Abstract—Robustness of embedded systems to potential changes in their environment, which may result in the inputs being affected, is crucial for reliable behaviour. One typical possible change is that the system’s inputs are slowed down, altering its temporal behaviour. Algorithmic analysis of systems to be able to deduce their robustness under such environmental interference is desirable. In this paper, we present a framework for the analysis of synchronous systems to analyse their behaviour when the inputs slow down through stuttering. We identify different types of slowdown robustness constraints and present static and dynamic analysis techniques for determining whether systems written in Lustre satisfy these robustness properties.

Keywords—Synchronous Languages; Lustre; Slowdown

I. INTRODUCTION

Software is increasingly becoming more prominent as a controller for a variety of devices and processes. Embedded systems operate within an environment, by which they are affected and with which they interact — this tight interaction usually means that changes to the environment directly change the behaviour of the embedded system. One such situation can occur when the environment slows down its provision of input to the system, possibly resulting from a variety of reasons. For example, the system producing the inputs or the communications channel on which these inputs pass to the program might be under heavy load, delaying the inputs; or the program is deployed on a faster platform, therefore making the input relatively slower.

One question which arises immediately in such scenarios is how the system behaves when its input slows down. Does it act in an expected manner, or does the slow input cause it to produce unwanted output? For example, if the inputs to a system are slowed down by a certain amount, the system could react by slowing its output by the same amount. In this paper, we develop an approach to study whether a system continues to behave correctly when the inputs are slowed down. We characterise different notions of correctness since, for instance, in some cases we may desire the output to be delayed by the same amount as the inputs, whereas in others, the values but not the actual delays on the outputs are important. The theory we develop is applied to the synchronous language Lustre [9], which enables the static deduction of a program’s resource requirements, making it ideal for the design of embedded systems. Although retiming analysis techniques for continuous time can be found in the literature [2], our approach adapts them for discrete time, the timing model used by Lustre and other synchronous languages.

Such a theory requires addressing a number of considerations. In section II we define streams [1], which are infinite sequences of values, as well as the Lustre programs which manipulate them. In the model we adopt, streams can be slowed down through the repetition of values, which is also called stuttering. Stuttering can be a valid model for slow input under several scenarios:

- If a memory’s clock signal becomes slower, the memory will take more time to read new input, and thus will maintain its present output for a longer time. A program which samples the values of this memory at the same rate will then experience repetition in its input.
- The system providing the input might not be ready to provide its output, or it might experience a fault from which it needs time to recover. In these situations, some systems might keep their present output constant until they are ready once again. In this case, the receiving program will also experience repetition in its input.
- A physical process which is being sampled in order to provide input to a program might slow down. Under certain sampling conditions, the resulting input received by the program corresponds to experiencing stutter in its inputs.

Providing stuttered input to a program will change its behaviour. A program can be said to be robust with respect to slow input if it behaves in a way which is acceptable to the scenario under consideration. Section III provides a number of robustness properties which characterise what may be acceptable in different scenarios. Given such a property, one needs some algorithmic means of checking whether it holds or not for a given program. Section IV considers a method based on the static analysis of the program’s text, while section V focuses on a method based on the dynamic analysis of its state space. This is followed by a case study in section VI, in which these two approaches are applied to a number of Boolean Lustre programs. Section VII presents work related to the theory which has been developed, while section VIII provides some concluding remarks.

II. STREAMS, SLOWDOWN AND LUSTRE PROGRAMS

We adopt the standard view of a stream as an infinite sequence of values over a particular type, representing the
value of the stream over a discrete time domain. We will write \( s(t) \) to denote the value taken by stream \( s \) at time \( t \), lifting the notation for vectors of streams. For instance, for two streams \( s \) and \( s' \), \((s, s')(t)\) is defined to be the tuple of values \((s(t), s'(t))\).

By slowing down a stream, one obtains the same sequence of values, but possibly with some of the values repeated a number of times, representing stutter. A slowdown can be realised as a block of \( \lambda(t) + 1 \) copies of this value. We will use the notation \( \lambda \) to denote the time instant at which the \( t \)th such block begins: \( \sum_{i=1}^{t} \lambda(i) \). Similarly, \( \text{End}_{\lambda} \) denotes the time instant at which the block ends and is analogously defined.

Note that the constant zero latency function leaves the stream untouched. If a latency function is a constant function, we shall refer to it as uniform.

As before, we will overload this notation for vectors of streams, with \((s, s')\rangle_{\lambda} \) being equivalent to \((s_{\lambda}, s'_{\lambda})\).

