Spice language manual (v4.0, February 2002)

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Part I a gentle introduction to Spice

introduction

This document describes the programming language Spice, which was developed, from an idea of Dave Raggett's, by Chris Dollin and Steve Leach. The initial design work was done in autumn 1998 and subsequent modifications made as implementations progressed.

The original language contained stylesheets and its syntax was closer to EC-MAScript; the current language has lost stylesheets, which need more work to be useful in a general-purpose programming language, and its syntax has no C-like basis. The rest of the developed language remains.

Spice is dynamically typed; by default, types are run-time entities attached to values, rather than compile-time entities attached to expressions. This gives flexibility in program development, at the cost of reduced up-front error detection and some run-time overhead. Type annotations can be added to variable declarations, and the compiler will use these for error checking and optimisation.

Spice is expression oriented; (almost) all of the constructs of the language return values, including loops. Spice is multiple valued; expressions denote a "row" of zero or more values. The number of values an expression denotes is not a compile-time property.

Spice is *higher order*; it supports functions as values, full lexical scoping, and has a syntax for function literals (aka lambda-expressions).

Spice is multiply dispatched; functions can be defined piecemeal ("overloaded") on differing combinations of argument types, and when the function is called, the piece with the "best fitting" formal arguments is executed. The usual single-receiver dynamic dispatch of object-oriented languages (Smalltalk, C++, Java) is a special case of Spice's multi-methods, which are inspired by CLOS and ObjectClass.

Spice is class neutral; new overloadings of any generic function can appear in

any package where that function is visible, and there is no special syntax that distinguishes the invocation of an overloaded function from a non-overloaded one. Classes do not provide namespaces.

The remainder of this document is in two parts; an introductory guide, intended to give a practicing programmer a taste of Spice, followed by a semi-formal reference manual describing the language as of February 2002.

1.1 notes

author: Chris Dollin, version: 3.0a, date: December 2001

to be done: regular expressions, facet definitions, which modifiers are marked, super and extends, var and const to have only one blob.

a gentle introduction to Spice

In this and subsequent sections we speak as though the reader has access to a Spice system into which they can type Spice code and have it executed. Unlucky readers will have to take the results on trust.

2.1 hello, world

A long-standing Unix-spawned tradition is that one's first program in a new language should be the one that prints "Hello, World" or some suitable variant, so here it is in Spice:

```
println( "hello, world." );
```

Pasting this into your Spice evaluation should result in "hello, world" being displayed somewhere obvious.

"hello, world." is a *string literal* representing a sequence of characters. Most characters can appear as themselves in a string, but specific exceptions are all three quoting characters (*string quotes* ", reserved quotes ', and *symbol quotes* ') and the escape character \setminus .

println is the name of a built-in *procedure*. We'll see later that Spice has several kinds of procedure, including *functions*, *methods*, and *constructors*; we use the term "procedure" to refer to them all without distinction.

The syntax $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})$ is one form of *procedure call*; it evaluates the procedure \mathbf{F} (which in this case is easy) and the argument(s) \mathbf{X} (ditto) and then *calls* the procedure, supplying it with the values of the arguments. The procedure does

something (such as printing its argument) and returns some results, which we throw away.

The semicolon is a *statement separator*, signifying the end of one statement and (possibly) the beginning of another. Sometimes they are not necessary, but this introduction willput them all in.

2.2 one, two, buckle my shoe

println isn't restricted to strings; it can do numbers, too.

```
println( 1 );
println( 1_032 );
println( 40 + 2 );
```

Evaluating these should result in the values 1, 1032, and 42 being printed. The underbar in 1_032 is just a visual separator. Spice has the "usual" arithmetic operators, +, -, *, and /, although they have some extra wrinkles we'll meet later. What's more, **println** can take multiple arguments:

```
println( 1, 2, "buckle my shoe" );
```

which will print 1 2 buckle my shoe. Note that the arguments are printed preceded by a space (this behaviour can be changed), and that there's only one newline printed, at the end. The degenenerate case **println()** with no arguments just prints a newline.

2.3 variables

You can declare variables to hold values.

```
var x = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9 + 10;
println(x);
```

which will print 55. The value \mathbf{x} holds can be changed by assignment:

```
x := x * 10; println(x);
```

will print **550**. Using the word **const** instead of **var** makes an *unassignable* variable (rather an oxymoron, but there it is).

Variables must be declared; trying to use a name that hasn't been declared is an error, even if you're assigning to it, unlike eg Basic or Javascript.

2.4 typed variables

It's possible to specify that a variable is restricted to holding values of a given type. For example,

```
var count: Small = 0;
someActionsHere();
count := "of Monte Christo";
```

declares **count** as a variable of type **Small**, restricted to "small" integer values (typically in the range plus-or-minus half-a-billion) and then throws an error when it attempts to assign a string (of type **String**) to it. If a variable is declared with a type but no initial value, then the *default value* for that type is used to initialise the variable; the default value of type **Small** is **0**:

```
var anInt: Small; println( anInt );
```

will print **0**. If there's no type then the variable is declared to be of type **Any** (which means what it sounds like); the default value of **Any** is called **absent**.

function definitions

There's no magic about procedures that the user cannot harness. A simple way to define your own procedure is to write a **function** definition:

```
define function add( x, y ) => x + y enddefine println( add( 1, 2 ) );
```

add is defined and then invoked in the usual way, resulting in 3 being printed.

Note that there's no need to use a special **return** statement to specify the procedure's return value; the value of the procedure body is returned as the procedure result, and the body here is the sum-expression $\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}$.

3.1 typed arguments

The arguments to a function can be typed in the same way that variables can.

```
define function addChecked( x: Small, y: Small ) =>
    x + y
enddefine
```

Calls to **addChecked** with non-**Int** arguments will throw an error. Spice can sometime take advantage of the type information to produce better code or more informative error messages. Later on, we'll see how type information can be used to write *polymorphic* or *overloaded* functions.

3.2 typed results

The result of a function can also be typed.

```
define function addToInt( x, y ) returns Small =>
    x + y
enddefine
```

The result from **addToInt** must be an **Small** value; if not an error will be thrown. Again, the Spice compiler may be able to use this information to generate better code or error messages.

3.3 indefinite arguments

How does **println** manage to have arbitrarily many arguments? It uses an *indefinite argument*, marked with ellipsis notation:

```
define function gather( rosebuds... ) => rosebuds enddefine
println( gather( "while", "ye", "may" ) );
```

rosebuds is an indefinite argument whose value is all of the (remaining) arguments to the function. This prints as **{while ye may}**, which is the way *array* values are printed; the arguments are turned into an array. (We'll see more about arrays soon.)

It's possible to have one or more *definite* arguments before or after a final indefinite argument:

```
define function foo( x, y... ) as
    println( x ); println( y )
enddefine
```

foo needs at least one argument \mathbf{x} but takes arbitrarily many more, which are gathered into \mathbf{y} . It then prints both \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} ; if there are no extra arguments, then \mathbf{y} is an *empty array*, which prints as $\{\}$. **println** returns no results, so **foo** returns no results.

arrays

Spice allows arrays to be constructed using *array expressions*, which are expression sequences enclosed in braces:

```
var lots = {27, "now", "is", "the", "time", 42};
    println( lots );
```

which will print {27 now is the time 42}. Arrays can contain values of any type. Individual elements can be extracted by indexing:

```
println( lots[2] ); lots[2] := "anguish"; println( lots );
```

which will print **now** and **{27 anguish is the time 42}**. Spice arrays are based at **1**, so element **2** is the second element. The function **length** delivers the number of elements in its array argument.

which will print $\mathbf{6}\ \mathbf{0}\ \mathbf{1}$.

dot and infix notation

It's often useful and clearer to write calls to one-argument functions, expecially those that just extract components from structured values like arrays, using dot notation:

```
println( lots.length, lots.arrayBase, newlots.arrayBase );
```

is just another way of writing the previous calls. In fact you can call procedures of *any* number of arguments using dot notation, because of a general rule of the language:

```
X.f(Y) == f(X,Y) == X @f Y, and X.f == f(X) == X @f
```

The forms X @f Y and X @f are a way of writing any function call as an infix or postfix expression, which is often useful when you have a long chain of function applications each of which supplies the "left" argument to the next.

The principal difference between . and @ is that . is much more tightly binding - it's the most binding infix operator - and @ is loosely binding, being only just tighter than the logical connectives and and or.

Different styles of function call are used to make it clear what's an argument to what.

5.1 dot and infix function definition

Although the plain fucntion definition syntax we've seen already is enough, because of the equivalence of the different notations we've described, Spice allows you to define a function in the style in which you expect it to be called:

```
define function x @addWithAt y as x + y enddefine define function x.addWithDot(y) as x + y enddefine
```

The arguments can still be typed using :, and for a function defined with dot-notation, the special **on** syntax:

```
define function x:Small @addWithAtColon y:Small as  \begin{array}{c} x+y \\ \text{enddefine} \\ \text{define function on Small x.addWithDotColon(y:Small) as} \\ x+y \\ \text{enddefine} \end{array}
```

All four of these definitions define functions which add two values together, the second pair demanding that those values be \mathbf{Int} s, and all of them can be called in all the different ways we have discussed.

We'll see later how these notations tie into the more common object-oriented approaches, and why the **on** syntax is so-called.

ifs and buts

So far, all of our expressions have been unconditional – get the arguments, do something, deliver the result; no choices are involved.

Spice has $conditional\ expressions$ for expression choices, and $relational\ expressions$ for tests.

```
if lots.length < 10 then "short" else "long" endif.println;
```

The relational expression **lots.length** < **10** compares the length of **lots** (which is probably still **6**) with **10** and delivers **true** if it's less than and **false** if it's equal or greater. **true** and **false** are the built-in values of type **Bool**. Spice also has the obvious >, <=, and >=, and = for equality, and the less obvious /= for inequality.

The conditional expression tests the boolean value; if it is **true** its value is its **then** arm, if it is **false** its value is its **else** arm, and if it's not boolean, an error is thrown. (Unlike various other languages, **0**, the null string "", and the null reference **absent**, are *not* alternatives to **false**, and values such as **1**, "**yes**", and **println** are *not* alternatives to **true**.)

println is being called here with dot notation, with its argument being the result of the **if**-expression, here the string **short**.

6.1 elselessness and elseif

The **else** part of a conditional is optional. If you miss it out, it's as though you'd written one with no expression following. Where you don't want a result from the **if**-expression, there's no problem; if you do, it will usually generate the value **absent**. (See the reference section for more details.)

If you want to write a chain of tests, rather than ending up with ever-more-deply nested **if-endif** structures, Spice lets you introduce additional tests with **elseif**:

```
if x == "hello" then
    println( "well hello there!" )
elseif x == "goodbye" then
    println( "sorry to see you go" )
else
    println( "eh? what does", x, "mean?" )
endif
```

You can have as many elseifs as you need.

6.2 ands and ors

The test of an **if** can be composed using the special operators **and** and **or**. **X or Y** is true if **X** is or if **Y** is, but **Y** is only evaluated if **X** is **false**. Similarly **X and Y** is **true** if both **X** and **Y** are **true**, but **Y** is not evaluated if **X** is false.

That's what makes these operators "special": their right operand is only evaluated if its value is needed.

6.3 short conditionals

Spice also permits "short" conditional expressions, for which it uses the same syntax as Algol68 (by coincidence): the expression $(X \mid T \mid F)$ is equivalent to if X then T else F endif.

6.4 unless

Spice has an alternate form of **if**, the **unless** (with closing keyword **endunless**) which is the same except the sense of the (first) test is inverted.

loops

Spice has a rich for loop construct, which allows iteration over collections, termination on conditions, and specification of loop results. A subset of those is available in the **repeat** construct.

7.1 repeat

Suppose we want to iterate over the elements of an array **lots**. Here's one way to do it with **repeat while**:

```
var i = 0;
repeat while i < lots.length do
     ;;; stuff involving lots[i] ...;
     i +:= 1
    endrepeat</pre>
```

The expression i + := 1 is equivalent to i := i + 1, but more compact, especially when i is some complex expression.

For example, to find the element of an array containing a specific element by complete linear search:

```
define function findIndex( a, x ) as
  var i = 0;
  var here = 0;
  repeat while i < a.length and here = 0 do
      if a[i] = x then here := i endif;
      i +:= 1
  endrepeat;</pre>
```

```
here enddefine
```

The index of the first element equal to \mathbf{x} is stored into here and then returned as the procedure result. The equality test = compares values using type-specific code.

If you're wondering why Spice uses **repeat while**, and not just **while**, the reason is that it also has **repeat until** (where the condition is inverted), and that you can write code between the **repeat** and the **while**. Also, as we'll see below, **while** is also used in **for** loops.

7.2 for

We can perform the same loop with automatic counting and implicit value return, using a **for**-loop with two *control clauses*:

```
define function findIndex( a, x ) as
    for
        i from 1 to a.length
        until a[i] = x then i
        finally 0
    endfor;
enddefine
```

The variable i is automatically declared as a varible that exists only while the loop is executing; it takes values from the **from** value (here, 1) to the **to** value (here, **a.length**) inclusive. The loop terminates "early" when an element a[i] = x is found, and it delivers the result i. If the loop terminates "normally", it returns the value of the "finally" clause, here 0.

for loops can also iterate over collections, using the in syntax:

```
define function findIndex( a, x ) as
    for
        i from 1; ax in a
        until ax == x then i
        finally 0
    endfor;
enddefine
```

ax is automatically declared, and takes on the value of each element in turn; we still need to keep track of the index, so we count **i** from 1 upwards anyway.

multiple values

So far, we've seen Spice expressions and procedures which deliver *single* results. Spice expressions can deliver *multiple* results, often avoiding the need to construct new objects or to use "reference parameters" (which Spice hasn't got).

```
define function plusOrMinus( x, y ) =>
    (x + y, x - y)
enddefine
```

The comma keeps both its left and right operand values (exactly as it does in a function argument list); **plusOrMinus** delivers *two* values.

```
\label{eq:condition}  \mbox{println( 20 @plusOrMinus 17 );}  will print 37\ 3.
```

8.1 void context

Some expressions, in particular top-level expressions, are evaluated in *void context*; they are evaluated and their results thrown away. The Spice system you are using to test our examples runs them in void context.

