Lambda Cases (lcases)

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Contents

1	Intr	roduction	3		
2	Language Description: General2.1 Program Structure				
3	Lan	nguage Description: Values	5		
	3.1	Basic Expressions	5		
		3.1.1 Literals and Identifiers	5		
		3.1.2 Parenthesis, Tuples and Lists	6		
		3.1.3 Parenthesis Function Application	10		
		3.1.4 Prefix and Postfix Functions	12		
	3.2	Operators	15		
		3.2.1 Function Application and Function Composition Operators	15		
		3.2.2 Arithmetic, Comparison and Boolean Operators	17		
		3.2.3 Environment Action Operators	19		
		3.2.4 Operator Expressions	22		
		3.2.5 Complete Table, Precedence and Associativity	24		
	3.3	Function Expressions	26		
		3.3.1 Regular Function Expressions	26		
		3.3.2 "cases" Function Expressions	27		
	3.4	Value Definitions and "where" Expressions	30		
		3.4.1 Value Definitions	30		
		3.4.2 "where" Expressions	31		
4	Lan	nguage Description: Types and Type Logic	32		
	4.1	Types	32		
		4.1.1 Type Expressions	32		
		4.1.2 Type Definitions	37		
	4.2	Type Logic	40		
		4.2.1 Proposition Definitions	40		
		4.2.2 Theorems	43		
5	Lan	aguage Description: Predefined	47		
	5.1	Values	47		
	5.2	Types	47		
	5.3	Type Propositions	48		

6	Par	ser Implementation	50
	6.1	Full grammar and indentation system	50
		6.1.1 Full grammar	50
		6.1.2 Indentation system	56
	6.2	High level structure	57
		6.2.1 Parsec library	57
		6.2.2 File structure	57
	6.3	Parser Examples	58
		6.3.1 Parser Class and Example 0: Literal	58
		6.3.2 Example 1: List	59
		6.3.3 Example 2: Change	59
		6.3.4 Example 3: Value Definition	60
7	Tra	nslation to Haskell	61
•	7.1	High Level Overview	61
	7.2	Translation Phase	62
	7.3	Translation Phase: Basic Expressions	63
	1.0	7.3.1 Literals and Identifiers	63
		7.3.2 Parenthesis, Tuples and Lists	63
		7.3.3 Parenthesis Function Application	65
		7.3.4 Prefix and Postfix Functions	65
	7.4	Translation Phase: Operators	67
		7.4.1 Operators	67
		7.4.2 Operator Expressions	68
	7.5	Translation Phase: Function Expressions	69
	•••	7.5.1 Regular Function Expressions	69
		7.5.2 "cases" Function Expressions	70
	7.6	Translation Phase: Value Definitions and "where" Expressions	71
	7.7	Translation Phase: Types	73
		7.7.1 Type Expressions	73
		7.7.2 Type Definitions	76
	7.8	Translation Phase: Type Logic	79
		7.8.1 Proposition Definitions	79
		7.8.2 Theorems	80
8	Rur	nning	82
			0.0
9	COL	nclusion	83

1 Introduction

Haskell is a delightful language. Yet, it doesn't seem to have its rightful place in terms of popularity in industry. Why is it so? Is it inherently hard to learn and therefore only the brave dare to use it, or could it be that the syntax is perplexing to the amateur eye? It is my belief that with some syntax changes that give a greater familiarity to the new user, there would be no language more compelling than (the new) Haskell. In an attempt to achieve that familiarity, I present some (hopefully useful) new syntax, of which some is closer to the imperative/OOP style (to attract more already experienced programmers from these languages), some is closer to mathematics (in which most programmers should be experienced) and some is closer to natural language (in which we are all already experienced).

2 Language Description: General

2.1 Program Structure

An leases program consists of a set of definitions, type nicknames and theorems. Definitions are split into value definitions, type definitions and type proposition definitions. Theorems are proven type propositions. Functions as well as "Environment Actions" (see section 3.2.3) are also considered values. The definition of the "main" value determines the program's behaviour.

Program example: Euclidean Algorithm

```
gcd_of(_)and(_): Int^2 => Int
   = (x, cases)
      0 \Rightarrow x
      y \Rightarrow gcd_of(y)and((x)mod(y))
read_two_ints: (Int^2)FromIO
   = print_line("Please give me 2 ints");
      get_line ;> split(_)to_words o> cases
         [x, y] => (from_string(x), from_string(y)) -> (_)with_io
         ... => throw_err("You didn't give me 2 ints")
tuple_type NumsAndGcd
value (x, y, gcd):Int^3
nag(_)to_message: NumsAndGcd => String
   = nag => "The GCD of " + nag.x + " and " + nag.y + " is " + nag.gcd
main: IO
   = read_two_ints ;> (i1, i2) =>
      (i1, i2, gcd_of(i1)and(i2)) -> nag(_)to_message -> print_line(_)
Program grammar
\langle program \rangle ::= \langle nl \rangle^* \langle program-part \rangle (\langle nl \rangle \langle nl \rangle \langle program-part \rangle)^* \langle nl \rangle^*
\langle program-part \rangle ::= \langle value-def \rangle \mid \langle grouped-value-defs \rangle \mid \langle type-def \rangle \mid \langle t-nickname \rangle \mid \langle type-prop-def \rangle \mid \langle type-theo \rangle
\langle nl \rangle :: (``_{\sqcup}, | ``_{\mathsf{t}}, ) * ``_{\mathsf{n}},
```

2.2 Keywords

The lcases keywords are the following:

cases all where tuple_type value or_type values
type_proposition needed equivalent type_theorem proof

Each keyword's functionality is described in the respective section shown in the table below:

Keyword	Section	
cases	3.3.2 "cases" Function Expressions	
all where	3.4 Value Definitions and "where" Expressions	
tuple_type value or_type values type_nickname	4.1 Types	
type_proposition needed equivalent type_theorem proof	4.2 Type Logic	

The "cases" and "where" keywords are also reserved words. Therefore, even though they can be generated by the "identifiers" grammar, they cannot be used as identifiers (see "Literals and Identifiers" section 3.1.1).

3 Language Description: Values

3.1 Basic Expressions

3.1.1 Literals and Identifiers

Literals

• Examples

```
1 2 17 42 -100

1.62 2.72 3.14 -1234.567

'a' 'b' 'c' 'x' 'y' 'z' '.' ',' '\n'

"Hello World!" "What's up, doc?" "Alrighty then!"
```

• Description

There are literals for the four basic types: Int, Real, Char, String.

• Grammar

```
\langle literal \rangle ::= \langle int\text{-}lit \rangle \mid \langle real\text{-}lit \rangle \mid \langle char\text{-}lit \rangle \mid \langle string\text{-}lit \rangle
```

Identifiers

• Examples

```
x y z
a1 a2 a3
(_)mod(_)
apply(_)to_all_in(_)
```

• Description

An identifier is the name of a value or a parameter. It is used in the definition of a value and in expressions that use that value, or in the parameters of a function and in the body of that function.

An identifier starts with a lower case letter, which can be followed by lower case letters or underscores and/or ended with a digit. It is also possible to have underscores in parenthesis before, after or in the middle of an identifier (see "Parenthesis Function Application" section 3.1.3 for why this can be useful).

A simple identifier is an identifier without any underscores in parenthesis. It used in expressions where underscores in parenthesis don't make sense (e.g. "Prefix and Postfix Functions" 3.1.4).

• Grammar

Even though the "cases" and "where" keywords can be generated by these grammar rules, they cannot be used as identifiers.

3.1.2 Parenthesis, Tuples and Lists

Parenthesis

• Examples

```
(1 + 2)
(((1 + 2) * 3)^4)
(n => 3*n + 1)
(get_line ;> line => print("Line is: " + line))
```

• Description

An expression is put in parenthesis to prioritize it or isolate it in a bigger (operator) expression. The expressions inside parenthesis are operator or function expressions.

Parenethesis expressions cannot extend over multiple lines. For expressions that extend of over multiple lines new values must be defined.

• Grammar

```
\langle paren-expr \rangle ::= '(' ['_{\sqcup}'] \langle line-op-expr \rangle | \langle line-func-expr \rangle ['_{\sqcup}']')'
```

Tuples

• Examples

```
(1, "What's up, doc?")
(2, "Alrighty then!", 3.14)
(x, y, z, w)
(1, my_function, (x, y, z) => sqrt(x^2 + y^2 + z^2))
```

• Description

Tuples are used to group many values (of possibly different types) into one. The type of a tuple can be either the product of the types of the fields or a defined tuple_type which is equivalent to the afformentioned product type (see "Tuple Types" in section 4.1.2 for details). For example, the type of the second tuple above could be:

```
Int x String x Real
or:
MyType
assuming "MyType" has been defined in a similar way to the following:
tuple_type MyType
value
  (my_int, my_string, my_real) : Int x String x Real
```

• Big Tuples

Example

```
my_big_tuple
  : String x Int x Real x String x String x (String x Real x Real)
  = ( "Hey, I'm the first field and I'm also a relatively big string."
   , 42, 3.14, "Hey, I'm the first small string", "Hey, I'm the second small string"
   , ("Hey, I'm a string inside the nested tuple", 2.72, 1.62)
   )
```

Description

It is possible to stretch a (big) tuple expression over multiple lines (only) in a seperate value definition (see "Value Definitions" section 3.4.1). In that case:

- The character '(' is after the "=" part of the value definition and the first field must be in the same line.
- The tuple can split in a new line only at a ',' character. Every such line must be indented so that the ',' is in same column where the '(' character was in the first line.
- The tuple must be ended by a line that only contains the ')' character and is also indented so that the ')' is in same column where the '(' character was in the first line.
- The precise indentation rules are described in the section "Indentation System" 6.1.2.
- Tuples with empty fields

Example

```
(42, _)
(_, 3.14, _)
(_, _, "Hello from 3rd field")
```

Description

It is possible to leave some fields empty in a tuple by having an underscore in their position. This creates a function that expects the empty fields and returns the whole tuple. This is best demonstated by the types of the examples above:

• Grammar

```
 \langle tuple \rangle ::= '(' [ ' \sqcup ' ] \langle line-expr-or-under \rangle \langle comma \rangle \langle line-expr-or-unders \rangle [ ' \sqcup ' ] ')' \\ \langle line-expr-or-unders \rangle ::= \langle line-expr-or-under \rangle ( \langle comma \rangle \langle line-expr-or-under \rangle )* \\ \langle line-expr-or-under \rangle ::= \langle line-expr \rangle | ' \_ ' \\ \langle line-expr \rangle ::= \langle basic-or-app-expr \rangle | \langle line-op-expr \rangle | \langle line-func-expr \rangle \\ \langle basic-or-app-expr \rangle ::= \langle basic-expr \rangle | \langle pre-func-app \rangle | \langle post-func-app \rangle \\ \langle basic-expr \rangle ::= \langle literal \rangle | \langle paren-func-app-or-id \rangle | \langle special-id \rangle | \langle tuple \rangle | \langle list \rangle \\ \langle big-tuple \rangle ::= \\ ( \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \langle comma \rangle \langle line-expr-or-unders \rangle )* \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle ')' \\
```

Lists

• Examples

```
[1, 2, 17, 42, -100]
[1.62, 2.72, 3.14, -1234.567]
["Hello World!", "What's up, doc?", "Alrighty then!"]
[x => x + 1, x => x + 2, x => x + 3]
[x, y, z, w]
```

\bullet Description

Lists are used to group many values of the same type into one. The type of the list is ListOf(T1)s where T1 is the type of every value inside. Therefore, the types of the first four examples are:

```
ListOf(Int)s
ListOf(Real)s
ListOf(String)s
(@A)And(Int)Add_To(@B) --> ListOf(@A => @B)s
```

And the last list is only legal if x, y, z and w all have the same type. Assuming they do and it's the type T, the type of the list is:

ListOf(T)s

• Big Lists

Example

```
my_big_list: ListOf(Int => IO)s
= [ x => print("I'm the first function and x + 1 is: " + (x + 1))
, x => print("I'm the second function and x + 2 is: " + (x + 2))
, x => print("I'm the third function and x + 3 is: " + (x + 3))
]
```

Description

It is possible to stretch a (big) list expression over multiple lines (only) in a seperate value definition (see "Value Definitions" section 3.4.1). In that case:

- The character '[' is after the "=" part of the value definition and the first element must be in the same line.
- The list can split in a new line only at a ',' character. Every such line must be indented so that the ',' is in same column where the '[' character was in the first line.
- The list must be ended by a line that only contains the ']' character and is also indented so that the ']' is in same column where the '[' character was in the first line.
- The precise indentation rules are described in the section "Indentation System" 6.1.2.

```
 \langle list \rangle ::= `[`[`_{\sqcup}'] [ \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}unders \rangle ] [`_{\sqcup}'] `]`   \langle big\text{-}list \rangle ::= `[`[`_{\sqcup}'] \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}unders \rangle ( \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \langle comma \rangle \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}unders \rangle )^* \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle `]`
```

3.1.3 Parenthesis Function Application

• Examples

```
f(x)
f(x, y, z)
(x)to_string
apply(f)to_all_in(1)
```

• Description

Function application in leases can be done in many different ways. In this section, we discuss the ways function application can be done with parenthesis.

In the first two examples, the usual mathematical function application is used which is also used in most programming languages and should be familiar to the reader, i.e. function application is done with the arguments of the function in parenthesis separated by commas and **appended** to the function identifier.

This idea can be extended by allowing the arguments to be **prepended** or to be **inside** to the function identifier (examples 3 and 4). This is only valid if the function has been **defined with these parentheses** in **the identifier**. For example, the definition for "apply(_)to_all_in(_)" starts like so:

The identifier is "apply(_)to_all_in(_)" with the parentheses included. This is very useful for defining functions where the argument in the middle or before makes the function application look and sound more like natural language.

It is possible to have many parentheses in a single function application (last example). The arguments are always inserted to the function from **left to right**. Therefore, when multiple parentheses are present the arguments of the leftmost parentheses are inserted first then the next ones to the right and so on.

• Empty arguments in Parenthesis Function Application

It is possible to provide a function with a subset its arguments by putting an underscore to all the missing arguments. The resulting expression is a function that expects the missing arguments to return the final result. Let's see this in action:

```
f(_, _, _) : Char x Int x Real => String
 c, i, r : Char, Int, Real
 f(c, i, r) : String
 f(_, i, r) : Char => String
 f(c, _, r) : Int \Rightarrow String
 f(c, i, _) : Real => String
 f(c, _, _) : Int x Real => String
 f(_, i, _) : Char x Real => String
 f(_, _, r) : Char x Int => String
• Grammar
```

```
\langle \textit{paren-func-app-or-id} \rangle ::= \left[ \ \langle \textit{arguments} \rangle \ \right] \ \langle \textit{id-start} \rangle \ \left( \ \langle \textit{arguments} \rangle \ \right] = \left[ \ \langle \textit{arguments} \rangle \ \right] \left[ \ \langle \textit{arguments} \rangle \ \right]
\langle \mathit{arguments} \rangle ::= \text{`('} [\text{`}_{\sqcup}\text{'}] \ \langle \mathit{line-expr-or-unders} \rangle \text{ [`}_{\sqcup}\text{'}] \text{')'}
```

3.1.4 Prefix and Postfix Functions

Prefix Functions

• Examples

```
the_value:1
error:e
result:r
apply(the_value:_)to_all_in(_)
```

ullet Description

Prefix functions are automatically generated from or_type definitions (see "Or Types" in section 4.1.2). They are functions that convert a value of a particular type to a value that is a case of an or_type and has values of the first type inside. For example in the first example above we have:

```
1 : Int
the_value:1 : Possibly(Int)
Where the function the_value:_ is automatically generated from the definition of the Possibly type:
or_type Possibly(T1)
values the_value:T1 | no_value
```

And it has the type T1 => Possibly(T1).

These functions are called prefix functions because they are prepended to their argument. However, they can also be used as arguments to other functions with an underscore in their argument. This is illustrated in the last example, where the function the value: is an argument of the function apply(_)to_all_in(_).

\bullet Grammar

```
\langle pre\text{-}func \rangle ::= \langle simple\text{-}id \rangle ':'
\langle pre\text{-}func\text{-}app \rangle ::= \langle pre\text{-}func \rangle \langle operand \rangle
```

Postfix Functions

• Examples

```
name.first_name
list.head
date.year
tuple.1st
apply(_.1st)to_all_in(_)
```

• Description

Postfix functions are automatically generated from tuple_type definitions (see "Tuple Types" in section 4.1.2). They are functions that take a tuple_type value and return a particular field (i.e. projection functions). For example in the first example above we have:

```
name : Name
name.first_name : String
```

Where the function _.first_name is automatically generated from the definition of the Name type:

```
tuple_type Name
value (first_name, last_name) : String^2
```

And it has the type Name => String.

There are also the following special projection functions that work on all tuples: "_.1st", "_.2nd", "_.3rd", "_.4th", "_.5th". For the 4th example above, assuming:

```
tuple : Int x String
```

We have:

```
tuple.1st : Int
```

The general types of these functions are:

```
_.1st : (@A)Is(@B)s_1st --> @B => @A
_.2nd : (@A)Is(@B)s_2nd --> @B => @A
```

These functions are called postfix functions because they are appended to their argument. However, they can also be used as arguments to other functions with an underscore in their argument. This is illustrated in the last example, where the function "_.1st" is an argument of the function "apply(_)to_all_in(_)".