Lustre [9] provides a way of symbolically specifying systems which process streams in a declarative manner. A Lustre program \( P = \langle V, I, O, E \rangle \) is defined over a set of stream variables \( V \), with two disjoint subsets \( I \) and \( O \) consisting of the input and output stream variables of the program respectively, and a set of equations \( E \) which explains how to compute the value of each output variable at every instant of time in terms of other program variables. Equations can take one of the following forms:

\[
\begin{align*}
  y &= \Diamond(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \\
  y &= \text{pre } x_1 \\
  y &= x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \\
  y &= x_1 \text{ fby } x_2 
\end{align*}
\]

Instantaneous operators \( \Diamond \) are used to represent computation performed at each time instant. For instance, the equation \( y = \wedge(x_1, x_2) \) would update the value of stream variable \( y \) with the value of the conjunction of the stream variables \( x_1 \) and \( x_2 \) at each time instant: \( y(t) = x_1(t) \wedge x_2(t) \). The delay operator \( \text{pre} \) allows access to the previous value of a given stream variable: \( \text{pre } x(t+1) = x(t) \) with the resulting stream being undefined for the initial time point, at which it is said to take the value \( \text{Nil} \). In fact, \( \text{pre} \) behaves like an uninitialised memory.

The initialisation operator \( x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \) yields a stream behaving like \( x_1 \) at the first time instant, and like \( x_2 \) elsewhere: \((x_1 \rightarrow x_2)(0) = x_1(0) \) and \((x_1 \rightarrow x_2)(t+1) = x_2(t+1) \). These last two operators are frequently combined to produce an initialised memory using the followed-by operator, with \( x_1 \text{ fby } x_2 \) being equivalent to \( x_1 \rightarrow \text{pre } x_2 \).

Below we illustrate two sample programs. The program \( \text{TOGGLE} \) represents a toggle switch which starts in the Boolean state \( \text{true} \), and which outputs its present state if its toggle input is \( \text{false} \) and inverts and outputs its present state if the toggle input is \( \text{true} \). On the other hand, the program \( \text{SISO} \) is a 4-bit serial in serial out register, which starts with all its memories set to true.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{node TOGGLE}(\text{toggle} : \text{bool}) & \quad \text{returns}(\text{out} : \text{bool}) \\
\text{var } X, Y : \text{bool}; \\
\text{let} & \\
\text{out} &= \text{if } \text{toggle} \text{ then } x \text{ else } y; \\
\text{x} &= \text{true \ fby } \text{out}; \\
\text{tel}; \\
\text{end}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{node SISO}(\text{i} : \text{bool}) & \quad \text{returns}(\text{i} : \text{bool}) \\
\text{var } i_2, i_3, i_4 : \text{bool}; \\
\text{let} & \\
\text{i}_2 &= \text{true \ fby } \text{i}; \\
\text{i}_3 &= \text{true \ fby } \text{i}; \\
\text{i}_4 &= \text{true \ fby } \text{i}; \\
\text{i}_5 &= \text{true \ fby } \text{i}; \\
\text{tel}; \\
\text{end}
\end{align*}
\]

We will use the notation \( P_{\text{fast}}, P_{\text{delay}}, P_{\text{init}}, \) and \( P_{\text{fby}} \) for the primitive programs with just one equation consisting of a single application of an instantaneous, delay, initialisation or followed-by operator respectively. For each primitive program, the variable occurring on the left hand side of its equation is an output variable, those appearing on the right are inputs.

For a Lustre program \( P, \text{dep}_0(P) \subseteq V \times V \) relates a stream variable \( y \) to a stream variable \( x \) if \( y \) is defined in \( P \) by an equation with \( x \) appearing on the right hand side. The irreflexive transitive closure of this relation denotes the dependencies between the stream variables and is written as \( \text{dep}(P) \). Another important concept is that of an instantaneous dependency relation. This relation can be obtained by starting from the relation \( \text{inst}_0(P) \subseteq V \times V \), which relates a stream variable \( y \) to a stream variable \( x \) only if \( y \)’s defining equation involves \( x \), and \( x \) does not appear in a \( \text{pre} \) equation or on the right hand side of an \( \text{fby} \) equation. The irreflexive transitive closure of this relation, \( \text{inst}(P) \) denotes the instantaneous dependencies between stream variables. A Lustre program \( P \) is said to be well-formed if none of its variables instantaneously depend on themselves: \( \forall s \cdot (s, s) \notin \text{inst}(P) \).

Given two Lustre programs \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \) (with inputs \( I_1, I_2 \) and outputs \( O_1, O_2 \) respectively) their composition, written \( P_1 \mid P_2 \), is the Lustre program whose equation set is the union of the equation sets of the respective programs. Its inputs are the inputs of either program not appearing as outputs of the other \((I_1 \cap I_2) \setminus (O_1 \cup O_2))\), and vice versa for its outputs \((O_1 \cup O_2) \setminus (I_1 \cap I_2))\). In particular, certain specific types of composition shall be referred to as follows:

- **Disjoint composition**, if \( O_2 \cap I_1 = O_1 \cap I_2 = \emptyset \).
- **Composition without feedback**, if \( O_2 \cap I_1 = \emptyset \) or \( O_1 \cap I_2 = \emptyset \).
- **Fully connected composition**, if \( O_2 \cap I_1 = \emptyset \) and \( O_1 = I_2 \), or conversely \( O_1 \cap I_2 = \emptyset \) and \( O_2 = I_1 \).

