# An ALEPH Compiler

L. Csirmaz

May, 2020

## 1 Preface

In the early 1980's computer languages appeared in large numbers. Only a few of them survived and are in use even today. ALEPH, an acronym for "A Language Encouraging Program Hierarcy," almost completely disappeared, and this work is an attempt to resurrect it.

As a programming language, ALEPH has an interesting structure, unusual parameter passing mechanism, and a limited range of constructs. ALEPH compilers have been constructed for a wide range of computer architectures (which had a much larger variety at that time than it has today), and these compilers generated efficient and succinct code (an important requirement those days). Designed by D. Grune, R. Bosch and L.G.L.T. Meertens in the Mathematisch Centrum, Amsterdam in the late seventies, it was "suitable for any problem that suggests top-down analysis (parsers, search algorithms, combinatorial problems, artificial intelligence problems, etc)". It is no wonder, that an early ALEPH compiler was written in ALEPH itself.

# 2 Language features

ALEPH has some interesting features which cannot be found in today's mainstream languages. This section discusses some of them: its calling mechanism, virtual memory, and datafiles.

#### 2.1 Call-then-store calling mechanism

Probably the most prominent distinguishing feature of ALEPH is its parameter passing mechanism. Arguments – called affixes – of ALEPH routines – called rules – fall into two main categories: *incoming* and *outgoing* ones (some of the arguments can be both). Inside the routine arguments behave like local variables, and it is the caller's responsibility to store the values of the outgoing parameters in their final destination, which is done only if the called routine reports success.

This feature handles routines with several return values naturally without the need of introducing compound structures tailored for each such routine. If not needed, the caller can discard any of the outgoing values. The basic example is the divrem function with two in(coming) and two out(going) arguments: the first out argument is the result of integer division, and the second one is the remainder. This function is typically implemented as a single machine instruction, leaving the two results in two different registers.

ALEPH's call then store calling mechanism automatically controls the side effects through parameters. Usually, when a parameter is passed by reference, any change to the parameter's value takes effect immediately, and changing the value of the global variable which has been passed as argument changes the parameter's value as well – sometimes creating a bug rather difficult to find. In contrast, in ALEPH the value of a parameter changes only when it is changed explicitly; and this change does not escalate (thus revocable) until the routine returns.

#### 2.2 Tractable data flow

Data flow in ALEPH is quite restricted: a simple case selection – reminiscent of LL(1) parsing –, and a jump which is an abbreviation for tail recursion. There are no repetitive statements in ALEPH; iteration is handled by recursion. It means that data flow inside a routine is tractable: liveliness and reachability properties can be checked statically during compilation. In particular, an ALEPH compiler can check that

- · all instructions are reachable;
- · the flow can reach a return point;
- · when a local variable or parameter is used it has a value assigned to it (it is not "uninitialized");
- · out parameters have been assigned values when the routine reaches any of its return points;
- · if a local variable (or parameter) has been assigned a value, it is actually used

There are no uninitialized global values in an ALEPH program. Variables and tables are initialized when they are declared; and a stack can be extended only by supplying values for the extension.

#### 2.3 ALEPH data types

The basic data type in ALEPH is *integer*, which is a synonym for a *word* in the target machine. An integer can be considered a *bit string* (which has a positive, zero, or negative value), or as a *pointer* to some location inside a table or stack which, again, contains an integer (see Section 2.4 on how pointers are handled). Consecutive memory locations in a table or stack can be grouped to become a data block or a string. Such a group is pointed to by its last (topmost or rightmost) element. Block elements are identified relative to the address of the block by a selector. Strings, on the other hand, behave like black boxes, and can be manipulated using built-in routines (externals) only. This way string elements are not restricted to bytes (or wide characters), and can contain elements of an

arbitrary character set. Our implementation uses the Unicode character set, strings are stored using the UTF-8 encoding. (It also means that extracting string elements is an expensive operation.) Changing the character set (or the encoding) is completely transparent to the ALEPH program.

A stack or integer array can be extended by adding a block (specifying the value of each block element) or a string (specifying characters in the string in some way). Composite objects are referred to by pointers to their last elements. There are no special data type for such pointers.

As mentioned above, ALEPH has tables and stacks as fixed and extendable array of integer values. For communicating with the outside world it has charfiles and datafiles.

#### 2.4 Virtual memory

ALEPH pointers can only refer to elements in tables and stacks. The complete virtual memory space – the allowed range of indices – is distributed among the arrays of the program. Virtual limits are fixed and do not change during runtime, and pointers refer to a list element using its virtual address. The virtual address space of different lists are disjoint, thus a pointer uniquely identifies the list it points into.

A stack does not necessarily occupies its virtual space completely. Existing locations (which correspond to locations in the machine memory) form a presumably much smaller continuous subrange, the actual memory range. Stacks can be extended to the right (upwards) until the end of their virtual memory parts, or until there is enough physical memory available. They can shrink from the right when their actual upper limits are lowered; the released virtual memory can be reclaimed again. Stacks can also shrink from the left (behaving like queues), but in this case the released virtual space is lost (for the rest of the program run) and cannot be reclaimed again.

Virtual addresses refer to list elements (i.e., integers), and not directly to the memory. It means that to get a pointer to the next (or previous) list element, the given pointer should be increased (decreased) by 1. Using a 32-bit word size, the virtual address space is limited to  $2^{32}$  words (not bytes). This implementation assumes 32-bit word size. The virtual address space consists of the positive integers between M and  $2^{32}-M$  where M is around one million. This has been chosen so that pointers and small values (e.g., characters) would be different; a typical non-pointer value will not be accepted as a pointer. The actual memory an ALEPH program can access at the same time is around 8 Gbytes.

