuously differentiable as initial condition, if $\zeta + c \neq t_i$. Hence it follows

$$\frac{d\gamma(t)(x)(c)}{dt}(\zeta) = \frac{d\gamma(0)(x)(r)}{dr}(\zeta + c) = \gamma(0)(x')(\zeta + c) = \gamma(\zeta)(x')(c)$$

For the right limit it holds

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\zeta \searrow \hat{t}_j} \frac{d\gamma(t)(x)(c)}{dt}(\zeta) &= \lim_{\zeta \searrow t_i - c} \frac{d\gamma(0)(x)(r)}{dr}(\zeta + c) \\ &= \lim_{\zeta \searrow t_i} \frac{d\gamma(0)(x)(r)}{dr}(\zeta) = \gamma(0)(x')(t_i) \end{aligned}$$

And analogously for the existence of the left limit for $\zeta \nearrow \hat{t}_{j+1}$

If $\zeta + c \geq 0$, then $\gamma(\zeta)(x)(r) = \gamma(\zeta + c)(x)(0)$ is differentiable in ζ with

$$\gamma(\zeta)(x')(r) = \frac{d\gamma(t)(x)(r)}{dt}(\zeta)$$

by the semantics of the DDEs, if $\zeta + c \neq t_i + \tau_j$.

Let $\hat{\gamma}_\eta^s$ be the η -sampled trajectory for the considered delay differential equation and the fixed s . It follows with the above results

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\llbracket \eta \rrbracket_{\hat{\gamma}_\eta^s(\zeta)}^I}{dt} &= \left(\llbracket \eta \rrbracket^I \circ \hat{\gamma}_\eta^s(\zeta) \right)' = \nabla \llbracket \eta \rrbracket^I(\hat{\gamma}_\eta^s(\zeta)) \cdot \frac{d\hat{\gamma}_\eta^s}{dt}(\zeta) \\ &= \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[\mathcal{C}_\eta]} \frac{d\gamma(t)(x)(c)}{dt}(\zeta) \frac{\partial \llbracket \eta \rrbracket_{\hat{\gamma}_\eta^s(\zeta),s}^I}{\partial(x[c])} \\ &= \sum_{x[c] \in \mathcal{V}[\mathcal{C}]} \gamma(\zeta)(x')(c) \frac{\partial \llbracket \eta \rrbracket_{\hat{\gamma}_\eta^s(\zeta),s}^I}{\partial(x[c])} \\ &= \llbracket (\eta') \rrbracket_{\hat{\gamma}_\eta^s(\zeta)}^I \end{aligned}$$

where each sum only consists of finitely many summands. Moreover, it holds for the right limits

$$\lim_{\zeta \searrow \hat{t}_j} \frac{d\llbracket \eta \rrbracket_{\hat{\gamma}_\eta^s(\zeta),s}^I}{dt} = \llbracket (\eta') \rrbracket_{\hat{\gamma}_\eta^s(\hat{t}_j)}^I$$

and the left limits for $\zeta \nearrow \hat{t}_{j+1}$ exist. \square

Example 4.16. As an example for the construction of the partition in Proof 4.2, consider the s-term $\eta(s) \equiv x + x[-3.5] + x[s]$ together with the DDE $x' = x[-4]$. Let

$$\mathcal{Z} = \{-4, -3.25, -2, -1.2, 0\}$$

be the partition of some initial condition. Choosing $r = -1.8$ for s , we obtain

$$\mathcal{Z}_\eta^r = \{0, 0.25, 0.6, 0.75, 1.5, 1.8, 2, 2.3, 2.55, 2.8, 3.5, 3.8, 4\}$$

when we restrict the evolution to $[0, 4]$. Figure 4.1 depicts an example for the piecewise continuous differentiability of the term's evolution, given some initial condition.

Lemma 4.17 (Differential assignment). *Let $\gamma: [0, R] \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ be a trajectory satisfying a DDE for any duration $R \geq 0$, i.e. $I, \gamma \models (x' = \theta \wedge \chi)$. Then it holds:*

$$I, \gamma, r \models \phi(s) \leftrightarrow \gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket [x' := \theta]\phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$$

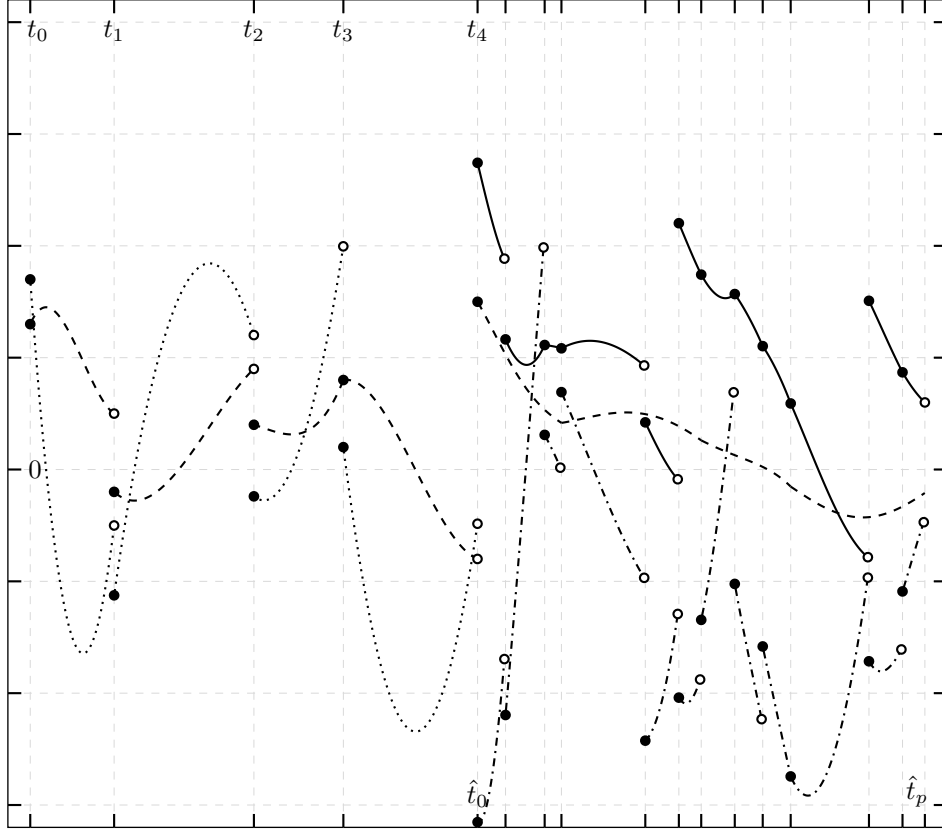


Figure 4.1.: Plot for Example 4.16, initial condition and solution of DDE (dashed), derivatives (dotted), value of term (solid) and the derivative of the term (dash-dotted).

