Tridash 0.5 Reference Manual

Contents

Complete reference manual for version 0.5 of the Tridash programming language.

Syntax

Syntactically a Tridash program consists of a sequence of **node** declarations, each consisting of a single node expression. Node expressions are divided into three types: **atom** nodes, **functor** nodes and **literal** nodes. Declarations are separated by a semicolon `;` character or a line break.

Anything occurring between a `#` character and the end of the line is treated as a comment and is discarded.

Basic Grammar

```
<declaration> = <node>(';' | <line break> | <end of file>)

<node> = <functor> | <identifier> | <literal>
<node> = '(' <node> ')'

<functor> = <prefix-functor> | <infix-functor>
<prefix-functor> = <node> '(' [<node> {',' <node>}*] ')'
<infix-functor> = <node>' '<identifier>' '<node>

<literal> = <number> | <string>
<number> = <integer> | <real>
```

Grammar Notation

The grammar notation used in this manual adheres to the following conventions:

- Angle brackets `<...>` indicate named syntactical entities.

- `=` designates that the syntactical entity on the left is defined by the rules on the right. Multiple definitions of the same syntactical entity indicate disjunction of the rules in each definition.

- `|` indicates disjunction in a single definition.

- Literal tokens are enclosed in single quotes `'...'`.

- `..` indicates ranges, e.g. `'0'..'9'` indicates the digit characters in the range 0 to 9: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9.

- Rules enclosed in square brackets `[...]` are optional.

- Multiple rules enclosed in braces `{...}` are grouped into a single rule.

- `*` indicates zero or more repetitions of the preceding rule.

- `+` indicates one or more repetitions of the preceding rule.

Atom Nodes

An **atom** node consists of a single node identifier, referred to as a symbol. Node identifiers may consist of any sequence of characters excluding whitespace, line breaks, and the following special characters: `(`, `)`, `{`, `}`, `"`, `,`, `.`, `;`, `#`. Node identifiers must consist of at least one non-digit character, otherwise they are interpreted as numbers.

The following are all examples of valid node identifiers:

- `name`

- `full-name`

- `node1`

- `1node`

The following are not valid node identifiers:

- `123`

- `a.b`

- `j#2` — Only the `j` is part of an identifier, the `#2` is a comment

- `1e7` — As the `e` indicates a real-number in scientific notation. *See Numbers*.

Functors

A functor node is an expression consisting of an operator node applied to zero or more argument nodes. Syntactically the operator node is written first followed by the comma-separated list of argument nodes in parenthesis `(...)`.

Examples

```
op(arg)
func(arg1, arg2)
m.fn()
```

! **Important**
A line break occurring before the closing parenthesis `)` is not treated as a declaration separator. Instead the following line is treated as a continuation of the current line.

In the special case of an operator applied to two arguments, the operator may be placed in infix position, that is between the two argument nodes. The operator may only be an **atom** node and must be registered as an infix operator.

! **Important**
Spaces between the infix operator and its operands are required, in order to distinguish the operator from the operands. This is due to there being few restrictions on the characters allowed in node identifiers.

! **Important**
A line break occurring between the infix operator and its right argument is not treated as a declaration separator. However a line break between the left argument and infix operator is treated as terminating the declaration consisting of the left argument. The following line is then treated as a new separate declaration.

Functor expressions written in infix and prefix form are equivalent, thus the following infix functor expression:

```
a + b
```

is equivalent to the following prefix functor expression (*either expression may be written in source code*):

```
+(a, b)
```

Each node registered as an infix operator has, associated with it, a precedence and associativity. The precedence is a number that controls the priority with which the operator consumes its arguments. Operators with a higher precedence consume arguments before operators with a lower precedence. The associativity controls whether the operands are grouped starting from the left or right, in an expression containing multiple instances of the same infix operator.

```
a + b * c
```

The `*` operator has a greater precedence than the `+` operator, thus it consumes its arguments first, consuming the `b` and `c` arguments.

The `+` operator has a lower precedence thus it consumes its arguments after `*`. The arguments available to it are `a` and `*(b, c)`.

As a result the infix functor expression is parsed to the following:

```
+(a, *(b, c))
```

Use parenthesis to control which arguments are grouped with which operators. Thus for an infix expression to be parsed to the following, , assuming the `*` operator has a greater precedence than `+`:

```
*(+(a, b), c)
```

`a + b` must be surrounded in parenthesis:

```
(a + b) * c
```

Node Lists

Multiple declarations can be syntactically grouped into a single node expression using the `{` and `}` delimiters. All declarations between the delimiters are processed and accumulated into a special *node list* syntactic entity. In most contexts the node list is treated as being equivalent to the last node expression before the closing brace `}`, however special operators and macros may process node lists in a different manner.

Node Lists

```
<node> = <node list>
<node list> = '{' <declaration>* '}'
```

> ⚠ **Warning**
> Each node list must be terminated by a closing brace `}` further on in the file otherwise a parse error is triggered.

Literals

Literal nodes include numbers and strings.

Numbers

There are two types of numbers: **integer**s and real-valued numbers, referred to as **real**s, which are represented as floating-point numbers.

Integers consist of a sequence of digits in the range `0--9`, optionally preceded by the integer's sign. A preceding `-` indicates a negative number. A preceding `+` indicates a positive integer, which is the default if the sign is omitted.

Integer Syntax

```
<integer> = ['+'|'-']('0'..'9')+
```

There are numerous syntaxes for real-valued numbers. The most basic is the decimal syntax which comprises an **integer** followed by the decimal dot `.` character and a sequence of digits in the range `0--9`.

Decimal Real Syntax

```
<real> = <decimal> | <magnitude-exponent>

<decimal> = <integer>'.'('0'..'9')+
```

Note

The decimal `.` must be preceded and followed by at-least one digit character. Thus `.5` and `1.` are not valid **real** literals, `0.5` and `1.0` have to be written instead.

The exponent syntax allows a real-number to be specified in scientific notation as a magnitude m and exponent n pair $m \times 10^n$. The exponent syntax comprises a real in decimal syntax or an integer, followed by the character e, f, d, or `l` which indicates the precision of the real-number, followed by the exponent as an integer.

Exponent Syntax

```
<magnitude-exponent> = (<decimal>|<integer>)['e'|'f'|'d'|'l']<integer>
```

e and f indicate a single precision floating point number, d indicates double precision and `l` indicates long precision.

Strings

Literal strings consist of a sequence of characters enclosed in double quotes `"..."`.

String Syntax

```
<string> = '"'<unicode char>*'"'
```

where `<unicode char>` can be any Unicode character.

A literal `"` character can appear inside a string if it is preceded by the backslash escape character `\`.

Example

```
"John said \"Hello\""
```

Certain escape sequence, consisting of a `\` followed by a character, are shorthands for special characters, allowing the character to appear in the parsed string without having to write the actual character in the string literal.

Table 1: Escape Sequences

Sequence	Character	ASCII Character Code (Hex)
\n	Line Feed (LF) / New Line	0A
\r	Carriage Return (CR)	0D
\t	Tab	09
\u{<code>}	Unicode Character	<code>

The `\u{<code>}` escape sequence is replaced with the Unicode character with code (in hexadecimal) `<code>`. There must be an opening brace { following `\u` otherwise the escape sequence is treated as an ordinary literal character escape, in which `\u` is replaced with u. Currently the closing brace is optional }, as only the characters up to the first character that is not a hexadecimal digit are considered part of the character code. However, it is good practice to insert the closing brace as it clearly delimits which characters are to be interpreted as the character code and which characters are literal characters.

Tip

The \n, \r and \t escape sequences can alternatively be written as \u{A}, \u{D} and \u{9} respectively.

 Caution

In a future release, omitting either the opening or closing brace, in a Unicode escape sequence, may result in a parse error.

Nodes

Semantically a Tridash program is composed of a set of stateful components called nodes, each holding a particular value at a given moment in time.

Each node has a set of *dependency* nodes. A change in the value of at least one of the dependency nodes causes the node to recompute its own value. The node is said to be an *observer* of its dependency nodes, as it actively observes and responds to changes in their values. Similarly, each node has a set of *observer* nodes which it notifies whenever its own value changes.

This *dependency — observer* relation is referred to as a binding.

Glossary

dependency

A node a is said to be a *dependency* of node b if a change in the value of a triggers a change in the value of b.

observer

A node a is said to be an *observer* of node b if a change in the value of b triggers a change in the value of a.

binding

A *binding* is a relation between two nodes a and b, in which one node a is a *dependency* of the other b, and likewise the other node b is its *observer*.

ancestor

A node a is said to be an *ancestor* of a node b if a is a *dependency* of b or it is an *ancestor* of a *dependency* of b.

successor

A node a is said to be a *successor* of a node b if a is an *observer* of b or it is a successor of an *observer* of b.

Declaring Nodes

In the global scope, nodes are created on the first reference, that is when their identifier first appears in source code. This can either be a declaration consisting of the identifier itself or a functor node declaration of which the node is an argument.

 Caution

The self identifier is reserved as an alias for the current *meta-node*, *see Section 3*.

Examples

```
# Results in the creation of node `name`
name

# Results in the creation of nodes `a` and `b`
a -> b

# Results in the creation of nodes `x`, `y` and `f(x, y)`
f(x, y)
```

This allows for a relaxed ordering of declarations. A node's definition need not be complete in order for it to be referenced as an argument.

Notice that in the last example, above, a node `f(x, y)` was created. This node corresponds to the functor node expression, thus functors, with the exception of a few special declarations, are nodes themselves. From now on a functor node expression refers only to functors in which the operator refers to a function. Functor expressions in which the operator does not refer to a function are referred to as special declarations.

Note

Operators which correspond to functions, such as `f` in the example above are referred to as meta-nodes and the functor expression as an instance of the meta-node. See Section 3.

