A Language Designer's Workbench
A One-Stop-Shop for Implementation and Verification of Language Designs

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DOI
10.1145/2661136.2661149

Publication date
2014

Document Version
Final published version

Published in
Onward! 2014

Citation (APA)

Important note
To cite this publication, please use the final published version (if applicable).
Please check the document version above.
Abstract
The realization of a language design requires multiple artifacts that redundantly encode the same information. This entails significant effort for language implementors, and often results in late detection of errors in language definitions. In this paper we present a proof-of-concept language designer’s workbench that supports generation of IDEs, interpreters, and verification infrastructure from a single source. This constitutes a first milestone on the way to a system that fully automates language implementation and verification.

Categories and Subject Descriptors D.2.6 [Software Engineering]: Programming Environments; D.3.1 [Programming Languages]: Formal Definitions and Theory; D.3.2 [Programming Languages]: Language classifications; F.3.1 [Logics and Meanings of Programs]: Specifying and Verifying and Reasoning about Programs; D.3.4 [Programming Languages]: Processors; F.3.2 [Logics and Meanings of Programs]: Semantics of Programming Languages

Keywords Language Designer Workbench; Meta-Theory; Language Specification; Syntax; Name Binding; Types; Semantics; Domain Specific Languages

1. Introduction
Programming language design is hard. But we continue to need new languages, particularly domain-specific languages (DSLs), to help software engineers handle the complexity of modern software systems. Programming language designers want only one thing: to get usable, reliable realizations of their languages into the hands of programmers as efficiently as possible. To achieve this goal, they need to produce a number of artifacts:

- A compiler or interpreter that allows programmers to execute programs in the language;
- An IDE that supports programmers in constructing programs in the language;
- A high-level specification of the language that documents its intent for programmers;
- Validation, via automated testing or formal verification, that their language designs and implementations are correct and consistent.

Today’s savvy language designer knows that there are good tools available to help with these tasks. However, existing tools generally require the designer to create each of these artifacts separately, even though they all reflect the same underlying design. Consequently, a compiler or interpreter is often the only artifact produced; documentation, IDE, and—especially—validation are typically omitted. For example, language implementations seldom formally guarantee semantic correctness properties such as type soundness and behavior preservation of transformations, because current implementation tools provide no support for verification. This can lead to subtle errors in languages that are discovered late.

Some state-of-the-art tools do support the production of two or more language artifacts. Language implementation workbenches such as Xtext [54], MPS [24], and Spoofax [26] provide fairly high-level support for implementation of IDEs and code generators. Semantics engineering tools such as K [15], Redex [17], and Ott [46] support the high-level specification of type systems and dynamic semantics in order to facilitate testing or verification. The CompCert
certified C compiler [32] is both implemented and verified within the Coq theorem prover. But no current tool addresses the full scope of designer activities.

Our vision is a language designer’s workbench as a one-stop-shop for development, implementation, and validation of language designs. The key idea for the realization of this vision is to conceptualize the sub-domains of language definition as a collection of declarative language definition formalisms (or meta-languages) that are multi-purpose, so that a single language definition can be used as the source for the implementation of efficient and scalable compilers and IDEs, the verification or testing of correctness properties, and as a source of (technical) documentation for users of the language.

In this paper, we report on a first milestone towards the goal of supporting the complete specification of syntax, static semantics, and dynamic semantics within a single integrated environment. To this end, we have extended the Spoofax Language Workbench1, which already supported declarative specification of syntax definition and name binding, with declarative meta-languages for type analysis and dynamic semantics (Section 4). From specifications in these meta-languages we derive (i) an IDE including syntactic editor services such as syntax checking, syntax highlighting and semantic editor services such as type checking and reference resolution (Section 5), (ii) an interpreter (Section 6), and (iii) Coq definitions that encode semantics in a form that can be used to verify language properties (Section 7). (We leave support for automated testing to future work.)

The contributions of this paper are:

- The architecture of a language designer’s workbench that separates the concerns of language definition into syntax definition, name binding, type analysis, and dynamic semantics specification (Section 3).
- The TS language for type analysis (Section 4.3), which complements the specification of name binding and scope rules in our existing NaBL language.
- The DynSem language for the specification of operational semantics (Section 4.4), based on the work on modular operational semantics by Mosses [36, 9].
- The systematic derivation of a naive interpreter in Java from a dynamic semantics specification in DynSem (Section 6).
- The systematic derivation of Coq definitions for syntax definition, name binding rules, type analysis rules, and dynamic semantics rules (Section 7). In particular, we provide a semantics that characterizes well-bound terms according to a specification in a subset of NaBL.
- The specification of the syntax and semantics of the PCF language in these meta-languages (Section 4) and the generation of an IDE, interpreter, and proof infrastructure from that specification. Based on the latter we manually prove type preservation for the dynamic semantics (Section 7).

The version of the workbench that we present here is a proof of concept. While we expect that the approach can be applied to a wide range of languages, we have not yet validated that expectation. It is likely that our meta-languages, in particular the more experimental ones for type analysis and dynamic semantics, will be refined as we extend their coverage.

2. Problem

Bridging the gap between domain concepts and the implementation of these concepts in a programming language is one of the core challenges of software engineering. Modern programming languages have considerably reduced this gap, but still require low-level programmatic encodings of domain concepts. Domain-specific software languages (DSLs) address the complexity problem through linguistic abstraction by providing notation, analysis, verification, and optimization that are specialized to an application domain and allow developers to directly express design intent (‘language shapes thought’).

Rapidly developing DSLs for emerging domains of computation can become an important method to manage software complexity. However, a software language is a complex software system in its own right — consisting of syntactic and semantic analyzers, a translator or interpreter, and an interactive development environment (IDE) — and can take significant effort to design and implement. Language Workbenches are language development tools [18] that considerably lower the threshold for software engineers to develop DSLs to automate software tasks. Examples of modern language workbenches include MPS [24], Xtext [54], and Spoofax [26].

2.1 Correctness of Language Definitions

Language definitions and implementations rarely guarantee semantic consistency properties such as type soundness, correct capture-free substitution, or semantics preservation by transformations.

