FORMAL SPECIFICATION OF REAL-TIME SYSTEMS

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Abstract

This paper presents the formal syntax and semantics of Real Time Logic (RTL), a logic for the specification of real-time systems. An example illustrating the specification of a system in RTL is presented, and natural deduction is used to verify that the system satisfies a given safety property. RTL is shown to be undecidable by a reduction from the acceptance problem for two-counter machines. Decidable subclasses of the logic are also discussed.

1. Introduction

As real-time safety-critical functions in even civilian applications come under software control, e.g., the European Airbus, the reliability of software that must meet not only functional but also stringent timing requirements has become an important issue. One major area of research addressing software reliability has been formal verification methods which attempt to prove the correctness of programs with respect to systems specifications. Past research, however, has concentrated on the relative timing of events and there has been relatively little work on verifying properties which involve absolute (wall-clock) time. Since absolute timing properties can be important in the safe operation of systems, there is a need for applying formal techniques to verifying absolute timing properties. (Leveson and Harvey [Leveson & Harvey 83] have documented a case study where a NASA satellite could have been damaged if the time interval between two occurrences of an event is too short. For a comprehensive survey of software safety issues, see [Leveson 86].)

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First presented in [Jahanian & Mok 86a], RTL (Real Time Logic) is one such formalism. It is a first order logic with a predicate which relates the events of a system to their time of occurrence. RTL was developed as part of the SARTOR project [Mok 85], the goal of which is to provide a unified environment for the development and verification of correct real time programs. Since then, a procedure has been developed to determine whether the formulas of one useful subset of RTL are satisfiable [Jahanian & Mok 87], has been used to define the formal semantics of a technique to simplify both specification and analysis of large systems [Jahanian et al 88b]. RTL has also been employed by Wing and Barbacci [Barbacci & Wing 87] in incorporating timing constraints into abstract data types, and extended by MacEwen [MacEwen 87] into a second order language for the specification of hardware.

This paper defines RTL in terms of an uninterpreted predicate which avoids some inconvenient technicalities about using an uninterpreted function to define the time of occurrence of events that never occur ([Jahanian & Mok 86a]). We also identify the core set of axioms which must be satisfied by an RTL specification. This paper also includes an example system specification, the proof of a safety property in RTL by natural deduction, and some results about the decidability of RTL.

RTL reflects a different approach to reasoning about time-dependent systems. RTL makes no mention of states or transitions, either in the language or in its models. Although an RTL interpretation can be regarded as a sequence of event sets, it is not necessary to do so, and this is still very different from most other techniques of modeling computer systems, which rely on transition systems. In the transition system approach, the behavior of the system is represented by a sequence of states, which are intended to represent the system configurations. Two consequences of this distinction are discussed below.

First, in RTL time passes between sets of events, and the actual sets of events are instantaneous, while in transition systems, time passes in states, and transitions between them are instantaneous. Second, transition systems are generally defined by their transitions, so that if two actions of the modeled system occur concurrently, a transition must be explicitly included to reflect that concurrent act, while such concurrency is implicit in

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‡ The paper thus constitutes the official definition of RTL.
RTL.

This last difference has two further results. Any computation of a transition system induces a total order on event occurrences, even those that occur at the same time. The fact that interleaving guarantees the existence of other computations where the ordering is different does not change this for any particular computation. Also, if two actions begin and end at the same time, transition systems introduce faux-states in which one action has completed and the other has not. This last point deserves more elaboration. Consider the following scenario.

There are two sensors, X and Y, in a certain distributed system. Sensor X (Y) is activated to respectively update a variable x (y). Both x and y are set to 0 initially. Each sensor takes 1 second to complete an update. A timing constraint has been specified to activate both sensors at time=0 and update the variables x and y by time=1. Obviously, both x and y must be updated in parallel. At time=1, x (y) is respectively updated to a new value x' (y'). In the interleaving model, the parallel execution of X and Y is equivalent to the two execution sequences: (1) X; Y. (2) Y; X. We characterize the state of the system by the vector (clock,x,y). The trajectories of the system state corresponding to the two execution sequences are:

1. (0,0,0) → (?,x',0) → (1,x',y')
2. (0,0,0) → (?,0,y') → (1,x',y')

There are two obvious choices: 0 or 1 in assigning a value to the clock variable "?" in the second state in both trajectories. Neither one makes sense because we know that both x and y are 0 when clock=0, and both x and y are 1 when clock=1. The second states in both trajectories are faux-states.

To avoid faux-states in the interleaving model, one could use a very fine time scale and insist that only one transition can occur at any instant of time. Thus, for example, sensor X might complete updating at time=1.0 and sensor Y at time=1.1, the basic time unit being revised downwards to 0.1 second. The timing constraint must also be revised to allow the sensors to complete their updates by time=1.1. However, this approach puts a bound on the number of event occurrences in a finite interval, and so puts a burden on the programmer not to write specifications which may violate this bound, e.g., the 0.1 second precision will not be sufficient if there are 100 instead of 2 sensors.
An alternative approach for avoiding faux-states is to insist that events that happen simultaneously must be grouped into a single event. This approach is problematical since a specification may require two events to happen some of the time but not all of the time, hence we cannot always use a single joint event to represent two events which may occur at the same time. Furthermore, a combinatorial explosion in the number of joint events may result from this approach, since in the worst case, we might have to consider all combinations of potentially simultaneous events. As will be seen, by its very nature, RTL avoids this difficulty.

2. Real Time Logic

The first subsection describes an informal overview of RTL. The subsequent two subsections provide the formal syntax and the semantics of the logic. The final subsection introduces a convenient notation in RTL for describing a property of a system over a time interval.

2.1. Overview

Real Time Logic is a first order predicate logic invented primarily for reasoning about timing properties of real-time systems. It provides a uniform way for the specification of both relative and absolute timing of events. In RTL, we reason about individual occurrences of events where an event occurrence marks a point in time which is of significance to the behavior of the system. There is an important distinction between an action and an event in RTL. An action is an operation which requires a non-zero but bounded amount of system resources. However, events serve only as temporal markers. An occurrence of an event defines a time value, namely its time of occurrence, and imposes no requirement on system resources. The execution of an action is represented by two events: one denoting its initiation and the other denoting its completion.

