TIME-DEPENDENT DISTRIBUTED SYSTEMS: PROVING SAFETY, LIVENESS AND REAL-TIME PROPERTIES

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Abstract

Most communication protocol systems utilize timers to implement real-time constraints between system event occurrences. Such systems are said to be time-dependent if these real-time constraints are crucial to the correct functioning of the systems. We present a model for specifying and verifying time-dependent distributed systems. A distributed system is a network of processes that communicate with one another by message-passing. In the context of communication network protocols, each process is either a communication channel or a protocol entity.

Each process in our distributed system model has a set of state variables and a set of events. An event is described by a predicate that relates the values of the system state variables immediately before to their values immediately after the event occurrence. The predicate embodies specifications of both the event's enabling condition and action. Inference rules for both safety and liveness properties are presented. Liveness properties are expressed in the form of inductive properties of bounded-length paths in a system's reachability space.

Measures of time are explicitly included in our model in the form of discrete-valued timer variables and time events that age the timer variables. Time constraints enforced within individual processes are modeled by including timer values in the enabling conditions of system events and time events of those processes. Time constraints between events in remote processes can then be specified and verified as safety assertions. Arbitrary constraints on the enabling conditions of time events can cause them to deadlock. We give sufficient conditions to avoid this possibility. These conditions correspond to time constraints that are implementable within individual processes and they are independent of the accuracy of the process timers.

We have applied our model and inference rules to construct and verify several large time-dependent communication protocols, including a transport-layer protocol of window size N and a version of the High-level Data Link Control (HDLC) protocol. For the sake of brevity, a relatively small data transfer protocol is modeled herein for illustration. This protocol can reliably transfer data over bounded-delay channels that can lose, reorder and duplicate messages in transit. The protocol's safety, liveness and real-time properties are verified.

1. INTRODUCTION

We consider distributed systems in which individual processes employ timers to enforce time constraints between event occurrences. These time constraints enforced within individual processes can give rise to global precedence relations, including time constraints, between events in remote processes. We refer to a distributed system as time-dependent when these global precedence relations are essential to the correct functioning of the system.

Our work has been motivated primarily by communication network protocols which are invariably time-dependent systems [1, 5, 6, 15]. Time-dependent behavior arises naturally in communication networks because errors and failures that occur in one process of the network are usually not communicated explicitly to other processes in the network that may be affected by these errors and failures. In such situations, only by the use of timeouts can a process infer that a failure (or an error) has occurred and initiate recovery action. Because such recovery mechanisms are themselves subject to the same kinds of failures or errors, the time-dependent behavior can be quite complex.

We present in this paper an event-driven process model for specifying and verifying distributed systems, both time-dependent and time-independent. We have applied this model to construct and verify several nontrivial communication protocols, including a transport-layer protocol of window size N [20] and a version of the High-level Data Link Control (HDLC) protocol [18]. To illustrate our model, we present below a protocol for reliable data transfer over bounded-delay channels that can lose, reorder and duplicate messages in transit. The protocol employs cyclic sequence numbers, timers and timeouts.

1.1 Some features of our model

Each process in the distributed system has a set of state variables and a set of events. Each event is described by a predicate that relates the values of the system state variables immediately before the event occurrence to their values immediately after the event occurrence. The predicate embodies specifications of both the event's enabling condition and action. There is no algorithmic code in our model. (Any automated verification or implementation method that handles predicate logic expressions can be used on our system specifications.)

This compromise between implementation-dependent features (the state variables) and implementation-independent features (predicates for specifying events) has advantages. The state variables allow us to give compact specifications of large systems and their logical correctness properties. The predicate specifications of events allow us to directly substitute the events into proofs in predicate logic. By combining these features with the event-driven structure of the system model, we get simple inference rules for safety and liveness properties. Safety properties state that certain relations always

hold between the current values of system variables, irrespective of whether the values change or not. Liveness properties state that the values of system variables will indeed change in a certain manner within a finite time. We find it convenient to convert liveness properties concerning unbounded-length paths in a system's reachability graph into inductive liveness properties of bounded-length paths.

We use discrete-valued timer variables to measure the elapse of time, and define time events to age these timer variables. By imposing conditions, referred to as accuracy axioms, on the time events, we are able to model timers realistically: our timer variables are uncoupled and can tick at any rate within specified error bounds of a given rate. Time constraints enforced within a process of the form "event e will occur only if elapsed times satisfy certain bounds" are modeled by including timer variables in the enabling conditions of system events of the process. Time constraints enforced within a process of the form "event e must occur within certain elapsed times" are modeled by imposing conditions, referred to as timer axioms, on the time event of the process.

The time constraints enforced within individual processes give rise to more general time constraints which depend on the interaction between processes. With timer variables, such time constraints can be specified by safety assertions, and formally verified through the inference rules. We have found that such time constraints are very useful for describing progress in communication network protocols. Typically, if a protocol does not achieve progress (transfer of data, establishment of a connection, etc.) within a bounded time duration T, then the protocol resets or aborts. Hence, a liveness assertion stating progress within a finite but unbounded time duration is not realistic. More appropriate is the assertion of a time constraint such as "progress is achieved within a time duration T provided that the channels have not lost more than T messages in that time duration."

Our distributed system specifications can be implemented by programmers who may not be familiar with system analysis. A correct implementation of any process is possible from the specifications of that process alone, without the implementor having to analyze that process's interactions with other processes. In the case of a time-dependent system, this means that the only time constraints allowed in the specifications are those which can be implemented within individual processes. We give a formal definition of implementable time constraints in Section 3.3. It is the task of the protocol designer or verifier, not the implementor, to establish that these implementable time constraints do indeed give rise to the desired global precedence relations.

Our approach to verification is rigorous: a system property is proved only when it is the result of a sequence of inference rules applications. Our proofs can therefore be checked by automated techniques.

1.2 Summary of this paper

In Section 2, we describe the notation needed in using predicates to specify events. A general transition system is modeled. It is then specialized to a time-independent distributed system model. In Section 3, we describe our modeling of timers and time constraints, and present our time-dependent distributed system model. In Section 4, we present inference rules for verifying safety properties and heuristics to generate the assertions needed to apply the inference rules. In Section 5, a time-dependent data transfer protocol example is constructed and its safety properties verified. In Section 6, we present inference rules for verifying liveness properties. We use them to verify the liveness of the data transfer protocol example. In Section 7, we modify the data transfer protocol example so that it now offers real-time service; i.e., data transfer within a specified response time. This real-time service is specified and then verified. In Section 8, we review our modeling and verification methods with respect to modularity, implementation-independence and high-level specifications, and discuss related works.

2. EVENTS AND THEIR SPECIFICATION

We use the term "predicate" to refer to a well-formed sentence of first-order predicate logic augmented by appropriate mathematics for the variables of the predicate. We use and and or to denote logical conjunction and disjunction respectively. We use for all and for some to denote universal and existential quantification respectively. Throughout, we assume that for every variable there is a specified domain of allowed values. We use for all x in X to denote a universally quantified variable x ranging over the domain X. The corresponding existential declaration is for some x in X. Where ambiguity may arise, the scope of the quantification is enclosed by square brackets. An example of a predicate is (for some x_1 in integers)[$x_1 = x_2 + 1$ or $x_1 = x_3$], where x_1 , x_2 and x_3 are integer-valued variables; the free variables of this predicate are x_2 and x_3 .

Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ be a set of variables that can take values from domain \mathbf{X} . Let \mathbf{p} be a predicate expression with free variables from \mathbf{x} . For every value in \mathbf{X} , \mathbf{p} evaluates to either True or False. \mathbf{p} specifies a subset of \mathbf{X} , namely those values for which the predicate evaluates to True.

The notation $e(\mathbf{x}) \equiv p$ declares that $e(\mathbf{x})$ refers to p; for example, $e(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3) \equiv (\text{for some } \mathbf{x}_1 \text{ in integers})[\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_2 + 1 \text{ and } \mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_3]$. The expression to the right of " \equiv " is referred to as the body of $e(\mathbf{x})$. The expression to the left of the " \equiv " is referred to as the header. We will refer to the free variables in the header as parameters of the predicate $e(\mathbf{x})$. It is not neccessary that every parameter in the header must occur in the body (though that would normally be the case). We adopt the convention that any variable found in the body but not in the header is universally quantified, unless otherwise mentioned. For any given value of \mathbf{x} , we shall also use $e(\mathbf{x})$ to denote the value

that the predicate evaluates to. Thus, in the above example, e(1,2) is True while e(1,1) is False.

We use the terms "variable" and "parameter" in the mathematical sense, i.e., to denote some value from a domain of values. We use the term "state variable" to refer to a variable in the programming language sense, i.e., to denote both a location where a value may be stored, as well as the stored value. As in the case of variables, we assume that for every state variable there is a specified domain of allowed values. The Pascallike syntax x:X is often used to indicate that state variable x takes values from domain X.

2.1 Input-output Predicates

An *input-output* predicate is a predicate whose free variables are classified into input parameters and output parameters. The notation $e(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{y})$ denotes an input-output predicate named e where the input parameters $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ are listed before the semicolon, and the output parameters $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, ..., y_m)$ are listed after the semicolon. Assume there are no parameters in common between \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} . If \mathbf{x} has the domain \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{y} has the domain \mathbf{Y} , then $e(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{y})$ specifies a subset of $\mathbf{X} \times \mathbf{Y}$, namely those value pairs for which the predicate evaluates to True.

We use input-output predicates instead of algorithmic code. For example, given integers x and y, an algorithm that assigns to y the value x+1, can be modeled as $e(x;y) \equiv (y=x+1)$. The body of e(x;y) can also be (y-x=1). A nondeterministic algorithm that assigns to y either the value x+1 or the value x-2 provided that x is positive, can be modeled by $e(x;y) \equiv (x>0$ and (y=x+1 or y=x+2)). Note that within the body of an input-output predicate there is no distinction between the input and output parameters because there are no assignment statements as found in algorithmic code. We insist that every output parameter in y must occur in the body of e(x;y). Every input parameter in x need not occur in the body of e(x;y) (although that will normally be the case).

An input-output predicate e(x;y) is said to be *enabled* for a given value of x if there is a value of y such that e(x;y) evaluates to True for that value pair. The *enabling condition* of e(x;y) is defined to be any predicate in x which is True for exactly those values of x where e(x;y) is enabled; e.g., the predicate (for some y in Y)e(x;y).

An input-output predicate $e(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{y})$ can be composed from other predicates. For example, it is often very natural to have $e(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{y}) \equiv (e_1(\mathbf{x}) \text{ and } e_2(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{y}))$, where $e_2(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{y})$ is enabled for every value where $e_1(\mathbf{x})$ is True. Then, $e_1(\mathbf{x})$ is the enabling condition of $e(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{y})$ and $e_2(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{y})$ embodies the "action" of $e(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{y})$. For another example, given input-output

predicates $e_1(\mathbf{x}_1; \mathbf{y}_1)$ and $e_2(\mathbf{x}_2; \mathbf{y}_2)$ where the domain of \mathbf{y}_1 is a subset of the domain of \mathbf{x}_2 , we can construct $e(\mathbf{x}_1; \mathbf{y}_2) \equiv \text{(for some } \mathbf{y}_1)$ $[e_1(\mathbf{x}_1; \mathbf{y}_1) \text{ and } e_2(\mathbf{y}_1; \mathbf{y}_2)]$. A programming language analogy to this example is the sequential composition of two procedures to form a third procedure.

2.2 Specifying an Event-Driven System

We model a general event-driven system by a set of state variables whose values indicate the system state, a set of events that cause changes to the state variable values, and a set of initial conditions on the state variables.

Let $\mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{v_1}, \mathbf{v_2}, ..., \mathbf{v_n})$ denote the set of state variables of the system. \mathbf{v} is also referred to as the *state vector*. The domain of \mathbf{v} is the *system state space*. In addition to state variables needed to model the system, \mathbf{v} can contain auxiliary state variables needed for verification purposes only.

The initial conditions are specified by a predicate Initial (\mathbf{v}) . Any value of \mathbf{v} that satisfies Initial (\mathbf{v}) is an allowed *initial state* of the system.

Let $e_1, e_2, ..., e_m$ be the set of events of the system. Each event e can occur only when the state vector \mathbf{v} has certain values. Its occurrence causes the state vector \mathbf{v} to assume a new value. Thus, the event e corresponds to a collection of input-output value pairs where the input and output values are the values of the state vector before and after the event occurrence. Applying our notation for input-output predicates, we specify a system event e by a predicate $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{v}^n)$, where the input parameter \mathbf{v} denotes the value of the state vector immediately before the event occurrence and the output parameter \mathbf{v}^n denotes the value of the state vector immediately after the event occurrence. Such predicates are referred to as event predicates.

The notions of enabling condition, composition, action, etc., carry over from input-output predicates to event predicates. Unlike in the case of input-output predicates, we do not insist that every parameter in \mathbf{v} " need occur in the body of $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}^*)$. If a parameter \mathbf{v} " in \mathbf{v} " does not occur in the body of $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}^*)$, then we take the convention that the value of the state variable \mathbf{v} is not affected by the occurrence of $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}^*)$; i.e., $(\mathbf{v}^*=\mathbf{v})$ is an implicit conjunct in the body of $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}^*)$. This convention helps in writing compact predicate specifications of events. We allow event \mathbf{e} to be represented by the header $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{v}_a;\mathbf{v}_b^*)$, where \mathbf{v}_a and \mathbf{v}_b^* can be any subsets of \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{v}^* respectively such that $\mathbf{v}_a \cup \mathbf{v}_b^*$ include all the free variables that occur in the body of \mathbf{e} .