Another important operation is that of **adding a feedback loop** to a program \( P \) by connecting an output \( y \) to an input \( x \) written \( P'[y \rightarrow x] \), provided \( y \) does not depend on \( x \), that is \( (y, x) \notin \text{dep}(P) \). Given the Lustre program \( P' = \{\{x, y\}, \{y\}, \{x\}, \{x = y\}\} \), adding a feedback loop can also be defined in terms of composition as follows:
\[ P[y \rightarrow x] \overset{a}{\Rightarrow} P \mid P' \]

Assuming the existence of an ordering on the program’s variables, given a Lustre program \( P \), and a vector \( i \) which assigns a stream to each of the program’s input variables, \( P(i) \) denotes the vector \( o \) of output streams corresponding to the output variables of \( P \) as computed by the semantics of Lustre [9].

Our goal is therefore that of identifying Lustre programs \( P \) such that upon slowing down their inputs \( i \) according to a latency function \( \lambda \), will result in \( P \) still being well behaved. In the next section we will identify different forms of such well-behaviour of \( P(i, \lambda) \) with respect to the unslowed behaviour \( P(i) \).

Boolean Lustre programs can also be compiled into automata spanning over the state space they cover [8]. This can be defined for Lustre programs using \( fby \) (instead of delays) as follows:

**Definition 1: (Lustre Automaton).** Let \( P \) be a Boolean Lustre program with \( n \) input variables, \( m \) output variables, and \( k \) \( fby \) equations of the form \( y = x_1 \ fby \ x_2 \). Then, this program can be compiled into an automaton \( A = (S, s_{init}, \tau, \delta) \), where \( S \) is its set of states, \( s_{init} \) is its initial state, \( \tau : \mathbb{B}^n \times S \rightarrow S \) is its transition function and \( \delta : \mathbb{B}^n \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{B}^m \) is its output function. The automaton, processes the input vector provided to the program one tuple at a time. During each instant, it uses its current input tuple and its present state to (i) move to a new state under the guidance of its transition function \( \tau \) and (ii) output an output tuple as defined by its output function \( \delta \), which represents the values of the program’s output variables at that particular time instant. The program \( P \) can be converted into automaton \( A \) using the following procedure.

**External Initialisation:** A program is said to be initialised externally if in at least one of its \( fby \) statements \( x_1 \ fby \ x_2 \), the initial variable \( x_1 \) depends on one of the program’s input variables.

**States:** Each \( fby \) statement \( x_1 \ fby \ x_2 \) corresponds to a memory element in the program, whose value is determined by the variable \( x_1 \) at the first instant and by the variable \( x_2 \) at all further instants. Since each such memory can either be true or false, we create \( 2^k \) states, with each state representing one possible configuration of the program’s memories. If the program is initialised externally, we also add a special initial state \( init \) to the set of states.

**Initial State:** If the program is initialised externally, the initial state is \( init \). Otherwise, the initial state is the state corresponding to the configuration obtained by evaluating the variables of the form \( x_1 \) within the program’s \( fby \) statements.

**Transition Function:** With \( n \) input variables, there are \( 2^n \) possible input tuples. Each state therefore has \( 2^n \) transitions, with each transition labeled with the associated input tuple. Given a state \( s \neq init \) and input tuple \( a \), the next state \( \tau(a, s) \) is computed as follows (i) assign the configuration represented by present state \( s \) to the respective variables of the form \( x_2 \) occurring on the right hand side of \( fby \) statements, (ii) assign the input values represented by tuple \( a \) to the respective input variables and (iii) simulate the Lustre program, using the defining equations of the variables of the form \( x_2 \) to determine the configuration of the memories at the next time instant, allowing the selection of the appropriate next state. The initial state \( init \), if present, also has \( 2^n \) transitions. The next states are determined as follows (i) assign the input values represented by tuple \( a \) to the respective input variables, (ii) use the defining equations of variables of the form \( x_1 \) to compute the value of the initialisation variables and (iii) simulate the Lustre program using the defining equations of the variables of the form \( x_2 \) which determine the next state. Again, these values determine the configuration of the memories at the next time instant and allow the selection of the appropriate next state.

**Output Function:** Each transition is associated with an \( m \)-tuple, which represents the values of the output variables when the automaton finds itself in a certain state and processes a certain input tuple. The procedure for obtaining the output tuple is similar to that for obtaining the next state, except that the output tuple is constructed by simulating the program and considering the values of the output variables.

Fig. 1 shows the automaton which would be obtained by applying the above procedure to the toggle switch program \( TOGGLE \). The two states represent the two possible configurations which the memory corresponding to the program’s only \( fby \) equation can be in. Meanwhile, for each transition, the value on the left shows the value of the toggle input variable which causes the transition, and the value on the right shows the output value computed by the program. We shall return to this representation of the \( TOGGLE \) program at a later stage.

We now consider a number of different forms of program robustness to slow input.

### III. Slowdown Robustness

Whether a program behaves in an acceptable way depends on the scenario it is operating in. In this section, the four well behaviour properties of **stretch robustness**, **stutter robustness**, **fast-enough robustness** and **immediate-at-first robustness** are introduced, characterising desirable behaviour under different circumstances.