Sometimes you need to make it explicit that, whatever else would have happened, you want no values to escape. The expression **none E** evaluates E in a new multiple-value context and then throws away all the answers, delivering none. The expression **none** is a shorthand for **none** (), representing no values. Similarly, the expression **one E** evaluates **E** and turns it into one value: if **E** delivered no values, **one** returns **absent**; if **E** delivers one value, **one** returns that; and if **E** delivers several values, **one** returns the first one.

8.2 multiple-value loops

The result of a loop is all the results from the executions of its body, plus any finally-values.

```
println( for i from 1 to 10 do i*i endfor )
```

to print 1 2 9 16 25 36 49 64 81 100.

8.3 explode

One built-in function produces multiple results as a matter of course; **explode**. **explode** takes one argument and explodes it into its constituents (if any) as a multiple result. Applied to an array, it explodes it into its elements; applied to a string, it explodes it into its characters. Applied to an atomic object (a number, a character, a boolean, **absent**) it delivers **none**.

procedures as values

Spice procedures are not restricted to being defined and called; there are several ways they can be manipulated.

9.1 first-class procedures

Spice procedures are *first-class values*; they can be passed as parameters, returned as results, and stored into variables and data-structures (such as arrays; we'll see more later).

This is particularly useful when you need to do something to all the elements of a collection, but the details of how the collection are kept is secret (eg to allow you to change it later); you write a function that walks over the collection and does "something" to each element. Since all we've got is arrays, that forms our first example; let's suppose that **them** is a secret array variable.

```
define function appCollection( f ) as
   for x in them: Array do x.f endfor
enddefine
```

Now the expression appCollection(println) (which of course can also be written println.appCollection) will print all the elements of them. If the elements do something sensible when passed to some function mangle, then mangle.appCollection will mangle all of them.

Note that **appCollection** returns all the values that **f** returns for the caller to do with as they like. Of course, we might want to construct a new collection from the old one by mangling each element:

```
define function mapCollection( f ) =>
```

```
{f.appCollection}
enddefine
```

which gathers up the results from **appCollection** and makes a new collection (here, array) out of them.

9.2 lambda-expressions

Passing functions as arguments, and applying them, is all very well, but it can get tedious defining trivial functions to use. For example, if we want to make a new collection by incrementing every element of the old one, we can write:

```
define function inc( x ) as x + 1 enddefine
inc.mapCollection.println;
```

If them is, say, the collection [0 8 41] then this will print [1 9 42]. But it's tedious to have to define a function, put it somewhere in the code, give it a suitably mnenomic (but short) name, then then pass it. Wouldn't it be nice if you could write the function right where you were going to pass it?

Of course the answer is "yes", otherwise we wouldn't have posed the question. The expression $(\mathbf{A} => \mathbf{E})$, where \mathbf{A} is an argument list (with the brackets omitted) and \mathbf{E} is a sequence of expressions, is called a **lambda expression** (for historical reasons to do with Church's *lambda calculus*) or a *procedure literal*. Lambda-expressions are intended to be used for *short* procedures; otherwise they can make the code look cluttered.

Instead of defining inc above, we can write (x => x + 1).mapCollection.println for the same effect. To double each element, use (x => x * 2); to square it, use (x => x * x); to replace it with 0 use (x => 0).

9.2.1 "full lexical scope"

Because we haven't said you can't, the reader may suppose that you can write lambda-expressions within procedures, and similarly, that those expressions may refer to, even assign to, local variables of those procedures. And you can.

```
define function konst(x) as (ignored as x) enddefine
```

konst (so-called because **const** is a Spice reserved word) is a function that makes constant functions; **konst(E)** is a function that delievrs the value of E whatever it's applied to, so **konst(0)** is a function [of one argument] that always delivers E0. The variable E1 which is the parameter to **konst** is available to the lambda-expression even after **konst** has finished executing.

This behaviour (that the variables of a function are visible to lambda-expressions within that function, and that they live on after the function exits) is called *full lexical scoping*. It's relatively uncommon in programming languages (with the notable exceptions of Common Lisp, Scheme, Pop11, and Smalltalk), but it is your friend.

9.3 hole-expressions

Lots of little lambda-expressions are just an operator (or function call) with one (or two) arguments "missing"; like **inc** and its brethren above. For these Spice allows you to write a special form of lambda-expression, the *hole expression*, which is a function call or operator invocation with some of its arguments replaced by *holes*. The usual hole is written ?, and it stands for "the [first] argument"; it makes the application or invocation into a lambda expression.

So (? + 1) (the brackets are unnecessary) is another way of writing (x => x + 1), where x has been replaced by the hole and the argument declaration is unnecessary.

(? - 1) is the function that subtracts 1 from things, (42 - ?) is the function that subtracts things from 42, and (? * ?) is the function that squares things.

Just in case you ever want to use holes for functions with more than one argument, there are as many holes as you like, written ?1, ?2, and so on; ? is shorthand for ?1. A hole-expression has as many implied arguments as the biggest hole it uses; the Spice compiler will be curious about expressions with missing holes (eg ?19 + 1).

9.4 combining functions

Because it's possible to write functions that take and deliver other functions, its possible to write *combining functions* who's job is just to manipulate other functions; this can result in a style known as *higher order programming*.

The standard function **Then** [note the capital T!] takes two functions \mathbf{f} and \mathbf{g} and returns a new function that takes some arguments \mathbf{X} , applies \mathbf{f} to them, and then applies \mathbf{g} to the result; it might be written as:

```
define function Then( f: Function, g: Function ): Function as
          (args... as args.explode.f.g)
enddefine
```

Note that **explode** generates arbitrarily many results, all of which become arguments to **f**; all of **f**s results become arguments to **g**; and all of **g**s results

become the results of the lambda-expression. Nothing special has to be done by the programmer to keep tabs of how many arguments and results are returned.

more on absent

It turns out that code like "the value of X, unless it's absent, in which case the value of Y" appears quite often, for example, doing table-lookups. Spice allows this to be written compactly using the operator ||.

 $X \mid\mid Y$ has the value X, unless it's **absent**, in which case it has the value Y; Y is not evaluated unless it has to be (ie, X is **absent**). It's rather like a pumped-up **or** where any non-absent value counts as **true**.

Similarly, X && Y is **absent** if X is **absent**, and the value of Y otherwise; again, Y is only evaluated if it has to be (ie, X isn't **absent**). It's rather like a pumped-up **and**.

classes

So far we've only uses (some) of the built-in Spice types: integers, strings, arrays, and procedures. Spice also allows you to define your own data-types using *classes*.

11.1 class definition

A class definition allows you to define a new (kind of) *object* which you can use in your code. The simplest class definition introduces an object with named slots:

```
define class Pair
    slot front: Any = absent
    slot back: Any = absent
enddefine
```

This defines a new class object, **Pair**, with two slots called **front** and **back**. The **slot** declaration is just like a **var** declaration, except that it makes variables "inside" objects; you can leave out the initialiser and type in the usual way.

The name **Pair** becomes a new type name, and you can use it in the type part of a variable declaration or procedure argument.

You can print out the class if you wish; **Pair.println** will print something like <**Class Pair extends** <**absent>>**. (We say "something like" because it's possible to change the default way objects get printed.)

You can make new **Pair** objects with the expression **new Pair()**. Each such object has a **front** and a **back**, which start off as **absent**, and which you can change. Every object also responds to the function **typeof** by delivering its class object.

11.2 updaters

Suppose we've declared var p = new Pair(); so that p holds a new Pair object. We can assign to the front and back slots of p:

```
p.front := 1, p.back := "two";
    p.front.println, p.back.println;
```

prints **1 two**. In Spice, it's possible to call procedures on the left-hand-side of an assignment, in which case what happens is that the *updater* of that procedure is called. Just as Spice makes procedures to access the **slot**-slots of a class value, it gives them updaters to change those values.

technical note. Unlike some languages (Common Lisp, Dylan), it is the procedure value that has the updater, not the procedure name. This means that you can call the updaters of procedures passed as parameters or stored into data structures. We stole////re-used this behaviour from Pop11.

You can define your own updaters if you wish:

```
define function x.foo := y as
    println( "updating", x, "with", y )
enddefine
```

The := y says this this is defining the updater of **foo** (and there had better be a definition for **foo** elsewhere; you can't define the updater of a procedure that doesn't exist) and that y is the name of the parameter which is the "right-hand-side of the assignment". y can be typed, as usual.

While an updater can do whatever it likes, it is very stongly advised that updaters are given only to access functions, and that they do the "obvious thing"; after an assignment $\mathbf{x.foo} = \mathbf{E}$ then the expression $\mathbf{x.foo}$ should deliver the value \mathbf{E} that was assigned.

If **foo** is a procedure, then **foo.updater** is the updater of that procedure, if it has one, and **absent** otherwise.

11.3 methods

A class can also define *methods* which act on objects of the type it defines.

```
define class Pair
```

```
#
    slot front: Any = absent
#
    slot back: Any = absent
#
    define method wipe() as
        this.front = absent; this.back = absent; none
    enddefine
#
    define method setPair(x,y) as
        this.front = x; this.back = y; none
    enddefine
#
enddefine
```

This version of **Pair** defines two methods, **wipe** and **setPair**. **wipe** sets both slots to **absent**, and **setPair** sets them to the given parameter values. The name **this** is bound to an implicit additional parameter, which is the instance of **Pair** to be changed.

The expression **none** delivers no values; there doesn't seem to be a sensible value to deliver from either of these methods.

Methods are procedures, and you call them in the usual ways; if **p** is an instance of this **Pair**, then **p.wipe** will wipe it, and **p.setPair(1,2)** will set its **front** to **1** and its **back** to **2**. You can tell from this that **this** is bound to the *first* argument value. In fact, if it takes your fancy, you can use a different name than **this**, using the same function-definition syntax that we saw earlier:

```
define method self.wipe as
    self.front = absent; self.back = absent; none
enddefine
```

would be a suitable replacement for Pair's version of wipe.

We'll see more about methods when we discuss inheritance, later.

11.4 initialisers

The **new Pair()** syntax is a bit limited, because you can't easily set new values for its slots. If you want to create a new object *and* set the values of its slots, you can't define an *initialiser*. Here, **Pair** gets a third outing:

```
define class Pair
    slot front: Any = absent
```

```
slot back: Any = absent
define init pair(x,y) as
    this.front := x, this.back := y
enddefine
enddefine
```

You can make a new initialised **Pair** by writing **new pair**("hello","world"). This works by making a new **Pair** and then handing that on as the **this** for **pair**. Any values returned by an initialiser are discarded; the result of a **new** expression is the newly constructed object.

You can have as many initialiser definitions as you like for a class. As a special favour, you can use **define init** (with no name) inside a definition of a class P to define overloadings of **new** P(X).

Aside. We've now met almost all the types of procedure you can have in Spice; functions, methods, initialises, and the different flavours of lambda-expressions. There are *predicates* which can tell them apart, although you will usually only need these when you're debugging code.

- x.isProcedure is true when x is any kind of procedure, and false otherwise.
- **x.isMethod** is **true** if **x** is defined by a **method** definition, and **false** otherwise;
- x.isFunction if x is defined by a function definition, and false otherwise;
- x.isInitialiser is true when x has been defined with method new, and false otherwise;
- and **x.isLambda** is **true** when **x** is the result of a lambdaexpression or hole-expression, and **false** otherwise.

11.5 inheritance

A class can *extend* an existing class. Here's one example; we might choose to make triples an extension of pairs.

```
define class Triple extends Pair
    slot side
    define init triple(x, y, z) extends pair(x, y) as
        this.side := z
    enddefine
endclass
```

Triple has all the slots that **Pair** does, and one more: **side**. **front** and **back** automatically work on **Triples**. **Triples** are **Pairs**, and then some. The initialiser **triple** works by first invoking the initialiser **pair** in its **extends** clause to do the first two elements, and then assigning the third itself.

Not just **front** and **back**, but *any* function that works on **Pair**s and doesn't explicitly exclude non-**Pair**s will work on **Triple**s.

11.6 overloading functions

How does this happy state of affairs come about? When the argument type is the name of a class (like **Pair**), then it will accept values of any of its extensions (like **Triple**).

Sometimes, we want the behaviour of a method to be different in sub-classes than in the parent. In this case, the parent must define the method to be **generic**, and the different definitions for the sub-classes must be declared as **specific**. This works outside as well as inside classes; the only difference is that inside a class, the implicit **this** argument is added to the method signature.

Here's an example of generic procedures outside a class:

```
define generic size( x: Any ) as 0 enddefine
define specific size( x: Small ) as x @logToBase 2 enddefine
define specific size( x: String ) as x.length enddefine
```

This defines the **size** of an integer to be its bitswidth (and blows up if \mathbf{x} is $\mathbf{0}$), the **size** of a string to be its length, and the size of anything else to be $\mathbf{0}$. The choice of which definition of **size** to use is made when **size** is called, by looking at the types of its arguments.

type-expressions

So far we've said little about the type-expressions that can be written following :, except that certain built-in names (**Any**, **Small**, **String**) are allowed, and the names of any classes.

In fact types can be expressed with *expressions*, which have the same syntax and semantics as value-expressions. There are four important type-expressions in Spice: *multiple*, *lots*, *array*, and *non-optional* types.

12.1 multiple

If T and U are types, then T, U is the *multiple type* which is a value of type T then a value of type U.

12.2 lots

If **T** is a type, $\mathbf{T^{**}}$ is the *lots of T* type, which is some unspecified number of **T**s as multiple values. The return type of a procedure defaults to being $\mathbf{Any^{**}}$.

12.3 arrays (and based arrays)

If **T** is a type, then **{T}** is the type array of T or T row. Note carefully that the Spice array constructor **{E}** always makes values of type **{Any}**, because Spice arrays can hold any kind of value; to make eg an **{Small}** you have to invoke a special constructor **IntArray(E)**.

