



# SIMULA Standard

As defined by the SIMULA Standards Group,  
25th August 1986.

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It is manually checked against several printed versions.

If you need an official version please check this document:

Swedish Standard: [SS636114](#)

# Table of Contents

## 0 [General Introduction](#)

- 0.1 Introduction
- 0.2 Scope and field of application
- 0.3 References
- 0.4 Definitions
- 0.5 Conformity
- 0.6 Tests
- 0.7 Appendices

## 1 [Lexical Tokens](#)

- 1.1 Directive lines
- 1.2 The character set
- 1.3 Special symbols
- 1.4 Identifiers
- 1.5 Numbers
- 1.6 Strings
- 1.7 Character constants
- 1.8 Comment convention
- 1.9 Token separators
- 1.10 Program interchange and lexical alternatives

## 2 [Types, values and references](#)

- 2.1 Arithmetic types
- 2.2 The type Boolean
- 2.3 The type character
- 2.4 Object reference
- 2.5 The type text
- 2.6 Type conversion

## 3 [Expressions](#)

- 3.1 Variables
- 3.2 Boolean expressions
- 3.3 Relations
- 3.4 The logical operators
- 3.5 Arithmetic expressions
- 3.6 Character expressions
- 3.7 Text expressions
- 3.8 Object expressions
- 3.9 Designational expressions

## 4 [Statements](#)

- 4.1 Assignment statement
- 4.2 Conditional statement
- 4.3 While statement
- 4.4 For statement
- 4.5 Goto statement
- 4.6 Procedure statement
- 4.7 Object generator statement
- 4.8 Connection statement
- 4.9 Compound statement
- 4.10 Blocks
- 4.11 Dummy statement

## 5 [Declarations](#)

- 5.1 Simple variable declaration
- 5.2 Array declaration
- 5.3 Switch declaration
- 5.4 Procedure declaration
- 5.5 Class declaration
- 5.6 Scope and visibility rules
- 5.7 Initialisation
- 5.8 Constant declarations

## 6 [Program modules](#)

- 6.1 External declarations
- 6.2 The main program
- 6.3 External procedure declaration
- 6.4 External class declaration
- 6.5 Module identification

## 7 [Sequencing](#)

- 7.1 Block instances and states of execution
- 7.2 Quasi-parallel systems
- 7.3 Quasi-parallel sequencing
- 7.4 Annotated example

## 8 [Attributes of text](#)

- 8.1 "constant", "start", "length" and "main"
- 8.2 Character access
- 8.3 Text generation
- 8.4 Subtexts
- 8.5 Numeric text values
- 8.6 "De-editing" procedures
- 8.7 Editing procedures

## 9 [The class environment](#)

- 9.1 Basic operations
- 9.2 Text utilities
- 9.3 Scheduling
- 9.4 Mathematical ifinctions
- 9.5 Extremum functions
- 9.6 Environmental enquiries
- 9.7 Error control
- 9.8 Array quantities
- 9.9 Random drawing
- 9.10 Calendar and tiining utilities
- 9.11 Miscellaneous
- 9.12 Standard system classes

## 10 [Input - Output](#)

- 10.1 The class "file"
- 10.2 Structure of file subclasses
- 10.3 Imagefiles
- 10.4 The class "infile"
- 10.5 The class "outfile"
- 10.6 The class "directfile"
- 10.7 The class "printlile"
- 10.8 Bytefiles
- 10.9 The class "inbytefle"

- 10.10 The class "outbytefile"
- 10.11 The class "directbytefile"

## 11 [Class Simset](#)

- 11.1 Class "linkage"
- 11.2 Class link
- 11.3 Class head

## 12 [Class Simulation](#)

- 12.1 Class process
- 12.2 Activation statement
- 12.3 Procedure ACTIVATE
- 12.4 Sequencing procedures
- 12.5 The main (simulation)
- 12.6 The procedure ACCUM

App. A: [SIMULA Syntax](#)

App. B: [Implementation aspects](#)

App. C: [Index of Syntactic Meta-symbols](#)

App. D: [Statutes of the SIMULA Standards Group](#)

# Chapter 0

## General Introduction

### 0. General Introduction

SIMULA is a general purpose programming language. It inherits the algorithmic properties of ALGOL 60 and introduces methods for structuring data. The main characteristic of SIMULA is that it is easily modelled towards specialized problem areas, and hence can be used as a basis for Special Application Languages.

In this Standard the name SIMULA is considered synonymous with SIMULA 67. Although there exists a predecessor, SIMULA I, this latter language has achieved limited use. It is recommended that the language defined in this Standard be referred to as "Standard SIMULA".

SIMULA includes most of the ALGOL 60 language. Wherever ALGOL is used in this Standard it relates to the STANDARD ALGOL 60 definition (ISO 1538).

### 0.2 Scope and field of application

This Standard establishes the definition of the programming language SIMULA and specifies conformity rules to related products, such as programs and processors. Its purpose is to facilitate interchange and promote portability of SIMULA programs between data processing systems.

This Standard specifies:

- a. The syntax, semantics and representation of SIMULA,
- b. Characteristics of processors (see 4.2.1) and their accompanying documents, and of SIMULA programs, required for conformity to this Standard,
- c. What is left to the discretion of the implementor, or to be specified for each implementation.

This Standard does not specify:

- a. Results or issues that are explicitly left undefined or said to be undefined,
- b. How non-valid programs are to be rejected and how this will be reported,
- c. The relationship of the hypothetical computer, used to explain the actions which constitute the elaboration of a program, to an actual data processing system.

### 0.3 REFERENCES

ISO 646-1973: The 7-bit coded character set for information processing interchange.

ISO 1538-1984: Programming languages - ALGOL 60

ISO 2022-1982: ISO 7-bit and 8-bit coded character sets

"Common Base Language" by O.-J. Dahl, B. Myhrhaug and K. Nygaard Norwegian Computing Center 1984. (ISBN 82-539-0225-5)

## **0.4 DEFINITIONS**

For the purpose of this Standard the following definitions apply.

Note: Several terms used in this Standard are explained at the appropriate place in Part II (Description of the language). For convenience some of these have been included here too, at times with a simplified definition. It is understood, however, that no difference of meaning is considered to exist, and all definitions of a term are equivalent.

### **0.4.1 SIMULA Program**

#### **0.4.1.1 Potential program:**

A text, that is a sequence of characters or typographical marks, meant to be a sequence of tokens constituting a SIMULA program.

#### **0.4.1.2 Valid program:**

A potential program that is a program according to the rules in this Standard.

#### **0.4.1.3 Non-valid program:**

A potential program that is not a program but can be turned into one by deleting or inserting a number of symbols.

#### **0.4.1.4 Elaboration of a program:**

A sequence of actions specified by the semantics to be carried out.

#### **0.4.1.5 SIMULA program:**

A valid program whose elaboration is defined by this Standard for an indicated class of input data.

### **0.4.2 SIMULA Processors**

#### **0.4.2.1 Processor:**

A compiler, translator or interpreter, in combination with a data processing system, that accepts a potential program, transcribed in a form that can be processed by that data processing system, reports whether the potential program is valid or not, and if so requested is able to execute it, if it has not rejected it.

### **0.4.3 SIMULA Implementations**

#### **0.4.3.1 Implementation:**

A well-documented processor is said to establish an implementation of the language SIMULA.

#### **0.4.3.2 Implemented language:**

The version of the language defined by the implementation.

#### **0.4.3.3 Extension:**

A rule in the implemented language that

- a.is not given in this Standard
- b.does not cause any ambiguity when added to this Standard (but may serve to remove a restriction)
- c.is within the scope of this Standard.

#### **0.4.3.4 Implementation-defined:**

What is to be specified for each implementation.

#### **0.4.3.5 Implementation-dependent:**

What is left to the discretion of the implementor.

### **0.5 CONFORMITY**

#### **0.5.1 Requirements**

##### **0.5.1.1 Conforming programs**

Conformity to this Standard requires for a program that

- a.it shall be a SIMULA program
- b.a set of input data shall be given for which it has a defined meaning.

##### **0.5.1.2. Conforming processors**

Conformity to this Standard requires for a processor that

- a.it shall accept valid programs as being valid,
- b.it shall reject non-valid programs as being non-valid,
- c.it shall not elaborate a SIMULA program differently from what is defined in this Standard,
- d.it shall be accompanied by documents complying with the requirements below.

##### **0.5.1.3. Documentation**

It is required for the documents accompanying a conforming processor that these shall describe clearly

- its purpose, the name of the implemented language, if not SIMULA, and the environment (hardware and software) in which it will work,
- its intended properties, including
  - the actions taken when results or issues occur, left undefined in this Standard,
  - conventions for issues said to be implementation-defined,
  - what is provided for issues declared to be implementation dependent,
- all differences between the implemented language and the language defined in Part II of this Standard,
- its logical structure,
- the way to put it into use.

##### **0.5.1.4. Conforming implementations**

A conforming implementation shall comply with the above requirements for a processor and its accompanying documents.

#### **0.5.2 Quantitative restrictions**

The requirements specified in 4.1 shall allow for quantitative restrictions to rules stated or implied as having no such restriction in this Standard, but only if they are fully described in the documents

with the implementation. These restrictions are to be considered implementation-defined in as far as they are not dependent of any momentary resource restraint during execution of a program.

### **0.5.3 Extensions**

An implementation that allows for extensions in the implemented language is considered to conform to this Standard, notwithstanding 4.1 if

- a.it would be conforming when the extensions were omitted,
- b.those extensions are clearly described with the implementation,
- c.while accepting programs that are non-valid according to the rules given in Part II of this Standard, it provides means for indicating which part, or parts, of a program would have led to its rejection, had no extensions been allowed (cf. Part II, ch. 16),
- d.the implemented language is a super-language of SIMULA.

Extensions are allowed only if the following conditions are fulfilled:

- a.The implementor provides a translator program, which takes any program accepted by that implementation and translates it into a valid program. The resulting program may contain a minimum of calls to non-SIMULA procedures in cases where this is absolutely necessary due to a lack of facilities in the language.
- b.Each implementation has a switch which must be set to make the compiler accept programs with extensions.

An implementation which allows extensions, shall give warning messages for the use of such extensions.

Valid programs using extensions shall be described as "conforming to the SIMULA Standard but for the following indicated parts".

### **0.5.4. Subsets**

This Standard does not include subsets.

## **0.6 TESTS**

Whether an implementation is a conforming implementation may possibly be detected by a suite of test programs. If there is any uncertainty or doubt regarding acceptance of these programs then the conclusion drawn from the actual behavior of the processor will prevail over those derived from its accompanying documents.

## **0.7 APPENDICES**

Appendices contained within this document are not part of this Standard.



# Chapter 1

## LEXICAL TOKENS

### DEFINITIONAL CONVENTIONS

The meta language used in this standard to specify the syntax of the constructs is based on the Backus-Naur Form. The meanings of the various meta symbols are listed in the table below. Further (semantic) specifications of the constructs are given in prose and, in some cases, by equivalent program fragments. In such program fragments some identifiers introduced by declarations are printed in upper case. The use of upper case letters signifies that the identifier in question represents some quantity which is inaccessible to a program. An example of this convention is the identifier `EVENT_NOTICE` of chapter 12. Any other identifier that is defined elsewhere in the standard will denote the corresponding entity by its occurrence in such a program fragment.

Note: The use of program fragments as described above, as well as the description of standard facilities (see chapters 8-12) by algorithmic means should be taken as definitive only as far as their effect is concerned. An actual implementation should seek to produce these effects in as efficient a manner as practicable. Furthermore, when arithmetic of real type is concerned, even the effects must be regarded as defined with only a finite degree of accuracy (see 3.5.3).

### Metalanguage Symbols

Metasymbol	Meaning
=	is defined to be
!	alternatively
[ x ]	0 or 1 instance of x
{ x }	0 or more instances of x
( x   y )	grouping: either x or y
xyz	the terminal symbol xyz
meta-identifier	a non-terminal symbol
...	see below

A meta-identifier is a sequence of letters, digits and hyphens beginning with a letter. The identifier has intentionally been chosen to convey a hint of its meaning to the reader. The exact meaning is, however, defined by its (single) occurrence on the left hand side of a production. When used outside productions these identifiers are generally written with spaces instead of hyphens, except in cases where possible ambiguities might result.

A few productions contain the ellipsis (...) as a right hand side. In such cases a prose explanation is given immediately below the production.

A sequence of terminal and non-terminal symbols in a production implies concatenation of the text that they ultimately represent. Within chapter 1 this concatenation is direct; no characters may intervene. In the remainder of the Standard the concatenation is in accordance with the rules set out in this chapter.

The characters required to form SIMULA programs are those explicitly classified as "basic" in the table given in section 1.2. Additional characters of that table may be employed as described in that section.

A SIMULA source module consists of directive lines and program lines. Apart from 1.1 this standard is not concerned with directive lines. The lexical tokens used to construct program lines

are classified into special symbols, identifiers, unsigned numbers, simple strings and character constants.

No lexical token may consist of more than 72 characters.

```
letter
=  A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I
   | J | K | L | M | N | O | P | Q | R
   | S | T | U | V | W | X | Y | Z
   | a | b | c | d | e | f | g | h | i
   | j | k | l | m | n | o | p | q | r
   | s | t | u | v | w | x | y | z
```

The representation of any letter (upper or lower case, differences in font, etc.) occurring anywhere other than in a simple string or a character constant has no significance in that occurrence for the meaning of the program.

```
digit
= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9

space
= SP
```

SP is the space (blank) character (ISO 646 code 2/0).

## 1.1 Directive lines

If the first character of a line is "%" (percent) the line as a whole is a directive line.

A directive line serves to communicate information to the processor and consequently its meaning is entirely implementation-dependent, with the following single exception. If the second character is a space, the line has no significance; it may be used for annotation purposes.

Note: The interpretation of a directive line takes precedence over the treatment of subsequent lines.

The interpretation by the processor may cause inclusion of lines not present in the module, or deletion of some lines actually following the directive in question.

The language defined in the following defines the resulting program text after all directive lines have been interpreted and thereafter deleted.

## 1.2 The character set

The standard presupposes an 8-bit internal representation of characters. ISO 2022). Thus the isocode facility allows for inclusion of characters with "isorank" value greater than 127 in simple strings and character constants. An implementation may restrict this possibility as well as the character set given below, as long as the "basic" characters of the table are included.

The standard character set is defined by the table below. For each character its "isorank" (see 9.2), name or printable representation and the classification of the character as a program text constituent are given.

basic: Significant in all contexts.  
skip: Skipped in all contexts.  
graphic: Significant inside comments, inside simple strings, and inside character constants; illegal outside these constructs.  
national: Reserved for national alphabet extension; treated as "graphic".  
format: Format effector, see 1.9.

0	NUL	skip	32	SP	basic	64		national	96		national
1	SOH	illegal	33	!	basic	65	A	basic	97	a	basic
2	STX	illegal	34	"	basic	66	B	basic	98	b	basic
3	ETX	illegal	35	#	graphic	67	C	basic	99	c	basic
4	EOT	illegal	36	\$	graphic	68	D	basic	100	d	basic
5	ENQ	illegal	37	%	graphic	69	E	basic	101	e	basic
6	ACK	illegal	38	&	basic	70	F	basic	102	f	basic
7	BEL	illegal	39	'	basic	71	G	basic	103	g	basic
8	BS	format	40	(	basic	72	H	basic	104	h	basic
9	HT	format	41	)	basic	73	I	basic	105	i	basic
10	LF	format	42	*	basic	74	J	basic	106	j	basic
11	VT	format	43	+	basic	75	K	basic	107	k	basic
12	FF	format	44	,	basic	76	L	basic	108	l	basic
13	CR	format	45	-	basic	77	M	basic	109	m	basic
14	SO	illegal	46	.	basic	78	N	basic	110	n	basic
15	SI	illegal	47	/	basic	79	O	basic	111	o	basic
16	DLE	illegal	48	0	basic	80	P	basic	112	p	basic
17	DC1	illegal	49	1	basic	81	Q	basic	113	q	basic
18	DC2	illegal	50	2	basic	82	R	basic	114	r	basic
19	DC3	illegal	51	3	basic	83	S	basic	115	s	basic
20	DC4	illegal	52	4	basic	84	T	basic	116	t	basic
21	NAK	illegal	53	5	basic	85	U	basic	117	u	basic
22	SYN	illegal	54	6	basic	86	V	basic	118	v	basic
23	ETB	illegal	55	7	basic	87	W	basic	119	w	basic
24	CAN	illegal	56	8	basic	88	X	basic	120	x	basic
25	EM	illegal	57	9	basic	89	Y	basic	121	y	basic
26	SUB	illegal	58	:	basic	90	Z	basic	122	z	basic
27	ESC	illegal	59	;	basic	91		national	123		national
28	FS	illegal	60	<	basic	92		national	124		national
29	GS	illegal	61	=	basic	93		national	125		national
30	RS	illegal	62	>	basic	94		national	126		national
31	US	illegal	63	?	graphic	95	_	basic	127	DEL	skip

Table 1.1. Standard character set (International Reference Version)

### 1.3 Special symbols

+	-	*	/	//	**	Arithmetic operators
&						Text concatenation operator, or exp. mark
&&						Exponent mark in <b>long real</b> numbers
:=	:-					Assignment operators
<	<=	=	>=	>	<>	Value relational operators
==	=/=					Reference relational operators
'						Character quote
"	""					String quote (" only within strings)
!						Code quote, or comment
;						Statement separator, or declaration or specification delimiter
:						Array bounds separator, or label definition or <b>virtual</b> delimiter
(	)					Parameter, array bounds grouping, or expr.
.						Remote indicator ("dot"), or decimal mark
,						Parameter, array bounds pair or expression separator

Table 1.2. Special symbols, excluding key words

Normally the syntax of the language assumes that all syntactic units are recognised as being the largest possible string of characters which fits the syntax of a symbol. However, in an array declaration the symbol ":" is always a bounds separator, even if it is immediately followed by a minus.

<b>activate</b>	<b>else</b>	<b>if</b>	<b>none</b>	<b>short</b>
<b>after</b>	<b>end</b>	<b>imp</b>	<b>not</b>	<b>step</b>
<b>and</b>	<b>eq</b>	<b>in</b>	<b>notext</b>	<b>switch</b>
<b>array</b>	<b>eqv</b>	<b>inner</b>		
<b>at</b>	<b>external</b>	<b>inspect</b>	<b>or</b>	<b>text</b>
		<b>integer</b>	<b>otherwise</b>	<b>then</b>
<b>before</b>	<b>false</b>	<b>is</b>		<b>this</b>
<b>begin</b>	<b>for</b>		<b>prior</b>	<b>to</b>
<b>boolean</b>		<b>label</b>	<b>procedure</b>	<b>true</b>
	<b>ge</b>	<b>le</b>	<b>protected</b>	
<b>character</b>	<b>go</b>	<b>long</b>		<b>until</b>
<b>class</b>	<b>goto</b>	<b>lt</b>	<b>qua</b>	
<b>comment</b>	<b>gt</b>			<b>value</b>
		<b>name</b>	<b>reactivate</b>	<b>virtual</b>
<b>delay</b>	<b>hidden</b>	<b>ne</b>	<b>real</b>	
<b>do</b>		<b>new</b>	<b>ref</b>	<b>when</b>
				<b>while</b>

Table 1.3. SIMULA key words

Note: For typographical reasons, the standard key words may, within this Standard, be printed as indicated in table 1.3. Within a program, the key words are printed as identifiers (cfr. letter production above).

## 1.4 Identifiers

```
identifier
= letter { letter | digit | _ }
```

No identifier can have the same spelling as any key word. Apart from this, identifiers may be chosen freely. They have no inherent meaning, but serve for the identification of language quantities i.e. simple variables, arrays, texts, labels, switches, procedures, classes and class attributes. Within a procedure declaration identifiers also act as formal parameters, in which capacity they may represent a literal value or any language quantity except a class. All constituent characters are significant in distinguishing between identifiers.

## 1.5 Numbers

```
unsigned-number
= decimal-number [ exponent-part ]
| exponent-part

decimal-number
= unsigned-integer [ decimal-fraction ]
| decimal-fraction

decimal-fraction
= . unsigned-integer
```

```

exponent-part
    = ( & | && ) [ + | - ] unsigned-integer

unsigned-integer
    = digit { digit | _ }
    | radix R radix-digit { radix-digit | _ }

radix
    = 2 | 4 | 8 | 16

radix-digit
    = digit | A | B | C | D | E | F

```

Decimal numbers have their conventional meaning. The exponent part is a scale factor expressed as an integral power of 10.

Unsigned integers are normally expressed in decimal digits. Unsigned integers of radix 2, 4, 8, or 16 may be expressed as shown. The radix digits A through F express radix 16 digits 10 through 15 (decimal). The radix determines the legality and the interpretation of a radix digit in an obvious manner.

An unsigned number which is an unsigned integer is of type integer. Otherwise, if an unsigned number contains an exponent part with a double ampersand (&&) it is of type long real, else it is of type real.

### Examples

```

2&1      2.0&+1    .2&2    20.0    200&-1    - represent same real value (20.0)
2.345_678&&0    - long real value (2.345678)

```

## 1.6 Strings

```

string
    = simple-string { string-separator simple-string }

string-separator
    = token-separator { token-separator }

simple-string
    = " { ISO-code | non-quote-character | " " } "

ISO-code
    = ! digit [ digit ] [ digit ] !

non-quote-character
    = ...

```

A non-quote-character is any printing character (incl. space) except the string quote ". Such a character represents itself.

A simple string must be contained within a single program line. Long strings are included as a sequence of simple strings separated by token separators.

In order to include a complete 8-bit coded character set, any character may be represented within a string by an integer, its isocode, corresponding to its bit combination. An isocode cannot consist of more than three digits, and it must be less than 256. If these conditions are not satisfied, the construction is interpreted as a character sequence. The string quote may, however, also be represented in simple strings by two consecutive quotes (see the last example below). Observe that, as a consequence of the definitional conventions given earlier in this chapter, no spaces may intervene between such a pair of string quotes.

### Examples

The string:	represents:
-------------	-------------

"Ab" "cde"	Abcde
"AB" "CDE" ABCDE	
"!2!ABCDE!3!"	ABCDE enclosed by STX and ETX
"!2" "!ABCDE!" "3!"	!2!ABCDE!3!
"AB"" C""DE"	AB" C"DE

## 1.7 Character constants

```

character-constant
    = ' character-designator '

character-designator
    = ISO-code
    | non-quote-character
    | "

```

A character constant is either a single printing character or it is an ISO-code - in both cases surrounded by character quotes (' - ISO 646 code 2/7).

Within the data processing system, characters are represented by values according to some implementation-defined code. This code also defines the collating sequence used when comparing character (and text) values by means of relational operators.

## 1.8 Comment convention

For the purpose of annotating the program proper comments may be included in a program. The substitution of **end** for an end-comment, or a space for a direct comment does not alter the meaning of a program.

Note: As a consequence of 1.8.1 and 1.8.2 comments cannot be nested. It is understood that the comment structure encountered first in a program when reading from left to right has precedence in being replaced over later structures contained by the sequence.

### 1.8.1 End comment

The key word **end** may be followed by any sequence of characters and separation of lines not containing any of the special symbols **end**, **else**, **when**, **otherwise**, or ";". This sequence (excluding the delimiting special symbol, but including the initial end) constitutes an end-comment.

### 1.8.2 Direct comment

The special symbol "!" (exclamation mark) followed by any sequence of characters or separation of lines not containing ";" (semicolon), and delimited by semicolon, is treated as a comment if the exclamation mark does not occur within a character constant or a simple string (in which cases it may either represent itself or act as a code quote), or within a comment.

Note: The delimiting semicolon is considered part of a direct comment and thus takes part in the substitution.

#### Example

```
if B then begin ... end !then; else ...
```

is not valid since the ! is part of an end-comment. Thus ";" will act as a statement separator (and no statement can start with else).

## 1.9 Token separators

```

format-effector
    = BS | HT | LF | VT | FF | CR

```

BS, HT, LF, VT, FF, and CR represent the characters thus named in table 1.3. A format effector in general acts as a space. In addition, an implementation may define some additional action to be taken (such as tabulation when listing the program); such action has no significance for the meaning of the program.

token-separator  
= ...

A token-separator is

- a direct comment, or
- a space (except in simple strings and character constants), or
- a format effector (except as noted for spaces), or
- the separation of consecutive lines.

Zero or more token separators may occur between any two consecutive tokens, or before the first token of a program text. At least one token separator must occur between any pair of consecutive tokens made up of identifiers, key words, simple strings or unsigned numbers. No token separators may occur within tokens.

### 1.10 Program interchange and lexical alternatives

In order to ease portability of SIMULA programs, a common representation has been adopted for the language. This representation is used throughout this standard except for the following conventions adopted for typographical reasons:

- In order to emphasise the use of the language keywords, these are printed in a special manner.
- Identifiers printed in upper case within this document represent quantities which are inaccessible to the user. Such identifiers are used for definitional purposes, they may or may not have actual counterparts in an implementation of the language.
- Program fragments may contain the ellipsis (...) instead of valid constructs, where it is either obvious from the context what the construct should be or the intended meaning cannot be expressed in a simple manner within the language.

#### 1.10.1 Alternate representation of some symbols

The representation for lexical tokens and separators given in 1.2 to 1.9 constitutes a standard representation for these tokens and separators. This standard representation is recommended for program interchange.

For historical reasons the following alternatives have been defined. All processors that have the required characters in their character set must provide both the standard and the alternate representations, and there is no distinction made between corresponding tokens or separators.

The alternate representations for the tokens are

standard token	alternative representation
----------------	----------------------------

<	<b>lt</b>
<=	<b>le</b>
=	<b>eq</b>
>=	<b>ge</b>
>	<b>gt</b>
<>	<b>ne</b>
!	<b>comment</b>

## Chapter 2

### TYPES, VALUES AND REFERENCES

```
type
  = value-type
  | reference-type

value-type
  = arithmetic-type
  | boolean
  | character

arithmetic-type
  = integer-type
  | real-type

integer-type
  = [ short ] integer

real-type
  = [ long ] real

reference-type
  = object-reference-type
  | text

object-reference-type
  = ref "(" qualification ")"

qualification
  = class-identifier
```

The various types basically denote properties of values. A value is a piece of information interpreted at run time to represent itself. A "reference" is a piece of information which identifies a value, called the "referenced" value. The distinction between a reference and its referenced value is determined by context.

A value is primarily a number, a logical value, a program point, an object, a single character or an ordered sequence of characters (a string).

The values of expressions and their constituents are defined in chapter 3.

Value types are characterized by being directly associated with a set of possible values (the "value range" of the type). With the exception of type Boolean these associated values for each value type constitute an ordered set.

The reference concept corresponds to the intuitive notion of a name or a "pointer". It provides a mechanism for referencing values. It also reflects the addressing possibilities of the machine. In certain simple cases a reference could be implemented as the memory address of a stored value. There are two reference types, object reference type and text reference.

Note: There is no reference concept associated with value types.

#### 2.1 Arithmetic types

Arithmetic types are used for representing numerical values. The types are integer type and real type. The integer type is either **integer** or **short integer**. The real type is either **real** or **long**



### 2.1.1. The type short integer

The type **short integer** serves to represent integer values whose value range may be a sub range of that of **integer**. Apart from this, **short integer** and **integer** are fully compatible in this language definition.

An implementation may choose to implement **short integer** exactly as **integer**, i.e. ignoring the keyword **short**

Note: All arithmetic operations upon integer type values are performed as

### 2.1.2. The type long real

Type **long real** serves to represent real values capable of retaining a higher precision than that of the type **real**. The relative value range of the respective types is implementation-defined. Apart from this, **long real** and **real** are fully compatible in this language definition.

An implementation may choose to implement **long real** exactly as **real**, i.e. ignoring the keyword **long** and the extra "&" in an exponent part.

## 2.2 The type Boolean

The type **Boolean** represents logical values. The range of values consists of the values **true** and **false**.

## 2.3 The type character

The type **character** is used to represent single characters. Such a value is an instance of an "internal character". For any given implementation there is a one-to-one mapping between a subset of internal characters and external ("printable") characters. The internal character set is implementation-defined. The external character set is defined in 1.2.

## 2.4 Object reference

Associated with a class object there is a unique "object reference" which identifies the object, and for any class C there is an associated object reference type **ref** (C). A quantity of that type is said to be qualified by the class C. Its value is either an object, or the special value **none** which represents "no object". The qualification restricts the range of values to objects of classes included in the qualifying class. The range of values includes the value **none** regardless of the qualification.

### 2.4.1. Qualification

The qualification of an object reference is a class identifier and is thus subject to the scope and visibility rules of identifiers given in 5.6.

The qualification is associated with an instance of the block in which the class declaration referred to is local. This implies that certain validity checks on the qualification cannot be performed on the basis of the program text alone. Such tests must then be made during the execution of the program.

Consider the following example.

### Example

```
class a; begin class b; ; end *** class a;
a class aa; begin ref (b) aaxb; end *** class aa;

ref (a) a1; ref (aa) a2;

a1 :- a2 :- new aa;
if inint=2 then a1:- new a; | - or: a2:- new aa;
inspect a2 do
inspect a1 do aaxb:- new b;
```

The reference assignment in the last line is valid only if the qualification of "aaxb" is the same as that of "new b". This is the case only when the then-branch of the conditional statement is not taken. Thus a qualification check must be performed during execution.

### 2.4.2. Subordinate types

An object reference type is said to be "subordinate" to a second object reference type if the qualification of the former is a subclass of the class which qualifies the latter.

A proper procedure is said to be of a universal type. Any type is subordinate to the universal type (cf. 4.6.1 and 5.5.3).

## 2.5 The type text

The type **text** serves to declare or specify a text variable quantity.

A text value is a string, i.e. an ordered sequence (possibly empty) of characters. The number of characters is called the "length" of the text value.

