

# Dependent Vector Types for Data Structuring in Multirate Faust<sup>☆</sup>

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## Abstract

Faust is a functional programming language dedicated to the specification of executable monorate synchronous musical applications. To extend Faust capabilities to important domains such as FFT-based spectral processing, we introduce here a multirate extension of the core Faust language. The novel idea is to link rate changes to data structure manipulation operations. Creating a vector-valued output signal divides the rate of input signals by the vector size, while serializing vectors multiplies rates accordingly. As duals to vectors, we also introduce record-like data structures, which are used to gather data but do not change signal rates. This interplay between data structures and rates is made possible in the language static semantics by the introduction of dependent types. We present a typing semantics, a denotational semantics and correctness theorems that show that this data structuring/multirate extension preserves the language synchronous characteristics. This new design is under implementation in the Faust compiler.

*Keywords:* Domain specific languages, Synchronous signal processing, Multirate computing, Dependent type systems, Static semantics, Denotational semantics

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## 1. Introduction

Since Music III, the first language for digital audio synthesis, developed by Max Mathews in 1959 at Bell Labs, to Max [1], and from MUSICOMP, considered one of the very first music composition languages, developed by Lejaren Hiller and Robert Baker in 1963, to OpenMusic [2] and Elody [3], research in music programming languages has been very active and innovative. With the convergence of digital arts, such languages, and in particular visual programming languages like Max, have gained an even larger audience, well outside the computer music research community.

Within this context, the Faust language [4] introduces a dual programming paradigm, based on a highly abstract, purely functional approach to signal processing while offering a high level of performance. Faust semantics is based on a clean and sound framework that enables mathematical correction proofs for Faust applications to be performed, while being complementary to current audio languages by providing a viable alternative to C/C++ for the development of efficient signal processing libraries, audio plug-ins or standalone applications.

The definition of the Faust programming language uses a two-tiered approach: (1) a core language provides constructs to manage signal transformations and (2) a macro language is used on top of this kernel to build and manipulate signal processing patterns. The macro language has rather straightforward syntax and semantics, since it is a syntactic variant of the untyped lambda-calculus with a call-by-name semantics (see [5]). On the other hand, core Faust is more unusual, since, in accordance with its musical application domain, it is based on the notion of “signal processors” (see below).

The original definition of Faust provided in [6] is based on monorate signal processors; this is a serious limitation when specifying spectral-based sound manipulation algorithms (such as FFT) or extending the language applicability outside the music domain, for instance for image analysis and manipulation (such as data compression). We propose here a multirate extension of Faust based on a key innovative principle: data rate changes are intertwined with vector data structure manipulation operations, i.e., creating an output signal where samples are vectors divides the rate of input signals by the vector size, while serializing vectors multiplies rates accordingly. We also introduce new, dual constructs to build record-like signals; contrarily to vector operations, record signals do not induce signal rate modifications. Since Faust current definition does not offer first-class structured data, this proposal kills two birds with one stone by adding both multirate processing and data structures; this interplay between vectors, records and rates is

made possible in the typing semantics of Faust by the introduction of dependent types.

The contributions of this paper are as follows: (1) the specification of a new extension of Faust for vector processing, record data manipulation and multirate applications, (2) a static typing semantics of Faust, based on dependent types, (3) a denotational semantics of Faust (the one presented in [6] is operational) and (4) Subject Reduction and Rate Correctness theorems that validate the multirate synchronous nature of this vector extension.

After this introduction, Section 2 provides a brief informal overview of Faust basic operations. Section 3 is a proposal for a multirate extension of this core, which we illustrate with a simple vector application implementing a Haar-like subsampling operation. Section 4 defines the static domains used to define Faust static typing semantics (Section 5). Section 6 defines the semantic domains and rules used in the Faust dynamic denotational semantics, which is shown to be compatible with the static semantics in Section 7. Proving that this structuring and multirate extension of Faust indeed behaves properly, i.e., that signals of different rates merge gracefully in a multirate program, is the subject of the Rate Correctness theorem in Section 8. The last section concludes.

## 2. Overview of Faust

A Faust program does not describe a sound or a group of sounds, but a *signal processor*, a function that gets input signals, themselves functions of time to values, and produces output signals. The program source is organized, basically, as a set of definitions mapping identifiers to expressions; the keyword identifier `process` is the equivalent of `main` in C. Running a Faust program amounts to plugging the I/O signals implicitly used by `process` to the actual sound environment, such as a microphone or an audio system for instance, usually via software audio card managers such as Jack<sup>1</sup>.

To begin with, here are two very simple Faust examples. The first one produces silence, i.e., a signal providing an infinite supply of 0s:

```
process = 0;
```

Note that 0 is an unusual signal processor, since it takes an empty set of input signals and generates a signal of constant values, namely the integer 0. The second

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<sup>1</sup><http://www.jackaudio.org>.

simple example illustrates the conversion of a two-channel stereo input signal into a one-channel mono output signal using the `+` primitive that adds its two input signals together to yield a single, summed signal:

```
process = +;
```

Faust primitives are assembled via a set of high-level composition operators on signal processors, generalizations of the mathematical function composition operator `o` and defined via a block-diagram algebra [7]. For instance, connecting the output of `+` to the input of `abs` in order to compute the absolute value of the summed output signal can be specified using the sequential composition operator `:` (colon):

```
process = + : abs;
```

Here is an example of parallel composition (think of a stereo cable) using the operator `,` that puts in parallel its left and right expressions. This example uses the `_` (underscore) primitive that denotes the identity function on signals (akin to a simple audio cable for a sound engineer):

```
process = _, _;
```

These operators can be arbitrarily combined, modulo typing constraints we present below. For example, to multiply a mono, input signal by 0.5, one can write:

```
process = _, 0.5 : *;
```

Taking advantage of some syntactic sugar the details of which are not addressed here, the above example can be rewritten, using what functional programmers know as curryfication:

```
process = *(0.5);
```

The recursive composition operator `~` can be used to create processors with delayed cycles. Here is the example of an integrator:

```
process = + ~ _;
```

where the “~” operator connects here in a feedback loop the output of + to the input of “\_”, via an implicit connection to the `mem` signal processor which implements a 1-sample delay, and the output of “\_” is then used as one of the inputs of +. As a whole, `process` thus takes a single input signal  $x$  and computes an output signal  $y$  such that<sup>2</sup>  $y(t) = x(t) + y(t - 1)$ , thus performing a numerical integration operation.

To illustrate the use of this recursive operator and also provide a more meaningful audio example, the following 3-line Faust program defines a pseudo-noise generator<sup>3</sup>:

```
random = +(12345) ~ *(1103515245);
noise = random, 2147483647.0 : /;
volumeUI = vslider("noise", 0, 0, 100, 0.1);
process = (noise, volumeUI : *) , 100 : /;
```

The definition of `random` specifies a (pseudo) random number generator that produces a signal  $s$  such that  $s(t) = 12345 + 1103515245 * s(t - 1)$ . Indeed, the expression `+(12345)` denotes the operation of adding 12345 to a signal, and similarly for `*(1103515245)`. These two operations are recursively composed using the `~` operator, which connects in a feedback loop the output of `+(12345)` to the input of `*(1103515245)` (via an implicit 1-sample delay) and the output of `*(1103515245)` to the single input of `+(12345)`.

The definition of `noise` transforms the random signal into a noise signal by scaling it between -1.0 and +1.0, while the definition of `process` adds a simple user interface to control sound production; the noise signal is multiplied by the value delivered by a slider to control its volume. The whole `process` expression thus does not take any input signal but outputs a signal of pseudo random numbers (see the block diagram representation of this `process` in Figure 1, where the little square near the addition block denotes a 1-sample delay operator).

The last two composition operators in the definition of core Faust, `<:` and `:>`, perform fan-out and fan-in transformations, as we illustrate in the next section.

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<sup>2</sup> $y(-1)$  is set to 0 by Faust.

<sup>3</sup>We limit ourselves in this example to the Faust core syntax presented in Section 5.1; Faust provides friendlier syntactic sugar, in particular when dealing with arithmetic expressions.

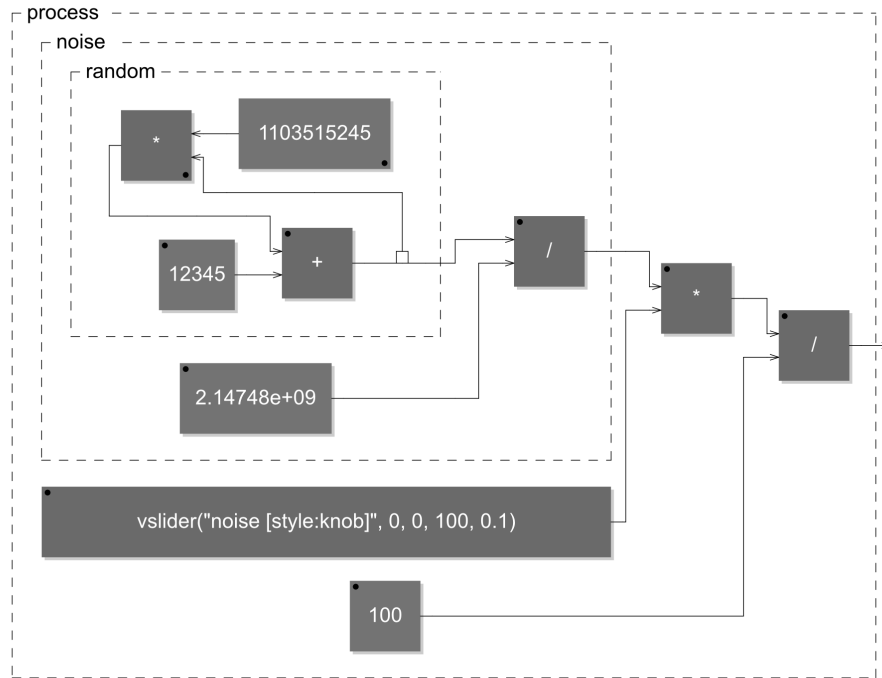


Figure 1: Noise generator process block diagram.

### 3. Multirate Extension

Traditional synchronous languages such as Esterel, Lustre, Signal or State Charts [8] are built upon the concept of clocks and time stamps upon which computation steps are, one way or another, scheduled; the presence (or absence) of clock ticks are generally used to activate (or stop) processing. The use of different clocks allows program parts to be activated at different rates. Clocks can be seen as objects of interest either at the programmer's level (e.g., in Lucid Synchrone [9]), at the static semantics level ([10], [11]) or at the mathematical level ([12]).

Faust, as described in [6], is a monorate language; in monorate languages, there is just one time domain involved when accessing successive signal values. However, digital signal processing traditionally may use subsampling and oversampling operations, which naturally lead to the introduction of multirate concepts. Since Faust targets the domain of highly efficient, multimedia (mostly audio) DSP processing, we suggest to use simpler, multiple rates to deal with such

issues [13], instead of one of the more general clock designs reviewed above. We informally describe below this approach, and illustrate it with a simple example of its use.

### 3.1. Rates for Vector Processing

We propose to see clocking issues as an add-on to the Faust static semantics (Faust is a strongly typed language). Rates (or frequencies)  $f$  are elements of the  $\text{Rate} = \mathbb{Q}^+$  domain. Signals, which are traditionally typed according to the type of their codomain, are here characterized by a pair formed by a type and a rate:  $\text{Type} \times \text{Rate}$ .