2.3 Distributed System Model

In this section, the event-driven model described above is specialized to model a distributed system of processes. Our distributed system model incorporates terminology from the networking area because our applications are from that area. Each process is either a protocol entity or a communication channel. The distributed system is a network of protocol entities $P_1, P_2, ..., P_I$ interconnected by communication channels $C_1, C_2, ..., C_K$. The interconnection topology can be arbitrary.

For each protocol entity P_i , let \mathbf{v}_i be the set of state variables of P_i . For each channel C_i , let \mathbf{z}_i be the sequence of messages in transit in the channel. The system state vector, also referred to as the *global state vector*, is defined by

$$\mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{v}_1, \, \mathbf{v}_2, \, ..., \, \mathbf{v}_I, \, \mathbf{z}_1, \, \mathbf{z}_2, \, ..., \, \mathbf{z}_K)$$

As before, the system initial conditions are specified by a predicate Initial(v).

Each process in the distributed system has a set of events. The events of entity P_i can only involve the state vector \mathbf{v}_i and the state vectors of channels accessible from P_i ; i.e., only these state vectors can occur in its event headers. Entity events model message receptions, message sends, and internal activities such as timeout handling. The events of channel C_i can involve only the state vector \mathbf{z}_i . Channel events model channel errors such as loss, duplication, and reordering of messages in transit (see Appendix B for their predicate definitions).

Entity events can access channel state variables only via send and receive primitives. The send primitive for channel C_i is defined by $Send_i(\mathbf{z}_i, m; \mathbf{z}_i") \equiv (\mathbf{z}_i" = (\mathbf{z}_i, m))$; i.e., append the message value m to the tail of \mathbf{z}_i . (We will use a comma as the concatenation operator, and use parentheses to resolve ambiguities.) The receive primitive for channel C_i is defined by $Rec_i(\mathbf{z}_i; m, \mathbf{z}_i") \equiv ((m, \mathbf{z}_i") = \mathbf{z}_i)$; i.e., remove the message at the head of \mathbf{z}_i and assign it to m, provided that \mathbf{z}_i is not empty. When these primitives are used in the predicate bodies of entity events, the formal message parameter m is replaced by the actual message sent or received. (The definition of $Send_i(\mathbf{z}_i, m; \mathbf{z}_i")$ above assumes that C_i has unbounded message capacity; see Appendix B for the bounded-capacity case.)

3. DISTRIBUTED REAL-TIME SYSTEM MODEL

In Section 3.1, we define timers and time events. In Sections 3.2 and 3.3 respectively, we model time constraints that are enforced by individual processes, and time constraints that are enforced due to the cooperation of the processes. In these sections, we treat the distributed system as a general collection of processes; no distinction is made between channels and entities. In Section 3.4, we model bounded-delay communication channels.

3.1 Measures of Time

We use the term *local timers* to refer to the timers that are implemented within individual processes of a distributed system. Our local timers have several realistic properties. First, the interval between successive ticks of a local timer is not infinitesimally small. Second, local timers in different processes are not coupled: the ticks of one timer do not coincide in time with the ticks of another timer. Third, the rates of local timers in different processes are not constant but may vary within specified error bounds of a constant rate.

A local timer is a discrete-valued state variable that can take values from the domain $\{Off,0,1,2,...\}$. For this domain, define the successor function next as follows: next(Off) = Off and next(i) = i+1 for $i \neq Off$. When a timer is aged, if the original value is t then its new value is next(t). (Other domains and aging definitions can be chosen if needed; e.g., domain of $\{0,1,...,n-1\}$ and aging corresponding to modulo n addition.)

For each process, there is a local time event (corresponding to a clock tick) whose occurrence ages all local timers within that process. Since no other timer is affected, local timers in this process are effectively decoupled from timers in other processes of the distributed system. We shall use the term system events to refer to the events of the process other than the time event; i.e., the communication and internal events of the process. (Note that a communication event is a system event of each process involved in the communication.) In addition to being aged by its time event, a local timer can be reset to some value by a system event of that process. Thus, a local timer can be used to measure the time elapsed (in number of occurrences of its local time event) following a system event occurrence.

At this point in the modeling, the time events of different processes are entirely decoupled and may occur at vastly different rates. To keep the rate of time event occurrences in different processes within specified bounds, we include in our model a hypothetical time event, referred to as the *ideal time event*, that is assumed to occur at an absolutely constant rate. Each local time event's occurrences will be allowed to drift within a specified bound of the ideal time event's occurrences. For process i, let η_i denote the number of occurrences of its local time event since system initialization, and let ϵ_i denote the maximum error in the tick rate. (Typically, $\epsilon_i \ll 1$; for a crystal oscillator, $\epsilon_i \approx 10^{-6}$.) Let η denote the number of occurrences of the ideal time event since initialization. The η 's are auxiliary state variables that are not implemented, and can never be reset by any system event.

Neither the local time event for process i nor the ideal time event is allowed to occur if such an occurrence will violate the following accuracy axiom of the local time event of process i

AccuracyAxiom_i (η_i, η) : For any earlier instant a,

$$| (\eta_{i} - \eta_{i}(a)) - (\eta - \eta(a)) | \leq \max(1, \epsilon_{i}(\eta - \eta(a))).$$

where $\eta(a)$ refers to the value of η at instant a, and η refers to the current value of the state variable η . The above accuracy axiom states that over any time span since initialization, the number of occurrences of process i's local time event differs from the number of ideal time event occurrences by at most ϵ_i times the number of ideal time event occurrences. (The minimum upper bound of 1 is necessary since the η 's are integer-valued.) This accuracy axiom is a discrete version of the following drift condition for continuous clocks

$$|1 - \frac{d\eta_i}{d\eta}| \le \epsilon_i$$
 usually found in the literature [8].

For analyzing the relationships between time constraints enforced within processes and the resulting system-wide time constraints, it is convenient to have timers that are driven by the ideal time event. These timers are referred to as *ideal timers*. Ideal timers are not available to the implementation. Rather they are auxiliary variables used to record the actual time elapsed between occurrences of system events (not neccessarily of the same process). The analysis can then be divided into two phases: a global analysis phase involving only ideal timers, followed by a local analysis phase during which implementable time constraints (defined below) expressed with ideal timers are realized using local timers (see example in Section 5.1). In this latter phase, processes need to approximate the values of ideal timers by using local timers. Given an ideal timer u and a local timer v, we say: (u,v) started at (a,b), to mean that at some instant in the past u and v were simultaneously reset to a and b respectively, and after that instant there has been no reset to either u or v. If a=b then we say: (u,v) started at a.

If ϵ_i is the error rate of the local time event that drives timer v, then the following property clearly holds.

Started-at Property.
$$(u,v)$$
 started at $(a,b) \Rightarrow |(u-a) - (v-b)| \leq \max(1, \epsilon_i(u-a))$

For convenience in specifying timers with limited counting capacity, we also allow a timer v to have the domain $\{Off,0,1,...,M\}$ where M is some positive integer. The time event for aging v will reset v to Off if v=M before the time event occurrence. Note that this action is referred to as a reset (see started-at definition above), and not as aging. This reset action is incorporated by defining next(M) to be Off. Also, we shall extend the function next as follows: for any structured value \mathbf{u} , $next(\mathbf{u})$ returns \mathbf{u} with every time value in it aged.

3.2 Implementable Time Constraints

Implementable time constraints are time constraints that are realizable by individual processes without any cooperation from the rest of the distributed system. They are guaranteed by the implementations of individual processes, and are not properties that have to be verified by analyzing the interaction of processes.

Let \mathbf{v}_i denote the state vector of process i (\mathbf{v}_i is a component of the global state vector \mathbf{v}). Let \mathbf{e}_1 and \mathbf{e}_2 be system events of process i, and let \mathbf{v} be a timer in \mathbf{v}_i that is reset to 0 by \mathbf{e}_1 , and reset to Off by \mathbf{e}_2 where \mathbf{e}_2 is different from \mathbf{e}_1 . Then, the time constraint (E1) " \mathbf{e}_2 will not occur within T time units of \mathbf{e}_1 's occurrence" is modeled by including $\mathbf{v} \geq \mathbf{T}$ in the enabling condition of \mathbf{e}_1 's occurrence" is modeled by including $\mathbf{v} \leq \mathbf{T}$ in the enabling condition of \mathbf{e}_2 . The time constraint (E3) " \mathbf{e}_2 must occur within T time units of \mathbf{e}_1 's occurrence" is modeled by including $\mathbf{v} \leq \mathbf{T}$ in the enabling condition of the time event that ages \mathbf{v} . Note that E3 cannot be modeled by including $\mathbf{v} \leq \mathbf{T}$ in the enabling condition of \mathbf{e}_2 , because in our model an enabled event is not forced to occur.

E1 and E2 are examples of time constraints of the form "system event e will occur only if the elapsed times satisfy a condition $TC(\mathbf{v}_i)$." They are modeled by including $TC(\mathbf{v}_i)$ in the enabling condition of event e.

E3 is an example of time constraints of the form "system event e must occur while the elapsed times satisfy a condition $TC(\mathbf{v_i})$ " They are modeled by including $TC(next(\mathbf{v_i}))$ in the enabling conditions of time events.

The TC conditions introduced above on the time events will be referred to as $timer\ axioms$. Let $TimerAxiom_i(\mathbf{v_i})$ denote the conjunct of all the timer axioms of process i.

