Platform-Based Design Methodology and Modeling for Aircraft Electric Power Systems

Pierluigi Nuzzo, John Finn, Mohammad Mozumdar and Alberto Sangiovanni-Vincentelli
* Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, University of California at Berkeley
§ Department of Electrical Engineering, California State University Long Beach

Abstract—In an aircraft electric power system (EPS), a supervisory control unit must actuate a set of switches to distribute power from generators to loads, while satisfying safety, reliability and real-time performance requirements. To reduce expensive re-design steps in current design methodologies, such a control problem is generally addressed based on minor incremental changes on top of consolidated solutions, since it is difficult to estimate the impact of earlier design decisions on the final implementation. In this paper, we introduce a methodology for the design space exploration and virtual prototyping of EPS supervisory control protocols, following the platform-based design (PBD) paradigm. Moreover, we describe the modeling infrastructure that supports the methodology. In PBD, design space exploration is carried out as a sequence of refinement steps from the initial specification towards a final implementation, by mapping higher-level behavioral models into a set of library components at a lower level of abstraction. In our flow, the system specification is captured using SysML requirement and state-machine diagrams. State-machine diagrams enable verification of the control protocol at a high level of abstraction, while lower-level hybrid models, implemented in Simulink, are used to verify properties related to physical quantities, such as time, voltage and current values. The effectiveness of our approach is illustrated on a prototype EPS control protocol design.

I. INTRODUCTION

The advent of high capability, reliable power electronics together with powerful embedded processors has enabled, over the last fifteen years, an increasing amount of “electrification” of vehicles such as cars and aircraft [1], [2]. In an aircraft, hydraulic, pneumatic and mechanical systems are replaced by cyber-electrical components improving the overall system efficiency. However, the increase of electrically-powered elements poses significant challenges to the aircraft electric power system (EPS) in terms of power generation and distribution under tight reliability and safety constraints for the cyber-electric components.

A severe limitation in common design practices for such kind of systems is the lack of formal specifications. Requirements are often written in languages that are not suitable for mathematical analysis and verification. Assessing system correctness is then left for simulations later in the design process and prototype tests. The inability to rigorously model the interactions among heterogeneous components and between the “physical” and the “cyber” aspects of the system is also a serious obstacle. Thus, the traditional heuristic design process based on informal requirement capture and designers’ experience leads to implementations that are inefficient and sometimes do not even satisfy the requirements yielding long re-design cycles, cost overruns and unacceptable delays.

We propose instead to carry out the design with a rigorous flow that selects available components using an optimization process including allocation of requirements to the components and early validation of design constraints made possible by the formalization we advocate. Our methodology follows the platform-based design (PBD) paradigm [3], which has been successfully adopted in the automotive and consumer electronics [4] domains to overcome similar challenges, by formalizing the design flow as a sequence of refinement steps from the original specification to the final implementation.

A basic principle of PBD is the distinction between the function (what the system is supposed to do, i.e. the specifications) and the architecture (how specifications are realized, i.e. the components implementing the function together with their interconnections) at each abstraction level, which allows for automatic design space exploration. At each refinement step, the design is regarded as a platform instance, i.e. a valid composition of library elements that are pre-characterized by their cost and performance metrics. The objective is therefore to select a platform instance that correctly implements a given specification. The mapping of such a specification onto an architecture can be formalized by an optimization problem whose solution represents the functional specification to be implemented by the subsequent refinement step. This process repeats recursively until an implementation is reached.

A key element for the successful deployment of PBD is the definition of a set of appropriate abstraction layers for efficient and accurate system exploration as well as the generation of a rich set of models, which represent different viewpoints (aspects) of the design, and can be used by different, domain-specific analysis and verification tools. In this paper, we present a design methodology based on PBD and a supporting modeling infrastructure to be used for requirement capture, simulation and virtual prototyping of EPS supervisory control protocols. We explore the capabilities of the Systems Modeling Language (SysML) [5] to represent the EPS function, and the Simulink SimPowerSystem library to assemble the EPS architecture. System specifications are first categorized in terms of safety, reliability and performance constraints. SysML requirement and state-machine diagrams capture such specifications and allow verification of the design at a high level of abstraction. On the other hand, hybrid models implemented in Simulink allow expressing and verifying a set of properties at a lower abstraction level, including timing and predicates on current and voltage signals.