The first key idea to introduce multirate processing in Faust is to posit that multiple rates in an application are introduced via vectors. Vectors are created using the new `vectorize` primitive; informally, it collects  $n$  consecutive samples (the constant value  $n$  is provided by the signal that is the second argument to this primitive) from an input signal of rate  $f$  and outputs vectors with  $n$  elements at rate  $f/n$ ; if the input values are of type  $\tau$ , then output vector samples have type  $\text{vector}_n(\tau)$ . We illustrate the case of `vectorize` with  $n = 3$  in Figure 2.

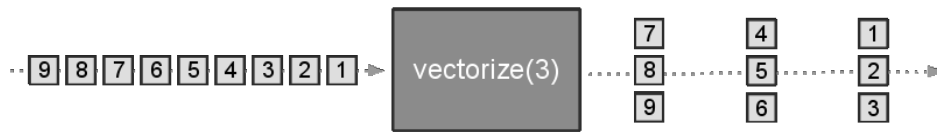


Figure 2: Vectorizing an input signal of integers into an output signal of 3-vectors.

The dual `serialize` primitive maps a signal of vectors of type  $\text{vector}_n(\tau)$  at rate  $f$  to the signal of rate  $f \times n$  of their linearized elements, of type  $\tau$ . We illustrate the case of `serialize` in Figure 3; note that the value of  $n$ , here 3, does not have to be explicitly provided, since it will be recovered automatically, via the language type system presented in Section 5.

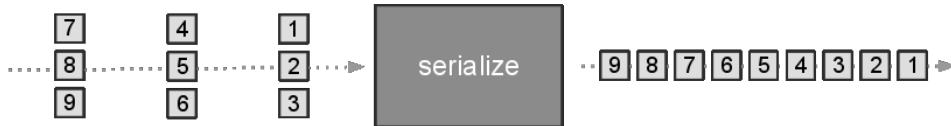


Figure 3: Serializing an input signal of 3-vectors into an output signal of integers.

The primitive `[]` provides, using as inputs a signal of vectors and one of integer indexes, an output signal of successively indexed vector elements. Finally, the primitive `#` builds a signal of concatenated vectors from its two vector signal inputs.

The second key feature of this multirate extension is, as we just saw, that the size  $n$  of vectors is encoded into vector types; moreover this size is provided via the *value* of a signal, argument of the `vectorize` primitive. This calls for a dependent-type [14] static semantics that embeds values within types. Since Faust strives for high run-time performance, this type system must furthermore be sophisticated enough to be able to ensure, at compile time, that a given signal is constant (when it is to be used as a signal denoting the size of a vector): we introduce intervals of values in the static semantics to deal with such an issue.

We show below that this interplay between types, vector sizes and rates leads to the addition of rate constraints to the more traditional typing constraints of Faust static semantics. Basic rate values are, ultimately, provided by the sampling rate of the audio card manager to which a `process` signal processor is eventually linked.

### 3.2. *Records and Vectors Rating Duality*

Most traditional programming languages offer, at their most fundamental level, at least two kinds of data structuring concepts: vectors and records. There are natural dualities between these notions:

1. Vectors are index-based collections of elements, while records are symbol-based (via field names);
2. Vector elements are ordered, while record fields generally are not (some languages such as C support some notion of field ordering in their subtyping relationship);
3. All elements in a vector have to have the same type, while record fields may accommodate different types;
4. Vector sizes are generally dynamic values, while the number of fields in records is a compile-time constant (again, some languages also allow some leeway here, in subtyping or inheritance relationships).

Note that our Faust extension does not enforce this last duality property since, for efficiency reasons, we decided to make vector sizes compile-time constants. However, the presence of rates in the static semantics of our Faust extension suggests to add to these existing duality relationships a new duality relation (rating duality) between vectors and records:



5. Vector (signal) constructs are rate modifiers, while record (signals) are not.

In our proposal, a record constructor signal such as `[foo, bar, baz]` accepts, as inputs, a collection of signals, here three, that operate at the same rate and outputs a single signal, still with the same rate, each of its samples being a labelled collection of input samples. Accessing elements of a record signal is symbol-based: `<bar, foo]` takes as input a signal of records and outputs two signals of the corresponding elements.

Before describing formally our framework in the remainder of this paper, we illustrate it with an example.

### 3.3. Haar Filtering, an Example

To get a better intuitive understanding of how data structuring constructs interact with Faust primitives, we present a Haar-like downsampling process, which is a simplified step in the Discrete Wavelet Transform shown to be of use, for instance, in some audio feature extraction algorithms [15]. The signal processor `process` takes an input signal  $s$  at rate  $f$  and produces two output signals at rate  $f/2$ , the mean  $o_1$  and difference  $o_2$ , such that  $o_1(t) = (s(2t) + s(2t + 1))/2$  and  $o_2(t) = o_1(t) - s(2t + 1)$ . It could be defined in our extended Faust as follows (see Figure 4 for the block diagram of `process`):

```
down = vectorize(2) : [] (1);
mean = _ <: _, mem : + : / (2);
left = _, !;
process = _ <: (mean:down), down <: left, -;
```

Here, `down` gathers the data from its input signal in pairs stored in vectors of size 2 (hence the size 2 used in the curried version of `vectorize`) from which the second element is extracted, again using a signal processor, here `[]`, curried over its second argument 1 (vector indices start at 0). This function downsamples its input signal of frequency  $f$  into an output signal of frequency  $f/2$ , picking one value over two from the input.

The definition of `mean` indicates that its input signal  $s$  (here `_`) is duplicated, using the `<:` fan-out operator. Two copies are expected since the output of `<:` is fed into a parallel composition of two one-input signals: the first copy is simply passed along by `_`, while the second one is being delayed via `mem` by one sample. Both signals  $s(t)$  and its delayed copy  $s(t - 1)$  are then added together using the `+` operator. The sum signal is then divided by 2 via a curried division operation to yield an average signal  $m(t) = (s(t) + s(t - 1))/2$ . Note that, instead of `+`, we

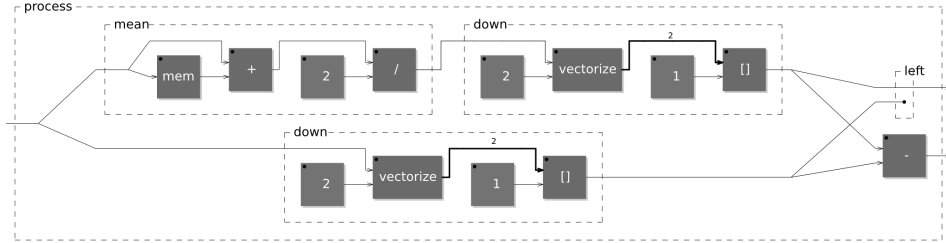


Figure 4: Haar filtering process, using Faust vector extension. Vector-valued signals are displayed with thick arrows and labelled with vector dimensions.

could also have used the Faust fan-in operator `:>`, which mixes its input signals by adding them together into a single signal, as in:

```
mean = _ <: _, mem :> / (2);
```

The signal processor `process` duplicates its single input  $s$  (as before, `_`) to a two-input parallel process: the first copy is averaged using `mean` and then downsampled using sequencing with `down`, yielding signal  $m_2$ ; the second copy is simply downsampled, yielding  $s_2$ . These two signals are then fanned-out into the four-input signal processor `left, -`; it indeed takes four inputs, since (1) `left` takes a pair of signals, here  $(m_2, s_2)$ , keeping only its left component  $m_2$  using the primitive `!` that maps, by definition, its own  $s_2$  to nothing and (2) the subtraction operation `-` takes two inputs, here again  $m_2$  and  $s_2$ , yielding the signal  $m_2 - s_2$ . The end result is the expected pair of signals  $(o_1, o_2) = (m_2, m_2 - s_2)$  of downsampled means and differences.

To further illustrate the data structuring features we want to introduce into Faust, we provide below of variant of Processor `process` that uses records:

```
diff = _ <: <mid], <second] : -;
process =
  _ <: (mean:down), down : [mid, second> <: <mid], diff;
```

Here, the signal processor `process` begins, as before, by yielding the parallel processor  $(m_2, s_2)$ . But, here, these two parallel data signals are then fed into the two-input signal processor `[mid, second>`, which outputs a single signal of record-like structures with two fields, named `mid` and `second`. This record signal is fanned-out into the parallel two-input signal processor `<mid], diff`:

(1) `<mid]` takes a signal of records, keeping only the component named `mid` and thus retrieving signal  $m_2$ , and (2) `diff` fans out its input signal of records to a parallel process that destructures each of them before subtraction, yielding  $m_2 - s_2$ . The result is, as before, the pair of signals  $(m_2, m_2 - s_2)$  of downsampled means and differences.

## 4. Static Domains

The multirate extension of Faust static semantics relies heavily on dependent typing, which is formally defined below.

### 4.1. Dependent Types

Since the values embedded in signals are typed, the static typing semantics of extended Faust uses basic types  $b$  in `BasicType`, which is a defined set of predefined types:

$$b \in \text{BasicType} = \text{int} \mid \text{float} .$$

Since our type system uses dependent types, we need a way to abstract values to yield a decidable framework. We introduce intervals  $a$  in `Interval`, which are pairs of signed reals<sup>4</sup>  $n$  (or  $m$ ); intervals represent the sets of values that expressions may have at run time:

$$\begin{aligned} n, m \in \mathbb{R}^\omega &= \{-\omega, +\omega\} \cup \mathbb{R} , \\ a \in \text{Interval} &= \mathbb{R}^\omega \times \mathbb{R}^\omega , \end{aligned}$$

where we assume the usual extensions of arithmetic operations on  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}^\omega$ ; we take care in the following to avoid introducing meaningless expressions such as  $-\omega + +\omega$ . An interval  $a = (n, m)$  is written  $[n, m]$  in the sequel.

A basic-typed expression is thus typed with an element  $b$  of `BasicType`, together with an interval  $[n, m]$  that specifies an over-approximation of the set of values this expression might have. For instance, a sample of value 0.5 may be characterized by the basic type `float` and the interval  $[0.5, 0.5]$ . Note that it is also, but in a less precise way, characterized by the intervals  $[0, 2]$  or even  $[0, +\omega]$ , since 0.5 is a positive number and is less than 2; we deal with such indeterminacy in Subsection 5.3.

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<sup>4</sup>Since  $\mathbb{N}$  is included in  $\mathbb{R}$ , we also use  $n$  or  $m$  to denote integers, when no confusion can arise.

We need to introduce more complex type expressions to deal with structured values. Vectors, as groups of  $n$  values, are typed using their size (the number  $n$ ) and the type of their elements. Records are typed according to their list of field names and the type of the corresponding element in the data record. Finally, since signed integers are part of types, via intervals, we need to perform some operations over these values, and thus introduce the notion of type addition.

The whole type domain `Type` of value types  $\tau$  is then<sup>5</sup>:

$$\begin{aligned} \tau \in \text{Type} = & \text{BasicType} \times \text{Interval} \mid \\ & \mathbb{N} \times \text{Type} \mid \\ & \text{Record} \mid \\ & \text{Type} \times \text{Type} , \end{aligned}$$

$$u \in \text{Record} = \bigcup_{n>0} \text{Ide}^n \times \text{Type}^n .$$

As a shorthand, we note, for each of the four possible cases of a type definition in `Type`:

- $b[a]$ , for a basic type  $b$  with interval  $a$ ;
- $\text{vector}_n(\tau)$ , for vector types of  $n$  elements of type  $\tau$ ;
- $(L, T)$ , for records, where  $L$  is a list of field names and  $T$  a list of corresponding types;
- and  $\tau + \tau'$ , for the type resulting from performing the addition operation on two types  $\tau$  and  $\tau'$ .

