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Automata Based Symbolic Reasoning in Hardware Verification *

DAVID BASIN basin@informatik.uni-freiburg.de
Institut für Informatik, Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg, Am Flughafen 17, D-79110 Freiburg i. Br., Germany

NILS KLARLUND klarlund@research.att.com
AT&T Labs - Research, 180 Park Avenue, Florham Park, NJ 07932

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Abstract. We present a new approach to hardware verification based on describing circuits in Monadic Second-order Logic (M2L). We show how to use this logic to represent generic designs like n-bit adders, which are parameterized in space, and sequential circuits, where time is an unbounded parameter. M2L admits a decision procedure, implemented in the MONA tool [17], which reduces formulas to canonical automata.

The decision problem for M2L is non-elementary decidable and thus unlikely to be usable in practice. However, we have used MONA to automatically verify, or find errors in, a number of circuits studied in the literature. Previously published machine proofs of the same circuits are based on deduction and may involve substantial interaction with the user. Moreover, our approach is orders of magnitude faster for the examples considered. We show why the underlying computations are feasible and how our use of MONA generalizes standard BDD-based hardware reasoning.

1. Introduction

Correctness of hardware systems can be established by enumeration when the possible behaviors are finite, or formal theorem proving, when the possible behaviors are infinite. The finite case arises when reasoning, for example, about combinational circuits: these can be represented as functions in Boolean logic and correctness can be established by enumeration of possible inputs and outputs. Although any hardware system is of finite size, the infinite case may arise in several ways. One may be interested in demonstrating the correctness of an infinite *family* of related systems, for example, families of arithmetical circuits like n-bit adders or n-bit counters, whose description depends uniformly on the parameter n. Alternatively, the behavior of a single circuit may depend not only on current inputs, but on previous values as well. For example, the behavior of a sequential circuit is a function of time, and one may want to establish that the circuit behaves correctly over arbitrarily long time intervals.

* This article is a revised and extended version of [1].

When behaviors are finite, arguments based on enumeration are popular due to the optimizations often possible using a symbolic representation like Binary Decision Diagrams (BDDs). A BDD is an automaton-like representation of a finite relation or function. In the BDD method, a symbolic representation of the finite function calculated by a combinational circuit is obtained through operations reflecting the Boolean semantics of the gates. The BDD calculations are often much faster than other mechanized means of reasoning and demand little user intervention.

We present here a generalized method that can automatically establish properties of many infinite relations and functions. Our method is based on a decidable logic, the Monadic Second-order Logic on Strings, abbreviated M2L. In M2L, propositional variables of Boolean logic are generalized to variables that denote strings of bits. Every M2L formula ϕ defines a language over an alphabet $\mathbf{B}^k$, consisting of a cross-product of Booleans: one Boolean for each of the k free variables in ϕ. Strings over this alphabet describe the values of all free variables. The language defined by ϕ then is the possibly infinite set of strings defining values that make the formula true. This correspondence generalizes the way a BDD defines a set of satisfying truth assignments. Moreover, any such language corresponds to a language recognized by a finite-state machine; hence M2L formulas characterize regularity.

We show how to exploit this logical characterization of regularity to reason about parameterized classes of circuit designs and their behavior. The language that a formula defines can represent words of unbounded size (the behaviors of members of a parameterized family of circuits) or how the state of a circuit evolves over time.

An example of a parameterized family of circuits is an n-bit adder. In M2L, we can write a formula ϕ (cf. §4) that precisely describes how 1-bit adders are composed in a ripple-carry fashion to form n-bit adders. Under the semantics of M2L, ϕ defines an input-output relation on two inputs A and B of size n, and an output C of size n. This relation can be represented by a language over an alphabet that has three Boolean components so that a string of length n encodes the values of A, B, and C. For example,

	0	1	2	3
A	1	1	0	0
B	1	0	0	0
C	0	0	1	0

defines three rows or *tracks* of bits. The length n of the string is 4. The positions of the string (and of the tracks) are numbered from 0 to $n-1$. If we assume that the least significant bit comes first, then the first track defines $A = 3 = 1100$. Similarly, we read off $B = 1 = 1000$, and $C = 4 = 0010$. Thus, this string defines an interpretation such that the sum of the binary numbers A and B is C. Note that variable A can also be thought of as denoting a subset, namely the set $\{0,1\}$ of positions where the A-track contains a 1 (similarly, B denotes the subset $\{0\}$, and C denotes $\{2\}$). Alternatively, we may view the set denoted by A as a predicate $A(p)$ that holds on position p if and only if there is a 1 in the pth position of the

A-track. The predicate $A(p)$ is monadic (i.e., of one argument). Thus, when A occurs in a formal logic as a variable, it is *monadic second-order*.

This approach to parameterized verification applies to any scenario that can be modeled as a regular set over alphabets of the form $\mathbf{B}^k$. Not all parameterized circuits can be so described (e.g., multipliers and grid-shaped circuits with multiple independent parameters). However, our examples indicate that, when applicable, both circuits and their properties can be simply expressed in M2L.

An example of temporal parameterization is the modeling of an RS flip-flop, where a string of length n with three components models the behavior of the circuit through n time instants, each described by a letter defining the values of the inputs R and S and the output Q. These examples are very easy to formulate in M2L; with a little syntactic sugar, the M2L specifications resemble those used in standard hardware description languages.

Since any M2L formula ϕ can be reduced to an automaton that accepts the satisfying interpretations of ϕ, validity is decidable. A formula ϕ is valid (i.e. always true) if the corresponding automaton accepts all strings. Validity testing can be used to show that the logic of a circuit is consistent with a specification of its behavior. For example, if the formula $\phi_{behavior}$ describes the behavior of an n-bit adder and the formula $\phi_{circuit}$ describes a proposed realization as a parameterized circuit, then the property that the circuit behaves as an adder can be checked by verifying that the automaton corresponding to $\phi_{circuit} \Rightarrow \phi_{behavior}$ accepts all strings. If there is some string that is not accepted by the automaton, then this string encodes a counter-model, which can be used to debug the proposed design.

Remarkably, the decision problem for M2L is non-elementary decidable: a formula of size n may require time and space bounded below by an iterated stack of exponentials whose height is proportional to n. In contrast, Quantified Boolean Logic (QBL), which can formalize combinational logic (and be decided using traditional BDD operations), is only PSPACE-complete.

The Mona tool, described in [17], implements a decision procedure for formulas in M2L on strings (and trees, which we do not consider here). Mona supports predicate definitions, libraries, display of automata, and counter-model generation. Its implementation is based on a generalization of BDDs for the representation of automata on large alphabets.

Our contributions

We describe the theory and practice of how M2L, as embodied in Mona, can be used to automatically verify parameterized circuit designs despite the staggering theoretical complexity bound. Our results demonstrate how the Mona automaton model efficiently generalizes BDDs to reasoning about infinite domains that correspond to regular languages. The examples we present here offer various techniques for dealing with the infinite in automatic hardware verification.

- Our arithmetic logic unit (ALU) example shows how an infinite family of combinational circuits can be concisely described in M2L.

- Our D-type flip-flop example illustrates how M2L can be used as a succinct temporal logic for analysis of difficult sequential circuits. This example also demonstrates how MONA serves not only as a verification tool but also provides a means to explore and understand circuit behavior.

- Our signal processor example shows how parameterized sequential circuits can be verified.

For the circuits studied both in this paper and in the literature, our approach is orders of magnitudes faster than other theorem-proving approaches. For hardware problems expressible in QBL, MONA is as efficient as the direct use of BDD-based procedures, since MONA generalizes standard BDD-based hardware reasoning.

We provide some theoretical explanations why M2L is usable in practice despite the worst-case bounds. In particular, we identify situations where the automata-theoretic subset construction behaves linearly despite its exponential worst-case bound.

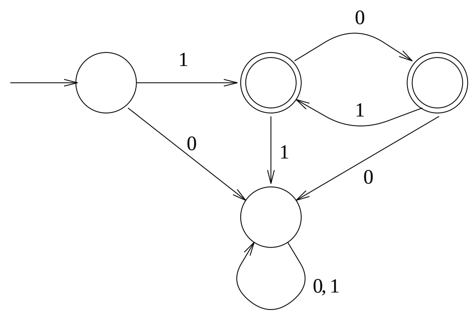
Organization

We proceed as follows. In §2, we introduce M2L. In §3, we present the essentials of the MONA tool and relate it to BDD-based hardware procedures. In §4, we consider specification and verification of parameterized combinational hardware. In §5, we consider timed hardware and we use MONA to analyze temporal properties of a D-type flip-flop. In §6, we present a signal-processing circuit as an example of formalizing and reasoning about parameterized, sequential hardware. In §7, we give some theoretical justifications for why our approach works in practice. Finally in §8, we compare M2L and our use of MONA to other deduction based and automata theoretic approaches.

2. The Second-Order Monadic Logic on Strings

The Monadic Second-order Logic on strings that we use is closely related to S1S, the second-order monadic theory of one successor, and S2S, the second-order monadic theory of two successors, which are among the most expressive decidable logics known (cf. [29]). In these logics, first-order terms are interpreted over positions in an infinite string (S1S) or tree (S2S), and second-order variables are interpreted by subsets of positions. In M2L, first-order terms are interpreted over finite strings.[1] S1S and S2S are more expressive than M2L, but have not been shown to be feasible in practice.

The correspondence between automata and regular languages is well-known. The decidability of the above mentioned logics is based on the well understood (but less widely known) fact that regular languages may be characterized by logics, see [20, 29]. Consider, for example, the automaton



which accepts the regular language $\{1, 10, 101, 1010, 10101, \ldots\}$. Now assume that X is a variable over binary strings. We say that $X(p)$ holds, where $p \geq 0$, if the pth position in X is 1. Now, the regular language above can be described in M2L as

$$X(0) \wedge \forall p : p < \$ \rightarrow (X(p) \leftrightarrow \neg X(p \oplus 1)), \tag{1}$$

where \$ denotes the last position in the string and $\oplus$ is addition modulo the length of the string; thus, the formula states that the first (i.e., 0th) letter in the string X is 1 and that for subsequent positions p, up to the penultimate position, the pth character of X is 1 precisely when the following letter is not.

We describe M2L below. It turns out that the logic precisely characterizes regularity: every M2L formula describes a regular set and, conversely, every regular set is described by an M2L formula.

