

LPS: A Language Prototyping System Using Modular Monadic Semantics

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Abstract

This paper describes LPS, a Language Prototyping System that facilitates the modular development of interpreters from semantic building blocks. The system is based on the integration of ideas from Modular Monadic Semantics and Generic Programming.

To define a new programming language, the abstract syntax is described as the fixpoint of non-recursive pattern functors. For each functor an algebra is defined whose carrier is the computational monad obtained from the application of several monad transformers to a base monad. The interpreter is automatically generated by a catamorphism or, in some special cases, a monadic catamorphism.

The system has been implemented as a domain-specific language embedded in Haskell and we have also implemented an interactive framework for language testing.

1 Introduction

The lack of modularity and reusability of traditional denotational semantics has already been recognized [45]. Monads were applied by E. Moggi [43] to capture the intuitive idea of separating values from computations. After his work, P. Wadler [52,53] applied monads to the development of modular interpreters and to encapsulate the Input/Output features of the purely functional programming language Haskell [27]. That work produced a growing interest in the development of modular interpreters using monads [10,47,53]. However, the monad approach has a problem. In general, it is not possible to compose two monads to obtain a new monad [26]. A proposed solution was the use of monad transformers which transform a given monad into a new one adding

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new operations [38]. The use of monads and monad transformers to specify the semantics of programming languages was called modular monadic semantics by S. Liang et al. [37,36]. The close relationship between modular monadic semantics and action semantics was described in [54] where they present a system that combines both approaches.

In a different context, the definition of recursive datatypes as least fixpoints of pattern functors and the calculating properties that can be obtained by means of folds or catamorphisms led to a complete discipline which could be named as generic programming [39,40,3].

Following that approach, L. Duponcheel proposed the combined use of folds or catamorphisms with modular monadic semantics [9] allowing the independent specification of the abstract syntax, the computational monad and the domain value.

Monadic catamorphisms were studied in [11,19] and applied to practical functional programming in [41]. Inspired by that work, we applied monadic folds [30,31,32] to modular monadic semantics, allowing the separation between recursive evaluation and semantic specification in some special cases.

The paper is structured as follows: in section 2, we give a brief overview of the underlying theory, in section 3, we describe the architecture of the Language Prototyping System, section 4 describes the structure of the semantic specifications, and section 5 the interactive framework. As an example, section 6 describes the specification of a functional programming language with some imperative features and different evaluation semantics. Finally, we discuss some conclusions and directions for future work.

It is assumed that the reader has some familiarity with a modern functional programming language. Along the paper, we use Haskell notation with some freedom in the use of mathematical symbols and declarations. As an example, the predefined Haskell datatype

```
data Either a b = Left a | Right b
```

will be used as

$$\alpha \parallel \beta \triangleq L\alpha \mid R\beta$$

We will also omit the type constructors in some definitions for brevity. The notions we use from category theory are defined in the paper, so it is not a prerequisite.

2 Theoretical Background

2.1 Monads and Monad Transformers

Although the notion of monad comes from category theory, in functional programming a monad can be defined as a triplet $\langle \mathbf{M}, \text{return}_{\mathbf{M}}, \gg_{=\mathbf{M}} \rangle$ with a type

Description	Name	Operations
Error handling	ErrM	$err : String \rightarrow \text{ErrM } \alpha$
Environment Access	EM	$rdEnv : \text{EM } Env$ $inEnv : Env \rightarrow \text{EM } \alpha \rightarrow \text{EM } \alpha$
State transformer	SM	$update : (State \rightarrow State) \rightarrow \text{SM } State$ $fetch : \text{SM } State$ $set : State \rightarrow \text{SM } State$
Continuations	CM	$callcc : ((\text{CM } \alpha \rightarrow \text{CM } \beta) \rightarrow \text{CM } \alpha) \rightarrow \text{CM } \alpha$

Table 1
Some classes of monads

constructor \mathbf{M} and a pair of polymorphic operations:

$$\begin{aligned} return_{\mathbf{M}} &: \alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M}\alpha \\ (\gg_{\mathbf{M}}) &: \mathbf{M}\alpha \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M}\beta) \rightarrow \mathbf{M}\beta \end{aligned}$$

which must satisfy three laws (see, for example, [53]). The basic idea is that a monad \mathbf{M} encapsulates a notion of computation and a value of type $\mathbf{M}\alpha$ can be considered as a computation \mathbf{M} that returns a value of type α .

The simplest monad of all is the identity monad \mathbf{Id} which can be defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Id } x &\triangleq x \\ return x &= x \\ m \gg f &= f m \end{aligned}$$

In the rest of the paper we use a special syntax, called the *do*-notation. The conversion rules are:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{do} \{ m; e \} &\equiv m \gg \lambda _ \rightarrow \mathbf{do} \{ e \} \\ \mathbf{do} \{ x \leftarrow m; e \} &\equiv m \gg \lambda x \rightarrow \mathbf{do} \{ e \} \\ \mathbf{do} \{ \mathbf{let } exp; e \} &\equiv \mathbf{let } exp \mathbf{ in } \mathbf{do} \{ e \} \\ \mathbf{do} \{ e \} &\equiv e \end{aligned}$$

It is possible to define special classes of monads for different notions of computations like state transformers, environment access, continuations, exceptions, Input/Output, non-determinism, resumptions, backtracking, etc. Each class of monad has some specific operations apart from the predefined $return_{\mathbf{M}}$ and $(\gg_{\mathbf{M}})$. Table 1 contains some classes of monads with their operations.