There is a special postfix function called "_.change" which is described in the following paragraph.

```
\begin{split} &\langle post\text{-}func\rangle ::= \text{`.'} \left( \text{$\langle simple\text{-}id \rangle \mid \langle special\text{-}id \rangle \mid \rangle} \right) \\ &\langle special\text{-}id \rangle ::= \text{`1st'} \mid \text{`2nd'} \mid \text{`3rd'} \mid \text{`4th'} \mid \text{`5th'} \\ &\langle post\text{-}func\text{-}app \rangle ::= \left( \text{$\langle basic\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle paren\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \text{`\_'} \right) \left( \text{$\langle dot\text{-}change \rangle \mid \langle post\text{-}func \rangle + \left[ \text{$\langle dot\text{-}change \rangle \mid \rangle \mid \rangle} \right]} \end{split}
```

The ".change" Function

• Examples

```
state.change{counter = counter + 1}
tuple.change{1st = 42, 3rd = 17}
point.change{x = 1.62, y = 2.72, z = 3.14}
apply(_.change{1st = 1st + 1})to_all_in(_)
x.change{1st = _, 3rd = _}
```

• Description

The "_.change" function is a special postfix function that works an all tuples. It returns a new tuple that is the same as the input tuple except for some changed fields. Which fields change and to what new value is specified inside curly brackets after the ".change". The following special identifiers can be used for referring to the fields of product type tuples: "1st", "2nd", "3rd", "4th", "5th" (2nd, 4th and 5th example). If the tuple is of a tuple type, the identifiers of the fields specified in the type definition are used (1st and 3rd example). Therefore, we are assuming the following (or similar) if the examples are to type check:

The changes of the fields have the following structure: "field = <expression of new value>" and they are seperated by commas. The input tuple's fields (i.e. the "old" values) can be used inside the expression of a new value and they are referred to by the field identifier (1st and 4th example). Underscores can be used as the expressions of some new values which makes the whole expression a function that expects those new values as arguments (last example).

```
\begin{split} &\langle dot\text{-}change\rangle ::= \text{`.change}\{\text{`}[\text{`}_{\sqcup}\text{'}] \ \langle field\text{-}change\rangle \ (\ \langle comma\rangle \ \langle field\text{-}change\rangle \ )* [\text{`}_{\sqcup}\text{'}] \ '\}' \\ &\langle field\text{-}change\rangle ::= (\ \langle simple\text{-}id\rangle \ | \ \langle special\text{-}id\rangle \ ) \ \langle equals\rangle \ \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}under\rangle \\ &\langle equals\rangle ::= [\text{`}_{\sqcup}\text{'}] \ '=' [\text{`}_{\sqcup}\text{'}] \end{split}
```

3.2 Operators

3.2.1 Function Application and Function Composition Operators

Function Application Operators

Operator	Type	
->	T1 x (T1 => T2) => T2	
<-	(T1 => T2) x T1 => T2	

The function application operators "->" and "<-" are a different way to apply functions to arguments than the usual parenthesis function application. They are meant to look like arrows that point from the argument to the function. These operators are very useful for chaining many function applications without the clutter of having to open and close parentheses for each one of the functions. For example, assuming we have the following functions with the behaviour suggested by their names and types:

= sum_ints(_) <- filter(_)with((_)is_odd) <- apply(str_len(_))to_all_in(strings)

Function Composition Operators

Operator	Туре
0>	(T1 => T2) x (T2 => T3) => (T1 => T3)
<0	(T2 => T3) x (T1 => T2) => (T1 => T3)

The function composition operators "o>" and "<o" are used to compose functions, each one in the corresponding direction. The use of the letter 'o' is meant to be similar to the mathematical function composition symbol 'o' and the symbols '>', '<' are used so that the operator points from the function which is applied first to the function which is applied second. A neat example using function composition is the following. Assuming we have the following functions with the behaviour suggested by their names and types:

3.2.2 Arithmetic, Comparison and Boolean Operators

Arithmetic Operators

Operator	Туре
^	(@A)To_The(@B)Is(@C)> @A x @B => @C
*	(@A)And(@B)Multiply_To(@C)> @A x @B => @C
/	(@A)Divided_By(@B)Is(@C)> @A x @B => @C
+	(@A)And(@B)Add_To(@C)> @A x @B => @C
_	(@A)Minus(@B)Is(@C)> @A x @B => @C

The usual arithmetic operators work as they are expected, similarly to mathematics and other programming languages for the usual types. However, they are generalized. The examples below show their generality:

```
>> 1 + 1
  : Int
  ==> 2
>> 1 + 3.14
  : Real
  ==> 4.14
>> 'a' + 'b'
  : String
  ==> "ab"
>> 'w' + "ord"
  : String
  ==> "word"
>> "Hello " + "World!"
  : String
  ==> "Hello World!"
>> 5 * 'a'
  : String
  ==> "aaaaa"
>> 5 * "hi"
  : String
  ==> "hihihihihi"
>> "1,2,3" - ','
  : String
  ==> "123"
```

Let's analyze further the example of addition. The type can be read as such: the '+' operator has the type $QA \times QB = QC$, provided that the type proposition $QA \times QB = QC$, provided that the type proposition $QA \times QB = QC$, provided that the type proposition $QA \times QB \times QC$ holds. This proposition being true, means that addition has been defined for these three types (see section "Type Logic" 4.2 for more on type propositions). For example, by the examples above we can deduce that the following propositions are true (in the order of the examples):

```
(Int)And(Int)Add_To(Int)
(Int)And(Real)Add_To(Real)
(Char)And(Char)Add_To(String)
(Char)And(String)Add_To(String)
(Int)And(Char)Multiply_To(String)
(Int)And(String)Multiply_To(String)
(String)Minus(Char)Is(String)
```

This allows us to use the familiar arithmetic operators in types that are not necessarily numbers but it is somewhat intuitively obvious what they should do in those other types. Furthermore, their behaviour can be defined by the user for new user defined types!

Comparison, Boolean and Bitwise Operators

Operator	Type	
==	(@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal> @A x @B => Bool	
!=	(@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Unequal> @A x @B => Bool	
>	(@A)Can_Be_Greater_Than(@B)> @A x @B => Bool	
<	(@A)Can_Be_Less_Than(@B)> @A x @B => Bool	
>=	(@A)Can_Be_Gr_Or_Eq_To(@B)> @A x @B => Bool	
<=	(@A)Can_Be_Le_Or_Eq_To(@B)> @A x @B => Bool	
&	(@A)Has_And> @A^2 => @A	
I	(@A)Has_Or> @A^2 => @A	

Comparison operators are also generalized. The main reason for the generalization is to be able to compare numbers of different types. Consider the following example:

```
>> 1
: Int
==> 1
>> 1.1
: Real
==> 1.1
>> 1.1 == 1
: Bool
==> false
>> 1.0 == 1
: Bool
==> true
```

In order for the example to work we need to be able to compare integers and reals. Similarly, all the comparison operators need to be able to work on arguments of different types.

Boolean "and" and bitwise "and" are combined into one general "and" operator (&). The same applies to the "or" operator (|).

3.2.3 Environment Action Operators

Operator	Type
;>	(@E)Has_Use> @E(T1) x (T1 => @E(T2)) => @E(T2)
;	(@E)Has_Then> @E(T1) x @E(T2) => @E(T2)

Simple Example Program

```
main: (EmptyVal)FromIO
  = print_string("I'll repeat the line") ; get_line ;> print_string(_)
```

The example above demonstrates the use of the environment action operators with the FromIO environment type, which is how IO is done in leases. Some light can be shed on how this is done, if we take a look at the types (as

```
always!):
print_string(_): String => (EmptyVal)FromIO
print_string("I'll repeat the line"): (EmptyVal)FromIO
get_line: (String)FromIO
For the "then" operator we have: ; : (@E)Has_Then --> @E(T1) x @E(T2) => @E(T2)
In the following expression: print_string("I'll repeat the line"); get_line
the "then" operator has type: (EmptyVal)FromIO x (String)FromIO => SomeType
The only way to match the types is:
  @E = FromIO, T1 = EmptyVal, T2 = String and SomeType = (String)FromIO
and it type checks because: (FromIO)Has_Then
For the whole expression we have:
print_string("I'll repeat the line") ; get_line
  : (String)FromIO
For the "use" operator we have: > : (@E)Has_Use --> @E(T1) \times (T1 => @E(T2)) => @E(T2)
In the following expression: print_string("I'll repeat the line"); get_line; > print_string(_)
the "use" operator has type: (String)FromIO x (String => (EmptyVal)FromIO) => SomeType
The only way to match the types is:
  @E = FromIO, T1 = String, T2 = EmptyVal and SomeType = (EmptyVal)FromIO
and it type checks because: (FromIO)Has_Use
For the whole expression we have:
print_string("I'll repeat the line") ; get_line ;> print_string(_)
  : (EmptyVal)FromIO
```

Another Example Program

```
main: (EmptyVal)FromIO
  = print_string("Hello! What's your name?") ; get_line ;> name =>
    print_string("And how old are you?") ; get_line ;> age =>
    print_string("Oh! You don't look " + age + " " + name + "!")
print_string(_): String => (EmptyVal)FromIO
print_string("Hello! What's your name?") : (EmptyVal)FromIO
print_string("Hello! What's your name?"); get_line
  : (String)FromIO
print_string("And how old are you?"); get_line
  : (String)FromIO
print_string("Oh! You don't look " + age + " " + name + "!")
  : (EmptyVal)FromIO
age => print_string("Oh! You don't look " + age + " " + name + "!")
  : String => (EmptyVal)FromIO
print_string("And how old are you?") ; get_line ;> age =>
print_string("Oh! You don't look " + age + " " + name + "!")
  : (EmptyVal)FromIO
name =>
print_string("And how old are you?") ; get_line ;> age =>
print_string("Oh! You don't look " + age + " " + name + "!")
  : String => (EmptyVal)FromIO
print_string("Hello! What's your name?") ; get_line ;> name =>
print_string("And how old are you?") ; get_line ;> age =>
print_string("Oh! You don't look " + age + " " + name + "!")
  : (EmptyVal)FromIO
```

Description

The environment action operators are used to combine values that do environment actions into values that do more complicated environment actions. Environment actions are type functions that take a type argument and produce a type (just like ListOf(_)s). These type functions have the "then" operator (;) and the "use" operator (;>) defined for them. A value of the type QE(T1) where (QE)Has_Then does an environment action of type QE that produces a value of type T1 which can then be combined with another one with the "then" operator. Similarly, with the "use" operator the produced value of an action can be used by a function that returns another action.

The effect of the ";" operator described in words is the following: given a value of type @E(T1) and a value of type @E(T2) (which are environment actions that produce values of type T1 and T2 respectively), create a new value the does both actions (provided the first did not result in an error). The overall effect is a value which is an environment action of type @E (the combination of the "smaller" actions) which produces a value of type T2 (the one produced by the second action) and therefore it is of type @E(T2).

Note that the value of type T1 produced by the first action is not used anywhere. This happens mostly when T1 = EmptyVal and it is because values of type @E(EmptyVal) are used for their environment action only (e.g. print_string(...): (EmptyVal)FromIO).

How the two environment actions of the QE(T1) and QE(T2) values are combined to produce the new environment action is specific to the environment action type QE.

The effect of the ";>" operator described in words is the following: given a value of type @E(T1) (which is an environment action of type @E that produces a value of type T1) and a value of type T1 => @E(T2) (which is a function that takes a value of type T1 and returns an environment action of type @E that produces a value of type T2), combine those two values by creating a value that does the following:

- Performs the first action that produces a value of type T1
- Takes the value of type T1 produced (provided there was no error) and passes it to the function of type T1 => @E(T2) that then returns an action
- Perfoms the resulting action

The overall effect is an environment action of type @E that produces a value is of type T2 and therefore the new value is of type @E(T2).

3.2.4 Operator Expressions

• Examples

```
1 + 2
1 + x * 3^y
"Hello " + "World!"
x -> f -> g
f o> g o> h
x == y
x >= y - z & x < 2 * y
get_line; get_line; > line => print("Second line: " + line)
2 * _
_ - 1
"Hello " + "it's me, " + _
"Hi, I am " + _ + " and I am " + _ + " years old"
```

• Description

Operator expressions are expressions that use operators. Operators act like two-argument-functions that are placed in between their arguments (operands). Therefore, they have function types and they act as it is described in their respective sections above this one.

An operator expression might have multiple operators. The order of operations is explained in the next section ("Complete Table, Precedence and Associativity") in Table 2.

Just like functions, the operands of an operator, must have types that match the types expected by the operator.

It is possible for the second operand of an operator to be a function expression. This is mostly useful with the ";>" operator (see previous section: "Environment Operators").

It is possible to use an underscore as an operand. An operator expression with underscore operands becomes a function that expects those operands as arguments. This is best demonstrated by the types of the last four examples:

```
2 * _ : Int => Int

_ - 1 : Int => Int

"Hello " + "it's me, " + _ : String => String

"Hi, I am " + _ + " and I am " + _ + " years old" : String^2 => String
```

Note: These are not the most general types for these examples but they are compatible.

• Big Operator Expressions

Example

```
"Hello, I'm a big string that's going to contain multiple values from " + "inside the imaginary program that I'm a part of. Here they are:\n" + "value1 = " + value1 + ", value2 = " + value2 + ", value3 = " + value3 + ", value4 = " + value4 + ", value5 = " + value5
```

Description

It is possible to stretch a (big) operator expression over multiple lines. In that case:

- The operator expression must split in a new line after an operator (not an operand).
- Every line after the first must be indented so that in begins at the column where the first line of the operator expression begun.
- The precise indentation rules are described in the section "Indentation System" 6.1.2.
- Grammar

```
\langle op\text{-}expr\rangle ::= \langle line\text{-}op\text{-}expr\rangle \mid \langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr\rangle \\ \langle op\text{-}expr\text{-}start\rangle ::= (\langle operand\rangle \langle op\rangle) + \\ \langle line\text{-}op\text{-}expr\rangle ::= \langle op\text{-}expr\text{-}start\rangle (\langle operand\rangle \mid \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr\rangle) \\ \langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr\rangle ::= \langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr\text{-}op\text{-}split\rangle \mid \langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr\text{-}func\text{-}split\rangle} \\ \langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr\text{-}op\text{-}split\rangle ::= \langle op\text{-}split\text{-}line\rangle + [\langle op\text{-}expr\text{-}start\rangle] (\langle operand\rangle \mid \langle func\text{-}expr\rangle) \\ \langle op\text{-}split\text{-}line\rangle ::= (\langle op\text{-}expr\text{-}start\rangle) (\langle nl\rangle \mid \langle oper\text{-}fco\rangle) \mid \langle oper\text{-}fco\rangle) \langle indent\rangle \\ \langle oper\text{-}fco\rangle ::= \langle operand\rangle ::= \langle op\text{-}expr\text{-}start\rangle (\langle big\text{-}func\text{-}expr\rangle \mid \langle cases\text{-}func\text{-}expr\rangle) \\ \langle operand\rangle ::= \langle basic\text{-}or\text{-}app\text{-}expr\rangle \mid \langle paren\text{-}expr\rangle \mid '\cdot\_' \\ \langle op\rangle ::= `\_{'}' \langle func\text{-}comp\text{-}op\rangle ::= `\_{'}' \mid '(-)' \mid (-)' \mid
```

3.2.5 Complete Table, Precedence and Associativity

Table 1: The complete table of leases operators along with their types and their short descriptions.

Operator	Type	Description
->	T1 x (T1 => T2) => T2	Right Function Application
<-	(T1 => T2) x T1 => T2	Left Function Application
0>	(T1 => T2) x (T2 => T3) => (T1 => T3)	Right Function Composition
<0	(T2 => T3) x (T1 => T2) => (T1 => T3)	Left Function Composition
^	(@A)To_The(@B)Is(@C)> @A x @B => @C	General Exponentiation
*	(@A)And(@B)Multiply_To(@C)> @A x @B => @C	General Multiplication
/	(@A)Divided_By(@B)Is(@C)> @A x @B => @C	General Division
+	(@A)And(@B)Add_To(@C)> @A x @B => @C	General Addition
_	(@A)Minus(@B)Is(@C)> @A x @B => @C	General Subtraction
==	(@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal> @A x @B => Bool	General Equality
!=	(@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Unequal> @A x @B => Bool	General Inequality
>	(@A)Can_Be_Greater_Than(@B)> @A x @B => Bool	General Greater Than
<	(@A)Can_Be_Less_Than(@B)> @A x @B => Bool	General Less Than
>=	(@A)Can_Be_Gr_Or_Eq_To(@B)> @A x @B => Bool	General Greater Than or Equal To
<=	(@A)Can_Be_Le_Or_Eq_To(@B)> @A x @B => Bool	General Less Than or Equal To
&	(@A)Has_And> @A^2 => @A	General And
ı	(@A)Has_Or> @A^2 => @A	General Or
;>	(@E)Has_Use> @E(T1) x (T1 => @E(T2)) => @E(T2)	"Use" Environment Action
;	(@E)Has_Then> @E(T1) x @E(T2) => @E(T2)	"Then" Environment Action

The order of operations is done from highest to lowest precedence. In the same level of precedence the order is done from left to right if the associativity is "Left" and from right to left if the associativity is "Right". For the operators that have associativity "None" it is not allowed to place them in the same operator expression. The precedence and associativity of the operators is shown in the table below.

Table 2: The table of precedence and associativity of the leases operators.

Operator	Precedence	Associativity
->	10 (highest)	Left
<-	9	Right
o> <o< td=""><td>8</td><td>Left</td></o<>	8	Left
^	7	Right
* /	6	Left
+ -	5	Left
== != > < >= <=	4	None
&	3	Left
I	2	Left
;> ;	1	Left

3.3 Function Expressions

Function expressions are divided into **regular function expressions** and "cases" function expressions which are described in the following sections.

```
\langle func\text{-}expr \rangle ::= \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle big\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle cases\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle
```

3.3.1 Regular Function Expressions

• Examples

```
a => 17 * a + 42

(a, b) => a + 2*b

(x, y, z) => sqrt(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)

* => 42

(x, *, z) => x + z

((x1, y1), (x2, y2)) => (x1 + x2, y1 + y2)
```

ullet Description

Regular function expressions are used to define functions or be part of bigger expressions as anonymous functions. They are comprised by their parameters and their body.

Parameters have identifiers. There is either only one parameter, in which case there is no parenthesis, or there are many, in which case they are in parentheses, seperated by commas. If a parameter is not needed it can be left empty by having an asterisk instead of an identifier (4th and 5th example). If a parameter is a tuple itself it can be matched further by using parentheses and giving identifiers to its fields (5th example).

The parameters and the body are separated by the function arrow ("=>"). The body is a basic expression, an operator expression or a function expression in parenthesis.

