

ProTem

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ProTem is a programming system that serves as both programming language 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 [a Practical Theory of Programming](#) (but the syntax differs).

Symbols

ProTem has 13 keywords, plus 4 classes of symbols, plus 61 other symbols. Altogether they are:

if then else fi new old for do od result open close unit
 number text name comment
 “ ” « » _ % : :: := = ≠ < > ≤ ≥ ! ? , ‘ ; . ;.. .. | || () { } [] < >
 + - × / ↑ ↓ → ↔ ∧ ∨ @ + * ~ ~ † ‡ \$ # ∈ ⊆ ∪ ∩ □ Δ ∇ ◁ ▷

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

for “ use "	for ” reuse "	for « use <<	for » use >>
for ≠ use =	for ≤ use <=	for ≥ use >=	for ‘ use '
for < use par	for > use rap	for × use &	for ↑ use ^
for ↓ use \	for → use ->	for ↔ use <>	for ∧ use /\
for ∨ use \/	for + reuse +	for ~ reuse ~	for † use //
for ‡ use size	for ∈ use elt	for ⊆ use sub	for ∪ use cup
for ∩ 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) 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 Al george refStack*

fancy simple names: «William & Mary» «x' ≥ 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 56 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 yet been defined in the current scope

oldname: a simplename that has 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	0 1.2
+ data	plus, identity
– data	minus, negation, not
data + data	plus, addition
data – data	minus, subtraction
data × data	times, multiplication
data / data	by, division
data ↑ data	to the power, exponentiation
data ∧ data	minimum, conjunction, and
data ∨ data	maximum, disjunction, or
data Δ data	negation of minimum, nand
data ∇ data	negation of maximum, nor
data = data	equals, equation
data ≠ data	differs from, discrepancy
data < data	less than, strict implication
data > data	greater than, strict reverse implication
data ≤ data	less than or equal to, implication
data ≥ data	greater than or equal to, reverse implication
data , data	bunch union
data .. data	bunch from(including) to(excluding)
data ‘ data	bunch intersection
data : data	bunch inclusion
∅ data	bunch size
{ data }	set
~ data	set content
data ∈ data	elements of a set
data ⊆ data	subset
data ∪ data	set union

data \cap data	set intersection
\neq data	power
\$ data	set size
text	“abc”
data ; data	string catenation
data ;.. data	string from(including) to(excluding)
data \downarrow data	string indexing
data \triangleleft data \triangleright data	string modification
\leftrightarrow 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
~ data	list content
\langle simplename : data \rightarrow data \rangle	function, create data parameter
data \rightarrow data	function, function space
\square 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

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 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 simplename : data \rightarrow program \rangle	procedure, parameter is data name
\langle simplename :: data \rightarrow program \rangle	procedure, parameter is variable
\langle simplename ! data \rightarrow program \rangle	procedure, parameter is output channel

\langle simplename ? data \rightarrow program \rangle	procedure, parameter is input channel
program data	procedure, data argument
program variablename	procedure, variable argument
program channelname	procedure, channel argument
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 data
1. .
2. ||

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

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

when fully parenthesized, becomes

do do a do B od od. C. D od || 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 + - # ~ ~ ? \square * infix * \rightarrow \uparrow \downarrow right-to-left
3. \times / \cap \wedge \vee Δ ∇ infix / left-to-right
4. + - + \cup infix - left-to-right
5. ; ;.. ‘ infix
6. , ,.. | \triangleleft \triangleright infix \triangleleft \triangleright left-to-right
7. = \neq < > \leq \geq 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 $(a=b)\wedge(b=c)$. Similarly $a<b=c$ means $(a<b)\wedge(b=c)$, and so on.

Whenever “data” appears in an alternative for “program”, the most general form of data is intended, with three exceptions. When a program is argumented, the argument must be on precedence level 0; therefore $p a b$ means $(p a) b$. In a function and in a procedure, 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 π (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, $1.2 \times 10 \uparrow 3$ (one point two times ten to the power three). The operator \wedge is minimum (arms down, does not hold water). The operator \vee is maximum (arms up, holds water).

