Editing Knowledge in Large Mathematical Corpora.
A case study with Semantic \LaTeX{} (\LaTeX{}).

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Declaration

The research subsumed in this thesis has been conducted under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Michael Kohlhase from Jacobs University Bremen. All material presented in this Master Thesis is my own, unless specifically stated.

I, Constantin Jucovschi, hereby declare, that, to the best of my knowledge, the research presented in this Master Thesis contains original and independent results, and it has not been submitted elsewhere for the conferral of a degree.

Constantin Jucovschi,
Bremen, August 23rd, 2010
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Abstract

Before we can get the whole potential of employing computers in the process of managing mathematical ‘knowledge’, we have to convert informal knowledge into machine-oriented representations. How exactly to support this process so that it becomes as effortless as possible is one of the main unsolved problems of Mathematical Knowledge Management.

Two independent projects in formalization of mathematical content showed that many of the time consuming tasks could be significantly reduced if adequate tool support were available. It was also established that similar tasks are typical for object oriented languages and that they are to a large extent solved by Integrated Development Environments (IDE).

This thesis starts by analyzing the opportunities where formalization process can benefit from software support. A list of research questions is compiled along with a set of software requirements which are then used for developing a new IDE for the semantic TeX (sTeX) format. The result of the current research is that, indeed, IDEs can be very useful in the process of formalization and presents a set of best practices for implementing such IDEs.
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Introduction

I used to come up to my study, and start trying to find patterns. I tried doing calculations which explain some little piece of mathematics. I tried to fit it in with some previous broad conceptual understanding of some part of mathematics that would clarify the particular problem I was thinking about. Sometimes that would involve going and looking it up in a book to see how it’s done there. Sometimes it was a question of modifying things a bit, doing a little extra calculation. And sometimes I realized that nothing that had ever been done before was any use at all. Then I just had to find something completely new; it’s a mystery where that comes from.

Solving Fermat,
Sir Andrew John Wiles [wil10]

One of the distinctive features of Mathematics is its intrinsic dependence on existing knowledge [Soj10, Bou10]. As part of everyday scientific life, mathematicians use books, journals, the internet etc., to look up formulas, methods and tools and use them to discover new patterns, formulate conjectures and establish truths. Reporting results back to the community by writing papers, participating in conferences or even blogging are ways to get community feedback as well as recognition. Hence consulting and contributing to sources of mathematical knowledge is a vital part of a mathematician’s research life.

The most recent estimate for the volume of mathematical knowledge produced each year is about 3 million pages [Bou10]. Obviously there is no chance for a person to even read (not to mention digest), such volumes of information. Of course not all 3 million pages are relevant for a particular researcher, thus mathematicians select only certain conferences or journals which they follow closely. A serious drawback of such an approach is that mathematical results discovered in
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some branch of mathematics stay unknown in other communities solving similar problems. There is no simple way of solving this problem because in many cases, even a mathematician familiar with both topics might not see how problems are related, as the conceptual mapping involved may be not-trivial. Yet, I conjecture that there is a lot of potential to be uncovered by getting better computer support in structuring mathematical knowledge and searching it for relevant documents.

Given the importance of mathematical knowledge for the whole scientific community, it is not a coincidence that there is an emerging research field known as Mathematical Knowledge Management (MKM) which defines its objective “to develop new and better ways of managing mathematical knowledge using sophisticated software tools”. As the topic of this thesis fits well in this objective and often refers to the results achieved in the MKM community, I will dedicate the section 1.1 to introduce the main research directions and identify which of them are important to current research. In section 1.2 one of the main long term objectives of MKM is presented, namely the creation of a Universal Digital Mathematical Library (UDML). In sections 1.3 and 1.4 I will present what paradigms are used today to work with mathematics and identify some weak points which could hinder the successful implementation of UDML. I will finish this chapter (section 1.5) with presenting changes to current ways of thinking about mathematical structures and formality which alleviate the weak points identified in section 1.4.

1.1 Mathematical Knowledge Management

In this section I would like to specify the scope of the MKM research field by giving an overview of the challenges it is trying to address. As the set of challenges is quite big, only the questions relevant to current research will be mentioned. In the next section (1.2) I will also introduce the “Grand Challenge” of MKM which is a project integrating all the aspects of MKM.

There are 4 levels at which the subject of Mathematical Knowledge Management can be addressed:

**document level** — addresses low level document issues like format, level of formality, context and representation. Questions relevant for current research are:

D1 What software support is needed to convert informal mathematical documents to formal?

D2 When do benefits of formalizing mathematical knowledge outweigh the costs?

D3 How should be context of mathematical knowledge expressed?

**organization level** — concentrates on knowledge reuse, inter-document linking, dealing with theoretically infinite size of mathematical knowledge. On this
level I am interested in the questions:

**O1** how should formal as well as informal documents be linked to avoid redundancy?

**O2** what tools are needed to deal efficiently with highly interconnected structures?

**dissemination level** — deals with administrative questions like certification of knowledge, effective dissemination of mathematical knowledge, ownership of data. These questions are irrelevant for the scope of current thesis.

**end-user tools level** — establishes end-user requirement for tools and services to efficiently work with MKM corpora. Relevant questions for this category are:

**E1** possibility of math oriented semantic searches?

### 1.2 Universal Digital Mathematics Library

Building a Universal Digital Mathematics Library (UDML) is the “Grand Challenge” of the Mathematical Knowledge Management (MKM) community according to Farmer [Far05]. Note that the UDML is a library rather than an archive of mathematical knowledge. The difference is that UDML is expected to provide a much larger range of interaction and would be continuously reorganized as new discoveries and connections are made. Here is a summary of requirements as seen by Farmer for constructing UDML

**creation** — UDML should be constructed in an open collaborative way and be accessible through the internet.

**structure** — mathematical knowledge would be very structured and would contain highly interconnected mixture of axiomatic, algorithmic, diagrammatic and other types of mathematical knowledge.

**maintenance** — our understanding of mathematics changes as new concepts and generalizations are introduced. It is important to be able to change and adapt knowledge structure to accommodate the state of the art in mathematics.

**correctness** — mathematical content would carry a certification of correctness.

**tools** — UDML would provide a set of tools for exploring, editing and searching mathematical content.

### 1.3 Structure of Mathematics

In many ways, mathematics can be seen as a complex network of interconnected and mutually supporting knowledge items. This statement is confirmed by several
major independent efforts to structure mathematical knowledge into reusable components. I will emphasize the difference between approaches by comparing how the definition of a simple mathematical object, such as the concept of a monoid, is presented. First, let us consider a typical definition of monoids.

A monoid is a tuple \((M, \ast)\) where \(M\) is a set and \(\ast\) is a binary operator; such that

1. closure: \(\forall a, b \in M \Rightarrow a \ast b \in M\)
2. associativity: \((a \ast b) \ast c = a \ast (b \ast c)\)
3. identity element: \(\exists e \in M, a \ast e = e \ast a = a\)

Figure 1.1: Typical definition of monoids

One of the most influential attempts of restructuring mathematics in reusable components is the series of books “Elements of Mathematics”, written by a group of French mathematicians working under the pseudonym NICOLAS BOURBAKI \[Bou68\]. The motivation of the group was to break down existing mathematical knowledge to its core elements. So just like in chemistry, where molecules can be identified by structures connecting basic chemical elements, BOURBAKI tried to describe known mathematical objects in terms of a minimal set of elementary mathematical elements i.e. axioms. The project ran for more than 50 years, time in which 9 highly rigorous books covering core areas of modern mathematics were written. Consider the definition of monoids as given by BOURBAKI \[Bou74\]

Definition 2. A magma with an identity element is called a unital magma [...] An associative unital magma is called a monoid.

Compared to the definition in figure 1.1, the definition above is very compact because it reuses the structure of a magma and only tells how to extend it get a monoid object.

Even though it is widely agreed that the efforts of the BOURBAKI group are still valuable, they are only intended for the human user. The reason for it is the implicit structure of objects which becomes clear only after careful reading of the text. With the advance of information technologies, new demand for working and structuring mathematics appeared (e.g. from automatic theorem provers) and gave rise to new efforts like Mizar \[Miz06\], DLMF \[Loz03\] etc. These, however, also concentrated on making the structure computer understandable and introduced notions like little theories \[FGT92\], development graphs \[MAH06\] and culminating in modular and web-scalable representations of mathematical knowledge.
The current state of the art in representing formal mathematical knowledge is based on the concept of mathematical theories and theory graphs. To the best knowledge of the author, the MMT approach \cite{Rab09} of representing mathematical theories and relationship between them presents the latest development in this field. Hence when speaking about mathematical theories, theory morphisms and theory graphs, I mean the concepts with the same names from the MMT approach.

As the name already suggests, theory graphs are directed graphs where nodes represent theories, edges — theory morphisms (see figure 1.2). A mathematical theory consists of a

- **collection of symbol declarations** — names for mathematical objects that are particular for that theory. In the case of monoids, we have 3 symbols \((M, e, \ast)\) corresponding to the ones in definition \ref{def:monoid}.  
- **axioms** — logical formulas which state laws governing the objects described by the theory. Monoids theory only needs the identity element and associativity axioms.

