1. An Introduction to Wyvern

```
Here is a "Hello, World!" program in Wyvern:
require stdout
stdout.print("Hello, World!")
```

This program already illustrates several basic aspects of Wyvern. First, Wyvern is object-oriented: stdout is an object, and we are invoking the print method on it. For expressions, much of Wyvern's syntax is similar to Java's.

A second notable feature of Wyvern illustrateed by this program is that the stdout object is not ambiently available to programs, nor can it be imported in the sense of a Java import statement. Because stdout does I/O, it is a resource. A primary goal of Wyvern's module system is helping developers to reason about the use of resources. Thus even a simple script such as Hello World must declare the resources it requires in order to execute. This allows engineers to determine at a glance what kind of I/O a program might do, and provides a basis for making a decision about whether to run this program in a particular situation. In this case, even without looking at the actual code, we know that this program may write to the standard output stream, but will not access the file system or access the network.

2. Objects and Modules in Wyvern

Let us further illustrate objects and modules in Wyvern through a simple logging module:

```
resource module logging
import wyvern.collections.list
require files

resource type Log
    def log(x:String):Unit

def makeLog(path:String):Log
    val logFile = files.openForAppend(path)
    val messageList = list.make()
    new
        def log(x:String):Unit
        messageList.append(x)
        logFile.print(x)
```

A module starts with the module keyword and a name that denotes the module. The logging module needs access to the file system in order to write to log files, so it declares that it requires the files resource. Because this module requires a resource, it becomes a resource itself, in that other modules can use it to

access the file system via log-related operations. Thus we must declare it to be a resource module.

In our example, the log stores logged messages in an internal list, perhaps so it can be accessed programmatically (through an interface not shown here). Thus we need to import a list abstraction. We could require the list module, but this is unnecessary: the list module does not provide any access to I/O, and it does not have any internal state (List objects created by the list module are stateful in our example, but that is not relevant for module imports). It is thus not a resource module, and can therefore be used by any module in the program with a simple import statement similar to Java's.

The import statement uses a fully-qualified name similar to package names in Java (in the future, this fully-qualified name will be given at the head of the module definition, rather than just a simple name, but this is not fully specified or implemented yet). A protocol similar to Java's is used to find a file defining that module: specifically, we check the library directory and the current directory for subdirectories named by the qualifier and search recursively down until we find the file list.wyv. In this example, the library directory is tools/src/wyvern/lib and so the import statement binds to the file wyvern/collections/list.wyv within this directory tree.

Next, we declare a type for Log objects. The interface is pretty simple: a single method log taking a String argument is defined using the def keyword. The return type of Unit—equivalent to void in Java—is specified at the end of the method declaration. Note that the members of the Log type are described in indented lines, rather than (for example) within curly braces. We mark the type as being a resource type, again because a Log object encapsulates the ability to write to a particular log file.

Finally, we define a makeLog method in order to create a Log object. The implementation of the function is given in indented lines. The first line declares a local variable, logFile, which is the file we will be logging to. Likewise, we declare a variable for the list where we will store the log messages. The last line that is indented at the function implementation level is returned by the function—in this case a new expression that actually creates the Log object. The type of object to be created is inferred based on the return type of the method. We implement the object's methods in indented lines following the new expression.

Now we can write a program that uses the logging module:

```
require files
import examples.logging
import examples.logApplication

val logger = logging(files)
val client = logApplication(logger)

client.run()
Since the logging module defined earlier requires a files in order to op-
```

erate, and since files represents a resource that we can only get from the operating system, our program must also require files. We can then import the code for the logging module (specifying the fully qualified location examples.logging) and then instantiate the code by passing the files module to fulfill its requirement. We bind the resulting instantiated module to logger, which we can use in the rest of the code as if it were an object.

The main program that uses the logger is defined in a module examples.logApplication (not shown). It requires the logger and so we must instantiate logApplication with the logger as an argument, and then bind the result to the name client. We can then execute the application code by invoking client.run().

3. Reasoning about Security in Wyvern

The program code above is notable for the security analysis it facilitates based on the principle of least privilege. The overall program requires the files resource, but the only use of this resource is to instantiate the logging module. Wyvern is a capability-safe language, so the logApplication module cannot ambiently import the files without getting permission from the main module. Furthermore, Wyvern does not provide unconstrained global state which could, in a language like Java, be used to share the files between modules in a hard-to-analyze way. We can conclude that logApplication does not directly use the files simply by observing that it is not passed to logApplication upon instantiation, and further observing that it is not exposed in the interface of the logging module.

Of course, logApplication can write to a log file by using the logging module, and this is a use of the file system. But by our knowledge of the logging module, or by a brief inspection of its code, we can see that it provides only a restricted mode of use of the file system: reading files is not permitted, and writing files is only possible in append mode. A refinement of the logging module could impose additional restrictions, such as restricting log writes to particular directories.

Thus the combination of the capability-safe nature of the Wyvern language, the require construct, and the careful structuring of the source program, we get a strong guarantee about the behavior of logApplication: the only I/O effect it has is logging, which is a refinement of file system access, which is a refinement of general I/O. Furthermore, we paid a relatively low cost to facilitate this reasoning. In the logging module (and in logApplication, if we were to examine it) the code is no more verbose than you would expect of code in another typed language such as Java: basically we just have to use the require keyword in place of import and we have to mark types and modules with the resource keyword as appropriate. The overhead in the main module is a substantially higher, as we have to instantiate modules explicitly and thread resources through them.

Note: The logging example above does not run yet. In particular, we have not yet implemented the files module.

4. Module Bodies

Module bodies are made up of four kinds of core declarations: val, var, def, and type, as well as expressions. The val and var declarations and the expressions in a module body are evaluated in sequence, and the variables defined earlier in the sequence are in scope in later declarations and expressions. In contrast, def and type declarations do not evaluate, and therefore these declaration forms can be safely used to define mutually recursive functions and types. Each sequence of declarations that consists exclusively of def and type is therefore treated as a mutually recursive block, so that the definition or type defined in each of the declarations is in scope in all the other declarations.

To understand why we allow recursive def and type declarations but do not allow this for val and var declarations, consider the following example:

```
def foo() = baz()
val bar = foo()
def baz() = bar
```

When we try to initialize the bar value, we call foo(), which in turn invokes baz(). However, baz() reads the bar variable, which is what we are defining, so there is no well-defined result. Languages such as Java handle this by initializing bar to null at first and then writing a permanent value to it after the initializer executes. However, in order to avoid null pointer errors, Wyvern does not allow null as a value. Languages such as Haskell would use a special "black hole" value and signal a run-time error in cases such as the above. We avoid this semantics as it adds complexity and means the program can fail at run time. Of course, infinite loops can still exist in Wyvern, but they come from recursive functions, never recursively defined values.

5. Anonymous Functions

Anonymous functions can be defined in Wyvern using the syntax:

```
(x:Int) => x + 1
```

This is a shorthand for creating an object with an apply method that has the same arguments and body:

```
new
    def apply(x:Int):Int = x + 1
which is an instance of the following type:
type IntToIntFn
    def apply(x:Int):Int
Anonymous functions can also have multiple parameters:
(x:Int,y:Int) => x + y
or no parameters:
```

() => 7

We expect to define a convenient shorthand for function types in the near future.

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