Thus, for instance, the Faust signal processor `0.5` denotes timed samples of type `float[0.5, 0.5]` (among others, as we saw above), while `0 : vectorize(2)` creates vector values of type `vector2(float[0, 0])` and `(0, 1) : [mid, second > record` values of type<sup>6</sup> `((mid, second), (float[0, 0], float[1, 1]))`. Type addition is useful when dealing with Faust fan-in operations such as `(0, 1) : >_`, which outputs samples of type `float[0, 0] + float[1, 1]`; we come back to this issue in Subsection 5.2.

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<sup>5</sup>The domain `Ide` of identifiers is introduced in Section 5.1.

<sup>6</sup>We write lists as comma-separated sequences of terms. A more formal definition is given in Subsection 4.3.

Not all combinations of these type-building expressions make sense. We formally define below the notion of a well-formed type:

**Definition 1 (Well-Formed Type  $wff(\tau)$ ).**

A type  $\tau$  is well-formed, denoted  $wff(\tau)$ , iff:

- when  $\tau = b[n, m]$ , then  $n \leq m$ ,  $\neg(n = m = -\omega)$  and  $\neg(n = m = +\omega)$ ;
- when  $\tau = \text{vector}_n(\tau')$ , then  $wff(\tau')$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ;
- when  $\tau = (L, T)$ , then  $wff(\tau')$  for all  $\tau'$  in  $T$ ,  $|L| = |T|$  and, for all  $i \neq j$  in  $[1, |L|]$ , one has  $L_i \neq L_j$ ;
- when  $\tau = \tau' + \tau''$ , then  $wff(\tau')$  and  $wff(\tau'')$ .

#### 4.2. Signal Types

Since vectors are used to introduce multirate signal processing into Faust, we need to deal with these rate issues in the static semantics. As hinted above, we use rates  $f$  in `Rate` to manage rates:

$$f \in \text{Rate} = \mathbb{Q}^+ .$$

In our framework, the only signal processing operations that impact rates are related to over- and sub-sampling conversions. To represent such conversions, we use multiplication and division arithmetic operations, thus defining `Rate` as the set of positive rational numbers.

The static semantics of signals manipulated in our extended Faust thus not only deals with value types, but also with rates. We link these two concepts in the notion of *signal types*  $\gamma$  in `SignalType`:

$$\gamma \in \text{SignalType} = \text{Type} \times \text{Rate} \mid \text{SignalType} \times \text{SignalType} .$$

We note  $\tau^f$  the signal type  $(\tau, f)$  and  $\gamma + \gamma'$  the addition of two signal types, which we enforce (see below) to have the same rate. Note that, here again, we mix values and types in a static domain, thus relying on the notion of dependent type systems introduced above.

Thus, for instance, the Faust signal processor `0.5` outputs a constant signal of signal type `float[0.5, 0.5]10`, but also of signal types `float[0, 2]10`, `float[0.5, 0.5]2/3`, `float[0, 2]2/3` and many others. In fact, in the absence of any other information,

the least constrained signal type one can come up with for the output of `0.5` is  $\text{float}[-\omega, +\omega]^f$ , where  $f$  can be any rate whatsoever. It is the role of the static semantics presented in Section 5 to constrain signal rates in accordance with the use of the various Faust expressions in a given program. The correctness of this constraint-based assignment of rates to signals is the topic of Section 8.

As for types, not all combinations of these signal type-building expressions make sense. We formally define below the notion of a well-formed signal type:

**Definition 2 (Well-Formed Signal Type  $\text{wff}(\gamma)$ ).**

A signal type  $\gamma$  is well-formed, denoted  $\text{wff}(\gamma)$ , iff:

- when  $\gamma = \tau^f$ , then  $\text{wff}(\tau)$  and  $f \in \text{Rate}$ , and we note  $\#(\gamma)$  the rate  $f$ ;
- when  $\gamma = \gamma' + \gamma''$ , then  $\text{wff}(\gamma')$ ,  $\text{wff}(\gamma'')$  and  $\#(\gamma') = \#(\gamma'')$ ; we note  $\#(\gamma)$  the rate  $\#(\gamma')$ .

### 4.3. Beam Types

A Faust signal processor maps *beams* of signals, i.e., tuples of signals, to beams of signals. In the same way that signals are statically characterized by signal types (see Definition 12), beams admit a static representation called a *beam type*  $z$  in `BeamType`. Type checking a Faust expression amounts to verifying the compatibility of the input and output beam types of its composed subexpressions:

$$z \in \text{BeamType} = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} \text{SignalType}^n .$$

Thus, for instance, the input beam of `+` in the Faust expression `0.5 <: +` has beam type

$$(\text{float}[0.5, 0.5]^{10}, \text{float}[0.5, 0.5]^{10}) ,$$

among others with different rates, in which case its output beam type would be  $(\text{float}[0.5, 0.5]^{10} + \text{float}[0.5, 0.5]^{10}) = (\text{float}[1, 1]^{10})$ . Note how signal type addition plays a key role in the determination of the output beam type; we return to this issue when defining the type of `+` in the initial type environment in Subsection 5.4.

Formally, the null beam type, in `SignalType`<sup>0</sup>, is  $()$ , and is used when no signal is present. A simple beam type is  $(t^f)$ , and corresponds to a beam containing one signal that maps, at rate  $f$ , time to values of type  $t$ . The beam type length  $|z|$  is defined such that  $z \in \text{SignalType}^{|z|}$ . The  $i$ -th signal type in  $z$  ( $1 \leq i \leq |z|$ ) is

written  $z[i]$ . Two beam types  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  can be concatenated as  $z = z_1 \parallel z_2$ , to yield a beam type in  $\text{SignalType}^{d_1+d_2}$  where  $d_i = |z_i|$ , defined as follows:

$$\begin{cases} z[i] & = z_1[i] \ (1 \leq i \leq d_1) , \\ z[i + d_1] & = z_2[i] \ (1 \leq i \leq d_2) . \end{cases}$$

To build more complex beam types, we introduce the  $\parallel_n^{n',d}$  iterator as follows:

$$\parallel_n^{n',d} M = \begin{cases} (), & \text{if } n > n' , \\ M(n) \parallel \parallel_{n+d}^{n',d} M & \text{otherwise .} \end{cases}$$

where  $M$  is any function that maps integers to beam types. Intuitively,  $\parallel_n^{n',d} M$  is the concatenation of  $M(n), M(n+d), M(n+2d), \dots, M(n')$ ; when  $d = 1$ , it can be omitted. As a shorthand,  $z[n, n', d]$ , which selects from  $z$  the types from the  $n$ -th type to the  $n'$ -th one by step of  $d$ , is  $\parallel_n^{n',d} \lambda i. (z[i])$ , while a simple slice of  $z$  is  $z[n, n'] = z[n, n', 1]$ . Applying a function  $M$  to all elements of a beam type  $z$  is written  $\parallel_z M$ , which is a shorthand for  $\parallel_1^{|z|} \lambda i. (M(z[i]))$ .

Finally, to simplify our notations, we assume in the following that all the above introduced shorthands can also be used with any term, such as L or T, member of an iterated product domain.

**Definition 3 (Well-Formed Beam Type  $wff(z)$ ).**

A beam type  $z$  is well-formed, denoted  $wff(z)$ , iff, for all  $i \in [1, |z|]$ , one has  $wff(z[i])$ .

**Definition 4 (Isochronous Beam Type  $iso(z)$ ).** A beam type  $z$  is isochronous, denoted  $iso(z)$ , iff there exists a rate  $f$ , denoted  $\sharp(z)$ , such that, for all  $i \in [1, |z|]$ , one has  $\sharp(z[i]) = f$ .

#### 4.4. Schemes

Each Faust expression is characterized, in the static semantics, by a pair  $(z, z')$ , denoted  $z \rightarrow z'$ , of input and output beam types. Yet, some Faust processors, such as the identity processor `_` or the delay processor `mem`, must be able to accommodate beams of any beam type; they are polymorphic. The static definitions of Faust primitives are thus *type schemes* that may abstract some parts of their input and output beam types over abstractable sorts  $S$ , in `Sort`. Type schemes  $k$  in `Scheme` are defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} S \in \text{Sort} &= \{ \mathbb{N}, \text{Type}, \text{Rate}, \text{SignalType} \} , \\ k \in \text{Scheme} &= \bigcup_{n \geq 0} (\text{Var} \times \text{Sort})^n \times \text{BeamType} \times \text{BeamType} . \end{aligned}$$

We write  $\Lambda l.z \rightarrow z'$  for the scheme  $k = (l, z, z')$  abstracted over the list  $l = ((x, S), \dots, (x', S'))$ , also denoted<sup>7</sup>  $x : S \dots x' : S'$ , where  $x, \dots, x'$  are distinct abstracting variables in  $\text{Var}$ . These schemes, which represent generic versions of pairs  $(z, z')$  of input and output beam types, may be instantiated where needed; the substitution  $(z \rightarrow z')[l'/l]$  of a list  $l$  by a list  $l'$  of elements of the proper sorts  $(S, \dots, S')$  in the pair  $(z, z')$  is defined as usual: each variable  $x$  of  $l$  occurring in  $z \rightarrow z'$  is replaced there by the corresponding element in  $l'$ .

The static definitions of Faust primitives are gathered in type environments  $T$  that map Faust identifiers to schemes. The reader can find illustrative examples of type schemes in Subsection 5.4 where the initial type environment is defined.

## 5. Static Semantics

In our core definition of Faust, every expression represents a signal processor, i.e., a function that maps signals, which are functions from time to values, to other signals. The static semantics specifies, by induction on Faust syntax, how beam type pairs are assigned to signal processor expressions. We define the core language syntax, some auxiliary operations on static domains and finally the static semantics rules for Faust.

### 5.1. Syntax

Faust syntax uses identifiers  $I$  from the set  $\text{Ide}$  and expressions  $E$  in  $\text{Exp}$ . Numerical constants, be they integers or floating point numbers, are seen as pre-defined identifiers. The core syntax of Faust is defined in Table 1.

### 5.2. Beam Type Matching

Complex Faust expressions are constructed by connecting together simpler processor expressions. In the case of fan-in (respectively fan-out) expressions, such connections require that the involved signal processors match in some specific sense: Faust uses the *beam type matching* relation  $z'_1 \succ z_2$  (resp.  $\prec$ ) to ensure such compatibility conditions. Such a relation goes beyond simple type equality by authorizing a larger (resp. smaller) output  $z'_1$  to fit into a smaller (resp. larger)

---

<sup>7</sup>Keeping with a long tradition, we choose the usual “:” sign to denote typing relations, even though it is also used to represent the sequence operation in Faust. The reader should have no problem distinguishing both uses.