A text frame is a memory device which contains a nonempty text value. A text frame has a fixed length and can only contain text values of this length. A text frame may be "alterable" or "constant". A constant frame always contains the same text value. An alterable text frame may have its contents modified. The maximum length of a text frame is implementation-defined.

A text reference identifies a text frame. The reference is said to possess a value, which is the contents of the identified frame. The special text reference **notext** identifies "no frame". The value of **notext** is the empty text value.

### 2.5.1. Text objects

A "text object" is conceptually an instance of the following class declaration (cf. 5.5):

```
class TEXTOBJ (SIZE, CONST);  
integer SIZE; Boolean CONST;  
begin character array MAIN(1:SIZE); end;
```

### 2.5.2. Text frames

Any non-empty sequence of consecutive elements of the array attribute MAIN constitutes a text frame. More specifically, any text frame is completely identified by the following information:

1. a reference to the text object containing the frame,
2. the start position of the frame, being an ordinal number less than or equal to SIZE,
3. the length of the frame.

A frame which is completely contained by another frame is called a "subframe" of that frame. The text frame associated with the entire array attribute MAIN is called the "main frame" of the text object. All frames of the text object are subframes of the main frame.

Note: A main frame is a subframe of no frame except itself.

The frames of a text object are either all constant or all variable, as indicated by the attribute CONST. The value of this attribute remains fixed throughout the lifetime of the text object. A constant main frame always corresponds to a string (see 1.6).

The attribute SIZE is always positive and remains fixed throughout the lifetime of a text object.

Note: The identifier TEXTOBJ and its three attribute identifiers are not accessible to the user. Instead, properties of a text object are accessible through text variables, using the dot notation.

## 2.5 Type conversion

Values may in some cases be converted from one type to another.

Implicit conversion between arithmetic type values follows the rules described elsewhere (see 3.3.1, 3.5.1, 4.1.1). In addition, the procedure "entier", used to convert values of real type to **integer**, is described in 9.1.

Conversion between **text** and arithmetic type values is described in 8.6 and 8.7 (text attributes "getint", "putint", "getreal", "putreal", "putfix", "getfrac" and "putfrac").

Conversion between **character** and **text** values is described in 8.3 (text attributes "getchar", "putchar").

Conversion between **character** and **integer** values is described in 9.2 ("isorank", "rank", "isochar", "char").

## Chapter 3

### EXPRESSIONS

```
expression
  = value-expression
  | reference-expression
  | designational-expression
```

```
value-expression
  = arithmetic-expression
  | Boolean-expression
  | character-expression
```

```
reference-expression
  = object-expression
  | text-expression
```

The primary constituents of programs describing algorithmic processes are expressions. Constituents of these expressions, except for certain delimiters, are constants, variables, function designators, labels, class and attribute identifiers, switch designators and elementary operators. Since the syntactic definition of both variables and function designators (see below) contain expressions, the definition of expressions and their constituents is necessarily recursive.

A value expression is a rule for obtaining a value.

An object expression is a rule for obtaining an object reference.

A text expression is a rule for obtaining an identification of a text variable (and thereby a text reference).

A designational expression is a rule for obtaining a reference to a program point.

Any value expression or reference expression has an associated type, which is textually defined.

#### 3.1 Variables

```
variable
  = simple-variable-1
  | subscripted-variable

simple-variable-1
  = identifier-1

subscripted-variable
  = array-identifier-1 "(" subscript-list ")"

array-identifier-1
  = identifier-1

subscript-list
  = subscript-expression { , subscript-expression }

subscript-expression
  = arithmetic-expression
```

A variable local to a block instance is a memory device whose "contents" are either a value or a reference, according to the type of the variable. The contents of a variable may be changed by an appropriate assignment operation, see 4.1. A reference is a piece of information which identifies a value, called the "referenced" value. The distinction between a reference and the referenced value is determined by context.

Variables are of two kinds, corresponding to the values being represented, namely value type variables and reference type variables.

A value type variable has a value which is the contents of the variable. A reference type variable is said to have a value which is the one referenced by the contents of the variable.

The value of an array identifier is the ordered set of values of the corresponding array of subscripted variables.

### Examples

```
delta
a17
q(7,2)
x(sin(n*pi/2),q(3,n,4))
```

#### 3.1.1. Simple variables

A simple-variable-1 is any variable which is not a subscripted variable. The corresponding values are described in chapter 2.

**Note:** Certain syntax classes (such as simple-variable-1) are marked with a "-1". The corresponding program terms may contain a remote identifier (see 5.5.6).

Value type variables have values of integer type, real type, **Boolean** or **character**.

An object reference variable has an object as its value (or the value **none**). Text variables are described below.

#### 3.1.2. Text variables

A text variable is conceptually an instance of a composite structure with four constituent components (attributes):

```
ref (TEXTOBJ) OBJ;
integer START, LENGTH, POS;
```

Let X be a text variable. Then X.OBJ, X.START, X.LENGTH and X.POS denote the components of X, respectively. These four components are not directly accessible to the user. Instead, certain properties of a text variable are represented by procedures accessible through the dot notation. These procedures are described in chapter 8.

The components OBJ, START and LENGTH constitute the text reference part of the variable. They identify the frame referenced (see 2.5.1). POS is used for accessing the individual characters of the frame referenced (see 9.2).

The components of a text variable always satisfy one of the following two sets of conditions:

- 1) OBJ      $\neq$  **none**  
   START    $\geq$  1  
   LENGTH  $\geq$  1  
   START + LENGTH  $\leq$  OBJ.SIZE + 1  
   1  $\leq$  POS  $\leq$  LENGTH + 1
- 2) OBJ      $=$  **none**  
   START   = 1  
   LENGTH   = 0  
   POS      = 1

The latter alternative defines the contents of a variable which references no frame. Note that this alternative thereby defines the special text reference **notext**.

### 3.1.3. Array elements

Subscripted variables designate values which are components of multi- dimensional arrays. Each arithmetic expression of the subscript list occupies one subscript position of the subscripted variable and is called a subscript. The complete list of subscripts is enclosed by the subscript parentheses ( ). The array component referred to by a subscripted variable is specified by the actual value of its subscripts.

Each subscript position acts like a variable of type **integer** and the evaluation of the subscript is understood to be equivalent to an assignment to this fictitious variable. The value of the subscripted variable is defined only if the actual integer value of each subscript expression is within the associated subscript bounds of the array. A subscript expression value outside its associated bounds causes a run time error.

### 3.1.4. Function designators

```
function-designator
    =  procedure-identifier-1  [ actual-parameter-part ]

procedure-identifier-1
    =  identifier-1

actual-parameter-part
    =  "("  actual-parameter  {  ,  actual-parameter  }  ")"

actual-parameter
    =  expression
    |  array-identifier-1
    |  switch-identifier
    |  procedure-identifier-1
```

A function designator defines a value which results through the application of a given set of rules defined by a procedure declaration (see 5.4) to a fixed set of actual parameters. The rules governing specification of actual parameters are given in 4.6.

**Note:** Not every procedure declaration defines rules for determining the value of a function designator (cf. 5.4.1).

### Examples

```
sin(a-b)
j(v+s,n)
r
ss(s-5, !Temperature; T, !Pressure; P)
compile ("( := )", !Stack; q)
```

### 3.1.5. Remote identifiers

```
identifier-1
  = identifier
  | remote-identifier

remote-identifier
  = simple-object-expression . attribute-identifier
  | text-primary . attribute-identifier

attribute-identifier
  = identifier
```

Let X be a simple object expression qualified by the class C, and let A be an appropriate attribute identifier. Then the remote identifier "X.A", if valid, is an attribute identification whose object is the value X and whose qualification is C (cf. 5.5.6).

The remote identifier X.A is valid if the following conditions are satisfied:

1. The value X is different from **none**.
2. The object referenced by X has no **class** attribute declared at any prefix level equal or outer to that of C.

**Note:** Condition 1 corresponds to a check which causes an error if the value of X is **none**. Condition 2 is an ad hoc rule intended to simplify the language and its implementations.

A remote identifier of the form

```
text-primary.attribute-identifier
```

identifies an attribute of the text variable identified by evaluating the text primary, provided that the attribute identifier is one of the procedure identifiers defined in chapter 8.

**Note:** Even if the text primary references **notext**, the attribute access is legal (in contrast to object expressions).

#### Example

Let P1 and P2 be variables declared and initialized as in example 2 of 4.1.4. Then the value of the expression

```
P1.plus (P2)
```

is a new "point" object which represents the vector sum of P1 and P2. The value of the expression

```
P1 qua polar.plus (P2)
```

is a new "polar" object representing the same vector sum.

### 3.2 Boolean expressions

```
Boolean-expression
= simple-Boolean-expression
| if-clause simple-Boolean-expression else Boolean-expression

simple-Boolean-expression
= Boolean-tertiary { or else Boolean-tertiary }

Boolean-tertiary
= equivalence { and then equivalence }

equivalence
= implication { eqv implication }

implication
= Boolean-term { imp Boolean-term }

Boolean-term
= Boolean-factor { or Boolean-factor }

Boolean-factor
= Boolean-secondary { and Boolean-secondary }

Boolean-secondary
= [ not ] Boolean-primary

Boolean-primary
= logical-value
| variable
| function-designator
| relation
| "(" Boolean-expression ")"
```

A Boolean expression is of type **Boolean**. It is a rule for computing a logical value. Except for the operators **and then** and **or else** (see 3.4) the semantics are entirely analogous to those given for arithmetic expressions.

Variables and function designators entered as Boolean primaries must be of type **Boolean**.

#### Examples

```
x = -2
Y>v or z<q
a+b> -5 and z-d>q**2
p and not q or x<>y
t.more and then t.getchar
x == none or else x.a>0
if k<1 then s>w else h<=c
if if a then b else c
    then d else f
    then g else h<k
```



### 3.3 Relations

```
relation
= arithmetic-relation
| character-relation
| text-value-relation
| object-relation
| object-reference-relation
| text-reference-relation

value-relational-operator
= < | <= | = | >= | > | <>

reference-comparator
= == | /=
```

The value relational operators have the conventional meaning. Their specific interpretation is described below in connection to the respective types. The reference comparators have the same priority level as the relational operators.

#### 3.3.1. Arithmetic relations

```
arithmetic-relation
= simple-arithmetic-expression
  value-relational-operator simple-arithmetic-expression
```

The relational operators <, <=, =, >=, > and <> have their conventional meaning (less than, less than or equal to, equal to, greater than or equal to, greater than, not equal to). Arithmetic relations assume the value **true** whenever the corresponding relation is satisfied for the expressions involved, otherwise **false**. If the two constituent expressions are of different arithmetic types conversion to the type with maximum value range is assumed. Consequently overflow cannot occur during the evaluation.

#### 3.3.2. Character relations

```
character-relation
= simple-character-expression
  value-relational-operator simple-character-expression
```

Character values may be compared for equality and inequality and ranked with respect to the collating sequence. Let X and Y be simple character expressions, and let rel be any value relational operator. Then the relation "X rel Y" has the same Boolean value as the relation "rank(X) rel rank(Y)".

**Note:** Because of variations in collating sequences the value of a character relation (and by implication that of a text relation, see below) is implementation-defined. Implementation-independent comparison of character values is obtained by using the procedure "isorank".

### 3.3.3. Text value relations

```
text-value-relation
= simple-text-expression
  value-relational-operator simple-text-expression
```

Two text values are equal if they are both empty, or if they are both instances of the same character sequence, otherwise they are unequal.

A text value T ranks lower than a text value U if and only if they are unequal and one of the following conditions is fulfilled:

1. T is empty.
2. U is equal to T followed by one or more characters.
3. When comparing T and U from left to right the first non-matching character in T ranks lower than the corresponding character in U.

### 3.3.4. Object relations

```
object-relation
= simple-object-expression is class-identifier
| simple-object-expression in class-identifier
```

The operators **is** and **in** may be used to test the class membership of an object.

The relation "X **is** C" has the value **true** if X refers to an object belonging to the class C, otherwise the value is **false**.

The relation "X **in** C" has the value **true** if X refers to an object belonging to a class C or a class inner to C, otherwise the value is **false**.

### 3.3.5. Object reference relations

```
object-reference-relation
= simple-object-expression
  reference-comparator simple-object-expression
```

The reference comparators **==** and **!=** may be used for the comparison of references (as distinct from the corresponding referenced values). Two object references X and Y are said to be "identical" if they refer to the same object or if they both are **none**. In that event the relation "X**==**Y" has the value **true**, otherwise the value is **false**.

The value of the relation "X**!=**Y" is the negation of that of "X**==**Y".

### 3.3.6. Text reference relations

```
text-reference-relation
= simple-text-expression
  reference-comparator simple-text-expression
```

Let T and U be text variables. The relation "T**==**U" is equivalent to

```
T.OBJ == U.OBJ and T.START = U.START and T.LENGTH = U.LENGTH
```

**Note:** The POS components are ignored. Also observe that the relations "T**!=**U" and "T=U" may both have the value **true**. (T and U reference different text frames which contain the same text value.)

The following relations are all true (cf. 2.5)

```
T = notext   eqv   T == notext
"" == notext
"ABC" /= "ABC"           (different occurrences)
```

### Example

```
class C; begin text T; T:- "ABC" end;
```

The relation "`new C.T == new C.T`" is **true** here.

## 3.4 The logical operators

The meaning of the logical operators **not**, **and**, **or**, **imp**, and **eqv** is given by the following function table:

b1		false	false	true	true
b2		false	true	false	true
-----					
not	b1	true	true	false	false
b1	and b2	false	false	false	true
b1	or b2	false	true	true	true
b1	imp b2	true	true	false	true
b1	eqv b2	true	false	false	true
-----					

The operation "**b1 and then b2**" denotes "conditional and". If the value of b1 is **false** the operation yields the result **false**, otherwise it yields the result of evaluating b2.

The operation "**b1 or else b2**" denotes "conditional or". If the value of b1 is **true** the operator yields the result **true**, otherwise it yields the result of evaluating b2.

**Note:** The value of "**b1 and then b2**" is given by textual substitution of the Boolean expression "(if b1 then b2 else false)". Similarly, the operation "**b1 or else b2**" is defined by substitution of "(if b1 then true else b2)". These definitions imply that the evaluation of the second operand is suppressed when the evaluation result is already evident from the value of the first operand alone.

### 3.4.1. Precedence of Boolean operators

The sequence of operations within one expression is generally from left to right, with the following additional rules.

According to the syntax given in 3.2 the following rules of precedence hold:

```
first:    non-Boolean expressions
second:   < <= = >= > <> == /= is in
third:    not
fourth:   and
fifth:    or
sixth:    imp
seventh:  eqv
eighth:   and then
ninth:    or else
```

The use of parentheses is interpreted in the sense given in 3.5.2.

### 3.5 Arithmetic expressions

```
arithmetic-expression
= simple-arithmetic-expression
| if-clause simple-arithmetic-expression
  else arithmetic-expression

simple-arithmetic-expression
= [ + | - ] term { ( + | - ) term }

term
= factor { ( * | / | // ) factor }

factor
= primary { ** primary }

primary
= unsigned-number
| variable
| function-designator
| "(" arithmetic-expression ")"
```

An arithmetic expression is a rule for computing a numerical value. In the case of simple arithmetic expressions this value is obtained by executing the indicated arithmetic operations on the actual numerical values of the primaries of the expression, as explained in detail in 3.5.1 below. The value of a primary is obvious in the case of numbers. For variables it is the current value (assigned last in the dynamic sense), and for function designators it is the value arising from the computing rules defining the procedure when applied to the current values of the procedure parameters given in the expression. Finally, for arithmetic expressions enclosed by parentheses the value must through a recursive analysis be expressed in terms of the values of primaries of the other three kinds.

In the more general arithmetic expressions, which include if-clauses, one out of several simple arithmetic expressions is selected on the basis of the actual values of the Boolean expressions (see 3.2). This selection is made as follows: The Boolean expressions of the if-clauses are evaluated one by one in sequence from left to right until one having the value **true** is found. The value of the arithmetic expression is then the value of the first arithmetic expression following this Boolean (the longest arithmetic expression found in this position is understood). If none of the Boolean expressions has the value **true**, then the value of the arithmetic expression is the value of the expression following the final **else**.

In evaluating an arithmetic expression, all primaries within that expression are evaluated with the following exceptions:

- Primaries that occur within any expression governed by an if-clause but not selected by it.
- Primaries that occur within a Boolean expression
  1. after the operator **or else** when the evaluation of a preceding Boolean tertiary results in **false**, or
  2. after the operator **and then** when the evaluation of a preceding equivalence results in **false**.
- Primaries that occur after a function designator, and the evaluation of the function terminates with a goto-statement. In this case the evaluation of the arithmetic expression is abandoned.

Primaries are always evaluated in strict lexical order.

## Examples:

```
Primaries:  7.394_604&-8
            sum
            w(i + 2,8)
            cos( y + z*3.141_592_653_589_793_324&0 )
            ( a - 3/y + vu**8)

Factors:    omega
            sum ** cos( y + z*3 )
            7.394&-8 ** w(i + 2,8) ** ( a - 3/y + vu ** 8 )

Terms:      u
            omega * sum ** cos(y + z*3)/7.394&-8 ** (a - 3/y + vu**8)

Simple arithmetic expression:
            u - yu + omega*sum**cos(y+z*3)/7.394&-8 ** (a-3/y+vu**8)

Arithmetic expressions:
            w*u - q(s+cu)**2
            if q>0 then s+3*q//a else 2*s+3*q
            if a<0 then u+v else if a*b>17 then u/v
                else if k >= y then v/u else 0
            0.57&12 * a( n*(n-1)//2 ,0 )
            ( a*arctan(y)+z ) ** (7+Q)
            if q then n-1 else n
```

### 3.5.1. Operators and types

Apart from the Boolean expressions of if-clauses, the constituents of arithmetic expressions must be of arithmetic types. The meaning of the basic operators and the types of the expressions to which they lead are given by the following rules, where "i" and "j" are of integer type, "r" of real type, and "x" is any arithmetic type:

- The operators +, -, and \* have their conventional meaning.
- The operator / denotes real division. Any operand of integer type is converted before the operation. Division by zero constitutes an error.
- The operator // denotes integer division. It is valid only for integer type operands (no implicit conversion). The meaning of "i//j" is defined by:

```
integer procedure DIV(i, j); integer i, j;
if j=0 then error("..." !div by zero;)
else begin integer m, n;
    m:= 0; n:= abs(i);
    for n:= n - abs(j) while n>=0 do m:= m + 1;
    DIV:= if i<0 eqv j>0 then -m else m
end DIV;
```

- The operator \*\* denotes exponentiation. The value and type of the operation depends upon the types of the operands as follows:

```
x**r: <type of r> procedure EXPR(x,r); x; r;
if x<0 or (x=0 and r<=0.0)
then error("..." !EXPR undefined);
else EXPR := if x>0 then exp(r*ln(x)) else 0.0;
```

•

```

i**j:  integer procedure EXPI(i,j); integer i,j;
       if j<0 or i=0 and j=0 then error("..." !EXPI undefined;)
       else begin integer k,result;
              result:= 1;
              for k:= 1 step 1 until j do result:= result*i;
              EXPI:= result
       end EXPI

r**i:  <type of r> procedure EXPN(r, i); r; integer i;
       if i=0 and r=0.0 then error("..." !EXPN undefined;)
       else begin result; integer n;
              result:= 1.0;
              for n:= abs(i) step -1 until 1 do result := result*r;
              EXPN:= if i<0 then 1.0/result else result
       end EXPN;

```

It is understood that the finite deviations of using the exponentiation operator may be different from those of using the procedures EXPR and EXPN.

If the operands of an arithmetic operator are of different types, or both **short integer**, an appropriate type conversion function is understood to be automatically invoked, except as explicitly noted above, before the operation is evaluated as follows:

If one operand is of type **long real** the other is converted to **long real**, else if one operand is of type **real** the other is converted to **real**, else **short integer** operands are converted to **integer**.

**Note:** The result of evaluating an arithmetic expression can never be of type **short integer**.

Conversion from **short integer** to **integer** is always exact. Conversion from an integer type to a real type is exact within an implementation-defined range which includes zero. Conversion from **real** to **long real** is exact within an implementation-defined range which includes zero.

The type of the operation (and by repeated application also the type of the arithmetic expression) is a consequence of the type conversion rule as follows:

	SI	I	R	LR	
SI	I	I	R	LR	SI: <b>short integer</b>
I	I	I	R	LR	I: <b>integer</b>
R	R	R	R	LR	R: <b>real</b>
LR	LR	LR	LR	LR	LR: <b>long real</b>

The rule also determines the type of a conditional expression, i.e. an arithmetic expression of the form

"if B then SAE else AE":

The expression is of type **long real** if either SAE or AE is **long real**. Otherwise, if either SAE or AE is of type **real**, the type of the expression is **real**, else the type is **integer**.

**Note:** The type of a conditional expression is independent of the actual value of the Boolean expression, i.e. it is completely determined by the program text.

### 3.5.2. Precedence of arithmetic operators

The sequence of operations within one expression is generally from left to right, with the following additional rules:

According to the syntax given in 3.3.1 the following rules of precedence hold:

```
first:      **
second:    *  /  //
third:     +  -
```

The expression between a left parentheses and the matching right parenthesis is evaluated by itself and this value is used in subsequent calculations. Consequently the desired order of execution of operations within an expression can always be arranged by appropriate positioning of parentheses.

**Note:** The order of evaluation of the primaries is not influenced by the use of parenthesis.

### 3.5.3. Arithmetics of real quantities

Numbers and variables of real type must be interpreted in the sense of numerical analysis, i.e. as entities defined inherently with only a finite accuracy. Similarly, the possibility of the occurrence of a finite deviation from the mathematically defined result in any arithmetic expression is explicitly understood. No exact arithmetic will be specified, however, and it is indeed understood that, different implementations may evaluate arithmetic expressions differently. The control of the possible consequences of such differences must be carried out by the methods of numerical analysis. This control must be considered a part of the process to be described, and is therefore expressed in terms of the language itself.

## 3.6 Character expressions

```
character-expression
= simple-character-expression
| if-clause simple-character-expression
  else character-expression

simple-character-expression
= character-constant
| variable
| function-designator
| "(" character-expression ")"
```

A character expression is of type **character**. It is a rule for obtaining a character value (see 2.1.3). Apart from possible if-clauses, all constituents of a character expression must be of type **character**.

## 3.7 Text expressions

```
text-expression
= simple-text-expression
| if-clause simple-text-expression else text-expression

simple-text-expression
= text-primary { & text-primary }

text-primary
= notext
| string
| variable
| function-designator
| "(" text-expression ")"
```

A text expression is of type **text**. It is a rule for obtaining an identification of a text variable. Apart from possible if-clauses, all constituents of a text expression must be of type **text**.

Each textual occurrence of a non-empty string corresponds to a unique constant main text frame. A given occurrence always references that same frame, while different occurrences of the same non-empty string always reference different text frames.

The empty string ("") is textually equivalent to **notext**.

### 3.7.1. Text concatenation

The operator & permits text concatenation. The simple text expression "TP1 & TP2 & ... & TPn", where TP<sub>i</sub> is a text primary (1 ≤ i ≤ n), references a new alterable main frame whose contents is formed by concatenating copies of the frames referenced by TP<sub>1</sub>, TP<sub>2</sub>, ..., TP<sub>n</sub> (in that order). The expression is equivalent to CONCATENATE\_n(T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>, ..., T<sub>n</sub>) defined by

```
text procedure CONCATENATE__n(T1,T2,...,Tn); text T1,T2,...,Tn;  
begin text temp;  
  CONCATENATE__n :- temp :- blanks(T1.length+T2.length+ ... +Tn.length);  
  temp.sub(1,t1.length) := T1;  
  temp.sub(1+T1.length,T2.length) := T2;  
  ...  
  temp.sub(1+T1.length+T2.length+... ,Tn.length) := Tn;  
end;
```

**Note:** It follows that the text primary constituents of a simple text expression are evaluated in strict lexical order. The evaluation of T<sub>i</sub> may influence the result of evaluating T<sub>j</sub>, if i < j (due to the specified "by reference" transmission of parameters to the procedures CONCATENATE\_\_n). Observe further that it follows from the syntax (cfr. 3.1.5) that . is evaluated before &, thus the two expressions "T1 & T2.sub(1,2) & T3.main" and "T1 & (T2.sub(1,2)) & (T3.main)" are equivalent.

### 3.7.2. Text expression evaluation

The result of evaluating

- **notext**, or an empty string, identifies an anonymous text variable whose contents are defined by (2) of 3.1.2.
- a non-empty string identifies an anonymous text variable which references a constant text frame whose value is the internal representation of the external character sequence. This frame is always a main frame. The POS component of the anonymous variable equals 1.
- a text variable identifies the variable itself.
- a text function designator identifies an anonymous text variable which contains a copy of the final contents of the text variable associated with the procedure identifier during the execution of the procedure in question.
- a text expression enclosed by parentheses identifies an anonymous text variable which contains a copy of (the contents of) the text variable identified when evaluating the same expression without parentheses.
- a conditional text expression identifies an anonymous text variable which contains a copy of (the contents of) the text variable identified by the branch which was selected for evaluation.

For further information on the text concept, see chapter 8.



### 3.8 Object expressions

```
object-expression
= simple-object-expression
| if-clause simple-object-expression else object-expression

simple-object-expression
= none
| variable
| function-designator
| object-generator
| local-object
| qualified-object
| "(" object-expression ")"

object-generator
= new class-identifier [ actual-parameter-part ]

local-object
= this class-identifier

qualified-object
= simple-object-expression qua class-identifier
```

An object expression is of type **ref**(qualification). It is a rule for obtaining a reference to an object. The value of the expression is the referenced object or **none**. Apart from a possible if-clause all constituents must be of object reference type.

#### 3.8.1. Qualification

The qualification of an object expression is defined by the following rules:

1. The expression **none** is qualified by a fictitious class which is inner to all declared classes.
2. A variable or function designator is qualified as stated in the declaration (or specification, see below) of the variable or array or procedure in question.
3. An object generator, local object or qualified object is qualified by the class of the identifier following the symbol **new**, **this** or **qua** respectively.
4. A conditional object expression is qualified by the innermost class which includes the qualifications of both alternatives. If there is no such class, the expression is illegal.
5. Any formal parameter of object reference type is qualified according to its specification regardless of the qualification of the corresponding actual parameter.
6. The qualification of a function designator whose procedure identifier is that of a virtual quantity depends on the access level (see 5.5.5). The qualification is that of the matching declaration, if any, occurring at the innermost prefix level equal or outer to the access level, or, if no such match exists, it is that of the virtual specification.

#### 3.8.2 Object generator

The value of an object generator is the object generated as the result of its evaluation. See 4.7.

#### 3.8.3 Local objects

A local object "**this** C" is valid provided that the expression is used within

1. the class body of C or that of any subclass of C, or
2. a connection block whose block qualification is C or a subclass of C (see 4.8).

The value of a local object in a given context is the object which is, or is connected by, the smallest textually enclosing block instance in which the local object is valid. If there is no such block the local object is illegal (in the given context). For an instance of a procedure or a class body, "textually enclosing" means containing its declaration.

### 3.8.4 Instantaneous qualification

Let *X* represent any simple reference expression, and let *C* and *D* be class identifiers such that *D* is the qualification of *X*. The qualified object "*X qua C*" is then a legal object expression, provided that *C* is outer to or equal to *D* or is a subclass of *D*. Otherwise, since *C* and *D* belong to disjoint prefix sequences, the expression is illegal.

If the value of *X* is **none** or is an object belonging to a class outer to *C*, the evaluation of *X qua C* constitutes a run-time error. Otherwise, the value of *X qua C* is that of *X*. Instantaneous qualification restricts or extends the visibility of attributes of a concatenated class object accessible through inspection or remote accessing (cf. 3.1.5 and 4.8).

### 3.9 Designational expressions

```
designational-expression
=  simple-designational-expression
  |  if-clause simple-designational-expression
    else designational-expression

simple-designational-expression
=  label
  |  switch-designator
  |  "(" designational-expression ")"

switch-designator
=  switch-identifier "(" subscript-expression ")"

switch-identifier
=  identifier

label
=  identifier
```

A designational expression is a rule for obtaining a reference to a program point. The principle of the evaluation is entirely analogous to that of arithmetic expressions. In the general case the Boolean expressions of the if-clauses select a simple designational expression. If this is a label the desired result is already found. A switch designator refers to the corresponding switch declaration and by the actual numerical value of its subscript expression selects one of the designational expressions listed in the switch declaration by counting these from left to right. Since the expression thus selected may again be a switch designator this evaluation is obviously a recursive process.

The evaluation of the subscript expression is analogous to that of subscripted variables. The value of a switch designator is defined only if the subscript expression assumes one of the values 1, 2, ... , *n*, where *n* is the number of entries in the switch list. A value outside this range causes a run time error.

**Note:** It is a consequence of the syntax that class attributes which are labels or switches cannot be accessed by the dot notation.

## Chapter 4:

### STATEMENTS

```
statement
= { label : } unconditional-statement
| { label : } conditional-statement
| { label : } for-statement

unconditional-statement
= assignment-statement
| while-statement
| goto-statement
| procedure-statement
| object-generator
| connection-statement
| compound-statement
| block
| dummy-statement
| activation-statement
```

The units of operation within the language are called statements. They are normally executed consecutively as written. The sequence of operations may for instance be broken by goto-statements, which define their successor explicitly, or by sequencing procedure calls, which define their successor implicitly. It may be shortened by conditional statements, which may cause certain statements to be skipped. It may be lengthened by for-statements and while-statements which cause certain statements to be repeated.

In order to make it possible to define an explicit dynamic succession, statements may be provided with labels.

Since sequences of statements may be grouped together into compound statements and blocks the definition of statement must necessarily be recursive. Also since declarations, described in chapter 5, enter fundamentally into the syntactic structure, the syntactic definition of statements must suppose declarations to be already defined.