## 2.5 Datafiles

ALEPH programs communicate with the outside world through files. ALEPH distinguishes between two file types: character and data. Character files accept and read characters from the character set used; in our version, Unicode characters. Datafiles can be used to communicate between different ALEPH programs. Data files are written and read one item a time, where an item is either an integer or a pointer. As the programmer does not have direct control over

how virtual addresses are distributed, the datafile should not store the values of the pointers but the *list* the pointer points to and the *relative address* of the pointed item in that list. From this information the pointer can be restored independently of the virtual address distribution.

In a datafile declaration, all lists must be specified to which the datafile can have pointers. By storing the list names in the datafile first, each additional item requires a single extra bit only, which specifies whether the item is a pointer or not. When opening an ALEPH datafile, stored list names are paired with the names of the specified ones so that the appropriate pointer[B transformation could be made. How the pairing should be done is not specified by the ALEPH Manual. One possibility is to match them by position; another one is to match them by name. This implementation uses the second possibility, but instead of the list name it uses a 32-bit hash value of the name stored in the file. When opening a datafile, each specified list is matched to the one with the same hash. It is an error if a pointer in the file has no matching list.

## 3 Syntax

The ALEPH programming language is defined in the *Manual* which was published several times by the Mathematisch Centrum, Amsterdam, from 1974 until 1982. Implementations of any computer language frequently add new features, restrict or leave out others. This happened with ALEPH as well; these changes are also reflected in the different printings of the Manual. The ALEPH language implemented – and used – by the present compiler is no exception. Making modular programming possible – as opposed to using monolith programs prevalent at the time of the creation of ALEPH – required some new features. Other extensions and restrictions came up naturally; some of them date back to the time of the first ALEPH compilers in the early 80's. The changes respect the original design ideas and philosophy as much as possible.

#### 3.1 Program text representation

ALEPH is an Algol-like language in which key words are distinguished by a different typeface. In practice coding is typically done using a single (monospace) typeface. There are several approaches to distinguishing keywords from the surrounding text, but none of them is perfect. In this implementation, bold face keywords are enclosed between apostrophe characters, e.g.

```
'variable'x=0.
'root'print int+STDOUT+x.
'end'
```

Other approaches are using CAPITAL letters for keywords (as in several PASCAL implementations); restricting keywords (as in C and related languages); using an initial escape character only and whitespace at the end (i.e., leave out the closing apostrophe); etc.

Characters in ALEPH are not restricted to eight bits, and character strings cannot be indexed. In this implementation any UTF-8 character can be a string

character. According to the ALEPH Manual newline and newpage are not characters. This implementation relaxes this restriction, and newline characters can be part of a string, but not of a string denotation (strings in the program text). All strings should be closed in the same line they start in. Two separate consecutive strings (even if they are on different lines) are concatenated, thus strings can be continued on the next line.

#### 3.2 Hexadecimal constants

Whereever integers are accepted, constants in hexadecimal notation are recognized and accepted as well. An example is 0x1234abcd. A minus sign – can also appear before a hexadecimal constant.

#### 3.3 Relations

The external rule equal+x+y tests the equality of x and y. The same test can be done by using the identity x=y. Similar shorthands were added (that were not present in the original language) for the other comparison operators:

```
x!=y or x-=y for x and y differ;
x<=y for x is less than or equal to y;
x<y for x is smaller than y;
x>y for x is greater than y;
x>=y for x is greater than or equal to y.
```

#### 3.4 Lists in scalar context

In an affix position where a single integer is required, a list L (a table or stack) can appear with the meaning that the value is that of its topmost (rightmost) element, namely, L[>>L]. Similar abbreviation exists for lists with selectors. Thus the rule call

```
add + a*L + b*L + L
is equivalent to
add + a*L[>>L] + b*L[>>L] + L[>>L]
```

This extension means that occasionally a stack looks – and behaves – like a variable, making writing and comprehending stack operations easier.

This extension comes naturally, and is really handy in cases when the content of a newly added block on the top of a stack has to be manipulated. In cases when the list, as an affix, was added by mistake, the extension prevents the compiler from complaining about an affix type mismatch. The implicit reference to the topmost list block comes, unexpectedly, with an extra complication during macro substitution, see Section 5.

## 3.5 Actual and virtual limits

Each table and stack has a *virtual address space* assigned by the compiler (with almost no control of the programmer) which is fixed during the run of the program. The *actual address space* of stacks changes when the stack is extended

or shrunken, see Section 2.4. For a list L the constructs <<L and >>L return the actual lower and upper bounds of L, respectively. To get the *virtual* limits of the same list, one can use <L and >L (with a single left symbol and right symbol). In constant expressions only virtual limits can be used (as the actual limit can change during program run).

For tables, the actual and virtual limits are always equal. In case of stacks, actual limits are always within the virtual limits. Fixed stacks (i.e. stacks without size estimates) have equal actual and virtual limits.

## 3.6 Dummy affix

When the value of an out formal affix is not needed (the value is thrown away), rather than forcing the programmer to invent some dummy variable, the dummy symbol can be used. This symbol has representation? in the Manual, but our implementation also accepts the sharp-sign #. We consider the latter more appropriate as it does not indicate any uncertainty. Compare the two lines below:

```
divrem+a+5+#+rem,
divrem+x+10+?+q.
```

#### 3.7 String as actual affix

A string denotation can be used as an actual affix. This extension simplifies writing some program texts, and, hopefully, makes them more transparent by bringing the string definition closer to its usage. Without this feature strings are typically put into a table with a pointer constant pointing to them, and then the table name and the string pointer are used:

```
'table'MESSAGE=("unknown identifier":unknown tag).
```

```
'action'tag error:error+MESSAGE+unknown tag.
```

With this extension the string can appear as an argument:

```
'action'tag error:error+"unknown identifier".
```

Actually, as an actual affix a string translates into two affixes: first, a special table, and second, a pointer which points to the string in that table. The specified string is automatically added to the special table. The compiler might (or might not) merge identical strings.