2.1. Syntax

M2L consists of three kinds of entities: first-order terms, second-order terms, and formulas. First-order terms are formed from first-order variables $p, q, \ldots$, the constants 0 (the first position), \$ (the last position), and the expressions $t \oplus m$ (the mth position to the right from t), where t is a first-order term and m is a natural number. Second-order terms are built from second-order variables $X, Y, \ldots$, the constants *empty* (the empty set) and *all* (the set of all positions), and they may be combined using $\cap$ and $\cup$. Formulas arise as follows: if t_1 and t_2 are first-order terms and S_1 and S_2 are second-order terms, then $t_1 \in S_1$, $t_1 = t_2$, $t_1 < t_2$, and $S_1 = S_2$ are formulas. Formulas may be combined by the standard connectives $\neg$ and $\wedge$. Quantifiers also build formulas: if p and X are first and second-order variables respectively, and f is a formula, then $\exists^1 p : f$ and $\exists^2 X : f$ are formulas.

The syntax we have given is not minimal, see [29]. For example, first-order variables can be eliminated by replacing each first-order variable with a second-order variable that is constrained to be a singleton set. (This is also the way that Mona handles first-order variables.) Also, we will make frequent use of standard definitions and syntactic sugar in the remainder of the paper.

First, the complete set of propositional connectives, inequality, universal quantification and the like are all definable as is standard in a classical logic. For example $f_1 \vee f_2$ is defined as $\neg(\neg f_1 \wedge \neg f_2)$ and $\forall^2 X : f$ is defined as $\neg(\exists^2 X : \neg f)$.

Second, since we can view a second-order variable X as a bit vector, we again write $X(p)$ for $p \in X$.

Third, Boolean variables, connectives and quantification over Booleans values are not part of M2L, but are easily encoded. In particular, each Boolean variable b is encoded by a second-order variable B, and occurrences of b in formulas are encoded as $B(-1)$, where -1 is an extra position, just to the left of the position 0. The position -1 is used solely for the simulation of Boolean variables. (We do not use the position 0 for technical reasons, since experiments have shown that mixing Booleans with the status of other variables in position 0 lead to unnecessary state explosions in the automata representations.) In this way, quantification over Booleans ($\forall^0$ and $\exists^0$) is encoded using second-order quantification. For example, the Boolean formula $\forall^0 x, y : \neg(x \wedge \neg y)$ is encoded as the M2L sentence $\forall^2 X, Y : \neg(X(-1) \wedge \neg(Y(-1)))$.

Finally, when the order of a variable can be determined from context, we may omit superscripts on quantifiers. For example, in the expression $X(p) \wedge b$, it must be the case that X, p, and b are second-order, first-order, and Boolean, respectively. To help disambiguation, we use capital letters for second-order variables and lower-case letters like i, j, p, and q for first-order position variables. Remaining lower-case strings like x, y, cin and $cout$ represent Booleans. With these abbreviations and conventions, (1) is a formula of M2L.

2.2. Semantics

A formula is interpreted relative to a natural number $n \geq 0$, called the *length*, which defines *positions* $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$. A first-order term denotes a position. Thus, a first-order variable ranges over the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$. The constant 0 denotes the position 0, and \$ denotes $n - 1$.[2] The expressions $t \oplus m$ and $t \ominus m$ denote the positions $j + m \bmod n$ and $j - m \bmod n$, where j is the interpretation of t.

A second-order variable P denotes a subset of $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$. Alternatively, a second-order variable can be viewed as designating a bit pattern $b_0 \ldots b_{n-1}$ of length n, where b_i is 1 if and only if i belongs to the interpretation of P. The constants *empty* and *all* denote the sets $\emptyset$ and $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$, and the operators $\cap$ and $\cup$ are the usual set theoretic operations.

A 0th-order (Boolean) variable is simulated by a special second-order variable, which may contain the non-standard position -1 (and this means "true").

The meaning of formulas is straightforward. For example, the formula $t \in S$ is true when the position denoted by t is in the set denoted by S. Propositional connectives have their standard meaning. $\exists^1 p : f$ is true when there is a position i in $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that the denotation of f is true with i replacing p. Truth of $\exists^2 X : f$ is defined similarly, with X replaced by a subset of $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$.

A formula ϕ defines a regular language denoting the interpretations that make free variables in ϕ true. In the formula (1), we have one free variable, X, and the interpretations that make ϕ true are exactly the strings in the regular language $\{1, 10, 101, 1010, 10101, \ldots\}$. More generally, if a formula has k free second-order variables (and as noted above, all other variables are encoded using second-order variables), then the language denoted is over the alphabet $\mathbf{B}^k$ consisting of k-tuples of Booleans. As a simple example, the formula ϕ given by $\forall p : P(p) \leftrightarrow \neg Q(p)$ defines a language $L(\phi)$ over $\mathbf{B}^2$ as follows. We make the convention that if the letter $\boxed{\begin{array}{c} a \\ \hline b \end{array}} \in \mathbf{B}^2$ occurs in position i, then i is in P iff a is 1 and i is in Q iff b is 1. In this way, a string over $\mathbf{B}^2$ determines an interpretation of P and Q. The language denoted is the set of strings describing interpretations that make ϕ true. For example,

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} \in L(\phi) \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \notin L(\phi)\,.$$

3. The Mona Tool

The Mona tool implements a decision procedure for M2L. Details can be found in [17, 20]; here, we summarize the main algorithms and data structures.

Input to Mona is a script consisting of a sequence of definitions followed by a formula to be proved. For each formula ϕ in the script, Mona constructs a deterministic automaton recognizing $L(\phi)$. Construction of automata proceeds using standard operations (see [29]) by recursion on the structure of ϕ.

For example, if ϕ is the formula $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$, then Mona first calculates the automata A_i recognizing the language corresponding to ϕ_i. Second, Mona calculates the automaton corresponding to ϕ by forming the product automata of the A_i and minimizing the result. In a similar way, negation corresponds to the automata-theoretic operation of swapping final and non-final states. Existential quantification corresponds to a projection, followed by a subset construction, and minimization. More precisely, if the formula ϕ corresponds to an automaton A that reads strings over the alphabet $\mathbf{B}^k$, then the automaton for the formula $\exists^2 X.\phi$ is built by projection from A by changing it so that it guesses the track corresponding to X. The resulting automaton is non-deterministic and must be determinized in order to be minimized.

Since Mona always stores automata in a minimized form, valid formulas are particularly simple to recognize: they correspond essentially to the trivial automaton whose single state is both the initial and final state with a self-loop as transition on every input. For any formula ϕ that is not valid, Mona extracts from its corresponding automaton a minimal length string defining an interpretation making ϕ invalid. We use this procedure to generate counter-examples to proposed theorems.

3.1. BDD Representation

Although the automata constructions are in principle standard, we note that the exponential size of the alphabet $\mathbf{B}^k$ calls for special consideration—otherwise the representation of the transition function for an automaton corresponding to a formula with k variables would always necessitate space proportional to 2^k. Thus the implementation in [17] uses multi-valued BDDs to compress the representation of the transition function. The exponential blow-up is then often avoided.

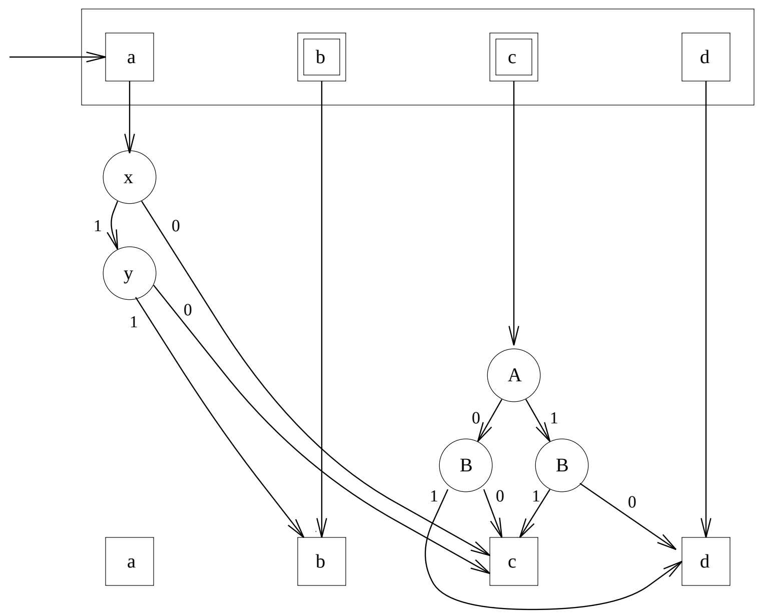


Figure 1. A BDD-represented automaton.

To see how this is possible, consider the formula $\phi \equiv x \wedge y \ \vee \ A = B$, where x and y are Boolean variables and A and B are second-order variables. An interpretation of this formula is defined by a string over $\mathbf{B}^4$ whose positions are numbered $-1, 0, \ldots, n-1$ and where we assume that the tracks are in the order x, y, A, B. For example, the string

	-1	0	1	2
x	1	X	X	X
y	0	X	X	X
A	X	1	0	1
B	X	0	1	0

defines $x = 1$, $y = 0$, $n = 3$, $A = \{0, 2\}$, and $B = \{1\}$ (X means "don't care"). The automaton that accepts all strings defining satisfying interpretations (i.e., interpretations that make ϕ true) is depicted in Figure 1. The automaton has four states $\{a, b, c, d\}$ shown in the rectangular box. In practice, the states are just entries in an array. Each state contains a pointer to a BDD node. For example, the initial state a points to a decision node for x. Thus if the letter in position -1 has a 1 in the x-component (in the first track), then the pointer labeled 1 is followed, and a decision is then made on the y-component. Consequently, if both the x-component and the y-component have a 1 in the -1st letter, then a leaf marked b is reached upon reading this letter. This leaf signifies that the state entered next is b, which is an accepting state (denoted by an inner square).

From state b, there is a pointer directly to a leaf. We say that the state is *looping*—this means that the letter read is irrelevant. Thus the automaton accepts all strings that define both x and y to be true. If one is false, then the automaton remains in the accepting c state as long as the membership status of the current position is the same for A and B.

Note that by using the position -1 for the Boolean variables, we have avoided the problem that an encoding based on position 0 would lead to an ill-defined semantics for Boolean variables in the case of the empty string (where position 0 does not exist).

3.2. Canonicity of BDD Representation

The automaton shown above is minimal or canonical in two ways: (1) the BDD representation of the transition function is reduced (canonical) and (2) the transition function represented and state space are those of the canonical automaton. The requirement (1) is maintained automatically by the use of BDD algorithms that reduce the representation as the BDD is calculated. Requirement (2) is enforced by minimizing each new automaton calculated. The current Mona minimization algorithm [17] is quadratic in the size (the number of nodes and states) of the representation, although in practice minimization is often only about twice as costly as the product and projection routines.