When describing the semantics of a programming language using monads, the main problem is the combination of different classes of monads. It is

not possible to compose two monads to obtain a new monad in general [26]. Nevertheless, a monad transformer \mathcal{T} can transform a given monad \mathbf{M} into a new monad $\mathcal{T}\mathbf{M}$ that has new operations and maintains the operations of \mathbf{M} . The idea of monad transformer is based on the notion of monad morphism that appeared in Moggi’s work [43] and was later proposed in [38]. The definition of a monad transformer is not straightforward because there can be some interactions between the intervening operations of the different monads. These interactions are considered in more detail in [36,37,38] and in [17] it is shown how to derive a backtracking monad transformer from its specification.

Our system contains a library of predefined monad transformers corresponding to each class of monad and the user can also define new monad transformers. When defining a monad transformer \mathcal{T} over a monad \mathbf{M} , it is necessary to specify the $return_{\mathcal{T}\mathbf{M}}$ and $(\gg=_{\mathcal{T}\mathbf{M}})$ operations, the $lift : \mathbf{M}\ \alpha \rightarrow \mathcal{T}\mathbf{M}\ \alpha$ operation transforming any operation in \mathbf{M} into an operation in the new monad $\mathcal{T}\mathbf{M}$, and the operations provided for the new monad.

Table 2 presents the definitions of some monad transformers that will be used in the rest of the paper.

2.2 Functors, Algebras and Catamorphisms

As in the case of monads, functors are also derived from category theory but can easily be defined in a functional programming setting. A functor \mathbf{F} can be defined as a type constructor that transforms values of type α into values of type $\mathbf{F}\ \alpha$ and a function $map_{\mathbf{F}} : (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow \mathbf{F}\ \alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{F}\ \beta$.

The fixpoint of a functor \mathbf{F} can be defined as

$$\mu\mathbf{F} \triangleq In (\mathbf{F} (\mu\mathbf{F}))$$

In the above definition, we explicitly write the type constructor In because we will refer to it later.

A recursive datatype can be defined as the fixpoint of a non-recursive functor that captures its shape. For example, the inductive datatype $Term$ defined as

$$Term \triangleq Num\ Int \mid Term + Term \mid Term - Term$$

can be defined as the fixpoint of the functor \mathbb{T}

$$\mathbb{T}\ x \triangleq Num\ Int \mid x + x \mid x - x$$

where the $map_{\mathbb{T}}$ is defined as²:

$$map_{\mathbb{T}} \quad : (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow (\mathbb{T}\ \alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{T}\ \beta)$$

² In the rest of the paper we omit the definition of map functions as they can be automatically derived from the shape of the functor.

Error handling	$\mathcal{T}_{Err} \mathbf{M} \alpha \triangleq \mathbf{M} (\alpha \parallel String)$ $return\ x = return\ (L\ x)$ $x \gg= f = x \gg= \lambda y \rightarrow \mathbf{case\ } y \mathbf{ of}$ $\qquad\qquad\qquad L\ v \rightarrow f\ v$ $\qquad\qquad\qquad R\ e \rightarrow e$ $lift\ m = m \gg= \lambda x \rightarrow return\ (L\ x)$ $err\ msg = return\ (R\ msg)$
Environment	$\mathcal{T}_{Env} \mathbf{M} \alpha \triangleq Env \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \alpha$ $return\ x = \lambda \rho \rightarrow return\ x$ $x \gg= f = \lambda \rho \rightarrow (x \rho) \gg= (\lambda a \rightarrow f\ a\ \rho)$ $lift\ x = \lambda \rho \rightarrow x \gg= return$ $rdEnv = \lambda \rho \rightarrow return\ \rho$ $inEnv\ \rho\ x = \lambda _ \rightarrow x\ \rho$
State transformer	$\mathcal{T}_{State} \mathbf{M} \alpha \triangleq State \rightarrow \mathbf{M} (\alpha, State)$ $return\ x = \lambda \varsigma \rightarrow return\ (x, \varsigma)$ $x \gg= f = \lambda \varsigma \rightarrow (x \varsigma) \gg= (\lambda (v, \varsigma') \rightarrow f\ v\ \varsigma')$ $lift\ x = \lambda \varsigma \rightarrow x \gg= (\lambda x \rightarrow return\ (x, \varsigma))$ $update\ f = \lambda \varsigma \rightarrow return\ (\varsigma, f \varsigma)$ $fetch = update\ (\lambda \varsigma \rightarrow \varsigma)$ $set\ \varsigma = update\ (\lambda _ \rightarrow \varsigma)$
Continuations	$\mathcal{T}_{Cont} \mathbf{M} \omega \alpha \triangleq (\alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \omega) \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \omega$ $return\ x = \lambda \kappa \rightarrow \kappa\ x$ $x \gg= f = \lambda \kappa \rightarrow x (\lambda v \rightarrow f\ v\ \kappa)$ $lift\ x = \lambda \kappa \rightarrow x \gg= \kappa$ $callcc\ f = \lambda \kappa \rightarrow (f\ (\lambda m \rightarrow (\lambda _ \rightarrow m\ \kappa)))\ \kappa$