### 3.8 Root rule

The root of an ALEPH program (the only directly executable instruction) can have local affixes and a rule body. As it is executed only once, there is no need to designate a separate rule for this purpose. An example is:

## 3.9 Matching formal and actual list affixes

Every table and stack has an associated *block structure* which determines the block size of that list together with the set of selectors. By default, the block size is 1, and the selector is the same as the list name. Otherwise the list definition must have a selector list which contains the selectors in a left to right order. For example, the formal stack definition

## [](tag,left,right)tags[]

specifies that the block structure of the formal stack tags has three elements with selectors tag, left, and right, where right is the rightmost element of the block. Also, the list tags has no *standard selector*, namely a selector with the name of the list.

The selector list pack of a list cannot be the empty () either in a formal definition or in a declaration (while the ALEPH Manual allows this in formal list definitions). The selector list pack, however, can be missing completely. The blocks of the formal and of the actual lists are compared as follows.

 $\cdot$  the formal list has no selector list pack:

there is no restriction on the actual list. Observe, however, that in this case the standard selector of the formal and the actual might be different. Suppose we have the rule declaration

```
'action'set zero+[]st[]: 0->st.
```

which sets the topmost element of the stack st to zero. (It is an action as it makes a global change.) With the declaration 'stack'(L,b)L the assignment 0->L clears the second to last element of L, while set zero+L clears the last element of the list.

• the formal list has a non-empty selector list pack:

the actual list must have the same block size and the same standard selector (selector names, however, can be different). If this restriction is violated, a warning is issued; if the called rule is a macro, then this is an error.

#### 3.10 Extension syntax

An extension adds a new block to the top of a (formal or global) stack. It is specified as a sequence of assignments where the destinations are the selectors of the block; it is enclosed between \* symbols, followed by the list tag. If the stack st has three selectors sel, ect, and ors, then the extension

\* pnt->sel, 0->ect->ors \* st

extends st with a block of three elements. To make such extensions more appealing visually, parentheses can be inserted before and after the \* as follows:

```
(* pnt->sel, 0->ect->ors *) st
```

This change destroys the LL(1) property of the ALEPH syntax, as a (\* sequence can be either the start of an extension, or that of a compound block which has an extension as its first member. Nevertheless, the improved readability of ALEPH programs justifies the additional parser work.

## 3.11 Expressions

In ALEPH an expression must have a value which can be determined during compilation. Originally expressions could be used at several places; this implementation restricts them to constant and variable declarations only. It is not an essential restriction as new constant tags can be declared with the desired values.

An expression must evaluate to a constant value. An expression can refer to a constant tag declared later (or in another module), but cannot depend on itself. Thus

```
'constant'a=b+2.
'constant'b=/a/.
```

is accepted (here /a/ is the value of the character a in the used coding), while 'constant'p=q+1,q=1-p.

is not, and gives an error message.

In addition to the usual arithmetic operators +, -, \* and /, the following Boolean operators can be used:

- $\cdot$  ~x for the (binary) complement of x;
- · x&y and x|y for the bitwise and and bitwise or;
- · x^y for the bitwise xor (modulo 2 addition) operator.

They have lower priorities than the arithmetic operators.

In expressions, integer denotations (both decimal and hexadecimal), constant tags, pointer constants (defined in fillings), virtual bounds and the list block size (caliber) can be used. List size estimates and repeat numbers (see Section 3.13) are evaluated before the virtual bounds are determined, thus these values cannot depend on these bounds.

#### 3.12 Stack size estimate

A stack declaration specifies the virtual address space size this stack requires. This size estimate can either be *fixed* or *relative*. In both cases it must be an integer denotation or a constant tag; no expressions are allowed.

The fixed size is specified between = symbols; its value cannot be larger than 1,000,000 (and, of course, must be positive). The compiler reserves at least this much virtual space for the stack. (The final virtual space can be larger if the stack has fillings which totals to a larger amount.)

The relative size estimate should give a positive integer not bigger than 100. After reserving virtual addresses for tables and fixed size stacks, the remaining space is distributed proportionally to the requested relative amount.

## 3.13 Filling

Table and stack declarations may specify the initial content of the list in addition to selectors and the block size. This filling is a sequence of integer denotations, constant tags (including pointers), strings, and blocks. Each one can be followed by the repeat symbol \*, followed by either an integer or by a constant tag specifying how many times this item should be repeated. Then the optional

pointer initialization follows: a colon: and a constant tag which is defined to have the value of virtual address of the last defined list item. Example:

```
'constant'tsize=10.
'stack'T=(0*tsize:tzero,1*tsize,"string":tstring).
```

adds ten zeroes, ten ones, followed by the internal representation of the string string. It also declares tzero to be the (virtual) address of the lastly added 0, and tstring to be the (virtual) address of the last element of the representation of string (which, if no further filling is added, is the same as >>T).

In the filling a compound block defines the content of a list block. The compound block must have exactly as many elements as the list block has (violating this requirement will result in a warning). A block element must be either an integer or a constant tag (possibly a pointer constant). In the block the constant value is followed by an arrow symbol -> and the selector where it must be stored. Example:

```
'stack'(ch,p)optor=(
(/+/->ch,3->p), (3->p,/-/->ch),(5->p,/^/->ch)).
which adds three blocks of size two to the stack optor.
```

The original block syntax is also accepted: the compound block of the filling contains, in left to right order, the values which should be added to the list. One of the integer values can be followed by the repeat symbol \* with the meaning that this element will be repeated as many times as necessary to fill the whole list block. Example:

```
'stack'(a,b,c,d,e,f,g,h)big block=( (0*)*100 ). adds 100 blocks to the stack big block, each consisting of eight zeroes.
```

## 3.14 Multiple list filling

Fillings for a list can spread across the program (actually, can spread across several modules). A list description (without size estimate), followed by = and a filling can appear multiple times across the program. Fillings specified this way are accumulated. Their order is unspecified, but within a single filling the order of the added elements is kept intact.