3.3. Relationship to Usual BDDs

If a formula ϕ contains only Boolean variables, then the BDD represented automaton has only three states: the initial state and two looping states, one accepting and one non-accepting. If the pointers of the looping states are deleted, then the resulting graph is identical to the standard BDD representation of ϕ for the given track assignment (ordering of variables). Moreover, for propositional logic, and its extension to Quantified Boolean Logic, the calculations carried out by Mona are essentially identical to those performed by a standard BDD based procedure. In particular, the automaton product algorithm described in [17] essentially degenerates to a BDD binary apply routine. Similarly, the automaton projection essentially degenerates to a BDD projection routine. From this it follows that

Proposition 1 *For any variable ordering chosen for a formula of QBL,* Mona *essentially performs the same calculations as a standard BDD based algorithm.*

4. Parameterized Combinational Hardware

In this section, we show how to specify and verify circuit designs parameterized in their word length. Such parametric designs represent families of circuits. For example, an n-bit adder represents a family of adders, one for each n. Using M2L, we can specify such a family and prove its correctness with respect to a parameterized behavioral specification.

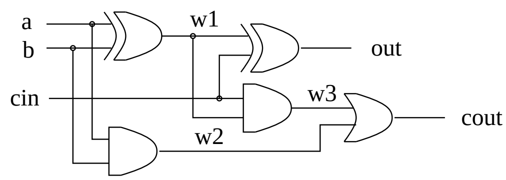


Figure 2. Full 1-bit adder

4.1. Preliminaries: Combinational Circuits

We can define in M2L predicates at a level that formalizes appropriate building blocks of circuits. We can represent the behavior of such blocks as functions from inputs to outputs or as relations between external circuit ports. The functional approach is used for example in theorem provers based on equational and other quantifier free logics (e.g., the prover of Boyer and Moore, NQTHM [18]), where primitive components are functions. For example, *and* is a function from two inputs to an output. Larger circuits are built by function composition.

The relational approach is typically used with first-order or higher-order logic. Basic components are relations that define constraints between port-values. These relations are joined together using conjunction (which combines constraints), and internal wires are represented by shared variables that are existentially quantified. In [5, 12], these two kinds of representation are discussed in detail. Both options are available in our work, and it makes little difference which one we choose.

We follow the relational approach in specifying circuits. We begin by defining basic gates as relations over Boolean variables. For example:

$$\begin{aligned}
not(a,o) &\equiv o \leftrightarrow \neg a \\
and(a,b,o) &\equiv o \leftrightarrow (a \wedge b) \\
or(a,b,o) &\equiv o \leftrightarrow (a \vee b) \\
xor(a,b,o) &\equiv o \leftrightarrow ((\neg a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge \neg b)) \\
and3(a,b,c,o) &\equiv o \leftrightarrow (a \wedge b \wedge c) \\
or3(a,b,c,o) &\equiv o \leftrightarrow (a \vee b \vee c)
\end{aligned}$$

The left-hand side of each definition names a predicate whose meaning is given by the right-hand side. The actual input to MONA is identical except that ASCII syntax, additional key words, and type declarations are required.

Let us now build a full 1-bit adder from these gates. One such design is given in Figure 2. The top half of the circuit consists of two *xor* gates, connected by an internal wire w_1, that compute the sum bit *out*. The bottom half uses the value of internal wire w_1 as well as the two inputs a and b to compute the carry-out bit *cout*. Our definition in M2L conjoins the gate descriptions and projects away the

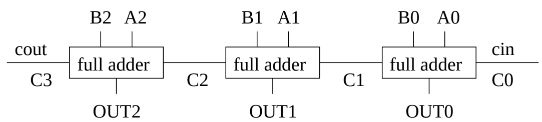


Figure 3. n-bit adder for $n = 3$

internal wires:

$$\begin{aligned}&\mathit{full\_adder}(a, b, out, cin, cout) \equiv \\ &\quad \exists^0 w_1, w_2, w_3 : xor(a, b, w_1) \wedge xor(w_1, cin, out) \wedge and(a, b, w_2) \wedge \\ &\quad and(cin, w_1, w_3) \wedge or(w_3, w_2, cout)\end{aligned}$$

Now let us consider our first example of a theorem proved by MONA. Although the adder is specified as a relation, for each set of inputs, it computes unique outputs. That is, *out* and *cout* are functionally determined by a, b, and cin.

$$\begin{aligned}&\forall^0 a,\ b,\ cin : \exists^0 out,\ cout : \mathit{full\_adder}(a, b, out, cin, cout) \\ &\quad \wedge \forall^0 o, co : (\mathit{full\_adder}(a, b, o, cin, co) \rightarrow ((o \leftrightarrow out) \wedge (co \leftrightarrow cout)))\end{aligned}$$

MONA proves this theorem in 0.25 seconds.[3] This includes parsing all definitions, converting them to automata, and afterwards translating the conjecture into an automaton. In this case, all calculations are equivalent to standard BDD operations, since we are essentially using just Quantified Boolean Logic.

4.2. Correctness of an n-bit Adder

The circuit We turn now to parameterized hardware and consider an n-bit adder. Figure 3 gives an example of this for $n = 3$. In the general case, an n-bit adder is constructed by (1) wiring together n 1-bit adders where (2) the carry-out of the ith adder becomes the carry-in of the $i{+}1$st. The first and last carry are special cases; (3) the first carry has the value of the carry-in and (4) the last has the value of the carry-out.

It is easy to formalize this kind of ripple-carry connectivity. Let us use C and D to represent the carry-ins and carry-outs, respectively. Then we can formalize the general case as the following predicate, which relates three second-order variables (the two input strings A and B and the output string Out) and two Booleans (the carry-in cin and carry-out $cout$).

$$\begin{aligned}&n\_add(A, B, Out, cin, cout) \equiv \\ &\quad \exists^2 C, D : (\forall^1 p : \mathit{full\_adder}\ (A(p), B(p), Out(p), C(p), D(p))) \\ &\qquad \wedge (\forall^1 p : (p < \$) \rightarrow (D(p) \leftrightarrow C(p \oplus 1))) \\ &\qquad \wedge (C(0) \leftrightarrow cin) \\ &\qquad \wedge (D(\$) \leftrightarrow cout)\end{aligned}$$

The four lines of the definition body formalize the four requirements listed above. The way we formalize ripple-carry connectivity is independent of the particular component (here a full-adder) that we are iterating. We later use an identical formalization for specifying an n-bit ALU constructed from 1-bit ALUs.

The specification To verify our circuit, we specify how n-bit binary words are added. Since M2L is a logic about strings and string positions, any arithmetic must be encoded within this limited language. In particular, we encode addition as an algorithm over strings representing bit-patterns, i.e., binary addition. A simple way to do this is to mimic how addition is computed with pencil and paper. The ith output bit is set if the sum of the ith inputs and carry-in is 1 mod 2, and the ith carry bit is set if at least two of the previous inputs and carry-in are set. The 0th carry and the final values must be computed as special cases.

$$\begin{aligned} at\_least\_two(a,b,c) &\equiv (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c) \vee (b \wedge c) \\ mod\_two(a,b,c,d) &\equiv a \leftrightarrow b \leftrightarrow c \leftrightarrow d \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} add(A,B,Out,cin,cout) \equiv \\ \quad \exists^2 C : \\ \qquad (\ \forall^1 p : mod\_two(A(p),B(p),C(p),Out(p)) \\ \qquad\qquad \wedge\ ((p < \$) \rightarrow (C(p \oplus 1) \leftrightarrow at\_least\_two(A(p),B(p),C(p)))) \\ \qquad \wedge\ (cout \leftrightarrow at\_least\_two(A(\$),B(\$),C(\$))) \\ \qquad \wedge\ C(0) \leftrightarrow cin) \end{array}$$

To give the reader a feel for the complexity involved in translating such specifications to automata, we mention some statistics for this example. There are, overall, 109 product and projection operations performed, and the average number of states is 5 and BDD nodes is 12. The largest intermediate automaton has 21 states and 71 BDD nodes. We will return to this example in §7 and analyze more carefully why the state-space does not explode during translation.

Verification We now have a specification of the implementation of a family of adders built from gates and a specification in terms of its behavior over binary strings. To verify their equivalence, we give Mona the formula

$$\begin{array}{l} \forall^2 A, B, Out : \forall^0 cin, cout : \\ \quad add(A,B,Out,cin,cout) \leftrightarrow n\_add(A,B,Out,cin,cout)\,. \end{array}$$

This formula is verified in 0.4 seconds.

Often we are interested in more than one property of a circuit or its specification. For example, the n-bit adder computes a unique function from its inputs to its outputs.

$$\begin{array}{l} \forall^2 A,\ B : \forall^0 cin : \exists^2 Out : \exists^0 cout : n\_add(A,B,Out,cin,cout) \\ \quad \wedge\ \forall^2 O : \forall^0 co : (n\_add(A,B,O,cin,co) \rightarrow (Out = O \wedge (cout \leftrightarrow co))) \end{array}$$

Table 1. Function Table for ALU

Selection				Output	Function
s_2	s_1	s_0	cin		
0	0	0	0	$F = A$	Transfer A
0	0	0	1	$F = A + 1$	Increment A
0	0	1	0	$F = A + B$	Addition
0	0	1	1	$F = A + B + 1$	Addition with carry
0	1	0	0	$F = A - B - 1$	Subtract with borrow
0	1	0	1	$F = A - B$	Subtract
0	1	1	0	$F = A - 1$	Decrement A
0	1	1	1	$F = A$	Transfer A
1	0	0	X	$F = A \vee B$	OR
1	0	1	X	$F = A \oplus B$	XOR
1	1	0	X	$F = A \wedge B$	AND
1	1	1	X	$F = \overline{A}$	Complement A

We may also check that the addition function defined is commutative.

$$\forall^2 A, B, Out : \forall^0 cin, cout : add(A, B, Out, cin, cout) \leftrightarrow add(B, A, Out, cin, cout)$$

Both of these are verified in under a second.

4.3. Correctness of an $\boldsymbol{n}$*-bit ALU*

We now apply our approach to a more complex circuit—a parameterized n-bit ALU. The circuit we analyze is presented in [23]. It is also an interesting theorem for comparison (given in §8), since it has been verified in several theorem proving systems based on induction.

ALU specification The ALU is designed to perform 8 arithmetic and 4 logical operations. The 12 functions are selected through 3 "selection" lines s_0, s_1, s_2 and the carry-in cin as described in Table 1. For example, if the s_i are 0 and cin is 1, then the ALU increments the n-bit input A and places the result in F, producing a carry-out when every bit in F is set.

