Verifying Real-time Commit Protocols Using Dense-time Model Checking Technology *

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Abstract. The timed-based automata model, introduced by Alur and Dill, provides a useful formalism for describing real-time systems. Over the last two decades, several dense-time model checking tools have been developed based on that model. The paper considers the verification of real-time distributed commit protocols using dense-time model checking technology. More precisely, we model and verify the well-known timed two phase commit protocol in three different state-of-the-art real-time model checkers: UPPAAL, Rabbit, and RED, and compare the results.

1 Introduction

Real time systems are currently being used in many safety critical applications such as computer-controlled medical devices, air traffic control systems, and real-time database systems. Ensuring the correctness of real-time systems is a challenging task. This is mainly because the correctness of real-time systems depends on the actual times at which events occur. Moreover, these systems involve interactions of a number of concurrent components that have a high level of complexity. Such interactions might lead to many subtle or undesirable situations if they are not considered carefully. Hence, real-time systems need to be rigorously modeled and verified in order to formally prove their correctness with respect to the desired properties. It is well-known that only formal methods of verifications can guarantee that the system meets its desired properties. One of the well-known formal verification techniques is the model checking technique

Model checking is an automated method for verifying finite state systems. Model checking has been successfully used to find non-trivial errors in hardware designs, distributed systems, and security protocols. Applying model checking to prove the correctness of a system design consists of three formal independent steps, which are modeling, specification, and verification. Model checking uses a variety of sophisticated heuristics and symbolic implementation techniques to check that a logical formula holds in the given system design. Typically, formulas are expressed using logics such as temporal logic, belief logic, or epistemic logic, while the system will be expressed as a set of states (finite number of states) and a set of transitions. When the system fails to meet a desired property, the

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model checker produces a counterexample that helps to identify the source of
the error in the system design.

Because of time constraints in real-time systems, traditional model checking
approaches based on finite state automata and temporal logic are not suffi-
cient. Since they can not capture the time requirements of real-time systems
upon which the correctness of these systems relies. Developing formal methods
for verifying real-time systems has been an active area of research. Several re-
searchers have proposed different modeling formalisms for describing real-time
systems such as timed transition systems [19], timed I/O automata [17], and
timed automata model [4]. Although a number of formalisms have been pro-
posed, the **timed automata model** of Alur, Courcoubetis, and Dill [4] has become
the standard. In fact the majority of the existing dense-time model checking
tools in the literature are based on this model. Examples include UPPAAL [7],
KRONOS [13], RED [25], and Rabbit [9].

In this paper we consider the application of dense-timed model checking to
real-time distributed commit protocols. In general, commit protocols can be clas-
sified into conventional (non-real-time) commit protocols and real-time commit
protocols. In conventional commit protocols such as the classical two phase com-
mit protocol (2PC) [8], processes need to coordinate with each other in order
to reach a common decision on whether or not to commit the transaction, but
there is no strict or hard time constraints on agreement. On the other hand, in
real-time commit protocols, all processes should commit the transaction before
the deadline expires or all of them should abort immediately upon dead line ex-
piry. So real-time transaction protocols should satisfy data consistency as well as
they must satisfy timing constraints associated with transaction. Model checking
has frequently been used to verify conventional commit protocols [20,6,15,21].
In comparison, little work has been done on model checking real-time commit
protocols.

In this contribution, we conduct a comparative study of a number of model
checking tools, based on a variety of approaches to representing real-time sys-
tems. We have selected one specific practical real-time commit protocol, the **timed two phase commit protocol** [12], implemented it in quite different ‘dense’
timed model checkers, and verified its relevant properties. Specifically, we con-
sider the model checkers UPPAAL, Rabbit and RED. UPPAAL deals with the
is a model checker based on timed automata extended with concepts for
modular modeling and performs reachability analysis using BDD based algo-
rithm. RED is a model checker with dense-time models based on CRD (Clock-
Restriction Diagrams) algorithm. Analysing the protocol using these tools re-
quires us to learn the modelling and the specification language of the tools,
which allows us to discover the capabilities and the limitations of these tools.
Moreover, it allows us to compare the efficiency and the performance of the
algorithms and data structures implemented in these tools.

All three implementations were carried out on the same verification server
in order to obtain results that can be used to compare the performance of these
tools. RED outperformed both UPPAAL and Rabbit in terms of performance, scalability, and expressivity of its specification language. Unlike UPPAAL and Rabbit, RED supports full TCTL language and allows verifying formulas with nested temporal modalities. Heuristics used in RED allowed us to verify the protocol for a large number of processes and great number of clocks. During our analysis we have been able to discover some interesting conclusions about the protocol. In particular, we find that the central property of the protocol, the data consistency property, might be temporarily broken during the execution of the protocol. However, when the protocol does terminate, we find that the consistency is preserved.

The structure of the paper as follows. Section 2 describes the concept of a real-time distributed system and gives an informal description for the timed two phase commit protocol. Section 3 describes briefly the theory of timed automata and the timed temporal logic. Sections 4 to 6 are dedicated to the implementation of the protocol in the model checkers, respectively, UPPAAL, Rabbit, and RED. We discuss correctness conditions of the protocol in Section 7. In Section 8 we formalise the specifications of the protocol in the input language of each model checker. Section 9 discusses the verification results of the protocol. Section 10 compares the performance results of the three tools. We discuss related work in Section 11 and conclude in Section 12.

2 Real-time Distributed Transaction Protocols

Real-time database systems are transaction processing systems that are designed to handle transactions that have real-time constraints (deadlines). These systems can be said to be failed if they cannot complete within their deadline. In distributed real-time transaction protocols, all processes should commit the transaction before the deadline expires or all of them should abort immediately upon deadline expiry. There are many database applications that have real-time constraints. Examples include web-based auctions, medical records, reservation systems, and banking information systems. Several commit protocols have been proposed to handle real-time transactions such as Timed Two Phase Commit (T2PC) protocol [12], PROMPT commit protocol [14], the deadline-driven conflict resolution protocol [18], and the double space commit protocol [22]. This paper analyses the T2PC protocol as a case study on real-time commit protocols using three state-of-the-art dense-timed model checkers.

The T2PC protocol aims to maintain data consistency of all distributed database systems as well as having to satisfy the time constraints of the transaction under processing. The protocol is mainly based on the well-known two phase commit (2PC) protocol, but it incorporates several intermediate deadlines in order to be able to handle real-time transactions. We describe first the basic 2PC protocol (without deadlines) and then discuss how it can be modified to be used for real-time transactions. The 2PC protocol can be summarised as follows [8].
A set of processes \( \{p_1, \ldots, p_n\} \) prepare to involve in a distributed transaction. Each process has been given its own subtransaction. One of the processes will act as a coordinator and all other processes are participants. The protocol proceeds into two phases. In the first phase (voting phase), the coordinator broadcasts a start message to all the participants, and then waits to receive vote messages from the participants. The participant will vote to commit the transaction if all its local computations regarding the transaction have been completed successfully; otherwise, it will vote to abort. In the second phase (commit phase), if the coordinator received the votes of all the participants, it decides and broadcasts the decision. If all the votes are ‘yes’ then the coordinator will decide to commit the result of the transaction. However, if one vote said ‘no’, then the coordinator will decide to abort the transaction. After sending the decision, the coordinator waits to receive a COMPLETION messages from all the participants. The protocol terminates whenever the coordinator receives all COMPLETION messages successfully.