The local time event for process i is formally defined by the event predicate

```
(for all local timer v in \mathbf{v}_i)[v'' = next(v)] and TimerAxiom<sub>i</sub>(\mathbf{v}_i'') and \eta_i'' = \eta_i + 1 and AccuracyAxiom<sub>i</sub>(\eta_i'', \eta)
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The ideal time event is defined by

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(for all ideal timer v in \mathbf{v})[v'' = next(v)] and \eta'' = \eta + 1 and (for all process i)[TimerAxiom;(\mathbf{v}_i'') and AccuracyAxiom;(\eta_i, \eta'')]
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Observe that the time events are completely defined by the ideal and local timers, the timer axioms, and the error rates of the local time events. Unlike system events, time events are not implemented.

Because of the timer axioms, time events may deadlock. Consider the example E3 where e₁ and e₂ are both events of process i but e₂ involves the reception of a message (we shall refer to this example as E4). If there is no message in the channel to receive, then the time events will deadlock. We now present conditions to ensure that this will not happen. These conditions correspond to a formal definition of implementable time constraints.

A system event e of process i is said to be controlled by process i if the enabling condition of e depends only on the value of \mathbf{v}_i ; i.e., e is an internal event or a message send into a nonblocking channel.

Definition. TimerAxiom_i(\mathbf{v}_i) is *implementable* if the following conditions hold:

- (IC1) TimerAxiom_i(\mathbf{v}_i) holds initially.
- (IC2) No system event of process i sets \mathbf{v}_i to a value such that $\operatorname{TimerAxiom}_i(\mathbf{v}_i) = \operatorname{False} \mathbf{or} \operatorname{TimerAxiom}_i(next(\mathbf{v}_i)) = \operatorname{False}.$
- (IC3) For every value of \mathbf{v}_i such that $\mathrm{TimerAxiom}_i(next(\mathbf{v}_i)) = \mathrm{False}$, there is a sequence of system events $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ controlled by process i whose occurrence will set \mathbf{v}_i to a value such that $\mathrm{TimerAxiom}_i(next(\mathbf{v}_i)) = \mathrm{True}$.

Note that IC3 is the key condition. In example E4, IC3 is violated because the receive event e_2 is not controlled by process i. (The events referred to in IC3 can generally be found in the English statements of the time constraints, e.g., the event e_2 in example E3.) Also, note that the above definition does not depend on whether the timers involved are ideal or local. Therefore, it has the desirable feature of being independent of the error rate of the local time event of process i.

The distributed system is said to have implementable time constraints if the TimerAxiom of each process is implementable. The following result justifies our definition of implementable time constraints:

Theorem 1. If each process in a distributed system has an implementable TimerAxiom, then all timer and accuracy axioms hold at all times, and the time event counts will increase without bound. (Proof in Appendix A.)

3.3 Derived Time Constraints

Derived time constraints are time constraints that hold for the distributed system as a result of individual processes enforcing implementable time constraints. They are not guaranteed by the implementation but must be verified for the distributed system.

Derived time constraints can be global time constraints on the elapsed times between events in different processes. Derived time constraints can also be time constraints on events of the same process. An instance of that is example E4 where e₂ is a receive event.

A derived time constraint of the form "system event e will occur only if the elapsed times satisfy a condition $TC(\mathbf{v})$ " is logically equivalent to the statement that $TC(\mathbf{v})$ holds whenever e is enabled. It is established by proving that $e(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}") \Rightarrow TC(\mathbf{v})$ is invariant (proving invariance is covered in Section 4).

A derived time constraint of the form "system event e must occur while the elapsed times satisfy a condition $TC(\mathbf{v})$ " is logically equivalent to the statement that $TC(\mathbf{v})$ holds immediately after the occurrence of any time event. It is established by proving that (for every time event e_t)[$e_t(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}") \Rightarrow TC(\mathbf{v}")$] is invariant.

3.4 Modeling Real-Time Channels

In this section, we model a channel C_i that displays a maximum message lifetime MaxDelay_i; i.e., any message attempting to stay in channel C_i for longer than MaxDelay_i time units is lost or removed by some intermediate network node [21]. Such behavior is not only common in communication networks, but is crucial for the correct operation of communication protocols.

With each message in transit we associate a timer age that indicates the age of the message (time spent in the channel). For notational convenience, we assume that age is an ideal timer. The state variable \mathbf{z}_i of C_i now denotes the sequence of <message,age> value pairs in C_i . Initially, any age timer in \mathbf{z}_i has the value 0. The maximum message lifetime MaxDelay, constraint is modeled by the following timer axiom

$$\operatorname{TimerAxiom}_{C_{\hat{\mathbf{i}}}}(\mathbf{z}_{\hat{\mathbf{i}}}) \equiv (\operatorname{for\ every\ } < \operatorname{message}, \operatorname{age} > \operatorname{in\ } \mathbf{z}_{\hat{\mathbf{i}}})[0 \leq \operatorname{age} \leq \operatorname{MaxDelay}_{\hat{\mathbf{i}}}]$$

The send and receive primitives are modified to the following: $\operatorname{Send}_i(\mathbf{z}_i, m; \mathbf{z}_i") \equiv (\mathbf{z}_i = (\mathbf{z}_i, < m, 0>))$, i.e., append message m with an age of 0 to the tail of \mathbf{z}_i . $\operatorname{Rec}_i(\mathbf{z}_i; m, \mathbf{z}_i") \equiv (\text{for some t})[(< m, t>, \mathbf{z}_i") = \mathbf{z}_i]$, i.e., receive the message m from the head of \mathbf{z}_i irrespective of its age.

In practice, to check that $TimerAxiom_i(z_i)$ is implementable amounts to ensuring that at least one of the following conditions holds:

(a) The channel can delete any message of age MaxDelay_i. (Typically, a channel will have a loss event that can delete any <message,age> pair including those of age MaxDelay_i.)

(b) The entity that receives messages from C_i is always enabled to receive the first message (and hence by successive applications, any message) in C_i.

This guarantees IC3. IC1 is ensured since all age timers are initially zero. IC2 is guaranteed because neither the channel events nor the channel receive primitive reset age timers, and the channel send primitive resets age timers to 0.

4. PROVING SAFETY PROPERTIES

In this section, we present the inference rule for verifying safety properties, including those which involve started-at statements. We also describe how the method of preconditions can be used to generate the assertions needed to apply the safety inference rule. Our inference rules do not distinguish between distributed and non-distributed systems. Hence, in this section, we will consider the system model of Section 2.2: i.e, specified by a state vector \mathbf{v} , an initial condition predicate Initial(\mathbf{v}), and event predicates $\mathbf{e}_1(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}^*)$, ..., $\mathbf{e}_n(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}^*)$. Our reasons for adopting this approach are explained in the conclusion.

To justify the inference rules, we will appeal to the following state transition representation of the system model. The set of all possible value assignments to the system state variables defines the state space of the system. Those system states that satisfy Initial(v) are referred to as initial system states. Each event specifies a set of transitions between system states; each transition is from a system state where the event is enabled to a system state that can result from changes to the state variable values. A system state that can be reached from an initial state via a sequence of event transitions is referred to as a reachable system state. The graph whose nodes are the reachable global states and whose arcs are the event transitions is referred to as the reachability graph of the system. A realization of system behavior is represented by some path in the reachability graph starting from an initial state.

A safety property of the system states relationships between values of the system state variables. It can be represented by a predicate in the variables of the global state vector \mathbf{v} . An example of a safety property involving two integer state variables x and y is $(x \leq y \leq x+1)$. A safety property $A_0(\mathbf{v})$ holds for the system if it holds at every reachable state. Such a property is said to be *invariant*. We now present the inference rule for proving invariance (following our convention, variables in the predicates are universally quantified over their domains unless otherwise indicated).

Inference Rule for Safety. If I(v) is invariant and A(v) satisfies

- (i) $Initial(\mathbf{v}) \Rightarrow A(\mathbf{v})$
- (ii) (for every event e)[(I(v) and A(v) and e(v;v")) \Rightarrow A(v")]

(iii)
$$A(\mathbf{v}) \Rightarrow A_0(\mathbf{v})$$

then we can infer that $A_0(\mathbf{v})$ is invariant.

Note that the inference rule is quite simple because of our use of predicates to define events. $A_0(\mathbf{v})$ represents a desired safety property and $I(\mathbf{v})$ can be any safety property whose invariance has already been verified. In particular, any timer or accuracy axiom can be a conjunct of $I(\mathbf{v})$ (from Theorem 1). Generating $A(\mathbf{v})$ from $A_0(\mathbf{v})$ and $I(\mathbf{v})$ is a nontrivial task analogous to generating loop invariants in program verification (see below).

The validity of the rule is obvious from the following. From (ii) we know that at every system state g where A(g) = I(g) = True, every enabled event e takes the system to a state h where A(h) = True. Because $I(\mathbf{v})$ is invariant, I(h) = True. Hence, once the system is in a state where $A(\mathbf{v})$ and $I(\mathbf{v})$ hold, all future states also satisfy the two predicates. From (i), we know that any initial state satisfies $A(\mathbf{v})$ (and $I(\mathbf{v})$ because of its invariance). Hence all reachable states satisfy $A(\mathbf{v})$. Because $A_0(\mathbf{v})$ is implied by $A(\mathbf{v})$ (from (iii)), we know that all reachable states also satisfy $A_0(\mathbf{v})$.

Note that since $I(\mathbf{v})$ is given to be invariant, part (ii) of the above inference rule can be modified to the following:

(for every event e)[(I(v) and I(v") and A(v) and e(v;v"))
$$\Rightarrow$$
 A(v")]

Because this change strengthens the left hand side of the implication, it usually helps in deriving the right hand side.

Safety assertions with started-at statements

We will allow safety assertions to contain started-at statements; e.g., $x>y \Rightarrow ((u,v))$ started at 0). We next present rules for applying the safety inference rule to such assertions (below, u is an ideal timer and v is a local timer).

Started-at Rule 1. In part(i) of the safety inference rule, if

Initial(
$$\mathbf{v}$$
) \Rightarrow (\mathbf{u} =a and \mathbf{v} =b)

then we can infer

$$Initial(\mathbf{v}) \Rightarrow ((\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \text{ started at } (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}))$$

Started-at Rule 2. In part(ii) of the safety inference rule,

(i) If system event e satisfies

$$(I(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } A(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } e(\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{v}")) \Rightarrow (u"=a \text{ and } v"=b)$$

then we can infer

$$(I(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } A(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } e(\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{v}")) \Rightarrow (u", v") \text{ started at (a,b)}$$

(ii) If system event e satisfies

$$(I(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } A(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } e(\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{v}"))$$

$$\Rightarrow (\mathbf{u}"=\mathbf{u} \text{ and } \mathbf{v}"=\mathbf{v} \text{ and } ((\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}) \text{ started at } (\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b})))$$
then we can infer
$$(I(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } A(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } e(\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{v}")) \Rightarrow ((\mathbf{u}", \mathbf{v}") \text{ started at } (\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b}))$$

(iii) If time event e does not reset u or v (recall that time events can reset timers with bounded domains), then we can infer

$$(e(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}") \text{ and } ((\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}) \text{ started at } (\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b}))) \Rightarrow ((\mathbf{u}",\mathbf{v}") \text{ started at } (\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b}))$$

Method of preconditions

The inputs for the safety inference rule consist of $A_0(\mathbf{v})$, $I(\mathbf{v})$ and the system specifications. The method of preconditions [2] can be used to generate from these inputs either an assertion $A(\mathbf{v})$ that satisfies the requirements of the rule, or a sequence of events that takes the system from an initial state to a state that violates $A_0(\mathbf{v})$.

For an event $e(\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{v}^*)$ and an assertion $C(\mathbf{v})$, the weakest precondition of C with respect to e can be defined by the following predicate in \mathbf{v} : (for all $g)[e(\mathbf{v};g) \Rightarrow C(g)]$. It specifies the set of all states from where the occurrence of e, if it is enabled, takes the system to a state that satisfies $C(\mathbf{v})$. The following iterative procedure generates a sequence of events together with a sequence of assertions $A_0(\mathbf{v})$, $A_1(\mathbf{v})$, $A_2(\mathbf{v})$, ..., where $A_{i+1}(\mathbf{v}) \Rightarrow A_i(\mathbf{v})$ for all i. The procedure will terminate provided that $A_0(\mathbf{v})$ is a decidable property.

- 1. Initially i=1, $A_1(v) \equiv I(v)$ and $A_0(v)$, and the event sequence is empty.
- 2. If there exists a state g such that Initial(g) = True and A(g) = False, then terminate procedure: $A_0(\mathbf{v})$ is not invariant and the event sequence will take the system from initial state g to a state that violates $A_0(\mathbf{v})$.
- 3. If for every event e in the event set, the weakest precondition of $A_i(\mathbf{v})$ with respect to e is implied by $A_i(\mathbf{v})$, then terminate procedure: $A_0(\mathbf{v})$ is invariant and $A_i(\mathbf{v})$ is the weakest desired assertion.
- Choose an event e'_i from the event set. Let A_{i+1} be the conjunct of A_i and the weakest precondition of A_i with respect to e'_i.
 Append e'_i to the event sequence. Increment i by 1 and go to step 2.

From our experience, a blind application of the above iterative procedure often leads to an expression for $A_i(\mathbf{v})$ that grows unmanageably with increasing i. The choice of the event in step 4 of each iteration is usually crucial in avoiding this. Unfortunately, the correct choice becomes clear only with increasing intuitive understanding of the system's behavior.

In practice, it is fruitful to strengthen $A_i(\mathbf{v})$ by including "relevant" properties that are either known to be invariant or are suspected of being invariant. In this case, the precondition obtained upon termination may not be the weakest precondition; this method is illustrated in Section 5.1 with an example. If we included a property C which turns out to be not invariant, then the above procedure may terminate improperly by declaring $A_0(\mathbf{v})$ to be not invariant while it is actually invariant. This improper termination may be detected by trying out the event sequence generated by the procedure on the initial state g. It will take the system to a state that violates C rather than $A_0(\mathbf{v})$. It is then necessary to resume the procedure from the point just prior to where C was introduced and not to utilize C.

5. A DATA TRANSFER PROTOCOL

We now present a data transfer protocol that reliably transfers data blocks from entity P_1 to P_2 using channels C_1 and C_2 (see Fig. 1), where each channel C_i has a bounded-delay of MaxDelay, and can lose, duplicate and reorder messages in transit. There is a source at P_1 which produces new data blocks to be transferred to a destination at P_2 which consumes them.

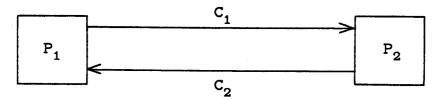


Figure 1. Network configuration of protocol example.

Let DataSet be the set of data blocks that can be sent in this protocol. P_1 sends messages of type (D,data,ns) where D is the name of the message type, data can be any data block from DataSet, and ns is a sequence number that identifies the data block. P_2 sends messages of type (ACK,nr) where nr is a sequence number identifying the next expected data block. In this example, ns and nr are restricted to the values of 0 and 1. (The reader is referred to [9] for the general case of ns and nr taking values from $\{0,1,...,N-1\}$ for any $N \ge 2$.)

Let Source[n] for $n \ge 0$ denote the sequence of data blocks that have been accepted by P_1 from its source. P_1 sends Source[n] accompanied by sequence number equal to n mod 2. Let Sink[n] for $n \ge 0$ denote the sequence of data blocks that have been passed by P_2 to the destination. When P_2 receives a (D,data,ns) message, if ns equals the next expected sequence number then the data block is passed on to the destination, else it is ignored. In either case, P_2 sends an (ACK,nr) where nr equals the next expected value of ns. When P_1 receives an (ACK,nr), if there is an outstanding data block Source[n] such that $nr=(n+1) \mod 2$ then the (ACK,nr) is considered to acknowledge Source[n] (as well

as any data blocks accepted earlier). An *outstanding* data block is one that has been accepted but not yet acknowledged. (This is compatible with the usual notion of outstanding because we allow P₁ to send an outstanding block at any time.)

In order to ensure that received sequence numbers are correctly interpreted, P₁ accepts a new data block Source[n] only when the following three conditions hold: First, all data blocks accepted earlier have been acknowledged. Second, at least MaxDelay₁ time has elapsed since the last send of data block Source[n-1]. Third, at least MaxDelay₂ time has elapsed since P₁ first received the acknowledgement to Source[n-1].

If the first condition is violated, then both Source[n] and Source[n-1] would become outstanding, and a received (ACK, n+1 mod 2) could signify either an acknowledgement for Source[n] or an old acknowledgement for Source[n-2]. The second and third conditions are implementable time constraints. In Section 5.1, we will derive these time constraints as sufficient conditions for the correct interpretation of received sequence numbers.

Once Source[n] is accepted by P₁, it is repeatedly sent until it is acknowledged. Neither of the above time constraints apply to the retransmissions of Source[n]. The time to wait before a retransmission should be chosen on the basis of performance goals and the probability distributions of channel delays, channel loss, etc. (further discussions in Section 7). Here we see a system with two different types of time constraints: one necessary for logical correctness and one concerned only with performance. In other protocols, the separation is not always so clear.

We now list the state variables and events of the entities. Auxiliary state variables needed for stating and verifying desired logical correctness properties are also included. Below, \bigoplus and \bigoplus denote modulo 2 addition and subtraction respectively. Also, MDelay_i = $1+(1+\epsilon_i)$ × MaxDelay_i for i=1 and 2 (recall that P₁'s timers have an accuracy of ϵ_1). Finally, for brevity in stating an event predicate, we use the following guarded command [2] notation $e_1(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}'') \rightarrow e_2(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}'')$ to mean that the action in e_2 is done only if e_1 is enabled. Formally, $e_1(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}'') \rightarrow e_2(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}'')$ expands to $(e_1(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}'')) \Rightarrow e_2(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}'')$ and (not $e_1(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}'') \Rightarrow (\text{for every }\mathbf{v}'')$ in the body of $e_2)[\mathbf{v}''=\mathbf{v}]$).

Variables of P₁

Source: array[0..s-1] of DataSet; {Source is an auxiliary history variable that records the sequence of data blocks accepted by P₁. s indicates the length of Source. Initially, s=0 and Source is the null sequence.}

a: 0..∞; {Auxiliary variable indicating the number of data blocks that have been acknowledged; i.e., Source[a],...,Source[s-1] are outstanding. a is initialized to 0 and is always less than or equal to s.}

vs: 0..1; {Initialized to 0 and always equals s mod 2}

va: 0..1; {Initialized to 0 and always equals a mod 2}

DTimer: (Off,0,1,2,...,MDelay₁); {Local timer which measures elapsed time since last D message sent. Initialized to Off}

DTimerG: (Off,0,1,...); {Ideal timer associated with DTimer. Auxiliary variable initialized to Off}

ATimer: (Off,0,1,2,...,MDelay₁); {Local timer that measures time elapsed since reception of ACK message that first acknowledged Source[s-1]. Initialized to Off}

ATimerG: (Off,0,1,...); {Ideal timer associated with ATimer. Auxiliary variable initialized to Off}

Let \mathbf{v}_1 denote a list of the above variables along with the local time event count η_1 . The initial condition of P_1 is given by

 $Initial_1(\mathbf{v}_1) \equiv (a=s=vs=va=0 \text{ and } DTimer=DTimerG=ATimerG=Off).$

Events of P₁

- 1. AcceptData(v₁;v₁")
 - = vs=va and DTimer=Off and ATimer=Off {If new data can be accepted} and Source[s] DataSet and s"=s+1 and vs"=vs⊕1 {then do so}
- 2. Send_ $D(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{z}_1; \mathbf{v}_1", \mathbf{z}_1")$ $\equiv \mathbf{vs} \neq \mathbf{va} \text{ and } Send_1((D,Source[s-1], \mathbf{vs}-1), \mathbf{z}_1; \mathbf{z}_1")$ {send outstanding data}
 and DTimer"=0 and DTimerG"=0
 {start DTimer}

Variables of P₂

Sink: array[0..r-1] of DataSet; {Sink is an auxiliary history variable that records the sequence of data blocks passed on to the destination. r indicates its length. Initially r=0 and Sink is the null sequence}

vr: 0..1; {Sequence number of the next expected data block. vr is initialized to 0 and always equals (r mod 2)}

SendACK: Boolean; {True iff a received D message has not been acknowledged}

Let \mathbf{v}_2 denote a list of the above variables. The initial condition of P_2 is given by the following predicate.

 $Initial_2(\mathbf{v}_2) \equiv (r = vr = 0 \text{ and } SendACK = False)$

Events of P₂

- 1. Send $ACK (\mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{z}_2; \mathbf{v}_2^{"}, \mathbf{z}_2^{"})$ $\equiv SendACK = True \ \mathbf{and} \ Send_2 ((ACK, vr), \ \mathbf{z}_2; \mathbf{z}_2^{"})$ $\mathbf{and} \ SendACK" = False$
- 2. Rec_D ($\mathbf{v_2}$, $\mathbf{z_1}$; $\mathbf{v_2}$ ", $\mathbf{z_1}$ ") \equiv (for some data in DataSet)(for some ns in {0,1})[Rec_1 ($\mathbf{z_1}$;(D,data,ns), $\mathbf{z_1}$ ")

 and (ns=vr \rightarrow {if next expected sequence number}

 (Sink[r]"=data and r"=r+1 and vr"=vr \oplus 1)) {then accept data}

 and SendACK" = True]

Other events

 \mathbf{z}_i is the sequence of (message,age) pairs in C_i . The channel events of C_i are specified by a predicate ChannelError($\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{z}_i$ ") that allows all possible losses, duplications and reorderings of (message,age) pairs in the channel. The time axiom for C_i is TimerAxiom_i(\mathbf{z}_i) \equiv (for all <m,t> in \mathbf{z}_i)[$0 \le t \le \text{MaxDelay}_i$].

The local time event for the local timers at P₁ is specified by