**A. Stretch Robustness**

Stretch robustness (STR) specifies the fact that if the input of a program slows down by some amount, then the output
of a program should slow down by the same amount. This property can be formalised by requiring that whenever a latency function $\lambda$ is applied to a program’s input, the program will respond by applying the same latency to its output.

Definition 2: (Stretch Robustness). A program $P$ is said to be stretch robust with respect to a latency function $\lambda$, if for any input vector $i$: $P(i_{\lambda}) = P(i)$. $P$ is simply said to be stretch robust if it is stretch robust with respect to all latency functions.

The table below shows the relationship between a slow input vector $i_{\lambda}$ and the required program output $P(i_{\lambda})$:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$i_{\lambda}$</th>
<th>$P(i_{\lambda})$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$i(0), \ldots, i(0), i(1), \ldots, i(n)$</td>
<td>$o(0), \ldots, o(0), o(1), \ldots, o(n)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One immediate consequence of this property is that additional repetition of the program’s input does not cause the program to change its output. Stretch robustness is thus useful in situations where one requires the program not to change its output when faced with additional latency. Stretch robustness is a very strong property, which can be relaxed in a number of ways to obtain weaker criteria which may be sufficient in certain circumstances. We shall now consider these criteria.

B. Stutter Robustness

Stutter robustness (STU) requires that if the input of a program slows down by some amount, the output of the program should also slow down, but possibly at a different rate. This will be modelled by requiring that whenever a latency function $\lambda$ is applied to a program’s input, the program will respond by applying some latency function $\lambda'$ to its output. Unlike stretch robustness, $\lambda$ and $\lambda'$ need not be equal.

Definition 3: (Stutter Robustness). A program $P$ is stutter robust with respect to a latency function $\lambda$ if there exists a latency function $\lambda'$ such that for every input vector $i$: $P(i_{\lambda}) = P(i)_{\lambda'}$. $P$ is said to be stretch robust if it is stretch robust with respect to any latency function.

The relationship between a slow vector of inputs $i_{\lambda}$ and the required program output $P(i_{\lambda})$ is shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$i_{\lambda}$</th>
<th>$P(i_{\lambda})$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$i(0), \ldots, i(0), i(1), \ldots, i(n)$</td>
<td>$o(0), \ldots, o(0), o(1), \ldots, o(n)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus for a stutter robust program, the output under slow input can be obtained from the original output by adding any number of repetitions to the values appearing in the original output, without adding any other artifacts nor removing any values. This means that stutter robustness is useful as a well behaviour property in situations where one needs to ensure that the output under slow input has the same structure as the original output, but one is able to tolerate additional repetition in the slow output.

C. Fast-Enough and Immediate-at-First Robustness

In stretch robustness, the value of the outputs remains equal to the original value in the unslowed system. In fast-enough robustness (FE) this constraint is relaxed by requiring only that the program converge to the original output before the slowed down input ends. Formally, we shall say that a program is fast-enough robust if, when we apply a latency function $\lambda$ to the program’s input, the slow output has the property that its value at the end of each block of repetitions (at points of the form $End^{\lambda}_{t}$) is equal to the value taken by the original output at the points $t$ (i.e. those points which were expanded into the blocks of repetitions).

Definition 4: (Fast-Enough Robustness). A program $P$ is fast-enough robust with respect to a latency function $\lambda$ if for any input vector $i$:

$$\forall t : T \cdot P(i_{\lambda})(End^{\lambda}_{t}) = P(i)(t)$$

Program $P$ is said to be fast-enough robust if it is fast-enough robust with respect to any latency function.

Fast-enough robustness is primarily of interest for particular latency functions, since general fast-enough robustness can be proved to be equivalent to general stretch robustness.

Fast-enough robustness can be visualised as follows (using $?$ to indicate don’t-care values):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$i_{\lambda}$</th>
<th>$P(i_{\lambda})$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$i(0), \ldots, i(0), i(1), \ldots, i(n)$</td>
<td>$?_0, \ldots, o(0), ?, \ldots, o(1), ?, \ldots, o(n)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This well behaviour property is useful in scenarios in which one can tolerate the fact that additional latency on the input might produce undesirable intermediate results as long as the original value is produced by the end of the latency period.

The dual of fast-enough robustness is immediate-at-first robustness (IAF) — instead of constraining the slow input to converge to the original value before a block of repetitions ends, it requires it to produce the original value as soon as a block of repetitions starts, leaving it free to assume any value until that block of repetition ends.

Definition 5: (Immediate-At-First Robustness). A program $P$ is said to be immediate-at-first robust with respect to latency function $\lambda$ if for any input vector $i$:

$$\forall t : T \cdot P(i_{\lambda})(Start^{\lambda}_{t}) = P(i)(t)$$

$P$ is said to be immediate-at-first robust if it satisfies the above constraint with respect to any latency function.

Immediate-at-first robustness can be visualised as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$i_{\lambda}$</th>
<th>$P(i_{\lambda})$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$i(0), \ldots, i(0), i(1), \ldots, i(n)$</td>
<td>$o(0), \ldots, o(0), o(1), \ldots, o(n)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This well behaviour property is useful in scenarios in which one requires the program to react immediately as soon as the latency on a previous input value wears off, but in which further repetition of the input can be safely ignored by outputing any result.