Proof. Let $\zeta \in [0, R]$. It is $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket x'[0] = \theta \rrbracket_r^I$ and $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket \chi \rrbracket_r^I$, which means $\gamma(\zeta)(x')(0) = \llbracket \theta \rrbracket_{\gamma(\zeta), r}^I$, since θ is independent of s . By Definition 4.11(1) of the assignment's semantics, this implies $(\gamma(\zeta), \omega) \in \rho(x' := \theta)$ if and only if $\omega = \gamma(\zeta)$. Finally, this implies the equivalence

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I &\leftrightarrow \forall \omega \in \mathcal{S} : \left((\gamma(\zeta), \omega) \in \rho(x' := \theta) \rightarrow \omega \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \right) \\ &\leftrightarrow \gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket [x' := \theta] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I \end{aligned}$$

□

4.3. Static Semantics

The static semantics of **ddL** formulas and dHPs defines some properties, which can be derived solely from their syntactic structure and without execution of their programs. We adapt the notion of *free* and *bound* occurrences of variables in formulas and introduce the so called *history horizon*.

4.3.1. History Horizon

Delay hybrid programs and **ddL** formulas can reference previous values of variables. These values need to be specified by the state. For that reason, the lower interval bound $T \in \mathbb{R}_0^-$ of the state space domain needs to be chosen accordingly.

This bound is called *history horizon* and depends on all occurrences of $x[c]$ and $x'[c]$ in the formula and the hybrid programs it contains. The concrete value of T needs to be known in order to determine the validity of a formula, since it appears explicitly in the quantification $\forall[-T]$ for the special variable s .

Definition 4.18 (History Horizon). assigns to each **ddL** formula the earliest point in time it references to. It is defined inductively for s-formulas by:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{HH}(\theta(s) = \eta(s)) &= \text{HH}(\theta(s) \geq \eta(s)) = \max\{\text{HH}(\theta(s)), \text{HH}(\eta(s))\} \\ \text{HH}(p(\theta_1(s), \dots, \theta_k(s))) &= \max\{\text{HH}(\theta_1(s)), \dots, \text{HH}(\theta_k(s))\} \\ \text{HH}(\forall[-T] \phi(s)) &= \text{HH}(\phi(s)) \\ \text{HH}(\neg\phi(s)) &= \text{HH}(\phi(s)) \\ \text{HH}(\phi(s) \wedge \psi(s)) &= \max\{\text{HH}(\phi(s)), \text{HH}(\psi(s))\} \\ \text{HH}(\forall x \phi(s)) &= \text{HH}(\exists x \phi(s)) = \text{HH}(\phi(s)) \\ \text{HH}([\alpha]\phi(s)) &= \text{HH}(\langle\alpha\rangle\phi(s)) = \max\{\text{HH}(\alpha), \text{HH}(\phi(s))\} \end{aligned}$$

depending on the *history horizon* for s-terms

$$\begin{aligned} \text{HH}(x[s]) &= 0 \\ \text{HH}(x'[s]) &= 0 \\ \text{HH}(x[c]) &= |c| \\ \text{HH}(x'[c]) &= |c| \\ \text{HH}(a) &= 0 \\ \text{HH}(f(\theta_1(s), \dots, \theta_k(s))) &= \max\{\text{HH}(\theta_1(s)), \dots, \text{HH}(\theta_k(s))\} \\ \text{HH}(\theta(s) + \eta(s)) &= \max\{\text{HH}(\theta(s)), \text{HH}(\eta(s))\} \\ \text{HH}(\theta(s) \cdot \eta(s)) &= \max\{\text{HH}(\theta(s)), \text{HH}(\eta(s))\} \end{aligned}$$

and for dHPs

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{HH}(x := \theta) &= 0 \\
\text{HH}(x' := \theta) &= 0 \\
\text{HH}(\phi) &= 0 \\
\text{HH}(\alpha \cup \beta) &= \max\{\text{HH}(\alpha), \text{HH}(\beta)\} \\
\text{HH}(\alpha; \beta) &= \max\{\text{HH}(\alpha), \text{HH}(\beta)\} \\
\text{HH}(\alpha^*) &= \text{HH}(\alpha) \\
\text{HH}(x' = \theta \ \& \ \chi) &= \text{HH}(\theta)
\end{aligned}$$

Example 4.19.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\forall[-T] (x[s] = 2) \rightarrow \\
&\quad [x := x[-3]^2; x' = x[-\tau] + 2x \ \& \ (x \geq 0)] (\forall[-T] 0 \leq x[s] \wedge x[s] \leq x[-5])
\end{aligned}$$

Hence the history horizon needs to be set to

$$T = \max\{\max\{3, \tau\}, \max\{0, 5\}\}.$$

4.3.2. Variable Binding

Similar to dL [25], we define *free*, *bound* and *must bound* variables. A variable x is bound by quantifiers of the form $\forall x$ or $\exists x$ or through discrete assignment or differential evolution inside a modality, such as $[x := 4]$ or $\langle x' = x[-1] \rangle$. The only way to bind the special variable s is by appearing inside the scope of $\forall[-T]$.