Note

Nodes are also created for functors written in infix form, e.g. for the functor `a + b`, the node `+(a, b)` is created.

A node corresponding to `a -> b` was not created. This is a bind declaration which is treated rather specially. The `->` is not a meta-node, that is it does not compute a value, but is a special operator.

Declaring Bindings

A binding between two nodes is declared with the special bind operator `->`.

```
a -> b
```

The above declares `b` an observer of `a` and likewise `a` a dependency of `b`. The result is that a change in the value of `a` will trigger a change in the value of `b`. This is an example of a simple binding, since the value of `b` is simply set to the value of `a`.

Note

In an explicit binding declaration the dependency, i.e. the left-hand side of the `->` operator, is referred to as the *source* node and the observer, i.e. the right-hand side, is referred to as the *target* node.

Note

The bind operator is registered as an infix operator with precedence **10** and **right** associativity.

Tip

The `->` operator is in the form of an arrow which indicates the direction of data-flow, from the node on the left to the node on the right.

Functional bindings involve a function of one or more argument nodes. Functional bindings are created implicitly in functor node expressions, with each argument node added as a dependency of the functor node. A change in the value of at least one argument node results in the value of the functor node being updated to the result of reevaluating the expression with the new values of the argument nodes.

Example

```
a + b
```

In the example, above, a functor node `+(a, b)` is created with the arguments `a` and `b` implicitly added as dependencies of `+(a, b)`. A change in either `a` or `b` will result in the value of `+(a, b)` being recomputed.

Propagation of Changes

As emphasized in the previous sections, changes in the value of a node are propagated to its observer nodes. The new value is propagated to each of the observers simultaneously. Each observer then proceeds to recompute its own value in parallel with the other observers.

Example

```
a -> b
a + n -> c
a + 1 -> d
```

Node `a` has three observers: `b`, `+(a, n)`, `+(a, 1)`. Each of `b`, `+(a, n)` and `+(a, 1)` receives the new value of `a` and immediately begins computing its new value. There is no strict sequential ordering of the updating of the values of the observer nodes. The following orderings are all possible:

- `b`, `+(a, n)`, `+(a, 1)`

- `+(a, n)`, `b`, `+(a, 1)`

- `+(a, 1)`, `+(a, n)`, `b`

Other orderings, including interleaved orderings, are also possible or it may be that the values of all the observers are updated in parallel.

It is important to note the semantics when nodes share a common observer and the change in value of each node is triggered by a common ancestor node. A node is said to be *dirtied* if either its value has changed, or at least one of its dependency nodes has been *dirtied*. If a node is *dirtied*, all its observers are *dirtied*, and likewise their observers are *dirtied* and so on. A node with multiple dependencies will only recompute its value when it receives a value change notification from each of its *dirtied* dependency nodes. Thus there is no intermediate value where the node's value is recomputed before all the dependency nodes have recomputed their values.

Caution

This is only the case when the changes in each of the dependency nodes are triggered by a change in a common ancestor node. These semantics do no apply when the changes in the dependency nodes are not triggered by a change in a common ancestor node but by multiple simultaneous changes in an ancestor of each dependency, unless the changes in each ancestor are the setting of the initial values, in which case it is treated as though they have been triggered by a single common ancestor. See Literal Bindings.

Example

```
a -> b
a + 1 -> c

b + c -> out
```

In the example, above, `a` is a common ancestor of dependency nodes `b` and `c` of node `+(b, c)`. A change in `a` will *dirty* the following nodes:

- `a`

- b

- +(a, 1)

- c

- +(b, c)

- out.

The value of +(b, c) will only be recomputed when the values of both b and c have been recomputed.

If b and c did not have the common ancestor a, the value of +(b, c) would be computed on each change in the value of either b or c, regardless of whether the changes in values of b and c are triggered simultaneously or not.

Evaluation Strategy

The value of a node is not strictly evaluated. This means that a node's value is only evaluated if it is actually used. In most cases the result of this is that node's are evaluated lazily, that is they are evaluated on their first use. However if it can be statically determined that a node's value will always be used it may be evaluated before its first use.

Example: Lazy Evaluation in If Conditions

```
a - b -> d1
b - a -> d2

if(a > b, d1, d2)
```

In the example, above, d1 is only evaluated if a > b evaluates to true. Likewise, d2 is only evaluated if a > b evaluates to false. a > b is always evaluated as its value is always used. In this example, this only results in a performance optimization since the values of node's which are not used are not needlessly computed. However, if d1 or d2 were bound to a recursive meta-node call, *see Section 3*, an infinite loop of recursive calls would result had d1 and d2 not been evaluated lazily.

A node's value is evaluated at most once. Referencing the node's value in more than one location will not cause it to be evaluated more than once. This applies to functor nodes as well as atom nodes.

Example: Multiple Usage of Nodes

```
# Node `f(x, y)` is used in 2 places however it will only be evaluated
# once.

f(x, y) + a -> node1
f(x, y) + b -> node2
```

Contexts

The function which computes a node's value is controlled by the node's context at that moment in time. The node context stores information about the function and which of the dependency nodes are operands to the function. Contexts are created whenever a binding between two nodes is established.

The most simple context function is the passthrough, created when a simple binding between two nodes is established. With this function, the node's value is simply set to the value of its dependency node.

Passthrough Example

```
# `b` is set to the value of `a` whenever it changes

a -> b.
```

Contexts with more complex functions, of more than one operand, are created for each functor node expression. The created context has the operator as the context function and the arguments as the context operands.

Functor Node Example

```
# A functor node `+(a, b)` is created with a `+` context.
# `a` and `b` are added to the operands of the `+` context.

a + b
```

A node can have more than one context. A context is *activated*, meaning its function is evaluated to compute the node's value, whenever the value of one of its operand nodes changes.

Multiple Context Example

```
a -> x
b -> x
c -> x
```

When the value of a changes, the a context of x is activated and the value of x is set to the value of a. Similarly when b or c's value changes, the b or c context is activated, respectively, and x's value is set to the value of b or c, respectively.

> **Warning**
>
> It is an error for two or more contexts of a single node to be activated at the same time. This occurs when either both contexts have a common operand or an operand from one context shares a common ancestor with an operand from the other context.
>
> **Example 1**
>
> ```
> # Node `a` is a dependency of `b`
> # Node `a` is a dependency of `+(a, c)`
> # Both `b` and `+(a, c)` are dependencies of `x`
>
> a -> b
> b -> x
>
> a + c -> x
> ```
>
> In the example, above, node a is a dependency node of b which is an operand of the b context of x. However, node a is also a dependency of node +(a, c) (a + c), which is an operand of the +(a, c) context of x. A change in the value of a would trigger a change in the value of both b and +(a, c) thus the value to which b should be set is ambiguous.
>
> Structure checking is performed at compile-time, thus the above example, and all such scenarios, will result in a compilation error along the lines: `Semantic Error:Node x has multiple contexts activated by a single common ancestor.`

Two-Way Bindings

A dependency of a node may also be an observer of the same node. This allows for a two-way binding in which data may flow from either direction. In this case only the observer nodes which are not also operands of the node's current context are notified of a change in the node's value.

Example

```
# A two-way binding is established between `a` and `b`
a -> b
b -> a

a -> c

d -> a
```

In the above example, both b and c, which are observers of a, will be notified of a change in the value of a triggered by a change in the value of d. This will trigger a change in the value of b however a will not be notified of this change as the change was triggered by a, itself.

In the case of a change in the value of a triggered by a change in the value of b, only the observer c of a will be notified of the change.

Warning

Cycles, other than two-way bindings between a pair of nodes, will result in a compilation error.

Example

```
a + 1 -> b
b -> a
```

Literal Bindings

A binding in which the dependency is a literal value, is interpreted as setting the initial value of a node. A special `init` context is created, which has no operands and has the literal value as its function.

Initial values are set on the launch of the application, and are treated as an ordinary value change to the initial value. The initial active context of the node is the `init` context. If a node is not given an initial value, its initial value is a failure value, *see Section 2.7*.

Examples

```
0 -> counter
"hello" -> message
10.5 -> threshold
```

Important

The setting of the initial values of each node, is treated as having been triggered by a single common ancestor node. *See Section 2.4 for the implications of this*.

Explicit Contexts

The context to which a binding is established can be set explicitly with the special `:context` operator.

Syntax

```
:context(node, context-id)
```

The effect of this expression, when it appears as the target of a binding, is that the binding to `node` will be established in the context with identifier `context-id`. The identifier can be a symbol or a functor.

Example

```
# Context `my-context` of b has a passthrough value function to the
# value of the dependency `a`.

a -> :context(b, my-context)
```

When a `:context` declaration appears in source position it is equivalent to an ordinary reference to the `node`.

Multiple bindings to the same explicit context can be established. The function of the context then selects the value of the first dependency, ordered by the declaration order in the source file, which does not *fail* to evaluate to a value, *see Section 2.7*.

Example

```
a -> :context(node, ctx)
b -> :context(node, ctx)
c -> :context(node, ctx)
```

`node` evaluates to:

- The value of `a` if `a` evaluates to a value.

- The value of `b` if `a` fails to evaluate to a value.

- The value of `c` if both `a` and `b` fail to evaluate to a value.

If `a`, `b` and `c` all fail to evaluate to a value, `node` evaluates to the failure value of `c`.

Tip

The @ macro from the `core` module, which is a shorthand for the `:context` operator, is the preferred way of establishing bindings to explicit contexts in source code. *See Section 5.2*.

Failures

Failures are a special type of value which represents the absence of a value or the failure to compute a value. Failures can either be created by *conditional bindings*, in which the condition node evaluates to *false*, or by the `fail` meta-node, from the `builtin` module.

Functions which expect an argument node to evaluate to a value will fail if at least one of the arguments fails. In formal terms, if the result of a function requires that the value of an argument, which fails to evaluate to a value, be evaluated, the entire function fails to evaluate to a value. The following are examples of functions which fail if at least one of the arguments fails: +, -, *, /.

