Macros as Multi-Stage Computations: Type-Safe, Generative, Binding Macros in MacroML*

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ABSTRACT

With few exceptions, macros have traditionally been viewed as operations on syntax trees or even on plain strings. This view makes macros seem *ad hoc*, and is at odds with two desirable features of contemporary typed functional languages: static typing and static scoping. At a deeper level, there is a need for a simple, usable semantics for macros. This paper argues that these problems can be addressed by formally viewing macros as multi-stage computations. This view eliminates the need for freshness conditions and tests on variable names, and provides a compositional interpretation that can serve as a basis for designing a sound type system for languages supporting macros, or even for compilation.

To illustrate our approach, we develop and present MacroML, an extension of ML that supports inlining, recursive macros, and the definition of new binding constructs. The latter is subtle, and is the most novel addition in a statically typed setting. The semantics of a core subset of MacroML is given by an interpretation into MetaML, a statically-typed multi-stage programming language. It is then easy to show that MacroML is stage- and type-safe: macro expansion does not depend on runtime evaluation, and both stages do not "go wrong".

1. INTRODUCTION

Most real programming language *implementations* provide a macro facility that can be used to improve either performance or expressiveness, or both. In the first case, macros are usually used for inlining (or unfolding) particular function calls. In the second case, macros are usually used to define new language constructs or shorthands. Many tasks can be achieved using such macro systems, including conditional compilation, configuration of applications to particular environments, templates for parameterized computations, and even the implementation of domain-specific languages. Yet macros are not part of the standards for the mainstream statically-typed functional languages such as ML and Haskell, even though they are supported by the implementations in various forms. For example, Ocaml includes a set of macro-processing tools called Camlp4, and GHC provides some support for inlining.

So, why are they ignored?

Often, macros are considered to be either an implementation detail (and therefore not interesting) or, a form of black magic (and therefore should be discouraged). Both these stands are unfounded. First, it is a mistake to give macros (or even inlining pragmas) the status of a compiler directive that the implementation may or may not take into account: macros affect the semantics of programs (see Section 2). Second, the absence of a macro facility almost invariably forces programmers to resort to *ad hoc* solutions to achieve the same functionality.

There are also technical difficulties: macros are hard to specify from first principles. Macro designers (as for example is the case for Camlp4) often find themselves forced to describe macros at the level of program text or syntax trees. Working at this lower level means that macros can generate programs that might not be well-typed, or even syntactically well-formed. In addition, the inevitable hygiene and scoping problems must be addressed using `gensym` (or freshness conditions) and using many unintuitive equality and inequality tests on variables names [21]. Not only are such low-level specifications hard to communicate (making macros acquire *the appearance* of being unsystematic), they are also at odds with static typing: if variable names and their binding relationships are not known until *after* macro expansion, it becomes hard (if not impossible) to type-check macros before expansion.

This paper argues that macro systems can be viewed formally and usefully as multi-stage computations. Multi-stage programming languages (including two-level languages [32, 16], multi-level languages [13, 14, 15, 8, 7], and MetaML [48, 45, 4]) have been developed to provide precise and usable models of such computations that occur in multiple distinct stages. Over the last few years, the study of MetaML and related systems has resulted in a good understanding of the

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types and semantics of multi-stage systems.

Formalizing macros as multi-stage computations also emphasizes that the technical problems associated with macros are genuine: specifying the denotational semantics of macros involves the same advanced tools as the denotational semantics for two-level, multi-level, and multi-stage languages (such as functor-categories or topoi [27, 28, 3]). A denotational semantics has particular relevance to realistic compilers, which invariably involve a translation phase. A compositional (denotational) semantics is generally one of the most helpful kinds of semantics in developing and verifying such compilers [34].

In addition to dictating and controlling inlining, macros are often used to abstract common syntactic patterns in programs. In a language with higher-order procedures, especially a lazy language, some of these abstractions can be expressed (maybe with a loss of efficiency) using functions. But many of the syntactic patterns over which one wants to abstract would need to bind variables. Constructs that bind variables are not directly expressible using functions. For example, overloading an existing binding construct such as the `do`-notation of Haskell to allow recursive bindings cannot be expressed using functions, and requires a change to the compiler [10].

1.1 MacroML

While this paper demonstrates that MetaML is a good meta-language for *defining* macros, MetaML is not the ideal language for *writing* macros: it does not have support for defining new binding constructs. This paper presents an expressive, typed language that supports generative macros. This language, called MacroML, is defined by an interpretation into MetaML, and can express (both simple and recursive) inlining and the definition of new binding constructs. A key design goal for MacroML is that it be a *conservative extension* [11] of ML. This implies that its type system should include all well-typed ML programs and that it not break the reasoning principles for ML programs, such as α- and β_v-conversion. We also want the language to remain statically typable. Given that our goal is a conservative extension of ML, there are some notable points about what MacroML is designed *not* to do:

- MacroML does not blur the distinction between programs and data. Although many applications naturally view programs as data, there is a fundamental distinction between the two. While both programs and data can be represented (using, *e.g.*, natural numbers, S-expressions), *the notions of equality associated with each one (syntactic and semantic equality, respectively) cannot and should not be mixed*. Furthermore, internalizing syntactic equality into a language, while still maintaining an interesting semantic equality is nontrivial [25, 51, 45]. For better or worse, it is relatively easy to pick one *or* the other, that is, to either have syntactic equality or semantic quality everywhere. In MacroML, we choose to allow only semantic equality in the language and we avoid introducing syntactic equality (on programs) by not introducing *any* reflective or code-inspection capabilities into the language. This is achieved mainly through the next point:

- MacroML does not allow macros that inspect or take apart code (*i.e.*, *analytic macros*). This restriction seems necessary to maintain static typing. Instead all macros in MacroML are limited to constructing new code and combining code fragments (*i.e.*, *generative macros*). This paper presents a number of examples that suggest that many useful tasks can be accomplished using such statically typed generative macros.

- MacroML does not introduce accidental dynamic scoping and/or variable capture. These problems generally arise from an overly simplistic view of programs as data, such as in early LISP systems or in C. The Scheme community has had a substantial role in recognizing and addressing this problem and promoting the notion of hygienic macro expansion [21, 9]. More recently, there have been more sophisticated proposals, like higher-order abstract syntax (HOAS) [37, 24, 19, 12], and FreshML [38]. The key contribution of all these proposals is to provide a means to express the fact that "programs are not *just* data."

The first point is certainly inspired by multi-stage languages, but to an extent, so are the other two.

A key issue that arises in the presence of macros that define new binding constructs is the handling of α-conversion. While it is not clear how this problem can be addressed in the untyped setting, it is addressed in MacroML by using a type system. As such MacroML tries to achieve a balance between being an expressive macro system and being a macro system that we can reason about.