```
\eta_1" = \eta_1 + 1 {age \eta_1 and its associated local time variables} and DTimer" = next(DTimer) and ATimer" = next(ATimer) and AccuracyAxiom(\eta_1",\eta) {if aging does not violate any accuracy or time axioms} and DTimer" \leq MDelay<sub>1</sub> and ATimer" \leqMDelay<sub>2</sub>
```

The ideal time event is specified by

```
AccuracyAxiom<sub>1</sub> (\eta_1, \eta") and TimeAxiom<sub>1</sub>(\mathbf{z}_1") and TimeAxiom<sub>2</sub>(\mathbf{z}_2") and \eta"=\eta+1 and \mathbf{z}_1"=next(\mathbf{z}_1) and \mathbf{z}_2"=next(\mathbf{z}_2) and DTimerG" = next(DTimerG) and ATimerG" = next(ATimerG)
```

System initial condition

The initial condition of the system is given by the following predicate

$$Initial_1(\mathbf{v}_1) \equiv Initial_1(\mathbf{v}_1) \text{ and } Initial_2(\mathbf{v}_2) \text{ and } \mathbf{z}_1 \text{ is empty and } \mathbf{z}_2 \text{ is empty }$$

$$\mathbf{z}_1 = 0.$$

5.1 Safety Verification and Timing Analysis

For the above protocol, we would like to verify that following safety property is invariant:

$$A_0$$
 (a) $Sink[i] = Source[i]$ for $0 \le i < r$

(b)
$$a \le r \le s \le a+1$$

 A_0 states that the sequence of data blocks passed to the destination at P_2 is a prefix of the sequence of data blocks accepted from the source at P_1 , and that a data block is acknowledged at P_1 only after it has indeed been passed on to the destination at P_2 . We have included in part (b) of A_0 the requirement that P_1 can have at most one outstanding data block. In order to show that A_0 is invariant, we need to find an assertion A that implies A_0 and satisfies the inference rule for safety (Section 4). We will obtain such an assertion using the heuristic approach outlined in Section 4.

For brevity, we shall refer to a predicate $A(\mathbf{v})$ as simply A, and use A" to refer to $A(\mathbf{v}")$. Also, we shall refer to an event $e(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}")$ as simply e. When we prove that (A and e) \Rightarrow A" holds, the proof will be presented as a sequence of steps, each consisting of a statement L (at the left) and a list of statements R_1,R_2,\ldots (at the right). L derives (in predicate calculus) from the list R_1,R_2,\ldots Each R_i is (a) a statement that has been derived in an earlier step; or (b) a statement that is implied by the event under consideration; or (c) an assumption when the implication $R_i\Rightarrow L$, rather than L, is being proved. Finally, we say that event e does not affect predicate A if event e implies that \mathbf{v} "= \mathbf{v} for every variable \mathbf{v} in A; clearly, if e does not affect A then (e and A) \Rightarrow A" holds.

The following property is obviously invariant:

A1
$$vs = s \mod 2$$
 and $va = a \mod 2$ and $vr = r \mod 2$

Proof of A1's invariance

Each individual conjunct in A1 satisfies the safety inference rule. We will give the details for (vs=s mod 2) only.

$$Initial(\mathbf{v}) \Rightarrow (vs = s = 0) \Rightarrow (vs = s \mod 2).$$

For every event e other than AcceptData, e does not effect A1.

AcceptData:

vs"=s" mod 2 (from vs=s mod 2 (from A1), s"=s+1, vs"=vs \oplus 1) End of proof

In order that P_2 correctly interprets received D messages, it is neccessary that at any time all the D messages in C_1 must have the same sequence number. Suppose this is not the case, and C_1 contains the messages (D,data₁,1) and (D,data₂,0). Because C_1 can duplicate and reorder messages, P_2 can receive the messages in the following alternating sequence: (D,data_i,i), (D,data_i,i,i \oplus 1), (D,data_i,i), ..., where i=vr. Then, P_2 will pass the sequence data_i,data_i,data_i,..., to the destination, thus violating A_0 .

Recall that once P_1 accepts a data block, it can be sent immediately. Therefore, to ensure that all the D messages in C_1 have the same sequence number, P_1 must ensure before accepting a new data block Source[s] that Source[s-1] is no longer in C_1 . This desired precedence relation can be enforced by exploiting the maximum message lifetime property of C_1 . Specifically, P_1 waits until the time elapsed since the last send of Source[s-1] exceeds MaxDelay₁. This explains the implementable timer constraint DTimer=Off in the AcceptData event.

From the Send_D event and part (b) of A0, observe that whenever a (D,data,ns) is sent into C_1 , we have data = Source[s-1], ns = vs \ominus 1, and DTimerG reset to 0 so that DTimerG lower bounds the age of every D message in C_1 . Further, s and vs are changed only when when DTimer = Off, i.e., when there are no D messages in z_1 . Thus, the following assertion is invariant:

A2 $\langle (D, data, ns), age \rangle$ in $\mathbf{z}_1 \Rightarrow$

- (a) $(data = Source[s-1] \text{ and } ns = vs \ominus 1$
- (b) and (DTimerG, DTimer) started at 0
- (c) and age \geq DTimerG)

Proof of A2's invariance

Initial(\mathbf{v}) $\Rightarrow \mathbf{z}_1$ is empty $\Rightarrow A2$.

Events Rec_ACK and Send_ACK do not affect A2.

Consider the channel events and Rec_D:

(a) A2"
$$(from A2, \mathbf{v}_1"=\mathbf{v}_1, < m, t > \text{in } \mathbf{z}_1" \Rightarrow < m, t > \text{in } \mathbf{z}_1)$$

Consider AcceptData:

Consider Send D:

(a)
$$DTimerG"=DTimer"=0$$
, $s"=s$, $vs"=vs$, $z_1"=(z_1,<(D,Source[s-1],vs $\ominus 1),0>)$ (Send_D)$

Consider the ideal time event:

- (a) A2" (from A2, age"=age+1, DTimerG=next(DTimerG), \mathbf{v}_i "= \mathbf{v}_i) Consider the local time event of P_1 :
- (a) DTimer<MDelay₁ (from (DTimerG,DTimer) started at 0)
 ⇒(DTimerG",DTimer") started at 0
- (b) DTimer=MDelay₁ (from A2, Started-at property 1, Timer axiom for C₁)
 ⇒DTimerG>MaxDelay₁
 ⇒no D messages in z₁
- (from a, b)

End of proof

In order that P₁ correctly interprets a received (ACK,nr) message, it is necessary that the following is invariant:

A3
$$(((ACK, va \oplus 1) \text{ in } \mathbf{z}_2) \text{ and } vs \neq va) \Rightarrow r = s$$

Otherwise, the reception of the ACK message will cause P, to violate A,

To have A3 invariant, P_1 must ensure before sending a new data block Source[n] that C_2 does not contain old (ACK,n-1 mod 2) messages which were used to acknowledge the reception of Source[n-2]. Thus, before sending Source[n], P_1 must ensure that the elapsed time since the last send of (ACK,n-1 mod 2) exceeds MaxDelay₂. Unlike in the above case of the D messages, P_1 does not have access to this elapsed time. However, note that P_2 does not send (ACK,n-1 mod 2) once r equals n. Also, from A_0 , a=n is true only after r=n is true. Thus, the time elapsed since a=n became true is a lower bound on the time elapsed since P_2 's last send of (ACK,n-1 mod 2). Furthermore, P_1 does have access to this elapsed time. In our specifications, ATimerG indicates this elapsed time. Thus, P_1 can ensure that A3 is invariant by ensuring that ATimerG exceeds MaxDelay₂ before sending Source[n]. This is the derivation of the time constraint ATimer=Off in the AcceptData event.

Immediately after a and ATimerG are set equal to n and 0 respectively, we have s=a=n and ATimerG lower bounding the age of every (ACK,n-1 mod 2) message in C_2 . vs and va remain constant until new data is accepted, at which point C_2 has no (ACK,n-1 mod 2) messages and vs \neq va. Thus, we expect the following property to be invariant (note that va \ominus 1 = va \oplus 1).

A4
$$((\langle (ACK, va \oplus 1), age \rangle \text{ in } \mathbf{z}_2) \text{ and } vs = va) \Rightarrow (age \geq ATimerG$$
 and $((ATimerG, ATimer) \text{ started at } 0)$

Proof of invariance of A0 and A3 and A4

The following proof relies upon the invariance of A1 and A2 (proved above). Initial(\mathbf{v}) \Rightarrow (s=r=0 and \mathbf{z}_2 is empty) \Rightarrow (A0 and A3 and A4)

Consider channel events. They do not affect A0.

(a) A3" and A4"
$$(A3, A4, < m,t > \text{in } \mathbf{z}_2" \Rightarrow < m,t > \text{in } \mathbf{z}_2)$$

Consider AcceptData:

(a) A0"
$$(A0, s''=s+1, r''=r, Sink''=Sink)$$

(b) not
$$((ACK, va \oplus 1) \text{ in } \mathbf{z}_2)$$
 (A4, vs=va, ATimer=Off)

(c) A3", A4" (b,
$$vs" \neq va" = va$$
, $z_2" = z_2$)

Send D does not affect A0, A3, and A4.

Consider Rec_D. If received (D,data,ns) has ns\u222\u222vr, then A0,A3,A4 unaffected. We now consider the other case:

(a)
$$Rec(\mathbf{z}_1; (D, data, ns), \mathbf{z}_1")$$
 and $ns = vr$ (assumption)

(b) data=Source[s-1], ns=
$$vr=vs \ominus 1=(s-1) \mod 2$$
 (a, A1, A2)

(c)
$$vs \ominus 1 = vr, r = s-1, vs \neq va$$
 (b, A0)

(d)
$$vs=vr''$$
, $r''=s$, $A0''$ (c, $r''=r+1$, $vr''=vr \oplus 1$, $Sink[r]''=data$)

(e) A3", A4"
$$(r=s, vs\neq va)$$

Consider Send ACK. A0 is not affected.

(a) A3",A4" (va=vr (assumption), A3, A4,
$$\mathbf{z}_2$$
"=(\mathbf{z}_2 ,<(ACK,vr),0>))

(b)
$$r=s=a+1$$
, $vs\neq va$ ($vr=va \oplus 1$ (assumption), A0, A1)

(c) A3", A4" (b, A3, A4,
$$\mathbf{z}_2$$
"=(\mathbf{z}_2 ,<(ACK,vr),0>))

Consider Rec_ACK:

(a) (for some age)[
$$\mathbf{z}_2 = (\langle (ACK, nr), age \rangle, \mathbf{z}_2")$$
] (Rec_ACK)

(b) A0", A3", A4" ((not (
$$nr=vs\neq va$$
)) (assumption), a, s"=s, a"=a)

(c)
$$nr = vs \neq va$$
 (assumption)

(d)
$$r=s=a+1$$
 (c, A0, A1, A3)

(e)
$$A0"$$
, $A3"$ (d, $A0$, $a"=a+1$)

(f) A4" (ATimerG"=ATimer"=0, Timer axiom for
$$C_2$$
)

Consider the ideal time event. A0 and A3 are unaffected.

Consider the local time event of P₁. A0 and A3 not affected.

(c) not
$$((ACK, va \oplus 1) \text{ in } \mathbf{z}_2)$$
 (b, Timer axiom of C_2 , A4)

(d)
$$A4$$
" (a, c)

End of proof

6. PROVING LIVENESS PROPERTIES

In this section, we describe how liveness properties are specified, and give the inference rules for verifying them. As an application, we verify the liveness of the protocol example. A liveness property of a distributed system states relationships that values of the system variables eventually satisfy. An example of a liveness property involving integer state variables x and y is as follows: during the course of the system operation, if x does not increase without bounds then y will increase without bounds. Note that a liveness property is not a property of each reachable state and cannot be stated as a predicate in the variables of \mathbf{v} . Rather it is a property of the paths in the reachability graph. Our method of verifying liveness properties is based on specifying and verifying inductive properties of bounded-length paths in the reachability graph. We assume that any implementation of the protocol system is fair, by which we mean the following: any event that is enabled infinitely often will eventually occur.

Given predicates $A(\mathbf{v})$ and $B(\mathbf{v})$, we say that $A(\mathbf{v})$ leads-next-to $B(\mathbf{v})$ if for every reachable global state g where A(g) = True, the following holds: for every event enabled in state g, its occurrence takes the system to a state h where either A(h) = True or B(h) = True, and there is at least one event enabled in state g whose occurrence can take the system to a state h where B(h) = True.

In any system implementation that is fair, if $A(\mathbf{v})$ leads-next-to $B(\mathbf{v})$ then on any outgoing path from a reachable state g where A(g) = True, the system will eventually reach a state h where B(h) = True.

For stating most liveness properties, it necessary to relate values of variables when $A(\mathbf{v})$ holds to values of variables some time later when $B(\mathbf{v})$ holds. For example, we will need to make statements such as: (for all integers m_1)[$\mathbf{x} \ge m_1$ leads-next-to $\mathbf{x} \ge m_1 + 1$]. For this purpose, we need to consider assertions whose free variables now include variables different from \mathbf{v} . Let \mathbf{m} denote the set of these new variables. Then, $A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ leads-next-to $B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ means that $A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ leads-next-to $B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ for each possible value of \mathbf{m} . For notational convenience, we will assume each variable m_i in \mathbf{m} takes nonnegative integer values.

We now present the inference rule used to establish the leads-next-to property.

Inference Rule for leads-next-to. If I(v) is invariant and there is a set of events E such that A(v,m) and B(v,m) satisfy:

- (i) (for every event e in the system)[(I(v) and A(v,m) and e(v;v")) \Rightarrow (A(v",m) or B(v",m))]
- (ii) $(I(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } A(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m})) \Rightarrow (\text{for some event e in E}) \text{ (for some } \mathbf{v}$ ") $[e(\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{v})]$ and $B(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m})$

then we can infer that $A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ leads-next-to $B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ via E.

This inference rule is very similar to the definition of leads-next-to, except that instead of referring to reachable states it allows us to utilize any safety property $I(\mathbf{v})$ that is known. It also explicitly indicates the set E of events that allow the system to achieve the leads-next-to property. Therefore, a leads-next-to statement can be verified by examining each event individually. As in the case of the inference rule for safety, we can replace $I(\mathbf{v})$ by $(I(\mathbf{v})$ and $I(\mathbf{v}"))$ in parts (i) and (ii) of the above inference rule. This will make it easier to establish the right hand sides of the implications.

We now extend the leads-next-to definition. Given assertions $A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ and $B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$, we say that $A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ leads-to $B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ if for every value of \mathbf{m} and every reachable system state g_0 where $A(g_0,\mathbf{m})$ =True, the following holds: for every unbounded-length path $g_0,g_1,g_2,...$ in the reachability graph, either there is a state g_n where $B(g_n,\mathbf{m})$ =True, or there is an event e which is enabled at an infinite number of states in the path but never occurs.

The leads-to construct is similar to the "eventually" operator of temporal logic [14]: $(A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ leads-to } B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$ is equivalent to $(A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \Rightarrow \diamond B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$. It is quite adequate for stating desired liveness properties; e.g., the liveness property example mentioned above can be stated by $(x \geq 0 \text{ and } y \geq 0)$ leads-to $(x \geq m_1 \text{ or } y \geq m_2)$). We will now state two inference rules for the leads-to relationship.

Inference Rule for leads-to. Given assertions $A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$, $B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$, and $C_1(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$, $C_2(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$, ..., $C_n(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ that satisfy

- (i) $A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ leads-next-to $(B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ or } C_1(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$
- (ii) For $1 \le i < n$: $C_i(v,m)$ leads-next-to $(B(v,m) \text{ or } C_{i+1}(v,m))$
- (iii) $C_n(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m})$ leads-next-to $B(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m})$

then we can infer that A(v,m) leads-to B(v,m).

This inference rule can be used to derive properties such as $((x \ge m_1 \text{ and } y \ge m_2)$ leads-to $(x \ge m_1 + 1 \text{ or } (x \ge m_1 \text{ and } y \ge m_2 + 1))$. The next inference rule allows us to take the above leads-to statement and infer that $((x \ge 0 \text{ and } y \ge 0) \text{ leads-to } (x \ge m_1 \text{ or } y \ge m_2)$.

Induction Rule for leads-to. Given assertions $A(\mathbf{v})$, $B(\mathbf{v})$, $D_1(\mathbf{v},m_1)$, $D_2(\mathbf{v},m_2)$, ..., $D_i(\mathbf{v},m_i)$ that satisfy