We shall now consider algorithmic means to check Lustre programs for robustness.

IV. DETECTING ROBUSTNESS: STATIC ANALYSIS

The first approach to checking whether a program satisfies a well behaviour property is based on a static analysis of the structure of the Lustre program. The analysis is based on two main theorems: (i) Theorem 1 which identifies which primitive programs satisfy which well behaviour properties and; (ii) Theorem 2 which identifies which well behaviour properties are preserved upon composition of two well behaved programs.

**Theorem 1:** Primitive Lustre programs all come with a level of guaranteed robustness: (i) instantaneous programs are robust under all four forms; (ii) delay and followed-by programs are robust under stutter and immediate-at-first robustness; and (iii) primitive initialisation programs are immediate-at-first robust.

**Proof:** (i) Instantaneous programs apply a pointwise operator to their input streams to obtain their output streams. Thus, the same input tuple always causes the same output tuple. Repetition of inputs through latency will therefore cause repetition of outputs, which makes the program stretch robust. (ii) The output of delay and fby programs has an additional initial value with respect to the input stream. Slowing the input stream down by a latency function, causes the program to attach this value to the slow stream. The output under slow input can therefore be obtained from the original input through a latency function, which does not repeat the attached element, and which repeats all subsequent elements accordingly. These programs are therefore stutter robust. The programs are also immediate-at-first robust as can be inferred from the figure below, which shows how the values of the original output (first row) are associated to the corresponding blocks of the output under latency (second row). It is clear that the value at the beginning of each block is equal to the corresponding value in the original output.

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
P(i) & N & x_1(0) & x_1(1) \\
\hline
P(i) & N, x_1(0),...,x_1(0) & x_1(0),x_1(1),...,x_1(1) & x_1(1),x_1(2),...,x_1(2) \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

(iii) Initialisation programs take the first value of stream \(x_1\), and attach to it the stream \(x_2\) from its second value onwards. The figure below shows how the blocks of output under slow input, relate to the original output, illustrating the fact that the value at the beginning of each block is equal to the corresponding value in the original output.

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
P(i) & x_2(0) & x_2(1) & x_2(2) \\
\hline
P(i) & x_2(0),...,x_2(0) & x_2(1),...,x_2(1) & x_2(2),...,x_2(2) \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

We can now consider the effect of composing robust programs.

**Theorem 2:** Some forms of composition of robust programs guarantee robustness of the resulting program: (i) the composition without feedback of two stretch robust programs is always stretch robust, so is adding a feedback loop to a stretch robust program; (ii) the fully connected composition of two stutter robust Lustre programs is always stutter robust; and (iii) the disjoint composition of two immediate-at-first robust programs is always immediate-at-first robust.

**Proof:** We provide a proof of (ii) to illustrate the proof idea. We consider two arbitrary stutter robust programs \(P_1\) and \(P_2\), and show that their fully connected composition is also stutter robust. Since \(P_1\) and \(P_2\) are being composed in a fully connected way, every output of \(P_1\) is connected to an input of \(P_2\), and there are no feedback connections. This is shown in Fig. 2.

Now suppose that if we pass a vector \(i\) to \(P_1\), the program responds by outputting vector \(j\). Also suppose that when \(P_2\) receives vector \(j\) it outputs vector \(o\) in response. We need to show that if a latency function \(\lambda\) is applied to the composite program’s input vector \(i\), the composite program applies some latency function to its output vector \(o\). Since \(P_1\) is stutter robust, applying \(\lambda\) to the input vector \(i\) will make \(P_1\) apply some latency function \(\lambda'\) to its output \(j\). Hence, \(P_2\) receives the vector \(j\) slowed down by \(\lambda'\) as input. Since \(P_2\) is also stutter robust it will apply some other latency function \(\lambda''\) to its output \(o\). Thus, applying a latency function to the input of the composed program, causes the composed program to slow its output by some latency function, proving that stutter robustness is preserved by fully connected composition.

We now consider a method which analyses the behaviour of the particular program under examination, rather than its structure.

V. DETECTING ROBUSTNESS: DYNAMIC ANALYSIS

Theorem 2 allows us to conclude robustness of composed programs in a syntactically compositional manner. In this section, we give richer, although more expensive, semantic analysis techniques for Lustre programs allowing for dynamic robustness analysis of their behaviour. Through the use of symbolic methods, such as with Binary Decision Diagrams (BDDs), the analysis can be applied either on whole programs or to subprograms. In the latter case, Theorem 2 can then be used to obtain results about the composition of the subprograms.
The techniques we shall discuss rely on identifying conditions on the Lustre automaton which are sufficient to guarantee that certain well-behaved properties are satisfied by that program. Two types of conditions are defined: (i) latency independent conditions, which check whether a robustness property holds in general, and (ii) latency dependent conditions, which check whether a property holds when some particular latency function is applied to the program’s input.