1.2 Organization

Section 2 introduces MacroML by a series of motivating examples, and discusses the issue of α-equivalence in the presence of macros that can define new binding constructs. Section 3 reviews the MetaML syntax, type system, and semantics. Section 4 presents the main technical contribution: a compositional interpretation of Core MacroML into MetaML that provides a semantics that is both executable and reasonably easy to communicate. Neither the MacroML language nor the translation use any operations nor side-conditions to generate fresh names. Instead this is relegated to the semantics of the target language of the translation. The target language itself, MetaML, has an operational semantics defined using nothing but the standard notion of substitution. The translation is shown to produce only well-typed MetaML terms thus providing a type safety result for MacroML. Section 5 considers several extensions to Core MacroML and discusses implementation issues. Sections 6 and 7 discuss related work and conclude.

2. MACROML BY EXAMPLE

In this section, we use a sequence of examples to introduce the basic issues motivating and governing our design of MacroML. Each example is followed by a summary of the basic semantic concerns that it raises.

2.1 Simple Inlining: A First Attempt

Consider the following code excerpt, where the functions `iterate` and `shift_left` have the expected meaning:

```
let val word_size = 8
in ... iterate shift_left word_size ... end.
```

Here, `word_size` is used purely for reasons of clarity and maintainability in the source code, and most implementations are likely to inline it producing:

```
... iterate shift_left 8 ...
```

But in a general situation where `word_size` is bound to a more complicated expression like `x+4` or an expression whose evaluation might have side-effects like `1/x`, the situation is more delicate. Some compilers might inline `x+4` and some might not. And no compiler is at liberty to inline expressions with effects: this is clear in a call-by-value (CBV) language like ML, but it is also the case in "pure" languages like Haskell where compilers must restrict inlining when dealing with built-in monadic effects [40, 1]. Compilers also cannot be left to inline or not inline at will when we care about resource behavior [31].

Since inlining affects not only the performance but also the semantics of ML programs, we elevate it to a full language construct with concrete syntax, typing rules, and formal semantics. In MacroML, programmers can *require* inlining of an expression using a new variant of `let`-expressions called `let-mac`. For example, the fragment:

```
let mac word_size = raise Unknown_size
in ... iterate shift_left word_size ... end
```

dictates that, even though `raise Unknown_size` is not an ML value, we want it inlined, producing:

```
... iterate shift_left (raise Unknown_size) ...
```

Semantics: The semantics of this kind of inlining is simply the standard capture-avoiding substitution of a variable by an expression [6, 2].
Problem: Unfortunately, while this is a good example of the "essence of inlining," introducing inlining in this fashion (through the mere occurrence of a variable) can interfere with established reasoning principles for CBV languages. For example, in a standard CBV calculus [39], `(fn y => 5) x` is observationally equivalent to `5` since variables are values. But in a term:

```
let mac x = raise Error in ...(fn y => 5) x... end
```

these two terms behave differently. In particular, the tradition of treating variables as values in CBV no longer holds, because we sometimes replace variables by non-values.

2.2 Functional Inlining

To retain the established reasoning principles of CBV languages, we restrict all definitions and uses of macros in MacroML to be syntactically non-values (*e.g.*, non-values, `let`-expressions, etc). Thus, we will allow only macros that take arguments. Their form (as non-values) ensures that they do not interfere with a common reasoning principle for CBV languages, namely that variables are values.

To illustrate functional inlining, consider the following example:

```
mac $ e = fn x => e
mac ? e = e ()
```

The declared operators `$` and `?`, read "delay" and "force," respectively, implement a simple variant of Okasaki's proposal for suspensions [33]. Under the above macro declarations, the expression `fn x => $ (tl x)` expands to the expression `fn x => fn x' => tl x`, where `x'` is a freshly generated name (with a base name `x` only to hint to its source).

There are two notable features about this example. First, we cannot define `$` as a CBV function since the evaluation of `$ e'` should not allow the premature evaluation of `e'`. Thus, this is a genuinely useful application of a macro system. Second, macro expansion should not allow the binding occurrence of `x` in the macro definition to accidently capture free occurrences of `x` in macro arguments.
Semantics: The semantics of functional inlining involves two substitutions. First, the argument of the macro application is substituted into the body. Given that we are using the standard notion of substitution, the variable `x` in the above example cannot occur in the expression bound to the variable `e`. Second, the resulting macro body is substituted back into the context of application, again using the standard notion of substitution.

The example demonstrates another key feature of macro systems: because macro calls can occur under binders, the semantics *requires* evaluation under binders. This generally involves manipulating *open terms* which can be significantly more complicated [48, 29, 44] than dealing only with closed terms, which is possible for most traditional programming languages (whether CBV, CBN, or call-by-need).

2.3 Recursive Macros

What if we wish to perform more computations during macro expansion? Consider the classic power function `pow`:

```
let fun pow n x =
  if n = 0 then 1 else x * (pow (n-1) x)
in pow (2*3) (5+6) end.
```

If we replace the `fun` keyword by `mac`, macro expansion goes into an infinite loop, which is probably not the desired behavior. What happens? Intuitively, the macro call `pow (2*3) (5+6)` expands into :

```
if 2*3 = 0 then 1 else (5+6) * (pow (2*3-1) (5+6))
```

which itself expands into :

```
if 2*3 = 0 then 1
else (5+6) * (if (2*3-1) = 0 then 1
              else (5+6) * (pow ((2*3-1)-1) (5+6)))
```

and the expansion goes on indefinitely. Macro expansion can only terminate if the `if`-expression is evaluated *during* expansion, and not reconstructed as part of the result. To require the execution of the `if` expression during macro expansion, we must explicitly indicate that `n` is an *early* parameter, rather than a regular macro parameter (which we call *late*), and annotate the term to distinguish early and late computations. The intended `pow` macro can now be written as:

```
let mac pow ~n x =
  ~(if n = 0 then <1> else <x * (pow ~(n-1) x)>)
in pow ~(2*3) (5+6) end.
```

The two constructs $\sim e$ and $\langle e \rangle$ (read "escape" and "brackets", respectively) are borrowed directly from MetaML. Escape interrupts the default macro expansion mode and initiates regular ML evaluation. Brackets stops regular evaluation to return to the default macro expansion mode. The expansion of the macro call above now yields:

```
(5+6) * (5+6) * (5+6) * (5+6) * (5+6) * (5+6) * 1.
```

Semantics: The need for introducing the brackets and escape constructs is directly related to the need to have a well-specified order for evaluating various sub-expressions. In particular, with recursion, it becomes clear that there are two different kinds of computations: early ones and late ones. The need to intermix these two kinds of computation is what requires a more substantial type system than usual. We must enforce what is called *congruence* in the partial evaluation literature: a well-formed multi-stage computation should not contain an early computation that depends on the result of a late computation [20]. A simple example of a program that the type system should reject is:

```
let mac f b n = ~(if b=0 then <n> else <n+1>)
in fn a => fn m => f a m end.
```

The macro application `f a m` needs to be expanded before the lambda abstraction `fn a => ...` is ever applied. But the conditional in the `if` statement requires that the first argument of `f` be known at that time, which it is not.