More precisely, these notions can be defined by simultaneous induction over the syntax:

Definition 4.20 (Free variable). For s-terms, we define the set $\text{FV}(\theta(s)) \subseteq \mathcal{V} \cup \mathcal{V}' \cup \{s\}$ of *free variables* as the variables that occur in this term:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{FV}(x[s]) &= \{x, s\} \\
\text{FV}(x'[s]) &= \{x', s\} \\
\text{FV}(x[c]) &= \{x\} \\
\text{FV}(x'[c]) &= \{x'\} \\
\text{FV}(a) &= \emptyset \\
\text{FV}(f(\theta_1(s), \dots, \theta_k(s))) &= \text{FV}(\theta_1(s)) \cup \dots \cup \text{FV}(\theta_k(s)) \\
\text{FV}(\theta(s) + \eta(s)) &= \text{FV}(\theta(s) \cdot \eta(s)) = \text{FV}(\theta(s)) \cup \text{FV}(\eta(s)) \\
\text{FV}((\theta(s))') &= \text{FV}(\theta(s)) \cup \text{FV}(\theta(s))'
\end{aligned}$$

The set $\text{FV}(\phi(s)) \subseteq \mathcal{V} \cup \mathcal{V}' \cup \{s\}$ of a s-formula is defined as all its variables which

appear outside the scope of quantifiers or modalities which bind it:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{FV}(\theta(s) = \eta(s)) &= \text{FV}(\theta(s) \geq \eta(s)) = \text{FV}(\theta(s)) \cup \text{FV}(\eta(s)) \\
\text{FV}(p(\theta_1(s), \dots, \theta_k(s))) &= \text{FV}(\theta_1(s)) \cup \dots \cup \text{FV}(\theta_k(s)) \\
\text{FV}(\forall[-T] \phi(s)) &= \text{FV}(\phi(s)) \setminus \{s\} \\
\text{FV}(\neg \phi(s)) &= \text{FV}(\phi(s)) \\
\text{FV}(\phi(s) \wedge \psi(s)) &= \text{FV}(\phi(s)) \cup \text{FV}(\psi(s)) \\
\text{FV}(\forall x \phi(s)) &= \text{FV}(\exists x \phi(s)) = \text{FV}(\phi(s)) \setminus \{x\} \\
\text{FV}([\alpha] \phi(s)) &= \text{FV}(\langle \alpha \rangle \phi(s)) = \text{FV}(\alpha) \cup (\text{FV}(\phi) \setminus \text{MBV}(\alpha))
\end{aligned}$$

For a dHP α , its free variables $\text{FV}(\alpha) \subseteq \mathcal{V} \cup \mathcal{V}'$ are those which are potentially read:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{FV}(x := \theta) &= \text{FV}(x' := \theta) = \text{FV}(\theta) \\
\text{FV}(\phi) &= \\
\text{FV}(\alpha \cup \beta) &= \text{FV}(\alpha) \cup \text{FV}(\beta) \\
\text{FV}(\alpha; \beta) &= \text{FV}(\alpha) \cup (\text{FV}(\beta) \setminus \text{MBV}(\alpha)) \\
\text{FV}(\alpha^*) &= \text{FV}(\alpha) \\
\text{FV}(x' = \theta \& \chi) &= \{x\} \cup \text{FV}(\theta) \cup \text{FV}(\chi)
\end{aligned}$$

Only bound variables can change their value during the execution of a delay hybrid program.

Definition 4.21 (Bound variable). The set $\text{BV}(\phi(s)) \subseteq \mathcal{V} \cup \mathcal{V}' \cup \{s\}$ of a s-formula is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{BV}(\theta(s) = \eta(s)) &= \text{BV}(\theta(s) \geq \eta(s)) = \emptyset \\
\text{BV}(p(\theta_1(s), \dots, \theta_k(s))) &= \emptyset \\
\text{BV}(\forall[-T] \phi(s)) &= \{s\} \cup \text{BV}(\phi(s)) \\
\text{BV}(\neg \phi(s)) &= \text{BV}(\phi(s)) \\
\text{BV}(\phi(s) \wedge \psi(s)) &= \text{BV}(\phi(s)) \cup \text{BV}(\psi(s)) \\
\text{BV}(\forall x \phi(s)) &= \text{BV}(\exists x \phi(s)) = \{x\} \cup \text{BV}(\phi(s)) \\
\text{BV}([\alpha] \phi(s)) &= \text{BV}(\langle \alpha \rangle \phi(s)) = \text{BV}(\alpha) \cup \text{BV}(\phi(s))
\end{aligned}$$

The set of *bound variables* $\text{BV}(\alpha) \subseteq \mathcal{V} \cup \mathcal{V}'$ of a dHP α are the variables which are

potentially written:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{BV}(x := \theta) &= \{x\} \\
\text{BV}(x' := \theta) &= \{x'\} \\
\text{BV}(\phi) &= \emptyset \\
\text{BV}(\alpha \cup \beta) &= \text{BV}(\alpha; \beta) = \text{BV}(\alpha) \cup \text{BV}(\beta) \\
\text{BV}(\alpha^*) &= \text{BV}(\alpha) \\
\text{BV}(x' = \theta \& \chi) &= \{x, x'\}
\end{aligned}$$

Definition 4.22 (Must-bound variable). The set of *must-bound variables* $\text{MBV}(\alpha) \subseteq \mathcal{V} \cup \mathcal{V}'$ of a dHP α are the variables which are written at all execution paths:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{MBV}(x := \theta) &= \text{BV}(x := \theta) = \{x\} \\
\text{MBV}(x' := \theta) &= \text{BV}(x' := \theta) = \{x'\} \\
\text{MBV}(\phi) &= \text{BV}(\phi) = \emptyset \\
\text{MBV}(\alpha \cup \beta) &= \text{MBV}(\alpha) \cap \text{MBV}(\beta) \\
\text{MBV}(\alpha; \beta) &= \text{MBV}(\alpha) \cup \text{MBV}(\beta) \\
\text{MBV}(\alpha^*) &= \emptyset \\
\text{MBV}(x' = \theta \& \chi) &= \text{BV}(x' = \theta \& \chi) = \{x, x'\}
\end{aligned}$$

Obviously, it holds $\text{MBV}(\alpha) \subseteq \text{BV}(\alpha)$.

