

Organizing the Aggregate: Languages for Spatial Computing

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Abstract

As the number of computing devices embedded into engineered systems continues to rise, there is a widening gap between the needs of the user to control aggregates of devices and the complex technology of individual devices. Spatial computing attempts to bridge this gap for systems with local communication by exploiting the connection between physical locality and device connectivity. A large number of spatial computing domain specific languages (DSLs) have emerged across diverse domains, from biology and reconfigurable computing, to sensor networks and agent-based systems. In this chapter, we develop a framework for analyzing and comparing spatial computing DSLs, survey the current state of the art, and provide a roadmap for future spatial computing DSL investigation.

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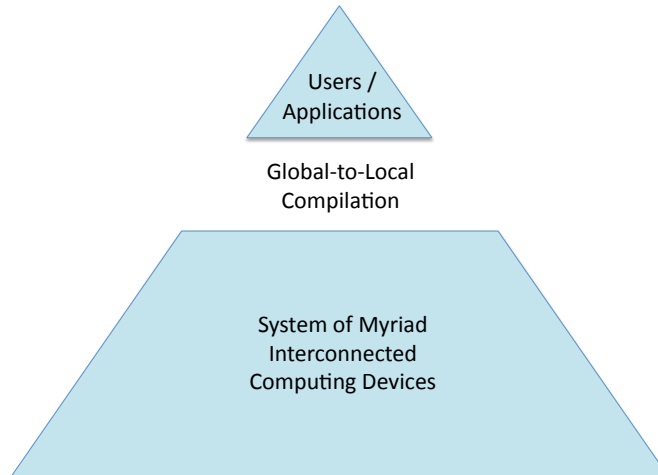


Figure 1: A widening gap exists between the application needs of users and the implementation details of those applications on increasingly complex systems of interacting computing devices. This gap must be crossed by *global-to-local compilation*: the transformation of specifications of aggregate behavior to actions of individual devices.

1 Introduction

Computation has become cheap enough and powerful enough that large numbers of computing devices can be embedded into nearly any aspect of our environment. A widening gap, however, exists between the potential users of embedded systems (biologists, architects, emergency response teams, etc.), and the increasingly complex technology available. Typically, the users know what they want from the aggregate of devices, but the programming or design interfaces that they are presented with operate mainly at the level of individual devices and their interactions. Thus, biologists who want to monitor wildlife with mesh-networked sensors end up having to debug real-time code for parallel algorithms in order to minimize Joules-per-packet, and architects who want to create responsive buildings end up worrying about how to create distributed algorithms to ensure correct time-synchronization across the application modules.

Similar gaps are found in many other areas besides embedded systems. For example:

- Robots are becoming cheaper and more reliable, such that teams of robots can now be used in many more applications. For instance, search-and-rescue workers might use a group of unmanned aerial vehicles to search a wilderness area. These search-and-rescue workers should be able to specify aggregate behaviors like sweep patterns, rather than worry about how to share localization and progress data in order to keep those sweep patterns consistent between robots. Modular and reconfigurable robotic systems have similar issues.
- Reconfigurable computing devices like Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs) can solve complex problems extremely quickly. Programming and code reuse are difficult, however, because subprograms need to be tuned for their layout on each particular model chip and their context of use relative to other subprograms. Similar issues are likely to emerge in multi-core systems as the number of cores continues to rise.
- In synthetic biology, it will soon be desirable to program engineered biological organisms in terms of the structure of tissues or colonies, and of their interaction patterns, rather than by selecting particular trans-membrane proteins and adjusting their signal dynamics and metabolic interactions. Emerging chemical and nanotechnological computing platforms are likely to face similar issues.

Fundamentally, this gap lies between programming the aggregate and programming the individual (Figure 1). For the users, the application is often best specified in terms of collective behaviors of aggregates of devices. For example, an architect may wish to use sweeping patterns of light on the floor and walls to guide visitors through a building. When implemented on a system of computing devices, however, the application must be carried out through the actions and interactions of many individual devices. For example, a particular LED on the wall must discover whether it is on a visitor’s path and then synchronize with its neighbors to ensure that it turns on and off at the correct times to create the desired pattern. Thus, we see that the critical element for bridging the gap between a user and a system of many devices is *global-to-local compilation* (Abelson et al., 2000), facilitated by the development of a new programming language or languages suited to describing aggregate behaviors.

All of the domains that we have mentioned so far share a property: a close relationship between the computation and the arrangement of the computing devices in space. These systems thus fit the definition of *spatial computers*—collections of local computational devices distributed through a physical space, in which:

- the difficulty of moving information between any two devices is strongly dependent on the distance between them, and
- the “functional goals” of the system are generally defined in terms of the system’s spatial structure.

This correlation between location and computation can be exploited to help bridge the gap between aggregate and individual. Geometry and topology include many “intermediate” aggregate concepts, such as regions, neighborhoods, and flows, that can be used as building blocks for programming applications and automatically mapped to the behavior of individual devices.

Across many different communities, researchers have built domain specific languages (DSLs) that use spatial abstractions to simplify the problem of programming aggregates. These DSLs take a wide variety of different approaches, often blending together generally applicable spatial concepts with specific requirements of a target sub-domain or application, and have met with varying degrees of success. At present, the space is quite chaotic, but the number of shared ideas between DSLs argues that it should be possible to develop more powerful and more generally applicable languages for spatial computing. Indeed, as we will see, some may be beginning to emerge.

In this chapter, our aim is to develop a clear framework for analyzing and comparing spatial computing DSLs, to survey the current state of the art, and to provide a roadmap for future spatial computing DSL investigation. We organize our investigation as follows:

- In Section 2, we define a framework for analyzing spatial computing DSLs, separating more abstract spatial concerns from the pragmatic needs of particular implementations or application domains.
- Following in Section 3, we survey existing spatial computing DSLs across a number of domains and summarize their key attributes. To aid in comparison, we encode a reference example in representative languages.
- We then analyze the relationship between languages in Section 4, identifying common themes and gaps in the existing space of languages.
- Finally, in Section 5, we summarize our results and propose a roadmap for the future development of spatial computing DSLs.

2 Analytic Framework

In this section, we develop a framework for analyzing spatial computing domain specific languages. We begin by defining the scope of work that will be considered in this chapter. We then organize our analytic framework in terms of a generic aggregate programming architecture, which separates aggregate and space-focused aspects of a system from underlying lower level details. Finally, for each layer in this architecture we define the attributes that will be examined as part of this survey.

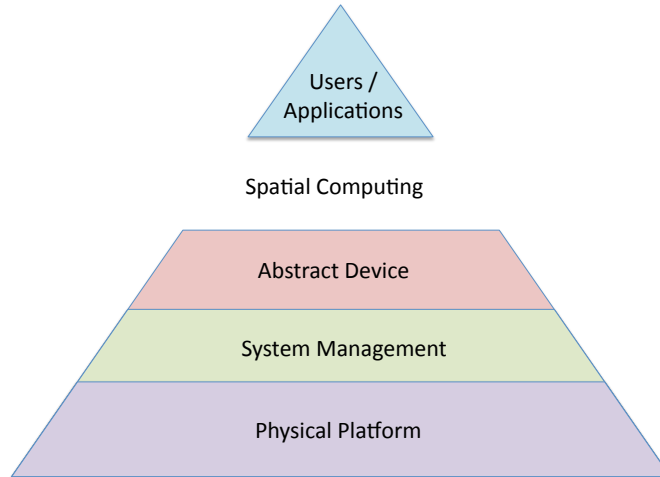


Figure 2: Spatial computing fills an architectural gap between individual computation devices and users wishing to control aggregate behavior.

2.1 Chapter Scope

For purposes of this review, we will define a spatial computing DSL as any system construction mechanism that:

- is targeted at programming some class of spatial computers,
- includes explicitly geometric or topological constructs that implicitly operate over aggregates of computing devices, and
- allows an unbounded combination of systems to be specified.

Our aim is to develop both a survey and a roadmap for spatial computing domain specific languages, however, we will also include two classes of systems that do not fit these properties: We will discuss some aggregate programming languages that are designed for spatial computers, but where no constructs are explicitly geometric or topological. These languages typically attempt to abolish space in some way, and comparison with these languages will help to illuminate the benefits and costs involved in incorporating spatial constructs in a DSL for aggregate programming. We will also discuss some systems that are not explicitly languages, but that still can serve as toolkits for general system specification. These are included in the case where they include significant spatial constructs for aggregate programming, and can therefore help define the known design space for spatial computing DSLs or reveal thinking relative to spatial DSLs in an application domain.

The classes of spatial computers that we consider in this chapter are roughly: amorphous computers, natural and engineered biological organisms, multi-agent systems, wireless sensor networks, pervasive computing, swarm and modular robotic systems, parallel computers, reconfigurable computers, cellular automata, and formal calculi. The boundaries of these fields are, of course, fuzzy and in many cases overlapping. We also acknowledge that, although we have tried to be thorough, this is by no means an exhaustive list of all classes of spatial computers, and due to the wide variety of terminology used across fields, we may have missed some significant examples of spatial computing DSLs. Our belief, however, is that this survey has been sufficiently broad to provide a clear map of the known design space for spatial computing DSLs.

2.2 Generic Aggregate Programming Architecture

Different spatial computing DSLs operate at different levels of abstraction and address different types of concern. To aid us in better understanding their relationship, we refine the simple “gap” diagram in Figure 1

into a generic aggregate programming architecture comprised of five layers. We illustrate this architecture as a pyramid in Figure 2, the wider base representing more detail in implementation. The lower three layers deal only with individual devices and their local interactions. From lowest to highest, these are:

- The **physical platform** layer at the base is the medium upon which computation will ultimately occur. This could be anything from a smart phone or an unmanned aerial vehicle to a living biological cell. It may also be a virtual device, as is the case for simulations.
- The **system management** layer is where the operating system and whatever services are built into the platform live. For example, on an embedded device, this layer is likely to include real-time process management, sensor and actuator drivers, and low-level networking.
- The **abstract device** layer hides details of the device, presenting a simplified interface to other devices with which it interacts. For example, a complex embedded computing platform might be abstracted as a graph node that periodically executes rounds of computation over its edges.

Above the abstract device is the gap that we have previously discussed, between the interface for programming individual devices and the aggregate-level needs and desires of users. We consider the **spatial computing** abstractions and models that can connect between individual devices and aggregates. While there may be other things besides spatial computing that help in bridging this gap, they are out of scope of our discussion in this chapter.

Finally, the top of the pyramid consists of **users and applications** that wish to deal, not with individual devices, but with behaviors of the aggregate.

2.3 Spatial DSL Properties

This aggregate programming architecture forms the basis of our analytic framework. For each spatial computing DSL that we consider, we will analyze that DSL in terms of which layers it focuses on and what properties it has with respect to each layer.

As we shall see, different languages have different priorities, and no system spans the whole range of considerations. This is by no means a bad thing: in a similar case, the OSI stack (Zimmermann, 1980), which factors networking into seven different abstraction layers, has been a powerful enabling tool for allowing the interconnection of many different specialized tools to form the modern Internet. This does mean, however, that for nearly every property that we consider, there will be at least some DSLs for which the language property is not present or not applicable, since said property is out of scope of that particular DSL.

The top-level properties we analyze for each spatial computing DSL categorize the language itself and define the general scope that the language covers:

- **What type of programming language is the DSL?** Common types include functional, imperative, and declarative.
- **What is the design pattern for this DSL?** This property reflects the degree to which the language is related to an existing conventional language, and is defined as in (Mernik et al., 2005). DSLs may be based on existing languages in three ways: it may be a *restriction*, meaning that it removes some language features problematic for the domain, an *extension*, meaning that it adds new features, or a *piggyback* that adds some and removes others. A DSL may also be *invented*, which means that a whole language has been created from scratch, with its own syntax and interpreter or compiler.
- **For what physical platforms is the language primarily/originally intended?** Although spatial DSLs may have relevance across a number of different domains, their representational framework typically shows strong traces of their “home” platform. This choice also typically regulates whether computing devices are assumed to be universal or not.
- **On which intermediate layers does the language focus?** The previous questions dealt with the top and bottom layers of the pyramid. Most DSLs of interest to this review focus on one or two of the middle layers: spatial computing, abstract device, and/or system management.

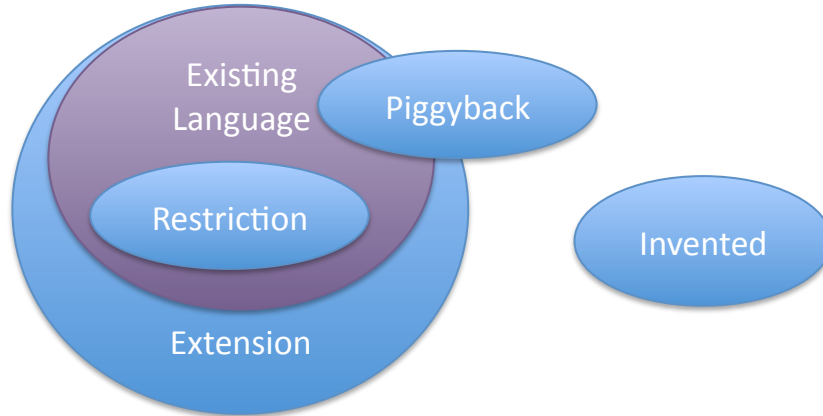


Figure 3: DSL design patterns describe the relation of the new DSL to existing languages: an *extension* contains the existing language, a *restriction* is contained within it, *piggyback* languages both extend and restrict, and *invented* languages are created from scratch.

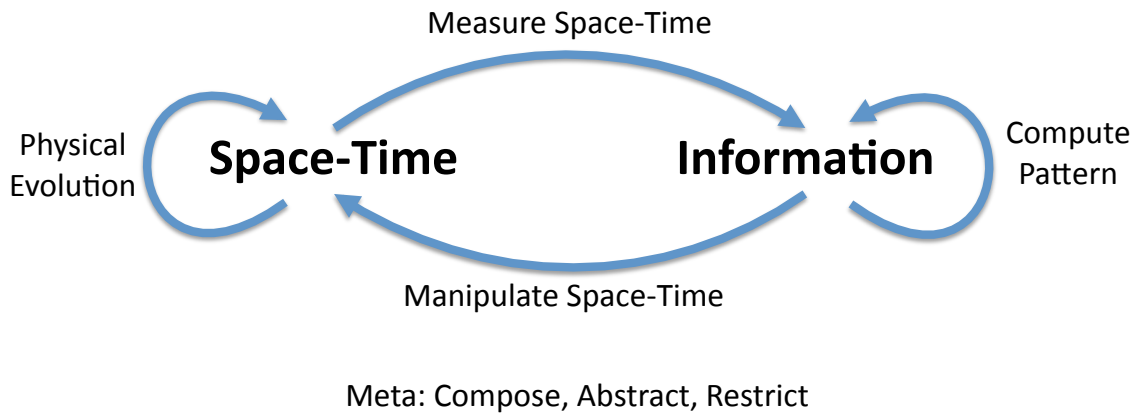


Figure 4: The basic duality of space-time and information in a spatial computer implies four general classes of operations, plus meta-operations that manipulate computations.

For the spatial computing and abstract device layers, we elaborate our framework to include a set of key properties focused on that layer. For the spatial computing layer, we consider what space-spanning abstractions are supported by each DSL. For the abstract device layer, we consider how devices are related to space, and how information moves through the system.

We will not directly address the system management layer in this document, as decisions at this layer are largely disconnected from spatial considerations in current systems. A useful framework for analyzing system management properties, however, has already been developed by the agent community. The *Agent System Reference Model* (Regli et al., 2009) (ASRM) defines functional concepts that are typical in agent frameworks, and the *Agent System Reference Architecture* (Nguyen et al., 2010) (ASRA) builds on the ASRM with architectural paradigms for these functional concepts. As the ASRM and ASRA address pragmatic concerns that are shared across a wide spectrum of distributed systems, they could be applied to analyze any of the DSLs that we survey.

2.3.1 Types of Space-Time Operations

Figure 4 shows the two base elements of a spatial computer and the relations between them. At a basic level, a spatial computer is a dual entity: on the one hand, we have the volume of space-time spanned by the computer and on the other hand, the information that is associated with locations in that volume of space-time.

From this duality, we may derive four classes of operations (partially based on the universal basis set of space-time operators proposed in (Beal, 2010)):

- **Measure Space-Time:** These are operators that take geometric properties of the space-time volume and translate them into information. Examples are measures of distance, angle, time duration, area, density, and curvature.
- **Manipulate Space-Time:** These operators are the converse of measurement, being actuators that take information and modify the properties of the space-time volume. Examples are moving devices, changing curvature (e.g., flexing a surface), expanding or contracting space locally (e.g., changing the size of cells in a tissue), or changing local physical properties such as stiffness that will directly affect the physical evolution of the system.
- **Compute Pattern:** Operations that stay purely in the informational world may be viewed at a high level of abstraction as computing patterns over space-time. For example, stripes are a pattern over space, a timer is a pattern over time, and a propagating sine wave is a pattern over space-time. This category includes not just computation, but most communication and any “pointwise” sensor or actuator that does not interact directly with geometry, such as a light or sound sensor or an LED actuator.
- **Physical Evolution:** Many physically instantiated systems have inherent dynamics that cause the shape of the space to change over time even without the use of actuators to manipulate space-time. Examples include inertial motion of robots or the adhesive forces shaping a colony of cells. By their nature, these operations are not directly part of programs, but languages may assume such dynamics are in operation or have operations that are targeted at controlling them.

Any spatial computation can be described in terms of these four classes of operations. We are speaking of languages, however, so we also need to consider the meta-operations that can be used to combine and modulate spatial computations. We identify two such classes of meta-operation: **Abstraction and Composition** operations hide the implementation details of spatial computations, and allow them to be combined together and to have multiple instances of a computation executed. **Restriction** operations modulate a spatial computation by selecting a particular subspace on which the computation should be executed.

These categories of operations are of primary interest for our survey, as the innovations of a DSL pertinent to spatial computing will generally be closely linked to a set of space-time operations. For each DSL we consider, we will thus report what significant operators are provided for each category.