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

<i>null</i>	- empty
<i>nat</i>	- all natural numbers: 0, 1, 2, ...
<i>int</i>	- all integer numbers: ..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, ...
<i>real</i>	- all real numbers: ..., $2 \uparrow (1/2)$, ...
<i>com</i>	- all complex numbers: ..., $(-1) \uparrow (1/2)$, ...
<i>char</i>	- all characters: ..., “a”, ...
<i>bin</i>	- both binary values: <i>true</i> , <i>false</i>
<i>text</i>	- all texts (character strings): ..., “abc”, ...
<i>pic</i>	- all pictures
<i>all</i>	- all ProTem items

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, B “ A union B ”

For example,

$2, 3, 5, 7$

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 $x \leq y$. 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 $\#$. For examples, $\#(0, 1, 2) = 3$ and $\#null = 0$.

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 ($nat \times 2$), 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 , \subseteq , \cup , \cap are as usual. The power operator $\$$ takes a bunch as operand and produces all sets that contain only elements of the bunch. For example, $\$(0, 1) = \{null\}, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}$.

Strings

There is a predefined string name:

nil -the empty string

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 $x \leq y$. 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” \downarrow (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

$n * S$ “ n copies of S ” or “ n S 's”

is a string, and

$* S$ “strings of S ” or “any number of S 's”

is a bunch of strings. For examples,

$3*5 = 5;5;5$

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

$*5 = nil, 5, 5;5, 5;5;5, 5;5;5;5, \dots$

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 ”

$L n$ “ L at n ”, “ L at index n ”

$L @ p$ “ L at p ”, “ L at pointer p ”

$L + M$ “ L concatenate M ”, “ L join M ”
 LM “ L composed with M ”
 $L \mid M$ “ 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.

$[3; 5; 2] < [3; 6]$

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

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

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

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,

$2 \rightarrow 3$

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.

$$\begin{aligned} nil \rightarrow x \mid f &= x \\ (x;y) \rightarrow z \mid f &= x \rightarrow (y \rightarrow z \mid f.x) \mid f \end{aligned}$$

Thus, for example,

$$\begin{aligned} (0;1) \rightarrow 6 \mid [[0; 1; 2]; \\ [3; 4; 5]] &= [[0; 6; 2]; \\ [3; 4; 5]] \end{aligned}$$

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

$$(f, g)(x, y) = f.x, f.y, g.x, g.y$$

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 *simpname* : data **do** program **od**

First, a local variable is introduced; its scope is from **do** to **od**. Then the program is executed, but changes to nonlocal variables are made on local copies. 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: real
do sum:= 1.
    new term: real. term:= 1.
    for i: 1;..15 do term:= term/i. sum:= sum+term od od
```

There are no side effects. Suppose x is a natural variable with value 5. Then evaluation of

```
result y: int do x:= x+1. y:= x od
```

produces 6, but variable x remains unchanged with value 5.

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.

The law of programmed data is as follows.

```
new r: D. P. result r: D do P od = r
```

In this law, the programmed data expression **result** $r: D$ **do** P **od** is treated as an untouchable unit, not subject to double-priming in dependent composition, nor to substitution when using the Substitution Law.

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 **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 $secondsperhour: 60 \times 60$

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.

$x := 5$

$s := 3 \rightarrow 5 \mid s$

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** $\rangle \rangle$

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 $s := 0 \rightarrow (s \ 9) \mid 9 \rightarrow (s \ 0) \mid s$ **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×*km/h*

assigns *speed* to 1×*m/s* . For another example,

new sheet unit. **new** *quire* = 25×*sheet*. **new** *ream* = 20×*quire* .

new *order*: *nat*×*sheet*. *order*:= 3×*ream*

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

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** ⟨*x*: *all* → *s*:= *s* + [*x*]⟩ **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↑31.

new *rv*: 0,..*big*.

new *init* **do** ⟨*seed*: (0,..*big*) → *rv*:= *seed*⟩ **od**.

new *next* **do** *rv*:= *mod* (*rv* × 5↑13) *big* **od**.

new *value* = ⟨*from*: *nat* → ⟨*to*: *nat* → *floor* (*from* + (*to*-*from*)×*rv*/*big*)⟩⟩.

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:

open *randomnat*.

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 $P||Q||\dots||R$. 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 co-operation, programs can communicate with each other on channels defined for the purpose.

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
```

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 || 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 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 n th 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 « $x' > x$ » 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 includes a specification, the inner specification is used in the outer proof. For example,

```

«  $x' = 0$  » do if  $x=0$  then  $ok$  else  $x:=x-1.$  «  $x' = 0$  » fi od