Our methodology builds on a number of results that have opened the way for a more structured approach to EPS design. The adoption of model-based development (MBD) and simulation for the analysis of aircraft performance has already been advocated in [6], [7]. In the context of the More Open Electrical Technologies (MOET) project [8], a set of

1SysML is an object oriented modeling language largely based on the Unified Modeling Language (UML) 2.1, which also provides useful extensions for systems engineering.
model libraries have been developed using the Modelica language [9] to support “more-electric” aircraft simulation, design and validation. Simulation is used for electric power system performance verification (e.g., stability and power quality) at the network level, by leveraging models with different levels of complexity to analyze different system properties, and validated with real equipment measurements. However, design space exploration, optimization and analysis of faulty behaviors in these models can still become computationally unaffordable unless proper levels of abstraction are devised, based on the goals at each design step.

Our methodology has similarities with [2], which deals with how to select the power generators and synthesize the EPS topology (interconnection among the various components) by formulating and solving a set of binary optimization problems. However, not all the requirements of an EPS can be accurately approximated by binary or mixed integer-linear constraints, which calls for an extension of the flow in [2], to enable synthesis of EPS control protocols subject to heterogeneous sets of system constraints. A number of recent papers have investigated the adoption of SysML for MBD and analysis of complex systems of systems, albeit not within a rigorously formalized methodology. In [10] and [11] the adoption of SysML is investigated for MBD of maritime and automotive systems, while in [12] a language extension is proposed to support the continuous-time (CT) dynamics of physical systems using the Modelica language. While using Simulink CT models to enrich our SysML library, our approach is complementary to the one in [12], since our main focus is on the methodology rather than on the modeling languages themselves.

We first describe the electric power system that is considered in this paper in Section II. Section III details our design methodology and model library. Section IV reports results from the application of our methodology to a prototype design. Concluding remarks follow in Section V.

II. THE AIRCRAFT ELECTRIC POWER SYSTEM

Fig. 1 illustrates a sample architecture for power generation and distribution in a passenger aircraft in the form of a single-line diagram [1], a simplified notation for three-phase power systems.

a) Components: The main components of an EPS schematic are generators, contactors, buses, and loads. AC generators supply power to buses, and can operate at either high or low-voltages. Primary generators are connected to the aircraft engine, while auxiliary generators, mounted on top of the Auxiliary Power Units (APU) or batteries are used in flight when one of the primary generators fails. AC and DC power buses deliver power to a number of loads. Buses can be essential or non-essential. Essential buses supply loads that cannot be unpowered for more than a specified time interval, while non-essential buses supply loads that may be shed in the case of a fault. Contactors are electromechanical switches that establish connections between components, and therefore determine the power flow from sources to buses and loads. They are configured to be open or closed by one or multiple supervisory controllers, generically denoted here as Bus Power Control Unit (BPCU). Loads include sub-systems such as lighting, heating, avionics, navigation as well as power conversion devices. Rectifier units (RU) convert AC power to DC power, while AC transformers (ACT) step down a high-voltage to a lower one. Finally, combined Transformer

Rectifier Units (TRU) both decrease the voltage level and convert it from AC to DC.

b) System Description: The main AC power sources at the top of the diagram include two low-voltage generators, two high-voltage generators, and two APU generators. Each engine connects to a high-voltage AC (HVAC) generator (L1 and R1) and a low-voltage AC (LVAC) emergency generator (L2 and R2). Panels, denoted as dashed square boxes, represent groups of components that are physically separated on the aircraft. The three panels below the generators include the HVAC distribution buses, which can be selectively connected to the HVAC generators, to the APUs, and to each other via contactors, denoted by double bars.