The conditions identified can be checked using either an exhaustive analysis of the automaton’s state space, or preferably using a symbolic representation of the automaton such as BDDs to ensure that the approach scales up to larger systems.

A. Latency Independent Conditions

We start by identifying properties which guarantee slowdown robustness for any latency function. The strongest condition is that stateless programs are always stretch robust.

**Theorem 3:** (Condition 1 — Stretch Robustness). If \( \forall a, s, s' \cdot \delta(a, s) = \delta(a, s') \), then the program is stretch robust.

**Proof:** Under such a condition, a particular input tuple always generates the same output tuple, independently of the state the automaton finds itself in. Thus, any repetition of an input tuple caused by a latency function causes a repetition of the corresponding output tuple. This is sufficient to ensure stretch robustness. \( \square \)

Under stutter robustness, slowing a program’s input by a latency function \( \lambda \), causes the program to slow its output by a latency function \( \lambda' \). In practice, this means that the output under slow input can be obtained through the repetition of the original output tuples only. We now show that if the automaton has a certain feature, then this property cannot hold.

**Theorem 4:** (Condition 2 — Failure Of Stutter Robustness). Programs satisfying the following condition are not stutter robust:

\[
\exists a, b, s, s', j, k, l \cdot \\
\delta(a, s) = j \land \tau(a, s) = s' \land \\
\delta(a, s') = k \land k \neq j \land \\
\delta(b, s') = l \land b \neq a \land l \neq k
\]

**Proof:** Condition 2 looks for the presence of reachable states \( s \) and \( s' \) having the following properties: (i) under input tuple \( a \), state \( s \) outputs tuple \( j \) and passes to state \( s' \); (ii) under input tuple \( a \), state \( s' \) outputs \( k \neq j \) and (iii) under input tuple \( b \neq a \), state \( s' \) outputs tuple \( l \neq k \).

We now show that if this structure is present in the automaton, there will always be some input vector and some latency function which breaks the stutter robustness property. We first construct the input vector as follows. Choose a path from the start state \( s_{\text{init}} \) to the state \( s \). By following this path of \( n \) transitions, we obtain the first \( n \) tuples of the input vector. We also obtain the first \( n \) tuples of the output vector. To this initial segment of the input vector, one appends the input tuples \( a, b \), which causes the resulting output vector to be augmented by

\[1\]

\[A \text{ program is stateless if the output depends solely on the input at that point in time.}\]

Theorem 6: (Condition 4 — Immediate-At-First-Robustness). If \( \forall a, s \cdot \tau(a, s) = \tau^{c+1}(a, s) \) for some positive natural number \( c \geq 2 \), the program is immediate-at-first robust for latency functions of the form \( \lambda(t) = c \).
Proof: When processing an input vector $i$, the automaton uses the current input $i(t)$ and state $s(t)$, to compute the output $o(t)$ and next state $s(t+1)$. When input $i$ has latency $\lambda$, the program receives consecutive blocks of constant inputs of size $c+1$, with the $n^{th}$ block consisting of tuples of the form $i(n)$. For the program to be immediate-at-first robust, the output at the beginning of the $n^{th}$ block must have the form $o(n)$.

Suppose that at the beginning of the $n^{th}$ block the automaton finds itself in state $s(n)$. Then at the beginning of the $(n+1)^{th}$ block it is in state $s(n+1)$ on account of (i) at the first time instant in the $n^{th}$ block the automaton moves to $s(n+1)$ and (ii) the condition guarantees that after $c+1$ steps of the same input the automaton will return to $s(n+1)$. Noting that in block 0, the automaton starts in the initial state $s(0)$, provides the base case for an inductive argument which guarantees that the automaton finds itself in state $s(n)$ at the beginning of the $n^{th}$ block, causing the output to be $o(n)$ as required.

The final condition which will be considered requires that if an automaton is in state $s$, it will return to the same state $s$ after $c$ repetitions of the input.

Theorem 7: (Condition 5 — Immediate-At-First and Fast-Enough Robustness). If $\forall a, s \cdot \tau^c(a, s) = s$ for some positive natural number $c \geq 2$, the program is both immediate-at-first robust, as well as fast-enough robust, for latency functions of the form $\lambda(t) = c$.

Proof: When processing an input vector $i$, the automaton uses the current input $i(t)$ and state $s(t)$, to compute the output $o(t)$ and next state $s(t+1)$. When input $i$ has latency $\lambda$, the program receives consecutive blocks of constant inputs of size $c+1$, with the $n^{th}$ block consisting of tuples of the form $i(n)$. For the program to be immediate-at-first robust, the output at the beginning of the $n^{th}$ block must have the form $o(n)$. Similarly, for a program to be fast-enough robust, the output at the end of the $n^{th}$ block must have the form $o(n)$.