5. Axiomatization and Proof Calculus

Formulas of delay differential dynamic logic allow the specification of properties of hybrid programs with delay. Their truth value, whether a such formula is true or false, is determined by the semantics. However, finding the truth value only using the definition of the semantics is impractical and tedious. As a more powerful means for this verification task, **ddL** includes a proof calculus with rules based on axioms. These allow manipulations on a syntactic level, without falling back on the semantics. Moreover, they can be implemented in software for computer-aided verification.

5.1. Axiomatization

The axiomatization for **ddL** presented here is based on the **dL** axiomatization, as given in [33]. It is a first-order Hilbert calculus, using *modus ponens* and \forall -*generalization* as a basis.

As opposed to an axiom schemata, which represents an infinite list of axioms by containing placeholders for concrete formulas and terms, we consider here for simplicity an axiom as a concrete formula.

all instances of valid formulas of first-order real arithmetic are allowed as axiom

Similar to differential forms for **dL** [25], we also consider a differential form axiomatization of differential equations.

The goal of transforming a **ddL** formula into another formula by applying the axioms is to eventually derive a first-order formula of real arithmetic, which is decidable by *quantifier elimination*. The usage of real arithmetic is noted as (\mathbb{R}) .

$\forall x \phi$ quantifies over statespace $C_{pw}^1([-T, 0], \mathbb{R}^n)$, QE needs lifting: have finitely many $x[c] \in \phi$. can introduce for each a quantification over \mathbb{R} . For $x[s]$ need $\forall s \in [0, T) : ,$ which already quantifies over a subset of \mathbb{R} .

If the **ddL** formula ϕ can be derived by **ddL** proof rules from **ddL** axioms (this includes first-order logic axioms and rules), we say that this formula is *provable* and write $\vdash \phi$.

The axioms listed in Figure 5.1 are expressed in $[\cdot]$. Axioms with the dual operator $\langle \cdot \rangle$ can be obtained using the duality relation (axiom $\langle \cdot \rangle$).

The *discrete assignment axiom* $[\cdot :=]$ substitutes $x[0]$ by its new value θ in the formula. This requires x not to be ... (x and any variable in θ not bound by quantifier or modalityadmissibility condition). The *test axiom* $[?]$ The *axiom of nondeterministic choice* $[\cup]$ The *composition axiom* $[\cdot;]$ The *iteration axiom* $[*]$ partially unwinds a loop, which can also be used for bounded model checking. The *induction axioms* I can be applied when reasoning about loops with unbounded repetitions. The *modal modus*

$\langle \cdot \rangle$	$\langle \alpha \rangle \phi(s) \leftrightarrow \neg[\alpha]\neg\phi(s)$	G	$\frac{\phi}{[\alpha]\phi}$
$[:=]$	$[x := \theta]\phi(s, x[0]) \leftrightarrow \phi(s, \theta)$	MP	$\frac{\phi(s) \rightarrow \psi(s) \quad \phi(s)}{\psi(s)}$
$[?]$	$[?\psi(s)]\phi(s) \leftrightarrow (\psi(s) \rightarrow \phi(s))$	\forall	$\frac{\phi(s)}{\forall x \phi(s)}$
$[\cup]$	$[\alpha \cup \beta]\phi(s) \leftrightarrow [\alpha]\phi(s) \wedge [\beta]\phi(s)$		
$[:]$	$[\alpha; \beta]\phi(s) \leftrightarrow [\alpha][\beta]\phi(s)$		
$[*]$	$[\alpha^*]\phi(s) \leftrightarrow \phi(s) \wedge [\alpha][\alpha^*]\phi(s)$		
K	$[\alpha](\phi(s) \rightarrow \psi(s)) \rightarrow ([\alpha]\phi(s) \rightarrow [\alpha]\psi(s))$		
I	$[\alpha^*](\phi(s) \rightarrow [\alpha]\phi(s)) \rightarrow (\phi(s) \rightarrow [\alpha^*]\phi(s))$		
B	$\forall x [\alpha]\phi(s) \rightarrow [\alpha]\forall x \phi(s) \quad (x \notin \alpha)$		
V	$\phi \rightarrow [\alpha]\phi \quad (\text{FV}(\phi) \cap \text{BV}(\alpha) = \emptyset)$		

Figure 5.1.: Delay differential dynamic logic axioms and proof rules.

ponens axiom K and the *Barcan formula* B are taken from first-order modal logic. Axiom V

The basic *proof rules* for the presented Hilbert calculus are *Gödel's necessitation rule* G of modal logic, as well as *modus ponens* MP and \forall -*generalization* \forall of first-order logic.

5.1.1. Differential Axioms

The *delay differential weakening axiom* DDW internalizes that all values referenced in the state after a the evolution along a DDE were either specified in the initial condition or result from the differential equation. In the latter case, they need satisfied the evolution domain constraint. It should be pointed out, that the right hand side only demands the weaker $\forall[-T]$, as opposed to the $\forall[-T]$ appearing on the left.

$x'[c]$ and $x[c]$ are not allowed in the expression of an differential invariant, because they would lead to discontinuities. Thus differential invariants φ must be $\text{FOL}_{\mathbb{R}}$ formulas.

5.1.2. Axiom of Steps

The *method of steps* presented in Section 3.3 translates into an axiom.