For the above 2PC protocol, let \( S \) be the absolute start time of the protocol, and \( D \) be the absolute deadline. For each of the participants, let \( t_i \) be the maximum time needed to receive a decision message from the coordinator, perform the commit or abort action, and send a completion message to the coordinator. We will call the largest of all the \( t_i \) the \( \tau_{\text{max}} \). For the coordinator, let \( \tau_d \) be the maximum amount of time needed to receive the votes of all the participants, process them, and make a decision; and \( \tau_f \) be the maximum amount of time needed to receive the completion signal from all the participants. We will use \( \Delta \) to denote the bound on execution of \textit{send}, and \( \Delta^* \) to denote the bound on execution of broadcast (\textit{send-all}).

The following intermediate deadlines have been added to the basic 2PC protocol in order to be able to handle real-time transactions [12]:

- \( D_p = D - \Delta - \tau_f \): deadline for sending a completion message by a participant. Each participant must complete the commit or abort action and send the completion message within \( \Delta \) time unit, so that the coordinator still has enough time to process it with at most \( \tau_f \) time units before the expiry of \( D \).
- \( DEC = D_p - \tau_{\text{max}} - \Delta^* \): deadline for sending a decision by the coordinator. This represents the maximum message delay for the broadcast decision to arrive the participant.
- \( V = DEC - \Delta - \tau_d \): deadline for a participant to vote. The participant must vote and send the vote to the coordinator before the \( DEC \) timer expires.
- \( [LST_i, D_p] \): the time interval during which \( P_i \) requests a reserve of \( t_i \) time units of resources needed to perform the decided-upon action.

Note that the correctness of the T2PC protocol depends mainly on the way we select the values of the above timing parameters. In particular, the coordinator should choose the value of \( D \) to be sufficiently long to allow the participants to receive the start message and return the completion message in time for the coordinator to determine the result. The correctness of the protocol depends also on a condition that a fair scheduling policy is imposed, this condition is
necessary in order to avoid situations in which some participants may miss the
deadline if they schedule to execute until after the deadline \( D \).

The basic 2PC protocol (without deadlines and timers) has been extensively
studied and analysed using model checking \([20,15,21]\). However, no work has
been done on model checking the real-time version of the protocol (T2PC).
Of course, analysing real-time commit protocols is much harder than analysing
conventional commit protocols since real-time protocols usually involve many
timers in their design which increase the algorithmic complexity of the analysis.

3 Timed Automata and Real-time Temporal Logic

In this section we describe briefly the semantics of timed automata and then
discuss the syntax and the semantics of TCTL logic.

Timed automata are an extension of the classical finite state automata with
clock variables to model timing aspects \([4]\). The theory of timed automata pro-
vides a powerful formalism to model and verify real-time systems. Systems whose
correctness depend on strict timing constraints such as response time, deadlines,
communication delay can be easily described using the timed automata model.
Research on timed automata theory has been an intensive field of research since
it was introduced in 1990. Although a number of formalisms have been proposed
to model timed systems, the timed automata model has become the standard.
We therefore find that the majority of the existing real-time model checking
tools in the literature are based on this model. Examples include UPPAAL \([7]\),
KRONOS \([13]\), RED \([25]\), and Rabbit \([9]\).

We begin by briefly reviewing some basic definitions of the timed automaton
model proposed by Alur and Dill \([4]\) and the transition systems that underlies
its semantics.

Definition 1. Given a set \( X \) of clock variables, the set \( \Phi(X) \) of clock constraints
\( \phi \) is defined by the following grammar

\[
\phi ::= x \sim c \mid \phi_1 \land \phi_2
\]

where \( x \in X \), \( c \in \mathbb{N} \), and \( \sim \in \{<,\leq,=,>,\geq\} \).

A clock interpretation \( v \) for a set \( X \) is a mapping from \( X \) to \( \mathbb{R}^+ \) where \( \mathbb{R}^+ \)
denotes the set of nonnegative real numbers including zero.

Definition 2. A timed automaton \( A \) is a tuple \((\Sigma,S,S_0,X,E)\), where

- \( \Sigma \) is a finite set of actions.
- \( S \) is a finite set of states.
- \( S_0 \) is a finite set of initial states.
- \( X \) is a finite set of clocks.
- \( E \subseteq S \times S \times \Sigma \times 2^X \times \Phi(C) \) is a finite set of transitions. An edge \((s,s',a,\lambda,\sigma)\)
represents a transition from state \( s \) to state \( s' \) after performing action \( a \). The
set \( \lambda \subseteq C \) gives the clocks to be reset with this transition, and \( \sigma \) is a clock
constraint over \( C \).
The semantics of a timed automaton \((\Sigma, S, S_0, X, E)\) is defined by associating a transition systems with it. With each transition a clock constraint is associated. The transition can be taken only if the clock constraint on the transition is satisfied. There are two basic types of transitions:

1. delay transitions that model the elapse of time while staying at some location,
2. action transitions that execute an edge of the automata.

A state \((l, v)\) or configuration consists of the current location and the current values of clocks. The initial state is \((l_0, v_0)\) where \(v_0(x) = 0\) for all \(x \in X\). A timed action is a pair \((t, a)\) where \(a \in \Sigma\) is an action performed by an Automata \(A\) after \(t \in \mathbb{R}^+\) time units since \(A\) has been started. Complex systems can be described as a set of timed automata executing in parallel. A network of timed automata can be expressed as \(A = \langle A_1, ..., A_2 \rangle\) where \(A_i\) is a timed automaton.

**Definition 3.** An execution of a timed automata \(A = (\Sigma, S, S_0, X, E)\) with an initial state \((l_0, v_0)\) over a timed trace \(\zeta = (t_1, a_1), (t_2, a_2), (t_3, a_3), ..\) is a sequence of transitions:

\[
\langle l_0, v_0 \rangle \xrightarrow{d_1} a_1 \xrightarrow{d_2} a_2 (l_2, v_2) \xrightarrow{d_3} a_3 (l_3, v_3)...
\]

satisfying the condition \(t_i = t_{i-1} + d_i\) for all \(i \geq 1\). □

The transition system in timed automata is infinite as clocks are real-valued, therefore timed automata models can not be directly model checked. However, there exist methods to reduce the infinite state space of timed systems to finite space while preserving properties of interest. Examples of abstraction methods include the region [3] and zone [1] methods.

Analysing the behaviour of timed systems requires to verify whether they satisfy the timing properties that they are supposed to satisfy. Verification techniques based on classical temporal logic are inadequate for real-time systems since they lack the expressiveness to capture quantitative temporal constraints upon which the correctness of these systems relies. An easy and effective way to allow the verification of dense-time properties is to add bounds in the CTL temporal operators. The extended logic is called TCTL [2]. The expressive power of TCTL is similar to the CTL but it incorporates time-constrained modalities in order to specify timing properties. Using this logic we can specify properties like event \(e_1\) has to occur after 10 time units after event \(e_2\) occurred. The syntax of TCTL logic can be given by the following definition.

**Definition 4.** *(Syntax of timed computation tree logic)* Let \(A\) be a timed automaton with set of clocks \(X\) and set of propositions \(\text{Prop}\), and let \(Z\) be a set of clocks disjoint with \(X\). The set of formulas of TCTL is defined by the following grammar:

\[
\psi ::= p \mid \phi \mid \neg \psi \mid \psi_1 \lor \psi_2 \mid E[\psi_1 U \psi_2] \mid A[\psi_1 U \psi_2]
\]

where \(p \in \text{Prop}, z \in Z,\) and \(\phi\) is a clock constraint as defined in Definition 1. □
Before we discuss the formal semantics of TCTL, let us introduce some
tnotations. A position \( m \) of a run \( r \in \mathcal{R}_A \) is a pair \( (i, \sigma) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{R}^+ \). The set of
positions of the form \( (i, \sigma) \) characterizes the set of states through which the run
\( r \) passes while time flows from state \( q_i \) to state \( q_{i+1} \). We use the notation \( \sim \) to
refer to one of the following relations \( \{<, \leq, =, >, \geq \} \). The formulas of TCTL are
interpreted over the states of a model. The propositions and the clock variables
of a TCTL formula \( \varphi \) are evaluated in states.