If the result of a function is a dictionary, and a dictionary entry fails to evaluate to a value, it is only that dictionary entry that fails, the function still returns a dictionary.

Conditional Bindings

A binding declaration `a -> b` can, itself, be treated as a node, to which an explicit binding can be established with the binding node as the target.

```
c -> (a -> b)
```

The result of this declaration is that the binding `a -> b` is only active if the condition node `c` evaluates to a *true* value, any non-zero value. If `c` evaluates to *false* (0), `b` is not set to the value of `a` but is set to a failure value.

A binding declaration, with a binding node as the target, changes the function of the context of the binding to return a failure value if the value of the condition node is *false*. The binding node `a -> b` (`->(a, b)` in prefix notation), is added as a dependency of `b` and as an operand of the context corresponding to the binding `a -> b`. The binding node is itself an observer of `c` with a simple passthrough function. This allows you to reference the *status* of the binding by referencing the binding node, `a -> b`.

Example: Simple Validation

```
# Validate that 'i' has a value > 0
# Propagate value of 'i' to 'j'

i > 0 -> (i -> j)

# Perform some computation with 'j' which is guaranteed to either be a
# numeric value greater than zero or a failure.
...
```

Tip

The bind -> operator has *right* associativity, thus the parenthesis in `c -> (a -> b)` can be omitted: `c -> a -> b`.

Conditional bindings to an explicit context can also be established, *see Explicit Contexts*. If a condition node evaluates to *false*, it is treated as though the corresponding dependency node has failed to evaluate to a value. The context's function then evaluates to the next dependency which does not fail to evaluate to a value. If all condition nodes evaluate to *false*, the node fails to evaluate to a value.

Example: Conditional Bindings and Explicit Contexts

```
cond1 -> (a -> :context(node, ctx))
cond2 -> (b -> :context(node, ctx))
c -> :context(node, ctx)
```

- If `cond1` evaluates to false, it is treated as though `a` has failed to evaluate to a value.

- If `cond2` evaluates to false, it is treated as though `b` has failed to evaluate to a value.

The net result is that `node` evaluates to:

- `a` if `cond1` evaluates to true.

- `b` if `cond2` evaluates to true.

- `c` if neither `cond1` not `cond2` evaluate to true, or both `a` and `b` fail to evaluate to a value.

Explicit Failures and Failure Types

Failure values can also be created explicitly with the `fail` meta-node, from the `builtin` module. This meta-node takes one optional argument: a value indicating the failure type. If the failure type is not provided, the failure returned does not have a type.

Example: Explicit Failure with Type

```
# Bind `b` to `a` if `c` is true
c -> (a -> :context(b, ctx))

# If `c` is false set `b` to an explicit failure
fail("my-type") -> :context(b, ctx)
```

The failure type of a *failure value* can be retrieved with the `fail-type` meta-node. This meta-node takes a single argument, which if it fails to evaluate to a value, returns the failure type associated with the failure. If the argument does not fail to evaluate to a value, or the failure has no type associated with it, `fail-type` returns a failure.

Example: Querying Failure Type

```
# Compare failure type of `b`, to "my-type" from example above

fail-type(c) = "my-type" -> c-fails?
```

The failure type is useful to identify the cause of a failure, since failures are used to represent many classes of errors, such as type errors, out of range errors, no value errors, as well as representing special classes of values such as the empty list.

Note

Currently failure types are only used, in the core language and module, to represent the empty list. In the remaining circumstances, in which failures are generated, there is no failure type. This will be rectified in the next release.

Conditionally Active Bindings based on Failure Type

The special `:context` operator takes an optional third argument which is a test function that is evaluated prior to activating the binding after the previous binding fails. The test function is applied on a single argument, the failure type of the previous binding. If the function returns *true* the binding is activated otherwise this binding fails with the same failure type as the preceding binding.

Tip
The `@` macro, from the `core` module, contains a shorthand syntax for establishing a binding to an explicit context with a test function that compares the failure type to a given value. *See Section 5.2*.

Input Nodes

Input nodes are the nodes which receive the application input, which could be the value entered in a text field of the user interface (UI), data received from the network, etc. Input nodes do not have any dependencies and have a special `input` context, which does not have a value computation function. Instead the value of the node is meant to be set explicitly through some external event.

Input nodes have to be explicitly designated as such by setting the `input` attribute to true. *See Section 2.9 for more information about node attributes*.

Example: Setting Input Attribute

```
a -> b

# Designate 'a' as an input node
:attribute(a, input, 1)
```

⚠ Caution
A compilation error is triggered if a node has a dependency that is not reachable from any input node, however has at least one dependency that is reachable from an input node. The error is not signalled if all of the node's dependencies are unreachable from all the input nodes.

Attributes

Attributes are arbitrary key value pairs associated with a node, which control various compilation options of the node. These are set using the special `:attribute` declaration. The `:attribute` declaration is special in that it has a special syntax where not all its arguments are interpreted as nodes.

The first argument is the node of which to set the attribute, the second argument is the attribute key (not interpreted as a node) and the last argument is the value, which is interpreted as a literal value, not a node reference.

`:attribute` declarations may only appear at top-level and may not appear in binding declarations or as arguments in functor nodes.

Attribute Declaration Syntax

```
:attribute(node, attribute, value)
```

Note
The `attribute` key need not be a string, it may simply be an identifier as it is not interpreted as a node.

> **Important**
> As mentioned previously the `value` is treated as a literal value, not a reference to the value of a node, since attributes
> do not form part of the runtime node's state.

The `input` attribute has already been introduced. The following is a listing of some attributes and a summary of their effect:

`input`
> When set to true, designates a node as an input node. *See Section 2.8*.

`no-coalesce`
> When set to true, prevents the node from being coalesced into other nodes. *See Section 6.1*.

`no-remove`
> When set to true, prevents the node from being removed.

`public-name`
> The name with which the runtime node can be referenced from non-Tridash code.

`macro`
> Indicates that a meta-node is a macro and should be invoked at compile-time. *See Section 3.6*.

`target-node`
> Sets the name of a meta-node to use as the value function, in the contexts of the bindings of the meta-node instance (as the
> source node) to its arguments (as the target nodes). *See Section 3.7*.

`target-transform`
> The name of a meta-node to invoke if the meta-node, of which the attribute is set, appears as the target of a binding. *See
> Section 3.7*.

Examples

```
:attribute(a, input, 1)
:attribute(a, public-name, "app-input")
```

Subnodes

Subnodes are nodes which reference a value, with a particular key, out of a dictionary of values stored in another node, referred
to as the `parent` node.

Subnodes are referenced using the special `.` operator, which is also an infix operator. The `parent` node appears on the left-hand
side and the key on the right-hand side. The key is treated as a literal identifier.

Syntax

```
<parent node>.<key identifier>
```

> **Note**
> The `.` operator is lexically special in that spaces are not required to separate it from its operand.

> **Note**
> The `.` infix operator has precedence **1000** and **left** associativity.

Example

```
string-concat(
    person.first-name, ❶
    person.last-name   ❷
) -> full-name
```

❶   References the `first-name` subnode of node `person`.

❷   References the `last-name` subnode of node `person`.

An implicit two-way binding is established between the subnode and parent node. The binding in the direction `parent ->` `subnode` has a value function which extracts the subnode key from the dictionary stored in `parent`. The binding in the reverse direction, `subnode -> parent`, has a function which creates a dictionary with an entry which has the subnode key as the key and the value of `subnode` as the value. This allows a dictionary to be created in the `parent` node by establishing an explicit binding with `subnode` as the target. Multiple such bindings, with different subnodes of `parent`, will result in a dictionary being created with an entry for each subnode.

Example: Creating Dictionaries

```
"John" -> person.first-name
"Smith" -> person.last-name
```

The value of a subnode is only evaluated when the value of its dictionary entry is referenced. A subnode is not evaluated when only the value of its parent node, which evaluates to the dictionary, is referenced. *See Section 2.5*. If a subnode fails to evaluate to a value, it does not cause the parent node to fail to evaluate to value. The parent node evaluates to a dictionary however the dictionary entry, corresponding to the subnode, evaluates to a failure. *See Section 2.7*.

Accessing a non-existent entry, or accessing a subnode of a parent node which does not evaluate to a dictionary will result in a failure.

Meta-Nodes

A meta-node is a function, of one or more arguments, which returns a value. Meta-nodes are nodes, themselves, however without a runtime node object. For the most part you can treat meta-nodes as ordinary nodes, e.g. you can set meta-node attributes using the same `:attribute` declaration. Referencing the value of a meta-node references the meta-node function.

Meta-node identifiers reside in the same namespace as that of ordinary nodes, that is you cannot have both an ordinary node and meta-node with identifier `f`. If there is a meta-node `f`, the node expression `f` references the meta-node function.

Note
Functor nodes with the meta-node as the operator are referred to as instances of the meta-node.

Tip
Meta-nodes are referred to as meta-nodes, since they are nodes which describe how to compute the value of their instance nodes. Meta-nodes may also be macro-nodes which are evaluated at compile-time, with the result being interpreted as Tridash code.

Defining Meta-Nodes

Meta-nodes are defined using the special `:` definition operator which has the following syntax:

Definition Operator Syntax

```
name(arg1, arg2, ...) : {
    declarations*
}
```

The meta-node identifier, `name`, appears on the left-hand side of the `:` operator followed by the comma-separated list of arguments in parenthesis. Each item, at position *n*, of the argument list is the identifier of the local node to which the nth argument is bound.

⚠ Caution

Identifiers beginning with `:` are reserved for special operators. A meta-node cannot have the same identifier as a special operator. Currently no warning or compilation error is triggered, if the identifier begins with `:` but is not a special operator, however that may change in a future release.