```

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

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  $A:=(i;k) \rightarrow (A\ i\ k \vee (A\ i\ j \wedge A\ j\ k)) \mid A$  od od od

```

The assignment can be restated as

```

if  $A\ i\ j \wedge A\ j\ k$  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  $prime := (i*j) \rightarrow false \mid prime$  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.

```
 $\langle y: num \rightarrow x := x*y \rangle$ 
```

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,

```
 $\langle y: num \rightarrow x := x*y \rangle 3$ 
```

which is the same as

```
 $x := x*3$ 
```

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.

```
 $\langle c! text \rightarrow c! "abc" \rangle$ 
```

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 ⟨a? rat → ⟨b? rat → ⟨c! rat →
    do a? rat || b? rat od. c! a×b.
    new a0: a. new b0: b. new d!? rat.
    do  pps a b d
    || do a? rat || b? rat od. c! a0×b+a×b0.
    loop do do a? rat || b? rat || d? rat od. c!a0×b+d+a×b0. loop od od⟩⟩⟩ 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.

<p><i>A. B</i></p> <p>or</p> <p><i>A.</i> <i>B</i></p> <p>-----</p> <p><i>A B</i></p> <p>or</p> <p><i>A</i> <i> B</i></p> <p>-----</p> <p>if <i>A</i> then <i>B</i> else <i>C</i> fi</p> <p>or</p> <p>if <i>A</i> then <i>B</i> else <i>C</i> fi</p> <p>or</p> <p>if <i>A</i> then <i>B</i> else <i>C</i> fi</p>	<p>for <i>x</i>: <i>A</i> do <i>B</i> od</p> <p>or</p> <p>for <i>x</i>: <i>A</i> do <i>B</i> od</p> <p>-----</p> <p><i>A + B</i></p> <p>or</p> <p><i>A</i> <i>+ B</i></p> <p>-----</p> <p>result <i>x</i>: <i>A</i> do <i>B</i> od</p> <p>or</p> <p>result <i>x</i>: <i>A</i> do <i>B</i> od</p> <p>-----</p> <p>⟨<i>x</i>: <i>A</i> → ⟨<i>y</i>: <i>B</i> → <i>C</i>⟩⟩</p> <p>or</p> <p>⟨<i>x</i>: <i>A</i> → ⟨<i>y</i>: <i>B</i> → <i>C</i>⟩⟩</p>
---	---

Scope

Scopes are limited by **do od** , **then else** , **else fi** , and ⟨ ⟩ brackets. Each of these four pairs is a scope opener and a scope closer. Scopes are also limited by parallel composition; || 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*, ... 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** $g = \dots f \dots g \dots$. **new** $f = \dots f \dots g \dots$. *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

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" → text | "age" → nat.
new p: person. p:= "name" → "Josh" | "age" → 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" → 17 | p.
p:= "name" → "Amanda" | "age" → 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→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" → text | "next" → index "G")].
G:= ["name" → "zzzzz" | "next" → 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 "next"
G:= first → ("name" → "Aaron" | "next" → first) | 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→*nat
new backup = ⟨p: *nat → p↓(0;.. $\leftrightarrow$ p-1)⟩
```

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

$$t@p$$

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

$$t@p \ 1 \quad \text{or} \quad t@(p; 1)$$

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,

$$\mathbf{new\ transformX\ do} \langle \mathit{magnification}: \mathit{num} \rightarrow \langle \mathit{translation}: \mathit{num} \rightarrow x := \mathit{magnification} \times x + \mathit{translation} \rangle \rangle \mathbf{od}$$

Here is a procedure with one parameter

$$\mathbf{new\ translateX\ do\ transformX\ 1\ od}$$

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.

$$\mathbf{new\ magnifyX\ do} \langle \mathit{magnification}: \mathit{num} \rightarrow \mathit{transformX}\ \mathit{magnification}\ 0 \rangle \mathbf{od}$$

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

$$\mathit{magnifyX}\ 3$$

$$\mathit{transformX}\ 3\ 0$$

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

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

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

$$\mathbf{new\ divide} = \langle \mathit{dividend}: \mathit{com} \rightarrow \langle \mathit{divisor}: \mathit{com} \rightarrow \mathbf{if}\ \mathit{divisor} = 0 \ \mathbf{then}\ \text{“zero divide”} \ \mathbf{else}\ \mathit{dividend} / \mathit{divisor}\ \mathbf{fi} \ \rangle \rangle$$

We can state the type of this function as

$$\mathit{com}, \text{“zero divide”}$$

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

$$\mathbf{new\ weekday} = \langle \mathit{d}: (0, ..7) \rightarrow 1 \leq \mathit{d} \leq 5 \rangle$$

Then in the expression

$$(\mathit{weekday} \mid \mathit{all} \rightarrow \text{“domain error”})\ \mathit{i}$$

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.

$$\mathbf{inputchoice\ do\ if}\ \ ?c \ \mathbf{then}\ c? \ \mathit{int}.\ P$$

$$\mathbf{else\ if}\ \ ?d \ \mathbf{then}\ d? \ \mathit{int}.\ Q$$

$$\mathbf{else\ inputchoice\ fi\ fi\ od}$$

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