If a stack has no declaration, namely, it is a list head with a size estimate, then its virtual size will be equal to the total size of the fillings. The stack can still shrink, but cannot expand beyond its virtual upper limit.

## 3.15 Exit rule type

Executing the terminator 'exit'16 causes the program to terminate with exit value 16. The 'exit' statement is replaced internally by a call of the external rule exit, in this case as exit+16. Consequently 'exit' must be followed by an actual affix, and not by an expression.

In general, next to the four rule types predicate, question, action, and function, a fifth is added: exit. A rule is of type exit if it never returns. Thus the (external) rule exit is of type exit, as well as the rule

<sup>&#</sup>x27;exit'was error+>x:

```
x>=0,exit+0;
put string+STDERR+"Error:",put int+STDERR+x,exit+-1.
```

This rule prints some additional message before terminating the program run. A rule of type *exit* 

- · should not have out or input affixes (as there is no way to use the returned values); and
- · cannot return.

When an exit rule is defined, these conditions are checked. When such a rule is used, it is treated as a terminator which can neither succeed nor fail.

#### 3.16 Classification

A classification chooses exactly one of the possible alternatives based on the value of a source included in the classifier box. An example is

```
(= last*L[n] =
  [0;1], action 1;
  [-10:10],action 2;
  [L;1000],action 3;
  [:], action 4)
```

The area in the square brackets determines whether the alternative following it will be chosen. No expression is allowed in an area, only integer denotation (decimal or hexadecimal), constant tag (including constant pointer) and global (not formal) list. This latter stands for its virtual address range. All values in an area are determined during compilation, and the compiler gives an error message if some of the alternatives cannot be reached (this happens, for example, if the first two areas in the above example are swapped); and gives a warning if it is possible that none of the alternatives are chosen. When running the program and none of the alternatives succeeds the program run is aborted with an error message.

#### 3.17 File area, file string

In a file declaration an area can be given which restricts what values are allowed to send to or receive from that file. In this implementation no area is allowed for character files, and the area of a datafile should contain only those lists (tables and stacks) to which pointers will be sent to or received from. How datafiles work is discussed in Section 2.5.

The string denotation and the direction (the > symbol before and after the string) is used as follows. Files can be opened by the external rule

```
'a'open file+""file + >mode + t[]+>ptr.
```

where mode is the character /r/ for reading, /w/ for writing, and /a/ for appending (appending is implemented for character files only); the last two arguments specify the file name string (with possible path information).

Without explicitly opening the file, the first file operation tries to open it. The string denotation gives the file name, and the direction restricts the access: the file opens automatically for reading only if there is a > before the string, and for writing if there is a > after the string.

#### 3.18 Static stack and static variable

Variables and stacks can be declared to be static by adding the 'static' keyword before their declaration, such in

```
'static''variable'resources=0.
'static''stack'[=20=]values.
```

Static variables and stacks behave identically to variables and stacks in the module they are declared. In other modules, however, they are "read only", which means that other modules cannot change the value of a static variable, and cannot modify, extend, shrink, or manipulate otherwise a static stack.

#### 3.19 Prototype

A prototype informs the compiler about a tag. A table or stack prototype has no size estimate and filling; a constant, variable, file prototype has no data (or initial value); a rule prototype has no actual rule. They look like an external declaration without the 'external' keyword and the string denotation. Example:

```
'charfile'PRINTER.
'action'print tag+>tag.
'constant'max tag pointer.
```

Prototypes are used to inform the compiler about tags which are defined in other modules, see Section 3.22 more on modules.

#### 3.20 Pragmats

Pragmats are used to control certain aspects of the compilation; their semantics changed significantly compared to the ALEPH Manual. The following pragmats are recognized by this implementation:

```
tab size=8
                    sets tab size for program text printing
library=on/off
                    switch to library mode
stdlib=off
                    don't read the standard library
list=on/off
                    switch program text printing
warning level=8
                    set warning level between 0 and 9
dictionary=on/off collect where each tag occurred in the program
compile=on/off
                    pragmat flag, see below
title="title"
                    specify program title
module="title"
                    specify module name, switch to module mode
bounds=on/off
                    compile with index checking
                    count how many times rules are called
count=on/off
                    trace rule calls and affixes
trace=on/off
include="file"
                    add file to the sources to be read
                    require module headers from file
require="file"
prototype=none
                    specify how prototypes are handled (Section 3.19)
macro=rule
                    rule should be treated as a macro.
```

Command-line arguments starting with double dash are pragmats:

```
--XXXXX
```

is parsed as

```
'pragmat' XXXXX .
```

except that no conditional pragmats are accepted (see below). There are other command-line shorthand starting with a single dash:

```
-L library=on
-l list=on
-M prototype=public
-d dictionary=on
-W warning level=3
-I XXXX path="XXXX" (only in command-line)
-o XXXX title="XXXX"
```

There is no path pragmat, it can only be used as a command-line argument. The path specifies the directories, separated by :, which are searched for source files (included and required) and the standard library.

```
Standard values for some pragmats are tab size=8, list=off, dictionary=off, library=off, compile=on, prototype=none.
```

The pragmat include=("file1", "file2") adds these files to the end of the source list to be processed. Similarly, require=("file1", "file2") also adds these files. The difference is the following. When the compiler opens a source file, pragmat values are reset to their default values as indicated above. For include files the compile and prototype pragmats are set to values which were in effect when the source file was added to the list. For require files

```
'pragmat'compile=off,prototype=import.
```

is added. It is an error to add the same file both as include and as require at the same time.