## 4.1 Assignment statements

```
assignment-statement
    = value-assignment
    | reference-assignment

value-assignment
    = value-left-part := value-right-part

value-left-part
    = destination
    | simple-text-expression

value-right-part
    = value-expression
    | text-expression
    | value-assignment

destination
    = variable
    | procedure-identifier

reference-assignment
    = reference-left-part :- reference-right-part

reference-left-part
    = destination

reference-right-part
    = reference-expression
    | reference-assignment
```

Assignment statements serve for assigning the value of an expression to one or several destinations. Assignment to a procedure identifier may only occur within the body of a procedure defining the value of the function designator denoted by that identifier. If assignment is made to a subscripted variable, the values of all the subscripts must lie within the appropriate subscript bounds, otherwise a run-time error will result.

The operator `:=` (read: "becomes") indicates the assignment of a value to the value type variable or value type procedure identifier which is the left part of the value assignment or the assignment of a text value to the text frame referenced by the left part.

The operator `:-` (read: "denotes") indicates the assignment of a reference to the reference type variable or reference type procedure identifier which is the left part of the reference assignment.

A procedure identifier in this context designates a memory device local to the procedure instance. This memory device is initialised upon procedure entry following the rules given in 5.7. The type associated with a procedure identifier is given as the first symbol of the corresponding procedure declaration.

The value or reference assigned is a (suitably converted) representation of the one obtained by evaluating the right part of the assignment. If the right part is itself an assignment, the value or reference obtained is a copy of its constituent left part after that assignment operation has been completed.

The process is in the general case understood to take place in three steps as follows:

- a. Any expression which is, or is part of, the left part of an assignment is evaluated prior to the evaluation of the right part. Within a particular left part, constituent expressions such as subscript expressions are evaluated in sequence from left to right.
- b. The expression of the ultimate right part is evaluated.
- c. The value or reference of this expression is assigned to its immediately preceding left part. If the left part is itself part of an assignment, the resulting value or reference is assigned to

its immediately preceding left part. The process is repeated until the left part list is exhausted. All assignments are performed with any left part expression having values as evaluated in (a).

**Note:** It is not required that, in multiple assignments, all left parts are of the same type, as long as the appropriate type conversion functions are defined.

If the destination is of type **Boolean** or **character**, the value right part must likewise be of type **Boolean** or **character**, respectively.

For the description of the text value assignment, see 4.1.2. There is no value assignment operation for objects.

The type of the value or reference obtained by evaluating the right part must coincide with or be subordinate to the type of the left part, with the exceptions mentioned in the following sections.

If a destination is a formal parameter called by name, and the type of the corresponding actual parameter does not coincide with that of the formal specification, then the assignment operation is carried out in two steps.

1. An assignment is made to a fictitious variable of the type specified for the formal parameter.
2. An assignment statement is executed whose left part is the actual parameter and whose right part is the fictitious variable.

The value or reference obtained by evaluating the assignment is, in this case, that of the fictitious variable.

#### 4.1.1 Arithmetic assignment

If the type of the arithmetic expression differs from that associated with the destinations, an appropriate conversion function is understood to be automatically invoked. For transfer from real to integer type the conversion function is understood to yield a result which is the largest integral quantity not exceeding  $E + 0.5$  in the mathematical sense (i.e. without rounding error) where E is the value of the expression.

Conversion from **integer** to **short integer** is exact within the value range of **short integer**; outside it constitutes a run-time error. Conversion from **long real** to **real** is performed with correct rounding. If the value range of **long real** exceeds that of **real** a run-time error may result.

Conversions not mentioned above are performed according to the rules given in 3.5.1.

**Note:** The value of a real type expression is defined with only finite accuracy.

**Note:** Consider the statement " $X := i := Y := F := 3.14$ " where X and Y are **real** variables, i is an **integer** variable, and F is a formal parameter called by name and specified **real**. If the actual parameter for F is a **real** variable, then X, i, Y and F are given the values 3, 3, 3.14 and 3.14 respectively. If the actual parameter is an **integer** variable, the respective values are 3, 3, 3.14 and 3.

### 4.1.2 Text value assignment

Let  $X$  be the text variable identified as the result of evaluating the left part (see 3.7) of a text value assignment, and let  $Y$  denote the text variable identified by evaluating the corresponding right part. If  $X$  references a constant text frame, or  $X.LENGTH < Y.LENGTH$ , then the assignment constitutes an error. Otherwise, the value of  $Y$  is conceptually extended to the right by  $X.LENGTH - Y.LENGTH$  blank characters, and the resulting text value is assigned as the new contents of the text frame referenced by  $X$ .

**Note:** If  $X == \text{notext}$ , the assignment is legal if and only if  $Y == \text{notext}$ . The effect on  $X$  of the assignment " $X := Y$ " is equivalent to that of " $X := \text{copy}(Y)$ ", regardless of whether or not  $X$  and  $Y$  overlap.

The position indicators of the left and the right parts are ignored and remain unchanged.

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are non-overlapping texts of the same length then, after the evaluation of the value assignment " $X := Y$ ", the relation " $X=Y$ " is true.

A text procedure identifier occurring as a value left part within the procedure body is interpreted as a text variable. The corresponding assignment statement thus implies an assignment to the local procedure identifier.

### 4.1.3 Text reference assignment

Let  $X$  be the text variable which constitutes the left part of a text reference assignment, and let  $Y$  denote the variable identified by evaluating the corresponding right part. The effect of the assignment is defined as the four component assignments:

$X.OBJ$	$:- Y.OBJ;$	$X.START$	$:= Y.START;$
$X.LENGTH$	$:= Y.LENGTH;$	$X.POS$	$:= Y.POS;$

### 4.1.4 Object reference assignment

Let the left part of an object reference assignment be qualified by the class  $Cl$ , and let the right part be qualified by  $Cr$ . If the right part is itself a reference assignment,  $Cr$  is defined as the qualification of its constituent left part. Let  $V$  be the value obtained by evaluating the right part. The legality and effect of the reference assignment depend on relationships between  $Cr$ ,  $Cl$  and  $V$ .

Case 1.

$Cl$  is the class  $Cr$  or outer to  $Cr$ : The reference assignment is legal and the assignment operation is carried out.

Case 2.

$Cl$  is inner to  $Cr$ : The reference assignment is legal. The assignment operation is carried out if  $V$  is **none** or is an object belonging to the class  $Cl$  or a class inner to  $Cl$ . If not, the execution of the reference assignment constitutes a run-time error.

Case 3.

$Cl$  and  $Cr$  satisfy neither of these relations: The reference assignment is illegal.

Similar rules apply to reference assignments implicit in for-clauses and the transmission of parameters.

## Example

Let "point" and "polar" be the classes declared in the example of 5.5.2.

```
ref (point) p1, p2; ref (polar) p3;  
p1:- new polar (3,4); p2:- new point (5,6);
```

Now the statement "p3:-p1" assigns to p3 a reference to the "polar" object which is the value of p1. The statement "p3:-p2" would cause a run-time error.

## 4.2 Conditional statement

```
conditional-statement  
= if-clause { label : } unconditional-statement  
  [ else statement ]  
  | if-clause { label : } for-statement  
  
if-clause  
= if Boolean-expression then
```

Conditional statements cause certain statements to be executed or skipped depending on the running values of specified Boolean expressions.

Three forms of the conditional statement exist. Let B be a Boolean expression, Su an unconditional statement, Sfor a for-statement and S a statement. Then, in execution of a statement of the form "if B then Su", B is evaluated. If the result is true, Su is executed. If the result is false, Su is not executed. If Su is labelled, and a goto-statement leads to the label, then B is not evaluated, and the computation continues with execution of the labelled statement.

The two remaining forms are explained in terms of the above, as follows.

The conditional statement: is equivalent to:

<pre>if B then Sfor</pre>	<pre>if B then begin Sfor end</pre>
<pre>if B then Su else S</pre>	<pre>if B then begin Su; goto GAMMA end; S; GAMMA: ...</pre>

If Su, Sfor or S are labelled they are labelled in the equivalent construct.

**Note:** The effect of a goto-statement leading into a conditional statement follows directly from the above explanation of the execution of a conditional statement.

## Examples

```
if x>0 then n:=n+1  
  
if false then abort: terminate_program  
else if s<0 or p<q then  
else if v>s then a := v-q  
else if v<s-1 then goto abort
```

### 4.3 While-statement

```
while-statement
    = while Boolean-expression do statement
```

A while-statement causes a statement to be executed zero or more times.

The evaluation of "**while** BE **do** S" is equivalent to

```
ALFA: if BE then begin S; goto ALFA end
```

### 4.4 For-statement

```
for-statement
    = for-clause statement

for-clause
    = for simple-variable for-right-part do

simple-variable
    = identifier

for-right-part
    = := value-for-list-element
      { , value-for-list-element }
    | :- reference-for-list-element
      { , reference-for-list-element }

value-for-list-element
    = value-expression [ while Boolean-expression ]
    | text-expression
    | arithmetic-expression step arithmetic-expression
      until arithmetic-expression

reference-for-list-element
    = reference-expression
      [ while Boolean-expression ]
```

The simple variable of the for-clause is called "the controlled variable". The statement following is called "the controlled statement".

A for-clause causes the controlled statement to be executed repeatedly zero or more times. Each execution of the controlled statement is preceded by an assignment to the controlled variable and a test to determine whether this particular for list element is exhausted.

Assignments may change the value of the controlled variable during execution of the controlled statement. Upon exit from the for-statement, the controlled variable has the value given to it by the last (explicit or implicit) assignment operation.



#### 4.4.1 For list elements

The for list elements are considered in the order in which they are written. When one for list element is exhausted, control proceeds to the next, until the last for list element in the list has been exhausted. Execution then continues after the controlled statement.

The effect of each type of for list element is defined below using the following notation:

C: controlled variable

V: value expression

R: reference expression

A: arithmetic expression

B: Boolean expression

S: controlled statement

The effect of the occurrence of expressions as for list elements may be established by textual replacement in the definitions. ALFA and DELTA are considered local to the fictitious block (4.4.3). DELTA is of the same type as A2.

```
1. V (value expression)      C := V;
                             S;
                             ... next for list element
```

```

2. A1 step A2 until A3
    C      := A1;
    DELTA  := A2;
    while DELTA*(C-A3) <= 0
    do begin
        S;
        DELTA := A2;
        C      := C + DELTA;
    end while;
... next for list element

```

```

3. V while B           ALFA: C:= V;
                        if B then begin
                            S;
                            goto ALFA; end;
                        ... next for list element

```

```
4. R (reference expression)      C :- R;
                                  S;
                                  ... next for list element
```

```

5. R while B           ALFA: C :- R;
                        if B then begin
                            S;
                            goto ALFA; end;
                        ... next for list element

```

#### 4.4.2 The controlled variable

The controlled variable cannot be a formal parameter called by name, or a procedure identifier.

To be valid, all for list elements in a for-statement (defined by textual substitution, see 4.4.1) must be semantically and syntactically valid. In particular each implied reference assignment in cases 4 and 5 of 4.4.1 is subject to the rules of 4.1.4 and 4.1.3, and each text value assignment in cases 1 and 3 of 4.4.1 is subject to the rules of 4.1.2.

#### 4.4.3 The controlled statement

The controlled statement always acts as if it were a block, whether it takes this form or not. Hence, labels on or defined within the controlled statement are invisible outside that statement.

#### 4.5 Goto-statement

```
goto-statement
    = ( goto | go to ) designational-expression
```

A goto-statement interrupts the normal sequence of operations, by defining its successor explicitly by the value of a designational expression (i.e. a program point). Thus the next statement to be executed is the one at this program point.

The program point referenced by the designational expression must be visible at the goto-statement (cfr. 5.6.2).

See also 7.3.5.

#### Examples

```
goto L8
goto exit(n+1)
go to Town(if y<0 then N else N+1)
goto if Ab<c then L17
      else q(if w<0 then 2 else n)
```

#### 4.6 Procedure statement

```
procedure-statement
    = procedure-identifier-1 [ actual-parameter-part ]
```

A procedure statement interrupts the normal sequence of operations by invoking (calling for) the execution of a procedure body. Conceptually this may be described in the following terms.

If the procedure has parameters an additional block embracing the procedure body block (cf. 5.4) is created. All formal parameters correspond to variables declared in this (fictitious) block with types as given in the corresponding specifications. Thus formal parameters are non-local to the procedure body, but local to this block. The evaluation of the procedure statement now proceeds as described in 4.6.5.

##### 4.6.1 Actual-formal parameter correspondence

The correspondence between the actual parameters of the procedure statement and the formal parameters of the procedure heading is established as follows. The actual parameter list of the procedure statement must have the same number of entries as the formal parameter list of the procedure declaration heading. The correspondence is obtained by taking the entries of these two lists in the same order.

The type correspondence of formal and actual parameters is governed by the following rules:

- exact type correspondence is required for parameters of type **text**, **character** or **Boolean** as well as for all **array** parameters, irrespective of transmission mode

- an actual parameter corresponding to a formal parameter of arithmetic type which is not an array or procedure can have any arithmetic type. The conversion follows the assignment statement rules for parameters called by value and by reference and 5.4.3 for parameters called by name
- a type procedure can correspond to a formal parameter specified as a proper procedure
- the type of an actual parameter corresponding to a formal parameter of object reference type must coincide with or be surordinate to the formal type (see 2.4.2).

#### 4.6.2 Value parameter replacement (call by value)

A formal parameter called by value designates initially a local copy of the value (or array) obtained by evaluating the corresponding actual parameter.

All formal parameters quoted in the value part of the procedure heading as well as value type parameters not quoted in the name part are assigned the values of the corresponding actual parameters, these assignments being considered as performed explicitly before entering the procedure body. The effect is as though an additional block embracing the procedure body were created in which these assignments were made to variables local to this fictitious block with types as given in the corresponding specifications (cf. 4.6.5). As a consequence, variables called by value are to be considered as non-local to the body of the procedure, but local to the fictitious block.

**Note:** Parameters transmitted by value are evaluated once only, before entry of the procedure body.

A text parameter called by value is a local variable initialised by the statement "FP :- copy(AP)" where FP is the formal parameter, and AP is the variable identified by evaluating the actual parameter. (:- is defined in 4.1.3, and "copy" in 8.3).

Value specification is redundant for a parameter of value type.

There is no call by value option for object reference type parameters and reference type array parameters.

#### 4.6.3 Default parameter replacement (call by reference)

Any formal parameter which is not of value type and which is not quoted in the mode part is said to be called by reference.

A formal parameter called by reference is initially assigned a local copy of the reference obtained by evaluating the corresponding actual parameter. Such assignments are entirely analogous to those described under call by value.

**Note:** Parameters transmitted by reference are evaluated once before entry of the procedure body.

A reference type formal parameter is a local variable initialised by a reference assignment "FP:- AP" where FP is the formal parameter and AP is the reference obtained by evaluating the actual parameter. The reference assignment is subject to the rules of 4.1.3 and 4.1.4. Since in this case the formal parameter is a reference type variable, its contents may be changed by reference assignments within the procedure body.

Although array, procedure, label and switch identifiers do not designate references to values, there is a strong analogy between references in the strict sense and references to entities such as arrays, procedures (i.e. procedure declarations), program points and switches. Therefore a call by reference mechanism is defined in these cases.

An array, procedure, label or switch parameter called by reference cannot be changed from within the procedure or class body. It thus references the same entity throughout its scope. However, the contents of an array called by reference may well be changed through appropriate assignments to its elements.

For a procedure parameter called by reference, the type associated with the actual parameter must coincide with or be subordinate to that of the formal specification.

#### 4.6.4 Name parameter replacement (call by name)

Call by name is an optional transmission mode available only for parameters to procedures.

Each occurrence of a formal parameter called by name within the procedure body invokes an evaluation of the actual parameter. This evaluation takes place in the context of the procedure statement, i.e. no identifier conflicts can occur (since the procedure body and its variables are invisible).

If the actual and formal parameters are of different arithmetic types, then the appropriate type conversion must take place, irrespective of the context of use of the parameter.

For an expression within a procedure body which is

1. a formal parameter called by name,
2. a subscripted variable whose array identifier is a formal parameter called by name, or
3. a function designator whose procedure identifier is a formal parameter called by name,

the following rules apply:

1. Its type is that prescribed by the corresponding formal specification.
2. If the type of the actual parameter does not coincide with that of the formal specification, then an evaluation of the expression is followed by an assignment of the value or reference obtained to a fictitious variable of the latter type. This assignment is subject to the rules of 4.1. The value or reference obtained by the evaluation is the contents of the fictitious variable.

Also, for a formal text parameter called by name, the following rule applies:

If the actual parameter is constant (i.e. CONST is `_true_`), then all occurrences of the formal parameter evaluate to the same text frame (see 3.7).

Section 4.1 defines the meaning of an assignment to a variable which is a formal parameter called by name, or is a subscripted variable whose array identifier is a formal parameter called by name, if the type of the actual parameter does not coincide with that of the formal specification.

Assignment to a procedure identifier which is a formal parameter is illegal, regardless of its transmission mode.

**Note:** Each dynamic occurrence of a formal parameter called by name, regardless of its kind, may invoke the execution of a non-trivial expression, e.g. if its actual parameter is a remote identifier, since the actual parameter is evaluated at each occurrence.

#### 4.6.5 Body execution

The execution of a procedure call proceeds in the following steps, where 1 and 2 are performed only if the procedure has parameters.

1. The formal parameter block instance is created.
2. Actual parameters corresponding to call by value or call by reference are evaluated as described above and the results are assigned to the corresponding variables of the formal block instance, following the rules in 4.1. Actual parameters corresponding to call by name are treated as described in 4.6.4.
3. The procedure body is instantiated and starts executing.

The execution of the final statement of the procedure body, unless this statement is itself a goto-statement, concludes with the execution of an implicit goto-statement to the program point immediately following the procedure statement.

#### 4.6.6 Restrictions

For a procedure statement to be defined it is evidently necessary that the operations on the procedure body defined in section 4.6.5 lead to a correct statement. This imposes the restriction on any procedure statement that the kind and type of each actual parameter be compatible with the kind and type of the corresponding formal parameter. The following are some important particular cases of this general rule, and some additional restrictions.

A formal parameter which occurs as a destination within the procedure body and which is called by name can only correspond to an actual parameter which is an identification of a variable (special case of expression).

A formal parameter which is used within the procedure body as an array identifier can only correspond to an actual parameter which identifies an array of the same number of dimensions. In addition if the formal parameter is called by value the local array created during the call has the same subscript bounds as the actual array. Similarly the number, kind and type of any parameters of a formal procedure parameter must be compatible with those of the actual parameter.

**Note:** The rules stated above are applicable only where formal arrays or procedure calls are actually evaluated during the execution of the procedure body.

#### 4.7 Object generator statement

An object generator invokes the generation and execution of an object belonging to the identified class. The object is a new instance of the corresponding (concatenated) class body. The evaluation of an object generator consists of the following actions:

1. The object is generated and the actual parameters, if any, of the object generator are evaluated. The parameter values and/or references are transmitted.
2. Control enters the object through its initial **begin** whereby it becomes operating in the "attached" state (see chapter 7). The evaluation of the object generator is completed:  
case a:  
    whenever the basic attribute procedure "detach" of the generated object is executed (see 7.1), or  
case b:  
    upon exit through the final **end** of the object .

The state of the object after the evaluation is either "detached" (a) or "terminated" (b). Cf. chapter 7.

##### 4.7.1 Parameter replacement

In general the correspondence between actual and formal parameters is the same for classes as for procedures.

The call by name option is not available for classes. Procedure, label and switch parameters cannot be transferred to classes.

For further information on the parameter transmission modes, see 5.5.5.

#### 4.8 Connection statement

```
connection-statement
  = inspect object-expression
    when-clause { when-clause } [ otherwise-clause ]
  | inspect object-expression
    do connection-block-2 [ otherwise-clause ]

when-clause
  = when class-identifier do connection-block-1

otherwise-clause
  = otherwise statement

connection-block-1
  = statement

connection-block-2
  = statement
```

A connection block may itself be or contain a connection statement. This "inner" connection statement is then the largest possible connection statement. Consider the following:

```
inspect A when A1 do
  inspect B when B1 do S1          *
    when B2 do S2                *
    otherwise S3;                  *
```

The inner connection statement includes the lines that are marked with an asterisk.

The purpose of the connection mechanism is to provide implicit definitions to items 1 and 2 in 5.5.6 for certain attribute identifications within connection blocks.

The execution of a connection statement may be described as follows:

1. The object expression of the connection statement is evaluated. Let its value be X.
2. If when-clauses are present they are considered from left to right. If X is an object belonging to a class equal or inner to the one identified by a when-clause, the connection-block-1 of this when-clause is executed, and subsequent when-clauses are skipped. Otherwise, the when-clause is skipped.
3. If a connection-block-2 is present it is executed, unless X is **none** in which case the connection block is skipped.
4. The statement of an otherwise-clause is executed if X is **none**, or if X is an object not belonging to a class inner to the one identified by any when-clause. Otherwise it is skipped.

A statement which is a connection-block-1 or a connection-block-2 acts as a block, whether it takes the form of a block or not. It further acts as if enclosed by a second fictitious block, called a "connection block". During the execution of a connection block the object X is said to be "connected". A connection block has an associated "block qualification", which is the preceding class identifier for a connection-block-1 and the qualification of the preceding object expression for a connection-block-2.

Let the block qualification of a given connection block be C and let A be an attribute identifier, which is not a label or switch identifier, defined at any prefix level of C. Then any uncommitted occurrence of A within the connection block is given the local significance of being an attribute identification. Its item 1 is the connected object, its item 2 is the block qualification C. It follows that a connection block acts as if its local quantities are those attributes (excluding labels and switches) of the connected object which are defined at prefix levels outer to and including that of C.

(Name conflicts between attributes defined at different prefix levels of C are resolved by selecting the one defined at the innermost prefix level.)

### Example

Let "Polar" be the class declared in the example of 5.5.2. Then within the connection-block-2 of the connection statement

```
inspect new Polar(4,5) do begin ... end
```

a procedure "plus" is available for vector addition.

## 4.9 Compound statement

```
compound-statement  
  = begin compound-tail  
  
compound-tail  
  = statement { ; statement } end
```

This syntax may be illustrated as follows: Denoting arbitrary statements and labels, by the letters S and L, respectively, the syntactic unit takes the form:

L: L: ... **begin** S; S; ... S; S **end**

**Note:** Each of the statements S may be a complete compound statement or block.

### Example

```
begin x:=0;  
  for y:=1 step 1 until n do x := x + a(y);  
  if x>q then goto stop  
  else if x>w-2 then goto s;  
aw: st: w:=x+bob  
end
```

## 4.10 Blocks

```
block  
  = subblock  
  | prefixed-block  
  
subblock  
  = block-head ; compound-tail  
  
block-head  
  = begin declaration { ; declaration }
```

This syntax may be illustrated as follows: Denoting arbitrary statements, declarations, and labels, by the letters S, D, and L, respectively, the syntactic unit takes the form:

L: L: ... **begin** D; D; ... D; S; S; ... S; S **end**

**Note:** Each of the statements S may be a complete compound statement or block.

Every block automatically introduces a new level of nomenclature. This is realised as follows. Any identifier occurring within the block may through a suitable declaration be specified to be local to the block in question. This means that

- a. the entity represented by this identifier inside the block has no existence outside it, and
- b. any entity represented by this identifier outside the block is invisible inside the block, unless made visible by connection or remote access.

Identifiers (except those representing labels) occurring within a block and not being declared to this block will be non-local to it, i.e. will represent the same entity inside the block and in the level

immediately outside it. A label separated by a colon from a statement, i.e. labelling that statement, behaves as though declared in the head of the smallest embracing block.

A label is said to be implicitly declared in this block head. In this context, a procedure body, the statement following a for-clause, or a connection block must be considered as if it were enclosed by **begin** and **end** and treated as a block, this block being nested within the fictitious block of 4.6.1 in the case of a procedure with parameters. A label that is not within any block of the program (nor within a procedure body, the statement following a for-clause, or a connection block) is implicitly declared in the implied connection block embracing the program.

**Note:** System-defined class identifiers used as prefixes within the block as well as identifiers introduced as part of an external head are in this respect treated in the same manner as labels.

Since a statement of a block may itself be a block the concepts local and non-local to a block must be understood recursively. Thus an identifier which is non-local to a block A may or may not be non-local to the block B in which A is a statement. See also 5.6.

### Example

```
Q:  begin integer i, k; real w;  
      for i:=1 step -1 until m do  
        for k:=i+1 step 1 until m do begin  
          w      := A(i,k);  
          A(i,k) := A(k,i);  
          A(k,i) := w  
        end for i and k  
    end block Q
```



### 4.10.1 Prefixed blocks

```
prefixed-block
  = block-prefix main-block

block-prefix
  = class-identifier [ actual-parameter-part ]

main-block
  = block
  | compound-statement
```

An instance of a prefixed block is a compound object whose prefix part is an object of the class identified by the block prefix, and whose main part is an instance of the main block. The formal parameters of the former are initialised as indicated by the actual parameters of the block prefix. The concatenation is defined by rules similar to those of 5.5.2.

The following restrictions must be observed:

1. A class in which reference is made to the class itself through use of **this** is an illegal block prefix.
2. The class identifier of a block prefix must refer to a class local to the smallest block enclosing the prefixed block (for system-defined class identifiers, see (2) of 5.5.1).

A program is enclosed by a prefixed block (cf. chapter 10).

#### Example

Let "hashing" be the class declared in the example of 5.5.3. Then within the prefixed block

```
hashing(64) begin
  integer procedure hash(T); text T;
  ... ;
  ...
end
```

a "lookup" procedure is available which makes use of the "hash" procedure declared within the main block.

### 4.11 Dummy statement

```
dummy-statement
  = empty
```

A dummy statement executes no operation. It may serve to place a label.

#### Example

```
L: begin statements; John: end
```

## Chapter 5

### DECLARATIONS

```
declaration
=  simple-variable-declaration
|  array-declaration
|  switch-declaration
|  procedure-declaration
|  class-declaration
|  external-declaration
```

For external declarations, see chapter 6.

Declarations serve to define certain properties of the quantities used in the program, and to associate them with identifiers. A declaration of an identifier is valid within a certain region of the program called its "scope". Outside the scope the particular identifier may be used for other purposes.

Within its scope the identifier declaration may be either "visible" or "invisible". If visible an occurrence of the identifier references this declaration. A declaration is invisible (within its scope) either because the associated identifier has been redefined or because its visibility has been explicitly restricted (see 5.5.4) or because connection or remote access is necessary to make it visible.

Dynamically this implies that at the time of entry into a block instance all identifiers declared for the block assume the significance implied by the nature of the declarations given. If these identifiers are defined outside they are, for the time being, given a new significance. Identifiers which are not declared for the block, on the other hand, retain their old meaning.

Apart from labels (see 4.10), formal parameters of procedure and class declarations, possible identifiers introduced implicitly by external declarations, and identifiers declared in the program prefix, each identifier appearing in a program must be explicitly defined within the program.

No identifier may be declared either explicitly or implicitly more than once in any one block head.

More precise scope and visibility rules are given in 5.6.

#### 5.1 Simple variable declarations

```
simple-variable-declaration
=  type  type-list

type-list
=  type-list-element { , type-list-element }

type-list-element
=  identifier
|  constant-element
```

Type declarations serve to declare certain identifiers to represent simple variables of a given type (see 3.1.1 and 3.1.2).

For constant element, see 5.8.

##### 5.1.1 Value type variables

Real type variables may assume positive and negative values including zero.

Integer type variables may assume positive and negative integral values including zero.

**Boolean** variables may assume the values **true** and **false**.

**character** variables may assume the implementation-defined character values of the internal character set (cf. 1.2).

## 5.2 Array declaration

```
array-declaration
= [ type ] array array-segment { , array-segment }

array-segment
= array-identifier { , array-identifier }
  "(" bound-pair-list ")"

array-identifier
= identifier

bound-pair-list
= bound-pair { , bound-pair }

bound-pair
= arithmetic-expression : arithmetic-expression
```

An array declaration declares one or several identifiers to represent multi-dimensional arrays of subscripted variables and gives the dimensions of the arrays, the bounds of the subscripts, and the type of the variables.

The subscript bounds for any array are given in the first subscript brackets following the identifier of this array in the form of a bound pair list. Each bound pair gives the lower bound of a subscript followed by : followed by the upper bound. The bound pair list gives the bounds of all subscripts taken in order from left to right.

**Note:** An initial "-" in upper bound may follow : directly (cf. 1.3).

The dimension is given as the number of entries in the bound pair lists.

All arrays declared in one declaration are of the same quoted type. If no type declarator is given the type **real** is understood.

The expressions are evaluated in the same way as subscript expressions. This evaluation takes place once at each entrance into the block through the block head. The expressions cannot include any identifier that is declared, either explicitly or implicitly, in the same block head as the array in question.

An array has elements only when the values of all upper bounds are not smaller than those of the corresponding lower bounds. If any lower bound value is greater than the corresponding upper bound value, the array has no elements. An attempt to access an element of an empty array leads to a run-time error. The array may, however, be created at block entry and it may be passed as a parameter.

The value of an array identifier is the ordered set of values of the corresponding array of subscripted variables.

### Examples

```
integer array a(2:20)                ! 19 elements;
real array   q(-7:if c<0 then 2 else 1) ! 10 or 9 elements;
array a,b,c(7:n,2:m), s(-2:10)       ! any value of n or m legal;
```

## 5.3 Switch declaration

```
switch-declaration
= switch switch-identifier := switch-list

switch-list
= designational-expression { , designational-expression }
```

A switch declaration defines the set of values of the corresponding switch designators. These values are given one by one as the values of the designational expressions entered in the switch list. With each of these designational expressions there is associated an ordinal number (1,2, ...) obtained by counting the items in the list from left to right. The value of the switch designator corresponding to

a given value of the subscript expression is the value of the designational expression in the switch list having this given value as its associated integer.