A theory morphism from theory \(A\) to \(B\), identifies symbols from theory \(A\) with symbols in the destination theory \(B\). Using this mapping, one can “transport” axioms as well as theorems from one theory to another (see \cite{Rab09} for detailed description). For example, the morphism between the Magma theory and Monoid theory in figure 1.2 makes sure that the closure axiom is part of the Monoid theory without being explicitly added to the list of axioms. The advantage of representing mathematical knowledge by using theory graphs is the explicit structure which potentially brings a lot of computer support for creating, managing and visualizing mathematical knowledge.

Comparing the representation of the monoid object as given by BOURBAKI with that of theory graphs, we see that they have a lot in common. Namely, they both reuse the structure of the magma object and add the associativity and identity element axioms. The reuse mechanism employed by both approaches very much resembles the inheritance paradigm from object oriented programming. This similarity motivated our approach of using IDEs for the authoring process of mathematical documents.
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1.4 **Dimensions of Formality**

In mathematics, a document is considered formal if it supports syntax-driven reasoning processes e.g. by using it into an automatic theorem prover. In the section 1.3, I presented three examples on how the concept of a monoid can be defined. All three examples are formal because one can easily derive an equivalent set of axioms and derivation rules which lead to syntax-driven reasoning. However, when comparing the definitions from BOURBAKI and those described by MMT theory graphs, one has the feeling that MMT theory graphs are somewhat more formal. Indeed they are, however not in the mathematical sense of formality defined above. Theory graphs are more formal from the content organization point of view i.e. one can do syntax-driven reasoning about the structure of the content e.g. reason about reuse, symbol visibility etc. – things one cannot do with BOURBAKI theories. Hence MMT theory graphs are formal in both mathematical sense as well as content structure sense. This realization gives us an idea that there are different dimensions of formality.

One might be tempted to think that the dimensions of formality are orthogonal. While this might hold for particular pairs of formalization, it is usual that formalizing a document in one dimension also formalizes the other dimensions. For example, the BOURBAKI formalization of mathematics induces an implicit content structure – that is why the BOURBAKI definition of a monoid is so similar to the one in MMT (e.g. both extend the magma object). In fact, if Natural Language Processing (NLP) tools were powerful enough, one could automatically translate BOURBAKI formalizations to MMT. Hence the formalizations are “NLP” distance apart, which is not much.

One big advantage of working with formalized documents is the possibility of getting computer support. Obviously, the content should be available in some computer understandable format but this is no longer an issue if the formalization process is supported by software tools from the very beginning. That is why nowadays, developing a MMT based formal corpora is not harder then writing BOURBAKI style formalizations. On the contrary, computer tools proved to be extremely useful in the process of formalization as they could be used to perform type checking to spot inconsistencies and automatically find formal proofs.

Still, the process of mathematical content formalization is difficult, even when supported by modern software products. One of the main reasons for it is the fragility of the “formal” state of a document. Namely, by introducing an informal but natural for mathematicians term like “obviously”, suddenly brings the document to an informal state. Even phrases like “similar to case X”, which specify the approximate structure of the formal object they replace, is usually impossible for the computer to formalize. Humans have the ability of gracefully handling both of the aforementioned phrases. This is due to the much higher
level of understanding of the mathematical objects they work with.

1.5 Flexiformalization

As already mentioned in the previous section 1.4, formalization of mathematical objects is a very demanding task. It seems plausible that by formalizing mathematical content, one simultaneously does an implicit content structure formalization. No wonder that the process of formalization is so unintuitive and cumbersome. This is similar to an attempt of jumping over several stairs (of formality) in one leap. As only a handful of people are even able to do this kind of a jump in formality, I cannot expect large communities of contributors to appear and work towards formalization of mathematics.

Another point I mentioned in section 1.4 is the formal state of a document is very fragile and can be easily broken. This is, however, an artificially built limitation by the classical definition of a formal object. Namely, in the classical sense, one expects that a formalized object can be directly used in a theorem prover – the classical consumer of formalized mathematics. If the aim of formalization is to construct proofs, process which requires 100% formalization of all the objects properties, then one really needs to work with fully formalized objects. But as I already mentioned in sections 1.1 and 1.2, the current most stringent MKM challenges don’t even mention the problem of automatic proof finding. It is not even clear that by having a fully formalized corpus of mathematical knowledge would solve all of the MKM problems.

An idea proposed by Michael Kohlhase [KKL], is to coin a new, more flexible term for the existing notion of formal, namely:

*We will use the word flexiform as an adjective to describe the fact that a representation is of flexible formality, i.e., can contain informal (i.e., appealing to a human reader) and formal (i.e., supporting syntax-driven reasoning processes) components or both.*

From the computer perspective, this definition reads: *you (the computer) will no longer have the luxury of understanding everything. Instead, you’ll have to deal with many things you don’t understand but now and then will find some things you do understand.* Doesn’t that sound similar to the way humans deal with reality?

One of the biggest advantages of flexiformal documents is that instead of the formal/informal dichotomy, one gets a whole spectra of formality. With flexiforms, one can develop formalizations in a progressive fashion e.g. (from [KKL])
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i an informal proof sketch on a blackboard, and
ii a high-level run-through of the essentials of a proof in a colloquium talk, and
iii the author’s notes that contain all the details that are glossed over in
iv a fully rigorous proof published in a journal, which may lead to
v a mechanical verification of the proof in a proof checker.

It is quite clear that formalization, which in our example means transforming $i \rightarrow v$, is much harder to achieve than going from one level of flexiformalization to the next. The gained simplicity increases a lot the number of potential contributors to flexiformalization efforts.
2

Aims of the project

2.1 Scope

Due to the rigid definition of formality (see 1.4), the biggest majority of existing mathematical documents are classified as informal. And yet, the amount research efforts and developed tools for formalized mathematics is much bigger then for informal documents. Hence, as soon as a document is classified as informal, one suddenly gets very limited tool support. In the current thesis, I am interested in working with informal documents and supporting the process of flexiformalization. By that, I hope to reduce the discontinuity of tool support between formal and informal documents.

There are several formats supporting flexible formalization of documents e.g. MathDox [CCB06], MathLang [KWZ08], OMDoc [Koh10]. In the current research, I will concentrate on the \LaTeX-based front-end for OMDoc format called STEX to achieve flexiformalization. This choice was mostly influenced by the abundance of informal \LaTeX documents as well as the practical applications which motivated current research (see 2.2). Still, I believe that most of the results and findings are independent of the flexiformalization format.

The current chapter will progress as follows. In section 2.2 I will present the challenges of previous efforts in flexiformalization of mathematical documents. Then, in section 2.3 I will compile an extensive list aims for the current research by combining the general MKM questions presented in section 1.1 and previous experience presented in 2.2.
2. AIMS OF THE PROJECT

2.2 Motivation

Before we can get the whole potential of employing computers in the process of managing mathematical ‘knowledge’ — i.e. reuse and restructure it, adapt its presentation to new situations, semi-automatically prove conjectures, search it for theorems applicable to a given problem, or conjecture representation theorems, we have to convert informal knowledge into machine-oriented representations. How exactly to support this formalization process so that it becomes as effortless as possible is one of the main unsolved problems of MKM.

Currently most mathematical knowledge is available in the form of \LaTeX-encoded documents. To tap this reservoir Kohlhase developed the STEX \cite{Koh08,sTe09} format, a variant of \LaTeX that is geared towards marking up the semantic structure underlying a mathematical document.

In the last years, STEX has been used in two larger case studies. In the first one, Kohlhase has accumulated a large corpus of teaching materials, comprising more than 2,000 slides, about 800 homework problems, and hundreds of pages of course notes, all written in STEX. The material covers a general first-year introduction to computer science, graduate lectures on logics, and research talks on mathematical knowledge management. The second case study consists of a corpus of semi-formal documents developed in the course of a verification and SIL3-certification of a software module for safety zone computations \cite{KKL10a,KKL10b}. In both cases, it was very useful and important that STEX documents can be transformed into the XML-based OMDoc \cite{Koh06} by the \LaTeXXML system \cite{Mil10}, see \cite{KKL10a,DKL+10} for a discussion on the MKM services afforded by this.

These case studies have confirmed that writing STEX is much less tedious than writing OMDoc directly. Particularly useful was the possibility of using the STEX-generated PDF for proofreading the text part of documents. Nevertheless serious usability problems remain. They come from three sources:

P1 installation of the (relatively heavyweight) transformation system (with dependencies on perl, libXML2, \LaTeX, the STEX packages),

P2 the fact that STEX supports an object-oriented style of writing mathematics, and

P3 the size of the collections which make it difficult to find reusable components.

The documents in the first (educational) corpus were mainly authored directly in STEX via a text editor (emacs + AUCTeX mode). This was serviceable for the author, who had a good recollection of the about 2200 names of semantic macros he had declared, but presented a very steep learning curve for other authors (e.g. teaching assistants) to join. The software engineering case study was a post-mortem formalization of existing (informal) \LaTeX documents. Here, instal-
lation problems and refactoring existing \LaTeX\ markup into more semantic \TeX\ markup presented the main problems. For programs, similar authoring and source management problems are tackled by Integrated Development Environments (IDEs) like ECLIPSE \cite{Ecl10}, which integrate support for finding reusable functions, refactoring, documentation, build management, and version control into a convenient editing environment. In many ways, \TeX\ shares more properties with programming languages like JAVA than with conventional document formats, in particular, with respect to the three problem sources mentioned above.