As the languages developed with workbenches grow in complexity, more subtle semantic errors will be introduced. These may result in type checkers that fail to signal programs that might cause run-time errors; code generators that produce ill-formed code; optimizers that produce code with a different meaning than the (intended) meaning of the source program; and refactorings that change the meaning of programs. For example, refactoring implementations often contain many bugs, even in mature tools such as Java IDEs [45]. The correctness of these tools depends on informal programmer reasoning, which easily overlooks corner cases and feature interactions. Errors that emerge may be hard to locate in the implementation, and their absence may be hard to guar-

1 Spoofax Eclipse is available at http://metaborg.org/wiki/spoofax
ment to the large scale introduction of linguistic abstraction
to construct implementations; they provide no support
for formal verification.

This situation is problematic at several levels. First, it af-
ffects language designers who spend time chasing bugs. Sec-
ond, the late detection of problems affects the quality of
language designs; repairing languages becomes hard once
a body of code has been developed. Third, it affects the reli-
ability of programming tools, which in turn affects the pro-
ductivity of software developers and the quality of the soft-
ware they produce. Overall, the resulting complexity of the
language design and implementation process is an impedi-
ment to the large scale introduction of linguistic abstraction
as a software engineering tool.

2.2 Analysis

Understanding this state-of-the-art requires a closer look at
the nature of language design and implementation. A lan-
guage implementation includes the following language compo-
ments. A compiler translates a source program to exe-
cutable code in a lower-level language. An interpreter or ex-
ecution engine directly executes a program. An integrated
development environment (IDE) supports developing (edit-
ing) programs by means of a range of editor services that
check programs and help in navigating large programs.

The production of each of these components incorporates
several or all of the following language definition concerns.
A syntax definition defines the structure of well-formed sen-
tences in the language. Name binding and scope rules de-
termine the relation between definitions and uses of names
in programs. A type system defines static constraints on syn-
tactically well-formed programs, avoiding a large class of
run-time errors. Transformations define modifications that
improve programs in some dimension such as performance
or understandability. The dynamic semantics defines the dy-
namic behaviour (execution) of programs. A code generator
defines the translation to code in another, typically lower-
level, ‘target’ language.

Over five decades, programming language developers and
designers have produced many different methods for encod-
ing the definition of language concerns. Some are special-
zized to the implementation of compilers and IDEs, others are
specialized to reasoning about the correctness of language
definitions. This leads to redundancy and duplication of ef-
fort for language designers.

Specialization in language workbenches. For most of
these concerns, existing language workbenches require de-
signers to encode their intent by writing explicit code, and to
do so separately for each concern. Syntax definitions are the
exception to this rule [27]: they are declarative and can be
used to address multiple concerns—characteristics that we
would like to emulate in other domains if possible.

Programmatic encoding. Language definitions are en-
coded in a general-purpose programming language, which
makes domain-specific analysis and verification difficult.
For example, the implementation of name resolution in a
programming language, or even as attribute grammar, ob-
sures the definition of name binding concepts such as ‘def-
inition’, ‘reference’, and ‘scope’. This makes it impossi-
ble to check a property such as ‘reachability of definitions
from references’. By contrast, a declarative syntax definition
can be used as the single source for deriving a parser, a pretty-printer, a language-aware edi-
tor, and an abstract syntax tree type definition.

Specialized definitions. Definitions are specialized to spe-
cific components, which requires re-definition of the same
concepts in different formats, increasing the risk of incon-
sistencies. For example, the name binding rules for a lan-
guage are encoded in a name resolution algorithm for editor
services such as code completion, and in a capture-free sub-
stitution function for use in transformations. By contrast, a
declarative syntax definition can be used as the single source
for deriving a parser, a pretty-printer, a language-aware edi-
tor, and a single source syntax tree type definition.

Specialization in semantics engineering. Another line of
tools for language designers aims at support for semantics
engineering. Recent advances in executable definitions of
dynamic semantics [17, 44], DSLs for semantics specifica-
tion [46], model checking of type systems [43], random test
generation for compiler correctness [11, 28, 55], and verified
compilers [32], promise a semantics engineering discipline
with automated testing and verification of language safety
properties, detecting bugs early, and increasing the confi-
dence in language definitions.

However, in their current form these approaches are not
yet suitable for the assistance of software engineers design-
ing DSLs for one or more of the following reasons: (i)
Semantic definitions are aimed at modeling languages for
the purpose of verification and ignore implementation con-
straints. For example, reference resolving in an IDE poses
different constraints on the definition of name binding than
the implementation of a type soundness proof. The result is
redundancy in specification efforts. (ii) Realization of ver-
ification requires significant overhead with respect to the
basic definitions. For instance, the verification code for the
CompCert compiler [32] is about seven times as large as the
compiler implementation itself. This overhead is aggravated
### Figure 1. Architecture of a language designer’s workbench.
Language design is directly expressed using high-level declarative meta-languages from which multiple artifacts are derived automatically.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-domain</th>
<th>Formalism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td>SDF3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name Binding</td>
<td>NaBL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types</td>
<td>TS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic Semantics</td>
<td>DynSem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transforms</td>
<td>Stratego</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Figure 2. Definition of PCF in Spoofax Language Workbench with, from top to bottom, syntax definition in SDF3 (Figure 4), name binding rules in NaBL (Figure 5), type rules in TS (Figure 6), dynamic semantic rules in DynSem (Figure 7), and generated editor for PCF (Figure 3).

In our work we aim to adapt and extend the achievements of semantics frameworks and mechanized meta-theory, making them accessible to software engineers using language workbenches to design DSLs.

### 3. Architecture
A language designer’s workbench is a programming environment that supports language designers in all aspects of language design, eliminates redundancy, and automates implementation and verification. Our approach to the realization of such a workbench is illustrated by the architecture in Figure 1.

**Separation of concerns.** The first goal is represented by the top arrow in Figure 1. Language designers should be able to directly express their designs rather than programmatically encoding them. This requires conceptualizing the sub-domains of language definition as a collection of language definition formalisms: specialized meta-languages—
for syntax definition, name binding, type analysis, dynamic semantics, and transformation—that abstract from specific implementation concerns.

**Multi-purpose language definition.** The second goal is represented by the bottom arrows in Figure 1. The expression of a design should be multi-purpose. A language definition should be usable as the single source for the implementation of efficient and scalable compilers and IDEs, the verification of correctness properties, and as a source of (technical) documentation for users of the language. We believe this goal is also reachable through separation of concerns; by specializing meta-languages we can remove any bias towards the implementation of a particular artifact.