12.4 optional types

Unless otherwise specified, **absent** is not permitted where a value of a specific (non- \mathbf{Any}) type is expected; so a variable typed as \mathbf{Small} cannot legally be given \mathbf{absent} as its value. This can be over-ridden by using the $\mathbf{optional}$ type constructor; if \mathbf{T} is a type, $\mathbf{T??}$ is the type which all the values of type \mathbf{T} and also the value \mathbf{absent} .

packages

So far we've seen fragments of Spice code out of context for illustrative purposes. In real life, Spice code code should be organised into *packages*. A package is a collection of procedures, variables, and classes (and styles, which we'll see later) which work together to provide a coherent service to the programmer who uses those packages.

A package starts with a *package header*, which identifies the package and the version of Spice it was intended for, specifies any other packages it may need, and then continues with the *package body*, which is a sequence of variable, procedure, class, and other declarations, or the kind we've discussed elsewhere.

The header starts with the *spice specification part*, which consists of the reserved word **spice**, a version string, and possibly some *preference settings*. The version string is a string specifying the version of Spice that the package is supposed to work with, and the preference settings control the Spice compiler – see later for details.

Otherwise the header starts with the reserved word **package** and the package name, which is a series of simple names deparated by dots. For example,

```
spice "release.2.0";
package this.is.an.example;
```

Spice does not constrain package names to conform to file names on your local system, but it's a good idea to put a package whose name ends in **.foo** in a file called **foo**.

technical note I. An IDE for Spice is required not to insist that package names form a path through a filing system hierarchy, and is required to accept package name components longer that the local filing system component names, and with "strange" characters

in. technical note II. The current Spice prototype compiler allows the mappings from package names to filestore names to be specified in package mapping entries in its initialisation file, as part of a proof-of-concept.

13.1 public and private

A package exists to make a service available to its users, which it does by making some of its identifiers visible to those users. By default, *none* of the identifiers in a package are visible. However, declarations can be marked as *public* by writing *declaration qualifiers* in square brackets after the introductory keyword. To make a public variable, for example:

```
public var exposed: String = "hello"
```

declares a public string-only variable called **exposed**. You can mark a variable **private** instead, but since this is the default, it won't make much difference.

You can declare a function **public** in the same way:

```
define public function inc(x) as x + 1 enddefine
```

More importantly, you can declare a **class** public. If you do so, the class name is public, and so are all the non-slot methods declared in it. The slot methods (ie the names of **slot**-variables) are still private by default; you can declare them public explicitly, and you can declare the other methods private explicitly.

13.2 imports

public is one side of the coin; **imports** is the other. A package can *import* another one in its header.

```
package using.example;
import this.is.an.example;
```

This makes all the public identifiers from **this.is.an.example** visible inside **using.example**. If you don't specify where this other package is to be found, the Spice compiler will use a set of rules to locate it; but you can force its hand:

```
import this.is.an.example from "/home/hedgehog/example.spi";
import this.is.an.example from
   "http://cdollin/Spice/Modules/example.spi";
```

Following the **from** is an expression (almost always a string literal) with the URL for the source of the package.

Spice does not require than imported packages are written in Spice; it is expected that implementations will define ways to import packages written in commonly-used languages such as C, C++, Java, and Javascript.

13.3 readonly

It's possible to qualify public variables and slots as *read only*, which means that they can be read but not changed by importing packages. For ordinary variables, all that need be done is to prohibit assignment to them; but for slots, which are accessed by procedures, it's not quite so simple.

When a slot is marked read-only

```
public readonly slot magic = 42;
```

(**readonly** is not a reserved word) then the compiler makes *two* versions of **magic**; one for local use, and one for export. *Only the local version has an updater*. This can cause the interesting situation:

```
package defines.magic;
#
define class P
    public readonly slot magic = 72;
enddefine
#
define function isEqual( x ) as
    println( x == magic )
enddefine
#
endpackage
package Q
#
import defines.magic;
#
testEqual( magic );
#
endpackage
```

which will print **false** as the exported **magic** is a different function to the local one.

13.4 protected access and aliases

It's possible to import a package, but to declare that you need to specify its name everywhere you specify its variables:

```
import protected defines.magic;
```

To refer to **magic** now you need to prefix it with the last part if its package name: **magic::magic**. (Requiring the *entire* package name would be overkill; package names are supposed to be long and descriptive.)

The main use of **protected** is to allow an imported package to define lots of useful names (usually constants) without polluting your own packages namespaces.

If you don't like the last part of the package name, or if it would be ambiguous, you can change the part you specify:

```
import protected boo = defines.magic;
```

Now **boo** is an alias for **defines.magic** and we can write **boo::magic**.

13.5 pervasive import

A package that imports some identifiers – say, **brick** and **concrete** – from another package does not by default re-export them; they're not part of its *public interface*. They can be injected into the public interface by qualifying the import with **public**:

```
public import defines.magic;
```

Now this package exports magic::magic.

switches

The power of Spice's overloaded functions means that you won't write switches so often as you might in a more conventional language. But you still need to be able to choose from finite selections of integer and string values, so Spice has a general **switch** construct:

```
switch x into
   case 1: statement1();
   case 2, 3: statement2();
   case "hello":
   case "world": statement3();
   default: statement4();
endswitch
```

If x has the value 1, then **statement1()** is executed. If it has the value 2 or 3, then **statement2()** is executed. If it has the value "hello" or "world", **statement3()** is executed. And if it has none of these values, **statement4()** is executed.

Note that the values in the switch can be integers or strings (or symbols); indeed the **case** values need not be compile-time constants. (However, the switch construct is more efficient with compile-time constants, and more efficient with integers than with strings and symbols.) If a switch has a compile-time case label of ${\bf N}$ then that takes priority over any run-time case label evaluating to ${\bf N}$

Also note that there's no need for a **break** or similar construct to leave the **switch**; the case body starts with its first statement and ends just before the next **case** or **default**. (You can, of course, only have one **default** per **switch**).

If there's no **default**, it's as though **default: none**; had been written.

numeric literals

So far we've taken numbers pretty much for granted, writing them as digit sequences with the occasional _ for visual clarity. Spice has a rather extensive set of *numeric literals*.

All numeric literals start with a digit, and all numeric literals may contain underbars (which are ignored; they are there for the reader's visual convenience). When numeric literals contain letters, their case is irrelevant.

A numeric literal may begin with a base specifier, which is a series of digits ending with the letter "x". The digits, taken as a decimal number, specify the base of the numeric literal; the base must be in the range 2..36. If the base is 0 it is taken to mean base 16 for compatability with C (etc). The extended digits are "a" (for 10) up to "z" (for 35). Using digits too large for the base is an error.

A numeric literal that has a base less than or equal to **10** may end with a series of letters specifying the **units** in which the value is expressed. Typical units are **px** (pixels), **in** (inches), **s** (seconds), **em** (ems – a printing unit), and **mm** (millimetres).

To get values with large bases to have units, you need to use a different way of expressing those units, eg using function calls.

A numeric literal may have a *scaling factor*, which is the letter "e", optionally followed by a sign ("+" or "-") and a series of digits. The digits represent a number in decimal, and the scaling factor is the literal's base raised to that power. If the literal's base is greater than 10 then the sign is not optional (otherwise 0x4e5 would be ambiguous). If present, the scaling factor is before the units

An *integral* literal is a series of digits, possibly with a base specifier (in which case the digits can include letters), possibly with a scaling factor and units. A

floating literal is a series of digits, a decimal point, and a second series of digits; again, it may include a scaling factor and units.

units

To support its use in laying out Web pages (and for other graphic operations), Spice values can have *units*. Several units are built-in to the language, notably *inches* (in), *millimeters* (mm), *points* (pt), and *pixels* (px).

Writing a unit literal is easy, as described earlier; 4in is four inches, 27mm is twenty-seven millimetres, 100px is one hundred pixels. These pre-defined names are also available as postfix operators, so x in and (y + 1)px are legal, and by special dispensation of the dot operator can appear as functions using dot, so x.pt is also legal.

The arithmetic operators work on values with units in the "natural" way, so you can add and subtract values with like units. (You can't just add a number to a unit value, though; 42in + 1 will generate a run-time error.) What's more, if the units are different but have the same underlying dimension (eg both lengths), then they can still be added and subtracted, by converting them to a common scale.

You can multiply values with units by numbers, in the obvious way. You can multiply values with units together, too; **6in** * **7in** is **42 in in**, or 42 square inches. Division works in the corresponding inverse way.

enumerations

Sometimes you want a collection of distinct named values, for example as the names of options (small, medium, large, jumbo). Rather than using const integer variables (which can be confused with plain integer values) or strings/symbols (vulnerable to silent mis-spellings), Spice allows you to define enumeration values:

define enum Size = small, medium, large, jumbo enddefine

Size becomes a new type name, and small, medium, large, and jumbo become new values of that type. print(medium) will print medium; the values retain their names. Each value also has an associated small integer, starting at 1 (for the first) and taking on successive values; you can see this number using magnitude, so large.magnitude.println will print 3, and you can construct enum values from numbers: new Size(4) is identical to jumbo. Using values outside the range will generate an error.

Spice's enumerations are just shorthand. An **enum** type is a class extending the built-in **Enum** class, which has slots for the name and magnitude of its values. Each **enum** value is an instance of its class with the slots set appropriately.

Spice implementors are encouraged to implement **enum** values as efficiently as possible, taking advantage of their specialised nature.

all sorts of unmentionable things

18.1 extended relational expressions

In Spice, the relational operators have a special syntactic property; you can write expressions like $\mathbf{x} <= \mathbf{y} <= \mathbf{z}$ to mean $(\mathbf{x} <= \mathbf{y})$ and $(\mathbf{y} <= \mathbf{z})$. The expression \mathbf{y} will be evaluated at most once. The operators do not have to be the same $(\mathbf{x} == \mathbf{y} <= \mathbf{z} \text{ is fine})$ and you can chain them up as long as you like $(\mathbf{x} == \mathbf{y} == \mathbf{z} == \mathbf{h} == \mathbf{q} \text{ is fine, too})$.

18.2 op

Sometimes you'd like to get at the functions that implement Spice's infix operators, usually so that you can pass them to higher-order procedures (eg for zipping two arrays together with a specified procedure such as addition). The form **op Operator**, where **Operator** is a Spice operator, gets a procedure that has the effect of that operator; so \mathbf{op} + is a procedure of two arguments that adds them together and \mathbf{op} == is a procedure of two arguments that tests them for structural equality.

Note that **op and** and **op or** deliver ordinary procedures of two arguments (the special syntactic property that means that \mathbf{E}_1 and \mathbf{E}_2 need not evaluate \mathbf{E}_2 is lost) as does $\mathbf{op} ===$, $\mathbf{op} <==$, etc (the chaining property is lost).

18.3 super and extends

Sometimes, in an overloaded procedure definition, you wish to invoke the more general version of that procedure; you do the general case, then you do your more specific one. The identifier **super** in a procedure is bound to the next most general definition of that procedure.

An initialiser (ie a **method new**) must invoke its more general case, and what's more, must do so before it starts its own initialisation. Rather than using **super** (which in any case doesn't have quite the right effect), that pre-initialisation is described in the **extends** clause of the initialiser, which provides calls to the other initialisers. If the extends clause is left out, it is as though you'd written **extends Parent**() where **Parent** is the parent class of this one.

18.4 shared slots

A class can have a shared slot, introduced by **shared Name**, typed if desired. A shared slot is a single location accessible through any instance but shared by them all.

Note that a shared slot is different from a variable declared in a class; it is accessed by method-call syntax, as ordinary slots are, rather than simply by its name, as variables are.

18.5 parallel iteration

Spice allows for loops to iterate over several things "in parallel". Suppose **Xs** and **Ys** are both arrays, and we wish to "zip them together", say by adding corresponding elements; we can write

```
{for x in Xs also y in Ys do all x + y endfor}
```

to make the array of sums. The loop will finish when either of **Xs** or **Ys** are exhausted. As well as **Name in Expr**, you can use the form **from E**_low **to** $\mathbf{E}_{h}igh$, with the **to** part being optional:

```
for x in E also y from 1 do
    println( "element", y, "is", x )
endfor
```

Note that this works even if **E** is not an array, and even if it is, is better than

```
for y from 1 to E.length do
    println( "element", y, "is", E[y] )
endfor
```

because in the first case the compiler can generate the most efficient code for indexing through the array (and the reader does not have to worry that the iteration is properly bounded).

As well as **from** and **in** parts, you can specify termination conditions for the loop with **while** and **until** clauses; if a **while** clause goes **false** (or an **until** goes **true**) the loop ends "abnormally" (as it does with a **break**) and you can specify a final loop value with **then**.

Part II the Spice reference manual

introduction

19.1 a note on syntax

Syntax is described using an extended BNF. Terminal symbols that are names are in **bold**; terminals that are symbols are in bold and quoted, eg, "++". Non-terminals are in **this** font.

Grouping is shown by round brackets. Optional elements are enclosed in square brackets, eg in "?" [Integer] the Integer may be omitted. A suffix operator * is used to mean "zero or more of", while a postfix operator + means "one or more of".

The infix operator $\mathbf{E}^{**}\mathbf{X}$ is used to mean "Zero or more \mathbf{E} s separated by \mathbf{X} s"; \mathbf{X} is usually a comma or semicolon. Similarly infix \mathbf{E} ++ \mathbf{X} means "one or \mathbf{E} 's separated by \mathbf{X} 's".

All the syntax definitions in the body of the document are collected together in an appendix.

lexis

A Spice program is made up of a series of *tokens*. Tokens are separated by *token gaps*. Token gaps are unimportant except that they may serve to separate tokens that would otherwise combine into single tokens (eg the two tokens "x" and "then" must be separated by a gap, otherwise they would be recognised as a single token "xthen").

A token gap is any sequence of spaces, newlines, horizontal or vertical tabs, and form-feeds, possibly containing comments (see below).

A token is a *word*, a *mark*, or a *literal*. A word is a sequence of letters and digits; a mark is a sequence of mark characters; and a literal is a string, character, numeric, or unit constant. The lexis makes no substantive difference between those words (or marks) that are reserved and those that may freely be used as identifiers (or operators).

20.1 words

A word is a series of digits and letters starting with a letter. Words are case sensitive and of unlimited length.