- \textbf{S1} both require a build step (compiling JAVA and formatting/transforming \TeX\ into PDF/OMDoc).
- \textbf{S2} both favor an object-oriented organization of materials, which allows to build up large collections of re-usable components.

To take advantage of the solutions found for these problems by software engineering, we have decided to developed the sTeXIDE integrated authoring environment for \TeX\ based representations of mathematical knowledge.

\section*{2.3 Aims}

In section \ref{sec:questions} I already presented a list of MKM questions relevant to current research. The questions are, however, too general to be answered in this thesis. Hence I will restrict the scope of the questions by adapting them to the idea of using an Integrated Development Environment to solve the challenges described in section \ref{sec:challenges}. In the following list of revised questions, I will use the notation e.g. \(D1 \rightarrow A1\) to show that question \(D1\) from section \ref{sec:questions} is transformed to research question \(A1\).

- \(D1 \rightarrow A1\) What features can an IDE provide to make the process of converting informal mathematical documents to formal as easy as possible?
- \(D2 \rightarrow A2\) Due to time restrictions, it was not feasible to perform a usability study for getting a rough estimate of the benefits and IDE can provide. A fist step towards answering the question would be estimating costs. Hence our research question \(A2\) is “What are the costs of developing an IDE for languages similar to \TeX\ and extending it with new features?”
- \(D3 \rightarrow A3\) How can an IDE help identifying contextual information?
- \(O1 \rightarrow A4\) What features can assist the user in creating reusable content to avoiding redundancy?
- \(O2 \rightarrow A5\) What tools can an IDE provide to ease navigation through highly interconnected structures?
- \(E1 \rightarrow A6\) What are the perspectives of math oriented semantic search in an IDE?
2. AIMS OF THE PROJECT
3

State of the Art

In this chapter I will introduce the main technologies relevant to the current research and briefly summarize them. In the first section, I will present the OMDoc markup language as well as the semantic \LaTeX (\STEX) language used as front-end language to generate OMDoc documents. In the second section, I will introduce the tools and frameworks we used to accomplish the aims mentioned in section 2.3.

3.1 Mathematical Knowledge Management

3.1.1 OMDoc

As defined by Kohlhase [Koh06], “The OMDoc (Open Mathematical Documents) format is a content markup scheme for (collections of) mathematical documents...”. The key element of this definition is that OMDoc is a content markup scheme. In comparison to presentational markup schemes (like HTML) which change the way a document is rendered, OMDoc concentrates solely on making meaning of mathematical structures and relationships between them explicit. A useful feature of the format is that it also integrates well with informal knowledge and hence represents a natural candidate for working with flexiform documents.

The OMDoc format acts on 3 levels of the document structure. On the:

**object level** – it represents content of mathematical formulae in one of the established standards OpenMath [AvLS98] or Content-MathML [ABC+09]. These provide content markup to represent formulae structure as well as context markup to link formula symbols to already defined entities.

**statement level** provides original markup for making structure of mathematical
3. STATE OF THE ART

statements (e.g. axioms, definitions, examples etc.) explicit. It also provides ways to specify contextual information, for example, one can indicate the definition that an example is illustrating. Then

**theory level** supplies original markup for clustering set of statements into theories, and specifies relations between theories by morphisms.

It is easy to notice the similar principles of the OMDoc and MMT formats e.g. in the organization of content into theories and theory morphisms we recognize the reuse patterns of MMT. The difference is that OMDoc can handle any flexiform document and to some extent formalized MMT documents. In fact, the next version of OMDoc will be based on MMT and hence be able to fully cover the formal part of mathematics as well.

3.1.2 \texttt{\sTeX}

The main concept in \texttt{\sTeX} is that of a “semantic macro”, i.e. a \TeX command sequence $S$ that represents a meaningful (mathematical) concept or object $O$: the \TeX formatter will expand $S$ to the presentation of $O$. For instance, the command sequence $\backslash positiveReals$ is a semantic macro that represents a mathematical symbol — the set $\mathbb{R}^+$ of positive real numbers. While the use of semantic macros

1

is generally considered a good markup practice for scientific documents, regular \TeX/L\LaTeX does not offer any infrastructural support for this. \texttt{\sTeX} does just this by adopting a semantic, “object-oriented” approach to semantic macros by grouping them into “modules”, which are linked by an “imports” relation. To get a better intuition, consider the example in listing 3.1.

Listing 3.1: An \texttt{\sTeX} module for Real Numbers

\begin{verbatim}
\begin{module}[id=reals]
\importmodule[../background/sets]{sets}
\symdef[Reals]{\mathcal{R}}
\symdef[greater][2]{\#1>\#2}
\symdef[positiveReals]{\mathbb{R}^+}
\begin{definition}[id=posreals.def,title=Positive Real Numbers]
The set $\positiveReals$ is the set of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x > 0$\end{definition}
\end{definition}
\end{module}
\end{verbatim}

which would be formatted to

**Definition 2.1 (Positive Real Numbers):**

The set $\mathbb{R}^+$ is the set of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x > 0$

1 For example, because they allow adapting notation by macro redefinition and thus increase reusability.
Note that the markup in the module \texttt{reals} has access to semantic macro \texttt{\textbackslash{}inset} (membership) from the module \texttt{sets} that was imported by the document by \texttt{\textbackslash{}importmodule} directive from the \texttt{../background/sets.tex}. Furthermore, it has access to the \texttt{\textbackslash{}defeq} (definitional equality) that was in turn imported by the module \texttt{sets}.

From this example we can already see an organizational advantage of \LaTeX{} over \TeX{}: we can define the (semantic) macros close to where the corresponding concepts are defined, and we can (recursively) import mathematical modules. But the main advantage of markup in \LaTeX{} is that it can be transformed to XML via the \LaTeX{}XML system \cite{Mil10}: Listing 3.2 shows the OMDoc \cite{Koh06} representation generated from the \LaTeX{} sources in listing 3.1.

Listing 3.2: An XML Version of Listing 3.1

One thing that stands out from the XML in this listing is that it incorporates all the information from the \LaTeX{} markup that was invisible in the PDF produced by formatting it with \TeX{}.

\section{3.2 Tools for developing IDEs}

\subsection{3.2.1 Eclipse}

The Eclipse Project \cite{Ecl10} is a popular open-source development platform integrating a set of extensible frameworks, tools and runtimes for building, managing and deploying software. Based on Eclipse development platform, many IDEs for different programming languages exist today, most notably IDEs for Java and C++. The project has a powerful plugin system conforming to the OSGi \cite{OSG10} specifications which means that developed plugins can be used inside
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Class SomeModule {
    Indexer indexer;

    @Inject
    public SomeModule(Indexer indexer) {
        this.indexer = indexer;
    }
}

SomeModule module = MyInjector.createObject(SomeModule.class)

Figure 3.1: Google Guice injection example to get an instance of the indexer
object

other systems implementing the OSGi standard. Eclipse also includes specialized
tools for developing Eclipse plugins. These tools provide support for importing
functionality from other plugins, specifying dependencies, assist at creating or
extending menus or Eclipse property pages as well as help to package plugins for
eyasy web-based installation.

3.2.2 Google Guice

Google Guice [Gui10] is a dependency injection framework for Java. It is heav-
ily used by xText (see 3.2.3) and also by sTeXIDE to manage inter-component
dependencies as well as for creating mock objects while testing. The main idea
behind Google Guice to use Java annotations to explicitly mark inter-component
dependencies and let the framework instantiate objects during run-time. For ex-
ample, the code in figure 3.1 shows how dependencies are made explicit by making
them arguments of the constructor method and adding the @Inject annotation to
method definition. The last line, shows how an instance of the SomeModule ob-
ject is created. The Google Guice framework handles the creation of the Indexer
object and passes it as first parameter to the constructor. The Google Guice
framework makes testing much easier because one can easily instruct the frame-
work to create a mock instance of the Indexer class when testing the SomeModule
class. By that, we can make sure that our test is only verifying the implementa-
tion of the SomeModule and not of its dependencies.

3.2.3 xText

xText [xTe10] is a language development framework which makes it easy to de-
velop full-featured, Eclipse-based editing environments for domain specific lan-
By domain specific language we mean a programming or specification language which is dedicated to dealing with a particular problem domain. In comparison to general purpose languages like Java or C++, the DSLs design language grammar in such a way that domain concepts and notations map naturally to the grammar symbols and rules. In this way, when writing programs in the domain specific language, one directly speaks of, for example, “events”, “guests” or “sessions”. Even though DSL might be quite restrictive (depending on the domain and application at hand), the only technical limitation imposed by xText is that the language can be expressed by a Context Free Grammar (CFG).

One of the biggest achievements of the xText framework is that by simply specifying an Extended Backus-Naur Form (EBNF) of the DSL grammar, one can generate an editing environment which supports many of the usual features like syntax highlighting, autocompletion as well as validation. The framework is highly configurable and allows the developer to customize most of the behavior. Due to the fact that xText relies heavily on Google Guice for dependency injection, one can theoretically customize any component from xText architecture.