The two panels below the high-voltage DC (HVDC) buses include the LVAC sub-system of the EPS. A set of transformers convert HVAC power to LVAC power and are connected to four LVAC buses. LVAC ESS Bus 3 and LVAC ESS bus 4 are essential and are selectively connected to the two emergency generators. Moreover, the LVAC essential buses are also connected to the RUs, converting the LVAC power to low-voltage DC (LVDC) power. There are four LVDC buses in total, each with essential and non-essential loads, as well as two batteries, which may be selectively connected. Power can also be routed directly from the HVAC bus to the LVDC buses 3 and 4 using TRUs.

A BPCU (which is not shown in Fig. 1) controls the state (open or closed) of the contactors and reconfigures the system based on the status and availability of the power sources. A Generator Control Unit (GCU), inside each generator, regulates its output voltage level to be within a specified range. Fluctuations in the power required by the loads can be directly handled by the GCU within the generator’s power rating. Whenever the power demand exceeds the generator’s capability, the BPCU is responsible for possibly shedding non-essential loads or rerouting some of them to another power source.

c) System Requirements: Given a set of loads, together with their power and reliability requirements, the goal is to determine the system’s architecture and control strategy such that the demand of the loads is satisfied for all flight conditions and a set of predetermined faults. To better formalize this
design objective, we begin with a qualitative analysis of the main system requirements, by categorizing them in terms of safety, reliability and performance requirements. For each of these categories, we provide a few examples, which serve as a reference for the rest of the paper.

Safety specifications constrain the way each bus can be powered to avoid loss of essential features. For instance, to avoid generator damage, we prescribe that AC sources should never be paralleled, i.e., no AC bus can be powered by multiple generators at the same time. Moreover, we require that essential loads (such as flight-critical actuators) and buses never be unpowered for more than a time interval $t_{\text{max}}$.

Reliability specifications describe the bounds on the failure probabilities that can be tolerated for different portions of the system. Based on its failure modes, every EPS component is characterized by a failure rate $\lambda$, indicating that a failure occurs, on average, every $1/\lambda$ hours. Based on the component failure rates, a typical specification would require that the failure probability for any essential load (i.e., the probability of being unpowered for more than $t_{\text{max}}$) be smaller than $10^{-9}$ [14]. Therefore, both the controller and the EPS topology should be designed to accommodate any possible combination of faults, potentially causing the failure of an essential component, and having a joint probability larger than $10^{-9}$. In practice, the reliability of an EPS is directly linked to the amount of redundant components and paths in its topology. The reliability specifications will then determine the combination of simultaneous faults that need to be accounted for by the control protocol.

Performance requirements specify quality metrics that are desired for the system. For instance, each bus is assigned a priority list determining in which order available generators should be selected to power it. If the first generator in the list is unavailable, then the bus will be powered by the second generator, and so on. A hypothetical prioritization list for the HVAC Bus 1 would require, for instance, that L1 GEN has the priority, if available. Otherwise, Bus 1 should receive power from the R1 GEN, then from the L APU generator, and finally from the R APU generator. In a similar way, load management policies are based on priority tables requiring, for instance, that the available power be first allocated to the non-sheddable loads and then to the sheddable loads, in a prescribed order.

III. THE STRUCTURE OF THE METHODOLOGY

Given a set of requirements and a reference topology, the problem is to design the BPCU state-machine to drive the contactors, while guaranteeing that essential loads are correctly powered. Our methodology, represented in Fig. 2 includes a bottom-up and a top-down phase. In the bottom-up phase, we build a library of platform elements, including the components described in Section II or some aggregations of them. Each component is abstracted into behavioral and performance models. Performance models characterize the physical attributes of a component such as weight, size, power and cost. Behavioral models are organized hierarchically to span different levels of abstractions, from finite-state machine (FSM) abstract representations to continuous-time (CT) high-fidelity models. In the top-down phase, we formalize system requirements in terms of properties and constraints on the parameters and behaviors of the above models. We formulate the EPS design exploration as an optimization problem where we search the design space for candidate system configurations that satisfy the conjunction of all the system constraints, and optimize some performance and complexity (e.g., number of components or states) metrics.