When compile=off is in effect, the title and module pragmats are ignored; the compile pragmat has no other effects for the working of the compiler.

The prototype pragmat has three possible values: import, public, and none. In the first case a prototype indicates that the tag has a declaration outside this module (and then it cannot be defined, but can have other prototypes). In the second case every tag appearing in a prototype automatically gets the *public* flag, and must be defined in this module (consequently cannot be external, or imported). When prototype=none, prototypes are used for checking purposes only and do not imply any specific behavior.

The module pragmat, if not skipped (i.e., if compile=on is in effect), defines the module name, and also sets prototype=public.

#### 3.21 Conditional pragmats

Conditional pragmats can be used to instruct the compiler to ignore certain parts of the source file. They have the syntax

```
'pragmat'if=TAG. 'pragmat'else=TAG. 'pragmat'endif=TAG.
Or
   'pragmat'ifnot=TAG. 'pragmat'else=TAG. 'pragmat'endif=TAG.
Or
   'pragmat'ifdef=TAG. 'pragmat'else=TAG. 'pragmat'endif=TAG.
Or
   'pragmat'ifndef=TAG. 'pragmat'else=TAG. 'pragmat'endif=TAG.
```

where TAG is one of compile, list, dictionary, module, library, etc. The program text between the if and else pragmats is processed if TAG is (or is not) in effect; otherwise, it is skipped; and just the opposite for the text between else and endif. The else part may be missing. The TAG in the ifdef (ifndef) pragmats can be any identifier (tag), and the compiler checks if this identifier has (has not) been defined until this point. As an example, the pragmat

```
'pragmat'if=module,include="private",else=module,
include="public",endif=module.
```

adds the source file private among those to be processed if the module pragmat has been executed previously; otherwise, it adds the public source file.

The if ...endif pragmats must be nested properly, and the ignored text must be syntactically correct (as it is scanned to find the closing pragmat). The 'end' symbol marking the end of the source file is never ignored: conditional pragmats do not extend over the end of the current file.

#### 3.22 ALEPH modules

An ALEPH module starts with a module pragmat which defines the name (title) of the module. After this, the module header follows, which contains the prototype of all exported (public) tags. The body of the module, which defines the exported tags together with private items, is enclosed between ifdef=compile and endif=compile pragmats. A small module exporting the rule do something and the stack LEXT can be defined as follows.

```
'pragmat'module="sample". $ module name $
'action'do something+>in+out>.
'stack'(adm,left,right)LEXT.
'pragmat'if=compile. $ module body $
  'stack'[12](adm,left,right)LEXT=((3,4,5):first item).
  'action'do something+>x+y>: add+first item+x+y.
  'root'+.
'pragmat'endif=compile. $ until this $
'end'
```

When the module is compiled, the source is read with the pragmat compile=on. Thus the module pragmat is executed, which sets the prototype pragmat to public. The module head is parsed, and the compiler marks all prototyped

tags to be exported, thus they must have a definition later on. The condition in the if=compile pragmat holds, and the material in the module body is read and compiled.

When the module is required by giving 'pragmat'require="sample", then the module text is parsed with compile=off and prototype=import. The module pragmat at the top is ignored (as now compile=off), then the prototypes are scanned. The compiler marks all prototyped tags as "to be defined in another module" and complains if the same tag is defined or not used properly. Reaching the conditional pragmat if=compile it fails, consequently the remaining text of the module is skipped.

Modules can require public items from other modules; it may happen that module a requires some public item from module b, and module b requires some public item from module a.

As in the sample module above, all modules must have a 'root'. All module roots are executed before the main root is called (which must be in the only non-module source file). The module root can make any necessary initialization. If no initialization is necessary, the module can use an empty root as in the example. To control the order of the initialization, a module can call the rule

#### wait for+"another module"

This rule checks if there is a module with the supplied title. If not, it fails and returns immediately. Otherwise, before returning success, it makes sure that the referred module has finished initialization. The wait for rule aborts the program run with an error message if two modules would wait for each other, so use this rule with care.

## 3.23 Library mode

The library pragmat determines whether library extensions are allowed or not. 'pragmat'library=on turns the library mode on, while 'pragmat'library=off turns it off. The standard library, if not disabled by 'pragmat'stdlib=off, will be read as the last source.

In library mode, the @ character is considered to be a letter. This way private tags can be created which are not available outside a library. Dictionary listing ignores tags starting with @.

External declarations are allowed in library mode only.

The inquire symbol ?, followed by a tag, can be used to check if the tag has been used but not defined. If this is the case, the inquire symbol and the tag is discarded, and the source is processed. If it is not the case, (that is, either the tag was not used, or it has had a previous definition), then the program text is skipped until the next point symbol. The library snippet

```
?nlcr 'action'nlcr:put char+STDOUT+newline.
?newline 'constant'newline=10.
```

checks first if nlcr has been used so far without definition. If yes, the rule definition following ?nlcr is read, otherwise it is skipped. The next line defines the newline constant to correspond to the newline character with code 10. The

order of the inquire statements are important. For example a second inquiry starting with ?nlcr would always be skipped.

#### 3.24 Predefined constants

There are five built-in constants. They start and end with an underscore, and can be used anywhere where an integer denotation or a string is accepted.

```
_line_ integer, the source line number this constant appears in string, name of the the source file _source_ same as _file_ title_ string, the title as set by title=".." or module=".." _rule_ string, the rule name if used inside a rule definition.
```

## 4 Variable number of affixes

Allowing – and handling – variable number of affixes in rules is the main novelty of this ALEPH compiler. Allowing a variable number of affixes raises several problems, and poses a main obstacle to keeping the tractability of the rule properties. The approach used here meets two main requirements: on the one hand it provides a flexible and usable variable argument mechanism, and on the other hand it keeps all tractability properties of ALEPH programs. This is achieved by restricting how the "invisible" affixes in the variable block can be accessed.