Suppose that at the beginning of the $n^{th}$ block the automaton finds itself in state $s(n)$. Then at the end of the $n^{th}$ block it is in state $s(n)$ on account of the fact that the automaton returns to its original state after $c$ transitions of the same input. This state also combines with input $i(n)$ to ensure passage to state $s(n+1)$ at beginning of the $(n+1)^{th}$ block. Noting that in block 0, the automaton starts in the initial state $s(0)$, provides the base case for an inductive argument which guarantees that the automaton always finds itself in state $s(n)$ at the end of the $n^{th}$ block, causing the output to be $o(n)$ as required for fast-enough robustness, and in state $s(n+1)$ at the beginning of the $(n+1)^{th}$ block guaranteeing that the output is $o(n+1)$ as required by immediate-at-first robustness. □

VI. Case Study

The static and dynamic analysis theorems were applied to six Boolean Lustre programs to examine whether these are strong enough to deduce slowdown robustness. For comparison purposes, a manual analysis of these programs was also performed in order to discover which robustness properties each program satisfies or fails to satisfy. The programs under consideration, with the actual properties satisfied by each are listed below:

- RCA, a (stateless) ripple carry adder which satisfies stretch robustness.
- RISE, a program which receives a Boolean stream and detects the presence of rising edges, and which satisfies stutter robustness and immediate-at-first robustness.
- SWR, a switch with a set and reset input, which satisfies stretch robustness.
- TOGGLE, a switch with a toggle input, which does not satisfy any property for every latency function.
- SISO, serial in serial out register, which satisfies stutter robustness.
- PIPO, a parallel in parallel out register, which satisfies stutter robustness and immediate-at-first robustness.

We shall now discuss the application of the static and dynamic analysis theorems to the programs in question. To illustrate how the static analysis theorems can be employed to reason about a program, we will consider their use to prove that the SIRO register program is stutter robust.

Example 1: Since the SISO program has 4 equations, we first break it down into four separate primitive programs $SISO_1$, $SISO_2$, $SISO_3$ and $SISO_4$ as shown in Fig. 3, where $SISO_2 = \{(i_0, i_{n+1}), (i_{n+1}), (i_{n+1}) \text{ true fby } i_{n+1})\}$

It is clear that each such program is an fby primitive program, and that these primitive programs can be composed through fully connected composition to obtain the program SISO. This can be done by starting from $SISO_1$ and sequentially composing the programs $SISO_2$, $SISO_3$ and $SISO_4$. Since SISO can be built from stutter robust primitives and through stutter robustness preserving compositions, we can conclude that it is stutter robust.

Table I illustrates the results which can be obtained in a similar manner through the static analysis of the programs in question. An entry in the table indicates whether the corresponding program can be shown to satisfy a particular robustness property or not through this technique. Within an entry, a ✓ symbol indicates that the program was found to satisfy the property. In addition, a ? symbol indicates that the static analysis yielded an inconclusive result, while a — symbol indicates that a test was unnecessary since the program was found to satisfy the stronger property of stretch robustness.
As one can see, the static analysis reveals that the ripple carry adder is stretch robust, that the $SISO$ register is stutter robust and that the $PIPO$ register is immediate-at-first robust. Static analysis thus yields results when the programs have a simple structure in terms of the interconnections between the component primitive programs.

We now illustrate how dynamic analysis can be applied by means of another example. We shall show that the Toggle Switch program $TOGGLE$ is both immediate-at-first robust as well as fast-enough robust for the latency function $\lambda(t) = 2$.

**Example 2:** Starting from the $TOGGLE$ program, we first obtain the automaton representation of the program by using the construction outlined in Definition 1. This yields the automaton depicted earlier in Fig. 1. By observing the structure of the automaton, we note that from any state, taking 2 transitions with the same input tuple returns the automaton to the same state. The program thus satisfies the properties in question through the use of Theorem 7.

Table II summarises the results obtained through the dynamic analysis of the programs under consideration. In addition to the earlier conventions, an $\times$ symbol indicates that the program was found not to satisfy the property in question, while a $\checkmark$ symbol with subscript $c = 2$, indicates that the program has been proven to satisfy the property for the latency function $\lambda(t) = 2$ through the use of a latency dependent condition. In practice, BDD techniques were used to evaluate the conditions, and the evaluation was instantaneous for the programs in question.

Dynamic analysis enlarges the scope of automatically derived well behaviour results to programs which have more complex structures. The ripple carry adder is reconfirmed as stretch robust and the $PIPO$ register has been reconfirmed immediate-at-first robust. In addition, the rising edge program, the switch with set and reset program and the $PIPO$ register have been shown to be immediate-at-first robust, and the toggle switch has been conclusively shown not to be stutter robust. More over, the toggle switch program has been shown to be both immediate-at-first robust and fast-enough robust for the specific latency function $\lambda(t) = 2$.

While not all of the properties satisfied by the programs have been discovered through the automated analysis, the combination of static and dynamic analysis has revealed many details about the well behaviour of the programs in question. The number of programs which have been proved immediate-at-first robust indicates that the condition which detects it might be applicable for some interesting set of programs. On the other hand, the results obtained using the latency dependent conditions are encouraging as they indicate the possibility of satisfying a property under a particular slowdown scenario even though the program might not satisfy it in general. One can also note that the two approaches complement one another; in particular, unlike dynamic analysis, static analysis can be used to reason about programs which satisfy stutter robustness.