Events have unique names. Two classes of events are of particular interest: (1) start/stop events marking the initiation and completion of an action, and (2) transition events denoting a change in a state variable.
Start and Stop Events: We use the notation $\uparrow A$ to represent the event marking the initiation of action $A$, and $\downarrow A$ to denote the event marking the completion of action $A$. For instance, $\uparrow \text{SAMPLE}$ and $\downarrow \text{SAMPLE}$ represent the events corresponding to the start and the stop of action SAMPLE, respectively.

Transition Events: A state variable may describe a physical aspect or a certain property of a system, e.g., an autopilot switch which is either ON or OFF. The execution of an action may cause the value of one or more state variables to change. A state attribute, $S$ is a predicate which asserts that a state variable takes on a certain value in its domain. For example, $S$ may denote the predicate: the autopilot is ON. The corresponding state variable transition events, represented syntactically by $(S:=T)$ and $(S:=F)$, denote respectively the events that mark the turning on and off of the autopilot switch. Whenever it is unambiguous, we shall use state variable and state attribute interchangeably.

In addition to the above two classes, other classes of events can be specified when modeling a real time system. For instance, in [Jahanian & Mok 86a], the class of external events was introduced to denote the events that cannot be caused to happen by the computer system but can impact a system behavior. We use the notation of any name in capital letters prefixed by the special letter $\Omega$ (Omega) to denote an external event. For example, $\Omega \text{BUTTON1}$ represents the external event associated with pressing button 1.

The occurrence relation, denoted by the letter $\Theta$ (Theta), is introduced to capture the notion of real time. The event constants introduced earlier represent the things that can happen in a system. The occurrence relation assigns a time value to each occurrence of an event which happens. Informally, $\Theta(e,i,t)$ denotes that the $i$th occurrence of an event $e$ happens at time $t$, where $e$ is an event constant, $i$ is a positive integer term, and $t$ is non-negative integer term. For instance, $\Theta(\downarrow \text{SAMPLE},1,x)$ denotes that the first occurrence of the event marking the completion of action SAMPLE happens at time $x$.

The notion of an occurrence relation is central to RTL. In particular, a specification of a system and the timing requirements on its behavior are restrictions on the occurrence relation and its arguments. Observe that the occurrence relation does not require that all occurrence of an event must happen since an event may occur only a finite number of times or even not at all.
RTL predicates are formed from the occurrence relation, or from the mathematical relations (=, <, ≤, >, ≥) and algebraic expressions allowing integer constants, variables, addition, and multiplication by constants. RTL formulas are constructed using the occurrence relation, the equality/inequality predicates, universal and existential quantifiers, and the first-order logical connectives (¬, ∧, ∨, →)†. Before presenting a formal treatment of Real time Logic in the next section, a simple example will be shown to illustrate how the specification of a system can be expressed in RTL.


\[
\forall i \\forall t \ \Theta(\Omega BUTTON1,i,t) \rightarrow [ \exists x,y \ \Theta(\uparrow SAMPLE,i,x) \land \Theta(\downarrow SAMPLE,i,y) \\
\land t \leq x \land y \leq t + 30 ]
\]

\[
\forall i \ \forall x,y [ \Theta(\uparrow SAMPLE,i,x) \land \Theta(\downarrow SAMPLE,i,y) ] \rightarrow x + 20 \leq y \quad \square
\]

Recall that a transition event marks a change in the value of a state variable. RTL provides a notational device, called a state predicate, for asserting the truth value of a state variable (e.g., the autopilot switch of an airplane being in the ON position) during an interval. The syntax and formal definition of state predicates are presented in section 2.4.

2.2. The Language of Real Time Logic

We begin by introducing the language of Real Time Logic. The formulas of RTL are made up of the following symbols:

- The truth symbols true and false
- A set of variable symbols

† The standard precedence order is assumed for these connectives. ¬ has the highest precedence, ∧ and ∨ the next highest precedence, and → the lowest precedence.
• A set of constant symbols C
• A set of event constant symbols D
• The function symbol '+'
• The predicate symbols <, ≤, >, ≥, =
• The occurrence relation symbol Θ
• The logical connectives ∧, ∨, ¬ and →.
• Existential and universal quantifier symbols ∃, ∀.

The terms of RTL are expressions built up according to the following rules:
• The constant symbols in C are terms.
• The variable symbols are terms.
• If \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \) are terms, then the function application
  \[ t_1 + t_2 \]
  is a term.

The propositions of RTL are constructed according to the following rules:
• The truth symbols true and false are propositions.
• If \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \) are terms and \( ρ \) is an inequality/equality predicate symbol, then
  \[ t_1 \rho t_2 \]
  is a proposition.
• If \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \) are terms and \( e \) is an event constant, then
  \[ Θ(e, t_1, t_2) \]
  is a proposition.

The formulas of RTL are constructed from the propositions, logical connectives and quantifiers in the usual fashion.

2.3. The Meaning of an RTL Formula

An interpretation for an RTL formula must assign a meaning to each of the free symbols in the formula. It will assign elements from a domain to the constants, functions (over the domain) to the function symbols, and relations (over the domain) to the predicate symbols.
Let \( \mathbb{N} \) be the set of natural numbers, and \( \mathbb{E} \) be a set of events. An interpretation \( I \) over the domain \( \mathbb{N} \cup \mathbb{E} \) assigns values to each of a set of constant, function, and predicate symbols, as follows:

Each element in the set of constant symbols \( \mathbb{C} \) is assigned an element in \( \mathbb{N} \). Each element in the set of event constant symbols \( \mathbb{D} \) is assigned an element in \( \mathbb{E} \). The function symbol \( '+' \) is integer addition. The predicate symbols \(<, \leq, >, \geq, \text{ and } =\) are assigned the usual equality/inequality binary relations. The predicate symbol \( \Theta \) is assigned an occurrence relation.