Spice conventions are that type names start with upper-case letters and that value names do not.

20.2 marks

A mark is either a *simple mark* or a *compound mark*. A *simple mark* is one of the characters "(", ")", "{", "}", "[", "]", ";", ". A *compound mark* is a series of mark characters, where a mark character is one of " $!@\%^\&*-+=|::?/<>$ ".

Note that "#" is *not* a mark character.

Note that this means that "<>", "+++", "|->" etc are all possible Spice marks; they are reserved for future expansion.

20.3 literals

There are four kinds of literal in Spice: numeric literals, string literals, character literals, and regular-expression literals. The numeric literals may be decorated with units.

20.3.1 numeric and unit literals

A numeric literal represents an integer or floating-point number, possibly with units, possibly in a radix other than the default 10. Within a numeric literal, underbar characters may be present; they are immediately discarded, being there only for presentation (eg to make 7_476_294 readable).

plain integer literals

A plain integer literal is a series of decimal digits. It represents the obvious number in radix 10. There is no limit to the number of digits permitted, and the correct integer value is preserved, using bignums if necessary.

radix-specified integer literals

A radix-specified integer literal consists of a radix specifier, which is a series of decimal digits followed by the letter \mathbf{x} (in either case), followed by a series of letters and digits. The letters must be consistent with the radix, in that if the radix is \mathbf{k} then no letter past $\mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{10})$ is permitted; if the radix is $\mathbf{10}$ or less, any letters terminate the numeric part of the literal.

integer literals with units

A plain integer literal, or a radix-specified integer literal with radix 10 or less, may be immediately followed by a unit name, which is a series of letters. The integer value represents a value in those units. Thus 45cm, 19mile, and 6seconds are all legal, assuming that those units have been declared.

The value denoted by nU, where n is the number and U the units, is the measure value with n as its magnitude and the unit named by U as its unit.

plain floating literals

A floating literal is a series of decimal digits, a decimal point, and another series of decimal digits; it represents the "obvious" floating-point number. It may be followed by an exponent specifier, which is the letter **e**, optionally followed by a sign (+ or -), followed by a plain integer literal.

radix-specified floating literals

A radix-specified floating literal is a radix specifier followed by a series of letters and digits, a decimal point, a series of letters and digits, and an optional exponent specifier.

The radix specifier gives the radix of the floating point number but not the exponent. If the radix is **10** or less, then letters terminate the numeric part of the literal. If the radix is more than **10**, the sign in any exponent specifier is not optional.

floating literals with units

A floating literal with radix ${\bf 10}$ or less may be followed by a unit name, as for integer literals with units.

general specification of units

If a number in a radix greater than 10 is supposed to be in some units, then one of the general syntaxes for values-in-units must be used.

20.3.2 string literals

A string literal is a character sequence starting and ending with the double-quote character". The characters between the quotes are any characters except quotes (any flavour), newlines, control characters, or backslashes except as permitted by *escape sequences*:

- \bullet \n a newline
- \v a vertical tab
- \r a return
- \b a backspace

- \t a horizontal tab
- \slash s a space
- \\ a backslash
- \" a double quote
- \' a single quote
- \' a reverse quote
- \"(" numeric literal * "," ")") the series of characters with those Unicode values
- \u Hex Hex Hex the Unicode character with value given by the specified four hexadeciaml digits.

Any other backslash sequence $\backslash \mathbf{X}$ means "protected \mathbf{X} "; protection applies within regular expression literals, qv.

20.3.3 character literals

A character literal has the same syntax as a string literal, except that the delimiters are the single quote 'instead of the double quote.

A character literal denotes the multiple values formed by all its constituent characters. Thus "denotes no values, ' \mathbf{x} ' denotes the single character \mathbf{x} , and ' \mathbf{spoo} ' denotes the characters \mathbf{s} , \mathbf{p} , \mathbf{o} , \mathbf{o} .

20.3.4 regular expression literals

Spice has two regular expression syntaxes: a *traditional* syntax and a *native* syntax. The traditional syntax is based on existing regular-expression notations with little modification, and the native syntax is designed to mesh cleanly with the string syntax. Regular expressions are a late addition to Spice, and many details have not been settled, pending experimental implementation.

A traditional regular expression literal starts with the sequence // and then is a sequence of characters terminated by a closing /. The sequence cannot include any unprotected /. The exact permitted syntax of the sequence is under discussion, but we expect to conform as far as is possible with the syntax used by the Java regex package.

A native regular expression (NRE) starts with the sequence /" and then is a sequence of characters terminated by a closing"; the sequence cannot include an unprotected". Within a native regular expression, all the usual string escapes

apply with the same meaning, and protected characters stand for themselves and have no meta-meaning.

Our proposal is that the characters $?|*{\{\}}[]\%$ are special [that is, do not stand for themselves] within NREs. % is the *marker character* and the rest are metacharacters.

- character classes, [XYZ]: the square brackets enclose compact character-class expressions.
- grouping, {E}: braces are grouping brackets which have no effect on back-references.
- repetition, E*: suffix * is the Kleene star.
- wildcard, ?: matches any character.
- alternation, E|F: matches either E or F.

Other syntactic jobs are performed by sequences introduced by the marker character. They are expected to be less frequent and so a larger overhead to use them is acceptable.

20.4 comments

A comment is either the character "#" followed by all characters up to a newline or end-of file, or the mark "/*" followed by any series of characters excluding "*/" and then by "*/", or the mark ";;;" followed by all characters up to a newline or end-of-file.

top-level syntax

A Spice program is composed of a collection of *packages*. A package consists of a *header*, which identifies the package and what it relies on, and its *body*, which is a series of *definitions* possibly interspersed with *executions*. Definitions define variables, procedures, classes, and units; executions are expressions that perform some run-time activity.

21.1 programs

```
def1. Program ::=
   Spice (Package* | PackageBody)

def2. Spice ::=
   "spice" String ("," (Name ":" Expr))*
```

The **String** identifies the version of Spice that the writer assumed when the package was written; it is a dot-separated sequences of integers or names (eg "1.0" or "5.beta"). The **Name-Expr** pairs define settings for compiler preferences; each **Expr** must be evaluable at compile-time.

The **spice** preamble is intended for future expansion.

21.2 aside: modifiers

Modifiers are annotations to declarations. They allow a declaration to be accompanied by arbitrary information. Modifiers can appear in two different positions, *open* modifiers and *closed* modifiers; open modifiers can decorate declarations not introduced by **define** (ie, **var**, **const**, and **slot**), and thus need a more restricted syntax.

```
def3. OpenModifier ::=
  MarkedModifier Modifier*

def4. Modifier ::=
  MarkedModifier
  | Name [(ModArgument)]
  | "[" Modifier** "," "]"

def5. MarkedModifier ::=
  "public"
  | "private"
  | "private"
  | "protected"

def6. MarkedArgument ::=
  Literal
  | "(" Expression ")"
```

Modifiers are discussed in the sections that require them, except we shall mention here the two marked modifiers:

- **public**: the identifier(s) are put into the public interface of this package, ie, they can be used in packages that import this one.
- **private**: the identifier(s) are *not* put into the public interface of this package; they cannot be referred to outside it at all. **private** is the default, except for identifiers declared in **public** packages, as below.
- **protected**: protected identifiers are public but can only be referred to in other packages using the **alias::name** notation; see also **protected import**.

21.3 packages

```
def7. Package ::=
   MarkedModifier
   "package"
   PackageName
   PackageBody
   [("endpackage")]

def8. PackageName ::=
   Word++ "."
```

A package name is a sequence of dot-separated identifiers. The last name in the sequence is the *leafname* of the package; apart from in **package** and **import** constructs, packages are referred to only by their leafname or an alias for it.

Top-level identifiers declared in a **public package** are public by default. Top-level identifiers declared in a **private package** are private by default.

```
def9. PackageBody ::=
  Import** SEMI Bundle** SEMI
def10. Bundle ::=
  Definition+ Expr*
```

A package body consists of its import declarations followed by its own definitions. All the names exported by the packages which have been imported are available in all the bundles of the package. Each bundle is a sequence of definitions, possibly followed by some expressions; each **Bundle** is as long as possible. The names declared by a **Bundle** are *visible throughout that bundle*; declarations need not lexically preced their use.

Expressions are evaluated when the package is loaded.

```
def11. Definition ::=
  ProcedureDef
  | VarDef
  | ClassDef
  | UnitDef
  | EnumDef
```

A definition is a procedure, class, unit, enumeration, or variable definition.

21.4 imports

```
def12. Import ::=
   MarkedModifier
   "import"
   OpenModifier
   [(Alias "=")]
   PackageName
   [("facet" (Name** ","))]
   [("from" Expr)]
```

An **import** definition identifies a package to be imported and possibly a location to import it from; that location is given as a String-valued expression representing a URL. The name can be given directly or by the evaluation of an expression.

If the modifier **public** is given, then all the identifiers in the imported package are added to this package's public interface. This allows packages to act as "collectors" for definitions from several other places.

An imported identifier **x** can be referred to as **leafname::x**, where **leafname** is the leafname of the package (if **Alias**= is omitted) or the *alias* **name** (if **Alias**= is given). Unless the modifier **protected** is given, it may also be referred to as **x**.

If two (or more) packages with the same leafname are imported, at least one of them must be given an alias. If two (or more) packages export the same identifier \mathbf{x} , then \mathbf{x} must be referred to using the **alias::x** notation.

If the **facet** modifier is present, only the names in the specified facets are imported (see elsewhere for facet definitions).

21.5 procedure definitions

The full power of a procedure definition is available through **define** options, which allow generics, methods, plain functions, and initialisers to be declared.

```
def13. ProcedureDef ::=
 FullProcedureDef
  FunctionDef
 CompactDef
def14. FullProcedureDef ::=
   "define"
  Modifier
   ("method" | "function" | "generic" | "init" | "specific")
  Header
   [("returns" Type)]
   [("extends" CommaExpr)]
   [("super" Header)]
  ProcedureBody
   "enddefine"
def15. FunctionDef ::=
  OpenModifier
  "function"
  Header
   [("returns" Type)]
   [("extends" CommaExpr)]
   [("super" Header)]
  ProcedureBody
   "endfunction"
def16. CompactDef ::=
  "def" Header ("=" | "as" | "=>") Expr
```

A procedure declared by **function** or **def** is monomorphic; it has a single definition and cannot be redeclared.

A procedure declared by **generic** is a polymorphic procedure; the **generic** definition gives its most general argument types and its default body.

A procedure declared by **specific** is a dynamic overloading of the named generic

procedure (which must exist and be visible).

If a **generic**, **specific**, or **method** definition appears within a class, it is given an implicit first argument called **this** whose type is that class, unless the **plain** modifier has been supplied. Outside a class, **plain** does nothing. **function** and **def** never supply a **this**.

A procedure declared with **init** is an *initialiser*: it is used to fill in the fields of freshly-constructed objects.

init procedures may only be declared within classes. A name used for a init procedure cannot be used as the name of an ordinary procedure; also they can be defined only with one class.

The **Header** defines the procedure argument's names and types, the procedure name itself, and the "expected shape" of calls to the procedure. **returns** gives the type of the value(s) returned by a procedure; if omitted, a return type is inferred from the body of the procedure.

extends and super are currently under revision.

```
def17. Header ::=
   CallShape
   | Name "->" CallShape
   | CallShape ":=" Arg
```

The allowed **Modifiers** include **public**, **protected**, and **private**. A procedure with modifier **frozen** cannot be overloaded outside its package; a procedure with modifier **fluid** can be. (By default, **functions** are frozen and **methods** are not.) An overloading of a procedure which appears outside its owning package must have the modifier **extension**, unless it appears in a **class** and extends a method of that **class**.

If the updater argument is given, this definition defines the *updater* of the named procedure, which must be declared in this package and have a compatible **Call-Shape**.

```
def18. CallShape ::=
  PrefixShape
  | DottedShape
  | InfixShape

def19. PrefixShape ::=
  NameA [(Arglist)]

def20. DottedShape ::=
  NameB . NameA [(Arglist)]

def21. InfixShape ::=
  ArgA @ NameA [(ArgB)]
```

There are three different CallShapes; the conventional prefix form f(x), the

method-oriented form $\mathbf{x.f(a)}$, and the infix-oriented form \mathbf{x} @f \mathbf{y} . NameA is the name of the procedure being defined in all cases. The arguments are given by the optional Arglist for the prefix form, by the Arglist and NameB for the method form, and by ArgA and ArgB for the infix form; ArgA and ArgB are both Args, see below.

A **method** is implicitly in method form, with **this.** assumed as the first argument unless overridden explicitly. For **init** it is permitted to omit the **NameA**; in this case, the initialiser is that called by expressions of the form **new C**.

```
def22. Arglist ::=
   "(" Args ")"

def23. Args ::=
   Arg** ","

def24. Arg ::=
   Name [(":" [("!")] Type | "==" Expr)]
   | [(Name)] "..."
```

An **Arglist** is just a comma-separated list of **Args**. An **Arg** is a **Name**, optionally followed by a **Type** introduced by a **TypeWord**, or optionally followed by a value introduced by "=="; or by ..., making it an *indefinite* argument, bound to an array of all the extra arguments to the procedure.

At most one indefinite argument is allowed, but it may appear anywhere in the argument list.

All argument identifiers are immutable, ie, cannot be assigned to, but if they are data-structures, their components can be changed.

The prefixing of the **Type** with the symbol! means that the argument does not take part in overloaded dispatch; all overloadings of that procedure must have that argument, and mark it as non-dispatch.

== **Expr** is equivalent to : **T** where **T** is a type whose only value is the value of **Expr**, which is evaluated at compile-time.

```
def25. ProcedureBody ::=
   StatementSeq
   | ArgList "=>" ProcedureBody
   | Arg "=>" ProcedureBody
```

A procedure body is introduced by => or **as** and ends with **enddefine**. If the body is empty, the arrow may be omitted. If the body has the form $\mathbf{A}=>\mathbf{B}$, the procedure is *curried*; the body is itself a function expression.

