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:

```plaintext
if then else if new old for do od result open close unit
number text name comment
“ ” « » % : :: := = < > ≤ ≥ ! ? · · · ... | || ( ) { } [ ] ⟨ ⟩
+ − × / ↑ ↓ → ↔ ∧ ∨ @ ~ ¥ $ # ∈ ⊆ ∪ ∩ □ ∆ ∇ < >
```

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 v use /\ for + reuse + for ∼ reuse ~ for // use /\ 
for ∈ use size for ⊆ use elt for Δ use nand for V use nor
for ∩ use cap 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  AI  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.) In what follows, names have been subclassified. 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

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 ∈ data                  bunch size
{ data }                    set
~ data                      set content
data ∈ data                  elements of a set
data ⊆ data                  subset
data ∪ data                   set union
data ∩ data                   set intersection
$ data                      power
```
Next we have the ways of forming a program.

\texttt{new newname : data}
\texttt{new newname = data}
\texttt{new newname do program od}
\texttt{new newname ! ? data}
\texttt{new newname open}
\texttt{new newname unit}
\texttt{new newname}
\texttt{old oldname}
\texttt{open dictionaryname}
\texttt{close dictionaryname}
\texttt{variablename := data}
\texttt{channelname ! data}
\texttt{channelname ? data}
\texttt{channelname ? data ! channelname}
\texttt{newname do program od}
\texttt{programname}
\begin{itemize}
  \item \texttt{\langle simplename : data → program \rangle}
  \item \texttt{\langle simplename :: data → program \rangle}
  \item \texttt{\langle simplename ! data → program \rangle}
  \item \texttt{\langle simplename ? data → program \rangle}
\end{itemize}
\texttt{program data}

create variable with type
create data name
create program name but don't execute program
create channel with type
create and open dictionary
create measuring unit name
forward definition
remove or hide
open dictionary
close dictionary
assign variable
to channel send output
from channel receive input of this type
input, correct, and echo
create program name and execute program
execute (call) named program
procedure, parameter is data name
procedure, parameter is variable
procedure, parameter is output channel
procedure, parameter is input channel
procedure, data argument
program variablename
program channelname
program . program
program || program
if data then program else program fi
for simplename : data do program od
do program od

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 do B od. C. D || 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 ( ) [ ] { } ⟨ ⟩ if then else fi result do od
1. juxtaposition @ left-to-right
2. + – # ~ ? □ * → ↑ ↓ prefix +–#~?□* infix * → ↑ ↓ right-to-left
3. × / ∩ ∧ ∨ ∆ ∇ infix / left-to-right
4. + – + ∪ infix – left-to-right
5. ; ;.. ‘
6. , .. | < p
7. = ≠ < > ≤ ≥ infix continuing

On level 7, the operators are “continuing”. This means, for example, that a=b=c is neither grouped
to the left nor grouped to the right, but means (a=b)(b=c) . Similarly a<b=c means (a<b)(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) . 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 $\pi$ (an approximation to the ratio of a circle's circumference to its diameter), $e$ (an approximation to the base of the natural logarithms), and $i$ (the imaginary unit, or square root of $-1$). Predefined names can be redefined in a new scope. In addition to the 1-operand prefix operators $+$ and $-$, and the 2-operand infix operators $+ - \times \div$, there are predefined function names such as $\text{abs}$, $\text{exp}$, $\text{log}$, $\ln$, $\sin$, $\cos$, $\tan$, $\text{ceil}$, $\text{floor}$, $\text{round}$, $\text{re}$, $\text{im}$, $\text{sqrt}$, $\text{div}$, and $\text{mod}$ (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 $\land$ is minimum (arms down, does not hold water). The operator $\lor$ 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: $\text{backspace}$, $\text{tab}$, $\text{newline}$, $\text{click}$, $\text{doubleclick}$, and $\text{end}$ (the end-of-file character). The operators $\text{suc}$ and $\text{pre}$ give the successor and predecessor respectively.