The body consists of a sequence of ordinary node declarations enclosed in braces `{ ... }`. The braces are simply a way of grouping multiple declarations into a single expression, *See Section 1.3*. If the body of the meta-node contains just a single expression, the braces may be omitted.

The meta-node function returns the value of the last node in the body.

Example

```
# Returns 1 + `n`

1+(n) : n + 1
```

Factorial Example

```
# Computes the factorial of `n`

factorial(n) : {
    case (
        n > 1 : n * factorial(n - 1)
        1
    )
}
```

The following example demonstrates that the body can contain any valid node declaration:

Fibonacci Example

```
fib(n) : {
    fib(n - 1) -> fib1
    fib(n - 2) -> fib2

    case (
        n <= 1 : 1,
        fib1 + fib2
    )
}
```

⚠ Important

Meta-nodes must be defined before they can occur as operators in functors.

> **Important**
> Meta-node bodies are only processed after all global (or the scope in which the meta-node declaration occurs) declarations in the same file have been processed. This allows a meta-node `g` to be used within the body of another meta-node `f` even if the definition of `g` appears after the definition of `f`. Effectively this allows for mutual recursion.

Optional Arguments

A node in the argument list, of a meta-node definition, may also be of the form `name :value`. This designates that the argument, which is bound to local node `name`, is optional. If it is omitted, in an instance of the meta-node, the local argument node is set to `value` instead.

> **Note**
> `value` is processed in the global scope as the meta-node definition is processed. Thus `value` cannot (as of yet), refer to the preceding argument nodes of the meta-node.

The `value` may be omitted, written in prefix form `:(name)`, in which case if the argument is omitted, the local argument node is set to a failure, *see Section 2.7*.

Example

```
# Increment 'x' by 1 or given delta

inc(x, d : 1) : x + d

# Increment 'a' by default delta 1
inc(a)

# Increment 'b' by explicit delta 2
inc(b, 2)
```

> **Important**
> Optional arguments may only be followed by optional arguments or a rest argument. An optional argument may not be followed by a required argument.

Rest Arguments

The last node in the argument list, of a meta-node definition, may also be of the form `..(name)`. This designates that the local node `name` is bound to the list containing the remaining arguments, on which the meta-node is applied, after the last optional or required argument. This allows for a variable number of arguments.

Example

```
# Add 'n' to each remaining argument

add-n(n, ..(xs)) : {
    inc(x) : x + n
    map(inc, xs)
}
```

See Section 5.9 for the documentation of lists and the list processing functions.

Local Nodes

Nodes local to the meta-node's definition may only be referenced from within the definition itself even if they have the same identifiers as global nodes. Local nodes are created for each of the argument nodes.

A node reference, within the definition of a meta-node, primarily refers to the local node. If there is no local node with that identifier, it refers to the node in the enclosing scope. If the enclosing scope does not contain a node with that identifier, the scope's enclosing scope is searched until the global scope is reached. If the node is not found in any enclosing scope a compilation error is triggered.

Local nodes are created if they appear as the target of a binding, whether implicit or explicit. This is the means by which local nodes, storing intermediate results are created.

Note
The node creation rules inside meta-node definitions differ from the node creation rules at the global scope.

Tip
A global node, with the same identifier as a local node, can be referenced using the outer `..` operator.

Example: Local Nodes

```
a + b -> x
x + y -> n

addx(n) : {
    # 'n' refers to the local argument node 'n', not the global 'n'
    # 'x' refers to the global node 'x'
    n + x
}
```

Example: Meta-Nodes

```
1-(n) : n - 1

factorial(n) :
    case (
        # The '1-' refers to the global '1-' meta-node
        n > 1 : n * factorial(1-(n)),
        1
    )
```

Example: Local nodes storing intermediate results

```
x + 1 -> next

factorial(n) :

    # A local node 'next' is created since it appears as the target of
    # a binding. 'next' does not refer to the global node of the same
    # name.

    n - 1 -> next

    case (
        n > 1 : n * factorial(next),
        1
    )
```

Self Node

The special `self` node is a local node which represents the meta-node's value. This node can be used to set the value, returned by the meta-node, using explicit bindings.

When an explicit binding to `self` is established, the meta-node no longer returns the value of the last node in its definition.

> ⚠ **Caution**
> A meta-node may not have more than a single context, *see Section 2.6*, as it is ambiguous which context's value function to use as the meta-node function.

> **Note**
> In the absence of an explicit binding to `self`, the last node in the meta-node's definition is implicitly bound to `self`.

Example

```
factorial(n) : {
    n * factorial(n - 1) -> next
    case (n > 1 : next, 1) -> self ❶
}
```

❶   Explicit binding to `self`.

In the example, above, the value returned by the `factorial` meta-node is set by an explicit binding to the `self` node. The meta-node no longer evaluates to the value of the last node in the declaration list.

The `self` node is particularly useful for creating a dictionary of values to which the meta-node evaluates to, *see Section 2.10*:

Example: Creating Dictionaries

```
Person(first, last): {
    first -> self.first-name
    last -> self.last-name
}
```

Nested Meta-Nodes

The body of a meta-node can contain other meta-node definitions nested inside it. These meta-nodes are local to the body, and can only be used inside it, even if the same meta-node identifier appears in an expression outside the body. If a meta-node with the same identifier is already defined at global scope, the nested meta-node shadows it in the scope of the body. This means that references to the meta-node within the body refer to the nested meta-node and not the global node.

Example: Factorial with Nested Tail-Recursive Helper Meta-Node

```
factorial(n) : {
    # `iter` is local to `factorial`
    iter(n, acc) : {
        case (
            n > 1 : iter(n - 1, n * acc),
            acc
        )
    }

    iter(n, 1)
}
```

Recursive Meta-Nodes

Meta-nodes may be recursive and mutually recursive, i.e. when a meta-node `f` contains an instance of another meta-node `g` in its definition, and `g` contains an instance of `f` in its definition.

Each call to a meta-node consumes an amount of stack space. Further calls, within the meta-node, increase the amount of stack space if they are strictly evaluated. However, if a call to a meta-node is conditionally evaluated, i.e. lazily, it does not increase the amount of stack space used, since a *thunk* is returned, rather than the final result, thus freeing the amount of stack space used by the current call. *See Section 2.5*.

The following are examples of meta-nodes in which one or more of the arguments are evaluated lazily:

- In the `if` meta-node, from the core module, the `if-true` and `if-false` arguments are evaluated lazily since only one of the arguments is actually evaluated, depending on the value of the first `test` argument. The `test` argument is evaluated strictly as its value is always required in order to compute the return value of the meta-node.

```
if(test, if-true, if-false)
```

- In the `and` and `or` meta-nodes, from the core module, the first argument is strictly evaluated however the second is lazily evaluated, as whether it is actually evaluated depends on the value of the first argument.

```
and(a, b)
or(a, b)
```

Outer Node References

The value of a node, declared in the global scope, can be referenced from within a meta-node, either directly by its identifier, as described in Local Nodes, or with the outer node reference operator (`..`). This is a special operator which takes a node identifier as an argument and searches for a node with that identifier, in each enclosing scope, starting from the scope in which the meta-node is defined. The first node found is referenced.

Note

It is not necessary for the node to have been declared prior to the meta-node definition, as meta-node definitions are only processed after all declarations in the source file have been processed. However, in general the node should be declared in the same source file.

Example

```
n

# ..(n) references the global node `n`
addn(n): n + ..(n)
```

Referenced outer nodes, whether implicitly or by the `..` operator, are treated as additional hidden arguments, that are added to the argument list of each instance of the meta-node. The result is that any change in the values of the referenced nodes, will trigger a value update in each instance of the meta-node.

The previous example can be thought of as:

```
# Not valid syntax.

# Illustrates that outer node references are equivalent to additional
# arguments.

addn(n, ..(n)) : n + ..(n)
```

Thus the value of `n` is appended to the argument list of all instances of `addn`, e.g. `addn(node)` becomes `addn(node, n)`.

Meta-nodes reference all outer nodes referenced by the meta-nodes which are used in their body. In the previous example, if a meta-node makes use of `addn`, it will also reference the node `n` declared in the global scope.

> ⚠ **Important**
> Whilst the value of an outer-node can be referenced from within the body of a meta-node, bindings with the node as the target cannot be established, from within the body of the meta-node.

External Meta-Nodes

External meta-nodes are meta-nodes without a definition. They are used to call external functions defined outside of Tridash code. The special `:extern` declaration creates a meta-node without a definition.

Syntax

```
:extern(id, args...)
```

`id`	The meta-node identifier
`args`	The argument list

The argument list has to be provided in order for the arity of the meta-node to be known. The same rules apply for external meta-node argument lists as for ordinary meta-node argument lists. Symbols designate required arguments, arguments of the form `:(arg, value)` designate optional arguments and `..(rest)` designates a rest argument. The argument identifiers, however, do not name local nodes.

An external definition for the meta-node has to be provided, and linked with the generated code. In the JavaScript backend, instances of the meta-node are compiled to a call to the JavaScript function with the same name as the node identifier. If the `public-name` attribute of the meta-node is set, a call to the JavaScript function with the value of the attribute is generated instead.

Higher-Order Meta-Nodes

An atom node expression consisting of the meta-node itself references the meta-node's function as a value. This function can be passed to other meta-nodes as an argument, or bound to another node.

In a functor expression, in which the operator is not a meta-node but is an ordinary node, the function stored in the node's value is called. If the operator node does not evaluate to a function, the entire functor node fails to evaluate to a value, *see Section 2.7*.

Example: Binding Meta-Node to other Nodes

```
inc(x) : x + 1

inc -> f     ❶
f(a) -> x    ❷
```

❶   Value function of `inc` meta-node bound to `f` node.

❷   Function stored in `f` meta-node applied on argument `a`.

See Section 3.3 for an example in which a meta-node is passed as an argument to another meta-node.