Definition: An occurrence relation is any relation on the set

\[
\mathbb{E} \times \mathbb{Z}^+ \times \mathbb{N}
\]

where \( \mathbb{E} \) is a set of events, \( \mathbb{Z}^+ \) is the set of positive integers, and \( \mathbb{N} \) is the set of natural numbers, such that the following axioms hold:

Monotonicity Axioms: For each event \( e \) in the set \( \mathbb{E} \),

\[
\forall i \forall t \forall t' \left[ \Theta(e,i,t) \land \Theta(e,i,t') \right] \rightarrow t = t'
\]

\[
\forall i \forall t \left[ \Theta(e,i,t) \land i > 1 \right] \rightarrow \left[ \exists t' \Theta(e,i-1,t') \land t' < t \right]
\]

The first axiom requires that at most one time value can be associated with each occurrence \( i \) of an event \( e \), i.e., the same occurrence of an event cannot happen at two distinct times. The second axiom expresses the requirement that if the \( i \)th occurrence of an event \( e \) happens, then the previous occurrences of \( e \) must have happened earlier. This axiom also requires that two distinct occurrences of the same event must happen at different times.

Start/Stop Event Axioms: For each pair of start/stop events in the set \( \mathbb{E} \),

\[
\forall i \forall t \Theta(\downarrow A, i, t) \rightarrow \left[ \exists t' \Theta(\uparrow A, i, t') \land t' < t \right]
\]

where \( \uparrow A \) and \( \downarrow A \) denote the events marking the start and stop of an action \( A \), respectively. The above axiom requires every occurrence of a stop event to be preceded by a corresponding start event.
Transition Event Axioms: For the transition events in the set \( E \) corresponding to a state variable \( S \),

if \( S \) is initially true,
\[
\forall i \forall t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t') \land t' < t ] \\
\forall i \forall t \ \Theta((S:=T),i+1,t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t') \land t' < t ]
\]

if \( S \) is initially false,
\[
\Theta((S:=F),1,0) \\
\forall i \forall t \ \Theta((S:=F),i,t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ \Theta((S:=F),i,t') \land t' < t ] \\
\forall i \forall t \ \Theta((S:=F),i+1,t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t') \land t' < t ]
\]

The preceding transition event axioms define the order in which two complementary transition events can occur depending on whether \( S \) is initially true or false.

2.4. State Predicates

A specification of a real-time system often refers to properties of the system over time. One way to express these assertions is to introduce predicates which are time-dependent, as is done in temporal logic. In RTL, these assertions are expressed as formulas involving the occurrence relation on the appropriate transition events and inequality relations on the time of occurrences of these events. For convenience, RTL uses a notational device, called a state predicate, for asserting the truth value of a state variable (e.g., the autopilot switch of an airplane being in the ON position) during an interval.

Suppose \( S \) is a state variable whose truth value remains unchanged over an interval. RTL provides nine different forms of state predicates to assert the value of \( S \) over an interval, depending on the boundary conditions:

\( S[x,y], \ S(x,y), \ S<x,y>, \ S[x,y], \ S(x,y), \ S<x,y>, \ S<x,y], \ and \ S<x,y). \)

Each state predicate qualifies the timing of two events, one marking the transition event that changes the value of the state variable to true and the other marking the transition event that changes the value of \( S \) to false. The two arguments, \( x \) and \( y \), in the state
predicates are used in conjunction with the symbols "[", "]", "("", ")", "<" and ">" to
denote an interval over which the state variable remains true.

The convention we use for arriving at this syntax requires some explanation. Suppose \( E_t \) and \( E_f \) denote the transition events making \( S \) true and false, respectively. Informally,

"[x " denotes that \( E_t \) occurs at time \( x \),
"(x " denotes that \( E_t \) occurs before or at time \( x \),
"<x " denotes that \( E_t \) occurs before time \( x \),
" y"] denotates that \( E_f \) occurs at time \( y \),
" y)" denotes that \( E_f \) does not occur before time \( y \),
" y>" denotes that \( E_f \) does not occur before or at time \( y \),

For example, the state predicate \( S[x,y] \) indicates that a state variable \( S \) is true exactly during the interval between \( x \) and \( y \). That is, a transition event making \( S \) true occurs at time \( x \); \( S \) remains true between \( x \) and \( y \); and the transition event making \( S \) false occurs at time \( y \). Consider another example, the state predicate \( S(x,y) \) denotes that a state variable is true during the interval between \( x \) and \( y \), but it says nothing about the value of \( S \) before time \( x \) or after time \( y \). Observe that we use this notation only when \( x \leq y \) and that we do not require the second event to occur in all cases. The formal definitions of these state predicates follow.

**Definition:**

If a state variable \( S \) is initially true, \( \Theta((S:=T),1,0) \),

\[
S[x,y] = \exists i \ \Theta((S:=T),i,x) \land \Theta((S:=F),i,y)
\]
\[
S[x,y] = \exists i \ \Theta((S:=T),i,x) \land [ \forall t \ \Theta((S:=F),i,t) \rightarrow y \leq t ]
\]
\[
S[x,y> = \exists i \ \Theta((S:=T),i,x) \land [ \forall t \ \Theta((S:=F),i,t) \rightarrow y < t ]
\]
\[
S(x,y) = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t \leq x \land [ \forall t' \ \Theta((S:=F),i,t') \rightarrow y \leq t' ]
\]
\[
S(x,y> = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t \leq x \land \Theta((S:=F),i,y)
\]
\[
S< x,y> = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t < x \land [ \forall t' \ \Theta((S:=F),i,t') \rightarrow y < t' ]
\]
\[
S< x,y) = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t < x \land \Theta((S:=F),i,y)
\]
\[
S< x,y) = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t < x \land [ \forall t' \ \Theta((S:=F),i,t') \rightarrow y \leq t' ]
\]

If a state variable \( S \) is initially false, \( \Theta((S:=F),1,0) \),
\[ S(x,y) = \exists i \ \Theta((S:=T),i,x) \land \Theta((S:=F),i+1,y) \]

\[ S(x,y) = \exists i \ \Theta((S:=T),i,x) \land [ \forall t \ \Theta((S:=F),i+1,t) \rightarrow y \leq t ] \]

\[ S(x,y) = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t \leq x \land [ \forall t' \ \Theta((S:=F),i+1,t') \rightarrow y \leq t' ] \]

\[ S(x,y) = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t \leq x \land \Theta((S:=F),i+1,y) \]

\[ S(x,y) = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t \leq x \land [ \forall t' \ \Theta((S:=F),i+1,t') \rightarrow y < t' ] \]

\[ S(x,y) = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t \leq x \land [ \forall t' \ \Theta((S:=F),i+1,t') \rightarrow y < t' ] \]

\[ S(x,y) = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t < x \land \Theta((S:=F),i,y) \]

\[ S(x,y) = \exists i \exists t \ \Theta((S:=T),i,t) \land t < x \land [ \forall t' \ \Theta((S:=F),i+1,t') \rightarrow y \leq t' ] \]

When both arguments of a state predicate are the same, two very useful predicates are defined. Specifically, the state predicate \( S(x,x) \) says that a system attribute \( S \) is true at an interval around time \( x \). Similarly, \( S < x, x \) denotes that \( S \) is true prior to time \( x \), i.e., \( S \) becomes true sometime before time \( x \) and it remains true at least up to time \( x \).

