Delta Language Specification

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This document describes the syntax and semantics of the Delta programming language.

Note: This document is incomplete.

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Lexical structure

1.1 Keywords

The following keywords are reserved and can't be used as identifiers.

addressof	for	sizeof
break	func	static
case	goto	struct
catch	if	switch
const	import	this
continue	in	throw
default	init	throws
defer	interface	true
deinit	let	crue
do	mutable	try
else	mutating	typealias
enum	null	undefined
extern	private	var
fallthrough	public	while
false	return	_

1.2 Operators and delimiters

Binary arithmetic operators:

+	/	&	П
-	**	&&	^
*	%	1	<<

>>	/=	&&=	<<=
+=	**=	=	>>=
_=	%=	=	
*=	& =	~=	

Binary comparison operators:

Miscellaneous binary operators:

```
= ...
```

Unary prefix operators:

```
+ * !
- & ~
```

Unary postfix operators:

```
++ -- !
```

Delimiters:

```
( ) . ;
[ ] ,
{ } : ->
```

From the above sets of operators, the following are overloadable by user code: + (both unary and binary), - (both unary and binary), +, /, %, ==, <.

1.3 Comments

Delta has two kinds of comments:

- Line comments that start with // and continue until the end of the line.
- Block comments that start with /* and end with */. Block comments can be nested.

1.4 Literals

1.4.1 Integer literal

```
\begin{array}{l} binary\text{-}digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \\ octal\text{-}digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \\ decimal\text{-}digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \\ nonzero\text{-}decimal\text{-}digit \rightarrow 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \\ lowercase\text{-}hex\text{-}digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \mid \text{a} \mid \text{b} \mid \text{c} \mid \text{d} \mid \text{e} \mid \text{f} \\ uppercase\text{-}hex\text{-}digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \mid \text{A} \mid \text{B} \mid \text{C} \mid \text{D} \mid \text{E} \mid \text{F} \\ binary\text{-}integer\text{-}literal \rightarrow 0\text{b}binary\text{-}digit + \\ octal\text{-}integer\text{-}literal \rightarrow 0\text{o}ctal\text{-}digit + \\ decimal\text{-}integer\text{-}literal \rightarrow 0\text{x}(lowercase\text{-}hex\text{-}digit + \mid \text{uppercase\text{-}hex\text{-}digit +}) \\ integer\text{-}literal \rightarrow binary\text{-}integer\text{-}literal \\ integer\text{-}literal \rightarrow octal\text{-}integer\text{-}literal \\ integer\text{-}literal \rightarrow decimal\text{-}integer\text{-}literal \\ integer\text{-}literal \rightarrow hex\text{-}integer\text{-}literal \\ integer\text{-}literal \rightarrow hex\text{-}integer\text{-}literal \\ \end{array}
```

1.4.2 Floating-point literal

Floating-point literals have the following form:

```
floating\text{-}point\text{-}literal 	o nonzero\text{-}decimal\text{-}digit decimal\text{-}digit^*. decimal\text{-}digit+} floating\text{-}point\text{-}literal 	o 0. decimal\text{-}digit+}
```

1.4.3 Boolean literal

```
boolean\text{-}literal \rightarrow \mathtt{true} \mid \mathtt{false}
```

1.4.4 Null literal

```
null-literal \rightarrow \mathtt{null}
```

1.4.5 String literal

```
string-literal \rightarrow "(character | interpolated-expression)*" interpolated-expression \rightarrow ${ expression }
```

1.4.6 Array literal

```
array-literal \rightarrow [ elements ]
```

where *elements* is a comma-separated list of zero or more expressions of the same type.

1.4.7 Tuple literal

```
tuple-literal 	o ( elements )
```

where *elements* is a comma-separated list of zero or more *tuple-literal-elements*:

```
tuple\text{-}literal\text{-}element \rightarrow identifier: expression \\ tuple\text{-}literal\text{-}element \rightarrow identifier
```

The second form is a shorthand for tuple-literal-elements of the form 'identifier': identifier'.

