

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 -> Int = n + 1
```

Functions can be recursive:

```
let add (n, m) : (Int, Int) \rightarrow 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, unit, 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

- The unary minus binds tighter than any other arithmetic operator
- 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)
- Array access, [binds tighter than unary minus, so that -a[0] denotes

 (a[0])
- 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 --.

Wildcards

• Wildcards may appear only in binding positions:

```
let _ : type = exp
```

- Hence, cannot appear in expressions: 2 * _
- Wildcards may appear more than once, even if with different types:
 let f (_, _) : (Unit, Int) -> Int = 5

Typing The types for expressions are as follows.

- The type of a literal is the corresponding type. For example, the type of
 5 is Int
- The type of array creation **new** type [exp1 | exp2] is type[]. Furthermore, exp1 should be of type Int and exp2 should be of type type
- The type of array access exp1[exp2] is type if exp1 is of type type[] and exp2 of type Int
- The type of call print (exp1, ..., expn) is Unit if n = 1 and exp1 has a type (any type)
- The type of call length (exp1, ..., expn) is Int if n = 1 and exp1 has a type type[]
- The type of call id(exp1,...,expn) (with id ≠ print, length) is type if id is of type (type1,...,typem) ->type and n = m and each expi has type typei
- The type of variable declaration let id: type = exp is Unit if exp is of type type. Furthermore, if the declaration appears at the left of a semicolon let id: type = exp1; exp2, then the type of id is used to validate exp2



- The type of an identifier is that more recently introduced by a **let** (either expression or top-level **let** declaration)
- The type of conditional if exp1 then exp2 else exp3 is type if exp1 is of type Bool and both exp2 and exp3 are of type type. In the case of if exp1 then exp2, expression exp2 must be of type Unit
- The type of while loop while exp1 do exp2 is Unit if exp1 is of type Bool and exp2 has a type (any type)
- The type of assignment let LHS = e is Unit if LHS and e share the same type
- The type of sequential composition exp1; exp2 is the type of exp2 if exp1 has a type (any type)
- The type of the remaining operators (binary and unary) are as costumary in programming languages

The types for LHS are as follows.

- Variables, as in expressions
- The type of LHS[exp] is type if LHS is of type type[] and exp is of type Int

Top-level declarations have no types. The validation rules are as follows.

- Variables, as in expressions
- Function declaration let id (id1,...,idn): type = exp is valid if type = (type1,...,typem) ->type' and n = m and exp is of type type' in a context augmented with id1:type1,...,idn:typen
- No variable of function may be named print or length
- Function declarations may be (mutually) recursive
- Functions and top-level variables cannot be declared twice, even if with different signatures

The validation rule for programs is as follows. A program is valid if:

- The identifiers of all its (top level) declarations are pairwise distinct and
- All its (top level) declaration are valid and
- There is a function with signature let main (x) : Unit -> Unit



Semantics A further restriction for the semantics:

An expression exp in a program (top level) variable declaration
 let id: type = exp should be a literal (a compile time constant)

An AGUDA program is executed starting from a function call main (unit). Here's a few pointers.

- Function arguments are evaluated left-to-right until they all become values. The corresponding function is then called (AGUDA is call-by-value)
- Binary expressions exp1 op exp2 evaluate exp1 and exp2 (in this order) and then apply the corresponding operator
- The exception are boolean expressions. These are evaluated in a *short-circuit* manner: they are evaluated left-to-right until the truth value of the expression may be determined. In particular, in expression expl && exp2, if exp1 turns out to be false, then exp2 is *not* evaluated. Dually for disjunction
- Variable declaration (global or local) and function parameters introduce storage to hold values of the corresponding type
- For scalar (non-array) types, the value in the store may be read via the identifier expression id and updated via expression set id = exp
- The value of **set** id = exp is **unit**
- A conditional expression **if** exp1 **then** exp2 **else** exp3 evaluates to exp2 or to exp3 according to the truth value of expression exp1. The value of the conditional is the value of exp1 or exp2
- A while exp1 do exp2 loop evaluates exp2 while exp1 remains true. The value of the loop is unit

We refrain from describing the semantics of arrays for we shall not implement them.