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ProTem is a <u>programming system</u> that serves as both <u>programming language</u> and operating system, and includes a theorem prover to check each step of program composition. This document is an informal specification of ProTem. Formal specifications of the data types and program semantics can be found in the book <u>a Practical Theory of Programming</u> (with minor syntactic differences).

Symbols

ProTem has 13 keywords, plus 4 classes of symbols, plus 60 other symbols. Altogether they are:

if then else fi new old for do od result open close unit

number text name comment " " « » _ % : :: = = \pm < > \leq \geq ! ? , ' ; . ;.. ,.. | || () { } [] \langle \rangle + - × / \uparrow \downarrow \rightarrow \leftrightarrow \land \lor @ $^+$ * \sim \not \not \not \not \not \not \not \in \subseteq \cup \cap \Box Δ ∇ \triangleleft \triangleright

Some of the ProTem symbols are not found on standard keyboards. Here are the substitutes.

for " use "	for "reuse"	for « use <<	for » use >>
for \neq use \mid =	for ≤ use <=	for \geq use $>=$	for 'use '
for \langle use par	for \rangle use rap	for × use &	for ↑ use ^
for ↓ use \	for \rightarrow use \rightarrow	for \Leftrightarrow use $<>$	for \land use $/ \setminus$
for v use \/	for + reuse +	for 4 use //	for ¢ use size
for ∈ use elt	for ⊆ use sub	for \cup use cup	for \cap use cap
for □ use []	for Δ use nand	for ∇ use nor	for ⊲ use <
for ⊳ use >	for "use "" or ""	for "use "" or ""	

A number is formed as one or more decimal digits, optionally followed by a decimal point and one or more decimal digits. Here are four examples.

```
0 275 27.5 0.21
```

A decimal point must have at least one digit on each side of it.

A text begins with a left-double-quote, continues with any number of any characters (but a double-quote (left or right) within a text must be underlined), and concludes with a right-double-quote. Here are four examples.

```
"" "abc" "don't" "Just say "no"."
```

A name is either simple or compound. A simple name is either plain or fancy. A plain simple name begins with a letter and continues with any number of letters and digits, except that keywords and symbol substitutes cannot be names. A fancy simple name begins with «, and continues with any number of characters except « and », and ends with »; within a fancy simple name, blank spaces are not significant. A compound name is composed of two or more simple names joined with underscore characters. Here are some examples.

```
plain simple names: x A1 george refStack fancy simple names: «William & Mary» «x' \ge x» compound names: ProTem\_grammars\_Hehner «2016-9-8»_«grad recruiting»_DCS
```

A comment begins with a % that is not in a text or fancy name, and ends at the end of a line.

Grammar

There are 28 ways of forming a program, and 55 ways of expressing data. (An LL(1/2) grammar and an LR(1/2) grammar are at the end of this document.)

A name is one of

simplename: a simple name (plain or fancy)

compoundname: more than one simplename joined with underscores

At each point in a program, a simplename is one of

newname: a simplename that has not previously been defined in the current scope oldname: a simplename that has previously been defined in the current scope

At each point in a program, a name is one of

variablename: a name defined as a variable or variable parameter or **result** variable dataname: a name defined as data or function or data parameter or **for** parameter or **unit**

channelname: a name defined as a channel

programname: a name defined as a program or procedure

dictionaryname: a name defined as a dictionary

undefinedname: an undefined name

Here are the ways of expressing data. To the right of each there are examples and explanations and pronunciations.

number + data - data data + data data - data data × data data / data data † data data A data data v data data Δ data data ∇ data data = datadata = data data < data data > data data ≤ data data ≥ data data, data data ... data data ' data data: data ¢ data { data } ~ data data ∈ data data ⊆ data

data ∪ data

plus, identity
minus, negation, not
plus, addition
minus, subtraction
times, multiplication
by, division
to the power, exponentiation
minimum, conjunction, and
maximum, disjunction, or
negation of minimum, nand
negation of maximum, nor
equals, equation

differs from, discrepancy less than, strict implication

greater than, strict reverse implication less than or equal to, implication

greater than or equal to, reverse implication

bunch union

bunch from(including) to(excluding)

bunch intersection bunch inclusion bunch size

set content

elements of a set

subset set union

data ∩ data	set intersection
∮ data	power
\$ data	set size
text	"abc"
data; data	string catenation
data ; data	string from(including) to(excluding)
data ↓ data	string indexing
data ⊲ data ⊳ data	string modification
↔ data	string length
data * data	definite repetition
* data	indefinite repetition
[data]	list
# data	list length
data ⁺ data	list catenation
data data	list index, function application, composition
data @ data	pointer indexing
$\langle \text{ simplename : data } \rightarrow \text{ data } \rangle$	function, create data parameter
data → data	function, function space
□ data	domain of a function
data data	selective union
variablename	variable name
dataname	data name
channelname	the most recent data read on the channel
? channelname	binary test for presence of input on the channel
if data then data else data fi	conditional data
result simplename : data do program od	programmed data, create local variable
(data)	parentheses

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Next we have the ways of forming a program.

new newname : data	create variable with type
new newname = data	create data name
new newname do program od	create program name but don't execute program
new newname!? data	create channel with type
new newname open	create dictionary name and open dictionary
new newname unit	create measuring unit name
new newname	forward definition
old oldname	remove or hide
open dictionaryname	open dictionary
close dictionaryname	close dictionary
variablename := data	assign variable
channelname! data	to channel send output
channelname? data	from channel receive input of this type
channelname? data! channelname	input, correct, and echo
newname do program od	create program name and execute program
programname	execute (call) named program
$\langle \text{ simplename : data } \rightarrow \text{program } \rangle$	procedure, parameter is data name
$\langle \text{ simplename :: data } \rightarrow \text{program } \rangle$	procedure, parameter is variable
⟨ simplename! data → program ⟩	procedure, parameter is output channel
⟨ simplename ? data → program ⟩	procedure, parameter is input channel
1 0 /	1 /1

procedure, data argument program data program variablename procedure, variable argument procedure, channel argument program channelname program . program sequential composition program || program parallel composition if data then program else program fi conditional program for simplename: data do program od controlled program, creates local data name do program od parentheses

There is a precedence among the forms of program. It is

```
0. := ! ? if then else fi do od program argument
```

- 1. .
- 2. |

Program parentheses **do od** can always be used to group programs differently. The program

 $a \operatorname{do} B \operatorname{od}$. $C. D \parallel E. F$

when fully parenthesized, becomes

do do a do B od od. C. D od \parallel do E. F od

Here is the precedence (order of evaluation) of data operators.

```
0.
        number text name () [] \{\}\ \langle\ \rangle if then else fi result do od
1.
        juxtaposition @
                                                   left-to-right
2.
        + - \# ~ ? \square * \rightarrow \uparrow \downarrow
                                                   prefix + - \# \sim ? \square *
                                                                              infix * \rightarrow \uparrow \downarrow
                                                                                                   right-to-left
        \times / \cap \wedge \vee \Delta \nabla
3.
                                                   infix / left-to-right
        + - + U
4.
                                                   infix
                                                            left-to-right
        ; ;.. '
5.
                                                   infix
6.
        , ,.. | ⊲ ⊳
                                                   infix
                                                             7.
                                                   infix continuing
        = ≠ < > ≤ ≥
```

On level 7, the operators are "continuing". This means, for example, that a=b=c is neither grouped to the left nor grouped to the right, but means $(a=b) \land (b=c)$. Similarly a < b=c means $(a < b) \land (b=c)$, and so on.

Whenever "data" appears in an alternative for "program", the most general form of data is intended, with these exceptions: in a procedure, the parameter type must be on precedence level 0; when a program is argumented, the argument must be on precedence level 0. Therefore $p \ a \ b$ means $(p \ a) \ b$. Likewise, in a function, the parameter type must be on precedence level 0. Any data expression becomes precedence level 0 by putting it in parentheses.

Only one alternative for "data" contains "program", and there the most general form of program is intended.

Data

ProTem's basic data are numbers, characters, and binary values. ProTem's data structures are bunches, sets, strings, lists, and functions.

Numbers

In addition to the number symbols, there are predefined names of numbers such as pi (an approximation to the ratio of a circle's circumference to its diameter), e (an approximation to the base of the natural logarithms), and i (the imaginary unit, or square root of -1). Predefined names can be redefined in a new scope. In addition to the 1-operand prefix operators + and -, and the 2-operand infix operators $+-\times/\uparrow$, there are predefined function names such as abs, exp, log, ln, sin, cos, tan, ceil, floor, round, re, im, sqrt, div, and mod (see Predefined Names). Division of integers, such as 1/2, may produce a noninteger. Exponentiation is 2-operand infix \uparrow ; for example, $1.2\times10\uparrow3$ (one point two times ten to the power three). The operator \land is minimum (arms down, does not hold water). The operator \lor is the negation of maximum. The operator \lor is the negation of maximum.

In ProTem, numbers are not divided into disjoint types. A natural number is an integer number; an integer number is a rational number; a rational number is real number; a real number is a complex number.

Characters

A character is a text of length 1. We leave it to each implementation to list the characters, and to state their order. In addition to the character symbols such as "a" (small a) and " "(space), there are six predefined character names: backspace, tab, newline, click, doubleclick, and end (the end-of-file character). The operators suc and pre give the successor and predecessor respectively.

Binary Values

There are two predefined binary data names: true and false. Negation is -, conjunction is \wedge , disjunction is \vee , nand is Δ , nor is ∇ .

The infix 2-operand operators = and \neq apply to all data in ProTem with a binary result; the two operands may even be of different types. The order operators $<>\leq\geq$ apply to real numbers (including rationals, integers, and naturals), to characters, to binary values, to strings of ordered items, and to lists of ordered items, with a binary result; the two operands must be of the same type. In the binary order *false* is below *true*, so \leq is implication. The 3-operand **if** x **then** y **else** z **fi** has binary operand x, but y and z are of arbitrary type.

Bunches

There are several predefined bunch names:

```
null
                         - empty
                         - all natural numbers: 0, 1, 2, ...
nat
                         - all integer numbers: ..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, ...
int
                         - all rational numbers: ..., 1/3, ...
rat
                         - all real numbers: ..., 2\uparrow(1/2), ...
real
                         - all complex numbers: ..., (-1)\uparrow(1/2), ...
com
                         - all characters: ..., "a", ...
char
bin
                         - both binary values: true, false
                         - all texts (character strings): ..., "abc", ...
text
                         - all pictures
pic
                         - all ProTem items
all
```

Any number, character, binary value, set, string of elements, and list of elements is an elementary bunch, or element. For example, the number 2 is an elementary bunch, or synonymously, an element. Every expression is a bunch expression, though not all are elementary.