Binary Values

There are two predefined binary data names: $\text{true}$ and $\text{false}$. Negation is $-$, conjunction is $\land$, disjunction is $\lor$, nand is $\Delta$, nor is $\nabla$.

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 $\text{false}$ is below $\text{true}$, 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:

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

\[ A, B \quad "A \ union \ B" \]

For example,

\[ 2, 3, 5, 7 \]

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

\[ x_{..}, y \quad "x \ to \ y" \quad (but \ not \ "x \ through \ y") \]

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

\[ A: B \quad "A \ is \ included \ in \ B" \]

is binary. The size of a bunch is \( \varepsilon \). For examples, \( \varepsilon(0, 1, 2) = 3 \) and \( \varepsilon\text{null} = 0 \).

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

In ProTem, all one-operand and two-operand operators whose precedence is before that of bunch union distribute over bunch union. For examples,

\[ -(3, 5) = -3, -5 \]

\[ (2, 3) + (4, 5) = 6, 7, 8 \]

This makes it easy to express the plural naturals \( (nat+2) \), the even naturals \( (nat\times2) \), the square naturals \( (nat↑2) \), the natural powers of two \( (2↑nat) \), 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 \( \uparrow \) takes a bunch as operand and produces all sets that contain only elements of the bunch. For example, \( \uparrow(0, 1) = \{null\}, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\} \).

Strings

There is a predefined string name:

\[ nil \quad "the \ empty \ string" \]

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:

\[ S ; T \quad "S \ catenate \ T", \ "S \ join \ T" \]

For example,

\[ 2; 3; 5; 7 \]

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

\[ x_{..}y \quad "x \ to \ y" \quad (same \ pronunciation \ as \ x_{..}y) \]
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, \( (2; 3; 5; 7)\downarrow2 = 5 \). 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 \( S \downupharpoonleft n \uparrow i \) is a string like \( S \) except that item \( n \) is \( i \). For example, \( (3; 5; 9)\downupharpoonleft2 \uparrow8 = 3; 5; 8 \).

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

\[
\begin{align*}
“abc” &= “a”; “b”; “c” \\
“He said “Hi”.” &= “H”; “e”; “ ”; “s”; “a”; “l”; “d”; “ ”; “” “H”; “i”; “” “
abcdefghij” \downarrow (3;..6) &= “def”
\end{align*}
\]

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

\[
n\ast S \quad \text{“} n \text{ copies of } S \text{” or “} n \text{ } S\text{’s} \text{”}
\]

is a string, and

\[
\ast S \quad \text{“} \text{strings of } S \text{” or “} \text{any number of } S\text{’s} \text{”}
\]

is a bunch of strings. For examples,

\[
3\ast5 = 5;5;5
\]

\[
3\ast(4, 5) = 4;4;4, 4;4;5, 4;5;4, 4;5;5, 5;4;4, 5;4;5, 5;5;4, 5;5;5
\]

\[
\ast5 = nil, 5, 5;5, 5;5;5, ...
\]

The \( \ast \) operator distributes over bunch union, but in its left operand only.

\[
nul \ast 5 = nul
\]

\[
(2,3) \ast 5 = (2\ast5),(3\ast5) = 5;5, 5;5;5
\]

Using this semi-distributivity, we have

\[
\ast a = \text{n}a
\]

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.

\[
\begin{align*}
# L &= \text{“} \text{length of } L \text{”} \\
\sim L &= \text{“} \text{content of } L \text{”} \\
L \downarrow n &= \text{“} L \text{ at } n \text{”}, “ L \text{ at index } n \text{”} \\
L \downarrow p &= \text{“} L \text{ at } p \text{”}, “ L \text{ at pointer } p \text{”}
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
L + M & \quad \text{"L catenate M", "L join M"} \\
L M & \quad \text{"L composed with M"} \\
L | M & \quad \text{"L otherwise M", "the selective union of L and M"}
\end{align*}
\]

plus the comparisons \( L = M \), \( L + M \), \( L < M \), \( L > M \), \( L \leq M \), \( L \geq M \).

Here are some examples.

\[
\begin{align*}
\#[0; 1; 2] & = 3 \quad \text{(the number of items in a list)} \\
\rightarrow[0; 1; 2] & = 0;1;2 \\
[0;\ldots;10] 5 & = 5 \quad \text{(indexing starts at zero)} \\
[ [2; 3]; 4; [5; [6; 7]] ] @ (2; 1; 0) & = 6 \\
[0;\ldots;10] + [10;\ldots;20] & = [0;\ldots;20] \\
[10;\ldots;20] [3; 6; 5] & = [13; 16; 15] \quad \text{(in general, \( (L M) n = L(M n) \))}
\end{align*}
\]