Table 2
Some monad transformers with their definitions

$$map_{\mathbb{T}} f (Num\ n) = n$$

$$map_{\mathbb{T}} f (x_1 + x_2) = f\ x_1 + f\ x_2$$

$$map_{\mathbb{T}} f (x_1 - x_2) = f\ x_1 - f\ x_2$$

Once we have the shape functor \mathbb{T} , we can obtain the recursive datatype as the fixpoint of \mathbb{T}

$$Term \triangleq \mu \mathbb{T}$$

As an example, the term $3 + 4$ can be represented as

$In ((In (Num\ 3)) + (In (Num\ 4))) : Term$

The sum of two functors F and G , denoted by $F \oplus G$ can be defined as

$$(F \oplus G) x \triangleq F x \parallel G x$$

where $map_{F \oplus G}$ is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} map_{F \oplus G} f (L x) &= L (map_F f x) \\ map_{F \oplus G} f (R x) &= R (map_G f x) \end{aligned}$$

Using the sum of two functors, it is possible to extend recursive datatypes. For example, we can define a new pattern functor for factors as

$$F x \triangleq x \times x \mid x \div x$$

and the composed recursive datatype of expressions that can be terms or factors can easily be defined as

$$Expr \triangleq \mu(T \oplus F)$$

Given a functor F , an F -algebra is a function $\varphi_F : F \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ where α is called the carrier. An homomorphism between two F -algebras $\varphi : F \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ and $\psi : F \beta \rightarrow \beta$ is a function $h : \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ which satisfies

$$h . \varphi = \psi . map_F h$$

It is possible to consider a new category with F -algebras as objects and homomorphisms between F -algebras as morphisms. In this category, $In : F(\mu F) \rightarrow \mu F$ is an initial object, i.e. for any F -algebra $\varphi : F \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ there is a unique homomorphism $([\varphi]) : \mu F \rightarrow \alpha$ satisfying the above equation.

$([\varphi])$ is called *fold* or *catamorphism* and satisfies a number of calculational properties [3,6,40,46]. It can be defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} ([_]) &: (F\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow (\mu F \rightarrow \alpha) \\ ([\varphi]) &= \varphi . map_F ([\varphi]) . out \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} out &: \mu F \rightarrow F(\mu F) \\ out (In\ x) &= x \end{aligned}$$

As an example, we can obtain a simple evaluator for terms defining a T -algebra whose carrier is the type $M\ Int$, where M is, in this case, any kind of monad.

$$\varphi_T : T(M\ Int) \rightarrow (M\ Int)$$

```

 $\varphi_{\top} (Num\ n) = return\ n$ 
 $\varphi_{\top} (t_1 + t_2) = \mathbf{do}$ 
     $v_1 \leftarrow t_1$ 
     $v_2 \leftarrow t_2$ 
     $return\ (v_1 + v_2)$ 
 $\varphi_{\top} (t_1 - t_2) = \mathbf{do}$ 
     $v_1 \leftarrow t_1$ 
     $v_2 \leftarrow t_2$ 
     $return\ (v_1 - v_2)$ 

```

Applying a catamorphism over φ_{\top} we obtain the evaluation function for terms:

```

 $eval_{Term} : Term \rightarrow M\ Int$ 
 $eval_{Term} = eval_{\mu_{\top}} = ([\varphi_{\top}])$ 

```

The operator \oplus allows to obtain a $(F \oplus G)$ -algebra from an F -algebra φ and a G -algebra ψ

```

 $\oplus : (F\ \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow (G\ \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow (F \oplus G)\ \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ 
 $(\varphi \oplus \psi)(L\ x) = \varphi\ x$ 
 $(\varphi \oplus \psi)(R\ x) = \psi\ x$ 

```

The above definition allows to extend the evaluator for terms and factors without modifying the existing definitions. If we want to add factors, we only need to define the corresponding F -algebra over $M\ Int$ as:

```

 $\varphi_F (t_1 \times t_2) = \mathbf{do}$ 
     $v_1 \leftarrow t_1$ 
     $v_2 \leftarrow t_2$ 
     $return\ (v_1 \times v_2)$ 
 $\varphi_F (t_1 \div t_2) = \mathbf{do}$ 
     $v_1 \leftarrow t_1$ 
     $v_2 \leftarrow t_2$ 
    if  $v_2 == 0$  then
         $err\ \text{"Divide by zero"}$ 
    else
         $return\ (v_1 \div v_2)$ 