Bunch union is denoted by a comma:

$$A \cdot B$$
 "A union B "

For example,

is a bunch of four integers. There is also the notation

$$x,...y$$
 "x to y" (but not "x through y")

where x and y are integers or characters that satisfy $x \le y$. Note that x is included and y is excluded. For example, 0,..10 is a bunch consisting of the first ten natural numbers, and 5,..5 is the null bunch.

If A and B are bunches, then

$$A: B$$
 "A is included in B"

is binary. The size of a bunch is ϕ . For examples, $\phi(0, 1, 2) = 3$ and $\phi(0, 1, 2) = 3$.

Bunches are equal if and only if they consist of the same elements, without regard to order or multiplicity.

In ProTem, all operators whose precedence is before that of bunch union distribute over bunch union. For examples,

$$-(3,5) = -3, -5$$

 $(2,3)+(4,5) = 6,7,8$

This makes it easy to express the plural naturals (nat+2), the even naturals $(nat\times2)$, the square naturals $(nat \uparrow 2)$, the natural powers of two $(2 \uparrow nat)$, and many other things.

Nonempty bunches serve as a type structure in ProTem.

Sets

A set is formed by enclosing a bunch in set braces. For examples, $\{0, 2, 5\}$, $\{0,...100\}$, $\{null\}$, $\{nat\}$. The inverse of set formation is \sim . For example, $\sim \{0, 1\} = 0, 1$. The size of a set is \$. For examples, $\$\{0,1\}=2$ and $\$\{null\}=0$. The element, subset, union, and intersection operators \in ⊆ ∪ ∩ are as usual. The power operator f takes a bunch as operand and produces all sets that contain only elements of the bunch. For example, $f(0, 1) = \{null\}, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}$.

Strings

There is a predefined string name:

Any number, character, binary value, list, and function is a one-item string, or item. For example, the number 2 is a one-item string, or item.

String catenation is denoted by a semi-colon:

$$S; T$$
 "S catenate T ", "S join T "

For example,

2; 3; 5; 7

is a string of four integers. There is also the notation

$$x;..y$$
 "x to y" (same pronunciation as $x,..y$)

where x and y are integers or characters that satisfy $x \le y$. Again, x is included and y is excluded. For examples, 0;..10 is a string consisting of the first ten natural numbers, and 5;..5 is the empty string.

The length of a string is obtained by the \Leftrightarrow operator. For example, \Leftrightarrow (2; 3; 5; 7) = 4.

A string is indexed by the \downarrow operator. Indexing is from 0. For example, $(2; 3; 5; 7) \downarrow 2 = 5$. A string can be indexed by a string. For example, $(3; 5; 7; 9) \downarrow (2; 1; 2) = 7;5;7$.

If S is a string and n is an index of S and i is any item, then $S \triangleleft n \triangleright i$ is a string like S except that item n is i. For example, $(3; 5; 9) \triangleleft 2 \triangleright 8 = 3; 5; 8$.

A text is a more convenient notation for a string of characters.

```
"abc" = "a"; "b"; "c"

"He said "Hi"." = "H"; "e"; " "; "s"; "a"; "i"; "d"; " "; ""; "H"; "i"; ""; "."

"abcdefghij" \( (3;..6) = "def" \)
```

Strings are equal if and only if they have the same length, and corresponding items are equal.

We allow a bunch of items to be an item in a string. Since string catenation precedes bunch union on the precedence table, we have

$$(3,4); (5,6) = 3;5,3;6,4;5,4;6$$

A string is an element (elementary bunch) if and only if all its items are elements.

If S is a string and n is a natural number, then

```
n * S " " copies of S" or " n S 's"
```

is a string, and

is a bunch of strings. For examples,

$$3*5 = 5;5;5$$

 $3*(4,5) = 4;4;4, 4;4;5, 4;5;4, 4;5;5 5;4;4, 5;4;5, 5;5;4, 5;5;5$
 $*5 = nil, 5, 5;5, 5;5;5, 5;5;5;5, ...$

The * operator distributes over bunch union, but in its left operand only.

```
null * 5 = null
(2,3) * 5 = (2*5),(3*5) = 5;5, 5;5;5
```

Using this semi-distributivity, we have

$$*a = nat*a$$

Lists

A list is a packaged string. It can be written as a string enclosed in square brackets. For example, [0; 1; 2]

The list operators are length, content, indexing, pointer indexing, catenation, composition, selective union, and comparisons. Let L and M be lists, let n be a natural number, and let p be a string of natural numbers.

```
# L "length of L" \sim L "content of L"
```

```
Ln "L at n", "L at index n"

L @ p "L at p", "L at pointer p"

L^+M "L catenate M", "L join M"

LM "L composed with M"

L | M "L otherwise M", "the selective union of L and M"
```

plus the comparisons L=M, $L\neq M$, L< M, L> M, $L \leq M$, $L\geq M$.

Here are some examples.

```
#[0; 1; 2] = 3 (the number of items in a list)

\sim[0; 1; 2] = 0;1;2

[0;...10] 5 = 5 (indexing starts at zero)

[[2; 3]; 4; [5; [6; 7]]] @ (2; 1; 0) = 6

[0;...10] + [10;...20] = [0;...20]

[10;...20] [3; 6; 5] = [13; 16; 15] (in general, (L M)n = L(M n)).
```

If a list is indexed with a structure, the result has the same structure. For example,

```
[10; 20][2; (3,4); [5; [6; 7]]] = [12; (13, 14); [15; [16; 17]]]
```

By using the @ operator, a string acts as a pointer to select an item from within an irregular structure. If the list $L \mid M$ is indexed with n, the result is either L n or M n depending on whether n is in the domain (0, #L) of L. If it is, the result is L n, otherwise the result is M n.

$$[10; 11] \mid [0;..10] = [10; 11; 2;..10]$$

Lists are equal if and only if they are the same length and corresponding items are equal. They are ordered lexicographically.

The list brackets [] distribute over bunch union. For example,

$$[0,1] = [0],[1]$$

Thus [10*nat] is all lists of length 10 whose items are natural, and [4*[6*real]] is all 4 by 6 arrays of reals.

Functions

Let p (parameter) be a simple name, let D (domain) be a bunch of items, and let B (body) be an element (possibly using p as a data name for an element of D). Then

$$\langle p: D \to B \rangle$$

is a function with parameter p, domain D, and body B. For example,

$$\langle n: nat \rightarrow n+1 \rangle$$
 "map *n* in *nat* to $n+1$ "

is the successor function on the natural numbers.

A function with two parameters is just a function of one parameter whose body is a function of one parameter. For example, the maximum function is

```
\langle a: real \rightarrow \langle b: real \rightarrow \mathbf{if} \ a > b \ \mathbf{then} \ a \ \mathbf{else} \ b \ \mathbf{fi} \rangle \rangle
```

The \Box operator gives the domain of a function. For example, $\Box \langle n: nat \rightarrow n+1 \rangle = nat$.

The notation for applying a function to an argument is the same as that for indexing a list: juxtaposition. Also, composition and selective union can have function operands, and even a mixture of list and function operands.

When the body of a function does not use its parameter, there is a syntax that omits the angle brackets $\langle \rangle$ and unused name. For example,

abbreviates $\langle n: 2 \rightarrow 3 \rangle$ or choose any other parameter name. An example of its use is

$$1\rightarrow 21 \mid [10; 11; 12] = [10; 21; 12]$$

We allow domains to be strings in the following circumstances.

$$nil \rightarrow x \mid f = x$$

 $(x;y) \rightarrow z \mid f = x \rightarrow (y \rightarrow z \mid f x) \mid f$
Thus, for example,
 $(0;1) \rightarrow 6 \mid [[0;1;2];$
 $[3;4;5]] = [[0;6;2];$
 $[3;4;5]]$

Argumentation comes before bunch union in precedence, and so it distributes over bunch union.

$$(f,g)(x,y) = fx, fy, gx, gy$$

Allowing the body of a function to be a bunch generalizes the function to a relation. For example, $nat \rightarrow bin$ can be viewed in either of the following two equivalent ways: it is a function (with unused and therefore omitted parameter) that maps each natural to bin; it is all functions with domain at least nat and range at most bin. As an example of the latter view, we have

```
\langle n: nat \rightarrow mod \ n \ 2 = 0 \rangle : nat \rightarrow bin
```

Programmed Data

result simplename: data do program od

First, a local variable is introduced; its scope is from ${\bf do}$ to ${\bf od}$. Then the program is executed. The result is the final value of the newly introduced local variable. We have not yet presented programs, but the following example, which approximates the base of the natural logarithms e, should give the idea.

```
result sum: rat
do sum:= 1.
   new term: rat. term:= 1.
   for i: 1:..15 do term:= term/i. sum:= sum+term od od
```

There are no side effects. The values of nonlocal variables may be used, but assignments to nonlocal variables are not permitted. Input and output are not permitted.

The strange example

```
result r: 0,...10 do ok od
```

produces a number in 0,..10, with no indication which one, but it is always the same one.

Names and Dictionaries

Each name in a dictionary is defined to be one of the following: a variable name, a data name, a program name, a channel name, or a dictionary name. When a name is defined to be a dictionary, this dictionary also can contain names, some of which can be defined as dictionaries, and so on. Therefore there is a tree of dictionaries. Whether this tree has a root, and if so what its name is, are of no consequence. Suppose there is a text named *ProTem* within a dictionary named *grammars* within a dictionary named *Hehner* within a dictionary named *cs* within a dictionary named *utoronto* within a dictionary named *ca*. This text can be referred to as *ProTem_grammars_Hehner_cs_utoronto_ca*.

A dictionary is either closed or open. We can **open** a closed dictionary, and **close** an open dictionary. By opening dictionaries, we can shorten the names we use. The text referred to by the lengthy

compound name in the previous paragraph can be referred to simply as ProTem if the dictionary grammars is open. The predefined names include a dictionary named complex, within which there is a name i. It can always be referred to as $i_complex$. If we are going to refer to it often, we might want to shorten this. We do so by saying **open** complex, and then we can say just i.

Names are defined in a variety of ways, including as **new**, as function parameters, as procedure parameters, as **for**-loop parameters, and as **result** variables. Whenever a name is defined, its definition is written in the open dictionary that was opened last. A name being defined must not already be defined in the current scope (see **Scope**, later). But it may already be in the open dictionary that was opened last; in that case, the new definition replaces the old definition until the end of the current scope or until it is removed by **old**.

