Abstract. The biphase mark protocol is a convention for representing both a string of bits and clock edges in a square wave. The protocol is frequently used for communication at the physical level of the ISO/OSI hierarchy, and is implemented on microcontrollers such as the Intel 82530 Serial Communications Controller. An important property of the protocol is that bit strings of arbitrary length can be transmitted reliably, despite differences in the clock rates of sender and receiver (drift), variations of the clock rates (jitter), and distortion of the signal after generation of an edge. In this article, we show how the protocol can be modelled naturally in terms of timed automata. We use the model checker \textsc{Uppaal} to derive the maximal tolerances on the clock rates, for different instances of the protocol, and to support the general parametric verification that we formalized using the proof assistant \textsc{PVS}. Based on the derived parameter constraints we propose instances of BMP that are correct (at least in our model) but have a faster bit rate than the instances that are commonly implemented in hardware.

Key words. biphase mark protocol, formal methods, model checking, theorem provers, timed automata.

1 Introduction

The biphase mark protocol (BMP) is a fundamental protocol that is widely used in applications where data written by one device is read by another. It is used, for instance, in microcontrollers such as the Intel 82530 Serial Communications Controller [24], in some optical communications and satellite telemetry applications, and for communication between consumer electronics devices. A variation of biphase mark, called “Manchester”, is used in the Ethernet. The first rigorous, formal analysis of (some instances of) the protocol was carried out by Moore [27] using the Boyer-Moore theorem prover \textsc{Nqthm} [10]. Moore used the biphase mark protocol to illustrate a formal, logical model of asynchronous

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communication. We refer to [27] for additional information and references on BMP.

In this article, we present the results of our efforts to model and analyze the biphase mark protocol using the verification tools UPPAAL and PVS. Our model generalizes Moore’s model, since it incorporates “clock jitter” and the distortion in the signal due to the presence of an edge is not limited to the time-span of the cycle during which the edge was written. We use UPPAAL [26], a model checker for networks of timed automata, to automatically prove correctness of several instances of the protocol and to find error scenarios based on some incorrect instances. These experiments suggest constraints on the model parameters that are necessary for correctness. Using the proof assistant PVS [28] we establish that these constraints are in fact sufficient for correctness. Our main objective for this article is to demonstrate that the timed automata framework [2] allows for natural, straightforward modeling and analysis of this type of physical level communications protocols. Methodologically, our results are interesting since we use two different tools — the model checker UPPAAL and the proof assistant PVS — in a combined manner to analyze a single system. Both tools play a vital and complementary role in our analysis. As a byproduct of our efforts, we manage to find instances of BMP that are correct (at least in our model) but have a faster bit rate than the instances that are commonly implemented in hardware.

Outline. Section 2 contains an informal presentation of the protocol. In Section 3 we present our UPPAAL model and the parameter constraints that we inferred by trying to verify several instances of the protocol with UPPAAL model checker. Section 4 describes a straightforward encoding of the (semantics of) the UPPAAL model within the higher order logic input language of the proof assistant PVS. Section 5 reports on the formalization with PVS of the (manual) proof that the parameter constraints are sufficient for correctness. In Section 6, we investigate the consequences of the derived parameter constraints. In particular, we show how to synthesize the instance of BMP with the fastest bit rate given an upper bound on the time needed for the signal to stabilize after occurrence of an edge. Finally, Section 7 discusses related work and draws some conclusions.

The full UPPAAL and PVS sources are available at the URL


2 Informal Description of the Protocol

Essentially, the biphase mark protocol is just a convention for representing both a string of bits and clock edges in a square wave. In the protocol (see Figure 1, taken from [27]) each bit of a message is encoded in a cell, which consists of a number of clock cycles and which is logically divided into a mark subcell and a code subcell. A typical configuration is 16 cycles for the mark subcell and another 16 for the code subcell. The signal, which at any time is either high or low, always changes value right at the beginning of a cell. In addition, if the signal encodes a “1” the value also changes right at the beginning of the code subcell. If a cell encodes a “0” then the signal remains constant throughout the cell. In order to
decode the bit string again from the square wave, a decoder waits for an edge that marks the beginning of a cell and then samples the wire after a specified number of clock cycles \((the \ sampling \ distance)\). If the value just after the edge agrees with the sampled value then the decoder assumes a “0” has been sent, otherwise it assumes a “1” has been sent.

A clear advantage of BMP over, say, the naive scheme in which a “1” is encoded by a high signal and a “0” by a low signal, is that BMP “synchronizes” the clocks of coder and decoder at the beginning of each cell. In a setting with unreliable clocks, a decoder might not see the difference between the naive encoding of 10000 consecutive 1’s, and the naive encoding of 10001 consecutive 1’s. If BMP is used this problem does not arise, except of course when clocks become excessively \((depending \ on \ the \ other \ parameters \ of \ the \ protocol, \ usually \ 4 \ or \ 5 \ orders \ of \ magnitude \ worse \ than \ common \ clock \ crystals \ provide)\) unreliable.

Proving correctness of physical implementations of BMP is nontrivial due the combination of at least three factors:

1. A physical system can not generate a perfect square wave. Edges will not be vertical or square: an electrical signal changes continuously and may even “ring” before stabilizing at its new level. In our model we will assume that the value of the signal is nondeterministically defined (reading may produce any value) during some bounded interval after the coder generates an edge.

2. If a signal is constant throughout a clock cycle then we may assume that sampling of this signal by the decoder yields the correct value. However, if the value changes during a clock cycle then any value may come out as we do not know at which point during the cycle sampling takes place. In our model we will assume that the decoder samples the signal nondeterministically at some point during each clock cycle.

3. Physical clocks drift (that is, their rate may be too high or too low) and exhibit jitter (that is, their rate may change over time). In our model we will assume that the clock rates of sender and receiver are contained in an interval, so that subsequent clock ticks may be separated by \(any\) length of time in that interval.
As a consequence of these complications, one can easily imagine scenarios in which, for instance, a decoder altogether misses an edge and completely garbles the remainder of the signal (in Section 3.10 we will present such scenarios). In this article we identify the precise constraints on the various parameters of the protocol (lengths of clock cycles, time before signal stabilizes, et cetera) that must be met in order to ensure correctness.

3 Uppaal Model and Analysis

In this section, we describe the model that we constructed of the biphase mark protocol and the analysis results that we obtained using the timed model checking tool Uppaal. For a detailed account of Uppaal we refer to [26] and to http://www.uppaal.com.

3.1 Architecture

Figure 2 presents the overall architecture of our Uppaal model. The model consists of a network of 7 timed automata (shown as rectangles), which communicate via shared variables (circles) and synchronization actions (labeled arrows). Automaton Clock models the hardware clock at the coding side. The automaton Coder models the encoding process: based on a sequence of bits (which is received via variable in) and the tick events from the Clock automaton, it generates edge events that determine a square wave. Within our model, the environment (which is represented by the tester) places a new bit in variable in whenever the Coder is willing to accept a get event. The Wire automaton nondeterministically transforms the perfect square wave from the Coder into a signal whose value, stored in variable w, is nondeterministically defined during a specified interval after the coder generates an edge. Automaton Clock2,
which is similar to Clock, models the hardware clock at the decoding side. The Sampler automaton periodically copies (samples) the value of variable $w$ into variable $new$. The Boolean variable $s$ is used to coordinate the sampler and clock. Automaton Decoder models the decoding process. If at the occurrence of a clock tick automaton Decoder observes that the value of $new$ has changed it starts counting a specified number of clock ticks and then compares the value of $new$ after those ticks with the value it had before. Depending on the outcome it places either a 0 or a 1 in register $out$ and informs the environment about the fact that a new bit has become available via a put action. The automaton Tester, finally, nondeterministically selects bits, places them in register $in$ upon request and checks whether the sequence of bits delivered via register $out$ agrees with the sequence entered via register $in$. Whenever it observes a discrepancy, the Tester automaton jumps to a designated error location. Hence, in order to establish correctness we must prove that the error location can not be reached.