Let us begin by specifying this behavior: we formalize each functional sub-unit (addition, subtraction, etc.) and specify the function table by case analysis on the values of s_i. The logical sub-units are specified straightforwardly using the previously defined gates.

$$\begin{aligned}
transfer(To, From) &\equiv To = From \\
compl(A, F) &\equiv \forall^1 x : not(A(x), F(x)) \\
OR(A, B, F) &\equiv \forall^1 x : or(A(x), B(x), F(x)) \\
XOR(A, B, F) &\equiv \forall^1 x : xor(A(x), B(x), F(x)) \\
AND(A, B, F) &\equiv \forall^1 x : and(A(x), B(x), F(x))
\end{aligned}$$

For the remainder of the specification, we must develop more arithmetic. We define an auxiliary predicate *one*, which is true when a second-order variable represents the number one, i.e., when only the first bit is set.

$$one(B) \equiv B(0) \wedge \forall^1 p : (p > 0 \rightarrow \neg B(p))$$

We can now define the remaining arithmetic functions using the previously defined relation *add*.

$$\begin{array}{l} increment(A, F, cout) \equiv \\ \quad \exists^0 cin : \exists^2 N : one(N) \wedge \neg cin \wedge add(A, N, F, cin, cout) \\ add\_no\_carry(A, B, F, cout) \equiv \\ \quad \exists^0 cin : \neg cin \wedge add(A, B, F, cin, cout) \\ add\_with\_carry(A, B, F, cout) \equiv \\ \quad \exists^0 cin : cin \wedge add(A, B, F, cin, cout) \\ one\_compl\_add(A, B, F, cout) \equiv \\ \quad \exists^0 cin : \exists^2 Comp : \neg cin \wedge compl(B, Comp) \wedge add(A, Comp, F, cin, cout) \\ two\_compl\_add(A, B, F, cout) \equiv \\ \quad \exists^0 cin : \exists^2 Comp : cin \wedge compl(B, Comp) \wedge add(A, Comp, F, cin, cout) \\ decrement(A, F, cout) \equiv \\ \quad \exists^2 V : one(V) \wedge two\_compl\_add(A, V, F, cout) \end{array}$$

Now, using the following auxiliary definitions

$$\begin{aligned} if_3(a, b, c, d) &\equiv (a \wedge b \wedge c) \rightarrow d \\ if_4(a, b, c, d, e) &\equiv (a \wedge b \wedge c \wedge d) \rightarrow e \end{aligned}$$

we encode $alu\_spec(s_0, s_1, s_2, A, B, F, cin, cout)$ by specifying the function table as:

$$\begin{array}{l} if_4(\neg s_2, \neg s_1, \neg s_0, \neg cin, transfer(A, F)) \wedge \\ if_4(\neg s_2, \neg s_1, \neg s_0, cin, increment(A, F, cout)) \wedge \\ if_4(\neg s_2, \neg s_1, s_0, \neg cin, add\_no\_carry(A, B, F, cout)) \wedge \\ if_4(\neg s_2, \neg s_1, s_0, cin, add\_with\_carry(A, B, F, cout)) \wedge \\ if_4(\neg s_2, s_1, \neg s_0, \neg cin, one\_compl\_add(A, B, F, cout)) \wedge \\ if_4(\neg s_2, s_1, \neg s_0, cin, two\_compl\_add(A, B, F, cout)) \wedge \\ if_4(\neg s_2, s_1, s_0, \neg cin, decrement(A, F, cout)) \wedge \\ if_4(\neg s_2, s_1, s_0, cin, transfer(A, F)) \wedge \\ if_3(s_2, \neg s_1, \neg s_0, OR(A, B, F)) \wedge if_3(s_2, \neg s_1, s_0, XOR(A, B, F)) \wedge \\ if_3(s_2, s_1, \neg s_0, AND(A, B, F)) \wedge if_3(s_2, s_1, s_0, compl(A, F)) \end{array}$$

ALU implementation The ALU implementation, as specified in [23], is given in Figure 4. The corresponding M2L formula is encoded analogously to the parameterized adder. The only additional complication is that the description consists of two parts: an initialization block and a repeating ALU block. The first part, which

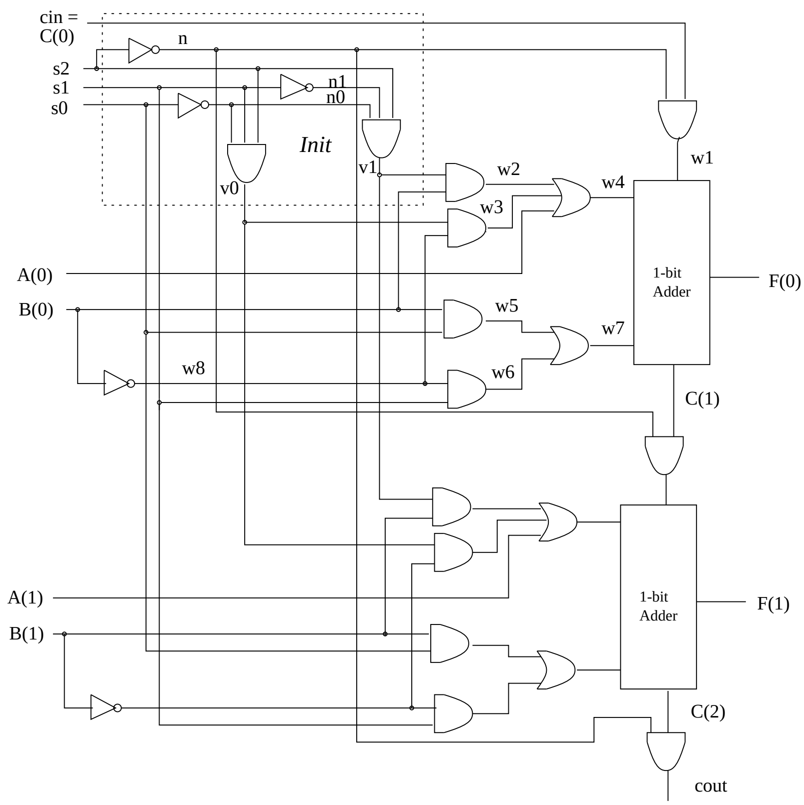


Figure 4. n-bit ALU ($n = 2$)

we call *init* computes negations of the selection wires and conjunctions of them and their negations.

$$\begin{aligned} & init(s_0, s_1, s_2, v_0, v_1, n) \equiv \\ & \quad \exists^o n_0,\ n_1 : not(s_0, n_0) \wedge not(s_1, n_1) \wedge not(s_2, n) \wedge \\ & \qquad and3(n_0, s_1, s_2, v_0) \wedge and3(n_0, n_1, s_2, v_1) \end{aligned}$$

The remainder of the ALU consists of the regular repetition of 1-bit ALU sections. These sections also require the switching wires s_i and the results of the *init* section computed on the wires v_0, v_1, and n.

$$\begin{aligned} & one\_alu(a, b, f, cin, cout, s_0, s_1, v_1, v_2, n) \equiv \\ & \quad \exists^o w_1,\ w_2,\ w_3,\ w_4,\ w_5,\ w_6,\ w_7,\ w_8 : and(n, cin, w_1) \wedge and(v_1, b, w_2) \\ & \quad \wedge\ and(v_0, w_8, w_3) \wedge or3(w_2, w_3, a, w_4) \wedge\ \ and(b, s_0, w_5) \\ & \quad \wedge\ and(w_8, s_1, w_6) \wedge or(w_5, w_6, w_7) \wedge not(b, w_8) \\ & \quad \wedge\ full\_adder(w_4, w_7, f, w_1, cout) \end{aligned}$$

To specify the parameterized ALU, we combine the *init* block with ripple-carried 1-bit ALU units. The ALU sections are hooked together as were the adder sections in the parameterized adder example.

$$\begin{aligned}
&n_alu(s_0, s_1, s_2, A, B, F, cin, cout) \equiv \\
&\quad \exists^2 C,\ D : \exists^0 v_0,\ v_1,\ n : init(s_0, s_1, s_2, v_0, v_1, n) \wedge \\
&\quad (\forall^1 p : one_alu(A(p), B(p), F(p), C(p), D(p)), s_0, s_1, v_0, v_1, n) \wedge \\
&\quad (\forall^1 p : (p < \$) \rightarrow (D(p) \leftrightarrow C(p \oplus 1))) \wedge (C(0) \leftrightarrow cin) \wedge (D(\$) \leftrightarrow cout)
\end{aligned}$$

Verification We may now verify that the ALU implementation satisfies its specification. Namely, when the switches and ports of the ALU take on values consistent with the implementation, the specification is satisfied.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\forall^2 A, B, F : \forall^0 s_0, s_1, s_2, cin, cout : \\
&\quad n_alu(s_0, s_1, s_2, A, B, F, cin, cout) \rightarrow alu_spec(s_0, s_1, s_2, A, B, F, cin, cout)
\end{aligned}$$

It takes Mona 2 seconds to verify this. Other properties, such as the functional relation between the inputs and outputs, are also easily checked in about the same amount of time.

Note that we proved only that the implementation satisfies (implies) the specification. We did not prove an equivalence, as we did with the n-bit adder. The reason is that the specification is more abstract than the implementation: it leaves certain port value combinations unspecified. Suppose we did not know this, or perhaps did, but we wanted to determine when the converse fails. If we ask Mona to prove the converse it responds that the formula is not a tautology. If we remove the initial quantifiers, i.e.,

$$alu\_spec(s_0, s_1, s_2, A, B, F, cin, cout) \rightarrow n\_alu(s_0, s_1, s_2, A, B, F, cin, cout)\,,$$

then the port values are free variables and Mona produces a counter-example and responds:

```
A counter-example of least length (1) is:
Booleans:
cout 1
s2 1
s1 1
s0 1
Second-order:
A           0
B           X
F           1
```

The output tells us that there is a counter-example of length $n = 1$, i.e., consisting of a single 1-bit ALU slice. This counter-example is sensible. The specification only states that when the s_i are all 1, F is the complement of A. So the specification holds for any value of B and any value of *cout*, in particular $cout = 1$. However, these values are not consistent with the implementation.

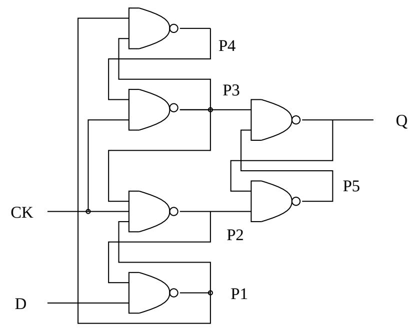


Figure 5. D-type Flip-flop

5. Sequential Circuits

In the last section, a string represented a sequence of bits, i.e., a word of parameterized length. In this section, a string represents the behavior of a sequential circuit (of fixed bit-width) as it evolves over time. Circuit descriptions are similar to those we have previously seen except that gates are now parameterized by time.