A typical xText project is split in two parts, each of them represented by an Eclipse project. The first project, called DSL project, generates an implementation of the DSL grammar which consists of a language parser combined with classes which allow customizing behavior of syntactic highlighting, autocompletion, validation etc. The DSL project, is Eclipse framework independent and can be used in any other stand-alone Java based program. The second Eclipse project, imports the functionality from the DSL project and uses visual components of the Eclipse environment to generate the editing environment.
3. STATE OF THE ART
4

System Implementation

4.1 Requirements

In section 2.2 I discussed how previous experience on authoring flexiform documents posed similar challenges to authoring programs in object oriented languages like C++ or Java. Important similarities include modularity and reuse of exiting code/knowledge, need to handle large amount of interconnected components, need of a source building mechanism. That lead to the idea of developing sTeX-IDE – an IDE for sTeX similar to the ones for C++ or Java but with strong emphasis towards extensibility and semantic services. By analyzing the research questions from section 2.3 a new list of software requirements and features was compiled:

1. Modular architecture tuned towards maximal independence of sTeX language and portability for other editors. This requirement is only implicitly specified in the research aims by abstracting from sTeX language and any programming platform.
2. Create an extension mechanism allowing developers to extend IDE functionality with minimal knowledge about the internals of the IDE. This requirement is targeted towards minimizing the costs of developing new features and increasing the benefits of using the IDE.
3. Develop features which provide precise information about the context, depending on the edit position.
4. Provide a mechanism for detecting redundancies and check for validity of sTeX objects and their relationships.
5. Enhance user experience by providing ways of fast navigation between objects. Visualize modules and dependencies by rendering theory graphs.
6. Provide semantic search functionality.
4. SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

4.2 Implementation Approach

When designing the architecture of sTeXIDE, we took special care to make most of the architecture components independent from the underlying language i.e. \( \text{\texttt{\LaTeX}} \). The main reason for it was that in the process of developing an IDE for \( \text{\texttt{\LaTeX}} \), we could also create a language independent set of components which later could be reused for other modular languages similar to \( \text{\texttt{\LaTeX}} \) (e.g. CASL [ABKB+02]). Our next priority was to provide an extension mechanism by which other developers could contribute to the semantic services of sTeXIDE without going too deep into the IDE implementation. The value we see in this extension mechanism for sTeXIDE is that users can introduce their own semantic macros and write small snippets of code and get IDE support.

The implementation of sTeXIDE is based on the xText framework for Eclipse. The xText framework is made to be language independent by design and hence provided a very good start for our own developments. We tried to use the facilities provided by the xText framework at its most, hence winning more time for writing semantic services. Hence many architecture components of sTeXIDE are merely extensions of xText components. Still, the extension mechanism, as well as indexing support had to be implemented from scratch and represents a considerable part of the contribution of the current work.

In this section we will present in detail the main components of the architecture and the decisions we took in order to achieve our goals i.e. language independence and extensibility. In section 4.3, we will introduce the components of the architecture and on which user events they respond. The next subsections will discuss each of the components separately and will describe their functionality and how they interact with the rest of the components.

4.3 Architecture of sTeXIDE

The main components of the sTeXIDE architecture are:

- **document parser** parses \( \text{\texttt{\LaTeX}} \) source and creates an Abstract Syntax Tree (AST).
- **tagger** assigns URI tags to AST nodes according to their semantic function.
- **semantic syntax highlighter** formats and colors \( \text{\texttt{\LaTeX}} \) source code according to tags assigned by the tagger.
- **validator** performs consistency, redundancy checks and issues error/warning messages.
- **context-aware autocompleter** provides on-demand, context-sensitive suggestions on ways to complete \( \text{\texttt{\LaTeX}} \) code near cursor.
4.4 Document parser

The document parser component is responsible for parsing and creating the Abstract Syntax Tree (AST) of the input document. As all other components of the architecture work only with the AST representation, the AST has to be kept in sync with the input document at all times. Hence the document parser component is the first one to be executed after a document is loaded or modified. Several features of the parser are extremely important, namely:

**error recovery.** Most of the times, during the authoring process, the document contains errors which would make the parser reject the input string. However, that also means that no AST is created and so we cannot pass it further to other components. This is certainly undesirable since the IDE will not be able to assist the user in any further tasks. This is arguably the most important feature a parser for an IDE should have.

**efficient partial updates.** In the process of writing a document, changes happen frequently, however, most of them barely change the AST tree. This

**handler registry** is the gateway between architecture components (tagger, validator, indexer etc) and user extensions. **indexer** indexes relevant parts and object relationships of \( \text{\LaTeX} \) source. **semantic search** provides advanced semantic searches in the corpus. **source builder** responsible for converting \( \text{\LaTeX} \) document in one of the output formats (.ps, .pdf, .omdoc, .xhtml etc)

In figure 4.1 one can see how different components interact and form workflows. The workflows are triggered as a result of user actions, namely: onLoad, onChange and onAutocomplete. The onLoad event is created when a document is loaded into the IDE for the first time; onChange gets triggered when user updated the document by inserting/deleting characters and finally onAutocomplete is created when user requested autocompletion support. An additional internal event, onASTUpdate, is triggered when the Abstract Syntax Tree corresponding to a document is updated.

As one can see from the figure 4.1 the handler registry and indexer components are part of each workflow and hence central to the whole architecture. Also notice that in figure 4.1 we colored in gray the components which are language dependent and hence have to be rewritten in case we want to adapt the current architecture to a new modular language. For more detailed information on what is the functionality and responsibilities of each particular component, see next subsections.
4. SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

![Diagram of architecture components and events](Figure 4.1: Main architecture components and events to which they respond. Boxes colored in gray represent language dependent components which cannot be reused.

As mentioned before, we based our implementation on the xText framework which already comes with a mechanism of generating parser code and a set of classes which will later populate the Abstract Syntax Tree. The ANTLR generated parser is known to be very flexible in case of errors, supports partial updates and has relatively good performance. Hence in the case of the sTeXIDE parser, we only had to specify the language grammar and reused the parser functionality provided by the xText framework.

A full featured LaTeX parser heavily depends on the context which can be changed, for example, by importing other files. Let us examine the LaTeX code in listing 4.1. In the first line, the ‘%’ symbol has the default meaning of beginning of a comment. Assume that the imported file ‘redefine_symbols’ redefines the semantics of symbol ‘%’ to actually print a ‘%’ character. Then the 3rd line will actually be printed. Such context sensitiveness makes the parser extremely
powerful however also means that to parse a file correctly one also has to parse all the dependencies. Such a parser can hardly achieve the performance requirements needed for an IDE for keeping the source and AST in sync. As sTeX is just an extension of LATEX and the ANTLR parser could be used only for CFG grammars, we decided to develop a CFG grammar which approximates at its best the common practices of writing sTeX documents. This grammar essentially parses TEX commands, their options as well as text and puts them in a AST.

**Listing 4.1:** Example of context sensitiveness of LATEX

The following input command redefines the percent symbol
\%
\% means a comment
\input{redefine_symbols}
\%
this is not a comment any longer

The approximated sTeX CFG grammar is relatively simple. Namely, there are 4 types of objects: Model, Word, Command and Option. A simplified version of the grammar is given in listing 4.2. The grammar used in the implementation removes the ambiguities of the simplified grammar as well as tackles issues like unicode symbols, comments, expressions like `\[' etc. As one can see, our grammar does not include rules for matching `\begin{envname}, ... `\end{envname}` statements. The main reason for it is that environment mismatches are generally hard to resolve and a generic parser algorithm would not be able to handle them graciously. Our solution was to keep the grammar simple (hence more error tolerant) and implement a specialized algorithm to match maximally many `\begin{envname}`, ... `\end{envname}` pairs and provide meaningful error messages in case of mismatches.

**Listing 4.2:** Simplified version of the approximated sTeX CFG grammar

Model = (Word | Command)*
Command = | Word Option*
Option = { | [ Model ] |

The decision to make sTeX CFG grammar as simple as possible proved to be a good design choice as it shifted handling of macros towards the 'handler registry' plug-in mechanism which we describe in the following section.

### 4.5 Handler Registry

A very important requirement for the architecture of sTeXIDE was to create a mechanism by which users can extend editor’s functionality. The handler registry component represents the core of the extension mechanism and is responsible for
loading sTeXIDE extensions, creating a catalog of what AST nodes each extension
is responsible for as well as provide instances of extension objects.

The Handler Registry component represents the gateway through which all
other software components (tagger, syntax highlighter, validator etc) can pass
control to specialized handlers to customize behavior. Consider the example when
the syntax highlighter component encounters an AST node defining a new sTeX
module. The component requests the Handler Registry for the extension handling
that AST node and gets an instance of the “module definition” extension. This
instance, is responsible for specifying any custom behavior for the AST node and
hence the highlighting component will request it to specify what colors to use
for highlighting of module definitions. Likewise, when the validator component
encounters the same AST node, it will get an instance of the same extension and
will ask it to check if the AST node contains semantically correct information (e.g.
if imported file exists). By that, all the custom behavior is shifted to the plugin
modules and hence makes sTeXIDE very extensible and many of the architecture
components reusable.