**Proof of concept.** The Spoofax Language Workbench [26] provides a platform for the construction of IDEs based on declarative syntax definition with SDF2 [48] and program transformation with Stratego [5]. We are in the process of refactoring and extending Spoofax to realize the architecture sketched in Figure 1. For that purpose, we are developing the meta-languages SDF3 for syntax definition, NaBL for name binding, TS for type analysis, and DynSem for dynamic semantics to support the complete specification of syntax and semantics of languages.

Here we present a first proof of concept that exercises all aspects of the new approach for a very basic language. We have formalized the syntax, static semantics, and dynamic semantics of PCF [35] in the new meta-languages. Figure 2 shows the definition of PCF edited in Eclipse/Spoofax together with the generated IDE for PCF. We discuss the formalizations together with the meta-languages in the next section. From this definition we generate an IDE (Section 5), an interpreter (Section 6), and definitions for the Coq proof assistant, which can be used as the basis for a proof of type preservation for the dynamic semantics (Section 7). We have not yet addressed compilation, code generation, and transformation in this new setting. Regarding documentation, our first concern is to design meta-languages that lead to readable language definitions. We have not yet addressed the automatic generation of documents that can serve as technical documentation of a language such as supported by Redex [17] and K [15].

### 4. Declarative Language Definition

In this section we describe the Spoofax meta-languages for syntax definition, name binding, type analysis, and dynamic semantics. As running example we use the PCF language [35]. Fig. 3 shows an example PCF program.

#### 4.1 Syntax Definition

Often, the syntax of a language is only formally defined in terms of a parser that turns a program text into an abstract syntax tree. However, there are many other operations that depend on the grammar of a language, including pretty-printing, syntax highlighting, and syntactic completion. These are typically implemented as separate artifacts, duplicating information that is part of the grammar. Furthermore, parser-oriented approaches expose the underlying parsing technique. Declarative approaches to syntax definition allow reasoning about the structure of a language independently of the parsing technique enabled by generalized parsing algorithms [27]. In addition, such declarative syntax definitions can be interpreted for multiple purposes.

We are developing SDF3 as a successor to the syntax definition formalisms SDF [20] and SDF2 [48]. SDF3 fully integrates abstract syntax tree generation, derivation of pretty-printers, and syntactic completion templates [49]. Fig. 4 defines the syntax of PCF in SDF3.

**Tree structure.** An important principle guiding the design of SDF3 is to support understanding of the syntax of a language purely in terms of its tree structure [27]. An SDF3 production such as

\[
\text{Exp} \quad \text{Fun} = [\text{fun} [\text{Param}] (\text{Exp})]
\]

defines a context-free grammar production

\[
\text{Exp} \to \text{"fun" Param } (\text{" Exp "})
\]

That is, it defines one alternative for the non-terminal (Exp) to be a sequence of symbols ([fun [Param] (Exp)]) in which the anti-quoted identifiers ([Param] and [Exp]) correspond to phrases generated by the corresponding non-terminals. The constructor (fun) is used to construct nodes in the abstract syntax tree corresponding to this production. Thus, the production implicitly defines a constructor with signature

\[
\text{Fun} : \text{Param} \times \text{Exp} \to \text{Exp}
\]

Fig. 3 shows the term structure of the PCF program according to the grammar of Fig. 4.

**Declarative disambiguation.** Instead of encoding the disambiguation of expressions in the grammar rules by means of a non-terminal for each precedence level, SDF3 supports the declarative disambiguation of expressions using relative priorities. For example, the declaration

\[
\text{Exp.Mul} \to (\text{left: Exp.Add Exp.Sub})
\]

states that multiplication has higher priority than addition and subtraction, which are mutually left associative. Furthermore, associativity annotations on productions indicate whether an operator is left, right, or non-associative.

**Templates.** Productions are called templates since grammars double as generators [49]. A template characterizes a syntax pattern, quoting the literal text in the pattern, and using anti-quotation to indicate the holes. The whitespace separating the symbols in the template body is interpreted as arbitrary LAYOUT for the purpose of parsing. It is interpreted as line break and indentation directives when producing syntax.

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2 Available at https://github.com/metaborgcube/metaborg-pcf

3 For some corner cases additional non-terminals may still be needed.
let fac : int -> int =
fix f : int -> int {
fun n : int {
  ifz n then 1 else n * (f (n - 1))
} in (fac 3)

module PCF
imports Common
context free start symbols Exp
sorts Exp Param Type
templates
  Exp.Var = [[ID]]
  Exp.App = [[Exp] [Exp]] {left}
  Exp.Fun = [fun [Param] {
    [Exp]
  }]
  Exp.Fix = [fix [Param] {
    [Exp]
  }]
  Exp.Let = [let [ID] : [Type] =
    [Exp]
  in [Exp]]
  Exp.Ifz = [ifz [Exp] then
    [Exp]
  else
    [Exp]]
  Exp.Num = [[INT]]
  Exp.Add = [[Exp] + [Exp]] {left}
  Exp.Sub = [[Exp] - [Exp]] {left}
  Exp.Mul = [[Exp] * [Exp]] {left}
  Exp.Div = [[Exp] / [Exp]] {left}
  Exp = [[Exp]] {bracket}

Type.IntType = [int]
Type.FunType = [[Type] -> [Type]]
Param.Param = [[ID] : [Type]]
context free priorities
Exp.App > Exp.Mul > (left: Exp.Add Exp.Sub) > Exp.Ifz

Figure 3. Factorial function in PCF concrete syntax and abstract syntax according to the syntax definition in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Syntax definition for PCF in SDF3.

Figure 5. Name binding and scope rules for PCF in NaBL.

4.2 Name Binding

A key complication in any language engineering framework is the treatment of name binding. While much language processing can follow the inductive structure of abstract syntax trees, names cut across that structure with references to other parts of the tree. For example, a function definition introduces a name that can be used to call the function from a distant point in the tree.