2.3.2 Abstract Device Model

The abstract device model relates computing devices to the space that they occupy and specifies the ways in which devices can communicate with one another. The **Discretization** of devices with respect to space falls into three general types: *discrete* models that assume a set of non-space-filling devices, as is typical of sensor network systems, *cellular* models that assume discrete devices that do fill space, as is typical of modular robotic systems and cellular automata, and *continuous* models that assume an infinite continuum of devices that will then be approximated by actual available hardware.

We identify three key properties of communication that describe the information flows between devices:

- **Communication Region:** This is the relationship between a device’s communication partners and space. The most common types we will encounter are a distance-limited *neighborhood* (though not necessarily regular) and *global* communication.

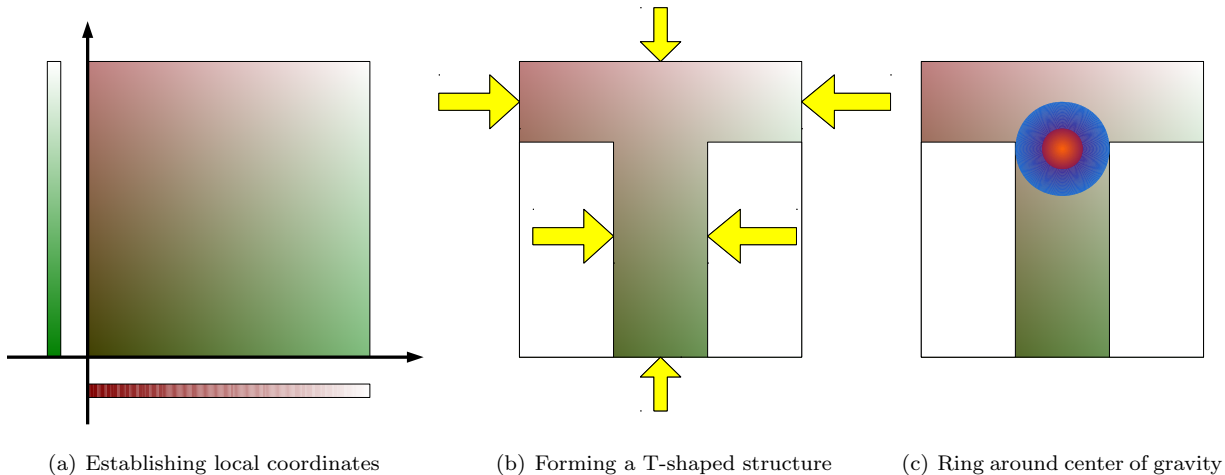


Figure 5: The “T program” reference example exercises the three main classes of space-time operations: measurement of space-time to organize local coordinates (a) and compute the center of gravity (c), manipulation of space-time to move devices into a T-shaped structure (b), and pattern computation to make a ring around the center of gravity (c).

- **Transmission Granularity:** Do devices *broadcast* the same thing to all neighbors, *unicast* a potentially different value to each neighbor, or *multicast* to groups of neighbors?
- **Mobility of Code:** Do devices have the same *uniform* program (which may execute differently depending on state and conditions), do devices have *heterogeneous* (but fixed) programs, or is code *mobile* and able to shift from device to device?

2.4 Reference Example: “T-Program”

As a means of evaluating and demonstrating the space-time operators which are supported by classes of languages, we derive a *reference example* and implement portions of the example in representative languages considered during the survey. For the example, which we refer to as the “T-Program,” to be completely implemented requires the ability to perform each of the three basic families of space-time operators described in Section 2.3.1: measurement of space-time, pattern computation, and manipulation of space-time.

The three stages of the “T-program” are illustrated in Figure 5:

- Cooperatively create a local coordinate system (Figure 5(a)). This requires measurement of space-time.
- Move or grow devices to create a T-shaped structure (Figure 5(b)). This requires manipulation of space-time.
- Compute the T’s center of gravity and draw a ring pattern around it (Figure 5(c)). This requires measurement of space-time and pattern computation.

For purposes of this example, these may happen in any order, including concurrently. This simple challenge will show how various exemplary languages approach the three basic categories of space-time operations in programs. Meta-operations are not required, but we will either illustrate or discuss them as well.

3 Survey of Existing Spatial DSLs

We now apply our analytic framework in a survey of spatial computing DSLs, organizing our survey roughly by major domains. Note that the boundaries of domains are somewhat fuzzy, and in some cases we have

DSL	Type	Pattern	Platform	Layers
Amorphous Computing				
Proto	Functional	Invention	Any	SC,AD
PyMorphous	Imperative	Extension	Any Network	SC,AD
ProtoVM	Imperative	Invention	Any Network	AD,SM
Growing Point Language	Declarative	Invention	Any Network	SC
Origami Shape Language	Imperative	Invention	2D Mesh Network	SC
Biological				
L-systems	Functional	Invention	Simulation	SC
MGS	Declarative	Invention	Simulation	SC,AD
Gro	Imperative	Invention	Simulation	AD
GEC	Functional	Invention	Biological cells	AD
Proto BioCompiler	Functional	Piggyback	Biological cells	AD
Agent-Based				
Graphical Agent Modeling Language	Graphical	Extension	Conceptual	AD
Agent Framework	Imperative*	Extension	Any Network	AD,SM
Multi-agent Modeling and Simulation Toolkit	Any	Any	Any	SC,AD,SM
* JESS, being declarative, is a notable exception in this group				
Wireless Sensor Networks				
Regions based DSLs*	Imperative	Extension	Wireless Network	AD
Data-flow based DSLs	Imperative	Invention	Wireless Network	AD,SM
Database-like DSLs	Declarative	Piggyback	Wireless Network	SC
Centralized-view DSLs	Imperative	Piggyback	Wireless Network	AD
Agent-based DSLs	Imperative	Extension	Wireless Network	AD
* Regiment, an invented functional language is a notable exception in this group				
Pervasive Computing				
TOTA	Imperative	Extension	Wireless/Wired Network	AD,SM
Chemical reaction model	Declarative	Invented	Wireless/Wired Network	AD,SM
Spatially-Scoped Tuples	Imperative	Extension	Wireless/Wired Network	AD,SM
Swarm & Modular Robotics				
Bitmap Language	Descriptive	Invented	Swarms and Modular Robots	SC
Graph Grammars	Functional	Invented	Robot Swarms	SC,AD
PRISM	Declarative	Invented	Robot Swarms	AD
Meld	Declarative	Extension	Modular Robots	SC,AD
DynaRole/M3L	Imperative/Declarative	Invention	Modular Robots	SC,AD
ASE	Imperative	Extension	Modular Robots	SC,AD,SM
Parallel & Reconfigurable				
Dataflow DSLs	Any	Any	Parallel Hardware	SM,AD
MPI	Imperative	Extension	Parallel Hardware	SC,AD,SM
Erlang	Functional	Invented	Parallel Hardware	SC,AD,SM
X10/Chapel/Fortress	Imperative	Invented	Parallel Hardware	SC,AD,SM
GraphStep	Imperative	Invented	Parallel Hardware	SC,AD,SM
StarLisp	Functional	Piggyback	Parallel Hardware	SC,AD
Grid Libraries	Imperative	Extension	Parallel Hardware	SC,AD,SM
Cellular Automata	Declarative	Invented	Simulation	SC,AD
Formal Calculi				
3 π	Process Calculus	Extension	Abstract geometric space	PP,AD
Mobile ambients	Process Calculus	Extension	Abstract nested compartments	PP,AD

Table 1: DSL characteristics of spatial computing languages.

placed a language in one domain or another somewhat arbitrarily.

We begin with two domains where the goals are often explicitly spatial: amorphous computing (Section 3.1) and biological modeling and design (Section 3.2). We then discuss the more general area of agent-based models (Section 3.3), followed by four application domains that are being driven towards an embrace of spatiality by the nature of their problems: wireless sensor networks (Section 3.4), pervasive systems (Section 3.5), swarm and modular robotics (Section 3.6), and parallel and reconfigurable computing (Section 3.7). Finally, we survey a few additional computing formalisms that deal with space explicitly (Section 3.8). A theme that we will see emerge throughout this discussion is that DSLs throughout these domains are often torn between addressing aggregate programming with space-time operators and addressing other domain-specific concerns, particularly so in the four application domains surveyed.

To better enable an overall view of the field and comparison of languages, we have collected the characteristics of the most significant DSLs or classes of DSLs in three tables, as derived from our analytic framework. Table 1 identifies the general properties of the DSL, Table 2 identifies the classes of space-time operations that each DSL uses to raise its abstraction level from individual devices toward aggregates, and Table 3 identifies how each DSL abstracts devices and communication. Note that for purposes of clarity, many of the languages discussed are not listed in these tables, only those that we feel are necessary in order

DSL	Measure	Manipulate	Pattern	Evolve	Meta
Amorphous Computing					
Proto	Duration, Local Coordinates, Density, Curvature	Vector Flow, Frequency, Density, Curvature	Neighborhood, Feedback	Modular	Functional, Domain Restriction
PyMorphous	Duration, Local Coordinates	Vector flow	Neighborhood	-	Procedural
ProtoVM	Duration, Local Coordinates, Density, Curvature	Vector Flow, Frequency, Density, Curvature	Neighborhood, Feedback	Modular	Procedural
Growing Point Language	-	-	Line growth, tropisms	-	-
Origami Shape Language	-	Fold	Huzita's axioms	-	-
Biological					
L-systems	-	Local Rewrite	-	-	-
MGS	Topological Relations, Local Coordinates	Topological Rewrite, Geometric Location	Neighborhood	-	Functional
Gro	Duration, Volume	Frequency, Growth	Rates	Growth, Diffusion, Reactions	-
GEC	-	-	Diffusion	-	Functional
Proto BioCompiler	Duration, Density	Frequency	Diffusion, Feedback	Modular	Functional
Agent-Based					
Graphical Agent Modeling Language	-	-	-	-	-
Agent Framework	-	-	-	-	-
Multi-agent Modeling and Simulation Toolkit	Distance, Time	Physical Movement	Diffuse	-	-
Wireless Sensor Networks					
Region-based DSLs	Distance	-	Regions	-	- *
Data-flow based DSLs	-	-	-	-	-
Database-like DSLs	Distance, Time	-	Surfaces, Time Intervals	-	-
Centralized-view DSLs	-	-	-	-	-
Agent-based DSLs	-	-	-	-	-
* Being a functional language, Regiment offers functional composition and abstraction					
Pervasive Computing					
TOTA	-	-	Neighborhood	-	-
Chemical reaction model	Transfer rate	-	Neighbor diffusion	-	-
Spatially-Scoped Tuples	Movement	-	Neighborhood Geometry	-	-
Swarm & Modular Robotics					
Bitmap Language	-	Physical Movement, Shape	-	-	-
Graph Grammars	-	Shape	-	-	-
PRISM	Time	-	-	-	Grouping of states
Meld	Time	Physical Movement, Shape	-	-	-
DynaRole/M3L	Angles, Time	Physical Movement, Shape, Angles	-	Kinematics	-
ASE	-	Physical Movement, Shape	Broadcast, gossip, gradient, consensus, synchronization	-	-
Parallel & Reconfigurable					
Dataflow Languages	-	-	Array *	-	Procedural
MPI	-	-	-	-	Procedural
Erlang	-	-	-	-	Functional
X10/Chapel/Fortress	-	Locality	Locality	-	Procedural, Locality
GraphStep	-	-	Neighborhood	-	-
StarLisp	-	-	Shifts	-	Functional
Grid Libraries	-	-	Neighborhood	-	Procedural
Cellular Automata	-	-	Neighborhood	-	-
* Huckleberry also offers "split patterns"					
Formal Calculi					
3π	Geometric position	Translation, Rotation, Scaling	-	Force fields	-
Mobile ambients	-	Compartment Change, Motion	Neighbor diffusion	-	-

Table 2: Spatial computing operators of spatial computing languages.

DSL	Discretization	Comm. Region	Granularity	Code Mobility
Amorphous Computing				
Proto	Continuous	Neighborhood	Broadcast	Uniform
PyMorphous	Discrete	Neighborhood	Broadcast	Uniform
ProtoVM	Discrete	Neighborhood	Broadcast	Uniform
Growing Point Language	Discrete	Neighborhood	Broadcast	Uniform
Origami Shape Language	Continuous	Neighborhood	Broadcast	Uniform
Biological				
L-systems	Cellular	Local Pattern	N/A	Uniform
MGS	Cellular	Local Pattern	Multicast	Uniform
Gro	Cellular	Chemical Diffusion	Broadcast	Uniform
GEC	N/A	Chemical Diffusion	Broadcast	Heterogeneous
Proto BioCompiler	Cellular	Chemical Diffusion	Broadcast	Uniform
Agent-Based				
Graphical Agent Modeling Language	Discrete	Global	Unicast	-
Agent Framework	Discrete	Global	Unicast	Mobile
Multi-agent Modeling and Simulation Toolkit	Discrete, Cellular	Global, Neighborhood	Unicast, Multicast	Uniform
Wireless Sensor Networks				
Region-based DSLs	Mixed	Region	Multicast	Uniform
Data-flow based DSLs	Discrete	Neighborhood	Unicast	Uniform
Database-like DSLs	Continuous	-	-	Uniform
Region-based DSLs	Discrete	-	-	Uniform
Agent-based DSLs	Mixed	Neighborhood	Unicast	Mobile
Pervasive Computing				
TOTA	Discrete	Global, Neighborhood	Multicast	Uniform
Chemical reaction model	Discrete	Neighborhood	Unicast	Uniform
Spatially-Scoped Tuples	Discrete	Neighborhood	Unicast	Uniform
Swarm & Modular Robotics				
Bitmap Language	Discrete	-	-	Uniform
Graph Grammars	Discrete	Neighborhood	Broadcast	Uniform
Meld	Discrete	Neighborhood	Broadcast	Uniform
DynaRole/M3L	Discrete	Neighborhood	Multicast	Uniform
ASE	Discrete	Neighborhood	Multicast	Uniform
Parallel & Reconfigurable				
Dataflow Languages	Discrete	Graph	Unicast	Heterogeneous
MPI	Discrete	Global	Unicast	Heterogeneous
Erlang	Discrete	Global	Unicast	Heterogeneous
X10/Chapel/Fortress	Discrete	Global	Unicast	Heterogeneous
GraphStep	Discrete	Neighborhood	Broadcast	Uniform
StarLisp	Cellular	Shift	Unicast	Uniform
Grid Libraries	Cellular	Neighborhood	Unicast	Uniform
Cellular Automata	Cellular	Neighborhood	Broadcast	Uniform
Formal Calculi				
3π	Discrete	Global	Unicast	Mobile
Mobile ambients	Discrete	Neighborhood	Unicast	Mobile

Table 3: Abstract device characteristics of spatial computing languages.

to understand the current range and capabilities of spatial computing DSLs.

3.1 Amorphous Computing

Amorphous computing is the study of computing systems composed of irregular arrangements of vast numbers of unreliable, locally communicating simple computational devices. The aim of this research area is to deliberately weaken many of the assumptions upon which computer science has typically relied, and to search for engineering principles like those exploited by natural systems. Amorphous computing languages fall into two general categories: pattern languages and manifold programming languages.

3.1.1 Pattern Languages

The majority of the languages that have emerged from amorphous computing have been focused on the formation of robust patterns. The most well known of these are Coore’s Growing Point Language (GPL) (Coore, 1999) and Nagpal’s Origami Shape Language (OSL) (Nagpal, 2001). The Growing Point Language is based on a botanical metaphor and expresses a topological structure in terms of “growing points” that build a pattern by incrementally passing activity through space and “tropisms” that attract or repel the motion of growing points through simulated chemical signals. The combination of these two primitives allows the

programmer to specify a graph and its order of development. GPL is capable of creating arbitrarily large and complex topological patterns (Gayle and Coore, 2006), and has been used for general geometric constructions as well (D’Hondt and D’Hondt, 2001b,a).

The Origami Shape Language is the complement, for geometric rather than topological patterns. In OSL, the programmer imperatively specifies a sequence of folds, with the catalog of possible folds taken from Huzita’s axioms for origami (Huzita and Scimemi, 1989). These are then compiled into local programs such that, given an initial identification of edges, the local interactions will compute the desired fold lines, eventually producing the specified shape. Like GPL, OSL is tolerant of changes in its conditions of execution, with distorted initial conditions producing a similarly distorted final pattern.

A third similar language, the Microbial Colony Language (MCL) (Weiss, 2001), is a rule-based pattern language that includes chemical signals that diffuse over space to produce patterns: the programmer specifies the range of propagation and the length of time that the signal will persist. Its level of abstraction is significantly lower than OSL or GPL, for the reason that it was intended to hew more closely to biological realizability.

Closely related, though more a matter of cellular automata than spatial computing, was the pattern language established by Yamins (Yamins, 2007). Investigating what types of patterns could be achieved with local communication and finite state, he was able to establish a constructive proof system that, for any pattern, either generates a self-stabilizing program for generating that pattern or proves the pattern is impossible to create with finite state. While the pattern elements were not assembled into a full language, they have a sufficiently broad collection of primitives, possess a means of composition, and serve as a *de facto* language in (Yamins, 2007).

For the languages mentioned thus far, the behavior is restricted to the patterning of a pre-existing medium. Kondacs (Kondacs, 2003) extended this concept with a “bitmap language” that takes a two-dimensional shape and decomposes it into a covering network of overlapping circles. The shape can then grow from any fragment: as they grow, the circles establish overlapping coordinate systems that link to form the shape as a whole.

Separating the formation of the pattern from the actuation, Werfel has created a number of systems for collective construction of two- and three-dimensional structures (Werfel et al., 2005; Werfel, 2006). These systems use mixtures of local rules and reaction to environmental state to enable a group of robots to effectively collaborate in construction, and have been implemented with real hardware. While the initial forms were all “bitmap languages,” based on regular grids, some recent work has generalized to include a constraint programming system that generates adaptive patterns on the fly (Werfel and Nagpal, 2007). Bitmap languages are frequently found in modular robotics as well, and to a lesser extent in swarm robotics (see Section 3.6).