Whenever a simple name is used, it is looked up in the open dictionary that was opened last; if it is not there, it is looked up in the open dictionary that was opened next-to-last; and so on. The first definition found for the name is the one used. If the name is not in any open dictionary, it is unknown (even though it may be in some closed dictionaries).

Whenever a compound name is used, it is looked up as follows. The last simple name in the compound name is looked up in the usual way (starting with the open dictionary that was opened last). Its definition must be as a dictionary. The simple name before the last one in the compound name is looked up in this one dictionary (whether open or closed). And so on for preceding names in a compound name.

Names defined by **new** can be removed from a dictionary with the keyword **old** (it must already be there). Names are also removed from a dictionary when execution exits the right scope bracket of the scope in which they were introduced. Further details and examples will be presented later (see **Scope**).

Programs

A third of the program constructs are concerned with dictionaries: adding names (**new**), deleting names (**old**), opening a dictionary (**open**), and closing a dictionary (**close**). The other two-thirds are variable assignment, input, output, and a variety of ways of combining programs to form larger programs. All programs, including those that add or remove names from a dictionary, including those that open or close a dictionary, are executed in their turn, just like variable assignments and input and output.

Variable Definition

Here is an example variable definition (declaration).

new
$$x$$
: 0,...10

This defines x to be a variable assignable to any element in 0,...10, and initially assigned to an arbitrary element in that bunch. In other words, x is defined so that x: 0,...10 is always true, even initially. There is no such thing as "the undefined value" in ProTem. In a variable definition, the data after the colon is called the "type" of the variable. The type can be anything except the empty bunch. The type can depend on previously defined names, including variables. The type cannot depend on the variable being defined. For example,

new *y*:
$$0,...2 \times x$$

defines y as a variable whose value can be any natural number from (including) 0 up to (excluding) twice the value of x at the time this definition is executed. But

```
new na: 0,..na
```

is not allowed due to the occurrence of na on both the left and right of the colon.

If you want a variable to be defined with a specific initial value, just follow the definition with an assignment. Here are three examples.

```
new s: [10*int]. s:= [10*0]

new t: text. t:= ""

new u: (0,..20)*char. u:= "abc"
```

s is defined as a variable that can be assigned to any list of ten integers, and is initially assigned to the list of ten zeroes. In the middle example, text is a predefined bunch equal to *char, so t can be assigned to any text, and is initially assigned to the empty text. In the last example, u is defined as a variable that can be assigned to any text of length less than 20, and is initially assigned to the text shown.

If the type of the variable is a single value, then the variable has that value; in that case, the words "type" and "variable" are not really appropriate. For example

```
new secondsperhour: 60\times60 creates a constant with value 3600.
```

Assignment

Assignment is as usual; the data on the right must be an element in the type of the variable on the left. Here are two examples using the definitions of the previous subsection.

```
x := 5s := 3 \rightarrow 5 \mid s
```

Data Definition

Data definition gives some data a name. If variable x is defined as

```
new x: 0,...10
```

then

```
new xplus1 = x+1
```

makes xplus1 depend on variable x so that xplus1 = x+1 is always true. We may call x an "independent variable", and xplus1 a "dependent variable". Expression x+1 is not evaluated in the definition; it is evaluated each time xplus1 is used. (A clever implementation will evaluate all parts of the expression that do not depend on variables at definition time, and will re-evaluate xplus1 only when x may have changed value.) Notice the difference between this and

```
new xplus1: x+1
```

Here, xplus1 is defined as an independent variable whose type is a single value, namely, the value of x+1 when this definition is executed. It is therefore a constant with that value. Its value does not change when x changes. Here are two more examples.

```
new size = 10
new piBy2 = pi / 2
```

Now size and piBy2 are constants because their definitions use only constants (pi is a predefined constant in dictionary calculus), so there is no difference between those two definitions and

```
new size: 10 new piBy2: pi / 2
```

Here is another example.

```
new range = 0,..size
```

Now range is a constant (because size is a constant) whose value is the bunch 0,..size. This

differs from

```
new range: 0,...size
```

which makes range a variable whose value is an element in the bunch 0,..size.

The next two examples define fact and div to be the factorial function and integer divisor function for natural numbers. They are both constants. Note the use of recursion.

```
new fact = 0 \rightarrow 1 \mid \langle n: (nat+1) \rightarrow n \times fact (n-1) \rangle
```

```
new div = \langle a: nat \rightarrow \langle d: (nat+1) \rightarrow
```

if a < d then 0 else if even a then $2 \times div(a/2) d$ else 1 + div(a-d) d fi fi \rangle

We cannot replace = with : in these two definitions due to the occurrences of fact and div on the right sides. The next example is a pure, baseless recursion.

```
new rec = rec
```

Whenever rec is used, the computation will be nonterminating.

A final example defines all binary trees with integer nodes.

```
new tree = [nil], [tree; int; tree]
```

Program Definition

Program definition gives a program a name, but does not execute the program. For example,

```
new switchends do s:=0 \rightarrow (s\ 9) \mid 9 \rightarrow (s\ 0) \mid s\ \mathbf{od}
```

Execution of this definition creates the program name switchends, but does not execute program switchends. After execution of this definition, the name switchends can be used to cause execution of the program it names. Definitions can be recursive.

The names used in a program definition, in the previous example s, are those visible at the time the definition is executed, that is, at the time this definition adds the name *switchends* to the dictionary. At the time *switchends* is called, causing execution of the assignment to s, variable s may not be visible, but it is assigned nonetheless.

Predefined program names include asm, await, exec, ok, stop, wait.

Measuring Unit Definition

The definitions

new *m* unit.

new s unit

create two units of measurement. These definitions give m and s all the properties of two unknown positive real number constants. I intend m to be a meter, and s to be a second. So, for example, we write $10 \times m/s$ for the speed 10 meters per second. And we can define

```
new km = 1000 \times m
```

to make km be a kilometer, and

```
new h = 3600 \times s
```

to make h be an hour. So $1 \times m/s = 3.6 \times km/h$ evaluates to true. To assign a variable to a quantity with units attached, the variable's type must have compatible units attached. For example,

```
new speed: real×m/s. speed:= 3.6 \times km/h
```

assigns speed to $1 \times m/s$. For another example,

```
new sheet unit. new quire = 25 \times sheet. new ream = 20 \times quire.
```

new order: nat×sheet. order:= 3×ream

assigns order to $1500 \times sheet$. When the value $5 \times m/s$ is converted to text by realtext or by sending it on a channel as text, it appears as 5 m/s without the \times sign and without evaluating the unknown real values m and s.

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Forward Definition

A forward definition, for example

```
new abc
```

is a notice that a definition will follow later. It is used, for example, when definitions are mutually recursive. (See **Scope**.)

Name Removal

Names added to a dictionary with the keyword **new** can be removed from the dictionary with the keyword **old**. Even though a name may be removed from a dictionary, its definition will remain as long as there is an indirect way to refer to it. For example,

```
new s: [*all]. s:= [nil].

new push do \langle x: all \rightarrow s:= s + [x] \rangle od.

new pop do s:= s [0;..#s-1] od.

new top = s (#s-1).

new empty = s=[nil].

old s.
```

The names *push*, *pop*, *top*, and *empty* are now defined for everyone's use. The name *s* was defined for the purpose of defining the other names, and then removed from the dictionary, leaving the other names dependent upon an anonymous variable.

Dictionaries

The syntax

```
new d open
```

is used to create a new dictionary, entering its name d in the open dictionary that was opened last, and then opening d. The syntax

```
open d
```

is used to open an existing but closed dictionary d. The syntax

close d

is used to close an existing open dictionary.

The predefined names include a dictionary named *randomnat*, within which there are three names: *init*, *next*, and *value*. It might have been defined as:

```
new randomnat open.

new big = 2 \uparrow 31.

new rv: 0,..big.

new init do \langle seed: (0,..big) \rightarrow rv := seed \rangle od.

new next do rv := mod (rv \times 5 \uparrow 13) big od.

new value = \langle from: nat \rightarrow \langle to: nat \rightarrow floor (from + (to-from) \times rv/big) \rangle \rangle.

old big. old rv.

close randomnat.
```

Variable rv is now hidden; its name is removed from the dictionary, but *init*, next, and value still use it. We can use the definitions in this dictionary in the following way:

```
init_randomnat 123456789.
```

next_randomnat.

screen! value_randomnat 0 10.

Or, if we are going to use them often, we may want to shorten what we say as follows:

 ${\bf open}\ random nat.$

init 123456789.

next.

screen! value 0 10.

We can get rid of a dictionary name d by saying

old d

Removing a dictionary name by **old** also removes all names in that dictionary. The dictionary remains in existence, closed and anonymous, as long as something refers to it or to its contents.

Sequential Composition

Sequential composition is denoted by a period. It is an infix connective.

Parallel Composition

For programs P, Q, ..., R that each assign different variables, or different parts of a structured variable, their parallel composition is denoted P||Q||...||R. Each program can use the variables assigned by the others, but all occurrences of variables assigned by the other programs refer to their initial value. Similarly a dependent variable that depends on variables assigned in one program can be used in parallel programs, but its value will be determined by the initial values of the variables it depends on. Parallel programs cannot affect each other through assignments of variables. For cooperation, programs can communicate with each other on channels defined for the purpose.

Here is a program to find the maximum value in nonempty list L in log (#L) time. (L is a variable, and its value is destroyed in the process.) We define $findmax \ i \ j$ to find the maximum in the segment of L from index i to index j.

```
new findmax do \langle i: 0, ..\#L \rightarrow \langle j: 1, ..\#L+1 \rightarrow if j-i=1 then ok
else do findmax i (div (i+j) 2) \parallel findmax (div (i+j) 2) j od.
L:= i \rightarrow (L i) \lor (L (div (i+j) 2 \mid L i \text{ fi}))
```

After execution of findmax 0 (#L), the maximum value in the original list is L0.

Output and Input

The output channels *screen* and *printer*, and the input channel *keys*, are predefined. Each channel is defined to transmit a specific type of value, but input and output can specify any type of value for which a conversion is defined.

```
Channel screen accepts text, which is displayed on the screen. The program
```

screen! "Hi there"

sends the text "Hi there" to the screen. A string of outputs can be sent together

screen! "Answer = "; *numtext x*; " meters"; *newline*

This is equivalent to

screen! "Answer = ". screen! numtext x. screen! " meters". screen! newline

The program *screen*! 5 converts from the integer 5 to the text "5" and sends it to the screen.

The keyboard is a program that runs in parallel with other programs; you don't need to initiate it; it is already running. It monitors what key combinations are pressed, and for what duration, and creates a string of characters. So the shift-A combination and the control-Q combination are characters. The click button is just a key like any other; *click* and *doubleclick* are characters.