In language engineering approaches, name bindings are often realized using a random access symbol table such that multiple analysis and transformation stages can reuse the results of a single name resolution pass [1]. Another approach is to represent the result of name resolution by means of reference attributes, direct pointers from the uses of a name to its definition [19]. Semantics engineering approaches to name binding vary from first-order representation with substitution [28], to explicit or implicit environment propagation [41, 36, 9], to higher-order abstract syntax [8]. Furthermore, some approaches use a nameless representation (de Bruijn index) of bound variables to uniquely represent terms modulo alpha equivalence [2]. In semantics engineering approaches, identifier bindings are represented with environments that are passed along in derivation rules, rediscovering bindings for each operation [41]. The key problem of all these approaches is the specification of name binding by means of an encoding in a more general purpose formalism (ranging from programming languages, to attribute grammars, to transition systems, to lambdas in the metalanguage), which requires decoding for understanding and analysis, and is typically biased to a particular purpose (such as substitution, completion, navigation).

The references in a language are governed by rules for name binding and scope. The key concepts in these rules are...
**4.3 Type Analysis**

Types “categorize objects according to their usage and behaviour [6].” A *type system* formalizes this categorization, in order to ensure that only the intended operations are used on the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41]. Typical formalizations of type systems tangle the representation of values of a type, avoiding run-time errors [41].

Types are abstract syntax trees based on the syntax definition. The *where* clause of a rule defines the conditions under which the judgment holds. For example, consider the rule for function application (*App*) in Fig. 6. The rule defines that *App*(e1, e2) has type tr, provided that the first argument *e1* has function type FunType(tf, tr), the second argument *e2* has type ta, and that the formal argument and the actual argument have the same type (*tf == ta*). The else branch on that equation generates a type error for use in the IDE on target term *e2*.

Type rules are complementary to name binding. This means that type rules do not have to propagate typing environments. Assuming that name binding has been performed, the type rule for variables (*Var*) can obtain the type of a variable by simply referring to the definition of *x*. Note that in the name binding rule for *Param* in Fig. 5 we associated the type from the parameter declaration to the definition of a variable.

The rules for PCF suggest that name resolution and type analysis can be staged sequentially. In general, however, name binding may depend on the results of type analysis. For example, in a class-based object-oriented language, resolving a method call expression *e.f(e1,...,en)* requires knowing the type of the receiver *e* to determine the target class, and may require knowing the types of the argument expressions to resolve overloading.

**4.4 Dynamic Semantics**

The *dynamic semantics* of a language describes the behavior of its programs. Current language workbenches do not provide dedicated support for specification of dynamic semantics. Efficient interpreters can be implemented in a reg-
module semantics

signature

constructors

    C : string * Exp * E → value // closure
    I : int → value // integer
    T : term * E → value // thunk

addInt : int * int → int { native }
subInt : int * int → int { native }
mulInt : int * int → int { native }

rules // binding

E env ⊢ Var(x) → v
where env[x] ⇒ T(e, env'),
E env' ⊢ e → v
E env ⊢ Fun(Param(x, t), e) → C(x, e, env)
E env ⊢ App(e1, e2) → v
where E env ⊢ e1 → C(x, e, env'),
E env ⊢ C(x, e, env') ⊢ e → v
E env ⊢ Fix(Param(x, t), e) → v
where E env ⊢ T(Fix(Param(x, t), e), env) ⊢ e → v
E env ⊢ Let(x, t, e1, e2) → v
where E env ⊢ T(e1, env), env ⊢ e2 → v

rules // arithmetic

Num(i) → I(i)
Ifz(e1, e2, e3) → v
where e1 → I(i), i = 0, e2 → v
Ifz(e1, e2, e3) → v
where e1 → I(i), i ≠ 0, e3 → v
Add(e1, e2) → I(addInt(i, j))
where e1 → I(i), e2 → I(j)
Sub(e1, e2) → I(subInt(i, j))
where e1 → I(i), e2 → I(j)
Mul(e1, e2) → I(mulInt(i, j))
where e1 → I(i), e2 → I(j)

Figure 7. Big-step operational semantics for PCF in DynSem.

ular programming language, but usually the semantics of a language is defined only by means of code generation. This makes it difficult to verify that the implementation matches the intended design.

A formal definition of the dynamic semantics enables formal reasoning about the behavior of programs, for example proving that a particular program terminates on a given input, or on all inputs, or that it yields the correct results. In combination with formal definitions of other language concerns, it enables formal reasoning about properties of all programs of the language. For example, we may prove that all well-typed programs run without run-time type errors (type soundness). The problem with formal semantics specifica-

5. Deriving Front-Ends

To support programmers in editing programs in a language, the language workbench generates an Eclipse plugin with language-aware editor services that provide interactive feedback about a program during editing. Such feedback includes inline error messages about inconsistencies in a program that appear as you type, project navigation, and contextual discovery. Realizing such interactive services requires analyses to support error recovery in order to not break down on the first error. Furthermore, analysis needs to be incremental so that the effort of analysis is proportional to the changes made. Supporting such features hugely complicates the manual implementation of analyses. By abstracting from implementation strategies in our meta-languages, we can generically forge additional features such as error recovery and incremental analysis on generated implementations.
Spoofax extends Eclipse with an interface for connecting syntactic and semantic editor services [26]. In the process of the project outlined in this paper, we are replacing manually written implementations of editor services by implementations generated from higher-level meta-languages. Generation of syntactic editor services is previous work [26]. We have extended our previous work [51] on incremental name analysis to type analysis.

**Syntactic editor services.** A declarative syntax definition formalism is the ultimate multi-purpose DSL. From an SDF3 syntax definition we generate a wide range of syntactic editor services. All services rely on the abstract syntax tree schema that is derived from a syntax definition. We generate a parser based on Scannerless Generalized-LR parsing [48, 47] from an SDF3 definition. The resulting parser supports error recovery [13], which allows an AST to be created even if the parsed program is not completely syntactically correct. This means that other editor services relying on an AST can continue to operate in the face of syntactic errors. In addition to deriving a parser, we derive syntax highlighting, code folding rules, and outline views [26]. The template nature of SDF3 enables the generation of syntactic completion templates and pretty-print rules [49].

**Semantic editor services.** The semantic editor services are built around the name and type analysis algorithm derived from an NaBL and TS definition. This algorithm identifies definitions of names, resolves references to identifiers, computes the types of expressions, and generates error messages in case of failures. The algorithm is incremental due to the use of a ‘task engine’ that caches resolution tasks and their results [51]. We have introduced the TS language in order to generate task generation rules for type analysis. The results of name and type analysis are used for navigation through reference resolution; for semantic code completion by suggesting possible valid completions of an identifier; and to display error messages, such as for unresolved references, duplicate definitions, and type errors.