Similar state predicates can be defined for the case when a state variable is false during an interval: \( S[x,y], S(x,y), S < x, y \), etc. The formal definitions for these predicates are straightforward: replace each \( (S:=T) \) with \( (S:=F) \) and vice versa in the above definitions.

### 3. Example: Moving Control Rods in a Reactor

This section describes an example illustrating the specification of a system in RTL and it verifies a safety property with respect to the specification.

#### 3.1. Specification

This example involves a system used to monitor and control a reactor. Specifically, it concerns the part of the system responsible for moving the control rods in a reactor. (Lowering a control rod slows down a nuclear reaction.) For simplicity, we assume that the system is currently configured with two primary control rods. As shown in Figure 1, three asynchronous components are involved in moving the control rods: Subsystem 1, Subsystem 2, and Manager.
Upon pressing pushbutton #1, Subsystem 1 executes an action to ensure the conditions are satisfied for moving control rod #1, then it requests permission from the manager to move a rod. After the manager grants the request, Subsystem 1 issues the appropriate commands to the reactor to move rod #1. The specification imposes two timing constraints on Subsystem 1:

- When the request is granted by the manager, the action to move the rod must be started within 5 time units, and
- at most 20 additional time units is required to complete the action to move the rod.

Subsystem 2 performs similar tasks for moving control rod #2 with identical timing constraints. The details about the behavior of Manager are hidden at this level of specification. However, the following timing constraint is imposed on Manager:

- After granting a request, Manager must wait at least 30 time units before granting another request.

There is no signal from Subsystem 1 or Subsystem 2 to inform Manager after a rod movement has been completed. Hence, Manager can only rely on the enforcement of the preceding timing constraint to decide when a granted request has been released, and then grant permission to move a rod to a waiting subsystem.
SUBSYSTEM 1

press push-button #1 → request access to rods → move control rod #1

SUBSYSTEM 2

press push-button #2 → request access to rods → move control rod #2

MANAGER

FIGURE 1.
For ease of understanding, we list below the physical interpretation of the events which will appear in the RTL specification of the above system.

\( \Omega \)BUTTON1 : external event denoting pushbutton #1 is pressed
\( \uparrow RA1 \) : start of action to request access by Subsystem 1
\( \downarrow RA1 \) : stop of action to request access by Subsystem 1
GRANT1:=T : event denoting request by Subsystem 1 is granted
GRANT1:=F : manager assumes the granted request is released
\( \uparrow MOVE1 \) : start of action to move control rod #1
\( \downarrow MOVE1 \) : stop of action to move control rod #1

The remaining events \( \uparrow RA2 \), \( \downarrow RA2 \), GRANT2:=T, GRANT2:=F, \( \uparrow MOVE2 \), and \( \downarrow MOVE2 \) have similar meanings.