Text from the keyboard (including the click button) can be received from channel keys. The program

keys? text; newline

reads text up to and including a newline character. One integer of input is requested on channel keys by the program

keys? int

If input is not yet available, it is awaited. When the input is received, it is referred to simply as keys. Five characters of input are received from channel keys by saying keys? 5*char. The backspace character may be part of the input; no corrections are made. The input is not echoed on the screen.

There is a second form of input, an example of which is

keys? text! screen

This reads text from channel keys, corrected according to backspace characters, up to the next newline character, and echoes the input on the screen. The newline character is consumed and echoed, but not included in the value of keys.

If c is the name of an input channel, then the input test

?c

is a binary expression saying whether there is currently any unread input on channel c.

Channel Definition

The definition

new c!? nat

defines c to be a new local channel that transmits naturals. It can be used for output and input. For example,

new c!? nat. **do** c! 7 \parallel c? int. x:=c **od**. **old** c

assigns x to 7. Parallel programs cannot use the same channel for output. Parallel programs can use the same channel for input only if the parallel composition is not sequentially followed by a program that uses that channel for input. When parallel programs read from the same channel, they read the same inputs independently.

Conditional Program

The **if then else fi** is as usual. There is no one-tailed **if** in ProTem, but there is a predefined program ok whose execution does nothing. For example,

if x>y then x:=y else ok fi

With a one-tailed if, it is too easily forgotten that there are two cases to consider. An "assert" program is obtained according to the following example.

if x>y then ok else screen! "appropriate error message". stop fi

Named Programs

A named program has the syntax

newname do program od

The name is attached to the program (like a program definition), and the program is executed (unlike a program definition). The program name is known only within the program to which it is attached; after that, it is again new and can be reused. One purpose of this naming is to make loops. Here is a two-dimensional search for x in an $n \times m$ array A of integers (that is, A: $[n^*[m^*int]]$).

```
new i: nat. i:= 0.

tryThisI do if i=n then screen! x; "does not occur."

else new j: nat. j:= 0.

tryThisJ do if j=m then i:= i+1. tryThisI

else if A i j = x then screen! x; "occurs at "; i; ""; j

else j:= j+1. tryThisJ fi fi od fi od
```

The next example is a fast remainder program, assigning natural variable r to the remainder when natural a is divided by natural d, using only addition and subtraction.

```
r:=a.

outerloop do if r<d then ok

else new dd: nat. dd:=d.

innerloop do r:=r-dd. dd:=dd+dd.

if r<dd then outerloop else innerloop fi od fi od
```

The use of a program name is semantically a call; it means the same as replacing it with the program it names. This example means the same as

```
r:= a.

outerloop

do if r<d then ok

else new dd: nat. dd:= d.

innerloop

do r:= r-dd. dd:= dd+dd.

if r<dd

then if r<d then ok

else new dd: nat. dd:= d.

innerloop

do r:= r-dd. dd:= dd+dd.

if r<dd then outerloop else innerloop fi od fi

else r:= r-dd. dd:= dd+dd.

if r<dd then outerloop else innerloop fi od fi
```

The calls *outerloop* and *innerloop* were replaced by the programs they name. They reappear, and again they mean the programs they name. Although semantically they are calls, in this example they are tail recursions, so they are implemented as branches (jumps, go to's).

The next example illustrates that named programs provide general recursion, not just tail recursion. It computes $x:=f_n$ and $y:=f_{n+1}$, where f_n is the nth Fibonacci number, in $log\ n$ time.

```
Fib do if n = 0 then x := 0. y := 1
else if odd n then n := (n-1)/2. Fib. n := x. x := x \uparrow 2 + y \uparrow 2. y := 2 \times n \times y + y \uparrow 2
else n := n/2 - 1. Fib. n := x. x := 2 \times x \times y + y \uparrow 2. y := n \uparrow 2 + y \uparrow 2 + x fi fi od
```

A fancy name can be used as a specification. For example,

```
<\!< x' > x >  do x := x + 1 od
```

The specification on the left $\langle x' \rangle x \rangle$ is implemented (refined, implied) by the program on the right x:=x+1. If the specification is written within the language that the prover understands, the prover attempts to prove that the specification is implemented (refined, implied) by the program. If the

program makes use of a specification, the inner specification is used in the outer proof. For example,

```
(x') = 0 do if x = 0 then x = 0 then x = 0 od od
```

In the **else**-part, the specification $\ll x' = 0 \gg$ means exactly what it says, rather than the program that it names. Thus the use of specifications makes complicated fixed-point semantics unnecessary.

If the prover fails to understand the specification, or fails to prove the refinement, it informs the programmer, and treats the specification as just a name.

The following three lines are equivalent to each other.

```
P do Q od new P do Q od. P. old P do new P do Q od. P od
```

Controlled Program

This example computes the transitive closure of A: [n*[n*bin]].

```
for j: 0;..n

do for i: 0;..n

do for k: 0;..n

do A:=(i;k) \rightarrow (A i k \lor (A i j \land A j k)) \mid A \text{ od od od}
```

The assignment can be restated as

```
if A i j \land A j k then A := (i;k) \rightarrow true \mid A else ok fi
```

if you prefer. The name being introduced by **for** is known only within the loop body, and it is known there as a data name. It is not a variable, and so it is not assignable. We call it a **for** parameter. In the example, each parameter takes values 0, 1, 2, and so on up to and including n-1, but not including n.

For a second example, here is the sieve of Eratosthenes.

```
new n = 1000.

new prime: [n*bin]. prime:= [2*false; (n-2)*true].

for i: 2;..ceil (sqrt n)

do if prime i then for j: i;..ceil (n/i) do prime:= (i \times j) \rightarrow false \mid prime od else ok fi od
```

A **for** parameter is "by initial value", so

```
for i: x; x do x:= i+1 od
increases x by 1, not 2.
```

After the : we can have any string expression; the parameter stands for each item in the string, in sequence. We can also have any bunch expression; the parameter stands for each element of the bunch, in parallel. As an example,

```
for i: 0,..\#A do A:=i \rightarrow 0 \mid A od makes the items of A be 0, in parallel.
```

We can also have a bunch of strings, or a string of bunches, and so on, so that sequential and parallel execution can be nested within each other. (Note: we do not apply distribution or factoring laws; the structure of the expression is the structure of execution.)

Procedures

A program can have a data parameter, as in this example.

$$\langle y : real \rightarrow x := x \times y \rangle$$

A program with one or more parameters is called a "procedure". A procedure of n+1 parameters is a procedure of 1 parameter whose body is a procedure of n parameters. A procedure can be argumented in the same way that lists are indexed and functions are argumented. For example,

$$\langle y: real \rightarrow x:= x \times y \rangle$$
 3

which is the same as

$$x := x \times 3$$

A procedure's data parameter is known only within the procedure body, and it is known there as a data name. It is not a variable, and so it is not assignable. It is "by initial value", so

$$\langle i: int \rightarrow x:= i. y:= i \rangle (x+1)$$

gives both x and y a final value one greater than x's initial value.

A program can also have a variable parameter, as in this example.

$$\langle x:: int \rightarrow x:=3 \rangle$$

A procedure with a variable parameter cannot be applied to a variable appearing in the procedure. The example procedure can be applied to any variable, even one named x, because the nonlocal variable name x does not appear in the procedure. The main use for variable parameters is probably to affect many files in the same way; for example, a procedure to sort files.

A program can also have a channel parameter, as in this example.

$$\langle c! text \rightarrow c! \text{ "abc"} \rangle$$

A procedure with a channel parameter cannot be applied to a channel appearing in the procedure. This example procedure can be applied to any output channel, even one named c, because the nonlocal channel name c does not appear in the procedure. Likewise,

$$\langle c? text \rightarrow c? text! screen \rangle$$

can be applied to any input channel.

The following procedure pps has three channel parameters. On the first, a, it reads the coefficients of a rational power series; on the second, b, it reads the coefficients of another rational power series; on the last, c, it writes the coefficients of the product power series.

```
new pps do \langle a? rat \rightarrow \langle b? rat \rightarrow \langle c! rat \rightarrow
                         do a? rat \parallel b? rat od. c! a \times b.
                         new a0: a. new b0: b. new d!? rat.
                                   pps a b d
                         do
                                \parallel do a? rat \parallel b? rat od. c! a0 \times b + a \times b0.
                                    loop \ \mathbf{do} \ \mathbf{do} \ a? \ rat \parallel b? \ rat \parallel d? \ rat \ \mathbf{od}. \ c!a0 \times b + d + a \times b0. \ loop \ \mathbf{od} \ \mathbf{od} \rangle \rangle \rangle \ \mathbf{od}
```

Format

Although it is not part of the ProTem language, here are the formatting rules that I prefer. The choice of alternative depends on the length of component data and programs.

or	A. B	or	for <i>x</i> : <i>A</i> do <i>B</i> od
or	A. B	or	for x: A do B od
	A B		A + B
or		or	
	A		A
	$\parallel B$		+ <i>B</i>

	if A then B else C fi		result x: A do B od
or	if A then B	or	result x: A
	else C fi		do B od
or	if A		$\langle x: A \to \langle y: B \to C \rangle \rangle$
	then B else C fi	or	$\langle x: A \rightarrow \langle y: B \rightarrow$
			$\langle C \rangle \rangle$

Scope

Scopes are limited by **do od**, **then else**, **else fi**, and $\langle \rangle$ brackets. Each of these four pairs is a scope opener and a scope closer. Scopes are also limited by parallel composition; \parallel is both a scope closer and a scope opener.

A name introduced by the keyword **new** must be new, i.e. not defined since the previous unclosed scope opener. Its scope extends from its definition, through all following sequentially composed programs, to the corresponding scope closer. But it may be covered by a definition in a more local scope. For example, letting A, B, C, \ldots stand for arbitrary program forms (but not **new** or **old**), in

A. **new** x: int. B. **do** C. **new** x: bin. D **od**. E the definition of x as an integer variable is not yet in effect in A, but it is in effect in B, C, and E. The definition that makes x a binary variable is in effect in D. None of A, B, C, D, or E can contain a redefinition of x unless it is within further **do od**, **then else**, **else fi**, or $\langle \rangle$ brackets.

A name introduced by **new** can be removed from the dictionary by using **old**, ending its scope early. So in

new
$$x = 0$$
. A. **old** x . B

the definition of x is in effect in A but not in B. Within B, the name x has the same meaning (if any) that it had before the previous unclosed scope opener. After **old** x, the name x is again new and available for definition. However,

new
$$x = 0$$
. **do old** x . A **od**

is not allowed; a scope cannot be ended by **old** within a subscope.