An expression in the switch list is evaluated every time the item of the list in which the expression occurs is referred to, using the current values of all variables involved. This evaluation takes place in the context of the switch declaration.

### Examples

```
switch  s := s1,s2,q(m), if v>-5 then s3 else s4
switch  q := p1,w
```

## 5.4 Procedure declaration

```
procedure-declaration
= [ type ] procedure procedure-heading ; procedure-body

procedure-heading
= procedure-identifier
  [ formal-parameter-part ; [ mode-part ]
    specification-part ]

procedure-body
= statement

procedure-identifier
= identifier
```

A procedure declaration serves to define the procedure associated with a procedure identifier. The principal constituent of a procedure declaration is a statement, the procedure body, which through the use of procedure statements and/or function designators may be activated within those parts of the program in which the procedure declaration is visible.

Associated with the body is a heading, which specifies certain identifiers occurring within the body to represent formal parameters. Formal parameters in the procedure body are, whenever the procedure is activated, assigned the values of or replaced by actual parameters. Identifiers in the procedure body which are not formal are either local or non-local to the body depending on whether they are declared within the body or not. Those of them which are non-local to the body may well be local to the block in the head of which the procedure declaration appears.

The procedure body always acts like a block, whether it has the form of one or not. Consequently the scope of any label labelling a statement within the body or the body itself can never extend beyond the procedure body.

In addition, a procedure with parameters in certain respects acts as if a fictitious block embraced the procedure body. The formal parameters then correspond to variables declared local to this fictitious block. Thus, if the identifier of a formal parameter is declared anew within the procedure body, it is thereby given a local significance and actual parameters which correspond to it are invisible throughout the scope of this inner local quantity.

No identifier may appear more than once in any one formal parameter list, nor may a formal parameter list contain the procedure identifier of the same procedure heading.

See also 4.6.

### Examples:

```
procedure transpose(a,n);
array a; integer n;
begin real w; integer i,k;
  for i:=1 step 1 until n do
    for k:=1+i step 1 until n do
      begin w:=a(i,k);
        a(i,k):=a(k,i);
        a(k,i):=w
      end
  end
```

```

end transpose;

integer procedure factorial(n); integer n;
    factorial:= if n=0 then 1 else n*factorial(n-1);

procedure absmax(a,n,m,y,i,k);
    name i, k, y ; array a; integer n,m,i,k; real y;
comment The absolute greatest element of the matrix a, of size n by m
    is transferred to y, and the subscripts of this element to
    i and k;
begin integer p,q;
    y:=0; i:=k:=1;
    for p:=1 step 1 until n do
        for q:=1 step 1 until m do
            if abs(a(p,q))>y then begin y:=abs(a(p,q));
                i:=p; k:=q
            end
        end
    end
end absmax;

procedure innerproduct(a,b,k,p,y); name p,y,a,b;
integer k,p; real y,a,b;
begin real s; integer pp;
    s:=0;
    for pp:=1 step 1 until k do
        begin p:= pp; s:=s+a*b; end;
    y:=s
end innerproduct;

text procedure mystrip(t); text t;
mystrip:- if t.sub(t.length,1)=" "
    then mystrip(t.sub(1,t.length-1)) else t;

```

### 5.4.1 Values of function designators

For a procedure declaration to define the value of a function designator, the type associated with the procedure identifier must be declared through the appearance of a type declarator as the very first symbol of the procedure declaration. This identifier is implicitly assigned an initial value (see 5.7). The identifier may, in addition, occur (one or more times) as a destination within the procedure body.

The (dynamically) last value so assigned is used to continue the evaluation of the expression in which the function designator occurs. Any visible occurrence of the procedure identifier within the body of the procedure other than as a destination in an assignment statement denotes (recursive) activation of the procedure.

If a goto-statement within the procedure, or within any other procedure activated by it, leads to an exit from the procedure, other than through its end, then the execution of all statements that have been started but not yet completed and which do not contain the label to which the goto-statement leads, is abandoned. The values of all variables that still have significance remain as they were immediately before execution of the goto-statement (cf. 7.3.5).

If a function designator is used as a procedure statement, then the resulting value is discarded, but such a statement may be used, if desired, for the purpose of invoking side effects.

### 5.4.2 Parameter specification

```

formal-parameter-part
    = "(" formal-parameter { , formal-parameter } ")"

formal-parameter
    = identifier

specification-part
    = specifier identifier-list { ; specifier identifier-list }

```

```

specifier
  = type [ array | procedure ]
  | label
  | switch

```

The procedure heading may include a specification part, giving information about the kinds and types of the formal parameters. In this part no formal parameter may occur more than once.

### 5.4.3 Parameter transmission modes

```

mode-part
  = name-part [ value-part ]
  | value-part [ name-part ]

name-part
  = name identifier-list ;

value-part
  = value identifier-list ;

identifier-list
  = identifier { , identifier }

```

There are three modes of parameter transmission: "call by value", "call by reference" and "call by name".

The default transmission mode is call by value for value type parameters and call by reference for all other kinds of parameters.

The available transmission modes are shown in fig. 5.1 for the different kinds of parameters to procedures.

Parameter	Transmission modes		
	by value	by reference	by name
value type	D	I	O
object ref. type	I	D	O
<b>text</b>	O	D	O
value type <b>array</b>	O	D	O
reference type <b>array</b>	I	D	O
procedure	I	D	O
type procedure	I	D	O
label	I	D	O
switch	I	D	O

D: default mode      O: optional mode      I: illegal

fig. 5.1 Transmission modes for procedures

## 5.5 Class declaration

```

class-declaration
  = [ prefix ] main-part

prefix
  = class-identifier

main-part
  = class class-identifier
    [ formal-parameter-part ; [ value-part ]
      specification-part ] ;
    [ protection-part ; ]
    [ virtual-part ; ]
    class-body

class-identifier
  = identifier

class-body
  = statement
  | split-body

split-body
  = initial-operations inner-part final-operations

initial-operations
  = ( begin | block-head ; ) { statement ; }

inner-part
  = { label : } inner

final-operations
  = end
  | ; compound-tail

```

A class declaration serves to define the class associated with a class identifier. The class consists of "objects" each of which is a dynamic instance of the class body.

An object is generated as the result of evaluating an object generator, which is analogous to the evaluation (call) of a function designator, see 3.8.2 or 4.7.

A class body acts like a block whether it takes that form or not. A split body acts as a block in which the symbol **inner** represents a dummy statement.

For a given object the formal parameters, the quantities specified in the virtual part, and the quantities declared local to the class body are called the "attributes" of the object. A declaration or specification of an attribute is called an "attribute definition".

Specification (in the specification part) is necessary for each formal parameter. The parameters are treated as variables local to the class body. They are initialized according to the rules of parameter transmission, (see 5.5.5 below). The following specifiers are accepted:

`<type> , array, and <type> array.`

**Note:** Call by name is not available for parameters of class declarations.

Attributes defined in the virtual part are called "virtual quantities". They do not occur in the formal parameter list. The virtual quantities have some properties which resemble formal parameters called by name. However, for a given object the environment of the corresponding "actual parameters" is the object itself, rather than that of the generating call. See 5.5.3.

Identifier conflicts between formal parameters and other attributes defined in a class declaration are illegal.

The declaration of an array attribute may in a constituent subscript bound expression make reference to the formal parameters of the class declaration, but subscript bound expressions which refer to attributes other than the formal parameters of the class declaration (or its prefixes, see 5.5.2) are illegal.

### 5.5.1 Subclasses

A class declaration with the prefix "C" and the class identifier "D" defines a subclass D of the class C. An object belonging to the subclass consists of a "prefix part", which is itself an object of the class C, and a "main part" described by the main part of the class declaration. The two parts are "concatenated" to form one compound object. The class C may itself have a prefix.

The following restrictions must be observed in the use of prefixes:

1. A class must not occur in its own prefix sequence (see below).
2. A class can be used as prefix only at the block level at which it is declared. A system class used as a prefix is, together with all classes of its prefix chain, considered to be declared in the smallest block enclosing its textual occurrence. Thus redeclarations may occur at inner block levels of a program. An implementation may restrict the number of different block levels at which such prefixes may be used (see chapters 6, 10, 11 and 12).

Let  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n$  be classes such that  $C_1$  has no prefix and  $C_k$  has the prefix  $C_{k-1}$  ( $k = 2, 3, \dots, n$ ). Then  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{k-1}$  is called the "prefix sequence" of  $C_k$  ( $k = 2, 3, \dots, n$ ). The subscript  $k$  of  $C_k$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) is called the "prefix level" of the class.  $C_i$  is said to "include"  $C_j$  if  $i \leq j$ , and  $C_i$  is called a "subclass" of  $C_j$  if  $i > j$  ( $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ). The prefix level of a class D is said to be **inner** to that of a class C if D is a subclass of C, and "outer" to that of C if C is a subclass of D.



## Example

Figure 5.2 depicts a class hierarchy consisting of five classes, A, B, C, D and E:

```

class A .....;
A class B .....;
B class C .....;
B class D .....;
A class E .....;

```

A capital letter denotes a class. The corresponding lower case letter represents the attributes of the main part of an object belonging to that class. In an implementation of the language, the object structures shown in fig. 5.3 indicate the allocation in memory of the values of those attributes which are simple variables.

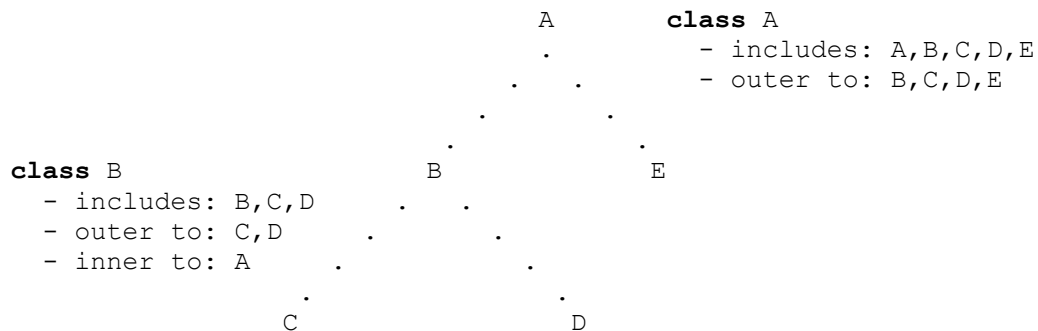


Fig. 5.2

Objects of classes A, B, C, D and E respectively:

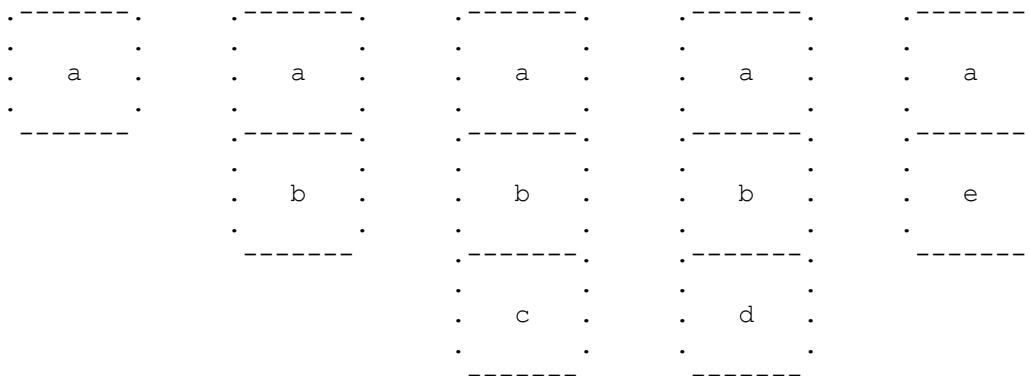


Fig. 5.3

### 5.5.2 Concatenation

Let  $C_n$  be a class with the prefix sequence  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{n-1}$ , and let  $X$  be an object belonging to  $C_n$ . Informally, the concatenation mechanism has the following consequences.

1.  $X$  has a set of attributes which is the union of those defined in  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n$ . An attribute defined in  $C_k$  ( $1 \leq k \leq n$ ) is said to be defined at prefix level  $k$ .
2.  $X$  has an "operation rule" consisting of statements from the bodies of these classes in a prescribed order. A statement from  $C_k$  is said to belong to prefix level  $k$  of  $X$ .
3. A statement at prefix level  $k$  of  $X$  has access to all attributes of  $X$  defined at prefix levels equal to or outer to  $k$ , but not directly to attributes made invisible by conflicting definitions at levels  $< k$ . (These invisible attributes may nevertheless be accessed, for example through use of procedures or **this**.)
4. A statement at prefix level  $k$  of  $X$  has no immediate access to attributes of  $X$  defined at prefix levels inner to  $k$ , except through virtual quantities. (See 5.5.3.)
5. In a split body at prefix level  $k$ , the symbol **inner** represents those statements in the operation rule of  $X$  which belong to prefix levels inner to  $k$ , or a dummy statement if  $k = n$ . If none of  $C_1, \dots, C_{n-1}$  has a split body the statements in the operation rule of  $X$  are ordered according to ascending prefix levels.

A compound object could be described formally by a "concatenated" class declaration. The process of concatenation is considered to take place prior to program execution. In order to give a precise description of that process, we need the following definition.

An occurrence of an identifier which is part of a given block is said to be an "uncommitted occurrence in that block", except if it is the attribute identifier of a remote identifier (see 5.5.6), or is part of an inner block in which it is given a local significance. In this context a "block" may be a class declaration not including its prefix and class identifier, or a procedure declaration not including its procedure identifier.

**Note:** An uncommitted identifier occurrence in a block may well have a local significance in that block.

The class declarations of a given class hierarchy are processed in an order of ascending prefix levels. A class declaration with a non-empty prefix is replaced by a concatenated class declaration obtained by first modifying the given one in two steps.

1. If the prefix refers to a concatenated class declaration, in which identifier substitutions have been carried out, then the same substitutions are effected for uncommitted identifier occurrences within the main part.
2. If now identifiers of attributes defined within the main part have uncommitted occurrences within the prefix class, then all uncommitted occurrences of these identifiers within the main part are systematically changed to avoid name conflicts. Identifiers corresponding to virtual quantities defined in the prefix class are not changed.

The concatenated class declaration is defined in terms of the given declaration, modified as above, and the concatenated declaration of the prefix class.

1. Its formal parameter list consists of that of the prefix class followed by that of the main part.
2. Its value part, specification part, and virtual part are the unions (in an informal but obvious sense) of those of the prefix class and those of the main part. If the resulting virtual part contains more than one occurrence of some identifier, the virtual part of the given class declaration is illegal.
3. Its class body is obtained from that of the main part in the following way, assuming the body of the prefix class is a split body. The **begin** of the block head is replaced by a copy of the block head of the prefix body, a copy of the initial operations of the prefix body is inserted after the block head of the main part and the **end** of the compound tail of the main part is replaced by a copy of the compound tail of the prefix body. If the prefix class body is not a split body, it is interpreted as if the symbols **inner** were inserted in front of the **end** of its compound tail.

If in the resulting class body two matching declarations for a virtual quantity are given (see 5.5.3), the one copied from the prefix class body is deleted.

### Example

```
class point(x,y); real x,y;  
  begin ref (point) procedure plus(P); ref (point) P;  
    plus:- new point(x+P.x, y+P.y); end point;
```

An object of the class point is a representation of a point in a cartesian plane. Its attributes are x, y and plus, where plus represents the operation of vector addition.

```
point class polar;  
  begin real r,v;  
    ref (polar) procedure plus(P); ref (point) P;  
      plus :- new polar(x+P.y, y+P.y);  
  r:= sqrt(x**2 + y**2); v:= arctan(x,y); end polar;
```

An object of the class polar is a "point" object with the additional attributes r, v and a redefined "plus" operation. The values of r and v are computed and assigned at the time of object generation.

### 5.5.3 Virtual quantities

```
virtual-part  
  = virtual : virtual-spec ; { virtual-spec ; }  
  
virtual-spec  
  = specifier identifier-list  
  | procedure procedure-identifier procedure-specification
```

Virtual quantities serve a double purpose:

1. to give access at one prefix level of an object to attributes declared at inner prefix levels, and
2. to permit attribute redeclarations at one prefix level valid at outer prefix levels.

The following specifiers are accepted in a virtual part:

**label**, **switch**, **procedure** and **<type> procedure**.

A virtual procedure may optionally be specified with respect to its type, and the type, kind, and transmission mode of its parameters (if any) (see 6.3).

A virtual quantity of an object is either "unmatched" or is identified with a "matching" attribute, which is an attribute whose identifier coincides with that of the virtual quantity, declared at the prefix level of the virtual quantity or at an inner one. The matching attribute must be of the same kind as the virtual quantity.

A virtual procedure quantity that contains a procedure specification, can only be matched by a procedure of the same type, and with the same procedure heading as that of the procedure specification. Otherwise, the type of the matching quantity (at a given prefix level) must coincide with or be subordinate to (see 2.4) that of the virtual specification and that of any matching quantity declared at any outer prefix level.

At any given prefix level PL inner or equal to that of a virtual specification, and in the absence of a procedure specification, the type of the virtual quantity is

- if there is no match at prefix levels outer or equal to PL, then that given in the virtual specification,
- if there is a match at a prefix level outer or equal to PL, then that of the match at the innermost prefix level outer or equal to PL.

It is a consequence of the concatenation mechanism that a virtual quantity of a given object can have at most one matching attribute. If matching declarations have been given at more than one prefix level of the class hierarchy, then the one is valid which is given at the innermost prefix level outer or equal to that of the main part of the object. The match is valid at all prefix levels of the object equal or inner to that of the virtual specification.

### Example

The following class expresses a notion of "hashing", in which the "hash" algorithm itself is a "replaceable part".

```

class hashing (n); integer n;
virtual: integer procedure hash;
begin integer procedure hash(t); text t;
  begin integer i;
    while t.more do i:= i + rank(t.getchar);
      hash:= mod(i,n);
    end hash;
  text array table (0:n-1); integer entries;
  integer procedure lookup (t,old);
  name old; Boolean old; text t;
  begin integer i,istart; Boolean entered;
    i:= istart:= hash(t);
    while not entered do
      begin if table(i)~=notext then
        begin table(i):= copy(t);
          entries:= entries + 1;
          entered:= true;
          old:=false
        end else if table(i) = t
          then old:= entered:= true
          else begin i:= i + 1;
            if i=n then i:=0;
            if i=istart then error("Table full.")
          end
        end;
      lookup:= i;
    end lookup;
  end hashing;

hashing class ALGOL hash;
begin integer procedure hash(T); text T;
  begin integer i; character c;
    T.setpos(1);
    while T.more do begin c:= T.getchar;
      if c <> ' ' then i:= i + rank(c)
    end;
    hash:= mod(i,n);
  end hash;
end ALGOL_hash;

```

### 5.5.4 Attribute protection

```
protection-part
  = protection-specification { ; protection-specification }

protection-specification
  = hidden identifier-list
  | protected identifier-list
  | hidden protected identifier-list
  | protected hidden identifier-list
```

The protection specification makes it possible to restrict the visibility of class attribute identifiers.

A class attribute, X, which is specified **protected** in **class** C is only visible:

1. within the body of C or its subclasses
2. within blocks prefixed by C or any subclass of C.

In any other context the meaning of the identifier X is as if the attribute definition of X were absent.

Access to a protected attribute is, subject to the restriction above, legal by remote accessing.

A class attribute may be specified **protected** only at the prefix level of its definition. Note that a virtual attribute may only be specified **protected** in the class heading in which the virtual specification occurs.

Attributes of the classes Simset and Simulation are protected.

A visible class attribute, X, specified **hidden** in class C is not visible within subclasses of C or blocks prefixed by C or any subclass of C. In this context the meaning of the identifier X is as if the attribute definition of X were absent.

Only a protected attribute may be specified **hidden**. However, this specification may occur at a prefix level inner to the protected specification.

The effect of specifying an attribute **hidden protected** or **protected hidden** is identical to that of specifying it as both **protected** and **hidden**.

Conflicting or illegal hidden and/or protected specifications constitute a error.

**Note:** Specifying a virtual quantity **hidden** effectively disables further matching at inner levels. If in the prefix sequence there are several attributes with the same identifier as that of a hidden specification, and these are previously protected, but not hidden, the innermost accessible attribute is hidden.

5.5.5 Parameter transmission modes

There are two modes of parameter transmission available for classes: "call by value" and "call by reference".

The default transmission mode is call by value for value type parameters and call by reference for all other kinds of parameters.

The available transmission modes are shown in fig. 5.4 for parameters of class declarations.

-----		
Parameter	Transmission modes	
	- - - - -	- - - - -
	by value	by reference
-----		
value type	D	I
object ref. type	I	D
<b>text</b>	O	D
value type <b>array</b>	O	D
reference type <b>array</b>	I	D
-----		

D: default mode   O: optional mode   I: illegal

fig. 5.4. Parameter transmission modes for classes

For further details on parameter transmission modes, see 4.6.

5.5.6 Remote accessing

An attribute of an object is identified completely by the following items of information:

- 1. the object,
- 2. a class which is outer to or equal to that of the object, and
- 3. an attribute identifier defined in that class or in any class belonging to its prefix sequence.

Item 2 is textually defined for any attribute identification. The prefix level of the class is called the "access level" of the attribute identification.

Consider an attribute identification whose item 2 is the class C. Its attribute identifier, item 3, is subjected to the same identifier substitutions as those which would be applied to an uncommitted occurrence of that identifier within the main part of C, at the time of concatenation. In that way, name conflicts between attributes declared at different prefix levels of an object are resolved by selecting the one defined at the innermost prefix level not inner to the access level of the attribute identification.

An uncommitted occurrence within a given object of the identifier of an attribute of the object is itself a complete attribute identification. In this case items 1 and 2 are implicitly defined as, respectively, the given object and the class associated with the prefix level of the identifier occurrence.

If such an identifier occurrence is located in the body of a procedure declaration (which is part of the object), then, for any dynamic instance of the procedure, the occurrence serves to identify an attribute of the given object, regardless of the context in which the procedure was invoked.

Remote accessing of attributes, i.e. access from outside the object, is either through the mechanism of "remote identifiers" ("dot notation") or through "connection".

A text variable is (itself) a compound structure in the sense that it has attributes accessible through the dot notation.

5.5.7 Fictitious outermost prefix

Any class that has no (textually given) prefix is by definition prefixed by a fictitious class whose only attribute is:

**procedure** detach; ... ; (see 7.3.1)

Thus every class object or instance of a prefixed block has this attribute.

## 5.6 Scope and visibility rules

This section contains the scope and visibility rules governing the identifiers introduced in the program.

An identifier is introduced either implicitly (through a definition in one of the system classes ENVIRONMENT and BASICIO, or as **text** attribute), or explicitly

1. By its occurrence as a class attribute either in the formal parameter part or in the head of the class body. This is called an "attribute definition".
2. By its occurrence as a class attribute in the virtual part, but not in the head of the class body. This is called an "unmatched virtual definition".
3. By its occurrence in a formal parameter part of a procedure. This is called a "formal parameter definition".
4. By being declared in the head of a subblock or prefixed block. This is called a "local declaration".
5. By its occurrence as a label. In this case an implicit declaration is inserted in the local block. If this block is a class body, the label definition is called a "label attribute definition", otherwise it is considered a special case of one of 3 or 4 above.
6. By its occurrence in an external declaration which is part of an external head of a module. This is called a "head definition".

The occurrence of a system-defined class identifier as a prefix (see 5.5.1(2)) within some block leads to insertion of implicit declarations both of the referenced class and of all classes in its prefix chain (if any) in the head of the local block. Within any block such declarations are inserted only once. These declarations are then considered special cases of either rule 1 or 4 above.

Use of such an identifier other than as a prefix refers to either such an inserted declaration, or to the definition within ENVIRONMENT or BASICIO.

The "local block" of an identifier definition is the textually closest embracing block (subblock, prefixed block, or procedure or class body), including the fictitious blocks surrounding the controlled statement of a for- statement, a procedure or class declaration, a connection block etc. The identifier (and its definition) is said to be local within this block.

A distinction is made between the "scope" and the "visibility" of an identifier definition and its associated identifier as follows. The scope of an identifier definition is that part of the program text in which it may have an effect. An identifier definition is said to be **visible** at (or from) a given point in the program text when an occurrence of the identifier at this point can refer to the quantity of the declaration in question.

The same identifier may be defined in several places in the program and may consequently be associated with different quantities. The scopes of such definitions of the same identifier may thus overlap, for instance in the case of an identifier redeclared in an inner block.

At a particular point in the program text where a given identifier is visible there can be at most one definition associated with that identifier, e.g. in the case of redeclaration as mentioned only one of the definitions is visible at any given point within the union of their scopes.

The exact meaning of these terms will be defined in the sequel for each kind of definition.

### 5.6.1 Scope of identifier definitions

1. The scope of an attribute definition is the same as that of the class declaration in which the definition occurs.
2. The scope of an unmatched virtual declaration is the same as that of the class declaration in which the definition occurs.
3. The scope of a formal parameter definition is the procedure body.

4. The scope of a local declaration is the textual extent of its local block, i.e. from the **begin** of the block in question to the matching **end**.
5. The scope of a label or switch attribute definition is the protection part, the virtual part, and the body of the class in which the definition occurs, extended by the protection part and body of all its subclasses.
6. The scope of a head definition is the source module in which it occurs. If the head is followed by a class or procedure declaration the scope is extended by the scope of that declaration.
7. The scope of a separately compiled declaration is the definition itself, extended with the scopes of all external declarations that reference the definition in question.
8. The scopes of attributes of system classes extend over all source modules.

### 5.6.2 Visibility of identifiers

Identifier definitions can only be visible within their scope. The visibility of a particular definition may within its scope be restricted by

- a. the occurrence of an identifier definition with the same identifier (a "redefinition" of the identifier) within some construct enclosed by the local block of the former definition. Within their common scope only the innermost of such redefinitions are visible.
- b. the occurrence of a redefinition at some inner prefix level.
- c. remote access, which may cause some identifier definitions to become invisible within the inspection block or dot notation.
- d. use of **this** or **qua** which may cause one or more redefinitions (of type b) to be temporarily suspended.
- e. a protection part of the class declaration to which the definition is local (see 5.5.4).

Redefinition of an identifier is not allowed at the head of its local block.

**Note:** This prohibits the occurrence of two definitions of the same identifier in the same block. A formal procedure parameter may, however, be redefined in the head of the procedure body belonging to its procedure declaration. Such a redeclaration effectively restricts the visibility of the formal parameter to its associated value part, name part and specification part. Thus the only effect of such a parameter is the possible side effects resulting from its evaluation.

In the detailed visibility rules given below the word "visible" means "visible but for possible effects of redefinitions or other restrictions as stated above".

1. An attribute definition is visible within the protection part and the body of its class, and within all classes or blocks prefixed by that class identifier.  
Formal parameters of the class are, in addition, visible within the value part and the specification part of the class declaration. Attributes which are not formal parameters are in addition visible within the virtual parts of its class and of all its subclasses. **Note:** The visibility of an attribute definition may be restricted or extended as noted under c)-e) above.
2. An unmatched virtual definition has the same visibility as an attribute definition which is not a formal parameter of the class.
3. A formal parameter definition is visible within the value part, name part, specification part, and within the body of the procedure in which it occurs.
4. A local declaration is visible within its scope.
5. A label or switch attribute definition is visible within its scope.
6. A head definition is visible within its scope.
7. A separately compiled definition is visible, together with all external definitions of its external head (if any), within the scope of an external declaration which refers to the definition.

**Note:** If an external procedure declaration is given with a procedure binding, the declaration defines two identifiers, occurring textually before and after **is**. The scope and visibility of the definition given by the procedure binding follows the rules stated above, while the identifier given in the external item is invisible elsewhere.



A possible kind identifier of an external procedure declaration is invisible elsewhere.

### 5.6.3 Dynamic aspects of scope and visibility rules

Apart from the static rules given in the preceding sections, all occurrences of an identifier (except within its definition) have a dynamic aspect. Such an identifier refers not only to its static definition but also to some object generated from the declaration to which the definition is local. Thus, for example, the occurrence of a formal parameter identifier within a procedure or class declaration references some instantiated object of the procedure or class.

See also 2.4.1 and 3.8.1.

## 5.7 Initialization

Any declared variable is initialized at the time of entry into the block to which the variable is local. The initial contents depend on the type of the variable:

<code>real-type</code>	<code>0.0</code>
<code>integer-type</code>	<code>0</code>
<b><code>Boolean</code></b>	<b><code>false</code></b>
<b><code>character</code></b>	<b><code>'!0!'</code></b>
<code>object ref. type</code>	<b><code>none</code></b>
<b><code>text</code></b>	<b><code>notext</code></b>

## 5.8 Constant declarations

```
constant-element
= identifier "=" value-expression
| identifier "=" text-expression
```

An identifier which is declared by means of a constant element has a fixed value. Any attempt to assign to or otherwise alter the value of such an identifier constitutes an error. The evaluation of the expression takes place in the same manner as the evaluation of the bounds of an array. Thus any variables referenced in this expression contribute their values at the time of their evaluation, and any subsequent change does not affect the constant.

If the identifier is of arithmetic type then the value expression must also be of arithmetic type. Type conversion may be invoked following the rules given for arithmetic assignment (see 4.1.1). Otherwise, strict type correspondence is required between the type of the declaration and the type of the expression.

The constant element is subject to the following exception from the normal rules governing the occurrence of expressions in declarations.

Any occurrence within the expression of an identifier declared in the same block head must refer to a constant declaration, which must occur textually before the referencing constant element.

The constant element of a block head are evaluated from left to right.