Based on the results in [15], [16], we assume that a reactive control protocol can be synthesized from Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) [17] constructs and made available as a candidate BPCU state machine for our exploration framework. Other approaches to control synthesis, based on constrained optimization, can also be used to provide an initial candidate. Based on this assumption, we can generate candidate BPCU designs and use our model library to verify the design correctness with respect to the requirements. A set of specialized analysis frameworks, denoted as theory managers can be used to reason about properties of different models, usually expressed using different formalisms, following a similar paradigm as in satisfiability-modulo-theories solvers [18]. Each theory manager is responsible of executing a specific system view and of verifying its correctness.

Design space exploration is then organized as follows. The set of high-level EPS specifications and the topology are used to synthesize an initial controller that satisfies safety and reliability requirements. However, no notion of the physical constraints (e.g., timing, energy consumption) related to the plant and the hardware implementation of the control algorithm are available at this level of abstraction. Therefore, both the topology and the synthesized controller are executed using high-fidelity CT (or hybrid) models to assess the satisfaction of all requirements. Simulation traces are monitored to both verify and optimize the controller. When all requirements are satisfied, the candidate controller is returned as the final design.

IV. THE APPLICATION OF THE METHODOLOGY TO THE EPS SUPERVISORY CONTROL DESIGN PROBLEM

We illustrate our methodology on the design of the control protocol of the primary power distribution of an EPS system [1]. The primary distribution system involves the start-up or shut-down of high-voltage generators and APU generators as well as the configuration of contactors to deliver power to high-voltage AC and DC buses and loads. In particular, we
Pilot and loads. Although not shown in the figure, designers can refer to the topology in Fig. 3 and the list of requirements textually visualized in Fig. 4. Clearly, these requirements are just a subset of an actual EPS specification, but they are enough to illustrate the design steps. \( R_1 \) relates to system safety, \( R_2 \)–\( 4 \) relate to both safety and performance, while \( R_5 \) is a reliability requirement.

A. Capturing System Requirements

We adopt mathematical formalisms to capture requirements, based on the different domains in which the system behaviors are modeled. For example, requirements can be expressed as automata, probabilistic constraints (e.g. reliability requirements), temporal logic constructs (e.g. safety requirements), integro-differential equations, and linear or non-linear constraints on real numbers (e.g. real-time performance requirements).

To allocate requirements to components, we use the graphical representation tools provided by SysML requirement diagrams. Figure 5 shows a diagram of the system entities, highlighting their interactions and binding each requirement with the entities that are either responsible for its implementation or affected by it. Allocating requirements to components allows each component to be developed independently of the others. For instance, the responsible entity for satisfying \( R_1 \) is the BPCU, while the generators and the AC buses are the entities affected. The generators (via the GCU) are responsible for the voltage levels specified in \( R_2 \), which affect both buses and loads. Although not shown in the figure, designers can use a few constructs, such as derive, refine, verify, trace and satisfy, to establish relationships between requirements and components so that any modification in a requirement can be easily propagated to all the requirements and components affected.

Based on the associations in Fig. 5 the requirements for the system components can be formalized. For example, to verify the behaviors of FSM models, we can encode the state of a contactor \( C_i \) in the topology of Fig. 3 with a Boolean variable, such that \( C_i = 1 \) when the contactor is closed. Therefore, to enforce \( R_1 \) on the L AC Bus 1, we can require that no more than one path connecting \( B_1 \) to a power source be active at all time. Then, this requirement can be formalized by the following LTL property, where \( \square \) is the temporal connective “always” in LTL:

\[
\square (\neg ((C_1 \land C_2 \land C_3) \lor (C_1 \land C_2 \land C_4 \land C_5) \\
\lor (C_2 \land C_3 \land C_4 \land C_5))) 
\]

A similar requirement can be specified for the R AC Bus 1.