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$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{E} & ::= \mathbf{I} \mid \\
& \quad [\mathbf{L} > \mid < \mathbf{L}] \mid \\
& \quad \mathbf{E}_1 : \mathbf{E}_2 \mid \mathbf{E}_1, \mathbf{E}_2 \mid \\
& \quad \mathbf{E}_1 <: \mathbf{E}_2 \mid \mathbf{E}_1 :> \mathbf{E}_2 \mid \\
& \quad \mathbf{E}_1 \sim \mathbf{E}_2 \\
\mathbf{L} \in \text{Ides} & ::= \bigcup_{n>0} \mathbf{I}^n
\end{aligned}$$


---

Table 1: Faust Syntax

input  $z_2$ , using the following definitions ( $\succ$  requires mixing of signals using addition, while  $\prec$  simply dispatches the unmodified signals in an iterative manner) in which  $d'_1 = |z'_1|$  and  $d_2 = |z_2|$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
z'_1 \succ z_2 & = d'_1 d_2 \neq 0 \text{ and} \\
& \quad \text{mod}(d'_1, d_2) = 0 \text{ and} \\
& \quad \sum_{i \in [0, d'_1/d_2 - 1]} z'_1 [1 + i d_2, (i + 1) d_2] = z_2, \\
z'_1 \prec z_2 & = d'_1 d_2 \neq 0 \text{ and} \\
& \quad \text{mod}(d_2, d'_1) = 0 \text{ and} \\
& \quad \parallel_1^{d_2, d'_1} \lambda i. z'_1 = z_2,
\end{aligned}$$

where equality on beam types is defined by structural induction and “mod” denotes the arithmetic modulo operation.

Since we deal in our framework with dependent types (values, via intervals, appear in the static domains), performing the mixing of signals, as above, require the ability to perform, in the static semantics, additions over beam types and, consequently, over types; for instance, as we explained above, mixing a signal of signal type  $\text{int}[0, 2]^f$  with one of signal type  $\text{int}[3, 6]^f$  has to yield a signal of signal type  $\text{int}[0, 2]^f + \text{int}[3, 6]^f$ , which can then be simplified to  $\text{int}[3, 8]^f$ . To formalize such simplification operations, we assume the existence of static semantics addition rules on types such as:

(b+)

$$b[n, m] + b[n', m'] = b[n + n', m + m'] ,$$

(v+)

$$\text{vector}_n(\tau) + \text{vector}_n(\tau') = \text{vector}_n(\tau + \tau') ,$$

(t+)

$$\frac{\tau + \tau' = \tau''}{\tau^f + \tau'^f = \tau''^f} ,$$

(z+)

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} |z| = |z'| = |z''| \\ \forall i \in [1, |z|]. z[i] + z'[i] = z''[i] . \end{array}}{z + z' = z''} .$$

### 5.3. Subtyping

The presence of numbers in types logically induces a reflexive, antisymmetric order relationship  $\tau \subset \tau'$  on types, signal types and beam types. This subtyping relation specifies that, if something is of type  $\tau$ , then, whenever  $\tau \subset \tau'$ , it is also of type  $\tau'$ . Thus, for instance, a signal of signal type  $\text{int}[0, 2]^f$  is also of signal type  $\text{int}[-2, 4]^f$ , since any integer between 0 and 2 is also between -2 and 4 and both signal types have the same rate. The  $\subset$  static inclusion relationship is defined by rules such as:

(i2f)

$$\text{int}[n, m] \subset \text{float}[n, m] ,$$

(b)

$$\frac{[n, m] \subset [n', m']}{b[n, m] \subset b[n', m']} ,$$

(t)

$$\frac{\tau \subset \tau'}{\tau^f \subset \tau'^f} .$$

To these basic rules, we add traditional structural rules on vectors and records such as:

(v)

$$\frac{\tau \subset \tau'}{\text{vector}_n(\tau) \subset \text{vector}_n(\tau')} ,$$

(r)

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{set}(L') \subset \text{set}(L) \\ \forall I' \in L'. T[L^{-1}(I')] \subset T'[L'^{-1}(I')] \end{array}}{(L, T) \subset (L', T')}$$

where we introduce the notations  $\text{set}(L)$  as the set of elements in List  $L$  and  $L^{-1}(I) = i$  when  $L[i] = I$ . Note that  $L^{-1}$  is here well defined since we assume from the start that there are no duplicates in field names.

Note that if  $\tau \subset \tau'$  and  $\tau' \subset \tau$ , then  $\tau = \tau'$ .

#### 5.4. Type Environments

We assume that there is an initial type environment  $T_0$  that provides the typing definitions for the predefined signal processors. For instance, one has:

$$\begin{aligned} T_0(\_) &= \Lambda \gamma : \text{SignalType}.\gamma \rightarrow (\gamma) , \\ T_0(!) &= \Lambda \gamma : \text{SignalType}.\gamma \rightarrow () , \\ T_0(0) &= \Lambda f : \text{Rate}.\() \rightarrow (\text{int}[0, 0]^f) , \\ T_0(-2.8) &= \Lambda f : \text{Rate}.\() \rightarrow (\text{float}[-2.8, -2.8]^f) , \\ T_0(+ ) &= \Lambda \gamma : \text{SignalType}.\gamma' : \text{SignalType}.\gamma, \gamma' \rightarrow (\gamma + \gamma') , \\ T_0(\text{mem}) &= \Lambda \gamma : \text{SignalType}.\gamma \rightarrow (\gamma) . \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence of the implicit “mixing by addition” introduced by the beam type matching relation  $\succ$  used in fan-in operations, the signal processor for the numerical operator  $+$  must be able to deal with any type; it is thus associated to a polymorphic type scheme in the type environment. Its arguments must have the same rate, a constraint enforced by the use of signal type addition in this type scheme (see Rule (t+) in Section 5.2).

Introducing the vector extension in the static semantics simply amounts to adding, beside the empty vector  $\{ \}$ , of type  $\Lambda f : \text{Rate}.\tau : \text{Type}.\() \rightarrow (\text{vector}_0(\tau)^f)$ , four bindings in the initial environment  $T_0$ :

- $T_0(\text{vectorize}) =$   
 $\Lambda f : \text{Rate}.f' : \text{Rate}.\tau : \text{Type}.n : \mathbb{N}.\tau^f, \text{int}[n, n]^{f'} \rightarrow (\text{vector}_n(\tau)^{f/n});$
- $T_0(\#) =$   
 $\Lambda f : \text{Rate}.\tau : \text{Type}.m : \mathbb{N}.n : \mathbb{N}.$   
 $(\text{vector}_m(\tau)^f, \text{vector}_n(\tau)^f) \rightarrow (\text{vector}_{m+n}(\tau)^f);$

- $T_0([\ ])$  =  
 $\Lambda f : \text{Rate}.\tau : \text{Type}.n : \mathbb{N}.\text{(vector}_n(\tau)^f, \text{int}[0, n - 1]^f) \rightarrow (\tau^f)$ ;
- $T_0(\text{serialize}) = \Lambda f : \text{Rate}.\tau : \text{Type}.n : \mathbb{N}.\text{(vector}_n(\tau)^f) \rightarrow (\tau^{f \times n})$ .

The dependent type system is key here. In the primitive `vectorize`, we are able to specify that the vector size has to be constant, since its type uses an interval restricted to be one-valued,  $[n, n]$ ; note that the rate  $f'$  of this signal is also irrelevant, and can be of any value. When concatenating vectors with the `#` processor, the resulting vector size  $m + n$  sums the sizes of the input vectors. We are also able to ensure that no out-of-bound accesses can occur in Faust, since the index signal argument fed to the `[ ]` signal processor is constrained, at compile time, to be between 0 and the vector size, since its interval is  $[0, n - 1]$ . Finally, notice how size information impacts signal rates; this is key to prove the theorem of Section 8.

### 5.5. Typing Rules

Faust is strongly and statically typed. Every expression, a signal processor, is typed by its I/O beam types:

**Definition 5 (Expression Type Correctness  $T \vdash E$ ).**

*An expression  $E$  is type correct in an environment  $T$ , denoted  $T \vdash E$ , if there exist beam types  $z$  and  $z'$  such that  $T \vdash E : z \rightarrow z'$  with  $\text{wff}(z)$  and  $\text{wff}(z')$ .*

The static semantics inference rules are defined in Table 2; some are rather straightforward. Rule (i) ensures that identifiers are typable in the type environment  $T$ ; type schemes can be instantiated to adapt themselves to each given typing context of Identifier  $I$ . The typical rule ( $\subset$ ) allows types to be extended according to the order relationship induced by intervals in types, records and basic types. In Rule ( $:$ ), signal processors are plugged in sequence, which requires that the output beam type of  $E_1$  is the same as  $E_2$ 's input. In Rule ( $,$ ), running two signal processors in parallel requires that their input and output beam types are concatenated. In Rules ( $<:$ ) and ( $:>$ ), the  $\prec$  and  $\succ$  constraints are used to ensure that a proper matching of the output of  $E_1$  to the input of  $E_2$  is possible.

In Rules ( $[>$ ) and ( $<]$ ), we deal with records. First, we specify how the  $[>$  construct builds a single signal  $u$  of records with the proper field names  $L$  from an isochronous beam of signals of the same length; we use here the *type* function that extracts, from a signal type, its type component. With ( $<]$ ), we perform the

---

$(i) \frac{T(I) = \Lambda l.z \rightarrow z' \quad \forall(x, S) \in l \quad . \quad l'[l^{-1}(x, S)] \in S}{T \vdash I : (z \rightarrow z')[l'/l]}$	$(C) \frac{T \vdash E : z \rightarrow z' \quad z' \subset z'_1 \quad z_1 \subset z}{T \vdash E : z_1 \rightarrow z'_1}$
$(:) \frac{T \vdash E_1 : z_1 \rightarrow z'_1 \quad T \vdash E_2 : z'_1 \rightarrow z'_2}{T \vdash E_1 : E_2 : z_1 \rightarrow z'_2}$	$(\cdot) \frac{T \vdash E_1 : z_1 \rightarrow z'_1 \quad T \vdash E_2 : z_2 \rightarrow z'_2}{T \vdash E_1, E_2 : z_1 \parallel z_2 \rightarrow z'_1 \parallel z'_2}$
$(<:) \frac{T \vdash E_1 : z_1 \rightarrow z'_1 \quad T \vdash E_2 : z_2 \rightarrow z'_2 \quad z'_1 \prec z_2}{T \vdash E_1 <: E_2 : z_1 \rightarrow z'_2}$	$(>:) \frac{T \vdash E_1 : z_1 \rightarrow z'_1 \quad T \vdash E_2 : z_2 \rightarrow z'_2 \quad z'_1 \succ z_2}{T \vdash E_1 >: E_2 : z_1 \rightarrow z'_2}$
$([\>]) \frac{ z  =  L  \quad iso(z) \quad u = (L, \ _z type)}{T \vdash [L > : z \rightarrow (u^{\sharp(z)})}$	$(<]) \frac{u = (L, T) \quad L' \subset L \quad z' = \parallel_{L'} \lambda I. T[L^{-1}(I)]^f}{T \vdash <L'] : (u^f) \rightarrow z'}$
$(\sim) \frac{\begin{array}{l} T \vdash E_1 : z_1 \rightarrow z' \\ T \vdash E_2 : z_2 \rightarrow z'_2 \\ z_2 = z'[1,  z_2 ] \\ z'_2 = z_1[1,  z'_2 ] \\ iso(z_2) \end{array}}{T \vdash E_1 \sim E_2 : z_1[ z'_2  + 1,  z_1 ] \rightarrow \widehat{z}'}$	

---

Table 2: Faust Static Semantics

dual operation, generating a beam of isochronous signals from a (subset  $L'$  of field names in a) single signal  $u$  of records.