**Definition 5. (Semantics of TCTL)** Let \( M \) be a model and let \( q \in \Sigma_M \) be
a state that is reachable in \( M \). The state \( q \) satisfies the TCTL formula \( \varphi \) in
\( M \), denoted by \( q \models_M \varphi \), if \( q \models_{M,\emptyset} \varphi \) for the empty clock environment \( \emptyset \). We
define the semantics of the logic by means of a satisfaction relation \( M \models \varphi \). This
satisfaction relation is defined inductively as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
q \models x \sim c & \quad \text{iff } v(x) \sim c \\
q \models x - y \sim c & \quad \text{iff } v(x) - v(y) \sim c \\
q \models b & \quad \text{iff } b \in L(q) \\
q \models \neg \varphi & \quad \text{iff } q \not\models \varphi \\
q \models \varphi_1 \lor \varphi_2 & \quad \text{iff } q \models \varphi_1 \text{ or } q \models \varphi_2 \\
q \models \varphi_1 \exists U \varphi_2 & \quad \text{iff for some trajectory } q' \in M \text{ with } q'(0,0) = q,
\text{there exists a position } (i,\delta) \text{ of } q' \text{ such that } q'(i,\delta) \models_{M,\tau(i,\delta)} \varphi_2 \text{ and }
\text{for all positions } (j,\epsilon) \text{ of } q', \text{ if } (j,\epsilon) \trianglelefteq (i,\delta) \text{ then } q'(j,\epsilon) \models_{M,\tau(j,\epsilon)} \varphi_1 \lor \varphi_2. \\
q \models \varphi_1 \forall U \varphi_2 & \quad \text{iff for some trajectory } q' \in M \text{ with } q'(0,0) = q,
\text{there exists a position } (i,\delta) \text{ of } q' \text{ such that } q'(i,\delta) \models_{M,\tau(i,\delta)} \varphi_2 \text{ and }
\text{for all positions } (j,\epsilon) \text{ of } q', \text{ if } (j,\epsilon) \trianglelefteq (i,\delta) \text{ then } q'(j,\epsilon) \models_{M,\tau(j,\epsilon)} \varphi_1 \lor \varphi_2.
\end{align*}
\]

The basic TCTL operator in the above definition is the until operator which
can be used to define the time interval in which the property should be true. As
an example of the use of TCTL, consider the property “It is always true that \( e_1 \)
may be followed by \( e_2 \) within 10 time units”. This property can be expressed in
TCTL as \( \text{AG} (e_1 \Rightarrow [true \ U_{0,10}] e_2) \).

## 4 UPPAAL Model Checker

UPPAAL \[7\] is a model checker for real-time systems developed in conjunction
by Uppsala University, Sweden, and Aalborg University, Denmark. It extends
the basic timed automata with features for concurrency, communication, data
variables, and priority. The current version of the tool is 4.1.4 and it is freely
available at [http://www.uppaal.com](http://www.uppaal.com). UPPAAL uses a dense-time model to
describe systems, where each clock variable evaluates to a real number. An UP-
PAAL model is a parallel composition of all of its timed automata. All automata
start at its initial state (location) and run independently of each other unless
synchronization with other automata is required. A transition is enabled when all
enabling conditions are evaluated to true and all the synchronization statements
are executed. If more than one transitions are enabled, one of them is chosen non-deterministically. In addition to binary synchronisation, UPPAAL supports also urgent and broadcast synchronisation. Synchronisation on urgent channels should occur as soon as both components are enabled. Note that in transitions with urgent channels, guards can not have clock constraints. A broadcast channel allows a process (component) to synchronise with more than one component at the same time. Note that broadcast channels in UPPAAL are non-blocking in the sense that if a process has a transition with a!, where a is declared as a broadcast channel, then a! can be performed even when no a? action is enabled on any of the processes of the system.

UPPAAL uses a client-server architecture which splits the tool into a graphical user interface (client) and a model checking engine (server). The user interface consists of three main sections: system editor, simulator, and verifier. The editor allows the user to model the system as a network of timed automata. The simulator gives the user the capability to interactively run the system to check if there are some trivial errors in the system design. The verifier allows the user to enter the properties to be verified in a restricted language of CTL. UPPAAL can verify safety, bounded liveness, and reachability properties. UPPAAL uses fragment of TCTL language and it does not support the direct verification of bounded response properties.

4.1 The Protocol in UPPAAL

The coordinator template is depicted in Figure 1. Initially, the coordinator attempts to reserve a CPU time slot via sending a reservation request signal to the CPU resource manager (see Figure 3) using the channel reserve[rsc_id] indexed with the resource to be allocated. If the CPU is busy in executing other tasks, the manager will add the coordinator process to the waiting queue. Otherwise, it will send immediately the process to the CPU for processing. When the manager receives a finished signal from the CPU indicates that the CPU has finished processing the current process and it is currently in an idle state, the manager will send the process at the front of the queue (if any) to the CPU for processing. The abstract model of the CPU (see Figure 4) has two locations idle and InUse which reflects the status of the CPU. When it receives a ready[pid] signal from process pid, it moves from idle to InUse, and then returns from InUse to idle after the determined execution time is completed. If the resource (CPU) is granted (rsc_granted ==true), the coordinator initiates the protocol via broadcasting a start message to all the participants. The coordinator then waits to receive the votes of the participants. If V time units passed before receiving all the votes, the coordinator decides to abort and then terminate. Otherwise, it will move to location m2 at which it decides and broadcast the decision. A function result(part_vote) returns the result of the transaction based on the values of the received votes. The coordinator broadcasts this result using the broadcast channel fin_result and the global variable outcome. The coordinator then moves to location m3 at which it waits to receive the completion messages of the participants. If Dp time units passed before receiving all
completion messages, it decides to abort and then terminate. The protocol ends successfully at location \textit{finished} at which the coordinator updates its database server assuming that the clock \(x\) does not exceed the deadline \(D\).

The template of the participants is depicted in Figure 2. All the participants start their execution at location \textit{idle} where they wait to receive a \textit{start} signal from the coordinator. Once they receive that signal, each participant \(i\) will try to reserve \(t_i\) time units via signalling the resource manager component. If the CPU is busy at that time, it will join the waiting queue until it gets executed. If the deadline \(V\) expired before sending their votes to the coordinator they decide to abort and then terminate. Each participant then moves to location \(r2\) at which it waits to receive the decision of the coordinator. If it does not receive it within \(DEC\) time units, it decides to abort the transaction and terminate. Otherwise, it sets its \texttt{comp} variable to true and moves to location \(r4\) where it updates its database server and terminates.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{coordinator_template.png}
\caption{The coordinator template}
\end{figure}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{participant_template.png}
\caption{The participant template}
\end{figure}

5 Rabbit Model Checker

Rabbit [9] is a model checking tool for real-time systems. The theoretical foundation of the tool is mainly based on timed automata extended with concepts for
modular modeling. This tool has been developed by Dirk Beyer and his research group at the University of Passau, Germany. The current version of the tool is 2.1. The tool is freely available at http://www.sosy-lab.org/~dbeyer/Rabbit. The tool deals with timed systems using BDD data structure and uses some heuristic techniques to compute good variable orderings of the model and an estimate of the BDD size. Rabbit has been designed to be able to handle large systems in an efficient way and it supports the following features:

- Modular Modeling. Rabbit uses modular extension of timed automata called Cottbus Timed Automata (CTA). That is, the automata are encapsulated by modules. Each module in the model has an explicit interface that contains variables and synchronisation labels that are used to allow the module to communicate with other modules. In Rabbit we can declare models in a hierarchical structure in the sense that modules in the model can contain other modules.