2.4 Defining New Binding Constructs

We now come to a novel feature of MacroML: the ability to define new binding constructs in the typed setting. Let us say that we are using the macros `$` and `?` for suspensions to implement a notion of a computation [26]. We define a suitable monadic-`let` for this setting as follows:

```
mac (let seq x = e1  in e2  end) =
   $(let val x = ?e1 in ?e2 end).
```

The definition introduces a new binding construct `let seq` which expands to the core binding construct `let val`. For example,

```
let seq y = f $7 in g y end
```

expands to:

```
$(let val x = ?(f $7) in ?(g x) end).
```

Semantics: A key insight behind this aspect of our proposal is to allow the user to only define new binding constructs that follow the patterns of existing binding constructs, such as lambda abstractions, value declarations, and recursive declarations. *In these binding constructs every occurrence of a variable can be immediately identified as either a binding occurrence or a bound occurrence.* The semantics of our proposal is designed to reflect this distinction. But even when this distinction is taken into account, α-equivalence is still subtle. For example, the definition above *cannot* be rewritten into:

```
mac (let eeq x = e1  in e2  end) =
   $(let val y = ?e1 in ?e2 end).
```

The problem is that in the `seq` declaration there are two different binding occurrences of the variable `x`, and each is of a different nature. The first one (in the parameter of the macro) says that "there is a variable, let's call it `x`, which can occur free in the expression bound to `e2`." This means that the use of the variable name `x` in the second declaration now has special meaning. The second declaration now says "use `x` locally as a normal variable name, but make sure that it is treated in the output of the macro as the binding occurrence for the `x` in `e2`."

The type system for MacroML addresses this issue by means of two mechanisms: first, special type environments are used to keep track of the declarations of macro parameters, and most importantly, the *body* parameters like `e2`. Second the type of these body parameters will explicitly carry around the name of the *bindee* parameter `x`, which comes from the first occurrences of `x`. The second declaration of `x` is in fact a completely normal declaration. With this typing information, it is possible to reject the local replacement of `x` into `y` as above. It is important to note the difference between this mechanism and the classic "accidental dynamic scoping:" *the dependency on a "free" variable is reflected explicitly in the type.* Essentially the same principle underlies the recent proposal for implicit parameters [22]. We know that the type system provides an adequate solution to the problem of α-conversion in the source program because the type system guarantees that well-typed MacroML programs can be translated to MetaML programs, and in the latter, α-renaming is completely standard, even in the untyped setting.

At this point, the reader may wonder how are variables passed around in MacroML? We return shortly to this question in Section 4.

3. MULTI-STAGE LANGUAGES

Macro systems introduce a stage of computation before the traditional stage of program execution. Early computations during this new stage include macro expansion as well as various other traditional computations (*e.g.*, conditionals, applications, etc).

Multi-level languages have been developed to model such kinds of staged computation. They offer constructs for building and combining code, often in a typed setting. *Multi-stage languages* are multi-level languages that provide the user with a means of executing the generated code. The notion of "code" described here is an abstract one. For example, it has been proven that beta-reductions are sound inside this notion of code [45]. This means that code in such systems is never inspected syntactically. An alternative, equally valid way of thinking about these languages, therefore, is that they provide *fine control over the evaluation order* [48, 46, 42].

A premier example of a statically-typed, functional, multi-stage language is MetaML. In addition to the normal constructs of a functional language, MetaML also has three constructs for building, efficiently combining, and executing code. These three constructs are $\langle e \rangle$,~e, and $\mathsf{run}\ e$. For the purposes of our study, we use the following small subset MetaML:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} e \in E_{MetaML} & ::= & x \mid \lambda x.e \mid e\ e \\ & \mid & \mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_1\ x_2\ x_3 = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2 \\ & \mid & \langle e \rangle \mid \tilde{}e \mid \mathsf{run}\ e. \end{array}$$

Restricting the number of arguments of recursive function declarations to exactly three is sufficient for our purposes, and simplifies the presentation.

We present a type system for this language with the following types:

$$t \in T_{MetaML} \quad ::= \quad \mathsf{nat} \mid t \to t \mid \langle t \rangle.$$

Here `nat` is the type for natural numbers. Function types as usual have the form $t \to t$. The MetaML code type is denoted by $\langle t \rangle$. In this section we present a sound type

$$\frac{x : t^n \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash^n x : t} \qquad \frac{\Gamma, x : t_1^n \vdash^n e : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash^n \lambda x.e : t_1 \to t_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash^n e_1 : t_2 \to t \quad \Gamma \vdash^n e_2 : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash^n e_1 e_2 : t}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l}\Gamma, f : (t_1 \to t_2 \to t_3 \to t)^n, x_1 : t_1^n, x_2 : t_2^n, x_3 : t_3^n \vdash^n e_1 : t \\ \Gamma, f : (t_1 \to t_2 \to t_3 \to t)^n \vdash^n e_2 : t_4\end{array}}{\Gamma \vdash^n \mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_1\ x_2\ x_3 = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2 : t_4} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash^{n+1} e : t}{\Gamma \vdash^n \langle e \rangle : \langle t \rangle} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash^n e : \langle t \rangle}{\Gamma \vdash^{n+1} \tilde{}e : t} \qquad \frac{\Gamma^+ \vdash^n e : \langle t \rangle}{\Gamma \vdash^n \mathsf{run}\ e : t}$$

Figure 1: MetaML Type System

system for MetaML. The soundness of this type system is studied and established elsewhere [46, 29, 44]. While this type system is not the most expressive type system available for MetaML (see for example [29, 44, 4]), it is simple and sufficient for our purposes here.

The type system is defined a judgment $\Gamma \vdash^n e : t$ where n is a natural number called the *level* of a term. The role of the notion of level is explained below where we consider the type rules and the semantics for brackets and escape. The context Γ is a map from identifiers to types and levels, and is represented by the following term language:

$$\Gamma \quad ::= \quad [] \mid \Gamma, x : t^n.$$

In any valid Γ, there should be no repeating occurrences of the same variable name. We write $x : t^n \in \Gamma$ when $x : t^n$ is a sub-term of a valid Γ.

The rules of the type system are presented in Figure 1. The first four rules of the type system are standard, except that the level n of each term is passed around everywhere. Note that in the rule for lambda (and recursive functions), we take the current level and use it as the level of the bound variable when we add it to the environment.