The preceding English description of the system can be specified formally in RTL, as shown below.†

```
#
# specification of subsystem 1
#
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (\Omega \text{BUTTON1} \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (\uparrow RA1 \ , x \ , t') \land t \leq t'] \tag{SP1} \]
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (\uparrow RA1 \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (\downarrow RA1 \ , x \ , t') \land t \leq t'] \tag{SP2} \]
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (\downarrow RA1 \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (GRANT1:=T \ , x \ , t') \land t \leq t'] \tag{SP3} \]
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (GRANT1:=T \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (\uparrow MOVE1 \ , x \ , t') \land t \leq t' \land t' \leq t + 5] \tag{SP4} \]
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (\uparrow MOVE1 \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (GRANT1:=T \ , x \ , t') \land t' \leq t \land t \leq t' + 5] \tag{SP4'} \]
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (\uparrow MOVE1 \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (\downarrow MOVE1 \ , x \ , t') \land t < t' \land t' \leq t + 20] \tag{SP5} \]
#
# specification of subsystem 2
#
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (\Omega \text{BUTTON2} \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (\uparrow RA2 \ , x \ , t') \land t \leq t'] \tag{SP6} \]
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (\uparrow RA2 \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (\downarrow RA2 \ , x \ , t') \land t \leq t'] \tag{SP7} \]
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (\downarrow RA2 \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (GRANT2:=T \ , x \ , t') \land t \leq t'] \tag{SP8} \]
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (GRANT2:=T \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (\uparrow MOVE2 \ , x \ , t') \land t \leq t' \land t' \leq t + 5] \tag{SP9} \]
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (\uparrow MOVE2 \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (GRANT2:=T \ , x \ , t') \land t' \leq t \land t \leq t' + 5] \tag{SP9'} \]
\[ \forall x \forall t \ (\uparrow MOVE2 \ , x \ , t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ (\downarrow MOVE2 \ , x \ , t') \land t < t' \land t' \leq t + 20] \tag{SP10} \]
#

† Certain RTL axioms, as described in [Jahanian & Mok 86a], are omitted here since they do not play a role in the safety analysis of this example.
# specification of manager

∀x ∀t Θ(\text{GRANT1:=}T, x, t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ Θ(\text{GRANT1:=}F, x+1, t') \wedge t + 30 \leq t' ] \quad (\text{SP11})

∀x ∀t Θ(\text{GRANT2:=}T, x, t) \rightarrow [ \exists t' \ Θ(\text{GRANT2:=}F, x+1, t') \wedge t + 30 \leq t' ] \quad (\text{SP12})

∀x,y ∀t_1,t_2,t_3,t_4 [ Θ(\text{GRANT1:=}T, x, t_1) \wedge Θ(\text{GRANT1:=}F, x+1, t_2) \wedge Θ(\text{GRANT2:=}T, y, t_3) \wedge Θ(\text{GRANT2:=}F, y+1, t_4) ]

\rightarrow t_4 < t_1 \vee t_2 < t_3 \quad (\text{SP13})

3.2. Safety Assertion

Since Subsystem 1 and Subsystem 2 are asynchronous, the requests to move the rods are made at arbitrary times. The desired safety property is that the reactor rods should be moved one at a time. In other words, execution of the action to move rod #1 may not overlap with the execution of the action to move rod #2.

Safety Assertion in RTL:

∀i,j ∀t_1,t_2,t_3,t_4 Θ(↑MOVE1, i, t_1) \wedge Θ(↓MOVE1, i, t_2) \wedge Θ(↑MOVE2, j, t_3) \wedge Θ(↓MOVE2, j, t_4)

\rightarrow t_4 < t_1 \vee t_2 < t_3

3.3. Verification

The RTL formulas describing the system specification and the safety assertion were presented in subsections 3.1 and 3.2. The proof of the safety assertion from the system specification is shown below.
1. Show Safety Assertion

2. Show \( \Theta(\uparrow\text{MOVE1}, I, T_1) \land \Theta(\downarrow\text{MOVE1}, I, T_2) \land \Theta(\uparrow\text{MOVE2}, J, T_3) \land \Theta(\downarrow\text{MOVE2}, J, T_4) \land T_4 < T_1 \lor T_2 < T_3 \)

3. a. \( \Theta(\uparrow\text{MOVE1}, I, T_1) \)
   b. \( \Theta(\downarrow\text{MOVE1}, I, T_2) \)
   c. \( \Theta(\uparrow\text{MOVE2}, J, T_3) \)
   d. \( \Theta(\downarrow\text{MOVE2}, J, T_4) \)
   e. Show \( T_4 < T_1 \lor T_2 < T_3 \)

4. a. \( \exists t' \Theta((\text{GRANT1}:=T), I, t') \land t' \leq T_1 \land T_1 \leq t' + 5 \)
   b. \( \Theta((\text{GRANT1}:=T), I, T_2) \land T_5 \leq T_1 \land T_1 \leq T_5 + 5 \)

5. a. \( \exists t' \Theta((\text{GRANT1}:=F), I+1, t') \land T_5 + 30 \leq t' \)
   b. \( \Theta((\text{GRANT1}:=F), I+1, T_6) \land T_5 + 30 \leq T_6 \)

6. \( T_1 + 25 \leq T_6 \)

7. a. \( \exists t' \Theta(\uparrow\text{MOVE1}, I, t') \land t' \leq T_1 + 20 \)
   b. \( \Theta(\downarrow\text{MOVE1}, I, T_7) \land T_7 \leq T_1 + 20 \)
   c. \( T_2 \leq T_1 + 20 \)

8. \( T_2 + 5 \leq T_6 \)

9. a. \( \Theta((\text{GRANT2}:=T), I, T_8) \land T_8 \leq T_3 \land T_3 \leq T_8 + 5 \)
   b. \( \Theta((\text{GRANT2}:=F), I+1, T_9) \)
   c. \( T_4 + 5 \leq T_9 \)

10. \( T_9 < T_5 \lor T_6 < T_8 \)

11. Show \( T_6 < T_8 \rightarrow T_2 < T_3 \)
   a. \( T_6 < T_8 \)
   b. \( T_6 < T_3 \)
   c. \( T_2 + 5 < T_3 \)

12. \( T_9 < T_5 \rightarrow T_4 < T_1 \)

13. \( T_4 < T_1 \lor T_2 < T_3 \)

14. \( \forall i,j \forall t_1,t_2,t_3 \Theta(\uparrow\text{MOVE1}, i, t_1) \land \Theta(\downarrow\text{MOVE1}, i, t_2) \land \Theta(\uparrow\text{MOVE2}, j, t_3) \land \Theta(\downarrow\text{MOVE2}, j, t_4) \)
   \( \rightarrow t_4 < t_1 \lor t_2 < t_3 \)

\(\uparrow\text{ Assumption for Conditional Proof}\)
\(\downarrow\text{ Modus Ponens}\)
4. Undecidability of Real Time Logic

Since RTL is made up of integer arithmetic without multiplication, together with a single non-algebraic predicate, RTL formulas can be converted into formulas of extended Presburger arithmetic, which is exactly the language of integer arithmetic without multiplication, including integer functions, by replacing each occurrence of $\Theta$ by the inequality $f_{\Theta} > 0$. Presburger arithmetic with a single monadic predicate was shown to be undecidable in [Downey 72].

Since the occurrence relation of RTL is constrained by the axioms in section 2.3, RTL is a proper subset of extended Presburger arithmetic and so the undecidability of extended Presburger arithmetic does not imply the the undecidability of RTL. However, we can show that RTL is undecidable by adapting Downey's proof.