## Chapter 6

### PROGRAM MODULES

```
SIMULA-source-module
= [ external-head ]
  ( program | procedure-declaration | class-declaration )
```

Program modules constitute compilable programs, procedure declarations, and class declarations.

#### Example:

```
external class b, c; ! external head of class e;
b class e(f); ref (c)f;
begin
  external class d;
  external procedure aproc;
  ref (d) dref;
  dref :- new d;
  aproc(dref);
end class e;
```

### 6.1 External declarations

```
external-head
= external-declaration ; { external-declaration ; }

external-declaration
= external-procedure-declaration | external-class-declaration
```

An external declaration is a substitute for a complete introduction of the corresponding source module referred to, including its external head. In the case where multiple but identical external declarations occur as a consequence of this rule, this declaration will be incorporated only once.

**Note:** An uncommitted occurrence of a standard identifier within a source module refers to the declaration of that identifier within the class ENVIRONMENT or BASICIO, implicitly enclosing the main program (see chapters 9 and 10), with the exception of class identifiers (see 5.5.1). If a class identifier is referenced before the body of a separately compiled procedure or class declaration, or in a program block prefix, then this identifier must be declared in the external head.

### 6.2 The main program

```
program
= statement
```

The statement of the main program is implicitly enclosed in a prefixed block as described in chapter 10.

### 6.3 External procedure declaration

```
external-procedure-declaration
= external [ kind ] [ type ] procedure external-list
  | external kind procedure external-item procedure-specification

kind
= identifier
```

```
procedure-specification
    = is procedure-declaration
```

The kind of an external procedure declaration may indicate the source language in which the separately compiled procedure is written (e.g assembly, Cobol, Fortran, PL1 etc.). The kind must be empty if this language is Simula. The interpretation of kind (if given) is implementation-dependent.

If an external procedure declaration contains a procedure specification, the procedure body of the procedure declaration must be empty. This specifies a procedure whose actual body, which embodies the algorithm required, is supplied in a separate (non-Simula) module. The procedure heading of the procedure declaration will determine the procedure identifier (function designator) to be used within the source module in which the external declaration occurs, as well as the type, order, and transmission mode of the parameters.

A non-Simula procedure cannot be used as an actual parameter corresponding to a formal procedure.

## 6.4 External class declaration

```
external-class-declaration
    = external class external-list
```

An implementation may restrict the number of block levels at which an external class declaration may occur.

**Note:** As a consequence of 5.5.1 all classes belonging to the prefix chain of a separately compiled class must be declared in the same block as this class. However, this need not be done explicitly; an external declaration of a separately compiled class implicitly declares all classes in its prefix chain (since these will be declared in the external head of the class in question).

## 6.5 Module identification

```
external-list
    = external-item { , external-item }

external-item
    = identifier [ = external-identification ]

external-identification
    = string
```

The identifier of an external item must be identical to the identifier of the corresponding separately compiled class or Simula procedure.

An external item may introduce an external identification to identify the separately compiled module with respect to the environment. The interpretation of the external identification string is implementation-dependent, as is the identification of the module in question in case no external identification is given.

# Chapter 7

## SEQUENCING

### 7.1 Block instances and states of execution

The constituent parts of a program execution are dynamic instances of blocks, i.e. subblocks, prefixed blocks, connection blocks and class bodies. A block instance is said to be "local to" the one which (directly) contains its describing text. For instance an object of a given class is local to the block instance which contains the class declaration. The instance of the outermost block (see chapter 11) is local to no block instance.

At any time, the "program sequence control", PSC, refers to that program point within a block instance which is currently being executed; the PSC is "positioned" at the program point and is "contained" by the block instance.

The entry into any block invokes the generation of an instance of that block, whereupon the PSC enters the block instance at its first executable statement. If and when the PSC reaches the final **end** of a non-class block instance (i.e. an instance of a prefixed block, a subblock, a procedure body or a connection block) the PSC returns to the program point immediately following the statement or expression which caused the generation of the block instance. For sequencing of class objects see 7.2 and 7.3.

A block instance is at any time in one of four states of execution: "attached", "detached", "resumed" or "terminated".

A non-class block instance is always in the attached state. The instance is said to be "attached to" the block instance which caused its generation. Thus, an instance of a procedure body is attached to the block instance containing the corresponding procedure statement or function designator. A non-class, non-procedure block instance is attached to the block instance to which it is local. The outermost block instance (see chapter 11) is attached to no block instance. If and when the PSC leaves a non-class block instance through its final end, or through a goto-statement, the block instance ceases to exist.

A class object is initially in the attached state and said to be attached to the block instance containing the corresponding object generator. It may enter the detached state through the execution of a "detach statement" (see 7.3.1). The object may reenter the attached state through the execution of a call statement (see 7.3.2), whereby it becomes attached to the block instance containing the call statement. A detached object may enter the resumed state through the execution of a resume statement (see 7.3.3). If and when the PSC leaves the object through its final **end** or through a goto statement, the object enters the terminated state. No block instance is attached to a terminated class object.

The execution of a program which makes no use of detach, call or resume statements is a simple nested structure of attached block instances.

Whenever a block instance ceases to exist, all block instances local or attached to it also cease to exist. The dynamic scope of an object is thus limited by that of its class declaration. The dynamic scope of an array declaration may extend beyond that of the block instance containing the declaration, since the call by reference parameter transmission mode is applicable to arrays.

### 7.2 Quasi-parallel systems

A quasi-parallel system is identified by any instance of a subblock or a prefixed block, containing a local class declaration. The block instance which identifies a system is called the "system head".

The outermost block instance (see chapter 11) identifies a system referred to as the "outermost system".

A quasi-parallel system consists of "components". In each system one of the components is referred to as the "main component" of the system. The other components are called "object components".

A component is a nested structure of block instances one of which, called the "component head", identifies the component. The head of the main component of a system coincides with the system head. The heads of the object components of a system are exactly those detached or resumed objects which are local to the system head.

At any time exactly one of the components of a system is said to be "operative". A non-operative component has an associated "reactivation point" which identifies the program point where execution will continue if and when the component is activated.

The head of an object component is in the resumed state if and only if the component is operative. Note that the head of the main component of a system is always in the attached state.

In addition to system components, a program execution may contain "independent object components" which belong to no particular system. The head of any such component is a detached object which is local to a class object or an instance of a procedure body, i.e. which is not local to a system head. By definition, independent components are always non-operative.

The sequencing of components is governed by the detach, call and resume statements, defined in 7.3. All three statements operate with respect to an explicitly or implicitly specified object. The following two sections serve as an informal outline of the effects of these statements.

### **7.2.1 Semi-symmetric sequencing: detach - call**

In this section the concept of a quasi-parallel system is irrelevant. Thus, only object components are considered, and no distinction is made between components which belong to a system and those which are independent.

An object component is created through the execution of a detach statement with respect to an attached object, whereby the PSC returns to the block instance to which the object is attached. The object enters the detached state and becomes the head of a new non-operative component whose reactivation point is positioned immediately after the detach statement.

The component may be reactivated through the execution of a call statement with respect to its detached head, whereby the PSC is moved to its reactivation point. The head reenters the attached state and becomes attached to the block instance containing the call statement. Formally, the component thereby loses its status as such.

### **7.2.2 Symmetric component sequencing: detach - resume**

In this section, only components which belong to a quasi-parallel system are considered.

Initially, i.e. upon the generation of a system head, the main component is the operative and only component of the system.

Non-operative object components of the system are created as described in the previous section, i.e. by detach statements with respect to attached objects local to the system head.

Non-operative object components of the system may be activated by call-statements, whereby they lose their component status, as described in the previous section.

A non-operative object component of the system may also be reactivated through the execution of a resume statement with respect to its detached head, whereby the PSC is moved to its reactivation point. The head of the component enters the resumed state and the component becomes operative. The previously operative component of the system becomes non-operative and its reactivation point is positioned immediately after the resume statement. If this component is an object component its head enters the detached state.

The main component of the system regains operative status through the execution of a detach statement with respect to the resumed head of the currently operative object component, whereby the PSC is moved to the reactivation point of the main component. The previously operative

component becomes non-operative, its reactivation point positioned immediately after the detach statement. The head of this component enters the detached state.

Observe the symmetric relationship between a resumer and its resumee, in contrast to that between a caller and its callee.

### 7.2.3 Dynamic enclosure and the operating chain

A block instance  $X$  is said to be "dynamically enclosed" by a block instance  $Y$  if and only if there exists a sequence of block instances

$$X = Z_0, Z_1, \dots, Z_n = Y \quad (n \geq 0)$$

such that for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ :

- $Z_{i-1}$  is attached to  $Z_i$ , or
- $Z_{i-1}$  is a resumed object whose associated system head is attached to  $Z_i$ .

Note that a terminated or detached object is dynamically enclosed by no block instance except itself.

The sequence of block instances dynamically enclosing the block instance currently containing the PSC is called the "operating chain". A block instance on the operating chain is said to be "operating". The outermost block instance is always operating.

A component is said to be operating if the component head is operating.

A system is said to be operating if one of its components is operating. At any time, at most one of the components of a system can be operating. Note that the head of an operating system may be non-operating.

An operating component is always operative. If the operative component of a system is non-operating, then the system is also non-operating. In such a system, the operative component is that component which was operating at the time when the system became non-operating, and the one which will be operating if and when the system again becomes operating.

Consider a non-operative component  $C$  whose reactivation point is contained by the block instance  $X$ . Then the following is true:

- $X$  is dynamically enclosed by the head of  $C$ .
- $X$  dynamically encloses no block instance other than itself.

The sequence of block instances dynamically enclosed by the head of  $C$  is referred to as the "reactivation chain" of  $C$ . All component heads on this chain, except the head of  $C$ , identify operative (non-operating) components. If and when  $C$  becomes operating, all block instances on its reactivation chain also become operating.

See detailed example in 7.4.

## 7.3 Quasi-parallel sequencing

A quasi-parallel system is created through the entry into a subblock or a prefixed block, which contains a local class declaration, whereby the generated instance becomes the head of the new system. Initially, the main component is the operative and only component of the system.

### 7.3.1 Detach

Consider a call of the detach attribute of a block instance  $X$ .

If  $X$  is an instance of a prefixed block the detach statement has no effect. Assume that  $X$  is a class object. The following cases arise:

- 1)  $X$  is an attached object.  
If  $X$  is not operating the detach statement constitutes an error. Assume  $X$  is operating.  
The effect of the detach statement is:

- X becomes detached and thereby (the head of) a new non-operative object component, its reactivation point positioned immediately after the detach statement. As a consequence, that part of the operating chain which is dynamically enclosed by X becomes the (non-operating) reactivation chain of X.
- The PSC returns to the block instance to which X was attached and execution continues immediately after the associated object generator or call statement (see 7.3.2).

If X is local to a system head, the new component becomes a member of the associated system. It is a consequence of the language definition that, prior to the execution of the detach statement, X was dynamically enclosed by the head of the operative component of this system. The operative component remains operative.

2) X is a detached object.

The detach statement then constitutes an error.

3) X is a resumed object.

X is then (the head of) an operative system component. Let S be the associated system. It is a consequence of the language definition that X must be operating. The effect of the detach statement is:

- X enters the detached state and becomes non-operative, its reactivation point positioned immediately after the detach statement. As a consequence, that part of the operating chain which is dynamically enclosed by X becomes the (non-operating) reactivation chain of X.
- The PSC is moved to the current reactivation point of the main component of S, whereby this main component becomes operative and operating. As a consequence, all block instances on the reactivation chain of the main component also become operating.

4) X is a terminated object.

The detach statement then constitutes an error.

### 7.3.2 Call

"call" is formally a procedure with one object reference parameter qualified by a fictitious class including all classes. Let Y denote the object referenced by a call statement.

If Y is terminated, attached or resumed, or  $Y == \text{none}$ , the call statement constitutes an error.

Assume Y is a detached object. The effect of the call statement is:

- Y becomes attached to the block instance containing the call statement, whereby Y loses its status as a component head. As a consequence the system to which Y belongs (if any) loses the associated component.
- The PSC is moved to the (former) reactivation point of Y. As a consequence, all block instances on the reactivation chain of Y become operating.

### 7.3.3 Resume

"resume" is formally a procedure with one object reference parameter qualified by a fictitious class including all classes. Let Y denote the object referenced by a resume statement.

If Y is not local to a system head, i.e. if Y is local to a class object or an instance of a procedure body, the resume statement constitutes an error.

If Y is terminated or attached, or  $Y == \text{none}$ , the resume statement constitutes an error.

If Y is a resumed object, the resume statement has no effect (it is a consequence of the language definition that Y must then be operating.)

Assume Y is a detached object being (the head of) a non-operative system component. Let S be the associated system and let X denote (the head of) the current operative component of S. It is a consequence of the language definition that X must be operating, and that X is either the main component of S or local to the head of S. The effect of the resume statement is:

- X becomes non-operative, its reactivation point positioned immediately after the resume statement. As a consequence, that part of the operating chain which is dynamically enclosed by X becomes the (non-operating) reactivation chain of X. If X is an object component its head enters the detached state.
- The PSC is moved to the reactivation point of Y, whereby Y enters the resumed state and becomes operative and operating. As a consequence, all block instances on the reactivation chain of Y also become operating.

### 7.3.4 Object end

The effect of the PSC passing through the final **end** of a class object is the same as that of a detach with respect to that object, except that the object becomes terminated, not detached. As a consequence it attains no reactivation point and loses its status as a component head (if it has such status).



### 7.3.5 Goto statements

A designational expression defines a program point within a block instance.

Let P denote the program point identified by evaluating the designational expression of a goto-statement, and let X be the block instance containing P. Consider the execution of the goto-statement:

1. Let Y denote the block instance currently containing the PSC.
2. If X equals Y the PSC is moved to P.
3. Otherwise, if Y is the outermost block instance the goto-statement constitutes an error.
4. Otherwise, the effect is that of the PSC passing through the final **end** of Y (see 7.3.4) after which the process is immediately repeated from 1).

See also 4.5.

## 7.4 Annotated example

```

1  begin comment S1;
2      ref(C1) X1;
3      class C1;
4      begin procedure P1; detach;
5          P1
6      end C1;
7      ref(C2) X2;
8      class C2;
9      begin procedure P2;
10         begin detach;
11             ! - see fig. 7.7;
12         end P2;
13         begin comment system S2;
14             ref(C3) X3;
15             class C3;
16             begin detach;
17                 P2
18             end C3;
19             X3:- new C3;
20             resume(X3)
21         end S2
22     end C2;
23     X1:- new C1;
24     X2:- new C2;
25     call(X2)
26 end S1;

```

The execution of this program is explained below. In the figures, system heads are indicated by squares and other block instances by parentheses. Vertical bars connect the component heads of a system, and left arrows indicate attachment.

Just before, and just after the execution of the detach statement in line 4, the situations are:

Fig. 7.1

```

    ---
    | S1| <-- (X1) <-- (P1) <-- PSC
    ---

```

Fig. 7.2

```

    ---
    | S1| <-- PSC
    ---
    |
    (X1) <-- (P1) <-- Reactivation point (RP) of X1

```

Before and after the detach in line 16:

Fig. 7.3

```

    ---          ---
    | S1| <-- (X2) <-- | S2| <-- (X3) <-- PSC
    ---          ---
    |
    (X1) <-- (P1) <-- RP of X1

```

Fig. 7.4

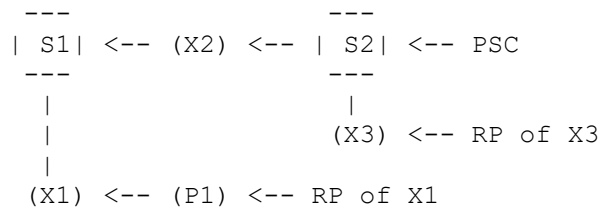
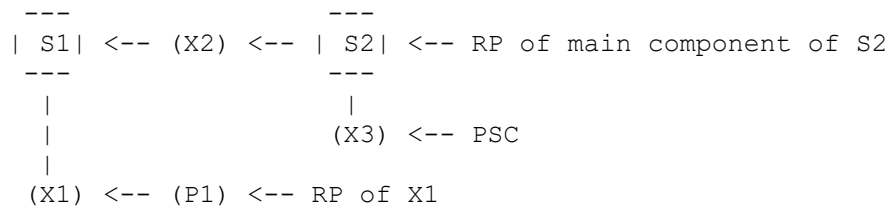


Fig. 7.4 also shows the situation before the resume in line 20. After this resume:

Fig. 7.5



Before and after the detach in line 10:

Fig. 7.6

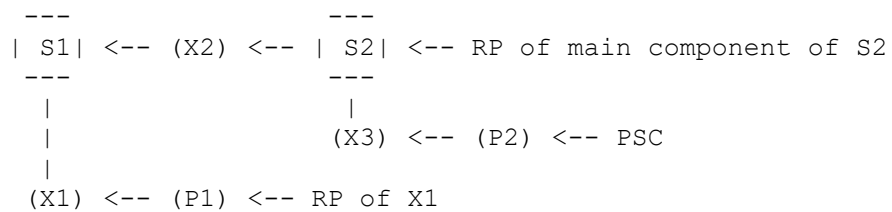
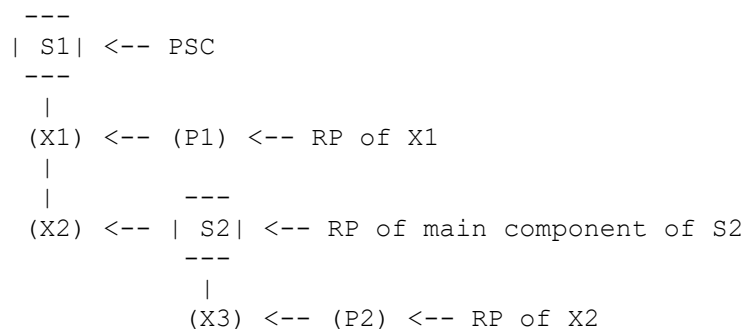
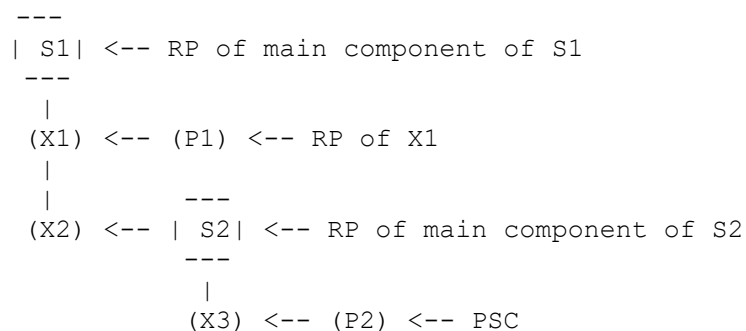


Fig. 7.7



Note that X3 is still the operative component of S2 and does not have a reactivation point of its own. Fig. 7.7 also shows the situation before the call in line 25. After this call, the situation in fig. 7.6 is reestablished. If, however, the call in line 25 is replaced by a "resume(X2)" the following situation arises:

Fig. 7.8



If now a "resume(X1)" is executed at \* in line 11, the PSC is moved to the "RP of X1" in fig. 7.8, leaving an "RP of X2" at the former PSC. If instead a "detach" is executed, fig. 7.8 leads back to fig. 7.7.

## Chapter 8

### ATTRIBUTES OF TEXT

A text object is conceptually an instance of

```
class TEXTOBJ( SIZE, CONST); integer SIZE; boolean CONST;  
begin character array MAIN( 1:SIZE ); end;
```

Any **text** value processed by the program is contained within a text frame, i.e. a non-empty segment of the MAIN attribute of some TEXTOBJ instance, or it is empty (i.e. **notext**). See 2.5.

A text variable is conceptually an instance of a composite structure

```
ref(TEXTOBJ) OBJ; integer START, LENGTH, POS;
```

It references (and has as its value the contents of) some text frame defined by the three first components. POS identifies the current character. See 3.1.2.

See also 3.3.3 and 3.3.6 (text relations), 3.7 (text expressions), 4.1.2 and 4.1.3 (text assignments).

This chapter defines all procedure attributes of any text variable. They may be accessed by remote identifiers of the form

```
simple-text-expression . procedure-identifier
```

The attributes are

```
boolean procedure constant; ..... 8.1;  
integer procedure start; ..... 8.1;  
integer procedure length; ..... 8.1;  
text procedure main; ..... 8.1;  
integer procedure pos; ..... 8.2;  
procedure setpos(i); integer i; ..... 8.2;  
boolean procedure more; ..... 8.2;  
character procedure getchar; ..... 8.2;  
procedure putchar(c); character c; ..... 8.2;  
text procedure sub(i,n); integer i,n; ..... 8.4;  
text procedure strip; ..... 8.4;  
integer procedure getint; ..... 8.6;  
long real procedure getreal; ..... 8.6;  
integer procedure getfrac; ..... 8.6;  
procedure putint(i); integer i; ..... 8.7;  
procedure putfix(i,n); integer i,n; ..... 8.7;  
procedure putreal(r,n); long real r; integer n; .... 8.7;  
procedure putfrac(i,n); integer i,n; ..... 8.7;
```

In the following "X" denotes a text variable unless otherwise specified.

## 8.1 "constant", "start", "length" and "main"

```
CONSTANT    boolean procedure constant;
             constant := OBJ == none or else OBJ.CONST;

START       integer procedure start;    start := START;

LENGTH      integer procedure length;   length := LENGTH;

MAIN        text procedure main;
             if OBJ /= none then
             begin text T;
               T.OBJ      :- OBJ;
               T.START    := 1;
               T.LENGTH   := OBJ.SIZE;
               T.POS      := 1;
               main       :- T;
             end main;
```

"X.main" is a reference to the main frame which contains the frame referenced by X.

The following relations are true for any text variable X:

```
X.main.length  >=  X.length
X.main.main    ==  X.main
```

In addition,

```
notext.main    ==  notext
"ABC".main     =   "ABC"      (but "ABC".main /= "ABC")
```

### Examples

```
boolean procedure overlapping(X,Y); text X,Y;
overlapping := X.main == Y.main and then
  (if X.start <= Y.start
   then X.start + X.length > Y.start
   else Y.start + Y.length > X.start);
```

"overlapping(X,Y)" is true if and only if X and Y reference text frames which overlap each other.

```
boolean procedure subtext(X,Y); text X,Y;
subtext := X.main == Y.main
and then X.start >= Y.start
and then X.start + X.length <= Y.start + Y.length;
```

"subtext(X,Y)" is true if and only if X references a subframe of Y, or if both reference **notext**.

## 8.2 Character access

The characters of a text are accessible one at a time. Any text variable contains a "position indicator" POS, which identifies the currently accessible character, if any, of the referenced text frame. The position indicator of a given text variable X is an integer in the range (1,X.length+1).

The position indicator of a given text variable may be altered by the procedures "setpos", "getchar", and "putchar" of the text variable. Also any of the procedures defined in 8.6 and 8.7 may alter the position indicator of the text variable of which the procedure is an attribute.

Position indicators are ignored and left unaltered by text reference relations, text value relations and text value assignments.

The following procedures are facilities available for character accessing. They are oriented towards sequential access.

**Note:** The implicit modification of POS is lost immediately if "setpos", "getchar" or "putchar" is successfully applied to a text expression which is not a variable (see 3.7).

```
POS      integer procedure pos;  pos := POS;
```

```
SETPOS   procedure setpos(i); integer i;  
POS := if i < 1 or i > LENGTH + 1 then LENGTH + 1 else i;
```

```
MORE     boolean procedure more;  more := POS <= LENGTH;
```

```
GETCHAR  character procedure getchar;  
if POS > LENGTH then error("..." ! Pos out of range;)  
else begin  
    getchar:= OBJ.MAIN(START + POS - 1);  POS:= POS + 1  
end getchar;
```

```
PUTCHAR  procedure putchar(c); character c;  
if OBJ == none or else OBJ.CONST or else POS>LENGTH  
then error("...")  
else begin  
    OBJ.MAIN(START + POS - 1) := c;  POS:= POS + 1  
end putchar;
```

### 8.3 Text generation

The following standard procedures are available for text frame generation:

```
BLANKS      text procedure blanks(n); integer n;  
if          n < 0 then error("..." ! Parm. to blanks < 0;)  
else if     n > 0  
then begin text T;  
    T.OBJ      :- new TEXTOBJ(n,false);  
    T.START    := 1;  
    T.LENGTH   := n;  
    T.POS      := 1;  
    T          := notext;      ! blank-fill, see 4.1.2;  
    blanks     :- T  
end blanks;
```

"blanks(n)", with  $n > 0$ , references a new alterable main frame of length  $n$ , containing only blank characters. "blanks(0)" references **notext**.

```
COPY        text procedure copy(T); text T;  
if T /= notext  
then begin text U;  
    U.OBJ      :- new TEXTOBJ(T.LENGTH,false);  
    U.START    := 1;  
    U.LENGTH   := T.LENGTH;  
    U.POS      := 1;  
    U          := T;  
    copy       :- U  
end copy;
```

"copy(T)", with  $T \neq \text{notext}$ , references a new alterable main frame which contains a text value identical to that of T.

Text frame generation is also performed by the text concatenation operator (see 3.7.1) and by the standard procedure "datetime" (see 9.10).

### 8.4 Subtexts

Two procedures are available for referencing subtexts (subframes).

```
SUB         text procedure sub(i,n); integer i,n;  
if i < 0 or n < 0 or i + n > LENGTH + 1  
then error("..." ! Sub out of frame;)  
else if n > 0  
then begin text T;  
    T.OBJ      :- OBJ;  
    T.START    := START + i - 1;  
    T.LENGTH   := n;  
    T.POS      := 1;  
    sub        :- T  
end;
```

If legal, "X.sub(i,n)" references that subframe of X whose first character is character number  $i$  of X, and which contains  $n$  consecutive characters. The POS attribute of the expression defines a local numbering of the characters within the subframe. If  $n = 0$ , the expression references **notext**.

If legal, the following Boolean expressions are true for any text variable X:

$$X.\text{sub}(i,n).\text{sub}(j,m) == X.\text{sub}(i+j-1,m)$$

```

n <> 0  imp  X.main == X.sub(i,n).main

X.main.sub(X.start,X.length) == X

```

```

STRIP      text procedure strip; ... ;

```

The expression "X.strip" is equivalent to "X.sub(1,n)", where n indicates the position of the last non-blank character in X. If X does not contain any non-blank character, **notext** is returned.

Let X and Y be text variables. Then after the value assignment "X:=Y", if legal, the relation "X.strip = Y.strip" has the value **true**, while "X = Y" is **true** only if X.length = Y.length.

## 8.5 Numeric text values

The names of the syntactic units in this section are in upper case to indicate that these rules concern syntax for data and not for program text.

The syntax applies to sequences of characters, i.e. to text values.

NUMERIC-ITEM	=	REAL-ITEM		GROUPED-ITEM
REAL-ITEM	=	DECIMAL-ITEM	[	EXPONENT
			SIGN-PART	EXPONENT
GROUPED-ITEM	=	SIGN-PART	GROUPS	[ DECIMAL-MARK GROUPS ]
			SIGN-PART	DECIMAL-MARK GROUPS
DECIMAL-ITEM	=	INTEGER-ITEM	[	FRACTION
			SIGN-PART	FRACTION
INTEGER-ITEM	=	SIGN-PART	DIGITS	
FRACTION	=	DECIMAL-MARK	DIGITS	
SIGN-PART	=	BLANKS	[	SIGN
			]	BLANKS
EXPONENT	=	LOWTEN-CHARACTER	INTEGER-ITEM	
GROUPS	=	DIGITS	{	BLANK DIGITS }
SIGN	=	+		-
DIGITS	=	DIGIT	{	DIGIT }
DIGIT	=	0		1
			5	6
			7	8
			9	
LOWTEN-CHARACTER	=	&		...
DECIMAL-MARK	=	.		,
BLANKS	=	{	BLANK	TAB }

BLANK and TAB are the characters space and horisontal tabulation respectively.

The default representations of LOWTEN CHARACTER and DECIMAL MARK are & and ., respectively. These values may, however, be changed by appropriate procedure calls, see 9.2.

A numeric item is a character sequence which may be derived from NUMERIC ITEM. "Editing" and "de-editing" procedures are available for the conversion between arithmetic values and text values which are numeric items, and vice versa.



The editing and de-editing procedures are oriented towards "fixed field" text manipulation.

**Note:** Both the editing and the de-editing procedures are understood to operate on text values represented in the internal character set.

## 8.6 "De-editing" procedures

A de-editing procedure of a given text variable X operates in the following way:

1. The longest numeric item, if any, of a given form, which is contained by X and which contains the first character of X is located. (Note that leading blanks and tabs are accepted as part of any numeric item.)
2. If no such numeric item is found, a run-time error occurs.
3. Otherwise, the numeric item is interpreted as a number.
4. If that number is outside a relevant implementation-defined range, a run-time error occurs.
5. Otherwise, an arithmetic value is computed, which is equal to or approximates to that number.
6. The position indicator of X is made one greater than the position of the last character of the numeric item. Note that this increment is lost immediately if X does not correspond to a variable (see 3.7).

The following de-editing procedures are available.

`GETINT      integer procedure getint; ... ;`

The procedure locates an INTEGER ITEM. The function value is equal to the corresponding integer.

`GETREAL    long real procedure getreal; ... ;`

The procedure locates a REAL ITEM. The function value is equal to or approximates to the corresponding number. An INTEGER ITEM exceeding a certain implementation-defined range may lose precision when converted to **long real**.

**Note:** No distinction is made between **real** and **long real** items.

In order to preserve precision the procedure assumes **long real** precision.

`GETFRAC    integer procedure getfrac; ... ;`

The procedure locates a GROUPED ITEM. The function value is equal to the resulting integer. The digits of a GROUPED ITEM may be interspersed with BLANKS and a single DECIMAL MARK which are ignored by the procedure.