The rule for brackets says $\langle e \rangle$ can have type $\langle t \rangle$ when e has type t. In addition, e must be typed at level $n + 1$, where n is the level for $\langle e \rangle$. The level parameter is therefore counting the number of "surrounding" brackets. The rule for escape does basically the converse. Note, therefore, that escapes can only occur at level 1 and higher. Escapes are supposed to "undo" the effect of brackets.

Finally, the rule for run e is rather subtle: we can run a term of type $\langle t \rangle$ to get a value of type t. However, we must be careful to note that the term being run must be typed under the environment Γ^+, rather than simply Γ. We define Γ^+ as having the same variables and corresponding types as Γ, but with each level incremented by 1. Without this adjustment the type system is unsafe [46, 29, 44].

Figure 2 defines the big-step semantics for MetaML. There are a number of reasons why the big-step semantics for MetaML [29, 46] is an instructive model for the formal study of multi-stage computation: first, by making evaluation under lambda explicit, this semantics makes it easy to illustrate how a multi-stage computation often violates one of the basic assumptions of many works on programming language semantics, namely, the restriction to closed terms. Second, by using just the standard notion of substitution [2], this semantics captures the *essence* of static scoping, and there is no need for using additional machinery to handle renaming at runtime.

The big-step semantics for MetaML is a family of partial functions $\_ \overset{n}{\hookrightarrow} \_ : E_{MetaML} \to E_{MetaML}$ from expressions to answers, indexed by a level n. Taking n to be 0, we can see that the first two rules correspond to the rules of a CBV lambda calculus. The rule for run at level 0 says that an expression is run by first evaluating it to get an expression in brackets, and then evaluating that expression. The rule for brackets at level 0 says that they are evaluated by rebuilding the expression they surround at level 1. *Rebuilding*, or "evaluating at levels higher than 0," is intended to eliminate level 1 escapes. Rebuilding is performed by traversing the expression while correctly keeping track of levels. Thus it simply traverses a term until a level 1 escape is encountered, at which point the normal (level 0) evaluation function is invoked. The escaped expression must yield a bracketed expression, and then the expression itself is returned.

Interesting examples of MetaML programs can be found in the literature [48, 44, 42]. For the purposes of this paper, we focus on illustrating how three relevant kinds of computation can be achieved using MetaML:

Evaluation Under Lambda: Consider the term $\lambda xy.(\lambda z.z)\ x$ and let us say that we are interested in eliminating the inner application. In both CBV and CBN, evaluation only works on closed terms, and therefore, never goes under lambda. With MetaML it is possible to force the inner computation by rewriting the expression as run $\langle \lambda xy.\tilde{}((\lambda z.z)\ \langle x \rangle)\rangle$, and then evaluating it. The result is the desired term: $\lambda xy.x$. We use such a pattern of run, brackets, and escape in our interpretation of the macro language to ensure that computations are performed in the desired order.

Substitution: Consider the term $(\lambda x.f\ x\ x)\ (g\ y)$. Can we force the outer application to be done first, producing $f\ (g\ y)\ (g\ y)$? This operation is not expressible in CBV evaluation semantics, but is expressible in MetaML by annotating the term as follows: run $((\lambda x.\langle f\ \tilde{}x\ \tilde{}x \rangle)\ \langle g\ y \rangle)$.

Renaming: It seems not widely known that simply using the standard notion of substitution in defining the semantics of a language like MetaML is sufficient for providing the correct treatment of free and bound variables everywhere. In MetaML, there is never any accidental variable capture, and there is never any need to express any freshness conditions or to use a `gensym`-like operation. Our semantics for MacroML is simple, because we build on the fact that using the standard notion of substitution in the MetaML semantics really means that renaming is taken care of.

4. CORE MACROML

We are now at a point where we can precisely define and interpret our macro language. We present the syntax, type system, and semantics of Core MacroML. The language has the usual expressions for a CBV language, augmented with the previously motivated let-mac construct for defining

$$\frac{}{\lambda x.e \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} \lambda x.e} \qquad \frac{e_1 \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} \lambda x.e \quad e_2 \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} e_3 \quad e[x := e_3] \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} e_4}{e_1\ e_2 \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} e_4} \qquad \frac{F \equiv \lambda x_1.\lambda x_2.\lambda x_3.e_1[f := \mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_1\ x_2\ x_3 = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ f] \quad e_2[f := F] \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} e_3}{\mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_1\ x_2\ x_3 = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2 \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} e_3}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} \langle e_2 \rangle \quad e_2 \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} e_3}{\mathsf{run}\ e_1 \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} e_3} \qquad \frac{}{x \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} x} \qquad \frac{e_1 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} e_2}{\lambda x.e_1 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} \lambda x.e_2} \qquad \frac{e_1 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} e_3 \quad e_2 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} e_4}{e_1\ e_2 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} e_3\ e_4}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} e_3 \quad e_2 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} e_4}{\mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_1\ x_2\ x_3 = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} \mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_1\ x_2\ x_3 = e_3\ \mathsf{in}\ e_4} \qquad \frac{e_1 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} e_2}{\langle e_1 \rangle \overset{n}{\hookrightarrow} \langle e_2 \rangle} \qquad \frac{e_1 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} e_2}{\mathsf{run}\ e_1 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} \mathsf{run}\ e_2} \qquad \frac{e_1 \overset{n+1}{\hookrightarrow} e_2}{\tilde{}e_1 \overset{n+2}{\hookrightarrow} \tilde{}e_2} \qquad \frac{e_1 \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} \langle e_2 \rangle}{\tilde{}e_1 \overset{1}{\hookrightarrow} e_2}$$

Figure 2: MetaML Big-Step Semantics

$$\frac{x : t^m \in \Gamma}{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m x : t} \qquad \frac{x : t \in \Pi}{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 x : t} \qquad \frac{x_2 : [x_1 : t_1]t_2 \in \Delta \text{ and } x_1 : t_1^1 \in \Gamma}{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 x_2 : t_2} \qquad \frac{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma, x : t_1^m \vdash^m e : t_2}{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m \lambda x.e : t_1 \to t_2}$$

$$\frac{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m e_1 : t_2 \to t \quad \Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m e_2 : t_2}{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m e_1 e_2 : t} \qquad \frac{\begin{array}{l}\Gamma' \equiv \Gamma, f : (t_1 \to t_2 \to t_3 \to t)^m \\ \Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma', x_1 : t_1^m, x_2 : t_2^m, x_3 : t_3^m \vdash^m e_1 : t \\ \Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma' \vdash^m e_2 : t_4\end{array}}{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m \mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_1\ x_2\ x_3 = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2 : t_4} \qquad \frac{\begin{array}{l}f : (t_1, t_2, [t_3]t_4) \Rightarrow t_5 \in \Sigma \\ \Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^0 e_1 : t_1 \\ \Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 e_2 : t_2 \\ \Sigma; \Delta; \Pi, x : t_3; \Gamma \vdash^1 e_3 : t_4\end{array}}{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 f(e_1, e_2, \lambda x.e_3) : t_5}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l}\Sigma' \equiv \Sigma, f : (t_1, t_2, [t_3]t_4) \Rightarrow t_5 \\ \Sigma'; \Delta, x_2 : [x : t_3]t_4; \Pi, x_1 : t_2; \Gamma, x_0 : t_1^0 \vdash^1 e_1 : t_5 \\ \Sigma'; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 e_2 : t\end{array}}{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 \mathsf{letmac}\ f(\tilde{}x_0, x_1, \lambda x.x_2)\ = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2 : t} \qquad \frac{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 e : t}{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^0 \langle e \rangle : \langle t \rangle} \qquad \frac{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^0 e : \langle t \rangle}{\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 \tilde{}e : t}$$