- Reachability Analysis. Rabbit uses an efficient approach for analysing reachability properties of timed automata. It uses a symbolic approach based on BDD data structure as a representation of the explored state space.

- Refinement Checking. Rabbit verifies large systems via replacing their concrete models with more abstract ones. It uses simulation-based techniques to show that both models, the concrete and the abstract one, have the same behaviour.

We now give an informal description of the formalism of Cottbus Timed Automata (CTA), which is used in the modeling language of Rabbit.

A CTA system consists of a set of modules that can be defined in a hierarchical way. One of them (the one at the top of the hierarchy) is used to model the whole system. The other modules are used as templates.

Each module in the system model should have the following components:

- An identifier. Identifiers are used to name the modules within the system description. Using identifiers we can create several instances of the modules associated with these identifiers.
– An Interface. The interface of a module contains the declarations of the variables that are used in that module. In a CTA module, we can declare clock variables, discrete variables, and synchronisation labels.

• Synchronisation labels. Sometimes called signals which are used to synchronise timed automata that exist in different modules in the system. The concept of synchronisation labels in modules is very similar to the concept of events in CSP.

• Variables. Rabbit allows us to declare both continuous (clock) variables and discrete variables. The values of these variables can be updated using assignment statements in the transition rules of the automaton.

– A timed automaton. Each module contains a timed automaton. The automaton consists of a finite set of states, a finite set of transitions, and a set of synchronisation labels. In CTA language, a process transition is declared as a transition rule which starts with the keyword TRANS, while the locations of the automaton are declared using the keyword STATE.

– Initial condition. This is a formula over the module variables and the states of the module's automaton, which specifies the initial state of the module.

– Instances. In CTA model, a module can contain instances of the other defined modules in the model. This is useful when we model systems containing subsystems, and that these subsystems occur several times in a system.

The textual description of the protocol in the Rabbit input language is given in Appendix A.

6 RED Model Checker

RED [25] stands for (Region-Encoding Diagrams) is a TCTL model checker for real-time systems. This model checker has been designed and developed by Farn Wang and colleagues at the National Tawian University. The current version of the tool is 5.0. The RED tool is available for free at [http://cc.ee.ntu.edu.tw/~farn](http://cc.ee.ntu.edu.tw/~farn). An interesting feature of the RED model checker is that it is totally based on symbolic technology with BDD-like diagrams. RED now supports varieties of data-structures, which can be described as follows.

– Timed automata with CRD (Clock-Restriction Diagram) technology,
– linear hybrid automata with HRD (Hybrid-Restriction Diagram) technology,
– MDD-based diagrams which stands for multi-value decision diagrams and is very much like BDD except that variables are now decimal and arcs are labeled with value intervals.

In RED, systems are described as parametrized communicating timed automata (CTA), where processes can be model processes, specification processes, or environment processes. In a system with \( n \) processes, the user invokes the RED model checker via telling it which processes are for the model, and which for the specification. The remaining processes will be for the environment. Since the automata in RED are parametrised automata (i.e. we can pass parameters
to them) then we can declare many process automata with the same automaton template and identify each process automaton with a process index. RED supports both forward and backward analyses, deadlock detection, and counterexample generation. In RED, users can declare global and local variables of type boolean, discrete, clock-restriction variable, and hybrid-restriction variable. The tool also supports several optimisation (reduction) techniques that help to manipulate the state space of the system under consideration in an efficient way such as symmetry reduction, inactive variable elimination, performance enhancement techniques for time inevitability evaluation. RED differs from the two tools discussed above in that it uses an extended version of TCTL with. It also supports strong and weak fairness assumptions of CTA.

The textual description of the protocol in the language of RED is given in Appendix B.

7 Correctness Conditions

The first formula of interest is global atomicity (i.e. all processes must agree on the final decision: all must abort or all must commit.) We might first specify atomicity as $\mathbf{AFAG} \left( \bigwedge_{i \neq j} (i.\text{decision} = j.\text{decision}) \right)$. Intuitively, the formula states that for all possible paths there will be a state where all processes globally agree on their final decision. Unfortunately, the protocol cannot be expected to satisfy this since processes might decide to commit and then change their decision to abort if the deadlines $D_p$ or $D$ expired during the execution of the protocol: suppose that all the participants have voted to commit the transaction and they were able to deliver their votes before the expiry of the deadline $V$. Suppose further that the coordinator broadcasted a commit message before the expiry of the DEC deadline but it failed to receive the completion messages within the deadline $D_p$. In this case, the coordinator will change the global decision from commit to abort and then broadcast an abort message. So there are situations in the protocol where processes may change their decisions. We therefore write the following weaker specification of atomicity:

**Specification 1:** The global atomicity is always guaranteed.

$\mathbf{AG} \left( \bigwedge_{i \neq j} \neg (i.\text{decision}=\text{abort} \land j.\text{decision}=\text{commit}) \right)$

Note that the variable decision can take one of the following values $\{\text{undefined, abort, commit}\}$. Initially, we set the decision of each participant to the undefined value. Note that by verifying atomicity property we verify implicitly consistency property since ensuring atomicity guarantees data consistency on all distributed database systems.

The second property of interest is validity (i.e. if process $i$ votes ‘no’ then ‘no’ is the only possible decision value, also if all processes vote ‘yes’ then ‘yes’ is the only decision value). We might specify validity as follows:
Specification 2(a): If one process voted ‘no’ then all processes will eventually abort.

\[\text{AG} \left( \bigvee_{i=1..n} (i.\text{vote} = \text{no}) \Rightarrow \text{AF} (\text{outcome} = \text{abort}) \right)\]

Specification 2(b): If all processes voted ‘yes’ then all processes will eventually commit.

\[\text{AG} \left( \bigwedge_{i=1..n} (i.\text{vote} = \text{yes}) \Rightarrow \text{AF} (\text{outcome} = \text{commit}) \right)\]

Recall that the goal of the protocol is to preserve data consistency as well as to satisfy all designated intermediate deadlines \(D_p\), \(DEC\), and \(V\). If any of these deadlines expired during the execution of the transaction, it is immediately killed (i.e. all processes will decide to abort). Note that the execution of the transaction may be delayed due to queuing delay or due to a communication delay which might cause the protocol to miss its deadlines. The following three specifications verify whether the protocol can satisfy these deadlines.

First, the participants should respond in a bounded time delay to the coordinator commit request message via sending their votes no more than \(V\) time units after the coordinator sends the request.

Specification 3: If there are no faults and the coordinator \(C\) sent a commit request message at time \(x_1\), then it is guaranteed to receive all participants’ votes by \(x_1 + V\) on the the coordinator’s clock.

\[\text{AG} \left( (C.\text{request_sent} = \text{true} \land t = x_1) \Rightarrow \text{AF} \left( \bigwedge_{i=1..n} (C.\text{vote_received}[i] = \text{true}) \land t \leq x_1 + V \right) \right)\]

Second, the coordinator should broadcast the decision no more than \(DEC\) time units after receiving the participants votes.

Specification 4: If there are no faults and the coordinator received the votes at time \(x_2\), then all the participants can receive the decision by \(x_2 + DEC\) on any participant \(P_i\)’s clock.

\[\text{AG} \left( (\bigwedge_{i=1..n} (C.\text{vote_received}[i] = \text{true}) \land t = x_2) \Rightarrow \text{AF} \left( \bigwedge_{i=1..n} (i.\text{decision_received} = \text{true}) \land t \leq x_2 + DEC \right) \right)\]

Next, the coordinator should be able to receive all acknowledgements within \(D_p\) time units after it sent the decision.