The most involved rule deals with loops ( $\sim$ ). Here, the input beam type  $z_2$  of the feedback expression  $E_2$  is constrained to be the first  $|z_2|$  types of the output beam type  $z'$ ; as such, this enforces  $|z_2| \leq |z'|$ . Also, the first  $|z'_2|$  elements of the input beam type of the main expression  $E_1$  must be the same as the output beam type of the feedback expression  $E_2$ ; these looped-back signals will not thus impact

the global input beam type  $z_1[|z'_2| + 1, |z_1|]$ . Again, here  $|z'_2| \leq |z_1|$ . To simplify the dynamic semantics (see Table 3), all looped-back signals are required to have the same rate. We do not expect this constraint to be a problem in practice since all operations have eventually to be performed in such a manner; any rate mismatch at the “ $\sim$ ” level can be fixed by moving there the down/up sampling conversions that would have to be present anyhow in  $E_2$ . Finally, note that the output beam type  $\widehat{z}'$  is here an approximation of  $z'$ . This is introduced not for semantic reasons, but to make type checking decidable while ensuring that the dependent return type is valid independently of the unknown bounds of the iteration space:

**Definition 6 (Beam Type Widening  $\widehat{\cdot}$ ).**

The widened beam type of Beam type  $z$ , denoted  $\widehat{z}$ , is such that  $|\widehat{z}| = |z|$  and  $\forall i \in [1, |z|]. \widehat{z}[i] = z[i]$ , with:

- $\widehat{\text{vector}_n(\tau)}^f = \text{vector}_n(\widehat{\tau})^f$ ;
- $\widehat{(L, T)} = (L, \|\mathbb{T}\lambda\tau.\widehat{\tau})$ ;
- $\widehat{b[a]^f} = b[\widehat{a}]^f$ ;
- $\widehat{[n, m]} = [-\omega, +\omega]$ .

Basically, all knowledge on value bounds is lost under widening.

## 6. Dynamic Semantics

The dynamic semantics for core Faust is based on the standard notions of the denotational framework, which we chose here because it is particularly well suited to the functional paradigm adopted by Faust. Since evaluation processes may be non-terminating, we posit thus that sets used in the dynamic semantics are complete partial orders (cpo), with order relation  $\sqsubseteq$  and bottom  $\perp$  (see for instance [16]). Note that, since Faust sees parallelism as an implementation issue (Faust expressions can be trivially evaluated in parallel, since no side-effects can be performed in the core language), we do not introduce parallel-specific, denotational concepts such as powerdomains.

### 6.1. Domains

A Faust expression denotes a signal processor; as such its dynamic semantics manipulates signals, which assign various values to time ticks.

*Time.* The time domain needs only be a sorted set of discrete events  $t$  in  $\text{Time}$ :

$$\text{Time} = \mathbb{N}.$$

*Value.* Signals map times to sample values  $v$  in  $\text{Val}$  :

$$\begin{aligned} v \in \text{Val} &= N + R + (\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{Val}) + (\text{Ide} \rightarrow \text{Val}), \\ N &= \mathbb{N} \cup \{?\}, \\ R &= \mathbb{R} \cup \{?\}. \end{aligned}$$

Basic-typed values in  $\text{Val}$  are just integers in  $N$  and reals in  $R$ . The functional  $\text{cpo } \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{Val}$  is used to represent vector values; for instance, all samples in the signal denoted by `1.5:vectorize(3)` have as value the function  $v$  defined on  $i \in \{0, 1, 2\}$  such that  $v(i) = 1.5$ . The domain  $\text{Ide} \rightarrow \text{Val}$  is used for records; here, the value of a sample in `1, 2: [foo, bar>` is the function  $v$ , defined on  $\{\text{foo}, \text{bar}\}$ , such that  $v(\text{foo}) = 1$  and  $v(\text{bar}) = 2$ .

**Definition 7 (Domain  $\text{dom}(f)$ ).**

The domain of any function  $f$  in  $A \rightarrow B$ , denoted  $\text{dom}(f)$ , is such that  $\text{dom}(f) = \{a \mid f(a) \neq \perp\}$ .

**Definition 8 (Support  $\underline{f}$ ).**

The support of any function  $f$  in  $A \rightarrow B$ , denoted  $\underline{f}$ , is the size  $|\text{dom}(f)|$  of the domain of  $f$ , and a member of  $\mathbb{N} + \{\omega\}$ , where  $\omega$  is used to deal with infinite function domains.

For any value  $v$ , we introduce its “zero” value,  $\text{zero}(v)$ ; this initialization value will be of use when dealing with delayed signals, which need to provide a default value at the lower bound of their domains.

**Definition 9 (Zero value  $\text{zero}(v)$ ).** For any value  $v$  in  $\text{Val}$ , the value  $v' = \text{zero}(v)$  is defined such that:

- when  $v \in R$  or  $v \in N$ , then  $v' = 0$ ;
- when  $v \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{Val}$ , then  $v' \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{Val}$ ,  $\text{dom}(v') = [0, \underline{v} - 1]$  and, for all  $i \in [0, \underline{v} - 1]$ ,  $v'(i) = \text{zero}(v(i))$ ;
- when  $v \in \text{Ide} \rightarrow \text{Val}$ , then  $v' \in \text{Ide} \rightarrow \text{Val}$ ,  $\text{dom}(v') = \text{dom}(v)$  and, for all  $I \in \text{dom}(v)$ ,  $v'(I) = \text{zero}(v(I))$ .

A value  $v$  is said to be a “zero value” if  $\text{zero}(v) = v$ .

*Signal.* A signal  $s$ , which is intuitively a “history” represented by a function, is a member of  $\text{Signal} = \text{Time} \rightarrow \text{Val}$ .  $\text{Signal}$  is a cpo ordered by:

$$s \sqsubset s' = \text{dom}(s) \subset \text{dom}(s') \text{ and } \\ \forall t \in [0, \underline{s} - 1], s(t) = s'(t) .$$

We define the domain  $\text{dom}(s)$  and support  $\underline{s}$  of a signal  $s$  as above.

*Beam.* We gather signals into beams  $m = (m_1, \dots, m_n)$  in  $\text{Beam}$ :

$$m \in \text{Beam} = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} \text{Signal}^n .$$

We consider that all notations introduced to manipulate beam types can similarly be applied to beams. Note that we do not need to consider  $\text{Beam}$  as a cpo, although each  $\text{Signal}^n$  is, with the order ( $m$  and  $m'$  being in  $\text{Signal}^n$ ):

$$m \sqsubset m' = \forall i \in [1, n], m[i] \sqsubset m'[i] , \\ \perp = (\lambda t. \perp, \dots, \lambda t. \perp) \in \text{Signal}^n .$$

*Signal Processor.* A signal processor  $p$  in  $\text{Proc}$  is the basic constituent of Faust programs:  $p \in \text{Proc} = \text{Beam} \rightarrow \text{Beam}$ . We define  $\text{dim}(p) = (n, n')$  such that  $p \in \text{Signal}^n \rightarrow \text{Signal}^{n'}$ .

Note that, interestingly, rate information as present in signal types is not necessary to define the semantics of signal processors. This is a direct consequence of our use of a static semantics that ensures that actual computations on signals, e.g., arithmetic operations, are always performed on signals that have the same signal type, and hence the same rate. This two-stage approach is the key element to providing a simple, yet powerful, semantics for Faust multirate signal processing capability.

## 6.2. States

The standard semantics of a Faust expression is a function of the semantics of its free identifiers; we collect these in a state  $r$ , a member of  $\text{State} = \text{Ide} \rightarrow \text{Proc}$ .



We assume given an initial state  $r_0$ , which binds the Faust predefined identifiers of  $T_0$  to their value such that, for instance:

$$\begin{aligned}
r_0(\_) &= \lambda(s).(s) , \\
r_0(!) &= \lambda(s).() , \\
r_0(0) &= \lambda().(\lambda t.0) , \\
r_0(+ ) &= \lambda(s_1, s_2).(\lambda t.s_1(t) + s_2(t)) , \\
r_0(/) &= \lambda(s_1, s_2). \\
&\quad (\lambda t. \\
&\quad \quad s_1(t)/s_2(t) \text{ if } t < \min(\underline{s}_1, \underline{s}_2) \text{ and } s_2(t) \neq 0, \\
&\quad \quad ? \text{ if } t < \min(\underline{s}_1, \underline{s}_2), \\
&\quad \quad \perp \text{ otherwise}) , \\
r_0(\text{mem}) &= \lambda(s).(\text{delay}(s, \lambda t.1)) .
\end{aligned}$$

Notice that  $+$  is supposed to be defined for all types, as one can also check in the definition of  $T_0$ , since it is used in the dynamic definition of  $:\>$  (see below).

We assume the existence of a delay function defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{delay}(s_1, s_2) &= \lambda t. \\
&\quad \perp \text{ if } s_2(t) = \perp \text{ or } s_2(t) < 0, \\
&\quad s_1(t - s_2(t)) \text{ if } t - s_2(t) \geq 0, \\
&\quad \text{zero}(s_1(t)) \text{ otherwise} ,
\end{aligned}$$

which delays each sample of Signal  $s_1$  by a number of time slots given, at each time  $t$ , by  $s_2(t)$ ; the usual one-slot delay used in the semantics of “ $\sim$ ” loops is thus  $\text{delay}(s_1, \lambda t.1)$ , as is the semantics of `mem`.

As in the static semantics, introducing the vector extension in the dynamic semantics simply amounts to adding, beside the value  $\lambda().(\lambda t.\lambda i. \perp)$  for  $\{\}$ , four straightforward bindings in the initial state<sup>8</sup>:

- $r_0(\text{vectorize}) =$   
 $\lambda(s_1, s_2).(\lambda t.\lambda i \in [0, n - 1].s_1(i + nt))$ , where  $n = s_2(0)$ ;
- $r_0(\#) =$   
 $\lambda(s_1, s_2).(\lambda t.\lambda i \in [0, \underline{s}_1 + \underline{s}_2 - 1].s_2(i - \underline{s}_1) \text{ if } i \geq \underline{s}_1, s_1(i) \text{ otherwise})$ ;

---

<sup>8</sup>We note “ $\lambda x \in A.f(x)$ ” the function “ $\lambda x.f(x)$  if  $x \in A, \perp$  otherwise”.

- $r_0([\ ] ) = \lambda(s_1, s_2).(\lambda t.s_1(t)(s_2(t)))$ ;
- $r_0(\text{serialize}) = \lambda(s).(\lambda t. \perp \text{ if } n = \underline{s(0)} = 0, s(\lfloor t/n \rfloor)(\text{mod}(t, n)) \text{ otherwise})$ .

To be able to properly define the semantics of Faust, one needs to ensure that we operate with states, in particular the initial state, that are type-correct:

**Definition 10 (State Type Correctness  $T \vdash r$ ).**

A state  $r$  is type correct in an environment  $T$ , denoted  $T \vdash r$ , if, for all  $\mathbb{I}$  in  $\text{dom}(r)$ , one has  $T \vdash \mathbb{I}$ .

