

AGUDA is an imperative programming language composed of expressions alone.

A program in AGUDA is a sequence of declarations, each announced with keyword **let**. Value declarations introduce an identifier and a type. For example:

```
let maxSpeed : Int = 120
```

Declarations may also introduce functions, as in

```
let succ (n) : Int \rightarrow Int = n + 1
```

Functions can be recursive:

```
let add (n, m) : (Int, Int) -> Int =
  if n == 0 then m else succ(add (n - 1, m))
```

or even mutually recursive:

```
let even (x) : Int -> Bool =
    x == 0 || odd(x - 1)

let odd (x) : Int -> Bool =
    x != 0 && even(x - 1)
```

Imperative means state changing. How do we change state? By means of (imperative) variables and assignment. Here's addition in imperative style:

```
let AddI (n, m) : (Int, Int) -> Int =
  let sum : Int = m;
  while n > 0 do (
    set sum = sum + 1;
    set n = n - 1
);
  sum
```

A few points to notice:

- The body of the function is composed of three *expressions*, *separated* by a semicolon;
- The value of the function is given by the last expression in the semicolon separated sequence, namely, sum;



- The body of the **while** *expression* is a sequence of two expressions; we enclose them in parenthesis.
- Assignments are announced by the set keyword

Each expression has a value, including the **while** loop. The value of **while** is **unit**, the only value of type **Unit**. This means that we can "store" a while loop in a variable, as in

```
let x : Unit = while i > 0 do set i = i - 1
or "return" a while loop from a function, as in
let f (n) : Int -> Unit = while n > 0 do set n = n - 1
```

An assignment stores a value in a variable and returns the value. Given the below declaration, a call to f (unit) yields value 3.

```
let f (_) : Unit -> Int = let x : Int = let y : Int = 3
```

Equipped with the unit value, an if-then expression if exp1 then exp2 is an abbreviation for an if-then-else if exp1 then exp2 else unit.

Let us now look at the support provided for arrays. We start with an example: creating an $n \times n$ matrix, where all entries are 0, except for the diagonal which is filled with 1.

```
let diagonal (n) : Int -> Int[][] =
  let a : Int[][] = new Int[] [n | new Int [n | 0]] ;
  let i : Int = 0 ;
  while i < length(a) do (
    set a[i][i] = 1 ;
    set i = i + 1
  ) ;
  a</pre>
```

Expression **new Int** $[n \mid 0]$ creates an integer array of size n, each cell initialised to 0. Likewise, **new Int** $[n \mid new Int [n \mid 0]]$ creates a $n \times n$ matrix of zero values. Expression **set** a [i][i] = 1 writes 1 in the i-th position of the i-th array of matrix a, that is, in line i, column i of a.

Below is a function that prints a matrix, line by line, each value terminated with a space. It includes two *primitive* functions: **length** returns the number of elements in an array; **print** sends to the prints stdout the textual representation of a given value. Both functions are overloaded: **length** works on any array; **print** accepts any value. More primitive functions shall be announced later.

```
let printMatrix (a) : Int[][] -> Unit =
  let i : Int = 0 ;
  while i < length(a) do (</pre>
```



```
while j < length(a[0]) do (
    print(a[i][j]); print(" ");
    set j = j + 1
);
    print("\n");
    set i = i + 1
)</pre>
```

A "little" main function exercises the two array-related functions.

```
let main : Unit =
  printMatrix(diagonal(10))
```

Expressions

- Variable: id
- Literals: ..., -1, 0, 1, ..., true, false, null, in addition to quote-enclosed string literals
- Binary operators: ; + * / % $^{\circ}$ == != < <= > >= ! | | &&
- Unary operators: -!
- Function call: id (exp1, ..., expn) with $n \ge 1$
- Assignment: **set** LHS = exp
- Variable declarations: **let** id : type = exp
- Conditionals: if exp1 then exp2 else exp3 and if exp1 then exp2
- While loop: while exp1 do exp2
- Array creation: new type [exp1 | exp2]
- Array access: exp1[exp2]
- Parenthetical expression: (exp)

The left-hand-side (LHS) of an assignment, that is, the part at the left of =, can be:

- A variable
- An array location: LHS [exp]



Operator precedence and associativity

- For + * / % == != < <= > >= ! | | && take the precedence and associativity of the Java programming language
- The unary minus binds tighter than any other arithmetic operator
- The power operator, ^, is right associative and binds tighter than any other arithmetic operator (different from unary minus). For example,
 2 ^ 3 ^ 4 * 5 is to be understood as (2 ^ ((-3) ^ 4)) * 5
- The sequencing operator, ;, associates to the right and binds loser than all other operators. For example, 1; 2 $\mid \mid$ 3; 4 is to be understood as 1; ((2 $\mid \mid$ 3); 4)
- The precedence of while loops and conditionals (both if-then-else and if-then) seats between that of; and ||. For example, while b do false || true should be understood as while b do (false || true), but while b do false; true should be understood as (while b do false); true. Similarly for conditionals
- Keywords then and else associate to the right, so that
 if a then if b then c else d is to be understood as
 if a then (if b then c else d)
- The arrow type operator, ->, associates to the right

Top-level declarations

- Variables: as in expressions
- Functions: let id (id1,...idn) : type = $\exp with n \ge 1$

Programs A non-empty sequence of declarations.

Types

- Basic: Int, Bool, Unit, String
- Array: type[]
- Function: type → type or (type1,...,typen) → type with n≥ 1. There are no zero-ary functions. If needed, use f (_) : Unit → type = exp and call as f (unit).



Lexing

- Identifiers (variable or function names) start with a letter and are followed by zero or more letters, digits, underscore symbols (_) and single quotes (')
- Integer values start with an optional sign, followed by a non-zero digit and then followed by zero or more digits
- Strings are sequences of characters (not including new line), enclosed in quotes (")
- Comments: Line comments only, starting with --.