3.2 Model Parameters

Figure 3 lists the parameters that are used in the model (constants in UPPAAL terminology) and gives an example instantiation. The domain of all parameters is the set of natural numbers. Constant cell specifies the size of a cell in terms of the number of clock cycles. Similarly, mark and sample specify the size of the mark subcell and the sampling distance, respectively. This specific configuration is used in the Intel 82530 Serial Communications Controller [24]. Constants min and max specify the minimum and maximum number of time units in a clock cycle (say, measured in nanoseconds); we assume $0 < \text{min} \leq \text{max}$. Constant edgelength specifies the number of time units needed for the signal to stabilize after occurrence of an edge. The values listed for min, max and edgelength are not meant to be realistic — our model’s clocks are much worse than any that are used in real machines [14].

3.3 First Clock

Timed automaton Clock models the hardware clock at the coding side. The automaton, which is displayed in Figure 4, only has a single location and a
single transition. The automaton performs a synchronization action $\text{tick!}$ when its clock $x$ has reached a value between min and max, and then returns to its initial state by resetting $x$.

3.4 The Coder

We worked hard to make all the timed automata as simple as possible. As a result of our efforts, all automata in our model have at most 5 locations. The automaton Coder, displayed in Figure 5, is one of the two timed automata in our model with 5 locations. The automaton Coder describes how the biphase mark protocol encodes a string of bits and clock edges into a square wave. In its initial location C0 the automaton immediately (the location is urgent) jumps via a $\text{get}$? transition to location C1, thereby telling the environment that it is about to fetch a new bit from the $in$ register. In the location C1, which is also urgent, an edge is generated and the automaton jumps, depending on the bit that is being transmitted, either to location C2 (in case $in = 1$) or to location C3 (in case $in = 0$). A local integer counter $n$ is used to count clock ticks. Upon entering location C2 the automaton waits until mark clock ticks have occurred, and then generates an edge and jumps to location C3. In location C3 the automaton waits until cell clock ticks have occurred and then jumps back to its initial location to transmit the next bit. In our model, we assume that there is always a next bit to transmit. It should not be difficult to generalize our work to a setting where sometimes the environment has no more bits available for transmission.

3.5 The Wire

The Wire automaton, displayed in Figure 6, is introduced to model our assumption that it takes $\text{edgelength}$ time before an electric signal stabilizes after occurrence of an edge. The Boolean variable $v$ is toggled when an $\text{edge?}$ event occurs. Thus, $v$ evolves according to the perfect square wave that is generated by the Coder. There is also another Boolean variable $w$, whose values reflect

\footnote{Actually, the number of locations is not a good measure of complexity since in the presence of integer variables each timed automaton is trivially equivalent to one with just a single location. Without introducing any additional integer variables or coding tricks we could have easily reduced the number of locations of the Coder automaton to 3 if UPPAAL would have permitted us to decorate transitions with multiple synchronization labels, as in the tool Kronos [11].}
the actual observations that can be made on a physical wire. In the initial location $W_0$ the wire is stable and the values of $v$ and $w$ agree. Upon occurrence of an edge? the Wire automaton moves to the unstable location $W_1$ in which $w$ can be assigned any value at any time. After being unstable for $\text{edgelength}$ time units, the system moves back again to the stable location $W_0$ and the value of $w$ settles to $v$. For the parameter assignments for which the BMP is correct the Coder never generates an edge if the Wire is in location $W_1$. We will prove this by establishing that location $W_2$ is unreachable in the full system for any of the parameter assignments that we consider.

We find it convenient to give names to all the transitions in an automaton. This is achieved by misusing the broadcast primitive in UPPAAL: the broadcast actions $\text{fuzz}$! and $\text{settle}$! do not synchronize with actions from any other automaton, but are just there to give transitions a name.

In our model we assume instantaneous message delivery: edges generated by the Coder may be detected instantaneously by the Decoder. We claim that the constraints on the parameters that we derive in this paper to ensure correctness are not affected when we introduce a fixed transmission delay for all edges. However, we do not formally prove this claim in this article.

3.6 The Sampler

The Sampler automaton, displayed in Figure 7, only has a single location and a single transition. The transition copies (samples) the value of the wire variable
w to a variable new that is used as input for the decoder. To ensure that the sample transition occurs exactly once during every clock cycle we use an auxiliary Boolean variable s: if s = 0 then the sampler may sample and if s = 1 then the sample transition occurs exactly once during every clock cycle we use an auxiliary Boolean variable s: if s = 0 then the sampler may sample and if s = 1 then the (decoder) clock may tick. Only the samples taken during the mark and sample clock cycles are actually used in the protocol, though.

3.7 Second Clock

The Clock2 automaton, displayed in Figure 8, models the hardware clock at the decoding side. This automaton is exactly the same as the Clock at the coder side, except that it also reads/writes variable s to ensure strict alternation of the sample and tock actions.

3.8 The Decoder

The Decoder automaton, shown in Figure 9, models in a straightforward man-
ner the decoding of the (sampled) wire signal into a bit string. The automaton uses a local Boolean variable `old` to record wire values it has seen earlier. Like the `Coder` automaton, the activity of the `Decoder` automaton is driven by clock ticks. In the initial location `D0`, each clock tick causes the automaton to compare the most recent value that has been sampled from the wire (new) with the value stored in `old`. As long as these values remain the same no action is taken. But as soon as the values of `old` and `new` become different, the automaton concludes that an edge has occurred, moves to location `D1`, and toggles the value of `old`. In location `D1` the automaton waits until sample clock ticks have occurred (counted using a local integer variable `m`) and then jumps to location `D2`. If at that point in time `new` equals `old` then output variable `out` is assigned the value 0, otherwise `out` is assigned the value 1 (cf Figure 1). In a subsequent transition that occurs immediately, the environment is informed that a new output has been produced (via a `put!` synchronization) and the `Decoder` returns to its initial location.

3.9 The Tester

Figure 10 depicts the `Tester` automaton, the seventh and last component of the model. This automaton is not part of the biphase mark protocol but just a highly nondeterministic environment of the protocol that has been designed to test its correctness. If the protocol (the `Coder` in fact) asks for a new bit, the `Tester` puts a nondeterministically selected bit in shared variable `in`. The `Tester` remembers which bits it has sent to the protocol; `in` and `buf` store the most-recent two bits sent. If a third bit is requested by the `Coder` the overflow location `T3` is reached. We will prove that for all parameter assignments for which the protocol operates correctly, there is at most one bit that has been accepted
by the Coder but not yet delivered by the Decoder. While searching for error scenarios that arise for parameter assignments that do not satisfy the constraints, we will encounter instances of our model in which two bits can be inside the protocol. We felt no need to model a tester that can handle situations in which three or more bits are sent but not yet received. Whenever the protocol (the Decoder) produces an output, the Tester checks whether this is the expected value. If it is correct, the Tester forgets the value, otherwise it jumps to a special Error location. If the protocol is correct then the Error location can not be reached.

3.10 Uppaal Analysis Results

The set of reachable symbolic states of our model is relatively small, and for all properties and parameter assignments that we tried, UPPAAL managed to establish validity or produced a counterexample within a second (running Uppaal version 3.4.7 on a standard PC). Some basic well-formedness properties that we tested are that the system contains no deadlocks, the coder never starts another voltage transition (edge) while the Wire automaton is still in its unstable location, and that there are never more than two bits in transit in the protocol:

$$ A[] \neg (\text{deadlock or Wire.W2 or Tester.T3}) $$

But the key correctness property, of course, is that the Tester never enters the Error location:

$$ A[] \neg (\text{Tester.Error}) $$
Whether these properties hold depends on the specific choice of the parameter values. Through playing with different parameter assignments, and replaying the error traces in the simulator, we discovered that there appear to be essentially three different scenarios that may lead the Tester to the Error location: (1) the decoder may miss the edge at the beginning of a cell, (2) the decoder may sample too early, or (3) it may sample too late.