If a name is introduced by **new** outside all scope limiters, its scope ends only with **old**. Its scope does not end with the end of a computing session, not even by switching off the power. Variables declared outside all scope limiters serve as "files". A predefined name cannot have its scope ended by **old**, but it can be obscured by a programmer's redefinition of the same name.

In a variable definition, a channel definition, a **for** parameter definition, a function parameter definition, a procedure parameter definition, and a **result** variable definition, the name being introduced cannot be used in the type; its scope begins after the type.

In a data or program definition, the scope of the name being introduced starts immediately. This allows the definitions to be recursive. The forward definition allows mutual recursion by starting the scope of a data name or program name even before its definition. For example, in

new
$$f = 3$$
. **do new** f . **new** $g = \cdots f \cdots g \cdots$. **new** $f = \cdots f \cdots g \cdots$. B **od**

f and g are each defined in terms of both of them. Without the forward definition of f, g would be defined in terms of the earlier f=3.

A program can be given a name without the keyword **new**. Any such name must be new within the most local scope, just like a name introduced with the keyword new. Its scope extends only through the program to which it is attached, not beyond. After that, it is again new and available for definition.

A name can be introduced as a procedure parameter or function parameter or for parameter or result variable. Any such name is automatically considered to be new. Its scope extends only through the program or data to which it is attached, not beyond.

The opening and closing of dictionaries obey the same scope rules. In a program of the form

```
A. do B od. C
```

all names in all dictionaries, and which dictionaries are open, and the order in which they were opened, are the same at the start of C as they were at the end of A, regardless of any local changes within B. However,

```
open d. do close d. A od
```

is not allowed; a dictionary cannot be closed in a subscope of the one in which it was opened.

To execute a program stored on someone else's computer, just invoke that remote program using its full address (programname_computername). For efficiency, it might be best to compile that remote program for your own computer and run it locally. Any nonlocal names (variables, channels, ...) refer to entities on the computer where the program is compiled.

Miscellaneous

As a character within a text, the left- and right-double-quote characters must be underlined. For example, "Just say "no"." . As a character within a text, an underlined left- and right-double-quote character must be underlined again. And so on. Thus every program can be presented to a compiler as a text. But we cannot write a self-reproducing expression with this convention. For that purpose, we would need to represent left- and right-double-quote characters within a text by repeating them. For example, "Just say ""no"".".

```
The ProTem equivalent of enumerated type is shown here.
```

```
new color = "red", "green", "blue".
new brush: color. brush:= "red"
```

The ProTem equivalent of the record type (structure type) is as follows.

```
new person = "name" \rightarrow text \mid "age" \rightarrow nat.
new p: person. p:= "name" \rightarrow "Josh" | "age" \rightarrow 16
```

The fields of p can be selected in the usual way, for example

```
screen! p "name"
```

prints the text "Josh". The value of p can be changed in the usual ways, such as

```
p := "age" \rightarrow 17 \mid p.
p:= "name" \rightarrow "Amanda" | "age" \rightarrow 2
```

We can even have a whole file (string) of records

```
new file: *person. file:= nil
```

and catenate new records onto its end.

```
file:=file; p
```

The efficiency of pointers is obtained through the use of three predefined names. The first is:

```
new index = text \rightarrow nat
```

When applied to a text argument, it yields the result *nat*. The use of *index* is a signal to the implementation that the natural number will be used only as an index into the list whose name is given by the text argument (and the implementation will check that this is so). For example,

```
new G: [*("name" \rightarrow text | "next" \rightarrow index "G")]. G:= ["name" \rightarrow "zzzzz" | "next" \rightarrow 0]. new first: index "G". first:= 0.
```

We can still assign *first* to a natural number, for example

```
first := first + 1
```

and similarly for the "next" field of each record of G. But we can use them only as indexes into G, for example

```
first := G first \text{ "next"}
G := first \rightarrow \text{ ("name"} \rightarrow \text{"Aaron"} \mid \text{"next"} \rightarrow first) \mid G
```

With this limited use, the implementation of these indexes can be a memory address. This way we obtain all the performance benefits of pointers without destroying the logic of our language.

The other two predefined names that give pointer efficiency are

```
new path = text \rightarrow *nat

new backup = \langle p: *nat \rightarrow p \downarrow (0; .. \leftrightarrow p-1) \rangle
```

The use of *path* is a signal to the implementation that the string of natural numbers will be used only as a string of indexes into the structure whose name is given by the text argument (and the implementation will check that this is so). For example,

```
new tree = [nil], [tree; all; tree].

new t: tree. t:= [nil].

new p: path "t".
```

To move p down to the left in the tree we reassign it this way:

```
p := p; 0
```

and similarly to move it down to the right. To move it up, we just remove its final item

```
p := backup p
```

Indexing t with p yields a subtree of t

t@n

and we can replace this subtree with tree s using the assignment

$$t := p \rightarrow s \mid t$$

We can express the information at the node indicated by p as

$$t@p\ 1$$
 or $t@(p; 1)$

and we can replace the information at this node with the integer 6 using the assignment

$$t := p; 1 \rightarrow 6 \mid t$$

We obtain the performance benefit of having p implemented as a string of addresses rather than as a string of natural numbers, without complicating the language.

The procedure of some other programming languages is a combination of naming and parameterization. For example,

```
new transformX do \langle magnification: real \rightarrow \langle translation: real \rightarrow x := magnification \times x + translation \rangle \rangle od
```

Here is a procedure with one parameter

```
new translateX do transformX 1 od
```

formed by providing one argument to a two-parameter procedure. To provide an argument for just the second parameter is a little more awkward, but not too bad.

```
new magnifyX do \langle magnification: real \rightarrow transformX magnification 0 \rangle od
```

We can now obtain a three-times magnification of x in either of these ways.

```
magnifyX 3 transformX 3 0
```

In some other programming languages, the "function" is a combination of naming, parameterizing, and programmed data. For example,

```
new fact = \langle n: nat \rightarrow \mathbf{result} \ f: nat \ \mathbf{do} \ f:= 1. \ \mathbf{for} \ i: 0; ... n \ \mathbf{do} \ f:= f \times (i+1) \ \mathbf{od} \ \mathbf{od} \rangle
```

Exception handling is provided by bunch union or by the | operator. For example,

```
new divide = \langle dividend: com \rightarrow \langle divisor: com \rightarrow \mathbf{if} \ divisor = 0 \ \mathbf{then} \ "zero \ divide" \ \mathbf{else} \ dividend / \ divisor \ \mathbf{fi} \ \rangle \rangle
```

We can state the type of this function as

com, "zero divide"

The implementation will provide the tag to discriminate between the two.

The selective union operator applies its left side to an argument if that argument is in the stated domain of its left side; otherwise it applies its right side. Let us define

```
new weekday = \langle d: (0,...7) \rightarrow 1 \le d \le 5 \rangle
```

Then in the expression

(weekday | $all \rightarrow$ "domain error") i

if i fails to be an integer in the range 0,...7, the left side "catches" the exception and "throws" it to the right side, where it is "handled".

The effect of an input choice connective can be obtained as follows.

```
inputchoice do if ?c then c? int. P
else if ?d then d? int. Q
else inputchoice fi fi od
```

The effect of Unix pipes is obtained by channel parameters. For example, suppose *trim* is a procedure to trim off leading and following blanks and tabs and newlines from text, and *sort* is a procedure to sort texts. (Please excuse the informal body.)

```
new trim do \langle in? text \rightarrow \langle out! text \rightarrow repeatedly read from in, trim off leading and trailing space, output to out, until "***" is read. The final "***" is output \rangle\rangle od.
```

new sort **do** $\langle in? text \rightarrow \langle out! text \rightarrow \text{repeatedly read from } in \text{ until "***" is read and output the sorted texts to <math>out$. The final "***" is output $\rangle \rangle$ **od**

We can feed the output from *trim* to the input of *sort* by defining a channel for the purpose. If the original input comes from *keys*, and the final output goes to *screen*, then

```
new pipe!? text. trim keys pipe. sort pipe screen. old pipe Even better:
```

```
new pipe!? text. do trim keys pipe <math>|| sort pipe screen od. old pipe If sort needs input before it is available from trim, sort waits.
```

The effect of modules is partly obtained by **old** and partly by dictionaries. There is no direct counterpart to the import construct or frame construct. It is recommended to place a comment at the head of each major program component saying which nonlocal names are used, and in what way they are used. It is possible for an implementation to generate such comments on request. It is also possible for programmers to make such comments in an agreed format so that an implementation can recognize them and check them. Here is a suggested standard.

```
%input: on these channels
%output: on these channels
```

%need: the values of these variables

%assign: these variables %use: these data names %call: these program names %refer: to these dictionaries

They are transitive through "use" and "call" without requiring the implementation to do a transitive closure (it just checks the comments at the head of the used data names and called program names).

The predefined procedure *asm* has one text parameter. If the argument represents an assembly-language program, the execution is that of the represented assembly-language program. An implementation may provide procedures for a variety of languages; for example, it may provide a procedure named *Java*, with one text parameter, whose execution is that of the Java fragment represented by the argument.

Object Orientation

ProTem considers object orientation to be a programming style, rather than a programming-language style, or collection of language features. Object-oriented programming (as a style of programming) can be done in ProTem, and should be done whenever it is helpful. Data structures, and the functions and procedures that access and update them, can be defined together in one dictionary. If many objects of the same type are wanted, the type can be defined and used many times. Or, if you prefer, objects can be instantiated by re-invoking the program that defines one of them.

Documents

The predefined name *pic* is all picture values. It can be used, for example, to create a picture-valued variable.

new *p*: *pic*.

The name pic is defined as $[x^*[y^*(0,..z)]]$ where x is the number of screen pixels in the horizontal direction, y is the number of pixels in the vertical direction, and z is the number of pixel values. A picture can therefore be expressed in the same way as any other two-dimensional array, and one can refer to the pixel in column 3 and row 4 of picture p as p 3 4.

Another predefined name is movie, defined as [*pic]. The operations on movies are just those of lists, such as catenation. To help in the creation of movies, one of the pixel values should be "transparent", and one of the operations on pictures should be overlaying one picture on another.

Editing

The command control-e (hold down the control key and type an e) invokes an editor for creating or modifying any definition (variable, data name, program name, channel, or dictionary name). When a program name is defined, the defined program is not immediately compiled; it is compiled when it is first invoked. When its definition is modified, the old executable form is thrown away; the new definition is not compiled until it is invoked. It may also be necessary to throw away the executable form of all programs that depend directly on the redefined name.