```

Notice that, in this case, the monad M must support the *err* operation, i.e. it must support partial computations. Now, a new evaluator for expressions is automatically obtained by means of a catamorphism over the $(T \oplus F)$ -algebra.

```

 $eval_{Expr} : \mu(T \oplus F) \rightarrow M\ Int$ 
 $eval_{Expr} = eval_{\mu(T \oplus F)} = ([\varphi_{\top} \oplus \varphi_F])$ 

```

The theory of catamorphisms can be extended to monadic catamorphisms as described in [11,19,30,32]. Given a monad \mathbf{M} , we define a monadic function $f : \alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \beta$. For some combinations of monads and functors \mathbf{F} , we define the monadic extension of a functor \mathbf{F}^m declaring the function

$$\text{map}_{\mathbf{F}}^m : (\alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \beta) \rightarrow (\mathbf{F} \alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M} (\mathbf{F} \beta))$$

In the same way, we can define monadic \mathbf{F} -algebras as $\varpi_{\mathbf{F}} : \mathbf{F} \alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \alpha$ and monadic catamorphisms as

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket _ \rrbracket & : (\mathbf{F} \alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \alpha) \rightarrow \mu_{\mathbf{F}} \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \alpha \\ \llbracket \varpi_{\mathbf{F}} \rrbracket & = \varpi_{\mathbf{F}} @ \text{map}_{\mathbf{F}}^m \llbracket \varpi_{\mathbf{F}} \rrbracket @ \text{return} . \text{out} \end{aligned}$$

where $@$ represents the composition of monadic functions and can be defined as

$$\begin{aligned} (@) & : (\beta \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \gamma) \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \beta) \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \gamma) \\ f @ g & = \lambda x \rightarrow g x \ggg f \end{aligned}$$

Using monadic catamorphisms, it is possible to separate the recursive evaluation from the semantic specification. In the simple evaluator example, we can define the monadic extension of the functor \mathbf{T} as:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{map}_{\mathbf{T}}^m & : (\alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \beta) \rightarrow (\mathbf{T} \alpha \rightarrow (\mathbf{M} (\mathbf{T} \beta))) \\ \text{map}_{\mathbf{T}}^m f (\text{Num } n) & = \text{return } (\text{Num } n) \\ \text{map}_{\mathbf{T}}^m f (x_1 + x_2) & = \mathbf{do} \\ & \quad v_1 \leftarrow f x_1 \\ & \quad v_2 \leftarrow f x_2 \\ & \quad \text{return } (v_1 + v_2) \\ \text{map}_{\mathbf{T}}^m f (x_1 - x_2) & = \mathbf{do} \\ & \quad v_1 \leftarrow f x_1 \\ & \quad v_2 \leftarrow f x_2 \\ & \quad \text{return } (v_1 - v_2) \end{aligned}$$

Notice that the above definition could have been obtained automatically. However, it specifies an explicit order of evaluation and a mandatory recursive evaluation of subcomponents, which could be inappropriate for other expressions.

Now, the semantic specification consists of a simple monadic \mathbf{T} -algebra

$$\begin{aligned} \varpi_{\mathbf{T}} & : \mathbf{T} \alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \alpha \\ \varpi_{\mathbf{T}} (\text{Num } n) & = \text{return } n \\ \varpi_{\mathbf{T}} (v_1 + v_2) & = \text{return } (v_1 + v_2) \\ \varpi_{\mathbf{T}} (v_1 - v_2) & = \text{return } (v_1 - v_2) \end{aligned}$$

and the evaluation of terms is automatically obtained as a monadic catamorphism

$$\begin{aligned} eval_{Term} & : Term \rightarrow M Int \\ eval_{Term} & = eval_{\mu T} = ([[\varpi_T]]) \end{aligned}$$

It is possible to define the sum of two monadic algebras

$$\begin{aligned} \oplus_m & : (F \alpha \rightarrow M \alpha) \rightarrow (G \alpha \rightarrow M \alpha) \rightarrow ((F \oplus G) \alpha \rightarrow M \alpha) \\ (\varpi_F \oplus_m \varpi_G)(L x) & = \varpi_F x \\ (\varpi_F \oplus_m \varpi_G)(R x) & = \varpi_G x \end{aligned}$$

Finally, it is possible to combine catamorphisms and monadic catamorphisms with the following definition

$$\begin{aligned} ([[-, -]]) & : (F \alpha \rightarrow M \alpha) \rightarrow (G(M \alpha) \rightarrow M \alpha) \rightarrow \mu(F \oplus G) \rightarrow M \alpha \\ ([[\varpi, \varphi]]) x & = \mathbf{case\ out\ } x \mathbf{ of} \\ & \quad L v \rightarrow (\varpi @ map_F^m ([[\varpi, \varphi]]) @ return) v \\ & \quad R v \rightarrow (\varphi . map ([[\varpi, \varphi]]) v \end{aligned}$$

3 Architecture of the *Language Prototyping System*

The Language Prototyping System (LPS) is defined as a domain specific language embedded in Haskell. The structure of LPS is divided in several parts:

- There are different *programming language descriptions* and the user can define new languages. If the user wants to add a new language, it is necessary to define the parser, the pretty-printer and the semantic specification.
- The *interactive framework* allows runtime selection and interpretation of the different programming languages that were defined.
- There are some modules for *common tools*. These tools give support to theoretical concepts like functors, algebras, catamorphisms, etc. and to common structures like heaps, stacks, symbol tables, etc.
- Finally, the *semantic blocks* will allow the definition of the computational monad. The system includes a library of some specific kinds of monads (with their corresponding monad transformers) but the user can also define new blocks.