6. Deriving Interpreters

To support the direct execution of programs in the object language, we systematically generate a Java-based AST interpreter from a DynSem specification for the language. Each constructor of the language is translated to a class in Java with an evaluate method based on the DynSem rules for the constructor.

We choose to generate AST interpreters rather than bytecode interpreters. Bytecode interpreters require a translation to bytecode, while we are aiming at an expression of the semantics at the source level. AST interpreters are simpler to reason about, preserve the structure of the program to be executed and allow optimizations to be performed locally in the program. The AST interpreters that we generate look and act similar to regular Java programs which allows the

Explication:

\[
\text{Add}(e_1, e_2) \rightarrow I(\text{AddInt}(i, j)) \\
\text{where } e_1 \rightarrow I(i), e_2 \rightarrow I(j)
\]

after:

\[
E \text{ env} \vdash \text{Add}(e_1, e_2) \rightarrow I(\text{AddInt}(i, j)) \\
\text{where } E \text{ env} \vdash e_1 \rightarrow I(i), E \text{ env} \vdash e_2 \rightarrow I(j)
\]

Factorization:

\[
E \text{ env} \vdash \text{Fun}(\text{Param}(x, t), e) \rightarrow C(x, e, \text{env})
\]

after:

\[
E \text{ env} \vdash \text{Fun}(p, e) \rightarrow c \\
\text{where } p \Rightarrow \text{Param}(x, t), C(x, e, \text{env}) \Rightarrow c
\]

Merging:

\[
\text{Iz}(e_1, e_2, e_3) \rightarrow v \\
\text{where } e_1 \rightarrow I(i), i \equiv 0, e_2 \rightarrow v
\]

\[
\text{Iz}(e_1, e_2, e_3) \rightarrow v \\
\text{where } e_1 \rightarrow I(i), i \not\equiv 0, e_3 \rightarrow v
\]

after:

\[
\text{Iz}(e_1, e_2, e_3) \rightarrow v \\
\text{where } e_1 \rightarrow I(i), \left[ i \equiv 0, e_2 \rightarrow v \right] + \left[ i \not\equiv 0, e_3 \rightarrow v \right]
\]

Figure 8. Examples of transformations on DynSem rules before and after explication, factorization, and merging.

Java VM to recognize program patterns and perform optimizations. Graal [53], a variation of the Java Hotspot VM, promises to eliminate the overhead of dynamic dispatch in AST interpreters by aggressively inlining program nodes.

6.1 Rule preprocessing

To simplify code generation we first simplify rules and their premises by explication, factorization, and merging. We explain the individual preprocessing steps below and refer to the examples in Fig. 8.

**Explication.** DynSem rules implicitly pass the environment to premises. For example, in the Add reduction rule in Fig. 8 the unchanged environment is implicitly passed to the evaluation of the left and right hand sides of the expression. Explication rewrites rules so that all environments are explicitly mentioned and passed.

**Factorization.** We factorize terms to lift nested pattern matches and instantiations to a sequence of premises that only perform simple pattern matches and instantiations. For example, in the rule evaluating Fun to closures we lift the nested pattern match on Param to a premise.

**Rule merging.** Evaluation alternatives are expressed in DynSem by multiple rules matching on the same constructor. For example, the DynSem rules for PCF’s iz expression from Fig. 8 are overloaded on the matching pattern.
The generator merges these rules into a single one. The first premise of the two rules are identical. Our generator merges overloaded rules and shares the longest matching sequence of premises between the alternatives. In Fig. 8 we use + to denote alternatives between premises. This rewriting improves evaluation efficiency by eliminating the redundant evaluation of expression \( e_1 \), the redundant pattern matching against constructor \( I(i) \), and the double binding of variable \( i \). Merging also eliminates the need for backtracking, which would harm performance due to redundant evaluations and exception raising and catching.

Our factorization and merging technique is similar to left-factoring \([3, 39]\). The merging strategy does not insert additional rules or constructors to encapsulate alternatives, which would impact performance by increasing the number of dispatch operations and the depth of the evaluation stack.

### 6.2 Interpreter generation

We transform DynSem rules to an AST interpreter in Java. An AST interpreter represents the running program as an abstract syntax tree, and uses the stack of the host language to store the execution state. Each node of the tree has an evaluate method. Fig. 9 shows the interpreter class for the Ifz constructor of PCF. Execution begins by invoking the evaluate method on some node of the AST; in the PCF case, this is the root node. The evaluate code for each node defines the execution of the program subtree rooted at that node; typically this involves invoking the evaluation functions of child nodes. Control is returned to the caller when evaluation has completed successfully. The interpreter aborts evaluation of a program if an error occurs.

Each call to the evaluate method passes an evaluation environment (frame) that maps keys to values. The PCF interpreter uses the environment to map variable names to integer values, closures and thunks. Environments are immutable and have hiding semantics on update. This means that evaluation of a child node cannot alter the contents of an environment visible to its parent.

#### Code generation.

The generator translates explicicated, factorized, merged, and analyzed rules to evaluation methods. For example, Fig. 9 shows the generated interpreter node for the rule

\[
E \text{ env} \vdash \text{Ifz}(e_1, e_2, e_3) \rightarrow v
\]

where \( E \text{ env} \vdash e_1 \rightarrow I(i) \),

\[
\begin{align*}
&[i \equiv 0, E \text{ env} \vdash e_2 \rightarrow v] + \\
&[i \not\equiv 0, E \text{ env} \vdash e_3 \rightarrow v]
\end{align*}
\]

Evaluation of the Ifz node begins by declaring and binding variables \text{env}, \text{e1}, \text{e2} and \text{e3}. The interpreter then evaluates the condition \text{e1} to intermediate value \text{v1}. The pattern match against variable \text{v1} is translated to an instanceof check and all remaining premise evaluations are nested in the success branch of the match. Binding of variable \( i \) occurs only if the match succeeds. Premise alternatives from the merged rule are translated to nested if-then-else clauses such that evaluation of \( e_2 \) or \( e_3 \) only takes place if its guard succeeds. The interpreter throws an exception and evaluation is aborted if a premise with no alternatives fails.