By introducing a fresh variable t as a clock, we restrict the evolution of a delay differential equation starting from a state by a duration not longer than its smallest delay τ_{\min} . This evolution is then wrapped in a loop. In this case, the right hand side

$$\begin{array}{ll}
c' & (a)' = 0 \\
x[\cdot]' & (x[c])' = x'[c] \\
& (x[s])' = x'[s] \\
+' & (\theta(s) + \eta(s))' = (\theta(s))' + (\eta(s))' \\
\cdot' & (\theta(s) \cdot \eta(s))' = (\theta(s))' \cdot \eta(s) + \theta(s) \cdot (\eta(s))' \\
\text{DW} & [x' = \theta \& \chi]\chi \\
\text{DC} & ([x' = \theta \& \chi]\phi(s) \leftrightarrow [x' = \theta \& \chi \wedge \varphi]\phi(s)) \leftarrow [x' = \theta \& \chi]\varphi \\
\text{DE} & [x' = \theta \& \chi]\phi(s, x, x') \leftrightarrow [x' = \theta \& \chi][x' := \theta]\phi(s, x, x') \\
\text{DI} & [x' = \theta \& \chi]\varphi \leftarrow (\chi \rightarrow \varphi \wedge [x' = \theta \& \chi](\varphi)') \\
\text{DDW} & (\psi \rightarrow [x' = \theta \& \chi]\forall[-T]\phi(s)) \leftarrow ((\psi \rightarrow \forall[-T]\phi(s)) \wedge \forall x (\chi \rightarrow \phi(0)))(x[c] \notin \phi(s))
\end{array}$$

Figure 5.2.: Delay differential equation axioms and differential axioms.

of the differential equation only depends on the initial state of the loop, not on its own solution yet. Hence the differential equation is not longer a DDE, but of *ordinary* type. Its right hand side is in general piecewise continuous. Theorem 3.9 shows the existence of a unique local solution in this case.

$$[\rightarrow] \quad [x' = \theta \& \chi]\phi(s) \leftrightarrow [x' := \theta; (t := 0; t' = 1, x' = \theta \& \chi \wedge 0 \leq t \leq \tau_{\min})^*]\phi(s)$$

where τ_{\min} is the (by magnitude) smallest delay appearing in θ .

5.2. Soundness

The following theorem is obviously fundamental for the presented theory in order to make sense.

Theorem 5.1 (Soundness of $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$). *The $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$ calculus is sound: every formula which is provable from $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$ axioms by $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$ proof rules is valid (true in all states), i.e. $\vdash \phi$ implies $\models \phi$.*

Proof. The soundness proof of most of the axioms adapted from $\text{d}\mathcal{L}$ are independent of the definition of the state space, they only reason about states without considering their structure. This is the case for $[\cdot]$, $[\cup]$, $[*]$, K , I , B , V and G , whose proof can be found in the literature to $\text{d}\mathcal{L}$ [33]. The proof of $[?]$ additionally requires the semantics of \neg being defined as complement.

[:=] It is $\nu \in \llbracket [x := \theta] \phi(s, x[0]) \rrbracket_r^I$ iff $\omega \in \llbracket \phi(s, x[0]) \rrbracket_r^I$ for all $(\nu, \omega) \in \rho(x := \theta)$. There exists only a unique such state $\omega \in \mathcal{S}$. For this state it holds $\omega = \nu$ except for the variable x , for which

$$\omega(x)(r) = \begin{cases} \llbracket \theta \rrbracket_{\nu, r}^I & \text{if } r = 0 \\ \nu(x)(r) & \text{if } r \in [-T, 0) \end{cases}$$

i.e. the two states coincide in the values for $x[s]$, except in $x[0]$. Hence $\nu \in \llbracket \phi(s, \theta) \rrbracket_r^I$ iff $\omega \in \llbracket \phi(s, x[0]) \rrbracket_r^I$. The same holds if $\phi(x[0])$ does not depend on s . (->substitution lemma in book)

[→] Let $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \ \& \ \chi] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$ and $\gamma: [0, R] \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ be a trajectory of duration $R \geq 0$ solving the DDE and having ν as initial condition, i.e. $\gamma(0) = \nu$ on $\{x'\}^{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket x'[0] = \theta \wedge \chi \rrbracket_r^I$ for all $\zeta \in [0, R]$. By the choice of ν it holds $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$ for all $\zeta \in [0, R]$.

We need to show that

$$\nu \in \llbracket [x' := \theta; (t := 0; t' = 1, x' = \theta \ \& \ \chi \wedge 0 \leq t \leq \tau_{\min})^*] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I.$$

If we enter the loop in the right hand side zero times, this holds since $\gamma(0) \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$ and $\gamma(0) = \nu[x'[0] \mapsto \theta]$. If we repeated the loop n times, it holds after the last iteration that $\zeta = (n-1)\tau_{\min} + t \leq R$, since the evolution is restricted by χ . We know in this case that $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$ what implies the assertion. The converse implication is shown analogously.

$+', \cdot'$, These axioms are special instances of the equations proved in Lemma 4.12.
 $c', x[\cdot]'$

DW Proof as for **dL**.

DC For a formula φ of $\text{FOL}_{\mathbb{R}}$, let $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \ \& \ \chi] \varphi \rrbracket_r^I$ and $\gamma: [0, R] \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ be an arbitrary trajectory of duration $R \geq 0$, solving the DDE and having ν as initial condition, i.e. $\gamma(0) = \nu$ on $\{x'\}^{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\gamma(\xi) \in \llbracket x'[0] = \theta \wedge \chi \rrbracket_r^I$ for all $\xi \in [0, R]$.

Suppose $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \ \& \ \chi] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$, i.e. there exists a $0 \leq \bar{r} \leq R$, such that $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket x' = \theta \wedge \chi \rrbracket_r^I$ for all $\zeta \in [0, \bar{r}]$ and $\gamma(\bar{r}) \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$. Since $\zeta \leq R$ it is also $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_r^I$. This is equivalent to $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket x' = \theta \wedge \chi \wedge \varphi \rrbracket_r^I$ and $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_r^I$ for all $\zeta \in [0, \bar{r}]$, which is the same as $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \ \& \ \chi \wedge \varphi] \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$.

DI This proof is an adaption of the **dL** proof for DI given in [25]. Without loss of generality we restrict to the case of invariants of the form $\varphi \equiv (g(x) \geq 0)$, where g is a term of $\text{FOL}_{\mathbb{R}}$. Then $(\varphi)' \equiv ((g(x))' \geq 0)$ (by ??).