• Big Function Expressions

Example

```
(value1, value2, value3, value4, value5, value6, value7) =>
print_line("value1 = " + value1 + ", value2 = " + value2 + ", value3 = " + value3);
print_line("value4 = " + value4 + ", value5 = " + value5 + ", value6 = " + value6);
print_line("value7 = " + value7)
```

Description

It is possible to stretch a (big) function expression over multiple lines. In that case:

- The function expression must split in a new line after the function arrow ("=>").
- Every line after the first must be indented so that in begins at the column where the first character of the parameters was in the first line.
- The precise indentation rules are described in the section "Indentation System" 6.1.2.
- Grammar

```
\langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr\rangle ::= \langle parameters\rangle \ [ ``_{} '] `=>' \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}body\rangle
\langle big\text{-}func\text{-}expr\rangle ::= \langle parameters\rangle \ [ ``_{} '] `=>' \langle big\text{-}func\text{-}body\rangle
\langle parameters\rangle ::= \langle identifier\rangle \ | `*' \ | ``(' \ [ `_{} '] \ \langle parameters\rangle \ ( \langle comma\rangle \ \langle parameters\rangle \ ) + \ [ ``_{} '] \ ')'
\langle line\text{-}func\text{-}body\rangle ::= \ [ ``_{} '] \ ( \langle basic\text{-}or\text{-}app\text{-}expr\rangle \ | \ \langle line\text{-}op\text{-}expr\rangle \ | \ (' \ [ ``_{} '] \ \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr\rangle \ [ ``_{} '] \ ')' \ )
\langle big\text{-}func\text{-}body\rangle ::= \ \langle nl\rangle \ \langle indent\rangle \ ( \langle basic\text{-}or\text{-}app\text{-}expr\rangle \ | \ \langle op\text{-}expr\rangle \ | \ '(' \ [ ``_{} '] \ \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr\rangle \ [ ``_{} '] \ ')' \ )
```

3.3.2 "cases" Function Expressions

 \bullet Examples

```
print_sentimental_bool(_): Bool => IO
  = cases
    true => print("It's true!! :)")
    false => print("It's false... :(")
or_type TrafficLight
values green | amber | red
(_)is_not_red: TrafficLight => Bool
 = cases
    green => true
    amber => true
    red => false
(_)is_seventeen_or_forty_two: Int => Bool
  = cases
    17 => true
    42 => true
    ... => false
traffic_lights_match(_, _): TrafficLight^2 => Bool
  = (cases, cases)
    (green, green) => true
    (amber, amber) => true
    (red, red) => true
    ... => false
gcd_of(_)and(_): Int^2 => Int
  = (x, cases)
    0 \Rightarrow x
    y => gcd_of(y)and((x)mod(y))
apply(_)to_all_in(_): (T1 => T2) x ListOf(T1)s => ListOf(T2)s
  = (f(_), cases)
    [] => []
    [head, tail = ...] \Rightarrow f(head) + apply(f(_))to_all_in(tail)
cases
  [x1, x2, xs = ...] \Rightarrow (x1 < x2) & (x2 + xs)is_sorted
  ... => true
```

• Description

"cases" is a keyword that works as a special parameter. Instead of giving the name "cases" to that parameter, it is used to pattern match on the possible values of that parameter and return a different result for each particular case.

The last case can be "... => (body of default case)" to capture all remaining cases while dismissing the value (e.g. "is_seventeen_or_forty_two" example), or it can be "some_id => (body of default case)" to capture all remaining cases while being able to use the value with the name "some_id" (e.g. "y" in "gcd" example).

It is possible to use "cases" in multiple parameters to match on all of them combined. By doing that, each case represents a particular combination of values for the "cases" parameters involved (e.g. traffic_lights_match example).

It is also possible to use a "where" expression below a particular case. The "where" expression must be indented two spaces more than than the line where that particular case begins.

It also possible to use the following syntax to match on as many elements of a list as needed and optionally give a name to the rest of the list:

```
# no name for the rest of the list
[x1, ...] => <case body>
[x1, x2, ...] => <case body>
[x1, x2, x3, ...] => <case body>
# name for the rest of the list
[x1, xs = ...] => <case body>
[x1, x2, xs = ...] => <case body>
[x1, x2, xs = ...] => <case body>
```

```
 \langle cases\text{-}func\text{-}expr\rangle ::= \langle cases\text{-}params\rangle \langle case\rangle + [\langle end\text{-}case\rangle] 
 \langle cases\text{-}params\rangle ::= \langle identifier\rangle | \text{`cases'}| \text{`*'}| \text{`('}['_{\square'}] \langle cases\text{-}params\rangle (\langle comma\rangle \langle cases\text{-}params\rangle) + ['_{\square'}] \text{')'} 
 \langle case\rangle ::= \langle nl\rangle \langle indent\rangle \langle outer\text{-}matching\rangle ['_{\square'}] \text{`=>'} \langle case\text{-}body\rangle 
 \langle end\text{-}case\rangle ::= \langle nl\rangle \langle indent\rangle (\text{`...'}| \langle identifier\rangle) ['_{\square'}] \text{`=>'} \langle case\text{-}body\rangle 
 \langle outer\text{-}matching\rangle ::= \langle simple\text{-}id\rangle | \langle matching\rangle 
 \langle matching\rangle ::= \langle literal\rangle | \langle pre\text{-}func\rangle \langle inner\text{-}matching\rangle | \langle tuple\text{-}matching\rangle | \langle list\text{-}matching\rangle 
 \langle inner\text{-}matching\rangle ::= \text{``('}['_{\square'}] \langle inner\text{-}matching\rangle (\langle comma\rangle \langle inner\text{-}matching\rangle) + ['_{\square'}] \text{')'} 
 \langle list\text{-}matching\rangle ::= \langle (comma\rangle | \langle comma\rangle \langle inner\text{-}matching\rangle) * [\langle case\text{-}list\text{-}matching\rangle] | ['_{\square'}] \text{']'} 
 \langle case\text{-}body\rangle ::= \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}body\rangle | \langle big\text{-}func\text{-}body\rangle | \langle where\text{-}expr\rangle |
```

3.4 Value Definitions and "where" Expressions

3.4.1 Value Definitions

• Examples

• Description

Value definitions are the main building block of leases programs. To define a new value you give it a name, a type and an expression. The name is an identifier which is followed by the "has type" symbol (':') and the expression of the type of the value. The line below is indented two spaces and begins with the equal sign and continues with the expression of the value (which extends to as many lines as needed).

A value definition begins either in the first column, where it can be "seen" by all other value definitions, or it is inside a "where" expression (see section below), where it can be "seen" by the expression above the "where" and all the other definitions in the same "where" expression.

A value definition can be followed by a "where" expression where intermediate values used in the value expression are defined. In that case, the "where" expression must be indented two spaces more than the "=" line of the value definition.

It is possible to group value definitions together by seperating the names, the types and the expressions with commas. This is very useful for not cluttering the program with many definitions for values with small expressions (e.g. constants). When grouping definitions together it is also possible to use the keyword "all" to give the same type to all the values.

```
 \langle value\text{-}def \rangle ::= \\ \langle indent \rangle \langle identifier \rangle \ ( \ [ \ ` \sqcup' \ ] \ | \ \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \ ":\sqcup' \ ) \langle type \rangle \\ \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \ "=\sqcup' \langle value\text{-}expr \rangle \ [ \langle where\text{-}expr \rangle \ ]   \langle value\text{-}expr \rangle ::= \langle basic\text{-}or\text{-}app\text{-}expr \rangle \ | \ \langle op\text{-}expr \rangle \ | \ \langle func\text{-}expr \rangle \ | \ \langle big\text{-}tuple \rangle \ | \ \langle big\text{-}list \rangle   \langle grouped\text{-}value\text{-}defs \rangle ::= \\ \langle indent \rangle \langle identifier \rangle \ ( \ \langle comma \rangle \ \langle identifier \rangle \ ) + \\ ( \ [ \ " \sqcup' \ ] \ ": \ [ \ " \sqcup' \ ] \ | \ \langle nl \rangle \ \langle identifier \rangle \ ) + \\ ( \ [ \ " \sqcup' \ ] \ ": \ [ \ " \sqcup' \ ] \ | \ \langle nl \rangle \ \langle ident \rangle \ \langle comma \rangle \ \langle type \rangle \ ) + \ | \ "all \ " \ \langle type \rangle \ ) \\ \langle line\text{-}exprs \rangle ::= \langle line\text{-}expr \rangle \ ( \ \langle comma \rangle \ \langle line\text{-}expr \rangle \ ) *
```

3.4.2 "where" Expressions

• Examples

```
sort(_): ListOf(Int)s => ListOf(Int)s
  = cases
    [] => []
    [head, tail = ...] =>
      sort(less_1) + head + sort(greater_1)
      less_l, greater_l: all ListOf(Int)s
        = filter(tail)with(_ < head), filter(tail)with(_ >= head)
sum_nodes(_): TreeOf(Int)s => Int
  = tree =>
    tree.root + apply(sum_nodes(_))to_all_in(tree.subtrees) -> sum_list(_)
    where
    sum_list(_) : ListOf(Int)s => Int
      = cases
        [] => 0
        [head, tail = ...] => head + sum_list(tail)
big_string : String
  = s1 + s2 + s3 + s4
    where
    s1, s2, s3, s4 : all String
      = "Hello, my name is Struggling Programmer."
      , " I have tried way too many times to fit a big chunk of text"
       " inside my program, without it hitting the half-screen mark!"
      , " I am so glad I finally discovered lcases!"
```

• Description

"where" expressions allow the programmer to use values inside an expression and define them below it. They are very useful for reusing or abbreviating expressions that are specific to a particular definition or case.

A "where" expression begins by a line that only has the word "where" in it. It is indented as described in the "Value Definitions" (3.4.1) or "cases' Function Expressions" (3.3.2) sections. The definitions are placed below the "where" line and must have the same indentation.

```
\langle where\text{-}expr \rangle ::= \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \text{ `where' } \langle nl \rangle \langle value\text{-}def\text{-}or\text{-}defs \rangle \ (\langle nl \rangle \langle nl \rangle \langle value\text{-}def\text{-}or\text{-}defs \rangle)^*
\langle value\text{-}def\text{-}or\text{-}defs \rangle ::= \langle value\text{-}def \rangle \ | \ \langle grouped\text{-}value\text{-}defs \rangle
```

4 Language Description: Types and Type Logic

4.1 Types

The constructs regarding types are **type expressions**, **type definitions** and **type nicknames** and they are described in the following sections.

4.1.1 Type Expressions

Type expressions are divided into the following categories:

- Type Identifiers
- Type Variables
- Type Application Types
- Product Types
- Function Types
- Conditional Types

which are described in the following paragraphs.

The grammar of a type expression is:

```
\langle type \rangle ::= [\langle condition \rangle] \langle simple-type \rangle
\langle simple-type \rangle ::= \langle param-t-var \rangle | \langle type-app-id-or-ahtv \rangle | \langle power-type \rangle | \langle prod-type \rangle | \langle func-type \rangle
```

Type Identifiers

• Examples

Int Real Char String SelfReferencingType

• Description

A type identifier is either the name of a basic type (Int, Real, Char, String) or the name of some defined type that has no type parameters. It begins with a capital letter and is followed by capital or lowercase letters.

• Grammar

$$\langle type\text{-}id \rangle ::= [A\text{-}Z] [A\text{-}Za\text{-}z]^*$$

Type Variables

Type Variables are placeholders inside bigger type expressions that can be substituted with various types. This makes the bigger type expression an expression of a **polymorphic** type. The types of polymorphism that exist in leases are **parametric polymorphism** and **ad hoc polymorphism**. Type variables for each of the two types have different syntax and they are described in the following paragraphs.

Parametric Type Variables

 \bullet Examples

• Examples of parametric type variables inside bigger type expressions

```
T1 => T1
(T1 => T2) x (T2 => T3) => (T1 => T3)
(T1^2 => T1) x T1 x ListOf(T1)s => T1
```

• Description

Parametric type variables can be substituted with any type and the program will type check. The simplest example of a polymorphic type with a parametric type variable is the type of the identity function where we have:

A parametric type variable is written with capital "T" followed by a digit.

• Grammar

```
\langle param-t-var \rangle ::= T' [0-9]
```

Ad Hoc Type Variables

• Examples

```
@A @B @C @T
```

• Examples of ad hoc type variables inside bigger type expressions

```
(@T)Has_Str_Rep --> @T => String
(@A)Is(@B)s_First --> @B => @A
(@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal --> @A x @B => Bool
(@A)And(@B)Add_To(@C) --> @A x @B => @C
```

• Description

Ad hoc type variables are type variables that can be substituted only by types that satisfy a condition. This condition comes in the form of a type proposition (see Type Logic section 4.2). Therefore, any ad hoc type variable must also appear in the condition as shown in the examples.

An ad hoc type variable is written with an '@' followed by any capital letter.

```
\langle ad\text{-}hoc\text{-}t\text{-}var \rangle ::= \text{`@'} [A\text{-}Z]
```

Type Application Types

\bullet Examples

```
Possibly(Int)
ListOf(Real)s
TreeOf(String)s
Result(Int)OrError(String)
ListOf(Int => Int)s
ListOf(T1)s
```

• Description

Type application types are types that are produced by passing type arguments to a type function generated by a tuple_type definition, an or_type definition or a type_nickname. For example, given the definition of Possibly(T1):

```
or_type Possibly(T1)
values the_value:T1 | no_value
```

We have that Possibly(_) is a type function that receives one type parameter and returns a resulting type. For example Possibly(Int) is the result of passing the type argument Int to Possibly(_).

Type application types have the same form as the name in the tuple_type definition, or_type definition or type_nickname, with the difference that type parameters are substituted by the expressions of the type arguments.

```
 \langle type-app-id-or-ahtv \rangle ::= [\langle types-in-paren \rangle] \langle taioa-middle \rangle [\langle types-in-paren \rangle]   \langle taioa-middle \rangle ::= \langle type-id \rangle (\langle types-in-paren \rangle [A-Za-z]+)* |\langle ad-hoc-t-var \rangle   \langle types-in-paren \rangle ::= `(`[``_{\square}'] \langle simple-type \rangle (\langle comma \rangle \langle simple-type \rangle)* [``_{\square}'] `)`
```

Product Types

• Examples

```
Int x Real x String
ListOf(Int)s x Int x ListOf(String)s
(Int => Int) x (Int x Real) x (Real => String)
Int^2 x Int^2
Real^3 x Real^3
```

• Description

Product types are the types of tuples. They are comprised of the expressions of the types of the fields seperated by the string "x" (space 'x' space) to resemble the cartesian product. If any of the fields is of a product or a function type then the corresponding type expression must be inside parentheses. A product type where all the fields are of the same type can be abbreviated with a power type expression which is comprised of the type, the power symbol '^' and the number of times the type is repeated.

• Grammar

```
\langle prod\text{-}type\rangle ::= \langle field\text{-}type\rangle \ (\text{``}_{\mathbf{x}}\text{'}_{\mathbf{x}}) \langle field\text{-}type\rangle \ )+
\langle field\text{-}type\rangle ::= \langle power\text{-}base\text{-}type\rangle \ | \ \langle power\text{-}type\rangle \ 
\langle power\text{-}base\text{-}type\rangle ::= \langle param\text{-}t\text{-}var\rangle \ | \ \langle type\text{-}app\text{-}id\text{-}or\text{-}ahtv\rangle \ | \ \text{`('} \ [\text{`}_{\mathbf{u}}'\ ] \ (\ \langle prod\text{-}type\rangle \ | \ \langle func\text{-}type\rangle \ ) \ [\text{`}_{\mathbf{u}}'\ ] \ ')'
\langle power\text{-}type\rangle ::= \langle power\text{-}base\text{-}type\rangle \ `` \ \langle int\text{-}greater\text{-}than\text{-}one\rangle
```

Function Types

• Examples

```
String => String
Real => Int
T1 => T1
Int^2 => Int
Real^3 => Real
(T1 => T2) x (T2 => T3) => (T1 => T3)
(Int => Int) => (Int => Int)
```

• Description

A function type expression is comprised of the input type expression and the output type expression seperated by the function arrow ("=>"). The input and output type expressions are type expressions which are put in parentheses only if they are function type expressions.

```
\langle func\text{-}type \rangle ::= \langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type \rangle \text{ '} \square = > \square \text{'} \langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type \rangle
\langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type \rangle ::= \langle param\text{-}t\text{-}var \rangle \mid \langle type\text{-}app\text{-}id\text{-}or\text{-}ahtv \rangle \mid \langle power\text{-}type \rangle \mid \langle prod\text{-}type \rangle \mid \text{'}(\text{'} [\text{'} \square'] \mid \langle func\text{-}type \rangle \mid \text{'})\text{'}
```

Conditional Types

• Examples

```
(@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal --> @A x @B => Bool
(@A)And(@B)Add_To(@C) --> @A x @B => @C
(@A)Is(@B)s_First --> @B => @A
(@T)Has_Str_Rep --> @T => String
(@E)Has_Use --> @E(T1) x (T1 => @E(T2)) => @E(T2)
```

• Description

Conditional types are the types of values that are polymorphic not because of their structure but because they have been defined (seperately) for many different combinations of types (i.e. they are ad hoc polymorphic). They are comprised of a condition and a "simple" type (i.e. a type without a condition) which are seperated by the condition arrow (" --> "). The condition is a type proposition which refers to type variables inside the "simple" type and it must hold whenever the polymorphic value of that type is used. For example:

```
(_)first: (@A)Is(@B)s_First --> @B => @A
can be used as follows:
pair, triple, list
  : Int x String, Real x Char x Int, ListOf(String)s
  = (42, "The answer to everything"), (3.14, 'a', 1), ["Hi!", "Hello", Heeey"]
>> (pair)first
  : Int
  ==> 42
>> (triple)first
  : Real
  ==> 3.14
>> (list)first
  : String
  ==> "Hi!"
and that is because the following propositions hold:
(Int)Is(Int x String)s_First
(Real) Is(Real x Char x Int)s_First
(String) Is (ListOf (String)s)s_First
```

which it turn means that the function "first" has been defined for these combinations of types. For more on how conditions, propositions and ad hoc polymorphism works, see the "Type Logic" section (4.2).

```
\langle condition \rangle ::= \langle prop\text{-}name \rangle `\Box --> \Box '
```

4.1.2 Type Definitions

Type definitions are divided into tuple_type definitions and or_type definitions which are described in the following paragraphs.