A notably different approach is taken by Butera’s paintable computing (Butera, 2002), which is also often applied to pattern formation (e.g., self-organizing text and graphics display (Butera, 2007)). The programming model is considerably lower-level, however, uses general computation over shared neighbor data and viral propagation of code and data, and thus has the potential to be used for general parallel computing.

3.1.2 Manifold Programming Languages

On the opposite end of the spectrum, amorphous computing has also given birth to more general languages for spatial computing. Chief among these is Proto (Beal and Bachrach, 2006; MIT Proto, 2010), a purely functional language with a LISP-like syntax. Proto uses a continuous space abstraction called the amorphous medium (Beal, 2004) to view any spatial computer as an approximation of a space-time manifold with a computing device at every point. Information flows through this manifold at with a bounded velocity, and each device has access to the recent past state of other devices within a nearby neighborhood. Proto primitives are mathematical operations on fields (functions that associate each point in space-time with a value) and come in four types: pointwise “ordinary” computations (e.g., addition), neighborhood operations that imply communication, feedback operations that establish state variables, and restriction operations that modulate a computation by changing its domain. Proto programs interact with their environment through

sensors and actuators that measure and manipulate the space occupied by devices: for example, Proto has been applied to swarm robotics by computing vectors fields, which are then fed to a movement actuator that interprets them as continuous mass flow and moves devices to approximate (Bachrach et al., 2010).

Two derivatives have since forked off of the Proto project, Gas (Bachrach, 2009) and PyMorphous (Dietrich, 2011). Gas is very closely related to Proto, mostly just changing its syntax and adding some new sensors and actuators. PyMorphous is a relatively new and more ambitious project, aimed at producing an imperative language equivalent of Proto, piggybacked onto Python as a library. Besides these, the compilation target for Proto is itself a domain specific language, an assembly language for a stack-based virtual machine model (Bachrach and Beal, 2007) that serves as a common reference point for platform-specific implementations of the amorphous medium model.

3.1.3 Reference Example: Proto

Proto works by compiling a high-level program (written in the Proto programming language) into a local program that is executed by every node in the network. The local program is executed in the Proto Virtual Machine (VM) which runs on a variety of platforms, including a simulator (shown in Figure 6).

The high-level Proto program for our “T” reference example can be launched with the command (`t-demo (sense 1)`). This allows the user to select, via a generic “test” sensor, the node to select as the origin of the coordinate system. The origin selection is largely inconsequential as any node can be selected as the origin, however selecting a node close to the center of the space requires less overall node movement. The `t-demo` function makes use of several other functions, however their separation is useful for code reuse and general abstraction purposes.

```
(def t-demo (origin)
  (let* (
    ;; establish local coordinates
    (c (abscoord origin))
    ;; find center-of gravity
    (cg (compute-cg origin c))
    ;; compute distance to center-of-gravity
    (dist-to-cg (vlen (- c cg))))
    ;; make nodes move...
    (mov (mux origin (tup 0 0 0) ;; origin does not move
      (+ (vmul 0.2 (disperse)) ;; move away from each other
        (normalize (make-t (vmul -0.005 c)))))) ;; make "T"
    ;; turn on "bullseye" pattern
    (red (< dist-to-cg 10))
    (blue (and
      (> dist-to-cg 10)
      (< dist-to-cg 20))))))
```

One useful sub-function is `abscoord`, which establishes a local coordinate system around an origin node. This is accomplished by finding the vector from every node to the origin node using the `vec-to` function. This implementation for finding the vector distance from one node to another uses a self-healing distance computation (part of the core library of Proto functions) in aggregating the vector values between all the nodes along the path between the source (origin) and the destination (node seeking to find its coordinates relative to the origin).

This portion of the program utilizes a common paradigm in Proto, embedding a neighborhood operation (e.g., `sum-hood`) inside a feedback operation (e.g., `rep`). This paradigm allows data to be shared over multiple network hops rather than just direct network neighbors (as neighborhood operations allow).

```

(def vec-to (src)
  ;; establish a field of distances from the source nodes
  (let* ((d (distance-to src))
        ;; parent has the smallest distance to the source
        (parent (2nd (min-hood (nbr (tup d (mid)))))))
    ;; value is the sum of all vectors along the path
    ;; of parents to the source node
    (rep value (tup 0 0 0)
          (mux src (tup 0 0 0)
                (sum-hood (mux (= (nbr (mid)) parent)
                                (+ (nbr-vec) (nbr value))
                                (tup 0 0 0)))))))

(def abscoord (origin)
  (vec-to origin))

```

The method used to compute the center of mass also makes use of the feedback-neighborhood paradigm. The `tree-aggregate` function constructs a tree from the node passed-in as the `root` argument. It then traverses the tree, aggregating the `value` parameter along the path. The `compute-cg` function broadcasts the sum of all agents' coordinates (in each dimension) by the total number of agents in the network, both of which are calculated using the `tree-aggregate` function.

```

(def tree-aggregate (root value default-val)
  ;; establish a field of distances from the source nodes
  (let* ((d (distance-to root))
        ;; parent has the smallest distance to the source
        (parent (2nd (min-hood (nbr (tup d (mid)))))))
    ;; sumval is the sum of all values along the path
    ;; of parents to the root node
    (rep sumval value
          (+ value (sum-hood (mux (and
                                  (not (nbr root))
                                  (= (mid) (nbr parent)))
                                  (nbr sumval)
                                  default-val))))))

(def compute-cg (root coordinates)
  ;; center-of-gravity = sum of coordinate / number of devices
  (broadcast root (vmul
                  (/ 1 (tree-aggregate root 1 0))
                  (tree-aggregate root
                                   coordinates
                                   (tup 0 0 0))))))

```

The `make-t` function is used to move the nodes into a “T” shape. By applying the spatial constraints, as done in `x-constraints`, `y-constraints`, and `z-constraints`; the sum of the vectors returned by each function defines the direction (and speed) in which each node moves.

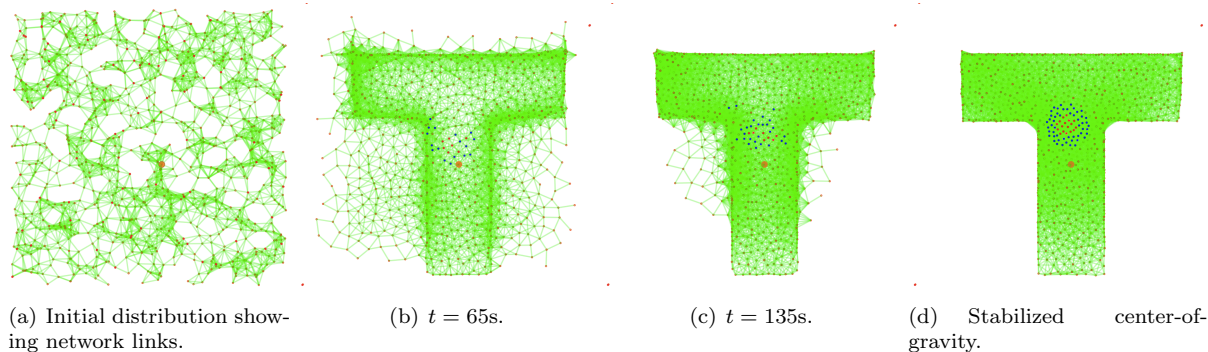


Figure 6: Creating a local coordinate system, moving into a “T” shape, and finding its center of mass in Proto. Figure 7 shows the same program running in three-dimensional space.

<pre>(def x-constraints (x y z) ;; skinny part of T (if (< y 0.20) (if (< x -0.15) (tup 1 0 0) (if (> x 0.15) (tup -1 0 0) (brownian))) ;; top part of T (if (< x -0.50) (tup 1 0 0) (if (> x 0.50) (tup -1 0 0) (brownian))))))</pre>	<pre>(def y-constraints (x y z) (if (< y -0.50) (tup 0 1 0) (if (> y 0.50) (tup 0 -1 0) (brownian)))) (def z-constraints (x y z) (if (< z -0.50) (tup 0 0 1) (if (> z 0.50) (tup 0 0 -1) (brownian))))</pre>	<pre>(def make-t (pos) (let ((x (1st pos)) (y (2nd pos)) (z (3rd pos))) (+ (x-constraints x y z) (y-constraints x y z) (z-constraints x y z))))</pre>
---	---	---

There are a few desirable properties of this Proto program. Like most other Proto programs, in addition to running in two-dimensional space, it also runs in three-dimensional space with no additional code (as shown in Figure 7). Additionally, all Proto programs are first compiled to local programs that execute in a portable Proto VM. Thus, Proto offers a straightforward path to execution on a real distributed network platform. Finally, there are several tools in Proto’s core library that help in designing and constructing self-healing distributed algorithms. For example, by simply using the naturally self-healing `distance-to` function in the implementation of the reference example, our “T” program inherits this desirable property.

3.1.4 Analysis

The characteristics of key amorphous computing DSLs are summarized in Table 1, 2, and 3, based on the taxonomy proposed in Section 2.

Given the goals of amorphous computing, it is unsurprising that we find that nearly all of the languages in this domain address the challenges of global-to-local compilation and producing predictable aggregate behaviors from the actions of individual devices. The pattern formation languages use a wide variety of high-level representations, but are ultimately limited in scope: different types of patterns are difficult to mix together and cannot be generally be cleanly composed.

Proto and its derivatives do not inherently provide the programmer with quite as high a level of abstraction: the primitive operations of Proto only deal with local neighborhoods in space-time. Because Proto has a functional semantics defined in terms of aggregate operations, however, standard library functions like `distance-to` and `broadcast` can fill that gap, acting as though they themselves were primitives. These and other functions like them thus provide the programmer with a toolkit of aggregate-level space-time operators.

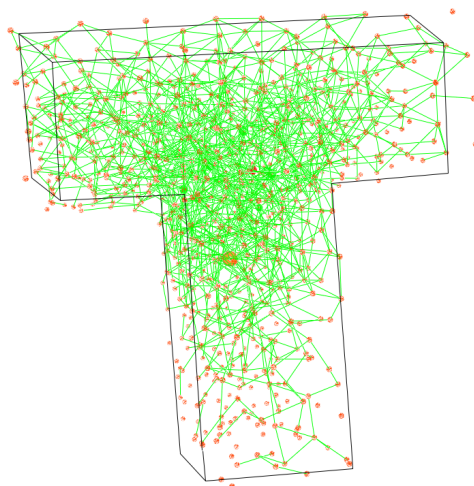


Figure 7: The Proto reference example “T” program running in three-dimensional space.

This is a critical ingredient in the fairly general applicability of Proto, which may be noted in its appearance below in the discussion of biological (Section 3.2) and robotic (Section 3.6) domains.

3.2 Biological Modeling and Design

Natural biological systems often have strong locality and spatial structure, from biofilms of single-celled organisms to the tissues of large multicellular animals. This spatiality is reflected in a number of the languages that have been developed for modeling biological systems, as well as some of the new languages that are beginning to emerge in synthetic biology for the design of new biological organisms.

3.2.1 Modeling Languages

A number of biological modeling languages have been developed, such as Antimony (Smith et al., 2009), ProMoT (Mirschel et al., 2009), iBioSim (Myers et al., 2009), and little b (Mallavarapu et al., 2009), which allow the bio-molecular reactions of cells to be described at a somewhat higher level of abstraction. These generally include some spatial operations as well, in the form of compartments through which chemicals can pass (which can include movement from cell to cell). These notions have been further generalized and formalized as with P-systems and the Brane calculus (discussed below in Section 3.8) The space in these cases, however, is generally extremely abstract.

More explicitly spatial are L-systems (Prusinkiewicz and Lindenmayer, 1990) and MGS (Giavitto et al., 2002, 2004). L-systems are a graph-rewriting model used to model the growth and structure of plants, and are specified in terms of rules for modification of local geometric structures. MGS has a somewhat similar approach, but allows fully general rule-based computation on the much more spatially general structure of topological complexes—it has actually been applied much more widely than biological modeling, but biology has been both an important inspiration and application area for MGS. MGS programs operate both by manipulating values locally and by topological surgery to modify the local structures. Coupled with a physics model that adjusts the geometry, this has allowed MGS to express complex models of biological phenomena with elegant simplicity.

Another recent addition is Gro (The Klavins Lab, 2012), a Python-like language designed for stochastic simulation of genetic regulatory networks in a growing colony of *E. coli*. Gro includes built-in notions of chemical reaction rates, diffusive communication, and cell growth, and allows the programmer to construct arbitrary chemical models to control them.

3.2.2 Synthetic Biology Languages

More recently, the field of synthetic biology has been applying computer science approaches to the design of engineered biological organisms. Of the few high-level languages that have so far emerged, only two include spatial operations.

GEC (Pedersen and Phillips, 2009) is a logical programming language where the programmer describes a biological circuit in terms of design constraints. The spatial aspects of this language are extremely minimal: as with most modeling languages, they only deal with motion of molecules from compartment to compartment.

A biology-focused version of Proto (Beal et al., 2011), the Proto BioCompiler, has been applied in this space as well, using a chemical diffusion model of communication rather than local message passing. Here, an extension to the language associates Proto primitives with genetic regulatory network motifs, allowing Proto programs to be compiled into genetic regulatory network designs instead of virtual machine code. The range of Proto constructs that can be mapped to biological constructs at present, however, is fairly limited.

Other high-level biological design languages, however, such as Eugene (Berkeley Software 2009 iGem Team, 2010) and GenoCAD (Czar et al., 2009), do not currently have any spatial language constructs at all.

3.2.3 Reference Example: MGS

MGS is a biological modeling language that allows general rule-based computation on topological complexes. In this example, we illustrate MGS’s spatial approach to creating a “T” shape for our reference example “T-Program.”

The following code segment describes the local state of an entity. This entity will interact with the other entities in its neighborhood. Interactions are specified using *transformations*, a kind of “rewriting” of the spatial structure, which is composed of the local state of all the entities. The “T” shape grows starting from one (or few) entities in two successive phases. In the first growth phase (FGP), the growth process follows a “vertical” direction. In the second growth phase (SGP), the two horizontal segments of the “T” grow in parallel. The functions `NextFGP` and `NextSGP` are used to evolve the `Cell` type’s counters `cpt1` and `cpt2`. We start from an initial state called `seed`.

```

//*****
// Basic growth model

record Cell = { cpt1, cpt2 } ;;
record FGP = cell + { cpt1 != 0 } ;;
record SGP = cell + { cpt1 = 0, cpt2 != 0 } ;;
record Empty = { ~cpt1, ~cpt2 } ;;
fun NextFGP (c:FGP) = c + { cpt1 = c.cpt1-1 } ;;
fun NextSGP (c:SGP) = c + { cpt2 = c.cpt2-1 } ;;

let seed = { cpt1 = 5, cpt2 = 3 } ;;

```

The spatial structure underlying this object is a cellular complex: a space built by aggregating elementary cells. We use three types of cells in this example:

- **0-cells** are vertices.
- **1-cells** are edges. An edge is bound by two vertices.
- **2-cells** are surfaces. Here the surfaces are parallelograms bound by 4 edges.

The `letcell` construct introduces a recursive definition of cell relationships. The collection specification builds a collection using the cells introduced by the `let` (and other cells if needed). A collection associates a value to a cell.

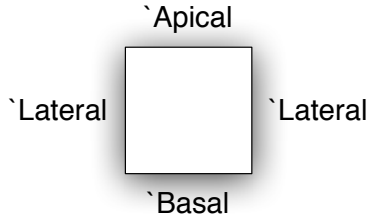


Figure 8: Labeled sides of an MGS cell. During the first growth phase, growth occurs along the “Apical” side; during the second growth phase, growth occurs along the “Lateral” sides.

```

//*****
// Chain implementation
// Spatial specification
let init =
  letcell v1 = new_vertex ()
  and v2 = new_vertex ()
  and v3 = new_vertex ()
  and v4 = new_vertex ()
  and e12 = new_edge v1 v2
  and e23 = new_edge v2 v3
  and e34 = new_edge v3 v4
  and e41 = new_edge v4 v1
  and f = new_acell 2 (e12,e23,e34,e41) in
  { x = ..., y = ... } * v1 + { x = ..., y = ... } * v2 +
  { x = ..., y = ... } * v3 + { x = ..., y = ... } * v4 +
  'Basal * e12 + 'Lateral * e23 + 'Apical * e34 + 'Lateral * e41 + seed * f
;;

```

A record of positions x and y is associated to the vertices. The edges are labeled by symbols distinguishing three kinds of edges (Apical, Basil, and Lateral), illustrated in Figure 8. The idea is that the growth takes place on the “Apical” side during the first growth phase (FGP) and along the “Lateral” sides during the second growth phase (SGP).

Next, we specify the transformation used to compute the mechanics of the systems. For the sake of simplicity, we use a very simple mass-spring system and Aristotelician mechanics (that is, the speed is proportional to force, not acceleration). Each edge is a spring with a length of L_0 (at rest) and a strength of k .