The function of a meta-node which does not have optional arguments or outer nodes is effectively a constant, as is the case with the `inc` meta-node in the example above. If, however, the meta-node references outer nodes, a reference to the meta-node's function also references the values of the outer nodes. As such, if a node is bound to the meta-node's function, a binding between the outer nodes and the node is also established.

Example: Reference Meta-Node Function with Outer Nodes

```
# Increments `x` by the global `delta`
inc(x) : x + delta

inc -> f
f(a) -> x
```

In the example, above, node `f` is bound to the value function of `inc`. However, since `inc` references the global `delta` node, a binding between `f` and `delta` is also established. The value function of `f` creates a function which invokes the `inc` with the value of `delta`. As a result, when the value of `delta` changes, the value of `f` is recomputed, and likewise the value of `f(a)` is recomputed.

The same semantics apply for optional arguments with default values which are not constant literals.

Macro Nodes

A macro-node is a meta-node which is evaluated at compile-time with the result is interpreted as a Tridash node declaration.

A meta-node is marked as a macro-node by setting the `macro` attribute to true. Once set, the meta-node's function will be evaluated when each instance of the meta-node is processed. The arguments passed to the function are the raw argument node expressions of the functor node expression.

Tip

Attributes are set on meta-nodes in the same way as they are set for ordinary nodes. The `macro` attribute of a meta-node `f` is set to *true*, with the following declaration:

```
:attribute(f, macro, 1)
```

Atom node expressions are represented by a special symbol type and functor node expressions are represented as a list with the operator in the first element of the list.

The return value of the meta-node function is processed as though it is a parsed node declaration appearing in source code.

Literal Symbols

The special `:quote` operator returns its argument, treated as a literal symbol rather than a node expression.

Tip

The ' macro from the core module is the preferred shorthand for the `:quote` operator.

Example

```
# This is interpreted as the literal symbol `x` rather than the node
# with identifier `x`.

:quote(x)

# The following is a shorthand for the above
'(x)
```

These can be used inside macro nodes to insert literal node or operator names.

Example: Definition of ' macro

```
'(thing) :
    list(:quote(:quote), thing)

:attribute(', macro, 1)
```

Node References

Generally a macro-node expands to a declaration involving some other meta-node. The meta-node might not be located in the same module, *see Section 4*, as the module in which the macro-node instance occurs. Using the quote operator to generate a declaration involving the meta-node may result in a compilation error, if the meta-node is not present in the module in which the macro-node instance occurs, or may result in a node declaration involving an entirely different meta-node, if the module contains a node with the same identifier.

Node objects can be referenced directly with the node reference operator, `&`. When the declaration returned by a macro-node contains a raw node object, no node lookup is done and the raw node object is used as though it has been returned by node lookup. This is useful in macros as the node is looked up once in the module containing the macro-node's definition.

Example: Definition of <- Macro

```
<-(target, src) :
    list(&(->), src, target)

:attribute(<-, macro, 1)
```

The `<-` macro function, in the example above, returns a functor expression where the operator is the node object `->`. When the functor expression is processed, the operator is taken to be the `->` node, rather than the node with identifier `->` in the module in which the instance is processed.

Any node can be referenced including ordinary nodes and macro-nodes. Special operators, however, cannot be referenced and have to be returned as quoted symbols instead. There is no issue with directly quoting the special operator's identifier, in expressions returned by macros, as there is for meta-nodes since the meaning of a special operator cannot be overridden and does not change with the module. Most of the *special operators* mentioned till this point, which are not an identifier prefixed with `:`, such as `->`, `:`, `&`, `.`, `..` are actually builtin macro nodes which expand to an internal special declaration, thus can be referenced with the `&` operator. Special operators beginning with `:`, such as `:attribute`, `:op`, `:module` are actual special operators and cannot be referenced with `&`.

Instances as Targets

By default, a meta-node instance appearing as the target of a binding, that is on the right hand side of the `->` operator, will result in a compilation error. You may have noticed, however, that some meta-nodes in the core module, can also appear as targets of a binding, particularly to-int, to-real and to-string. This is achieved by setting the `target-node` attribute.

The `target-node` attribute stores the meta-node, which is applied on the value of the meta-node instance, in order to compute the value of the arguments. When the `target-node` attribute is set, a binding is established between the meta-node instance, as the dependency, and each argument node, as the observer. The function of the binding context is set to the meta-node stored in the `target-node` attribute.

Note

The `target-node` meta-node is looked up immediately when the attribute is set, and in the same module in which the `:attribute` declaration is processed.

As an example consider a meta-node `f` with the `target-node` attribute set to `g`. A declaration of the form:

```
x -> f(arg)
```

results in the following binding also being established, alongside the main binding of `arg -> f(arg)`:

```
g(f(arg)) -> arg
```

Note

The functor node `g(f(arg))` is not created, rather `f(arg)` is bound to `arg` directly and `g` is set as the value function.

This is useful for creating *invertable* meta-nodes where instead of computing a result given the values of the argument nodes, the values of the argument nodes can be computed given the result. This is achieved by binding to the meta-node instance, with the `target-node` attribute set to the *inverse* function.

The to-int meta-node from the `core` module has its `target-node` attribute set to `int`. Thus the binding `x -> to-int(y)`, will result in the value of `y` being set to the value `int(x)`, on changes in the value of `x`.

> **⚠ Caution**
>
> In order for the bindings to the argument nodes, to be established, the `:attribute` declaration which sets the `target-node` attribute must occur before the first instance of the meta-node, however after the meta-node is defined.

Target Node Transforms

The `target-node` attribute allows for a binding of a simple function to be established in the reverse direction, from the meta-node instance to its arguments. However, it lacks the functionality for setting a different function for each argument or generating more complex binding declarations.

The `target-transform` attribute allows a meta-node to be set as the function which is called whenever an instance of the meta-node appears as the target of a binding. The function is called with two arguments: the *source* node of the binding and the functor expression, which appears as the *target* of the binding. The function should return a declaration which is processed instead of the binding declaration. The result is processed as though it appears at top-level and unlike with a macro-node, the result is not substituted directly in the place of the meta-node instance.

> **Note**
>
> The *source* argument is not necessarily the actual source node declaration but is generally an atom node, with a randomly generated identifier, which should serve as the source node for the binding declarations generated by the `target-transform` node.

Modules

Modules provide a means of avoiding name collisions between nodes. A module is a namespace which contains all global nodes, including meta-nodes, created in it. A node with identifier `x` in a module `m1` is distinct from a node with the same identifier `x` in another module `m2`.

Creating Modules

Each new node, that is created as a result of processing a declaration in the source file, is added to the current module. Initially the current module is a nameless `init` module until it is changed explicitly.

The current module is changed with the special `:module` operator, which takes the identifier of the module as its only argument. If there is no such module a new module is created.

Example

```
# Change to module with identifier `mod1`
:module(mod1)

# Nodes `a` and `b` added to `mod1`
a -> b

# Change to module with identifier `mod2`
:module(mod2)
```

```
# Nodes 'a' and 'b' added to 'mod2'
# Distinct nodes from nodes 'a' and 'b' in 'mod1'
a -> b
```

Note
Module identifiers reside in a different namespace from node identifiers, thus there is no risk of collision between a node and
module with the same identifier, unless a pseudo-node for the module is added to the module containing the node.

Note
Modules reside in a single global, flat namespace. Hierarchical relations between modules have to be *faked* with a separator
such as /, e.g. `module/submodule`.

Referencing Nodes in Different Modules

There are two ways to reference a node in a another module, different from the current module. One way is to create a *pseudo-node* for the module in the current module. Nodes in the module can then be referenced as subnodes of the module's *pseudo-node*.

Module Pseudo-Nodes

The special `:use` operator creates pseudo-nodes for the modules passed as arguments. The pseudo-nodes are created with the
same identifiers as the modules.

Note
Module pseudo-nodes are referred to as such, since syntactically they are the same as any other node, however the value of a
module pseudo-node cannot be referenced nor can bindings involving it be established.

Syntax

```
:use(mod1, mod2, ...)
```

⚠ **Caution**
An error is triggered if a node with the same identifier as the module already exists in the current module.

Nodes from the *used* modules can then be referenced as subnodes of the module pseudo nodes.

Example

```
:module(mod1)

a -> b

:module(mod2)
:use(mod1)

# Reference node 'b' from module 'mod1'
mod1.b -> b
x -> mod1.b
```

Meta-nodes from a different module can be also referenced as subnodes of the module pseudo-node.

Example

```
:module(mod1)

add(x, y) : x + y

:module(mod2)
:use(mod1)

# Use the `add` meta-node from module `mod1`
mod1.add(a, b) -> c
```

Tip

Nodes referenced from other modules, can appear both as dependencies or observers of bindings.

! **Important**

Referencing a subnode of a module pseudo-node does not result in the automatic creation of a node in that module. A compilation error is triggered, if the node does not already exist in the module.

A pseudo-node with a different identifier, from the identifier of the module, can be created using the special :alias operator. This is useful for when the module identifier is too long to type out repeatedly, or there is already a node, in the current module, with the same identifier.

the :alias operator takes two arguments, the identifier of the module and the name of the pseudo-node to create in the current module:

```
:alias(module-name, pseudo-node-name)
```

The above examples can be rewritten using :alias declarations:

Example

```
:module(mod1)

a -> b

:module(mod2)
:alias(mod1, m1)

# Reference node `b` from module `mod1`
m1.b -> b
x -> m1.b
```

Example

```
:module(mod1)

add(x, y) : x + y

:module(mod2)
:alias(mod1, m1)

# Use the `add` meta-node from module `mod1`
m1.add(a, b) -> c
```

Importing Nodes

The second approach to referencing a node, residing in another module, is to add it directly to the current module. With this approach there is no need to reference the node as a subnode of a module pseudo-node. This is referred to as *importing* the node and is achieved using the :import operator.