21.5.1 multiple definition

A **generic** procedure may have many different definitions, with the rest being given as **methods**. The different definitions may have different numbers of arguments (up to any indefinite arguments) and no two definitions can have the same sequence of types for their arguments.

Furthermore, for any pair of definitions with signatures (ie the type-sequence of its arguments) \mathbf{T}_1 and \mathbf{T}_2 , there must be a definition with type-sequence \mathbf{T}_3 where the ith element of \mathbf{T}_3 is a super-type of the ith elements of \mathbf{T}_1 and \mathbf{T}_2 (note that \mathbf{T}_3 might be equal to one of \mathbf{T}_1 or \mathbf{T}_2).

A call of such a polymorphic method will execute the most specific instance of it, ie, the one whose formal arguments are as specific as possible while matching the actual arguments. A procedure with \mathbf{K} arguments does not match a call with \mathbf{N} /== \mathbf{K} arguments, unless it has a final indefinite argument and $\mathbf{N} > \mathbf{K}$.

In particular, methods can be redeclared in classes, when they over-ride the definitions in their parents.

If a method has definitions of different arities, all definitions with indefinite arguments are, for the purposes of dispatch, extended to the same length by adding additional penultimate arguments of type **Any**.

21.5.2 super and extends

An overloaded procedure may wish to invoke the "next most general" definition to complete (or start) its work. The identifier **super** is bound to that next most general definition. When there is ambiguity about that, it is resolved by the **super** clause of the function, which takes the form of a function call where the operands are all type names; **super** is bound to the version of the function that takes those types as its argument.

This use of **super** has not been tested in the fire of the current Spice implementation.

An initialiser in a class **C** with parent class(es) **A** (**B...**) is required to invoke initialisers of all of those classes. This is done in the **extends** clause of the initialiser; this clause is a comma-separated list of initialiser calls, where each called procedure must be an initialiser of a parent class and each parent class must have at least one initialiser called.

Similarly, this use of **extends** has not been tried in practice.

21.6 variable definitions

A variable declaration introduces one or more identifiers, may give their initial value, and may give their type.

```
def26. VarDef ::=
   MarkedModifier ("const" | "var") NameDecl
def27. NameDecl ::=
      (OneDecl | "(" OneDecl++ "," ")")
      [(("=" | ":=") Expr)]

def28. OneDecl ::=
   Name [(":" Type | "...")]
```

The Modifier may include public, protected, and private. A var may have modifier readonly, in which case it cannot be updated outside of its defining package; consts can never be assigned to. All the names declared in a single const or var declaration share the same Modifier.

The **NameDecl** may initialise one or more names to the value(s) of an **Expr**; if the **Expr** is omitted, they are initialised to the default value of their type; if no type is specified, they are given type **Any**.

A NameDecl will usually contain a single OneDecl, but it may contain several, in which case the Expr must be present and they are initialised from it as for assignment. The ... form is permitted for at most one OneDecl; it bundles all the (remaining) values from the Expr into an array which is assigned to the Name.

It is forbidden for **OneDecl**s to be typed if the entire **NameDecl** is typed, and *vice versa*.

When a **var** or **const** appears at top-level, or within a class, it defines a permanent variable that comes into existance when the package is loaded and goes away only when no references to it remain.

When a **var** or **const** appears within a procedure, it defines a local variable; a new location is allocated each time the declaration is executed. This location does not share with any other location. It persists as long as there are any references to it, which means that if it is not captured by any lambda-expression or hole-expression referring to it it may be disposed of when its scope is left (if not sooner).

21.7 class definitions

A Class defines a shape shared by a collection of objects which are its instances. Every Class is itself an object, and has a particular instance called its *prototyp*-

ical instance.

```
def29. ClassDef ::=
   "define"
   Modifier
   "class"
   Name
   [("extends" CommaExpr)]
   ClassProperty**
   SEMI
   "enddefine"
```

The **Name** is defined to be a constant bound to the class object, and is suitable for use as a type name.

A class may be qualified as **public**, **protected private**, **array**, and **abstract**. If it is qualified **array**, its instances are array-type objects, and can be indexed with integers. A **public** class has its **methods** and **functions** (but not its **slots**) declared **public** by default. A class qualified **abstract** cannot have direct instances; trying to **new** it will fail.

The **array** modifier is not implemented by the current Spice compiler.

If the **extends** clause is present, its **CommaExpr** must be a comma-separated sequence of names of other classes, and this class inherits all of their slots. (Slots that are inherited twice along different routes of course only count once in the new class.)

The current Spice compiler only implements single inheritance.

```
def30. ClassProperty ::=
   Procedure
   | SlotDecl
   | VarDef
```

The properties of a class are its procedures and slots. A **NameDecl** within a class acts exactly like a **NameDecl** outside a class – they declare top-level permanent identifiers. Within a class, method definitions by default give their implicit **this** argument that class as their type.

```
def31. SlotDecl ::=
    ("slot" | "shared")
    Name
    [(":" Type)]
    [("=" Expr)]
    [("implements" Name2)]
```

Slots are declared by **slot** and **shared** declarations. Each **slot** declaration arranges that objects of this type have a slot in them, suitable for storing values of the given **Type**, and defines a procedure **Name1** of one argument which has the class as its type and whose action is to deliver the value of its slot; that procedure also has an updater which alters the value of that slot.

If **implements Name2** is specified, then **Name2** must be a generic procedure, and the slot declaration provides an overloading of that procedure for arguments of the current class.

A **shared** declaration does not allocate any slots in the object, but makes a procedure which accesses (and updates) a single shared location.

If a slot or shared identifier is qualified **readonly**, then the procedure that it exports has no updater, although the locally-visible version does.

When an object of this type is constructed, the **Expr**s of its **slot**s are run to get the initial values for those slots.

shared and **readonly** are not implemented by the current Spice compiler.

A class definition for **Spoo** allows the expression **E** is **Spoo** as a test for the value **E** being an instance of **Spoo** (or a subtype).

21.8 unit definitions

Unit definitions are not implemented by the current Spice compiler.

A unit definition informs the compiler about units and their dimensions.

```
def32. UnitDef ::=
   "define"
   ("unit" | "units")
   UnitDef++
   ","
   "enddefine"

def33. UnitDef ::=
   Word [("=" Expr)]
```

The **Word** of a **UnitDef** is declared to be legitimate unit names. If the **Expr** of a **UnitDef** is present, it must be an compile-time expression delivering an anonymous **Unit** value, which is named by the **Word**.

for example, we may have **define unit mile = inch * 12 * 3 * 1760 enddefine**, which defines **mile** in terms of **inch**, or **define**

unit length = new Unit(1, 'length') enddefine, which defines a new unit of dimension 'length'.

21.9 enumeration definitions

```
def34. EnumDef ::=
  "define"
  "enum"
  [(Modifier)]
  Name
  "="
  Name++
  ","
  "enddefine"
```

An **enum** declaration for **Foo** is shorthand for declaring a new class called **Foo** extending **Enum**, which provides two private slots (for the name and the magnitude of enumeration values) and an instance of this class for each of the **Names**. The enumeration values atart at 1 and the default value for **Foo** is an instance with value **0** and name **nullFoo**.

Implementors are encouraged to find efficient representations for enumeration values.

small syntax

Most of the rest of the syntax of Spice is in terms of expressions. Spice expressions may denote tuples of values; we say thay are multiple valued. Spice expressions may be evaluated in three modes; value mode, when they are evaluated for their value; update mode, when they are evaluated to update some location or data structure; and void mode, which is value mode except that all the values that are delivered are then discarded.

Unless otherwise specified, an expression is illegal in update mode. All function calls and operator applications are legal there; every procedure ${\bf P}$ can have an updater ${\bf U}$, which is the procedure that is called when a call of ${\bf P}$ appears as the target of an assignment.

22.1 expressions

A **Statement** is an expression, or sequence of expressions separated by commas. The value of a sequence of **Statement**s is the value of the *last* **Statement**; the values of all the others are discarded.

```
def35. Statement ::=
   Expr++ "," SEMI
def36. StatementSeq ::=
   Statement*
```

```
def37. Expr ::=
 Name
   Hole
   Literal
   Expr "..."
   PreOp Expr
   Expr PostOp
   Expr InOp Expr
   Expr AssignOp Expr
   "(" Expr ")"
   Expr [("." DotExpr)] [(OptExpr)]
   Expr [("@" DotExpr)] [(OptExpr)]
   Expr "[" Expr "]"
   "[" Expr "]"
   LambdaExpr
   "new" Name [("(" Expr ")")]
   "none" OptExpr
   "one" Expr
   "once" Expr
   "throw" Expr
   "[" CommaExpr "]"
   "{" CommaExpr "}"
   QuoteExpr
   TryCatchExpr
   IfExpr
   RepeatExpr
   ForExpr
   SwitchExpr
   VarDef
   ProcedureDef
```

Operator expressions are disambiguated by the "usual" precedence rules. Here, ${\bf Expr}$ is an expression that cannot contain top-level commas.

```
def38. OptExpr ::=
  [(Expr)]
def39. CommaExpr ::=
  Expr++ ","
def40. OptCommaExpr ::=
  [(CommaExpr)]
```

22.1.1 name

A **Name** is either a simple identifier, or an imported identifier **short::id**, where **short** is the short name of a package and **id** is the name of the identifier within

22.1.2 hole

A Hole is a "virtual operand" used when making partial applications. Thus the expression ?+1 is a function that adds 1 to things. The expression ?2-?1 is reverse subtract; the arguments to a partial application are numbered 1..N, left-to-right.

```
def41. Hole ::=
   "?" [(Integer)]
```

22.1.3 literal

Literals may be symbols, strings, characters, numbers, or reserved literals. Symbols, strings, numbers, and reserved literals are themselves lexical items.

```
def42. Literal ::=
   StringLiteral
   | NumberLiteral
   | ReservedLiteral
   | CharacterLiteral
```

22.1.4 explosions

The value of the expression \mathbf{E} ... is the *explosion* of the value of \mathbf{E} , ie all the components of all the public values of \mathbf{E} .

In update mode (ie as the target of an assignment) **E** must be an updatable expression; it is assigned an array constructed of all the values on the source of the expression.

22.1.5 prefix operators

The value of a prefix expression is found by applying the procedure bound to the prefix operator to the value delivered by the operand, *except* for the special operator **once**, which arranges that its operand is evaluated only once, "as soon as possible".

The prefix operator **one** delivers the first of its arguments, and **absent** if it called with no arguments.

22.1.6 postfix operators

The value of a postfix expression is found by applying the procedure bound to the postfix operator to the value delivered by the operand.

```
def43. PostOp ::=
  LexicalPostfixOperator
  | "@" DotExpr
```

[Note that @ can serve as a infix or postfix call marker.]

22.1.7 infix operators

```
def44. InOp ::=
  LexicalInfixOperator
  | "@" DotExpr
```

Note. The logical operators **and** and **or**, and the relational operators ==, <=, >=, <, >, !=, /==, ==, /== are special in that they all automatically **one** their arguments.

Further, the relational operators are *continued relationals*; if $\bf R$ and $\bf S$ are relational operators, the expression $\bf a$ $\bf R$ $\bf b$ $\bf S$ $\bf c$ is shorthand for $\bf a$ $\bf R$ $\bf b$ and $\bf b$ $\bf S$ $\bf c$, except that $\bf b$ is only evaluated once.

22.1.8 assignment operators

The assignment operators X:= for some operators X (ie +:=, -:=, *:=, /:=, &:=, |:=, $^{\wedge}:=$) are shorthand for assignments where the target and left operand of X are the same, ie, E_1 X:= E_2 is equivalent to $E_1:=$ E_1 X E_2 except that side-effects of E_1 are only applied once.

The assignment operator := evaluates its left operand (the *target*) in update mode with its right operand being the *source*.

The assignment operator "->" evaluates its *right* operand (the target) in update mode, with the source being its *left* operand; any excess values are retained as the value of the assignment expression.

The source delivers some sequence of values; the target is a sequence of updateable expressions. At most one target is allowed to be a procedure call with an updater which takes an indefinite number of assigned values. (Otherwise, in (f(), g()) = (1,2,3), where f and g both have indefinite updaters, there would be no way to tell how the values were to be distributed between f and g.) Assignments are done right-to-left; each assignment target takes the appropriate number of values from the right-hand end of the value sequence and the rest of the value sequence is handed to the remaining targets. If the assignment target is an identifier, one value is assigned into it. If it is a procedure call, its updater

is invoked, passing it the appropriate number of values.

22.1.9 bracketed expressions

The expression (E) has the same value that E does.

22.1.10 call expressions

The expression $\mathbf{x}.\mathbf{f}$ is a call of \mathbf{f} with argument(s) \mathbf{x} , as are the expressions $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ and \mathbf{x} @ \mathbf{f} . The expression $\mathbf{x}.\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y})$ is a call of \mathbf{f} with arguments (\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) , as is \mathbf{x} @ \mathbf{f} \mathbf{y} .

When a call appears as the target of an assignment, eg $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{E}$, it is equivalent to the expression $(\mathbf{f.updater})(\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{E})$; that is, the updater function specialises itself on the target arguments [allowing it to be overloaded on those arguments] and delivers a function which consumes the assigned values [and which may be separately overloaded on those values].

The current Spice implementation uses an earlier definition that has a similar effect in simple cases, but is inadequate to deal with overloaded functions: (f.updater)(x,E).

```
def45. DotExpr ::=
  Name
  | "(" Expr ")"
  | "return"
  | "throw"
  | "new"
```

The expression permitted after a dot or @ may be a Name, an arbitrary expression in brackets, or one of the reserved words **throw**, or **return** (which allows these forms to be used postfix) or **new** (which allows it to be used infix).

22.1.11 array expressions

The expression {**E**} is an *array expression*; it creates a new array by evaluating its operand and piling all the results into the new array.

22.1.12 index expressions

The value of the expression $\mathbf{a}[\mathbf{i}]$ is that obtained by calling the *index function* associated with the type of \mathbf{a} , supplying it with \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{i} . If \mathbf{a} is an array, this

attempts to index the array. If \mathbf{a} is a table, it looks \mathbf{i} up in that table. Otherwise it attempts to find the \mathbf{i} -property of \mathbf{a} .