Specification 5: If there are no faults and the coordinator sent the decision at time \(x_3\), then it can receive all acknowledgements within \(x_3 + D_p\) on the coordinator’s clock.

\[\text{AG} \left( (C.\text{decision_sent} = \text{true} \land t = x_3) \Rightarrow \text{AF} \left( \bigwedge_{i=1..n} (C.\text{ack}[i] = \text{true}) \land t \leq x_3 + D_p \right) \right)\]

Finally, all processes should terminate within \(D\) time units after the coordinator initiates the protocol. Note that we consider the protocol failed to achieve its goal if it can not completed within \(D\) time units after it started.
Specification 6: The protocol must always terminate within $D$ time units after it started.

\[ \text{AG} \left( t = D \Rightarrow \bigwedge_{i=1..n} (i.\text{status} = \text{terminated}) \right) \]

8 Specifying The Protocol Properties in UPPAAL, Rabbit, and RED

In this section, we discuss how we verify the properties of the protocol in the specification language of each tool. UPPAAL uses fragment of TCTL logic, RED uses complete TCTL logic, while on other hand, TCTL is not available in Rabbit and it uses techniques based on reachability analysis to verify systems properties.

In order to simplify the discussion of the specifications, we consider a setting with only one coordinator and one participant. However, in our verification of the protocol (see section 10), we consider also settings with large numbers of participants.

In UPPAAL, we can capture specification 1 as follows.

\[
\text{A}[] \text{not (coor.decision == commit and part.decision == abort)}
\]

The formula states that it is always not (never) the case that one process will decide to commit and one other process decides to abort (i.e. all processes must agree on the final decision).

Since Rabbit does not support the TCTL language, it alternatively provides an analysis command language to write a simple segment of code for verifying properties based on reachability analysis. Using this language, we declare a set of variables that are used to represent a set of states, called regions, followed by a set of iterative command statements. We then check whether the model can reach a region where the formula can be violated. The code below expresses specification 1 in Rabbit’s analysis language.

REACHABILITY CHECK T2PC
{
1 VAR initial, error, reached : REGION;
2 COMMANDS
3 initial:= INITIALREGION;
4 error := ((coor.decision == 1) AND (part.decision ==2)) OR
5 ((coor.decision == 2) AND (part.decision ==1));
6 reached := REACH FROM initial FORWARD;
7 IF (EMPTY(error INTERSECT reached)){
8 PRINT "Specification 1 satisfied.";}
9 ELSE { PRINT "Specification 1 violated.";}
}

The first line declares three regions. Region initial represents the set of initial states from the Rabbit’s modules (see appendix A). Lines 4 and 5 characterize
the set of states that violate specification 1 of the protocol: some process decided
to abort while some other process decided to commit. Line 6 assigns to reached
the set of states reachable from the initial state. The specification is satisfied
if the intersection between the reached region and the error region is empty.
Note that we verify the protocol model using the FORWARD reachability analysis
option. One can verify the model also using backward reachability via replacing
the option FORWARD in line 6 with the BACKWARD option.
In RED we can express specification 1 as follows.

forall always not (decision[1] == 1 && decision[2] == 2)

The above RED formula says that for all possible paths of the protocol, there is
no path where process 1 (the coordinator process) decides to abort (decision[1] == 1)
while process 2 (the participant process) decides to commit (decision[2] == 2).
Specification 2 can be captured in UPPAAL's specification language as fol-

A [] (coor_vote == abort or part_vote == abort imply outcome == abort) or
(coor_vote == commit and part_vote == commit imply outcome == commit)

Intuitively, the above UPPAAL formula says that if one of the proce
sses voted
to abort the transaction then the global outcome of the proto-
col will be abort. While on the other hand, if all processes voted to commit then the final outcome
will be commit.
In Rabbit we can verify specification 2 as follows.

REACHABILITY CHECK T2PC
{
VAR initial, error, reached : REGION;
COMMANDS
initial:= INITIALREGION;
error := ((part.vote == 1) OR (coor.vote == 1)) AND (outcome == 2)) OR
((part.vote == 2) AND (coor.vote == 2) AND (outcome == 1));
reached := REACH FROM initial FORWARD;
IF (EMPTY(error INTERSECT reached))
{PRINT "Specification 2 satisfied.";}
ELSE { PRINT "Specification 2 violated."; }
}

Lines 4 and 5 in the above Rabbit code characterize the set of states that violate
specification 2: one process voted to abort the transaction while the coordinator
decided to commit it, or all processes voted to commit the transaction while
the coordinator decided to abort it. Again the specification is satisfied if the
intersection between the reached region and the error region is empty.
While in RED we can specify property 2 as follows.

forall always ((vote[1] ==1 || vote[2]==1 implies outcome == 1) OR
Note that the local variable vote can take one of the following values 0 (undefined), 1 (abort), and 2 (commit).

Next, since UPPAAL and Rabbit lack the expressiveness to capture directly bounded response properties, we therefore verify specifications (3-5) via reducing them into reachability properties. We can verify specification 3 in the tools UPPAAL, Rabbit, and RED respectively as follows.

\[ A[] \neg (\text{coor.V}_\text{Expired}) \]

The formula states that there is no path where process coor can reach location V_Expired. If the property does not satisfy then there exists a counterexample where the deadline V expires before the coordinator can receive the votes of the participants.

In Rabbit we express specification 3 as follows.

```
REACHABILITY CHECK T2PC
{
  1  VAR initial, error, reached : REGION;
  2  COMMANDS
  3  initial:= INITIALREGION;
  4  error := STATE (Coor.coor) = waitVotes AND coor.x > V;
  5  reached := REACH FROM initial FORWARD;
  6  IF (EMPTY(error INTERSECT reached)){
    7   PRINT "Specification 3 satisfied.";}
  8  ELSE { PRINT "Specification 3 violated.";}
}
```

The declaration of the region error in the above Rabbit code states that the clock of coordinator exceeds the deadline V while the coordinator is still waiting for the participant’s vote at location waitVotes.

Since RED uses complete TCTL language, we can then express specification 3 straightforwardly as follows.

```
forall always (waitVotes[1] => forall eventually {<= V} sendDecision[1])
```

Intuitively, the above RED formula says that the coordinator process (process 1 in the RED model) can always move from location waitVotes to location sendDecision within V time units. According to the RED model (see appendix B), this means that the coordinator can always receive the participants’ votes within V time units after it sends the start message.

Next we can express specification 4 in UPPAAL as follows.

\[ A[] \neg (\text{part.DEC}_\text{Expired}) \]

We can capture specification 4 in Rabbit language using a code similar to the code that we use to express specification 3 while modifying the assignment of the error region as follows.

```
error := STATE(Part.part) = waitDEC AND part.x > DEC;
```
In RED we can express the specification as follows.

\[
\forall \text{always } (\text{part\_wait}[2] \implies \forall \text{eventually } \{\leq \text{DEC}\} \text{sendCompMsg}[2])
\]

Specification 5 can be expressed in UPPAAL as follows.

\[
A[] \neg (\text{coor.Dp\_Expired})
\]

To verify specification 5 in Rabbit we modify the assignment of the error region as follows.

\[
\text{error} := \text{STATE(Coor.coor)} = \text{waitCompMsg AND coor.x} > \text{Dp};
\]

In RED we specify the property as follows.

\[
\forall \text{eventually } (\text{waitCompMsg}[1] \implies \forall \text{eventually } \{\leq \text{Dp}\} \text{coor\_final}[2])
\]

Finally, specification 6 can be verified in UPPAAL as follows.

\[
A<> (\text{coor.x} == D \implies \text{coor.status} == \text{terminated AND part.x} == D \implies \text{part.status} == \text{terminated})
\]

In Rabbit we verify specification 6 as follows.