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 \( L | M \) is indexed with \( n \), the result is either \( L n \) or \( M n \) depending on whether \( n \) is in the domain \( (0,\ldots;\#L) \) of \( L \). If it is, the result is \( L n \), otherwise the result is \( M n \).

\[
[10; 11] [0;\ldots;10] = [10; 11; 2;\ldots;10]
\]

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 \( [10*\text{nat}] \) is all lists of length 10 whose items are natural, and \( [4*[6*\text{real}]] \) 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,

\[
\langle n: \text{nat} \rightarrow n+1 \rangle \quad \text{"map } n \text{ in nat to } n+1 \text{"}
\]

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

\[
\langle a: \text{real} \rightarrow \langle b: \text{real} \rightarrow \text{if } a>b \text{ then } a \text{ else } b \text{ fi} \rangle \rangle
\]

The \( \Box \) operator gives the domain of a function. For example, \( \Box \langle n: \text{nat} \rightarrow n+1 \rangle = \text{nat} \).

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

\[
1 \rightarrow 21 | [10; 11; 12] = [10; 21; 12]
\]
We allow domains to be strings in the following circumstances.

\[ \text{nil} \rightarrow x \mid f = x \]
\[ (x;y) \rightarrow z \mid f = x \rightarrow (y \rightarrow z \mid f x) \mid f \]

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

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

\[ (f, g) (x, y) = f x, f y, g x, g y \]

Allowing the body of a function to be a bunch generalizes the function to a relation. For example, \( \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{bin} \) can be viewed in any of the following two equivalent ways: it is a function (with unused and therefore omitted parameter) that maps each natural to \( \text{bin} \) ; it is all functions with domain at least \( \text{nat} \) and range at most \( \text{bin} \). As an example of the latter view, we have
\[ \langle n: \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{mod} n 2 = 0 \rangle : \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{bin} \]

**Programmed Data**

\[
\begin{align*}
\textbf{result} & \text{ simplenname : data do program od} \\
\text{First, a local variable is introduced; its scope is from do to od. Then the program is executed, but changes to nonlocal variables are made on local copies. The result is the final value of the newly introduced local variable. We have not yet presented programs, but the following example, which approximates the base of the natural logarithms } e, \text{ should give the idea.} \\
\textbf{result} & \text{ sum: real} \\
\text{do} & \text{ sum:= 1.} \\
\text{new} & \text{ term: real. term:= 1.} \\
\text{for } & i: 1;..15 \text{ do } \text{ term:= term/i. sum:= sum+term od od}
\end{align*}
\]

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

\[
\begin{align*}
\textbf{result} & \text{ y: int do x:= x+1. y:= x od}
\end{align*}
\]

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

The strange example

\[
\begin{align*}
\textbf{result} & \text{ r: 0...10 do ok od}
\end{align*}
\]

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.

\[
\begin{align*}
\textbf{new} & \text{ r: D. P. result r: D do P od } = r
\end{align*}
\]

In this law, the programmed data expression \( \textbf{result } r: D \text{ do } P \text{ od } \) 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 simple name is defined, its definition is written in the open dictionary that was opened last (the name must not already be there). When a compound name is defined, the first simple name in the compound name is placed in the dictionary referred to by the rest of the compound name.

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 written into a dictionary within a pair of brackets, either do od or 〈 〉, are removed from the dictionary when execution exits the right bracket. Further details and examples will be presented later.

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*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 \( *\text{char} \), 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*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 → 5 | 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 \( \text{calculus} \)), so there is no difference between those two definitions and