A formal affix sequence, which defines the arguments of a rule, can contain a repeat affix symbol \* indicating that the affixes from that point to the right can be repeated indefinitely. The rule sum in the declaration

has the single out affix a, and two input affixes b and c, the latter two forms the repeat affix block. Invoking this rule requires three, five, seven, and so on actual affixes. The first three of the actual affixes are matched against the formal affixes a, b, and c. The rule execution starts by setting a to zero, then adding b and c to a. The library routine shift affix block shifts out the affix block and moves the next block into its place, assuming there is still a pending, unseen block. If there is none, shift affix block fails, and the rule sum ends. Otherwise, the execution continues, and a jump is made to the label nxt, where the next two input affixes are added to a. Finally, sum adds up all of its input arguments and return their sum in a.

The main point which guarantees tractability data flow is that the shifted out blocks are lost to this rule, and there is no way to reach or modify their elements.

The repeat affix symbol \* can appear as the last actual affix in a call of sum with the meaning that the present and all subsequent affix blocks of this rule are passed as arguments. The rule negate declared as

```
'function'negate+a>+*+>b+>c-z:
add+b+c+a,(shift affix block+*,sum+z+*,subtr+a+z+a;+).
```

adds up its first two in affixes b and c; if there are no more affixes, then this sum is the result. Otherwise, it calls sum to add up the rest, and then subtract it from the sum of the first two. Thus the calls

```
negate+x+3+4, negate+y+3+4+0+1, negate+z+3+4+0+1+x+y put 7 in x, 6 in y, and -7 in z.
```

The library routine get affix blockno+n>+\* returns the number of pending affix blocks. This number is always positive, and it is exactly 1 if and only if shift affix block+\* would fail.

The main application of variable number of arguments is formatted printing, which, in the ALEPH compiler, has mainly been used to report error messages, but it also turned out to be useful in code generation. Rudimentary formatted printing can start with the format string – so it has two affixes: the table and the string pointer. Each format character starting with % requires a corresponding affix. When encountering a format char, the affix list is shifted and the next argument, together with the format char, is passed to the rule handle format char.

Another application can be pushing and popping an unspecified number of elements to a stack:

```
'action'push+*>x:
    (* x->BUFFER *) BUFFER,(shift affix block+*,:push;+).
'action'pop+*+x>:
    BUFFER->x,unstack+BUFFER,(shift affix block+*,:pop;+).
```

Passing all remaining affixes in the variable block was used to suppress low-level warning messages with a code similar to the one below:

```
'action'warning+>level+T[]+*+>msg:
  level<min level;
  format print+T+*.</pre>
```

## 5 Macro substitution

Calls to macro rules are processed by textual substitution. Such a replacement can result in a syntactically incorrect text, or in completely different semantics. The following examples illustrate these cases and explain the additional restrictions a macro rule must satisfy.

1) In a macro formal in affixes cannot be assigned to. Suppose the rule macro is defined as

```
'function'macro+>x+y>: 1->y->x,x->y.
```

then after substitution the replacement is syntactically wrong:

macro+1+z becomes (1->z->1,1->z)

2) There is a problem with the dummy affix. Using the same macro rule as above, the result has incorrect syntax:

```
macro+u+# becomes (u->#->u, u->#)
```

3) While a macro can have a variable number of affixes, neither shift affix block, nor get affix blockno is allowed. Rule is zero below checks if it has an argument with zero value; rule math computes the product of its arguments if none is zero, otherwise it computes their sum:

```
'question'is zero+*+>x: x=0; shift affix block+*,:is zero.
```

'function'math+y>+\*+>x:

```
is zero+*,0->y,(nxt:add+x+y+y,shift affix block+*,:nxt;+);
1->y,(nxt:mult+x+y+y,shift affix block+*,:nxt;+).
```

If is zero were substituted verbatim, it would shift out all affixes and the computation in math would not be carried over. If the rule macro is defined as

```
'function'macro+>a+*+>q: q->b, call+a+b+*.
```

where b is some global variable, then after substitution the repeat block can completely vanish, so calls of shift affix block and get affix blockno would give syntax errors:

```
macro+1+2+T+rep2 becomes (2->b,call+1+b+2+T+rep2)
```

If a rule head is XXXX+\*+>u and the same macro is called inside this rule, then the formal affix u might appear in the substitution text without it being passed to the macro explicitly:

```
macro+1+* becomes (u->b,call+1+b+*)
```

4) Standard selectors are not carried over.

```
'function'macro+t[]+x>: t[ptr]->x.
```

where ptr is some global variable. After substitution

macro+S+z becomes (S[ptr]->z)

while S might not have a standard selector.

5) Out affixes get their values only after returning from a call. The rule call swap+x+y+x swaps the value of x and y if it is defined as

```
'function'swap+>a+b>+c>: b->c,a->b.
```

but as a macro it does y->x,x->y.

Items 1) and 3) are checked during compilation, and error messages are issued if the conditions are violated. For 2), if the actual is a dummy affix, the formal out affix in the macro is turned into a local variable (which may be removed during optimization). For 4) the macro substitution mechanism remembers the last substituted formal affix, which gives the correct standard selector. For 5) and other side effects, no warning is, or can be, given, but it changes the semantics. So use macros with care.