When an index expression is used in update mode, the updater of the associated index function is called.

22.1.13 lambda expressions

A lambda-expression is an inline procedure definition; it is the procedure taking the specified arguments and computing the desired result.

```
def46. LambdaExpr ::=
  "(" Args "=>" StatementSeq ")"
  | "fun" Args "=>" StatementSeq "endfun"
```

22.1.14 quotation expressions

A quotation expression allows **Symbol** values, and sequences of **Symbol** values, to be denoted by an expression.

```
def47. QuoteExpr ::=
   "'" QuotedItems "'"

def48. QuotedItems ::=
   QuotedItem*

def49. QuotedItem ::=
   Word
   | "{" QuotedItems "}"
   | "(" Expr ")"
   | "^" Word
   | "^^" Word
   | Literal
```

A **QuotedItem** that is a literal or a word denotes the corresponding value; words are represented as Spice **Symbols** (interned strings with a type of their own). An item which is an expression in brackets evaluates to the value of that expression; the form ^Word is equivalent to (Word), with Word stripped of any special syntactic properties, and the form ^^Word is equivalent to (Word...).

The form $\{Q\}$ denotes the sequence formed out of the values denoted by Q. Thus quotations can express nested sequence structures which are mostly constant.

22.1.15 new expressions

The expression $\mathbf{new} \ \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{A})$ is a construction expression; \mathbf{X} is a constructor value, and \mathbf{A} the arguments to the construction. If the argument \mathbf{E} is omitted, it does *not* mean that \mathbf{X} is invoked on no values; instead the constructor function is delivered, as though one had written

```
(A... \Rightarrow new X(A...))
```

If X is a class value, then a new default-initialised instance of that class is constructed, and handed to the class's anonymous constructor. If X is a named constructor, that is, defined as **new** X in some class C, a new empty instance of C is constructed and passed to X with arguments A.

22.1.16 none expressions

The expression **none** denotes no values. The expression **none E** evaluates **E** and discards all the values it computes.

22.1.17 throw and try expressions

The expression **throw E** raises an exception with value the value of **E**. If this exception is not caught within the program, it is caught by the top-level Spice environment, which will deal with it in an implementation-specific fashion.

The **try** expression allows exceptions to be caught and handled.

```
def50. TryCatchExpr ::=
   "try" StatementSeq CatchSeq "endtry"

def51. CatchSeq ::=
   ("catch" Arglist [("as")] StatementSeq)**
```

The **StatementSeq** of the **try** is evaluated and the **try** expression resturns its result if no exception is thrown. If an exception **E** is thrown, then the **catch** body who's **Arglist** best matches the thrown value is executed (just as though the **catch** blocks were alternative definitions for an overloaded function) and the reult of the **try** is the result of that **catch** block.

If there is no **catch** (**x**: **Any**) catch clause, it is as though the clause **catch** (**x**:**Any**) with throw **x** had been supplied.

This is not true; the description needs revising.

Note that this is *not* sequential testing. Sequential testing means that you have to write the general case last, not first, and makes

things more order-dependant than they need be. Making the **catch** clauses share the semantics of procedure call makes the language more coherent and offers alternative implementation tactics.

22.1.18 if

An **if** expression expresses a choice. Both verbose and compact if-endif forms are supported; in the short form, **if** - **endif** is replaced by (-), "|" is used in place of **then** and **else**, and "|:" in place of **elseif**.

An **if** must have a matching **endif**, and an **unless** must have a matching **endunless**. **then** and **do** are equivalent in **if** and **unless** expressions. The **unless** form inverts the initial test.

```
def52. IfExpr ::=
 LongIfExpr
 ShortIfExpr
def53. ShortIfExpr ::=
   "("
  Expr
  CommaExpr
   ("|:" Expr "|" CommaExpr)*
   [("|" CommaExpr)]
   ")"
def54. LongIfExpr ::=
   ("if" | "unless")
  Expr
  Then
  StatementSeq
   ("elseif" Expr Then StatementSeq)*
   [("else" StatementSeq)]
   ("endif" | "endunless")
def55. Then ::=
 "then"
 do"
```

22.1.19 repeat

A **repeat** loop repeats statements while (or until) a condition is true. On each iteratation, **Seq1** is executed, and then **Expr1** is tested. If it is satisfied (**true** for **while**, **false**for **until**) then **Seq2** is executed and the loop repeats. Otherwise, the loop terminates and delivers all the values computed by the loop body.

```
def56. RepeatExpr ::=
    "repeat"
    StatementSeq1
    [(RepeatTest [("do" StatementSeq2)])]
    "endrepeat"

def57. RepeatTest ::=
    ("while" | "until") Expr1 [("then" Expr2)]
```

22.1.20 for

A for loop causes a body of code to be repeatedly executed while various conditions are **true** (or **false**), and variables are stepped "in parallel" along a sequence of values. When the loop terminates "naturally" (that is, by exhaustion of one of the sequences) then a termination clause is executed.

```
def58. ForExpr ::=
    "for"
    ForControls
    [("do" StatementSeq)]
    [("finally" StatementSeq)]
    "endfor"
```

The controls are separated by **also**, although that's optional if the next control is a **while** or an **until**.

```
def59. ForControls ::=
  ForControl
  | ForControls "also" ForControl
  | ForControls ForCondition
```

A Control is a binding of a variable to values, or an early-exit condition.

```
def60. ForControl ::=
  ForBinding
  | ForCondition
```

If the early-exit condition is satisfied (while false or until true), the loop terminates. If the then (for until) or else (for while) is present, its code is executed before the loop exits; otherwise the loop's finally code is executed.

```
def61. ForCondition ::=
   ("while" | "until")
   Expr
   [(("then" | "else") CommaExpr)]
```

A ForBinding binds names to sequences of values.

```
def62. ForBinding ::=
  ForName "in" Expr
    ForName
    "from"
    Expr
    [(("to" | "downto") Expr)]
    ForName "to" Expr

def63. ForName ::=
  Name [(TypeWord Type)]
```

For-loop identifiers are declared there, are immutable, and are local to the loop. What is more, a *new* identifier is bound each time round the loop (this is noticable only if the loop body forms closures using lambda-expressions or holes which involve the identifiers).

The meaning of a **ForBindings** is that each **Name** introduced is given successive values from its **Expr**, in parallel (ie on the **N**th iteration each **Name** has its **N**th value), until at least one of the **Expr**s is exhausted. The notion of "successive values" is defined by the run-time type of the expression's value. It is not defined what happens if that value is modified during the execution of the loop body.

The form $\mathbf{from} \ \mathbf{E_1} \ \mathbf{to} \ \mathbf{E_2}$ is equivalent to $\mathbf{in} \ [\mathbf{E_1..E_2}]$. If $\mathbf{to} \ \mathbf{E}$ is omitted, then the loop is unbounded (it will terminate only via **break** or if a parallel iteration terminates). If $\mathbf{from} \ \mathbf{E}$ is omitted, the loop starts at 1. If \mathbf{downto} is used instead of \mathbf{to} , the loop counts down rather than up.

22.1.21 switch

```
def64. SwitchExpr ::=
   "switch" Expr Case+ "endswitch"

def65. Case ::=
   ("case" Expr)+ "then" StatementSeq
   | "else" StatementSeq
```

Each **case** clause starts with some number of **case** expressions (or **else**) and is followed by the expressions to evaluate when the switch expression takes the value of one of those labels.

A Spice switch may switch on *any* values; it is not restricted to integer constants (although it may be much more efficient on them). In particular, a Spice switch may switch on strings and symbols.

A switch can have at most one else clause.

The result from a **switch** is the result from the selected **case** statement or statement sequence. Thus a **switch** may deliver multiple values.

22.1.22 var and procedure expressions

A VarDef and a ProcedureDef counts as expressions, but they deliver no values.

Note that this means that procedure definitions may be nested. A procedure may access and update the local variables of the procedure that it appears in; Spice has full lexical scope.

22.2 type expressions

A **type expression** is an expression. Its semantics is the same as that of ordinary expressions, but they must deliver values of type **Type**.

```
\begin{array}{c} \text{def66. Type} ::= \\ \text{Expr} \end{array}
```

The language of type expressions is intended to allow the programmer to give the compiler useful information about the program.

The basic type expression is the *name*. A name used as a type expression should be the name of one of the built-in types or a class. **Any** is the name of the universal type, **Object** is the name of all object types.

Only names are legal type-expressions in this edition of the Spice compiler.

If **T** is a type-expression, then **T??** represents the *optional type* of **T**; it is the type of values which may be **T** or may be the value **absent**. **absent** is also spelt **null**.

If T and U are type-expressions, so is T,U, which represents the type of multiple values with first component(s) or type T and second component(s) of type U.

If T is a type expression then so is T^{**} , the type of lots of multiple values all of type T.

If **T** is a type-expression, **{T}** ("array of T", "row of T") is the type of arrays who's elements are required to be of type **T**.

Chapter 23

scope rules

The scope rules for Spice define where identifiers are visible. They are intended to be natural and in most cases are straightforward.

A sequence of forms (eg, a package body, or a non-package) consists of sequences of consecutive declarations, bunches, interspersed with non-definition expressions. All the **Definitions** in a bunch are mutually in scope. In consequence, there is rarely any need for "forward" declarations. Non-definitions terminate this mutual scope to allow the rules for interactive execution to be the same as those for batch compilation.

classes do not introduce new scopes; the declarations within a class put names into the top-level namespace. The same name cannot legally declared more than once. (A **method** definition does not re-declare a name; it attaches additional definitions to an existing generic procedure.) Class slots must be uniquely named in a scope.

A procedure definition introduces a new scope; the arguments and the body share that scope. (Thus is it illegal to have two arguments with the same name, or an argument to have the same name as a top-level local of the procedure.) The body of the procedure is bunched in the same way as a package.

A LambdaExpr introduces a new scope. All the names from the surrounding scope are visible inside the lambda, with the same rights; in particular, it is permitted to assign to locals of the surrounding context, and for this to "work": Spice has full lexical scoping.

A **try** expression introduces a new scope which extends to the first **catch** clause (or to the **endtry** if there are no explicit **catch** clauses). A **catch** clause introduces a new scope which ends at the next [non-nested!] **catch** or **endtry**.

Each of the arms of an **if** or **unless** expression have their own scopes. The body of a **repeat** loop is a scope. (What's more, variables declared in the body of a

loop are re-declared each time round the loop.)

Each **SpiceCase** introduces a new scope which ends at the end of its **StatementSeq**.

A **for-do** statement introduces a new scope. The identifiers declared in a **ForBinding** are in scope in any succeeding **while** or **until** clause, and in the loop body, but *not* in the **Expr** parts of other **ForBinding**s of this loop. As for **while** and **until** loops, these identifiers are re-declared each time round the loop.

The right operand of an **and** or **or** operator has its own scope. (This odd rule is because \mathbf{x} and ((var $\mathbf{y} = 42$), \mathbf{z}) is a legal expression, but then questions would arise about \mathbf{y} 's existence or value if \mathbf{x} were false.)

Chapter 24

the standard library

Spice has a large library of standard values and procedures. Many of these have not been implemented yet.

24.1 generic procedures

- **x.typeof**: the type of **x**.
- x.printOn(s): send a human-readable representation of x down the stream s. Characters are sent as-is, integers are printed as their signed decimal representation [note: there ought to be a way of defining a negative numeric literal], strings are printed as their sequence of characters, arrays are printed as [elem1 elem2 ...], and objects are printed as defined by their overloading of printOn (and Class.printOn(s) does something sensible).
- x.print shorthand for x.printOn(standardOutput)
- x.report: shorthand for x.printOn(standardReport)
- **println(x...)**: **print** all the arguments in turn, prefixing all but the first with a space, and printing a newline after printing all the arguments.
- **x.copy**: make a copy of x. If x is atomic (Small, Symbol, Char, Procedure) just delivers x. If x is composite object, defaults to making a shallow copy of x. Overloadable for new types.
- ullet **x.toString**: convert **x** to a string in the same way that **print** does.
- equals(x, y) the procedure implementing =. Overloadable on new types, but the programmer has to ensure that the new definition respects the usual rules for equality (reflexive, transitive, symmetric).

- If x and y are both Small, Symbol, Char, or Procedure, equals delivers x == y (ie identity). If x == y, equals delivers true.
- If x and y are both objects, by default equals does a slot-by- slot = test on all the init-slots that x and y have in common. If any of these fail, equals delivers false; otherwise it delivers true.
- If x and y are both String, equals does the obvious string equality test. If they are both arrays, equals does the obvious sequence-equality test.
- ullet x.hashCode: a type-specific hashcode for the value x.
- apply(f, x...): called when evaluating f(X) and f is not a function. Overloadable. On arrays and strings is equivalent to indexing. On tables is table lookup. Has the obvious updater. Allows objects to represent functions compactly. Is not implemented.
- x.length: overloadable. Should deliver the "length" of the object. On strings and arrays has the obvious meaning. On objects delivers the number of "obvious" slots (see explode). On atomic objects delivers 0.
- x @asType t: t must be a type. The value x is converted to that type in a type-specific way (asType is overloadable), or an exception is thrown.
 x @asType String is equivalent to toString.

24.2 absent

The special value **absent** corresponds roughly to the value **null** in other programming languages: it denotes a "missing" value.

There are two special operators for use with **absent**, corresponding to the boolean operators **and** and **or**.

The expression $X \mid\mid Y$ is the value of X, unless it is **absent**, in which case it is the value of Y. Only if X is absent is Y evaluated. X and Y should both be expressions of arity 1. $\mid\mid$ can usefully be thought of as "if absent".

The expression **X** && **Y** is **absent** if **X** is **absent**; otherwise it is the value of **Y**. **Y** is not evaluated if **X** is **absent**. && can usefully be thought of as "if present".

24.3 numbers

Spice has several kinds of number: small integers (Small), big integers (Big-Int), short and long floating point values (Float, Double), ratios (ie fractions) (Ratio), and complex numbers (Complex).

Only **Small** and **Double** are implemented.