One can then easily prove the following theorem:

**Theorem 1 (Initial State Type Correctness).**

$$T_0 \vdash r_0 .$$

### 6.3. Denotational Rules

The semantics  $E[[E]]r$  of a type-correct expression  $E$  in a type-correct state  $r$  is a signal processor, mapping an input beam  $m$  to an output beam  $m'$  (see Table 3):

$$E \in \text{Exp} \rightarrow \text{State} \rightarrow \text{Proc} .$$

The semantics of an identifier is available in the state  $r$ . The semantics of “.” is the usual composition of the subexpressions’ semantics. The semantics of a parallel composition is a function that takes a beam of size  $d_1 + d_2$  and feeds the first  $d_1$  signals into  $p_1$  and the subsequent  $d_2$  into  $p_2$ ; the outputs are concatenated. The fan-out construct repeatedly concatenates enough outputs of  $p_1$  to feed them into the (larger)  $d_2$  inputs of  $p_2$ . The fan-in construct performs a kind of opposite operation; all  $\text{mod}(i, d_2)$ -th output values of  $p_1$  are summed together to construct the  $i$ -th input value of  $p_2$ . The management of records is rather straightforward. Note though that, when building records with  $[>$ , one needs to enforce that all incoming signals have a defined value at time  $t$  to build a proper, strict record. The loop expression has the most complex semantics. Its feedback behavior is represented by a fix point construct; the output of  $p_2$  is fed to  $p_1$ , after being concatenated to  $m$ , to yield  $m'$ ; the input of  $p_2$  is the one-slot delayed appropriate part of  $m'$ , with a beam type the static semantics ensures is isochronous.

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$$\begin{aligned}
E[\mathbf{I}]r &= r(\mathbf{I}) \\
E[\mathbf{E}_1 : \mathbf{E}_2]r &= p_2 \circ p_1 \\
E[\mathbf{E}_1, \mathbf{E}_2]r &= \lambda m. p_1(m[1, d_1]) \| p_2(m[d_1 + 1, d_1 + d_2]) \\
E[\mathbf{E}_1 <: \mathbf{E}_2]r &= \lambda m. p_2(\|_{1, d_2, d'_1} \lambda i. p_1(m)) \\
E[\mathbf{E}_1 :> \mathbf{E}_2]r &= \lambda m. p_2(\|_{1, d_2} \lambda i. \text{mix}(p_1(m)[i, d'_1, d_2])) \\
&\quad \text{where } \text{mix}(m') = (m'), \text{ if } |m'| = 1 \text{ and} \\
&\quad \quad \text{mix}(m') = E[+]r(m'[1, 1] \| \text{mix}(m'[2, |m'|])), \text{ if } |m'| > 1 \\
E[\mathbf{L} >]r &= \lambda m. (\lambda t \in \bigcap_{i \in [1, |m|]} \text{dom}(m[i]). \lambda \mathbf{I} \in \mathbf{L}. m[\mathbf{L}^{-1}(\mathbf{I})](t)) \\
E[\mathbf{L}' >]r &= \lambda (s). \|_{\mathbf{L}'} \lambda \mathbf{I}' . \lambda t. s(t)(\mathbf{I}') \\
E[\mathbf{E}_1 \sim \mathbf{E}_2]r &= \lambda m. \text{fix}(\lambda m'. p_1(p_2(\@ (m'[1, d_2])) \| m)) \\
&\quad \text{where } \@ (m) = \|_m \lambda s. \text{delay}(s, \lambda t. 1)
\end{aligned}$$


---

Table 3: Faust Denotational Semantics: we note  $p_i = E[\mathbf{E}_i]r$  and  $(d_i, d'_i) = \text{dim}(p_i)$

#### 6.4. Properties

An interesting corollary of Faust denotational semantics is that one can easily prove that the “:” constructor is actually not necessary:

**Theorem 2 (: as Syntactic Sugar).** *Assume  $T \vdash \mathbf{E}_1 : \mathbf{E}_2 : z \rightarrow z'$ . Then  $T \vdash \mathbf{E}_1 <: \mathbf{E}_2 : z \rightarrow z'$  and  $T \vdash \mathbf{E}_1 :> \mathbf{E}_2 : z \rightarrow z'$ . Moreover,  $E[\mathbf{E}_1 : \mathbf{E}_2] = E[\mathbf{E}_1 <: \mathbf{E}_2] = E[\mathbf{E}_1 :> \mathbf{E}_2]$ .*

Despite such as theorem, the “:” constructor remains of course useful, since its use by a programmer signals the presence of additional matching constraints on beam types.

### 7. Subject Reduction Theorem

One needs to ensure the consistency of both static and dynamic semantics along the evaluation process; this amounts to showing that the types of values, signals and beams are preserved.

**Definition 11 (Value Type Consistency  $v : \tau$ ).** *A value  $v$  is type consistent w.r.t. a type  $\tau$ , denoted  $v : \tau$ , iff:*

- when  $v \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $\tau = \text{int}[n, m]$  and  $n \leq v \leq m$ ;
- when  $v \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\tau = \text{float}[n, m]$  and  $n \leq v \leq m$ ;
- when  $v \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{Val}$ , then  $\tau = \text{vector}_n(\tau')$ ,  $\text{dom}(v) = [0, n - 1]$  and, for all  $i \in [0, n - 1]$ ,  $v(i) : \tau'$ ;
- when  $v \in \text{Ide} \rightarrow \text{Val}$ , then  $\tau = (\text{L}, \text{T})$ ,  $\text{dom}(v) = \text{L}$  and, for all  $\text{I} \in \text{L}$ ,  $v(\text{I}) : \text{T}[\text{L}^{-1}(\text{I})]$ .

**Definition 12 (Signal Type Consistency  $s : \tau^f$ ).** A signal  $s$  is type consistent w.r.t. a signal type  $\tau^f$ , denoted  $s : \tau^f$ , if, for all  $t \in \text{dom}(s)$ , one has  $s(t) : \tau$ .

**Definition 13 (Beam Type Consistency  $m : z$ ).** A beam  $m$  is type consistent w.r.t. a beam type  $z$ , denoted  $m : z$ , if  $|m| = |z|$  and, for all  $i \in [1, |m|]$ , one has  $m[i] : z[i]$ .

For the evaluation process to preserve consistency, the environment  $T$  and state  $r$ , which provide the static and semantic values of predefined identifiers, must provide consistent definitions for their domains. We use the following definition to ensure this constraint:

**Definition 14 (State Type Consistency  $r : T$ ).** A state  $r$  is type consistent w.r.t. an environment  $T$ , denoted  $r : T$ , if, for all  $\text{I}$  in  $\text{dom}(r)$ , for all  $z, z', m$ , one has: if  $T \vdash \text{I} : z \rightarrow z'$  and  $m : z$ , then  $r(\text{I})(m) : z'$  and  $\text{dim}(r(\text{I})) = (|z|, |z'|)$ .

We are now equipped to state our first typing theorem. The Subject Reduction theorem basically states that, given a Faust expression  $E$ , if the state  $r$  is consistent w.r.t. the environment  $T$  and  $E$  maps beams of beam type  $z$  to beams of beam type  $z'$ , then, given a beam  $m$  that is type consistent w.r.t.  $z$ , then the semantics  $p(m)$  of  $E$  will yield a beam  $m'$  of beam type  $z'$ :

**Theorem 3 (Subject Reduction).** For all  $E, T, z, z', r$  and  $m$ , if

$$\begin{aligned} r &: T, \\ m &: z \text{ and} \\ T \vdash E &: z \rightarrow z', \end{aligned}$$

then  $p(m) : z'$  and  $\text{dim}(p) = (|z|, |z'|)$ , where  $p = E[\mathbb{E}]r$ .

**Proof.** By induction on the structure of  $E$ .

- $E = I$ . Use  $E[\mathbb{I}]r = r(I)$  and State Type Consistency.
- $E = E_1 : E_2$ .  $T \vdash E : z \rightarrow z'$  implies, using Rule ( $:$ ), there exists  $z'_1$  such that  $T \vdash E_1 : z \rightarrow z'_1$  and  $T \vdash E_2 : z'_1 \rightarrow z'$ .

By induction on  $E_1$ ,  $p_1(m) : z'_1$  and  $\dim(p_1) = (|z|, |z'_1|)$ .

By induction on  $E_2$ , one gets  $p_2(p_1(m)) : z'$  and  $\dim(p_2) = (|z'_1|, |z'|)$ .

The definition of  $E[\mathbb{E}]$  yields  $E[\mathbb{E}]rm : z'$  and

$$\dim(p) = (|m|, |p_2(p_1(m))|) = (|z|, |z'|) .$$

- $E = E_1, E_2$ .  $T \vdash E : z \rightarrow z'$  implies, using Rule ( $,$ ), there exist  $z_1, z_2, z'_1, z'_2$  such that  $z = z_1 \| z_2$ ,  $z' = z'_1 \| z'_2$ ,  $T \vdash E_1 : z_1 \rightarrow z'_1$  and  $T \vdash E_2 : z_2 \rightarrow z'_2$ .

By Beam Type Consistency on  $m : z$ , one gets  $|m| = |z|$  and, for all  $i$  in  $[1, |m|]$ ,  $m[i] \in \text{Time} \rightarrow z[i]$ .

By definition of  $z$ ,  $|z| = |z_1| + |z_2|$ . Using the first  $|z_1|$  elements of  $z$ , one gets  $m[1, |z_1|] : z_1$ . By induction on  $E_1$ , one gets  $p_1(m[1, |z_1|]) : z'_1$  and  $\dim(p_1) = (|z_1|, |z'_1|)$ . Since, in the definition of  $E$ ,  $d_1 = |z_1|$ , thus  $p_1(m[1, d_1]) : z'_1$ .

Using the subsequent  $|z_2|$  elements of  $z$ , one gets  $m[d_1 + 1, d_1 + |z_2|] : z_2$ . By induction on  $E_2$ ,  $E[\mathbb{E}_2]r(m[d_1 + 1, d_1 + |z_2|]) : z'_2$  and  $\dim(p_2) = (|z_2|, |z'_2|)$ . Since  $d_2 = |z_2|$ , then  $E[\mathbb{E}_2]r(m[d_1 + 1, d_1 + d_2]) : z'_2$ .

The definition of  $E$  on  $E$  yields  $p(m) = p_1(m[1, d_1]) \| p_2(m[d_1 + 1, d_1 + d_2])$ . By definition of Beam Type Consistency,  $p(m) : z'_1 \| z'_2 = z'$  and  $\dim(p) = (|m|, |z'|) = (|z|, |z'|)$ .

- $E = E_1 <: E_2$ .  $T \vdash E : z \rightarrow z'$  implies, using Rule ( $<:$ ), there exist  $z'_1, z_2, k$  such that  $T \vdash E_1 : z \rightarrow z'_1$ ,  $T \vdash E_2 : z_2 \rightarrow z'$ ,  $|z_2| = k|z'_1|$  and, for all  $i$  in  $[0, k - 1]$ , one has  $z_2[1 + i|z'_1|, |z'_1| + i|z'_1|] = z'_1$ .

By induction on  $E_1$ , one gets  $p_1(m) : z'_1$  and  $\dim(p_1) = (|z|, |z'_1|)$ . By induction on  $E_2$ ,  $\dim(p_2) = (|z_2|, |z'|)$ . By definition of  $E$ ,  $d'_1 = |z'_1|$  and  $d_2 = |z_2|$ ; thus  $d_2 = kd'_1$ .

Let  $m' = \parallel_1^{d_2, d'_1} \lambda i. p_1(m) = p_1(m) \| \dots \| p_1(m) \in \text{Signal}^{kd'_1}$ . By definition of Beam Type Consistency and  $k$ , one gets  $m' : z_2$ . By induction on  $E_2$ , one gets  $p_2(m') : z'$  and  $\dim(p_2) = (|z_2|, |z'|)$ .

By definition of  $E$  on  $E$ , then  $p(m) : z'$  and  $\dim(p) = (|z|, |z'|)$ .