While requirement diagrams encode requirements and relations among components in a static fashion, use case and sequence diagrams can be used to further specify requirements on the component dynamics. Use case and sequence diagrams are used to check system correctness, both in normal operating conditions (e.g. portions of mission profiles) and in the presence of faults. A use case diagram describes the usage of a system by its actors (or the environment) to achieve a specific goal. Relations between use cases can be expressed by using relationships such as communication, include, extend and generalization. For example, a use case diagram can be used to represent the interactions among the BPCU, the power sources and the switches after a failure event. Based on our requirements, 14 uses cases were extracted in total.

A sequence diagram illustrates the correct order of events in a scenario of interest. For instance, in Fig. 6 we specify the correct sequence of events that occurs when the left generator in Fig. 3 is faulty and the BPCU is informed that the APU is available. Requirement, use case and sequence diagrams can capture system requirements without any notion of the internal structure.
**B. Hierarchical Behavioral Models**

To execute requirements at a high level of abstraction, finite-state machines are implemented using SysML structure diagrams, state-machine diagrams or Matlab Stateflow diagrams. A SysML structure diagram consists of a set of blocks that are connected together using ports and can be organized hierarchically. The behavior of each block can be further described by a finite-state transition system. For example, the overall EPS architecture is visualized in Fig. 7, showing the FSM model of a generator and its GCU as an inset. The model consists of 6 high-level blocks and 11 internal state-machine diagrams, corresponding to approximately 1 billion states for the overall (flattened) system.

Continuous-time models are implemented in Simulink, by exploiting the SimPowerSystems extension. As an example, the continuous-time model for the generator consists of a mechanical engine (turbine), a three-phase synchronous generator, and the GCU, driving the field voltage of the generator, thus refining the three-state model in Fig. 7. In addition to timing properties, CT models allow measuring current and voltage levels at the different circuit loads, as specified, for instance, by requirement $R_2$. Figure 8 shows the overall Simulink hybrid model, which refines the SysML structure diagram described above. In this model, CT abstractions of the generators, contactors, loads and power converters interface with a Stateflow implementation of the BPCU. The BPCU state-machine consists of 10 states and 41 transitions.

**C. Design Example**

For the example in this paper, we manually designed a controller state machine for the topology in Fig. 3. A large set of requirements, such as safety and priority constraints, can be efficiently captured via finite-transition systems, executed using an event-driven simulator, and analyzed using a model checker. For instance, properties as the one in (1) can be verified against our controller model in less than one second using NuSMV [19]. In this example, we also checked such requirements on the SysML model in Fig. 7 by using IBM Rational Rhapsody [20] to implement, simulate and analyze the models. Model compilation took approximately 1 minute on a 2.53-GHz Intel Core i5 processor with 4 GB of memory. For instance, Fig. 9 shows the sequence diagram generated by simulating our initial design for the same scenario as in Fig. 6, highlighting the evolution of the different state machines. We could then automatically compare the sequence diagram in Fig. 6 with the one in Fig. 9 within Rhapsody, and show that the simulated diagram is indeed correct with respect to the specification. Alternatively, in case a violation is detected, the simulated traces can be used as counterexamples to further refine the design.

Once the safety requirements were verified, we needed to assess the real-time performance of candidate BPCU designs.
the definition of performance metrics to validate it as well as the implementation of concepts from contract-based design [21] to address the challenges of coordinating diverse formalisms and checking consistency across diverse models maintained in multiple tools.

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Figure 10. Transient behavior of the currents through $C_2$ and $C_3$ in Fig. 5 (c) for the initial BPCU design (top) and the final one (bottom).