Figure 3: MacroML Type System

macros, and the $\tilde{}e$ and $\langle e \rangle$ used to control recursive inlining:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} e \in E_{MacroML} & ::= & x \mid \lambda x.e \mid e\ e \\ & \mid & \mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_1\ x_2\ x_3 = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2 \\ & \mid & \mathsf{letmac}\ f(\tilde{}x_0, x_1, \lambda x_2.x_3)\ = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2 \\ & \mid & f(e_1, e_2, \lambda x.e) \mid \langle e \rangle \mid \tilde{}e. \end{array}$$

For clarity, all macros in Core MacroML have exactly three parameters representative of the three *kinds* of possible parameters in MacroML. Restricting ourselves to macros with exactly three parameters allows us to avoid substantial administrative detail in Core MacroML. The three kinds of macro arguments are as follows:

1. x_0, as indicated by the preceding $\tilde{}$, is an *early* parameter, which can be used during macro expansion,

2. x_1 is a *late* parameter, which might appear in the output of the expansion, and

3. $\lambda x_2.x_3$ defines a *bindee/body* pair of parameters, representing a late parameter x_3 with a variable x_2. The two variables x_2 and x_3 are bound variables in the scope of the macro definition but they can only be used in rather special ways enforced by the type system. The variable x_2 must be bound *again* using a regular binding construct before x_3 can be used. The variable x_3 can only be used in the scope of x_2. A legal use of such a bindee/body pair is:

$$\mathsf{letmac}\ f(\_, \_, \lambda x.y)\ = \lambda a.\lambda x.a + x + y\ \mathsf{in}\ \ldots$$

The x in the macro declaration binds the *two* occurrences of x in the macro definition! All three occurrences of x could be renamed to z without changing the meaning. The semantics would, however, be changed if we only change the body of the macro to $\lambda a.\lambda z.a+z+y$, because we would be returning a result that could have an unbound variable (that was bound to x) in a subterm (that was bound to y). The bindee/body parameter illustrates how defining new binding constructs works in MacroML. For Core MacroML we have picked the simplest binding construct in the language, namely lambda abstraction $\lambda x.e$. The other binding constructs follow naturally.

The application of a macro $f(e_1, e_2, \lambda x.e)$ also takes exactly three arguments: the first is an early argument, the second is a late argument, and the third is a bindee/body argument. The bindee/body argument explains the core of our treatment of new binding constructs: it must be clear what variables are free in what sub-expressions, and both must always be passed together. Note that a bindee/body argument must have the right form for the binding structure (in this case, lambda). For example, the application

$f((),(),\lambda z.z+a)$ of the macro defined above expands to:

$$\lambda a'.\lambda x.a' + x + (x + a).$$

4.1 Typing Core MacroML

The types of MacroML are the same as MetaML:

$$t \in T_{MacroML} \quad ::= \quad \mathsf{nat} \mid t \to t \mid \langle t \rangle.$$

The type system, however, is more involved. Typing judgments have the form $\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m e : t$ where m is the level of a term. We restrict the levels here to 0 (representing early computations) and 1 (representing late computations). The environments have the following roles (and definitions):

- Σ the *macro environment*. It keeps track of the various macros that have been declared. These bindings are of the form $(t_1, t_2, [t_3]t_4) \Rightarrow t_5$. In this binding, the tuple provides information about the three standardized parameters. Note that we write $[t_3]t_4$ to describe the bindee/body argument. Intuitively, the bindee/body argument is a pair of a bound variable declared to be of type t_3 and an expression of type t_4, which could contain a free occurrence of the bound variable. This notation is inspired by types in FreshML [38].
- Δ the *body parameter environment*. It carries bindings of the form $[x : t_1]t_2$. This environment is needed for type-checking the body of a macro that uses a bindee/body parameter of the form $\lambda x.x_1$, so that we know that we can only use x_1 at type t_2 in a context where x is bound (with type t_1).
- Π the *late parameter environment*. It carries bindings of the form t. This environment is needed for type-checking the body of a macro that uses a late parameter. It is also used to type-check a body argument that references a bindee argument. It includes variables bound by regular binding constructs.
- Γ the *regular environment*. Because we are in a multi-stage setting, it carries bindings of the form t^m.

The domains of all the environments are required to be disjoint.

The rules of the MacroML type system are presented in Figure 3. The first three rules deal with variable lookup. The first rule is the variable (projection) rule from MetaML. The next rule is similar, although it reflects the fact that late macro parameters can only be used at level one. The third rule is also similar but it checks that the body variable is used in a context where its bindee variable has already been *bound*.

The next three rules are standard for a multi-level language. All the usual rules of SML would be lifted in the same manner (although some care is required with effects. See Section 7.)

The next four rules are specific to macros. The first rule is for a macro definition. Because we allow macro definitions to be recursive, the body of the macro declaration is checked under the assumption that the macro being defined is already declared. We also add the appropriate assumptions about the bindee/body parameters, the late parameter, and the early parameter to the appropriate environments. The rest of the rule is standard. Macro application is also analogous to application, although one should note that e_1 and e_2 are checked at different levels. The rules for brackets and escape are special cases of the same rules in MetaML.

4.2 The Semantics of Core MacroML

In this section, we present the definition of the semantics of Core MacroML via an interpretation into MetaML. For any well-typed Core MacroML program $\vdash^1 e : t$ the interpretation $[\![\vdash^1 e : t]\!]$ is a MetaML term. To get the final result of running the MacroML program, we simply evaluate the MetaML term $\mathsf{run}\ \langle [\![\vdash^1 e : t]\!] \rangle$. To get a more fine-grained view of the evaluation of $[\![\vdash^1 e : t]\!]$, we can view it as proceeding into two distinct steps:

- Macro expansion: the MacroML program e expands to a MetaML program e'_1 if:

$$\langle [\![\vdash^1 e : t]\!] \rangle \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} e'_1.$$

- Regular execution: The expansion e'_1 of e then evaluates to the answer e'_2 if:

$$\mathsf{run}\ e'_1 \overset{0}{\hookrightarrow} e'_2.$$

Note that the only new part in the above semantics is the translation from MacroML to MetaML. The two stages of MacroML evaluation are then just standard MetaML rebuilding and evaluation, respectively. Whenever the original term does not have any code types in its MacroML type, the latter step should coincide with standard ML evaluation.