1.5 Identifiers

```
identifier\text{-}first\text{-}character \rightarrow upper\text{-} or lowercase letter A through Z} identifier\text{-}first\text{-}character \rightarrow \_identifier\text{-}character \rightarrow identifier\text{-}first\text{-}character} identifier\text{-}character \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 identifier \rightarrow identifier\text{-}first\text{-}character identifier\text{-}character}^*
```

Types

```
type \rightarrow basic\text{-}type
type \rightarrow pointer\text{-}type
type \rightarrow optional\text{-}type
type \rightarrow array\text{-}type
type \rightarrow function\text{-}type
type \rightarrow tuple\text{-}type
type \rightarrow \text{mutable } basic\text{-}type
type \rightarrow \text{mutable } function\text{-}type
type \rightarrow \text{mutable } tuple\text{-}type
```

2.1 Basic types

```
\begin{array}{l} basic\text{-}type \rightarrow identifier \\ basic\text{-}type \rightarrow identifier < generic\text{-}argument\text{-}list > \\ generic\text{-}argument\text{-}list \rightarrow \text{comma-separated list of one or more } types \end{array}
```

2.1.1 Integer types

There are eight fixed-width integer types: int8, int16, int32, int64, and their unsigned counterparts uint8, uint16, uint32, uint64. The language also provides:

- byte and ubyte, which have at least 8 bits
- short and ushort, which have at least 16 bits
- int and uint, which have at least 32 bits
- long and ulong, which have at least 64 bits

2.1.2 Floating-point types

There are three fixed-width floating-point types: float32, float64, and float80. The language also provides:

- float, which has at least 32 bits
- double, which has at least 64 bits

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2.1.3 Struct types

Structs are composite data types which can be defined using the struct keyword.

2.1.4 Interface types

The interface keyword declares an interface, i.e. a set of requirements (member functions and properties). Types that are declared to implement an interface I and fulfill I's requirements can be used as values for a variable of type I. This enables runtime polymorphism. Like structs, interfaces may be generic.

2.2 Pointer types

Pointers are values that point to other values. They can be reassigned to point to another value (if the pointer type itself is declared as mutable), but they must always refer to some value, i.e. they cannot be null by default (nullable pointers can be created using the optional type, see below). Member access, member function calls, and subscript operations via pointers are allowed: they will be forwarded to the pointee value.

```
pointer-type \rightarrow pointee-type * pointer-type \rightarrow pointee-type mutable * pointee-type \rightarrow type
```

The *pointee-type* may be mutable. Prefixing the * with mutable makes the *pointer-type* itself mutable. Pointer arithmetic is supported in the form of the following operations:

```
• pointer + integer
```

```
• pointer += integer
```

- pointer ++
- pointer integer
- pointer -= integer
- pointer --
- ullet pointer pointer

2.3 Array types

```
array-type-with-constant-size \rightarrow element-type [ size ] array-type-with-runtime-size \rightarrow element-type [ ] array-type-with-unknown-size \rightarrow element-type [ ? ] element-type \rightarrow type
```

array-type-with-constant-size represents a contiguous block of size elements of type element-type. array-type-with-runtime-size is conceptually a pointer-and-size pair. array-type-with-unknown-size can only be used through a pointer; such pointers are memory-layout-compatible with pointers to element-type, primarily for C interoperability. array-type-with-unknown-size is the only array type for which index operations are not guaranteed to be bounds-checked.

The *element-type* may be mutable.

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2.4 Optional type

"I call it my billion-dollar mistake. It was the invention of the null reference in 1965. At that time, I was designing the first comprehensive type system for references in an object oriented language (ALGOL W). My goal was to ensure that all use of references should be absolutely safe, with checking performed automatically by the compiler. But I couldn't resist the temptation to put in a null reference, simply because it was so easy to implement. This has led to innumerable errors, vulnerabilities, and system crashes, which have probably caused a billion dollars of pain and damage in the last forty years."

```
— C. A. R. Hoare
```

An object of the optional type T? (where T is an arbitrary type) may contain a value of type T or the value null.

```
optional-type \rightarrow wrapped-type ? wrapped-type \rightarrow type
```

2.5 Function types

Function types are written out as follows:

```
function\text{-}type \to ( parameter\text{-}type\text{-}list ) -> return\text{-}type parameter\text{-}type\text{-}list \to comma-separated list of zero or more types return\text{-}type \to type
```

The types in the parameter-type-list and return-type may not have a top-level mutable modifier.

2.6 Tuple types

```
tuple-type \rightarrow ( tuple-element-list )

tuple-element-list \rightarrow comma-separated list of one or more tuple-elements

tuple-element \rightarrow name: type
```

Tuples behave like structs, but they're defined inline. Tuples are intended as a lightweight alternative for situations where defining a whole new struct feels overkill or inappropriate, e.g. returning multiple values from a function.