Security

Any dictionary may contain a data definition of the name password, such as new password = encode "Smith" % my mother's maiden name

where *encode* is a not-easily-invertible function from texts to texts. If a dictionary contains the data name *password*, the text will be requested when an attempt is made to open the dictionary or to refer to its contents. Passwords belong to dictionaries, not to people. For example

```
new readBarrier open.
new password = encode "elephant". % read code
new writeBarrier open.
new password = encode "giraffe". % write code
new it: real. it:= 17.2.
close writeBarrier.
new readonlyit = it_writeBarrier.
close readBarrier.
```

To use *readonlyit*, either by opening dictionary *readBarrier* or as *readonlyit_readBarrier*, you must know the password "elephant". This enables you to know the value of variable *it*, but not to change it. To change it, you must know a second password, "giraffe".

Session

When the computer is turned on, a session begins. When control-q is typed, a session ends and a new one begins. When a number of idle minutes pass (the number is a parameter of the system and may be set to infinity), a session ends and a new one begins. When the computer is turned off, a session ends.

At the start of a session, the screen is clear, only the root dictionary is open, and all passwords are required. A password will not be requested twice within the same session for the same dictionary.

Sessions do not define the lifetime of definitions (variables, data, programs, dictionaries). A definition that is outside all **do od**, **then else**, **else fi**, and $\langle \rangle$ pairs lasts from the execution of the definition (**new**) to the execution of the corresponding name removal (**old**). This may be less than a session, or more than a session. Turning off the computer should not cut the power instantly, but should first cause any nonlocal variables whose values are stored in volatile memory, and whose values outlast a session, to be saved in permanent memory.

Sessions are defined for each user of a multiuser computer, and are for security and error recovery.

Error Recovery

It is essential to be able to abort the execution of a program, especially if you suspect that its execution will take forever. To do so, type control-u (for "undo"). The undo command not only aborts execution, but also returns to the state (except for input and output) prior to the start of execution of the aborted program. The undo command can even be issued after the completion of execution of a program, before the start of the next one. In that case it acts as the magical inverse of the previous program.

On many computers, undo can be implemented just by doing nothing; nonvolatile memory contains the state as it was before the start of the previous program, and volatile memory contains the current state, which is stored in nonvolatile memory at the start of execution of the next program. (When the execution of a program runs over five minutes, or causes a massive state change, the current state may be saved temporarily in nonvolatile memory, to become permanent when the possibility of undoing it has passed.)

A second level of error recovery, control-s, undoes a session. Implementing it requires capturing the state at the start of a session. Although this is expensive, it is hoped that it can serve also as system backup, performed automatically and incrementally with a frequency that matches file use.

The final kind of error recovery works in conjunction with session undo. It requires ProTem to keep a text file named *session* consisting of all keystrokes since the start of the session. (This is quite practical: an hour's hard work produces only 10kbytes of keystrokes.) One first performs a session undo; this resets the state except for the keystroke file. One then makes a copy of the keystroke file to capture it at some instant (it is always growing).

```
new copy: text. copy:= session.
```

One then edits the keystroke file, perhaps using the text editor, and then executes the result.

```
exec copy.
```

This gives us perfectly flexible error recovery for the modest cost of a keystroke file.

Command Summary

There are four "commands" in ProTem that are not presented in the grammar. They cannot be part of a stored program. They can be used only by a human at a keyboard. They are:

```
control-e: enter editor
control-q: quit session
control-u: undo program
control-s undo session
```

Possibly Needed, But Not Yet Designed Features

We need to be able to easily express the creation, deletion, placement, movement, resizing, and scrolling of a window, and to replace any region within a window. The entire screen, sometimes called the "desktop", is just a window that cannot be created (it is already created), deleted, moved, resized, or scrolled. Perhaps we also need better ways of defining touchpad or touchscreen gestures. The data name *cursor*: *nat*; *nat* tells the current cursor position.

We need a sound (noise) data type. We also need a way to combine all of these types in one document. We also need to be able to define regions of documents to be clickable links.

Intentionally Omitted Features

Each of the following suggestions is a syntactic convenience, and it's no trouble to add to the language. But they make the language larger, and that's a cost. And they move away from the form needed for verification. So they are not included in ProTem.

variable definition with initialization

```
new x: nat := 3
                                abbreviates new x: nat. x:= 3
one-tailed if
        if a=0 then x=b fi
                                abbreviates if a=0 then x=b else ok fi
assertion
                                abbreviates if x>y then ok else screen! "assert failure". stop fi
        assert x>y
list item assignment
        A 3 := 5
                                abbreviates A := 3 \rightarrow 5 \mid A
        A \ 3 \ 4 := 5
                                abbreviates A := (3;4) \rightarrow 5 \mid A
definition grouping
        new x, y: int
                                abbreviates new x: int. new y: int
```

```
abbreviates old x. old y
          old x, y
                                          abbreviates open this. open that
          open this, that
                                          abbreviates \langle a: nat \rightarrow \langle b: nat \rightarrow a+b \rangle \rangle
          \langle a, b : nat \rightarrow a+b \rangle
          \langle a, b: nat \rightarrow x := a+b \rangle abbreviates \langle a: nat \rightarrow \langle b: nat \rightarrow x := a+b \rangle \rangle
looping constructs
          while n>0 loop n:=n-1 pool abbreviates
                     loop do if n>0 then n:=n-1. loop else ok fi od
          loop n := n-1 until n=0 pool abbreviates
                     loop do n := n-1. if n=0 then ok else loop fi od
          loop P. exit when n=0. Q pool abbreviates
                     loop \ do \ P. if n=0 then ok else Q. loop \ fi \ od
name and use data
          (fact =: \langle n: nat \rightarrow \mathbf{if} \ n=0 \ \mathbf{then} \ 1 \ \mathbf{else} \ n \times fact(n-1) \ \mathbf{fi} \rangle) \ 9 \ abbreviates
                     result f: nat \rightarrow nat
                     do new fact = \langle n: nat \rightarrow if \ n=0 \ then \ 1 \ else \ n \times fact(n-1) \ fi \rangle. f:= fact \ od \ 9
```

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Implementation Philosophy

No general-purpose programming language has ever been, or will ever be, implemented entirely. Every such language is infinite; every implementation is finite. There is always a program too big for the implementation. There is a multitude of size limitations: the parse stack might overflow, the dictionary (symbol table) might be too small, the forward branch fixup list might be exceeded, and so on. It would be ugly to define a programming language by listing all the size limitations of programs. And it would be counter-productive because it would exclude implementations that can accommodate larger programs.

Whenever a program exceeds a size limitation, the implementation should not say "Error: limitation exceeded.", because the program is not in error. The implementation should say "Sorry: this implementation is too limited to accommodate your program.". An "error" message tells a programmer to correct the error; there is no other option. A "sorry" message gives the programmer 3 options: change the program to live within the limitation; change the implementation options to increase the limit that was exceeded; take the program to a different implementation.

Natural numbers and integers are usually limited to those that are representable in a specific number of bits, for example, 32 bits. This is a size limitation, just the same as other size limitations. It is uglier to define arithmetic within finite limitations than to define the naturals and the integers. And it is counter-productive to do so, because it excludes an implementation with 64-bit arithmetic. As with other implementation limitations, numeric overflow should not get an "error" message; it should get a "sorry" message.

Floating-point numbers and arithmetic should never be offered as a language feature. The programmer wants rational or real numbers and arithmetic, but may be willing to accept the floating-point approximation for the sake of efficiency. Floating-point, with a specific number of bits, is an implementation limitation. Any <u>alternative</u> to floating-point that increases the accuracy without taking too much time or space should be welcome.

ProTem is a rich programming system, offering many kinds of data and operators on data, and many ways to structure a computation. Some features may be difficult to implement. And some features may be of little use to most programmers. It may be a wise decision not to implement some features. For example, an implementer might decide that in a variable declaration, the type must be one of

```
nat int rat bin text [n*type]
```

where n is a natural number and type is any of these types just listed. No-one can complain that the complete language is not implemented, since it is impossible to completely implement any language. But ProTem is defined to allow all type expressions that make sense, and so allow an implementer to invent ways to implement programs that previous implementations could not accommodate.

There aren't any "errors" in the execution of a program, but there are expressions that cannot be evaluated further. That presents an implementation problem, but not a semantic problem. For example,

```
screen! -3prints -3, and similarlyscreen! 1/0should print 1/0screen! [0; 1; 2] 3should print [0; 1; 2] 3screen! \langle r: rat \rightarrow 5 \rangle (1/0)should print 5screen! 1/0 = 1/0should print 5screen! [0; 1; 2] 3 = [0; 1; 2] 3should print 5
```

charnat: char \rightarrow nat. A one-to-one function with inverse natchar.

im: $com \rightarrow real$. The imaginary part of a complex number.

complex. A dictionary containing the following names.

i = sqrt(-1). The imaginary unit.

An implementation may not behave as it should, in which case it should issue an apology.

abs: com \rightarrow real. Absolute value. For complex x, abs $x = sqrt (re x \uparrow 2 + im x \uparrow 2)$.

Predefined Names

click: char.

com. The complex numbers.

number.

```
all. All ProTem items.
asm. A machine-dependent program with one text parameter. If the argument represents an
       assembly-language program, the execution is that of the represented assembly-language
       program.
await. A program with one parameter of type real. If the argument represents the present or a
       future time, its execution does nothing but takes time until the instant given by the argument.
       If the argument represents the present or a past time, its execution does nothing. See time
       and wait.
backspace: char.
backup: *nat \rightarrow *nat. \ backup(s; i) = s. For use with path.
bin = true, false.
calculus. A dictionary containing the following names.
       e = 2.718281828459045 (approx). An approximation to the base of the natural logarithms.
        exp: com \rightarrow com. An approximation to e \uparrow x.
        lb: \S\langle r: real \to r > 0 \rangle \to real. An approximation to the binary logarithm (base 2).
       ln: \S\langle r: real \to r > 0 \rangle \to real. An approximation to the natural logarithm (base e).
       log: \S\langle r: real \to r > 0 \rangle \to real. An approximation to the common logarithm (base 10).
       pi = 3.141592653589793 (approximately). An approximation to the ratio of a circle's
               circumference to its diameter.
ceil: real\rightarrowint. r \leq ceil r < r+1
char. The characters.
```

 $arc: com \rightarrow \S\langle r: real \rightarrow 0 \le r < 2 \times pi \rangle$. An approximation to the angle or arc of a complex

re: $com \rightarrow real$. The real part of a complex number.

comtext: *com→text* A textual representation of a complex number.

cursor: nat; nat. A data name telling the current cursor position.

dictionary: text. A readable summary of the content of the open dictionary that was opened last.