The :import operator adds the identifiers of nodes, residing in another module, to the current module. The result is that the node can be referenced directly by its identifier, as though it were declared in the current module.

The :import operator has two forms:

- A short form that *imports* all the nodes *exported* from another module. Takes the module identifier as its only argument.

- A short form that can be used to *import* specific nodes. The first argument is the module identifier, the following arguments are the identifiers of the nodes to *import*

Syntax

```
# Short form: Import all nodes exported from `module`
:import(module)

# Long form: Import only the nodes listed in the arguments after the
# module identifier.
:import(module, node1, node2, ...)
```

Example: Long form

```
:module(mod1)

a -> b

:module(mod2)

# Import node `b` from `mod1`
:import(mod1, b)

# Node `b` is the same `b` as in `mod1`
b -> a
x -> b
```

The short form only imports those nodes which are explicitly *exported* from the module. Nodes are explicitly exported from the current module with the :export operator which simply takes the identifiers of the nodes to *export* as arguments.

Syntax

```
:export(node1, node2, ...)
```

Each :export declaration adds (does not replace) nodes, in the arguments, to the exported nodes of the current module.

Example: :export and short form :import

```
:module(mod1)

a -> b

# Export node `b`
:export(b)

:module(mod2)
# Import all nodes exported from `mod1`
:import(mod1)

# Node `b` is the same `b` as in `mod1`
b -> a
x -> b
```

Meta-node Example: :export and short form :import

```
:module(mod1)

add(x, y) : x + y

:export(add)

:module(mod2)
:import(mod1)

# Use the `add` meta-node from module `mod1`
add(a, b) -> c
```

A side effect of `:import` is that if the identifier of an imported node, whether imported by the long or short form of `:import`, is registered as an infix operator in the module, from which it is being imported, it's entry in the module's operator table is copied over to the current module. This allows the operator to be placed in infix position, in the current module.

Note

All nodes in the `builtin` module, which contains the special operators mentioned so far (`->`, `:`, `..`, `&`, `.`), are automatically imported into the `init` module.

Direct References

It may be necessary to reference a node in another module without creating a pseudo-node, for its module, and without importing it in the current module. The special `:in` operator directly references a node in another module by the module and node identifiers.

Syntax

```
:in(module-id, node-id)
```

The first argument is the identifier of the module containing the node, and the second argument is the identifier of the node.

⚠ **Important**

`module-id` is the identifier of the module itself, and not the identifier of a module pseudo-node.

Example: :in Operator

```
:module(mod1)

a -> b

:module(mod2)

# Reference node `b` in `mod1` directly
:in(mod1, b) -> a
x -> :in(mod1, b)
```

Example: :in Operator

```
:module(mod1)

add(x, y) : x + y
```

```
:module(mod2)

# Use the 'add' meta-node from module 'mod1'
(:in(mod1, add))(a, b) -> c
```

Operator Table

Each module may register a number of node identifiers as infix operators. This means that those identifiers may appear in infix position in declarations parsed while the module is the current module. The module's *operator table* stores the identifier, precedence and associativity of each infix operator. *See Section 1.2 for more information about infix operators, operator precedence and associativity.*

Initially the operator table of each module contains a single entry which is the special entry for function application. The precedence of function application controls whether an expression is treated as the operator of a functor or the operand of an infix expression.

Note

The precedence of function application is set to `900`. This value cannot be changed.

Example: Precedence of Function Application

```
# If '.' has a higher precedence than function application, the
# following is parsed to: ((. m1 add) a b)

# If '.' has a lower precedence than function application, the
# following is parsed to: (. m1 (add a b))

m1.add(a, b)
```

Registering Infix Operators

New infix operators can be registered using the special `:op` declaration. This declaration modifies the operator table of the current module.

Syntax

```
:op(identifier, precedence [, left | right])
```

The first argument is the node identifier to register as an infix operator. The second argument is the precedence as an integer value. The third argument specifies the associativity. This is either the identifier `left` or `right` for *left* or *right* associativity. If the third argument is omitted, *left* associativity is assumed.

Note

The identifier does not have to name a node or meta-node that exists at the time the `:op` declaration is processed. The table only stores the identifier for syntactic transformations, no information about the actual node is stored.

An `:op` declaration adds an entry to the current module's operator table if it does not already contain an entry for the identifier. If the table already contains an entry for the identifier, the *precedence* and *associativity* values of the existing entry are replaced with those given in the arguments to the `:op` declaration.

Note

The *precedence* and *associativity* of all operators can be changed, with the exception of *function application*.

When a node is imported into the current module and there is an entry, for the node's identifier, in the operator table of the module, from which the node is being imported, the entry is copied over into the current module's operator table, replacing any existing entries for the identifier if any.

Example: + infix operator from core module

```
# Register '+' as infix operator
:op(+, 100, left)

# Now '+' can appear in infix position
a + b

# It can also still appear in prefix position
+(a, b)
```

Core Module

The `core` module provides the language primitives and the standard library.

Literals

Macro-Node: **′(x)**

Interprets `x` as a literal symbol rather than a node declaration.

The same symbol object is always returned for a given symbol name.

> x   An atom node expression.

Pattern Matching

Matches the literal symbol `x`. *See Pattern Matching*.

Macro-Node: **c(x)**

Returns `x` interpreted as a literal character.

- If `x` is a symbol of one character, the character is returned.

- If `x` is a string, the first character in the string is returned.

- If `x` is an integer in the range $0 — 9$, the character corresponding to the digit is returned.

> x   The value to convert to a character.

Pattern Matching

Matches the character literal produced by the given argument. *See Pattern Matching*.

Macro-Node: `&(node)`

Returns the raw node object corresponding to the node with identifier `node`.

    node   The node identifier, which can be any valid node expression. The expression is processed in the module in which the macro node instance occurs.

Bindings

Macro-Node: `->(source, target)`

Establishes a binding between node `source` and node `target`.

    source   The source node.

    target   The target node.

Note
Registered as an infix operator with precedence **10** and **right** associativity.

Macro-Node: `<-(target, source)`

Establishes a binding between node `source` and node `target`.

Same as [->](#) however the argument order is reversed with the first argument being the target node and the second argument being the source node.

    target   The target node.

    source   The source node.

Note
Registered as an infix operator with precedence **10** and **left** associativity.

Macro-Node: `@(node, context)`

Indicates an explicit context to which bindings, involving `node` as the *target*, should be established.

When the `@` expression appears as the target of a binding, the binding to `node` is established in the context with identifier `context`, *see Section 2.6*.

`context` may also be a functor of the form `catch(context-id, type)`, where `context-id` is the context identifier and `type` is a node, of which the value is interpreted as a failure type. In this case the binding will only be activated if the failure type, of the previous binding in the context, is equal to `type` by `=`. *See Conditionally Active Bindings based on Failure Type*.

    node   The node.

    context   The context identifier, or catch expression, *see above*.

Note

Registered as an infix operator with precedence **800** and **left** associativity. The catch symbol is also registered as an infix operator with precedence **850** and **left** associativity.

Meta-Node Definitions

Macro-Node: `:(id(args...), body)`

Defines a meta-node with identifier id, argument list args and definition body. *See Section 3*.

id	Meta-node identifier.
args	Comma-separated list of node identifiers, to which the meta-node arguments are bound.
body	Node expression making up the definition of the meta-node. If the definition consists of more than a single expression, it should be enclosed in braces, *see Node Lists*.

Note

Registered as an infix operator with precedence **5** and **right** associativity.

Macro-Node: `..(node)`

Explicitly references a node defined in the enclosing scope of the meta-node. *See Section 3.3*.

node	The node identifier, which can be any valid node expression.

Failures

Meta-Node: `fail(:(type))`

Returns a failure with a given failure type.

type (*Optional*)
   The failure type. If not provided the failure returned has no type.

Meta-Node: `fail-type(x)`

Returns the failure type of x.

Returns a failure if x does not evaluate to a failure or evaluates to a failure with no type.

x	The value of which to return the failure type.

Meta-Node: `fails?(x)`

Returns true if x fails to evaluate to a value.

x   The value to test for failure.

Pattern Matching

Matches if the source node evaluates to a failure. The argument x is ignored. *See Pattern Matching*.

Meta-Node: `?(x)`

Returns true if x evaluates to a value, false if x fails to evaluate to a value.

x   The value to test for failure.

Meta-Node: `fail-type?(x, type)`

Tests for failure with a given type.

Returns true if x fails with failure type equal to type, by =. Returns false if the failure type of x is not equal to type or x does not fail.

x   The value to check.

type   The failure type.

Meta-Node: `!-(test, value)`

Returns value if test does not fail. If test fails, the failure is returned.

test   The value which is checked for failure.

value   The value which should be returned if test does not fail.

Macro-Node: `!(functor)`

Tests that each argument of a functor expression does not fail, before evaluating the expression.

If at least one argument fails, then the entire functor node fails.

functor   The functor expression.

Arithmetic

Meta-Node: `+(x, y)`

Computes the sum of x and y.

x   A number.

y   A number.

Note

Registered as an infix operator with precedence **100** and **left** associativity.

Meta-Node: `-(x, :(y))`

Computes the difference of x and y.

If y is not provided, returns the negation of x, i.e. x multiplied by -1.

x
 A number.

y (*Optional*)
 A number.

Note

Registered as an infix operator with precedence **100** and **left** associativity.

Meta-Node: `*(x, y)`

Computes the product of x and y.

x   A number.

y   A number.

Note

Registered as an infix operator with precedence **200** and **left** associativity.

Meta-Node: `/(x, y)`

Computes the quotient of x and y.

x   A number.

y   A number.

Note

Registered as an infix operator with precedence **200** and **left** associativity.

Meta-Node: `%(x, y)`

Computes the remainder of the division of x by y.

x   A number.

y   A number.

Note
Registered as an infix operator with precedence **200** and **left** associativity.