**REACHABILITY CHECK T2PC**

\[
\begin{array}{l}
1 \text{VAR initial, error, reached : REGION;}
2 \text{COMMANDS}
3 \text{initial:= INITIALREGION;}
4 \text{error := ((coor.x} \geq D) \text{AND (coor.status} == 0)) \text{ OR}
5 \text{(part.x} \geq D) \text{AND (part.status} == 0));
6 \text{reached := REACH FROM initial FORWARD;}
7 \text{IF (EMPTY(error INTERSECT reached))}
8 \{\text{PRINT "Specification 6 satisfied.";}
9 \text{ELSE { PRINT "Specification 6 violated.";}}
\end{array}
\]

Lines 4 and 5 in the above Rabbit code characterize the set of states that violate specification 6: the coordinator clock \(x\) exceeds the deadline \(D\) while the coordinator is still running, or the participant clock \(x\) exceeds the deadline while the participant process is still running.

In RED we can specify the property as follows.

\[
\]

Note that the local variable \(\text{status}\) in the above RED’s formula can take one of the following values 0 (means the process is running), and 1 (means the process has been terminated).
9 Verification Results

We verify first a strong formula of atomicity $AG(\bigwedge_{i \neq j} (i.\text{decision} = j.\text{decision}))$ in which all processes can reach to the same decision at the same time. Recall that initially each process sets its decision to the undefined value which will be changed during the execution of the protocol to either commit or abort based on the values of the votes. As we expect the formula does not satisfy since processes may not be able to receive the decision of the coordinator at the same time due to communication delay or queuing delay. We therefore consider a weaker definition of atomicity $AFAG (\bigwedge_{i \neq j} (i.\text{decision} = j.\text{decision}))$. We also found this specification fails since as we discussed before processes might change their decision from commit to abort if the deadlines $D_p$ or $D$ expire during the execution of the protocol. We finally verify atomicity as expressed in specification 1 and found the specification holds. Under this weak definition of atomicity the consistency of the databases might be temporarily broken. For example we might have situations in the protocol where process $i$ commits at real-time 10, process $j$ commits at real-time 15, and process $k$ commits at real-time 20. The protocol allows such situations to occur, in particular when some processes get delayed while waiting to get executed. However, when the protocol does terminate, the consistency of the distributed databases is preserved.

The next question of interest is then whether validity specifications always hold, as claimed. The answer obtained by model checking is that Specification 2(a) holds while surprisingly Specification 2(b) fails where the counter-example discovered is the following:

**Example 1:** Suppose that all processes have voted to commit the transaction ($\bigwedge_{i=1..n} (i.\text{vote} = \text{yes})$) and that the coordinator has received the votes within the deadline $V$. Suppose further that the coordinator broadcasted the global decision before the expiry of the deadline $\text{DEC}$ but it failed to receive the completion messages within the deadline $D_p$. According to the rules of the protocol, the coordinator will decide to abort the transaction due to the expiry of $D_p$ and set the global variable $\text{outcome}$ to the abort value. Hence we have a situation where although all processes voted to commit, the coordinator decided to abort the transaction, and therefore Specification 2(b) fails.

The correctness of specifications (3-6) depends mainly upon the satisfaction of the following three conditions: (1) absence of node or link failures since failures if happen might cause some processes to miss their deadlines. (2) the ability of the operating environment to deliver messages on-time and that messages loss is not possible. (3) fair scheduling policy: each process $i$ is guaranteed to execute at least $t_i$ time units: the time needed to receive a decision message from the coordinator, perform the commit or abort action, and send a completion message to the coordinator. In our modeling of the protocol we assume that all resource managers use non-preemptive scheduling policy in the sense that when a process starts executing, it continues executing until it completes its determined execution time. Since we made these three assumptions about the environment of the protocol, we therefore found specifications (3-6) hold.
10 Model Checking Performance

In this section, we present the model checking runtimes obtained in testing the tools, with version 4.1.4 for UPPAAL, 2.1 for Rabbit, and 5.0 for RED. All experiments are conducted on a PC with Redhat Linux 7.3 with Intel (R) core(TM)2 Quad CPU 2.6 GHz and 512 MB memory. The specifications of the protocol were checked with backward and forward analysis in Rabbit and RED, and using the on the fly approach for UPPAAL. In the forward analysis method the model checker attempts to construct a characterization of all states that can be reached from a set of initial states I with respect to the declared behaviour structure M. In the backward reachability analysis the model checker attempts to construct a characterization of all states that can reach specific goal states (unsafe states) with respect to the declared behaviour structure. While in on-the-fly approach, the state space of the system is generated dynamically and only the minimal amount of information is stored in memory. In the tables below we show the CPU time used by the system on behalf of the calling process (system time). An entry of “x” indicates that the model checker ran out of memory on that specification. Rabbit and RED ask for only one input file which describes both the components of the system and the formula to be verified. While on the other hand, UPPAAL asks for two input files, one for the system and another one for the logical formula. As shown in section 7, some properties of the protocol require us to use a full TCTL language and verify formulas with nested temporal modalities which are not allowed in both UPPAAL and Rabbit. We have therefore weakened the properties of the protocol until UPPAAL and Rabbit can handle them, as shown in section 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of processes</th>
<th>Model Checker</th>
<th>Specification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Rabbit</td>
<td>1.22 1.25 1.66 1.21 1.37 1.5 1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>RED</td>
<td>10.88 4.13 8.42 12.9 11.26 9.57 6.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Rabbit</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>RED</td>
<td>554 249 734 981 859 732 1584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Rabbit</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>RED</td>
<td>2667 979 5524 6135 6283 4339 8540</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Model Checking Runtimes (seconds) for Rabbit and RED With Backward Analysis

We scaled the model of the protocol until the tools could not verify the protocol properties, due to state space problem. The complexity of the analysis depends mainly on the number of clocks and states in the model. In Table 1 we give the runtimes obtained in checking the protocol using Rabbit backward reachability analysis and RED backward TCTL model-checking. RED could ver-
forward analysis

Table 2. Model Checking Runtimes (seconds) for Rabbit and RED With Forward Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of processes</th>
<th>Model Checker</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2(a)</th>
<th>2(b)</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Rabbit</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>RED</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Rabbit</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>RED</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>59.3</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>40.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Rabbit</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>RED</td>
<td>3088</td>
<td>1705</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>884</td>
<td>939</td>
<td>943</td>
<td>1322</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general this case study increased our insight into the state of the art in dense-time model checking, and our understanding of the algorithms and data.
structures that are used in the implementation of the current dense-time model checking tools. It shows also the capabilities and the limitations of the model checkers UPPAAL, Rabbit, and RED.

11 Related Work

Some work has already been done on the verification of commitment protocols using formal techniques. In particular, the basic 2PC protocol has frequently been the focus of studies of verification of distributed computing [20,15,21], but it is just one of several variants discussed in the literature. One of the interesting variants of the protocol is the T2PC protocol that has complex timing constraints. In this work we have shown how the protocol can be analyzed with three various tools: UPPAAL, Rabbit, and RED. To the best of our knowledge the T2PC protocol has not been model checked before.