```
new size: 10
```
Here is another example.

Now \(\text{range}\) is a constant (because \(\text{size}\) is a constant) whose value is the bunch 0..\(\text{size}\). This differs from

which makes \(\text{range}\) a variable whose value is an element in the bunch 0..\(\text{size}\).

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

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

Whenever \(\text{rec}\) is used, the computation will be nonterminating.

A final example defines all binary trees with integer nodes.

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A final example defines all binary trees with integer nodes.
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 realtext 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 are added to a dictionary with the keyword new, and they are removed from a 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 || ... || R`. Each program can use the variables assigned by the others, but all occurrences of variables assigned by the other programs refer to their initial value. Similarly a dependent variable that depends on variables assigned in one program can be used in parallel programs, but its value will be determined by the initial values of the variables it depends on. Parallel programs cannot affect each other through assignments of variables. For cooperation, programs can communicate with each other on channels defined for the purpose.

**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 \texttt{keys}. The program

\begin{verbatim}
  keys? text; newline
\end{verbatim}

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

\begin{verbatim}
  keys? int
\end{verbatim}

If input is not yet available, it is awaited. When the input is received, it is referred to simply as \texttt{keys}. Five characters of input are received from channel \texttt{keys} by saying \texttt{keys? 5*char}. The \texttt{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

\begin{verbatim}
  keys? text! screen
\end{verbatim}

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

If \texttt{c} is the name of an input channel, then the input test

\begin{verbatim}
  ? c
\end{verbatim}

is a binary expression saying whether there is currently any unread input on channel \texttt{c}.

**Channel Definition**

The definition

\begin{verbatim}
  new c!!? nat
\end{verbatim}

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

\begin{verbatim}
  new c!!? nat. do c! 7 || c? int. x:= c od. old c
\end{verbatim}

assigns \texttt{x} to \texttt{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 \texttt{if then else fi} is as usual. There is no one-tailed \texttt{if} in ProTem, but there is a predefined program \texttt{ok} whose execution does nothing. For example,

\begin{verbatim}
  if x>y then x:= y else ok fi
\end{verbatim}

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

\begin{verbatim}
  if x>y then ok else screen! “appropriate error message”. stop fi
\end{verbatim}

**Named Programs**

A named program has the syntax

\begin{verbatim}
  newname do program od
\end{verbatim}

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 \texttt{x} in an \texttt{n*m} array \texttt{A} of integers (that is, \texttt{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.

\[
r := a.
innerloop do if r < d then ok
else new dd: nat. dd := d.
    innerloop do r := r-dd. dd := dd+dd.
        if r < dd then outerloop else innerloop fi od od
\]

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.

\[
Fib do if n = 0 then x := 0. y := 1
else if odd n then n := (n-1)/2. Fib. n := x. x := x↑2 + y↑2. y := 2nxny + y↑2
else n := n/2 – 1. Fib. n := x. x := 2nxny + y↑2. y := n↑2 + y↑2 + x fi fi od
\]

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

\[
\text{« } x' > x \text{ » } do x := x+1 \text{ od }
\]

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,

\[
\text{« } x' = 0 \text{ » } do if x=0 then ok else x := x-1. \text{ « } x' = 0 \text{ » } fi od
\]

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.

\[
P \text{ do } Q \text{ od }
new P \text{ do } Q \text{ od. } P. \text{ old } P
\text{ do new } P \text{ do } Q \text{ od. } P \text{ od}
\]

Controlled Program

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

\[
for j: 0..n
    do for i: 0..n
        do for k: 0..n
            do A:= (i;k) \rightarrow (A i k \lor (A i j \land A j k)) \mid A od od od
\]

The assignment can be restated as

\[
if A i j \land A j k \text{ then } A:= (i;k) \rightarrow true \mid A \text{ else ok fi}
\]

if you prefer. The name being introduced by \( \text{for} \) 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 \( \text{for} \) 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.

\[
\text{new } n = 1000. \\
\text{new } \text{prime}: [n^* \text{bin}]. \text{prime} := [2^* \text{false}; (n-2)^* \text{true}]. \\
\text{for } i: 2..\text{ceil} (\sqrt{n}) \\
\text{do if } \text{prime } i \text{ then for } j: i..\text{ceil} (n/i) \text{ do } \text{prime} := (i\times j) \rightarrow \text{false} \mid \text{prime} \text{ od else ok fi od}
\]

A \text{for} parameter is “by initial value”, so
\[
\text{for } i: x; x \text{ do } x := i+1 \text{ od}
\]
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,
\[
\text{for } i: 0..\# A \text{ do } A := i \rightarrow 0 \mid A \text{ od}
\]
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.
\[
\langle y: \text{num} \rightarrow x := x \times y \rangle
\]
A program with one or more parameters is called a “procedure”. A procedure of \( n+1 \) parameters is a procedure of 1 parameter whose body is a procedure of \( n \) parameters. A procedure can be argumented in the same way that lists are indexed and functions are argumented. For example,
\[
\langle y: \text{num} \rightarrow x := x \times y \rangle 3
\]
which is the same as
\[
x := x \times 3
\]
A procedure’s data parameter is known only within the procedure body, and it is known there as a data name. It is not a variable, and so it is not assignable. It is “by initial value”, so
\[
\langle i: \text{int} \rightarrow x := i, y := i \rangle (x+1)
\]
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.
\[
\langle x: \text{int} \rightarrow x := 3 \rangle
\]
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.
\[
\langle c!: \text{text} \rightarrow c! \text{“abc”} \rangle
\]
A procedure with a channel parameter cannot be applied to a channel appearing in the procedure. This example procedure can be applied to any output channel, even one named \( c \), because the nonlocal channel name \( c \) does not appear in the procedure. Likewise,
\[
\langle c?: \text{text} \rightarrow c?: \text{text! screen} \rangle
\]
can be applied to any input channel.
The following procedure \textit{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.

\begin{verbatim}
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
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{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.

\begin{verbatim}
  for x: A do B od
or
  for x: A do B od
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
  A + B
or
  A + B
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
if A then B else C fi
or
if A then B else C fi
or
if A then B else C fi
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
result x: A do B od
or
result x: A do B od
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
⟨x: A → ⟨y: B → C⟩⟩
or
⟨x: A → ⟨y: B → C⟩⟩
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Scope}

Scopes are limited by \texttt{do od}, \texttt{then else}, \texttt{else fi}, and \texttt{⟨⟩} 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 \texttt{new} must be new, i.e. not defined since the previous unclosed scope opener. Its scope extends from its definition, through all following sequentially composed programs, to the corresponding scope closer. But it may be covered by a definition in a more local scope. For example, letting \(A, B, C, \ldots\) stand for arbitrary program forms (but not \texttt{new} or \texttt{old}), in

\begin{verbatim}
A. new x: int. B. do C. new x: bin. D od. E
\end{verbatim}

the definition of \(x\) as an integer variable is not yet in effect in \(A\), but it is in effect in \(B, C, \ldots\). The definition that makes \(x\) a binary variable is in effect in \(D\). None of \(A, B, C, D, E\) can contain a redefinition of \(x\) unless it is within further \texttt{do od}, \texttt{then else}, \texttt{else fi}, or \texttt{⟨⟩} 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 = ···f···g···. new f = ···f···g···. 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.

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

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