Our example is a standard implementation of a D-type flip-flop, built from 6 *nand* gates, as shown in Figure 5. Although this circuit looks simple, understanding and demonstrating its correctness is difficult. Hanna and Daeche give a thorough and well-written analysis of this flip-flop in [16].[4] They used Veritas, a theorem prover based on a higher-order logic, to give a comprehensive analysis using a partial description of waveforms over the rational numbers. Their analysis is complex, and it took an experienced user a week to construct the proof.

Our starting point is a discrete model of this circuit proposed by Gordon in [12]. He assumed that each gate has a delay of one time unit. Gordon described the behavior of the circuit using formulas in higher-order logic, where first-order variables denote time instants. The proof that the circuit meets its specification, which he notes "is fairly complicated", was done only with pencil and paper. The flip-flop and Gordon's specification are easily encoded in Mona. To our surprise, Mona calculated a counter-example. We later discovered that Wilk and Pnueli had already reported on the failure of Gordon's specification in [31]. They formulated Gordon's informal requirements in a temporal logic with "quantized" tense operators like $\Diamond^n \phi$, which holds at the present moment if ϕ holds at least once within the next n time units.

Temporal logic, in the sense of tense logic, is based on operators that denote modalities like "it will be the case" and "until". Linear tense logic is PSPACE-complete, and it has been explored intensively [11]. But temporal logic can as well be viewed as simply a first-order logic of natural numbers (if we are content with the natural numbers as a model of time)—which was essentially also Gordon's approach. To our knowledge, this point of view has not been pursued from a practical point of view in verification, maybe because this formulation is non-elementary (as is M2L). We believe that the first-order formulation is more attractive, since many temporal idioms (including the usual tense operators) can easily be expressed as predicates.

To translate the other way, from the first-order formulation to the tense formulation, is much more difficult and potentially involves a non-elementary blow-up; this is why Wilk and Pnueli could not directly use Gordon's HOL specification, but had to transcribe the informal requirements.

We present next our analysis, which is based on experiments with MONA.

5.1. *Temporal Concepts*

The temporal concepts needed to reason about the flip-flop are straightforward to express in MONA:

- the value of F is stable in $[t_1, t_2]$:
  $\mathit{stable}(t_1, t_2, F) \equiv \forall^1 t : t_1 \leq t \leq t_2 \rightarrow (F(t) \leftrightarrow F(t_1))$

- t_2 is the first instant after t_1 when F becomes high:
  $\mathit{next}(t_1, t_2, F) \equiv t_1 < t_2 \wedge F(t_2) \wedge (\forall^1 t : t_1 < t < t_2 \rightarrow \neg F(t))$

- F rises at t:
  $\mathit{rise}(t, F) \equiv t > 0 \wedge (\neg F(t \ominus 1) \wedge F(t))$

- F falls at t:
  $\mathit{fall}(t, F) \equiv t > 0 \wedge (F(t \ominus 1) \wedge \neg F(t))$

- F rises at *Rise*:
  $\mathit{times\_rise}(F, \mathit{Rise}) \equiv \forall^1 t : \mathit{Rise}(t) \leftrightarrow \mathit{rise}(t, F)$

- F falls at *Fall*:
  $\mathit{times\_fall}(F, \mathit{Fall}) \equiv \forall^1 t : \mathit{Fall}(t) \leftrightarrow \mathit{fall}(t, F)$

5.2. *The Circuit*

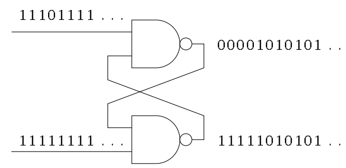
The temporal behavior of a unit-delay nand-gate with inputs I_1 and I_2 and output O is described by

$$\mathit{nand}(I_1, I_2, O) \equiv \forall^1 t : t < \$ \rightarrow O(t \oplus 1) \leftrightarrow \neg(I_1(t) \wedge I_2(t))\ .$$

If we call the corresponding predicate for three inputs $\mathit{nand3}(I_1, I_2, I_3, O)$, then the flip-flop in Figure 5 is described by

$$\begin{aligned}\mathit{dtype\_imp} \equiv\ & \mathit{nand}(P_2, D, P_1) \wedge \mathit{nand3}(P_3, CK, P_1, P_2) \wedge \mathit{nand}(P_4, CK, P_3) \wedge \\ & \mathit{nand}(P_1, P_3, P_4) \wedge \mathit{nand}(P_3, P_5, Q) \wedge \mathit{nand}(Q, P_2, P_5)\ .\end{aligned}$$

In our model, even a simple flip-flop may begin to oscillate due to a single negative spike:



We address this phenomenon (which was not discussed in [12, 31]) to demonstrate how an understanding of the circuit can be achieved by experiments in Mona.

Informally, we would like to argue that if the input signals are kept stable for some time and if the circuit is already stable, then eventually the other signals of the circuit become stable as well. We define

$$\begin{aligned}&\mathit{input\_stable}(t) \equiv t + \mathit{in\_stable\_time} - 1 \leq \$ \\ &\quad \wedge\ \mathit{stable}(t, t \oplus \mathit{in\_stable\_time} - 1, D) \wedge\ \mathit{stable}(t, t \oplus \mathit{in\_stable\_time} - 1, \mathit{CK})\end{aligned}$$

to denote that inputs are stable for a period of length *in_stable_time*.[5]

We regard the circuit as stable if all outputs of gates are stable for an interval of *circ_stable_time* instants, i.e., if

$$\begin{aligned}&\mathit{circuit\_stable}(t) \equiv t \oplus \mathit{circ\_stable\_time} - 1 \leq \$ \wedge \\ &\quad \mathit{stable}(t, t \oplus \mathit{circ\_stable\_time} - 1, P_1) \wedge \mathit{stable}(t, t \oplus \mathit{circ\_stable\_time} - 1, P_2) \wedge \\ &\quad \mathit{stable}(t, t \oplus \mathit{circ\_stable\_time} - 1, P_3) \wedge \mathit{stable}(t, t \oplus \mathit{circ\_stable\_time} - 1, P_4) \wedge \\ &\quad \mathit{stable}(t, t \oplus \mathit{circ\_stable\_time} - 1, P_5) \wedge \mathit{stable}(t, t \oplus \mathit{circ\_stable\_time} - 1, Q)\,.\end{aligned}$$

Stability preservation of the circuit can be expressed informally as: if the circuit is stable at some t_s and if the inputs are held stable at $t_i \geq t_s$, then there is $t'_s \geq t_i$ such that the circuit is stable at t'_s. Thus, we define

$$\begin{aligned}&\mathit{stability\_preserved} \ \equiv \\ &\quad \forall^1 t_s : \mathit{circuit\_stable}(t_s) \rightarrow \\ &\qquad \forall^1 t_i : (t_i > t_s \ \wedge\ \mathit{input\_stable}(t_i) \rightarrow \exists t'_s : t'_s \geq t_i \wedge\ \mathit{circuit\_stable}(t'_s))\,.\end{aligned}$$

Let us try to verify stability preservation as embodied by the formula

$$\mathit{dtype\_imp} \Rightarrow \mathit{stability\_preserved}\,.$$

Mona calculates a counter-example in about 5 seconds (where we have made *in_stable_time* equal 6):

$$
\begin{array}{lcl}
D & = & 0111111 \\
CK & = & 0111111 \\
Q & = & 1111010 \\
P_1 & = & 1101010 \\
P_2 & = & 1101010 \\
P_3 & = & 1111010 \\
P_4 & = & 0001010 \\
P_5 & = & 0001010 \\
t_s & = & 1000000 \\
t_i & = & 0100000
\end{array}
$$

Here we have made t_s and t_i free variables so that Mona can generate a counter-example that identifies the exact spot of trouble.[6] We see that the simultaneous rise of both the D and CK signals seems to tickle the circuit so that it begins to oscillate despite being stable initially. (Incidentally, this was the problem that Gordon had failed to address in his specification.) Note that the quantification $\exists^1 t'_s$ must succeed before "time runs out," i.e., before the finite segment of time that the logic is interpreted over ends. In other words, we have made the assumption that the stabilization of the circuit takes place while the inputs are kept stable.

5.4. *Input Requirements*

By experiments that constrain the inputs in different ways, we have arrived at the following requirements on the input signals: the clock signal must not form a negative spike of duration less than *min_clock_low* or a positive spike of duration less than *min_clock_high*. The D signal must be stable for at least *setup* units before CK rises. We define these conditions as

$$
\begin{array}{l}
\mathit{input\_requirements} \equiv \\
\quad \forall^1 t : \; (\mathit{fall}(t, CK) \rightarrow \mathit{stable}(t, t \oplus \mathit{min\_clock\_low} - 1, CK)) \wedge \\
\qquad\quad (\mathit{rise}(t, CK) \rightarrow \mathit{stable}(t, t \oplus \mathit{min\_clock} - 1, CK)) \wedge \\
\qquad\quad (\mathit{rise}(t, CK) \rightarrow \mathit{stable}(t \ominus (\mathit{setup} - 1), t, D))\,.
\end{array}
$$

(The actual Mona code also contains the test for end of time, which we have omitted here for sake of brevity.) Now, with the choices

min_clock_low	2
min_clock_high	3
setup	3
circ_stable_time	2
in_stable_time	6

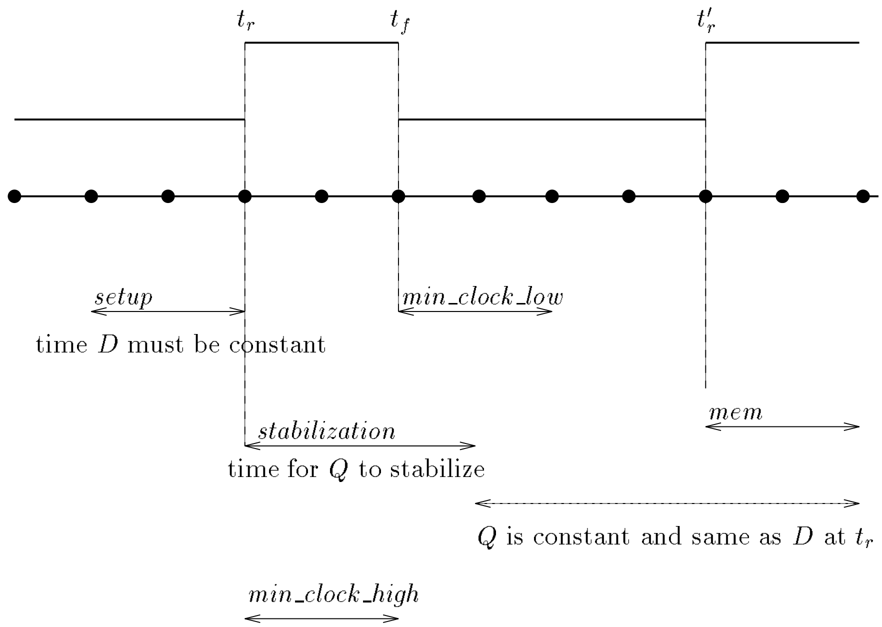
Mona proves the implication

$$\mathit{dtype\_imp} \wedge \mathit{input\_requirements} \rightarrow \mathit{stability\_preserved}$$

in about 2 seconds.