The transformation matches only “2-cells” (due to the `<2>` after the `trans` keyword). Then, for each cell, we compute the number of “0-cells” on its border. The primitive `icellfold` is used to iterate over the “0-cells” on each cell’s border.

```

trans <2> MecaFace[k,L0,dt] = {
  f => (
    let n = icellssize f 0 in
    let g = icellfold (fun acc v -> { x = acc.x + v.x, y = acc.y + v.y }) { x = 0.0, y = 0.0 } f 0
    in
    f + { x = g.x/n, y = g.y/n }
  )
} ;;

```

The next transformation integrates the forces and updates the position of the vertexes accordingly. The qualifier `<0,1>` means that we focus on “0-cells” and that the neighborhood considered in the `neighborsfold` operation meets the following criteria: two “0-cells” are neighbors if they border a common “1-cell” (i.e., vertices are neighbors if they are linked by an edge).

```

trans <0,1> MecaVertex[k,L0,dt] = {
  v => (
    let Fspring = neighborsfold (fun acc v' ->
      let d = sqrt((v'.x - v.x)*(v'.x - v.x) + (v'.y - v.y)*(v'.y - v.y)) in
      let f = k * (d - L0) / d in
      { x = acc.x + f*(v'.x-v.x), y = acc.y + f*(v'.y-v.y) }
    ) { x = 0.0, y = 0.0 } v
  in
    let Ftot = icellsfold (fun acc g ->
      let d = sqrt((g.x - v.x)*(g.x - v.x) + (g.y - v.y)*(g.y - v.y)) in
      let f = k * (d - sqrt(2.0)*L0) / d in
      { x = acc.x + f*(g.x-v.x), y = acc.y + f*(g.y-v.y) }
    ) Fspring v 2
  in
    v + { x = v.x + dt*Ftot.x, y = v.y + dt*Ftot.y }
  )
} ;;

fun Meca(ch) = MecaVertex(MecaFace(ch)) ;;

```

There is one additional transformation to compute the growth of the “T” shape. The first evolution rule specifies the “Apical” growth during the first phase. The second evolution rule describes the growth along the “Lateral” edges for the second phase. When the rule fires, it builds several new cells, replaces edge `e12` with `e12'` and updates the neighborhood relationships of the remaining cells. What is finally built (in both phases) is a new parallelogram (i.e., a new face `f'`). Figure 9 shows the evaluation of these rules in the MGS simulator.

```

// Evolution rules
patch Rules = {
  ~v1 < e12 < ~f:[dim=2, FGP(f)] > e12 > ~v2 / (e12 == 'Apical) => (
    letcell v3 = new_vertex ()
    and v4 = new_vertex ()
    and e23 = new_edge v2 v3
    and e34 = new_edge v3 v4
    and e41 = new_edge v4 v1
    and e12' = new_edge v1 v2
    and f' = new_acell 2 (e12,e23,e34,e41) in
    ( v2 + { x = v2.x + (v2.x-f.x) * random(0.1), y = v2.y + (v2.y-f.y) * random(0.1) } ) * v3 +
    ( v1 + { x = v1.x + (v1.x-f.x) * random(0.1), y = v1.y + (v1.y-f.y) * random(0.1) } ) * v4 +
    'Internal * e12' + 'Lateral * e23 + 'Apical * e34 + 'Lateral * e41 + (NextFGP f) * f'
  );

  ~v1 < e12 < ~f:[dim=2, SGP(f)] > e12 > ~v2 / (e12 == 'Lateral) => (
    letcell v3 = new_vertex ()
    and v4 = new_vertex ()
    and e23 = new_edge v2 v3
    and e34 = new_edge v3 v4
    and e41 = new_edge v4 v1
    and e12' = new_edge v1 v2
    and f' = new_acell 2 (e12,e23,e34,e41) in
    ( v2 + { x = v2.x + (v2.x-f.x) * random(0.1), y = v2.y + (v2.y-f.y) * random(0.1) } ) * v3 +
    ( v1 + { x = v1.x + (v1.x-f.x) * random(0.1), y = v1.y + (v1.y-f.y) * random(0.1) } ) * v4 +
    'Internal * e12' + 'Basal * e23 + 'Lateral * e34 + 'Basal * e41 + (NextSGP f) * f'
  );
} ;;

fun Step ch = Rules(Meca* ch) ;;

```

The computation of a center of mass can then be implemented directly using a fold operator (there is a fold on any kind of collection in MGS). This *fold* is very similar to the `fold` operator in LISP or other

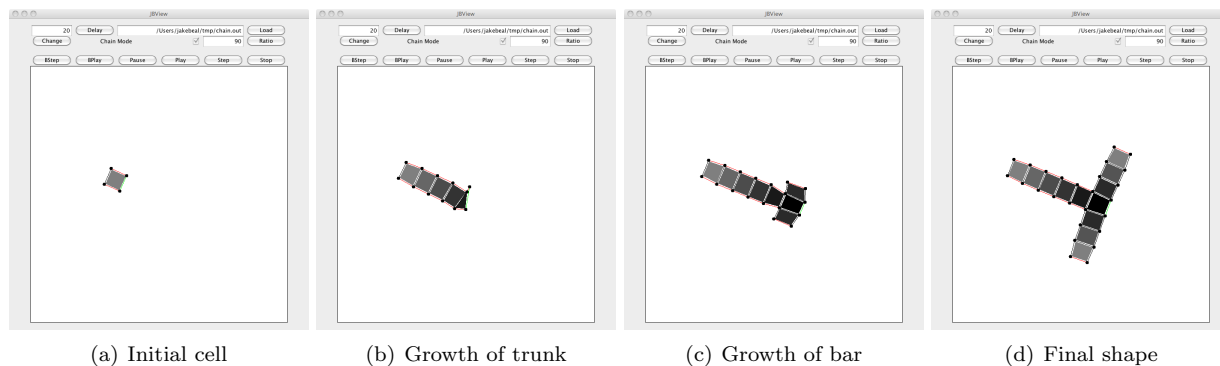


Figure 9: Construction of a “T” shape in MGS, beginning with an initial cell and using spring forces to distribute cells as they are created by topological surgery.

functional languages: it iterates over all the elements of a collection and propagates an accumulator using a binary reduction function.

Implementing a ring around the center-of-mass is straightforward once the center-of-mass is discovered. This point can diffuse some substance that degrades over distance. The ring can be selected by the nodes that have a level of substance in a given interval. Implementing this kind of diffusion is straightforward. The procedure is similar to the computation of the sum of forces that acts on a node (Giavitto and Spicher, 2008) describes a fully generic diffusion operator (valid for all kind of spaces of all dimensionality) by implementing a generic Lagrangian operator.

3.2.4 Analysis

The characteristics of biological DSLs with significant spatial operations are summarized in Table 1, 2, and 3, based on the taxonomy proposed in Section 2. Although many of the languages for this space are focused on individual agents, those languages that do raise their abstraction level toward the aggregate provide a rich variety of space-time operations. MGS in particular provides an extremely powerful modeling language, capable of manipulating space both geometrically and topologically, and also of succinct functional abstraction and composition of such programs.

The design languages are much more limited at present, though this is largely due to the current sharp limits on the ability to engineer organisms, and will likely change as synthetic biology continues to progress.

3.3 Agent-Based Models

Agent-based models explained by Macal and North (Macal and North, 2010) are capable of describing any or all of three elements:

- A set of *agents*, their attributes, and their behavior(s);
- The *relationships* between agents and methods of interaction; and
- The *environment* in which the agents interact.

Behavioral models, such as the Belief-Desire-Intent (BDI) agent model (Rao and Georgeff, 1995), implemented in frameworks such as Jadex (Pokahr et al., 2003), describe the internals of agents. The agent internals can usually be reduced to Russel and Norvig’s conceptual view of agents (Russell et al., 1995) with *sensors* (that read from the environment), *effectors* or *actuators* (that change the environment), and *behavioral mappings* between the sensors and effectors. Relationships between agents are typically encoded as topologies. Macal and North also explain that “In some applications, agents interact according to multiple

topologies” (Macal and North, 2010). For example, a network topology may offer low-level agent communication relationships and simultaneously a social overlay network may guide the necessity for inter-agent messaging. Agent environmental modeling can vary widely based on the purpose of the modeling effort, from simple geospatial models to complex biologic models. Often, environmental information (such as global location) is *sensed* by an agent. Likewise, *actuators* modify the environmental model, which in turn serves as a blackboard for agents (i.e., stigmergy).

In this section, we categorize the agent-oriented DSLs as one of the following:

- *Graphical Agent Modeling Language*. These languages usually extend or piggy-back some form of UML. They focus on modeling the internals of agents and (sometimes) their interaction patterns using graphical tools rather than formal languages.
- *Agent Framework*. These languages are extensions of general-purpose languages, usually libraries, that impose common structure on agent specifications. By conforming to this common structure, programmers can utilize tools provided by the framework (i.e., agent administration, logging, simulation).
- *Multi-agent Modeling and Simulation Toolkit*. These languages focus on modeling and simulating inter-agent interactions and environmental interactions in agent systems.

After categorizing the agent-oriented DSL, we give a brief description of each DSL. Then, we show and describe an implementation of the reference example “T” program in a representative multi-agent-based DSL.

3.3.1 Graphical Agent Modeling Languages

(Huget, 2005) cites MAS modeling languages Agent UML (Odell et al., 1999; Bauer et al., 2001) and the Agent Modeling Language (AML) (Trencansky and Cervenka, 2005). These largely-graphical languages aim to extend traditional UML documents with agent and multi-agent system concepts. Other graphical agent modeling languages (e.g., Agent-DSL (Kulesza et al., 2005, 2004) and DSML4MAS (Hahn, 2008)) further enhance usability by embedding the languages in development and simulation environments.

3.3.2 Agent Frameworks

While there are very many agent frameworks (sometimes labeled as “architectures”), we do not intend to specify all, but simply give a list of a few representative, popular examples.

Jade (Telecom Italia Lab, 2011) extends Java with a library for producing FIPA-compliant (IEEE Computer Society, 2011) agents and managing their interactions. AGLOBE (Czech Technical Institute Agent Technology Center, 2011) also extends Java with a small, lightweight library for implementing goal-oriented agents. The Cognitive Agent Architecture (Cougaar) (Helsingier et al., 2004; BBN Technologies, 2011) is another Java extension library for a highly-configurable, QoS-adaptive intelligent agent framework. JESS (Ernest Friedman-Hill, 2008), although written for use in Java, is an example of a *declarative* rule engine and scripting environment to provide “reasoning” skills to agent systems.

3.3.3 Multi-agent Modeling and Simulation Toolkits

ASCAPE (Inchiosa and Parker, 2002; ASCAPE, 2011) is a Java extension for simplification of agent model composition and agent behavior execution using topological abstraction and rule-based execution respectively. NetLogo (Sklar, 2007; Wilensky, 2011) and StarLogo (Resnick, 1996; MIT Media Lab and Schellar Teacher Education Program, 2011) are extensions to the Logo language for “turtle” sensing operations and simultaneous control of multiple agents. Repast (North et al., 2007; Repast Team, 2011) is a multi-language (with extensions to Java and Logo) toolkit for modeling and simulating MAS, with additional tools for running in high-performance computing environments (Collier and North, 2011). MASON (Luke et al., 2004; George Mason University Evolutionary Computation Laboratory and Center for Social Complexity,

2011) is a discrete-event multi-agent simulation toolkit that aims to weakly-couple the MAS model from its visualization and scale to millions of agents.

The Strictly Declarative Modeling Language (SDML) (Moss et al., 1998; Centre for Policy Modelling, 2011) represents multi-agent systems using declarative rules where each agent’s beliefs are transcribed to databases. Inter-agent communication occurs by reading and writing directly to an agent’s database or a shared container.

Swarm (Minar et al., 1996; University of Michigan Center for the Study of Complex Systems, 2011) is a platform and tool suite for agent-based modeling and simulation of complex adaptive systems. MAML (Gulyás et al., 1999; Gulyás et al., 2011) is an Objective-C extension language and compiler (`xmc`) for helping non-programmers create Swarm applications. Echo (Forrest and Jones, 1994; Jones and Forrest, 2011) extends genetic algorithms with location, resource competition, and agent interactions. Echo is intended to capture important properties of ecological systems toward the goal of modeling and simulating complex adaptive systems.

Echo is also an example of a system that conducts modeling and simulation of Cellular Automata (CA). CA are also a topic of research in distributed systems and parallel computing, and will be discussed further in Section 3.7

3.3.4 Distributed Systems

We include distributed systems DSLs within agent-based DSLs due to their high degree of overlap. Distributed system DSLs fall into two categories: 1) distributed system modeling languages, and 2) information movement languages. An example of distributed system modeling languages is the Ψ Calculus (Kinny, 2002), a formal modeling language for abstract plan execution agents with a sense-compute-act computation cycle. On the other hand, information movement languages aim to abstract the process of moving information to the points in space-time where/when they are needed. For example, the Knowledge Query and Manipulation Language (KQML) (Finin et al., 1994) focuses on agent communication for managing distributed collaboration.

3.3.5 Reference Example: NetLogo

This section shows and explains an implementation of the reference example “T-Program” (described in Section 2.4) in NetLogo (Wilensky, 2011)—a language that we have chosen as being representative of Multi-Agent System DSLs. The purpose of this exercise is to demonstrate how NetLogo supports the basis set of spatial operations described in Section 2.3.1.

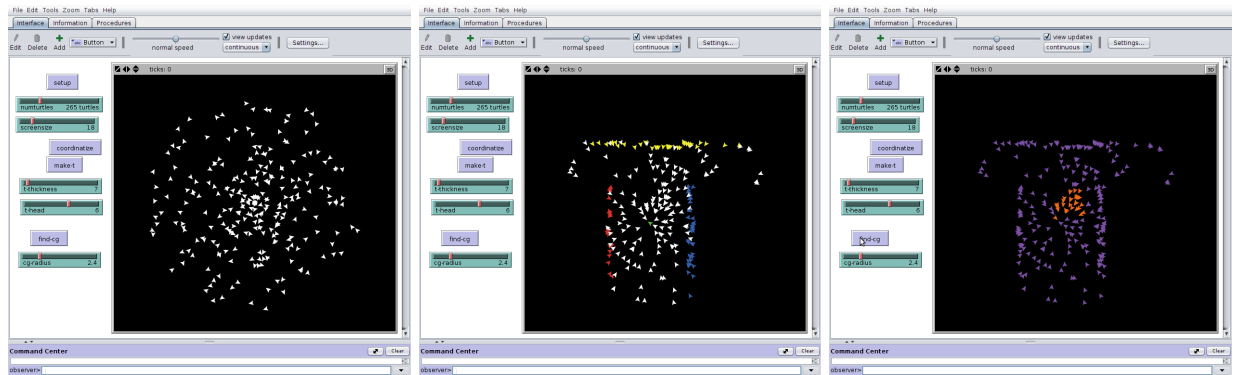
The implementation starts with “global” values that are shared (and constant) between all agents in the system. Note that NetLogo, because of its roots in Logo, uses the terminology `turtle` to mean “agent.” Thus the position of the `origin-turtle` (i.e., the agent elected as the origin of the local coordinate system) is shared between all agents.

```
globals [ origin-turtle ]
```

NetLogo also allows agents to track their own “local” values. By default, agents track their global position in local variables `xcor` and `ycor`, however, under the constraints of our reference example, we cannot make use of global coordinates. Thus, we define `xpos` and `ypos` as our local coordinate values. Further, we add a state variable `is-origin` as a convenient way for an agent to determine if it has been designated as the origin of the local coordinate system.

```
turtles-own [ xpos ypos is-origin ]
```

The `setup` method resets the state of the world and randomly distributes and rotates a certain number of turtles. The variables `numturtles` and `screen-size` are configuration values which are set at configuration time and have global scope. Figure 10(a) shows a simulation of the execution of the `setup` method.



(a) Initial distribution

(b) Creating T-shape

(c) Finding CoG

Figure 10: NetLogo execution of the “T program” reference example.

```

to setup
  clear-all      ;; clear the world
  crt numturtles ;; make new turtles
  ask turtles
  [
    set color white      ;; all turtles turn white
    fd random screensize ;; ...move forward one step
    rt random 360        ;; ...and turn a random amount
    set is-origin false  ;; default all to non-origin
  ]
end

```

To establish a local coordinate system, we make use of each agents’ ability to determine the direction and distance to an “origin” node, selected in the `coordinatize` function. The notion of the network is abstracted and it is assumed that any agent can determine the vector (i.e., direction and distance) to any other agent (via the function `compute-vec-to`). We then use the function `polar-to-cartesian` to convert distance (r) and direction (θ) into Cartesian coordinates.

```

to-report polar-to-cartesian [theta r]
  let x (r * cos(theta))
  let y (r * sin(theta))
  report list x y
end

to compute-vec-to [agent]
  ifelse is-origin = true
  [
    set xpos 0
    set ypos 0
  ]
  [
    let cartesian polar-to-cartesian towards agent distance agent
    set xpos item 1 cartesian
    set ypos (-1 * item 0 cartesian)
    face agent
  ]
end

```



```

to coordinatize
  if is-turtle? origin-turtle
  [ ask origin-turtle
    [
      set is-origin false
      set color white
    ]
  ]
  set origin-turtle one-of turtles
  ask origin-turtle
  [
    set is-origin true
    set color green
  ]
  ask turtles
  [ compute-vec-to origin-turtle ]
end

```

The next section of the program, the `make-t` function, selects nodes that fall within ranges of the coordinate space and moves them to create a “T” shape around the origin. Note that the `mov` command first ensures that an agent is facing a given direction, then proceeds forward for a given number of steps.

```

to mov [head dist]
  set heading head
  fd dist
  compute-vec-to origin-turtle
end

to make-t
;; right side of the lower part of the T
ask turtles with [(xpos > t-thickness) and (ypos < t-head)]
[
  set color red
  ;; move into the body of the T
  while [ xpos > t-thickness ]
  [mov 90 1]
]
;; left side of the lower part of the T
ask turtles with [(xpos < (-1 * t-thickness)) and (ypos < t-head)]
[
  set color blue
  ;; move into the body of the T
  while [ xpos < (-1 * t-thickness) ]
  [mov 270 1]
]
;; top of the T
ask turtles with [ypos > (t-head + t-thickness)]
[
  set color yellow
  ;; move into the body of the T
  while [ypos > (t-head + t-thickness)]
  [mov 180 1]
]
end

```

The center-of-gravity is computed by dividing the sum of all agents’ positions in each dimension by the number of agents. This approach assumes that every node is weighted equally and every node is connected. Finally, if agents fall within a certain radius from the center-of-gravity, they are colored orange.

```

to find-cg
  ;; center-of-gravity = sum of coordinate / number of devices
  ask turtles
  [
    ifelse (abs(xpos - (sum [ xpos ] of turtles / numturtles)) < cg-radius)
    [
      ifelse (abs(ypos - (sum [ ypos ] of turtles / numturtles)) < cg-radius)
      [set color orange]
      [set color violet]
    ]
    [set color violet]
  ]
end

```

3.3.6 Analysis

The characteristics of the DSL classes are summarized in Table 1, 2, and 3, based on the taxonomy proposed in Section 2. Table 1 shows the *linguistic* properties for each class of agent-based DSL. Table 2 similarly depicts each class’s *spatial* properties, and Table 3 summarizes each class’s *abstract device* properties.