- $E = E_1 :> E_2$ .  $T \vdash E : z \rightarrow z'$  implies, using Rule ( $:>$ ), there exist  $z'_1, z_2, k$  such that  $T \vdash E_1 : z \rightarrow z'_1$ ,  $T \vdash E_2 : z_2 \rightarrow z'$ ,  $|z'_1| = k|z_2|$  and, for all  $i$  in  $[0, k - 1]$ , one has  $z'_1[1 + i|z_2|, |z_2| + i|z_2|] = z_2$ .

By induction on  $E_1$ , one gets  $p_1(m) : z'_1$  and  $\dim(p_1) = (|z|, |z'_1|)$ . By induction on  $E_2$ ,  $\dim(p_2) = (|z_2|, |z'|)$ . By definition of  $E$ ,  $d'_1 = |z'_1|$  and  $d_2 = |z_2|$ ; thus  $d'_1 = kd_2$ .

For all  $i$  in  $[1, d_2]$ , let  $m^i = p_1(m)[i, d'_1, d_2]$ . Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} m^i &= \parallel_i^{d'_1, d_2} \lambda j. (p_1(m)[j]) \\ &: \parallel_i^{d'_1, d_2} \lambda j. (z'_1[j]), \text{ by induction on } E_1 \\ &= (z'_1[i]) \parallel (z'_1[i + d_2]) \parallel \dots \parallel (z'_1[i + (k - 1)d_2]), \text{ by definition of } k. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by definition of  $mix$  and the application of  $+$  on beam types, one gets:

$$\begin{aligned} mix(m^i) &: \left( \sum_{l \in [0, k-1]} z'_1[i + ld_2] \right) \\ &= (z_2[i]), \text{ since } z'_1 \succ z_2. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $m_2 = \parallel_1^{d_2} \lambda i. mix(m^i)$ . Then  $m_2 : (z_2[1], \dots, z_2[d_2]) = z_2$ .

By induction on  $E_2$ , then  $p(m) = p_2(m_2) : z'$  and  $\dim(p) = (|z|, |z'|)$ .

- $E = [L>$ .  $T \vdash [L> : z \rightarrow z'$  implies  $iso(z)$ ,  $|z| = |L|$  and there exists  $u = (L, \parallel_z type)$  such that  $z' = (u^\#(z))$ . By definition of the dynamic semantics, one has  $p(m) = (s')$  with

$$s' = \lambda t' \in \bigcap_{i \in [1, |m|]} dom(m[i]). \lambda I' \in L. m[L^{-1}(I')](t').$$

Thus, one sees  $\dim(p) = (|m|, 1) = (|z|, |z'|)$ , since, by hypothesis,  $m : z$ .

To prove  $p(m) : z'$ , one needs to show that, for all  $t'$  in  $dom(s')$ , one has  $s'(t') : u$ . Thus, since  $v = s'(t') = \lambda I' . m[L^{-1}(I')](t')$ , when  $I' \in L$ , and  $\perp$  otherwise, one needs to show, by Value Type Consistency, that there exist  $L_u$  and  $T_u$  such that

$$u = (L_u, T_u) \wedge dom(v) = L_u \wedge \forall I_u \in L_u. v(I_u) : T_u[L_u^{-1}(I_u)].$$

Choosing  $L_u = L$  and  $T_u = \parallel_z type$ , the first two propositions are satisfied. To prove  $p(m) = z'$ , one is left to show, given the definition of  $v$  and Value Type Consistency, that for all  $I_u$  in  $L$ :

$$m[L^{-1}(I_u)](t') : \parallel_z type [L^{-1}(I_u)] .$$

Since, by definition of  $L^{-1}$ , one has  $L^{-1}(I_u) = i_u$  if and only if  $L[i_u] = I_u$ , we see, collecting quantifiers, that proving  $p(m) : z'$  is equivalent to showing that:

$$\forall t' \in dom(s'). \forall i_u \in [1, |L|]. m[i_u](t') : type(z[i_u])$$

is true. Yet, by hypothesis,  $m : z$ , and thus  $\forall i \in [1, |z|]$  and  $\forall t \in dom(m[i])$ ,  $m[i](t) : type(z[i])$  is true, and implies what is needed. Indeed, first,  $|z| = |L|$  and, second, since  $dom(s') = \bigcap_{i \in [1, |m|]} dom(m[i])$ , the proposition with the two universal quantifiers exchanged is also true.

- $E = \langle L' \rangle$ .  $T \vdash \langle L' \rangle : z \rightarrow z'$  implies that there exist  $L, T, f$  and  $u$  such that  $u = (L, T)$ ,  $z' = \parallel_{L'} \lambda I'. T[L^{-1}(I')]^f$ ,  $L' \subset L$  and  $z = (u^f)$ . By definition of the dynamic semantics, one has  $p(m) = m'$  with

$$m' = \lambda(s). \parallel_{L'} \lambda I'. \lambda t. s(t)(I') ,$$

where  $m = (s)$ .

Thus, one sees  $dim(p) = (1, |L'|) = (|z|, |z'|)$ , by definition of  $z$  and  $z'$ .

To prove  $p(m) : z'$ , one needs to show that

$$\parallel_{L'} \lambda I'. \lambda t. s(t)(I') : \parallel_{L'} \lambda I'. T[L^{-1}(I')] ,$$

which yields, by definition of Value Type Consistency, that for all  $I \in L'$ , one has:

$$\lambda t. s(t)(I) : T[L^{-1}(I)] .$$

Thus, one needs to show that, for all  $t \in dom(s)$  and  $I \in L'$ , one has  $s(t)(I) : T[L^{-1}(I)]$ . Yet, by definition of the  $m : z$  hypothesis, i.e.,  $(s) : (u^f)$ , one knows that  $\forall t \in dom(s). s(t) : u$ . By Value Type Consistency on records, one gets that  $\forall I \in L. s(t)(I) : T[L^{-1}(I)]$ , which implies what is needed to prove  $p(m) : z'$ , since  $L' \subset L$ .

- $E = E_1 \sim E_2$ .  $T \vdash E : z \rightarrow \widehat{z}'$  implies, using Rule ( $\sim$ ), there exist  $z_1, z_2, s'_2$  such that  $T \vdash E_1 : z_1 \rightarrow z'$ ,  $T \vdash E_2 : z_2 \rightarrow z'_2$ ,  $z_2 = z'[1, |z_2|]$ ,  $z'_2 = z_1[1, |z'_2|]$  and  $z = z_1[|z'_2| + 1, |z_1|]$ . One sees that  $z_1 = z'_2 \parallel z$ .

Let  $m' = \text{fix}(F)$ , with  $F = \lambda m'. p_1(p_2(@ (m'[1, d_2])) \parallel m)$ . We are going to prove  $\text{fix}(F) : z'$  and  $\text{dim}(\lambda m. \text{fix}(F)) = (|z|, |z'|)$ . Using fix point induction (which is valid since we stay in the cpo  $\text{Signal}^{|z'|}$ ), this needs to be proven for the bottom element and, assuming this is true for  $m'$ , show it is true for  $F(m')$ .

- Let  $\perp'$  be bottom in  $\text{Signal}^{|z'|}$  :  $\perp' = (\lambda t. \perp, \dots, \lambda t. \perp) : z'$ . One immediately gets  $\text{dim}(\lambda m. \perp') = (|m|, |z'|) = (|z|, |z'|)$ .
- Assume  $m' : z'$ . We need to show that  $F(m') : z'$  and  $\text{dim}(\lambda m. F(m')) = (|z|, |z'|)$ . One has  $F(m') = p_1(p_2(@ (m'[1, d_2])) \parallel m)$ . Using the lemma (left to the reader) that, if  $m' : z'$ , then  $@(m') : z_2$ , we get that  $@(m'[1, d_2]) : z_2$ .  
By induction on  $E_2$ ,  $F(m') = p_1(m'' \parallel m)$ , where  $m'' : z'_2$ .  
Since  $m : z$ , then, by induction on  $E_1$ , one has  $F(m') : z'$  and  $\text{dim}(\lambda m. F(m')) = (|m|, |z'|) = (|z|, |z'|)$ .
- By fix point induction then,  $m' : z'$ . Since one easily sees that  $z' \subset \widehat{z}'$ , then, using Rule ( $\subset$ ) and  $\text{dim}(\lambda m. m') = (|z|, |z'|) = (|z|, |\widehat{z}'|)$ , one gets the required result.  $\square$

The Subject Reduction theorem can be readily applied to typing Faust expressions in the initial environment  $T_0$  and state  $r_0$ , since one can easily check that, by the very type and value definitions of each predefined identifier, one has  $r_0 : T_0$ .

## 8. Rate Correctness Theorem

In the presence of signals that use different rates at run time, the consistency of their rate assignment must be ensured. In particular, we show below that the support of signals and, more generally, beams can be bounded in a way consistent with their relative rates; this is the Rate Correctness theorem.

### 8.1. Beam Boundedness Definition

Even though Faust expressions only denote total signal processors, the semantics of “ $\sim$ ” loops is defined as a fixed point, which is based on partially defined signals. This leads us to the notion of beam boundedness.



**Definition 15 (Beam Bound  $\mu(m, z)$ ).**

The bound  $\mu(m, z)$ , in  $\mathbb{N} \cup \{\omega\}$ , of a beam  $m$  of beam type  $z$  is defined by

$$\mu(m, z) = \min_{i \in [1, |z|]} \lfloor m[i] / \#(z[i]) \rfloor ,$$

where, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $n/0 = \omega$ .

Informally, when  $\mu(m, z) = c$ , then there is at least one signal  $i^*$  in  $m$  that has at most  $(c+1)\#(z[i^*]) - 1$  elements in its domain of definition<sup>9</sup>. This is interesting since the supports of signals in a beam  $m$  tell us something about how many values can be computed if we use  $m$  as input of a signal processor. Thus  $c\#(z[i^*])$  is an upper bound on the number of elements that can be used in a synchronous computation (all subsequent values are  $\perp$ ), thus yielding some clues about the size of buffers needed to perform it.

Another way to look at  $c$ -boundedness comes from  $c$  itself; being the inverse of a rate, its unit is the second, and thus  $c$  is a time. The definition of beam boundedness yields an upper bound on the number of time ticks required to exhaust at least one of the signals of  $m$ , thus providing a (logical) time limit on computations that would use these as actual inputs. Even though this limit, as stated here, holds for a complete computation, it also applies when one deals with slices of the computation process, for instance when considering buffered versions of a program.

We illustrate this notion of beam boundedness in Figure 5, where incoming signals  $s_i$  have different rates. The support of  $s_1$  is 5, while  $s_2$ 's support is 3. Note that at most 4 elements are available in the output signal  $s'_1$ , since  $s_1$  would need one additional element for the computation of two additional elements in  $s'_1$  to be valid.

Of course, in general, explicit delaying operations introduced via the 1-sample delay `mem` primitive may occur in Faust programs. Since these operations cumulatively extend the support of signals, we need to provide an upper-bound estimate of such an extension, as a count of the additional elements introduced by a given signal processor  $E$ ; the number of such elements is, of course, related to the rate of each given `mem` use. We define then  $@_T(E)$  as follows:

$$@_T(E) = \sum_{\{z/\text{mem}: z \rightarrow z \in \text{ids}(T, E)\}} \lceil 1/\#(z) \rceil .$$

---

<sup>9</sup>When signals are properly synchronized, e.g., in an actual computation, all  $\lfloor m[i] / \#(z[i]) \rfloor$  are equal, and the comments in this section about  $i^*$  apply in fact to all signals.