5.5. **D**-type Flip-flop Behavior

The essential D-type flip-flop behavior is as depicted below: if the clock rises at t_r, then falls at t_f, and then rises again at t'_r, then the value of D at t_r appears at Q at time $t_r \oplus stabilization - 1$ and remains there until time $t'_r \oplus mem - 1$. When we add the input requirements already stated to this set of circumstances, a complicated set of timing relationships is enforced:



Formally, we express the essential flip-flop behavior as

$$
\begin{aligned}
dtype \equiv \forall\ & t_r, t_f, t'_r : \\
& rise(t_r, CK) \\
& \wedge (\exists^2 P : times\_rise(CK, P) \wedge next(t_r, t'_r, P)) \\
& \wedge (\exists^2 P : times\_fall(CK, P) \wedge next(t_r, t_f, P))) \rightarrow \\
& (stable(t_r \oplus stabilization - 1, t'_r \oplus mem - 1, Q) \\
& \wedge Q(t_r \oplus stabilization - 1) \leftrightarrow D(t_r)) \,.
\end{aligned}
$$

This is essentially the same behavior specified by Gordon in [12]. Now, with the additional choices

stabilization	4
mem	2

the implication

$$dtype\_imp \ \wedge \ input\_requirements \rightarrow dtype$$

is verified in about 2 seconds. Experiments show that these values cannot be lowered.

6. A Parameterized Benchmark: the "Min-Max" Circuit

We have used parameterization to represent both families of combinational circuits and sequential designs. Here we consider the two aspects together: sequential circuits with parametric data-paths. The interesting problem now is that there are two independent parameters: time and word (data-path) length. Both parameters cannot be simultaneously formalized since our second-order variables represent only monadic predicates (which take a single argument).[7] Instead we use here the well-known idea of reasoning about a sequential circuit in terms of its transition function, which here has only a single parameter. Our solution is an application of the approach used to solve the dining philosophers problem in [17].

The *Min-Max* signal processor unit was formulated as a benchmark problem for the 1989 IFIP International Workshop on Applied Formal Methods for Correct VLSI Design [8]. Here we study a parameterized version suggested in [26]. This version was specified in the CASCADE Hardware Description Language and verified by means of a theorem prover. We argue that such descriptions can be straightforwardly translated into Mona provided that the arithmetic used is essentially regular.

The unit is controlled by three Boolean signals; in addition, it has a parameterized integer input and output. In its normal mode of operation, the output value is the mean value of the lowest and highest values encountered in the input since the circuit was reset last.

As an example of the transcription into Mona, we reproduce here a submodule of the high-level specification:

```
description LAST (INT N) (in CLOCK H; in BTMO E, IN_L[0:N-1];
                           out BREGO OUT_L[0:N-1])
body
  external MUX_N;
  declare BTMO E_N[0:N-1], OUT_M[0:N-1];
  use MUX_N MUX(E_N, IN_L, OUT_L, OUT_M);
  relation
    E_N = fan N | E,
    !H! OUT_L <= OUT_M;
enddescription
```

This submodule is parameterized by `N` and declares a clock `H`, a Boolean input signal `E`, a parameterized input `IN_L`, and a parameterized register `OUT_L`. The submodule declares parameterized data-paths named `E_N` and `OUT_M`, and it instantiates a multiplexer `MUX_N`, whose output is wired to `OUT_M` and whose inputs are `E_N` (which is specified as the signal `E` duplicated `N` times), the parameterized input `IN_L`, and the current value of the parameterized `OUT_L` register. The submodule also declares that when the clock `H` rises, the value `OUT_M` is latched into the register `OUT_L`.

The corresponding MONA declaration is

$$
\begin{aligned}
&last(h, e, In\_L, Out\_L, Out\_L\_) \equiv \\
&\quad \exists^2 E\_N, Out\_M : mux\_n(E\_N, In\_L, Out\_L, Out\_M) \\
&\quad \wedge fan(E\_N, e) \wedge if(h, Out\_L\_, Out\_M, Out\_L\_, Out\_L);
\end{aligned}
$$

where the parameterized register variable `OUT_L` is modeled by two second-order variables *Out_L* and *Out_L_* corresponding to the value before and after a clock tick. Here *mux_n*, *fan*, and *if* are MONA predicates defined elsewhere.

We translate both the circuit description `min_max_low` and the high-level description `min_max_high` in a similar fashion (which can be automated). The one exception is that in the high-level description, the mean value is described in terms of usual addition and division on values of the parameterized data-path viewed as integers. As with the ALU, we have to specify these operations bit-wise. Both descriptions concern four Boolean signals (`h`, `clear`, `reset`, and `enable`), the parameterized input (`In_M`) and output values (`Out_M`), and three parameterized registers (`Pastmax`, `Pastmin`, `Last`).

The equivalence of the two descriptions is established if the MONA formula

$$
\begin{aligned}
&min\_max\_low(h, clear, reset, enable, In\_M, Out\_M, \\
&\qquad Pastmax, Pastmax\_, Pastmin, Pastmin\_, Last, Last\_) \\
&\Leftrightarrow min\_max\_high(h, clear, reset, enable, In\_M, Out\_M, \\
&\qquad Pastmax, Pastmax\_, Pastmin, Pastmin\_, Last, Last\_)
\end{aligned}
$$

is valid. MONA verifies that this is the case in 10 seconds. The description of the circuit and its specification takes five pages of M2L code.

7. Why does it work?

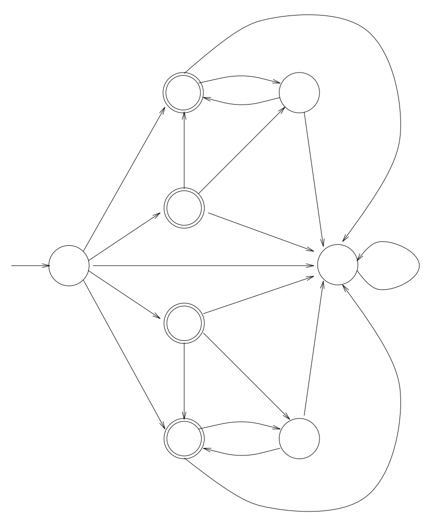
The complexity of deciding the validity of M2L formulas is determined by the complexity of carrying out the operations that translate formulas to automata. Exponential factors arise in two ways. First, as discussed in §3, the transition function of an automaton is exponential in the number of free variables. This is typically not a problem in practice since BDDs often lead to exponential compression whereby the transition function can be represented in polynomial space. The second source of trouble is that each quantifier requires a projection operation followed by an application of the subset construction to determinize the result. The subset construction can lead to exponentially many more states in an automaton. Formulas with alternating quantifiers require iterating this operation (once for each quantifier alternation) and this is responsible for the non-elementary lower-bound associated with M2L and related logics. In what follows, we look more carefully at these operations and argue why a state explosion rarely happens in practice. Indeed, we show that there are particular syntactic and semantic classes of formulas (see also §8) where we can guarantee that a blow-up will not occur.

To illuminate why our approach works in practice, we focus on the *add* predicate defined in Section 4.2:

$$
\begin{array}{l}
at\_least\_two(a,b,c) \equiv (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c) \vee (b \wedge c) \\
mod\_two(a,b,c,d) \equiv a \leftrightarrow b \leftrightarrow c \leftrightarrow d \\
\\
add(A,B,Out,cin,cout) \;\equiv \\
\quad \exists^2 C: \;\$ \geq 0 \;\Rightarrow \\
\qquad (\;\; \forall^1 p : mod\_two(A(p),B(p),C(p),Out(p)) \\
\qquad\qquad \wedge\; ((p < \$) \rightarrow (C(p \oplus 1) \leftrightarrow at\_least\_two(A(p),B(p),C(p)))) \\
\qquad \wedge\;\; (cout \leftrightarrow at\_least\_two(A(\$),B(\$),C(\$))) \\
\qquad \wedge\;\; C(0) \leftrightarrow cin)
\end{array}
$$

Note that we have here added the precondition $\$ \geq 0$ so as to fix the meaning of the formula (to true) for the empty string interpretation; this makes the corresponding automaton easier to understand.

A use of second-order quantification The formula defined by *add* above has the form $\exists^2 C : \phi$. We focus on the computation related to the quantifier $\exists^2 C$, which "guesses" the intermediate carry bits. In theory, the projection and subsequent determinization required to eliminate this quantifier can cause an exponential blow-up in the state space. Here is what happens in practice. The automaton corresponding to the formula ϕ inside the quantifier has 8 states (we have not indicated the 32 BDD nodes of this automaton for the sake of clarity):



The automaton reads a string that defines the interpretations of variables A, B, Out, cin, $cout$ and C. Its shape can be explained as follows. The formula ϕ expresses that each component of the result is the sum of the A and B component and the carry C. Thus the automaton counts modulo 2. But it must also remember the value of the carry out $cout$, which can be checked only after the last position has been read. Thus, the automaton has two modulo-2 counters, each having one accepting and one non-accepting state. Since the empty string is always accepted (due to the $\$ \geq 0$ clause), the four different states reached from the initial state upon reading the letter defining the values of the Boolean variables are all accepting. The rightmost state is the one reached in case the carry C or the output Out is wrong at any point. There is no recovery from such an error so this state acts as a sink.

The automaton for $\exists^2 C : \phi$ is obtained by a projection and subset construction that works as follows. Recall that this new automaton reads strings that define A, B, Out, cin, and $cout$, but not C. It must accept if and only if there is some assignment to C that makes the old automaton accept. The first subset constructed is that containing only the initial state. On any transition out of the initial state, another singleton state is reached since the first transition only involves the values of Boolean variables. For any of these four states and any input letter, there are exactly two transitions possible: one to the state that would be reached if the correct value of the carry C was part of the input letter and the sink state corresponding to the situation when C was wrong. Thus, all subsets reached from this point on have exactly two elements: a counting state and the sink state (there is one exception: the singleton state consisting of the sink state alone is also reachable, for example, if a letter defines the wrong value of Out). As a result, two of the four singleton states reached on the first transition also become two-element states. Thus there are exactly 10 reachable states in the subset automaton.