### 6.3 Results and Future work

The interpreters we generate are reasonably fast. In an interpreter for the Green-Marl graph analysis DSL \([22]\)—implemented manually, but following the same approach—programs evaluate 10 times slower than their compiled equivalents, on average. Over 80% of the effort is spent in environment lookups. A PCF program which recursively computes the sum of the first 500 natural numbers executes on average in 14 ms.\(^4\) This program also spends most of its effort doing environment lookups. We experimented with adding inline caching to variable lookups to capitalize on the stability of the environments. This optimization decreased evaluation time of the recursive PCF program to 0.6 ms. This is a naive example but it suggests that immutable environments together with the local stability of execution in an AST interpreter offer good opportunities for optimizations by inlining caching.

In the future we will investigate both static optimizations of the DynSem rules and dynamic optimizations on the program AST. Static optimizations will include unused variable

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\(4\) On a machine with a 2.7 GHz Intel Core i7 process and 16 GB of RAM
elimination, common premise elimination and mechanized construction of more efficient pattern matching DFAs. The latter two optimizations can significantly reduce the amount of evaluation work required by avoiding redundant evaluations. We believe that much efficiency can be gained by performing program optimization at runtime. Some of the optimizations we envision are premise reordering, inline caching of premise evaluation results, dispatch caching, and guarded program tree rewriting speculating on stable local behavior. The idea of self-optimizing AST interpreters is promoted by the Truffle [53] interpreter framework and the FastR project [25]. We focus our investigation on automatically deriving such optimizations from the DynSem rules.

AST interpreters negatively impact performance due to deep stack allocations during evaluation. Local inlining of evaluation functions is expected to compensate this overhead. Static analysis of the semantic rules can detect some inlining opportunities. The statically detectable cases can be inlined during interpreter generations. Many inlining opportunities can only be detected at runtime. A possibility for these cases is to rely on a new-generation JIT compiler for the JVM – Graal [53]. Graal aggressively inlines stable codes to reduce function calls. Interpreter developers are expected to explicitly annotate methods that may not be inlined. While not all inlining opportunities are visible statically, many cases where inlining may not be performed are visible statically in the semantics.

7. Deriving Proof Infrastructure

To support verification of properties of language definitions, we systematically generate language models in the Coq proof assistant [10]. The semantics of each meta-language—syntax, name binding, typing, and dynamic semantics—is specified by defining predicates over a simple universal representation of program terms. The semantic predicates describe generic properties of the meta-language, and are parameterized over a further set of definitions and predicates that characterize each particular object language. As an example, the definitions characterizing the PCF language are presented (with some slight simplifications for this paper) in Fig. 11.

To illustrate the approach, we start by presenting the Coq model for the abstract syntax signatures corresponding to syntax definitions in SDF3, which also underlies the models for our other meta-languages.

**Syntax Definition** An SDF3 definition specifies both the concrete syntax of a particular object language and how syntactically valid programs should be represented as abstract syntax trees. For verification of language properties, we can ignore the concrete syntax of the language (we do not aim at proving parser or pretty-printer correctness at this point), and focus on the abstract syntax. Thus we specify the formal semantics of an SDF3 definition as the set of trees corresponding to syntactically valid object-language programs.

To capture this idea in Coq, we start by defining a universal term representation suitable for ASTs from arbitrary object languages. Terms are built out of constructor nodes and leaf identifier nodes. The representation is parameterized by a type \( I \) representing identifiers and inductive set \( C \) of constructors as presented in Fig. 10.

Not all the terms in \( \text{term} \) make sense for a particular SDF3 definition. For example, the putative PCF term:

\[
\text{Co App [Co IntType []]}
\]

is not well formed because it violates PCF’s sort conventions (e.g., constructor \( \text{App} \) has arity 2 and should take two terms of sort \( \text{Exp} \) as arguments whereas \( \text{IntType} \) has sort \( \text{Type} \)). To define the set of well-sorted terms, we also extract from the SDF3 definition a set \( S \) of sorts, a function \( \text{sig} \) mapping each constructor to the sorts of its arguments and its result, a distinguished sort \( I_\text{Sort} \) corresponding to terms representing identifiers and a distinguished sort \( \text{Prog}_\text{Sort} \) corresponding to complete programs in this language. Given these parameters, we define in Fig. 10 a well-sortedness predicate \( \text{ws_term} s t \) that checks that a particular term \( t \) is well sorted for a particular sort \( s \).

Finally, we can define the semantics of the SDF3 definition specified by \((I, C, S, \text{sig}, I_\text{Sort}, \text{Prog}_\text{Sort})\) as the following set of syntactically well-sorted programs:

\[
\{ t \in \text{term} | \text{ws_term} s t \}\]

We chose this approach — starting with a universal term representation and then using predicates to define the well-sorted subset corresponding to a particular SDF3 specification — to let us state and prove generic Coq lemmas that apply across specifications. An alternative approach, which we also plan to explore, would be to generate a specialized term representation (e.g., in which terms are explicitly indexed by sorts) for each SDF3 specification and generate proofs of the generic lemmas as well.

**Semantics of Name Binding** In a similar style, the semantics of an NaBL name binding specification is given by a
correctness predicate for resolution maps over (well-sorted) programs. Resolution is specified in terms of subterm positions (of type pos) within the top-level program term. A resolution map \( R_t : \text{pos} \rightarrow \text{pos} \) for the top-level term \( t \) maps each node that represents an identifier use to the node at which the identifier is defined, according to a particular NaBL specification. Rather than defining \( R_t \) constructively, we define a predicate characterizing correctness of \( R_t \) for an arbitrary properly-resolved program \( t \). (To lighten notation, we generally assume a fixed program \( t \) and drop the subscript on \( R \).)

The predicate presented here characterizes a substantial subset of the specifications that can be written in NaBL, including mutual recursive definitions, but excluding advanced features such as importat of names from modules. It reflects the following intuitive semantics of resolution, illustrated by Fig. 12.

(i) Each definition potentially reaches all nodes dominated by its nearest enclosing scope delimiter. (Note that this permits the scope of definitions to extend upwards and leftwards in the tree as well as rightwards and downwards; this can be useful for, e.g., mutually recursive definitions.) For example, in Fig. 12, the nearest enclosing scope delimiter for \( def_1 \) is \( scope_1 \), so \( def_1 \) potentially reaches \( ref_1 \) and \( ref_2 \). Similarly, \( def_0 \) potentially reaches all three references.