```
(A(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } D_1(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_1) \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } D_l(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_l)) \text{ leads-to}
(B(\mathbf{v}) \text{ or}
(A(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and}
(D_1(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_1 + 1) \text{ or}
(D_1(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_1) \text{ and}
(D_2(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_2 + 1) \text{ or}
(D_2(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_2) \text{ and}
(D_3(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_3 + 1) \text{ or}
(\dots \text{ or}
(D_{l-1}(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_{l-1}) \text{ and}
D_l(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_l + 1)) \dots)
we can infer
(A(\mathbf{v}) \text{ and } D_1(\mathbf{v}, 0) \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } D_l(\mathbf{v}, 0)) \text{ leads-to}
(B(\mathbf{v}) \text{ or } D_1(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_1) \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } D_l(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}_l)).
```

We refer to the first leads-to statement in the induction rule as an *inductive leads-to* statement. The induction rule merely applies mathematical induction to inductive leads-to statements. The validity of the above induction rule may require some thought. The case when l=1 is obvious: Given

```
\begin{array}{c} (\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{v}) \ \mathbf{and} \ \mathbf{D}_1(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}_1)) \ \operatorname{leads-to} \ (\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{v}) \ \mathbf{or} \ (\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{v}) \ \mathbf{and} \ \mathbf{D}_1(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}_1+1))) \\ \text{we can infer} \\ (\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{v}) \ \mathbf{and} \ \mathbf{D}_1(\mathbf{v},0)) \ \operatorname{leads-to} \ (\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{v}) \ \mathbf{or} \ \mathbf{D}_1(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}_1)) \\ \text{The case when } \mathbf{l} = 2 \ \operatorname{is} \ \operatorname{fairly} \ \operatorname{obvious:} \ \operatorname{Given} \\ (\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{v}) \ \mathbf{and} \ \mathbf{D}_1(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}_1) \ \mathbf{and} \ \mathbf{D}_2(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}_2)) \ \operatorname{leads-to} \\ (\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{v}) \ \mathbf{or} \ (\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{v}) \ \mathbf{and} \ (\mathbf{D}_1(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}_1+1) \ \mathbf{or} \ (\mathbf{D}_1(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}_1) \ \mathbf{and} \ \mathbf{D}_2(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}_2+1))))) \\ \text{we can infer} \\ (\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{v}) \ \mathbf{and} \ \mathbf{D}_1(\mathbf{v},0) \ \mathbf{and} \ \mathbf{D}_2(\mathbf{v},0)) \ \operatorname{leads-to} \ (\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{v}) \ \mathbf{or} \ \mathbf{D}_1(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}_1) \ \mathbf{or} \ \mathbf{D}_2(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}_2)) \\ \end{array}
```

We now list a few rather obvious properties of the leads-to relationship.

Leads-to Property 1. If $(A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ leads-to } B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$ and $(C(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ leads-to } D(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$, then $((A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ or } C(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})) \text{ leads-to } (B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ or } D(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})))$.

Leads-to Property 2. If $(A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ leads-to } B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$ and $(B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ leads-to } C(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$, then $(A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ leads-to } C(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$.

Leads-to Property 3. If $(A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \Rightarrow B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$, then $(A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ leads-to } B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$.

Leads-to Property 4. If $(A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ leads-to } B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}))$, $I(\mathbf{v})$ is invariant, and $C(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})$ is any assertion, then $((A(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ and } C(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m})) \text{ leads-to } (B(\mathbf{v},\mathbf{m}) \text{ and } I(\mathbf{v}))$.

6.1 Liveness Verification of Data Transfer Protocol

For the protocol example, we would like to prove the following liveness property: If P_1 accepts data block Source[n-1] then it is eventually acknowledged, provided C_1 does not continuously lose (D,Source[n-1],n-1 mod 2) messages and C_2 does not continuously lose (ACK,n mod 2) messages. Note that once Source[n-1] is acknowledged, P_1 will be eventually ready to accept Source[n] (in fact, P_1 will be ready within $max(MaxDelay_1, MaxDelay_2)$ time units).

To formally state this property, we define the following auxiliary variable arrays: LCount1, LCount2: array[0..s-1] of integers; {initialized to 0}

For the duration that Source[n-1] is outstanding, LCount1[n-1] indicates the number of times that C_1 has lost a (D,Source[n-1],n-1 mod 2) message since the previous reception of such a message at P_2 . LCount1[n-1] is reset to 0 at each reception of (D,Source[n-1],n-1 mod 2), and incremented by 1 whenever a loss event of C_1 deletes a (D,Source[n-1],n-1 mod 2) message. For the duration that Source[n-1] is outstanding, LCount2[n-1] indicates the number of times that C_2 has lost a (ACK,n mod 2) message. (Note that Source[n-1] is not outstanding as soon as an (ACK,n mod 2) message is received at P_1 .)

The desired liveness property can be stated by

$$L_0$$
 s=a+1=n leads-to (s=a=n or LCount1[n-1] \geq m₁ or LCount2[n-1] \geq m₂)

We first prove that Source[n-1] will be received at P_2 unless C_1 continuously loses (D,Source[n-1],n-1 mod 2) messages. This property is formally stated as follows:

L1
$$s=a+1=r+1=n$$
 leads-to $(s=r=a+1=n$ or LCount1[n-1] $\geq m_1$)

Proof of L1

In the proof, LCount1 and <n-1> denote LCount1[n-1] and (D,Source[n-1],n-1 mod 2) respectively. It can be easily checked that the following leads-next-to statements satisfy the inference rule for leads-next-to.

- (i) $(s=a+1=r+1=n \text{ and } LCount1 \ge m_1)$ leads-next-to $(s=a+1=r=n \text{ or } (s=a+1=r+1=n \text{ and } (< n-1> \text{ in } \mathbf{z}_1) \text{ and } LCount1 \ge m_1))$ via $\{\text{Rec } D, \text{ Send } D\}$
- (ii) (s=a+1=r+1=n and (<n-1> in z_1) and LCount1 $\geq m_1$) leads-next-to (s=a+1=r=n or (s=a+1=r+1=n and LCount1 $\geq m_1+1$) via {Rec_D, Loss event for C_1 }

From the inference rule for leads-to, (i) and (ii) imply the following inductive leads-to property:

(iii) (s=a+1=r+1=n and LCount1
$$\geq$$
 m₁) leads-to (s=r=a+1=n or (s=a+1=r+1=n) and LCount1 \geq m₁+1))

From the induction rule for leads-to for the case l=1, (iii) implies L1 (since LCount1 \geq 0 is always true). End of proof

We next prove that once P_2 has received Source[n-1], then P_1 eventually receives the required acknowledgement (ACK,n mod 2), unless C_2 continuously loses (ACK,n mod 2) messages or C_1 continuously loses (D,Source[n-1],n-1 mod 2) (which means that P_2 may not repeatedly send ACK messages). This property is formally stated as follows:

L2 s=r=a+1=n leads-to (s=r=a=n or LCount1[n-1]
$$\geq$$
 m₁ or LCount2[n-1] \geq m₂)

Proof of L2

In the proof, LCount1 and LCount2 denote LCount1[n-1] and LCount2[n-1] respectively; <n-1> in \mathbf{z}_1 denotes (D,Source[n-1],n-1 mod 2); <n> in \mathbf{z}_2 denotes (ACK,n mod 2). It can be easily checked that the following leads-next-to statements satisfy the inference rule for leads-next-to.

- (i) (s=r=a+1=n and LCount₁ \geq m₁ and LCount₂ \geq m₂) leads-next-to (s=r=a=n or (M1) (s=r=a+1=n and LCount₁ \geq m₁ and LCount₂ \geq m₂ and <n-1> in z₁)) via {Rec_ACK, Send_D}
- (b) M1 leads-next-to (s=r=a=n or (M2) (s=r=a+1=n and $LCount_1 \ge m_1+1$ and $LCount_2 \ge m_2$) or (M3) (s=r=a+1=n and $LCount_2 \ge m_2$ and SendACK = True)) via {Rec_ACK, Loss event of C_1 , Rec_D}
- (iii) M3 leads-next-to (s=r=a=n or (M4) (s=r=a+1=n and LCount₂ \geq m₂ and <n> in z₂) via {Rec_ACK, Send_ACK}
- (iv) M4 leads-next-to (s=r=a=n or (s=r=a+1=n and LCount₂ \geq m₂+1) via {Rec_ACK, Loss event of C₂}

From the inference rule for leads-to, (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv) imply the following inductive leads-to property:

(v)
$$(s=r=a+1=n \text{ and } LCount_1 \ge m_1 \text{ and } LCount_2 \ge m_2)$$
 leads-to $(s=r=a=n \text{ or } (s=r=a+1=n \text{ and } LCount_1 \ge m_1+1 \text{ and } LCount_2 \ge m_2)$

or
$$(s=r=a+1=n \text{ and } LCount_2 \ge m_2+1))$$

From the induction rule for the case l=2, (v) implies L2 (let LCount₂ $\geq m_2$ be D₁ and let LCount₁ $\geq m_1$ be D₂). End of proof

The two liveness properties L1 and L2 together imply L₀.

Proof of Lo

Applying leads-to property 2 to L1, L2, we have (s=a+1 and r=a) leads-to $(s=r=a \text{ or } LCount1 \geq m_1 \text{ or } LCount2 \geq m_2)$ Applying leads-to property 1 to the above and L2, we have $(s=a+1 \text{ and } a \leq r \leq a+1)$ leads-to $(s=a \text{ or } LCount1 \geq m_1 \text{ or } LCount2 \geq m_2)$ Since $(a \leq r \leq a+1)$ is invariant, it can be deleted from the above, leading to L_0 . End of proof

7. REAL-TIME DATA TRANSFER PROTOCOL

To make our data transfer protocol more realistic, we include the following real-time behavior into its model. First, entity P_2 will send an ACK message within a specified time interval MaxResponseTime of receiving a D message. Second, let $\operatorname{Delay}_i(\leq \operatorname{MaxDelay}_i)$ be the delay that a message is expected to encounter in channel C_i ($\operatorname{Delay}_i \ll \operatorname{MaxDelay}_i$ for a realistic channel). Third, entity P_1 transmits data block $\operatorname{Source}[n-1]$ as soon as it is accepted, and retransmits it once every RoundTripDelay time units until it is acknowledged, where RoundTripDelay = $\operatorname{Delay}_1 + \operatorname{Delay}_2 + \operatorname{Max-ResponseTime}$. P_1 retransmits $\operatorname{Source}[n-1]$ at most $\operatorname{MaxRetryCount}$ number of times, after which P_1 aborts the connection (enters a state called LinkDown).

We say that a message m in C_i is overdelayed if it is not received within Delay_i time of its send. Note that if $Delay_i = MaxDelay_i$ then overdelaying message m corresponds to losing m and any of its duplicates. For this more realistic model, we will prove the following: within a time T (= RoundTripDelay \times MaxRetryCount) of P_1 accepting data block Source[n-1], either that data block is acknowledged or [the number of times that C_1 has overdelayed the message (D,Source[n-1],n-1 mod 2)] + [the number of times that C_2 has overdelayed the message (ACK, (n+1) mod 2)] exceeds MaxRetryCount.

7.1 Modified Protocol

To implement the above real-time behavior, the previous data transfer protocol is modified as follows. At P₂, let SendACKTimer be a local timer which is reset to Off in the Send_ACK event and reset to 0, if it was Off, in the Rec_D event. SendACK-Timer is initially Off. SendACKTimer is constrained by the timer axiom

SendACKTimer ≤ MResponseTime

where MResponseTime = $((1-\epsilon_2) \times \text{MaxResponseTime} - 1)$ and ϵ_2 is the maximum error rate in the local time event of P_2 . Let SendACKTimerG be an auxiliary ideal timer that is reset along with SendACKTimer.

We have the following modifications at P_1 . First, let LinkDown be a boolean variable which is set to True when the current outstanding data block Source[s-1] has been sent MaxRetryCount number of times and no acknowledgement has been received within RoundTripDelay of the last send. LinkDown is initially False. Once LinkDown = True, P_1 does not send or receive any more messages. Second, let DTimer be constrained by the timer axiom

(LinkDown=False and vs \neq va) \Rightarrow DTimer \leq RTripDelay where RTripDelay = $(1+(1+\epsilon_1) \times \text{RoundTripDelay})$. (D,Source[s-1], vs \ominus 1) will be retransmitted when vs \neq va and DTimer = RTripDelay. Third, let the AcceptData event also transmit the accepted data block. Fourth, for the current value of s, let the variable RetryCount indicate the number of times that (D,Source[s-1], vs \ominus 1) has been sent. RetryCount is initially 0.

In addition to the above variables, we need to define auxiliary variables in order to formally state and verify the desired real-time property.

- Trynumber: 0..MaxRetryCount; {An auxiliary field in each D message. Set to the (updated) value of RetryCount when the D message is sent}
- DRecd: {sequence of the try numbers of currently outstanding D messages received at P₂. DRecd is set to empty when a equals s. When P₂ receives a D message, the try number of the received D message is appended in DRecd if a<s holds at that time. DRecd is initially empty}
- AckSent: {Sequence of ideal timers indicating the times elapsed since transmissions of acknowledgements to the currently outstanding data block Source[s-1]. AckSent is set to empty when a equals s. AckSent is updated by global time value 0 when P_2 sends (ACK,vr) and $vr = vs \neq va$. AckSent is initially empty}
- SCount₁: integers; {number of times that C_1 overdelays message (D,Source[s-1], $vs \ominus 1$) while Source[s-1] is outstanding. Set to 0 when a equals s. SCount₁ is incremented by 1 whenever a global tick occurs and DTimerG = Delay₁ but RetryCount is not in DRecd for any t. SCount₁ is intially 0}

SCount₂: integers; {number of times that C₂ overdelays message (ACK,vs) while Source[s-1] is outstanding. Set to 0 when a equals s. SCount₂ is incremented by 1 whenever a global tick occurs and there exists a time value equal to Delay₂ in ACKSent but a<s holds. SCount₂ is initially 0}

OutTimer: (Off,0,1,...); {Local timer of P₁ which when active indicates the local time elapsed since Source[s-1] became outstanding. OutTimer is initially Off}

The events of the protocol system are now specified. The AcceptData event, which now also sends the accepted data block, has been renamed as SendNewData.

Events of P₁

```
    SendNewData(v<sub>1</sub>,z<sub>1</sub>;v<sub>1</sub>",z<sub>1</sub>")
    ≡ LinkDown=False
```

and vs=va and DTimer=Off and ATimer=Off {If new data can be accepted} and Source[s]" ϵ DataSet and s"=s+1 and vs"=vs \oplus 1 {then do so} and Send₁((D,Source[s],vs,1), $\mathbf{z_1}$; $\mathbf{z_1}$ ") {and send it with try number 1} and DTimer"=DTimerG"=0 and RetryCount"=1 and OutTimer"=0

2. Send $D(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{z}_1; \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{z}_1)$

≡ LinkDown=False

and vs \neq va and DTimer=RTripDelay and RetryCount < MaxRetryCount and Send₁((D,Source[s-1],vs-1,RetryCount), z₁;z₁") {send outstanding data} and DTimer"=0 and DTimerG"=0 {start DTimer} and RetryCount"=RetryCount+1

3. Abort($\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_1$ ")

≡ LinkDown=False

and vs ≠ va and DTimer=RTripDelay and RetryCount=MaxRetryCount and LinkDown"=True

4. $\operatorname{Rec} \operatorname{ACK}(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{z}_2; \mathbf{v}_1", \mathbf{z}_2")$

```
 = \operatorname{LinkDown} = \operatorname{False} \  \, \text{and} \  \, \operatorname{Rec}_2(\mathbf{z}_2; (\operatorname{ACK}, \operatorname{nr}), \mathbf{z}_2") \qquad \qquad \{\operatorname{Receive} \ \operatorname{nr}\} \\  \, \text{and} \  \, ((\operatorname{vs} \neq \operatorname{va} \ \operatorname{and} \ \operatorname{nr} = \operatorname{va} \oplus 1) \to \qquad \{\text{if outstanding data acknowledged}\} \\  \, (a"=a+1 \ \operatorname{and} \ \operatorname{va}"=\operatorname{va} \oplus 1 \qquad \qquad \{\text{then update state}\} \\  \, \text{and ATimer}" = \operatorname{ATimer} G"=0 \  \, \text{and RetryCount}"=0 \\  \, \text{and OutTimer}" = \operatorname{Off} \  \, \text{and DRecd}" = \operatorname{empty} \qquad \{\text{and auxiliary variables}\} \\  \, \text{and ACKSent}" = \operatorname{empty} \  \, \text{and SCount}_1 = \operatorname{SCount}_2 = 0))
```

Events of P₂

Time Events

The ideal time event is defined by the conjunct of the previous ideal time event predicate (in Section 5) and the following:

```
AccuracyAxiom<sub>2</sub>(\eta_2, \eta")

and ACKSent" = next(ACKSent)

and SendACKTimerG" = next(SendACKTimerG)

and (DTimerG = Delay<sub>1</sub> and RetryCount not in DRecd

\rightarrow SCount<sub>1</sub>" = SCount<sub>1</sub> + 1)

and (Delay<sub>2</sub> in ACKSent \rightarrow SCount<sub>2</sub>" = SCount<sub>2</sub> +1)
```

The local time event for P₁ is the conjunct of the previous local time event predicate (in Section 5) with the timer axiom for DTimer (stated above).

```
The local time event for P_2 is \eta_2" = \eta_2 + 1 and AccuracyAxiom_2(\eta_2, \eta) and SendACKTimer" = next(SendACKTimer) and SendACKTimer" \leq MResponseTime
```

7.2 Verification of Real-Time Property

The desired real-time property can be stated as follows:

```
(b) LinkDown = True

⇒ (OutTimer ≥ MaxRetryCount × RTripDelay and SCount<sub>1</sub> + SCount<sub>2</sub> ≥ MaxRetryCount)
```

Notice that this real-time property is a safety property and not a liveness property requiring the leads-to operator.

Observe that the modified protocol is a refinement of the previous data transfer protocol in the following sense: For each event e_{mod} in the modified protocol, either there is a corresponding event e in the previous protocol such that $e_{mod}(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}") \Rightarrow e(\mathbf{v};\mathbf{v}")$, or e_{mod} does not affect any variables of the previous protocol (the Abort event falls in this category). Thus, the safety property A that was shown to be invariant for the previous protocol continues to be invariant for the modified protocol.

The safety assertions D1-D7 below satisfy the safety inference rule, given that A is invariant (details of proof in Appendix C). D1 and D2 imply D0, which is therefore verified.