**Note:** "getfrac" is thus able to de-edit more general patterns than those generated by "putfrac".

## 8.7 Editing procedures

Editing procedures of a given text variable *X* serve to convert arithmetic values to numeric items. After an editing operation, the numeric item obtained, if any, is right-adjusted in the text frame referenced by *X* and preceded by as many blanks as necessary to fill the text frame. The final value of the position indicator of *X* is *X*.length+1. Note that this increment is lost immediately if *X* does not correspond to a variable, (see 3.7).

A positive number is edited without a sign. A negative number is edited with a minus sign immediately preceding the most significant character. Leading non-significant zeros are suppressed, except possibly in an EXPONENT.

If *X* references a constant text frame or **notext**, an error results. Otherwise, if the text frame is too short to contain the resulting numeric item, the text frame into which the number was to be edited is filled with asterisks. If the parameters to "putfix" and "putreal" are such that some of the printed digits will be without significance, zeros are substituted for these digits (and no error condition is raised).

In "putfix" and "putreal", the numeric item designates that number of the specified form which differs by the smallest possible amount from the value of "r" or from the approximation to the value of "r".

```
PUTINT    procedure putint(i); integer i; ... ;
```

The value of the parameter is converted to an INTEGER ITEM which designates an integer equal to that value.

```
PUTFIX    procedure putfix(r,n);  r; integer n; ... ;
```

The resulting numeric item is an INTEGER ITEM if *n*=0 or a DECIMAL ITEM with a FRACTION of *n* digits if *n*>0. It designates a number equal to the value of *r* or an approximation to the value of *r*, correctly rounded to *n* decimal places. If *n*<0, a run-time error is caused.

```
PUTREAL   procedure putreal(r,n);  r; integer n; ... ;
```

The resulting numeric item is a REAL ITEM containing an EXPONENT with a fixed implementation-defined number of characters. The EXPONENT is preceded by a SIGN PART if *n*=0, or by an INTEGER ITEM with one digit if *n*=1, or if *n*>1, by a DECIMAL ITEM with an INTEGER ITEM of 1 digit only, and a fraction of *n*-1 digits. If *n*<0 a runtime error is caused.

```
PUTFRAC  procedure putfrac(i,n); integer i,n; ... ;
```

The resulting numeric item is a GROUPED ITEM with no DECIMAL MARK if  $n \leq 0$ , and with a DECIMAL MARK followed by total of  $n$  digits if  $n > 0$ . Each digit group consists of 3 digits, except possibly the first one, and possibly the last one following a DECIMAL MARK. The numeric item is an exact representation of the number  $i * 10^{**}(-n)$ .

## Examples

```
procedure compact(T); text T;
begin text U; character c;
      T.setpos(1); U:= T;
      while U.more do begin
        c:=U.getchar; if c <> ' ' then T.putchar(c)
      end;
      while T.more do T.putchar(' ')
end compact;
```

The procedure rearranges the characters of the text frame referenced by its parameter. The non-blank characters are collected in the leftmost part of the text frame and the remainder, if any, is filled with blank characters. Since the parameter is called by reference, its position indicator is not altered.

```
begin
  text tr, type, amount, price, payment;
  integer pay, total;
  tr      :- blanks(80);
  type    :- tr.sub(1,5);
  amount  :- tr.sub(20,5);
  price   :- tr.sub(30,6);
  payment :- tr.sub(40,10);
  ... ; ! ***;
  if type = "order" then begin
    pay  := amount.getint * price.getfrac;
    total := total + pay;
    payment.putfrac(pay,2)
  end
end
```

If tr at \*\*\* holds the text

```
"order                1200      155.75                ..."
```

it will after editing contain

```
"order                1200      155.75      18 690.00 ...".
```

## Chapter 9

### THE CLASS "ENVIRONMENT"

The purpose of the environmental class is to encapsulate all constants, procedures and classes which are accessible to all source modules. It contains procedures for mathematical functions, text generation, random drawing, etc.

The general structure of ENVIRONMENT is

```
class ENVIRONMENT;
begin character CURRENTLOWTEN, CURRENTDECIMALMARK;

    Basic operations ..... 9.1
        Procedures mod, rem, abs, sign, entier,
            addepsilon, subepsilon.
    Text utilities ..... 9.2
        Procedures copy, blanks, char, isochar, rank, isorank,
            digit, letter, lowten, decimalmark, upcase, lowcase.
    Scheduling ..... 9.3
        Procedures call (7.3.2), resume (7.3.3).
    Mathematical functions ..... 9.4
        Procedures sqrt, sin, cos, tan, cotan, arcsin, arccos,
            arctan, arctan2, sinh, cosh, tanh, ln, log10, exp.
    Extremum functions ..... 9.5
        Procedures max, min.
    Environmental enquiries ..... 9.6
        Procedure sourceline.
        Constants maxrank, maxint, minint, maxreal, minreal,
            maxlongreal, minlongreal, simulaid.
    Error control ..... 9.7
        Procedure error.
    Array quantities ..... 9.8
        Procedures upperbound, lowerbound.
    Random drawing ..... 9.9
        Procedures draw, randint, uniform, normal, negexp,
            Poisson, Erlang, discrete, linear, histd.
    Calendar and timing utilities ..... 9.10
        Procedures datetime, cputime, clocktime.
    Miscellaneous utilities ..... 9.11
        Procedure histo.
    Standard system classes ..... 9.12
        Classes simset (ch. 11), simulation (ch. 12).

    CURRENTDECIMALMARK := '.';
    CURRENTLOWTEN       := '&'

end ENVIRONMENT;
```

## 9.1 Basic operations

```
MOD      integer procedure mod(i,j);    integer i,j;
begin integer res;
  res := i - (i//j)*j;
  mod := if res = 0 then 0
        else if sign(res) <> sign(j) then res+j
        else res
end mod;
```

The result is the mathematical modulo value of the parameters.

```
REM      integer procedure rem(i,j);    integer i,j;
  rem := i - (i//j)*j;
```

The result is the remainder of an integer division.

```
ABS      <type of e> procedure abs(e);    <arithmetic-type> e;
  abs := if e >= 0 then e else -e;
```

The result is the absolute value of the parameter.

```
SIGN      integer procedure sign(e);    <arithmetic-type> e;
  sign := if e > 0 then 1
         else if e < 0 then -1 else 0;
```

The result is zero if the parameter is zero, one if the parameter is positive, and minus one otherwise.

```
ENTIER    integer procedure entier(r); <real-type> r;
begin integer j;
  j := r;                ! implied conversion of "r" to integer ;
  entier:= if j > r      ! implied conversion of "j" to real ;
          then j-1 else j
end entier;
```

The result is the integer "floor" of a real type item, the value always being less than or equal to the parameter. Thus, entier(1.8) returns the value 1, while entier(-1.8) returns -2.

```
ADDEPSILON <type of e> procedure addepsilon(e);    <real-type> e;
  addepsilon := e + ... ; ! see below;
```

```
SUBEPSILON <type of e> procedure subepsilon(e);    <real-type> e;
  subepsilon := e - ... ; ! see below;
```

The result type is that of the parameter. The result is the value of the parameter incremented (addepsilon) or decremented (subepsilon) by the smallest positive value, such that the result is not equal to the parameter within the precision of the implementation. Thus, for all positive values of "eps",

$$E - \text{eps} \leq \text{subepsilon}(E) < E < \text{addepsilon}(E) \leq E + \text{eps}$$

## 9.2 Text utilities

COPY                See 8.3.  
BLANKS            See 8.3.

CHAR               **character procedure** char(i);   **integer** i;  
                     char := ... ;

The result is the character obtained by converting the parameter according to the implementation-defined coding of characters. The parameter must be in the range 0..maxrank.

ISOCHAR           **character procedure** isochar(i);   **integer** i;  
                     isochar := ... ;

The result is the character obtained by converting the parameter according to the ISO 2022 standard character code. The parameter must be in the range 0..255.

RANK               **integer procedure** rank(c);   **character** c;  
                     rank := ... ;

The result is the integer obtained by converting the parameter according to the implementation-defined character code.

ISORANK           **integer procedure** isorank(c);   **character** c;  
                     isorank := ... ;

The result is the integer obtained by converting the parameter according to the ISO 2022 standard character code.

DIGIT               **Boolean procedure** digit(c);   **character** c;  
                     digit := ... ;

The result is **true** if the parameter is a decimal digit.

LETTER              **Boolean procedure** letter(c);   **character** c;  
                     letter := ... ;

The result is true if the parameter is a letter of the English alphabet ('a' ... 'z', 'A' ... 'Z').

```

LOWTEN      character procedure lowten(c);  character c;
            if ... ! c is illegal as lowten;
            then error("..." ! Lowten error ;)
            else begin
                lowten:= CURRENTLOWTEN; CURRENTLOWTEN:= c
            end lowten;

```

Changes the value of the current lowten character to that of the parameter. The previous value is returned. Illegal parameters are

digits, plus ("+"), minus ("-"), dot (("."), comma (","), control characters (i.e. ISO code<32), DEL (ISO code 127), and all characters with ISO code greater than 127.

```

DECIMALMARK character procedure decimalmark(c);  character c;
            if c <> '.' and then c <> ','
            then error("..." ! Decimalmark error ;)
            else begin
                decimalmark:= CURRENTDECIMALMARK; CURRENTDECIMALMARK:= c
            end decimalmark;

```

Changes the value of the decimal point character used by the text (de)editing procedures (cf. 8.7 and 8.8). The previous value is returned. The only legal parameter values are dot and comma.

```

UPCASE      text procedure upcase(t);  text t;
            begin t.setpos(1); upcase:= t;  ... end;

```

Convert the letters in the text parameter to their upper case representation. Only letters of the English alphabet are converted. The result is a reference to the parameter.

```

LOWCASE     text procedure lowercase(t); text t;
            begin t.setpos(1); lowercase:= t;  ... end;

```

Convert the letters in the text parameter to their lower case representation. Only letters of the English alphabet are converted. The result is a reference to the parameter.

### 9.3 Scheduling

```

CALL        See 7.3.2.
RESUME      See 7.3.3.

```

In addition the procedure "detach" (7.3.1) is an attribute of any class.

## 9.4 Mathematical functions

These procedures return **long real** results whenever a parameter is of this type. Otherwise a **real** type result is returned (cf. 3.3.1).

All procedures return real type approximations to the associated mathematical functions. Their exact definitions (concerning precision, allowed parameter values etc.) are implementation-defined. The procedures return best possible approximations to the exact mathematical results.

The trigonometric functions deal with angles expressed in radians.

```
SQRT      <real-type> procedure sqrt(r);      <real-type> r;
SIN        <real-type> procedure sin(r);      <real-type> r;
COS        <real-type> procedure cos(r);      <real-type> r;
TAN        <real-type> procedure tan(r);      <real-type> r;
COTAN      <real-type> procedure cotan(r);     <real-type> r;
ARCSIN     <real-type> procedure arcsin(r);   <real-type> r;
ARCCOS     <real-type> procedure arccos(r);   <real-type> r;
ARCTAN     <real-type> procedure arctan(r);   <real-type> r;
```

The result is in the range  $(0, \pi/2)$  for non-negative parameters and in the range  $(-\pi/2, 0)$  for negative parameters.

```
ARCTAN2   <real-type> procedure arctan2(y,x); <real-type> y,x;
```

The result is in the range  $(-\pi, \pi)$  and a negative value is returned whenever y is negative. Positive y values always result in a positive result, while a zero value returns zero if x is positive and  $\pi$  if x is negative. If both y and x are zero, a runtime error occurs.

```
SINH      <real-type> procedure sinh(r);      <real-type> r;
COSH      <real-type> procedure cosh(r);      <real-type> r;
TANH      <real-type> procedure tanh(r);      <real-type> r;
LN        <real-type> procedure ln(r);        <real-type> r;
LOG10     <real-type> procedure log10(r);     <real-type> r;
EXP       <real-type> procedure exp(r);       <real-type> r;
```

## 9.5 Extremum functions

```
MAX        <type> procedure max(i1,i2); <type> i1; <type> i2;
MIN        <type> procedure min(i1,i2); <type> i1; <type> i2;
```

The value is the greater (MAX) or lesser (MIN) of the two parameter values. Legal parameter types are **text**, **character**, real type and integer type. The type of the result conforms to the rules of 3.3.1.

## 9.6 Environmental enquiries

```
SOURCELINE integer procedure sourceline;
```



The value indicates the line on which the procedure call occurs.  
The interpretation of this number is implementation-defined.

```
MAXLONGREAL  long real maxlongreal = ... ,
MINLONGREAL                minlongreal = ... ;

MAXREAL      real maxreal = ... ,
MINREAL                minreal = ... ;

MAXRANK      integer maxrank = ... ,    !the largest legal argument to char;
MAXINT                maxint  = ... ,
MININT                minint  = ... ;
```

These constants define some of the implementation characteristics. The "max..." ("min...") constants have the largest (smallest) values possible for their type.

```
SIMULAID      text simulaid = ... ; ! See below ;
```

The value of "simulaid" is an implementation defined string of the following general format:

<simid>!!!<siteid>!!!<OS>!!!<CPU>!!!<user>!!!<job>!!!<acc>!!!<prog>

<simid>: Identification of the SIMULA system (name, version etc.)

<siteid>: Identification of the installation (e.g. organisation name)

<OS>: Operating system identification (name, version, etc.)

<CPU>: Host system identification (manufacturer, name, number, etc.)

<user>: User identification

<job>: Job identification (session number)

<acc>: Account identification

<prog>: Identification of the executing task or program

## 9.7 Error control

```
ERROR      procedure error(t);    text t;
          begin ... display text "t" and stop program...
          end error;
```

The procedure "error" stops the execution of the program as if a runtime error has occurred and presents the contents of the text parameter on the diagnostic channel (normally the controlling terminal).

## 9.8 Array quantities

```
LOWERBOUND  integer procedure lowerbound(a,i);  
             <type> array a; integer i;  
  
UPPERBOUND  integer procedure upperbound(a,i);  
             <type> array a; integer i;
```

The procedure "lowerbound" ("upperbound") returns the lower (upper) bound of the dimension of the given array corresponding to the given index. The first dimension has index one, the next two, etc. An index less than one or greater than the number of dimensions of the given array constitutes a run time error.

## 9.9 Random drawing

All random drawing procedures of SIMULA are based on the technique of obtaining "basic drawings" from the uniform distribution in the interval  $<0,1>$ .

### 9.9.1 Pseudo-random number streams

A basic drawing replaces the value of a specified **integer** variable, say U, by a new value according to an implementation-defined algorithm.

As an example, the following algorithm may be suitable for binary computers:

$$U(i+1) = \text{remainder} ((U(i) * 5^{(2p+1)}) // 2^n)$$

where  $U(i)$  is the  $i$ 'th value of U,  $n$  is an integer related to the size of a computer word and  $p$  is a positive integer. It can be proved that, if  $U(0)$  is a positive odd integer, the same is true for all  $U(i)$  and the sequence  $U(0), U(1), U(2), \dots$  is cyclic with period  $2^{n-2}$ . (The last two bits of U remain constant, while the other  $n-2$  take on all possible combinations). Thus there are two sequences - one in the range  $(1:2^{n-3})$  and the other in  $(3:2^{n-1})$ .

It is a property of this algorithm that any successor to a stream number  $U(i)$ , e.g.  $U(i+m)$ , can be computed using modular arithmetic in  $\log_2(m)$  steps.

The real numbers  $u(i) = U(i) * 2^{-n}$  are fractions in the range  $<0,1>$ . The sequence  $u(1), u(2), \dots$  is called a "stream" of pseudo- random numbers, and  $u(i)$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots$ ) is the result of the  $i$ 'th basic drawing in the stream U. A stream is completely determined by the initial value  $U(0)$  of the corresponding integer variable. Nevertheless, it is a "good approximation" to a sequence of truly random drawings.

By reversing the sign of the non-zero initial value  $U(0)$  of a stream variable, the antithetic drawings  $1-u(1), 1-u(2), \dots$  should be obtained. In certain situations it can be proved that means obtained from samples based on antithetic drawings have a smaller variance than those obtained from uncorrelated streams. This can be used to reduce the sample size required to obtain reliable estimates.

### 9.9.2 Random drawing procedures

The following procedures all perform a random drawing of some kind. "Normal", "draw", "randint", "uniform", "negexp", "discrete", "linear" and "histd" always perform the operation by means of one single basic drawing, i.e. the procedure has the side effect of advancing the specified stream by one step. The necessary type conversions are effected for the actual parameters, with the exception of the last one. The latter must always be an **integer** variable specifying a pseudo-random number stream. Note, that it must not be a procedure parameter transferred by **name**.

```
DRAW          Boolean procedure draw (a,U);  
              name U; long real a; integer U;
```

The value is **true** with the probability a, **false** with the probability 1 - a. It is always **true** if  $a \geq 1$  and always **false** if  $a \leq 0$ .

```
RANDINT       integer procedure randint (a,b,U);  
              name U; integer a,b,U;
```

The value is one of the integers a, a+1, ..., b-1, b with equal probability. If  $b < a$ , the call constitutes an error.

```
UNIFORM       long real procedure uniform (a,b,U);  
              name U; long real a,b; integer U;
```

The value is uniformly distributed in the interval  $a \leq u < b$ . If  $b < a$ , the call constitutes an error.

```
NORMAL        long real procedure normal (a,b,U);  
              name U; long real a,b; integer U;
```

The value is normally distributed with mean a and standard deviation b. An approximation formula may be used for the normal distribution function.

```
NEGEXP        long real procedure negexp (a,U);  
              name U; long real a; integer U;
```

The value is a drawing from the negative exponential distribution with mean  $1/a$ , defined by  $-\ln(u)/a$ , where u is a basic drawing. This is the same as a random "waiting time" in a Poisson distributed arrival pattern with expected number of arrivals per time unit equal to a. If a is non-positive, a runtime error occurs.

POISSON        **integer procedure** Poisson (a,U);  
                  **name** U; **long real** a; **integer** U;

The value is a drawing from the Poisson distribution with parameter a. It is obtained by n+1 basic drawings, u(i), where n is the function value. n is defined as the smallest non-negative integer for which

$$u(0) * u(1) * \dots * u(n) < e^{**}(-a)$$

The validity of the formula follows from the equivalent condition  
 $-\ln(u(0)) - \ln(u(1)) - \dots - \ln(u(n)) > 1$   
 where the left hand side is seen to be a sum of "waiting times" drawn from the corresponding negative exponential distribution.

When the parameter a is greater than some implementation-defined value, for instance 20.0, the value may be approximated by `entier(normal(a,sqrt(a),U) + 0.5)` or, when this is negative, by zero.

ERLANG        **long real procedure** Erlang (a,b,U);  
                  **name** U; **long real** a,b; **integer** U;

The value is a drawing from the Erlang distribution with mean 1/a and standard deviation 1/(a\*sqrt(b)). It is defined by b basic drawings u(i), if b is an integer value,

$$- ( \ln(u(1)) + \ln(u(2)) + \dots + \ln(u(b)) ) / (a*b)$$

and by c+1 basic drawings u(i) otherwise, where c is equal to `entier(b)`,

$$- ( \ln(u(1)) + \dots + \ln(u(c)) + (b-c)*\ln(u(c+1)) ) / (a*b)$$

Both a and b must be greater than zero.

The last formula represents an approximation.

DISCRETE      **integer procedure** discrete (A,U);  
                  **name** U; **<real-type>** **array** A; **integer** U;

The one-dimensional array A, augmented by the element 1 to the right, is interpreted as a step function of the subscript, defining a discrete (cumulative) distribution function.

The function value satisfies

$$\text{lowerbound}(A,1) \leq \text{discrete}(A,U) \leq \text{upperbound}(A,1)+1.$$

It is defined as the smallest i such that  $A(i) > u$ , where u is a basic drawing and  $A(\text{upperbound}(A,1)+1) = 1$ .

```

LINEAR      long real procedure linear (A,B,U);
               name U; <real-type> array A,B; integer U;

```

The value is a drawing from a (cumulative) distribution function  $F$ , which is obtained by linear interpolation in a non-equidistant table defined by  $A$  and  $B$ , such that  $A(i) = F(B(i))$ .

It is assumed that  $A$  and  $B$  are one-dimensional arrays of the same length, that the first and last elements of  $A$  are equal to 0 and 1 respectively and that  $A(i) \geq A(j)$  and  $B(i) > B(j)$  for  $i > j$ . If any of these conditions are not satisfied, the effect is implementation-defined.

The steps in the function evaluation are:

1. draw a uniform  $<0,1>$  random number,  $u$ .
2. determine the lowest value of  $i$ , for which

$$A(i-1) \leq u \leq A(i)$$

3. compute  $D = A(i) - A(i-1)$
4. if  $D = 0$ :  $\text{linear} = B(i-1)$   
     if  $D \neq 0$ :  $\text{linear} = B(i-1) + (B(i) - B(i-1)) * (u - A(i-1)) / D$

```

HISTD      integer procedure histd (A,U);
               name U; <real-type> array A; integer U;

```

The value is an integer in the range  $(\text{lsb}, \text{usb})$ , where  $\text{lsb}$  and  $\text{usb}$  are the lower and upper subscript bounds of the one-dimensional array  $A$ . The latter is interpreted as a histogram defining the relative frequencies of the values.

## 9.10 Calendar and timing utilities

**DATETIME:**      **text procedure** datetime;      datetime :- Copy("...");

The value is a text frame containing the current date and time in the form YYYY-MM-DD HH:MM:SS.sss.... The number of decimals in the field for seconds is implementation-defined.

**CPUTIME:**      **long real procedure** cputime;

The value is the number of processor seconds spent by the calling program.

**CLOCKTIME:**    **long real procedure** clocktime;

The value is the number of seconds since midnight.

## 9.11 Miscellaneous utilities

**HISTO:**            **procedure** histo(A,B,c,d);  
                     **real array** A,B; **real** c,d;

Procedure statement "histo(A,B,c,d)" updates a histogram defined by the one-dimensional arrays A and B according to the observation c with the weight d. A(lba+i) is increased by d, where i is the smallest integer such that  $c \leq B(lbb+i)$  and lba and lbb are the lower bounds of A and B respectively. If the length of A is not one greater than that of B the effect is implementation-defined. The last element of A corresponds to those observations which are greater than all elements of B.

## 9.12 Standard system classes

The standard system classes are "simset", "simulation" and the I/O classes. They are available at any block level of a program (cfr. 5.5.1).

Class "simset" contains facilities for list (set) manipulation, see chapter 11.

Simset **class** "simulation" contains facilities for discrete event simulation, see chapter 12.

The I/O classes ("file" and its subclasses) are defined in **class** BASICIO, see chapter 10.

# Chapter 10

## INPUT-OUTPUT

The semantics of SIMULA I/O facilities rely on the intuitive notion of "files" ("data sets"), i.e. collections of data external to the the program, organized for sequential or random access. In the language, sequential access files are called "sequential files" and random access files "direct files". When it is necessary to distinguish between the file concept of the language and the underlying files of the environment the latter are called external files.

Actually a file may in practice be any kind of external device with communication capabilities, such as a terminal, a sensory device, etc.

Examples of sequential files are:

- a series of printed lines
- input from a keyboard
- data on a tape.

An example of a direct file is a collection of data items on a disk, with each item identified by a unique integer.

The standard I/O facilities are contained by a **class** called "BASICIO". They are available to the program through block prefixing as described below.

**Note:** The use of upper case letters indicates that this identifier is inaccessible to the user program (cf 1.10).

The user's main program acts as if it were embedded as follows:

```
BASICIO (inlength, outlength) Note ! prefixed block;  
    inspect SYSIN do  
    inspect SYSOUT do  
        begin <external-head> <program>    end  
end prefixed block
```

In any program execution the unique instance of this prefixed block constitutes the system head of the outermost quasi-parallel system (see 7.2).

The values of inlength and outlength are implementation-defined; they normally depend upon the actual device(s) associated with SYSIN and SYSOUT (the standard input and output files).

SYSIN and SYSOUT may represent the input and output features of an interactive terminal, in which case inlength and outlength are probably equal. In other cases, for example batch runs, SYSIN may represent record-oriented input and SYSOUT may represent line printer oriented output. Typical values of inlength and outlength would then be 80 and 132, resp.

A program may refer to the corresponding file objects through sysin and sysout respectively. Most attributes of these file objects are directly available as the result of the connection blocks enclosing the program.

**Note:** Within this chapter the term "file object" refers to an instance of one of the classes "in(byte)file", "out(byte)file" and "direct(byte)file" or of a subclass of one of these.

The overall organization of "BASICIO" is as follows:

```
ENVIRONMENT class BASICIO (INPUT_LINELENGTH, OUTPUT_LINELENGTH);
            integer INPUT_LINELENGTH, OUTPUT_LINELENGTH;
begin ref (infile) SYSIN; ref (printfile) SYSOUT;
      ref (infile) procedure sysin; sysin := SYSIN;
      ref (printfile) procedure sysout; sysout := SYSOUT;

      procedure terminate_program;
      begin ... ; goto STOP end terminate_program;

      class file ..... 10.1 ;
      file class imagefile ..... 10.3 ;
      file class bytefile ..... 10.8 ;
imagefile class infile ..... 10.4 ;
imagefile class outfile ..... 10.5 ;
imagefile class directfile ..... 10.6 ;
      outfile class printfile ..... 10.7 ;
      bytefile class inbytefile ..... 10.9 ;
      bytefile class outbytefile ..... 10.10 ;
      bytefile class directbytefile ..... 10.11 ;

      SYSIN := new infile("..."); ! Implementation-defined
      SYSOUT := new printfile("..."); ! files names;
      SYSIN.open(blanks(INPUT_LINELENGTH));
      SYSOUT.open(blanks(OUTPUT_LINELENGTH));
      inner;
STOP: SYSIN.close;
      SYSOUT.close
end BASICIO;
```

**Note:** The files SYSIN and SYSOUT are opened and (if not done explicitly prior to program termination) closed within "BASICIO", i.e. outside the program itself.

The class file and its predefined subclasses are available at any block level of a program (but see (2) of 5.5.1). An implementation may restrict, in any way, the use of these classes for class or block prefixing. An implementation may provide additional subclasses of **class** file.

Within a program, an object of a subclass of file may represent an external file. The effect of several such file objects representing the same external file is implementation-defined.

The procedure "terminate\_program" terminates program execution. It closes SYSIN and SYSOUT. It is implementation-dependent with respect to whether or not other open files are also closed.

## 10.1 The class file

```
class file(FILENAME); value FILENAME; text FILENAME;
begin Boolean OPEN;
      text procedure filename; filename := copy(FILENAME);
      Boolean procedure isopen; isopen := OPEN;
      Boolean procedure setaccess(mode); text mode; ... 10.1.1;

      if FILENAME = notext then error("...");
end file;
```

"File" is the common prefix class for all input/output classes.

A file is either open or inaccessible as indicated by the variable "OPEN". The procedure "isopen" returns the current value of "OPEN". A file is initially inaccessible (e.g. closed).

Each file object has a text attribute FILENAME. This text value must at "open" identify an external file which, through an implementation-defined mechanism, becomes associated with the file object. If the parameter value is **notext**, a run-time error occurs.

The procedure "filename" retrieves the value of FILENAME.



### 10.1.1 External file access control

Certain attributes (not specified in the file outline) control the access to the external file. The values of these attributes are set when the file object is opened or closed, from a set of default values possibly modified by successive calls to the procedure "setaccess".

The standard attribute modes are SHARED, APPEND, CREATE, READWRITE, BYTESIZE, REWIND and PURGE.

**SHARED:** If the value is "shared", the external file may be shared by other programs. The value "noshared" implies that the file must be exclusively assigned to this program.

**APPEND:** If the value is "append", output to the file is added to the existing contents of the file. The value "noappend" implies for a sequential file that, after "close", the external file will contain only the output produced while the file was open. The mode is not relevant for in(byte)files. For direct files "append" prohibits output before "lastloc". For out(byte)files, the value "append" implies that SHARED has the value "noshared".

**CREATE:** If the value is "create", the external file associated with FILENAME must not exist at "open" (if it does, "open" returns **false**); a new file is created by the environment. If the value is "ncreate", the associated file must exist at "open". The value "anycreate" implies that if the file does exist at "open" the file is opened, otherwise a new file is created.

**READWRITE:** If the value is "readonly", output operations cannot be performed. If the value is "writeonly", input operations cannot be performed. The value "readwrite" enables both input and output. This mode is relevant only for direct files.

**BYTESIZE:** The value of this mode is a positive integer specifying the size of bytes, measured in bits. This mode is relevant only for bytefiles. An implementation may restrict the possible values in any way. If not set explicitly the value is implementation-defined.

**REWIND:** The value "rewind" indicates that some resetting of the external file occurs at "close" (e.g. rewind of a magnetic tape). The value "norewind" implies no such reset.

**PURGE:** The value "purge" implies that the external file may be deleted by the environment when it is closed (in the sense that it becomes inaccessible to further program access). The value "nopurge" implies no such deletion.

Additional values and modes may be defined by an implementation.

The parameter "mode" to procedure "setaccess" contains one of the standard values as given above, namely "shared", "noshared", "append", "noappend", "create", "ncreate", "anycreate", "readonly", "writeonly", "readwrite", "bytesize:X" (where X is a positive integer), "rewind", "norewind", "purge" and "nopurge". It is recommended that implementation-defined parameter values have the percent character % as the first character of the text.

The parameter "bytesize:0" (zero) specifies the (implementation-defined) default byte size for bytefiles.

Only one mode may be specified in each "setaccess" call, the case of the individual letters of the parameter being insignificant. Unrecognized modes are ignored and "setaccess" then returns the value **false**. The value is **true** otherwise. A specific mode is interpreted either at next "open" or next "close". A mode which is set after "open" or "close" has no effect until the next "close" or "open" respectively.