Figure 4 presents the translation, first defined on environments, and then defined on judgments. Although the translation can be made to map untyped terms to untyped terms, it is context-sensitive, and it is therefore easier to define it on judgments of well-typed Core MacroML programs. To avoid the risk of potentially confusing notation, the translation maps judgments to terms (rather than judgments to judgments), as the full MetaML judgments are easy to reconstruct.

Empty environments are mapped to empty environments. The binding for a macro is translated into a MetaML type that, in essence, reflects the semantics of the special notation we have used:

$$t_1 \to \langle t_2 \rangle \to (\langle t_3 \rangle \to \langle t_4 \rangle) \to \langle t_5 \rangle$$

corresponds to a function that takes three (curried) parameters. The first parameter is a "true" value of type t_1 corresponding to the early parameter. The second parameter, however, is a delayed (or code) value of type t_2 corresponding to the late parameter. The third parameter (the bindee/body parameter) is in fact translated to a function from code to code. It is at this point that we can start to explain how the interpretation of the bindee/body parameters works. Recall that in the examples section we promised to explain how variables are passed around. The answer is, in fact, that variables are never passed around! During macro-expansion time, the bindee/body parameter is passed in what can be considered its Higher-order Abstract Syntax (HOAS) representation. The type of a bindee/body parameter is also translated to a function type. Naturally, this is consistent with the external type of this parameter. The type of a late parameter is simply a delayed (or code) version of the MacroML type of that parameter. No translation is shown for regular environments, as the translation is simply the identity embedding.

The translation on judgments proceeds as follows. Terms that do not involve macros are translated homomorphically. Late parameters are translated by putting an escape around

Environments

$$\begin{array}{rcl} [\![\emptyset]\!] & = & \emptyset \\ [\![\Sigma, f : (t_1, t_2, [t_3]t_4) \Rightarrow t_5]\!] & = & [\![\Sigma]\!], f : (t_1 \to \langle t_2 \rangle \to (\langle t_3 \rangle \to \langle t_4 \rangle) \to \langle t_5 \rangle)^0 \\ [\![\Delta, x_2 : [x_1 : t_1]t_2]\!] & = & [\![\Delta]\!], x_2 : (\langle t_1 \rangle \to \langle t_2 \rangle)^0 \\ [\![\Pi, x : t]\!] & = & [\![\Pi]\!], x : \langle t \rangle^0 \end{array}$$

Lambda Terms

$$\frac{x : t^m \in \Gamma}{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m x : t]\!] = x} \qquad \frac{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma, x : t_1^m \vdash^m e : t_2]\!] = e'}{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m \lambda x.e : t_1 \to t_2]\!] = \lambda x.e'} \qquad \frac{\begin{array}{c}[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m e_1 : t_2 \to t]\!] = e_1' \\ [\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m e_2 : t_2]\!] = e_2'\end{array}}{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m e_1 e_2 : t]\!] = e_1' e_2'}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma, f : (t_1 \to t_2 \to t_3 \to t)^m, x_1 : t_1^m, x_2 : t_2^m, x_3 : t_3^m \vdash^m e_1 : t]\!] = e_1' \\ [\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma, f : (t_1 \to t_2 \to t_3 \to t)^m \vdash^m e_2 : t_4]\!] = e_2'\end{array}}{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^m \mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_1\ x_2\ x_3 = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2 : t_4]\!] = \mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_1\ x_2\ x_3 = e_1'\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2'}$$

Macros

$$\frac{x : t \in \Pi}{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 x : t]\!] = \tilde{}x} \qquad \frac{x_2 : [x_1 : t_1]t_2 \in \Delta \text{ and } x_1 : t_1^1 \in \Gamma}{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 x_2 : t_2]\!] = \tilde{}(x_2\ \langle x_1 \rangle)}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}[\![\Sigma, f : (t_1, t_2, [t_3]t_4) \Rightarrow t_5; \Delta, x_2 : [x : t_3]t_4; \Pi, x_1 : t_2; \Gamma, x_0 : t_1^0 \vdash^1 e_1 : t_5]\!] = e_1' \\ [\![\Sigma, f : (t_1, t_2, [t_3]t_4) \Rightarrow t_5; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 e_2 : t]\!] = e_2'\end{array}}{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 \mathsf{letmac}\ f(\tilde{}x_0, x_1, \lambda x.x_2)\ = e_1\ \mathsf{in}\ e_2 : t]\!] = \tilde{}(\mathsf{letrec}\ f\ x_0\ x_1\ x_2 = \langle e_1' \rangle\ \mathsf{in}\ \langle e_2' \rangle)}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^0 e_1 : t_1]\!] = e_1' \\ [\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 e_2 : t_2]\!] = e_2' \\ [\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi, x : t_3; \Gamma \vdash^1 e_3 : t_4]\!] = e_3'\end{array}}{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 f(e_1, e_2, \lambda x.e_3) : t_5]\!] = \tilde{}(f\ e_1'\ \langle e_2' \rangle\ \lambda x.\langle e_3' \rangle)}\ f : (t_1, t_2, [t_3]t_4) \Rightarrow t_5 \in \Sigma$$

Code Objects

$$\frac{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 e : t]\!] = e'}{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^0 \langle e \rangle : \langle t \rangle]\!] = \langle e' \rangle} \qquad \frac{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^0 e : \langle t \rangle]\!] = e'}{[\![\Sigma; \Delta; \Pi; \Gamma \vdash^1 \tilde{}e : t]\!] = \tilde{}e'}$$

Figure 4: Translating MacroML to MetaML

them. The intuition here is that late parameters only occur inside the definition of a macro, and when they occur, they are supposed to be spliced into the context where they are used in order to appear in the output of macro expansion as expected.

The key rule in the translations is the one for the body parameters: when a body parameter x_2 is used in the body of a macro definition, its translation corresponds to an *application* of x_2 to a piece of code carrying the corresponding bindee parameter x_1. All of this is escaped so that the application is performed at macro expansion time. To understand what is going on here, keep in mind the translation of the environment Δ, and note that it introduces an arrow type out of nowhere during the translation. Thus, in the target of the interpretation, x_2 has an arrow type. This is because, as we said earlier, the translation produces code that is passing around a HOAS representation of the bindee/body pair.

Macro declarations are translated to escaped function declarations, *i.e.*, function declarations that are to be executed during expansion. Note however that the body of the function being defined and the context where it is used are both in brackets. This is because we want to treat both as code, except in places where the translation has added other escapes.

