

# CAS 703 Term Project: Validated General-Purpose Calculators

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# 1 Introduction

For our term project in CAS 703 [1], we decided to build a language for describing calculation schemes. The descriptions should be mostly understandable to anyone who has worked with Excel [2] or has used any kind of calculation software. We aim to validate the coherence<sup>1</sup> of the calculator descriptions. Additionally, through generative techniques, we hope to decrease the barrier to entry (as much as we can) of basic software development of calculator programs by defining a transformation of the calculator descriptions to various programming languages<sup>2</sup>.

## 1.1 Objective

We aim to:

1. design a metamodel for describing calculator programs (Section 2),
2. build a concrete syntax for the metamodel, and an Integrated Development Environment (IDE) for said concrete syntax (Section 3),
3. design a set of rules that define “coherence” rules of the metamodel and audit instances of the metamodel for coherence (Section 4), and
4. define a transformer that converts the calculator description into programs and corresponding documentation (Section 5).

## 1.2 Tooling

We will use the tooling shown in 703, namely: Eclipse Epsilon [3] and the languages it contains, and Xtext [4].

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<sup>1</sup>“Coherence” defined by an unambiguous set of constraints and rules.

<sup>2</sup>Notably, Java programs.

## 2 Modelling

To define our metamodel for our desired Domain-Specific Language (DSL), we first need to iron out the *requirements* of that language.

### 2.1 Requirements

When we (the authors) think of “calculators,” we think of 3 main components: (i) a set of input symbols, (ii) a set of output symbols, and (iii) a means of deriving the output symbols from the input symbols. (i) and (ii) are really just “symbols” with designation of whether they are user-provided or calculated. (iii) is a (commonly secret) algorithm that translates (i) to (ii) and which may rely on intermediate symbols irrelevant to (i) and (ii). Thus, we think of a calculator as being a structure of (a) symbols of different kinds (inputs, intermediates, and outputs) and (b) an algorithm that calculates some symbols from an initial subset of provided symbols.

Depending on your preferred school of thought, algorithms can be thought of differently. We choose to think of them as being similar to imperative-style programming languages, where there is a memory of symbols to values, and a sequence of steps/statements that are executed sequentially against the memory.

The most important kind of “step” our algorithm must have is “symbol assignment,” where some symbol is assigned the value of some expression. The expression may contain other symbols, but it should be restricted to only using symbols that have been assigned values (either as input to the calculator or by an earlier step). Logging is another important kind of step that algorithms might need, they’re typically used for providing user-feedback for debugging, general information, warnings, errors, etc. Logging, similar to assignment steps, are provided an expression, for which are evaluated, but the difference is that the logging step displays the value to the user-feedback mechanism of the calculator rather than assigning the value to a symbol. For now, we choose to think of calculators as only having these 2 kinds of steps.

The steps rely on a single mathematical expression language that describes how values can be altered in a predictable way. We choose to restrict our expression language to the common first-order definite-valued mathematical language that most undergraduates in a first-year university mathematics class are familiar with.

Similar to how we expect our expression language to provide predictable results, we also expect our calculators to be predictable and reliably produce accurate results. To gain confidence in accuracy and predictability, we can test our calculators against well-known outputs for well-known inputs. In other words, we can create test cases to gain confidence that our calculator is reliable (which we want to reasonably assure ourselves).

Thus, together, we define our calculator as having 3 main aspects: (a) a set of symbols, (b) an algorithm that somehow calculates the output symbols from the inputs, and (c) a set of test cases to gain confidence that (b) is reliable. To model our calculator DSL, we chose to use Emfatic (EMF) because we found it to be faster to work with. In particular, we found it to be more readable and easier to modify compared to Ecore.

### 2.2 Emfatic

Listing 1: Calculator EMF

```
class Calculator extends Described {
    attr String[1] name = "";
    val SymbolDeclaration[*] symbolDeclarations;
    val CalculationStep[*] steps;
    val TestCase[*] testCases;
```

}

When translating the calculators to Emfatic (Listing 1), we also added the name and a description of the calculators using string attributes<sup>3</sup>. The calculator class contains 3 other “containment references” (vals): symbol declarations, calculation steps (denoting the algorithm), and a set of test cases.

Symbol declarations (`SymbolDeclaration`, Listing 3) define a symbol (`Symbol`) with a textual description and the *kind* of symbol it is — input (user-provided at the start of the calculator), intermediate (derived from the inputs but not important), or output symbols (symbols that users are interested in calculating). Since the difference between the symbol kinds is quite surface level (or so we claim), we chose to use an `enum` attribute in our symbol declaration type. If there were any behavioural differences, we would have used a subclass. The symbol content itself is contained in another class (`Symbol`) with a one-to-one relationship with symbol declarations. `Symbols` contain a name attribute (assumed to be a Java-friendly identifier) and a declared *type* of the symbol. The types are containment references of `Types` (Listing 6).

We chose to build a basic unambiguous judgment-based [5] type system. We restricted our type universe in our calculator to “simple” first-order types with no parameters. Thus, we have booleans, strings, integers, and real numbers. However, we do intend to implement vectors as well. We used an abstract `Type` class to create a generic class of types (with basic feature requirements), and then a subclass (`PrimitiveType`) to designate primitive types using an enumeration of primitive types (`Primitive`). By extending the basic `Type` class with other types, we can further extend our DSLs type system.