First we discuss the linguistic properties of the agent-based DSLs (summarized in Table 1). Graphical Agent Modeling Languages typically target end-users with a graphical UI. Often, these languages are simply graphical representations (or extensions) of other agent modeling languages (e.g., UML), paradigms (e.g., Belief-Desire-Intent (BDI) (Rao and Georgeff, 1995)), or meta-models (e.g., FAML (Beydoun et al., 2009)). Graphical Agent Modeling Languages function at a conceptual level—mapping actions or behaviors to the components of the agent system. Agent Frameworks, whose functions and designs are analyzed thoroughly in the Agent System Reference Model (ASRM) (Regli et al., 2009) and Agent System Reference Architecture (ASRA) (Nguyen et al., 2010), are often extensions of general-purpose languages that provide common tools to agent system designers and developers. The Foundation for Intelligent Physical Agents (FIPA) (IEEE Computer Society, 2011) provides specifications for which these language extensions can be implemented and interchangeably utilized. Most often, these libraries extend imperative languages (as was the case for Jade (Telecom Italia Lab, 2011), Cougaar (Helsing et al., 2004), and AGLOBE (Czech Technical Institute Agent Technology Center, 2011)), but there are also some declarative agent frameworks (e.g., JESS (Ernest Friedman-Hill, 2008)). The platform scope of agent frameworks, however, varies widely. Multi-Agent Modeling and Simulation Toolkits, which focus on modeling and simulating inter-agent and environmental interactions, have a broad scope in terms of their DSL design. Their types and patterns vary from LOGO-based scripting and simulation environments (e.g., NetLogo (Sklar, 2007), StarLogo (Resnick, 1996)) to full tool-suites designed for use by non-programmers (e.g., Swarm (Mina et al., 1996), MAML (Gulyás et al., 1999)).

As shown in Table 2, the only class of Agent-Based DSLs that exhibit spatial properties are the Multi-Agent Modeling and Simulation Toolkits. This fact is likely due to tight integration between the language and simulation environments, allowing the toolkit to expose language features that are unavailable in many distributed systems (e.g., distance, movement).

Abstract device properties of agent-based DSLs are shown in Table 3. Agent-based DSLs typically offer discrete modalities for interacting with agents, although some (e.g., Echo (Forrest and Jones, 1994)) offer cellular discretization. Similarly, most agent-based DSLs attempt to abstract the notion of the network from the programmer, offering global communication ranges. Notable exceptions are in the Multi-Agent Modeling and Simulation Toolkit class, where first-class notions of network topology and network links allow the programmers to *simulate* the restriction of agent communication. The granularity of communication is typically unicast (i.e., agent to agent), however some Multi-Agent Modeling and Simulation Toolkits allow communication to occur in a multicast style (i.e., to a set of agents). This is ideally demonstrated by the *ask* feature of NetLogo in the reference example in Section 3.3.5. NetLogo allows unicast communication by specifying a single turtle (e.g., *ask origin-turtle*) or multicast communication by specifying a set of turtles (e.g., *ask turtles*). Finally, mobile code is a feature of some agent-based DSLs because it is a useful

mechanism for distributed algorithms. Modeling and simulation languages and toolkits typically execute a single, uniform program, whereas agent frameworks tend to provide features for facilitating agent (code) mobility (Usbeck and Beal, 2011).

3.4 Wireless Sensor Networks

Wireless sensor networks are a field of research concerned with the development of large networks made up of devices performing primarily a sensing function. The devices in the network (*nodes* or *motes*) are usually built using off-the-shelf-components and include a processor, a wireless communication interface and one or more sensors. As they are autonomous devices, the amount of energy they can use is often limited (by the battery on board or energy scavenging device) — hence the main design restriction targets *energy efficiency*. In order to optimize for this, common practice includes duty-cycling (having the mote alternate between long power-down modes and short bursts of activity), trade-offs between “expensive” wireless communication and “cheap” local processing, multi-hop communication and distributed algorithms.

The main goal of wireless sensor networks is efficient data collection and delivery to a gateway linked to infrastructure (i.e., Internet). Exceptions exist in the form of wireless sensor networks employing actuators, networks with multiple (mobile) gateways, etc. We will focus on the “traditional” sensor network made up of a collection of homogeneous or heterogeneous static devices. Collecting data at a single gateway from a large network is a non-scalable process (limited bandwidth being the major constraint). Thus, techniques such as data aggregation, selection of a subset of data to be gathered, filtering of data and in-network processing are common operations the designer faces in most of the deployments. These techniques are usually gathered under the saying “the network is the tool” reflecting the fact that a network delivering pre-processed data or synthesized events is often desired.

Data collection and dissemination is heavily linked to the network topology under which it operates. For example, organizing the network as a graph (a tree) is a common technique that allows simple algorithms to be employed on resource-poor devices. Aspects such as communication patterns (short or long transmission ranges, broadcast or unicast type, group based or device based, etc.) are a key building block of the final application and are usually dictated by the underlying hardware platform.

In order to implement data dissemination on top of the distributed platform, each device must be capable of supporting the execution of its local algorithm. In order to do this, operating systems such as TinyOS (Levis et al., 2005) and Contiki (Dunkels et al., 2004) are employed, providing common functionality such as hardware abstraction layers, scheduling mechanisms for tasks, execution parallelism, etc. It is common to see virtual machines implemented on top of these systems, in order to extend the basic functionality offered.

This brief introduction already outlines the main concerns faced by designers of applications for wireless sensor networks. They are basically driving factors for developing DSLs for the wireless sensor network platforms. Automating and abstracting some of the following mechanisms is the logical step to take:

- *Hardware and software platform* is usually specific to each deployed application. Usual operations that can be automated are the control of the hardware components via a hardware abstraction layer, providing common programming support in the form of an operating system, etc. The possibility of turning on and off components (radio, sensors, processing routines) reacting to the event-driven programming paradigm is an important feature.
- *Communication and topology control* is being performed in virtually all sensor networks applications. Primitives abstracting the communication protocols needed for discovering, creating and maintaining a topology need to be provided. This is the key goal of several DSLs in the region-based DSLs category (presented below) while completely abstracted in all other categories. The basic ingredients for this are neighborhood discovery, routing algorithms, and transport protocols.
- *Data dissemination* being the main goal of the sensor networks applications must be supported with high level primitives for querying the network for specific items (for example, in the form of a SQL-like language). This is achieved by combining networking algorithms with transport protocol, ensuring

data delivery over optimal paths. The maintenance of these paths is done without the involvement of the user.

- *Energy efficiency constraints* lead to the need of predefining or automatically tuning the trade-off between communication and local processing. Estimation of quality of service metrics at runtime is a common mechanism through which this is achieved. The collection and processing of data for deriving the metrics (e.g., the radio link quality between two devices) is performed in the background.

A large number of DSLs have been built already, addressing combinations of the previous concerns (see (Sugihara and Gupta, 2008; Mottola and Picco, 2011) for recent surveys). Taking note of the previous work, we would like to extend the analysis in (Mottola and Picco, 2011) in order to bring into focus the aspect of spatial computing. We propose an extension of the original taxonomy, looking at the basic mechanisms used in programming the network. We have identified five classes, as follows:

3.4.1 Region-based DSLs

By far, the largest number of DSLs targeting wireless sensor networks is found in the category of region-based DSLs, showing the programmer’s need for expressing operations at the level of regions (i.e., neighborhoods, sets, etc.) rather than individual devices. For example, *Abstract Regions* (Welsh and Mainland, 2004) offers a family of spatial operators that allows addressing of regions of the network. Additional characteristics include information about the trade-off communication-computation resources and extension of the underlying TinyOS operating system with a thread-like concurrency mechanism called fibers. A similar DSL is *Hood* (Whitehouse et al., 2004), which offers functionality for defining one-hop neighborhoods and sharing data between nodes (these mechanisms being transparent to the programmer).

Logical Neighborhoods (Mottola and Picco, 2006) is somewhat more general in the sense that the definition of neighborhood is relaxed, not being restricted to physical proximity anymore. Nodes sharing the same characteristics can be addressed together, even if they are spread throughout the network. A direct extension is *Virtual Nodes* (Ciciriello et al., 2006), in which each neighborhood is seen as a single virtual sensor. The language adds further optimization to the compiler and network level.

Several other DSLs are built upon the same concept of addressing local neighborhoods, *Pieces* (Liu et al., 2003) and *TeenyLime* (Costa et al., 2006) being a few examples. The neighborhood information can be addressed in several manners: *EnviroSuite* (Abdelzaher et al., 2004) provides a programming interface aimed at tracking applications which creates objects for physical entities.

Snlog (Chu et al., 2006) is a rule-based approach, similar to logic programming, where rules are executed using a one-hop abstraction. It follows the foundation laid by NDLog (Loo et al., 2006) and actually belongs to a larger suite of languages including Dedalus (Alvaro, 2009) and DAHL (Lopes et al., 2010). In this group, the closest to the spatial languages comes Netlog (Grumbach and Wang, 2010) whose semantics allow moving of facts to neighbors and to any routable device with a known ID.

Regiment (Newton et al., 2007) presents itself as a functional language, allowing easy access to data streams (called signals). Low level details (such as one-hop communication, parallelism, etc.) are achieved from successive translations of the initial program into different languages stacked on top of each other (four translations are necessary to obtain final code). It is the closest language to spatial computing in the wireless sensor network domain. This is due to the combination between the flexibility with which users can specify regions (both hop-based and distance-based - similar to Abstract Regions), and the functional interface it offers.

The concept of *region* comprises several representations of the space. The region can be defined geometrically, as the distance from a certain point (as done in Regiment and Abstract Regions), the set of nodes within a number of hop counts from a node (as done in Hood) or a set of nodes complying to some predicates (as done in Logical Neighborhoods).

3.4.2 Dataflow based DSLs

Dataflow based DSLs are one level of abstraction higher. Although their execution uses neighborhoods as part of the implementation, the user does not need to access them directly. Instead, the applications can be specified as a dataflow graph, in which the user specifies how the software components are linked by data. The location of the software, the communication between devices, locating and transferring the data in the neighborhoods, etc. are built into the languages. The simplest example in this category is *Active Messages* (Gay et al., 2003) in which software components are expressed in the nesC programming language. Active Messages is a mechanism allowing asynchronous communication between components via interfaces that provide commands and events. The resulting system is similar to a socket system, having the advantage of allowing modularity and enabling event-driven computation.

As a conceptual extension, *Abstract Task Graph* (ATAG) (Pathak et al., 2007) allows the user to express data transformations in a distributed system independent of the architecture. Abstract tasks run on individual devices communicating via abstract data, accessible via abstract channels. The user specifies the code for the tasks and the way in which they interact with data. Low-level operations, such as task deployment and physical communication, are abstracted away. *MiLAN* (Heinzelman et al., 2004) provides automatic selection of sensors and groups of nodes based on the quality of service of the collected data. The user specifies the execution as a state machine with quality of service requirements for each transition. Milan selects the appropriate sensors to collect the data. Networking layers functionality is provided by the network plug-in system and a service discovery is employed as well.

This class of DSLs presents almost no common characteristics with the spatial programming approaches. The focus of these languages is on providing functionality by linking the right software components, spatial features are to be implemented on top, as part of the components themselves.

3.4.3 Database-like DSLs

Database-like DSLs treat the wireless sensor network as a real database. They abstract low-level communication functionality, focusing exclusively on data collection and aggregation. As example, *DSWare* (Li et al., 2004) is a SQL-based approach built on top of an extended event concept. Paths are established in the network, linking the subscriptions for specific data at the gateway with the nodes actually producing the events. The user benefits from the functionality of optimizations at network level, both in the network paths creation and maintenance, and the data aggregation in the network.

TinyDB (Madden et al., 2002) is one of the first high-level DSLs proposed and follows the database approach, hiding the necessary networking mechanisms from the user (e.g., the queries emitted in the network define the routing tree). Users are not involved in the low level aspects of data aggregation. Closely related, *Cougar* (Yao and Gehrke, 2002) (not to be confused with the agent language Cougaar (Helsing et al., 2004)) allows the user to write queries over the data in the database and the system optimizes the dissemination of the queries and the aggregation of the results. A notable example of DSL in this category is *SINA* (Shen et al., 2001) which differs due to a mechanism which allows easy addition of new data operators, extending the original set of SQL commands. The authors of (Duckham et al., 2005) propose a database-like approach as well, with the difference that the querying mechanism is built upon a qualitative representation of *dynamic fields*. The authors identify two basic entities used in accessing the network, mainly the *continuants* (e.g., regions that endure time) and *occurents* (e.g., transitory events).

This class of DSLs has two characteristics in common with those of amorphous computing. First, the computation pattern relies on a continuous representation of space, where users specify areas of interest and time intervals. Second, the high level description of the queries are basically operators over the space/time continuum.

3.4.4 Centralized-view DSLs

Centralized-view DSLs are basically a set of high-level languages that approach wireless sensor networks from a different perspective than the dataflow-based DSLs. The main differences lie in the fact that the data collection and aggregation functionality is not predefined. These languages allow the user to define

the application functionality *for the whole network* with a single program. For example, *Pleiades* (Kothari et al., 2007) allows sequential execution over the whole sensor network. The network is seen as a central object, a container of nodes, and users can write a “for” loop which iterates through all the nodes. Parallel execution of the basic “for” instruction can be specified and the compiler transforms the initial program into a collection of distributed algorithms that emulate sequentially over the distributed system.

Kairos (Gummadi et al., 2005) is similar to *Pleiades*, offering a centralized view of the whole network. It presents itself as an extension of the Python language. Somewhat different, *MacroLab* (Hnat et al., 2008) is a programming approach similar to Matlab - the network being represented as a matrix. Each row in the matrix represents one sensor node, each column a data type. Operations such as dot product are allowed over the whole matrix and the language abstracts the networking part.

None of the languages in this class have common points with the spatial computing approach. The effort is on providing the user with a discrete representation of the space, where data on each device can be addressed individually, using sequential programming.

3.4.5 Agent-based DSLs

Agent-based DSLs are a special subset of DSLs for wireless sensor networks, making the transition to more powerful system, such as mobile ad-hoc networks. The basic idea is that software agents contain the needed functionality to process data and to perform local aggregation while, for example, following a certain physical event through the network. These languages also build upon the region information, but they allow more complex applications than data collection and dissemination.

As notable examples in this category, we mention *Agilla* (Fok et al., 2005) which is an agent framework built on top of TinyOs. Agents travel across the nodes together with their state. Each node maintains a tuple space allowing interaction between the agents and are addressed by location rather than network address. Basic functionality offered to the programmer includes the list of neighbors, information on the tuple space at neighboring nodes, migration of agents. *Agilla* supplies an agent manager and implements memory management and a virtual machine. *SensorWare* (Boulis et al., 2007) is similar to *Agilla*, only that the code is expressed in Tcl. The state of the agents is not maintained, thus code re-initializes each time the agent moves to a different node. *Spatial Programming* (Borcea et al., 2004) combines a light agent-based approach, in which scripts can migrate, with a unique addressing of space involving geographical areas. The addressing of space is translated automatically to the real network deployment. The migration of the agents is provided automatically by all these frameworks. Due to the unreliability of radio communication, there is always a chance that the transfer of agents fails, the effort of ensuring safe relocation of the agents being a distinguishing factor between these three approaches.

With the exception of the last presented DSL, the languages in this class have little in common with spatial computing. As in the dataflow-based category, the focus is on specifying the functionality of the building blocks (agents) in close relationship to the available events/data rather than to space/time.

3.4.6 Reference Example: Regiment

Most of the “T-Program” example cannot be implemented by wireless sensor network DSLs, since they only gather data and do not have the ability to actuate. Most also do not have the ability to measure space that is needed for computing coordinates, but depend on global coordinates to be provided. Computing an aggregate property like the center of gravity, however, is a task for which these DSLs are typically well-suited.

The following Regiment program (adapted from (Newton et al., 2007)) computes the X-coordinate of the center of gravity by averaging of the X values of all members of a network of sensors. The program uses the constructs *rmap* to obtain readings of an assumed global X coordinate from all devices and *rfold* to fold them into a single signal. The aggregation is realized via the *dosum* function which uses a tuple (total value, counter) to represent the collected data. After computing the average, the result is directed towards the base. The example shows the great flexibility offered by the in-network aggregation, achieved in an elegant manner and with relatively small amount of code.

```

dosum :: float, (float, int) -> (float, int)
fun dosum(X, (sumX, count)) {
  (sumX+X, count+1)
}

Xreg = rmap(fun(nd){sense("X",nd)}, world);
sumsig = rfold(dosum, (0,0), Xreg);
avgsig = smap( fun((sum,cnt)) {sum / cnt}, sumsig);

BASE <- avgsig

```

3.4.7 Analysis

The characteristics of the five DSL classes are summarized in Table 1, 2, and 3, based on the taxonomy proposed in Section 2. Table 1 shows that only the dataflow-based DSLs fall under the category of language inventions (according to the taxonomy proposed in (Mernik et al., 2005)). The predominant type of programming is imperative, the database-like DSLs being the exception. As far as layers in Figure 2 are concerned, the results vary widely. From the perspective of the need of a spatial description of the languages, only the database-like DSLs come close. Unfortunately, these DSLs are very limited in their functionality, being specifically designed for the data dissemination application. As far as the platform is concerned, three out of the five categories address the network as a whole, offering a balanced alternative (taking into account also the number of DSLs in each category).