While struct types are considered the same only if they have the same name, tuple types are considered the same if their structure is the same, i.e. if they have the same number of elements in the same order with the same names and types.

2.6.1 Tuple unpacking

The elements of a tuple value may be unpacked into individual variables as follows:

```
tuple-unpack-statement \rightarrow variable-list = tuple-expression;
```

variable-list is a comma-separated list of one or more variable names. The variable names must match the element names of the tuple-expression, and be in the same order.

Declarations

3.1 Variables

Variable declarations introduce a new variable into the enclosing scope. The syntax is as follows:

```
implicitly-typed-variable-definition \rightarrow let-or-var\ variable-name = initializer\ ; explicitly-typed-variable-definition \rightarrow let-or-var\ variable-name: type = initializer\ ; variable-declaration \rightarrow let-or-var\ variable-name: type\ ;
```

If type is present, the variable has the specified type. The compiler ensures that the given *initializer* is compatible with this type. If no type is given, the compiler will infer the type of the variable from the *initializer*. The *initializer* is an expression that provides the initial value for the variable.

If type has been specified, *initializer* may also be the keyword undefined, in which case the variable is not initialized and all use-before-initialization warnings for the variable will be suppressed. Reading from an uninitialized variable causes undefined behavior.

In *variable-declaration*, the variable is declared but not initialized. This allows delayed initialization, which causes the compiler to enforce that the variable is always initialized properly before its value is accessed.

3.2 Functions

A function can be defined with either of the following syntaxes:

```
func function-name ( parameter-list ) { function-body }
func function-name ( parameter-list ) -> return-type { function-body }
```

The return type of the first version is void. The parameter-list is a comma-separated list of parameters:

```
parameter \rightarrow parameter-name : parameter-type
```

parameter-name is an identifier specifying the name of the parameter. A function cannot have multiple parameters with the same name.

return-type defines what kind of values the function can return. This may be a tuple type to allow the function to return multiple values without having to define a whole new struct type.

Parameter and return types may not have a top-level mutable modifier.

3.2.1 Member functions

Member functions are just like normal functions, except that they receive an additional parameter, called the "receiver", on the left-hand-side of the function call, separated by a period:

```
member-function-call \rightarrow receiver . member-function-name ( argument-list )
```

Member functions are defined with the same syntax as non-member functions, but are written inside a type declaration. That type declaration defines the member function's receiver type. Inside member functions, the receiver can be accessed with the keyword this.

3.2.1.1 Initializers

Initializers are a special kind of member functions that are used for initializing newly created objects.

```
initializer-definition \rightarrow init ( parameter-list ) { body }
```

Initializers can be invoked with the following syntax:

```
initializer-call \rightarrow receiver-type ( argument-list )
```

The *initializer-call* expression returns a new instance of the specified type that has been initialized by calling the initializer function with a matching parameter list.

3.2.1.2 Deinitializers

Deinitializers are another special kind of member functions. They are automatically called on objects when they're destroyed, but can also be called explicitly. They can be used e.g. to deallocate resources allocated in an initializer. They are declared as follows:

```
deinitializer-definition \rightarrow \texttt{deinit} () { body }
```

3.2.2 Private and public functions

Both member functions and global functions may be declared private or public by prefixing the function definition with the keyword private or public. Private functions are only accessible from the file they're declared in. Public functions are accessible from anywhere, including other modules. Functions not marked private or public are *module-private*, i.e. only accessible within the module they're declared in.

3.3 Structs

Structs are defined as follows:

```
struct-definition \rightarrow struct struct-name { member-list }
```

struct-name becomes the name of the struct. member-list is a sequence of member-variable-declarations and member-function-declarations. Structs can be declared to implement interfaces by listing the interfaces after a : following the struct name:

```
struct struct-name : interface-list { member-list }
```

The *interface-list* is a comma-separated list of one or more interface names. The compiler will emit an error if the struct doesn't fulfill all the requirements of a specified interface.

3.3.1 Member variables

Structs can contain member variables. The syntax of a member variable definition is as follows:

```
let-or-var 	o let \mid var member-variable-declaration 	o let-or-var member-variable-name : type ;
```

3.3.2 Generic structs

Generic structs can be declared as follows:

```
struct struct-name < generic-parameter-list > { member-list }
```

where generic-parameter-list is a comma separated list of one or more generic-parameters:

```
generic-parameter \rightarrow generic-type-parameter generic-type-parameter \rightarrow identifier
```

The identifier of a *generic-type-parameter* serves as a placeholder for types used to instantiate the generic struct.