The Handler Registry implementation stores a list of objects implementing the
IExtension interface. This is the interface sTeXIDE plugins should implement.
The main methods to be implemented are summarized in listing 4.3. Each of
the components call one or several of the interface methods to customize their behav-
ior. For example, the syntax highlighter calls the getSyntaxColorURI method,
while the validator calls the validate method.

Listing 4.3: Relevant parts of the IExtension interface

```java
public interface IExtension {
    String[] getHandledCommandNames();
    String[] getHandledTags();
    String[] getHighlightingURIs();

    void addNodeTags(Command cmd);
    String getSyntaxColorURI(String tag);
    Boolean index(String tag, IPropertiesAcceptor properties);
    void validate(String tag, EObject object,
        AbstractLaTeXJavaValidator validator);

    void autocompleteTag(String tag, AbstractNode lastComplete,
        String prefix, IAutocompletionAcceptor acceptor);

    void refactor(String tag, EObject obj,
        IDialogProvider dialogProvider);
}
```

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4.6 Tagger

After parsing the document, we get an Abstract Syntax Tree which contains only basic structural information about the document. This structure knows only about words, \texttt{\LaTeX} macros (\texttt{Command} objects) and their options. The real semantics behind those commands are still undefined and it is the responsibility of the Tagger component to assign semantics to AST nodes. In our case, semantics is given by assigning AST nodes some tags (URIs) which specify the semantics of the nodes. As mentioned in section \ref{sec:handler}, the handler registry component should be able to identify the plugin to be used for customizing the behavior at certain AST nodes. This is achieved by using the tags assigned by the tagger component.

In sTeXIDE we made the assumption that the most interesting information is provided at or near certain commands. That is why, each plugin first specifies which commands are “interesting” for it and then gets called by the tagger component to add extension specific tags to the AST tree nodes. That is done traversing the AST generated by the parser, identifying the commands which are interesting for certain plugin and executing the \texttt{addNodeTags} method of that plugin on each of those commands. As the name of the method already suggests, the plugin is afterward responsible for tagging the really useful information which might be certain option parameters etc.

Let us assume that we want to implement a plugin responsible for managing \texttt{\LaTeX} definitions (see listing \ref{lst:definition}). The \texttt{\LaTeX} command might specify several important facts about the definition. First, the concept for which this definition holds (the ’for’ key-value pair in the command options) as well as the text of the definition. Then, such a plugin should return ’definition’ as one of the \texttt{getHandledCommandNames} results. The \texttt{addNodeTags} method should tag the value of the ’for’ key-pair with a URI (ex. \texttt{stex.definition.definitionfor}) and the whole content with a tag e.g. \texttt{stex.definition.definitionText}. In the same time, the plugin should return both of these tags in the result of the \texttt{getHandledTags} method so that hander registry knows to pass control to the plugin when encountering those tags.

\begin{figure}[h]
\begin{center}
\begin{lstlisting}
\begin{definition}[id=functions.def, for=fun]
A \{\defin{f}AB\} is a left−total, right−unique relation in \cart{A,B}
\end{definition}
\end{lstlisting}
\caption{Sample \texttt{\LaTeX} definition}
\end{center}
\end{figure}
4. SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

\begin{module}[id=differentiable]
\importmodule[paper/continuous]{continuous}
\symdef{difffunctions}[2]{\mathcal{C}^{1}((#1,#2))}
\abbrdef{DiffRR}[2]{\symdef{difffunctions}\RealNumbers{\RealNumbers}}
\begin{definition}[for=difffunctions]

Figure 4.2: Semantically highlighted \LaTeX{} source

4.7 Semantic Syntax Highlighting

The implementation of the semantic syntax highlighter extends the highlighting mechanism of xText. The extension implements a method which assigns to each AST node, a certain semantic category such that text parts belonging to the same category are to be colored with the same color. It is the duty of xText to further take care that the text of certain category gets colored and styled the way the user specified it in the IDE preferences dialog.

The semantic syntax highlighter component is run every time the AST tree is updated. At the time when the component is executed, the AST is already “enriched” with tags. The main task of the semantic syntax highlighter component is then to map tags of the AST nodes to one of the category URIs known by xText. Since tags assigned to AST nodes have semantic meaning, then by merely mapping them to colors gives us semantic syntax highlighting (see figure 4.2). The mapping is done as follows: the AST is traversed and for each node having a tag we use the Handler Registry to get the handler responsible for providing the category URI. The method from IExtension interface responsible for semantic syntax highlighting is \texttt{getSyntaxColorURI}. It get as parameter the tag of the current AST node and returns the category URI.

4.8 Validator

The validator component is responsible for performing sanity checks of the \LaTeX{} input without running a full featured \LaTeX{} process. The checks are aimed at providing immediate error/warning messages for typical sources of errors. The checks can become arbitrarily complex and easily surpass the analysis capabilities of \LaTeX{} workflow. For example, in sTeXIDE we implemented a validator which checked for redundant module imports and issued warnings at importmodule statements which were redundant (see figure 4.3). This type of warnings are currently not being issued by the sTeX extension and would probably take too much effort to implement in \LaTeX{}. Another advantage of validator extension over error/warning messages parsed from the output of \LaTeX{} is that they usually provide better explanation of the error as well as how to correct it.
4.9 Context-sensitive autocompletion

From an implementation point of view, the validator component resembles a lot the semantic syntax highlighting component. It extends the validator implementation of xText, traverses the AST, uses Handler Registry to get hold of the appropriate handler and gives it a way to add warning and error messages. The method from the IExtension interface responsible for validation is validate. It takes 3 parameters, namely: the tag of the AST node, the AST node itself (so that xText can compute the position where to display the error/warning message) as well as a class providing functionality for adding new errors/warnings.

4.9 Context-sensitive autocompletion

The next, useful and central feature of sTeXIDE architecture is the context-aware autocompletion feature. The most useful bit is that autocompletion is context-aware i.e. it understands what kind of content is expected at certain positions in the sTeX document and exactly that type of content is suggested. For example, consider the sTeX input in listing 4.5. If one tried to autocomplete at line 2 of the input, sTeXIDE would suggest just several context-independent \LaTeX macros. If one would try to autocomplete while in the first argument of the \importmodule command, the suggestions will be paths to valid files on the file system. On the other hand, the second argument of the same \importmodule command would only suggest valid modules from the file specified in the first argument. Likewise, if one would try to autocomplete at the end of line 3, the autocomplete feature will suggest semantic macros like \in or \union which were imported from the 'sets' module. As one can see, the suggestions of the autocomplete feature might differ a lot within 1 line depending on the context. To authors knowledge, no other IDE for \LaTeX supports context based autocompletion at this level of granularity.

Listing 4.5: An \LaTeX module for Real Numbers

\begin{module}[id=reals]
\importmodule[../background/sets]{sets}
\symdef{Reals}{\mathcal{R}}
\end{module}
4. SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

\symdef{positiveReals}{Reals^+}
\symdef{greater}{\#1 > \#2}
\begin{definition}[id=posreals.def,title=Positive Real Numbers, for=positiveReals]
The set $\text{positiveReals}$ is the set of $\{x \in \text{Reals} | \text{greater}(x, 0)$
\end{definition}

Besides assisting user with context sensitive autocomplete suggestions, the module also performs Information Retrieval tasks. Namely, when a certain \(\text{\LaTeX}\) macro is suggested during autocompletion, it also searches for definitions which explain that macro. This information is shown to the user when he/she has the cursor over the macro name (see figure 4.4). This feature is very useful when unsure of the real semantics of the \(\text{\LaTeX}\) macro, which happens a lot to beginners but is also useful for power-users.

![Figure 4.4: Autocomplete feature showing definition of continuous functions next to the \(\text{\LaTeX}\) macro](image)

The context sensitive autocompletion is also implemented as an extension of the xText framework. The xText framework provides methods which are executed when autocompletion is requested by the user and provides information about the context where the user requested autocompletion. Namely, one can get the position of the cursor as well as the AST leaf node preceding the location where autocompletion was requested. Having this information, the sTeXIDE autocompletion component analyzes the AST leaf node given by xText, gets the handlers responsible for tags assigned to the node, runs them and merges their results. The method in the IExtension interface responsible for autocompletion is autocompleteTag. It gets as parameters the tag to be autocompleted, the leaf AST node as well as the prefix autocomplete suggestions must have. The last component is an interface which accepts suggestions and optionally also explanatory text to be shown when user selects the suggestion.
4.10 Indexer

4.10.1 Motivation

Many of the features currently supported by sTeXIDE are only possible (or make sense) in the context of a large document corpus. For example, the validator needs to check if the module to be imported actually exists in the specified file; or autocompleter needs to know what concepts were defined in imported modules so that it can display them for autocompletion. In order for these features to function, they need to access data from other files. The easiest way to do that, is to parse the necessary files and search for the relevant information in the parsed AST trees. That would, in fact, mean to run the document parser as well as the tagger. Suppose this approach were used for context sensitive autocompletion and we had the task of autocompleting an \texttt{\LaTeX} macro. To do it properly, one would have had to find all concepts in the current module defined before the cursor and merge them with concepts from imported modules. Now, if imported modules, imported other modules and so on, we would get to the situation where he had to parse 50% of the corpus. Even though the document parser and tagger components are relatively fast, doing so for tens of files has an obvious performance impact. In the GenCS corpus, such an unoptimized behavior takes about 3-4 seconds.