The first error scenario is illustrated in Figure 11. In this scenario, the coder transmits a 1 and passes through the mark phase (location C2) maximally fast. This means that \( \text{mark} \cdot \text{min} \) time units after the \( \text{edge} \) event that marks the beginning of the cell we already see the \( \text{edge} \) event that marks the end of the mark phase (the line labeled \( \nu \) in Figure 11). We assume that after the first edge the wire remains unchanged maximally long, that is \( \text{edgelength} \) time units, whereas after the second edge the wire immediately takes the new value (the line labeled \( \nu \) in Figure 11). Now the decoder may altogether miss the voltage change on the wire if it (1) operates maximally slow for two clock cycles, (2) samples at the very beginning of the first clock cycle, just before the value of \( \nu \) changes, (3) samples again at the very end of the second cycle, right after the value of \( \nu \) has changed again. In order to avoid this error scenario, the following constraint on the parameters must be met, which ensures that an edge at the beginning of a cell will always be detected by the decoder:

\[
\text{mark} \cdot \text{min} > 2 \cdot \text{max} + \text{edgelength} \quad (1)
\]
The second error scenario, in which the decoder samples too early, is illustrated in Figure 12. In this scenario, the **Coder** operates maximally slow whereas the decoder operates maximally fast. The **Coder** transmits a 1 and remains in the mark phase maximally long, that is mark $\times$ max time units elapse between the two edge events (line labeled $v$ in Figure 12). This time, the wire immediately takes on the new value after the first edge, and sticks to the previous value maximally long after the second edge (line labeled $w$ in Figure 12). The decoder immediately detects the first edge and operates maximally fast. This means that the clock cycle in which it samples the value that will determine whether a 0 or a 1 will be decoded starts after $(\text{sample} - 1) \times \text{min}$ time units. If we assume that sampling takes place at the very beginning of this clock cycle, then the wrong bit (namely 0 instead of 1) will be decoded if the sampling takes place right before $w$ changes its value for the second time. In order to avoid this error scenario, the following constraint on the parameters must be met:

$$ (\text{sample} - 1) \times \text{min} > \text{mark} \times \text{max} + \text{edgelength} $$

This constraint ensures that the decoder will not sample too early.

The third error scenario, in which the decoder samples too late, is illustrated in Figure 13. In this scenario the **Coder** operates maximally fast whereas the decoder is maximally slow: at the point where the decoder samples the coder has already started with the transmission of the next bit. In order to avoid this error scenario, the following constraint on the parameters must be met, which ensures that the decoder does not sample too late:

$$ \text{cell} \times \text{min} > (\text{sample} + 2) \times \text{max} + \text{edgelength} $$

**Fig. 12.** Second error scenario: decoder samples too early.
An obvious question that arises is whether the three constraints introduced above are enough to ensure correctness: is the error location unreachable for all parameter assignments that satisfy constraints (1), (2) and (3)? This question cannot be answered using UPPAAL, since UPPAAL can only compute the set of reachable states for a fixed parameter assignment, and there are infinitely many parameter assignments that satisfy the three constraints. Using deductive verification and the theorem prover PVS, we will establish in the next two sections that the three constraints together indeed guarantee correctness.

4 Translating the Uppaal Model into PVS

For the verification of the correctness of the biphase mark protocol with the given parameter constraints in a symbolic fashion we use the theorem prover PVS, which is a higher-order logic theorem prover developed by SRI [28]. We employ a framework in PVS that provides us with the standard definitions for automata and a guideline as to how to translate automata from UPPAAL to PVS. The translation is intended to ensure that the PVS model closely resembles the UPPAAL model, so that it is easy to validate and to propagate changes from one model to the other.

An automaton in UPPAAL consists of a number of locations, some state variables and clocks, and transitions (labeled arrows) from one location to another; the transitions may also be labeled with assignments to the state variables and clocks, and they may be annotated with guards. Our translation deals with each
of these parts of the automaton in turn, yielding a PVS model containing loca-
tions, state variables, and transitions. The translation of the automata in our
UPPAAL model from diagrams into our PVS framework in general proceeds as
follows:

1. The locations and state variables of the UPPAAL model are modeled in PVS
as enumerations and records, respectively.
2. Anonymous transitions (transitions not labeled with an action label) need
to be labeled to distinguish them. There are none in the UPPAAL model we
have, since all of its transitions are labeled.
3. Our approach focuses on local translations — each automaton is translated
into PVS with no regard for the context it will be placed in. Shared variables
complicate this, because they require that two independently translation au-
tomata synchronize on an otherwise invisible action (i.e. assignments to the
shared variables). Therefore we make that synchronization explicit. Shared
variables are replaced by local variables whose values are synchronized via
a parameter of the transition. For instance, the get! action is replaced by a
get!(b) where b is the value generated by the tester and read by the coder.
4. The union of the sets of events of all the automata in the system is used as
the global set of events. Explicit time delay is included as delay(d).
5. For each automaton, we define a local state and a local transition relation,
as well as the local initial state. The local transition relation must deal with
the global set of events — this is because our translation is a simple one and
does not take into account which events are relevant for which automata. No
change should occur in response to events not used locally in the automaton.
6. The parallel composition of the automata is constructed by hand. The global
state is a record containing the local states of each automaton. The global
initial state is exactly the product of the local initial states.
7. The global transition relation applies each local transitions to the appropri-
ate local state; since all local transitions are given the global event, synchro-
nization on shared events in the run is obtained.

We will perform each of these steps for the model of the biphase mark protocol
in the following sections. There is one place where we diverge from the UPPAAL
model in Section 3: we translate the product automaton of the sampler and the
second clock, instead of translating each individually. The reason for doing so
is that the shared variable s, which ensures strict alternation of actions in the
automata, is not used in a way that our shared-variable translation can deal with.
It is, in the end, simpler to translate the product automaton than to invent a
complicated translation that can deal with the shared variable.

4.1 Merging Automata

The product automaton of the sampler and the second clock is easy to calculate,
and yields an UPPAAL diagram like the one in Figure 14. We use this automa-
ton instead of the two separate ones because both automata write to the shared
variable $s$, which makes our simple-and-straightforward translation to PVS inapplicable.

In this merged automaton, we have two locations, that represent the state $s = 0$ and $s = 1$ of the separate automata; again, `Sample!` and `tock!` events occur in turn, with no more than max time between `tock!`s.

### 4.2 Removing Shared Variables

There are a few shared variables in the UPPAAL model, as shown in Figure 2. These are:
- `in`, between coder and tester.
- `w`, between wire and sampler.
- `new`, between sampler and decoder.
- `out`, between decoder and tester.
- `s`, the variable shared between the sampler and the second clock, is not needed, since we use the product of those two automata instead.

Each of the uses, (reads or writes), of one of these shared variables can be changed into a parameterized event so that all variables become local. Consider `in`, shared between the coder and the tester. The tester nondeterministically sets the value of `in` on several transitions labeled with `get!`. These can be replaced by a parameterized `get!(b)` that represents the shared assignment `in := b`. In the coder, there is only one transition labeled `get?`, and the (shared) value of `in` is used in urgent transitions immediately afterwards. We replace it by `get?(b)`, and save the value in a local variable `in`. It is straightforward to prove that the values of both local variables in the two automata are always equal, which is what we would expect of a shared variable.

Similarly, the value `w` that is read from the wire by the sampler can be added as a parameter to the action `Sample!`. The wire’s local transition allows a `Sample!` transition with parameter `b` only when the wire variable `w` has the value `b`. The sampler’s transition `tock!` triggers a read of the value of `new` in the decoder. We can add the value of `new` as a parameter to it and use that value where needed.

Finally, the value of `out` is written by the decoder when it does a `put!` action, and the tester reads the value immediately. Here too, adding a parameter to pass the value put by the decoder removes the need for a shared variable.
4.3 Representing Events

The collection of events in PVS is represented by an abstract datatype — this means that we automatically have axioms that the events are distinct, as one would expect from an enumeration of all the distinct kinds of events. The PVS code is shown in Figure 15. We see the four parameterized actions, two actions without parameters, the two broadcast actions with no parameters (settle and fuzz), and the additional delay event representing the passage of time. Note that delay is parameterized by a posreal, i.e. a positive and non-zero amount of time. This means that in our PVS model, there are no events which delay by zero time. This is a subtle difference with the UPPAAL semantics, where zero delays are possible (they do not change the state or the value of any clocks though, so their deletion from the PVS model does no harm).

BMActions : DATATYPE BEGIN
  delay(d:posreal) : delay? % Time delay
  tick : tick? % Sender clock tick
  tock(w:bool) : tock? % Sampler clock tick
  get(b:bool) : get? % Get message bit
  put(b:bool) : put? % Message bit received
  edge : edge? % Coder inverts wire value
  fuzz : fuzz? % Wire during edge
  settle : settle? % Wire stabilizes to value
  sample(w:bool) : sample? % Sample from wire
END BMActions

Fig. 15. PVS Datatype for the Events of the biphase mark protocol.