```protem
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

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

and concatenate new records onto its end.

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

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

```protem
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

```protem
new path = text->*nat
new backup = (p: *nat -> p↓(0;..⇔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`
and we can replace this subtree with tree $s$ using the assignment $t := p \rightarrow s \mid t$

We can express the information at the node indicated by $p$ as $t@p$ 1 or $t@(p; 1)$

and we can replace the information at this node with the integer 6 using the assignment $t := p;1 \rightarrow 6 \mid t$

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

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

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

Here is a procedure with one parameter

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

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

```
new magnifyX do (magnification: num \rightarrow transformX magnification 0) od
```

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

```
magnifyX 3
transformX 3 0
```

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

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

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

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

We can state the type of this function as

```
com, “zero divide”
```

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

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

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

Then in the expression

```
weekday \mid all\rightarrow\text{“domain error”} i
```

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

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

```
inputchoice do if ?c then c? int. P
else if ?d then d? int. Q
else inputchoice fi fi od
```
The effect of Unix pipes is obtained by channel parameters. For example, suppose `trim` is a procedure to trim off leading and following blank and tabs and newlines from text, and `sort` is a procedure to sort texts. (Please excuse the informal body.)

```protem
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

```protem
new pipe!? text. trim keys pipe. sort pipe screen. old pipe
```

Even better:

```protem
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.

```protem
%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

\[
\text{new \ new \ password} = \text{encode} \text{“my mother's maiden name”}
\]

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

\[
\text{new \ readBarrier \ open.}
\]

\[
\text{new \ password} = \text{encode} \text{“read code”}.
\]

\[
\text{new \ writeBarrier \ open.}
\]

\[
\text{new \ password} = \text{encode} \text{“write code”}.
\]

\[
\text{new \ it: \ real. \ it:= 17.2.}
\]

\[
\text{close \ writeBarrier.}
\]

\[
\text{new \ readonlyit} = \text{it_writeBarrier}.
\]

\[
\text{close \ readBarrier.}
\]

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 \(<>\) 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  \textit{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.

\textbf{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**
  
  \begin{verbatim}
  new x: nat:= 3 abbreviates new x: nat. x:= 3
  \end{verbatim}

- **one-tailed if**
  
  \begin{verbatim}
  if a=0 then x:= b fi abbreviates if a=0 then x:= b else ok fi
  \end{verbatim}

- **assertion**
  
  \begin{verbatim}
  assert x>y abbreviates if x>y then ok else screen! “assert failure”. stop fi
  \end{verbatim}

- **list item assignment**
  
  \begin{verbatim}
  A 3:= 5 abbreviates A:= 3→5 | A
  A 3 4:= 5 abbreviates A:= (3;4)→5 | A
  \end{verbatim}

- **definition grouping**
  
  \begin{verbatim}
  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 \langle a: nat → \{b: nat → a+b\}\rangle
  (a, b: nat → x:= a+b) abbreviates \langle a: nat → \{b: nat → x:= a+b\}\rangle
  \end{verbatim}

- **looping constructs**
  
  \begin{verbatim}
  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 Q. loop fi od
  \end{verbatim}

- **name and use data**
  
  \begin{verbatim}
  (fact =: \langle n: nat → if n=0 then 1 else n×fact(n–1) fi\rangle) 9 abbreviates
  \end{verbatim}

\textbf{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

\[
\text{nat int rat bin text [n*type]}
\]

where \( n \) is a natural number and \( \text{type} \) 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,

\[
\text{screen!} \ -3 \quad \text{prints} \ -3 , \text{and similarly}
\]

\[
\text{screen!} \ 1/0 \quad \text{should print} \ 1/0
\]

\[
\text{screen!} \ [0; 1; 2] \ 3 \quad \text{should print} \ [0; 1; 2] \ 3
\]

\[
\text{screen!} \ (r: \text{rat} \to 5) \ (1/0) \quad \text{should print} \ 5
\]

\[
\text{screen!} \ 1/0 = 1/0 \quad \text{should print} \ true
\]

\[
\text{screen!} \ [0; 1; 2] \ 3 = [0; 1; 2] \ 3 \quad \text{should print} \ true
\]

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

Predefined Names

abs: \text{com} \to \text{real}. \text{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 \text{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 \textit{time} and \textit{wait}.

\textit{backspace: char.}

\textit{backup: }nat \rightarrow \textit{nat. backup}(s; i) = s. \textit{For use with path.}

\textit{bin = true,false.}

\textit{calculus. A dictionary containing the following names.}

\[ e = 2.718281828459045 \text{ (approx). An approximation to the base of the natural logarithms.} \]

\[ \text{exp: com} \rightarrow \textit{com. An approximation to} e^x. \]

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

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

\[ \text{log: } \$(r: \text{real} \rightarrow r > 0) \rightarrow \text{real. An approximation to the common logarithm (base 10).} \]

\[ \pi = 3.141592653589793 \text{ (approximately). An approximation to the ratio of a circle's circumference to its diameter.} \]

\textit{ceil: real} \rightarrow \textit{int. } r \leq \text{ceil} r < r + 1

\textit{char. The characters.}

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

\textit{click: char.}

\textit{com. The complex numbers.}

\textit{complex. A dictionary containing the following names.}

\[ \text{arc: com} \rightarrow \$(r: \text{real} \rightarrow 0 \leq r < 2\pi) \text{. An approximation to the angle or arc of a complex number.} \]

\[ i = \sqrt{(-1)}. \text{ The imaginary unit.} \]

\[ \text{im: com} \rightarrow \text{real. The imaginary part of a complex number.} \]

\[ \text{re: com} \rightarrow \text{real. The real part of a complex number.} \]

\textit{context: com} \rightarrow \textit{text. A textual representation of a complex number.}

\textit{cursor: nat; nat. A data name telling the current cursor position.}

\textit{dictionary: text. A readable summary of the content of the open dictionary that was opened last.}

\textit{div: real} \rightarrow \$(r: \text{real} \rightarrow r > 0) \rightarrow \textit{int. div a d} \text{ is the integer quotient when } a \text{ is divided by } d. \]

\[ (0 \leq \mod a d < d) \land (a = \text{div a d} \times d + \mod a d) \]

\textit{doubleclick: char.}

\textit{encode: text} \rightarrow \textit{text. A not easily invertible function.}

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

\textit{eval: text} \rightarrow \textit{*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.}

\textit{even: int} \rightarrow \textit{bin.}

\textit{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.}