To optimize these processes, I introduced an index component which is responsible for giving fast and targeted access to data in documents. The set of requirements for this component were: declarative way of querying data, performance and scalability, but the most important, give total freedom to sTeXIDE extensions to choose what data to index as well as provide an easy interface for inserting the data.

4.10.2 Design decisions

The first design decision to be made was to choose the kind of structures we wanted to index. Two alternatives we considered, namely: storing tree structures resembling parts of the AST trees or storing a relational table specifying the type of the information stored as well as its value and location. The first approach has the advantage of keeping the structure of the indexed information close to the structure of the AST and hence document. That makes querying more intuitive as well as powerful. For example, the linear structure approach would hardly be able to answer a query like “give me the IDs of all concepts defined in module X from file F” because the query would have to contain constraints (ex. comparison of location) to find out if a concept is defined inside module X and not any other module defined in file F. The relational table approach, however, would have
much better performance, would require a much simpler interface for inserting
data and is easier to implement. After considering both alternatives we chose
to store tree structures because querying the index using the linear relational
table approach would have been too difficult and error-prone. We considered
performance to be of secondary priority for now and decided to direct our effort
into creating a simple to understand interface for extensions to store their data.

After the first design decision was made, we had to choose how we wanted to
store and index tree structures? Two options we considered were using a RDF
or XML database. Both provided a declarative query language (SPARQL and
XQuery), could index trees and were flexible about the structure and type of
information to be indexed. The advantage of using an XML database is that tree
data structure is the natural unit the database understands, whereas in RDF
databases it is the “subject predicate object” triple. On the other hand, in a
RDF database, many of the relations between files could be made explicit. For
example, consider module A imports module B and uses a certain concept X
from B. Then, every time concept X were used in A (call that instance Y), an
additional triple could be made saying “Y isSameAs X”. So if we ever wanted
to know where a certain concept X was referenced, we only had to query for
relationship “? isSameAs X”. Also, an earlier attempt of the author to index
trees by storing them in an XML database showed that in some cases querying
them using XQuery was quite intricate. So the final decision was made to use an
in-memory RDF database based on Jena [JEN08], called TDB.

4.10.3 Challenges

An important challenge we had to solve was how to orchestrate the creation of
the tree to be indexed. The problem is that we have several independent handlers
which want to control how their data is indexed. On the other hand, they still
have to create a tree structure similar to the one in AST. So the question is how
much control should be given to handlers? Part of the solution was to limit the
control of handlers over tree creation by only letting them specify whether the
node they are responsible for, should be indexed or not. In this way, the indexing
component is able to create a similar tree structure as the original AST and just
omit nodes which should not be indexed. This removes the responsibility from
the handlers to keep the right tree structure as well as hides the RDF inability
to naturally represent trees.

Listing 4.6: An \LaTeX{} module for Real Numbers

\begin{module}[id=sets--operations]
\symdef{cart}\{\times\}
\begin{definition}[id=Cartesianproduct.def,display=flow,for=cart]
4.10 Indexer

The problem with this approach is that usually the information we want to index is “spread around” several AST nodes even though they represent information about one concept. Consider the \texttt{\LaTeX} code in listing 4.6. The root of the AST tree (see figure 4.5) is a \texttt{Command} node with 3 \texttt{Option} children (the 3rd \texttt{Option} being the body of the module until \texttt{\end{module}}). The part of text covered solely by the root AST node is \texttt{\begin{which obviously does not give much information. The important bits of information needed to make module definition complete should come from the 1st and 2nd \texttt{Option} children. The only way to index the information with aforementioned approach would be by creating an RDF node for both of them. This would increase the complexity of the RDF tree, would make it more confusing and more difficult to query. A solution to this problem would be to choose only one of the AST nodes defining a concept as “responsible” and let it search the right information in the AST tree. In our example, we could choose the root AST node (\texttt{\begin{which as responsible and let it look at the first and second children arguments for information. Furthermore, due to the fact that all modules tag parts of text with unique URIs, we could also make links to information from other AST nodes. For example, for module definitions it is useful to index what symbols are defined in it because this information is often used for autocompletion as well as validation. In our case, we could make a link from the module definition RDF node (\texttt{sets-operations}) to the symbol definition RDF node (\texttt{cart}) with predicate relation \texttt{oo:partOf}.

A big drawback of this approach is that the responsible node has to know about other node types and what URIs they use to denote their data. That breaks module independence principles because as soon as a module changes its URIs, the code inside the responsible node will fail. It also breaks extensibility principles because new modules, which want to link with some responsible AST node, will have to update bits of code in the implementation of the responsible AST node. To solve all these issues we decided to make the non-responsible AST nodes to search for the responsible ones and communicate to them additional information to be indexed. In this way, responsible AST nodes only have to provide a general mechanism for adding new properties as well as linking with other RDF nodes; and non-responsible nodes, who have control over their data, can add any useful data they wish to any of the responsible nodes. By that, extension handlers are relatively unlimited in the type of information they get indexed, AST structure is maintained and modularity and extensibility of the extensions is preserved.
Figure 4.5: Index tree RDF representation.
To get a better intuition how the generated RDF looks like, let us examine figure 4.5 in more detail. On the left side of the figure one can see a fragment of the parsed AST corresponding to \texttt{\LaTeX} source in listing 4.6. The green boxes represent the AST nodes for which the assigned extension handler specified that the node should be indexed. Indeed, the RDF representation of the AST on the right side of the figure contains 3 RDF nodes corresponding to each green AST node. The solid arrows in the AST tree represent the parent-child relations in the original AST tree. In the RDF representation, the AST structure is kept by adding to each RDF node the type \texttt{rdf:Seq} which denotes that the node contains an ordered sequence of objects. The first object in the sequence is specified by the predicate \texttt{rdf:1}, the second object by the predicate \texttt{rdf:2} and so on. We use this sequence to specify the children of the each of the RDF nodes. In our example, the resulting indexed tree is quite simple, namely, it just has a root node (Node1) with 2 children (Node2 and Node3). In the original tree, the AST nodes corresponding to Node2 and Node3 are, however, not direct children of Node1. This is due to the fact that the body AST node was not indexed and hence Node2 and Node3 were attached to the nearest ancestor which was indexed. This also implies that possible siblings in resulting RDF tree are not necessarily siblings in the original AST tree. So the question is “what did we preserve? what was the value of keeping the AST structure?“. Indeed, the AST structure is only partially preserved but in fact, since only important parts of the AST are indexed, the RDF tree captures the core relations. If we look at our example, the RDF tree reads: “we have a theory object with two children. First one defines a symbol ‘cart’ and the second is a definition”. This is much better then having to say “the theory object has a body, which in turn has 2 children” because the later captures a lot of useless technical intricacies.

Another interesting question is: how stable is the indexed RDF tree structure? can one rely on it for querying? The answer is unfortunately: no, one cannot rely on the tree structure for querying. The reason is simple, as soon as a certain AST node is considered important enough to be indexed (ex. by adding a new extension to the Handler Registry), the tree structure changes. For example, in figure 4.5 the last child of the root node labeled body is not indexed, hence the \texttt{\textbackslash symdef} and \texttt{\textbackslash definition} nodes connect directly to the \texttt{\textbackslash begin node}. If, however, a new extension is loaded which marks the body node as important, then both \texttt{\textbackslash symdef} and \texttt{\textbackslash definition} node will have to connect to the body node. Hence the tree structure is changed. One solution to solve this problem is to always keep this limitation in mind while querying and instead of querying for “give me the child of type X” one could query “give me a descendant of type X”. Unfortunately the later is very inefficient to implement. The second solution, the one we use in sTeXIDE, relies on semantic inter-node connections like “Node1 IDE:hasSymbol Node2” from our example. This relation was generated at the
point when the \symdef AST node was indexed. It searched for the first ancestor defining a module and connected to it by adding the IDE:hasSymbol relation to it. The AST node handler did so because it expects this relation to be useful when querying the index. At this point we realize how important was the decision to make not indexed nodes to search for the indexed ones and add information to them. In our case, the same mechanism was reused to also connect indexed nodes in a reliable manner making queries stable towards changes in the set of extensions.

4.10.4 Implementation

From the implementation point of view, the indexer component of sTeXIDE was implemented in a similar way as all the other components, namely, it provides only some basic functionality and delegates control to extension handlers to specify what information should be indexed. The method of the IExtension interface implemented by all handlers inside Handler Registry component is called index. The first parameter is, as usual, the tag to be indexed and the second is an object implementing IPropertiesAcceptor interface which is used to communicate what information should be stored in the index (see listing 4.7). Unlike other methods, the index method also returns a boolean value which controls if a new RDF node should be created for that particular AST node.