4.4 Local States and Transitions

The aim of the translation into PVS is to prove that the parameter constraints that have been deduced in Section 3.10 are correct, i.e. that all choices of parameters within those constraints yield a correct protocol. We attempt to remain as close as possible to the UPPAAL model, so that it is intuitively clear that the PVS model represents the diagrams accurately. To this end we will do the following for each automaton: define an enumeration of the locations of the automaton (if it has more than one) so that we can refer to those locations by name; define a record that holds the location of the automaton and its local variables and clocks; define a transition relation on the local state where the primary selection is by event. This means that the transition relation is written in PVS like “if event is delay, then do this; else, if event is get, then do this; ...” — the uniformity of expression defining the transition relation is important in partially automating proofs over the automaton.

The remainder of this section shows the translation of specific automata — the Clock, the Coder — in more detail.
The Clock: The clock has only one location, and a single clock named \( x \), so the record structure for the state of the clock is very simple: a single field for the clock \( x \), as can be seen in Figure 16. One might argue that this representation could be simplified, down to identifying the state of the Clock with the value of the clock variable \( x \), but we believe that consistency in structure is important for the automation of proofs.

There are two different transitions that the clock can take: time can pass (subject to the location invariant), or the clock can tick (subject to the transition guard). The PVS code for this does a case distinction on the event in order to determine whether a given state-transition is allowed. The PVS code for the transition is shown in Figure 16. The PVS code defines a record type \texttt{ClockState}

\[
\texttt{ClockState : TYPE} = \{ \# x: \texttt{Time} \} ;
\]

\[
\texttt{ClockTransition(s:ClockState,a:BMActions,s_:ClockState)} : \texttt{bool} =
\]

\[
\texttt{CASES a OF}
\]

\[
\text{delay(d)} : s_'x <= \text{max} \text{ AND } s_ = s \text{ WITH } \{ x := s'x + d \},
\]

\[
\text{tick} : s'x >= \text{min} \text{ AND } s_ = s \text{ WITH } \{ x := 0 \}
\]

\[
\text{ELSE s_ = s}
\]

\[
\text{ENDCASES ;}
\]

\textbf{Fig. 16.} PVS code for the Clock’s state and transition relation.

(The \([ \# \# ]\) indicate a record) with a single field \( x \) for the clock. The transition relation for the clock is named \texttt{ClockTransition} and is a function of three variables, yielding a Boolean value. The parameters are \( s \) and \( s_ \), the local from state and the local to state, while \( a \) is the global event that occurs; the transition relation must state whether the transition from local state \( s \) to \( s_ \) when the system performs an action \( a \) is allowed. The transition relation is defined using a \texttt{CASES} statement, where we can list the events that change the local state of the clock. We see the use of the \texttt{ELSE} clause in the \texttt{CASES} expression in order to deal with “all-the-events-not-mentioned-yet.” The \texttt{CASES} statement is required to be total by PVS, so we use the \texttt{ELSE} clause to make it so. It is important to state that the state stays the same (\( s_ = s \)) when unhandled events occur, since otherwise the state is allowed to change nondeterministically when other automata perform an action.

The two events that are relevant for the Clock automaton are handled by writing the precondition (either the location invariant or the transition guard) in conjunction with an expression stating how the local variables should be updated. The update expression is typically written as \( s_ = s \text{ WITH } \{ E \} \). The expression \( s \text{ WITH } \{ E \} \) has the value of the record \( s \) with the fields named in \( E \) updated by assignment; we read this as calculating the new state based on \( s \) and asserting that state \( s_ \) is that state. For the delay event, we need to check that the location invariant is not violated by a delay of \( d \) time, and the clock
x must advance by $d$ for the transition to be acceptable. In a similar vein, the transition for tick conjoins the transition guard with the resetting of clock $x$.

**Coder:** The structure of the coder is far complex than that of the Clock. There are only 3 event types (get, edge, tick) that need to be handled, but since the event labels occur multiple times in the diagram the expressions stating legality of a particular state-transition are more complex. The presence of urgent locations adds the delay event to the list-of-events-to-handle. In Figure 17 we see that in has become iv — this is because in is a reserved word in PVS. The value

CoderLocations : TYPE+ = { c0, c1, c2, c3, c4 } ;
CoderState : TYPE+ = [
  loc : CoderLocations,
  n   : below[cell],
  iv  : bool
]

**Fig. 17.** PVS code for the Coder’s state.

iv is represented by a Boolean value; 0 or 1 would serve as well, but require an additional type definition. State component n is declared to be below[cell], which means $n < cell$; PVS requires that we prove this (which is trivial and done automatically with typecheck-prove).

The transition relation for the Coder is fairly straightforward. Delay events cannot happen when the Coder is in locations c0, c1 or c4 since these are urgent locations (and recall that delays are non-zero in our PVS model), but the state of the coder must stay the same when delay actions do occur otherwise. The PVS code is shown in Figure 18.

The event get? can only occur when the Coder is in location c0, and it is accompanied by a change in location and saving the parameter value to a local variable. This is straightforward enough. The edge! event can occur in one of three places; we write a disjunction of the transition expressions for each of those three distinct transitions. Each one of those transition expressions — as usual — checks that the initial location is correct, checks the guard on the transition, and states what the resulting state must be. Finally tick? occurs in four places in the diagram, and each of these is dealt with similarly.

**Other Automata:** The other automata in the system (the wire, the sampler with the second clock, the decoder and the tester) are all straightforward to translate — the state consists of a few fields for the local variables, and the transitions are all of types similar to what we have already described. The complete PVS specification for the automata can be obtained from the URL mentioned in the introduction.
CoderTransition(s: CoderState, a: BMActions, s_: CoderState) : bool =
CASES a OF
  delay(d) : ( s'loc = c2 OR s'loc = c3 ) AND s_ = s,
  get(b) : s'loc = c0 AND s_ = s WITH [ loc:=c1, iv:=b ],
  edge : ( s'loc = c1 AND s'iv AND
             s_ = s WITH [ loc:=c2 ] ) OR
         ( s'loc = c1 AND NOT s'iv AND
           s_ = s WITH [ loc:=c3 ] ) OR
         ( s'loc = c4 AND
           s_ = s WITH [ loc:=c3 ] ) ,
  tick : ( s'loc = c2 AND s'n < mark-1 AND
         s_ = s WITH [ n:=s'n+1 ] ) OR
       ( s'loc = c2 AND s'n = mark-1 AND
         s_ = s WITH [ loc:=c4, n:=s'n+1 ] ) OR
       ( s'loc = c3 AND s'n < cell-1 AND
         s_ = s WITH [ n:=s'n+1 ] ) OR
       ( s'loc = c3 AND s'n = cell-1 AND
         s_ = s WITH [ loc:=c0, n:=0 ] )
ELSE
  s_ = s
ENDCASES ;

**Fig. 18.** PVS code for the Coder’s transition relation.

### 4.5 Global States and Transitions

The global state of the entire system is of course the product of all the local states of the constituent automata. The easiest way to achieve this in PVS is to define a new record with one field for each of the constituent automata, as shown in Figure 19. This global state contains no global variables, and hence the composition of the transition relations is straightforward as well.

```pvs
GlobalState : TYPE+ = [#
  now : Time,
  clock : ClockState,
  coder : CoderState,
  wire : WireState,
  sampler : SamplerState,
  decoder : DecoderState,
  tester : TesterState
#] ;
```

**Fig. 19.** Global state of the system model of the biphase mark protocol.

The transition relation for the global state is the conjunction of the local transitions for each automaton applied to the local states; the event \( a \) is passed
to each local transition, along with the relevant local state. By having a structured and straightforward representation of the global state, the global transition becomes straightforward as well and we can later apply some automation to the calculation of next-states in the executions of the global automaton. The global transition relation is shown in Figure 20.

\[
\text{GlobalTransition}(s : \text{GlobalState}, a : \text{BMActions}, s' : \text{GlobalState}) : \text{bool} = \begin{align*}
\text{s'}\text{now} &= \text{s'now} + \text{IF delay}(a) \text{ THEN } d(a) \text{ ELSE } 0 \text{ ENDIF } \\
\text{ClockTransition}(s'\text{clock}, a, s'_\text{clock}) \text{ AND} \\
\text{CoderTransition}(s'\text{coder}, a, s'_\text{coder}) \text{ AND} \\
\text{WireTransition}(s'\text{wire}, a, s'_\text{wire}) \text{ AND} \\
\text{SamplerTransition}(s'\text{sample}, a, s'_\text{sample}) \text{ AND} \\
\text{DecoderTransition}(s'\text{decoder}, a, s'_\text{decoder}) \text{ AND} \\
\text{TesterTransition}(s'\text{tester}, a, s'_\text{tester})
\end{align*}
\]

Fig. 20. Global transition relation of the biphase mark protocol.