Here,  $ids(T, E)$  denotes the list of Faust identifier typings  $I : z_i \rightarrow z'_i$  obtained<sup>10</sup> via the application of Rule (i) during the typing derivation  $T \vdash E : z \rightarrow z'$ . To get a correct upper-bound,  $@_T(E)$  simply sums the impact of each `mem` operation, which is a safe albeit not very tight upper bound. Note that  $@_T(E)$  is a static notion, defined by induction on  $E$  and independent of the size of the input signals.

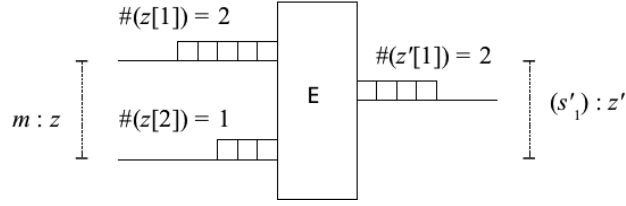


Figure 5: A beam bound example, with  $m = (s_1, s_2)$  and  $\mu(m, z) = 2$ .

## 8.2. Theorem

The Rate Correctness theorem states that, given a Faust expression  $E$ , if the state  $r$  is consistent w.r.t. the environment  $T$  and  $E$  maps beams of beam type  $z$  to beams of beam type  $z'$ , then, given a beam  $m$  that is type consistent w.r.t.  $z$  and is bounded, then the semantics  $p(m)$  of  $E$  will yield a similarly bounded beam  $m'$  of beam type  $z'$ .

### Theorem 4 (Rate Correctness).

For all  $E, T, z, z', c, r, m$  and  $m'$ , if

$$\begin{aligned} r &: T, \\ m &: z, \\ T \vdash E &: z \rightarrow z', \end{aligned}$$

then  $|z'| = 0 \vee \mu(m', z') \leq \mu(m, z) + @_T(E)$ , where  $m' = p(m) : z'$  and  $p = E[[E]]r$ .

<sup>10</sup>We leave to the reader the exact specification of this function, which extends Faust static semantics with simple bookkeeping operations, e.g., via rules such as  $T \vdash I : (z \rightarrow z', \{I : z \rightarrow z'\})$ .

Basically, this theorem tells us that the running time of  $E$  is always upper-bounded, whichever way we try to assess it via any of its observable facets (namely input or output data), modulo the presence of explicit delays:  $\mu(m, z)$  is consistent and thus a characteristic of  $E$ . This shows that the synchronous nature of Faust beams is preserved by evaluation.

**Proof.** By induction on the structure of  $E$ .

- $E = \mathbf{I}$ . Use  $E[\mathbf{I}]r = r(\mathbf{I})$  and then:
  - trivial for  $\_$ ;
  - for constants (thus with  $z = ()$ ), since the minimum of the empty set is  $\omega$ , then  $\mu(m, z) = \omega$ . The property  $\mu(m', z') \leq \omega$  is always satisfied;
  - for  $!$ , since  $|z'| = 0$ , then the theorem is trivially satisfied;
  - for  $\text{mem}$ , one has  $\mu(m', z') = \min_{i \in [1, |z'|]} \lfloor \underline{m'[i]} / \#(z'[i]) \rfloor$ . Since  $z' = z$ ,  $|z| = 1$  and  $\underline{m'[1]} = \underline{m[1]} + 1$  by definition of  $\text{mem}$ , one gets  $\lfloor \underline{m'[1]} / \#(z'[1]) \rfloor = \lfloor (\underline{m[1]} + 1) / \#(z[1]) \rfloor \leq \lfloor \underline{m[1]} / \#(z[1]) \rfloor + \lceil 1 / \#(z[1]) \rceil$ . Thus,  $\mu(m', z') \leq \mu(m, z) + @_T(\mathbf{I})$ , as required;
  - for synchronous operations such as  $+$  or  $[\ ]$ , this is obvious since  $\#(z[i]) = \#(z'[i'])$ .
  - for vectorizing and serializing operations, the relationship on rates is, by design, the exact inverse of the one on the size of the domains, thus yielding in fact the stronger relation  $\mu(m', z') = \mu(m, z)$ .
- $E = E_1 : E_2$ .  $T \vdash E : z \rightarrow z'$  implies, using Rule  $(:)$ , there exists  $z'_1$  such that  $T \vdash E_1 : z \rightarrow z'_1$  and  $T \vdash E_2 : z'_1 \rightarrow z'$ .  
By induction on  $E_1$ , we get  $m'_1 = p_1(m) : z'_1$  and  $|z'_1| = 0 \vee \mu(m'_1, z'_1) \leq \mu(m, z) + @_T(E_1)$ .  
If  $|z'_1| = 0$ , the proof for  $E_2$  follows the lines of the one we used above for constants.  
Otherwise, by induction on  $E_2$ , one gets  $m' = p_2(m'_1) : z'$  and  $|z'| = 0 \vee \mu(m', z') \leq \mu(m'_1, z'_1) + @_T(E_2)$ . Since  $@_T(E) = @_T(E_1) + @_T(E_2)$ , one gets  $\mu(m', z') \leq \mu(m'_1, z'_1) + @_T(E_2) \leq \mu(m, z) + @_T(E_1) + @_T(E_2)$ , we get the required result.
- $E = E_1, E_2$ .  $T \vdash E : z \rightarrow z'$  implies, using Rule  $(,)$ , there exist  $z_1, z_2, z'_1, z'_2$  such that  $z = z_1 \parallel z_2$ ,  $z' = z'_1 \parallel z'_2$ ,  $T \vdash E_1 : z_1 \rightarrow z'_1$  and  $T \vdash E_2 : z_2 \rightarrow z'_2$ .

Since  $m = m_1 \parallel m_2$ , with  $m_1 = m[1, |z_1|]$  and similarly for  $m_2$ , we can assume, without loss of generality, that the minimum of the  $\lfloor \frac{m[i]}{\#(z[i])} \rfloor$  in  $m$  occurs in  $m_1$ : thus  $\mu(m_1, z_1) = \mu(m, z)$ .

By induction on  $E_1$ , one gets  $m'_1 = p_1(m_1) : z'_1$  and  $|z'_1| = 0 \vee \mu(m'_1, z'_1) \leq \mu(m, z) + @_T(E_1)$ .

Let  $c_2$  be such that  $\mu(m_2, z_2) = c_2$ , with  $c_2 \geq \mu(m, z)$  and  $m_2 = m[|z_1| + 1, |z_1| + |z_2|]$ . By induction on  $E_2$ , one gets  $m'_2 = p_2(m_2) : z'_2$  and  $|z'_2| = 0 \vee \mu(m'_2, z'_2) \leq c_2 + @_T(E_2)$ .

Since  $m' = m'_1 \parallel m'_2$ , then  $|z'| = |z'_1| + |z'_2|$ . So, either  $|z'| = 0$  or

$$\mu(m', z') = \min(\mu(m'_1, z'_1), \mu(m'_2, z'_2)) .$$

One gets  $\mu(m', z') \leq \mu(m, z) + @_T(E_1) \leq \mu(m, z) + @_T(E)$ , as required.

- $E = E_1 <: E_2$ . The proof is similar to the one for “:”. Indeed, “<:” dispatches its input signals to its output signals, and then composes them, using “:”. Since the dispatch operation does not modify the signal supports, this operation is, for rate correctness purposes, identical to “:”.
- $E = E_1 :> E_2$ . Same as above, except that the dispatched signals are merged using the  $+$  function. Since we know that  $+$  is synchronous, mixing does not modify the rate behavior.
- $[L > \text{ and } < L]$ . Record building and accessing are synchronous operations, as can be seen by looking at the rate of  $z$  and  $z'$ .
- $E = E_1 \sim E_2$ .  $T \vdash E : z \rightarrow \widehat{z}'$  implies, using Rule ( $\sim$ ), there exist  $z_1, z_2, s'_2$  such that  $T \vdash E_1 : z_1 \rightarrow z'$ ,  $T \vdash E_2 : z_2 \rightarrow z'_2$ ,  $z_2 = z'[1, |z_2|]$ ,  $z'_2 = z_1[1, |z'_2|]$  and  $z = z_1[|z'_2| + 1, |z_1|]$ . One sees that  $z_1 = z'_2 \parallel z$ .

Let  $m' = \text{fix}(F)$ , with  $F = \lambda m'. p_1(p_2(@_T(m'[1, d_2])) \parallel m)$ . We prove below that  $P(m') = (|z'| = 0 \vee \mu(m', z') \leq c + @_T(E))$ , with  $c = \mu(m, z)$ , is true.

Using fix point induction (which is valid since we stay in the cpo  $\text{Signal}^{|z'|}$ ),  $P(m')$  needs to be proven for the bottom element  $\perp$  and, assuming that  $P$  is true for  $m'$ , show it is true for  $F(m')$ .

- If  $|z'| = 0$ , in both steps,  $P$  is obviously true.

- For the basis case of  $\perp$ ,  $P$  is obvious too, since  $\mu(\perp, z') = 0 \leq c + @_T(\mathbf{E})$ , for all  $c$ .
- Assume  $\mu(m', z') \leq c + @_T(\mathbf{E})$ . We need to show that  $\mu(F(m'), z') \leq c + @_T(\mathbf{E})$ , with  $F(m') = p_1(p_2(@ (m'[1, d_2])) \| m)$ .  
 Since  $m'[1, d_2]$  is part of  $m'$ , then  $\mu(m'[1, d_2], z_2) = c_2$  with  $c_2 \geq c$ .  
 By definition of the delaying semantics of  $@$ , which extends signal supports, then one has  $\mu(@ (m'[1, d_2]), z_2) = c_{@2}$  for some  $c_{@2} \geq c_2$ .  
 By induction on  $\mathbf{E}_2$ , we get that  $F(m') = p_1(m'' \| m)$  with  $\mu(m'', z'_2) \leq c_{@2} + @_T(\mathbf{E}_2)$  and  $m'' = p_2(@ (m'[1, d_2]))$ .  
 By concatenation of beams and beam types, one gets  $\mu(m'' \| m, z_1) = \min(\mu(m'', z'_2), \mu(m, z))$ .  
 By induction on  $\mathbf{E}_1$ , one has  $\mu(F(m'), z') \leq \min(\mu(m'', z'_2), \mu(m, z)) + @_T(\mathbf{E}_1) \leq \mu(m, z) + @_T(\mathbf{E}_1)$ , as required, since  $@_T(\mathbf{E}_1) \leq @_T(\mathbf{E})$ .
- By fix point induction then,  $\mu(\text{fix}(F), z') \leq c + @_T(\mathbf{E})$ .

Since  $\#(\widehat{\gamma}) = \#(\gamma)$  for any signal  $\gamma$ , then  $\mu(m', \widehat{z}') = \mu(m, z) \leq c + @_T(\mathbf{E})$ , as required.  $\square$

## 9. Conclusion

We provide the typing semantics, denotational semantics and correctness theorems for a new multirate extension of Faust, a functional programming language dedicated to musical, audio and more generally multimedia applications. We propose to link the introduction of record and vector datatypes in a synchronous setting to the presence of multiple signal rates. We describe a dedicated framework based on a new polymorphic, dependent-type static semantics in which both vector sizes and rates are values, and prove a synchrony consistency theorem relating values and rates. This proposal is under implementation in the Faust compiler.

Future work may address issues related to mathematical properties that Faust programs are conjectured to have, such as causality and termination. Extensions of our formalism to the full-fledged Faust language may also be worth exploring.

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