Comparison

Meta-Node: `<(x, y)`

Returns true if x is less than y.

    x   A number.

    y   A number.

Note
Registered as an infix operator with precedence **50** and **left** associativity.

Meta-Node: `<=(x, y)`

Returns true if x is less than or equal to y.

    x   A number.

    y   A number.

Note
Registered as an infix operator with precedence **50** and **left** associativity.

Meta-Node: `>(x, y)`

Returns true if x is greater than y.

    x   A number.

    y   A number.

Note
Registered as an infix operator with precedence **50** and **left** associativity.

Meta-Node: `>=(x, y)`

Returns true if x is greater than or equal to y.

    x   A number.

    y   A number.

Note
Registered as an infix operator with precedence **50** and **left** associativity.

Meta-Node: `=(a, b)`

Returns true if `a` is equal to `b`.

- *Numbers* are equal if they represent the same numeric value.

- *Characters* are equal if they represent the same character.

- *Strings* are equal if they have the same contents.

- Otherwise `a` and `b` are equal if they evaluate to the same object.

x	A value.
y	A value.

Note
Registered as an infix operator with precedence **50** and **left** associativity.

Meta-Node: `!=(a, b)`

Returns true if `a` is not equal to `b`.

See = for the rules of equality.

x	A value.
y	A value.

Note
Registered as an infix operator with precedence **50** and **left** associativity.

Logical Operators

Meta-Node: `and(x, y)`

Logical AND.

Returns the value of `y` if `x` evaluates to true.

x	A value.
y	A value.

Pattern Matching

Matches if both the nested patterns in x and y match the source node. *See Pattern Matching.*

Meta-Node: `or(x, y)`

Logical OR.

Returns the value of x, if it evaluates to true, otherwise returns the value of y.

x	A value.
y	A value.

Pattern Matching

Matches if at least one of the nested patterns in x and y match the source node. Both the bindings generated by the patterns x and y are established if the corresponding pattern condition matches. *See Pattern Matching*.

Note
This is pattern matches even if not all its nested patterns have matched.

Meta-Node: `not(x)`

Logical NOT.

Returns true if x evaluates to false.

x	A value.

Pattern Matching

Matches if the nested pattern x does not match. The bindings generated by x are not established by this pattern. *See Pattern Matching*.

Note
Since this binding does not establish any bindings, it is treated as a constant pattern and may only appear nested inside other patterns.

Meta-Node: `if(condition, true-value, :(false-value))`

Returns `true-value` if `condition` is true otherwise returns `false-value`.

If `false-value` is not provided, a failure is returned if `condition` evaluates to false.

condition
    The condition.

true-value
    Value to return if `condition` is true.

false-value (*Optional*)
    Value to return if `condition` is false. If not provided defaults to a failure.

Macro-Node: `case(..(clauses))`

```
<clause> = <condition> : <value>
```

Expands to nested if expressions.

Each argument is a `clause` is of the form `condition` `:value`. The `case` expression evaluates to the `value` corresponding to the first clause of which the `condition` node evaluates to true. The final clause may also be of the form `value`, in which case it becomes the default value, to which the `case` expression evaluates if the conditions of all the other clauses evaluate to false.

    clauses   The clauses.

Example

```
case(
    a < b : a,
    b >= a : b
)

# Is equivalent to:

if(a < b, a, if(b >= a, b))
```

Example with default value

```
case(
    a < b : -1,
    b > a : 1,
    0
)

# Is equivalent to:

if(a < b, -1, if(b > a, 1, 0))
```

Types

Meta-Node: `int(x)`

Converts x to an **integer** value.

- If x is an **integer** returns x.

- If x is a **real** returns x with the fractional part truncated.

- If x is a **string**, attempts to parse an integer from x. Returns the parsed value if successful otherwise returns a failure.

If x is neither of the above returns a failure.

x	The value to convert to an integer.

Pattern Matching

Matches if the source node is an **integer**, in which case x is matched to the integer value. *See Pattern Matching*.

Meta-Node: `real(x)`

Converts x to a **real** number value.

- If x is an **integer** or **real** returns x.
- If x is a **string**, attempts to parse a real number from x. Returns the parsed value if successful otherwise returns a failure.

If x is neither of the above returns a failure.

x	The value to convert to a real.

Pattern Matching

Matches if the source node is a **real**, in which case x is matched to the real value. *See Pattern Matching*.

Meta-Node: `string(x)`

Converts x to a **string**.

x	The value to convert to a string.

Pattern Matching

Matches if the source node is a **string**, in which case x is matched to the string value. *See Pattern Matching*.

Meta-Node: `to-int(x)`

Converts x to an **integer** value.

Same as int however with the `target-node` attribute set to int. As such, in the following:

```
a -> to-int(b)
```

Node b is set to the value of a converted to an integer.

x	The value to convert.

Meta-Node: `to-real(x)`

Converts x to an **real** number value.

Same as real however with the `target-node` attribute set to real. As such, in the following:

```
a -> to-real(b)
```

Node b is set to the value of a converted to a real number.

    x   The value to convert.

Meta-Node: `to-string(x)`

Converts x to an **integer** value.

Same as string however with the `target-node` attribute set to string. As such, in the following:

```
a -> to-string(b)
```

Node b is set to the value of a converted to a string.

    x   The value to convert.

Meta-Node: `int?(x)`

Returns true if x is an **integer**.

    x   The value to test.

Meta-Node: `real?(x)`

Returns true if x is a **real**.

    x   The value to test.

Meta-Node: `string?(x)`

Returns true if x is a **string**.

    x   The value to test.

Meta-Node: `inf?(x)`

Returns true if x is either positive or negative infinity.

    x   The value to test.

Meta-Node: `NaN?(x)`

Returns true if x is a **NaN** value.

    x   The value to test.

Lists

Lists are represented by a special `cons` type, in which the *head* stores the first element of the list and the *tail* stores the list of remaining elements. Neither the *head* nor the *tail* are evaluated until they are actually referenced and used.

The end of list is represented by a failure with the type being a node reference to the meta-node Empty (`&(Empty)`).

Meta-Node: `cons(head, tail)`

Creates a list with the `head` as the first element and `tail` as the list of remaining elements.

    head   The first element of the list.

    tail   The list containing the remaining elements after the first.

Pattern Matching

Matches if the source node is a non-empty list, in which case `head` is matched to the *head* of the list and tail is matched to the *tail* of the list. *See Pattern Matching*.

Meta-Node: head(list)

Returns the *head* (first element) of a list.

If `list` is not a list returns a failure value.

    list   The list.

Meta-Node: `tail(list)`

Returns the *tail*, the list containing the elements after the first element, of a list.

If `list` is not a list returns a failure value.

    list   The list.

Meta-Node: `cons?(thing)`

Returns true if `thing` is a list of at least one element, false otherwise.

Note
Does not return true if `thing` is an empty list.

---

        list   The list.

Meta-Node: Empty()

Returns a failure with type indicating an empty list.

Note
The failure type is `&(Empty)`, *see Node References*.

Pattern Matching

Matches the empty list. *See Pattern Matching*.

Note
This is effectively a constant pattern.

Meta-Node: `list(..(xs))`

Creates a list with elements `xs`.

        xs   The list elements.

Pattern Matching

Matches if the source node is a list of the same size as `xs`, in which case each argument in `xs` is matched to the corresponding list element. *See Pattern Matching*.

Meta-Node: `list*(..(xs))`

Creates a list containing, as elements, all the arguments in `xs` excluding the last. The last argument in `xs` is treated as a list containing the remaining elements.

        xs   The list elements, with the last argument being the list containing the remaining elements.

Pattern Matching

Matches if the source node is a list of at least one less elements that the number of elements in `xs`. The arguments, excluding the last, are matched to the corresponding elements in the list with the last argument being matched to the remaining list elements. *See Pattern Matching*.

Meta-Node: `list!(..(xs))`

Creates a list containing, as elements, all the arguments in `xs`.

Unlike `list`, if at least one of `xs` fails to evaluate to a value, a failure is returned.

xs   The list elements.

Meta-Node: `nth(list, n)`

Retrieves the element of a list at a particular index.

Returns a failure of type Empty if n is greater than the number of elements in list.

list   The list.

n   The index of the element to retrieved.

Meta-Node: `append(list1, list2)`

Returns a list containing the elements of list2 appended to list1.

list1   The initial list.

list2   The list which is appended onto list1.

Meta-Node: `foldl'(x, f, list)`

Folds a list to a single value, starting from the first element.

The function f is first applied on x and the head of list. Subsequently, f is applied on the result of the previous application and the next element of list, until the end of list is reached.

x   Initial first argument to f.

f   Function of two arguments.

list   List to fold.

Meta-Node: `foldl(f, list)`

Folds a list to a single value, starting from the first element.

Same as foldl' except the head of list is used as the initial first argument to the fold function f.

f   Function of two arguments.

list   List to fold.

Meta-Node: `foldr(f, list, :(x))`

Folds a list to a single value, starting from the last element.

f is first applied on the last element of list and the value of x. If the x argument is not provided or x fails to evaluate to a value, f is first applied on the last two elements of list. Subsequently f is applied on the previous element of list and the result of the previous application, until the *head* of list list is reached.

If `list` only has a single element and `x` is not provided, the element is returned as is. If `l` is empty and `x` is provided, `x` is returned as is.

f
> Function of two arguments.

list
> List to fold.

x (*Optional*)
> Second argument to the application of `f` on the last element of `list`.

Meta-Node: `map(f, list)`

Applies a function on each element of a list.

Returns a list containing the result of applying `f` on each element of `list` in turn.

f	Function of one argument.
list	The list.

Meta-Node: `filter(f, list)`

Filters elements from a list.

Returns a list containing only the elements of `list` for which the function `f` returns true.

f	Function of one argument, which should return true if the argument should be retained in the list or false if it should be removed.
list	The list to filter.