```
D1. LinkDown = False \Rightarrow
       (a) ((OutTimer=Off and s=a and RetryCount=0
           and SCount<sub>2</sub>=SCount<sub>2</sub>=0 and DRecd=ACKSent=empty)
       (b) or (s=a+1 and ((DTimerG,DTimer) started at 0
           and RetryCount>1
           and OutTimer = (RetryCount - 1)×RTripDelay + DTimer
D2. LinkDown = True \Rightarrow (OutTimer \geq MaxRetryCount \times RTripDelay
    and SCount_1 + SCount_2 \ge MaxRetryCount)
D3. (a) trynumber in DRecd \Rightarrow 1 \leq \text{trynumber} \leq \text{RetryCount}
    (b) ((D,Source[s-1], vs \ominus 1, trynumber) in \mathbf{z}_1 and \mathbf{s}=\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{1}) \Rightarrow
           1 \leq \text{trynumber} \leq \text{RetryCount}
D4. 0 \le DTimerG \le Delay_1
    \Rightarrow (SCount<sub>1</sub> + SCount<sub>2</sub> \geq RetryCount -1
      and (RetryCount in DRecd \Rightarrow (r=s=a+1)
          and (SendACKTimerG \geq 0 or (for some t in ACKSent)[t \geq 0]))))
D5. Delay_1 < DTimerG \le Delay_1 + MaxResponseTime
        \Rightarrow (SCount_1 + SCount_2 \ge RetryCount_3
            or (SCount_1 + SCount_2 \ge RetryCount - 1 \text{ and } r = s = a + 1
                and (SendACKTimerG \geq DTimerG - Delay,
                    or (for some t in ACKSent)[t \ge 0])))
D6. Delay_1 + MaxResponseTime < DTimerG \le RoundTripDelay
    \Rightarrow (\mathtt{SCount}_1 + \mathtt{SCount}_2 \geq \mathtt{RetryCount}
```

or $(SCount_1 + SCount_2 \ge RetryCount - 1$ and r=s=a+1

and (for some t in ACKSent)

 $[t \ge DTimerG - (Delay_1 + MaxResponseTime)]))$

D7. DTimerG > RoundTripDelay \Rightarrow SCount₁ + SCount₂ \geq RetryCount

8. CONCLUSION

We have developed a model for specifying time-dependent distributed systems, and presented inference rules for verifying safety and liveness properties. Our proofs can be checked by automated techniques. A data transfer protocol example was used to illustrate the model and application of inference rules.

Our prime objective in developing this model was to be able to specify, verify and ultimately construct realistic communication network protocols. In [20], we have constructed, starting from desired safety requirements, a time-dependent data transfer protocol that generalizes the protocol in this paper to one with an arbitrary window size of N. In [18], we used a preliminary version of this model to specify and verify a version of the HDLC protocol, complete with all its principal functions and mechanisms, including cyclic sequence numbers, polling, checkpointing, connection management, and flow control.

Our model has several distinctive features. First, measures of real time are explicit in our model. Real-time constraints enforced within individual processes are incorporated into the time and system events of the process. Unlike other models [9, 11, 16] which explicitly incorporate measures of time, our model does not require that an enabled event must occur, and thereby avoids an explicit scheduling of event occurrences. Derived real-time properties which hold for the distributed system can be stated as safety assertions, and formally verified using inference rules. Our system specifications can then be implemented by programmers who may not be familiar with system analysis. It is our experience that measures of time are central to the working and understanding of communication protocols. Utilizing them is not only realistic, but, perhaps contrary to popular notion, it also greatly simplifies the specification, verification and construction of communication protocols [20].

Second, our specification of processes involves state information within the processes. In particular, we do not specify a process strictly in terms of the trace of message communications that the process has already performed with its environment [4, 12, 17]. We did not adopt trace specifications because we find that the lack of internal state structure typically results in large and cumbersome specifications of processes, especially when considering real-life aspects of communication protocols such as bounded capacity channels, flow control, real-time constraints, connection management, etc. This effect has been pointed out in [17] for the case of the alternating-bit protocol. A secondary reason why we did not adopt traces is that the implementor often prefers guidance (and the resulting constraints) to the total independence and lack of guidance resulting from trace specifications of processes.

The third major difference is in our inference rules. To verify a system property A_0 (either safety or liveness), it is neccessary to obtain an assertion A which implies A_0 and satisfies the requirements of the inference rules. The difficulty of verification lies in obtaining A. Invariably, one obtains A as the end product in a sequence of approximations A_1 , A_2 ,... Each successive A_i is determined by examining how the earlier approximations failed to satisfy the inference rules. One approach that is popular in the distributed systems area is to insist that each A_i be expressed as a collection of properties $A_{i,j}$, where j ranges over the processes, such that each $A_{i,j}$ can be verified by examining the behavior of process j alone [4, 12, 13]. This approach, which will be referred to as the process decomposition approach, is often used in conjunction with trace specifications of processes.

Our experience in verifying distributed systems, and communication protocols in particular, has been that it is easier to obtain A (as well as to present a formal proof of it) if we do not have to decompose each A_i into such $A_{i,j}$'s. For this reason, our inference rules do not follow the process decomposition approach. Instead, the inputs to our inference rules are assertions that can involve state variables in different processes, and events that specify changes to the values of variable. Events, and not processes, are the units of composition in our system model. Note that each event affects only a small part of the distributed system. Therefore, when applying an inference rule to an assertion A_i , most of A_i is not affected and need not be examined. Thus, the presence of distribution does in fact help our verification, even though it is not formally captured in the syntax of our inference rules. The comments above apply also to the construction of communication protocols, and not only to their verification [20].

The combination of an event-driven system model and the use of predicates to specify events results in some rather simple inference rules for safety and liveness properties. It reduces the gap between specification and verification, and has proved to be useful in protocol construction [20]. The use of predicates to specify events follows the recent trend towards logic programming languages [3, 7], and should not present difficulty in implementation. This is especially so in communication network systems, where each event corresponds to the limited amount of processing associated with the handling of a message transfer or timeout condition.

Protocol projections

In addition to time-dependent behavior, another characteristic of real-life communication protocols is that each protocol typically performs multiple distinct functions, such as connection management, one-way data transfers, etc. The method of projections provides an approach to reduce the analysis of a multifunction protocol system into analyses of smaller single-function protocol systems, called image protocol systems [10]. The theory of projections was originally developed in [10] using a set-theoretic notation. In a companion paper [19], we specialize this theory to the time-dependent system model herein. The use of state variables and predicates (to specify events) greatly facilitates the construction of image protocol systems.

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Appendix A

Proof of Theorem 1

The accuracy and timer axioms hold initially (from IC1). No system event can reset the time event counts or timers to values that can violate the axioms (from IC2 and definition of time events). Thus, the axioms are invariant and part (a) is established.

We now prove part(b), i.e., that time events do not deadlock. Let s be any reachable system state where all the time events are blocked. Because s is reachable we know that all the accuracy and timer axioms hold at state s. From condition IC3, we know

that there exists a sequence of enabled events that will take the system from state \mathbf{s} to state \mathbf{r} where TimerAxiom(next(\mathbf{v})) = True for every timer axiom in the system. Thus, from the definitions of the ideal and local time events, we see that the only way that all time events can be blocked at state \mathbf{r} is if

(for all η_i)[AccuracyAxiom_i(η_i+1,η) = False]

and (for some η_i)[AccuracyAxiom_i($\eta_i, \eta+1$) = False].

Thus, we prove the theorem by establishing the following: $\operatorname{AccuracyAxiom}_{\eta_i}(\eta_i+1,\eta) = \operatorname{False} \Rightarrow \operatorname{AccuracyAxiom}_{\eta_i}(\eta_i,\eta+1) = \operatorname{True}.$

Let the current values of η_i and η be denoted by $\eta_i(c)$ and $\eta(c)$. Now, AccuracyAxiom $\eta_i(\eta_i,\eta)$ For all instants a and b where b is later than a, $|(\eta_i(b) - \eta_i(a)) - (\eta(b) - \eta(a))| \le \max(1,\epsilon_i(\eta(b) - \eta(a)))$. Because the AccuracyAxiom has held at every instant so far, the only way that AccuracyAxiom $\eta_i(\eta_i+1,\eta)$ = False, is if there is some instant a in the past (i.e. somewhere in the current execution path) such that

$$|(\eta_{i}(c) + 1 - \eta_{i}(a)) - (\eta(c) - \eta(a))| > \max(1, \epsilon_{i}(\eta(c) - \eta(a))).$$
 (A1)

We know that $|(\eta_i(c) - \eta_i(a)) - (\eta(c) - \eta(a))| \le \max(1, \epsilon_i(\eta(c) - \eta(a)))$ (A2) Similarly, AccuracyAxiom $\eta_i(\eta_i, \eta+1)$ = False implies that there is some instant b in the past such that

$$|(\eta_{i}(c) - \eta_{i}(b)) - (\eta(c) + 1 - \eta(b))| > \max(1, \epsilon_{i}(\eta(c) - \eta(b))).$$
 (A3)

and

$$|(\eta_{\mathbf{i}}(\mathbf{c}) - \eta_{\mathbf{i}}(\mathbf{b})) - (\eta(\mathbf{c}) - \eta(\mathbf{b}))| \leq \max(1, \epsilon_{\mathbf{i}}(\eta(\mathbf{c}) - \eta(\mathbf{b}))). \tag{A4}$$

For brevity, let $\eta(a)$, $\eta(b)$, $\eta(c)$, $\eta_i(a)$, $\eta_i(b)$, $\eta_i(c)$, be denoted respectively by t_a , t_b , t_c , u_a , u_b , u_c .

From A1, either

$$\begin{array}{l} (u_c + 1 - u_a) - (t_c - t_a) > \max(1, \epsilon_i(t_c - t_a)) \\ \text{or } (u_c + 1 - u_a) - (t_c - t_a) < -\max(1, \epsilon_i(t_c - t_a)) \end{array}$$

But the second alternative means that

$$(u_c - u_a) - (t_c - t_a) < -\max(1, \epsilon_i(t_c - t_a)),$$