4 Semantic specifications

The main goal is to obtain extensible and reusable semantic descriptions which will form the basis for different programming languages. In general, the semantic specification of a programming language can be obtained as a function $\mu F \rightarrow M V$ where:

- M is the computational monad which can be defined as $(\mathcal{T}_1 . \mathcal{T}_2 \dots \mathcal{T}_n) M'$ where \mathcal{T}_i is a monad transformer that adds some notion of computation and M' is the base monad. In this way, it is possible to add or remove

computational features to a programming language without changing the rest of the specification.

- \mathbf{V} is the value type. It can be defined using extensible union types which facilitate the incremental extension of value types. To achieve this, we use multi-parameter type classes with overlapping instances currently implemented in the main Haskell systems. A more detailed presentation of this approach can be found in [38]. In the rest of the paper, we assume that the components of a value $\alpha \parallel \beta$ are subtypes of it, and that, if α is a subtype of γ , then we have the operations $\uparrow: \alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ and $\downarrow: \gamma \rightarrow \alpha$.
- $\mu \mathbf{F}$ is the fixpoint of a functor \mathbf{F} that describes the shape of the abstract syntax tree. \mathbf{F} can usually be decomposed as $\mathbf{F}_1 \oplus \mathbf{F}_2 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbf{F}_n$ where \mathbf{F}_i are different pattern functors that capture syntactic entities as arithmetic expressions, comparisons, declarations, etc. For each \mathbf{F}_i we define an \mathbf{F}_i -algebra or a monadic \mathbf{F}_i -algebra.

Therefore, the interpreter function $\mu \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \mathbf{V}$ can be obtained as a catamorphism or a monadic catamorphism.

5 Interactive Framework

We have implemented an application which allows runtime selection of interpreted programming languages and provides a common framework for language testing. In order to use programming languages of different types in the same data structure, we used the approach described in [34] combining existential types with type classes.

In order to integrate a new language to be interpreted under our framework, it is necessary to supply the parser, the pretty printer and the semantic specification. We use the *Parsec* combinator library [35] which is based on the parser combinators described in [22], but the system does not depend on any particular parser library. Regarding pretty printing, we use the library developed in [21]. As in the case of parsing, the system does not depend on this particular library.

The interactive framework can be configured with a list of languages

$$L_s = [l_1, l_2, \dots, l_n]$$

At any moment the system contains an active programming language $l_i \in L_s$ and it allows the following operations:

- Loading a program p_i written in the current language l_i .
- Execute that program p_i .
- Select a different language.
- Interrupt and debug the language that it is executing.
- Show information about the loaded program and the current language.

We have implemented descriptions of simple imperative, functional, object-oriented and logic programming languages.

6 Specification of MLambda

As an example, in this section we apply LPS to the specification of *MLambda*, a simple functional language with some imperative features.

6.1 Syntactical Structure

In order to simplify the presentation, the syntactical structure of MLambda consists of a single category of expressions. It will be divided in different syntactical components which will allow an independent semantic specification. The syntactical components will be:

- Arithmetic expressions.

$$\text{Arith } x \triangleq \text{Num Int} \mid x + x \mid x - x \mid x \times x \mid x \div x$$

- Boolean expressions

$$\text{Boolean } x \triangleq B \text{ Bool} \mid x \wedge x \mid x \vee x$$

- Comparisons

$$\text{Cmp } x \triangleq x < x \mid x > x \mid x \leq x \mid x \geq x \mid x = x \mid x \neq x$$

- Variables

$$\text{Var } x \triangleq V \text{ Name}$$

- References and assignments

$$\text{Ref } x \triangleq \text{ref } x \mid !x \mid x := x \mid x ; x$$

This block offers reference variables and assignments. $\text{ref } e$ allocates a new location in the heap with the value of e and returns the new location, $!x$ obtains the value from the position referenced by the value of e , $e_1 := e_2$ assigns the value of e_2 to the position referenced by the value of e_1 , and finally, $e_1 ; e_2$ evaluates e_2 after e_1 .

- Functional Abstractions

$$\text{Func } x \triangleq \lambda_N \text{ Name } x \mid \lambda_V \text{ Name } x \mid \lambda_L \text{ Name } x \mid x @ x$$

$\lambda_X n e$ indicates lambda abstraction (for example, $\lambda n \rightarrow n + 3$). We use three different types of evaluation, by name (λ_N), by value (λ_V) and lazy (λ_L). $e_1 @ e_2$ indicates the application of e_1 to e_2 .