 $div: real \rightarrow \S\langle r: real \rightarrow r > 0 \rangle \rightarrow int. \ div \ a \ d$ is the integer quotient when \ a \ is divided by \ d.

 $(0 \le mod \ a \ d < d) \land (a = div \ a \ d \times d + mod \ a \ d)$

doubleclick: char.

encode: $text \rightarrow text$. A not easily invertible function.

end: char. The end-of-file character. It is greater than all letters, digits, punctuation marks, space, tab, and newline.

eval: text→*all. If the argument represents a ProTem data expression, the evaluation is that of the represented data. It "unquotes" its argument. In eval "x", the "x" refers to whatever x refers to at the location where eval "x" occurs.

even: $int \rightarrow bin$.

exec. A program with one text parameter. If the argument represents a ProTem program, the execution is that of the represented program. It "unquotes" its argument. In exec "x:=x+1", the "x" refers to whatever x refers to at the location where exec "x" occurs.

false: bin. A binary value. When transmitted on a channel, it is the text "false".

find: $all \rightarrow [*all] \rightarrow nat$. If i is an item in L, then find i L is the index of its first occurrence; if not, then find i L = #L.

fit: $text \rightarrow int \rightarrow text$. If $i \ge 0$ then fit t i is a text of length i obtained from t by either chopping off excess characters from the right end or by extending t with spaces on the right end. If $i \le 0$ then fit t i is a text of length -i obtained from t by either chopping off excess characters from the left end or by extending t with spaces on the left end.

floor: real \rightarrow *int. floor r* \leq *r* < 1 + *floor r*

form: $real \rightarrow nat \rightarrow (nat+1) \rightarrow text$. Format a real number. form $r \ d \ e \ w$ is a text representing real r with the final digit rounded. d is the number of digits after the decimal point; if d=0 the point is omitted. e is the number of digits in the exponent; if e>0 the decimal point will be placed after the first significant digit; if e=0 the " $\times 10$ \" is omitted and the decimal point will be placed as necessary. w is the total width; if w is greater than necessary, leading blanks are added; if w is less than sufficient, the text contains stars.

form $pi \ 4 \ 1 \ 12 = "3.1416 \times 10 \uparrow 0"$. form $(-pi) \ 2 \ 0 \ 6 = "-3.14"$.

form $5\ 0\ 0\ 3 = 5$. form $(-5)\ 0\ 0\ 3 = -5$. form $123\ 0\ 0\ 2 = ***$.

hyperbolic. A dictionary containing the following names.

 $cosh: com \rightarrow com$. An approximation to a hyperbolic function.

 $sinh: com \rightarrow com$. An approximation to a hyperbolic function.

 $tanh: com \rightarrow com$. An approximation to a hyperbolic function.

 $index = text \rightarrow nat$. A signal to the implementation that the natural number will be used only as an index to the indicated list.

int. The integers.

inttext. A text representation of an integer number.

keys!? *text*. To the program that monitors key presses, it is an output channel; to all other programs, it is an input channel.

mailin!? *text*. To the program that handles incoming mail, it is an output channel; to all other programs, it is an input channel.

mailout!? text. To the program that handles outgoing mail, it is an input channel; to all other programs, it is an output channel.

match: *all \rightarrow *all \rightarrow nat. If pattern occurs within subject, then match pattern subject is the index of its first occurrence. If not, then match pattern subject = \Leftrightarrow subject.

maxint: int. The maximum representable integer (machine dependent).

maxnat: *nat*. The maximum representable natural (machine dependent).

minint: *int*. The minimum representable integer (machine dependent).

 $mod: real \rightarrow \S\langle r: real \rightarrow r > 0 \rangle \rightarrow real. \ mod \ a \ d$ is the remainder when \ a \ is divided by \ d.

 $(0 \le mod \ a \ d < d) \land (a = div \ a \ d \times d + mod \ a \ d)$

movie = *pic.

nat. The natural numbers.

nattext. A text representation of a natural number.

natchar: charnat char \rightarrow char. A one-to-one function with inverse charnat.

newline: char. The return or newline character.

nil. The empty string.

null. The empty bunch.

odd: $int \rightarrow bin$.

ok. A program whose execution does nothing.

openlist: text. The names of the open dictionaries in the order they were opened.

 $path = text \rightarrow *nat$. A signal to the implementation that the string will be used only as an index to the indicated list.

 $pic = [x^*[y^*(0,..z)]]$ where x is the number of screen pixels in the horizontal dimension, y is the number in the vertical dimension, and z is the number of pixel values. The screen pictures.

pre: *char*→*char*. The predecessor function.

printer!? text. To the printer, it is an input channel; to all other programs, it is an output channel.

randomnat. A dictionary containing the following three names.

init. A program with one natural parameter. Its execution assigns a hidden variable to the natural value.

next. A program. Its execution assigns the hidden variable to the next value in a random sequence.

value: nat→nat→nat. A reasonably uniform function, dependent on the hidden variable, over the interval from (including) the first argument to (excluding) the second argument.

randomreal. A dictionary containing the following three names.

init. A program with one real parameter. Its execution assigns a hidden variable to the real value.

next. A program. Its execution assigns the hidden variable to the next value in a random sequence.

value: real→real→real. A reasonably uniform function, dependent on the hidden variable, over the interval between the arguments.

rat. The rational numbers.

rattext. A rext representation of a rational number.

real. The real numbers.

realtext: real→text A text representation of a real number.

round: real \rightarrow int. r=0.5 \leq round r < r+0.5

screen!? text. To the screen, it is an input channel; to all other programs, it is an output channel.

session: text. A text expression giving all keystrokes on channel keys since the start of a session. $sign: real \rightarrow (-1, 0, 1)$.

sort: *ord \rightarrow *ord where ord = real, char, [*ord].

sqrt: com→com. An approximation to the principle square root.

stop **do** wait ∞ **od**.

subst: $all \rightarrow all \rightarrow *all \rightarrow *all$. subst x y s is a string formed from s by replacing all occurrences of y with x. Substitute x for y in s.

suc: $char \rightarrow char$. The successor function.

tab: char.

text = *char.

textcom: text→com. If the argument represents a complex number, the result is the represented number.

textint: text→int. If the argument represents an integer, the result is the represented number.

textnat: $text \rightarrow nat$. If the argument represents a natural number, the result is the represented number.

textrat: text→rat. If the argument represents a rational number, the result is the represented number.

textreal: text→real. If the argument represents a real number, the result is the represented number.

texttime: text→int. If the argument represents a time, the result is the represented time in seconds since or before 2000 January 1 at 0:00 UTC (the midnight that begins 2000 January 1 at longitude 0). For example texttime "1947 September 16 at 19:24 UTC" = -68675760.

time!? real. To the time provider, it is an output channel. To all other programs, it is an input channel that gives the current time in seconds since or before 2000 January 1 at 0:00 UTC (the midnight that begins 2000 January 1 at longitude 0).

timetext: int→text. A readable form of the time in seconds since or before 2000 January 1 at 0:00 UTC (the midnight that begins 2000 January 1 at longitude 0). For example, timetext (-68675760) = "1947 September 16 at 19:24 UTC"

trig. A dictionary containing the following names.

arccos: §⟨r: real → $-1 \le r \le +1$ ⟩ → §⟨r: real → 0 < r < pi/2⟩. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

arcsin: $\S\langle r: real \to -1 \le r \le +1 \rangle \to \S\langle r: real \to 0 < r < pi/2 \rangle$. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

arctan: real \rightarrow $\{\langle r: real \rightarrow 0 < r < pi/2 \rangle\}$. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

cos: real $\rightarrow \S\langle r: real \rightarrow -1 \le r \le +1 \rangle$. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

 $sin: real \rightarrow \S\langle r: real \rightarrow -1 \le r \le +1 \rangle$. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

 $tan: (\S\langle r: real \cdot \neg \exists \langle i: int \cdot r = (2 \times i + 1) \times pi \rangle)) \rightarrow real.$ An approximation to a trigonometric function

trim: text→text. A text formed from the argument by removing all leading and trailing space, tab, and newline characters.

true: bin. A binary value. When transmitted on a channel, it is the text "true".

wait. A program with one parameter of type real. If the argument is nonnegative, its execution does nothing but takes the length of time in seconds given by the argument. If the argument is nonpositive, its execution does nothing. See await and time.

In the following program, the occurrence of UNFINISHED is because graphical input and output have not yet been designed.

```
new simport % a program to simulate portation
```

%input: *keys time* %output: *screen*

%use: ceil index nat real rat sqrt newline

%call: stop wait %refer: randomnat

do % Distance between control boxes is always 1 m.

- % Merges do not overlap, so at most 1 corresponding box on the merging portway.
- % Each divergence has a left branch and a right branch; there's no straight.
- % Leading to a divergence, boxes record only one square speed.

% start of declarations

```
new m unit. new s unit. % meter and second new km = 1000 \times m. new h = 60 \times 60 \times s. % kilometer and hour new maxaccel = 1.5 \times m/s/s. % maximum deceleration = -maxaccel new speedlimit = 60 \times km/h. % speed limit is 60 km/h everywhere new cushion = 1 \times s. % reaction time for all porters new impatience = 10/s. % acceleration factor new maxdistance = ceil (speedlimit \uparrow 2 / (2 \times maxaccel)). % max search distance ahead new numporters = 120. new numboxes = 7480. new visualdelaytime = 0.5 \times s. % for human viewing
```

new porter. % so porter can be indexed before it is defined

```
new box: [numboxes *("ahead left", "ahead right", "behind left", "behind right" \rightarrow index "box" | "beside" \rightarrow index "box" | "above" \rightarrow index "porter", numporters | "x", "y" \rightarrow nat )]. % box position on screen
```

```
new porter: [numporters * ("below" \rightarrow index "box" % what's beneath | "arrival time" \rightarrow real×s % arrival time at this box | "speed" \rightarrow real×m/s)]. % current speed
```

```
new draw do \langle b: nat \rightarrow \langle c: \text{``grey''}, \text{``blue''}, \text{``red''} \rightarrow \text{UNFINISHED} \rangle \rangle od. 
 \% draws a box at screen position (box\ b\ \text{``x''})\ (box\ b\ \text{``y''}) of color c. 
 \% '`grey'' means no porter present, "blue'' means porter present, "red'' means crash
```