The arguments above are easily generalized as follows.

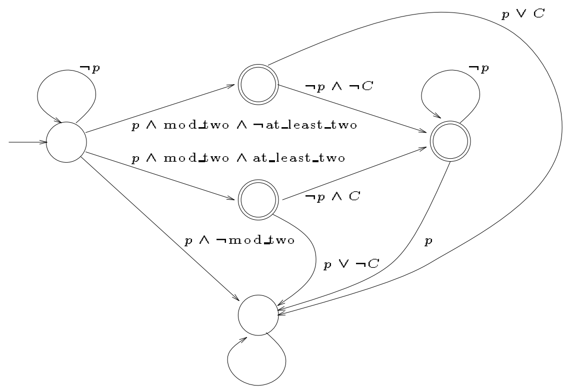
PROPOSITION 2 *Let ϕ be a formula of the form $\exists^2 P : \psi(P)$, where P is functionally determined, that is, for any interpretation of the remaining free variables in ψ, there is exactly one interpretation of P making ψ true. Then, the calculation of the subset automaton for ϕ is linear in the size of the automaton for ψ.*

A use of first-order quantification Recall that each first-order variable is treated as a second-order variable that ranges over a singleton (one element) set. Thus the automaton for $\phi(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$, where $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ are all the free first-order variables in ϕ, recognizes all strings that have exactly one occurrence of a 1 in each p_i-track and that make ϕ true with p_i interpreted by the position of the 1 in the p_i-track.

Returning to the example, we calculate the automaton for $\phi \equiv \forall^1 p : \psi$, where

$$\begin{aligned}\psi \;\equiv\;& mod\_two(A(p), B(p), C(p), Out(p)) \wedge \\ & ((p < \$) \rightarrow (C(p \oplus 1) \leftrightarrow at\_least\_two(A(p), B(p), C(p))))\end{aligned}$$

from the automaton for ψ, which looks like:

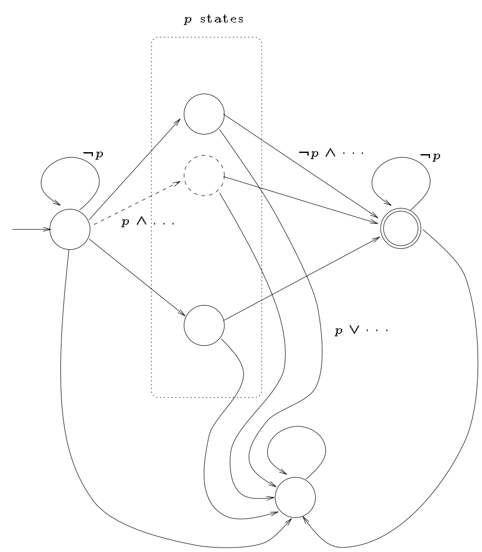


We have here omitted the initial transition corresponding to the Boolean variables in ψ, since there are none. Intuitively, this automaton waits until it sees the position p; then it either goes to a terminal non-accepting state (if the *mod_two* predicate does not hold at position p), or it branches (if the *mod_two* predicate holds) to a new state that remembers the value of the *at_least_two* predicate at position p. In the latter case, the automaton checks on the next transition, corresponding to position $p+1$, that C has the correct value.

In this example, the subset automaton constructed by projecting out p is also small. (This automaton is constructed from an automaton corresponding to the negation of ψ according to the identity $\forall^1 p : \psi \equiv \neg\exists^1 p : \neg\psi$. The automaton for $\neg\psi$ is the same as the one above, except that accepting and non-accepting states are interchanged and that a few transitions are slightly different.) However, instead of studying the subset construction in detail for the automaton above, we tackle a more general situation. Consider a formula ψ that is (or is equivalent to) a Boolean combination of formulas of the form

$$p \in X_i \text{ or } p < \$ \Rightarrow p \oplus 1 \in X_i. \tag{2}$$

Then ψ corresponds to an automaton A that looks like:



This shape is easy to explain: before p occurs, ψ says nothing about any other variable; when p occurs, a new state (inside the dotted box named "p states") is reached according to the values of the X_is at p (some of these states may be final, since p might be the last position); and if p is not the last position the truth of ψ is determined by reading the X_is at position $p+1$.

The reachable states of A in the subset construction are those of the form

$$\{s \mid \text{for some } \alpha,\ s \text{ is the state reached when some } p\text{-track is added to } \alpha\},$$

where α determines an interpretation of the X_i. It can be seen that any such set contains at most one state from the box in the figure above, namely the state reached by adding a p-track of the form 0^*1, i.e., a track where the single occurrence of 1 is in the last position. Therefore, we again only have a linear expansion.

Proposition 3 *For a formula $\phi \equiv \exists^1 p : \psi(p, \{X_i\})$, where ψ is a Boolean combination of subformulas of the form (2), the calculation of the subset automaton for ϕ is linear in the size of the automaton for ψ.*

This proposition does not directly explain the complexity of the subset construction when there are more than one free first-order variable in the formula. Often, however, the variable that is projected away is tightly constrained by other variables. For example, if we project away the variable z in a formula that contains the clause $x \leq z \leq y$, then the subset construction essentially only explores the situation when $x \leq z \leq y$ holds. Thus, if z is otherwise only used as in the proposition above, we would be able to again establish a linear upper bound.

8. Comparison and Conclusions

Our results constitute a study of automatic verification based on regular classes of circuits. For example, a family of n-bit adders is regular in an informal structural sense (n adders are chained together ripple-carry style), as well as in a formal language theoretic sense. Viewing the input/output relation of an n-bit adder as a set of words of length n, we find that the union of the words for $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ is recognizable by a finite-state automaton. The logic of M2L allows us to express regularity in the informal structural sense in a declarative way by stating how an n-bit adder is iteratively built. The decision procedure implemented by MONA reduces analysis of the resulting description of an infinite state space to the analysis of a regular one.

Below we compare our approach with others reported on in the literature.

8.1. Inductive Theorem Proving

Most approaches to reasoning about parameterized systems involve explicit theorem proving: the system is formalized as a recursive (or inductive) definition within a logic like first-order or higher-order logic and explicitly reasoned about by mathematical induction, cf. [2, 4, 9, 12, 16, 18, 19, 22, 25]. For example, to show that a family of circuits C, parameterized by n, with port values given by the vectors $X_1, \ldots X_n$ satisfies a parameterized behavioral specification S, one proves

$$\forall n,\, X_1, \ldots, X_n : C(n, X_1, \ldots, X_n) \rightarrow S(n, X_1, \ldots, X_n)$$

by induction over the parameter n.

The parameterized adder and ALU have been used as test-cases by others in inductive theorem proving, in particular by Cantu *et al.* using the Edinburgh CLAM System [6] and by Cyrluk *et al.* using PVS [7]. CLAM is a system that generates proofs by induction for a higher-order logic. The development in CLAM of the ALU took over a week and the proof is constructed automatically in 4 minutes and 40 seconds by CLAM, as opposed to 2 seconds by MONA. Their specification shares some similarities to ours, but differs in several important respects. First, they are not limited to specifications expressible within a decidable logic. As a result, they were able to apply their approach to verify circuits such as parameterized multipliers, which cannot be formalized in M2L. Second, they specified the ALU as a recursive function while we specified it as a non-recursive relation. Both are valid representation techniques, but note that we cannot write explicit recursive functions in M2L. On the other hand, if Cantu *et al.* had formalized the ALU as a recursively defined relation, CLAM would have been unable to construct a proof.[8]

The ALU theorem was also verified using PVS. PVS is a semi-interactive theorem prover that features built-in simplifiers and decision procedures; for example BDDs are used for propositional reasoning. Users can control proof construction by writing proof strategies (similar to tactics in the LCF sense). In [7] the adder and the ALU are verified using the induction, normalization, and BDD features of PVS. The formalization of these circuits is similar to that of Cantu *et al.* Verification by induction of the parameterized adder is stated to last approximately 2 minutes (as opposed to our time of one second) and their proof of the ALU required 90 seconds, as opposed to 2 seconds in our case.

The signal-processor circuit was verified in NQTHM (the Boyer-Moore theorem prover) and reported on in [26]. The proof required the user to formulate various lemmas. Even with the lemmas, verification required several minutes of CPU time, as opposed to 10 seconds in our case.

These examples suggest that when a parameterized system is formalizable in M2L, then there can be real advantages with our approach. Not only are our verification times typically one to two orders of magnitude faster, but there is no need for search, heuristics, or user interaction. In practice, no theorem proving system (other than those implementing decision procedures) is fully automatic. Although some systems use powerful heuristics for automating induction (e.g., CLAM, NQTHM, and PVS) or complete proof procedures for semi-decidable logics (e.g., resolution theorem provers like OTTER are typically refutation complete for first-order theories) all such systems require, in practice, user guidance such as suggestion of rewrite rules, lemmas, parameter settings, and the like. This is quite different from our approach where the only possible parameter the user can influence is the variable ordering used in building BDDs. In all our examples, this ordering was picked automatically by MONA.

8.2. Deduction without Induction

An alternative approach to parameterized verification is to fix the parameter to a particular value n. A finite circuit arises that can be analyzed using BDDs. As shown in [24], the circuits that allow BDD representations whose size is linear in n are those with a bounded amount of information flowing through any cross section. Similarly, it is not hard to see that the corresponding parameterized circuit is representable in M2L. The point at which the instantiated description becomes larger than the parameterized description will depend on variable orderings and the chosen representation of automata.

Although replacing a parameter with a constant may be satisfactory for reasoning about circuits whose size is parameterized, it can lead to incorrect results when reasoning about circuits whose behavior should hold over all instants of time. The problem is that one cannot easily bound how many time instances must be reasoned about to establish correctness; the counter-examples produced in our flip-flop example provide some evidence of the difficulty of this problem. One alternative, discussed above, is to retreat to an undecidable formalism and use induction to explicitly reason about the parameter. Another alternative is to use a decidable temporal logic.

As indicated in §5, both of the above approaches have been pursued in verification of flip-flops. Flip-flops have been laboriously verified interactively in theorem provers based on higher-order logic. In contrast, our fully-automated verification took 2 seconds. A competitive approach is model checking using decidable temporal logics. A temporal logic solution for the flip-flop we analyzed was presented in [31]. Verification took 20 seconds. We have translated the specification given in [31] directly into MONA; our verification time is around 2 seconds—a figure comparable to those of the original solution, since computers are now much faster than in 1989, when [31] was published.