4.1. Background

Before considering the decidability of RTL, it is helpful to define an abbreviation as was done in [Jahanian & Mok 86a]. If for each event $e$ in some subset $E'$ of $E$
\[ \forall i \exists t \quad \Theta(e,i,t) \text{ is satisfied}, \]
we will define the function
\[ @ : E' \times \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \]
such that $@ (e,i) = t$ if and only if $\Theta(e,i,t)$. $@$ is known as the occurrence function. Informally, $@ (e,i)$ is the time of the $i^{th}$ occurrence of event $e$. Since for each choice of $e \in E'$ and $i$ such a $t$ exists, $@$ is a total function. The monotonicity axioms for $\Theta$ imply that
\[ (\Theta(e,i,t) \land \Theta(e,j,t') \land i < j) \rightarrow t < t', \]
so $@$ is monotonic in its second argument. RTL formulas which contain only references to this function, and no explicit references to $\Theta$, form precisely the language described in [Jahanian & Mok 86a], and are a subset of the language of Presburger arithmetic with uninterpreted function symbols. This abbreviation in no way changes the validity of the following proof, but does make it notationally more convenient, since the function $@$ will indeed be total for each of the events used in the proof.
The proof in [Downey 72] reduces the acceptance problem for deterministic two counter machines to the satisfiability problem in extended Presburger arithmetic. The proof proceeds by constructing a predicate that is true if and only if its argument is a configuration in the computation of the corresponding two counter machine on the given input. This is done by representing the configuration of the machine by a product of prime powers, similar to a Gödel encoding. As a result, any decidable subset of RTL will have to be restricted in the amount of multiplication allowed. Since there is little need for multiplication in the arguments of the occurrence relation in RTL, this does not appear to be a particularly severe restriction.

Even though the occurrence relation (and @ function) of RTL (when in Presburger form) is uninterpreted, the result in [Downey 72] is not sufficient to show that RTL is undecidable, because the standard way of converting a predicate into a function need not result in a monotonic function. One way of doing so is to replace the unary predicate \( S \) of [Downey 72], by the event \( S \), which is defined so that \( \Theta(S,x,2^*x+1) \) if \( S(x) \) is true, and \( \Theta(S,x,2^*x) \) if \( S(x) \) is false. The relation \( \Theta(S,x,t) \) satisfies the monotonicity axioms, and still meets all of the conditions imposed on \( S \) in [Downey 72], so with this modification, that proof can now be used to show that RTL is undecidable.

Since this proof of the undecidability of RTL relies on the Gödel-like encoding, preventing multiplication by three mutually relatively prime constants in any given set of formulas is one possible way of obtaining a decidable subset of RTL. Restricting multiplication is not enough to make RTL decidable, however. A representation for machine configurations can be constructed that meets this new restriction. There is limited multiplication, and the occurrence function is monotonic. Other than the change in representation, the proof that follows closely follows the proof in [Downey 72].

4.2. Two Counter Machines

A two counter machine (2CM) is a quadruple, \((Q,q_1,q_m,\delta)\). \( Q \) is a finite set of states, with \( q_1 \) a distinguished start state and \( q_m \) a distinguished final state. \( \delta \) is a finite transition function from \( Q \times \{0,+\} \times \{0,+\} \) to \( Q \times \{+,-,0\} \times \{+,-,0\} \). The machine can test each of its counters to see if it is positive or zero, and can then decrement or increment it by one, or leave it unchanged, \( n \) a single transition. Without loss of generality it will be
assumed that each transition falls into one of four categories. A ptest checks a single counter to see if it is positive, a ztest does the same for zero, a dec decrements a single counter, and an inc increments a single counter. Lemma 1 of [Downey 72] shows that a 2CM with only these elementary transitions can be constructed that is equivalent to an arbitrary 2CM, so this restriction does not affect the expressiveness of the 2CM, and is done only to simplify the construction and proof. Similarly, it will be assumed that the machine makes at least two transitions before entering state \( q_m \) if it enters \( q_m \) then it stays in \( q_m \) (and does not halt), and that \( q_1 \neq q_m \).

A configuration of a 2CM is a triple \((s,c_1,c_2)\), where \( s \in Q \), and \( c_1 \) and \( c_2 \) are natural numbers. A computation of a 2CM \( M \) on input \( x \) is a sequence of configurations \( \Sigma = \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, \ldots \), where \( \sigma_i = (s_i, c_{1i}, c_{2i}) \), and \( s_1 = q_1 \), \( c_{11} = x \), \( c_{21} = 0 \), and for all \( i \geq 1 \), \( \delta^*(\sigma_i) = \sigma_{i+1} \), where \( \delta^* \) is the natural extension of \( \delta \) to configurations. \( M \) is said to accept \( x \) if for any configuration \( \sigma \) in the computation of \( M \) on \( x \), \( s = q_m \). For the purpose of this construction, each state will also be identified with some unique positive integer.

4.3. Proof

The configurations of the computation of \( M \) on input \( x \) will be encoded in the occurrence function by the addition of three new events, \( st, ctr1, \) and \( ctr2 \), which will be used to represent the state of the two counter machine, and the value stored in each counter. The encoding to accomplish this will be as follows:

\[
\forall i \geq 1 \quad s_i = @(st,i) - @(st,i-1)
\]

\[
\forall i \geq 1 \quad c_{1i} = @(ctr1,i) - @(ctr1,i-1)-1
\]

\[
\forall i \geq 1 \quad c_{2i} = @(ctr2,i) - @(ctr2,i-1)-1
\]

and \( s_1 = @(st,1) \), \( c_{11} = @(ctr1,1) - 1 \), and \( c_{21} = @(ctr2,1) - 1 \). As a result,

\[
\forall i \geq 1 \quad @(st,i) = \sum_{j=1}^{i} s_j
\]

\[
\forall i \geq 1 \quad @(ctr1,i) = \sum_{j=1}^{i} (c_{1j}+1)
\]

\[
\forall i \geq 1 \quad @(ctr2,i) = \sum_{j=1}^{i} (c_{2j}+1)
\]

Since all of the \( s_j \)'s are positive, and all of the \( c_{1j} \)'s and \( c_{2j} \)'s are non-negative, the
occurrence function above is clearly monotonically increasing in its second argument. Lemmas 1 and 2 will show that the formula constructed in the proof of Theorem 1 does result in the above encoding.