Listing 4.7: The IPropertiesAcceptor interface

```java
public interface IPropertiesAcceptor {
    void addIntegerProperty(String propertyId, int value);
    void addStringProperty(String propertyId, String value);
    void addLinkProperty(String propertyId, IPropertiesAcceptor resource);
    void addResourceProperty(String propertyId, String URI);

    public List<? extends IPropertiesAcceptor> getStack();
    public EObject getASTNode();
}
```

As one can see, the IPropertiesAcceptor interface gives possibility to add different types of information. It can add constant properties (integer & string types), link to other resources identified by their IPropertiesAcceptor object (used for making the connection Node1 IDE:hasSymbol Node2) as well as a general method for adding any URI property. The getStack method returns all the IPropertiesAcceptor objects of parents of the current AST node which returned true at their index method. And the last method, getASTNode, returns the AST node identifying the current IPropertiesAcceptor object.
4.11 Semantic Search

In this section I would like to present a mostly user interface feature of sTeXIDE which uses the indexer component to perform semantic search. The idea is to provide ways to filter the type of content that should be searched. The current implementation is merely a proof of concept showing how one can perform definition search (see figure 4.6).

From the implementation point of view it first makes sure that the project index is up-to-date i.e. asks the indexer component to index any changes in the documents. After this is done, it queries for all the definitions and performs a simple key-word search.

4.12 Build System

An important feature of sTeX is that one can generate a wide spectrum of output formats. For example, one can use a typical L\TeX compiler like \texttt{pdflatex} to produce presentation oriented outputs like .pdf or .ps. On the other hand, by using \texttt{LaXML} and \texttt{LaXMLPost}, one can generate XHTML documents suitable for rendering in the browser and OMDoc documents – for exchanging knowledge between applications. In sTeXIDE, I found it important to give user the pos-
4. SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

sibility of creating any of the aforementioned formats with minimal efforts. In fact, whenever possible, the user should be able to see the latest version of the document in the chosen output format.

To perform a on-the-fly conversion is generally not possible because of the large number of files to be read and processed. This is, however, a typical problem and a common solution other IDEs use is to start the building process when the user stops typing (during idle time). This means that the user does not get instant access to the generated content but this is not considered as being a problem.

The process of generating different output formats from STEX sources can be seen as a sequence of program executions. Depending on requested format and document properties, there might be different execution sequences for generating the same output format. For example, to generate a .pdf file one can just run the `pdflatex` program on the \TeX{} source file. On the other hand, if the \TeX{} file contains bibliography entries, it is recommended to run `bibtex` first followed by running `pdflatex`. To generate XHTML or OMDoc formats one uses the same sequence of programs (`\LaTeX\!\!\!\!\!\! XML`, `\LaTeX\!\!\!\!\!\! XMLPost`) with slightly different command line parameters. For OMDoc one would additionally apply an XSLT style-sheet to the output of `\LaTeX\!\!\!\!\!\! XMLPost`.

As one can see, there are many compilation workflows which differ by the set of programs, command line parameters or even sequence in which they are executed. On the other hand, tasks like parsing compiler output/error messages of the programs remains unchanged and independent on the workflow or parameters they get. So it is natural to separate the code for program execution as well as output parsing (called program handlers) from the general workflow mechanism.

The workflow mechanism, apparently, has a very simple task, namely, run code written in program handlers in a certain sequence. This is however, only the tip of the iceberg. One of the features important to be supported was to make it possible to provide input data through a stream preferably without creating a temporary file on the file system. In general, most of the tools we specified earlier are capable of reading the input data from standard input. Some of them (ex. `pdflatex`) can only write output data to a file because it actually generates several files. So each of the compilers has its own limitations about supporting reading or writing from/to standard input/output. Suppose A and B are two consecutive steps in a workflow. Step A supports writing to standard output but the one from B – can only read from file. Then, during workflow execution, one would have to redirect the output from A to a temporary file and provide the name of the file to step B. In the builder component of sTeXIDE, the workflow manager was implemented in a way that it can query individual compiler steps for metadata which includes information on type of input/output they support. Then, the component builds a execution plan which takes care of passing correctly the output of one step to the input of the next.
5

Discussion

In this chapter, I will try to estimate the costs of developing new extensions for sTeXIDE from the user perspective. Namely, in section 5.1 I will discuss the process of implementing an extension and will analyze the effort a developer should invest for each step. In section 5.2 I will summarize the result of the current research by analyzing how the sTeXIDE system implementation could answer the research questions posed in section 2.3. I will conclude this thesis by a section on future work.

5.1 Extension mechanism: User perspective

In the previous sections we described the extension mechanism we implemented in sTeXIDE and how different components use this mechanism to customize their behavior. In this section, I would like to comment on the usability of the extension mechanism i.e. to present how easy or difficult it is to achieve some goals, as well as show some best practices developers of new sTeXIDE extensions should follow.

As mentioned in previous sections, an extension should implement the IExtension interface. Suppose we want to create an extension for handling \importmodule commands. First step, is to implement the getHandledCommandNames method. This is extremely easy, as one should just return the name of the command we want to handle, in our case, 'importmodule'. Next, is the getHandledTags method which should return an array of unique URIs which we use for tagging different parts of its data. The \importmodule command has 2 arguments, namely, the path of the file containing the module to be imported and the id of the module to be imported. We will need 3 Tags: one for denoting the importmodule command in general (and will tag the \importmodule part of the text), one for the file path and one for the module id. For sake of simplicity lets call
these tags `importTag`, `fileTag` and `idTag` respectively. So the `getHandledTags` method should return an array with these 3 tag names. The complexity of the method implementation is minimal. The `getHighlightingURIs` method should return the URIs of the color category we want to use for coloring the tags. We will use a default “command” category for coloring the `\importmodule` part but want to introduce a new category for both file path and module id options to denote external references. So the `getHighlightingURIs` will return 2 URIs, one of which is not known to the system, yet. A text description for the unknown color category URI will be given by the `getHighlightingURIDescription` method and so the user will be able to specify/change the desired color for this category in the eclipse preferences menu. Implementation complexity for both methods is again – minimal.

Next method to be implemented is the `addNodeTags` method. The method takes as argument a `Command` object, which in fact extends a normal AST node with methods for getting the command name, as well as getting the options of that command. The `addNodeTags` should, in this case, use several utility methods provided in the sTeXIDE framework, to add `importTag` to the `Command` object, `fileTag` to the objects inside the first option and `idTag` to objects in the second option. Obviously one should take precautions against some of the options missing but otherwise the implementation is straightforward. Compared to the other 2 methods we described until now, this method is a bit more complicated but generally it is easy to implement it.

Finally we come to the first method which will affect the user interface, namely, the semantic syntax highlighting. The only thing the method should provide is a mapping from tags given by the `addNodeTags` method to one of the category color URIs returned by the `getHighlightingURIs`. This is straightforward and in the same time gives developer the opportunity to “test-drive” the implementation to check for inconsistencies. A very nice feature of the developed framework is that to achieve semantic syntax highlighting for the developed extension, one should just write some 60 lines of code (see appendix section 6.1) which are also easy to understand. Until now, the order in which the methods were implemented had to follow a certain logical sequence. The rest of the methods in the IExtension are independent from one another and should be implemented according to developer’s needs and priorities.

The next comes the autocompletion feature. Since there are 3 tags for which the `\importmodule` handler is responsible, we have the possibility to create 3 different workflows to handle each case separately. The first tag is `importTag`. If we are asked to autocomplete it, this means that the text `\importmodule` is already written and we asked for autocompletion when the cursor is in the end of the `\importmodule` text. The only way we can autocomplete it is by suggesting to open square brackets and write a file name. So we create the list of top level
files and directories in the project, put square brackets around them and return them as the list of autocompletion possibilities. Next case, is if we are asked to autocomplete an object tagged with fileTag. This means that we are in an option object which contains a list of words (forming project a relative path), where the last word where the cursor is sitting is given by lastComplete object. We have to concatenate the string values until the lastComplete node, create a list of files in that directory and filter out those which don’t match the value in lastComplete. The last tag we have to autocomplete is the idTag. To be able to autocomplete it, we first have to find out what is the file from which the module is imported. This is easily achieved by taking the contents of the first option node of the parent. Let the file be A.tex. Then, we have to look up for module IDs in A.tex. This is done by using the index and first we get hold of the Indexer component object by declaring a Indexer object as part of the constructor of the extension object and adding the @Inject annotation (see figure 5.1). The Google Juice architecture will make sure to pass the singleton instance of the Indexer factory.

Listing 5.1: Getting an instance of the Indexer object.

```java
1  Indexer indexer;
@Inject
2  ImportModuleCommand(Indexer indexerObject) {
3    this.indexer = indexerObject;
4  }
```

Then, we request the Indexer factory to get the index of the A.tex file. The indexer will check if it has the newest version of the file already indexed. If it does not have it indexed, or it is outdated then it parses the file, runs the tagger and then run the indexer on the AST. In both cases, the indexer will return the RDF node coresponding to the up-to-date AST root of the A.tex file. Then we just have to run a SPARQL query which one can see in listing 5.2.