A macro application is translated into an escaped application. The first (early) argument to the application is not bracketed, but the second (late) argument is. As hinted earlier by the translation of the types, the bindee/body argument is translated into a function whose body is itself a piece of code. Intuitively, making the body a piece of code delays its evaluation. It is worth noting that the HOAS entities only exist during the first stage (macro expansion), and not during the execution of the program proper. The translation of brackets and escape is straightforward.

4.3 Examples

We illustrate the effect of the translation on three simple examples. The translation produces a few adminstrative bracket-escape redices that can be easily eliminated, and so we omit those for clarity.

The simplest macros use just late arguments, as in:

```
let mac $ e = fn x => e
in fn x => $ (tl x) end.
```

In this case, a macro is translated into a function that takes a piece of code and return a piece of code. The application of the macro is translated into an "escaped" (*i.e.*,level 0) function application to a piece of code. The translation of the above term results in the following code fragment:

```
~(letrec $ e = <fn x => ~e>
```

```
  in <fn x => ~($ <tl x>)>) end.
```

When this expression is evaluated, it results in a piece of code that is spliced into the context, which is ultimately the program that results from macro expansion.

Recursive macros usually require early arguments to control the amount of inlining, as in:

```
let mac pow ~n x =
  ~(if n=0 then <1> else <x * (pow ~(n-1) x)>)
in pow ~(2*3) (5+6) end.
```

This macro is translated to the MetaML term:

```
~(letrec pow n x =
  (if n=0 then <1> else <~x * ~(pow (n-1) x)>)
  in (pow (2*3) <5+6>)) end.
```

Note that the early argument is not passed as a piece of code: its *value* is needed during expansion.

Finally we look at macros that bind parameters, as in:

```
let mac (let seq x = e1 in e2 end)
    = $ (let val y = ?e1 in ?e2 end)
in (let seq y = (f $7) in g ~y) end
```

which corresponds to passing both a late argument and a bindee/body argument and can be translated to:

```
~(letrec seq e1 e2 = <$((fn x => ?~(e2 <x>)) ?~e1)>
  in <~(seq <f $7> (fn y => <g y>))>) end.
```

We have not expanded the macros `$e` and `?e` to avoid clutter. The translation shows that the term `<g ~y>` in the macro call is parameterized over the variable `y`. In the output of the macro the term is instantiated to use the variable `x`. Hence the binding for `x` introduced by the macro captures the variable `x` occurring in the output of the macro.

4.4 Type Safety

As mentioned in the introduction, defining the semantics of Core MacroML by interpretation into MetaML makes proving type safety fairly direct. In what follows, we state and outline the proof of this result.

THEOREM 4.1 (TYPE SAFETY). *If* $[];[];[];[] \vdash^m e : t$ *is a valid MacroML judgment, then translating it to MetaML yields a well-typed MetaML program, and executing that program does not generate any MetaML runtime errors.*

PROOF. The first part is by Lemma 4.2, and the second part follows from the type safety property of the MetaML type system presented in previous work [46, 29]. □

In the statement of the theorem, MetaML runtime errors include both errors that might occur at macro expansion and runtime errors (defined precisely in [46, 29, 44]). The necessary auxiliary lemma states that our translation preserves typing.

LEMMA 4.2 (TYPE PRESERVATION). *If* $\Sigma;\Delta;\Pi;\Gamma \vdash^m e : t$ *is a valid MacroML judgment, then* $[\![\Sigma]\!],[\![\Delta]\!],[\![\Pi]\!],\Gamma \vdash^m [\![\Sigma;\Delta;\Pi;\Gamma \vdash^m e : t]\!] : t$ *is a valid MetaML judgment.*

PROOF. Routine induction on the height of the derivation of $\Sigma;\Delta;\Pi;\Gamma \vdash^m e : t$. □

5. PRACTICAL EXTENSIONS OF CORE

Core MacroML handles simple functional inlining, recursive inlining, and the definition of simple binding constructs. By design, Core MacroML is a minimal language whose purpose is to demonstrate how the main semantic subtleties of a typed macro system can be addressed. We have implemented Core MacroML using a toy implementation of MetaML. We have used the implementation to run a benchmark of simple programs in Core MacroML, and the results have consistently been as expected. In this section, we describe extensions of Core MacroML with additional features that would be desirable in a practical implementation. We expect that all these extensions are not hard to implement.

Let Bindings: In the introduction, we have presented examples of `let`-expression macros with only one binding. However, the same macro definition can be used to expand `let`-expressions with multiple bindings. For this purpose, we propose the use of a comprehension-like notation to allow the user to express such macros. For example, the expression:

```
let mac (let seq x{i} = e1{i} in e2 end) =
       $(let val x{i} = (print (Int.toString i);
                         ?e1{i})
         in ?e2 end)
in let seq y = f $7
       seq z = h y
   in g z end
end
```

would expand to:

```
$(let val x1 = (print (Int.toString 1); ?(f $7))
      val x2 = (print (Int.toString 2); ?(h x1))
  in ?(g x2) end)
```

where it becomes apparent that `i` is an implicit comprehension parameter that gets bound to the index of the binding under consideration, and that `x{i}` and `e{i}`, are the parameters for this $\texttt{i}^{\text{th}}$-binding.

Note that the number of declarations (the range of `i`) will be known at translation time, as it is manifest from the application of the macro. However, because vanilla MetaML does not have support for constructing declarations of arbitrary length, the most direct approach to interpret this proposal would be to produce one MetaML function for each macro application. This trick is similar to polyvariant specialization in partial evaluation [20]. The obvious disadvantage of this approach is that it inflates the size of the generated MetaML program. We would like to explore extensions to MetaML that would allow us to interpret this new construct in a more natural fashion.

Recursive Bindings: A simple but still important issue is how recursive binding constructs should be treated. In particular, when a macro is defining a new binding construct in terms of an existing recursive binding construct, this information should be maintained in the type of the macro. Consider the following declaration:

```
mac (let fin x{i} _ = e1{i} in e2 end)
  = (let fun x{i} _ = e1{i} in e2 end).
```

This declaration may appear ambiguous because we can *either* expand the `fin` comprehension into a sequence of `fun` declarations or a sequence of mutually-recursive ("`and`ed")

`fun` declarations. However, this can be completely determined by how the `fin` construct is used: if it is used as a disjoint sequence, then that is what should be produced. If it is used as an `and`ed sequences, then the result should be like-wise. In the latter case, however, we need to check that the parameters to the `and`ed sequences of `fin`s should not have duplicate variables names. All these checks can be done statically.