```
new trim do <in? text → <out! text → repeatedly read from in , trim off leading and trailing
space, output to out , until “****” is read.
The final “****” is output >> od.
```

```
new sort do <in? text → <out! text → repeatedly read from in until “****” is read and output
the sorted texts to out . The final “****” is output >> 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 || 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. 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 “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 “read code”.
```

```
    new writeBarrier open.
```

```
        new password = encode “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 “read code”. This enables you to know the value of variable *it*, but not to change it. To change it, you must know a second password, “write code”.

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

assert *x>y* abbreviates **if** *x>y* **then** *ok* **else** *screen!* “assert failure”. *stop* **fi**

list item assignment

A 3:= 5 abbreviates *A:= 3→5 | A*

A 3 4:= 5 abbreviates *A:= (3;4)→5 | A*

definition grouping

new *x, y: int* abbreviates **new** *x: int. new y: int*

old *x, y* abbreviates **old** *x. old y*

open *this, that* abbreviates **open** *this. open that*

⟨a, b: nat → a+b⟩ abbreviates *⟨a: nat → ⟨b: nat → a+b⟩⟩*

⟨a, b: nat → x:= a+b⟩ abbreviates *⟨a: nat → ⟨b: nat → x:= a+b⟩⟩*

looping constructs

while *n>0* **do** *n:= n-1* **od** abbreviates

while **do** **if** *n>0* **then** *n:= n-1. while* **else** *ok* **fi** **od**

do *n:= n-1* **until** *n=0* **od** abbreviates

repeat **do** *n:= n-1. if* *n=0* **then** *ok* **else** *repeat* **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 :=: ⟨n: nat → if n=0 then 1 else n×fact(n-1) fi) 9 abbreviates

result *f: nat → nat*

do *new fact = ⟨n: nat → if n=0 then 1 else n×fact(n-1) fi. f:= fact* **od** 9

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 [alternative](#) 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,

<i>screen!</i> -3	prints -3 , and similarly
<i>screen!</i> 1/0	should print 1/0
<i>screen!</i> [0; 1; 2] 3	should print [0; 1; 2] 3
<i>screen!</i> ⟨ <i>r</i> : <i>rat</i> → 5⟩ (1/0)	should print 5
<i>screen!</i> 1/0 = 1/0	should print <i>true</i>
<i>screen!</i> [0; 1; 2] 3 = [0; 1; 2] 3	should print <i>true</i>

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

Predefined Names

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

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: $\{r: real \rightarrow r > 0\} \rightarrow real$. An approximation to the binary logarithm (base 2).

ln: $\{r: real \rightarrow r > 0\} \rightarrow real$. An approximation to the natural logarithm (base *e*).

log: $\{r: real \rightarrow r > 0\} \rightarrow real$. 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* \rightarrow *int*. $r \leq \text{ceil } r < r+1$

char. The characters.

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

click: *char*.

com. The complex numbers.

complex. A dictionary containing the following names.

arc: *com* \rightarrow $\{r: real \rightarrow 0 \leq r < 2 \times \pi\}$. An approximation to the angle or arc of a complex number.

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

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

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

comtext: *com* \rightarrow *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 $\{r: real \rightarrow r > 0\} \rightarrow int$. *div a d* is the integer quotient when *a* is divided by *d* .

$(0 \leq \text{mod } a \text{ } d < d) \wedge (a = \text{div } a \text{ } d \times d + \text{mod } a \text{ } d)$

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* \rightarrow **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 $i \geq 0$ 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 $i \leq 0$ 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*. $\text{floor } r \leq r < 1 + \text{floor } r$

form: *real* \rightarrow *nat* \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 “ $\times 10^\uparrow$ ” 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.