Consider a state $\nu \in \mathcal{S}$ with $\nu \in \llbracket \chi \rightarrow \varphi \wedge [x' = \theta \ \& \ \chi] (\varphi)' \rrbracket_r^I$. We need to distinguish two cases. If $\nu \notin \llbracket \chi \rrbracket_r^I$, then there is no solution of the DDE and hence $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \ \& \ \chi] \varphi \rrbracket_r^I$ vacuously.

If $\nu \in \llbracket \chi \rrbracket_r^I$, then $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \& \chi](\varphi)' \rrbracket_r^I$. Let $\gamma: [0, R] \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ be a trajectory solving the DDE for some time $r \geq 0$, i.e. $I, \gamma \models (x' = \theta \& \chi)$. If $R = 0$ then $\nu \in \llbracket \chi \rrbracket_r^I$ since the only variable changing its value is x' , which is not contained in χ ($\text{FV}(\chi) \cap \{x'\} = \emptyset$). Hence it follows from the precondition that $\nu \in \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_r^I$ and for this reason $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \& \chi]\varphi \rrbracket_r^I$.

If $R > 0$, $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \& \chi](\varphi)' \rrbracket_r^I$ implies $I, \gamma \models (\varphi)'$. By the Differential Lemma 4.15 it holds for all $\zeta \in [0, R]$

$$0 \leq \llbracket (g(x))' \rrbracket_{\gamma(\zeta), r}^I = \frac{d\llbracket g(x) \rrbracket_{\gamma(t), r}^I}{dt}(\zeta)$$

$\text{FV}(\varphi) \cap \{x'\} = \emptyset$ (means no x' in invariant) implies $\gamma(0) = \nu \in \llbracket g(x) \geq 0 \rrbracket_r^I$. no $x[c]$ in invariant, hence continuous. Lemma 3.3 yields for any $z \in [0, R]$

$$\llbracket g(x) \rrbracket_{\gamma(z), r}^I = \llbracket g(x) \rrbracket_{\gamma(0), r}^I + \int_0^z \frac{d\llbracket g(x) \rrbracket_{\gamma(t), r}^I}{dt}(\zeta) d\zeta \geq 0$$

hence $\gamma(z) \in \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_r^I$ and hence $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \& \chi]\varphi \rrbracket_r^I$

DE Let $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \& \chi]\phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$ and $\gamma: [0, R] \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ be a trajectory of duration $R \geq 0$ solving the DDE and having ν as initial condition, i.e. $\gamma(0) = \nu$ on $\{x'[0]\}^{\mathcal{G}}$ and $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket x'[0] = \theta \wedge \chi \rrbracket_r^I$ for all $\zeta \in [0, R]$. Since $\nu \in \llbracket [x' = \theta \& \chi]\phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$, we have $\gamma(R) \in \llbracket \phi \rrbracket_r^I$ which, by the Differential Assignment Lemma 4.17, is equivalent to $\gamma(R) \in \llbracket [x' := \theta]\phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$. Hence $\nu \in [x' = \theta \& \chi][x' := \theta]\phi(s)$. The inverse implication is shown in the same way.

DDW Let $\nu \in \llbracket \psi \rightarrow \forall[-T]\phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$ and $\nu \in \llbracket \forall x(\chi \rightarrow \phi(0)) \rrbracket_r^I$. We distinguish two cases: if $\nu \notin \llbracket \psi \rrbracket_r^I$... If $\nu \in \llbracket \psi \rrbracket_r^I$ then ν also satisfies $\forall[-T]\phi(s)$. We follow the given DDE along the trajectory $\gamma: [0, R]$ starting from ν and of duration $R \geq 0$, i.e. $(\nu, \gamma(\zeta)) \in \rho(x' = \theta \& \chi)$ and hence $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket \chi \rrbracket_r^I$ for all $\zeta \in [0, R]$. Let $\omega = \gamma(R)$ be the state after the evolution. We show that $\omega \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$ for all $r \in [-T, 0]$.

Since $x[c] \notin \phi(s)$, it is $\omega \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_r^I$ iff $\gamma(R - r) \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_0^I$.

For $R - r < 0$ this follows since initial state satisfies $\forall[-T]\phi(s)$. For $R - r \geq 0$, the evolution domain $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket \chi \rrbracket_r^I$ implies by condition $\gamma(\zeta) \in \llbracket \phi(s) \rrbracket_0^I$.

□

5.2.1. Delay Differential Induction

In order to facilitate a frequently appearing sequence of proof steps, we combine the differential cut, the differential invariant and delay differential weakening axioms to a new axiom, called *delay differential induction axiom*. The idea behind this derived

axiom is that if the initial condition fulfills a certain safety condition $\phi(s)$ and (with the evolution domain constraint χ) an invariant ($\text{FOL}_{\mathbb{R}}$) formula φ and if following the evolution of the DDE leads into the direction of safe values, it is sufficient that the invariant (with χ) implies the safety condition for the current time instant $\phi(0)$ in order to establish the validity of the safety condition for the entire final state after the DDE.

$$\text{DDI} \frac{\psi \rightarrow \forall[-T] \phi(s) \quad \forall x (\chi \wedge \varphi \rightarrow \phi(0)) \quad \psi \wedge \chi \rightarrow \varphi \quad \psi \rightarrow [x' = \theta \& \chi](\varphi)'}{\psi \rightarrow [x' = \theta \& \chi] \forall[-T] \phi(s)}$$

For this rule to be sound, we demand the safety condition $\phi(s)$ not to be a stiff s-formula, i.e. $x[c] \notin \phi(s)$ for any $c \in \mathcal{C}$.

Proof.