The grammar of a type definition is:

```
\langle type\text{-}def \rangle ::= \langle tuple\text{-}type\text{-}def \rangle \mid \langle or\text{-}type\text{-}def \rangle
```

Tuple Types

• Definition Examples

```
tuple_type Name
 value (first_name, last_name) : String^2
 tuple_type Date
 value (day, month, year) : Int^3
 tuple_type MathematicianInfo
 value (name, nationality, date_of_birth) : Name x String x Date
 tuple_type TreeOf(T1)s
 value (root, subtrees) : T1 x ListOf(TreeOf(T1)s)s
 tuple_type Indexed(T1)
 value (index, val) : Int x T1
• Usage Examples
 euler_info: MathematicianInfo
   = (("Leonhard", "Euler"), "Swiss", (15, 4, 1707))
 name(_)to_string: Name => String
   = n => "\nFirst Name: " + n.first_name + "\nLast Name: " + n.last_name
 print_name_and_nat(_): MathematicianInfo => IO
   = ci => print(name(ci.name)to_string + "\nNationality: " + ci.nationality)
 sum_nodes(_): TreeOf(Int)s => Int
   = tree => tree.root + apply(sum_nodes(_))to_all_in(tree.subtrees) -> sum_list(_)
```

• Description

A tuple type is equivalent to a product type with a new name and names for the fields for convinience. A tuple type generates postfix functions for all of the fields by using a '.' before the name of the field. For example the "MathematicianInfo" type above generates the following functions:

```
_.name : MathematicianInfo => Name
_.nationality : MathematicianInfo => String
_.date_of_birth : MathematicianInfo => Date
```

• Grammar

```
 \begin{array}{l} \langle tuple-type-def \rangle ::= \\ \text{`tuple\_type\_i'} \ \langle type-name \rangle \ \langle nl \rangle \\ \text{`value'} \ ( \ `\square' \ | \ \langle nl \rangle \ `\square\square' \ ) \ \langle id-tuple \rangle \ [ \ `\square' \ ] \ ( \ \langle prod-type \rangle \ | \ \langle power-type \rangle \ ) \\ \langle type-name \rangle ::= \\ \ [ \ \langle param-vars-in-paren \rangle \ ] \ \langle type-id \rangle \ ( \ \langle param-vars-in-paren \rangle \ [A-Za-z]+ \ )* \ [ \ \langle param-vars-in-paren \rangle \ ] \\ \langle param-vars-in-paren \rangle ::= \ `(' \ [ \ `\square' \ ] \ \langle param-t-var \rangle \ ( \ \langle comma \rangle \ \langle param-t-var \rangle \ )* \ [ \ `\square' \ ] \ `)' \\ \langle id-tuple \rangle ::= \ `(' \ [ \ `\square' \ ] \ \langle simple-id \rangle \ ( \ \langle comma \rangle \ \langle simple-id \rangle \ )+ \ [ \ `\square' \ ] \ `)' \\ \end{array}
```

Or Types

• Definition Examples

```
or_type Bool
values true | false

or_type TrafficLight
values green | amber | red

or_type Possibly(T1)
values the_value:T1 | no_value

or_type Result(T1)OrError(T2)
values result:T1 | error:T2
```

• Usage Examples

• Description

The values of an or_type are split into cases. Some cases have other values inside. The cases which have other values inside are followed by a colon and the type of the internal value. Similar syntax can be used for matching that particular case in a function using the "cases" syntax. An or_type definition automatically creates prefix functions for each case with an internal value (which are simply conversions from the type of the internal value to the or_type). For example, for the case "the_value" of a "Possibly(T1)" the function "the_value:_" is automatically created from the definition for which we can say:

```
the_value:_ : T1 => Possibly(T1)
```

These functions can be used like any other function as arguments to other functions. For example:

 \bullet Grammar

```
\begin{split} &\langle or\text{-}type\text{-}def \rangle ::= \\ & \text{`or\_type}_{\square}` \left\langle type\text{-}name \right\rangle \left\langle nl \right\rangle \\ & \text{`values'} \left( \text{`}_{\square}' \mid \left\langle nl \right\rangle \text{`}_{\square\square}' \right) \\ & \left\langle simple\text{-}id \right\rangle \left[ \text{`:'} \left\langle simple\text{-}type \right\rangle \right] \left( \left[ \text{`}_{\square}' \right] \text{`I'} \left[ \text{`}_{\square}' \right] \left\langle simple\text{-}id \right\rangle \left[ \text{`:'} \left\langle simple\text{-}type \right\rangle \right] \right)^* \end{split}
```

Type Nicknames

 \bullet Examples

```
type_nickname Ints = ListOf(Int)s
type_nickname IntStringPairs = ListOf(Int x String)s
type_nickname IO = (EmptyVal)FromIO
type_nickname Res(T1)OrErr = Result(T1)OrError(String)
```

• Description

Type nicknames are used to abbreviate or give a more descriptive name to a type. They start with the keyword "type_nickname", followed by the nickname, then an equal sign and the type to be nicknamed. Parametric type variables can be used in the nickname.

• Grammar

```
\langle \textit{t-nickname} \rangle ::= \text{`type\_nickname} \_\text{'} \ \langle \textit{type-name} \rangle \ \langle \textit{equals} \rangle \ \langle \textit{simple-type} \rangle
```

4.2 Type Logic

Type logic is the mechanism for ad hoc polymorphism in leases. The central notion of **type logic** is the **type proposition**. A type proposition is a proposition that has types as parameters and is true or false for particular type arguments.

Type propositions can either be defined or proven (for certain type arguments). Therefore, the following constructs exist and accomplish the aforementioned respectively: **type proposition definitions** and **type theorems**. These constructs are described in detail in the following sections. From this point onwards the "type" part will be omitted, i.e. propositions are always type propositions and theorems are always type theorems.

4.2.1 Proposition Definitions

Proposition definitions are split into definitions of **atomic propositions** and definitions of **renaming propositions** which are described in the following paragraphs.

Atomic Propositions

 \bullet Examples

```
type_proposition (@A)Is(@B)s_First
needed (_)first: @B => @A

type_proposition (@T)Has_Str_Rep
needed (_)to_string: @T => String

type_proposition (@T)Has_A_Wrapper
needed wrap(_): T1 => @T(T1)

type_proposition (@T)Has_Internal_App
needed apply(_)inside(_) : (T1 => T2) x @T(T1) => @T(T2)
```

The examples above define the following (ad hoc) polymorphic functions which have the respective (conditional) types:

```
(_)first: (@A)Is(@B)s_First --> @B => @A

(_)to_string: (@T)Has_Str_Rep --> @T => String

wrap(_): (@T)Has_A_Wrapper --> T1 => @T(T1)

apply(_)inside(_): (@T)Has_Internal_App --> (T1 => T2) x @T(T1) => @T(T2)
```

• Description

An atomic proposition definition defines simultaneously the **atomic proposition** itself and a **polymorphic value** (usually, but not necessarily, a function), by definining the form of the type of the value given the type parameters of the proposition. The proposition is true or false when the type parameters are substituted by specific type arguments depending on whether the implementation of the value has been defined for these type arguments. The aforementioned truthvalue determines whether the value is used correctly inside the program and therefore whether the program will typecheck. In order to add more types for which the function works, i.e. define the function for these types, i.e. make the proposition true for these types, one must prove a theorem. The specifics of theorems are described in the next section. For now, we'll show the example for everything mentioned in this paragraph for the proposition "(@A)Is(@B)s_First":

- Proposition Definition: type_proposition (@A)Is(@B)s_First needed (_)first: @B => @A - Function defined and its type: (_)first: (@A)Is(@B)s_First --> @B => @A - Theorems for specific types: type_theorem (T1)Is(T1 x T2)s_First proof (_)first = _.1st type_theorem (T1)Is(ListOf(T1)s)s_First proof $(_)$ first = cases [] => throw_err("Tried to take the first element of an empty list") [head, ...] => head - Usage of the function pair, list : Int x String, ListOf(String)s = (42, "The answer to everything"), ["Hi!", "Hello", Heeey"] >> (pair)first : Int ==> 42 >> (list)first : String ==> "Hi!"

An atomic proposition definition begins with the keyword "type_proposition" followed by the name of the proposition (including the type parameters) in the first line. The second line begins with the keyword "needed" which is followed by the identifier and the type expression of the value seperated by the "has type" symbol (':').

Renaming Propositions

• Examples

```
type_proposition (@T)Has_Equality
equivalent (@T)And(@T)Can_Be_Equal

type_proposition (@A)And(@B)Are_Comparable
equivalent
   (@A)Can_Be_Less_Than(@B), (@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal, (@A)Can_Be_Greater_Than(@B)

type_proposition (@T)Has_Comparison
equivalent (@T)And(@T)Are_Comparable
```

• Description

A renaming proposition definition is used to abbreviate one or the conjunction of many propositions into a new proposition.

A renaming proposition definition begins with the keyword "type_proposition" followed by the name of the proposition (including the type parameters) in the first line. The second line begins with the keyword "equivalent" followed by either one proposition or (if it is a conjunction) many propositions seperated by commas (where the commas mean "and").

Grammar for Proposition Definitions

```
 \langle type\text{-}prop\text{-}def \rangle ::= \langle atom\text{-}prop\text{-}def \rangle \mid \langle renaming\text{-}prop\text{-}def \rangle 
 \langle atom\text{-}prop\text{-}def \rangle ::= \langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}line \rangle \langle nl \rangle \text{ `needed' ( ``_l' \mid \langle nl \rangle ``_{lll'}') } \langle identifier \rangle \text{ [ ``_l' ] ':' [ ``_l' ] } \langle simple\text{-}type \rangle 
 \langle renaming\text{-}prop\text{-}def \rangle ::= \langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}line \rangle \langle nl \rangle \text{ `equivalent' ( ``_l' \mid \langle nl \rangle ``_{lll'}') } \langle prop\text{-}name \rangle \text{ ( } \langle comma \rangle \langle prop\text{-}name \rangle \text{ )*} 
 \langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}line \rangle ::= \text{ `type\_proposition_l' } \langle prop\text{-}name \rangle 
 \langle prop\text{-}name \rangle ::= \text{ [A-Z] ( } \langle name\text{-}part \rangle \text{ } \rangle + \text{ [ } \langle name\text{-}part \rangle \text{ ]} 
 | ( \langle types\text{-}in\text{-}paren \rangle \langle name\text{-}part \rangle \text{ } \rangle + \text{ [ } \langle types\text{-}in\text{-}paren \rangle \text{ ]} 
 \langle name\text{-}part \rangle ::= \text{ ( [A-Za-z] | ``_l'[A-Z] )} +
```

4.2.2 Theorems

Theorems are split into theorems of **atomic propositions** and theorems of **implication propositions** which are described in the following paragraphs.

Atomic Propositions

• Examples

```
type_theorem (Possibly(_))Has_A_Wrapper
 proof wrap(_) = the_value:_
 type_theorem (ListOf(_)s)Has_A_Wrapper
 proof wrap(_) = [_]
 type_theorem (Possibly(_))Has_Internal_App
 proof
   apply(_)inside(_) =
      (f(_), cases)
       no_value => no_value
       the_value:x => the_value:f(x)
 type_theorem (ListOf(_)s)Has_Internal_App
 proof apply(_)inside(_) = apply(_)to_all_in(_)
• Usage
 a, b : all Possibly(Int)
   = wrapper(1), no_value
 11, 12, 13 : all ListOf(Int)s
   = wrapper(1), empty_1, [1, 2, 3]
   : Possibly(Int)
   ==> the_value:1
 >> b
   : Possibly(Int)
   ==> no_value
 >> 11
   : ListOf(Int)s
   ==> [1]
 >> 12
   : ListOf(Int)s
   ==> []
```

```
>> apply(_ + 1)inside(a)
    : Possibly(Int)
    ==> the_value:2
>> apply(_ + 1)inside(b)
    : Possibly(Int)
    ==> no_value
>> apply(_ + 1)inside(11)
    : ListOf(Int)s
    ==> [2]
>> apply(_ + 1)inside(12)
    : ListOf(Int)s
    ==> []
>> apply(_ + 1)inside(13)
    : ListOf(Int)s
    ==> []
```

• Description

A theorem of an atomic proposition proves the proposition for specific type arguments, by implementing the value associated to the proposition for these type arguments. Therefore, the value associated with the proposition can be used with all the combinations of type arguments for which the proposition is true, i.e. the combinations of type arguments for which the value has been implemented.

A proof of a theorem of an atomic proposition is correct when the implementation of the value associated with the proposition follows the form of the type given to the value by the definition of the proposition, i.e. the only difference between the type of the value in the theorem and the type of the value in the definition is that the type parameters of the proposition are substituted by the type arguments of the theorem.

A theorem of an atomic proposition begins with the keyword "type_theorem" followed by the name of the proposition with the type parameters substituted by the specific types for which the proposition will be proven. The second line is the keyword "proof". The third line is indented once and it is the line in which the proof begins. The proof begins with the identifier of the value associated with the proposition and is followed by an equal sign and the value expression which implements the value.

Implication Propositions

• Examples

```
type_theorem (@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal --> (@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Unequal
proof a \= b = not(a == b)

type_theorem (@A)Can_Be_Greater_Than(@B) --> (@A)Can_Be_Le_Or_Eq_To(@B)
proof a <= b = not(a > b)

type_proposition (@A)And(@B)Have_Eq_And_Gr
equivalent (@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal, (@A)Can_Be_Greater_Than(@B)

type_theorem (@A)And(@B)Have_Eq_And_Gr --> (@A)Can_Be_Gr_Or_Eq_To(@B)
proof a >= b = a == b | a > b
```

• Description

A theorem of an implication proposition is similar to a theorem of an atomic proposition but it also uses other ad hoc polymorphic values in the implementation. Therefore, the implementation does not prove the proposition associated to the value it implements unless the polymorphic values used in the implementation are already defined in their own theorems. In other words it proves the following: "if these ad hoc polymorphic values are defined then we can also define this other one". This can be translated into the following implication proposition: "if the propositions associated to the values we are using are true then the proposition associated to the value we are defining is true", which can be condensed to the notation with the condition arrow (" --> ") used in the examples.

When we are using many ad hoc values in the implimentation we need to group all their propositions into one conjunction proposition with a renaming proposition definition as it is done in the example of (@A)And(@B)Have_Eq_And_Gr.

The proof of an implication proposition allows the compiler to automatically create the definition for an ad hoc polymorphic value for a particular combination of types given the definitions of the ad hoc polymorphic values used in the implementation for this same combination of types. This mechanism essentially gives definitions for free, that is in the sense that when you define a set of ad hoc polymorphic values for a particular set of types you get for free all the ad hoc polymorphic values that can be defined using a subset of the defined ones.

A theorem of an implication proposition is grammatically the same as a theorem of an atomic proposition with the only difference being that an implication proposition is comprised by two atomic propositions separated by the condition arrow (" --> ") arrow.

Grammar for Theorems

```
\langle type\text{-}theo \rangle ::= \text{`type\_theorem}_{\square}' \langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}with\text{-}subs \rangle \ [\text{`}_{\square}\text{---}_{\square}' \langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}with\text{-}subs \rangle \ ] \langle nl \rangle \text{`proof'} \langle proof \rangle
 \langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}with\text{-}subs \rangle ::=
                           [A-Z] (\langle name-part \rangle \langle subs-in-paren \rangle) + [\langle name-part \rangle]
                          (\langle subs-in-paren \rangle \langle name-part \rangle) + [\langle subs-in-paren \rangle]
\langle subs-in-paren \rangle ::= `(`[``_{\sqcup}`] \langle t-var-sub \rangle (\langle comma \rangle \langle t-var-sub \rangle)^*[``_{\sqcup}`]`)
 \langle t\text{-}var\text{-}sub \rangle ::= \langle param\text{-}t\text{-}var \rangle \mid \langle type\text{-}app\text{-}id\text{-}or\text{-}ahtv\text{-}sub} \rangle \mid \langle param\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle \mid \langle para
 \langle type-app-id-or-ahtv-sub \rangle ::= [\langle subs-or-unders-in-paren \rangle] \langle taioas-middle \rangle [\langle subs-or-unders-in-paren \rangle]
 \langle taioas-middle \rangle ::= \langle type-id \rangle (\langle subs-or-unders-in-paren \rangle [A-Za-z]+)^* | \langle ad-hoc-t-var \rangle
 \langle \mathit{subs-or-unders-in-paren} \rangle ::= `(' \ [ ``_{\sqcup}' \ ] \ \langle \mathit{sub-or-under} \rangle \ ( \ \langle \mathit{comma} \rangle \ \langle \mathit{sub-or-under} \rangle \ ) * \ [ ``_{\sqcup}' \ ] \ `)'
 \langle sub\text{-}or\text{-}under \rangle ::= \langle t\text{-}var\text{-}sub \rangle \mid `\_`
 \langle power-type-sub \rangle ::= \langle power-base-type-sub \rangle '\cdot' \langle int-greater-than-one \rangle
 \langle power-base-type-sub \rangle ::=
                      `\_' \mid \langle param\text{-}t\text{-}var \rangle \mid \langle type\text{-}app\text{-}id\text{-}or\text{-}ahtv\text{-}sub} \rangle \mid `(' [ `\_' ] ( \langle prod\text{-}type\text{-}sub} \rangle \mid \langle func\text{-}type\text{-}sub} \rangle ) [ `\_' ] `)'
 \langle prod\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle ::= \langle field\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle \ (`` \square x \square' \langle field\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle \ ) +
 \langle field\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle ::= \langle power\text{-}base\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle \mid \langle power\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle
 \langle func\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle ::= \langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle \text{`}_{\square} = >_{\square} \text{'} \langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle
 \begin{array}{l} \langle \textit{in-or-out-type-sub} \rangle ::= \\ \text{`\_'} \mid \langle \textit{param-t-var} \rangle \mid \langle \textit{type-app-id-or-ahtv-sub} \rangle \mid \langle \textit{power-type-sub} \rangle \mid \langle \textit{prod-type-sub} \rangle \mid \\ \text{`('} [\text{`}_{\sqcup}'] \mid \langle \textit{func-type-sub} \rangle [\text{`}_{\sqcup}'] \text{')'} \end{array} 
 \langle proof \rangle ::= '\Box' \langle id\text{-}or\text{-}op\text{-}eq \rangle '\Box' \langle line\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle nl \rangle '\Box\Box' \langle id\text{-}or\text{-}op\text{-}eq \rangle \langle tt\text{-}value\text{-}expr \rangle
 \langle id\text{-}or\text{-}op\text{-}eq \rangle ::= \langle identifier \rangle [\langle op \rangle \langle identifier \rangle] ' ='
 \langle tt\text{-}value\text{-}expr\rangle ::= '\Box' \langle line\text{-}expr\rangle \mid \langle nl\rangle \langle indent\rangle \langle value\text{-}expr\rangle \mid \langle where\text{-}expr\rangle \mid
```