The next major component of our calculators are the calculation steps. As already mentioned in Section 2.1, we restricted ourselves to 2 kinds of steps: assignment steps, and print steps. Assignment steps (`AssignmentStep`) and print steps (`PrintStep`) are both subclasses of the abstract base class: `CalculationStep` (Listing 4). Print steps contain a description (we called it a “preface”) for the need to print a particular symbol (noted by reference). `AssignmentSteps` contain a reference to a symbol, an optional description `String` attribute, and a value reference to a defining expression. The expression is expected to be well-typed, but we only impose this restriction in Section 4.

Expressions have a shared base class: `Expression` (Listing 7). There are various kinds of expressions we’ve implemented, such as literals (`TextLiteral`, `BooleanLiteral`, `IntegerLiteral`, `RealLiteral`), symbol references (`SymbolExpression`), unary expressions (`UnaryExpression`), binary expressions (`BinaryExpression`), and tertiary expressions (`TertiaryExpression`). The `Expression` abstract base class defines a basic functionality set that each subclass of expression must provide — namely printing, type inference, symbols it depends on, and a Java representation method.

The last component of our calculators are test cases. We expect that instances of these calculators to obey a set of test cases. Our `TestCase` class is defined with a name and description `String` attributes, a list of assignment steps (that are expected to reference no symbols in their expressions), and a list of boolean-typed expressions<sup>4</sup>.

Finally, these 3 important classes define our calculators, and we may continue to our next project: building a concrete syntax for our DSL.

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<sup>3</sup>Note that since we commonly use comments and descriptions, we added a “Described” base class to quickly attach description attributes (Listing 2).

<sup>4</sup>Both restrictions are only imposed in Section 4.

### 3 Integrated Development Environment

## 4 Model Validation

## 5 Model Management Operations

## 6 Reflection and Concluding Thoughts



## References

- [1] Richard Paige. *CAS 703 - Software Design*. A course at McMaster University during the Winter 2023 semester. 2023 (cit. on p. 2).
- [2] Microsoft Corporation. *Microsoft Excel*. 2023. URL: <https://www.microsoft.com/en-ca/microsoft-365/excel> (cit. on p. 2).
- [3] Eclipse Foundation, Inc. *Eclipse Epsilon*. 2023. URL: <https://github.com/eclipse/epsilon> (cit. on p. 2).
- [4] Eclipse Foundation, Inc. *Xtext*. 2023. URL: <https://github.com/eclipse/xtext> (cit. on p. 2).
- [5] nLab authors. *judgment*. <https://ncatlab.org/nlab/show/judgment>. Revision 32. 2023-04 (cit. on p. 4).

## Appendix

Listing 2: Abstract Class: Described

```
abstract class Described {
  attr String[1] description = "";
}
```

Listing 3: Symbol Declarations

```
class SymbolDeclaration extends Described {
  attr SymbolDeclarationKind[1] kind;
  val Symbol[1]#declaration symbol;
}

enum SymbolDeclarationKind {
  INPUT;
  INTERMEDIATE;
  OUTPUT;
}

class Symbol {
  id attr String[1] name = "";
  val Type[1] type;
  ref SymbolDeclaration[1]#symbol declaration;
}
```

Listing 4: Calculation Steps

```
abstract class CalculationStep extends Described {
  op String[1] toHRN();
  op Symbol[*] dependencies();
  op Symbol[*] calculates();
  op String[1] toJava();
}

class AssignmentStep extends CalculationStep {
  ref Symbol[1] symbol; // LHS
  val Expression[1] body; // RHS
}

class PrintStep extends CalculationStep {
  attr String[1] preface = "";
  ref Symbol[1] symbol;
}
```

Listing 5: Test Case

```
class TestCase extends Described {
  attr String[1] name = "";
  val AssignmentStep[+] assignments;
  val Expression[+] assertions;
}
```

Listing 6: Type Universe

```
enum Primitive {
  TEXT;
  REAL;
  INTEGER;
  BOOLEAN;
```

```

}

abstract class Type {
    op String[1] serialize();
    op boolean[1] isNumeric();
    op String[1] toJavaType();
}

class PrimitiveType extends Type {
    attr Primitive[1] primitive;
}

class InvalidType extends Type {
    attr String[1] cause;
}

```

Listing 7: Expression Language

```

abstract class Expression {
    op Type[1] type();
    op String[1] toHRN();
    op Symbol[*] symbolReferences();
    op String[1] toJava();
}

class TextLiteral extends Expression {
    attr String[1] value;
}

class RealLiteral extends Expression {
    attr double[1] value;
}

class IntegerLiteral extends Expression {
    attr int[1] value;
}

class BooleanLiteral extends Expression {
    attr boolean[1] value;
}

class SymbolExpression extends Expression {
    ref Symbol[1] symbol;
}

enum UnaryOp {
    LOGICAL_NOT;
    NEGATION;
}

class UnaryExpression extends Expression {
    attr UnaryOp[1] operator;
    val Expression[1] body;
}

enum BinaryOp {
    // numbers (of same type)
    ADDITION; // also allowed for text and vectors
    MULTIPLICATION;
    DIVISION;
    SUBTRACTION;
}

```

```

POWER;
MODULO;

// inequalities
GREATER_THAN;
GREATER_THAN_EQUAL_TO;
LESS_THAN;
LESS_THAN_EQUAL_TO;

// booleans
LOGICAL_AND;
LOGICAL_OR;
LOGICAL_IMPLIES;

// any
EQUIVALENT;
NOT_EQUIVALENT;
}

class BinaryExpression extends Expression {
    attr BinaryOp[1] operator;
    val Expression[2] exprs;
}

enum TertiaryOp {
    IF_THEN_ELSE;
}

class TertiaryExpression extends Expression {
    attr TertiaryOp[1] operator;
    val Expression[3] exprs;
}

```