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{DW} \frac{(\psi \rightarrow \forall[-T] \phi(s)) \wedge \forall x (\chi \wedge \varphi \rightarrow \phi(0)) \wedge (\psi \wedge \chi \rightarrow \varphi) \wedge (\psi \rightarrow [x' = \theta \& \chi](\varphi)')}{\psi \rightarrow ([x' = \theta \& \chi \wedge \varphi] \forall[-T] \phi(s) \wedge (\chi \rightarrow \varphi) \wedge [x' = \theta \& \chi](\varphi)')} \\ \text{DI} \frac{\psi \rightarrow ([x' = \theta \& \chi \wedge \varphi] \forall[-T] \phi(s) \wedge (\chi \rightarrow \varphi) \wedge [x' = \theta \& \chi](\varphi)')}{\psi \rightarrow ([x' = \theta \& \chi \wedge \varphi] \forall[-T] \phi(s) \wedge [x' = \theta \& \chi] \varphi)} \\ \text{DC} \frac{\psi \rightarrow ([x' = \theta \& \chi \wedge \varphi] \forall[-T] \phi(s) \wedge [x' = \theta \& \chi] \varphi)}{\psi \rightarrow [x' = \theta \& \chi] \forall[-T] \phi(s)} \end{array}$$

□

5.2.2. Examples

Example 1

Consider the first-order delay differential equation

$$\begin{cases} x'(t) = x(t - \tau) & t \geq \sigma \\ x(t) \geq 0 & t \in [\sigma - \tau, \sigma] \end{cases}$$

for any $\tau > 0$. Using the invariant $\varphi \equiv (x^3 \geq 0)$, we prove that the solution stays non-negative for all time $t \geq \sigma - \tau$. Since the DDE is autonomous, we can assume $\sigma = 0$.

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{R} \frac{*}{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow x^3 \geq 0 \wedge 3x^2 x[-\tau] \geq 0 \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)} \\ \text{[:=]} \frac{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow x^3 \geq 0 \wedge [x' := x[-\tau]](3x^2 x' \geq 0) \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)}{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow x^3 \geq 0 \wedge [x' = x[-\tau]](3x^2 x' \geq 0) \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)} \\ \text{DE,G} \frac{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow x^3 \geq 0 \wedge [x' = x[-\tau]](3x^2 x' \geq 0) \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)}{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow x^3 \geq 0 \wedge [x' = x[-\tau]](3x^2 x' \geq 0) \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)} \\ \text{DDW} \frac{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow x^3 \geq 0 \wedge [x' = x[-\tau]](3x^2 x' \geq 0) \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)}{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow x^3 \geq 0 \wedge [x' = x[-\tau]](3x^2 x' \geq 0) \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)} \\ \text{DI} \frac{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow x^3 \geq 0 \wedge [x' = x[-\tau]](3x^2 x' \geq 0) \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)}{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow [x' = x[-\tau]](3x^2 x' \geq 0) \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)} \\ \text{DC} \frac{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow [x' = x[-\tau]](3x^2 x' \geq 0) \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)}{\forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \rightarrow [x' = x[-\tau]](3x^2 x' \geq 0) \wedge \forall[-T] x[s] \geq 0 \wedge \forall x (x^3 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \geq 0)} \end{array}$$

The first three axioms correspond to the derived axiom DDI. In the same way we can prove that the solution stays non-positive for all t , if the initial condition is non-positive.

6. Examples

To motivate the practical relevance of hybrid programs incorporating delayed differential equations, we present some examples of controllers modeled in **ddL**.

6.1. Car Following Model

The following example is adapted from [5]. We want to model an acceleration-controller for a car, trying to keep a constant distance to a car driving in front.

We consider a continuous controller, though with an internal delay τ between the sensed velocities and the controller output, caused by the internal processing time of the controller.

Given the speed pattern of the leading car (n), the systems models the position and velocity of the (following $n + 1$) car depending on its controlled acceleration by:

$$\begin{cases} x''_{n+1}(t) = \alpha(x'_n(t - \tau) - x'_{n+1}(t - \tau)) \\ x'_n(t) = v(t) \end{cases}$$

The coefficient α can be seen as a comfort or sport factor, describing the strength of acceleration and deceleration applied to the car. By introducing v_{n+1} for x_{n+1} , we reduce the system to first order.

The preconditions need to be specified for all $t \in [-\tau, 0]$. We consider feasible intervals for the initial distance between the cars, the velocity of the following car and specify a constant speed v_0 for the leading car.

$$\begin{aligned} d(t) &= x_n(t) - x_{n+1}(t) \in [D - m, D + m] \\ x'_{n+1}(t) &\in [V - l, V + l] \\ x'_n(t) &= v(t) = v_0 > 0 \end{aligned}$$

Both $\alpha > 0$ and $\tau > 0$ are considered to be constant.

Model 6.1 gives a possible implementation of the described controller as delay hybrid program, using the language of **ddL** to describe its properties.

Of practical interest would be to prove the safety condition that the cars always keep a certain minimal distance, i.e. $d \geq \delta$, after having chosen a feasible α in the ctrl-part.

6.2. Network Induced Delay in Control Loops

only an input or measurement delay (in u)

Model 6.1 Example model in $\text{dd}\mathcal{L}$ for the following car controller.

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{init} \rightarrow [\text{ctrl}; \text{plant}](\text{req}) \\
& \text{init} \equiv \forall[-\tau] (D - m \leq x_n[s] - x_{n+1}[s] \leq D + m \\
& \quad \wedge V - l \leq x'_{n+1}[s] \leq V + l \\
& \quad \wedge v[s] = v_0) \\
& \text{ctrl} \equiv \alpha := 1 \\
& \text{plant} \equiv v'_{n+1} = \alpha(x'_n[-\tau] - x'_{n+1}[-\tau]), x'_{n+1} = v_{n+1}, x'_n = v \\
& \text{req} \equiv d \geq \delta
\end{aligned}$$

A *Networked Control Systems* (NCS) is a feedback control system with sensing and control data transmission over a network. Sensors sample the state of the *plant* periodically and send their output as packet to an event-driven *controller*, which calculates a control signal as soon as the sensor data arrives. This signal is then transmitted to event-driven actuators in the plant, which perform action immediately on reception of the command.

The plant is considered to be continuous in time by its physical nature, whereas the controller modeled as discrete in time.