For this purpose, we simulated a Stateflow version of the designed controller together with the continuous-time model of the power generation and distribution network. Since buses were now modeled as transmission lines connected to electrical loads, we could capture the transient behaviors of currents and voltages. Moreover, we could also introduce parameters related to the hardware implementation of the control algorithm, such as clock frequency, under the assumption of a centralized synchronous controller. Our requirements were also refined to be consistent with the signals of the hybrid model. At this level, we verified our properties by implementing observers, capable of monitoring voltage and current waveforms. A 2second simulation with a step size of 10\(\mu\)s took approximately 60 seconds. As an example of design refinement, we consider a scenario in which L1 GEN in Fig. 5 is powering both the L and R AC buses, and the APU generator becomes available and needs to be routed to power R AC Bus 1 as required by R3. Then, to satisfy requirement R1, on the APU Bus in Fig. 3 we require $C_3$ to be closed only after $C_2$ is open. We then consider that $C_2$ is actually “open” only when the current through it decays below a safety threshold, approximately equal to 10% of its original value. As shown at the top of Fig. 10, our initial BPCU design did not satisfy $R_1$, since $C_3$ was “on” before $C_2$ could be considered safely “off”. Therefore, we had to refine the original design to explicitly monitor the current through $C_2$ and guarantee a deterministic delay before $C_3$ is closed. Simulated waveforms from our final design are shown at the bottom of Fig. 10.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

We have introduced a platform-based design methodology for virtual prototyping of supervisory control protocols in aircraft electrical power systems. We have detailed the modeling infrastructure that supports our methodology and demonstrated some of the steps on a prototype design. We have used SysML requirement diagrams to capture the top-level system specifications, state-machine diagrams to enable efficient functional verification of the control protocol, and hybrid models in Simulink, to verify the satisfaction of real-time performance constraints.

As a future work, we plan to develop an environment for automatic deployment of the proposed methodology, including
Pierluigi Nuzzo received the M.Sc. degree in electrical engineering from the University of Pisa, Italy, in 2003. He is currently with the University of California at Berkeley, where he is working toward the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering and computer sciences. His research interests include methodologies and tools for the design of cyber-physical systems and mixed-signal integrated circuits. He held research positions at the University of Pisa and IMEC, Leuven, Belgium, working on the design of energy-efficient A/D converters and frequency synthesizers for reconfigurable radio. He received the First Place in the 2006 DAC/ISSCC Design Competition, the U.C. Berkeley EECS fellowship in 2008 and the IBM Ph.D. Fellowship in 2012.

John B. Finn is a Ph.D. student at the University of California, Berkeley, advised by Professor Alberto Sangiovanni-Vincentelli. In 2010, he received his bachelor’s degree (BSEE) with highest distinction in electrical engineering from Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN. His research interests include the design, optimization and verification of cyber-physical systems as well as system modeling and analysis. He has accumulated three years work experience with internships at United Technologies Aerospace Systems in Rockford, IL, BAE Systems in Nashua, NH, United Technologies Research Center in East Hartford, CT and The Advanced Laboratory on Embedded Systems in Rome, Italy.

Mohammad Mostafizur Rahman Mozumdar is a tenure track faculty in the Electrical Engineering department of the California State University at Long Beach and an ex-postdoc from the University of California, Berkeley. He received a Ph.D. in electronics and communication engineering from Politecnico di Torino, Italy. His ideas on model-based design for sensor networks made profound impact on engineering and industrial communities and have been published in book chapters, renowned journals, reputed conference proceedings and major scientific magazines. Dr. Mozumdar’s research interests include methodologies and tools for sensor network design, energy-efficient building information and control system design, cloud computing, methodologies for the design of distributed embedded systems and cyber-physical systems subject to real-time, safety and reliability constraints.

Alberto Sangiovanni Vincentelli received the Laurea degree in electrical engineering and computer sciences from the Politecnico di Milano, Italy in 1971. He currently holds the Edgar L. and Harold H. Buttner Chair of Electrical Engineering and Computer Sciences at the University of California at Berkeley. He was a co-founder of Cadence and Synopsys, he is the Chief Technology Adviser of Cadence, a member of the Board of Directors of Cadence and a member of the Science and Technology Advisory Board of General Motors. He is an author of over 880 papers and 15 books in the area of design tools and methodologies, large-scale systems, embedded systems, hybrid systems and innovation. He has won numerous awards, including, among others, the IEEE/RSJ Wolfson James Clerk Maxwell Award, the Kaufman Award and the ACM/IEEE Richard Newton Technical Impact Award in Electronic Design Automation.