## 6 Redefining assignments and relations

Assignments (transports) and relations (of which identity is an example, see Section 3.3) are handled as a syntactically different way of writing a rule call. Internally, the assignment

```
a->b[c]->c
is transformed into the rule call
@make+a+b[c]+c
```

(recall that the character @ is a letter in library mode, see Section 3.23), and @make is declared in the standard library as an

```
'external', function' @make+>from+*+to>.
```

Similarly, relations are transformed to calls of rules <code>@equal</code>, <code>@noteq</code>, <code>@more</code>, <code>@less</code>, <code>@mreq</code>, and <code>@lseq</code>, respectively; all of them are questions with two input affixes, also defined in the standard library. Any of these rules can be redefined (in library mode) to do something different. As an example, suppose the list STR contains strings, and two pointers to STR should be equal if the strings they point to are the same, not only if they, as pointers, are equal. So

would print strings are equal if the two string pointed by ptr1 and ptr2, as strings, are equal. This can be achieved by defining @equal to handle this case:

```
'pragmat'library=on.
'external''question'real eq+>x+>y="__equal". $ from stdlib $
'question'@equal+>x+>y-eq:
   (was+STR+x,was+STR+y),compare string+STR+x+STR+y+eq,eq=0;
   real eq+x+y.
'pragmat'library=off.
```

Actually, the test eq=0 should be real eq+eq+0, as this way the rule @equal calls itself. In the module where this definition appears all equality tests use this rule. You might consider declaring @equal to be a macro, which could also be done in library mode.

# 7 Implementation details

The target code of this ALEPH compiler is C. It is assumed that the basic ALEPH data type, which translates to int in C, is 32 bits long, and that the compiler and the target code runs on the same architecture<sup>1</sup>. There is no assumption on the size of pointers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The compiler must know how strings are packed in the target machine to generate list fillings. Also, in datafile declarations the hash of the list identifiers are computed at compile time, and are used when the ALEPH program runs.

#### 7.1 Tables, stacks

The ALEPH value of a table, stack, datafile and charfile is an index to the global integer array a\_DATABLOCK, where specific structures are stored. Given the value idx, the C macros to\_LIST(idx), to\_CHFILE(idx) and to\_DFILE(idx) create a pointer to the corresponding list, character, or datafile structure.

Table and stack structures have the following fields.

```
int *offset; the zero virtual element of the list
int *p; pointer to the beginning of the allocated memory block
int length; length of the allocated block
int alwb,aupb; actual lower and upper bounds
int vlwb,vupb; virtual lower and upper bounds
int calibre; calibre of the list
```

The ALEPH list element L[i] is translated into to LIST(L)->offset[i] in C. List limits (actual and virtual limits and calibre) are retrieved from this structure. There are no direct pointers to list elements in the program, thus whole lists can be moved freely in the memory, as long as the pointers offset and p are adjusted.

When a stack is to be extended and no more allocated space is available, additional memory is requested (which may move the whole list to somewhere else in the memory). The elements of the new list block are initialized and the actual upper bound of the list is increased. The unstack and unstack to externals adjust the actual upper bound only. The release external actually releases the allocated memory, while scratch only sets the actual upper bound to its lowest possible value but keeps the allocated memory.

## 7.2 Datafile implementation

As discussed in Section 2.5, ALEPH datafiles store integers (computer words), and pointers to lists. An external datafile is a sequence of 1024\*sizeof(int) blocks (read and written as a single block), and each block is arranged as follows.

```
B[0] magic number, identifying the ALEPH datafileB[1..31] bitmap for the rest of this blockB[32..1023] the actual data
```

In the bitmap part the indicator bit for the word at position  $32 \le i < 1024$  is at word location B[int(i/32)], and at bit position (i&31), where zero is the most significant bit and 31 is the least significant bit. The nil pointer is a pointer with value zero; the eof (end of file) indicator is a pointer with value -1; all other pointer values must be positive and belong to one of the datafile zones.

The first few values in the datafile contain the zone list. Each zone occupies three words: the virtual lower and upper bounds and the hash value of the list name. The maximal number of zones is MAXIMAL\_AREA=32, and this list must fit into the first data block. Data for the first zone is in B[32], B[33], B[34], followed by data for the other zones. The lower and upper bounds (inclusive) must be strictly positive and disjoint, and all pointer values, with the exception

of nil and eof must lie within one of the zones. The hash value is a hash of the list name which is used to match the list name when reading the datafile. The hash is generated from the list name by the library function

```
'function'simple hash+T[]+>p+hash>.
```

Input ALEPH datafiles can be positioned. The last 10 bits in the file position identify the index, which must be between 32 and 1023. Other bits identify the block in which the value is. The actual position is stored internally, thus there is no overhead in determining it. File position can be retrieved for both input and output datafiles, but one can only set the position for an opened input datafile. No check is made to make sure that the position is valid (so it can be set after the eof indicator).

When opening a datafile for output, the first block with the number of zones and the corresponding values are created; the file pointer is set just before the very first empty space.

Appending to an existing ALEPH datafile is not done as it raises problems. The steps are: read the first block, check if it has the same metainformation as we have right now, read the last block, find the eof mark, then set the file position just at the eof mark.

Opening a datafile for input requires the following operations: read the first block, and compare the zones in the input file to the ones supplied by the file declaration. Comparison is made by the hash values: two lists are the same if they have the same hash value. Lists not found in the declaration are skipped; others are copied into a local structure with the differences between the stored and requested pointer values. When the next input is requested, it is checked whether it is a pointer or not. If it is numerical, pass it. If it is a pointer, check which list it is in, add the difference and pass it as a pointer. Handle nil and eof separately. If the zone is not found (the corresponding list was not supplied when opening the datafile), then fail and skip this input.

The datafile structure stored in a\_DATABLOCK has the following fields:

```
different flag bits
unsigned fflag;
int
          fileError;
                             last file error
          st1,st2;
                             string pointers
int
int
          fhandle;
                             handle, zero if not opened
int
          fpos;
                             file position
unsigned iflag;
                             pointer/numerical flag
int inarea, outarea;
                             number of areas
         in[MAXIMAL_AREA]; input list areas
a_AREA out[MAXIMAL_AREA]; output list areas
int
          buffer[1024];
                             the buffer
```

#### 7.3 Character files

While datafiles use direct file input and output, character files use streams, namely, the fgetc() and fputc() library procedures without the ungetc() facility. Input is assumed to be proper UTF-8 encoded, incorrect codes are

silently ignored. The ALEPH rule get char may consume up to four bytes from the input stream. There is no newpage character, and writing newline sends the newline character (code 10) to the stream.