The literature of timed automata theory is a rich literature since it was introduced by Alur and Dill in 1990. Alur and Madhusudan [5] present a full survey of known results for decidability problems in timed automata theory. Tripakis [23] gives algorithms and techniques to verify timed systems using TCTL logic and Timed Buchi Automata, which have implemented in KRONOS model checking tool. One of the disadvantages of KRONOS is that its input language supports a very restricted data types that allow only the declaration of clock variables. For this reason we have not included KRONOS in our comparative study.

In the last few years, BDD-like data structures have been used in the verification of timed systems. The model checkers Rabbit has been developed based on BDD technology. Empirical results given in [24] and [9] have shown that RED and Rabbit outperformed UPPAAL in some particular examples such as Fisher mutual exclusion and FDDI Token Ring protocol.

Beyer and Noack [10] compared the three tools via considering the verification of a set of simple benchmarks such as the Fischer mutual exclusion protocol, and CSMA/CD. Experiments show that the tools RED and Rabbit perform better than UPPAAL when considering a large number of processes. However, heuristics used in Rabbit make the tool more scalable than RED.

Wang [24] show that CRDs outperform DBMs when verifying specifications that contain large number of clocks. However, he pointed out that CRDs consume much space (memory) in handling intermediate data structures, and therefore require intensive use of garbage collection. Note that the empirical results presented in the above discussed works were reported using an old version of UPPAAL (v3.2.4), which lack many of the optimisations that are used in the current version of the tool (v4.1.4).

RED is able to verify properties that are not expressible in UPPAAL and Rabbit and it supports full TCTL language with fairness assumptions. RED also allows verifying formulas that contain nested temporal modalities (i.e. $\mathbf{AF \ AG(\varphi)}$). On the other hand, UPPAAL’s specification language supports fragment of TCTL and nested temporal formulas are not allowed, while Rabbit language is restricted to reachability formulas. Unlike UPPAAL, RED and Rabbit pro-
vide no graphical interface or simulation facilities. One advantage of Rabbit over the other tools is that it supports modular modelling that allows us to represent the system components in a hierarchy way. This facilitates the modelling of complex timed systems. However, UPPAAL has richer expressiveness in modeling real-time systems than Rabbit and RED. (i.e. The support of data variables in Rabbit and RED is more limited than it is in UPPAAL.)

12 Conclusions

We have modeled and verified the real-time version of the two phase commit protocol in the model checkers UPPAAL, Rabbit, and RED. RED outperformed UPPAAL and Rabbit in terms of performance and scalability and allowed us to verify the protocol for large number of processes. Our analysis showed that the central property of the protocol, the data consistency property, might be temporarily broken during the execution of the protocol, however, when the protocol terminated the consistency is preserved. The three model checkers vary in how easy, or difficult, it is to formalise the protocol in the language of each model checker, and then to verify its correctness properties. The input language of UPPAAL, Rabbit, and RED are substantially different, and they are suited for different classes of examples. We intend to pursue this investigation by considering more complex real-time commit protocols and verifying more complex real-timed properties.

References

A The Textual Description of The Protocol in Rabbit

MODULE Coordinator
{ 

   LOCAL
   x : CLOCK; vote : DISCRETE(3); update : DISCRETE;
   decision : DISCRETE(3); status : DISCRETE;

   INPUT
   D : CONST;  // the deadline of the transaction.
   V : CONST;   // the deadline for receiving participants' votes.
   Dp: CONST;  // the deadline for receiving participants' completion messages.
   commit : SYNC; // to commit the transaction.
   abort : SYNC; // to abort the transaction.
   comp : SYNC; // to receive the participant's completion message

   OUTPUT
   reserve : SYNC; // to reserve a CPU time slot.
   start : SYNC; // to start the T2PC protocol.

   MULTREST
   outcome : DISCRETE;
   resource_granted : DISCRETE;
   dec_sent : DISCRETE;
   // Set initial state of automaton and clock values.

   INITIAL
   STATE(Coor) = init AND x = 0 AND status =0;

   AUTOMATON Coor
   { 

   STATE init{ TRANS{ SYNC ! reserve; GOTO begin;}}
   TRANS {GUARD x >= V; GOTO fail;}} 

   STATE begin{ TRANS{ GUARD resource_granted = 1;
   SYNC ! start; DO vote' =1; GOTO waitVotes;}
   TRANS {GUARD resource_granted = 1;
   SYNC ! start; DO vote' =2; GOTO waitVotes;}}

   STATE waitVotes {TRANS{ SYNC ?abort; DO decision' =1 AND dec_sent' =1
   AND outcome' =1; GOTO waitCompMsg;}}
   TRANS {GUARD vote =2; SYNC ?commit; DO decision' =2 AND
   dec_sent' =1 AND outcome' =2;
   GOTO waitCompMsg;}
   TRANS {GUARD vote =1; SYNC ?commit; DO decision' =1 AND
   dec_sent' =1 AND outcome' =1;
   GOTO waitCompMsg;}
   TRANS {GUARD x >= V; GOTO fail;}}

   STATE waitCompMsg{ TRANS {SYNC ?comp; GOTO finish; } 
   TRANS {GUARD x >= Dp; GOTO fail;}}

   STATE finish{ TRANS {GUARD x <=D; DO update' = 1 AND status' =1;
   GOTO exception;}
   TRANS {GUARD x> D; GOTO exception;}}

   STATE fail{ TRANS {DO decision' = 1 AND outcome' =1
AND status' =1; GOTO exception;}}

STATE exception {}
}

// The following module represents the template of the participant.
MODULE Participant
{
LOCAL
  x : CLOCK; vote : DISCRETE (3);
  decision : DISCRETE(3); status : DISCRETE(2); update : DISCRETE;
INPUT
  D : CONST; V : CONST; DEC : CONST; start : SYNC;
OUTPUT
  reserve : SYNC; commit : SYNC; abort : SYNC; comp : SYNC;
MULTREST
  outcome : DISCRETE;
  resource_granted : DISCRETE;
  dec_sent : DISCRETE;

// Set initial state of automaton and clock values.
INITIAL
  STATE(Part) = init AND x = 0 AND status =0;
AUTOMATON Part
{
  STATE init{
    TRANS {SYNC? start; GOTO reserveTimeSlot;}
    TRANS {GUARD x >= V; GOTO fail;}
  }
  STATE reserveTimeSlot{
    TRANS {SYNC ! reserve; GOTO sendVote;}
    TRANS {GUARD x >= V; GOTO fail;}
  }
  STATE sendVote{
    TRANS {GUARD resource_granted = 1 AND x <V; 
      SYNC !abort; DO vote' = 1; GOTO waitDec;}
    TRANS {GUARD resource_granted = 1 AND x <V; 
      SYNC !commit; DO vote' = 2; GOTO waitDec;}
    TRANS {GUARD x >= V; GOTO fail;}}

  STATE waitDec{
    TRANS {GUARD x >= DEC; GOTO fail;}
    TRANS {GUARD x < DEC AND dec_sent=1; DO decision' = outcome;
      GOTO sendCompMsg;} }
  STATE sendCompMsg{
    TRANS {SYNC ! comp; GOTO finish;}}
  STATE fail{
    TRANS {DO decision' = 1 AND status' =1; GOTO exception; }
  }
  STATE finish{
    TRANS {GUARD x <D; DO update' = 1 AND status' =1;
      GOTO exception; }
    TRANS {GUARD x>= D; GOTO exception; }
  }
  STATE exception {}
}

// The following module represents an abstract model of the CPU.
MODULE resource
{
LOCAL
  x : CLOCK;
INPUT
  ready : SYNC;
  exe_time : CONST;
OUTPUT
  finished : SYNC;
MULTREST
  busy : DISCRETE; // 0 means the CPU is free, and 1 means it is busy.
INITIAL
  STATE (CPU) = Idle AND x = 0 AND busy = 0;
AUTOMATON CPU
{
  STATE Idle{ TRANS {SYNC ? ready; DO x’ = 0 AND
                   busy’ = 1; GOTO InUse;} }
  STATE InUse{ INV x <= exe_time;
                TRANS {GUARD x = exe_time; SYNC ! finished;
                      DO busy’ = 0; GOTO Idle;} }
}