5 Proving Correctness, with Variations

The proof of the correctness of the biphase mark protocol was fairly straightforward, in large part thanks to the invariants turned up by the experimentation with UPPAAL. The additional verification found one omission in an invariant, which was repaired by strengthening it; this enabled us to prove the correctness of all instances of the protocol within the parameter space.

The proof in PVS of the correctness of the protocol and the necessity of the given bounds on the parameters is purely symbolic, and shows that every instance that falls within the parameter constraints suggested by the UPPAAL analysis is correct. The proof proceeds by collecting 37 invariants and verifying each invariant in turn; together, these invariants imply the global correctness of the protocol.

I : THEOREM

\begin{align*}
\text{LET T = R'\text{states}(i)'\text{tester IN}} \\
\text{NOT (T'loc = t3 OR T'loc = error ) ;}
\end{align*}

Fig. 21. PVS code for main correctness theorem. The expressions for T represents the state of the Tester at index i of run R, while T'loc represents the location the Tester is in.

The global statement of correctness is much as in the UPPAAL verification: in all executions of the automata for the biphase mark protocol, there is no state
of the system in which the tester automaton is in state $t_3$, or in state $\text{error}$. In PVS this appears as the theorem shown in Figure 21. In the theorem, the LET expression is substituted into the remainder of the theorem (after the IN), and the whole theorem is implicitly universally quantified over any unbound variables (in this case, index $i$ and run $R$).

The Uppaal verification — in particular the invariants checked there — gives a guideline for the formal verification of the protocol in PVS, but it is not a road map. Indeed, as far as Uppaal is concerned, we need not bother with any invariant other than that $t_3$ and $\text{error}$ are unreachable. This is both the strength and the weakness of verification through Uppaal — we verify a single instance, or several instances, and though the truth of Uppaal’s assertion that location $t_3$ is unreachable does not change, we cannot see how this truth is arrived at, nor what the most general bounds of the parameters of the protocol might be.

Section 5.1 details the structure of the proof and the approach used, while Section 5.2 shows how some automation can be introduced into the proofs in order to shorten them and make them more understandable to the human reader. Section 5.3 examines the effect of introducing automation into the proofs.

### 5.1 Structure of the Invariant Proof

With the model as given the correctness condition is expressed in terms of the reachability of locations $t_3$ and $\text{error}$. The correctness condition is given as an invariant on the state of the system, as already shown in Figure 21. There are 37 invariants in all, each of which is proved by induction on the sequence of steps in a run of the automaton. The invariants are grouped as follows (Figures 23 and 24 on page 23 show more detail):

- Invariants of the clock or coder in isolation, named $P_x$ (6 invariants).
- Invariants of the wire, sampler, or decoder in isolation, named $Q_x$ (6).
- Invariants of pairs of automata, named $R_x$ (4).
- Invariants of the coder, clock and wire in parallel, named $T_x$ (5).
- Invariants of all but the tester in parallel, named $G_x$ (9).
- Invariants of the system as a whole, named $H_x$ (6).
- The global correctness invariant, $I$ (1).

These 37 invariants were checked with Uppaal on some instances of the protocol before beginning the PVS verification. In the PVS proof, some invariants were re-ordered (since the proof of $P_5$ needed the result of $P_6$, for instance), and some corollaries were introduced to make proofs shorter. In the $P$, $Q$ and $R$ groups, each invariant was proved individually. Groups $T$, $G$ and $H$ were proved simultaneously with the following approach (which is tailored to being convenient in PVS — mathematically, we are merely showing that the group of invariants is inductive):

1. For each invariant $I_k$ to be proven in the group, define a predicate $I_k(R, i)$ that takes an automaton run $R$ and an index $i$ as parameters that asserts the invariant property on the $i$th state of the run $R$. 

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2. For each invariant $I_k$, write and prove a lemma $L_k$ for the induction step of $I_k$ as follows (assume $n$ invariants in the group):

$$I_1(R, i) \land I_2(R, i) \land \cdots \land I_n(R, i) \Rightarrow I_k(R, i + 1)$$

3. Finally, define a lemma $I$ for the group as a whole:

$$\forall i . I_1(R, i) \land I_2(R, i) \land \cdots \land I_n(R, i)$$

The proof of this lemma is simple: check the base case of the induction, (i.e. that in all initial states, each invariant holds individually), and for the induction step use lemmata $L_1$ through $L_n$.

This approach can be used to find the interdependency graph of the invariants as well, by determining which invariant-predicates are not used in each proof. Figure 22 shows how the invariants of group $G$ are interdependent — this also makes clear that no smaller group could be constructed that is still provable.

**Fig. 22.** The interdependence of lemmata in group $G$. An arrow from lemma $G_i$ to $G_j$ means that the proof of lemma $i$ needs the result of lemma $j$.

The “simple” invariants in groups $P$, $Q$ and $R$ are the sixteen invariants shown in Figure 23. The proof of each of these is fairly straightforward: induction on the index of the state the invariant is applied to. The base case is trivial and solved with (grind), the induction step requires checking the relevant transitions, which means that the global transition relation $\text{GlobalEffect}$ needs to be introduced and expanded to the local transitions. Since these steps are the same for every proof, we define a simple strategy (scheme for automation) called (auto-start) that starts off an inductive proof by dealing with the base cases and the introduction of the local transitions (see Section 5.2 for more details on the additional automation).
These sixteen invariants, along with one additional support lemma, take 204 proof steps to prove. Each invariant depends only on the invariants preceding it in the list (hence P6 and P5 are reversed, since the naming of the invariants was established before the proofs were begun). Additional automation can reduce the number of steps taken considerably (i.e. by half), which we will examine shortly.

The remaining invariants are divided into four groups. The groups T, G and H are intra-dependent, which was partly illustrated in Figure 22, while group I contains only a single invariant. Figure 24 shows the invariants. The effort for each intra-dependent group is far greater than the effort for the simpler invariants listed above. The T group of five invariants requires 432 proof steps — again, with additional automation this can be reduced considerably.

The G group of invariants is by far the most complicated of the nests of interdependent invariants, and while proving it the original invariants suggested by the UPPAAL tests were found to be insufficiently strong to prove the entire nest. The invariant G1 needs the additional condition

\[ \text{mark} \leq n \Rightarrow \text{sample} \cdot \text{min} - \text{mark} \cdot \text{max} \leq z \]

This condition was discovered after staring at the proofs — all of which could not be finished because of the lack of this information — for a few days. Once that was done, the proofs were fairly straightforward again, with only the question of which invariants were dependent on which others.
Fig. 24. Invariants for three or more automata in parallel.
Although invariants H4, H5 and H6 can be proved easily from H1–H3 and the G invariants, it turned out that H1–H3 need the later H invariants in their proofs, which made this a new (though simple) nest of interdependent invariants.