Meta-Node: `every?(f, list)`

Returns true if `f` returns true for every element of `list`.

f	Function of one argument.
list	The list.

Meta-Node: `some?(f, list)`

Returns true if `f` returns true for at least one element of `list`.

f	Function of one argument.
list	The list.

Meta-Node: `not-any?(f, list)`

Returns true if `f` returns false for every element of `list`.

    `f`   Function of one argument.

    `list`   The list.

Meta-Node: `not-every?(f, list)`

Returns true if `f` returns false for at least one element of `list`.

    `f`   Function of one argument.

    `list`   The list.

Strings

Meta-Node: `string-at(string, index)`

Returns the character at a given index in the string.

If the index is greater than the number of characters in this string, returns a failure.

    `string`   The string.

    `index`   The index of the character.

Meta-Node: `string-concat(string, str1, str2)`

Concatenates `str2` to the end of `str1`.

    `str1`   The first string.

    `str2`   The string which is concatenated to `str1`.

Meta-Node: `string->list(string)`

Returns a list containing the characters in a string.

    `string`   The string.

Meta-Node: `list->string(list)`

Returns a string containing the concatenation of the elements in a list.

Each element of `list` is converted to a string and concatenated to the result string.

    `list`   List of elements to concatenate.

Meta-Node: `format(string, ..(args))`

Creates a formatted string, in which placeholders are replaced by the arguments in `args`.

The sequence `%s` designates a placeholder which is to be replaced by an argument. The first placeholder is replaced by the first argument, the second with the second argument and so on. Each argument is converted to a string prior to being substituted into the result string.

The sequence `%%` designates a literal `%` character and is thus replaced with a `%`.

`string`	The format string.
`args`	The arguments to substitute into the string.

Introspection

The meta-nodes in this section provide functionality for introspecting the nodes comprising a program. These meta-nodes may only be used from within macro nodes during compilation, and not during runtime.

Meta-Node: `node?(thing)`

Returns true if `thing` is a node object.

`thing`	The thing to check whether it is a node.

Meta-Node: `find-node(node, :(module))`

Looks-up a node in a module.

Returns the node object or a failure if no node is found.

`node`
 The node to lookup, which can be any node expression.

`module` (*Optional*)
 The module in which to look-up the node. Defaults to the current module, set by the last `:module` declaration that is processed.

Note
Currently there is no way to retrieve a module object, thus the `module` argument is not used. This functionality will be added in a future release.

Meta-Node: `get-attribute(node, attribute)`

Retrieves the value of an attribute of a node.

Returns a failure if the attribute is not set.

`node`	The node object.
`attribute`	The attribute identifier.

Pattern Matching

Pattern matching is provided by the core module in the form of bindings involving the meta-node instance, which is to be matched, as the target. The binding succeeds if the pattern matches, otherwise it fails.

A meta-node which supports pattern matching, has a `target-node` or `target-transform`, *see Section 3.7*, such that when an instance of the meta-node appears as the target of a binding, the argument nodes are bound to the values, required in order for the meta-node to return a value that is equivalent to the value of the source node. When there are such values, the pattern is said to have *matched*. If there is no possible value for at least one argument node, all argument nodes should evaluate to failures. In this case the pattern has not *matched*

Example

```
x -> int(y)
```

In the example, above, `y` is bound to the value of `x` if it is an integer, otherwise `y` evaluates to a failure. There is no argument which will result in `int` returning a non-integer value thus if the source node, `x`, is not an integer the argument node, `y`, is bound to a failure. Since `int` returns the value of its argument directly, when it is an integer, the argument node is simply bound to the source node.

Example

```
x -> list(y, z)
```

In the example, above, `y` is bound to the first element of `x` and `z` is bound to the second element of `x` if `x` is a list of two elements. These bindings will result in a list, equivalent to `x`, being produced when they are passed to the `list` meta-node.

Nested Patterns

Patterns may be nested, that is an argument to a meta-node instance is itself a meta-node instance of which the operator meta-node supports pattern matching. When the arguments contain one or more nested patterns, the bindings to the argument nodes should only succeed if all nested patterns *match*.

Example

```
x -> list(int(y), z)
```

The example, above, is similar to the previous example except with the additional condition that the first element of `x` should also be an integer. That is `y` is bound to the first element of `x` and `z` to the second element of `x` if `x` is a list of two elements of which the first element is an integer.

When _ appears nested inside a pattern it matches anything and does not establish any bindings. This is used to indicate that the value for a particular argument is unimportant.

Example

```
x -> list(_, y)
```

In the example, above, `y` is bound to the second element of `x` if it is a list of two elements. The value of the first element of `x` is ignored completely.

Constant Patterns

Constant patterns comprise a constant value as opposed to a node. These patterns *match* when the source node is equal, by =, to the constant value. Constant patterns do not result in any bindings being established however they do affect the condition of the pattern in which they are nested.

> **(!) Important**
> Constant patterns may only be used as arguments to a meta-node instance, of which at least one of the arguments is not a constant pattern.

Constant values include any literal constants, such as numbers, strings as well as character literals, produced by the c macro, and literal symbols, produced by the ' macro.

Example

```
x -> list(1, y, z)
```

In the example, above, `y` is bound to the second element of `x` and `z` to the third element of `x` if `x` is a list of three elements of which the first element is equal to `1`.

The following are examples of invalid uses of constant patterns:

Examples: Invalid use of Constant Patterns

```
# Invalid as the pattern is not nested
x -> 1

# Invalid as at least one argument should not be a constant.
x -> list(1, 2)
```

> **Caution**
> Functor nodes, of which the arguments are all constants, such as `1 + 1`, are only treated as constant patterns if the meta-node supports pattern matching. In this case the + meta-node does not support pattern matching, thus `1 + 1` is currently not treated as a constant pattern.

Matchers

The `matcher` node attribute stores a meta-node which is called to construct the pattern for a given list of arguments. The *matcher* meta-node is called with two arguments: the place to be matched, which should become the *source* node of any bindings established by the pattern, and the pattern *functor* expression itself (including the operator). The meta-node should return a `Pattern` object, which is a dictionary containing the following entries:

condition

The node expression which evaluates to true if the pattern matches. This should include the conditions of the argument nodes if they are patterns themselves.

bindings

List of bindings established by the pattern. If there are no bindings established by the pattern, then this entry should be set to the empty list, _see Empty.

> **Important**
> The bindings should not be conditioned on `condition` as they will be conditioned later when the node declarations for the entire pattern (including the parent patterns) is constructed. *See Conditional Bindings*.

> **Tip**
> Pattern objects may be created with the Pattern meta-node.

All bindings, established by a pattern, should be established in an explicit context with identifier `match`. This allows multiple patterns to be specified on a single node, with the node being set to the value corresponding to binding of the first pattern that *matches*.

Example: Multiple Patterns

```
x -> int(y)
x -> list(int(y))
x -> list("x", int(y))
```

The example above contains multiple patterns involving a single node `y`.

`y` is bound to:

1. the value of `x` if it is an integer, or

2. the first element of `x` if it is a list of one element, which is an integer, or

3. the second element of `x` if it is a list of two elements, with the first element being the string value `"x"` and the second element being an integer.

The following meta-nodes in the `core` module all have a matcher and may thus appear within patterns.

- '

- c

- fails?

- and

- or

- not

- int

- real

- string

- cons

- Empty

- list

- list*

Utilities

The following meta-nodes are utilities for creating and processing patterns.

⚠ **Caution**
Currently these utilities are not exported from the `core` module, thus they have to be imported manually if they are to be used in another module.

Meta-Node: `Pattern(condition, :(binding))`

Creates a `Pattern` object. *See Matchers*

`condition`
The node expression which evaluates to true if the pattern matches.

`binding (Optional)`
List of binding expressions of the bindings established by the pattern. Defaults to the empty list if not provided.

Meta-Node: `get-matcher(node)`

Returns the *matcher* function, stored in the `matcher` attribute of a node.

Returns a failure if the node's `matcher` attribute is not set.

    `node`   The node object of which to retrieve the *matcher*.

Meta-Node: `make-pattern(place, pattern)`

Creates the `Pattern` object for a pattern expression.

Note
Can be used for any pattern, including constant patterns.

`place`
    The place which should be matched to the pattern, i.e. the source node of the bindings established by the pattern.

`pattern`
    The pattern expression.

Note
If `pattern` is a functor expression of which the operator is not a `meta-node` with a `matcher`, a `Pattern` with a single binding `place -> pattern`, and no `condition` is returned.

Meta-Node: `combine-conditions(c1, c2)`

Returns an expression which is the conjunction of two expression, by [and](#).

`c1`
    The first condition, on the left hand side of the `and`.

`c2`
    The second condition, on the right hand side of the `and`.

If `c1` evaluates to a failure, returns `c2`. If `c2` evaluates to a failure, returns `c1`.

Tip
This is useful for creating a condition which combines the conditions of multiple argument nodes.

Meta-Node: conditionalize-bindings(condition, bindings)

Returns a list where each binding in `bindings` is conditioned on `condition`. *See [Conditional Bindings](#).*

`condition`
    The condition on which to condition the bindings.

`bindings`
    List of bindings to condition.

Meta-Node: make-pattern-declarations(pattern)

Creates the node declarations implementing a pattern.

Returns a single node declaration.

pattern
    The Pattern object for which to create the declarations.

Tip
The declaration returned by this meta-node is a suitable return value for a target-transform function. *See Section 3.7*.

Operator Table

Operator	Precedence	Associativity
.	1000	left
catch	850	left
@	800	left
*	200	left
/	200	left
+	100	left
-	100	left
<	50	left
<=	50	left
>	50	left
>=	50	left
=	50	left
!=	50	left
and	25	left
or	20	left
!-	15	right
->	10	right
<-	10	left
:	5	right

Optimizations

Coalescing

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