**Theorem 1:** For any 2CM $M$ and input $x$, an RTL formula can be constructed that is unsatisfiable if and only if $M$ accepts $x$.

**Proof:** The configurations of the computation of $M$ on input $x$ will be encoded in the occurrence function as above. With this encoding in mind, the formula $F$ is constructed of the following conjuncts:

(1) $\forall t \ (\mathbb{P}(st,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(st,t) = q_s \land \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t) > 1 ) \to$

\[ (\mathbb{P}(st,t+2) = \mathbb{P}(st,t+1) + q_r \land \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+2) = 2\mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t) \land \mathbb{P}(ctr2,t+2) = 2\mathbb{P}(ctr2,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr2,t) ) \]

(2) For each transition from state $q_s$ to state $q_r$ there is a subformula depending on the transition:

(a) ptest of counter $i$

$\forall t \ (\mathbb{P}(st,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(st,t) = q_s \land \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t) = 1 ) \to$

\[ (\mathbb{P}(st,t+2) = \mathbb{P}(st,t+1) + q_r \land \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+2) = 2\mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t) \land \mathbb{P}(ctr2,t+2) = 2\mathbb{P}(ctr2,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr2,t) ) \]

(b) ztest of counter $i$

$\forall t \ (\mathbb{P}(st,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(st,t) = q_s \land \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t) = 1 ) \to$

\[ (\mathbb{P}(st,t+2) = \mathbb{P}(st,t+1) + q_r \land \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+2) = 2\mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t) \land \mathbb{P}(ctr2,t+2) = 2\mathbb{P}(ctr2,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr2,t) ) \]

(c) dec of counter $i$

$\forall t \ (\mathbb{P}(st,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(st,t) = q_s ) \to$

\[ (\mathbb{P}(st,t+2) = \mathbb{P}(st,t+1) + q_r \land \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+2) = 2\mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t) - 1 \land \mathbb{P}(ctr2,t+2) = 2\mathbb{P}(ctr2,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr2,t) ) \]

(d) inc of counter $i$

$\forall t \ (\mathbb{P}(st,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(st,t) = q_s ) \to$

\[ (\mathbb{P}(st,t+2) = \mathbb{P}(st,t+1) + q_r \land \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+2) = 2\mathbb{P}(ctr1,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr1,t) + 1 \land \mathbb{P}(ctr2,t+2) = 2\mathbb{P}(ctr2,t+1) - \mathbb{P}(ctr2,t) ) \]
(3) \( \forall t \ (\neg (st, t+1) - @ (st, t) \neq q_m) \).

**Lemma 1:** If \( M \) does not accept \( x \), then \( F \) is satisfiable.

**Proof:** Let \( M \) be the standard model of Presburger arithmetic together with an assignment of a function to \( @ \) such that \( \forall t @ (st, t) = a \) if and only if \( a = \sum_{j=1}^{t} s_j \), \( @ (ctr1, t) = b \) if and only if \( b = \sum_{j=1}^{t} (c_1 j + 1) \), and \( @ (ctr2, t) = c \) if and only if \( c = \sum_{j=1}^{t} (c_2 j + 1) \), and a consistent assignment to \( \Theta \). Since \( M \) is a model for Presburger arithmetic, it is only necessary to show that \( M = F \), which is done for each type of subformula of \( F \).

1. \( M = @ (st, 1) = s_1 \land @ (ctr1, 1) = x + 1 \land @ (ctr2, 1) = 1 \), since \( s_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{1} s_j \), \( x + 1 = \sum_{j=1}^{1} (c_1 j + 1) \), and \( 1 = \sum_{j=1}^{1} (c_2 j + 1) \). Similarly, \( M \) satisfies the subformulas with \( t = 2 \).

2a) test for counter 1

Suppose the antecedent is satisfied by \( M \), then \( M = @ (st, t+1) - @ (st, t) = q_s \land @ (ctr1, t+1) - @ (ctr1, t) > 1 \). By construction of \( @ \), \( s_{t+1} = q_s \) and \( c_1_{t+1} > 0 \). Since \( M \) is deterministic, and this only one transition can be enabled in a given configuration, so this transition is the one that is to be taken, and because the transition is a test for counter 1, \( s_{t+2} = q_r \), \( c_1_{t+2} = c_1_{t+1} \), and \( c_2_{t+2} = c_2_{t+1} \). Therefore, \( \sum_{j=1}^{t+2} c_j = (\sum_{j=1}^{t+1} c_j) + q_r \), and \( @ (st, t+2) = @ (st, t+1) + q_r \), again by construction of \( @ \). Likewise,

\[
\sum_{j=1}^{t+1} (c_1 j + 1) = \left( \sum_{j=1}^{t+1} (c_1 j + 1) \right) + (c_1_{t+1} + 1)
\]

\[
= \sum_{j=1}^{t+1} (c_1 j + 1) + \sum_{j=1}^{t+1} (c_1 j + 1) - \sum_{j=1}^{t+1} (c_1 j + 1),
\]

so \( @ (ctr1, t+2) = 2* @ (ctr1, t+1) - @ (ctr1, t) \). Therefore, \( M \) satisfies subformulas of this type.

A similar argument shows that \( M \) satisfies the other seven types of subformulas of type 2.

(3) Since \( M \) does not accept \( x \), \( \neg t s_t = q_m \), therefore \( M = \forall t @ (st, t+1) - @ (st, t) \neq q_m \).

Since \( M \) satisfies all of the conjuncts of \( F \), \( M = F \). \( \Box \)
Lemma 2: If $M!F$, then for all $t$, $@_{(st,t)} = \sum_{j=1}^{t} s_{j}$, $@_{(ctr1,t)} = \sum_{j=1}^{t} (c_{1,j} + 1)$, and $@_{(ctr2,t)} = \sum_{j=1}^{t} (c_{2,j} + 1)$.

Proof: By induction on $t$.

Base case ($t=1$ or $t=2$): Since $M!F$, $@_{(st,1)} = s_{1} = \sum_{j=1}^{1} s_{j}$, $@_{(ctr1,1)} = x+1 = \sum_{j=1}^{1} (c_{1,j} + 1)$, and $@_{(ctr2,1)} = 1 = \sum_{j=1}^{1} (c_{2,j} + 1)$, because of subformula 1. The case where $t=2$ is similar.

Induction step ($t=k+2$): Assume the lemma holds for all $t<k+2$. Since $\sigma_{k+1}^{t} \models M \sigma_{k+2}^{t}$ is some transition that takes $M$ from $\sigma_{k+1}$ to $\sigma_{k+2}$, and it must be of one of the eight elementary types of transitions.

If $\sigma_{k+2}$ results from $\sigma_{k+1}$ by applying a post of counter 1, with states $q_{s}$ and $q_{r}$, then $c_{1,k+1} > 0$, so $c_{1,k+1}+1 > 1$. Therefore, $\sum_{j=1}^{k+1} (c_{1,j} + 1) - \sum_{j=1}^{k} (c_{1,j} + 1) > 1$, and by the induction hypothesis, $@_{(ctr1,k+1)} - @_{(ctr1,k)} > 1$. Likewise, since $s_{k+1} = s_{s}$, $\sum_{j=1}^{k+1} s_{j} - \sum_{j=1}^{k} s_{j} = q_{s}$, and $@_{(st,k+1)} - @_{(st,k)} = q_{s}$. Therefore, by the corresponding conjunct of type 2a of $F$, $@_{(st,k+2)} = @_{(st,k+1)} + q_{r} = \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} s_{j} + q_{r} = \sum_{j=1}^{k+2} s_{j}$, since $s_{k+2} = q_{r}$. Also,

$$@_{(ctr1,k+2)} = 2 \cdot @_{(ctr1,k+1)} - @_{(ctr1,k)}$$