\textit{false: bin. A binary value. When transmitted on a channel, it is the text “false”.}

\textit{find: all} \rightarrow \textit{*all} \rightarrow \textit{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.}

\textit{fit: text} \rightarrow \textit{int} \rightarrow \textit{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.}

\textit{floor: real} \rightarrow \textit{int. floor} r \leq r < 1 + \text{floor} r

\textit{form: real} \rightarrow \textit{nat} \rightarrow \textit{nat} \rightarrow (\textit{nat}+1) \rightarrow \textit{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 \textquotedblright$\times 10^1$\textquotedblright 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.

- \textit{form} $\pi\ 4\ 1\ 12 = \text{"3.1416}$$\times 10^1\text{"}$.  \textit{form} $(-\pi)\ 2\ 0\ 6 = \text{"-3.14"}$.  \textit{form} $5\ 0\ 0\ 3 = \text{"5"}$.  \textit{form} $(-5)\ 0\ 0\ 3 = \text{"-5"}$.  \textit{form} $123\ 0\ 0\ 2 = \text{"**"}$.

\textbf{hyperbolic}. A dictionary containing the following names.

- \textit{cosh}: \textit{com}→\textit{com}.  An approximation to a hyperbolic function.
- \textit{sinh}: \textit{com}→\textit{com}.  An approximation to a hyperbolic function.
- \textit{tanh}: \textit{com}→\textit{com}.  An approximation to a hyperbolic function.

\textit{index} = \textit{text}→\textit{nat}. A signal to the implementation that the natural number will be used only as an index to the indicated list.

\textbf{int}. The integers.

\textit{keys}!\textit{text}. To the program that monitors key presses, it is an output channel; to all other programs, it is an input channel.

\textit{mailin}!\textit{text}. To the program that handles incoming mail, it is an output channel; to all other programs, it is an input channel.

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

\textit{match}: \textit{*all}→\textit{*all}→\textit{nat}. If \textit{pattern} occurs within \textit{subject}, then \textit{match pattern subject} is the index of its first occurrence. If not, then \textit{match pattern subject} = $\leftrightarrow$\textit{subject}.

\textbf{maxint}: \textit{int}. The maximum representable integer (machine dependent).

\textbf{maxnat}: \textit{nat}. The maximum representable natural (machine dependent).

\textbf{minint}: \textit{int}. The minimum representable integer (machine dependent).

\textit{mod}: \textit{real}→$\$^\langle r:\textit{real}ightarrow r>0\rangle$→\textit{real}. \textit{mod} $a\ d$ is the remainder when $a$ is divided by $d$.

\[
(0 \leq \text{mod} a\ d < d) \land (a = \text{div} a\ d \times d + \text{mod} a\ d)
\]

\textit{movie} = \textit{*pic}.

\textbf{nat}. The natural numbers.

\textit{natchar}: \textit{charnat char}→\textit{char}. A one-to-one function with inverse \textit{charnat}.

\textbf{newline}: \textit{char}. The return or newline character.

\textbf{nil}. The empty string.

\textbf{null}. The empty bunch.

\textit{numtext}: \textit{com}→\textit{text}. A text representing the argument.

\textbf{odd}: \textit{int}→\textit{bin}.

\textbf{ok}. A program whose execution does nothing.

\textit{openlist}: \textit{text}. The names of the open dictionaries in the order they were opened.

\textit{path} = \textit{text}→\textit{nat}. A signal to the implementation that the string will be used only as an index to the indicated list.

\textit{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.

\textit{pre}: \textit{char}→\textit{char}. The predecessor function.

\textit{printer}!\textit{text}. To the printer, it is an input channel; to all other programs, it is an output channel.

\textbf{randomnat}. A dictionary containing the following three names.

- \textit{init}. A program with one natural parameter. Its execution assigns a hidden variable to the natural value.
- \textit{next}. A program. Its execution assigns the hidden variable to the next value in a random sequence.
- \textit{value}: \textit{nat}→\textit{nat}→\textit{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: text→real. 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].


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 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: $\forall(r: real \rightarrow -1 \leq r \leq +1) \rightarrow \forall(r: real \rightarrow 0 < r < pi/2)$. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

arcsin: $\forall(r: real \rightarrow -1 \leq r \leq +1) \rightarrow \forall(r: real \rightarrow 0 < r < pi/2)$. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

arctan: real → $\forall(r: real \rightarrow 0 < r < pi/2)$. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

cos: real → $\forall(r: real \rightarrow -1 \leq r \leq +1)$. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

sin: real → $\forall(r: real \rightarrow -1 \leq r \leq +1)$. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

tan: ($\forall(r: real \rightarrow \exists(i: int; r = (2×i + 1)×pi)) \rightarrow real$. An approximation to a trigonometric function.

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

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

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

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