Language Description: Predefined 5

5.1Values

```
• Constants: undefined, pi
• Functions
    - Miscellaneous: not(_), id(_), throw_err(_)
    - Numerical:
        * Miscellaneous: sqrt_of(_), abs_val_of(_), max_of(_)and(_), min_of(_)and(_)
        * Trigonometric: sin(_), cos(_), tan(_), asin(_), acos(_), atan(_)
        * Division related:
              (_)div(_), (_)mod(_), gcd_of(_)and(_), lcm_of(_)and(_), (_)is_even, (_)is_odd
        * Rounding: truncate(_), round(_), floor(_), ceiling(_)
        * e and log: exp(_), ln(_), log_of(_)base(_)
    - List:
      (_)length, (_)is_in(_), apply(_)to_all_in(_), filter(_)with(_),
      take(_)from(_), ignore(_)from(_), zip(_)and(_), unzip(_), zip(_)and(_)with(_)
    - IO:
        * Input: get_char, get_line, get_input, read_file(_)
        * Output: print(_), print_string(_), print_line(_), write(_)in_file(_)
    - Ad Hoc Polymorphic:
      (_)first, (_)second, (_)third, (_)fourth, (_)fifth, wrap(_),
      (_)to_string, from_string(_), apply(_)inside(_),
      apply_wrapped(_)inside(_), (_)to_list, from_list(_)
  Types
```

5.2

- Basic: Int, Real, Char, String
- Or Types: EmptyVal, Bool, Possibly(_), ListOf(_)s, Result(_)OrError(_)
- Tuple Types: NonEmptyListOf(_)s
- Type Nicknames: IO, Z, R, C

5.3 Type Propositions

- Operator Propositions:
 - (@A)To_The(@B)Is(@C)
 - (@A)And(@B)Multiply_To(@C)
 - (@A)Divided_By(@B)Is(@C)
 - (@A)And(@B)Add_To(@C)
 - (@A)Minus(@B)Is(@C)
 - (@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal
 - (@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Unequal
 - (@A)Can_Be_Gr_Or_Eq_To(@B)
 - (@A)Can_Be_Le_Or_Eq_To(@B)
 - (@A)Can_Be_Greater_Than(@B)
 - (@A)Can_Be_Less_Than(@B)
 - (@A)Has_And
 - (@A)Has_Or
 - (@T)Has_Use
 - (@T)Has_Then
- Function Propositions:
 - (@A)Is(@B)s_First
 - (@A)Is(@B)s_Second
 - (@A)Is(@B)s_Third
 - (@A)Is(@B)s_Fourth
 - (@A)Is(@B)s_Fifth
 - (@T)Has_A_Wrapper
 - (@T)Has_Str_Rep
 - (@T)Can_Be_Parsed
 - (@T)Has_Internal_App
 - (@T)Has_Wrapped_Internal_App
- Renaming Propositions:
 - (@T)Has_Exponentiation
 - (@T)Has_Multiplication
 - (@T)Has_Division
 - (@T)Has_Addition
 - (@T)Has_Subtraction
 - (@T)Has_Equality
 - (@T)Has_Non_Equality
 - (@T)Has_Greater_Or_Equal
 - (@T)Has_Less_Or_Equal
 - (@T)Has_Greater

- (@T)Has_Less

• Theorems:

- (T1)Is(T1 x T2)s_First
- (T1)Is(T1 x T2 x T3)s_First
- (T1)Is(T1 x T2 x T3 x T4)s_First
- (T1)Is(T1 x T2 x T3 x T4 x T5)s_First
- (T1)Is(ListOf(T1)s)s_First
- (T2)Is(T1 x T2)s_Second
- (T2)Is(T1 x T2 x T3)s_Second
- $(T2)Is(T1 \times T2 \times T3 \times T4)s_Second$
- $(T2)Is(T1 \times T2 \times T3 \times T4 \times T5)s_Second$
- (T1)Is(ListOf(T1)s)s_Second
- (T3)Is(T1 x T2 x T3)s_Third
- (T3)Is(T1 x T2 x T3 x T4)s_Third
- (T3)Is(T1 x T2 x T3 x T4 x T5)s_Third
- (T1)Is(ListOf(T1)s)s_Third
- (T4)Is(T1 x T2 x T3 x T4)s_Fourth
- (T4)Is(T1 x T2 x T3 x T4 x T5)s_Fourth
- (T1)Is(ListOf(T1)s)s_Fourth
- (T5)Is(T1 x T2 x T3 x T4 x T5)s_Fifth
- (T1)Is(ListOf(T1)s)s_Fifth
- TODO wrapper
- (Int)Has_Str_Rep
- (Char) Has_Str_Rep
- (Real)Has_Str_Rep
- (@A)Has_Str_Rep --> (ListOf(@A)s)Has_Str_Rep
- TODO apply()inside
- TODO apply_wrapped()inside
- TODO ;>
- TODO ;

6 Parser Implementation

6.1 Full grammar and indentation system

6.1.1 Full grammar

```
\langle literal \rangle ::= \langle int-lit \rangle \mid \langle real-lit \rangle \mid \langle char-lit \rangle \mid \langle string-lit \rangle
\langle identifier \rangle ::= [\langle unders-in-paren \rangle] \langle id-start \rangle \langle id-cont \rangle^* [[0-9]] [\langle unders-in-paren \rangle]
\langle simple-id \rangle ::= \langle id\text{-}start \rangle [ [0-9] ]
\langle id\text{-}start \rangle ::= [a-z] [a-z]^*
\langle id\text{-}cont \rangle ::= \langle unders\text{-}in\text{-}paren \rangle [a-z] +
\langle unders-in-paren \rangle ::= `(\_`( \langle comma \rangle `\_`)*`)`
\langle comma \rangle ::= `, `[`_{\sqcup}`]
\langle paren-expr \rangle ::= '(' [ ' _{\sqcup}' ] \langle line-op-expr \rangle | \langle line-func-expr \rangle [ ' _{\sqcup}' ] ')'
\langle tuple \rangle ::= '(' [ ' _{\sqcup}' ] \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}under \rangle \langle comma \rangle \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}unders \rangle [ ' _{\sqcup}' ] ')'
\langle line-expr-or-under \rangle ::= \langle line-expr-or-under \rangle \ (\langle comma \rangle \langle line-expr-or-under \rangle)^*
\langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}under \rangle ::= \langle line\text{-}expr \rangle \mid `\_`
\langle line\text{-}expr \rangle ::= \langle basic\text{-}or\text{-}app\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle line\text{-}op\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle
\langle basic\text{-}or\text{-}app\text{-}expr \rangle ::= \langle basic\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle pre\text{-}func\text{-}app \rangle \mid \langle post\text{-}func\text{-}app \rangle
\langle basic-expr \rangle ::= \langle literal \rangle \mid \langle paren-func-app-or-id \rangle \mid \langle special-id \rangle \mid \langle tuple \rangle \mid \langle list \rangle
\langle big\text{-}tuple \rangle ::=
         (\langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \langle comma \rangle \langle line-expr-or-unders \rangle)^* \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle')'
\langle list \rangle ::= `[' [ `_{\sqcup}' ] [ \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}unders \rangle ] [ `_{\sqcup}' ] `]'
\langle big\text{-}list \rangle ::= \text{`['['_{\square'}]'} | \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}unders \rangle (\langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \langle comma \rangle \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}unders \rangle)^* \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \text{']'}
\langle paren-func-app-or-id \rangle ::= [\langle arguments \rangle] \langle id-start \rangle (\langle arguments \rangle [a-z_] + )^* [[0-9]] [\langle arguments \rangle]
\langle arguments \rangle ::= '(' ['_{\sqcup}'] \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}unders \rangle ['_{\sqcup}']')'
```

```
\langle pre\text{-}func \rangle ::= \langle simple\text{-}id \rangle ':'
\langle pre\text{-}func\text{-}app \rangle ::= \langle pre\text{-}func \rangle \langle operand \rangle
\langle post\text{-}func \rangle ::= `.` ( \langle simple\text{-}id \rangle | \langle special\text{-}id \rangle )
⟨special-id⟩ ::= '1st' | '2nd' | '3rd' | '4th' | '5th'
\langle post\text{-}func\text{-}app \rangle ::= (\langle basic\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle paren\text{-}expr \rangle \mid '\_') (\langle dot\text{-}change \rangle \mid \langle post\text{-}func \rangle + [\langle dot\text{-}change \rangle \mid )
\langle \textit{dot-change} \rangle ::= \text{`.change}\{\text{'}[\text{`}_{\sqcup}\text{'}] \ \langle \textit{field-change} \rangle \ (\ \langle \textit{comma} \rangle \ \langle \textit{field-change} \rangle \ )* \ [\text{`}_{\sqcup}\text{'}] \ '\}'
\langle field\text{-}change \rangle ::= (\langle simple\text{-}id \rangle \mid \langle special\text{-}id \rangle) \langle equals \rangle \langle line\text{-}expr\text{-}or\text{-}under \rangle
\langle equals \rangle ::= [``_{\sqcup}`] `=`[`_{\sqcup}`]
\langle op\text{-}expr \rangle ::= \langle line\text{-}op\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr \rangle
\langle op\text{-}expr\text{-}start \rangle ::= (\langle operand \rangle \langle op \rangle) +
\langle line\text{-}op\text{-}expr\rangle ::= \langle op\text{-}expr\text{-}start\rangle \ (\langle operand\rangle \mid \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr\rangle \ )
\langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr\rangle ::= \langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr\text{-}op\text{-}split \rangle \mid \langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr\text{-}func\text{-}split \rangle
\langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr\text{-}op\text{-}split \rangle ::= \langle op\text{-}split\text{-}line \rangle + [\langle op\text{-}expr\text{-}start \rangle] (\langle operand \rangle | \langle func\text{-}expr \rangle)
\langle op\text{-}split\text{-}line \rangle ::= (\langle op\text{-}expr\text{-}start \rangle (\langle nl \rangle | \langle oper\text{-}fco \rangle) | \langle oper\text{-}fco \rangle) \langle indent \rangle
\langle oper-fco \rangle ::= \langle operand \rangle `\Box' \langle func-comp-op \rangle `\n'
\langle big\text{-}op\text{-}expr\text{-}func\text{-}split \rangle ::= \langle op\text{-}expr\text{-}start \rangle \ ( \langle big\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle \ | \langle cases\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle \ )
\langle operand \rangle ::= \langle basic-or-app-expr \rangle \mid \langle paren-expr \rangle \mid `\_`
\langle \mathit{op} \rangle ::= \text{`$\sqcup$'$} \langle \mathit{func\text{-}comp\text{-}op} \rangle \text{`$\sqcup$'$} | \text{[`$`$\sqcup$'$}] \langle \mathit{optional\text{-}spaces\text{-}op} \rangle \text{[`$`$\sqcup$'$}]
\langle func\text{-}comp\text{-}op \rangle ::= \text{`o>'} \mid \text{`<o'}
\langle optional\text{-}spaces\text{-}op\rangle ::= \text{`--'} | \text{`<-'} | \text{``*'} | \text{`*'} | \text{`+'} | \text{`-'} | \text{`=='} | \text{`!='} | \text{`>'} | \text{`<'} | \text{`>='} | \text{``='} | \text{``&'} | \text{``|'} | \text{`;'} | \text{`;'} | \text{`;'} | \text{``;'} | \text{``;'} | \text{``,'} | \text{`,'} | \text{``,'} | | \text{``,'} | \text{``,'} | | \text{``,'} | \text{``,'} | | \tau_{i,i_i_i
```

```
\langle func\text{-}expr \rangle ::= \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle big\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle cases\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle
\langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle ::= \langle parameters \rangle \ [` \Box' \ ] `=>' \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}body \rangle
\langle \mathit{big-func-expr} \rangle ::= \ \langle \mathit{parameters} \rangle \ [ \ `\sqcup' \ ] \ `=>' \ \langle \mathit{big-func-body} \rangle
\langle \mathit{parameters} \rangle ::= \langle \mathit{identifier} \rangle \mid `*' \mid `(' \ [ `_{\sqcup}' \ ] \ \langle \mathit{parameters} \rangle \ ( \ \langle \mathit{comma} \rangle \ \langle \mathit{parameters} \rangle \ ) + \ [ `_{\sqcup}' \ ] \ `)'
\langle line\text{-}func\text{-}body \rangle ::= [``_{\square}'] (\langle basic\text{-}or\text{-}app\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle line\text{-}op\text{-}expr \rangle \mid `(`[`_{\square}'] \mid \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle \mid `(')')')
\langle big\text{-}func\text{-}body \rangle ::= \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle (\langle basic\text{-}or\text{-}app\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle op\text{-}expr \rangle \mid '(' \mid ' \mid ' \mid \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}expr \rangle \mid ' \mid ')')
\langle cases-func-expr \rangle ::= \langle cases-params \rangle \langle case \rangle + [\langle end-case \rangle]
\langle cases-params \rangle ::= \langle identifier \rangle \mid `cases' \mid `*' \mid `(' \mid `_{\sqcup}') \mid \langle cases-params \rangle \mid \langle comma \rangle \mid \langle cases-params \rangle \mid + \mid `_{\sqcup}' \mid `)'
\langle case \rangle ::= \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \langle outer-matching \rangle [` \Box ']` =>' \langle case-body \rangle
\langle end\text{-}case \rangle ::= \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle (`...' | \langle identifier \rangle) [`_{\sqcup}'] `=>' \langle case\text{-}body \rangle
\langle outer\text{-}matching \rangle ::= \langle simple\text{-}id \rangle \mid \langle matching \rangle
\langle matching \rangle ::= \langle literal \rangle \mid \langle pre-func \rangle \langle inner-matching \rangle \mid \langle tuple-matching \rangle \mid \langle list-matching \rangle
\langle inner-matching \rangle ::= '*' \mid \langle identifier \rangle \mid \langle matching \rangle
\langle tuple\text{-}matching \rangle ::= '(' [ ' \sqcup ' ] \langle inner\text{-}matching \rangle ( \langle comma \rangle \langle inner\text{-}matching \rangle ) + [ ' \sqcup ' ] ')'
\langle list-matching \rangle ::= `[' [ `_{\sqcup}' ] [ \langle inner-matching \rangle ( \langle comma \rangle \langle inner-matching \rangle ) * [ \langle rest-list-matching \rangle ] ] [ `_{\sqcup}' ] `]'
\langle rest\text{-}list\text{-}matching \rangle ::= \langle comma \rangle [\langle simple\text{-}id \rangle \langle equals \rangle] \cdot \dots 
\langle case\text{-}body \rangle ::= \langle line\text{-}func\text{-}body \rangle \mid \langle big\text{-}func\text{-}body \rangle \mid \langle where\text{-}expr \rangle \mid
\langle value-def \rangle ::=
          \langle indent \rangle \langle identifier \rangle ( [``_{\sqcup}] ':' [``_{\sqcup}] | \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle `:_{\sqcup}' ) \langle type \rangle
         \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle '=_{\square} ' \langle value-expr \rangle [\langle where-expr \rangle]
\langle value-expr \rangle ::= \langle basic-or-app-expr \rangle \mid \langle op-expr \rangle \mid \langle func-expr \rangle \mid \langle big-tuple \rangle \mid \langle big-list \rangle
\langle grouped\text{-}value\text{-}defs \rangle ::=
          \langle indent \rangle \langle identifier \rangle (\langle comma \rangle \langle identifier \rangle) +
          ( [` \sqcup' ]` : ' [` \sqcup' ] | \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle : \sqcup' ) ( \langle type \rangle ( \langle comma \rangle \langle type \rangle ) + | `all_{\sqcup}' \langle type \rangle )
          \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle = ' \langle line-exprs \rangle (\langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \langle comma \rangle \langle line-exprs \rangle)^*
\langle line\text{-}exprs \rangle ::= \langle line\text{-}expr \rangle (\langle comma \rangle \langle line\text{-}expr \rangle)^*
```

```
\langle where\text{-}expr \rangle ::= \langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle \text{ `where' } \langle nl \rangle \langle value\text{-}def\text{-}or\text{-}defs \rangle \ (\langle nl \rangle \langle nl \rangle \langle value\text{-}def\text{-}or\text{-}defs \rangle)^*
\langle value\text{-}def\text{-}or\text{-}defs \rangle ::= \langle value\text{-}def \rangle \mid \langle grouped\text{-}value\text{-}defs \rangle
\langle type \rangle ::= [\langle condition \rangle] \langle simple-type \rangle
\langle \mathit{simple-type} \rangle ::= \langle \mathit{param-t-var} \rangle \mid \langle \mathit{type-app-id-or-ahtv} \rangle \mid \langle \mathit{power-type} \rangle \mid \langle \mathit{prod-type} \rangle \mid \langle \mathit{func-type} \rangle
\langle type - id \rangle ::= [A-Z] [A-Za-z]^*
\langle param-t-var \rangle ::= \text{`T'} [0-9]
\langle ad\text{-}hoc\text{-}t\text{-}var \rangle ::= \text{`@'} [A\text{-}Z]
\langle type-app-id-or-ahtv \rangle ::= [\langle types-in-paren \rangle] \langle taioa-middle \rangle [\langle types-in-paren \rangle]
\langle taioa\text{-}middle \rangle ::= \langle type\text{-}id \rangle \ (\ \langle types\text{-}in\text{-}paren \rangle \ [A-Za-z]+\ )^* \ | \ \langle ad\text{-}hoc\text{-}t\text{-}var \rangle
\langle \mathit{types-in-paren}\rangle ::= `(` [ ``_{\mathsf{L}}' ] \langle \mathit{simple-type}\rangle \ ( \ \langle \mathit{comma}\rangle \ \langle \mathit{simple-type}\rangle \ ) * [ ``_{\mathsf{L}}' ] \ `)'
\langle \mathit{prod-type} \rangle ::= \langle \mathit{field-type} \rangle \ ( \ `\sqcup \mathtt{x}_{\sqcup} , \ \langle \mathit{field-type} \rangle \ ) +
\langle field\text{-}type \rangle ::= \langle power\text{-}base\text{-}type \rangle \mid \langle power\text{-}type \rangle
\langle power\text{-}base\text{-}type \rangle ::= \langle param\text{-}t\text{-}var \rangle \mid \langle type\text{-}app\text{-}id\text{-}or\text{-}ahtv \rangle \mid \text{`('} ['\ '\ ']' (\langle prod\text{-}type \rangle \mid \langle func\text{-}type \rangle ) ['\ '\ ']' )'
\langle power-type \rangle ::= \langle power-base-type \rangle '^' \langle int-greater-than-one \rangle
\langle func\text{-}type \rangle ::= \langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type \rangle \text{`} \sqcup = > \sqcup \text{'} \langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type \rangle
\langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type \rangle ::= \langle param\text{-}t\text{-}var \rangle \mid \langle type\text{-}app\text{-}id\text{-}or\text{-}ahtv \rangle \mid \langle power\text{-}type \rangle \mid \langle prod\text{-}type \rangle \mid '(' ['_{\sqcup}'] \mid \langle func\text{-}type \rangle \mid '(' ['_{\sqcup}'] \mid \langle func\text{-}type \rangle \mid '(' \mid '_{\sqcup}') \mid ')' \mid \langle func\text{-}type \mid ('_{\sqcup}') \mid '(' \mid '_{\sqcup}') \mid ('_{\sqcup}') \mid '(' \mid '_{\sqcup}') \mid '(' \mid 
\langle condition \rangle ::= \langle prop\text{-}name \rangle ` \sqcup \neg \neg \neg \sqcup \urcorner
```

```
\langle type\text{-}def \rangle ::= \langle tuple\text{-}type\text{-}def \rangle \mid \langle or\text{-}type\text{-}def \rangle
\langle tuple-type-def \rangle ::=
          'tuple_type_{\sqcup}' \langle type\text{-}name \rangle \langle nl \rangle
          'value' ('\square' | \langle nl \rangle' '\square') \langle id-tuple\rangle ['\square'] ':' ['\square'] ( \langle prod-type\rangle | \langle power-type\rangle )
\langle type\text{-}name \rangle ::=
           [\langle param-vars-in-paren \rangle] \langle type-id \rangle (\langle param-vars-in-paren \rangle [A-Za-z]+)*[\langle param-vars-in-paren \rangle]
\langle \mathit{param-vars-in-paren} \rangle ::= `(` [ ``_{\mathsf{\square}} ' ] \langle \mathit{param-t-var} \rangle ( \langle \mathit{comma} \rangle \langle \mathit{param-t-var} \rangle ) * [ ``_{\mathsf{\square}} ' ] `)'
\langle id\text{-}tuple \rangle ::= '(' ['_{\square}'] \langle simple\text{-}id \rangle (\langle comma \rangle \langle simple\text{-}id \rangle) + ['_{\square}']')'
\langle or\text{-}type\text{-}def \rangle ::=
          "or\_type_{\sqcup}" \langle type-name \rangle \langle nl \rangle
          'values' ( '_{\sqcup}' | \langle nl \rangle '_{\sqcup \sqcup}' )
         \langle simple-id\rangle \ [\ `:' \ \langle simple-type \rangle \ ] \ (\ [\ `\sqcup' \ ] \ `I' \ [\ `\sqcup' \ ] \ \langle simple-id \rangle \ [\ `:' \ \langle simple-type \rangle \ ] \ )*
\langle t\text{-}nickname \rangle ::= \text{`type\_nickname}_{\square}, \langle type\text{-}name \rangle, \langle equals \rangle, \langle simple\text{-}type \rangle
\langle type\text{-}prop\text{-}def \rangle ::= \langle atom\text{-}prop\text{-}def \rangle \mid \langle renaming\text{-}prop\text{-}def \rangle
\langle atom\text{-}prop\text{-}def \rangle ::= \langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}line \rangle \langle nl \rangle \text{ `needed' ( ``_l' | } \langle nl \rangle ``_{\square\square'} ) \langle identifier \rangle [ ``_l' ] `:' [ ``_l' ] \langle simple\text{-}type \rangle
\langle renaming\text{-}prop\text{-}def \rangle ::=
          \langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}line\rangle\ \langle nl\rangle\ \text{`equivalent'}\ (\ \text{`}_{\sqcup}\text{'}\ |\ \langle nl\rangle\ \text{`}_{\sqcup\sqcup}\text{'}\ )\ \langle prop\text{-}name\rangle\ (\ \langle comma\rangle\ \langle prop\text{-}name\rangle\ )^*
\langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}line \rangle ::= \text{'type\_proposition}_{\sqcup}, \langle prop\text{-}name \rangle
\langle prop\text{-}name \rangle ::=
            [A-Z] ( \langle name-part \rangle \langle types-in-paren \rangle )+ [ <math>\langle name-part \rangle ]
           (\langle types\text{-}in\text{-}paren \rangle \langle name\text{-}part \rangle) + [\langle types\text{-}in\text{-}paren \rangle]
\langle name-part \rangle ::= ( [A-Za-z] | `\_'[A-Z] ) +
```

```
\langle type\text{-}theo \rangle ::= \text{`type\_theorem}_{\square}' \langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}with\text{-}subs \rangle \ [\text{`}_{\square}\text{--->}_{\square}' \langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}with\text{-}subs \rangle \ ] \langle nl \rangle \text{`proof'} \langle proof \rangle
\langle prop\text{-}name\text{-}with\text{-}subs \rangle ::=
                                  [A-Z] (\langle name-part \rangle \langle subs-in-paren \rangle) + [\langle name-part \rangle]
                                  (\langle subs-in-paren \rangle \langle name-part \rangle) + [\langle subs-in-paren \rangle]
\langle \mathit{subs-in-paren}\rangle ::= `(' \ [ ` \ \lrcorner ' \ ] \ \langle \mathit{t-var-sub}\rangle \ ( \ \langle \mathit{comma}\rangle \ \langle \mathit{t-var-sub}\rangle \ )^* \ [ ` \ \lrcorner ' \ ] \ `)'
\langle t\text{-}var\text{-}sub \rangle ::= \langle param\text{-}t\text{-}var \rangle \mid \langle type\text{-}app\text{-}id\text{-}or\text{-}ahtv\text{-}sub} \rangle \mid \langle param\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle \mid \langle para
\langle type-app-id-or-ahtv-sub \rangle ::= [\langle subs-or-unders-in-paren \rangle] \langle taioas-middle \rangle [\langle subs-or-unders-in-paren \rangle]
\langle taioas-middle \rangle ::= \langle type-id \rangle \ (\langle subs-or-unders-in-paren \rangle \ [A-Za-z]+)^* \ | \langle ad-hoc-t-var \rangle
\langle subs-or-unders-in-paren \rangle ::= '(' [ ' _ ' ] \langle sub-or-under \rangle ( \langle comma \rangle \langle sub-or-under \rangle ) * [ ' _ ' ] ')'
\langle sub\text{-}or\text{-}under \rangle ::= \langle t\text{-}var\text{-}sub \rangle \mid `\_`
\langle power-type-sub \rangle ::= \langle power-base-type-sub \rangle '\(^\cappa' \langle int-greater-than-one \rangle
\langle power-base-type-sub \rangle ::=
                             `\_' \mid \langle param-t-var \rangle \mid \langle type-app-id-or-ahtv-sub \rangle \mid `(' [ `_{\sqcup}' ] ( \langle prod-type-sub \rangle \mid \langle func-type-sub \rangle ) [ `_{\sqcup}' ] `)'
\langle prod\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle ::= \langle field\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle \ (`` \square x \square' \langle field\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle \ ) +
\langle field\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle ::= \langle power\text{-}base\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle \mid \langle power\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle
\langle func\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle ::= \langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle `\Box = >\Box' \langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle
\langle in\text{-}or\text{-}out\text{-}type\text{-}sub \rangle ::=
                             \begin{tabular}{ll} `\_' & | \langle param-t-var \rangle & | \langle type-app-id-or-ahtv-sub \rangle & | \langle power-type-sub \rangle & | \langle prod-type-sub \rangle & | \langle (' & | ` ') & | \langle func-type-sub \rangle & | (' & | ') & | \rangle & 
\langle proof \rangle ::= `\Box' \langle id\text{-}or\text{-}op\text{-}eq \rangle `\Box' \langle line\text{-}expr \rangle \mid \langle nl \rangle `\Box\Box' \langle id\text{-}or\text{-}op\text{-}eq \rangle \langle tt\text{-}value\text{-}expr \rangle
\langle id\text{-}or\text{-}op\text{-}eq \rangle ::= \langle identifier \rangle [\langle op \rangle \langle identifier \rangle] ` \sqcup = `
\langle tt\text{-}value\text{-}expr\rangle ::= '\Box' \langle line\text{-}expr\rangle \mid \langle nl\rangle \langle indent\rangle \langle value\text{-}expr\rangle \mid \langle where\text{-}expr\rangle \mid
\langle program \rangle ::= \langle nl \rangle^* \langle program-part \rangle (\langle nl \rangle \langle nl \rangle \langle program-part \rangle)^* \langle nl \rangle^*
\langle program-part \rangle ::= \langle value-def \rangle \mid \langle grouped-value-defs \rangle \mid \langle type-def \rangle \mid \langle t-nickname \rangle \mid \langle type-prop-def \rangle \mid \langle type-theo \rangle
\langle nl \rangle :: ( `_{\sqcup}' | `\setminus t' ) * `\setminus n'
```