The operators +, -, *, /, div, rem, % work more-or-less as you'd expect on plain numbers (they work on some other values, too, for which see the section on units). div is integer division; the operands must be integers and the result is truncated toward 0. rem is integer remainder; the operands must be integers and the result is the appropriate remainder. / will produce a floating-point value if the result is not an exact integer.

The operator /: is exact division; its result uses ratios to express non-floating non-integer components. This is the primary way (the only way, at root) that ratio values are generated.

The operator .. ("upto") delivers multiple results: all the integers from the left operand (inclusive) to the right operand (also inclusive).

There are no bitwise operators; instead Spice provides them as predefined functions (to allow the operator symbols to be used for other purposes). The functions provided are bitAnd, bitXor, bitOr, bitNot, bitBic, bitShl, bitShr, and bitAsr, operating on integer arguments only.

The relational operators <=, <, >=, >==, /== work as you'd expect. Note that it's unwise to use == and /== on floating-point values.

There are also a number of standard functions.

- $\mathbf{x.abs}$ and its synonym $\mathbf{x.magnitude}$ is the absolute value of \mathbf{x} ; if \mathbf{x} is not complex, its sign is made positive; if \mathbf{x} is complex, it is its magnitude.
- **x.neg** and its equivalent **x.negative** invert the sign of the value of **x**. **x.positive** returns **x** if it is a (non-complex) number.
- \mathbf{x} @min \mathbf{y} , \mathbf{x} @max \mathbf{y} deliver the minimum (maximum) of their argument values \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} .
- \mathbf{x} @logToBase \mathbf{y} delivers the logarithm of \mathbf{x} to the (positive integer) base \mathbf{v} .
- x @toPower y delivers x raised to the power y.
- **x.sqrt** is the square root of **x**. An exception is thrown if the result must be **Complex** but this implemention does not support it.
- **x.round**, **x.floor**, **x.ceiling** convert the value **x** to an integer (details to be added).
- x.cos, x.sin, x.tan are the usual trigonometric functions. The argument is in radians.
- x.inRadians takes an angle in degrees x and converts it to radians. x.inDegrees takes an angle in radians and converts it to degrees.

• x.acos, x.asin, x.atan are the usual inverse trigonometric functions. Note that atan is only suitable for simple programs.

[various complex functions etc to be done]

24.4 enumerations

Enumeration values can be queried for their numeric value and name, and can be created from numeric values or names. Note that the number of enumeration values is fixed by the declaration; the constructor delivers existing values, not fresh ones.

- **e.index**: if **e** is an enumeration value, its index is its position in the list in which it was declared.
- **new E(n)**: if **E** is an enumeration type, the **n**th enumeration value that it was declared with, or an error is thrown if **n** is out of range.
- e.enumName: if e is an enumeration value, the symbol which names it.
- **new E(s)**: if **E** is an enumeration type, and **s** is a string or symbol, the enumeration value of **E** named by that string or symbol, or an error is thrown.

24.5 values with units

Spice has values with units. Values with units represent lengths, or times, or other inter-related quantities. All the unit procedures are imported qualified from Spice.language.units.

A unit expresses an amount along a given dimension. A basic dimension is represented by a symbol naming that dimension. A compound dimension is the result of a product or quotient of dimensions.

- Unit: the type of units.
- Unit(scale, unitName, dimension): make a new unit object. dimension must be a symbol or string; it specifies the dimension of the unit. (Typical values are length, time, colour.) unitName must be a symbol or string; it names the unit itself. [It is an error if a unit with that name already exists.] The scale expresses the scale of this unit in terms of the "canonical unit" for this kind; a scale of 1 defines the canonical unit.
- ullet U @unitProduct V: U and V must be unit objects. The result is the product of those units.

- U @unitQuotient V: U and V must be unit objects. The result is the quotient of those units.
- U.scale: U must be a Unit object; the result is its scale.
- U.name: U must be a Unitobject; the result it its unit name.
- U.dimension: U must be a Unit object; the result is its dimension.
- **x** @inUnits **y**: **x** must be a numeric value, and **y** must be a unit name (symbol or string) or a Unit object (eg from unitNamed). The result is a unit value with **x** as its number and the unit (named by) **y** as its unit.
- **n.unitNamed**: the **Unit** value named by **n**, which must be a string or a symbol.
- u.number: the number of the value u, which must be a value with units.
- **u.unit**: the unit of the value **u**, which must be a value with units.
- **u.explode**: **u** must be a value with units; exploding it gets the number and unit, in that order.

The arithmetic operators also work on values with units. There is a minor complication in that different units of the same kind may be inter-converted. Multiplication and division also work on **Unit** objects themselves to produce new **Unit** objects; this is intended for use in **define unit** definitions.

- **u** + **v**, **u v**: **u** and **v** must be values with the same dimension. The number with the larger unit is scaled to the size of the smaller, and the result is the sum (difference) of the numbers, with the smaller unit as its unit. [*ie*, adding inches to miles gets a result in inches.]
- u * v: if u or v has units, the result has number u.number * v.number and units u.unit @unitProduct v.unit.
- $\mathbf{U} * \mathbf{V}$: if \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} are units or numbers, the result is a new unit which has dimensions the product of the dimensions of \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} , and number the product of the numbers of \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} .
- u / v: if u or v has units, the result has number u.number / v.number and units u.unit @unitQuotient v.unit.
- U / V: if U and V are units or numbers, the result is a new unit with dimensions the quotient of the dimensions of U and V, and number the quotient of the numbers of U and V.
- $\mathbf{u} < \mathbf{v}$: equivalent to $\mathbf{number}(\mathbf{v} \mathbf{u}) < \mathbf{0}$, and similarly for the other relational operators.

24.6 strings

Strings are sequences of Unicode characters in canonical form. Strings created as literal tokens are immutable. Strings, like arrays, can be indexed using the s[i] notation. The infix operator ++ concatenates strings (and arrays).

There are many built-in functions on strings.

- s.length is the length in characters of s.
- s @indexOf x delivers the index in s of the first occurance of x, which can be a character or a string. If s does not contain any occurence of x, indexOf delivers absent. The result has the same base as the string does.
- s @lastIndexOf x is the same as indexOf, except that it searches for the last occurrence of x, not the first.
- s @chopAt x, where x is a string or character, delivers two results (before, after) such that s == (before <> x <> after) and x does not occur earlier in s.
- s @chopAt x, where x is an integer, delivers (after, before) such that s = before <> after and after.length == x s.stringBase.
- \mathbf{s} @split \mathbf{x} delivers an array of strings obtained by repeatedly chopping \mathbf{s} with \mathbf{x} .
- **s.toLower** is a copy of **s** with all upper-case characters replaced by their lower-case counterparts; **s.toUpper** is a copy of **s** with all lower-case characters replaced by their upper-case counterparts.
- x @catStringly y: equivalent to x <> y.toString.

24.7 symbols

Symbols are not implemented.

The *symbol literal* 'foo' represents a *symbol* (a value of type **Symbol**) whose *spelling* is the string foo. The important difference between symbols and strings is that there is only one symbol with a given spelling. (You can tell the difference using the Spice *identity operator* ==.)

You can index symbols using $\mathbf{s}[\mathbf{i}]$, but if you do so, you are probably using symbols for something other than their intended use; supplying the programmer with an infinite set of mnenomic values.

- s.intern, where s is a string, delivers the symbol whose spelling is s, making it if necessary.
- $\mathbf{s.spelling}$, where \mathbf{s} is a symbol, delivers an immutable string which is the spelling of \mathbf{s} .
- ullet s.explode, where s is a symbol, delivers all the characters of s, rightmost last.

24.8 booleans

The built-in operators **not**, **and**, **or** on booleans operate as you might expect; **not** negates its operand, **and** is boolean **and** and **or** is boolean **or**, neither of which evaluate their second operand unless it's necessary.

24.9 arrays

Array elements can be accessed and updated using the a[i] notation.

- \bullet a.length: delivers the length of the array ${\bf a}$.
- a @reduceBy (x, p): a must be an array, x some value, and p a dyadic procedure. The result is obtained by starting with x and repeatedly replacing it by the result of p(result,ai) for ai being bound to all the elements of a in turn.
- a @join s, a.join: equivalent to a @reduceBy (s, catStringly); with one argument, s is taken to be the null string "".
- a @sortInPlaceWith f: sorts the array a according to the comparison function f. f should accept two arguments (x, y) and deliver true if x should go before y in the ordering and false otherwise. sortInPlaceWith is guaranteed to be stable if f is sane.
- a @sortWith f: makes a copy of a and sorts that in place with f, so far as anyone can tell. (The implementor is at liberty to make a more efficient version.)
- a.reverse: a copy of a with the elements reversed.
- a.reverseInPlace: reverses the order of the elements of a.

24.10 bits

Spice does not have standard operators for bit operations on integer values; instead, it has standard functions which you call in infix form. This reflects the designer's belief that bit operations are simply not used enough to warrent using up useful symbols for them.

- x@bitNot: the bitwise complement of x and y.
- \mathbf{x} @bitAnd \mathbf{y} : the bitwise and of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} .
- x @bitOr y: the bitwise or of x and y.
- x @bitXor y: the bitwise exclusive or of x and y.
- x @bitClear y: x @bitAnd y.bitNot.
- x @bitShl y: x shifted left y places.
- x @bitShr y: x shifted right y places. Note: the sign of x is always preserved for plain (Small or Big) integer values.

24.11 procedures

There are several standard functions on procedures.

- **p.updater**: if **p** is a procedure, then delivers its updater (or **absent** if if hasn't got one).
- \mathbf{p} @apply x: \mathbf{p} must be a procedure, and \mathbf{x} a collection of values; applies \mathbf{p} to all the values in \mathbf{x} , ie, is \mathbf{x} .explode. \mathbf{p} except that \mathbf{x} must be a compound type.

The different kinds of procedures can be recognised by predicates.

- x.isProcedure is true when x is any kind of procedure, and false otherwise.
- x.isMethod is true if x is defined by a method definition, and false otherwise:
- **x.isFunction** if **x** is defined by a **function** definition, and **false** otherwise;
- **x.isConstructor** is **true** when **x** has been defined with **method new**, and **false** otherwise;
- **x.isLambda** is **true** when **x** is the result of a lambda-expression or hole-expression, and **false** otherwise.

24.12 dictionaries and tables

The type **Lookup** is the parent type of a variety of mapping data types; the *simple* mapping types map single values to single values, while the *compond* mapping types map tuples of values to tuples of values. There are no direct instances of **Lookup**. The type **Maplet** is the type of pairs of (simple) values. The type **Dictionary** is an extension of **Lookup** that maps **Symbols** to values.

- l.length: the number of key-value associations stored in the lookup l.
- **l.explode**: the key-value pairs stored in the lookup **l**. Each pair is represented by an instance of the type **Maplet**.
- **p** @mapOver l: apply the procedure **p** to each of the key-value pairs in l in turn. **p** will be called with two arguments, being the key and the value. All the results of **p** will be returned.
- 1 @hasKey k: if l is an instance of an extension of Lookup, hasKey returns true if k is a key for a non-default value in l and false otherwise.
- 1 @fetch k: if l is an instance of an extension of Lookup, fetch gets the value bound to the key k. If no value is bound, some type-specific computation is performed. fetch has an updater which alters the bound value, or creates a binding if none already exists.
- 1 @apply k: if l is an instance of an extension of Lookup, applying it runs fetch.
- m.key: the key part of m, ie, the value which would be looked up.
- **m.value**: the value part of **m**, ie, the value that would be returned when looking up the **key** part.
- **Dictionary**(): constructs an empty **Dictionary** object with default value **absent**. A **Dictionary** is an extension of **Lookup**.
- Dictionary(d): constructs an empty Dictionary with default value d.
- Dictionary(d, k_1 , v_1 , ..., k_n , v_n): constructs a Dictionary with default value d and bindings which bind k_i to v_i . If several k_i are equal, the last one wins. All the k_i must be **Symbols**.
- Table: an extension of **Lookup** with constructors in the same style as **Dictionary**. A **Table** can have key arguments of any type; they are compared using == (and hashed using **hashCode**, qv).
- FatTable: an compound mapping extension of Lookup. FatTable has similar constructors to Dictionary, except that the keys and values must all be arrays; all the keys must have the same length, and all the values must have the same length. A FatTable maps tuples of values to tuples of values.

• \mathbf{f} @fetch $(\mathbf{k}_1, ..., \mathbf{k}_n)$: if \mathbf{f} is a FatTable, look up the value(s) specified by the sequence of keys \mathbf{k}_i , which must be the same length as the key arrays used in the constructor of \mathbf{f} . Deliver the associated multiple values. The updater of fetch will store multiple values into \mathbf{f} .

24.13 io

Spice includes some simple I/O operations in its core; the type **Pathname**, the type **File**, and the type **Stream**.

- s.parsePath: s must be a string or symbol. It is parsed into a Pathname, or an exception thrown if it is illegal in some way. (See below for the syntax of pathnames).
- p.pathScheme, p.pathRoot, p.pathDirs, p.pathName, p.pathSuffix, and p.pathType: the corresponding components of the pathname. If the component was omitted in the originating string, the result is absent.
- p @openIn: p must be a pathname (or string or symbol, which is immediately parsed into a pathname). The external entity named by the path is opened for input. openIn delivers a File object.
- p @openOut: p must be a pathname (or string or symbol, which is immediately parsed into a pathname). The external entity named by the path is opened for output. openOut delivers a File object.
- **f.openedOn**: if **f** is a file, then the pathname it was opened on.
- **f.close**: **f** must be a file; if it is not closed, it is hereby closed, committing all writes (if open for output).
- f @readInto (b, w, l): f must be a file open for input. readInto reads the next l bytes (or fewer) into the buffer b, which must be a byte array, starting at position w. An exception is thrown if w or w+l would be outside the bounds of b. The number of bytes actually read is returned as the result.
- **f** @writeFrom (b, w, l): **f** must be a file open for output. I bytes from the byte array **b** are written, starting at offset w. An exception is thrown if w or w+l would be outside the bounds of **b**.
- **f.inFrom**: **f** is a file open for input, or a pathname (which is immediately **openIn**'ed). The result is an byte **InStream** on the file.
- f.outTo: f is a file open for output, or a pathname (which is immediately openOut'ed). The result is an byte OutStream on the file.