- *Local Declarations*

$$\text{Dec } x \triangleq \text{Let}_N \text{ Name } x \ x \mid \text{Let}_V \text{ Name } x \ x \mid \text{Let}_L \text{ Name } x \ x$$

$\text{Let}_X \ n \ e_1 \ e_2$ indicates the evaluation of e_2 assigning the value of e_1 to x . We will allow recursive evaluation in three ways, by name (Let_N), by value (Let_V) and lazy (Let_L).

- *First class continuations*

$$\text{Callcc } x \triangleq \text{Callcc}$$

The language can be defined as the fixpoint of the sum of the defined functors

$$\mathcal{L} = \mu(\text{Arith} \oplus \text{Boolean} \oplus \text{Cmp} \oplus \text{Var} \oplus \text{Ref} \oplus \text{Func} \oplus \text{Dec})$$

6.2 Computational Structure

The computational structure will be described by means of a monad, which must support the different operations needed. In this sample language, we need: environment access, state update, partial computations, and continuations.

The resulting monad can be obtained applying the corresponding monad transformers to a base monad. In this example, we use the identity monad Id as the base monad but in a more practical language we could have been used other monads, like the predefined IO monad to obtain direct communication with the external world.

This computational structure is defined as

$$\text{Comp} \triangleq (\mathcal{T}_{\text{Err}} \cdot \mathcal{T}_{\text{State}} \cdot \mathcal{T}_{\text{Env}} \cdot \mathcal{T}_{\text{Cont}}) \text{Id}$$

6.3 Domain value

The domain value will consist of two primitive types, integers and booleans, and the combined type of functions. Functions will be represented as values of type $\text{Comp Value} \rightarrow \text{Comp Value}$. The Domain Value can be described as:

$$\text{Value} \triangleq \text{Int} \parallel \text{Bool} \parallel \text{Loc} \parallel \text{Comp Value} \rightarrow \text{Comp Value}$$

6.4 Semantic Specification

6.4.1 Auxiliary Functions

In order to facilitate the semantic specifications, we declare some auxiliary functions.

- *evalWith* will be used for arithmetic and boolean evaluation. In the following definitions, α, β are considered subtypes of γ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{evalWith} & : (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow \gamma \rightarrow \gamma \rightarrow \mathbf{M} \gamma \\ \text{evalWith} \odot v_x v_y & = \text{return } \uparrow (\downarrow v_x \odot \downarrow v_y) \end{aligned}$$

- Although we are not going to present the whole implementation, we assume that we have some utility modules implementing common data structures. *Heap* α is an abstract datatype addressed by locations of type *Loc* with the following operations:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{alloc}_H & : \alpha \rightarrow \text{Heap } \alpha \rightarrow (\text{Loc}, \text{Heap } \alpha) && \text{--- allocate new values} \\ \text{lkp}_H & : \text{Loc} \rightarrow \text{Heap } \alpha \rightarrow \alpha && \text{--- lookup} \\ \text{upd}_H & : \text{Loc} \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \text{Heap } \alpha \rightarrow \text{Heap } \alpha && \text{--- update} \end{aligned}$$

We will also use a *Table* α data structure with the following operations:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{lkp}_T & : \text{Name} \rightarrow \text{Table } \alpha \rightarrow \alpha && \text{--- lookup} \\ \text{upd}_T & : \text{Name} \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \text{Table } \alpha \rightarrow \text{Table } \alpha && \text{--- update} \end{aligned}$$

We will store computations in both structures, i.e. the environment will be a value of type *Table* (**Comp Value**) and the state will be a value of type *Heap* (**Comp Value**)

6.4.2 Algebras and Monadic Algebras

For each of the syntactical components we must specify an algebra or a monadic algebra. If the component always requires the recursive evaluation of subcomponents, we only need a monadic algebra ϖ , otherwise, we need an algebra φ .

- Arithmetic Expressions

$$\begin{aligned} \varpi_{\text{Arith}} \llbracket \text{Num } n \rrbracket & = \text{return } (\uparrow n) \\ \varpi_{\text{Arith}} \llbracket x + y \rrbracket & = \text{evalWith } (+) x y \\ \varpi_{\text{Arith}} \llbracket x - y \rrbracket & = \text{evalWith } (-) x y \\ \varpi_{\text{Arith}} \llbracket x \times y \rrbracket & = \text{evalWith } (\times) x y \\ \varpi_{\text{Arith}} \llbracket x \div y \rrbracket & = \text{evalWith } (\div) x y \end{aligned}$$

- Boolean Expressions

$$\begin{aligned} \varpi_{\text{Boolean}} \llbracket B b \rrbracket & = \text{return } (\uparrow b) \\ \varpi_{\text{Boolean}} \llbracket x \wedge y \rrbracket & = \text{evalWith } (\wedge) x y \\ \varpi_{\text{Boolean}} \llbracket x \vee y \rrbracket & = \text{evalWith } (\vee) x y \end{aligned}$$