Finally, I is an almost trivial conclusion of H1–H3 and H6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PVS Command</th>
<th>Count Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EXISTENCE-TCC</td>
<td>1 Inserted by PVS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BETA</td>
<td>1 Reduce function application</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDUCT</td>
<td>2 For invariant I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SKOLEM</td>
<td>2 Manual instantiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAME</td>
<td>2 Introducing abbreviations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TYPEPRED</td>
<td>3 Needed for min &lt; max</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INST?</td>
<td>3 Automatic instantiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASSUMING-TCC</td>
<td>3 Inserted by PVS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFF</td>
<td>5 Split boolean equivalence.</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUBTYPE-TCC</td>
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<tr>
<td>AUTO-START</td>
<td>18 Partially automated strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRIND</td>
<td>23 Prove automatically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIDE</td>
<td>25 Sequent management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMENT</td>
<td>41 Sequent management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SKOLEM!</td>
<td>45 Automatic instantiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REVEAL</td>
<td>49 Sequent management</td>
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<td>62 Using invariants</td>
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<td>INST</td>
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<td>CASE</td>
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<td>PROPAX</td>
<td>124 Trivial decision procedures</td>
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<td>LIFT-IF</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPAND</td>
<td>728 Using definition</td>
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<td>748 Simplify sequent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASSERT</td>
<td>1224 Simplify sequent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 4313

Fig. 25. Proof statistics for first attempt at invariants.

Initial proof statistics, of the hand-made proof with little automation, are shown in Figure 25 (these are entirely dependent on the PVS user that creates them, though). The statistics show that all the proofs together use only 28 different proof commands, one of which is a locally defined strategy for the purpose of initiating automaton invariant proofs (auto-start). Four are sequent management commands not immediately relevant for the proofs themselves (these are (name),(hide), (reveal) and (delete)). Three are proof commands au-
tomatically used by PVS for proving TCCs, (Type-Check Conditions, normally inserted by PVS when it cannot automatically deduce the type of an expression). One proof command is inserted by PVS automatically to finish a trivial proof (one of the form \( P \Rightarrow P \)). This leaves 19 different commands that are actually typed by the user; the vast majority are (assert) and (flatten), which follow from the habits of the PVS user who made these particular proofs.

It should be clear that the amount of effort to do the proofs is enormous compared to the effort involved in the UPPAAL verification. The main reason for this is that initially it is not clear how each proof should proceed, and there is little support built in to PVS for the kind of proofs that need to be done. Eventually, we see that the structures of the proofs are remarkably regular, and can develop some reusable automation for dealing with them.

There are several existing implementations of additional automation for proofs in a specific framework, both in PVS and outside of PVS. One example of far-ranging automation is ACL2, which is a highly automated first order theorem prover which has been used for the mechanical verification of microprocessors [29]. Similar (but much smaller-scale) microprocessor verification has been done in PVS, although with no automation [15]. Protocol verification using roughly the same framework as we have used here can be found in [12]. Automation of PVS proofs in a specific context is mentioned briefly in [17], Section 6.6.1; it is a shame that such improvements have not percolated into the standard PVS distribution. The TAME modeling environment [5] offers automation for timed automata models in PVS.

5.2 Introducing Automation to the Proofs

With the statistics of Figure 25 as a baseline, we can attempt to slim down the proofs by introducing additional automation. Two examples that occur quite frequently in the proofs are:

- **Using (case) to split up an implication.** The PVS command (split) splits a sequent with an implication as follows:

  \[(A \Rightarrow B) \vdash C \quad \text{becomes} \quad B \vdash C \land \vdash A\]

  This throws away the fact that \( A \) holds in the left branch of the proof; hence, we often use (case) and (assert) in order to achieve:

  \[(A \Rightarrow B) \vdash C \quad \text{becomes} \quad A, B \vdash C \land \vdash A\]

  By creating a tiny strategy (split*) that does this automatically, we achieve two things:

  1. The proof becomes shorter (in terms of user-entered steps)
  2. It becomes clearer where this technique is used, i.e. it distinguishes these frivolous uses of (case) from ones where real new facts are introduced.
Splitting a CASES statement. When confronted by a large CASES statement in a sequent (which is common in the proof of the biphase mark protocol, since we have many automata with fairly large transition relation expressions), it is often desirable to split it into one sequent for every case in the expression. This has the effect of examining each transition individually. Typically, the sequent appears as:

\{-1\} CASES R!i\text{events}(i!1) OF
  \begin{align*}
  \text{delay}(d) & : P1 \\
  \text{tick} & : P2 \\
  \end{align*}

... 

This can be reduced to a collection of sequents, one for each case in the expression, each with a specific event and transition predicate. For instance, the second sequent to prove here would be

\{-1\} tick?(R!i\text{events}(i!1))
\{-2\} P2

... 

This can be achieved by using \texttt{(lift-if)} to change the CASES statement into a collection of nested IFs, and then using \texttt{(split)} to split the IF statement repeatedly, with the liberal application of \texttt{(flatten)} and \texttt{(assert)} to massage the sequent into basic shape (or prove particular subgoals automatically). Automating this process in a single prover command \texttt{(auto-step)} gives us:

1. Shorter proofs
2. A more uniform structure of the proofs

We gain additional flexibility by automatically expanding local transition statements and by using the names of local transitions, instead of formula numbers. A typical application of the resulting strategy is to expand and simplify the local transition for the Coder with \texttt{(auto-step ('c "Coder"))}.

After re-doing the proofs with the additional automation (and with the knowledge that the first run of a proof in PVS is nearly always a bit messy), the proof statistics become much smaller. For invariant groups $P$, $Q$, $R$ and $T$ results are shown in Figure 26.

This 79% reduction in the number of proof steps is partly attributable to the increased automation afforded by the \texttt{(auto-step)} command. Some of the reduction can be attributed to the difference between finding a proof (the initial proof attempt) and polishing a proof for presentation. While applying the increased automation to the proof we also have the benefit of knowing how the proof is supposed to go, and we can judiciously prune the proof of less-than-optimal proof explorations. Additionally, it occurs fairly regularly that it is unclear whether some subtree in a proof can be proved easily; once the proof is done it is clear that \texttt{(grind)} would have done the job as well, so the re-run of a proof replaces whole subtrees with \texttt{(grind)}. 

27
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>SKOLEM</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPLIT*</td>
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<td><strong>390</strong></td>
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**Fig. 26.** Proof statistics for groups P, Q, R and T, before and after automation.
Once the structure of the PVS proofs for the biphase mark protocol was clear, additional automation was introduced in order to reduce the amount of steps used in doing the proofs. The comparisons of numbers of proof steps with and without the automation made in the previous section suggest what could have been. Future proofs with a similar structure may also benefit from this automation, using the new proof commands that were introduced:

- \((\text{split*})\) Handle implications in a nicer way than \((\text{split})\).
- \((\text{auto-start})\) Start an automaton proof by introducing local transition relations.
- \((\text{auto-step})\) Expand and rewrite a local transition relation.

There is a trade-off, though, when doing automated proofs, between brevity and comprehensibility. PVS's tremendously powerful \((\text{grind})\) command can reduce many proofs to one step, \(\text{once the proof has been found}\). Using \((\text{grind})\) when it is unclear that the lemma is sound is unwise, since it takes some time to grind its way through the proof, and then it can:

- Fail, returning you to the original proof state and requiring you to do the proof by hand anyway, or
- Give you 64 (or some other large number) bizarrely formed subgoals to prove.

Neither of these results of \((\text{grind})\) are really useful for advancing the proof itself. Therefore we feel that the use of \((\text{grind})\) should be restricted to those proofs that really are trivial. Somewhere in the middle lies the ideal, of a proof that is short enough to understand and not so thoroughly automated that it is unbelievable. The use of the UPPAAL model gives similar results: we know something is true, but not necessarily why or whether the fact is interesting.

Consider invariant \(G9\):

\[
G9(R,i) : \text{bool} =
\]
\[
\text{LET } D = R\text{'states}(i)'decoder, C = R\text{'states}(i)'coder, \]
\[
W = R\text{'states}(i)'wire, S = R\text{'states}(i)'sampler \text{IN}
\]
\[
D'loc = d2 \text{ AND } C'iv =⇒
\]
\[
\text{sample*min - mark*max } ≤ W'z \text{ AND } W'z ≤ (\text{cell-mark)*min ;}
\]

The important step in the proof of \(G9\) is the induction step, which is proven in the PVS lemma \(G1\):

\[
G1 : \text{LEMMA}
\]
\[
G9(R,i) \text{ AND } G3(R,i) \text{ AND } G7(R,i) \text{ AND } G2(R,i) \text{ AND } G6(R,i) =⇒ G9(R,i+1)
\]

The proof itself uses the earlier invariant \(Q3\), the parameter assumption from equation 3 (on page 12) and an additional lemma, called \(G11\). The proof itself has the following structure:

- Start with \((\text{auto-start})\).
- Expand \(G9\) itself.
For each automaton, use (auto-step) to rewrite its local transitions and prove trivial subcases.