6.1.2 Indentation system

The < indent > nonterminal in not a normal BNF nonterminal. It is a context sensitive construct that enforces the indentation rules of leases. It depends on a integer value called the "indentation level" (il). The < indent > nonterminal corresponds to 2*il space characters. The indentation level follows the rules below:

Indentation Rules

- 1. At the beginning: il = 0
- 2. In a single value definition:
 - (a) At the end of the first line: $il \leftarrow il + 1$
 - (b) At the end of the "=" line: $il \leftarrow il + 1$
 - (c) At the end: $il \leftarrow il 2$
- 3. In a group of value definitions:
 - (a) At the end of the first line: $il \leftarrow il + 1$
 - (b) At the end: $il \leftarrow il 1$
- 4. In a case (of a cases function expression):
 - (a) After the arrow ("=>") line: $il \leftarrow il + 1$.
 - (b) At the end: $il \leftarrow il 1$.
- 5. In a type theorem:
 - (a) After "=" line: $il \leftarrow il + 2$.
 - (b) At the end: $il \leftarrow il 2$.
- 6. In a cases function expression which does not begin at the "=" line of a value definition:
 - (a) After the paremeters line: $il \leftarrow il + 1$.
 - (b) At the end of the cases function expression: $il \leftarrow il 1$.

6.2 High level structure

6.2.1 Parsec library

The parser was implemented using the **parsec** library [1]. Parsec is an industrial strength, monadic parser combinator library for Haskell. It can parse context-sensitive, infinite look-ahead grammars. It achieves this with a polymorphic parser type with the following parameter types:

- stream type: The input type to the parser.
- user state type: Type of custom state added by the parser developer.
- underlying monad type: A custom monad type in case it is needed.
- return type: This is the type of the value that is built by the parser.

The library has a lot of very nice parsers and parser combinators. The package description in hackage is in the following url: https://hackage.haskell.org/package/parsec

In this parser

- stream type: In this parser this is String.
- state type:

 In this parser this is ParserState. It is defined in the parser. A paragraph explaining what it is follows.
- underlying monad:
 In this parser this is not used interestingly (Identity is the underlying monad).
- return type:

 This is the type of the value that is built during parsing. Every AST type is the return type of the correspoding (sub)parser.

State type of the parser: ParserState

Here's the actual code for it:

```
type IndentationLevel = Int
type InEqualLine = Bool
type ParserState = (IndentationLevel, InEqualLine)
```

We need this state to enforce the indentation rules (of 6.1.2).

6.2.2 File structure

The parser code is split into the following files:

- ASTTypes.hs: Definitions of abstract syntax tree types
- ShowInstances.hs: String respresentations for each AST type
- Parsers.hs: Parsers for each AST type
- Testing.hs: Runs the parsers on the examples and prints the result

All of the above are written using the full grammar. The types correspond to non-terminal symbols. The parsers try to parse a string into the correspoding AST type. If the string is valid every terminal symbol is discarded unless it's part of a literal or an identifier.

6.3 Parser Examples

In this section we show how the types and the parsers are derived from the grammar with some examples. We begin with a grammar rule and we create the AST type and the parser that parses it.

6.3.1 Parser Class and Example 0: Literal

We have the Parser type which is polymorphic in the return type with a stream type of String and a state type of ParserState:

```
type Parser = Parsec String ParserState
```

We create the polymorphic value "parser" with the "HasParser" class so that all the parsers have the name "parser" irrespective of the particular type they are parsing:

```
class HasParser a where
  parser :: Parser a
```

We begin with the very simple example of the literal with the following grammar rule:

```
\langle literal \rangle ::= \langle int\text{-}lit \rangle \mid \langle real\text{-}lit \rangle \mid \langle char\text{-}lit \rangle \mid \langle string\text{-}lit \rangle
```

The AST type for the literal is:

```
data Literal =
   Int Int | R Double | Ch Char | S String
```

And here is the parser for the literal which is defined as an instance of the HasParser class. Inside we use the parsers for each particular literal which are defined seperately:

```
instance HasParser Literal where
  parser =
   R <$> try parser <|> Int <$> parser <|> Ch <$> parser <|> S <$> parser <?>
   "Literal"
```

The Parser type is a Functor so the "<\$>" (fmap) operator passes each constructor inside the particular parser and the "<|>" operator means "this parser or that parser". Finally, the "<?>" operator means "if all the parsers fail show this in the error message".

6.3.2 Example 1: List

```
The grammar rule for the list is the following:
\(\langle list \rangle ::= '[' ['_\']' ] \left[ \langle line-expr-or-unders \rangle ] ['_\']']'\)

The AST type for the list is:

newtype List = L (Maybe LineExprOrUnders)

And the parser for the list is:

instance HasParser List where

parser =

L <$> (char '[' *> opt_space_around (optionMaybe parser) <* char ']')
```

Here we use the "*>" and "<*" operators which parse both of the parsers that they have as operands (from left to right) but only keep the result of the parser that the "point" to. "opt_space_around" parses one space optionally on each side of the text parsed by the argument parser and returns what was parsed by the argument parser. "optionMaybe" is defined in the library and it optionally parses what its argument parser parses. If the argument parser succeeds at parsing the it returns a Just <whatever was parsed>, whereas if it fails it returns Nothing.

6.3.3 Example 2: Change

```
The grammar rule for the "change" expression is the following:

\( \langle \text{dot-change} \rangle ::= '.change \text{change} \text{ ['u'] \langle field-change} \rangle (\langle comma \rangle \text{field-change} \rangle )* ['u'] '\text{}'
\)

The AST type for the "change" expression is:

newtype DotChange = DC (FieldChange, [FieldChange])

And the parser for the "change" expression is:

instance HasParser DotChange where

parser =

DC <\text{$>}

(try (string ".change \text{"}) *> opt_space_around field_changes_p <* char '\text{}')

where

field_changes_p :: Parser (FieldChange, [FieldChange])

field_changes_p = field_change_p +++ many (comma *> field_change_p)
```

Here we use the "+++" operator which is defined in the parser. It takes two parsers as operands and creates a parser that uses them sequentially and puts the two results in a tuple. "field_change_p" parses a single field change. "many" is defined in the library, it parses with the argument parser as many times as possible and puts the results in a list (the Kleene star of the parser world). Lastly, we also use the "try" parser combinator (defined in the library) which is used to avoid comsuming any input if the parser fails. For example if the input was ".change ...", the parser would fail because we have a space instead of an opening bracket. Without the "try" combinator it would consume the ".change" part and leave only " ..." after failing. This would result in the PostFuncAppEnd alternative parser below failing as well (the parser after "DC1 <\$>" is the Change parser). Whereas with the "try" combinator we avoid this problem and the parser after "PFsMDC <\$>" successfully parses ".change" as an alternative postfunc (get the "change" field of a tuple type value).

```
instance HasParser PostFuncAppEnd where
parser = DC1 <$> parser <|> PFsMDC <$> many1 parser +++ optionMaybe parser
```

6.3.4 Example 3: Value Definition

```
The grammar rule for the value definition is the following:
```

The AST type for the value definition is:

```
newtype ValueDef = VD (Identifier, Type, ValueExpr, Maybe WhereExpr)
```

And the parser for the value definition is:

```
instance HasParser ValueDef where
parser =
   indent *> parser >>= \identifier ->
   increase_il_by 1 >>
   has_type_symbol *> parser >>= \type_ ->
   nl_indent *> string "= " *>
   increase_il_by 1 >> we_are_in_equal_line >>
   parser >>= \value_expr ->
   we_are_not_in_equal_line >>
   optionMaybe (try parser) >>= \maybe_where_expr ->
   decrease_il_by 2 >>
   return (VD (identifier, type_, value_expr, maybe_where_expr))
```

In this example we see how the state of the parser is used to enforce the indentation rules. The "indent" parser parses <2 * the indentation level> spaces, getting the indentation level from the state (see Indentation System 6.1.2). "increase_il_by" and "decrease_il_by" have a Parser type but they don't actually parse anything, they are "parsers" that only update the indentation level (but can also be combined with other parsers). They are used as described in rule 2 of the Indentation System (6.1.2). "has_type_symbol" parses the following part of the grammar rule: ([' ']':'[' '] — $\langle nl \rangle \langle indent \rangle$ ': '). "we_are_in_equal_line" and "we_are_not_in_equal_line" change the state to enforce rule 6 of the Indentation System.