- Comparisons

$$\varpi_{\text{Cmp}} \llbracket x > y \rrbracket = \text{evalWith } (>) x y$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varpi_{\text{Cmp}} [x < y] &= \text{evalWith } (<) x y \\
 \varpi_{\text{Cmp}} [x \geq y] &= \text{evalWith } (\geq) x y \\
 \varpi_{\text{Cmp}} [x \leq y] &= \text{evalWith } (\leq) x y \\
 \varpi_{\text{Cmp}} [x == y] &= \text{evalWith } (==) x y \\
 \varpi_{\text{Cmp}} [x \neq y] &= \text{evalWith } (\neq) x y
 \end{aligned}$$

- Variables. To obtain the value of a variable we only need to access the environment and to search the name in the symbol table.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varpi_{\text{Var}} [V x] &= \mathbf{do} \\
 &\quad \rho \leftarrow \text{rdEnv} \\
 &\quad \text{lkp}_T x \rho
 \end{aligned}$$

- References and assignments. We will need to change the state so we will have to use the operators *fetch*, *set* and *update* from SM.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varphi_{\text{Ref}} [\text{ref } e] &= \mathbf{do} \\
 &\quad v \leftarrow e \\
 &\quad h \leftarrow \text{fetch} \\
 &\quad \mathbf{let} (loc, h') = \text{alloc}_H (\text{return } v) h \\
 &\quad \text{set } h' \\
 &\quad \text{return } loc
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varphi_{\text{Ref}} [! e] &= \mathbf{do} \\
 &\quad v_{loc} \leftarrow e \\
 &\quad h \leftarrow \text{fetch} \\
 &\quad \text{lkp}_H (\downarrow v_{loc}) h
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varphi_{\text{Ref}} [e_1 := e_2] &= \mathbf{do} \\
 &\quad v_{loc} \leftarrow e_1 \\
 &\quad v \leftarrow e_2 \\
 &\quad \text{update } (\text{upd}_H (\downarrow v_{loc})) (\text{return } v) \\
 &\quad \text{return } v
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\varphi_{\text{Ref}} [e_1 ; e_2] = \mathbf{do} \{ e_1 ; e_2 \}$$

- Functional abstractions. In this specification we show the difference between different evaluation mechanisms. Either we evaluate before returning the function (λ_V), we return the function that will evaluate the argument if it is needed (λ_N) or we create a thunk that will only be evaluated the first time it is needed (λ_L).

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{\text{Fun}} [\lambda_V x e] = & \mathbf{do} \\ & \rho \leftarrow rdEnv \\ & return (\uparrow (\lambda m \rightarrow \mathbf{do} \\ & \quad v \leftarrow m \\ & \quad inEnv (upd_T x (return v) \rho) e \\ &)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{\text{Fun}} [\lambda_N x e] = & \mathbf{do} \\ & \rho \leftarrow rdEnv \\ & return (\uparrow (\lambda m \rightarrow inEnv (upd_T x m \rho) e)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{\text{Fun}} [\lambda_L x e] = & \mathbf{do} \\ & \rho \leftarrow rdEnv \\ & return (\uparrow (\lambda m \rightarrow \mathbf{do} \\ & \quad h \leftarrow fetch \\ & \quad \mathbf{let} (loc, h') = alloc_H m h \\ & \quad set (upd_H loc (mkThunk loc m) h') \\ & \quad inEnv (upd_T x (fetch \gg= lkp_H loc) \rho) e \\ &)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{\text{Fun}} [e_1 @ e_2] = & \mathbf{do} \\ & v_f \leftarrow e_1 \\ & \rho \leftarrow rdEnv \\ & (\downarrow v_f) (inEnv \rho e_2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} mkThunk & : Loc \rightarrow \text{Comp Value} \rightarrow \text{Comp Value} \\ mkThunk\ loc\ m = & \mathbf{do} \\ & v \leftarrow m \\ & update (upd_H loc (return v)) \\ & return v \end{aligned}$$

- Local declarations. We create a new location to store the local declaration in the heap and, depending on the evaluation mechanism, we evaluate e_1 and store its value in that location before calling e_2 (LET_V), we store in that location the computation that will evaluate e_1 when it is needed (LET_N), or we create and store in that location a thunk that will only evaluate e_1 the first time it is needed (LET_L).