VII. Related Work

The discrete theory of slowdown considers the effect of slowing down all the input streams of a stream processing program by the same amount through the addition of stutter. There are various other models of slowdown which can be found in the literature. The theory of latency insensitive design [4] allows streams to slow down through the addition of explicit stall moves into those streams. In reaction to performing a stall move on an input stream, a program reacts by performing a procrastination effect, that is by inserting additional stall moves in its other streams to ensure that causality between the events of a program is preserved. A program is said to be patient if it knows how to perform a procrastination effect in response to any possible stall move. In other words, the program is always able to delay its operation in response to slow input without breaking. Patience is thus a form of robustness to delays in the process’ streams, but which, unlike our properties, does not dictate the exact form which this robustness should take.

In the theory of polychronous processes [3], used to give a semantics to the synchronous language Signal [1], streams do not have to take a value at every time instant. Given a particular program behaviour, consisting of the input and output streams of a program, the operations of stretching and relaxation can be used to obtain a slower program behaviour. Stretching remaps the time instants at which the values occur on each stream, preserving the order of values in each stream, and the simultaneity of values between different streams. The stretching operation stretches all the streams by exactly the same amount and is similar to how a stretch robust program would behave when its inputs are slowed down. On the other hand, when relaxation slows a behaviour, it only guarantees that the order of values within each stream is preserved. The notion of relaxation which arises when all input streams are slowed down by one amount, and all output streams by another amount, is similar to how to a stutter robust program would behave when its inputs are slowed down. On the other hand, when relaxation slows a behaviour, it only guarantees that the order of values within each stream is preserved. Signal guarantees that all its programs are stretch closed (a property analogous to stretch robustness), but this is only possible because no additional values are ever inserted as a result of slowing down a stream.

Reasoning about slowdown and speedup for continuous time behaviour has been investigated in [2]. The behaviour of a program can be slowed down by stretching these real-time signals through time by using the concept of time transforms. The concept of a latency function can be seen as a discrete time version of a time transform. When one slows a behaviour through a time transform, all streams are slowed down exactly by the same amount. This manner of slowing down a behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property/Program</th>
<th>RCA</th>
<th>RSE</th>
<th>SWSR</th>
<th>TOGGLE</th>
<th>SISO</th>
<th>PIPO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STR</td>
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<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓&lt;sub&gt;c=2&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FE</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>✓&lt;sub&gt;c=2&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE II

RESULTS OBTAINED THROUGH DYNAMIC ANALYSIS
corresponds to how one would expect a stretch robust system to react in our discrete theory.

Stutter invariance for Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) properties has been investigated in [7], in which a stuttered path slows down all inputs and outputs of a program by the same amount. Stutter invariant properties are ones which, if they are satisfied by a program, then they are also satisfied by all stutterings of its behaviour. If a Lustre program is stretch robust, then its inputs can be safely slowed down without the risk of breaking the constraint imposed by a stutter invariant property on the program.

The theory of stability [5] considers programs whose outputs fluctuate when their inputs are kept constant. Programs which do not exhibit such a phenomenon are said to be stable; when the inputs of these programs are unchanged, the outputs will converge to stable values after a finite period of time. The concept of stability relates to the concept of fast-enough robustness. An input which has stopped changing is similar to an input which is stuttering when considered over some finite horizon of time. While the theory of stability requires the output of a system to eventually converge to some particular value, fast-enough robustness requires an output to converge to an expected value before the sequence of repetitions ends.

Instead of checking whether a system exhibits certain classes of behaviour when an environment changes, it is possible to check whether a system degrades gracefully when the environment misbehaves. In [10] the authors consider a robustness approach in response to environments which fail to obey the assumptions made during system design. A system is said to be robust, if a small number of violations of the environment assumptions causes only a small number of violations of the system specification.

It is also possible to use a probabilistic approach to understand how changes in the environment are propagated through the system’s components, and how the behaviour of these components under changed or missing input contributes to cause unacceptable system wide behaviour [11]. From our perspective, the general approach is interesting because it can help to isolate which components misbehave under slow input, causing a complex system to fail.

VIII. Conclusions

Since input stutter can arise in various situations, especially in systems which finely sample input, it is crucial that such systems do not change their behaviour as such transformations on their input occur. In this paper we have identified a number of different levels of robustness with respect to slowdown which one may require, and presented sound checks using static analysis of the code or using symbolic verification techniques over the system’s behaviour.

Of these robustness properties, the most restrictive, stretch robustness is highly compositional, and relaxing it to obtain the weaker properties loses this compositionality property. Dynamic analysis allows for the analysis of programs on a global level, at an increased computational cost. The two approaches can, however, be combined, allowing for the analysis of more complex programs.

One major restriction of our results is that we assume that all the inputs of the system are slowed down by the same amount. In practice, this may be too strong a restriction, for instance with some nodes using a combination of external inputs and streams coming from other nodes and which may have been slowed down further. Another restriction is that we limit our dynamic analysis techniques to Boolean Lustre programs or circuits.

In the future, we plan to relax this constraint by using control graph analysis techniques to programs with numeric values, using approaches similar to [6].

References