$$= 2 \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} (c_{1,j} + 1) - \sum_{j=1}^{k} (c_{1,j} + 1)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} (c_{1,j} + 1) + c_{1,k+1} + 1$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} (c_{1,j} + 1) + c_{1,k+2} + 1$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{k+2} (c_{1,j} + 1),$$

since $c_{1,k+1} = c_{1,k+2}$. Similarly, $@_{(ctr2,k+2)} = \sum_{j=1}^{k+2} (c_{2,j} + 1)$. The same argument applies to the other seven basic transition types, and the lemma holds by induction. □
Lemma 3: If $F$ is satisfiable, then $M$ does not accept $x$.

Proof: Let $M$ be a model for RTL, and $M|=F$. Suppose $M$ accepts $x$. Then $\exists t>2$ such that $s_t=q_m^*$. From lemma 2, $@(st,t)-@(st,t-1)=q_m^*$ which is inconsistent with conjunct 3 of $F$. Therefore the assumption that $M$ accepts $x$ leads to a contradiction, and the lemma holds. □

Lemmas 1 and 3 establish the following theorem.

Theorem 2: RTL is undecidable.

Proof: This follows from theorem 1 and the result that the acceptance problem for two counter machines is undecidable. □

5. Decidable Subsets

The subclass of quantifier-free Presburger arithmetic with uninterpreted integer functions has been shown to be decidable in [Shostak 79]. If a Presburger formula containing uninterpreted functions (or predicates) is universally quantified, Shostak shows that $F$ can be reduced to an equivalent formula $F'$ free of uninterpreted functions. The correctness of the reduction is straightforward; given a model for $\neg F$, one can construct a model for $\neg F'$, and conversely. Since $F'$ is a Presburger formula, its validity can be checked by a decision procedure for Presburger arithmetic.

The class of RTL formulas in [Jahanian & Mok 87] also has a subset for which a decision procedure for determining the satisfiability (or unsatisfiability) of a formula in the subclass can be shown. Suppose an RTL formula is of the form

$$C_1 \land C_2 \land \cdots \land C_n$$

such that each $C_i$ is of the form

$$(Q_i \ L_1 \lor L_2 \lor \cdots \lor L_m)$$

where $Q_i$ is the prefix (quantifiers) for the disjunction and each $L_j$ is an arithmetical relation. Furthermore, suppose that each inequality $L_j$ is of the form
occurrence function \pm integer constant \leq occurrence function

where the occurrence functions contain integer variables quantified by the corresponding matrix. Note that the negation of an inequality can be replaced by an equivalent inequality without the negation.

**Theorem:** The above subclass is decidable if the quantifiers in each prefix \( Q_i \) are either all \( \forall \) or all \( \exists \).

**Proof:** The proof of this theorem follows directly from Herbrand’s Theorem. Suppose \( F \) is a formula in the above subclass. From the hypothesis, skolemizing \( F \) produces a set of clauses \( S \) such that each skolem function in \( S \) is a 0-place function, i.e., a constant. Furthermore, the integer variables in \( S \) (denoting occurrences) appear only inside occurrence functions. Since the "@" function does not take an instance of itself as an argument, the Herbrand Universe is finite. By Herbrand’s Theorem, the set of clauses in \( S \) is unsatisfiable iff there is a finite unsatisfiable set \( S' \) of ground instances of \( S \). Since Herbrand’s universe is finite, its powerset is finite and so there is a finite number of ground instances of \( S \) which must be checked. Checking a finite set of ground clauses can be done using any decision procedure for propositional logic.

\( \Box \)

6. **RTL and Temporal Logic**

In addition to the differences in the models of computation and the introduction of the notion of an event occurrence, there is one further distinction between RTL and propositional linear temporal logics, which are the languages generally used to describe transition system based models. A similar construction to that in section 4.3 can be used to show that any finite state control can be simulated by an RTL formula, by encoding the configurations of the machine as events, and using formulas to reflect the transitions allowed by the finite state control. Similarly the various acceptance criteria for finite automata on infinite strings can also be expressed in RTL. As an example, the requirement that a certain state appears infinitely often could be represented as

\[ \forall i \exists j \ (\text{@}(st,j) \land \neg \text{@}(st,j-1) = \text{desiredstate}) \land j > i \]

Accordingly, RTL is at least as expressive as finite state machines over infinite strings.
Propositional temporal logics are equivalent in expressive power to counter-free automata on infinite strings, and hence cannot express the proposition that the number of times an event happens is congruent to n modulo m for some n,m\epsilon\mathbb{N} [Pnueli et al 85], RTL can express such formulas quite easily. For example, if n and m are 2 and the given event is E, then the desired formula is

$$\exists k \exists t \ (\Theta(E,2^k,t) \land \forall j \geq 2^k \neg \exists u \Theta(E,j,u)) \lor \exists k \exists t \Theta(E,k,t).$$

Combining these two observations, it can be seen that RTL is strictly more expressive than propositional linear temporal logic.

7. Concluding Remarks

This paper presents the definition of RTL, a logic for reasoning about the absolute timing properties of real-time systems. Real Time Logic provides a uniform way for the specification of both relative and absolute timing of events. The ability of RTL to describe real-time systems has been demonstrated by means of an example specification. A safety property for this system was verified using natural deduction in predicate calculus.

The goal of our research is to investigate whether formal methods can be applied to real-time systems. An important direction for future research is determining practical methods for automating the analysis of systems described by RTL formulas. The undecidability proof of RTL given in section 4 applies to any subset where arithmetic relations contain at least three time-valued variables, there are at least three events, and where multiplication by two is allowed. No decision procedure will exist for a superset of this sublogic. However, it can be shown that the graph algorithm of [Jahanian & Mok 87] is a decision procedure for a subset of its domain. There are likely to be expressive subsets of RTL which are amenable to mechanical analysis, either by appropriate syntactic restriction or by exploiting semantic information. Both approaches are under investigation.
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