Do a little rewriting and formula manipulation, introduce the additional invariants Q3 and Gi1 that are needed to prove each step.

Without automation, the proof of G9 took 179 steps, exploring blind alleys, over-using (assert), and doing formula manipulation the tedious way. With a little automation such as described in the previous section, the number of proof steps declined to 59. In this simplified proof the structure of examining each automaton’s local transitions was very visible. Further reflection, though, shows that the proof can be reduced to 5 steps:

(auto-start T) % Deal with base case.
(lemma "Gi1" ("i" "j:!1" "R" "R")) % Needed much later with this
(lemma "Q3" ("i" "j!:1" "R" "R")) % particular instantiation.
(use "SampleEarlyEnough")
(grind) % Let PVS do the work.

This particular proof is a good example of a type of proof commonly found in mathematics texts: “Use lemmata Gi1, Q3 and the parameter inequalities; the details are left to the interested reader.” In our context the interested reader is the PVS theorem prover, which works out the details. Now, this proof might be good for verification purposes but it is certainly not the kind of proof one can write on first setting out to prove a property like G9. It is also not the kind of proof you would want to present as a didactic example to show the kind of reasoning needed in a particular domain, but again, as a succinct demonstration of truth it is fine.

This suggests that we can distinguish three flavors of proof, created while reasoning about the biphase mark protocol:

1. Exploratory proofs when we do not know how to prove the lemma — or even if the lemma is true. These proofs use mostly basic commands from the PVS proof language and are rather lengthy, although each step is very basic.
2. Polished proofs, using some automation that is built around the specific domain being studied and the framework that is in use. With suitable (not overly case-specific) automation, the size of proofs can be reduced over 50%, while their comprehensibility is improved because we can (for instance) replace a scattered collection of (expand), (lift-if) and (split) with a single (consider-each-local-transition) proof command (although it is called (auto-step) in our automation attempt).
3. Proofs that are as short as possible, for the purpose of machine verification of the lemma. These are useful for re-checking a theory after changes have been incorporated, or as a basis for “details are left to the reader” expositions.

6 Playing with the Parameter Inequalities

Now that we have formally derived a number of constraints on the protocol parameters, it is interesting to explore the consequences of these results. An
implementor of BMP will probably have limited influence on the values of min, max and edgelength, but (s)he may freely choose the values of cell, mark and sample. For which values of these parameters is the bit rate maximal? Are the conventional implementation choices indeed the optimal ones?

Rather than the specific values for the lower bound min and upper bound max on the time between clock ticks, we find it convenient to consider the ratio

\[ \rho = \frac{\text{min}}{\text{max}} \]

Since \( 0 < \text{min} \leq \text{max} \), ratio \( \rho \) is contained in the interval \((0,1]\). If \( \rho = 1 \) we have perfect hardware clocks, and the closer \( \rho \) gets to 0, the more unreliable the clocks are. We also normalize the time edgelength with respect to the maximum time between clock ticks:

\[ E = \frac{\text{edgelength}}{\text{max}} \]

So \( E \) specifies the number of clock cycles the signal may remain distorted after occurrence of an edge. Now we can rewrite the parameter constraints (1), (2) and (3) into:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{mark} \cdot \rho & > 2 + E \\
\text{(sample} - 1) \cdot \rho & > \text{mark} + E \\
\text{cell} \cdot \rho & > \text{sample} + 2 + E
\end{align*}
\]

Since \( \rho \in (0,1] \) and \( E \geq 0 \), inequality (4) implies \( \text{mark} > 2 \). Using this fact in combination with inequality (5) implies \( \text{sample} > 3 \). Substituting this in inequality (6) gives \( \text{cell} > 5 \).

### 6.1 Minimizing the Cell Size (Assuming \( E = 1 \))

Moore [27] assumed that the uncertain values read from the signal due to the presence of an edge are limited to the time-span of the cycle during which the edge was written, that is he assumed \( \text{edgelength} = \text{max} \) or equivalently \( E = 1 \). With this additional assumption, the parameter inequalities further simplify to

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{mark} \cdot \rho & > 3 \\
\text{(sample} - 1) \cdot \rho & > \text{mark} + 1 \\
\text{cell} \cdot \rho & > \text{sample} + 3
\end{align*}
\]

Hence with \( \rho \) close to 1 the minimal values for the other parameters are

\begin{align*}
\text{mark} & = 4 \\
\text{sample} & = 7 \\
\text{cell} & = 11
\end{align*}

Implementors prefer to use instances of BMP with

\[ \text{cell} = 2 \cdot \text{mark} \]
since this implies that the signal on the wire will be high approximately 50% of the time and low 50% of the time, which is desirable from an electrical engineering perspective ("DC balanced"). With this additional requirement, the minimal values become

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{mark} &= 7 \\
\text{sample} &= 10 \\
\text{cell} &= 14.
\end{align*}
\]

These unconventional choices permit a faster bit rate (since fewer cycles are spent on each bit) than the conventional choices

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{mark} &= 16 \\
\text{sample} &= 23 \\
\text{cell} &= 32, \\
\text{mark} &= 8 \\
\text{sample} &= 11 \\
\text{cell} &= 16.
\end{align*}
\]

The next lemma states that if we assume that the cell size is twice the mark size, inequality 4 becomes redundant.

**Lemma 1.** Inequality (4) follows from (in)equalities (10), (5), (6), \( E \geq 0 \) and \( \rho \in (0,1] \).

**Proof.** We derive:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{mark} \cdot \rho &\overset{(10),(6)}{\geq} \text{sample} - \text{mark} \cdot \rho + 2 + E \\
\rho \in (0,1] &\overset{=}{} \text{sample} \cdot \rho - \text{mark} + 2 + E \\
&\overset{(5)}{\geq} \text{mark} + E - \text{mark} + 2 + E \\
&\overset{E \geq 0}{\geq} 2 + E.
\end{align*}
\]

### 6.2 Maximizing the Clock Tolerance

By combining constraints (4), (5) and (6) we infer a lower bound on \( \rho \), that is, the maximal tolerance on timing:

\[
\rho > \max\left( \frac{2 + E}{\text{mark}}, \frac{\text{mark} + E}{\text{sample} - 1}, \frac{\text{sample} + 2 + E}{\text{cell}} \right) \tag{11}
\]

Figure 27 lists lower bounds for \( \rho \) for some example configurations, assuming \( E = 1 \). These numbers can be easily validated using the UpPAAAL model checker. Our results significantly improve on those of Moore [27], who obtained (for a model that is less general) a lower bound of 0.95 for \( \rho \) for the 18-cycle version of BMP, and a lower bound of 0.97 for the conventional 32-cycle version. Typical clocks used in hardware are incorrect by less than \( 6 \cdot 10^{-6} \) seconds per second [14]. Thus,

\[
\rho \geq \frac{1 - 6 \cdot 10^{-6}}{1 + 6 \cdot 10^{-6}} \approx 0.99999.
\]

This means that in practice there is no need to optimize on the lower bound for \( \rho \).
Fig. 27. Lower bound on $\rho$ for some example configurations (with $E = 1$).