7 Translation to Haskell

7.1 High Level Overview

To avoid rewriting the whole Haskell type system, leases is translated directly to Haskell without any semantic analysis, except for the bare minimum that is required for the translation. The high level phases for the translation are the following:

• Collect

In this phase we traverse the AST and following are collected:

- All the "naked case" identifiers of all the or_types in the program, where a naked case is a case which does not contain an internal value (e.g. no_value as opposed to the_value:_).
- All the field identifiers of the all the tuple_types in the program.
- All the renaming type proposotions.

The above are used in the preprocess phase.

• Preprocess

In this phase the AST generated by the parser is traversed and tweaked according to the following rules:

- If an identifier of a naked case is found in a value expression, add a 'C' (for constructor) in the front. This is going to be needed because or_type cases are translated to data constructors in Haskell. Data constructors need to start with an upper case letter whereas or_type cases don't (this is not needed for the or_type cases with internal values because we can identify them on the spot from the colon and handle them appropriately in the translate phase).
- If a field identifier is found in a value expression which is a subexpression of a ".change" expression than the identifier is converted to a postfix function with the same argument as the ".change". For example, if the AST has a part representing the expression below, it is going be converted as follows: x.change{f1 = f1 + 1} ⇒ x.change{f1 = x.f1 + 1}

```
The same applies to special identifiers:

x.change\{1st = 1st + 1\} \implies x.change\{1st = x.1st + 1\}
```

— If a renaming type proposition appears in the theorem of an implication before the arrow, it is substituted with the conjuction defined in its definition. All the subtitutions for its ad hoc type variables are also propagated to all of the propositions in the conjuction. For example if the following appear in the program:

```
type_proposition (@A)And(@B)Have_Eq_And_Gr
equivalent (@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal, (@A)Can_Be_Greater_Than(@B)

type_theorem (@C)And(@D)Have_Eq_And_Gr --> (@C)Can_Be_Gr_Or_Eq_To(@D)
proof a >= b = a == b | a > b

the theorem becomes:

# this is a representation of the AST after preprocessing not lcases syntax
type_theorem
  [(@C)And(@D)Can_Be_Equal, (@C)Can_Be_Greater_Than(@D)] --> (@C)Can_Be_Gr_Or_Eq_To(@D)
proof a >= b = a == b | a > b

in the preprocessed AST.
```

• Translate

In this phase the preprocessed AST is directly translated to Haskell. The details of how this is done are described in the following section.

7.2 Translation Phase

For the translation phase every type of the AST has its implementation of one of the following 3 polymorphic functions:

• to_haskell:

This function is for the AST types that need no state and can be directly translated to Haskell.

• to_hs_wpn: (to haskell with parameter number)

This function is for the AST types that implicitly introduce extra parameters when translated to Haskell and therefore need a state to keep track of how many parameters have been introduced.

• to_hs_wil: (to haskell with indentation level)

This function is for the AST types that need indentation level information to be correctly indented when translated to Haskell. Therefore, a state to keep track of the indetation level is needed.

Here are the corresponding classes that define the above functions:

• type Haskell = String

```
class ToHaskell a where
  to_haskell :: a -> Haskell
```

• type WithParamNum = State Int

```
class ToHsWithParamNum a where
  to_hs_wpn :: a -> WithParamNum Haskell
```

• type WithIndentLvl = State Int

```
class ToHsWithIndentLvl a where
  to_hs_wil :: a -> WithIndentLvl Haskell
```

In the following sections we dive into more detail for particular types.

7.3 Translation Phase: Basic Expressions

7.3.1 Literals and Identifiers

• Literals

Literals are kept the same as they were parsed except for number literals. Number literals have explicit type annotations (when they are not a case of a "cases" function expression), so that they have type Int or Float and not Num a => a or Fractional p => p for the Haskell compiler.

• Identifiers

- Examples

```
x1 \Longrightarrow x1
apply(\_)to\_all\_in(\_) \Longrightarrow apply'to\_all\_in'
(\_)to\_string \Longrightarrow a'to\_string
f(\_, \_, \_) \Longrightarrow f'''
```

- Description

For identifiers all underscores in parenthesis are replaced by an equal amount of single quotes. If there is a parenthesis in the beginning of the identifier, the letter 'a' is prepended to make it a valid Haskell identifier.

7.3.2 Parenthesis, Tuples and Lists

• Parenthesis

The internal expression is put in parenthesis.

• Tuples

- Examples

```
(x, y) \Longrightarrow ft2(x, y)

(\_, 3.14, \_) \Longrightarrow (\pA0, pA1) \rightarrow ft3(pA0, 3.14, pA1))

(\_, \_, "Hello from 3rd field") \Longrightarrow (\pA0, pA1) \rightarrow ft3(pA0, pA1, "Hello from 3rd field"))
```

- Description

$\operatorname{ft} n$ function

Every tuple is passed through the $\mathbf{ft}n$ function where n is the size of the tuple. This is a polymorphic function defined by the following class (for n = 2 and with similar classes for 3, 4 and 5):

```
class FromTuple2 a b c | c -> a b where
  ft2 :: (a, b) -> c
```

This is because the same tuple may be of a product type or of a tuple_type depending on where it appears on the program. For product types we have the following instance:

```
instance FromTuple2 a b (a, b) where
ft2 = id
```

And there is also a new instance automatically generated for every tuple_type definition. For example, for the following definition:

```
tuple_type Name
value (first_name, last_name) : String^2
```

Along with the definition itself which is described in section 7.7.2 there will be the following instance:

```
instance FromTuple2 String String Name where ft2 = (x1, x2) \rightarrow Name' x1 x2
```

With this mechanism the program will type check correctly on both cases.

Parameters for the underscores

If any of the fields of the tuples contain underscores, we generate a new parameter name in place every underscore ("pA<n - 1>" for the n-th underscore) and at the end we prepend the parameters to make it a function expression. "pA" stands for parameter and the A is uppercase to avoid collisions with regular identifiers.

Big Tuples

For big tuples, the original lines are kept and split in the same way. The ftn function and the implicitly introduced parameters have their own separate lines at the top as shown in the following example:

```
( "Hey, I'm the first field and I'm also a pretty big string."
, "Hey, I'm the second field and I'm a smaller string."
, -
)

Becomes:
\pAO ->
ft3
( "Hey, I'm the first field and I'm also a pretty big string."
, "Hey, I'm the second field and I'm a smaller string"
, pAO
)
```

All of these lines are also indented to the same column according to the indentation level.

• Lists

- Examples

```
[1.61, 2.71, 3.14] \Longrightarrow [1.61, 2.71, 3.14] [_, x, _] \Longrightarrow (\( (pAO, pA1) -> [pAO, x, pA1])
```

- Description

Lists work the same way as tuples except for the fact that they don't need the ftn function.

7.3.3 Parenthesis Function Application

• Examples

```
\begin{array}{l} f(x, y, z) \Longrightarrow f'''(x, y, z) \\ f(x, \_, \_) \Longrightarrow (\pA0, pA1) \rightarrow f'''(x, pA0, pA1)) \\ (x)to\_str \Longrightarrow a'to\_str(x) \\ apply(f)to\_all\_in(\_) \Longrightarrow (\pA0 \rightarrow apply'to\_all\_in'(f, pA0)) \end{array}
```

• Description

For the parenthesis function application, we separate the underlying function identifier by putting quotes in the place of the arguments (and prepending an 'a' if needed) and we also collect the arguments in a tuple. From there, we can apply the function to the argument tuple. If any argument is an underscore, it implicitly introduces a parameter and it is treated similarly to how it is treated in tuples (section 7.3.2).

7.3.4 Prefix and Postfix Functions

• Prefix functions

- Examples

```
the_value:42 \Longrightarrow Cthe_value((42 :: Int))
error:"this is an error message" \Longrightarrow Cerror("this is an error message")
the_value:_ \Longrightarrow (\pA0 -> Cthe_value(pA0))
the_value:result:true \Longrightarrow Cthe_value(Cresult(True))
```

- Description

Prefix functions are data constructors in Haskell which are introduced by the translation of the relevant or_type definition. They are prepended with an upper case 'C' to be valid data constructors and their argument is placed in parenthesis. The argument can be an underscore, in which case a new parameter name is put in its place, the appropriate lambda abstraction is prepended and the whole expression is put in parenthesis to limit the scope of the abstraction.

• Postfix functions

- Examples

```
date.year => year(date)
tuple.1st => p1st(tuple)
info.date.year => year(date(info))
tuple.1st.2nd => p2nd(p1st(tuple))
```

- Description

Postfix functions are projection functions that are generated automatically by the translation of the relevant tuple_type defintion or they are the projection functions for product types (_.1st _.2nd etc). They are translated into regular Haskell functions (like the record accessor functions of Haskell are) with their argument in parenthesis. For _.1st _.2nd etc a 'p' for "projection" is prepended to make it a valid Haskell function.

The projection functions for product types are polymorphic and work on tuples of any size (in principle, for size ≤ 5 for now). This is achieved by making them polymorphic through the following class (for p1st and similar classes for the rest):

```
class IsFirst' a b | b -> a where
  p1st :: b -> a
And the following instances:
instance IsFirst' a (a, b) where
  p1st = fst
instance IsFirst' a (a, b, c) where
  p1st = \(a, _, _) -> a
instance IsFirst' a (a, b, c, d) where
  p1st = \(a, _, _, _) -> a
```

• The ".change" Function

- Examples

```
 \begin{array}{l} \text{state.change}\{\text{counter = counter + 1}\} \\ \xrightarrow{\text{preprocessing}} \text{ state.change}\{\text{counter = state.counter + 1}\} \\ \Longrightarrow \text{cOcounter}(\text{counter}(\text{state}) \text{ !+ (1 :: Int)) state} \\ \\ \text{tuple.change}\{\text{1st = 1.61, 3rd = 3.14}\} \Longrightarrow (\text{c1st(1.61) .> c3rd(3.14)) tuple} \\ \\ \text{tuple.change}\{\text{x = \_, y = \_}\} \Longrightarrow (\backslash (\text{pAO, pA1}) \text{ -> (c0x(pAO) .> c0y(pA1)) tuple}) \\ \\ \end{array}
```

- Description

For the ".change" function, similarly to the projection functions, a change function (in Haskell) is introduced for every field of every tuple_type. This function is the name of the field prepended by "c0" where the 'c' stands for "change" and the '0' is there so that there can be no collisions with other identifiers (numbers can only be at the end for leases identifiers). For the product type fields, the change functions are "c1st", "c2nd", etc. The type of every change function has the form:

FieldType -> TupleOrProdType -> TupleOrProdType

For every assignment inside the braces we use the change function of the assigned field with the expression of the assignment as the FieldType argument. By doing this we have all the functions of type:

```
TupleOrProdType -> TupleOrProdType
```

we need to make the changes. We compose them all with the ".>" operator, which is a predefined operator for function composition from left to right (although the regular "." should also do). Now we have one function of type:

TupleOrProdType -> TupleOrProdType

that does all the changes. We apply it on the argument of the ".change" function and we are done.

The change functions for product types work on tuples of any size (in principle, for size ≤ 5 for now). This works with appropriate type classes and instances, similarly to the way the p1st, p2nd, etc functions work. Unfortunately, because of this fact the regular braces notation of Haskell for the same purpose cannot work, since p1st, p2nd, etc are polymorphic functions and not "record selectors".

If an a variable is assigned to an underscore, new parameters are introduced similarly to the way they are introduced to tuples.

7.4 Translation Phase: Operators

7.4.1 Operators

For each one of the lcases operators, a new Haskell operator is defined, for it to be translated to. This allows for the use of the precedence and associativity mechanism for new user defined operators in Haskell instead of having to implement them from scratch in the parser, while also avoiding a lot of extra parentheses that the latter approach would need. Function application and function composition operators are defined as shown below. Every other operator is defined by a type class that matches the type described in table 1. The implementation of the operator for every combination of types is defined by an appropriate instance. The examples for the addition operator in the next page show the general structure.

lcases operator	Haskell operator
->	&>
<-	<&
0>	.>
<0	<.
^	!^
*	!*
/	!/
+	!+
-	!-
==	!==
!=	!!=
>	!>
<	!<
>=	!>=
<=	!<=
&	! &
I	!
;>	!>>=
;	!>>

Precedence and associativity using Haskell:

```
infix1 9 &>
infixr 8 <&
infix1 7 .>, <.
infixr 6 !^
infix1 5 !*, !/
infix1 4 !+, !-
infix 3 !==, !!=, !>, !<, !>=, !<=
infixr 2 !&
infixr 1 !|
infixr 0 !>>=, !>>
```

Function application/composition operators

```
# Type class for addition:
class A1And1Add_To1 a b c where
   (!+) :: a -> b -> c

# Some of the instances

# Adding 2 lists:
instance b ~ [a] => A1And1Add_To1 [a] [a] b where
   (!+) = (++)

# Adding any type 'a' with a list of 'a' s
instance b ~ [a] => A1And1Add_To1 a [a] b where
   (!+) = (:)

# Adding a String to a type 'a' with a Show instance without needing to call show instance (Show a, b ~ String) => A1And1Add_To1 String a b where
   str !+ x = str ++ show x
```

7.4.2 Operator Expressions

• Examples

```
5 * 'a' ⇒ (5 :: Int) !* 'a'
"Hello " + "World!" ⇒ "Hello " !+ "World!"
_ - 1 ⇒ (\pAO -> pAO !- (1 :: Int))
_ + "string in the middle of the arguments" + _
⇒ (\(pAO, pA1) -> pAO !+ "string in the middle of the arguments" !+ pA1)
```

\bullet Description

In operator expressions, the operands are translated according to what operands they are (described in their respective section) and the operators are substituted by their respective Haskell operators. If an operand is an underscore than a new lambda abstraction is introduced, similarly to how this is done for tuples in 7.3.2.

For big operator expression that span multiple lines, the lines are split the same way they are split in the source file and they are indented all the same according to the indentation level. If new lambda abstractrions are introduced, they are all placed in a new line on the top, also indented the same. Again, all of the above are done similarly to how they are done for tuples in 7.3.2.

7.5 Translation Phase: Function Expressions

7.5.1 Regular Function Expressions

• Examples

```
x \Rightarrow 17 * x + 42 \Longrightarrow \x \rightarrow (17 :: Int) !* x !+ (42 :: Int)
* \Rightarrow 42 \Longrightarrow \_ \rightarrow (42 :: Int)
(x, *, z) \Rightarrow x + z \Longrightarrow \(x, \_, z) \rightarrow x !+ z
((x1, y1), (x2, y2)) \Rightarrow (x1 + x2, y1 + y2)
\Longrightarrow \((x1, y1), (x2, y2)) \rightarrow ft2(x1 !+ x2, y1 !+ y2)
```

• Description

The following are done to translate the parameters:

- A '\' character is prepended
- The "=>" arrow is replaced by the "->" arrow
- A '*' parameter becomes a '_' parameter

The body of the function is translated according to expression it is.

It is possible that the function expression is accompanied by a "where" expression below it. As shown in the example below:

```
gac => print_line(message)
where
message: String
= "Gcd: " + gac.gcd + "\nCoefficients: a = " + gac.a + ", b = " + gac.b
```

In that case, the "where" expression becomes a "let-in" expression as described in section 7.6. This "let-in" expression is placed between the parameters and the body of the function, to make the parameters "visible" to the expressions in the "let-in" expression as shown below:

```
\gac ->
let
message :: String
message =
   "Gcd: " !+ gcd(gac) !+ "\nCoefficients: a = " !+ a(gac) !+ ", b = " !+ b(gac)
in
print_line'(message)
```

where the "gac" parameter is "visible" to the expression of "message".

7.5.2 "cases" Function Expressions

• Examples

```
(cases, cases)
  (green, green) => true
  (amber, amber) => true
  (red, red) => true
  ... => false
\(pA0, pA1) ->
case (pAO, pA1) of
  (green, green) -> True
  (amber, amber) -> True
  (red, red) -> True
  _ -> False
cases
  [x1, x2, xs = ...] =>
    (x1 < x2) & (x2 + xs)is\_sorted
  ... => true
\pA0 ->
case pAO of
 x1 : x2 : xs ->
    (x1 !< x2) !& a'is_sorted(x2 !+ xs)
```

• Description

The parameters are translated similarly to how they are translated in regular function expressions, with the one difference being that all parameters that contain the word "cases" are translated to newly generated parameters. Every such parameter is then collected in a tuple that is pattern matched on by creating a new line of the form "case <tuple of new parameters> of". For the last case, if we have "..." then it is translated to "_". When matching on the first few elements of a list the translations is done as follows:

_ -> True

```
[x1, x2, ...] => <case body> \Longrightarrow x1 : x2 : _ -> <case body translation> [x1, x2, xs = ...] => <case body> \Longrightarrow x1 : x2 : xs -> <case body translation>
```

where the square brackets are removed and the commas become colons. If the rest of the list has a name that it is the only thing that is kept after the last colon and if it doesn't an undersore placed instead.