(ii) Each reference resolves to the (unique) potentially reaching definition within the innermost dominating scope that has such a definition (i.e., definitions in inner scopes shadow those in outer ones). For example, in Fig. 12, \( ref_1 \) and \( ref_2 \) resolve to \( def_1 \) because \( scope_1 \) lies inside \( scope_0 \).

Our Coq formalization of these semantics is parameterized by three relations extracted from the binding rules in the NaBL specification (here, for simplicity, we ignore namespacs and some other details involving positions that appear in the actual formalization). \( \text{defines} \) \( t \) holds when term \( t \) defines identifier \( x \), \( \text{refers_to} \) \( t \) holds when term \( t \) refers to identifier \( x \), and \( \text{scopes} \) \( t \) holds when term \( t \) delimits a scope. Fig. 11 illustrates the instantiation of these relations for PCF.

---

**Figure 11.** Coq definitions of PCF derived from Spoofax

**Figure 12.** Scoping and resolution
The Coq formalization of the type language definitions from Fig. 13. We define some useful auxiliary predicates. The lookup predicate says that the near-est enclosing scope delimiter of the node at position \( p \) is at position \( p_s \). The \( \text{reaches} \) predicate says that the node at position \( p_d \) potentially reaches a reference at node \( p_r \) within the scope delimited by \( p_s \). The \( \text{complete} \) predicate says that the node at \( p_d \) defines a type that this definition definitely reaches the node at \( p_r \), because it potentially reaches it and any other definition of \( x \) that potentially reaches it is in an outer scope (and is therefore shadowed).

Finally, we can define a correct map \( \text{R} \) as one that is sound and complete, according to the \( \text{sound} \) and \( \text{complete} \) definitions from Fig. 13.

**Type System** The Coq formalization of the type language TS is largely straightforward. Types are represented as terms having distinguished sort \( \text{Type.S} \). The semantics of a TS specification is given by a Coq inductive relation \( \text{well_typed} \) (also written \( \vdash_{\text{R}} t : ty \)) between (program) terms \( t \) and types \( ty \), which is generated in an obvious way from the TS type rules. Fig. 11 shows some typical clauses of this relation.

Unlike a conventional typing relation, this one lacks an environment component for looking up the types of variables. Instead, to give meaning to the \( \text{where} \) definition of clause in a TS specification (e.g. for PCF \( \text{Var} \) nodes), we use the type information associated with variable declarations by NaBL specifications.

We extend the \( \text{defines} \) relation introduced previously to include a type component. The \( \text{defines}_{\text{ty}} t x \_ ty \) predicate holds when the term \( t \) defines identifier \( x \) with type \( ty \). To determine the type of an identifier at a reference, we use the resolution map \( R \) to find the corresponding definition, as described by the lookup relation in Fig. 13. The \( \text{well_typed} \) clause for \( \text{Var} \) in Fig. 11 illustrates the use of lookup.

**Dynamic Semantics** Translation of the dynamic semantics as defined in DynSem is also quite straightforward. The DynSem constructors declared with sort \( \text{value} \) are used to define a new Coq inductive type \( \text{value} \) and the DynSem definitions are directly translated into an inductive relation \( \text{eval} \ E t v \) (also written \( E \vdash t \Rightarrow v \)) over environments \( E \), terms \( t \) and values \( v \).

Values and operations considered “native” to the DynSem specification are directly translated into their existing Coq equivalent. As an example, in PCF, the natural numbers are directly embedded in the constructors \( \text{NatC} \ n \) and values \( \text{Natv} n \), and the \( \text{PlusC} \) constructor directly evaluates to the \( \text{Coq} + \) function.

**Type Preservation** To illustrate that our Coq models can be used to prove useful properties of language definitions, we have developed (manually) a Coq proof of type preservation for PCF. To do this, we first extend the typing relation \( \vdash \) to values in the obvious way. We can then prove:

\[
\forall e \_ v \_ ty, \\
(\text{ws_term} \ Exp_S e \land \text{sound} \ R e \land \text{complete} \ R e) \Rightarrow \\
(\emptyset \vdash e \Rightarrow v \land \vdash_{\text{R} e} e : ty) \Rightarrow \\
\vdash v : ty
\]

In future work, we hope to automate routine proofs of this kind, at least for some languages.

8. Related Work

The language definition landscape provides the following complementary categories of tools for language designers and engineers:

- Language workbenches such as Xtext [54], MPS [50], Rascal [29], and Spoofax [26] support separation of concerns in implementation of compilers and IDEs, but do not support specification of dynamic semantics, verification, or test generation. Erdweg et al. [16] give an overview of the features of modern language workbenches.

- Semantics frameworks such as PLT Redex [17], K [31], and I-MSOS [37, 9] support separation of concerns in specification of dynamic semantics. The main goal is the formalization and documentation of the dynamic semantics of programming languages or models of full-fledged
languages. Specifications may be validated by executing programs (e.g., generated through random testing). However, specifications are not intended to support static verification of language properties or the generation of high-performance interpreters.

- Proof assistants such as Coq [10], Isabelle/HOL [23], and Twelf [40] support construction of machine-checked proofs of meta-theoretic properties of languages and implementations. These are general-purpose systems that largely lack specific features for describing programming languages, although Twelf does have primitive support for higher-order abstract syntax. Language encodings tend to be low-level, targeted at a single purpose, and tailored to the particular features of a single prover. Frameworks such as Ott [46] and Lem [38] address these short-comings by providing a single uniform mechanism for defining semantics as transition systems, from which encodings in a variety of provers, executable languages, and typesetting systems can be extracted automatically. However, the verification proper (construction of proofs) is still done using the generated encoding in the language of the proof assistant.

**Executable type systems.** Formal definitions of type systems are specialized to a particular application. Type systems in semantics engineering take the form of derivation systems, defining judgments of the form \( \Gamma \vdash e : t \) — expression \( e \) has type \( t \) in environment \( \Gamma \) — by means of derivation rules. Such derivation systems target the production of documentation and proofs [52]. Name binding and scope rules are typically incorporated in these systems by propagation of environments. On the other hand, language workbenches such as Xtend [54] and Spoofax [21] separate the concerns of name resolution, type analysis, and error constraints, targeting the production of type checkers for IDEs. The use of general purpose languages (programming languages, term rewriting systems, attribute grammars) complicates the verification of the correctness of such definitions.