Statements

4.1 Assignment statement

```
assignment-statement \rightarrow lvalue-expression = expression ; assignment-statement \rightarrow _ = expression ;
```

Assignments in Delta don't return any value. This applies to compound assignments as well, including ++ and -- (see below). Furthermore, this obsoletes the two different forms of ++ and --, so only the postfix versions are valid as syntactic sugar for += 1 and -= 1, respectively.

The assignment to _, called the *discarding-assignment*, can be used to ignore the result of the right-hand side expression, suppressing any compilation errors or warnings that would otherwise be emitted.

4.2 Increment and decrement statements

```
increment-statement \rightarrow lvalue-expression ++ ; decrement-statement \rightarrow lvalue-expression -- ;
```

4.3 Block

```
block \rightarrow \{ statement^* \}
```

4.4 if statement

```
if-statement \rightarrow if ( expression ) block if-statement \rightarrow if ( expression ) block else block if-statement \rightarrow if ( expression ) block else if-statement
```

4.5 return statement

```
return\text{-}statement \rightarrow \texttt{return}\ expression_{\texttt{opt}};
```

4.6 for statement

The for statement loops over a range. The syntax is as follows:

```
for\text{-}statement 	o 	extstyle 	ext
```

4.7 while statement

The while statement loops until a condition evaluates to false. The syntax is as follows:

```
while-statement \rightarrow while ( condition ) block
```

4.8 switch statement

```
switch\text{-}statement 	o switch (expression) { case+}  case 	o case expression : statement+ case 	o default : statement+
```

In addition to integer types, the switch statement can be used to match strings.

The cases in a switch statement don't fall through by default. The fall-through behavior can be enabled for a individual cases with the fallthrough keyword.

switch statements must be exhaustive if *expression* is of an enum type. This is enforced by the compiler.

4.9 defer statement

The defer statement has the following syntax:

```
defer\text{-}statement \rightarrow \texttt{defer}\ block
```

The *block* will be executed when leaving the scope where the *defer-statement* is located. Multiple deferred blocks are executed in the reverse of the order they were declared in. Return statements are disallowed inside the defer block.

Expressions

5.1 Unary expressions

```
prefix-unary-expression \rightarrow operator operand postfix-unary-expression \rightarrow operand operator
```

5.1.1 Unwrap expression

```
unwrap-expression \rightarrow operand!
```

The *unwrap-expression* takes an operand of an optional type, and returns the value wrapped by the optional. If the operand is null, an assertion error will be triggered, except in unchecked mode, where the compiler may assume that the operand is never null.

5.2 Binary expression

binary-expression \rightarrow left-hand-side binary-operator right-hand-side

5.2.1 Integer arithmetic expressions

Arithmetic operations on integers (both signed and unsigned) are checked for overflow by default. In unchecked builds, integer overflow causes undefined behavior (for both signed and unsigned operations).

5.3 Conditional expression

```
conditional-expression \rightarrow condition ? then-expression : else-expression
```

5.4 Member access expression

```
member-access-expression 	o expression . identifier
```

5.5 Subscript expression

```
subscript-expression \rightarrow expression [ expression ]
```

5.6 Function call expression

```
call-expression \rightarrow expression ( argument-list )
```

argument-list is a comma-separated list of zero or more argument-specifiers:

```
argument-specifier \rightarrow unnamed-argument | named-argument unnamed-argument \rightarrow expression named-argument \rightarrow argument-name : expression
```

argument-name is an identifier specifying the name of the parameter the argument expression is being assigned to.

5.7 Range expression

```
exclusive-range-expression \rightarrow lower-bound ... upper-bound inclusive-range-expression \rightarrow lower-bound ... upper-bound
```

5.8 Closure expression

```
closure-expression \rightarrow ( parameter-list ) -> expression closure-expression \rightarrow ( parameter-list ) -> block
```

Specifying the type for parameters in a closure *parameter-list* is optional. Omitting the type (and the corresponding colon) causes the type for that parameter to be inferred from the context.

If the closure parameter-list only contains one parameter, the enclosing parentheses may be omitted.

Standard library

6.1 Types

6.1.1 String types

The type String holds sequences of Unicode characters.

6.1.2 Range types

The standard library defines the following two generic types to represent ranges:

- Range<T> for ranges with an exclusive upper bound
- ClosedRange<T> for ranges with an inclusive upper bound