Input character files can be positioned; they use ftell() to retrieve the current file position and fseek() to set the file position.

The charfile structure in a\_DATABLOCK has the following fields:

```
unsigned fflag; different flag bits
int fileError; last file error
int st1,st2; string pointers
FILE *f; stream handle, NULL if not opened
int aheadchar; look ahead character
```

#### 7.4 Strings

ALEPH strings use Unicode characters, and they are stored using UTF-8 encoding as C strings whose last byte is \0. If the string is in list L pointed by the (virtual) index si, then the content of the list block is

```
L[si] width (calibre) of this block
L[si-1] number of UTF-8 encoded characters in the string
L[s+1-width] start of the C string
```

Each (integer) location contains four bytes. Thus a string with 6 Unicode characters and encoded length 8 is stored in 4 words as follows: (from larger indices to lower ones):

```
5 width of this block
6 actual string length
\( \)0 - - - third word with the closing zero byte
c5 c6 c7 c8 second word, bytes c5-c8
c1 c2 c3 c4 first word, bytes c1-c4
```

The empty string is stored as a block of three zeros.

#### 7.5 Rules in C

Each rule declaration is translated into a C procedure declaration. If the rule is of type function, action, or exit, then the procedure is void; if it is a question or predicate, then it is int. The compiled C routine returns 0 for failure and 1 for success, but when checking the returned value, any non-zero return value is taken for success.

In ALEPH it is the caller's responsibility to store the output value in its destination, and do it only if the called routine reports success. According to this requirement, formal affixes are transformed into C parameters as follows. First, assume that the called rule has no variable affix block. Affixes which are neither out nor inout ones (that is, actual file, stack, table, or in affix) are passed as integers in their original order. A local integer array is declared for the out and inout affixes, and this array, containing these affixes in their original order, is passed as the last parameter. Before returning, the called routine should

supply the output values in this array, which values will then be stored by the caller.

Rules with a variable affix block have two additional parameters: an integer containing the number of blocks (with a value of at least one), and an integer array containing all affixes in the variable block regardless of their types. The shift affix block rule is implemented by decreasing the block counter by one, and adding the block length to the last parameter. The following table shows some formal affix sequences and the corresponding C parameter declarations:

The called routine must set all out affixes in the output parameter A[], otherwise it is free to change (and use) these values if the routine fails. In the variable block V[], however, values corresponding to not out or inout affixes cannot be changed, and the value of an inout affix should change only if the routine returns with success.

#### 7.6 Externals

External declarations are allowed in library mode only (see Section 3.23). How the string denotation in the external declaration is interpreted depends on the type of the defined tag.

#### 7.6.1 External constant and variable

Both constants and variables can be declared external. External constants cannot be used in expressions or any other place where a constant tag is required. In the C code every occurrence of these tags is replaced by the string specified in the external declaration.

#### 7.6.2 External table and stack

A list structure is reserved in the global integer array a\_DATABLOCK as explained in Section 7.1. The string in the external declaration is used as the name of a C procedure which is responsible for initializing this structure. The routine is called with two arguments: the index of the associated structure and the calibre of the list. The routine must fill the actual and virtual limits and the calibre. There is a (relatively small) virtual address space set aside for external lists. The first free virtual address is in a\_extlist\_virtual; the address can go up to max int. The routine should update this value to reflect its reservation. The routine is also responsible for allocating memory and initializing the content of external tables.

#### 7.6.3 External files

The corresponding charfile or datafile structure is reserved in the global array a DATABLOCK. For the description see Sections 7.2 and 7.3. The string in the external declaration is used as the name of a C procedure which is responsible for initializing the structure. The procedure is called with a single argument: the index of the structure.

#### 7.6.4 External rules

How an external rule is handled depends on the string denotation. If it starts with a (lower or upper case) letter, then the external rule is assumed to be a C procedure with exactly the same parameter passing mechanism as the compiled rules, see Section 7.5. The compiler even generates prototypes with the corresponding parameter settings; the C routine implementing the external rule can be compiled and linked independently. Several standard library rules are implemented this way.

If the first character in the string denotation of the external rule is not a letter, then another calling mechanism is used: all affixes, independently of their types, are passed as parameters. Such external rules are typically defined as C macros; an example is the incr+>x> external rule whose string denotation is \_\_incr, thus the ALEPH rule call incr+ptr translates to \_\_incr(ptr). The C header file contains the C macro definition

```
#define __incr(x) x++ which makes the final translation.
```

The dummy affix # translates to nothing, thus it leaves an empty parameter location. Using some C preprocessor tricks these empty arguments can be transformed to different C procedure calls. To ease this work, the ALEPH compiler makes some additional work.

If the external rule is a *function* and all of its out arguments are discarded, then this external rule is not called at all. The same optimization is not applied to non-external rules (only a warning is given), as such a rule can check whether some condition holds and abort the program depending on the outcome.

If the string denotation of the external rule starts with a @, then this character is replaced by an underscore. For each out argument, depending on whether it is the dummy symbol or not, a 0 or a 1 character is appended to the rule string. Finally, dummy symbols are discarded from the argument list. In the standard library the external rule divrem has two out affixes, and its string denotation is @divrem. Accordingly, four C calls could be generated: \_divrem11 with four parameters when both the quotient and remainder is used, the three parameter \_divrem01 and \_divrem10 when the quotient or remainder is discarded; and the two parameter \_divrem00 when no result is requested at all.