Listing 5.2: SPARQL query getting the IDs of modules defined in a document with root AST node coresponding to indexed ASTRootURI RDF node.

```sparql
SELECT ?moduleId WHERE
  <ASTRootURI> IDE:hasModule ?y
    ?y rdf:type oo:Theory
    ?y rdf:id ?moduleId
```

The persieved difficulty level to implement the autocomple feature can range from moderate to difficult. The reason for it is that we have 3 different workflows, we have to work with file names and paths as well as get indexer support. Most of this complexity, however, comes from the logic of the steps we have to do in order
5. DISCUSSION

to autocomplete. We get relatively easy access to information provided by the components of sTeXIDE.

In the case of \texttt{importmodule} command, the verification feature can be seen as a particular case of autocompletion. Namely, it can safely ignore the \texttt{importTag} as nothing can go wrong there. For the \texttt{fileTag} it just has to check if a file with the specified name exists, else add a corresponding error message. The \texttt{idTag} should get an Indexer factory instance, get the file index and query for module IDs and finally check if the \texttt{idTag} corresponds to any of them. Implementation is easier then but very similar to the one for autocompletion.

The last implementation feature we will discuss in this section is the indexing. Just as for the autocomplete feature we will have to distinguish 3 cases depending on the tag we have to handle. If we get the \texttt{importTag}, we will set the property \texttt{rdf:type IDE:importModuleCommand} and will return true which means a new RDF node will be created for it. For both the \texttt{fileTag} and \texttt{idTag} we will analyze IPropertiesAcceptor stack and choose the first object having the \texttt{importTag}. Then will just add properties to it about the file path and the module id. Considering the fact that we have utility functions in sTeXIDE for searching the stack for the first AST of certain type, the method is quite short and easy to understand. The complexity of the implementation can be set to easy.

5.2 Conclusions

I have presented the sTeXIDE system, an integrated authoring environment for \LaTeX{} collections realized as a plugin to the Eclipse IDE. While no extensible usability study was done, several people (besides the author), already tried to use it and reported positive feedback accompanied by some new feature requests. For now the spectrum of new features to be implemented is still very broad which is common for new IDEs.

Looking back to the system implementation requirements (section 4.1), I think most of them were successfully implemented. The IDE architecture was implemented in a modular way and the components which depend on \LaTeX{} or Eclipse were separated in different modules. In this way, a good part of the architecture is \LaTeX{} as well as Eclipse independent. Hence implementation requirement I1 was achieved. Same applies to requirement I2. Currently, the features responsible for dealing with \LaTeX{} specific tasks (e.g. handling theory definitions, imports, symbol definitions) were implemented as extensions handled through the handler registry. Any of them can be pluged-in or removed at any time. A very important test for the whole plugin mechanism was the fact that the aforementioned modules are very interdependent e.g. to achieve autocompletion for module imports, one has to be aware of what modules and symbols are defined. Due to the
design decisions I made, the interdependencies could be handled by the generic tagging infrastructure and no implementation dependencies were made. Both autocompletion and syntax highlighting features give user some information about the context. While the syntax highlighting gives a very rough estimation of the context, the autocompletion gives very precise and localized information. That means requirement I3 was also achieved. Through the validation mechanism I presented one can also achieve some structure level redundancy detection. More complicated redundancy checks will, in future, need a more sophisticated infrastructure but I consider I4 to be 75% achieved. Due to time limitations, the requirement I5 was not implemented even though the mechanism to generate the raw data is already working and is used by the autocompletion and validation features. Hence only the User Interface part is missing. The I6 implementation requirement was also only partially achieved by the definition search which lay the basis for other structural searches. More semantic searches, which is a broad topic on its own, were not tackled.

Let us now examine whether the research questions (section 2.3) can be answered.

Question A1: In the light of the experiences presented in 2.2, the semantic syntax highlighting, context-aware autocompletion and the future theory graph explorer make the process of flexiformalization more “comfortable”. It is, still, a completely manual process and in the future work I will address the issue of making it semi-automatic. On the other hand, I expect that the features an IDE needs to make the flexiformalization process easier will come as feature requests when the IDE becomes more popular. It makes a lot of sense to implement features as they get requested.

Question A2: As presented in section 5.1 I think the extension mechanism is a very important component to save implementation time costs for new features. I hope that in the future more people to write new extensions and increase the benefits one gets from flexiformalizing documents.

Question A3: As long as the context information is available in an explicit form, an IDE can provide it any user-friendly form. Hence providing context information depends more on the ability of the flexiformalization language (e.g. sTeX) to markup this type of information.

Question A4: In sTeXIDE we have only very simple redundancy checks but not much support for creating reusable components. In the future we envision (section 5.3) the creation of several features to help the process of transforming an existing text into reusable components.

Question A5: IDEs are the right tool to help the user work with highly interconnected structures. They can provide interactive ways to present, filter as well as reason about the connections. In sTeXIDE, most of the features make use of the connections between content components – hence, in
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some way, provide a natural way to interact with the components and links between them.

Question A6: An IDE is as powerful as any other application running locally hence creating specialized mathematical indexes is just an engineering task. The benefit of IDEs is that they can make the search experience very interactive as well as combine it with flexiformalized structural information. Supporting math oriented semantic search is very important as it will be the most common way of discovering new content and reusing it.

In conclusion, I would like to summarize the contributions of the current research. From the conceptual point of view, this thesis shed some light into the question of how to support flexiformalization process so that it becomes as easy as possible. The implementation of sTeXIDE, laid the basis for future in-depth research in this area. From system implementation point of view my main contribution is the modular and extensible component architecture of an IDE geared towards flexiformalization. This architecture was successfully implemented and tested in sTeXIDE but it is not bounded to either sTeX language or Eclipse framework. The same principles can be reused for languages like CASL, LF [Pfe91] and in editors like JEdit [JEd10] etc. A next contribution is the indexing infrastructure – for its way of orchestrating independent extensions towards creation of a consistent picture of the document objects and their relations. A last system implementation contribution is the Tagging mechanism which created a common ground for communication between extensions while keeping extension implementations completely independent.

5.3 Future Work

There are several directions for future work. First is extending sTeXIDE with more features, for example:

theory graph navigation will provide a graphical representation of the theory graph, give possibility to navigate to module definition by pressing the nodes of the graph.

symbol presentation matching – each sTeX symbol definition introduces certain semantic meaning but in the same time specifies the way to render that symbol. For example, the \texttt{\textbackslash power} semantic macro has the expected mathematical meaning and specifies to be expanded into \texttt{\{#1\}^{\{#2\}}} where \#1 and \#2 are the first and second parameters to the macro. The symbol presentation matching feature will analyze the presentation of the semantic macro and when the user types x^2, it will suggest to transform it to \texttt{\textbackslash power\{x\}\{2\}}. One can also use this extension to search for all such flexiformalization possibilities in the whole corpora.
5.3 Future Work

module splitting – a common case which showed up in previous attempts to flexiformalize documents [2.2] was that a certain theory was too big and needed to be splitted into several components. The problem was that the original theory imported other theories and by splitting it was not clear any longer which theories should be imported by which module. This can be easily handled by a module splitting feature which can also optimize it in a way that each resulting module imports the minimal number of other modules.

outline filter – a User Interface feature which was requested was to add filtering options to the document outline so that one can choose to see only very high level document structure (theory level).

Other direction for the current research would be creating an IDE for other languages like CASL, OMDoc or LF. Some people suggested porting the architecture to their favourite editor like JEdit, Emacs etc.
5. DISCUSSION
Appendix

6.1 Minimal sTeXIDE extension supporting syntax highlighting

```java
public class ImportModuleCommand implements IExtension {
    public static final String commandURI = "kwarc.info.mkmide.latex.syntaxhighlighting.command";
    public static final String commandDesc = "Command";
    public static final String externalRefURI = "kwarc.info.mkmide.latex.syntaxhighlighting.externalRef";
    public static final String externalRefDesc = "External references";
    public static final String importModuleCommandTag = "kwarc.info.mkmide.latex.importmodule.commandtag";
    public static final String importModuleFileTag = "kwarc.info.mkmide.latex.importmodule.filetag";
    public static final String importModuleSymbolTag = "kwarc.info.mkmide.latex.importmodule.symboltag";

    static final String[] tags = {importModuleCommandTag, importModuleFileTag, importModuleSymbolTag};

    static final String[] HandledCommandNames = {"importmodule"};

    public String[] getHighlightingURIs() {
        return new String[] {commandURI, externalRefURI};
    }

    public String[] getHandledCommandNames() {
        return HandledCommandNames;
    }

    public void addNodeTags(Command cmd) {
        if (cmd.getOptions().size() == 0)
            return;
        Options option = cmd.getOptions().get(0);
        cmd.getCommandTags().add(importModuleCommandTag);
    }
```
if (cmd.getOptions().size() == 1)
    return;
option = cmd.getOptions().get(1);
recursivelyApplyTag(option, importModuleSymbolTag);
}

public String[] getHandledTags() {
    return tags;
}

public String getSyntaxColorURI(String tag) {
    if (importModuleFileTag.equals(tag) ||
        importModuleSymbolTag.equals(tag)) {
        return externalRefURI;
    } else if (importModuleCommandTag.equals(tag)) {
        return commandURI;
    }
    return null;
}

public String getDescription(String highlightingURI) {
    if (commandURI.equals(highlightingURI)) {
        return commandDesc;
    } else if (externalRefURI.equals(highlightingURI)) {
        return externalRefDesc;
    }
    return null;
}
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