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 $\{r: real \rightarrow r > 0\}$ \rightarrow *real*. *mod a d* is the remainder when *a* is divided by *d* .

$(0 \leq \text{mod } a \text{ } d < d) \wedge (a = \text{div } a \text{ } d \times d + \text{mod } a \text{ } d)$

*movie = *pic*.

nat. The natural numbers.

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.

numtext: com \rightarrow *text*. A text representing the argument.

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 \rightarrow *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 \rightarrow *nat* \rightarrow *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.

real. The real numbers.

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

round: real→*int*. $r-0.5 \leq \text{round } r < r+0.5$

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 → (-1, 0, 1).

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

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

stop do wait ∞ *od*.

subst: all→*all*→**all*→**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→*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.

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

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). See *await*, *wait*, and *timetext*.

timetext: real→*text*. A readable form of the time. See *time*. For example,

timetext (-68675760) = "1947 September 16 at 19:24 UTC"

trig. A dictionary containing the following names.

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

arcsin: §⟨r: real → -1 ≤ r ≤ +1⟩ → §⟨r: real → 0 < r < pi/2⟩. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

arctan: real → §⟨r: real → 0 < r < pi/2⟩. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

cos: real → §⟨r: real → -1 ≤ r ≤ +1⟩. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

sin: real → §⟨r: real → -1 ≤ r ≤ +1⟩. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

tan: (§⟨r: real · ¬∃⟨i: int · r = (2×i + 1)×pi⟩⟩) → 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*.

Example Program

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×m. new h = 60×60×s. % kilometer and hour

    new maxaccel = 1.5×m/s/s. % maximum deceleration =  $-maxaccel$ 
    new speedlimit = 60×km/h. % speed limit is 60 km/h everywhere
    new cushion = 1×s. % reaction time for all porters
    new impatience = 10/s. % acceleration factor
    new maxdistance = ceil (speedlimit2 / (2×maxaccel)). % max search distance ahead
    new numporters = 120.
    new numboxes = 7480.
    new visualdelaytime = 0.5×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” → index “box”
        | “beside” → index “box”
        | “above” → index “porter”, numporters
        | “x”, “y” → nat )]. % box position on screen

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

    new draw do {b: nat → {c: “grey”, “blue”, “red” → UNFINISHED}} od.
        % draws a box at screen position (box b “x”) (box b “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.*
 $box := (b; \text{“beside”}) \rightarrow keys \mid box.$
screen! “What are the x and y coordinates of box ”; b ; “?”.
keys? nat! screen. $box := (b; \text{“x”}) \rightarrow keys \mid box.$
keys? nat! screen. $box := (b; \text{“y”}) \rightarrow keys \mid box.$
 $box := (b; \text{“above”}) \rightarrow numporters \mid box.$ % default; may be changed below
draw b “grey” **od.** % default; may be changed below

$porter := [numporters * (\text{“below”} \rightarrow 0 \text{ % will be reassigned below}$
 $\mid \text{“arrival time”} \rightarrow 0 \times s$
 $\mid \text{“speed”} \rightarrow 0 \times m/s)].$

for $p: 0;..numporters$

do *screen!* “Porter ”; p ; “ is over what box? ”. *keys? nat! screen.*
 $porter := (p; \text{“below”}) \rightarrow keys \mid porter.$
 $box := (keys; \text{“above”}) \rightarrow p \mid box.$
draw *keys* “blue” **od.**

init_randomnat 123456789. % initialize a random number generator

% end of initialization, start of simulation

*infinite***loop** **do** *time? real.* **new** *iterationstarttime: time* $\times s.$

new $p: index$ “porter”. % $p :=$ the porter that arrived at its current position first
new $t: real$ $\times s.$ $t := 10 \uparrow 38 \times s.$ % t is a time, and $10 \uparrow 38$ is an approximation to ∞
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**.

$boxesToDo := boxesToDo; [box\ b$ “ahead left”; 1].

```

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 × 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 ⟨ pa: index “porter”, numporters →

```

```

    if pa = numporters then ok

```

```

    else new desiredspeed:

```

```

        ( sqrt (porter pa “speed”2 + 2 × maxaccel × d + (maxaccel × cushion)2
          − maxaccel × cushion ) ) ∧ speedlimit.