Regarding the spatial characteristics of the surveyed DSLs, Table 2 gives a clear argument against the suitability of the wireless sensor network DSLs for filling the gap between designers and embedded systems platforms. The only two categories having entries in this table are the region-based DSLs and database-like DSLs. Even for these two, most of the columns contain no entries. One of the reasons for which wireless sensor network DSLs do not meet the spatial computing requirements is that the application which primarily drove their development (data dissemination) is restrictive in itself regarding the needed functionality. Additionally, we note that the large majority of setups include static topologies with a single data-collection point (mobile networks and multiple-gateway setups are seen as exceptions).

As far as the abstract device taxonomy is concerned, the results are presented in Table 3. Inspecting this data, it follows that there is a balance between the categories of DSLs from the spatial and communication perspective. The main design constraint of static networks for monitoring applications is reflected in the last column where with the exception of the agent-based DSLs, the code is mainly stationary. It is worth noticing that the agent-based DSLs are a somewhat exceptional case in the wireless sensor networks world, requiring powerful hardware that is at the boundary of what is called a resource-poor device.

As a conclusion to this section, we note that a large collection of DSLs exists for the field of wireless sensor networks. This study surveyed only the ones which allow writing general applications for the sensor network platform - several other DSLs exist targeting specific sub-problems (such as cluster formation (Frank and Romer, 2005), efficient code dissemination (Levis and Culler, 2002), etc.). We noticed also that languages are often stacked, to combine the complementary features they offer. From the spatial computing perspective, two categories of languages share a few characteristics (region-based DSLs and database-like DSLs), being nonetheless extremely limited.

3.5 Pervasive Computing

Pervasive computing is the scenario in which people, immersed in their typical environment, are able to automatically interact with sensors and actuators spread throughout in order to consume information of interest based on their preferences and situation, and to produce information for other people. Due to the intrinsic complexity of such systems, metaphors inspired by nature are typically adopted for their design and implementation (Zambonelli and Viroli, 2011).

The computational network over which pervasive computing applications typically run, very much resembles a WSN: it hosts mobile nodes (e.g., smartphones, sensors on cars, etc.) and it heavily relies upon wireless technologies because devices spread throughout the environment are rarely networked by wires. On the other hand, some differences from WSNs are worth noting: pervasive computing *(i)* appears to handle a wider set of networking scenarios, which can possibly include global communications, *(ii)* is much less constrained by limitations in energy or computational power, and *(iii)* is intrinsically more “open” to handle a heterogeneous set of devices and content (data, knowledge, media) (Zambonelli and Viroli, 2011). Accordingly, in pervasive computing the interactions of devices typically require both techniques of self-organization to make global properties emerge, and expressive means to elaborate information (e.g., semantic matching, or application-specific programmed matching).

There are relatively few examples of pervasive computing DSLs with spatial operators: most, like the LINDA coordination language (Gelernter and Carriero, 1992) and other tuple-space languages, largely seek to abstract the network from the programmer entirely. Thus, each of the following sections describe a particular language or model. *Tuples on the Air (TOTA)* is a middleware for sharing data in the form of tuples (i.e., lists) efficiently throughout a network. Next, the *Chemical Reaction Model* draws on inspiration from chemical reactions to shape how data spreads throughout the network. Finally, *Zones-of-Influence (ZoI)* from the Peer-It system models the pervasive devices that can influence or interact with each other.

3.5.1 Tuples on the Air (TOTA)

The main example of a programming framework for pervasive computing incorporating ideas related to spatial computing is Tuples On the Air (TOTA) (Mamei and Zambonelli, 2008) TOTA is a tuple-based middleware supporting field-based coordination: each node hosts a tuple space, from which tuples can diffuse in the network through neighbors, creating spatial fields. In TOTA each tuple, when inserted into a node of the network, is equipped with content (the tuple data), a diffusion rule (the policy by which the tuple is to be cloned and diffused), and a maintenance rule (the policy whereby the tuple should evolve due to events or elapsed time). Hence, it carries the behavior needed to identify its region of influence. These behaviors are written in Java, making TOTA an extension DSL.

The only spatial operator directly supported by TOTA is the *neighbor* concept. Other concepts are possible like GPS absolute/relative position, but they must be programmed on top of the TOTA API. Using such concepts allows for more advanced spatial mechanisms, which would not otherwise be supported natively in TOTA.

3.5.2 Chemical Reaction Model

Following the idea of TOTA, the work in (Viroli et al., 2011a) aims to create a DSL for the coordination of pervasive computing applications—as in TOTA, it addresses management of agent interaction, not of agent behavior. This is a biochemical-inspired language of semantic reactions: each reaction dictates how the population of tuples, spread through the network, should evolve and diffuse. Evolution is meant to exactly mimic chemistry, in that a “concentration value” is carried in each tuple and is updated using stochastic chemical models after the fashion of (Gillespie, 1977). Most importantly here, diffusion is achieved by reactions producing so-called “firing” tuples, which schedule them for relocation to a neighboring device. The destination is selected probabilistically, taking into account a transfer rate characterizing each node-to-node interaction channel. The proposed language actually abstracts the details of semantic matching, which is however recognized as a key ingredient of DSLs for pervasive computing. A preliminary DSL including semantic and spatial aspects into a chemical-inspired framework is presented in (Viroli et al., 2011b). There, spatial aspects are handled as any other semantic information: the existence (and relative position, distance, and orientation) are treated as a tuple, and relocation of a tuple is achieved by modifying a specific `location` property of it.

This work is an extension of the work in (Montagna et al., 2011), in which the syntax of chemical reactions is directly applied to specify pattern rules for local processing of tuples. A pattern can be prepended by symbol `+` meaning that the tuple is to be searched in a neighbour *r* of the node *n* in which the reaction is

fired. Additionally, variable $\#D$ can be used to mean the estimated distance of r from n , and $\#T$ is the time at which the reaction is fired. As an example, the reactions used to create a gradient structure of tuples would be:

$$\langle \text{gradient}, \text{Source}, \text{Dist} \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{gradient}, \text{Source}, \text{Dist} \rangle, + \langle \text{gradient}, \text{Source}, \text{Dist} + \#D \rangle$$

$$\langle \text{gradient}, \text{Source}, \text{Dist} \rangle, \langle \text{gradient}, \text{Source}, \text{Dist}2 \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{gradient}, \text{Source}, \min(\text{Dist}, \text{Dist}2) \rangle$$

The former propagates a clone of the gradient tuple in any neighbour, properly replacing the distance value; the latter takes two gradients tuples for the same source and retains the one with shortest distance from the source.

3.5.3 Spatially Scoped Tuples

An alternate approach is to explicitly encode spatial scope into tuples, using relative or global coordinates, and then use localization of devices to determine their distribution.

Geo-Linda (Pauty et al., 2007) is an example of such a DSL. Derived from the earlier SPREAD system (Couderc and Banatre, 2003), it combines the tuple manipulation of LINDA with the geometric addressing concepts of SPREAD. In Geo-Linda, tuples are read and published over an assortment of geometric primitives, such as boxes, spheres, cylinders, and cones, all defined relative to a device. The language also introduces primitives to detect coarse movement of devices through the appearance or disappearance of tuples.

Another example is the Peer-It system (Ferscha et al., 2008; Holzmann and Ferscha, 2010), in which a “Zone-of-Influence” (ZoI) model is introduced to describe whether a pervasive device may or may not influence the activity of another one depending on their relative position in space.

Technically, a ZoI represents a spatial region (numerical position, direction and spatial extent), but qualitative abstractions can be used including concepts like: being in front or behind an object, near/medium/far from an object, being in similar/opposite/left/right direction, and covering disjoint/overlapping/equal areas.

Though this work does not form a complete programming language, it does present a markup language to express such ZoIs which could be used as the basis for specifications of behavior in another pervasive DSL.

3.5.4 Reference Example: TOTA

The lack of primitives for measuring or manipulating space means that TOTA cannot implement most of the reference “T-Program” example. Assuming a center of gravity has been calculated, however, the following code shows how a ring pattern can be computed in TOTA by means of a gradient tuple, spreading from the center of gravity and keeping track of the estimated distance from that source. (activation will then happen to tuples whose distances from the source falls within a given range):

```
class RingTuple extends FieldTuple{
  ...
  protected boolean decideEnter() {
    RingTuple prev = (RingTuple)tota.keyrd(this);
    return prev == null ||
           prev.hop > (this.hop + 1);
  }
  protected void changeTupleContent() {
    hop++;
    if (hop <= RingTuple.RING_MAX &&
        hop >= RingTuple.RING_MIN) {
      this.ring_activation=true;
    }
  }
  protected void decidePropagate() {
    return true;
  }
}
```

A gradient tuple always spreads in all neighbors because of the implementation of method `decidePropagate()`. As it is received in a neighbor, method `decideEnter()` is executed to decide whether this tuple (`this`) is to be stored or not, which in this case is true if no gradient tuple is already there (`prev`) or if this tuple has a lesser `hop` counter. If the tuple is to be stored, method `changeTupleContent` increments the hop counter by one, which sets a flag stopping the run if the counter is in the desired range.

3.5.5 Analysis

The characteristics of the Pervasive Computing DSL classes are summarized in Table 1, 2, and 3, based on the taxonomy proposed in Section 2.

As summarized in Table 1, TOTA, a Java library, is an imperative language extension designed for wired and wireless multi-hop networks. The chemical reaction model, although targeted at the same types of networks as TOTA, has an invented syntax with rule-based semantics, while the spatially-scoped tuple approaches tend to be extensions.

Table 2 shows the spatial properties of pervasive computing DSLs. TOTA, like the LINDA coordination language (Gelernter and Carriero, 1992) and other tuple-space languages, largely seeks to abstract spatial properties of the network from the programmer. Thus, TOTA has very few spatial properties—with the exception of neighborhood propagation. The chemical reaction model, on the other hand, makes use of a spatial gradient for *diffusing* information to network neighbors. Spatially scoped tuples, on the other hand, offer explicit patterns over communication neighborhoods.

As far as the abstract device model summarized in Table 3, all pervasive computing DSLs utilize an immobile (i.e., uniform) program targeted for discrete devices, though the devices might be moved by external agents, such as humans carrying or operating them. The difference in frameworks comes from their communication modalities. TOTA uses a distributed publish-subscribe mechanism for global, multicast communication and has a neighborhood communication range. The chemical reaction model and spatially-scoped tuples also use a neighborhood communication range, however, they can also direct messages to individual users (i.e., unicast granularity).

3.6 Swarm and Modular Robotics

Multi-robot systems tend to be spatial both due to the locality of their communication and the physical interactions of the robots. In swarm robotics, the robots are typically not in physical contact and may be spread fairly broadly through space: goals are typically specified in terms of sensing and actuation interactions with the external environment, such as mapping or search and rescue. In modular robotics, on the other hand, the robots are typically in contact and working together to form a desired physical shape. There is a great deal of similarity in the control problems encountered in these fields, however, and some recent projects (e.g., (Christensen et al., 2007)) bridge the two domains.

3.6.1 Swarm robotics

Swarm robotics emphasizes multi-robot systems with large number of agents, individual simplicity, and local interactions. One of the promises of swarm robotics is robust and scalable operation with applications such as environmental monitoring, search and rescue using swarms of aerial vehicles, or oil spill clean-up — applications that take advantage of the ability of a swarm to cover large amounts of space in parallel. Efficient algorithms to these problems usually require the individual swarm members to localize themselves either globally or locally with respect to each other. These physical capabilities also lend themselves directly to measuring and manipulating space-time such as they are facilitated by the Proto (Bachrach et al., 2010) DSL, which has been demonstrated on robot swarms with local range and bearing capabilities. The typical approach to swarm control with Proto has been to compute vector fields over the swarm, computing with them and combining them to produce a commanded velocity for each robot.

In order to control the shape of a swarm, e.g., to implement the reference example “T-Program,” a robot would need the following capabilities:

- the ability to *localize* to resolve a coordinate system (possibly indirectly, e.g., by inference from change of neighbors).
- the ability to *communicate* either locally or globally to exchange state information, and
- the existence of *unique identification numbers* to identify other robots' communication messages.

With these abilities, the swarm could be either programmed using a multi-agent framework such as NetLogo using the code in Section 3.3.5 or a manifold language such as Proto using the code in Section 3.1.3. Here it is worth noting that the choice of language might heavily bias the performance of the implementation: for example, the NetLogo construct *ask turtles* is implemented as a loop whose execution time scales linearly with the number of robots (and scales quadratically with respect to the total number of messages exchanged in the swarm), as each robot queries every other robot's coordinates. The Proto implementation's *sum-hood* operator instead implies a broadcast operation that scales more favorably (but whose reliable implementation in a congested communication environment is dependent on its low-level implementation). However, using a language such as NetLogo limits execution to simulation (hence the linear behavior of *ask turtles*), whereas Proto compiles to local behavior, thus allowing the program to run on a real network of robots.

An additional class of swarms are those whose individual members do not have access to global and/or local localization. This is the case for bacteria assembling structures at the microscale (Martel and Mohammadi, 2010) or miniature robots imitating the capabilities of social insects whose capabilities to localize are also limited to exploitation of gradient fields (pheromones, e.g.) or crude global bearing estimates based on sun, wind or magnetic field. Robotic instances of such systems include collaborative manipulation (Martinoli et al., 2004), aggregation (Correll and Martinoli, 2011), and clustering (Martinoli et al., 1999). The behavior of the individual units in these kind of swarms can usually be described using a Finite State Machine (FSM), which has both deterministic and probabilistic transitions, where transition probabilities reflect the uncertainty of sensing and actuation on a miniature robot. As localization is usually not assumed, space is abstracted by assuming an average spatial distribution of the swarm. This distribution can be uniform and constant, leading to constant probabilities for robots to encounter objects and each other in the environment, or arbitrarily parameterized, leading to a time and space-dependent encountering probability (Prorok et al., 2011). A DSL targeted to this class of systems is MDL2 ϵ , which allows the description of states and state transitions using an XML-based language and compiles to bytecode for a virtual machine JaMOS (Szymanski and Woern, 2007). JaMOS/MDL2 ϵ is helpful to the programmer in abstracting the hardware interfaces of a specific platform and facilitates programming of the platform as only byte code needs to be transferred. It does provide only little conceptual benefits, however.

In contrast, the PRISM language (Kwiatkowska et al., 2011) is a state-based language, based on the Reactive Modules formalism (Alur and Henzinger, 1999) targeted at probabilistic model checking of stochastic communication networks, biological reaction networks and potentially robotic swarms that can be described as probabilistic automata such as those encoded by MDL2 ϵ or those hand-coded for systems like (Martinoli et al., 2004; Correll and Martinoli, 2011; Martinoli et al., 1999). After defining a probabilistic automaton, Markov chain, or Markov Decision process, PRISM compiles differential equations that model the average number of agents in a certain state if possible, or uses Gillespie simulation (Gillespie, 1977) otherwise. This allows the designer to quickly understand the average stochastic dynamics that emerge from a specific set of rules.

Graph grammars are another important approach to specifying swarm formations. Graph grammars, or graph rewriting systems, are rule sets that transform one graph into another. In a self-assembly context, e.g., for assembling the T-shape, a desired assembly can be represented as a graph. The assembly process becomes a sequence of (labeled graph) transformations of an edgeless graph into the target graph, known as Graph Rewriting Systems on Induced Subgraphs (Litovsky et al., 1992; Klavins et al., 2006). This graph rewriting system takes one subgraph as input and has another subgraph as output (in the process removing or adding edges and changing the labels). Here, nodes represent individual robots, the rewriting represents reconfiguration of these robots, and the labels represent robot states. Rewriting rules are of the form:

$$\phi_{fi} : X \quad A \Rightarrow Y - Z$$

For executing a rule the labels of the two modules constituting the subgraph are compared to the LHS (left-hand side) of the graph grammar rule ϕ_{fi} . If these subgraphs match, they are replaced by the subgraph shown on the RHS of the ϕ_{fi} . This replacement indicates that the states of the original modules X and A are replaced by Y and Z respectively. The actual physical connection between robots is indicated by the existence or absence of edges ‘-’ between the nodes of the subgraph on either side of the rule ϕ_i . We therefore refer to ϕ_{fi} as a **construction rule**. In order to break up a connection, we can define a **reversal rule**:

$$\phi_{ri} : Y - Z \Rightarrow X \quad A$$

Thus, connections can be made or broken between modules, depending on whether the LHS of the rule is satisfied, which itself might depend on the existing connection between modules represented by the subgraph. Reversal rules, can be executed by the environment or by active decisions of the modules themselves, which then need to exchange their states and initiate a disconnect sequence when either one detects a valid LHS. In this chapter, we use the convention that atomic modules that are not part of a structure are in state A .

3.6.2 Modular Robotics

Modular robots are reconfigurable robots that are constructed from modules that have the ability to autonomously attach and/or detach from each other to re-arrange themselves into different shapes (Yim et al., 2007). There also exist modular robot systems that require manual assembly and disassembly. The promise of modular robotic systems is increased versatility, due to their ability to reconfigure into robots with different functions, and robustness due to their potential to self-repair. As modular robotic systems consist of tens to hundreds of actuators and distributed computation, they pose deep challenges to DSLs for global-to-local programming. We explicitly consider two specific problems: generating local rules for module re-configuration from global descriptions of a desired shape, and generating local rules for motion generation from global descriptions of a desired spatio-temporal pattern.

- **Pattern formation** A DSL created for modular robotic systems is Meld (Ashley-Rollman et al., 2007, 2009), a declarative logic programming language. The goal of Meld is to simplify programming of modular robots, mainly with respect to expressiveness and size of the resulting code, as well as enable proofs of correctness based on the formal definition of the language. Meld is indeed able to express spatial computing algorithms such as gradient dissemination, shortest-path routing, and localization. These are important primitives for expressing morphology changes, and Meld has been used to implement morphological changes of large-scale distributed modular robotic systems in simulation. Meld does not provide primitives for solving the global-to-local programming problems for generating arbitrary patterns, however. Such patterns are commonly defined in the form of a 3D matrix using arbitrary graphical interfaces or directly using data structures provided the high-level programming language that implements the algorithm for local rule generation. For example, a T-shape such as the one used in our running example could be defined as computer-aided design (CAD) model, which can then be used to generate motion plans and local rules.