The default values of the access modes are given in table 10.1, where "NA" means "not applicable" (i.e. ignored for this file kind) and "\*" means that the value is implementation-defined.

Mode:	Files of kind			Takes effect at
	In-	Out-	Direct-	
SHARED	shared	noshared	noshared	open
APPEND	NA	noappend	noappend	open
CREATE	NA	anycreate	nocreate	open
READWRITE	NA	NA	readwrite	open
BYTESIZE:x	*	*	*	open
REWIND	norewind	norewind	NA	open, close
PURGE	nopurge	nopurge	nopurge	close

Table 10.1. Default values of file access modes.

### 10.1.2 Open and close

Most subclasses of "file" defined in BASICIO contain these procedures.

Procedure "open" establishes the association with an external file (as identified by FILENAME), checks the access modes and causes corresponding opening actions on the external file. If the external file is closed, it is opened.

Procedure "close" causes closing actions on the external file, as specified by the access modes. In addition, the association between the file object and the external file is dissolved. If possible, the external file is closed.

The details of these procedures are subclass- and implementation-defined. All versions conform, however, to the following patterns.

```
OPEN      Boolean procedure open ... ;
          if not OPEN
            and ... ! FILENAME association is established;
            and ... ! access modes compatible with external file;
            and ... ! external file is opened;
          then begin
            ... ; ! implementation-defined and access mode
                  specified actions on external file, followed by
                  subclass dependent actions;
            open := OPEN := true;
          end open;

CLOSE     Boolean procedure close;
          if OPEN then begin
            ... ; ! implementation-defined and access
                  mode specified actions on external file;
            ... ; ! subclass dependent actions;
            OPEN := false;
            close := true;
          end close;
```

These patterns will not be repeated in detail for each subclass; a short comment will serve to remind the reader of these general actions of the procedures.

## 10.2 Structure of file subclasses

There are two predefined subclasses of **class** file:

"imagefile" - image (record) oriented files  
 "bytefile" - character (stream) oriented files

These subclasses each have three subclasses defining the direction of data transfer and the file organisation: input-oriented sequential files (i.e. in(byte)files), output-oriented sequential files (i.e. out(byte)files) and bidirectional direct files (i.e. direct(byte)files).

	imagefile subclass	bytefile subclass
sequential input	infile	inbytefile
sequential output	outfile	outbytefile
direct file	directfile	directbytefile

Table 10.2. Subclasses of class "file".

In addition, a standard subclass for line printer oriented output, outfile **class** printfile, is defined.

### 10.2.1 Procedure "checkpoint"

All files producing output (sequential output or direct files) contain a Boolean procedure "checkpoint". The procedure causes the environment to attempt to secure the output produced so far. Depending on the nature of the associated external device, this causes completion of output transfer (i.e. intermediate buffer contents are transferred). If this is not possible or meaningful, "checkpoint" is a dummy operation in which case the value **false** is returned.

### 10.2.2 Direct file locking

Direct files contain the following variable and procedures for control of simultaneous access to the external file (cf. access mode SHARED).

```

Boolean LOCKED;

LOCKED Boolean procedure locked;  locked:= LOCKED;

LOCK integer procedure lock(timelimit,loc1,loc2);
      real timelimit; integer loc1,loc2;
begin
  lock := -1;
  if timelimit>0.0 then begin
    if LOCKED then unlock;
    ... ! try to lock indicated part of file, see below;
    if !success; then begin LOCKED := true; lock := 0 end
  end
end lock;

UNLOCK Boolean procedure unlock;
begin
  unlock := checkpoint;
  if LOCKED then begin !release file; LOCKED := false end
end unlock;

```

The variable "LOCKED" indicates whether the file is currently locked by the executing program. The procedure "locked" returns the current value.

Procedure "lock" enables the program to get exclusive access to all or part of the file. The effect of a "lock" call while the file is locked ("LOCKED" is **true**) is that the previous lock is immediately released (prior to the new locking attempt).

The parameter "timelimit" is the (clock) time in seconds that is the maximum waiting time for the resource. If "timelimit" is less than or equal to zero, the procedure returns immediately without performing any actions upon the file.

The parameters "loc1" and "loc2" identify the part of the file to be locked, by giving the ordinal numbers of two external images (bytes). The program is given exclusive access to a part of the file which includes the requested region. If the two parameters are both zero, this implies locking the whole file. Otherwise, the size of the part of the file that is actually locked, is implementation-dependent; it may even include the entire file.

A return value of zero indicates a successful "lock" operation. The value -1 indicates that "timelimit" was exceeded (or was zero or negative). A negative value less than -1 indicates "lock" failure and its interpretation is implementation-defined.

The Boolean procedure "unlock" eliminates the effect of any preceding "lock" call. The Boolean procedure "checkpoint" is called initially. The returned value is that returned by the "checkpoint" call.

### 10.3 Imagefiles

The (file) **class** "imagefile" defines the common attributes for all image- oriented files.

```
file class imagefile;
  begin text image;
    procedure setpos(i); integer i; image.setpos(i);
    integer procedure pos;      pos := image.pos;
    Boolean procedure more;    more := image.more;
    integer procedure length;  length := image.length;
  end imagefile;
```

The individual logical unit of an external file associated with an imagefile is called an "external image". Each external image is an an ordered sequence of characters.

The variable "image" is used to reference a text frame which acts as a buffer, in the sense that it contains the external image currently being processed.

The procedures "setpos", "pos", "more" and "length" are introduced for reasons of convenience.

The three standard subclasses of imagefile are "infile" (sequential input file), "outfile" (sequential output file) and "directfile" (bidirectional direct file). In addition, "printfile", a standard subclass of **class** outfile, is available. It represents a line printer oriented file.

## 10.4 The class "infile"

```
imagefile class infile;
  begin Boolean ENDFILE;
    Boolean procedure endfile;  endfile:= ENDFILE;
    Boolean procedure open(fileimage); text fileimage; ... 10.4.1;
    Boolean procedure close; ..... 10.4.1;
    procedure inimage; ..... 10.4.2;
    Boolean procedure inrecord; ..... 10.4.2;
    character procedure inchar; ..... 10.4.3;
    Boolean procedure lastitem; ..... 10.4.4;
    text procedure intext(w); integer w; ..... 10.4.5;
    integer procedure inint; ..... 10.4.6;
    long real procedure inreal; ..... 10.4.6;
    integer procedure infrac; ..... 10.4.6;

    ENDFILE:= true
    ...
  end infile;
```

An object of the **class** "infile" is used to represent an image-oriented sequential input file.

The variable ENDFILE is **true** whenever the file object is closed or the external file is exhausted (i.e. "end of file" has been encountered). The procedure "endfile" gives access to the value of ENDFILE.

### 10.4.1 Open and close

```
OPEN      Boolean procedure open(fileimage); text fileimage;
  if ... then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
    ENDFILE := false;
    image   :- fileimage;
    image   := notext;
    setpos(length+1);
    open    := OPEN := true;
  end open;
```

If successful, "open" returns **true** and sets ENDFILE **false**. In addition, "image" references the parameter "fileimage" which is space-filled.

```
CLOSE      Boolean procedure close;
  if OPEN then
    begin ... ; ! perform closing actions, see 10.1.2;
      image :- notext;
      OPEN  := false;
      close := ENDFILE := true
    end close;
```

If successful, "close" returns **true**. In addition, OPEN is **false**, ENDFILE is **true** and "image" references **notext**.

### 10.4.2 Inimage and inrecord

```
INIMAGE  procedure inimage;
         if not OPEN or ENDFILE then error("...")
         else begin
             ... ; ! attempt to transfer external image to "image";
             if ... ! "image" too short; then error("...")
             else if ... ! there was no more to read;
                 then begin
                     ENDFILE := true;
                     image   :- "!25!" end
                 else ... ; ! pad "image" with space(s);
                     setpos(1)
                 end inimage;
```

The procedure "inimage" performs the transfer of an external file image into "image". A run-time error occurs if "image" is **notext** or too short to contain the external image. If it is longer than the external image, the latter is left-adjusted within "image" and the remainder of the text is filled with spaces. The position indicator is set to one.

```
INRECORD Boolean procedure inrecord;
         if not OPEN or ENDFILE then error("...")
         else begin
             ... ; ! transfer external image to "image" (no space-filling);
             if ... ! no more to read;
                 then begin
                     ENDFILE      := true;
                     setpos(1);
                     image.putchar('!25!') end Note - POS = 2 now
                 else begin
                     setpos(... !number of characters transferred + 1; );
                     inrecord:= not ...! whole external image received?;
                 end if
             end inrecord;
```

The procedure "inrecord" is similar to "inimage" with the following exceptions. Whenever the number of characters accessible in the external image is less than "length", the rest of "image" is left unchanged. The part of the "image" that was changed is from pos 1 upto (but not including) the resulting value of POS. Moreover, if the external image is too long, only the "length" first characters are input. The value returned by the procedure is **true** and the remaining characters may be input through subsequent "inrecord" (or possibly "inimage") statements. Otherwise, if the input of the external image was completed, the value **false** is returned.

**Note:** If an "end of file" is encountered, EM ('!25!') is generated as a single character external image, and the variable ENDFILE is given the value **true**. A call on "inimage" or "inrecord" when ENDFILE already has the value **true** constitutes a run-time error.

### 10.4.3 Inchar

```
INCHAR  character procedure inchar;
begin
    if not more then inimage;
    inchar:= image.getchar
end inchar;
```

The procedure "inchar" gives access to and scans past the next character. **Note:** The result may be the "EOF-character" EM (ISOrank 25).

### 10.4.4 Lastitem

```
LASTITEM Boolean procedure lastitem;
begin character c;
```

```

c := ' ';
while not ENDFILE and then (c=' ' or else c='!9!')
do c := inchar;
lastitem := ENDFILE;
if c <> ' ' then setpos(pos-1)
end lastitem;

```

The purpose of the procedure "lastitem" is to skip past all SP and HT characters (ISO rank 32 and 9 respectively). The process of scanning may involve the transfer of several successive external images. If the file contains no further non-space, non-tab characters the value **true** is returned.

#### 10.4.5 Intext

```

INTEXT    text procedure intext(w); integer w;
begin text t;
  intext :- t :- blanks(w);
  while t.more do t.putchar(inchar)
end intext;

```

The expression "intext(w)" where "w" is a positive integer is a reference to a new alterable main frame of length w containing a copy of the next w characters of the file. POS is set to the following character. The expression "intext(0)" references **notext**. In contrast to the item-oriented procedures (see below), "intext" operates on a continuous stream of characters, reading several images if necessary.

**Note:** The result may be a reference to an "EOF-image" (cf. 10.4.2).

#### 10.4.6 Item-oriented input

```

ININT      integer procedure inint;
if lastitem then error("..." ! Inint: End of file ;)
else begin text t;
  t      :- image.sub(pos,length-pos+1);
  inint  := t.getint;
  setpos(pos+t.pos-1)
end inint;

INREAL     long real procedure inreal;
if lastitem then error("..." ! Inreal: End of file; )
else begin text t;
  t      :- image.sub(pos,length-pos+1);
  inreal := t.getreal;
  setpos(pos+t.pos-1)
end inreal;

INFRAC     integer procedure infrac;
if lastitem then error("..." ! Infrac: End of file; )
else begin text t;
  t      :- image.sub(pos,length-pos+1);
  infrac := t.getfrac;
  setpos(pos+t.pos-1)
end infrac;

```

The procedures "inint", "inreal" and "infrac" are defined in terms of the corresponding de-editing procedures of "image". These three procedures, starting at the current "pos", skip spaces and tab's, and then scan past and convert a numeric item.



## 10.5 The class "outfile"

```
file class outfile;
begin
  Boolean procedure open(fileimage); text fileimage; ... 10.5.1;
  Boolean procedure close; ..... 10.5.1;
  procedure outimage; ..... 10.5.2;
  procedure outrecord; ..... 10.5.3;
  procedure breakoutimage; ..... 10.5.4;
  Boolean procedure checkpoint; ..... 10.2.1;
  procedure outchar(c); character c; ..... 10.5.6;
  procedure outtext(t); text t; ..... 10.5.7;
  text procedure FIELD(w); integer w; ..... 10.5.8;
  procedure outint(i,w); integer i,w; ..... 10.5.8;
  procedure outfix(r,n,w); long real r; integer n,w; ... 10.5.8;
  procedure outreal(r,n,w); long real r; integer n,w; ... 10.5.8;
  procedure outfrac(i,n,w); integer i,n,w; ..... 10.5.8;

  ... ;
end outfile;
```

An object of the class "outfile" is used to represent an image-oriented sequential output file.

**Note:** See 10.7 for a special property of procedures "open", "close", "outimage" and "outrecord".

### 10.5.1 Open and close

```
OPEN      Boolean procedure open(fileimage); text fileimage;
          if ... then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
            image := fileimage;
            setpos(1);
            open  := OPEN := true;
          end open;

CLOSE     Boolean procedure close;
          if OPEN then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
            if pos <> 1 then outimage;
            image := notext;
            ... ; ! perform closing actions on external file;
            OPEN  := false;
            close := true;
          end close;
```

The procedure "close" calls "outimage" if the position indicator is not equal to 1.

### 10.5.2 Outimage

```
OUTIMAGE procedure outimage;
if not OPEN then error("..." ! file closed; )
else begin
    ... ; ! transfer "image" to external image;
    image := notext;
    setpos(1)
end outimage;
```

The transfer of an image from the text "image" to the file is performed by the procedure "outimage". The procedure reacts in an implementation-defined way if the "image" length is not appropriate for the external file. (Depending on file type and host system, the external file does not necessarily record trailing blanks from the "image".) After the transfer, "image" is cleared to blanks and the position indicator is set to 1.

### 10.5.3 Outrecord

```
OUTRECORD procedure outrecord;
if not OPEN then error("..." ! file closed; )
else begin
    ... ; ! transfer image.sub(1,pos-1);
           ! Note: no blanking of "image";
    setpos(1)
end outrecord;
```

The procedure "outrecord" transfers to the file only that part of "image" which precedes POS. The contents are not blanked after the transfer, although POS is set to one.

### 10.5.4 Breakoutimage

```
BREAKOUTIMAGE
procedure breakoutimage;
if not OPEN then error("..." ! file closed; )
else begin
    ... ; ! output image.sub(1,pos-1);
    image := notext;
    setpos(1)
end breakoutimage;
```

The procedure "breakoutimage" outputs the part of "image" that precedes POS. The output is performed as a partial output of an external image, in the sense that implicit line terminators are suppressed. On some external files this operation is not possible. It then has an effect identical to "outrecord".

After transfer the "image" is blanked and POS is set to one.

One use of "breakoutimage" is to allow input from a terminal display on the same line as one on which output (e.g. a prompt) has already been written.

### 10.5.5 Checkpoint

The procedure "checkpoint" is described in 10.2.1.

### 10.5.6 Outchar

```
OUTCHAR  procedure outchar(c); character c;  
        begin  
            if not more then outimage;  
            image.putchar(c)  
        end outchar;
```

The procedure "outchar" stores a character in the POS position of "image". If "more" is **false**, "outimage" is called first.

### 10.5.7 Outtext

```
OUTTEXT  procedure outtext(t); text t;  
        begin  
            if pos>1 and then t.length>length-pos+1 then outimage;  
            t.setpos(1);  
            while t.more do outchar(t.getchar);  
        end outtext;
```

Procedure "outtext" always transfers the complete contents of the text parameter to the file.

### 10.5.8 Item-oriented output

```
text procedure FIELD(w); integer w;  
if w>length then error("..." ! Item too long; )  
else begin  
  if pos+w-1 > length then outimage;  
  FIELD := image.sub(pos,w);  
  setpos(pos+w)  
end FIELD;
```

```
OUTINT    procedure outint(i,w); integer i,w;  
          if      w = 0 then FIELD(...).putint(i)    ! see below;  
          else if w < 0  
          then begin text f;  
            f := FIELD(-w);  
            f := notext;  
            f.sub(1,...).putint(i) end  
          else FIELD(w).putint(i);
```

```
OUTFIX    procedure outfix(r,n,w); long real r; integer n,w;  
          ... ; ! as body of outint, with "putfix" substituted for "putint";
```

```
OUTREAL   procedure outreal(r,n,w); long real r; integer n,w;  
          ... ; ! as body of outint, with "putreal" substituted for "putint";
```

```
OUTFRAC   procedure outfrac(i,n,w); integer i,n,w;  
          ... ; ! as body of outint, with "putfrac" substituted for "putint";
```

The procedures "outint", "outfix", "outreal" and "outfrac" are defined in terms of the corresponding editing procedures of "image". They provide facilities for "item-oriented" output. Each item is edited into a "field" (subtext of "image") normally starting at the current accessible character. POS is advanced correspondingly. If the remainder of "image" is too short to contain the item, "outimage" is called implicitly prior to the editing operation. The field is space-filled before the editing operation.

A run-time error occurs if a field cannot be contained within the full length of "image".

Parameter "w" determines both the length of this field and the adjustment of the item within it, as follows.

w > 0    The field length is w, the item is right-adjusted.

w < 0    The field length is abs(w), the item is left-adjusted.

w = 0    The field length is the exact number of characters needed to contain the item (i.e. no leading or trailing spaces).

## 10.6 The class "directfile"

```
imagefile class directfile;
  begin    integer LOC, MAXLOC;    Boolean ENDFILE, LOCKED;
    integer procedure location;    location:= LOC;
    Boolean procedure endfile;    endfile := ENDFILE;
    Boolean procedure locked;    locked := LOCKED;
    Boolean procedure open(fileimage); text fileimage; ..... 10.6.1;
    Boolean procedure close; ..... 10.6.1;
    integer procedure lastloc; ..... 10.6.2;
    integer procedure maxloc; ..... 10.6.2;
    procedure locate(i); integer i; ..... 10.6.2;
    procedure inimage; ..... 10.6.3;
    procedure outimage; ..... 10.6.4;
    Boolean procedure deleteimage; ..... 10.6.5;
    character procedure inchar; ..... 10.6.6;
    integer procedure lock(t,i,j); real t; integer i,j; ..... 10.6.7;
    Boolean procedure unlock; ..... 10.6.7;
    Boolean procedure checkpoint; ..... 10.2.1;
    Boolean procedure lastitem; ..... 10.4.4;
    text procedure intext; ..... 10.4.5;
    integer procedure inint; ..... 10.4.6;
    long real procedure inreal; ..... 10.4.6;
    integer procedure infrac; ..... 10.4.6;
    procedure outchar(c); character c; ..... 10.5.6;
    procedure outtext(t); text t; ..... 10.5.7;
    text procedure FIELD(w); integer w; ..... 10.5.8;
    procedure outint(i,w); integer i,w; ..... 10.5.8;
    procedure outfix(r,n,w); long real r; integer n,w; ..... 10.5.8;
    procedure outreal(r,n,w); long real r; integer n,w; ..... 10.5.8;
    procedure outfrac(i,n,w); integer i,n,w; ..... 10.5.8;

    ENDFILE:= true
    ...
  end directfile;
```

An object of the class "directfile" is used to represent an image-oriented direct file in which the individual images are addressable by ordinal numbers.

The variable LOC contains the current ordinal number. When the file is closed, the value of LOC is set to zero. The procedure "location" gives access to the current value of LOC.

The variable ENDFILE is **true** when the file is closed or when an image with location greater than "lastloc" has been input (through "inimage"). It is set after each "inimage" statement. The procedure "endfile" returns the current value.

The variable MAXLOC indicates the highest permitted value of LOC. On some systems this value corresponds to the size of a preallocated file while, on other systems which allow the file to be dynamically extended, this variable is assigned the value "maxint"-1.

### 10.6.1 Open and close

```
OPEN      Boolean procedure open(fileimage); text fileimage;
if ... then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
    MAXLOC := ... ; ! See below;
    image  :- fileimage;
    setpos(1);
    locate(1);
    open   := OPEN := true;
end open;

CLOSE     Boolean procedure close;
if OPEN then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
    image :- notext;
    if LOCKED then unlock;
    LOC   := MAXLOC := 0;
    ... ;
    OPEN  := false;
    close := ENDFILE := true;
end close;
```

The procedure "open" locates the first image of the file. The length of "image" must, at all "inimage" and "outimage" statements, be identical to the length of "image" at the "open" call. The value assigned to MAXLOC at "open" is either a maximum length determined from the external file, or it is "maxint"-1 if no such length exists.

### 10.6.2 Locate, lastloc, and maxloc

```
LOCATE    procedure locate(i); integer i;
if i<1 or i>MAXLOC then error("..." ! Parameter out of range; )
else begin
    LOC:= i;
    ... ;
end locate;

LASTLOC   integer procedure lastloc;
if not OPEN then error("..." ! file closed; )
else lastloc := ... ;

MAXLOC    integer procedure maxloc;
if not OPEN then error("..." ! file closed; )
else maxloc := MAXLOC;
```

Procedure "locate" may be used to assign a given value to the variable LOC. This assignment may be accompanied by implementation-defined checks and (possibly asynchronous) instructions to an external memory device associated with the file; no transfer to/from "image" is, however, performed. A parameter to "locate" less than one or greater than MAXLOC constitutes a run-time error.

The procedure "lastloc" indicates the largest location of any written image. For a new file the value returned is zero.

### 10.6.3 Inimage

```
INIMAGE  procedure inimage;
if not OPEN then error("..." !file closed; )
else begin
    setpos(1);
    ENDFILE:= LOC > lastloc;
    if ENDFILE then image:= "!25!" else
    if ... ! external written image at LOC exists ; then
        ... ! transfer to "image";...
    else begin
        while more do image.putchar('!0!')
            ! Note: now pos = length+1;
    end not written;
    locate(LOC+1)    ! Location for *next* image;
end inimage;
```

The procedure "inimage" transfers into the text "image" a copy of the external image as currently identified by the variable LOC. If the file does not contain an image with an ordinal number equal to the value of LOC, the effect of the procedure "inimage" is as follows. If the location indicated is greater than "lastloc", then ENDFILE is set to **true** and the end of file text ("!25!") is assigned to "image". Otherwise, if the image is a non-written image but there exists at least one written image whose LOC is greater than current LOC, then the "image" is filled with NUL (!0!) characters and the position indicator is set to "length"+1 (i.e. "more" becomes **false**). Finally the value of LOC is incremented by one through a "locate" call.

### 10.6.4 Outimage

```
OUTIMAGE procedure outimage;
if      not OPEN      then error("..." !file closed; )
else if LOC > MAXLOC then error("..." ! file overflow; );
else begin
    ... ; ! output "image" to external image at LOC;
    locate(LOC+1);
    image := notext;
    setpos(1)
end outimage;
```

The procedure "outimage" transfers a copy of the text value "image" to the external image, thereby storing in the file an external image whose ordinal number is equal to the current value of LOC. If the file contains another image with the same ordinal number, that image is overwritten. The value of LOC is then incremented by one through a "locate" call.

### 10.6.5 Deleteimage

```
DELETEIMAGE
Boolean procedure deleteimage;
if OPEN and then ... ! image LOC was written;
then begin
    ... ; ! attempt to delete image;
    if ... ! delete operation successful;
    then begin
        deleteimage := true;
        locate(LOC+1);
    end successful
end deleteimage;
```

The Boolean procedure "deleteimage" makes the image identified by the current value of LOC effectively un-written. Irrespective of any physical differences on the external medium between never-written images and deleted ones, there is no difference from the program's point of view. Note that this means that "deleteimage" may decrement the value returned by "lastloc" (in case LOC was equal to "lastloc").

**Note:** Outputting a NUL-filled image at location "lastloc" in the file does not necessarily decrement the "lastloc" value; explicit writing (outimage) of such images should be avoided.

### 10.6.6 Inchar

```
INCHAR    character procedure inchar;  
          begin  
            while not more do inimage;  
              inchar:= image.getchar  
            end inchar;
```

**Note:** Inchar skips all unwritten images.

### 10.6.7 Lock and Unlock

The procedures "lock" and "unlock" (see 10.2.2) provide locking mechanisms. The last two parameters of "lock" indicate the minimum range of locations to be locked (inclusive).

### 10.6.8 Item-oriented input/output

The remaining procedures ("lastitem" to "intext" and "outchar" to "outtext") are defined in accordance with the corresponding procedures of "infile" and "outfile" respectively, i.e. their definitional algorithms are exact copies of those given in these two classes.

## 10.7 The class "printfile"

The class "printfile" defines a class for line printer oriented output.

```
outfile class printfile;  
  begin    integer    LINE, LINES_PER_PAGE, SPACING, PAGE;  
    integer procedure line;  line := LINE;  
    integer procedure page;  page := PAGE;  
    Boolean procedure open(fileimage); text fileimage; ..... 10.7.1;  
    Boolean procedure close; ..... 10.7.1;  
    procedure linesperpage(n); integer n; ..... 10.7.2;  
    procedure spacing(n); integer n; ..... 10.7.3;  
    procedure eject(n); integer n; ..... 10.7.4;  
    procedure outimage; ..... 10.7.5;  
    procedure outrecord; ..... 10.7.5;  
  
    SPACING      := 1;  
    LINES_PER_PAGE := ... ;  
    ...  
  end printfile;
```

An object of the class "printfile" is used to represent a line printer oriented output file. The class is a subclass of "outfile". A file image normally represents a line on a printed page.

It is a property of this class that "outfile" attributes, which are redeclared at "printfile" level, are not accessible to the user's program through explicit qualification (**qua**). Thus these "outfile" procedures ("open", "close", "outimage", "outrecord") may be envisaged as including the following initial code:

```
  procedure X...;  
  inspect this outfile  
    when printfile do X...  
    otherwise ...;
```

**Note:** Consequently, possible implicit calls of outimage from outchar, close and the item-oriented output procedures are understood to invoke "printfile.outimage".

The variable LINE indicates the ordinal number of the next line to be printed (on the current page), provided that no implicit or explicit "eject" statement occurs. Its value is accessible through the procedure "line". Note that the value of LINE may be greater than LINES\_PER\_PAGE (see 10.7.5).



The variable PAGE indicates the ordinal number of the current page. Its value may be retrieved by means of procedure "page".

### 10.7.1 Open and close

```
OPEN      Boolean procedure open(fileimage); text fileimage;
if ... then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
    image := fileimage;
    PAGE  := 0;
    LINE  := 1;
    setpos(1);
    eject(1);
    open  := OPEN := true;
end open;

CLOSE     Boolean procedure close;
if OPEN then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
    if pos <> 1 then outimage;
    eject(LINES_PER_PAGE);
    LINE    := 0;
    SPACING := 1;
    LINES_PER_PAGE := ... ;
    image   := notext;
    ... ;
    OPEN    := false;
    close   := true;
end close;
```

The procedures "open" and "close" conform to the rules of 10.2. In addition, "close" outputs the current value of "image" if POS is not equal to 1 and set LINE to zero.

### 10.7.2 Lines per page

```
LINESPERPAGE
integer procedure linesperpage(n); integer n;
begin
    linesperpage := LINES_PER_PAGE;
    LINES_PER_PAGE := if n > 0 then n
                     else if n < 0 then maxint
                     else ... ; ! default value;
```

The variable LINES\_PER\_PAGE indicates the maximum number of physical lines that may be printed on each page, including intervening blank lines. An implementation-defined value is assigned to the variable at the time of object generation, and when the printfile is closed. The value of the variable may be retrieved by a call on "linesperpage"; in addition the variable is given a new value as follows.

If the parameter to "linesperpage" is zero, LINES\_PER\_PAGE is reset to the original value (assigned at object generation). A parameter value less than zero may be used to indicate an "infinite" value of LINES\_PER\_PAGE, thus avoiding any automatic calls on "eject".

### 10.7.3 Spacing

```
SPACING   procedure spacing(n); integer n;
if 0<=n and n<=LINES_PER_PAGE then SPACING := n
else error("..." ! Parameter out of range; );
```

The variable SPACING represents the value by which the variable LINE is incremented after the next printing operation. Its value may be changed by the procedure "spacing". A call on the procedure "spacing" with a parameter less than zero or greater than LINES\_PER\_PAGE constitutes an error. The effect of a parameter to "spacing" which is equal to zero may be defined as forcing successive printing operations on the same physical line. Note, however, that on some physical

media this may not be possible, in which case spacing(0) has the same effect as spacing(1) (i.e. no overprinting).

### 10.7.4 Eject

```
EJECT  procedure eject(n); integer n;  
if      not OPEN then  error("..." ! file closed;)  
else if  n <= 0    then error("..." ! Parameter out of range;)  
else begin  
    if n > LINES_PER_PAGE then n := 1;  
    if n <= LINE then  
    begin  
        ... ; ! change to new page on external file;  
        PAGE := PAGE + 1  
    end;  
    ... ; ! move to line "n" on current (external) page;  
    LINE := n  
end eject;
```

The procedure "eject" is used to position to a certain line identified by the parameter, n. The variable "PAGE" is incremented by one each time an explicit or implicit "eject" implies a new page.

The following cases can be distinguished:

n <= 0	: ERROR
n > LINES_PER_PAGE	: Equivalent to eject (1)
n <= LINE	: Position to line number n on the next page
n > LINE	: Position to line number n on the current page

The tests above are performed in the given sequence.

### 10.7.5 Outimage and outrecord

```
OUTIMAGE procedure outimage;  
if not OPEN then error("..." ! file closed; )  
else begin  
    if LINE > LINES_PER_PAGE then eject(1);  
    ... ; ! output the image on the line indicated by LINE;  
    LINE := LINE + SPACING;  
    image := notext;  
    setpos(1)  
end outimage;  
  
OUTRECORD procedure outrecord;  
if not OPEN then error("..." ! file closed; )  
else begin  
    if LINE > LINES_PER_PAGE then eject(1);  
    ... ; ! output image.sub(1,pos-1) on the line indicated by LINE;  
    LINE := LINE + SPACING;  
    setpos(1)  
end outrecord;
```

The procedures "outimage" and "outrecord" operate according to the rules of 10.2.3. In addition, they update the variable LINE (and possibly PAGE).