```

```

        accel := ((desiredspeed − porter p “speed”) × impatience ∨ −maxaccel) ∧ accel

```

```

    fi ⟩ od.

```

```

nextbox do b := (boxesToDo ↓ 0) 0. d := (boxesToDo ↓ 0) 1.

```

```

    boxesToDo := boxesToDo ↓ (1; .. ↔ 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 ↔ 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”) → numporters | 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”) → b | porter. box := (b; “above”) → p | box. draw b “blue”.

```

```

old b.

```

```

new speed: sqrt (porter p “speed”2 + 2 × accel × m) ∧ speedlimit.

```

```

porter := (p; “arrival time”) → porter p “arrival time”

```

```

            + 2 × m / (porter p “speed” + speed)

```

```

    | (p; “speed”) → speed

```

```

    | porter.

```

```

await ((iterationstarttime + visualdelaytime) / s).

```

```

old speed. old accel. old p. old iterationstarttime.

```

```

infinite loop od od

```

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.

program	process programafterprocess
process	phrase processafterphrase
programafterprocess	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 < simplename parameterkind primary → program > arguments variablename := data channelname afterchannelname newname do program od programname arguments
parameterkind	: :: ! ?
afterchannelname	! data ? data echo
echo	! channelname empty
processafterphrase	. phrase processafterphrase empty
phraseafternewname	: data = data ! ? data do program od open empty
data	comparand aftercomparand
comparand	element afterelement
element	item afteritem
item	term afterterm
term	factor afterfactor
factor	# factor – factor ~ factor + factor ~ factor ? factor □ factor * factor

primary	primary factor afterprimary number text if data then data else data fi arguments result simplename : data do program od arguments { data } [data] arguments (data) arguments ⟨ simplename : primary → data ⟩ arguments variablename arguments dataname arguments channelname
arguments	number arguments text arguments if data then data else data fi arguments result simplename : data do program od arguments { data } arguments [data] arguments (data) arguments ⟨ simplename : primary → data ⟩ arguments variablename arguments dataname arguments channelname arguments
aftercomparand	empty = comparand aftercomparand < comparand aftercomparand > comparand aftercomparand ≤ comparand aftercomparand ≥ comparand aftercomparand ≠ comparand aftercomparand
afterelement	empty , element afterelement ,.. element afterelement element afterelement ◁ data ▷ element afterelement
afteritem	empty ; item afteritem ;.. item afteritem ‘ item afteritem
afterterm	empty + term afterterm − term afterterm † term afterterm ∪ term afterterm
afterfactor	empty × factor afterfactor / factor afterfactor ∩ factor afterfactor ∧ factor afterfactor ∨ factor afterfactor

	Δ factor afterfactor
	∇ factor afterfactor
	@ factor afterfactor
	empty
factorafterprimary	\uparrow factor
	\downarrow factor
	\rightarrow factor
	* factor
	empty
name	simplename compounder
compounder	_ dictionaryname compounder
	empty
newname	simplename not yet defined in the current scope
oldname	simplename 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 nonterminals name and compounder are 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

	<p>newname do program od if data then program else program fi for simplename : data do program od do program od procedure \langle simplename : primary \rightarrow program \rangle \langle simplename :: primary \rightarrow program \rangle \langle simplename ! primary \rightarrow program \rangle \langle simplename ? primary \rightarrow program \rangle procedure argument programname</p>
procedure	
data	<p>data = comparand data \neq comparand data < comparand data > comparand data \leq comparand data \geq comparand comparand</p>
comparand	<p>comparand , element comparand ... element comparand element comparand \triangleleft data \triangleright element element</p>
element	<p>element ; item element ;.. item element ‘ item item</p>
item	<p>item + term item – term item \dagger term item \cup term term</p>
term	<p>term \times factor term / factor term \wedge factor term \vee factor term Δ factor term ∇ factor term \cap factor factor</p>
factor	<p>+ factor – factor # factor ~ factor ~ factor ? factor \square factor * factor primary * factor primary \rightarrow factor</p>

	primary \uparrow factor
	primary \downarrow factor
	primary
primary	primary argument
	primary @ argument
argument	argument
	number
	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
name	simplename
	name _ simplename
newname	simplename not yet defined in the current scope
oldname	simplename 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.