These algorithms operate at the *abstract device* layer. A common abstraction is the assumption that modules are *unit-compressible*, that is they can contract and extend their faces to move other modules within the structure and make room for other modules (Rus and Vona, 2001). Other abstractions include modules that are capable of linear motion on a plane of modules as well as convex and concave transitions into another plane (Rus et al., 2002; Stoy and Nagpal, 2004), modular robots that have the ability to disassemble as their sole mode of actuation (Gilpin et al., 2008), or simply modules that can be created or disappear anywhere in a 3D lattice (Dewey et al., 2008), among others. Finally, modular robots are dual to robot swarms when they are able to move in free-space (e.g., fly, swim, or roll). In this case, graph grammars as described in Section 3.6.1 can be derived from a desired target-graph such as the T-shape example in a 1-to-1 mapping. As graph grammars only encode the result of two interactions, however, they are limited to systems in which the generation of individual robot trajectories is trivial and can be achieved by local sensing, e.g., random walk with mutual attraction of matching pairs.

As such, the specification of desired shapes can be understood as a primitive form of a *declarative* DSL, in which the compiler essentially solves a path-planning problem (Walter et al., 2004). These compilers then generate a sequence of (event-driven) actuations that can be executed by the individual modules, often via a primitive virtual machine.

Once modular robots are assembled into a static shape, they become targets for any spatial computing programming approach, which then allows a programmer to implement algorithms such as the center-of-gravity example on a T-shape. Few works, however, are concerned with spatial computing aspects that go beyond the pattern formation problem.

- **Motion generation** The problem of motion generation can be expressed as a manipulation of space-time based on computed patterns. For example, motion of an inchworm-like structure can be generated by activating its actuators in a sinusoidal pattern. The resulting physical evolution will lead to the equivalent of a traveling sine wave. Most often, this is done by means of centralized control, but a number of spatial languages have emerged as well.

A DSL that we have already encountered that can be readily applied to this purpose is Proto (Beal and Bachrach, 2006). The actuations used are different than for moving swarm robots, since the devices typically remain fixed with respect to one another. Instead, the programmer manipulates shape with operations such as adjusting the curvature of space (corresponding to joint actuation), scaling space (corresponding to linear actuation), or adjusting its density (omnidirectional expansion or contraction of a robot). These continuous representation are more indirect, but abstract the choice of specific platform.

There are also specialized motion generation DSLs for modular robotics. One particularly powerful example is the DynaRole language (Schultz et al., 2007), which dynamically assigns behaviors to modules using code that migrates from a seed over the graph of connected modules, and has recently been extended to include gossip-based synchronization and automatic reversibility of behaviors (Bordignon et al., 2011b). This was made more spatial with the addition of directional labels (Schultz et al., 2008), and coupled with Modular Mechatronics Modelling Language (M3L) (Bordignon et al., 2011a), a DSL for high-level kinematic specification of modular robots. Together, these allow a behavior to be specified abstractly using labels, then to be automatically mapped onto the spatial realization of any compatible platform’s actuators, either in automatically generated simulations or on physical robots.

A related effort (as well as one of the targets supported by DynaRole) is ASE (Christensen et al., 2011), constructed as a C library that provides a wide variety of aggregate space-time operations, including broadcast, gossip, distance-measuring gradient, consensus, and synch—quite similar to the aggregate operators in Proto’s library. Another approach uses models of diffusing hormones to organize motion: this has been investigated in both (Shen et al., 2004) and (Hamann et al., 2010).

3.6.3 Reference Example: Graph Grammars

For our reference “T-Program” example, in order to construct a T-Shape consisting of 6 robots that has a width of 3 robots and a height of 4 robots, we could define the following rules that can be implemented by a finite automata and require only local communication and orientation:

X	X	->	A-B
B0	X	->	B-C
C0	X	->	C-D
D1	X	->	D-F
D3	X	->	D-E

This program assumes that each robot is in state X initially. As soon as two X meet, they begin constructing the T-shape from the bottom, up. The notation B0 indicates the port of the robot at which another robot can dock. In this example, we choose a 4-neighborhood, labeling the ports from 0 to 3 in clockwise order,

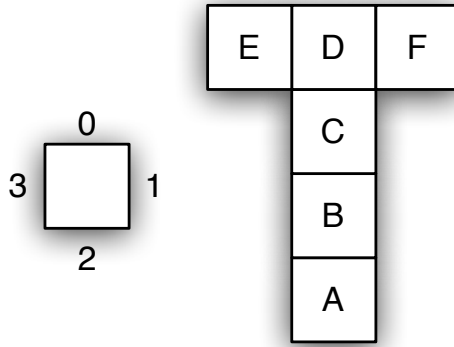


Figure 11: Construction of T-shape using a graph grammar.

with 0 being at the “top” of a robot. The robots will therefore assemble a column **ABCD** and then adding an **E** to the left and an **F** to the right, forming a simple T-shape as shown in Figure 11.

As soon as the shape is assembled, a coordinate system can be established in a multi-hop fashion enabling a spatial computing approach such as Proto to compute the center-of-gravity and produce the ring pattern.

3.6.4 Analysis

The characteristics of robotics DSL classes are summarized in Table 1, 2, and 3, based on the taxonomy proposed in Section 2. By and large these DSLs focus on the manipulation of space. For swarm robotics, the amorphous and agent languages already encountered provide the most spatial approach to aggregate control, but require that robots can obtain at least some local coordinate information. For modular robotics, in addition to Proto, which we have already encountered, ASE gives a large toolkit of aggregate space-time programming abstractions. One concern with ASE, however, is that to date it seems to have been tested only on small numbers of devices and so its scalability is not yet well established.

One of other notable things that appears in this domain are languages with an explicit connection to formal verifiability: in particular, Meld is both a spatial language and a predicate logic language, and work has been done on proving correctness of Meld programs. It is unclear, however, how well this actually translates to modular robotics, due to uncertainties in sensing, actuation, and communication. Thus, despite the advantages shown by Meld and ASE, it is not yet clear whether there is a general DSL for a large modular robotic system that allows to efficiently maintain dynamic state and specify the behavior of a large modular robotic system across both shape reconfiguration and locomotion in response to external events.

3.7 Parallel and Reconfigurable Computing

In *parallel computing* and *reconfigurable computing*, the primary focus is on fast execution of complex computations. Parallel computing has tended to focus on architectures with many processors, while reconfigurable computing has tended to focus on single chips with many configurable processing elements. In both cases, however, the extremely high speed at which computations are executed mean that time delays from communication between computing devices are a dominant concern, whether those devices are individual transistors or entire processors. In high performance systems, the computing devices are tightly packed together in 2D or 3D space, and thus the communication cost is typically strongly-correlated with the distance between devices.

Parallel and reconfigurable architectures have thus long embraced spatiality. Notable examples include cellular automata machines (Toffoli and Margolus, 1987) such as the CAM-8 (Margolus, 1993), processor grids such as the Connection Machines (Palmer and G.L. Steele, 1992), tiled architectures such as RAW (Taylor

et al., 2002) and Warp (Annaratone et al., 1987), reconfigurable fabrics like Tartan (Mishra et al., 2006) and WaveScalar (Swanson et al., 2007), and massively multicore systems like SVM/Microgrid (Jesshope et al., 2009). Indeed, DeHon’s papers on the likely future evolution of such architectures (DeHon and Wawrzynek, 1999; DeHon, 2002) are one of the origins of the term “spatial computing.”

The computation to be executed, however, often does not have a structure with an obvious mapping to such spatial architectures. As a result, programming languages for parallel and reconfigurable systems have embraced spatiality to a much lesser degree than the architectures that they target. With regards to spatial computing, we classify languages for parallel and reconfigurable computing into three categories: dataflow languages, topological languages, and field languages.

3.7.1 Dataflow Languages

Most DSLs for parallel and reconfigurable computing are what we will categorize as “dataflow languages:” languages that attempt to accelerate computations by identifying dependencies, so that independent operations can be executed in parallel. In effect, these languages conceive of a computation as a partial order, yielding one dimension of parallelism and one dimension of order or time. The job of the compiler is then to pack this dataflow graph as effectively as possible into the two- or three-dimensional space of hardware available.

The vast majority of these DSLs are either minor variants that extend or piggyback on C (e.g. Cilk (Blumofe et al., 1995)), FORTRAN (e.g. HPF (HPF, 1997)), or MATLAB or else are circuit specification languages like VHDL. Many are implemented simply through pre-processor macros or library calls that encourage a programmer to code in a way that makes it easier to extract parallelism. A thorough discussion of such approaches for reconfigurable computing can be found in (Mucci et al., 2007) and (Jozwiak et al., 2010); a similar survey for parallel computing can be found in (Barney, 2012).

A more sophisticated approach is taken by languages for systolic arrays or streaming. These languages make the dataflow model explicit. Systolic array languages, such as SDEF (Engstrom and Cappello, 1989) and ReLaCS (Raimbault and Lavenier, 1993), are the older technology and typically assume a highly regular structure onto which the program must be decomposed. Streaming languages such as StreamIT (Thies et al., 2001) and SCORE (Caspi et al., 2000) operate conversely, allocating resources to balance the needs of the computation. Most recently, APIs like OpenCL (OpenCL, 2011) take advantage of modern GPU hardware, which is often laid out in a stream-friendly manner: one dimension of parallelism by one dimension of pipeline sequence, curled to fit on a rectilinear chip.

Despite the strong spatial concerns in utilization of resources, however, the languages themselves do not contain any spatial operations. Rather, the programmer is expressing constraints, which imply things about spatial structure, but often fairly indirectly. One recent and intriguing exception is Huckleberry (Collins, 2011), which provides “split patterns” that explicitly manipulate the spatial relations between stages of a recursive computation, with patterns like 1D mixing and 1D or 2D partitions.

3.7.2 Topological Languages

In the cluster of DSLs that we shall call “topological languages,” spatial locality is explicit, but abstracted from the two or three dimensions of actual hardware on which a computation will be executed. Topological languages differ from dataflow languages in that the computation is viewed in terms of information exchange amongst a collection of processes, rather than a unidirectional flow. These types of languages have been formalized with the π -calculus and its relatives (discussed below in Section 3.8).

The classic example of the topological approach is MPI (Gropp et al., 1994), a library extension to C and Fortran in which a computation is specified as a collection of processes that interact by passing messages through shared memory. MPI is widely used for supercomputing applications, and this continues to be the case for its descendants, OpenMP (OpenMP, 2011) and MPI-2 (MPI2, 2009). Erlang is another widely used topological language. Although initially declarative, over time it has evolved into a functional language in which processes interact by asynchronous message passing (Erlang, 2011; Armstrong, 2007). More recently, major efforts have been undertaken to build concurrent programming languages that scale

well and support modern approaches to safety and object oriented programming: X10 (Saraswat et al., 2012) at IBM, Chapel (Chapel, 2011) at Cray, and Fortress (Allen et al., 2008) at Sun. All of these include explicit statements of locality (“places,” “locales,” and “regions,” respectively) that constrain interaction and can be combined hierarchically into aggregate locations.

The GraphStep language (deLorimier et al., 2011) takes a different approach, trading generality for efficiency. In GraphStep, a computation is expressed as a distributed graph processing algorithm, where at each step every graph node receives messages from its neighbors, computes over those messages, and then sends an update message along the edges to its neighbors. Given a computation and a dataset, GraphStep maps the graph onto available hardware, decomposing complex nodes and arranging nodes to balance the communication cost. Similar ideas have been developed for embedding Markov Random Field (Chen et al., 2003) and Bayes net computations (Rejimon and Bhanja, 2005) in reconfigurable hardware, but these have not been as well developed.

3.7.3 Field Languages

Finally, “field languages” are those DSLs that make an explicit connection between the structure space-filling hardware and computation with arrays of two or more dimensions. These languages thus tend to be the most spatial of the parallel and reconfigurable computing DSLs.

The driver for field languages tends to be the recognition that many high-performance computing applications are based on physical phenomena that are themselves highly spatial, such as atmospheric simulation, machine vision, VLSI design, and biological tissue simulation.

A major early example is StarLisp (Lasser et al., 1988), a functional programming language for the Connection Machine. In StarLisp, the programmer manipulates “pvars” (parallel variables), which were arrays with anywhere between 1 and 16 dimensions. Each element of a pvar was mapped to a different processor on the Connection Machine, taking advantage of its hypercubic architecture to allow efficient manipulation of these fields of data, including shifts along any combination of dimensions, using either a grid (boundaries) or torus (wrapping) topology.

StarLisp faded along with the Connection Machines, however, and field languages have remained a niche in high-performance computing, primarily supported through libraries like FLIC (Michalakes, 1997) or RSL (Michalakes, 1994). The most interesting of these from a spatial computing perspective are the Scalable Modeling System (SMS) (Govett et al., 2003), which exposed spatial communication structure to the programmer through the notion of manipulations on grids partitioned into per-processor chunks, each of which interacts with its neighbors through a cached “data halo,” and PyNSol (Tobis, 2005), which attempts to raise the level of abstraction through a Python front-end where a programmer manipulates objects with spatial types like “torus” and “grid.” There is a growing recognition of the need for field languages in the high-performance community, as evidenced by the recent “rediscovery” of spatial computing put forth in (Yang et al., 2011).

The other direction from which field languages have been developed is cellular automata. A number languages have been developed to allow succinct specification of cellular automata: examples include the CAM-8 assembly language (Margolus, 1993), ALPACA (Pressey, 2012), CANL (Calidonna and Furnari, 2004), CAOS (Grelck et al., 2007), CARPET (Spezzano and Talia, 1997), CELLANG (Eckart, 1997), JCASim (Freiwald and Weimar, 2002), and Trend/jTrend (Chou et al., 2002), as well as Echo (Forrest and Jones, 1994) and NetLogo (Sklar, 2007) already discussed in previous sections. Because they are all describing the same computational model, these languages are all fairly similar: essentially declarative specifications of the neighborhood structure and rules for the evolution of cells. Their differences are mostly in syntax: ALPACA uses pseudo-english, CANL has lisp-like syntax, CARPET’s syntax is C-like, and JCASim is hosted in Java, and so on. Some languages allow only 2D cellular automata, while others support 1D or 3D as well, and CAOS supports arbitrary dimensions. An interesting generalization is suggested by MacLennan’s continuous spatial automata (MacLennan, 1990), which generalize the concept of CAs to continuous space using differential equations, but this has not yet been implemented in any DSL.

3.7.4 Analysis

For this section, we do not provide a reference example, as it is not particularly suitable for the languages of this domain: no parallel or reconfigurable computing DSL supports measurement or manipulation of space and only cellular automata (themselves at the edge the domain) can create patterns.

This fact reflects a long-standing assumption of the domain: that hardware is essentially static with respect to programs. The programmer then lives in an idealized rectilinear environment and the connection between computation and hardware thus becomes entirely the job of the compiler and system management services. This assumption may not last, however, as the continued evolution of computing hardware brings issues of power density and variable performance to greater prominence.

The characteristics of the DSL classes are summarized in Table 1, 2, and 3, based on the taxonomy proposed in Section 2. At present, amongst the three classes of DSL that we have discussed, the predominant languages of the domain are dataflow and topological languages, which have minimal spatial operations and focus heavily on the lower layers of our taxonomy. The field languages are explicitly spatial, but support only a very narrow range of operations on rectilinear grids. What the languages of this domain do have, however, that is likely to be of interest for future development of spatial DSLs, is a wide variety of models for how to specify program control flow in a distributed environment.

3.8 Formal calculi for concurrency and distribution

A special form of DSL is the formal calculus, a primitive language used to describe in an abstract way, certain features and behaviors of a system of interest, in order to reason about its properties and possibly guide compliant implementations. Examples include process algebras (Milner, 1999; Priami, 1995; Pierro et al., 2005; Cardelli and Gordon, 2000), used to model distributed system of communicating processes, membrane computing models (Paun, 2002), used to reason about chemical-inspired computing systems, and core languages of programming languages (Igarashi et al., 2001), used to formally ground application code. In this section we review the formal calculi that are more related to spatial computing—that is, those with first-class concepts of space. It is worth noting that most of them are extensions of the archetype process algebra π -calculus (Milner, 1999), which intentionally abstracts from topological issues of the computational network, modeling the overall system as a flat composition of processes that interact through channels—a sort of “space” accessible to all processes that know its name.

3.8.1 3π Process Algebra

3π was developed as an extension of π -calculus with the idea of modeling the space where processes execute as a 3-dimensional geometric space (Cardelli and Gardner, 2010). In 3π , each process has a position and an orientation in space (a *basis*), encoded in a so-called geometric data. Other than accessing it (symbolically), a process can also send or receive geometric data through channels and can evolve to new processes located elsewhere (i.e., movement). The interesting point of this approach is that geometric data are manipulated in an abstract way, namely, only by *frame shift* operations (translation, rotation, and scaling). For a process p to move towards process q , q must communicate its position to p , p should perform a subtraction operation between its position and q 's obtaining a frame shift f , and then p should evolve to a new process to which frame shift f is applied. So, although there is indeed a unique coordinate system in the space, processes do not know their position in it, but can just compare their position/orientation with respect to others. In analogous ways, one can model a force field as a process communicating to (the processes of) mobile agents a frame shift they should apply to themselves (e.g., a translation in a given direction), or a developmental-like creation of “matter” can be modeled by processes being spawned incrementally to form 3D structures as observed in nature—e.g., lung development in mice as described in (Cardelli and Gardner, 2010). The main motivation of the proposed approach is to describe and reason about systems of developmental biology, where the evolution of biological matter over time might be considered as a fabric for computing.

Another significant fact is that 3π has no embedded notion of time. Processes just execute in each node and synchronize by the exchange of messages (both sending and receiving are blocking operations). A notion

of time could be achieved by a global process sending a “tick” message to all others—an approach that would hardly result in a meaningful implementation. Similarly, processes form a flat set, with no notion of communication by proximity. Like in π -calculus, a process can send a message to another only if it holds the other’s unique name, and independently of its position. Any notion of geometrically local communication must be encoded on top of the model, resulting in specifications where both writing and reasoning are difficult.