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{\text{Dec}} [Let_V x e_1 e_2] = & \mathbf{do} \\ & (loc, \rho) \leftarrow prepareDecl\ e_1\ x \\ & v \leftarrow inEnv\ \rho\ e_1 \\ & update (upd_H\ loc\ (return\ v)) \\ & inEnv\ \rho\ e_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{\text{Dec}} \llbracket \text{Let}_N x e_1 e_2 \rrbracket &= \mathbf{do} \\ &\quad (loc, \rho) \leftarrow \text{prepareDecl } e_1 x \\ &\quad \text{update } (\text{upd}_H \text{ loc } (\text{inEnv } \rho e_1)) \\ &\quad \text{inEnv } \rho e_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{\text{Dec}} \llbracket \text{Let}_L x e_1 e_2 \rrbracket &= \mathbf{do} \\ &\quad (loc, \rho) \leftarrow \text{prepareDecl } e_1 x \\ &\quad \text{update } (\text{upd}_H \text{ loc } (\text{mkThunk } loc (\text{inEnv } \rho e_1))) \\ &\quad \text{inEnv } \rho e_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{prepareDecl} &: \text{Comp Value} \rightarrow \text{Name} \rightarrow \text{Comp (Loc, Env)} \\ \text{prepareDecl } m x &= \mathbf{do} \\ &\quad h \leftarrow \text{fetch} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let} (loc, h') = \text{alloc}_H m h \\ &\quad \text{set } h' \\ &\quad \rho \leftarrow \text{rdEnv} \\ &\quad \text{return } (loc, \text{upd}_T x (\text{fetch} \gg= \text{lkp}_H \text{ loc}) \rho) \end{aligned}$$

- First class continuations are directly obtained using the *callcc* operator from the *ContM*.

$$\varphi_{\text{Callcc}} \llbracket \text{Callcc} \rrbracket = \text{return } (\uparrow \text{fcc})$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \text{fcc } m &= \mathbf{do} \\ &\quad v_f \leftarrow m \\ &\quad \text{callcc } (\lambda \kappa \rightarrow (\downarrow v_f) (\text{return } (\uparrow \kappa))) \end{aligned}$$

Once we have specified the algebras and monadic algebras, we define the corresponding interpreter as a combination of catamorphism and monadic catamorphism:

$$\begin{aligned} \varpi_{\mathcal{L}} &: (\text{Arith} \oplus \text{Boolean} \oplus \text{Cmp} \oplus \text{Var}) \text{ Value} \rightarrow \text{Comp Value} \\ \varpi_{\mathcal{L}} &= \varpi_{\text{Arith}} \oplus_m \varpi_{\text{Boolean}} \oplus_m \varpi_{\text{Cmp}} \oplus \varpi_{\text{Var}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{\mathcal{L}} &: (\text{Ref} \oplus \text{Fun} \oplus \text{Dec})(\text{Comp Value}) \rightarrow \text{Comp Value} \\ \varphi_{\mathcal{L}} &= \varphi_{\text{Ref}} \oplus \varphi_{\text{Fun}} \oplus \varphi_{\text{Dec}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Inter}_{\mathcal{L}} &: \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \text{Comp Value} \\ \text{Inter}_{\mathcal{L}} &= \llbracket \varpi_{\mathcal{L}}, \varphi_{\mathcal{L}} \rrbracket \end{aligned}$$

7 Conclusions and future work

The Language Prototyping System is a combination of generic programming concepts and modular monadic semantics, which offers a *very* modular way to specify the semantics of programming languages. It allows the definition of reusable semantic blocks and provides an interactive system for language testing.

The system can be considered as another example of a domain-specific language embedded in Haskell [20,28,51]. This approach has some advantages: the development is easier as we can rely on the fairly good type system of Haskell, it is possible to obtain direct access to Haskell libraries and tools, and we do not need to define a new language with its syntax, semantics, type system, etc. At the same time, the main disadvantages are the mixture of error messages from the domain-specific language and the host language, some Haskell type system limitations and the Haskell dependency, which impedes obtaining executable prototypes implemented in other languages. At this moment we are assessing whether it would be better to define an independent domain specific meta-language for monadic semantic specifications. Some work in this direction can be found in [42,5].

On the theoretical side, [17] shows how to derive a backtracking monad transformer from its specification. That approach should be applied to other types of monad transformers in order to prove the correctness of the system. It would be interesting to study the combination of algebras, coalgebras, monads and comonads to provide the semantics of interactive and object-oriented features [4,24,23,29,49]. Another line of research is the automatic derivation of compilers from the obtained interpreters. This line has already been started in [13,14].

LPS allows the definition of a language from reusable semantic building blocks. In [8], the same problem is solved in the Action Semantics framework. In our approach, however, there are no conflicts leading to inconsistencies because the combined constructions belong to different abstract syntax entities. It would be very interesting to make deeper comparisons of the modularity of semantic specification techniques as has been started in [44,33].

With regard to the implementation, we have also made a simple version of the system using first-class polymorphism [25] and extensible records [12]. This allows the definition of monads as first class values and monad transformers as functions between monads without the need of type classes. However, this feature is still not fully implemented in current Haskell systems. The current implementation could benefit from recent advances in generic programming [18] which would allow the automatic generation of some definitions. Although there is a proposal for a Generic Haskell [16], it has not been implemented yet.

In order to obtain a complete language design assistant [15] it would be interesting to develop a Graphical User Interface or to integrate LPS in other

tools like the ASF+SDF Meta-Environment [50].

Finally, the initial goal of our research was the development of prototypes for the abstract machines underlying the Integral Object-Oriented Operating System Oviedo3 [2] with the aim to test new features as security, concurrency, reflectiveness and distribution [7,48]. More information on the system can be obtained at [1].

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