// The template of the CPU manager.
MODULE ResourceManager
{
LOCAL
  wait : DISCRETE;
INPUT
  reserve : SYNC; finished : SYNC;
OUTPUT
  ready : SYNC;
MULTREST
  busy : DISCRETE; // 0 means the CPU is free, and 1 means it is busy.
  resource_granted : DISCRETE;
INITIAL
  STATE (Manager) = Idle;
AUTOMATON Manager
{
  STATE Idle{ TRANS {SYNC ? reserve; GOTO M1;}
               TRANS {SYNC ? finished; GOTO M2;}}
  STATE M1{ TRANS {GUARD busy = 0;
                   SYNC ! ready; DO resource_granted’ = 1; GOTO Idle;}
              TRANS {GUARD busy = 1;
                     DO wait’ = 1; GOTO Idle;}}
  STATE M2{ TRANS {GUARD wait = 1; SYNC ! ready; DO wait’ = 0
We pick some statements in the Rabbit model in order to explain how to declare the model behaviour structure with Rabbit. The declaration is a sequence of STATE declarations. A typical STATE declaration can be found from the statements (S1) to (S3). The statements declare a state whose name is InUse and whose invariance condition is “x <= exe_time”. Inside the transition TRANS we have a synchroniser finished, a triggering condition “x == exe_time”, and two actions “DO busy’ = 0;” and “GOTO Idle;”. Another statement that we believe it needs to be explained is the declaration statement decision: DISCRETE(3). The parameter in the statement tells Rabbit how many values we want to store in the variable decision. The statement indicates that the decision variable can take one of the following values {0, 1, 2}. This gives Rabbit the opportunity to spend the correct number of bits in the BDD representation. Note that synchronization between automata is done via synchronization labels and the semantic is as in CSP, i.e., one automaton can take a transition with label S, if all other automata also take a transition with S.

B The Textual Description of The Protocol in RED

#define D 80
#define D_p 52
#define DEC 40
#define V 15
#define exe_time 52
process count = 6;
/* One local clock. */
local clock x;
/* A set of synchronizers. */
global synchronizer start, reserve1, reserve2, yes, no, commit, abort,
    comp, ready1, ready2, finished1, finished2;
local discrete vote: 1..2;
local discrete decision: 0..2;
local discrete update: 0..1;
local discrete status: 0..1;
global discrete busy1: 0..1;
global discrete busy2: 0..1;
global discrete outcome: 1..2;
global discrete resource_granted1: 0..1;
global discrete resource_granted2: 0..1;
global discrete wait1: 0..1;
global discrete wait2: 0..1;
/ 7 modes for the coordinator. */ 
mode coor_idle (true) 
{ 
  when !(reserve1 (true)) may goto coor_begin; 
} 
mode coor_begin (true) 
{ 
  when !start (resource_granted1 ==1) may x= 0; vote =1; goto wait_votes; 
  when !start (resource_granted1 ==1) may x= 0; vote =2; goto wait_votes; 
} 
mode wait_votes (x<=D) 
{ 
  when ?yes (vote ==2 && x < V) may decision =2; outcome =2; goto sendDecision; 
  when ?yes (vote ==1 && x < V) may decision =1; outcome =1; goto sendDecision; 
  when ?no (x < V) may decision =1; outcome =1; goto sendDecision; 
  when (x >= V) may goto coor_fail; 
} 
mode sendDecision (x <=D) 
{ 
  when !commit (decision == 2) may goto waitCompMsg; 
  when !abort (decision == 1) may goto waitCompMsg; 
} 
mode waitCompMsg (x<=D) 
{ 
  when ?comp (x < D_p) may goto coor_final; 
  when (x>D_p) may goto coor_fail; 
} 
mode coor_final (true) 
{ 
  when (x < D) may update =1; status =1; 
  when (x> D) may goto coor_fail; 
} 
mode coor_fail (true) 
{ 
  when (true) may decision =1; outcome =1; status =1; 
} 
/* The behaviour of the participant can be described as follows.*/ 
mode part_idle (true) 
{ 
  when ?start (true) may x = 0; goto part_reserve; 
} 
mode part_reserve (true) 
{ 
  when !(reserve2 (true)) may goto part_start;
mode part_start (x < D)
{
    when !yes (resource_granted2 ==1 && x < V) may vote =2; goto part_wait;
    when !no (resource_granted2 ==1 && x < V) may vote =1; goto part_wait;
    when (x >= V) may goto part_fail;
}
mode part_wait (true)
{
    when ?abort (x < DEC) may decision =1; goto sendCompMsg;
    when ?commit (x < DEC) may decision =2; goto sendCompMsg;
    when (x>= DEC) may goto part_fail;
}
mode sendCompMsg (true)
{
    when !comp(true) may goto part_final;
}
mode part_final (true)
{
    when (x < D) may update =1; status =1;
    when (x> D) may goto part_fail;
}
mode part_fail (true)
{
    when (true) may decision =1; status =1;
}

/* The template of the CPU1 */
mode CPU1_idle (true)
{
    when ? ready1 (true) may busy1 = 1; x =0; goto CPU1_InUse;
}
mode CPU1_InUse (x<= exe_time)
{
    when !finished1 (x == exe_time) may busy1 = 0; goto CPU1_idle;
}
mode CPU2_idle (true)
{
    when ? ready2 (true) may busy2 = 1; x =0; goto CPU2_InUse;
}
mode CPU2_InUse (x<= exe_time)
{
    when !finished2 (x == exe_time) may busy2 = 0; goto CPU2_idle;
}

/* The template of the CPU1 manager */
mode Manager1_idle (true)
{
    when ?reserve1 (true) may goto M11;
    when ?finished1 (true) may goto M21;
}
mode M11 (true)
{
    when !ready1 (busy1 ==0) may resource_granted1 =1; goto Manager1_idle;
    when (busy1 ==1) may wait1 =1; goto Manager1_idle;
}
mode M21 (true)
{
    when !ready1 (wait1 ==1) may wait1 =0; resource_granted1 =1; goto Manager1_idle;
    when (wait1 ==0) may goto Manager1_idle;
} /* The template of the second CPU2 manager */
mode Manager2_idle (true)
{
    when ?reserve2 (true) may goto M12;
    when ?finished2 (true) may goto M22;
}
mode M12 (true)
{
    when !ready2 (busy2 ==0) may resource_granted2 =1; goto Manager2_idle;
    when (busy2 ==2) may wait2 =1; goto Manager2_idle;
}
mode M22 (true)
{
    when !ready2 (wait2 ==1) may wait2 =0; resource_granted2 =1; goto Manager2_idle;
    when (wait2 ==0) may goto Manager2_idle;
}

We also pick some statements in the RED model in order to explain how to declare the model behaviour structure with RED. The declaration is a sequence of mode declarations. A typical mode declaration can be found from the statements (S1) to (S2). The statements declare a mode whose name is InUse and whose invariance condition “x<= exe_time”. Inside the transition rule when we have a synchroniser finish, a triggering condition “x == exe_time”, and the two actions “busy = 0” and “goto idle”. The initial condition of the protocol declares six processes. The first process represents the coordinator database server which starts at coor_idle location, the second process represents the participant server which starts at the part_idle location, the third and the fourth processes represent the CPU at each server, and finally processes 5 and 6 represent the resource manager on each database server.