Dist-fix Operators: Finally, we come to an extension that is rather orthogonal to the rest of our proposal. However, in practical macro systems, it is a valuable addition. In particular, it is relatively easy to add dist-fix operators to our language. The key idea is that each macro definition should still be determined by the first symbol used in its name. With such an extension, it is possible to define some other basic constructs in a language:

```
mac {if, then, else} if c then t else f =
    case c of
       true  => t
     | false => f.
```

The syntax simply extends what we have seen before by a declaration of keywords that can be used in conjunction with the macro `if`. Then, the rest of the argument list dictates the "dist-fix arity" of this macro. The only complication with the introduction of such macros is that they make parsing context sensitive. However, this is already the case in SML because of infix operators.

6. RELATED WORK

Our approach for deriving the type system for MacroML was to first develop the translation in an essentially untyped setting, and then to develop a type system that characterizes when the result of the translation is a well-typed MetaML program. The earliest instance of such a translation appears in a work by Wand [50]. Because we start with the untyped setting, we expect that similar derivations are possible for richer MetaML type systems (including features such as polymorphism and effects, for example).

"Syntactic abstraction" in Chez Scheme [9] promotes the idea that macros should operate on an abstract datatype of code (called a `syntax-object`) rather than strings or parse trees. Our brackets are similar to `syntax-object`s but are more abstract in that they do not allow the analysis (taking apart) of code. To deal with macros that bind variables, Chez Scheme includes runtime predicates that check whether an identifier would be captured in the output of the macro. Our proposal relies instead on distinguishing binding and usage occurrence of variables once and for all in the source language, thereby avoiding the need to inspect variables at runtime. It remains an interesting question whether or not a safe and expressive type system can be found for the full macro system of Chez Scheme.

The earliest use of a binary type constructor to indicate the type of a "piece of code with a free variable in it" such as our $[t_1]t_2$ seems to have been in Miller's proposal for "an extension of ML to handle bound variables in data structures" [24]. Miller's proposal is more ambitious than ours in that it tries to deal with data types that have some binding structure, but it neither addresses the issue of defining new binding constructs in a user-level language nor gives a formal semantics for the proposed constructs. Indeed, work by Pašalić, Sheard and Taha suggests that Miller's proposal may need to be reformed before it can have a simple semantics [36]. More recently, FreshML [38] has also used a similar binary type constructor based on a denotational model. The Twelf system uses a mixture of dependent types that seems to be, at least intuitively, similar to our $[x : t_1]t_2$ construction. To our knowledge, our work seems to be the first to investigate the application of such type systems directly to the domain of macro systems, and to expose the connections with multi-stage languages and higher-order syntax.

Griffin [17] shows how mathematical "notational definitions" can be interpreted *à la* Church into NuPRL, which is a theorem-proving environment based on a strongly normalizing lambda calculus. He formalizes the notion of a notational definition as what he calls Δ-equations, and gives a very clear and complete formal account of how definitions of new binding constructs can be interpreted in a (normalizing) lambda calculus. Our work shows that multi-stage languages allow us to achieve a similar result in a typed lambda calculus that is not necessarily strongly normalizing. Thus, we are able to handle, for example, a kind of "recursive" notational definition. Griffin's work also gives a clear formulation of the set of terms that can be treated as "binding patterns" (in the arguments of macros, for example), and giving us a clear interpretation of such patterns into plain lambda calculus expressions. In our present work we opted for conceptual clarity rather than generality, and used only one binding pattern ($\lambda x.y$) in our formal development.

Cardelli, Matthes, and Abadi [5] give one of the most expressive systems for syntactically-extensible programming languages. Their system allows the modification, extension, and restriction of an existing grammar, all within a framework that respects binding structure. Not only that, but their system also pays careful attention to the issue of parsing (concrete syntax) of the new constructs. Typing is not addressed explicitly, but because parsing is decidable, typing the extended language seems automatic.

Part of the inspiration for the present paper is Monnier and Shao's work on inlining as staged computation [30], where they present a thorough investigation of the utility of two-level intermediate languages for an inlining compiler. This is the first work known to us that applies ideas from multi-level languages to intermediate languages for compilers. One difference between this work and ours is that we are interested in design and semantics issues for user-level programming languages, rather than an implementation technology. Thus, the issue of defining new binding constructs does not arise in their setting. Nevertheless, the approach presented here would also apply to their two-level languages. Their work also address modules and separate compilation in addition to the issue of code duplication, which we have not considered. It will be very interesting in the future to explore the possibility of combining the two works in a uniform framework.

The idea of inheriting the binding structure from existing constructs to keep the declarations of new constructs concise appears to be novel.

Not all type systems for MetaML require that the type of the generated code be known at compilation-time. More permissive type systems where typing the generated code can be postponed until runtime have also been studied [43]. Care should be taken when using this approach, however, as it can sometimes have an effect on the equational theory [47].

A close relative of multi-stage computation is the work on computing with contexts [18, 41, 23]. This is a connection which we intend to investigate in more detail in future work.

7. CONCLUSION

We have presented a proposal for a typed macro system, and have shown how it can be given a rigorous yet readable semantics via an interpretation into the multi-stage programming language MetaML. The interpretation is essentially a denotational semantics where MetaML is the internal language of the model. Such models have already been studied elsewhere [3]. But because MetaML enjoys a simple and intuitive operational semantics, our proposal is easy to implement in a directly usable form.

The macro language that we have presented, MacroML, has useful and novel features, combining both static typing and allowing the user to define new binding constructs. In trying to achieve this, we have used ideas from both HOAS [37] (to implement our proposal in a multi-stage setting) and FreshML (to provide the surface syntax and ideas in the source language) [38]. It may well be that our language provides some new insights on the link between the two approaches to treating binding constructs.

We have argued that macros are useful. But the moral of the paper is of a more technical nature: *multi-stage programming languages are a good foundation for the semantics-based design of macro systems*. We have shown how a formal multi-stage interpretation of macro systems provides an elegant way of avoiding binding issues and defining new binding constructs, and provides a sound basis for developing type systems for macro languages.

In this paper, we have not considered type safety in the presence of imperative features (references, exceptions) during expansion time. In this setting, we expect the work on imperative multi-stage languages to be of direct relevance [49, 4]. We have also not considered a multi-level macro system primarily for the reason of simplicity. We would like to consider such an extension in future work. But there are restrictions on out system that may be a bit more challenging to alleviate. For example, we have not considered higher-order macros (macros that take other macros as parameters) and we have not considered macros that generate other macros. For such expressiveness, however, we expect that it may be simpler and more appropriate to move directly to a full-fledged multi-stage programming language. Part of the appeal of macro systems, we believe, goes away when we attempt to push them to the higher-order and reflective setting. On the other hand, given that we have defined macros in terms of a multi-stage language, it should be possible to merge macros and MetaML into the same language without any surprising interactions.

To conclude, while this paper addresses key semantic concerns in developing an expressive, type-safe macro system, this is only a start. We have only built a simple prototype during this work. The prototype involved a direct implementation of MetaML semantics and a direct implementation of the translation. We hope to integrate this work with ongoing work on extensions of SML, Ocaml, and Haskell.

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