7.6 Translation Phase: Value Definitions and "where" Expressions

 \bullet Examples foo: Int = 42 foo :: Int foo = (42 :: Int) dfs_on_tree(_) : (T1)Tree => (Int x T1)Tree = dfs_on_tree(_)with_num(1) o> _.tree where dfs_on_tree(_)with_num(_) : (T1)Tree x Int => (T1)ResultTreeAndNum = <irrelevant stuff> <irrelevant stuff> dfs_on_tree' :: forall a1. A'Tree a1 -> A'Tree (Int, a1) dfs_on_tree' = let dfs_on_tree'with_num' :: (A'Tree a1, Int) -> A'ResultTreeAndNum a1 dfs_on_tree'with_num' = <irrelevant stuff> <irrelevant stuff> $(\pAO \rightarrow dfs_on_tree'with_num'(pAO, (1 :: Int))) .> (\x' \rightarrow tree(x'))$ val1, val2, val3 : Int, Bool, Char = 42, true, 'a' val1 :: Int val1 = (42 :: Int) val2 :: Bool val2 = True val3 :: Char

val3 = 'a'

Description

The following are done to translate value definitions:

- The "has type" symbol is translated by doubling the colon
- The identifier is reused before the equal sign
- If the value definition is on indentaion level 0 the following steps are taken:
 - * Collect all the parametric type variables of the type
 - * Prepend the following to the translation of the type:

```
"forall " <translation of the parametric type variables seperated by spaces> '.'
```

This allows the use of the same type variable in the types inside the "where" expression if there is one. This is demonstrated in the 2nd example where T1 (before translation or a1 after) is used also in the type annotation of as dfs_on_tree(_)with_num(_). By default the "a1"s do not refer to the same type even if they have the same name. The compiler extension ScopedTypeVariables is also needed for this to work.

- If the value expression is followed by a "where" expresssion, the "where" expression is translated to a "let-in" expression that is placed above the translation of the value expression (2nd example). The one exception to this rules happens when the value expression is a regular function expression where the "let-in" expression is placed between the parameters and the body (last example).

7.7 Translation Phase: Types

7.7.1 Type Expressions

Type Identifiers

• Examples

 $\mathtt{Int}\Longrightarrow\mathtt{Int}$

 $\mathtt{String} \Longrightarrow \mathtt{String}$

 ${\tt SelfReferencingType} \Longrightarrow {\tt SelfReferencingType}$

 $\bullet \ \ Description$

Type ids remaing the same.

Type Variables

- Parametric Type Variables
 - $\ Examples$

 $T1 \Longrightarrow a1$

 $T2 \Longrightarrow a2$

 ${\tt T3} \Longrightarrow {\tt a3}$

 $-\ Description$

The 'T' becomes an 'a'.

- Ad Hoc Type Variables
 - $\ Examples$

 $\mathtt{@A} \Longrightarrow \mathtt{bO}$

 $\texttt{@B} \Longrightarrow \texttt{b1}$

 $\texttt{@C} \Longrightarrow \texttt{b2}$

 $- \ Description$

The '@' becomes a 'b' and the capital letters map like so: $A \Longrightarrow 0, B \Longrightarrow 1,$ etc

Type Application Types

• Examples

```
ListOf(Int)s \Longrightarrow ListOf's Int

Error(String)OrResult(Int) \Longrightarrow Error'OrResult' String Int

(Int)Tree \Longrightarrow A'Tree Int

ListOf(Int \Longrightarrow Int)s \Longrightarrow ListOf's (Int \Longrightarrow Int)

Before(B,C)After \Longrightarrow Before''After B C

A(B(C)) \Longrightarrow A' (B' C)
```

• Description

For type application types, the type id for Haskell is extracted by replacing every parenthesis with as many single quotes as the number of type arguments it has. If the parenthesis is in the beginning, an 'A' (for argument) is prepended to make it a valid Haskell identifier. The type arguments of all the parentheses are collected, translated, parenthesized if needed and appended to the type id seperated by spaces.

Product Types

• Examples

```
Int x Real x String \Longrightarrow (Int, Real, String)

Int^2 x Int^2 \Longrightarrow ((Int, Int), (Int, Int))

(A^2 => A) x A x ListOf(A)s \Longrightarrow ((A, A) -> A, A, ListOf's A)
```

ullet Description

For the product types, all the field types and translated, seperated by commas and put in parenthesis.

Function Types

• Examples

```
T1 => T1 \Longrightarrow a1 -> a1

Int^2 => Int \Longrightarrow (Int, Int) -> Int

(A^2 => A) x A x List0f(A)s => A \Longrightarrow ((A, A) -> A, A, List0f's A) -> A
```

 \bullet Description

For the function types, the input and ouput types are translated and the arrow between them changes from "=>" to "->".

Conditional Types

• Examples

\bullet Description

For conditional types, the condition is translated the similarly to how type application types are translated, with quotes replacing the parentheses and the type variables appended to the condition name and seperated by spaces. The simple type is translated according to what type it is and the arrow between the condition and the simple type changes from "-->" to "=>".

7.7.2 Type Definitions

Tuple Types

• Examples

```
tuple_type Date
value (day, month, year) : Int^3

above

data Date =
   Date' { day :: Int, month :: Int, year :: Int }

instance FromTuple3 Int Int Int Date where
   ft3 = \(x1, x2, x3\) -> Date' x1 x2 x3

coday :: Int -> Date -> Date
   comonth :: Int -> Date -> Date
   coyear :: Int -> Date -> Date
   coday = \new x -> x { day = new }
   comonth = \new x -> x { month = new }

coyear = \new x -> x { year = new }
```

```
tuple_type Edge
value (u, v) : Node^2

data Edge =
   Edge' { u :: Node, v :: Node }

instance FromTuple2 Node Node Edge where
   ft2 = \(x1, x2) -> Edge' x1 x2

cou :: Node -> Edge -> Edge
cov :: Node -> Edge -> Edge
cou = \new x -> x { u = new }
cov = \new x -> x { v = new }
```

```
tuple_type (T1)Tree
value (root, subtrees) : T1 x (T1)Trees

at a A'Tree a1 =
    A'Tree' { root :: a1, subtrees :: A'Trees a1 }

instance FromTuple2 a1 (A'Trees a1) (A'Tree a1) where
    ft2 = \(x1, x2\) -> A'Tree' x1 x2

c0root :: a1 -> A'Tree a1 -> A'Tree a1
c0subtrees :: A'Trees a1 -> A'Tree a1 -> A'Tree a1
c0root = \new x -> x { root = new }
c0subtrees = \new x -> x { subtrees = new }
```

• Description

For tuple types the translation has the following steps:

- 1. "tuple_type" ⇒ "data"
- 2. From the type name the Haskell type id is extracted by replacing the parametric type variables in the parenthesis with single quotes and the parametric type variables are appended seperated by spaces, similarly to how it is done in Type Application Types. An equal sign is appended to the above.
- 3. "value" is discarded and the second line is indented and starts with the data constructor, which is the Haskell type id ended with a single quote.
- 4. We add the Haskell record syntax with the fields seperated by commas and annotated with their respective types, which are translated from the product type that ends the "tuple_type" definition.
- 5. In this step the instance for the ftn function is defined where n is the size of the tuple of the tuple_type which is required for the translation of tuples for reasons explained in section 7.3.2. This can be divided into the following substeps (where n is the size of the tuple of the "tuple_type", not 'n' verbatim):
 - (a) "instance FromTuplen"
 - (b) We append the translations (parenthesized if needed) of all the field types and the tuple_type name (in that order) separated by spaces and followed by "where".
 - (c) The second line is indented and starts with ftn = 0.
 - (d) A \ and a tuple parameter with internal parameters x1 to xn followed by " -> " is appended.
 - (e) The data constructor of step 3 followed by the parameters x1 to xn seperated by commas are appended.
- 6. The type annotations for the change function of each field (described in the ".change" section of 7.3.4) are generated by the following substeps for each change function:
 - Prepend "c0" to the field identifier
 - Append ":: " followed by the type, which is of the following form:

```
<translation of field type> -> <name of the tuple_type> -> <name of the tuple_type>
```

- 7. The definitions for the change function of each field are generated by the following substeps for each change function:
 - Prepend "c0" to the field identifier
 - Append " = $\n x -> x { < field id> = new }$ "

Or Types

• Examples

```
or_type Bool
values true | false

data Bool =
   Ctrue |
   Cfalse

or_type Possibly(T1)
values the_value:T1 | no_value

data Possibly' a1 =
   Cthe_value a1 |
   Cno_value
```

```
or_type Error(T1)OrResult(T2)
values error:T1 | result:T2

data Error'OrResult' a1 a2 =
   Cerror a1 |
   Cresult a2

or_type Comparison
values lesser | equal | greater

data Comparison =
   Clesser |
   Cequal |
   Cgreater
```

• Description

For or_types the translation has the following steps:

- 1. "tuple_type" ⇒ "data"
- 2. The type name is translated the same way as it is in tuple types.
- 3. "values" is discarded and the lines from the 2nd onwards have the data constructors for each of the values of the or_type (one in each). This is done as follows:
 - (a) 'C' is prepended to the identifier of the value to make it a data constructor.
 - (b) If there is an internal value, the type is translated and appended (seperated by a space).
 - (c) If it is not the last value, " |" is appended.

Type Nicknames

• Examples

```
type_nickname Ints = ListOf(Int)s => type Ints = ListOf's Int
type_nickname ErrOrRes(T1) = Error(String)OrResult(T1)
=> type ErrOrRes' a1 = Error'OrResult' String a1
```

 \bullet Description

For type nicknames we replace "type_nickname" with "type", the type name (before the equal sign) with its translation and the type (after the equal sign) with its translation.

7.8 Translation Phase: Type Logic

7.8.1 Proposition Definitions

Renaming proposition definitions do not have a translation as they only affect theorems during the preprocessing phase. For atomic proposition definitions we have the following:

• Examples

```
type_proposition (@T)Has_A_Wrapper
                                                           needed wrap(_) : T1 => @T(T1)
type_proposition (@A)Is(@B)s_First
                                                           class A'Has_A_Wrapper b19 where
needed (_)first : @B => @A
                                                             wrap' :: a1 -> b19 a1
\Longrightarrow
class A'Is's_First b0 b1 where
  a'first :: b1 -> b0
                                                           type_proposition (@T)Has_String_Repr
                                                           needed (_)to_string : @T => String
type_proposition (@T)Has_Internal_App
needed
                                                           class A'Has_A_Wrapper b19 where
  apply(\_)inside(\_) : (T1 \Rightarrow T2) \times @T(T1) \Rightarrow @T(T2)
                                                             wrap' :: a1 -> b19 a1
\Longrightarrow
                                                           type_proposition (@A, @B)To(@C)
class A'Has_Internal_App b19 where
                                                           needed ab_to_c: @A x @B => @C#
  apply'inside' :: (a1 -> a2, b19 a1) -> b19 a2
                                                           class A''To' b0 b1 b2 where
                                                             ab_to_c :: (b0, b1) -> b2
```

• Description

The translation of atomic type proposition definitions is done with the following steps:

- "type_proposition" is replaced by "class".
- The name of the proposition is translated similarly to the type name in a type definition. All the parentheses are replaced by the same amount of single quotes as there are ad hoc type variables inside the parenthesis and if there is a parenthesis at the beginning we prepend an 'A' to make it a valid type class name in Haskell. The translations of the ad hoc type variables are then appended and seperated by spaces (in the same order of the appearances of the ad hoc type variables).
- " where" is appended to the first line.
- "needed" is discarded and the second line is indented
- The identifier of the value needed is translated and followed by " :: " and then the translation of its type

7.8.2 Theorems

• Examples

```
type_theorem (Possibly(_))Has_A_Wrapper
                                               type_theorem (ListOf(_)s)Has_A_Wrapper
proof wrap(_) = the_value:_
                                               proof wrap(_) = [_]
instance A'Has_A_Wrapper Possibly' where
                                               instance A'Has_A_Wrapper ListOf's where
  wrap' = (\pA0 -> Cthe_value(pA0))
                                                 wrap' = (\pA0 \rightarrow [pA0])
type_theorem (Possibly(_))Has_Internal_App
proof
  apply(_)inside(_) =
    (f(_), cases)
      no_value => no_value
      the_value:x => the_value:f(x)
\Longrightarrow
instance A'Has_Internal_App Possibly' where
  apply'inside' =
    \(f', pA0) ->
    case pAO of
      no_value -> no_value
      Cthe_value x -> Cthe_value(f'(x))
type_theorem (ListOf(_)s)Has_Internal_App
proof
  apply(_)inside(_) =
    (f(_), cases)
      [] => []
      [head, tail = ...] => f(head) + apply(f(_))inside(tail)
instance A'Has_Internal_App ListOf's where
  apply'inside' =
    \(f, pA0) ->
    case pAO of
      [] -> []
      head : tail -> Cnon_empty_l(ft2(f <& head, apply'inside'(f, tail)))
```

```
type_proposition (@A)And(@B)Have_Eq_And_Gr
equivalent (@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal, (@A)Can_Be_Greater_Than(@B)

type_theorem (@A)And(@B)Have_Eq_And_Gr --> (@A)Can_Be_Gr_Or_Eq_To(@B)
proof a >= b = a == b | a > b

preprocessing

# this is a representation of the AST after preprocessing not lcases syntax
type_theorem
  [(@A)And(@B)Can_Be_Equal, (@A)Can_Be_Greater_Than(@B)] --> (@A)Can_Be_Gr_Or_Eq_To(@B)
proof a >= b = a == b | a > b

translation

instance
  (A'And'Can_Be_Equal b0 b1, A'Can_Be_Greater_Than' b0 b1) => A'Can_Be_Gr_Or_Eq_To' b0 b1
where
  a !>= b = a !== b !| a !> b
```

\bullet Description

The translation of type theorems is done with the following steps:

- "type_theorem" is replaced by "instance".
- All the type propositions with substitutions (before and after the arrow if there is one), are translated and the arrow changes from "-->" to "=>". The propositions with substitutions are translated the same way propositions are translated in proposition definitions. The only difference is that instead of ad hoc type variables there are type substitutions. These come in the form of type expressions where there might be underscores instead of type arguments (e.g ListOf(_)s). These type expressions are translated like regular type expressions except for the underscore type arguments which are not translated at all, so that the type constructor itself acts as a higher kinded type (e.g ListOf's).
- " where" is appended to the above.
- "proof" is discarded and the second line is indented.
- The identifier of the value or the operator surrounded by two identifiers are translated, followed by " = " and the translation of the value expression.

Running 8

• Create compiler executable make 1cc • Compile leases program to executable ./lcc hello_world.lc Creates executable "hello_world" ./hello_world • Compile leases program to Haskell ./lcc -h hello_world.lc Creates executable "hello world.hs" ghci hello_world.hs • Run test_inputs make Creates "test_outputs" directory where - test_outputs/compiled_progs contains the compiled executables of all "test_inputs/programs" - test_outputs/programs contains the Haskell translation of all "test_inputs/programs" - test_outputs/grammar_rules contains the Haskell translation of various examples for each grammar rule from "test_inputs/grammar_rules" also create "grules" executable that is run for "test_outputs/grammar_rules"

• Clean

make clean

Removes: test_outputs, lcc, grules, hello_world, hello_world.hs

9 Conclusion

A translator from lambda-cases to Haskell has been implemented. It is written in Haskell. The main differences from Haskell are:

- Function application is done with parentheses instead of spaces.
 Example: "f(x,y,z)" instead of "f x y z"
- Functions can be defined to expect arguments before or in the middle of the function identifier. Example: "apply(f)to_all_in(list)" instead of "map f list"
- Partial function application can be done for any of the arguments.

Examples:

"f(x, y, _)" instead of "f x y" for the regular Haskell use for a function that expects 3 arguments. In addition, the following are possible:

```
- "f(x, _, z)" instead of "\y -> f x y z"
- "f(_, y, z)" instead of "\x -> f x y z"
- "f(_, _, z)" instead of "\x y -> f x y z"
- etc
```

• The above syntax for expected arguments with underscores is also possible for operands in operator expressions.

Examples:

"_ + 1" instead of "(+ 1)" for the regular Haskell use for expecting one operand. In addition, the following are possible:

```
- ""Hello " + _ + "! You look much younger than " + _ + "!""
instead of
"\name age -> "Hello " ++ name ++ "! You look much younger than " + age + "!""
- "_^2 + _^2" instead of "\x y -> x^2 + y^2"
- etc
```

• The above syntax for expected arguments with underscores is also possible for elements of tuples and lists.

Examples:

```
- "(17, _, 42)" instead of "\x -> (17, x, 42)"
- "[17, _, 42]" instead of "\x -> [17, x, 42]"
```

• No identifiers are needed for pattern matching on function parameters, the "cases" keyword is used instead.

Examples:

```
- cases
    true => print("It's true!! :)")
    false => print("It's false... :(")
    instead of

\b -> case b of
    True -> putStrLn "It's true!! :)"
    False -> putStrLn "It's false... :("

This is also possible in Haskell with the LambdaCase extension like so:
\case
    True => putStrLn "It's true!! :)"
    False => putStrLn "It's false... :("
```

This is where the name of the language comes from, the very frequent use of the LambdaCase. This idea is extended to any subset of any number of parameters as show in the following example (and in the examples of the ""cases" function expressions section" 3.3.2)

```
- (cases, cases)
  (green, green) => true
  (amber, amber) => true
  (red, red) => true
  ... => false
  instead of

\x y -> case (x, y) of
  (Green, Green) => True
  (Amber, Amber) => True
  (Red, Red) => True
  _ => False
```

• Powers can be used on types. For example:

"Int^2" instead of "Int x Int" in leases or "(Int, Int)" in Haskell.

• Operators are generalized.

Examples:

```
- ""Hello " + "World!"" instead of ""Hello " ++ "World!""
- "5 * 'a' instead of "replicate 5 'a'"
```

Future Work

Very little semantic analysis has been done and any error that is not a parsing error will be thrown by the Haskell compiler. For a more complete compiler/translator, a semantic analysis step is needed and error messages should refer to lambda-cases program and not the Haskell translation. This has not been implemented due to the complexity of the Haskell type system and the enormous work it would require to reimplement it. However, because lambda-cases forces the user to use type annotations, it might be possible to implement a simpler type system that is enough for what lamda-cases needs and/or throw an error message if type checking is not possible, to force the user to provide the relevant type annotations. This is what we will be working on in the future of the project.

References

[1] Daan Leijen. Parsec, a fast combinator parser. 2001. URL: https://web.archive.org/web/20120401040711/http://legacy.cs.uu.nl/daan/download/parsec/parsec.pdf.