% end of declarations, start of initialization

```
for b: 0;..numboxes
do screen! "What box is ahead-left of box"; b; "?". keys? nat! screen.
    box := (b; \text{``ahead left''}) \rightarrow keys \mid (keys; \text{``behind left''}) \rightarrow b \mid box.
    screen! "What box is ahead-right of box"; b; "?". keys? nat! screen.
    box := (b; \text{``ahead right''}) \rightarrow keys \mid (keys; \text{``behind right''}) \rightarrow b \mid box.
    screen! "What box is beside box"; b; "?". keys? nat! screen.
    box := (b; "beside") \rightarrow keys \mid box.
    screen! "What are the x and y coordinates of box"; b; "?".
    keys? nat! screen. box := (b; "x") \rightarrow keys \mid box.
    keys? nat! screen. box:= (b; "y") \rightarrow keys \mid box.
    box := (b; "above") \rightarrow numporters \mid box. \% default; may be changed below
    draw b "grey" od. % default; may be changed below
porter:= [numporters * ("below" \rightarrow 0 \% will be reassigned below")
                           I "arrival time" \rightarrow 0 \times s
                           I "speed" \rightarrow 0×m/s )].
for p: 0;..numporters
do screen! "Porter"; p; "is over what box?". keys? nat! screen.
    porter:=(p; "below") \rightarrow keys \mid porter.
    box := (keys; "above") \rightarrow p \mid box.
    draw keys "blue" od.
init_randomnat 123456789. % initialize a random number generator
% end of initialization, start of simulation
infiniteloop do time? real. new iterationstarttime: time×s.
                 new p: index "porter". % p:= the porter that arrived at its current position first
                 new t: real×s. t:= 10 \uparrow 38 \times s. % t is a time, and 10 \uparrow 38 is an approximation to \infty
                 for q: index "porter"
                 do if porter q "arrival time" < t then t := porter q "arrival time". p := q else ok fi od.
                 old t.
                 new b: porter p "below". % the box below porter p
                 new bb: box b "beside". % the box beside b; if none then bb=b
                 new boxesToDo: *[index "box"; nat].
                      % queue of boxes to be explored; their distances ahead of porter p
                      % queue is sorted by increasing distance ahead
                      % difference between any two distances in the queue is at most 1
                 % initialize boxesToDo
                 if bb = b then boxesToDo := nil
                 else if box bb "above" = numporters then boxesToDo:= nil
                      else if porter (box bb "above") "speed" < porter p "speed" then boxesToDo:= nil
                           else boxesToDo:=[bb; 0] fi fi fi.
```

boxesToDo:= boxesToDo; [box b "ahead left"; 1].

infiniteloop od od

```
if box b "ahead left" = box b "ahead right" then ok
else boxesToDo:= boxesToDo; [box b "ahead right"; 1] fi.
old b. old bb.
new accel: real\times m/s/s. accel:= maxaccel. % acceleration for porter p
% using boxesToDo calculate accel for porter p
new b: index "box". % the box we are looking at
new d: nat. % its distance ahead of porter p
new calculateAccel % of porter p due to porter pa if any
do \langle pa: index "porter", numporters \rightarrow
     if pa=numporters then ok
     else new desiredspeed:
               ( sqrt (porter pa "speed" \uparrow 2 + 2 \times maxaccel \times d + (maxaccel \times cushion) \uparrow 2)
                - maxaccel×cushion ) \land speedlimit.
          accel := ((desired speed - porter \ p "speed") \times impatience \ \lor -maxaccel) \ \land \ accel
          \mathbf{fi} \rangle \mathbf{od}.
nextbox do b := (boxesToDo \downarrow 0) 0. d := (boxesToDo \downarrow 0) 1.
             boxesToDo:=boxesToDo\downarrow(1;..\leftrightarrow boxesToDo).
             if d>maxdistance then ok
             else calculateAccel (box b "above").
                   calculateAccel (porter (box b "beside") "above").
                  if box b "above" = numporters = porter (box b "beside") "above"
                  then % add boxes ahead to queue and continue
                         boxesToDo:=boxesToDo; [box b "ahead left"; d+1].
                         if box b "ahead left" = box b "ahead right" then ok
                         else boxesToDo:=boxesToDo; [box b "ahead right"; d+1] fi
                         nextbox
                   else if \Leftrightarrow boxesToDo > 0 then nextbox else ok fi fi fi od.
old b. old d. old calculateAccel. old boxesToDo.
% using accel, move porter p ahead one box
new b: index "box". b:= porter p "below".
box:=(b; "porter") \rightarrow numporters \mid box. draw b "grey".
next randomnat.
b := box b if value\_randomnat 0 2 = 0 then "ahead left" else "ahead right" fi.
if box b "porter" = numporters then ok else draw b "red". stop fi. % crash
porter := (p; "below") \rightarrow b \mid porter. \ box := (b; "above") \rightarrow p \mid box. \ draw b "blue".
old b.
new speed: sqrt (porter p "speed" \uparrow 2 + 2 \times accel \times m) \land speedlimit.
porter:= (p; "arrival time") \rightarrow porter p "arrival time"
                                   + 2 \times m/(porter\ p\ "speed" + speed)
          |(p; \text{``speed''}) \rightarrow speed
          | porter.
await ((iterationstarttime+visualdelaytime)/s).
old speed. old accel. old p. old iterationstarttime.
```

Grammar LL(1/2)

In this grammar, for each nonterminal, every production except possibly the last begins with a different terminal. So director sets are not needed, and that's why I call it LL(1/2). The parse stack begins with only the program nonterminal on it, and ends empty with no more input.

process programafterprocess program phrase processafterphrase process programafterprocess Il process programafterprocess

empty

phrase new newname phraseafternewname

old oldname

open dictionaryname do program od arguments

if data then program else program fi arguments

for simplename : data do program od

 \langle simplename parameterkind primary \rightarrow program \rangle arguments

variablename := data

channelname afterchannelname

newname do program od programname arguments

parameterkind

?

afterchannelname ! data

? data echo

echo ! channelname

processafterphrase . phrase processafterphrase

empty

phraseafternewname : data

> = data !? data

do program od

open

empty

data comparand aftercomparand

element afterelement comparand

element item afteritem term afterterm item factor afterfactor term

factor # factor

> - factor ~ factor + factor ? factor □ factor * factor

primary factorafterprimary

```
primary
                       number
                       text
                       if data then data else data fi arguments
                       result simplename : data do program od arguments
                       { data }
                       [ data ] arguments
                       (data) arguments
                       \langle \text{ simplename : primary } \rightarrow \text{ data } \rangle \text{ arguments}
                       variablename arguments
                       dataname arguments
                       channelname
                       number arguments
arguments
                       text arguments
                       if data then data else data fi arguments
                       result simplename : data do program od arguments
                       { data } arguments
                       [ data ] arguments
                       (data) arguments
                       \langle \text{ simplename : primary } \rightarrow \text{ data } \rangle \text{ arguments}
                       variablename arguments
                       dataname arguments
                       channelname arguments
                       empty
aftercomparand
                       = comparand aftercomparand
                       < comparand aftercomparand
                       > comparand aftercomparand
                       ≤ comparand aftercomparand
                       ≥ comparand aftercomparand
                       + comparand aftercomparand
                       empty
afterelement
                        , element afterelement
                        ... element afterelement
                       l element afterelement

    data 
    element afterelement

                       empty
afteritem
                       ; item afteritem
                       ;.. item afteritem
                        'item afteritem
                       empty
afterterm
                       + term afterterm
                       - term afterterm
                       + term afterterm
                       ∪ term afterterm
                       empty
afterfactor
                       × factor afterfactor
                       / factor afterfactor
                       ∩ factor afterfactor
                       ∧ factor afterfactor
                       v factor afterfactor
```

Δ factor afterfactor

∇ factor afterfactor@ factor afterfactor

empty

factorafterprimary \(\) \factor

↓ factor→ factor* factorempty

name simplename compounder compounder __dictionaryname compounder

empty

newname simplename not previously defined in the current scope oldname simplename previously defined in the current scope

variablename name defined as a variable or variable parameter or **result** variable

dataname name defined as data or function or data parameter or **for** parameter or **unit**

channelname name defined as a channel

programname name defined as a program or procedure

dictionaryname name defined as a dictionary

For efficiency, the productions (except possibly the last) for each nonterminal should be placed in order of frequency. The following nonterminals have only one production each, so they can be eliminated: program process name data comparand element item term. The nonterminal name is used only in the informal productions at the end.

Grammar LR(1/2)

The following grammar has no reduce-reduce choices and no shift-reduce choices. It has shift-shift choices. Such a grammar is commonly called LR(0), but it shouldn't be, because a shift action is essentially "looking at" an input symbol. So I'll compromise and call it LR($^{1}/_{2}$). The parse stack begins empty, and ends with only the program nonterminal on it and no more input.

program process

program | process

process phrase

process . phrase

phrase **new** newname : data

new newname = data

new newname do program od

new newname!? data new newname open new newname unit new newname old oldname

open dictionaryname **close** dictionaryname variablename := data channelname ! data channelname ? data

channelname? data! channelname

newname do program od

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```
if data then program else program fi
                     for simplename: data do program od
                     do program od
                     procedure
procedure
                      ⟨ simplename : primary → program ⟩
                      ⟨simplename :: primary → program ⟩
                      (simplename! primary → program)
                      ⟨ simplename ? primary → program ⟩
                     procedure argument
                     programname
data
                     data = comparand
                     data = comparand
                     data < comparand
                     data > comparand
                     data ≤ comparand
                     data ≥ comparand
                     comparand
                     comparand, element
comparand
                     comparand ,.. element
                     comparand | element
                     comparand ⊲ data ⊳ element
                     element
element
                     element; item
                     element;.. item
                     element 'item
                     item
item
                     item + term
                     item – term
                     item <sup>+</sup> term
                     item ∪ term
                     term
                     term × factor
term
                     term / factor
                     term A factor
                     term v factor
                     term \Delta factor
                     term ∇ factor
                     term ∩ factor
                     factor
factor
                     + factor
                     - factor
                     # factor
                     ~ factor
                     ? factor
                     □ factor
                     * factor
                     primary * factor
                     primary → factor
                     primary ↑ factor
                     primary ↓ factor
```

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primary

primary primary argument

primary @ argument

argument

argument number

name

text
[data]
{ data }
(data)

 \langle simplename : primary \rightarrow data \rangle if data then data else data fi

result simplename : data do program od

variablename dataname channelname simplename

name _ simplename

newname simplename not previously defined in the current scope oldname simplename previously defined in the current scope

variablename name defined as a variable or variable parameter or **result** variable

dataname name defined as data or function or data parameter or **for** parameter or **unit**

channelname name defined as a channel

programname name defined as a program or procedure

dictionaryname name defined as a dictionary

The nonterminal name is used only in the informal productions at the end.