3.8.2 Ambient Calculus

A different approach than 3π is taken in the Ambient calculus (Cardelli and Gordon, 2000) and its derivatives — like Brane Calculi (Cardelli, 2005) and P-systems (Gheorghie and Paun, 2000) — in which processes execute in a spatial system of hierarchically nested compartments. Each process is located in a compartment, and can execute a number of space-aware operations such as destroying the membrane of the compartment to which it belongs, moving outside the current compartment, entering a nested compartment, creating a new compartment, and so on. Communication is not a primitive in the ambient calculus, but must be implemented through interactions such as the diffusion of “messenger processes” in and out of compartments. Although based on a more primitive notion of space than the work in 3π , ambient-related approaches are interesting for their reliance upon an unconventional notion of space. This is more often the norm, however, when considering the computations carried-out in biochemical systems of cells and tissues of cells.

3.8.3 Reference Example: 3π

In order to illustrate programming in 3π , we exploit a concrete version of the 3π process algebra—a somewhat straightforward variation of it which we devised for the sake of clarity, playing the same role that, e.g., PICT (Pierce and Turner, 2000) would do for π -calculus (Milner, 1999). Considering the reference example used in this chapter, we can create a T-shaped structure (on the XY-plane, centered in the origin) by a force field, namely by a process **t-force** that communicates to all interested processes (**device**) the affine transformation they should apply to themselves (moving to x-axis if their y-coordinate is positive, and moving to y-axis otherwise) as shown in Figure 12. This can be achieved by the specification:

```

process T-force(ForceChannel) is
  ForceChannel.receive(Device-id,Device-position);      % receiving device info
  if ( scalarproduct(y-axis,Device-position) >=0)      % checking device position
    then Device-id.send( affinemap([x-axis,0,0],0) )    % moving to x-axis
    else Device-id.send( affinemap([0,y-axis,0],0) );    % moving to y-axis
  call T-force(ForceChannel)                            % recursive call

process Device(ForceChannel) is
  generate Device-Id;                                    % generating a new channel
  ForceChannel.send(Device-id,myposition);              % sending device information
  Device-id.receive(Map);                                % receiving a map
  applymap Map;                                         % moving

```

Note that an affine map is represented by a 3x3 matrix and a translation vector, hence the map `affinemap([x-axis,0,0],0)` would, e.g., actually represent $\langle\langle(1, 0, 0), (0, 0, 0), (0, 0, 0)\rangle, (0, 0, 0)\rangle$, which when applied to a position (x, y, z) yields the new position $(x, 0, 0)$.

The implementation of other spatial computations, like identification of center of gravity and drawing a ring around it, is not shown here for the sake of brevity: the details depend very much on how the various devices (namely, processes) are actually connected, which requires also developing a representation of local communication. An example approach would amount to let the process **T-force** also *(i)* initially create a new process **CG**, *(ii)* incrementally compute the average of all device positions it receives (which as time passes tends to the center of gravity of all available devices), and *(iii)* communicate to **CG** to move towards that average. This would make **CG** move from the origin towards the actual center of gravity. Drawing a ring can then be similarly achieved by letting **CG** create a new set of processes forming the ring.

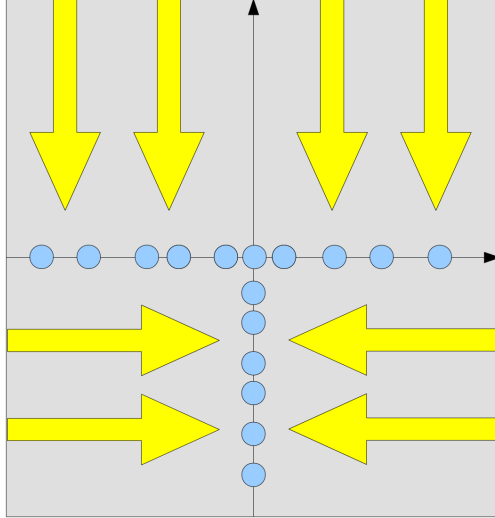


Figure 12: Creation of T-shape with 3π

3.8.4 Analysis

The characteristics of the Formal Calculi DSL classes are summarized in Table 1, 2, and 3, based on the taxonomy proposed in Section 2.

As summarized in Table 1, both formal calculi analyzed, 3π and Mobile Ambients, are types of process algebras that extend the π -calculus for defining independent processes that communicate through message-passing channels. However, whereas 3π processes are aware of their position in space relative to other processes, ambient calculus processes are aware of their spatial container.

Table 2 summarizes the spatial properties of the formal calculi DSLs. 3π is capable of measuring geometric space relative to other processes, and space is manipulated by specifying transformations on location and orientation of processes. The computation patterns for 3π processes are essentially global—allowing execution of any named process. Mobile ambients, on the other hand, can manipulate their containers (e.g., destroying the container’s membrane) and communicate via patterns like diffusion through container neighborhoods.

The abstract device characteristics of formal calculi DSLs are listed in Table 3. Both process algebras focus on mobile processes that operate on discrete devices and can address specific devices. They vary, however, in their communication range. Where 3π can address processes globally throughout the system, ambient processes communicate with processes near their current container.

4 Analysis

As we have seen in the previous section, there are a plethora of domain-specific languages (and DSL-like frameworks) that have been designed to address spatial computing problems. Although these span many different domains, these DSLs nevertheless cluster into just a few cross-cutting groups—a convergence that may be due to the constraints imposed by space-time itself. Ignoring borderline cases, we find there to be four rough groups of spatial computing DSLs: device abstraction languages, pattern languages, information movement languages, and general purpose spatial languages.

Device Abstraction Languages The vast majority of DSLs for spatial computers are not particularly spatial at all. Instead, these *device abstraction languages* attempt to simplify the aggregate programming problem by simplifying other complicating details from the programmer’s perspective. Therefore, these languages tend to provide the most system management services. They typically provide a great deal of

control over how a program is implemented locally but little (or nothing) in the way of spatial operations over aggregates—leaving that as a problem for the programmer. To support distributed algorithm construction, however, these languages frequently provide strong abstractions of local communication, which do greatly simplify the specification of distributed algorithms.

Device abstraction languages are found throughout all spatial computing domains: for example, the agent languages Repast (North et al., 2007) and NetLogo (Sklar, 2007), neighborhood-based sensor network languages like Hood (Whitehouse et al., 2004), as well as languages like TOTA (Mamei and Zambonelli, 2008) in pervasive systems, MDL2 ϵ (Szymanski and Woern, 2007) in robotics, and MPI (Gropp et al., 1994) in parallel computing and GraphStep (deLorimier et al., 2011) in reconfigurable computing.

Pattern Languages At a much higher level of abstraction, there are a number of *pattern languages* that focus on the distributed construction of patterns over space. These languages fall into three coarse categories:

- *Bitmap* languages specify a pattern to be formed using a regular pattern of pixels or voxels. These languages tend to be fairly rigid, and it is arguable whether they are properly languages at all. These are found often in swarm and modular robotics, e.g., (Werfel, 2006) or (Stoy and Nagpal, 2004)
- *Geometric* languages specify the pattern as an arrangement of geometric constructs. Frequently these include simple solids such as spheres and rectangles or Euclidean constructions such as lines and bisectors. L-systems (Prusinkiewicz and Lindenmayer, 1990) applied to biological modeling are an example of a geometric language. When the constructions are tolerant of distortion, the patterns may be adaptive, as in the case of the OSL (Nagpal, 2001) amorphous language.
- *Topological* languages specify the pattern in terms of connectivity and hierarchical relationships between elements, which then need to be satisfied as best as possible by the arrangement of these elements in space. Examples include the GPL (Coore, 1999) amorphous computing language and the ASCAPE (Inchiosa and Parker, 2002) agent language.

In all of these cases, the pattern is specified without reference to the process that will create it, except that the language will often be constrained to certain classes of design. The actual implementation of how the pattern is computed then varies wildly from language to language, as well as from domain to domain, including generating a pattern on an existing surface (e.g., GPL (Coore, 1999) in amorphous languages and Yamins’ self-stabilizing pattern language (Yamins, 2007) in cellular automata), arranging swarm or modular robots into a pattern (Ashley-Rollman et al., 2007), or collective construction of a pattern by autonomous robots (Werfel, 2006).

Information Movement Languages The *information movement languages* focus on gathering information sampled from regions of space-time and delivering it to other regions of space-time. As in the case of pattern languages, the programmer typically specifies what information to gather and where it needs to go (either in a push model or a pull model), but not how to go about doing so or the degree of distribution / centralization of collection points. While many of these languages do not include spatial relations, there is a significant subclass that explicitly allow spatial constructs, which tend to be based on space and time measuring operators.

Sensor networks include a large group of information movement languages focused on data gathering, including languages like TinyDB (Madden et al., 2002) and Regiment (Newton and Welsh, 2004). Although a few languages in other domains are also focused on data, such as the distributed system language KQML (Finin et al., 1994), the information movement languages of other domains tend to be more general, such as the agent frameworks in Section 3.3.2.

General Purpose Spatial Languages Finally, we have a small but significant group of *General Purpose Spatial Languages* (GPSL). These languages are still domain-specific languages, in that they are specialized for spatial computers, but are general in the sense that they have applicability across a wide range of domains. At their best, these languages combine the strong spatial abstractions of pattern formation

and information movement languages with the abstract device languages' ability to control implementation dynamics. Unlike abstract device languages, however, GPSLs permit a spatial aggregate view that allows abstraction of individual devices.

The two currently most significant GPSLs that we have identified are Proto (Beal and Bachrach, 2006) and MGS (Giavitto et al., 2002). Both of these are relatively mature languages, have been applied successfully to a number of different domains, and offer a wide range of spatial operators, including meta-operators.

4.1 Comparison of Languages

At present, each group of spatial computing DSLs has significant strengths and weaknesses.

- Device abstraction languages do little to cover the gap between device and aggregate, yet many of the important problems at the system management level are simply ignored by languages in the other three groups. Device abstraction languages are currently the best approach for handling issues such as resource management, conflict management, logging, and security.
- Pattern languages and information movement languages are typically excellent at carrying out a narrow set of tasks under a particular set of assumptions. Their abstractions typically dissociate the programmer so far from the implementation, however, that it is impossible for the system to be reconfigured to combine tasks of different types or to operate under different assumptions. For example, a sensor network language aimed at data gathering may drop the rate of sampling when the network is overloaded, although the user may prefer to keep the rate the same but sample from fewer devices.
- GPSLs combine the spatial aggregate abstractions lacking from device abstraction languages with the composibility and configurability lacking from pattern and information movement languages. Their generality, however, means that the more specialized capabilities of these other languages are not built into GPSLs, and need to be implemented in libraries for the language. While this is not ultimately a limitation, at these languages present state of maturity these libraries are often not available and must be implemented by the programmer.

It is worth noting as well that every group contains a mixture of different types of languages: imperative, functional, and declarative languages exist in all groups. Likewise, every group of languages cuts across many different domains. We take this to be a confirmatory sign that, in fact, the spatial nature of a DSL is an orthogonal attribute to the type of language.

The DSLs that we have examined can also be divided into languages that are proficient at measuring/manipulating space-time and those that are proficient at maintaining dynamic state. For example, the functional language Proto lends itself to spatial computing with space-time operators like restriction, which can modulate programs by changing the space-time region where they execute. Programs with dynamic state or state transitions, however, are cumbersome in Proto. On the other hand, a language such as MDL2 ϵ , which deals naturally with dynamic state and state transitions, has no aggregate space-time operators, making it cumbersome to write complex spatial programs. At present, there seem to be no languages that adequately address the problem of both maintaining dynamic state and also efficiently describing global spatio-temporal system behavior.

This lack may be due to a fundamental tension between asynchronous parallel execution and state transitions. In general, it is impossible to guarantee that these three statements always hold:

- Every device in the spatial computer makes the same state transition.
- Decisions are made in parallel at separate devices.
- State transitions occur more frequently than the time to send a message across the diameter of the spatial computer.

To understand why this is, consider the following: assume two devices, A and B , have a choice between two state transitions, and that the decision will depend on the value of a piece of information that has just appeared at A . If B is always to decide the same way as A , then it must get A 's information. Device A , however, might be as far away as the whole diameter of the spatial computer. Thus, we are always left with a choice of which property to weaken: parallelism, speed, or coherence.

There are many reasonable ways to approach this problem, and different languages have made different choices. Different spatial computing languages choose different ways to make this trade-off. For example, both Proto and MDL2 ϵ weaken coherence, but in different ways: Proto chooses to keep the aggregate model coherent, at the cost of making state transitions cumbersome, while MDL2 ϵ keeps state transitions simple at the cost of having no operations that span regions of space-time. OSL, on the other hand, weakens speed, executing a sequence of space-time operators by inserting synchronization barriers where the program waits for long enough to ensure that the last set of state transitions have completed. There are, however, many cases where a programmer would want to have a mixture of strategies, such as programming a sequence of swarm behaviors. At present, there is no language that allows a programmer to elegantly make trade-offs between the different options.

Another limitation of the current spatial DSLs is that almost none of them provide any benefits beyond a concise description of the desired global behavior. This is in contrast to formal languages that provide correctness guarantees and to probabilistic modeling tools such as PRISM, which can automatically generate the expected (i.e., average) spatio-temporal trajectories of a swarming system defined as a probabilistic FSM.

In sum, therefore, what is currently lacking are spatial computing DSLs that:

- allow general combination of aggregate programming and state-based programming schemes,
- have the ability to warn about programs that use functionality that go beyond the physical or hardware capabilities of a specific platform, e.g., localization capabilities to perform space-time measurements or the maneuvering capabilities of a robot, and
- both generate executables for an actual platform and also generate models for tool-assisted formal verification.

Whereas the first item can likely be achieved by combining existing approaches, we expect the other two to pose deep research issues. This is due to the fact that physical assumptions and correctness conditions are often not explicitly defined in code, but result implicitly from environment interaction. One possibility is to design a DSL so that the programmer needs to supply goal and assumption information; another is to cross-compile a DSL to an embodied simulator that would use transitions extracted from past experimental data using system identification to predict the behavior of new programs. Likely, these challenges are areas where the connection to particular domains will continue to play a major role.

5 Conclusions and Future Research Directions

As we have seen, there are a large number of spatial computing DSLs that attempt to bridge the gap between the aggregate programming needs of users and the execution of programs on individual devices. These languages have emerged across a number of different application domains, yet share broad commonalities likely due to the fact that all are dealing with spatial constraints.

Looking forward, the increasing complexity of engineered systems is likely to favor the increased development of GPSLs: device abstraction languages do not offer enough leverage on the aggregate programming problem, while pattern and information movement languages tend to be too specialized for practical use in large-scale systems. Besides the pragmatic questions of language and library development, we see four key research directions that are critical to the future development of GPSLs:

- Although a major focus of GPSLs is robustness to problems and failures, no GPSL currently exposes error handling or quality of service (QoS) information to the programmer. Addressing error handling and QoS scalably for a distributed aggregate is an open research question.

- The pragmatic issues of the system management layer are largely unaddressed by current GPSLs, sharply limiting their usability in deployed systems. Resolving this is likely to involve building on top of device abstraction languages that do address issues such as security and logging: the key question is how to best expose these issues to the programmer in an aggregate abstraction.
- No GPSL currently offers full support for first class functions. A key reason for this is that, although there are many ways in which distributed function calls have been implemented, yet no language resolves some of the fundamental problems of identity (Beal, 2009) and scope (Beal and Usbeck, 2011) in functions that are defined at run-time.
- Finally, there are a number of common programming paradigms, such as publish/subscribe, observer/controller, and first order logical inference, that are difficult or impossible to implement on current GPSLs. It is unclear whether the problem is due to limitations in existing GPSLs, or whether it is due to scalability problems or hidden assumptions in how these paradigms are currently implemented. Future research on spatial computing DSLs needs to find ways to bridge this gap, so that the benefits of these programming paradigms can be adapted for the aggregate environment.

In addition to GPSLs, we expect that there will be a continued role for more specialized spatial computing DSLs, as they can directly address domain- and application-specific issues that GPSLs cannot, as well as taking advantage of assumptions that come from a more restricted scope. An important research direction for future work on specialized spatial computing DSLs, however, will be to determine whether they can be implemented in terms of existing GPSLs, whether as libraries or as variations of the language. Doing so will allow a new spatial computing DSL to bootstrap its space-time operators from the theory, software, and system management resources of its base GPSL, rather than needing to build up from scratch. This will also benefit GPSLs, by pushing their boundaries and driving them to support the needs to the DSLs they come to host.

It is our hope that such future research directions will be aided by a clearer understanding of the properties and relationships of spatial computing DSLs, such as that offered by the framework, survey, and analysis in this chapter.

6 Key Terms and Definitions

- **Spatial Computer:** a collection of local computational devices distributed through a physical space, in which the difficulty of moving information between any two devices is strongly dependent on the distance between them, and the “functional goals” of the system are generally defined in terms of the system’s spatial structure.
- **Global-to-Local Compilation:** transformation of a program for an aggregate of devices into a program that can execute on individual devices.
- **Space-Time Operations:** aggregate programming abstractions falling into one of five categories: measurement of space-time, computation of patterns over space-time, manipulation of space-time, physical evolution, and meta-operations.
- **Abstract Device Layer:** abstraction that hides details of the device where a program is executing.
- **System Management Layer:** mechanisms that provide low-level “operating system” services, such as real-time process management, sensor and actuator drivers, or low-level networking.
- **Physical Platform:** the actual computing device where a program is executed.
- **Device Abstraction Languages:** spatial computing DSLs that simplify aggregate programming by hiding details but without much power in the way of spatial abstractions.

- **Pattern Languages:** spatial computing DSLs that focus on construction of patterns over space, typically at the expense of more general computation.
- **Information Movement Languages:** spatial computing DSLs that focus on gathering information in one region of space-time and delivering it to another region, typically at the expense of more general computation.
- **General Purpose Spatial Languages:** languages that provide a wide range of powerful spatial abstractions for aggregate programming, but typically require more work to apply to any particular domain.

7 Additional Reading

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