which violates A2. Hence only the first alternative can hold.

A3 implies either

$$\begin{array}{l} (u_{c} - u_{b}) - (t_{c} + 1 - t_{b}) > \max(1, \epsilon_{i}(t_{c} + 1 - t_{b})), \\ \text{or } (u_{c} - u_{b}) - (t_{c} + 1 - t_{b}) < -\max(1, \epsilon_{i}(t_{a} + 1 - t_{b})) \end{array}$$

The first alternative implies that

$$(u_c - u_b) - (t_c - t_b) > \max(1, \epsilon_i(t_c + 1 - t_b)) \ge \max(1, \epsilon_i(t_c + 1 - t_b)),$$
 which violates A4. Hence, only the second alternative can hold.

Thus, we now have to derive a contradiction from

$$(u_c + 1 - u_a) - (t_c - t_a) > \max(1, \epsilon_i(t_c - t_a))$$
 (A5)

and
$$(u_c - u_b) - (t_c + 1 - t_b) > -\max(1, \epsilon_i(t_c + 1 - t_b))$$
 (A6)

Before deriving the contradiction, we will next show that $|\epsilon_i(t_a - t_b)| > 1$.

From A5, we have

$$(\mathbf{u_c} - \mathbf{u_a}) - (\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_a}) > \max(1, \epsilon_{\mathbf{i}}(\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_b})) \geq 0.$$

This implies

$$(u_c - u_a) - (t_c - t_a) \ge 1$$
 (A7)

From A6, we have

$$(\mathbf{u_c} - \mathbf{u_b}) - (\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_b}) < -\max(1, \epsilon_{\mathbf{i}}(\mathbf{t_c} + 1 - \mathbf{t_b})) + 1 \leq 0.$$

This implies

$$(u_c - u_b) - (t_c - t_b) \le -1 \Rightarrow (t_c - t_b) - (u_c - u_b) \ge 1$$
 (A8)

Adding A7 and A8, we have

$$(t_a - t_b) - (u_a - u_b) \ge 2$$
 (A9)

Since AccuracyAxiom holds at instants a and b, we know that

$$\epsilon_{i}(t_{a} - t_{b}) > 1 \tag{A10}$$

(This simplifies the proof in that we do not have to consider $\epsilon_i(t_a - t_b) \leq 1$.)

Case 1: Assume a is later than b

 $\textbf{Case 1(a): } \epsilon_i(t_c - t_a) < 1. \ \ \text{Since } \epsilon_i(t_a - t_b) > 1 \ \ (\text{from A10}), \ \text{we have } \epsilon_i(t_c - t_b) > 1.$

A5 reduces to

$$\begin{split} & \left(\mathbf{u_c} + 1 - \mathbf{u_a}\right) - \left(\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_a}\right) > 1 \\ \Rightarrow & \left(\mathbf{u_c} - \mathbf{u_a}\right) - \left(\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_a}\right) \geq 1 \\ \Rightarrow & \left(\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_a}\right) - \left(\mathbf{u_c} - \mathbf{u_a}\right) \leq -1 \end{split}$$

A6 reduces to

$$(u_c - u_b) - (t_c - t_b) - 1 < -\epsilon_i(t_c - t_b + 1)$$

Adding the two, we get

$$\begin{aligned} &(\mathbf{u_a} - \mathbf{u_b}) - (\mathbf{t_a} - \mathbf{t_b}) < -\epsilon_{\mathbf{i}} (\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_b} + 1) \\ &\text{Now } -\epsilon_{\mathbf{i}} (\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_b} + 1) = -\epsilon_{\mathbf{i}} (\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_a} + \mathbf{t_a} - \mathbf{t_b}) - \epsilon_{\mathbf{i}} \\ &= -\epsilon_{\mathbf{i}} (\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_a}) - \epsilon_{\mathbf{i}} (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{t_b}) - \epsilon_{\mathbf{i}} \\ &< -\epsilon_{\mathbf{i}} (\mathbf{t_a} - \mathbf{t_b}) \end{aligned}$$

This contradicts the AccuracyAxiom at instants a and b.

Case 1(b):
$$\epsilon_i(t_c-t_a) \geq 1$$

A5 reduces to

$$\begin{split} &(\mathbf{u_c} - \mathbf{u_a}) - (\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_a}) + 1 > \epsilon_{\mathbf{i}} (\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_a}) \\ \Rightarrow &(\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_a}) - (\mathbf{u_c} - \mathbf{u_a}) - 1 < -\epsilon_{\mathbf{i}} (\mathbf{t_c} - \mathbf{t_a}) \end{split}$$

A6 reduces to

$$(u_c - u_b) - (t_c - t_b) - 1 < \epsilon_i (t_c - t_b + 1)$$

Adding the two, we get

$$(u_a - u_b) - (t_a - t_b) - 2 < -\epsilon_i(2t_c - t_a - t_b + 1) = -\epsilon_i(2(t_c - t_a) + (t_a - t_b) + 1)$$

From conditions of Case 1(b) we have $\epsilon_i(t_c-t_a) \ge 1$. Hence, RHS $\le -2 - \epsilon_i(t_a-t_b+1)$. Thus, we have $(u_a - u_b) - (t_a - t_b) < -\epsilon_i(t_a-t_b+1)$. Again, we have a contradiction with the AccuracyAxiom at instants a and b.

Case 2: Assume b is later than a

Case 2(a): $\epsilon_{i}(t_{c} - t_{b}) < 1$. Since $\epsilon_{i}(t_{b} - t_{a}) > 1$ (from A10), we have $t_{i}(t_{c} - t_{a}) > 1$. A5 reduces to (as in Case 1(b)) $(t_{c} - t_{a}) - (u_{c} - u_{a}) - 1 < -\epsilon_{i}(t_{c} - t_{a})$

A6 reduces to

$$\begin{array}{l} (u_c - u_b) - (t_c - t_b) - 1 < -1 \\ \Rightarrow (u_c - u_b) - (t_c - t_b) \leq -1 \end{array}$$

Adding the two, we get

$$(t_b - t_a) - (u_b - u_a) < -\epsilon(t_c - t_a) < -\epsilon(t_b - t_a)$$

which contradicts the AccuracyAxiom at instants a and b.

Case 2(b): $\epsilon_i(t_c - t_b) \geq 1$.

This is like Case 1(b), and we have

$$\begin{array}{l} (u_{a} - u_{b}) - (t_{a} - t_{b}) - 2 < -\epsilon_{i}(2t_{c} - t_{a} - t_{b} + 1) \\ \Rightarrow (u_{b} - u_{a}) - (t_{b} - t_{a}) > \epsilon_{i}(2t_{c} - t_{b} + t_{b} t_{a}) + 1) - 2 \end{array}$$

Since $\epsilon(t_c - t_b) \ge 1$, we have $(u_b - u_a) - (t_b - t_a) > \epsilon_i(t_b - t_a)$, which contradicts the AccuracyAxiom at instants a and b.

End of proof of Theorem 1

Appendix B

Modeling a variety of channels

Recall that a channel C_i with state variable \mathbf{z}_i has three predicates specifying it: $\mathrm{Send}_i(\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{z}_i")$, $\mathrm{Rec}_i(\mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{z}_i")$, and $\mathrm{ChannelError}(\mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{z}_i")$.

Infinite-buffer, finite-buffer blocking, and finite-buffer loss channels can be modeled by appropriate Send primitives.

- 1. Infinite-buffer channel. This is the one modeled in Section 4. $Send_i(m, \mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{z}_i") \equiv (\mathbf{z}_i" = (\mathbf{z}_i, m))$
- 2. Finite-buffer blocking channel. Send is blocked if the channel is full. Send_i(m, $\mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{z}_i$ ") $\equiv (|\mathbf{z}_i| < J \text{ and } \mathbf{z}_i$ " $= (\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{m})$, where $|\mathbf{z}_i|$ denotes the length of \mathbf{z}_i and J denotes the channel capacity.
- 3. Finite-buffer loss channels. Sending of a message into a full channel causes a message (either the new one or one already in the channel) to be lost.

 Send (m.z.:z.") = (for some message sequences a.b.c)(for some message n)

Send_i(m,
$$\mathbf{z}_i$$
; \mathbf{z}_i ") \equiv (for some message sequences \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , \mathbf{c})(for some message n) [(\mathbf{a} =(\mathbf{z}_i ,m)) and (| \mathbf{a} | \leq J \Rightarrow \mathbf{z}_i " = \mathbf{a}) and (| \mathbf{a} | = J+1 \Rightarrow (\mathbf{a} =(\mathbf{b} ,n, \mathbf{c}) and \mathbf{z}_i " = (\mathbf{b} , \mathbf{c})))]

In the above, we have assumed z_i is a sequence of messages. If z_i is a sequence of <message, age > pairs, then m is replaced by <m,0> in the body of the send primitive.

Minimum delay channels can be modeled by an appropriate Rec primitive. For channel C_i , let state variable z_i be the sequence of <message,age> pairs. Then, a minimum delay of D can be modeled by

$$Rec_i(\mathbf{z}_i; m, \mathbf{z}_i") \equiv (for some t)[(\mathbf{z}_i = (< m, t>, \mathbf{z}_i")) \text{ and } t \geq D]$$

Recall that the internal behavior of channel C_i is specified by ChannelError($z_i; z_i$). We formally specify different types of channel errors below (a, b, c are existentially quantified over sequences of messages, while m is existentially quantified over messages).

$$\begin{aligned} &\operatorname{Loss}(\mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{z}_i") \equiv (\mathbf{z}_i = (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{b}) \text{ and } \mathbf{z}_i" = (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})) \\ &\operatorname{Duplicate}(\mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{z}_i") \equiv (\mathbf{z}_i = (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{b}) \text{ and } \mathbf{z}_i" = (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{b})) \\ &\operatorname{Reorder}(\mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{z}_i") \equiv ((\mathbf{z}_i = (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}) \text{ and } \mathbf{z}_i" = (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{c})) \\ &\operatorname{or}(\mathbf{z}_i = (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{c}) \text{ and } \mathbf{z}_i" = (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c})) \end{aligned}$$

We can have combinations of the above; e.g.,

$$ChannelError(\mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{z}_i") \equiv (Loss(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{z}_i") \text{ or } Duplicate(\mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{z}_i") \text{ or } Reorder(\mathbf{z}_i; \mathbf{z}_i"))$$

Appendix C

Proof that D satisfies safety inference rule

Throughout this proof, safety property A is assumed to be invariant, as also are the timer and accuracy axioms.

Initial Conditions

OutTimer = DTimer = Off, s=a=0, $SCount_1 = SCount_2 = 0$, RetryCount = 0, DRecd = ACKSent = empty, $\mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{z}_2 = empty$. Thus, D1 holds non vacuously, while D2-D7 hold vacuously.

SendNewData

(i) (ii) (iii) (iv) (v)	LinkDown = LinkDown" = False OutTimer" = DTimer" = DTimerG" = RetryCount" = 1 $s'' = s + 1 = a + 1$ $\mathbf{z_1}'' = \mathbf{z_1}$, ((D,Source[s"-1], vs" \ominus 1,1),age	(SendNewData) (SendNewData)
(a) (b) (c) (d) (e) (f)	D1" D2" holds vacuously D3"(a) D3"(b) D4" D5", D6", D7" hold vacuously	(from (i), (ii), (iii), (iv))
(i) (ii) (iii) (iv) (v) (vi)	$\mathbf{d}_{-}\mathbf{D}$ LinkDown = LinkDown" = False DTimer = RTripDelay DTimer" = DTimerG" = 0 RetryCount" = RetryCount + 1 \mathbf{s} " = \mathbf{s} = \mathbf{a} + 1 = \mathbf{a} " + 1 \mathbf{z}_{1} " = \mathbf{z}_{1} , ((D,Source[s"-1], vs" \ominus 1, Ref	(Send_D) (Send_D) (Send_D) (Send_D) (Send_D) (Send_D) (Send_D)
(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)	D1" holds D2" holds vacuously D3" holds DTimerG > RoundTripDelay SCount ₁ + SCount ₂ ≥ RetryCount	(from D1(b), (ii), (iii), (iv), (v)) (from (i)) (from D3, (vi)) (from (ii), ((DTimerG,DTimer) started at 0) (from D1(b)), Started-at property) (from d, D7)
(f) (g)	D4" D5" - D7" hold vacuously	(from e, (iv), D4) (from (iii))

Abort

Abort			
(i)	LinkDown = False	(Abort)	
(ii)	LinkDown" = True	(Abort)	
(iii)	DTimer"=DTimer = RTripDelay, s=s"=a"+1=a+1	(Abort)	
(iv)	RetryCount = MaxRetryCount	(Abort)	

- (a) D1" holds vacuously (from (ii))
- (b) DTimerG > RoundTripDelay (from (ii), ((DTimerG,DTimer) started