8.3. Combined Induction/Deduction

It is possible to combine induction with non-inductive methods such as decision procedures like MONA or model checkers. In our work, we combined induction and deduction when reasoning about parameterized sequential circuits: an inductive step was performed (which was not formalized in a formal metalogic) to eliminate a parameter (in our case, time) and thereby reduce the problem to one which can be solved by MONA. Such a reduction can be formalized in an interactive theorem proving environment. For example, Kurshan and Lamport combined COSPAN (a model checking system) with TLP (a theorem prover based on Lamport's Temporal Logic of Actions) and used induction to decompose the verification of a parametric multiplier to the verification of 8-bit multipliers, which is then verified automatically [21].

Other researchers have investigated explicit induction principles for reasoning about networks of processes where the base case and the inductive steps are reduced to decidable problems. Such approaches test sufficient conditions for the correctness of the overall system. Kurshan and MacMillan have incorporated reasoning by induction into the COSPAN system [22], which is used to check ω-regular properties of processes; this allowed them to verify safety and liveness properties of a non-trivial version of the Dining Philosophers problem that was parameterized by the number of processes. These ideas have been further extended [27] and similar ideas have been developed in other settings, cf. [32].

8.4. Linearly Inductive Functions

The work closest to ours is that of Gupta and Fisher [13, 14] who, from a rather different starting point, have also developed a BDD-based formalism closely connected to regular languages. They define two classes of inductively defined Boolean functions: Linearly Inductive Functions (LIFs) and Exponentially Inductive Functions (EIFs). Both classes consist of Boolean formulas defined by restricted forms of recursion. For example, the following equations define a family of n-bit adders as two LIFs, one for *sum* and one for *carry*.

$$
\begin{array}{lrl}
\text{for } i = 1 & sum_1 = & a_1 \oplus b_1 \oplus cin \\
 & carry_1 = & (a_1 \wedge b_1) \vee ((a_1 \vee b_1) \wedge cin) \\
\text{for } i > 1 & sum_i = & a_i \oplus b_i \oplus carry_{i-1} \\
 & carry_i = & (a_i \wedge b_i) \vee ((a_i \vee b_i) \wedge carry_{i-1})
\end{array}
$$

These equations can be expressed in M2L as follows.

$$
\begin{array}{l}
add(A, B, Sum, Carry, cin) \ \equiv \\
\quad \forall^1 i: \\
\quad\quad i = 0 \rightarrow \\
\quad\quad\quad Sum(0) \leftrightarrow xor(A(0), xor(B(0), cin) \wedge \\
\quad\quad\quad Carry(0) \leftrightarrow (A(0) \wedge B(0)) \vee ((A(0) \vee B(0)) \wedge cin)) \\
\quad\quad 0 < i \rightarrow \\
\quad\quad\quad Sum(i) \leftrightarrow xor(A(i), xor(B(i), Carry(i \ominus 1))) \wedge \\
\quad\quad\quad Carry(i) \leftrightarrow (A(i) \wedge B(i)) \vee ((A(i) \vee B(i)) \wedge Carry(i \ominus 1))
\end{array}
$$

Gupta and Fischer provide algorithms for converting function definitions of this particular form into a *Function Descriptor* (FD) representation. A function descriptor is essentially a state of a BDD-represented automaton (cf. §3.1), but it is associated with two BDDs: a *basis* BDD, which is Boolean-valued BDD followed when the last letter in the string is read, and a *linear inductive BDD*, which is a multi-valued BDD whose value is either a state or a Boolean. A Boolean leaf, which signifies reject or accept, is encountered when the following letters have no significance as to whether the string is accepted—in the usual automaton, this situation corresponds to a looping state.

As shown in [13], the FD representation is in essence an automaton. A precise relation with our framework can be established as follows:

Proposition 4

1. *For any regular language $L \subseteq \mathbf{B}^k$, the FD representation is isomorphic, modulo a couple of nodes, to the BDD-represented automaton A' for the language L' consisting of all $\alpha \in \mathbf{B}^{k+1}$ such that α projected on the first k tracks is in L and the $k+1$-track is of the form 0^*1. Moreover, the FD representation is linear in the size of an automaton A recognizing L.*

2. *Vice versa, an FD representation can be converted to a BDD-represented automaton with at most a quadratic increase in size.*

Proof: 1) The states in A' have two kinds of transitions: those corresponding to letters with a 1 in the $k+1$-track and those with a 0. All states corresponding to a situation where the 1 in the $k+1$-track has not yet occurred can then be viewed as FDs according to the two kinds of transition, which correspond to the inductive case and the base case, respectively. In addition, to get a proper FD representation, the looping non-accepting state in A' is replaced by a leaf labeled 0. The looping accepting state contains a transition to the looping non-accepting state on a 1 in the $k+1$-track (since no more 0s are expected in this track). This piece of the transition graph is replaced by the leaf with value 1.

To see that the FD description is linear in the original BDD-represented automaton A recognizing L, we note that every state of this automaton can be converted to a (non-reduced) FD descriptor by letting the inductive part be the original transition function and by letting the base part be the BDD that represents the transition function from the state with every leaf replaced by 0 or 1 according to whether the leaf is labeled with an accepting or non-accepting state.

2) The other direction is proven in a similar manner. To go from an FD descriptor to a state with an associated transition BDD, we must make a BDD product of the base case and inductive case BDD of the FD descriptor. The details are omitted. ■

The algorithm for translating linearly inductive functions to FD descriptions as described by Fischer and Gupta is based on representing the reverse language. That is, the base case is represented as the last letter in the string. For certain circuits, like shifters, this representation is sometimes exponentially more succinct. Note that the MONA description above can easily be dualized to achieve a representation of the reverse language: simply exchange 0 with \$, $\oplus$ with $\ominus$, etc. The resulting MONA automaton is then in a relationship with the FD description as explained in the above proposition.

If the FD description is desired as the direct output of the MONA translation, a simple formula for the $k+1$-track in the Proposition above could be easily added so that the automaton A' is calculated. This trick is an instance of padding regular languages to the languages described so that state spaces decrease in size for the padded representations.

The above demonstrates that MONA generalizes the LIF framework as a succinct representation formalism for regular languages. It is also the case that one does not pay a price, from a computational theory point of view, for using MONA to compute automata for LIFs. In particular, any LIF is translated to a formula with a single first-order quantifier (for the parameter i), whose quantifier-free matrix is a Boolean formula built using very limited arithmetic (subtraction by 1, and test against zero). An automaton for the matrix can be computed in exponential time in the worst case using arguments as in §7. This bound is similar to that of Gupta and Fisher, where the worst-case complexity of their algorithms is doubly-exponential in the number of LIF variables (as in our case); [15] does not contain an explicit discussion of the size of the FDs in terms of the input size, but it is not hard to see that this explosion is only exponential. Note that it is an open question as to which approach offers better performance in practice, since the algorithms used to build BDD-represented automata in the two approaches are different.

In the LIF framework multiple automata can be specified at the same time and their representation can be shared; this idea can lead to compact representations that are currently not supported by MONA.

We believe that the MONA approach to specifying hardware is often more natural than the LIF approach since the latter—judging from examples in [13]—sometimes requires substantial amount of reasoning at the meta-level to even see that a circuit can be brought into the form of a LIF. On the other hand, the LIF approach generalizes the Mona approach in that it offers some interesting ways of attacking the problem of simultaneous induction in more than one parameter—something that goes beyond regularity [13, 15].

Independently of [15], Vuillemin studied relationships between 2-*adic integers* and sequential circuits in [30]. A 2-adic integer is essentially an infinite string of bits that is regarded as a rational number (only certain rational numbers can be represented in this way). In this somewhat abstract setting, Vuillemin showed that synchronous circuits can be synthesized from descriptions in a language named 2Z. The circuits are represented by *Synchronous Decision Diagrams* or SDDS, which are essentially equivalent to the function descriptor representation of Gupta and Fisher. Vuillemin did not study algorithmic issues such as minimization of SDDS. In [3], the problem of solving equations involving 2-adic integers was studied, and it was noted that SDDS provide another representation of regular languages.

A different approach to automatic verification based on regularity has been studied by Rho and Somenzi in [28]. They investigate automatic verification of what we called parameterized sequential circuits: networks built by iterating cells, where each cell is a finite state transition system. Such systems have multiple parameters and their properties are in general undecidable. Rho and Somenzi show that for certain classes of parameterized systems there are algorithms which can sometimes compute an automaton model of these systems: they infer the automaton model from observations of the systems behavior for $n = 1, 2 \ldots$ until some technical conditions indicate a fixed point. The existence of such a model (*boundedness* in their terminology) is undecidable and their algorithm, when it terminates, provides sufficient conditions for determining simple properties of networks, such as their equivalence.

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Notes

1. Recently, the MONA tool has been changed to accommodate also the weak versions, WS1S and WS2S, of the successor theories. These logics interpret second-order variables as finite sets. The M2L formulation is subsumed by the weak successor formulation as explained in [10].
2. When the length n is 0, there are no positions defined. Therefore, 0 and $n-1$ do not make sense. We will not be bothered by this anomaly, since the case $n = 0$ is irrelevant to the kinds of examples presented in this paper.
3. All times reported in this paper are measured in CPU seconds on a Sun Ultra-Sparc work station.

4. Hanna and Daeche write about the complexity of the circuit (page 193):

   "It turns out, on analysis, that the *modus operandi* of this circuit is far from simple: in fact, it is unusually complex, and (so the authors found) difficult to understand intuitively. If, like most people, you find this remark difficult to accept at face value, read the rest of this account, then set it aside, and attempt, within (say) one working day, to come up with a carefully justified account of 'how' the proposed implementation is intended to function..."

5. We here use $+$ instead of $\oplus$ in the formula $t + in\_stable\_time - 1 \leq \$$, which holds if $+$ and $-$ are interpreted in the usual arithmetic sense without "wrap-around". We need the conjunct "$t + in\_stable\_time - 1 \leq \$$" to prevent t from lying too close to the end (in which case there would not be enough remaining time instants to model that the signals are stable for the required amount of time). The semantics of the $+$ operation cannot be explained in terms of M2L. In the recent WS1S formulation of Mona[10], this problem has disappeared.
6. Note that t_s and t_i are first-order position variables. These are actually encoded in Mona as second-order variables ranging over singleton sets. Here t_s and t_i point to positions 0 and 1 respectively.
7. Logics involving binary-predicates, such as logics on grids, are generally undecidable, since Turing Machine computations can be encoded on the grid.
8. To the best of our knowledge, all systems automating proof by mathematical induction reason about recursively specified functions, but not recursively specified relations. Indeed, some provers used for hardware verification, such as NQTHM, are so biased towards functions that they cannot represent hardware specified relationally (e.g., they lack existential quantification).

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