A declarative type system abstracts from the algorithmics of type checking and type inference, much like a declarative syntax definition abstracts from the algorithmics of parsing [27]. However, unlike the domain of syntax definition, it is not common practice to generate type checkers from type system specifications. Type systems that are convenient for reasoning may be non-deterministic, and need to be massaged for use in a non-backtracking algorithm [34, 42]. An interesting direction for future work will be to investigate the automatic generation of algorithmic type checkers from highly declarative type system specifications.

**Executable dynamic semantics.** Semantic frameworks target simulation of dynamic semantics specifications, rather than generating efficient interpreters, as is the goal for DynSem. The K semantic framework [31] provides an integrated language for defining the syntax, static, and dynamic semantics of a language. Dynamic semantics are defined in terms of structural and reduction rules. The former transform the structure of a program’s data such that the latter rules can be applied to evaluate the program. Specifications in K are compiled to interpreters in Maude. By comparison, in DynSem one only specifies the reduction rules and there are no structural rules. The interpreters we derive can perform rewriting but they do not rely on rewriting for program evaluation. A PCF interpreter derived from a specification in K had an evaluation time for the naive recursive summation program of Sect. 6 in the order of minutes (as opposed to milliseconds for our DynSem interpreter).

Dynamic semantics of languages defined in PLT Redex [17] are given as reduction relations with a reduction context. The reduction context determines the next possible evaluation steps to be performed. In the general case, the search for each step needs to start at the root of the AST, adding to each reduction step a tree traversal, which makes execution expensive. In addition, Redex definitions typically use explicit substitution for binding values to names. This simplifies definitions, but also makes execution expensive, as the application of a substitution requires another traversal of the AST. By comparison, specifications in DynSem use environments as an alternative to explicit substitution.

The DynSem language is based on the I-MSOS approach to operational semantics. As such it can be used for specifications in small-step and big-step style. Small-step semantics definitions are more suitable for verification. However, small-step semantics lead to interpreters with worse performance than those derived from big-step semantics. This is caused by the need to scan the entire intermediate program to discover the next evaluation step to be performed. Small-step semantics can be transformed into equivalent big-step rules by refocusing [12]. Bach Poulsen and Mosses [3] show promising benchmark results for the application of refocusing on a small set of benchmarks.

Big-step style rules lack expressivity for specification of abrupt termination and divergence. Pretty-big-step semantics [7] provides a compact notation for explicitly expressing exceptions and concurrency. Exceptions are accompanied by evaluation traces and are valid outcomes of reduction rules. This eliminates the need for implicit backtracking which is non-trivial in the presence of side-effects. Bach Poulsen and Mosses [4] demonstrate the derivation of pretty-big-step semantics from small-step rules. We plan to explore the advantages and disadvantages of the different styles of operational semantics in DynSem and its interpreter generator.

**Combining specification, implementation and verification.** The goal of the Language Designer’s Workbench project described in this paper is to combine the features of each of these categories of tools into a workbench that provides comprehensive support for all aspects of language design, implementation, and validation. These features have not often
been integrated in prior work, particularly not within an ex-
tensible framework.

The CompCert [32] C compiler specifies language sem-
antics, compiler implementation, and compiler properties 
all within the Coq proof assistant, which uses a single lan-
guage to express specifications, programs, and theorems 
connecting the two (although the proofs of these theorems 
typically rely on a separate tactic language). This approach 
relies heavily on Coq’s ability to extract programs into an 
efficiently compilable language such as OCaml. However, 
CompCert is not intended as a general framework for con-
structing verified compilers, although it does contain a num-
er of supporting libraries that could be useful for compiling 
source languages other than C.

The 3MT theory of Delaware et al. [14] describes a mod-
ular framework in which various effectful language features 
can be individually specified, together with proofs of their 
type soundness, and then freely composed to form differ-
et languages in such a way that the proofs compose too. 
Although 3MT’s current implementation in Coq requires a 
rather heavy encoding, we expect its insights about proof 
modularization to prove valuable in our framework.

Lorenzen and Erdweg [33] describe a system for auto-
matically verifying soundness of typing rules for macro ex-
tensions, given desugaring transformations into a type-safe 
base language. In essence, they verify that the macro typing 
rules are logically implied by the base language rules applied 
to the desugared code. Given a suitably rich base language, 
this technique might be used to verify type soundness for 
many useful domain-specific language features.

9. Conclusion
In this paper, we have presented the vision of a language 
designer’s workbench, which reduces the effort of language 
design by integrating implementation and verification. Our 
proof of concept suggests that this vision is at least feas-
ible for a class of simple languages, and provides an out-
look on a future in which software language design can be 
a matter of exploring design alternatives rather than grind-
ing away on tedious implementation details. Realizing this 
vision requires research in three directions. We must: (1) ex-
tend the coverage of our meta-languages to support a larger 
range of languages; (2) improve performance of analysis algo-
rithms and interpreters to reach production quality imple-
mentations; and (3) provide highly automated support for 
verification of language definitions.

These directions are not independent, as there is a trade-
off between expressivity (coverage) of our meta-languages 
and the extent to which implementation and verification can 
be automated. Semantics frameworks target semantics engi-
eers, with or working towards a PhD in programming lan-
guage theory, designing advanced programming languages 
with complex type systems. Language workbenches target 
software engineers, with a master’s degree in computer sci-
ence, designing DSLs to automate software development in 
a particular domain. This difference justifies a trade-off, in-
creasing automation of verification at the expense of expres-
sivity, in order to help software engineers avoid language 
design pitfalls.

Acknowledgments
We thank Peter Moses and Martin Churchill for hosting the 
productive visit of Eelco Visser to Swansea that led to the 
DynSem language. We thank Peter Moses, Casper Bach 
Poulsen, Paolo Torrini, and Neil Sculthorpe for comments on 
a draft of this paper. We thank the participants of the Summer 
School on Language Frameworks in Sinaia, Romania in July 
2012 — in particular Grigore Rosu, Robby Findler, and Pet-
er Moses — for inspiring us to address dynamic semantics 
in language workbenches. This research was partially funded 
by the NWO VICI Language Designer’s Workbench project (639.023.206), the NWO Free Competition Language Li-
braries project (612.001.114), and by a gift from the Oracle 
Corporation.

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