```
at 0) (from D1(b)), Started-at property)
(c)
     D2" holds
                                                        (from (i), (iii), (iv), D1(b), b, D7)
(d)
     D3" holds
                                                                               (from D3)
     D4" - D6" hold vacuously
(e)
                                                                               (from (iii))
(f)
     D7" holds
                                                                             (from b, D7)
Rec ACK
Case 1.
           vs = va or nr = va.
           D" holds from D
Case 2
     vs \neq va and nr = va \oplus 1
(i)
                                                                             (Rec_ACK)
     s = s'' = a'' = a + 1
(ii)
                                                                             (Rec ACK)
(iii) DTimer" = DTimerG" = OutTimer = Off
                                                                             (Rec_ACK)
     and ACKSent" = DRecd" = empty
     and SCount_1 = SCount_2'' = 0
     LinkDown = LinkDown = False
(iv)
                                                                            (Rec_ACK)
     D1" holds
(a)
                                                                     (from (ii), (iii), (iv))
     D2" - D7" hold vacuously
(b)
                                                                          (from (iii), (iv))
Send ACK
     r = s = a + 1 \rightarrow ACKSent'' = (ACKSent, 0)
(i)
                                                                           (Send ACK)
(ii)
     SendACK = True
                                                                           (Send ACK)
     D1", D2", D3" hold
(a)
                                                    (D1 and (i); D2 and D3 not affected)
(b)
     RetryCount in DRecd \Rightarrow r = s = a + 1
                                                                               (from D4)
           \Rightarrow (for some t in ACKSent")[t = 0]
                                                                                (from (i))
(c)
     D4" holds
                                                                             (from b, D4)
     D5" holds
(d)
                                                                             (from D5, b)
(e)
     D6", D7" hold
                                                                    (D6, D7 not affected)
Rec D
     \mathbf{z}_1 = (\langle (D, data, ns, trynumber), age \rangle, \mathbf{z}_1")
(i)
                                                                                (Rec_D)
     SendACKTimerG" \geq 0, SendACKTimer" \geq 0
(ii)
                                                                                (Rec D)
     s = a + 1 \rightarrow DRecd'' = DRecd, trynumber
                                                                                (Rec D)
(iv)
     s = r''
                                                                               (from A2)
(a)
     D1" holds
                                                                          (from D1, (iii))
(b)
     D2" holds
                                                                               (from D2)
(c)
     D3"(a) holds
                                                                     (from D3(b), D3(a))
(d)
     D3"(b) holds
                                                                     (D3(b) not affected)
(e)
      D4"
                       ((RetryCount in DRecd or s=a or trynumber≠RetryCount), D4)
```

(RetryCount not in DRecd, s=a+1, trynumber=RetryCount, (f) D4" (iv), (ii), (iii)) D5", D6", D7" hold (D5, D6, D7 not affected) (g) Local Time event for η_1 D1(a)" holds (from D1(a), local time event) (a) (from D1(b), (OutTimer \neq Off \Rightarrow OutTimer"=OutTimer+1), D1(b)" holds $(LinkDown=False and s \neq a \Rightarrow DTimer" \leq RTripDelay \Rightarrow DTimer"=DTimer+1))$ (from D2 - D7 not affected) (c) D2" - D7" hold Local time event for η_2 Does not effect D Global time event D1, D2, D3 not affected. Assume DTimerG < Delay₁. Then DTimerG" \leq Delay₁ D4" holds (from D4) D5" - D7" holds vacuously Assume DTimerG = Delay₁. Then DTimerG" = Delay₁ + 1 Assume RetryCount in DRecd. Then D5" holds with $SCount_1 + SCount_2 \ge RetryCount - 1 (from D4)$ Assume RetryCount not in DRecd. Then D5" holds with SCount₁ + SCount₂ ≥ RetryCount (from D4, updating of SCount₁ in global time event) Thus D5" holds D6", D7" hold vacuously Assume Delay₁ < DTimerG < Delay₁ + MaxResponseTime Then, D5" holds (from D5, and global time event increments SendACKTimerG, DTimerG, t if they are active) D4", D6", D7" hold vacuously Assume $DTimerG = Delay_1 + MaxResponseTime$ Assume $SCount_1 + SCount_2 \ge RetryCount$. Then D6" holds Assume $SCount_1 + SCount_2 = RetryCount -1$. Then, since SendACKTimerG"

MaxResponseTime (from Timer Axiom),

we have (for some t in ACKSent)[t \geq 0] holding. Thus, (for some t in ACKSent")[t \geq 1] holds. Thus D6" holds D4", D5", D7" hold vacuously

Assume Delay₁ + MaxResponseTime < DTimerG < RoundTripDelay
Then D6" holds (from D6, and t (if it exists) and DTimerG are both incremented by 1).

Assume DTimerG = RoundTripDelay Then, from D7, either $SCount_1 + SCount_2 \ge RetryCount$ or (for some t in ACKSent)[t $\ge Delay_2$]. Then, $SCount_2$ " = $SCount_2 + 1$ (in update of $SCount_2$ in global time event). D7" holds

D7" holds
D4" - D6" hold vacuously.

Assume DTimerG > RoundTripDelay.

D7" holds (from D7)

D4" - D6" hold vacuously.

End of proof