- s.next: s must be an InStream; the result is the next object from s, or absent if the file has been exhausted. next has an updater which puts objects back onto the stream. Arbitrarily many objects can be put back, and they need not correspond to objects originally present in the stream.
- s @out x: s must be an OutStream and x an object; that object is appended to the stream.
- **s.streamFile**: if **s** is a stream based on a file, delivers that file; otherwise an exception is thrown.

24.13.1 pathname syntax and accessors

A pathname has several components. The basic elements are **Word**s which, within this section, are sequences of characters not otherwise reserved to the pathname syntax.

In this section, the identifier **p** is presumed to contain a **Pathname** value.

```
def67. Pathname ::=
  [(Scheme)]
  [(Root)]
  [(Directories)]
  [(Name)]
  [(Suffix)]
  [(Type)]

def68. Scheme ::=
  Word ":"
```

The **Scheme** of a pathname directs how the components are to be interpreted. The standard schemes are **file**, **http**, and **socket**.

p.pathScheme is a Symbol.

```
def69. Root ::=
"//" Dotted
```

The **Root** identifies where the pathname is anchored. For an **http** or **net** pathname, the **Root** is the IP address where the named entity is located. For a **file** scheme, the **Unit** identifies some root in the filing system in an implementation-specific way.

p.pathRoot is an array of Symbol values, one for each word-part of the Dotted.

```
def70. Directories ::=
  [("/")] (Dotted "/")++
```

The **Directories** identify some place within the **Root** where an entity is found, by giving a sequence of **Dotteds**. For a **file** scheme, thet are the names of

filing-system directories. For an **http** scheme, they are successive components of the directory part of the URL. For a **socket** scheme, they identify the port number to be used for the socket; typically there is but one **Dotted** and it names an IP service.

p.pathDirectories is an array of **Symbols**, each symbol being the spelling of a **Dotted**.

```
def71. Name ::=
```

The **Name** is the leafname of the entity being described.

p.pathName is a Symbol.

```
def72. Suffix ::=
"." Word
```

The **Suffix** is the suffix part of the entity name.

p.pathSuffix is a Symbol.

```
def73. Type ::=
   ";" Word
```

The **Type** is the type of the entity. When a pathname is being used to create an object, is specifies the type of object to create. When it is being used to access an existing object, the object should be of a compatible type.

```
p.pathType is a Symbol.
def74. Dotted ::=
Word++ "."
```

24.14 other undefined library support

Spice is expected to support useful library functions for locales, dates, and regular expressions, but these have not yet been specified.

24.15 types

The standard types are

- Lookup, the parent type of data dictionaries.
- Maplet, a helper type for data dictionaries.
- Table, the type of tables.
- FatTable, the type of compound tables.

- Small, the type of small integers.
- **Number**, the type of all numbers integers, floats, rationals (when implemented), complexes (ditto).
- Complex, the type of complex values.
- Ratio, the type of ratios.
- **BigInt**, the type of big integers.
- Float, the type of all floating-point numbers.
- String, the type of strings.
- Procedure, the type of all procedures.
- Bool, the type of booleans.
- Char, the type of characters.
- Any, the type of anything whatsoever.
- **Object**, the type of all objects (ie things defined by classes).
- Date, the type of dates.
- Unit, the type of units.
- Pathname, the type of pathname objects used to represent URLs (and local file names, etc).

Appendix A

Spice.core.tables

spice standard packages

Spice compes with a collection of standard packages. Most of them are automaticlly imported by the compiler (except in limited implementations), but it is permitted to export them explicitly.

Formation of order orders ordered.	
package name	description
Spice.core.complex	handling complex arithmetic
Spice.core.ratios	handling rational numbers
Spice.core.bignums	handling big integers
Spice.core.styles	style operations
Spice.core.units	define unit definitions and operations
Spice.core.properties	property declarations and operations
Spice.core.multimethods	support for multimethods
Spice.core.multivalues	support for multiple values
Spice.core.monomethods	support for monomethods (single-argument polymorphism)
Spice.core.multiheritance	support for multiple inheritance
Spice.core.dates	the Date type and its operations
Spice.core.io	basic input/output support, including pathnames
Spice.core.files	file input/output support
Spice.core.net	network input/output support

lookup table support

Appendix B

glossary

- absent. The "missing" value. Also spelt null.
- all. reserved word used following do in loops to specify that the value of the loop includes all the values from iterating through its body.
- **Any**. The universal type; all values are compatible with **Any**.
- class. A value representing a template for a collection of other values called its instances.
- **explode**. (a) the name of a procedure which explodes its single argument. (b) to take a value and deliver all of its consituent values.
- enum. An abbreviated class definition which describes a new class and all of its values.
- hole. The marker? in an expression, representing a parameter position for an implicit lambda-expression wrapped round the smallest enclosing application.
- initialiser. A procedure declared with define init which initialises its first argument (usually called this) according to the values of its remaining instances.
- lambda expression. An expression describing a procedure by giving its arguments and body.
- **method**. A **procedure** expected to be called using dot-notation and defined within a **class**. Methods have a usually-implicit first argument usually called **this**.
- measure. A value consisting of a number and a unit, meaning that many of that unit.

- multiple values. A Spice expression can evaluate to zero or more values, and how many values is determined at run-time, not compile-time. Thus a function call, or a loop, may deliver several results, which may be assigned or embedded into a larger expression.
- **new**. Syntactic form for building instances of a class.
- null. Another name for absent.
- package. A named collection of definitions and executable expressions; the unit of encapsulation.
- predicate. A procedure of one argument that returns a single Bool value.
- procedure. A piece of code invoked from elsewhere to perform some specified task. A procedure takes some number of arguments, performs some action, and delivers some number of results.
- **property**. (a) part of a **style** that gives a value to some aspect of rendering. (b) the name of such a part. (c) A procedure which maps objects to values in a way that respects their class inheritance structure. (d) The name of such a procedure.
- **slot**. (a) A named location within (instances of) a class. (b) the procedure which gives access to such a location.
- super. Used in method calls to invoke the "next more general" method.
- unit. The value used in a measure to specify the units of that measure, eg inches, seconds, x's, and so on.
- **updater**. The part of a **procedure** that implements its behaviour when it is called as the target of an assignment.

Appendix C

syntactic summary

This section gathers together all the syntax from the rest of the document.

```
{\it def1.\ Program} ::=
 Spice (Package* | PackageBody)
def2. Spice ::=
 "spice" String ("," (Name ":" Expr))*
def3. OpenModifier ::=
 MarkedModifier Modifier*
def4. Modifier ::=
 {\tt MarkedModifier}
 | Name [(ModArgument)]
 | "[" Modifier** "," "]"
def5. MarkedModifier ::=
 "public"
   "private"
 | "protected"
def6. MarkedArgument ::=
 Literal
 | "(" Expression ")"
def7. Package ::=
  MarkedModifier
   "package"
  PackageName
  PackageBody
   [("endpackage")]
```

```
def8. PackageName ::=
 Word++ "."
def9. PackageBody ::=
 Import** SEMI Bundle** SEMI
def10. Bundle ::=
 Definition+ Expr*
def11. Definition ::=
 ProcedureDef
   VarDef
   ClassDef
   UnitDef
 EnumDef
def12. Import ::=
  {\tt MarkedModifier}
   "import"
  {\tt OpenModifier}
   [(Alias "=")]
  {\tt PackageName}
   [("facet" (Name** ","))]
   [("from" Expr)]
def13. ProcedureDef ::=
 FullProcedureDef
   FunctionDef
 | CompactDef
def14. FullProcedureDef ::=
   "define"
  Modifier
   ("method" | "function" | "generic" | "init" | "specific")
   [("returns" Type)]
   [("extends" CommaExpr)]
   [("super" Header)]
  ProcedureBody
   "enddefine"
```

```
def15. FunctionDef ::=
  OpenModifier
  "function"
  Header
   [("returns" Type)]
   [("extends" CommaExpr)]
   [("super" Header)]
  ProcedureBody
   "endfunction"
def16. CompactDef ::=
 "def" Header ("=" | "as" | "=>") Expr
def17. Header ::=
 CallShape
 | Name "->" CallShape
 | CallShape ":=" Arg
def18. CallShape ::=
 PrefixShape
  DottedShape
 | InfixShape
def19. PrefixShape ::=
 NameA [(Arglist)]
def20. DottedShape ::=
 NameB . NameA [(Arglist)]
def21. InfixShape ::=
 ArgA @ NameA [(ArgB)]
def22. Arglist ::=
 "(" Args ")"
def23. Args ::=
 Arg** ","
def24. Arg ::=
 Name [(":" [("!")] Type | "==" Expr)]
 | [(Name)] "..."
def25. ProcedureBody ::=
 StatementSeq
  ArgList "=>" ProcedureBody
 | Arg "=>" ProcedureBody
def26. VarDef ::=
 MarkedModifier ("const" | "var") NameDecl
```

```
def27. NameDecl ::=
   (OneDecl | "(" OneDecl++ "," ")")
   [(("=" | ":=") Expr)]
{\it def28.\ One Decl ::=}
 Name [(":" Type | "...")]
def29. ClassDef ::=
   "define"
  Modifier
   "class"
  Name
   [("extends" CommaExpr)]
   ClassProperty**
   SEMI
   "enddefine"
def30. ClassProperty ::=
 Procedure
  | SlotDecl
  | VarDef
def31. SlotDecl ::=
   ("slot" | "shared")
   Name
   [(":" Type)]
   [("=" Expr)]
   [("implements" Name2)]
def32. UnitDef ::=
   "define"
   ("unit" | "units")
   UnitDef++
   ","
   "enddefine"
def33. UnitDef ::=
 Word [("=" Expr)]
def34. EnumDef ::=
   "define"
   "enum"
   [(Modifier)]
  Name
   "="
  Name++
   ","
   "enddefine"
```

```
def35. Statement ::=
 Expr++ "," SEMI
def36. StatementSeq ::=
 Statement*
def37. Expr ::=
 Name
 Hole
  Literal
 | Expr "..."
  PreOp Expr
   Expr PostOp
   Expr InOp Expr
   Expr AssignOp Expr
   "(" Expr ")"
   Expr [("." DotExpr)] [(OptExpr)]
   Expr [("@" DotExpr)] [(OptExpr)]
   Expr "[" Expr "]"
   "[" Expr "]"
   LambdaExpr
   "new" Name [("(" Expr ")")]
   "none" OptExpr
   "one" Expr
   "once" Expr
   "throw" Expr
   "[" CommaExpr "]"
   "{" CommaExpr "}"
   QuoteExpr
   TryCatchExpr
   IfExpr
   RepeatExpr
  ForExpr
   {\tt SwitchExpr}
   VarDef
   ProcedureDef
def38. OptExpr ::=
 [(Expr)]
def39. CommaExpr ::=
 Expr++ ","
def40. \ OptCommaExpr ::=
 [(CommaExpr)]
def41. Hole ::=
 "?" [(Integer)]
```

```
def42. Literal ::=
 StringLiteral
 NumberLiteral
   ReservedLiteral
 CharacterLiteral
def43. PostOp ::=
 LexicalPostfixOperator
 | "@" DotExpr
def44. InOp ::=
 LexicalInfixOperator
 | "@" DotExpr
def45. DotExpr ::=
 Name
   "(" Expr ")"
   "return"
   "throw"
  "new"
def46. LambdaExpr ::=
 "(" Args "=>" StatementSeq ")"
 | "fun" Args "=>" StatementSeq "endfun"
def47. QuoteExpr ::=
 "'" QuotedItems "'"
def48. QuotedItems ::=
 QuotedItem*
def49. QuotedItem ::=
 Word
   "{" QuotedItems "}"
   "(" Expr ")"
   "^{\wedge}" Word
   "^^" Word
 Literal
def50. TryCatchExpr ::=
 "try" StatementSeq CatchSeq "endtry"
def51. CatchSeq ::=
   ("catch" Arglist [("as")] StatementSeq)**
def52. If
Expr ::=
 LongIfExpr
 ShortIfExpr
```

```
def53. ShortIfExpr ::=
  "("
  Expr
  " | "
  {\tt CommaExpr}
   ("|:" Expr "|" CommaExpr)*
   [("|" CommaExpr)]
   ")"
def54. LongIfExpr ::=
  ("if" | "unless")
  Expr
  Then
  StatementSeq
  ("elseif" Expr Then StatementSeq)*
   [("else" StatementSeq)]
   ("endif" | "endunless")
def55. Then ::=
 "then"
 do"
def56. RepeatExpr ::=
  "repeat"
  StatementSeq1
   [(RepeatTest [("do" StatementSeq2)])]
   "endrepeat"
def57. RepeatTest ::=
 ("while" | "until") Expr1 [("then" Expr2)]
def58. For Expr :=
   "for"
  ForControls
   [("do" StatementSeq)]
   [("finally" StatementSeq)]
   "endfor"
def59. ForControls ::=
 ForControl
 | ForControls "also" ForControl
 | ForControls ForCondition
def60. ForControl ::=
 ForBinding
 ForCondition
```

```
def61. ForCondition ::=
   ("while" | "until")
   [(("then" | "else") CommaExpr)]
def62. ForBinding ::=
 ForName "in" Expr
    ForName
    "from"
    Expr
    [(("to" | "downto") Expr)]
 | ForName "to" Expr
def63. ForName ::=
 Name [(TypeWord Type)]
def64. SwitchExpr ::=
 "switch" Expr Case+ "endswitch"
def65. Case ::=
 ("case" Expr)+ "then" StatementSeq
 | "else" StatementSeq
def66. Type ::=
 Expr
def67. Pathname ::=
   [(Scheme)]
   [(Root)]
  [(Directories)]
   [(Name)]
   [(Suffix)]
   [(Type)]
def68. Scheme ::=
 Word ":"
def69. Root ::=
 "//" Dotted

def 70. Directories ::=

 [("/")] (Dotted "/")++
def71. Name ::=
 Word
def72. Suffix ::=
 "." Word
def73. Type ::=
 ";" Word
```

def74. Dotted ::=
Word++ "."