6.3 Maximizing the Edge Distortion Tolerance

From a practical perspective, it is interesting to look for the maximal value for $E$, since, as we will see in the next subsection, this will allow us to optimize the bit rate. Using inequalities (4), (5) and (6) we infer that $E$ may take any value as long as:

$$E < \min(\text{mark} \cdot \rho - 2, (\text{sample} - 1) \cdot \rho - \text{mark}, \text{cell} \cdot \rho - \text{sample} - 2) \quad (12)$$

Figure 28 lists upper bounds for $E$ for some example configurations, taking a value 0.999 for $\rho$. If cell $= 2 \cdot \max$ then, by Lemma 1, the minimal value for

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>cell</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>32</th>
<th>18</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mark</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sample</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\rho$</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 28. Upper bound on $E$ for some example configurations (with $\rho = 0.999$).

the right hand side of inequality (12) is reached by either the second or third subterm of the min-expression. Since sample occurs positively in the second term and negatively in the third term, the choice of a real number value for sample that maximizes $E$ for this case is the one for which the second and third term are equal:

$$(\text{sample} - 1) \cdot \rho - \text{mark} = \text{cell} \cdot \rho - \text{sample} - 2.$$  

The optimal (in the sense that it maximizes $E$) choice for sample therefore is

$$\frac{\text{cell} \cdot \rho + \text{mark} + \rho - 2}{1 + \rho}$$

This optimal value is typically slightly less than $\frac{3\text{mark} - 1}{2}$ since

$$\frac{3\text{mark} - 1}{2} - \frac{\text{cell} \cdot \rho + \text{mark} + \rho - 2}{1 + \rho} = \frac{(1 - \rho)(m + 3)}{2(1 + \rho)} \geq 0$$

Using this observation, we may infer that (for realistic values of $\rho$ and $m$, say $\rho \geq 0.999$ and $m \leq 1000$):
— if mark is odd then a strict upper bound on the value for $E$ is $4\frac{\text{mark}^2 - 3\text{mark} - 3}{2}$.

If we choose for sample the (integer) value $\frac{3\text{mark} - 1}{2}$ then $E$ may take any value below this upper bound.

— if mark is even then a strict upper bound on the value for $E$ is $\frac{3\text{mark}^2 - 2\text{mark} - 4\rho}{2}$.

If we choose for sample the (integer) value $\frac{3\text{mark} - 2}{2}$ then $E$ may take any value below this upper bound.

We write $E_{\text{opt}}(\text{mark})$ for the upper bound on the value of $E$ for mark size mark, and $\text{sample}_{\text{opt}}(\text{mark})$ for the optimal choice for sample given mark. In all examples of Figure 28 with cell = $2 \cdot \text{max}$ the actual value of sample equals the optimal value (in the sense that it maximizes the upper bound on $E$) that we derived.

6.4 Optimizing the Bit Rate

We can now generalize the results from Section 6.1 to a setting with arbitrary $E$. If we know $E$ and $\rho$ then in order to optimize the bit rate we need to find the instance of BMP with the smallest cell size that is correct. To obtain this instance, we just take the smallest $m$ with $E_{\text{opt}}(m) > E$ and then set cell to $2m$, mark to $m$, and sample to $\text{sample}_{\text{opt}}(m)$.

Based on our model we conclude that the 14-cycle instance of BMP is preferable over the 16-cycle instance that has been implemented in the Intel 82530 Serial Communications Controller. The 14-cycle version of the protocol allows for a more than 14% faster bit rate, but has basically the same tolerance for signal distortion following an edge. Also, the 30-cycle instance of BMP probably is preferable over the conventional 32-cycle version: it has almost the same tolerance for signal distortion after an edge ($E = 5.97$ if $\rho = 0.999$) but allows for a more than 6% faster bit rate. Note however that our model is quite abstract and ignores various engineering realities like metastability, reflection, noise and distortion. Like Moore [27], we offer our model primarily as a catalyst for thought. It is up to the engineers to decide whether our model is accurate enough for the purposes at hand.

7 Related Work and Concluding Remarks

Related Work A main source of inspiration for this article has been the work of Moore [27]. The basic modeling assumptions that we use are similar to the ones proposed by Moore, although our model is somewhat more general: unlike Moore we allow for clock jitter in our model, and we also drop Moore’s assumption that the distortion in the signal due to the presence of an edge is limited to the time-span of the cycle during which the edge was written. Moore [27] developed a general model of asynchronous communication and used this model to verify the correctness of 18 and 32 cycle instances of BMP. Interestingly, Moore did not succeed in establishing correctness of the 16 cycle instance that has been implemented by Intel. As we pointed out in Section 6.2, the bounds on timing uncertainty found by Moore are suboptimal.
Model checkers for timed and hybrid automata have been used successfully to analyze various physical level communication protocols for consumer electronics devices [9,16,20,6,18]. Since these protocols typically use variations of biphase mark (e.g., Manchester) an obvious idea was to try to recast Moore’s work in a setting of timed or hybrid automata. A first attempt in this direction was made by Ivanov & Griffioen [25], who automatically verified a few instances of BMP using the model checker HyTech. Their model is somewhat restrictive, however, since for instance sampling was only allowed at the end of a read cycle. In September 1999, the first author (FV) constructed the UPPAAL model that has been described in this paper (with only a few minor differences), and gave a presentation of this model and the derived parameter constraints during a symposium on the occasion of the retirement of Hans Peek as professor at the University of Nijmegen. After model and slides were made available on the web, several researchers took up the challenge to synthesize the parameter constraints automatically. Bensalem et al [7] propose algorithms and methods to compute invariants of infinite-state systems. Using their approach they managed to synthesize versions of the last two parameter constraints for a simplified version of our model in which the Wire and Sampler automaton have been left out. The first parameter constraint is not needed in the simplified model. Henzinger, Preussig and Wong-Toi [19] succeeded to partially synthesize our parameter constraints for BMP (they always had to fix some parameter) by running HyTech on a manually constructed abstraction of the model.

An independent line of research was carried out by Van Hung [23,22]. In this work, the BMP has been modelled using Duration Calculus, and a full parameter analysis has been carried out with PVS. Van Hung models beginning and end of transmission, but assumes fixed clock rates (no jitter). The parameter inequalities discovered by Van Hung are similar to ours but with some “off by one” differences. Apparently, these differences are caused by some counterintuitive property of the Duration Calculus model: if the coder generates an edge, then the signal on the wire will be unreliable for \( E \) cycles (RR in Van Hung’s terminology) starting from the last tick of the receiver clock. We believe our timed automaton model is more realistic.

Conclusions: A fascinating question for us is whether our results about possible improvements of bit rates of the biphase mark protocol carry over from our model to the real world. Although we believe that our model accurately reflects the operation of some implementations of BPM (such as Intel 82530), there are other implementations in which the receiver operates in a slightly different manner. In the popular AMD 85C30 Serial Communications Controller [1], for instance, clock information is recovered from the BPM signal using a digital phase-locked loop (DPLL). The DPLL is driven by a clock that is nominally 16 times the data rate. The DPLL uses this clock, along with the BPM signal, to construct a receive clock for the data. Depending on the precise timing of edges, the receive clock counter can be adjusted. To describe this mechanism accurately would require an adaptation of our model. Apart from investigating this issue,
another obvious direction for future research is to carry out a similar analysis for the Manchester encoding protocol as it is used in e.g. the Ethernet.

UPPAAL has turned out to be an (almost) perfect tool for this type of application. Modelling the biphase mark protocol in terms of networks of timed automata is very natural, the graphical user interface helps to visualize the automata, the simulator is a great help during the initial validation of the model, and the ability of UPPAAL to generate counterexamples and to replay them in the simulator greatly helped to increase our insight in the protocol.

Several authors have explored extensions of timed automata tools that are able to handle parametrized timed automata and to verify/synthesize parameter constraints [21,4,13]. We have arrived at the conclusion that this is probably not the way to go. Adding the feature of parameter handling to model checkers greatly affects performance and reduces the size of the systems that can be handled. Still, generation of nonlinear constraints (like in the case of BMP) turns out to be difficult. The ability to handle complex models is essential for the success of model checking technology. The protocol discussed in the present article is very simple, but even in this case adding additional features such as termination, bus collisions, and a more accurate modelling of the hardware would probably push UPPAAL to its limits. In our experience, it is typically easy to come up with general parameter constraints (linear or nonlinear) based on the counterexamples produced by UPPAAL. The challenge therefore is to verify correctness of the parametrized system while assuming these constraints. For this, the most promising approach in our view is via a translation of the UPPAAL model to a general purpose theorem prover such as PVS and exploitation of powerful invariant generation methods such as the ones proposed by [8,7]. For practical reasons and also because we had already a manual proof of the invariants available, we just used PVS and not any of the additional invariant generation methods.

The proof of the correctness of the biphase mark protocol in PVS is required since the collection of UPPAAL invariants alone is not enough to establish that the parameter constraints are necessary and sufficient for the correctness of the protocol. The formalization in PVS revealed a small omission in the invariants from the manual proof and enabled us to establish global correctness of the protocol for all of its instances. Additionally, we show how a small effort in the automation of proofs can produce great improvements in proof size and readability.

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