This scenario has some possible issues, such as network induced *delay* and *loss* of network packets. Due to different retardation times on the plant-controller and controller-plant connections, the plant output and the controller input may not be delivered at the same time. For this reason, the controller might not yet have received all the plant updates when it has to perform its control computations. This makes NCSs different to conventional sampled-data systems.

6.2.1. Modelling NCSs with Network-Induced Delay

The plant (physical component) is modeled as time continuous and the evolution of its state $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ by

$$\begin{cases} x'(t) &= Ax(t) + Bu(t) \\ y(t) &= Cx(t) \end{cases}$$

which depends additionally on a control signal $u \in \mathbb{R}^m$ provided by the discrete controller

$$u(kh) = -Kx(kh) \quad k \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

or

$$u(kh) = -Ky(kh) \quad k \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

if not the full state is known to the controller, but only some plant output (sensor data) $y \in \mathbb{R}^p$. The matrices A, B, K are chosen with suitable dimensions.

The network induces delays in the control loop, namely τ_{sc} between sensor and controller, as well as τ_{ca} between controller and actuator. Without loss of generality can the processing time of the controller be added to either delay.

$$\begin{cases} x'(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t - \tau_{ca,k}) & t \in [kh + \tau_k, (k+1)h + \tau_{k+1}] \\ y(t) = Cx(t) \\ u(t^+) = -Kx(t - \tau_{sc,k}) & t^+ \in \{kh + \tau_k : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\} \end{cases}$$

Model 6.2 Simple NCS model with network induced delay

$$\begin{aligned} \text{init} &\rightarrow [(\text{ctrl}; \text{plant})^*](\text{req}) \\ \text{init} &\equiv h > 0 \wedge t = h \wedge T = \wedge \forall[-T] x = \wedge \forall[-T] u = \\ \text{ctrl} &\equiv (?t = h); t := 0, u := -Kx[-\tau_{sc}] \\ \text{plant} &\equiv (?t < h); x' = Ax + Bu[-\tau_{ca}], t' = 1 \ \& \ t \leq h \\ \text{req} &\equiv \end{aligned}$$

In case of a time-invariant controller, the partial delays can be combined together into a single $\tau = \tau_{sc} + \tau_{ca} + t_{\text{ctrl}}$ with the processing time of the controller.

Assuming that the delay τ_k of each sample k is less than the sampling period h and that each data sample $x(t)$ fits into a single packet, the system equations can be written as

$$\begin{cases} x'(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t) & t \in [kh + \tau_k, (k+1)h + \tau_{k+1}] \\ y(t) = Cx(t) \\ u(t^+) = -Kx(t - \tau_k) & t^+ \in \{kh + \tau_k : k \in \mathbb{N}_0\} \end{cases}$$

with the piecewise constant control signal $u(t^+)$ in the actuator.

This plant system can be solved using the standard *variation of constants* method for ordinary differential equations in order to express the new state variables $u(kh)$ and $x((k+1)h)$ as function of their values at the previous sampling instant.

The NCS models above can be written as hybrid systems with delay. The former is given in Program 6.2.

what allows applying stability theory for hybrid systems to derive conditions for asymptotical stability depending on the sampling rate h and the network delay τ .

7. Conclusion

We have presented a combination of first-order and modal logic for the specification and verification of safety and liveness properties of time-delay hybrid systems. This logic is essentially an extension of differential dynamic logic (\mathbf{dL}). The approach taken in this work has been available for ODEs for several years, but has not yet been applied to DDEs. To the knowledge of the author, no work combining logics and delay differential equations has been published yet.

7.1. Related Work

Verification theory for hybrid systems governed by ordinary differential equations is well established, as can be seen by the exhaustive list of literature to \mathbf{dL} given in the introduction. Literature on formal methods applied to DDEs is rare.

Huang et al. [12] describe an algorithm allowing bounded invariant verification for dynamical systems with delayed interconnections. This is done by numerically computing bounds on the trajectories of a (non-linear) delay differential equation given a set of possible initial states (sensitivity of the solution on initial data).

Zou et al. [46] have presented an iteration method, combining numerical integration of DDEs with multiple constant delays based on interval Taylor forms with real arithmetic constraint solving. It automatically analyzes the integration-operator, which yields the Taylor coefficients for the next temporal segment, given by the method of step. This procedure allows to compute safety and stability certificates in terms of set constraints.

7.2. Future Work

There are several avenues for future work. Practical applicability could be improved by combining axioms to rules for a sequent proof calculus, as it is available for \mathbf{dL} .

Next, we would like to include \mathbf{ddL} into the interactive theorem prover KeYmaera X. This would require an extension of the presented theory into the *uniform substitution calculus* of [25]. In contrast to the axiomatization presented in Chapter 5.1, this calculus uses a finite number of axioms, instead of axiom schemata, and an additional proof rule to substitute a formula by a predicate symbol, preserving the soundness of the axiom. This approach has the advantage that it can be much easier implemented in a software tool. The first step towards this calculus is already done with the definition of *free*, *bound* and *mustbound variables* in Section 4.3.

The actual implementation of \mathbf{ddL} in KeYmaera X would benefit from its modularity and abstraction, since most existing axioms and lemmata could be taken over from \mathbf{dL} .

The axiom of steps (??) translates a delay differential equation into a ODE inside a loop. This indicates, that \mathbf{ddL} is actually *reducible* to classical \mathbf{dL} . We leave the details, a formal proof and its significance for *completeness* as future work.

Differential invariants provide a powerful tool for the verification of differential equations, if one has such an invariant formula for the given equation to hand. However, finding such is in general not trivial. In the case of ordinary differential equations, different methods to automatically compute differential invariants have been presented [30]. Their adaption to DDEs would mean a tremendous progress towards practical application and would help to demonstrate the utility of \mathbf{ddL} by proving more complex real-world examples.

Moreover, the class of feasible delay differential equations can be extended to include e.g. state dependent delays, functional right hand sides or uncertain delays. This would allow even more realistic and powerful models of problems, but increases complexity of dynamics to a large extent. It is not sure how far a logical approach can still capture these effects.

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