```plaintext
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/s². % 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 (speedlimit↑2 / (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; “ahead left”) → keys | (keys; “behind left”) → b | box.
    screen! “What box is ahead-right of box”; b; “?” . keys? nat! screen.
        box:= (b; “ahead right”) → keys | (keys; “behind right”) → b | box.
    screen! “What box is beside box”; b; “?” . keys? nat! screen.
        box:= (b; “beside”) → keys | (keys; “behind”) → b | box.
    screen! “What are the x and y coordinates of box”; b; “?” .
        keys? nat! screen. box:= (b; “x”) → keys | (keys; “y”) → b | box.
    draw b “grey” od. % default; may be changed below

porter:= [numporters * (“below” → 0 % will be reassigned below
    | “arrival time” → 0×s
    | “speed” → 0×m/s )].

for p: 0..numporters
        porter:= (p; “below”) → keys | porter.
        box:= (keys; “above”) → p | box.
    draw keys “blue” od.

init_randomnat 123456789. % initialize a random number generator

% end of initialization, start of simulation

infiniteloop do time? real. new iterationstarttime: time×s.

    new p: index “porter”. % p:= the porter that arrived at its current position first
    new t: real×s. t:= 10↑38×s. % t is a time, and 10↑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 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 \( pa: index "porter", numpowers \rightarrow \)
  if pa=numpowers then ok
  else new desiredspeed:
    \( \left( \sqrt{(porter pa "speed"^2 + 2 \times maxaccel \times d + (maxaccel \times cushion)^2)} - maxaccel \times cushion \right) \land speedlimit. \)
  accel:= (desiredspeed–porter p "speed")×impatience \lor –maxaccel) \land accel fis1
  fi \) od

nextbox do b:= (boxesToDo↓0) 0. d:= (boxesToDo↓0) 1.
boxesToDo:= boxesToDo↓1; new calculateAccel (box b “above”).
calculateAccel (porter (box b “beside”) “above”).
if box b “above” = numpowers = 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") \rightarrow numpowers \land 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” = numpowers then ok else draw b “red”. stop fi. % crash
porter:= (p; "below") \rightarrow b \land porter. box:= (b; “above”) \rightarrow p \land box. draw b “blue”.
old b.

new speed: \( \sqrt{(porter p "speed"^2 + 2 \times accel \times m)} \land speedlimit. \)
porter:= (p; "arrival time") \rightarrow porter p “arrival time”
  \( + 2 \times m/(porter p "speed" + speed) \)
  \( \land (p; "speed") \rightarrow speed \)
  \( \land porter. \)

await ((iterationstarttime+visualdelaytime)/s).
old speed. old accel. old p. old iterationstarttime.
infinitleoop 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 factorafterprimary

primary
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
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
empty
aftercomparand = comparand aftercomparand
< comparand aftercomparand
> comparand aftercomparand
≤ comparand aftercomparand
≥ comparand aftercomparand
± comparand aftercomparand
empty
afterelement , element afterelement
.. element afterelement
| element afterelement
< data > element afterelement
empty
afteritem ; item afteritem
;.. item afteritem
‘ item afteritem
empty
afterterm + term afterterm
– term afterterm
+ term afterterm
∪ term afterterm
empty
afterfactor × factor afterfactor
/ factor afterfactor
∩ factor afterfactor
∧ factor afterfactor
∨ factor afterfactor
Δ factor afterfactor
∇ factor afterfactor
@ factor afterfactor
empty

factorafterprimary ↑ factor
down factor
→ factor
* factor
empty

name simplename compounder
componder _ dictionaryname compounder
empty

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

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
newname do program od
if data then program else program fi
for simplename : data do program od
do program od
procedure
procedure 〈 simplename : primary → program 〉
〈 simplename :: primary → program 〉
〈 simplename ! primary → program 〉
〈 simplename ? primary → program 〉
procedure argument
programname
data
data = comparand
data + comparand
data < comparand
data > comparand
data ≤ comparand
data ≥ comparand
comparand
comparand , element
comparand .. element
comparand | element
comparand ≺ data ≻ element
element
element ; item
element :,.. item
element ′ item
item
item + term
item – term
item + term
item ∪ term
term
term × factor
term / factor
term ∧ factor
term ∨ factor
term ∆ factor
term ∇ factor
term ∩ factor
factor
+ factor
– factor
# factor
~ factor
~factor
? factor
□ factor
* factor
primary * factor
primary → factor
primary ↑ factor
primary ↓ factor
primary
primary
primary argument
primary @ argument
argument
number
text
[ data ]
{ data }
( data )
{ simplename : primary \rightarrow data }
if data then data else data fi
result simplename : data do program od
variable name
dataname
channel name
name simplename compounder
compounder _ dictionary name compounder
empty
new name simplename not yet defined in the current scope
old name simplename defined in the current scope
variable name 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
channel name name defined as a channel
program name name defined as a program or procedure
dictionary name name defined as a dictionary

The nonterminals name and compounder are used only in the informal productions at the end.