**Note:** In addition, the procedure "breakoutimage" is inherited from the class prefix "outfile". This procedure does not update LINE or PAGE.

## 10.8 Bytefiles

The class bytefile is the common prefix class for all byte-oriented files.

```
file class bytefile;  
    begin short integer BYTESIZE;  
        short integer procedure bytesize; bytesize := BYTESIZE;
```

```
end bytefile;
```

Bytefiles read and write files as continuous streams of bytes. The variable BYTESIZE defines the range of the byte values transferred. Byte values are integers in the range (0:2\*\*BYTESIZE-1). The BYTESIZE value of the file object is accessible through procedure "bytesize".

**Note:** "Bytesize" returns zero before first "open" of the bytefile.

There are three standard subclasses of "bytefile":

"inbytefile" representing a sequential file for which input operations are available.

"outbytefile" representing a sequential file for which output operations are available.

"directbytefile" representing a direct file with facilities for both input and output.

## 10.9 The class "inbytefile"

```
bytefile class inbytefile;
begin Boolean ENDFILE;
Boolean procedure endfile; endfile:= ENDFILE;
Boolean procedure open; ..... 10.9.1;
Boolean procedure close; ..... 10.9.1;
short integer procedure inbyte; ..... 10.9.2;
text procedure intext(t); text t; ..... 10.9.3;

ENDFILE:= true;
...
end inbytefile;
```

An object of the class "inbytefile" is used to represent a byte-oriented sequential input file.

Variable "ENDFILE" is **true** if there are no more bytes to read. The procedure "endfile" returns the value of ENDFILE.

### 10.9.1 Open and close

```
OPEN      Boolean procedure open;
          if ... then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
              ENDFILE := false;
              BYTESIZE := ... ! value of access mode BYTESIZE;
              open := OPEN := true;
          end open;

CLOSE     Boolean procedure close;
          if OPEN then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
              ... ;
              OPEN := false;
              close := ENDFILE := true;
          end close;
```

### 10.9.2 Inbyte

```
INBYTE    short integer procedure inbyte;
          if ENDFILE then error("..." ! End of file ;)
          else if ... ! no more bytes to read;
          then ENDFILE := true ! inbyte returns zero;
          else inbyte := ...! next byte of size BYTESIZE;
```

The procedure "inbyte" returns the **short integer** value corresponding to the input byte. If there are no more bytes to read, a zero result is returned. If prior to an "inbyte" call ENDFILE is **true**, a run-time error occurs.

### 10.9.3 Intext

```
INTEXT      text procedure intext(t);    text t;  
begin  
    t.setpos(1);  
    while t.more and not ENDFILE do t.putchar(char(inbyte));  
    if ENDFILE then t.setpos(t.pos-1);  
    intext:- t.sub(1,t.pos-1)  
end intext;
```

The procedure "intext" fills the frame of the parameter "t" with successive input bytes.

## 10.10 The class "outbytefile"

```
bytefile class outbytefile;
begin
  Boolean procedure open; ..... 10.10.1;
  Boolean procedure close; ..... 10.10.1;
  procedure outbyte(x); short integer x; ..... 10.10.2;
  procedure outtext(t); text t; ..... 10.10.3;
  Boolean procedure checkpoint; ..... 10.2.1;

end outbytefile;
```

An object of the class "outbytefile" is used to represent a sequential output file of bytes.

### 10.10.1 Open and close

```
OPEN      Boolean procedure open;
          if ... then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
            BYTESIZE := ... ! value of access mode BYTESIZE;
            open      := OPEN:= true;
          end open;

CLOSE     Boolean procedure close;
          if OPEN then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
            OPEN      := false;
            close := true;
          end close;
```

### 10.10.2 Outbyte

```
OUTBYTE   procedure outbyte(x);    short integer x;
          if not OPEN then error("..." ! file closed; )
          else if x < 0 or else x >= 2*BYTESIZE
          then error("..." ! Outbyte, illegal byte value ;)
          else ... ; ! output of x;
```

The procedure "outbyte" outputs a byte corresponding to the parameter value. If the parameter value is less than zero or exceeds the maximum permitted value, as defined by BYTESIZE, a run-time error occurs. If the file is not open, a run-time error occurs.

### 10.10.3 Outtext

```
OUTTEXT   procedure outtext(t);    text t;
          begin
            t.setpos(1);
            while t.more do outbyte(rank(t.getchar))
          end outtext;
```

The procedure "outtext" outputs all characters in the parameter "t" as bytes.

## 10.11 The class "directbytefile"

The class "directbytefile" defines a byte-oriented direct file.

```
bytefile class directbytefile;
  begin integer LOC, MAXLOC;   Boolean LOCKED;
  Boolean procedure endfile; endfile:=OPEN and then LOC>lastloc;
  integer procedure location; location := LOC;
  integer procedure maxloc; maxloc := MAXLOC;
  Boolean procedure locked; locked := LOCKED;
  Boolean procedure open; ..... 10.11.1;
  Boolean procedure close; ..... 10.11.1;
  integer procedure lastloc; ..... 10.11.2;
  procedure locate(i);   integer i; ..... 10.11.2;
  short integer procedure inbyte; ..... 10.11.3;
  procedure outbyte(x); short integer x; ..... 10.11.3;
  Boolean procedure checkpoint; ..... 10.2.1;
  integer procedure lock(t,i,j); real t; integer i,j; ... 10.11.4;
  Boolean procedure unlock; ..... 10.11.4;
  procedure intext(t);   text t; ..... 10.9.3;
  procedure outtext(t); text t; ..... 10.10.3;
  ...
end directbytefile;
```

An object of the class "directbytefile" is used to represent an external file in which the individual bytes are addressable by ordinal numbers. The variable LOC is defined to represent such ordinal numbers. When the file is closed, the value of LOC is zero.

The variable MAXLOC indicates the maximum possible location on the external file. If this is not meaningful MAXLOC has the value of "maxint"-1. The procedure "maxloc" gives access to the current MAXLOC value.

The procedure "endfile" returns **true** whenever LOC indicates an address greater than "lastloc".

The procedures "intext" and "outtext" conform to the pattern for "inbytefile" and "outbytefile", respectively.

### 10.11.1 Open and close

```
OPEN      Boolean procedure open;
  if ... then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
    LOC      := 1;
    MAXLOC   := ...; ! fixed size, or maxint-1;
    BYTESIZE := ... ! value of access mode BYTESIZE;
    open     := OPEN := true;
  end open;

CLOSE     Boolean procedure close;
  if OPEN then begin ... ! see 10.1.2;
    MAXLOC := 0;
    OPEN   := false;
    close  := true;
  end close;
```

### 10.11.2 Locate and lastloc

```
LOCATE      procedure locate(p);   integer p;
            if p < 1 or p > MAXLOC
            then error("..." ! Parameter out of range; )
            else LOC := p;

LASTLOC     integer procedure lastloc;
            if not OPEN then error("..." ! file closed; )
            else lastloc := ...;
```

The current last written location is returned by the procedure "lastloc". The procedure "location" returns the current value of LOC. The procedure "locate" may be used to assign a given value to the variable. A parameter value to "locate" which is less than one or greater than MAXLOC constitutes a run-time error.

### 10.11.3 Inbyte and outbyte

```
INBYTE      short integer procedure inbyte;
            if not OPEN then error("..." !file closed; )
            else if LOC <= lastloc
            then begin
                inbyte := ... ! next byte of size BYTESIZE;...;
                LOC    := LOC+1
            end inbyte;

OUTBYTE      procedure outbyte(x);   short integer x;
            if not OPEN then error("..." !file closed; )
            else if x < 0 or else x >= 2**BYTESIZE
            then error("..." ! Outbyte, illegal byte value );
            else if LOC > MAXLOC then error("..." !file overflow; )
            else begin
                ... ! output of x;
                LOC := LOC + 1
            end outbyte;
```

The procedure "inbyte" reads one byte, returning its integer value. The result of "inbyte" from an unwritten LOC is zero (cf. 10.3.2).

The procedure "outbyte" outputs a byte according to the given parameter value (cf. 10.3.3).

### 10.11.4 Lock and Unlock

The procedures "lock" and "unlock" (see 10.2.2) provide locking mechanisms. The last two parameters of "lock" indicate the minimum range of (byte) locations to be locked (inclusive).

# Chapter 11

## CLASS SIMSET

The class "simset" contains facilities for the manipulation of circular two-way lists, called "sets".

```
class simset;
begin
    class linkage; .....11.1 ;
    linkage class link; .....11.2 ;
    linkage class head; .....11.3 ;
end simset;
```

The reference variables and procedures necessary for set handling are introduced in standard classes declared within the class "simset". Using these classes as prefixes, their relevant data and other properties are made parts of the object themselves.

Both sets and objects which may acquire set membership have references to a successor and a predecessor. Consequently they are made subclasses of the "linkage" class.

The sets are represented by objects belonging to a subclass "head" of "linkage". Objects which may be set members belong to subclasses of "link" which is itself another subclass of "linkage".

### 11.1 Class "linkage"

```
class linkage;
begin ref (linkage) SUC, PRED;
    ref (link) procedure suc;
        suc:- if SUC in link then SUC else none;
    ref (link) procedure pred;
        pred:- if PRED in link then PRED else none;
    ref (linkage) procedure prev;    prev:- PRED;
end linkage;
```

The class "linkage" is the common denominator for set heads and set members.

SUC is a reference to the successor of this linkage object in the set, PRED is a reference to the predecessor.

The value of SUC and PRED may be obtained through the procedures "suc" and "pred". These procedures give the value **none** if the designated object is not a set member, i.e. of class "link" or a subclass of "link".

The attributes SUC and PRED may only be modified through the use of procedures defined within "link" and "head". This protects the user against certain kinds of programming errors.

The procedure "prev" enables a user to access a set head from its first member.



## 11.2 Class "link"

```
linkage class link;
begin
  procedure out;
  if SUC $\neq$ none then begin
    SUC.PRED :- PRED;
    PRED.SUC :- SUC;
    SUC      :- PRED :- none
  end out;

  procedure follow(ptr); ref (linkage) ptr;
  begin out;
    if ptr $\neq$ none and then ptr.SUC $\neq$ none then begin
      PRED      :- ptr;
      SUC       :- ptr.SUC;
      SUC.PRED :- ptr.SUC :- this linkage end
    end follow;

  procedure precede(ptr); ref (linkage) ptr;
  begin out;
    if ptr $\neq$ none and then ptr.SUC $\neq$ none then begin
      SUC      :- ptr;
      PRED     :- ptr.PRED;
      PRED.SUC :- ptr.PRED :- this linkage end if
    end precede;

  procedure into(S); ref (head) S; precede(S);

end link;
```

Objects belonging to subclasses of the class "link" may acquire set membership. An object may only be a member of one set at a given instant.

In addition to the procedures "suc" and "pred", there are four procedures associated with each "link" object: "out", "follow", "precede" and "into".

The procedure "out" removes the object from the set (if any) of which it is a member. The procedure call has no effect if the object has no set membership.

The procedures "follow" and "precede" remove the object from the set (if any) of which it is a member and insert it in a set at a given position. The set and the position are indicated by a parameter which is inner to "linkage". The procedure call has the same effect as "out" (except for possible side effects from evaluation of the parameter) if the parameter is **none** or if it has no set membership and is not a set head. Otherwise the object is inserted immediately after ("follow") or before ("precede") the "linkage" object designated by the parameter.

The procedure "into" removes the object from the set (if any) of which it is a member and inserts it as the last member of the set designated by the parameter. The procedure call has the same effect as "out" if the parameter has the value **none** (except for possible side effects from evaluating the actual parameter).

### 11.3 Class "head"

```
linkage class head;
begin
  ref (link) procedure first; first :- suc;
  ref (link) procedure last; last :- pred;
  Boolean procedure empty; empty := SUC == this linkage;

  integer procedure cardinal;
  begin integer i;
    ref (link) ptr;
    ptr :- first;
    while ptr /= none do begin
      i := i+1;
      ptr :- ptr.suc
    end while;
    cardinal := i
  end cardinal;

  procedure clear; while first /= none do first.out;

  SUC :- PRED :- this linkage
end head;
```

An object of the class "head", or a subclass of "head" is used to represent a set. "head" objects may not acquire set membership. Thus, a unique "head" is defined for each set.

The procedure "first" may be used to obtain a reference to the first member of the set, while the procedure "last" may be used to obtain a reference to the last member.

The **Boolean** procedure "empty" gives the value **true** only if the set has no members.

The **integer** procedure "cardinal" counts the number of members in a set.

The procedure "clear" removes all members from the set.

The references SUC and PRED initially point to the "head" itself, which thereby represents an empty set.

## Chapter 12

### CLASS SIMULATION

The system class "simulation" may be considered an "application package" oriented towards simulation problems. It has the class "simset" as prefix, and set-handling facilities are thus immediately available.

The concepts defined in "simulation" are explained with respect to a prefixed block, whose prefix part is an instance of the body of "simulation" or of a subclass. The prefixed block instance acts as the head of a quasi-parallel system which may represent a "discrete event" simulation model.

```
simset class simulation;
  begin ref (head) SQS;
  link class EVENT_NOTICE (EVTIME, PROC);
      long real EVTIME; ref (process) PROC;
  begin
    ref (EVENT_NOTICE) procedure suc;
    suc:- if SUC is EVENT_NOTICE then SUC else none;

    ref (EVENT_NOTICE) procedure pred;    pred:- PRED;

    procedure RANK_IN_SQS (afore); Boolean afore;
    begin ref (EVENT_NOTICE) evt;
      evt:- SQS.last;
      while evt.EVTIME > EVTIME do    evt :- evt.pred;
      if afore then
        while evt.EVTIME = EVTIME do evt :- evt.pred;
      follow(evt)
    end RANK_IN_SQS;
  end EVENT_NOTICE;

  ref (MAIN_PROGRAM) main;

  ref (EVENT_NOTICE) procedure FIRSTEV;  FIRSTEV :- SQS.first;
  ref (process) procedure current; current :- FIRSTEV.PROC;
  long real procedure time; time := FIRSTEV.EVTIME;

link class process; ..... 12.1;
procedure ACTIVAT ..... 12.3;
procedure hold ..... 12.4;
procedure passivate ..... 12.4;
procedure wait ..... 12.4;
procedure cancel ..... 12.4;
process class MAIN_PROGRAM ..... 12.5;
procedure accum ..... 12.6;

SQS      :- new head;
main     :- new MAIN_PROGRAM;
main.EVENT :- new EVENT_NOTICE(0,main);
main.EVENT.into(SQS)
end simulation;
```

When used as a prefix to a block or a class, "simulation" introduces simulation-oriented features through the class "process" and associated procedures.

The variable SQS refers to a set which is called the "sequencing set", and serves to represent the system time axis. The members of the sequencing set are event notices ranked according to increasing value of the attribute "EVTIME". An event notice refers through its attribute PROC to a "process" object and represents an event which is the next active phase of that object, scheduled to

take place at system time EVTIME. There may be at most one event notice referencing any given process object.

The event notice at the lower end of the sequencing set refers to the currently active process object. The object can be referenced through the procedure "current". The value of EVTIME for this event notice is identified as the current value of system time. It may be accessed through the procedure "time".

**Note:** Since the statements and procedures introduced by "simulation" make implicit use of the sequencing procedures (detach, call and resume) explicit sequencing by these procedures should be done with care.

## 12.1 Class "process"

```
link class process;
begin ref (EVENT_NOTICE) EVENT;
  Boolean TERMINATED;
  Boolean procedure idle;           idle := EVENT==none;
  Boolean procedure terminated;    terminated := TERMINATED;

  long real procedure evtime;
    if idle then error("..." ! No Evtime for idle process)
    else evtime := EVENT.EVTIME;

  ref (process) procedure nextev;
    nextev :- if idle or else EVENT.suc == none then none
              else EVENT.suc.PROC;

  detach;
  inner;
  TERMINATED:= true;
  passivate;
  error("..." ! Terminated process;)
end process;
```

An object of a class prefixed by "process" is called a process object. A process object has the properties of "link" and, in addition, the capability to be represented in the sequencing set and to be manipulated by certain sequencing statements which may modify its "process state". The possible process states are: active, suspended, passive and terminated.

When a process object is generated it immediately becomes detached and its reactivation point positioned in front of the first statement of its user- defined operation rule. The process object remains detached throughout its dynamic scope.

The procedure "idle" has the value **true** if the process object is not currently represented in the sequencing set. It is said to be in the passive or terminated state depending on the value of the procedure "terminated". An idle process object is passive if its reactivation point is at a user-defined prefix level. If and when the PSC passes through the final **end** of the user-defined part of the body, it proceeds to the final operations at the prefix level of the class "process", and the value of the procedure "terminated" becomes **true**. (Although the process state "terminated" is not strictly equivalent to the corresponding basic concept defined in chapter 7, an implementation may treat a terminated process object as terminated in the strict sense). A process object currently represented in the sequencing set is said to be "suspended", unless it is represented by the event notice at the lower end of the sequencing set. In the latter case it is active. A suspended process is scheduled to become active at the system time indicated by the attribute EVTIME of its event notice. This time value may be accessed through the procedure "evtime". The procedure "nextev" references the process object, if any, represented by the next event notice in the sequencing set.

## 12.2 Activation statement

```
activation-statement
  = activation-clause [ scheduling-clause ]
```

```

activation-clause
    = activator object-expression

activator
    = activate
    | reactivate

scheduling-clause
    = timing-clause
    | ( before | after ) object-expression

timing-clause
    = simple-timing-clause [ prior ]

simple-timing-clause
    = ( at | delay ) arithmetic-expression

```

An activation statement is only valid within an object of a class included in "simulation", or within a prefixed block whose prefix part is such an object.

The effect of an activation statement is defined as being that of a call on the sequencing procedure ACTIVAT local to "simulation", see 12.3.

The actual parameter list is determined from the form of the activation statement, by the following rules:

1. The actual parameter corresponding to REAC is **true** if the activator is **reactivate**, **false** otherwise.
2. The actual parameter corresponding to X is the object expression of the activation clause.
3. The actual parameter corresponding to T is the arithmetic expression of the simple timing clause if present, otherwise it is zero.
4. The actual parameter corresponding to PRIO is **true** if **prior** is in the timing clause, **false** if it is not used or there is no timing clause.
5. The actual parameter corresponding to Y is the object expression of the scheduling clause if present, otherwise it is **none**.
6. The actual parameter corresponding to CODE is defined from the scheduling clause as follows:

scheduling clause	actual text parameter
- absent -	"direct"
<b>at</b> arithmetic expression	<b>at</b>
<b>delay</b> arithmetic expression	<b>delay</b>
<b>before</b> object expression	<b>before</b>
<b>after</b> object expression	<b>after</b>

### 12.3 Procedure ACTIVAT

```

procedure ACTIVAT(REAC, X, CODE, T, Y, PRIO);
    value CODE; ref (process) X, Y; Boolean REAC, PRIO;
    text CODE; long real T;
inspect X do if not TERMINATED then
begin ref (process) z; ref (EVENT_NOTICE) EV;
    if REAC then EV:- EVENT
    else if EVENT /= none then goto exit;
    z:- current;
    if CODE = "direct" then
direct:    begin EVENT:- new EVENT_NOTICE(time,X);
            EVENT.precede(FIRSTEV)
            end direct

```

```

else if CODE = delay then
    begin T:= T + time;
          goto at_
end delay
else if CODE = at then
at_:    begin if T < time then T:= time;
          if T = time and PRIO then goto direct;
          EVENT:- new EVENT_NOTICE(T, X);
          EVENT.RANK_IN_SQS(PRIO)
end at

else if Y == none or else Y.EVENT == none
then EVENT :- none
else begin
    if X == Y then goto exit;
    comment reactivate X before/after X;
    EVENT:- new EVENT_NOTICE(Y.EVENT.EVTIME, X);
    if CODE = before then EVENT.precede(Y.EVENT)
    else EVENT.follow(Y.EVENT)
end before or after;
if EV /= none
then begin EV.out; if SQS.empty then error("...") end;
if z /= current then resume(current);
exit:
end ACTIVAT;

```

The procedure ACTIVAT represents an activation statement, as described in 12.2. The effects of a call on the procedure are described in terms of the corresponding activation statement. The purpose of an activation statement is to schedule an active phase of a process object.

Let X be the value of the object expression of the activation clause. If the activator is **activate** the statement has no effect (beyond that of evaluating its constituent expressions) unless the X is a passive process object. If the activator is **reactivate** and X is a suspended or active process object, the corresponding event notice is deleted (after the subsequent scheduling operation) and, in the latter case, the current active phase is terminated. The statement otherwise operates as an **activate** statement.

The scheduling takes place by generating an event notice for X and inserting it into the sequencing set. The type of scheduling is determined by the scheduling clause.

An empty scheduling clause indicates direct activation, whereby an active phase of X is initiated immediately. The event notice is inserted in front of the one currently at the lower end of the sequencing set and X becomes active. The system time remains unchanged. The formerly active process object becomes suspended.

A timing clause may be used to specify the system time of the scheduled active phase. The clause "**delay** T", where T is an arithmetic expression, is equivalent to "**at** time + T". The event notice is inserted into the sequencing set using the specified system time as the ranking criterion. It is normally inserted after any event notice with the same system time. The symbol "**prior**" may, however, be used to specify insertion in front of any event notice with the same system time.

Let Y be a reference to an active or suspended process object. Then the clause "**before** Y" or "**after** Y" may be used to insert the event notice in a position defined relation to (before or after) the event notice of Y. The generated event notice is given the same system time as that of Y. If Y is not an active or suspended process object, no scheduling takes place.

### Example

The statements

```

activate X
activate X before current
activate X delay 0 prior
activate X at time prior

```

are equivalent. They all specify direct activation.

The statement

```
reactivate current delay T
```

is equivalent to "hold(T)".

## 12.4 Sequencing procedures

```
HOLD      procedure hold(T); long real T;
          inspect FIRSTEV do begin
            if T > 0 then EVTIME:= EVTIME + T;
            if suc /= none and then suc.EVTIME <= EVTIME
            then begin out; RANK_IN_SQS(false);
                      resume(current)
            end if
          end hold;

PASSIVATE procedure passivate;
begin
  inspect current do begin EVENT.out; EVENT :- none end;
  if SQS.empty then error("...") else resume(current)
end passivate;

WAIT      procedure wait(S); ref (head) S;
          begin current.into(S); passivate end wait;

CANCEL    procedure cancel(X); ref (process) X;
          if X == current then passivate
          else inspect X do
            if EVENT /= none
            then begin EVENT.out; EVENT :- none
          end cancel;
```

The sequencing procedures serve to organize the quasi-parallel operation of process objects in a simulation model. Explicit use of the basic sequencing facilities (call, detach, resume) should be made only after thorough consideration of its effects.

The statement "hold(T)", where T is a long real number greater than or equal to zero, halts the active phase of the currently active process object, and schedules its next active phase at the system time "time + T". The statement thus represents an inactive period of duration T. During the inactive period the reactivation point is positioned within the "hold" statement. The process object becomes suspended.

The statement "passivate" stops the active phase of the currently active process object and deletes its event notice. The process object becomes passive. Its next active phase must be scheduled from outside the process object. The statement thus represents an inactive period of indefinite duration. The reactivation point of the process object is positioned within the "passivate" statement.

The procedure "wait" includes the currently active process object in a referenced set, and then calls the procedure "passivate".

The statement "cancel(X)", where X is a reference to a process object, deletes the corresponding event notice, if any. If the process object is currently active or suspended, it becomes passive. Otherwise, the statement has no effect. The statement "cancel(current)" is equivalent to "passivate".

## 12.5 The main (simulation) program

```
process class MAIN_PROGRAM;
begin
  while true do detach
end MAIN_PROGRAM;
```

It is desirable that the main component of a simulation model, i.e. the "simulation" block instance, should respond to the sequencing procedures of 12.4 as if it were itself a process object. This is

accomplished by having a process object of the class MAIN\_PROGRAM as a permanent component of the quasi-parallel system.

The process object represents the main component with respect to the sequencing procedures. Whenever it becomes operative, the PSC (and OSC) immediately enter the main component as a result of the "detach" statement (cf. 7.3.1). The procedure "current" references this process object whenever the main component is active.

A simulation model is initialized by generating the MAIN\_PROGRAM object and scheduling an active phase for it at system time zero. Then the PSC proceeds to the first user-defined statement of the "simulation" block.

## 12.6 The procedure "accum"

```
ACCUM      procedure accum (a,b,c,d);  name a,b,c;  long real a,b,c,d;  
          begin  
            a:= a+c * (time-b);  b:= time;  c:= c + d  
          end accum;
```

A statement of the form "accum (A,B,C,D)" may be used to accumulate the "system time integral" of the variable C, interpreted as a step function of system time. The integral is accumulated in the variable A. The variable B contains the system time at which the variables were last updated. The value of D is the current increment of the step function.



# APPENDIX A

## SIMULA Syntax

### Chapter 1: Lexical tokens

```
letter
  = a | b | c | d | e | f | g | h | i
    | j | k | l | m | n | o | p | q | r
    | s | t | u | v | w | x | y | z
    | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I
    | J | K | L | M | N | O | P | Q | R
    | S | T | U | V | W | X | Y | Z
digit
  = 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
space
  = SP
identifier
  = letter { letter | digit | _ }
unsigned-number
  = decimal-number [ exponent-part ]
    | exponent-part
decimal-number
  = unsigned-integer [ decimal-fraction ]
    | decimal-fraction
decimal-fraction
  = . unsigned-integer
exponent-part
  = ( & | && ) [ + | - ] unsigned-integer
unsigned-integer
  = digit { digit | _ }
    | radix R radix-digit { radix-digit | _ }
radix
  = 2 | 4 | 8 | 16
radix-digit
  = digit | A | B | C | D | E | F
string
  = simple-string { string-separator simple-string }
string-separator
  = token-separator { token-separator }
simple-string
  = " { ISO-code | non-quote-character | " } "
ISO-code
  = ! digit [ digit ] [ digit ] !
non-quote-character
  = any printing character (incl. space) except the string quote ".
character-constant
  = ' character-designator '
character-designator
  = ISO-code
    | non-quote-character
    | "
format-effector
  = BS | HT | LF | VT | FF | CR
token-separator
  = a direct comment
    | a space (except in simple strings and character constants)
    | a format effector (except as noted for spaces)
    | the separation of consecutive lines
```

### Chapter 2: Types and values

type

```

    = value-type
    | reference-type
value-type
    = arithmetic-type
    | boolean
    | character
arithmetic-type
    = integer-type
    | real-type
integer-type
    = [ short ] integer
real-type
    = [ long ] real
reference-type
    = object-reference-type
    | text
object-reference-type
    = ref "(" qualification ")"
qualification
    = class-identifier

```

### Chapter 3: Expressions

```

expression
    = value-expression
    | reference-expression
    | designational-expression
value-expression
    = arithmetic-expression
    | Boolean-expression
    | character-expression
reference-expression
    = object-expression
    | text-expression
variable
    = simple-variable-1
    | subscripted-variable
simple-variable-1
    = identifier-1
subscripted-variable
    = array-identifier-1 "(" subscript-list ")"
array-identifier-1
    = identifier-1
subscript-list
    = subscript-expression { , subscript-expression }
subscript-expression
    = arithmetic-expression
function-designator
    = procedure-identifier-1 [ actual-parameter-part ]
procedure-identifier-1
    = identifier-1
actual-parameter-part
    = "(" actual-parameter { , actual-parameter } ")"
actual-parameter
    = expression
    | array-identifier-1
    | switch-identifier
    | procedure-identifier-1

```

```

identifier-1
    = identifier
    | remote-identifier
remote-identifier
    = simple-object-expression . attribute-identifier
    | text-primary . attribute-identifier
attribute-identifier
    = identifier
Boolean-expression
    = simple-Boolean-expression
    | if-clause simple-Boolean-expression else Boolean-expression
simple-Boolean-expression
    = Boolean-tertiary { or else Boolean-tertiary }
Boolean-tertiary
    = equivalence { and then equivalence }
equivalence
    = implication { eqv implication }
implication
    = Boolean-term { imp Boolean-term }
Boolean-term
    = Boolean-factor { or Boolean-factor }
Boolean-factor
    = Boolean-secondary { and Boolean-secondary }
Boolean-secondary
    = [ not ] Boolean-primary
Boolean-primary
    = logical-value
    | variable
    | function-designator
    | relation
    | "(" Boolean-expression ")"
relation
    = arithmetic-relation
    | character-relation
    | text-value-relation
    | object-relation
    | object-reference-relation
    | text-reference-relation
value-relational-operator
    = < | <= | = | >= | > | <>
reference-comparator
    = == | /=
arithmetic-relation
    = simple-arithmetic-expression
      value-relational-operator simple-arithmetic-expression
character-relation
    = simple-character-expression
      value-relational-operator simple-character-expression
text-value-relation
    = simple-text-expression
      value-relational-operator simple-text-expression
object-relation
    = simple-object-expression is class-identifier
    | simple-object-expression in class-identifier
object-reference-relation
    = simple-object-expression
      reference-comparator simple-object-expression
text-reference-relation
    = simple-text-expression
      reference-comparator simple-text-expression
arithmetic-expression
    = simple-arithmetic-expression
    | if-clause simple-arithmetic-expression
      else arithmetic-expression
simple-arithmetic-expression
    = [ + | - ] term { ( + | - ) term }
term
    = factor { ( * | / | // ) factor }
factor

```

```

    = primary { ** primary }
primary
    = unsigned-number
    | variable
    | function-designator
    | "(" arithmetic-expression ")"
character-expression
    = simple-character-expression
    | if-clause simple-character-expression
    else character-expression
simple-character-expression
    = character-constant
    | variable
    | function-designator
    | "(" character-expression ")"
text-expression
    = simple-text-expression
    | if-clause simple-text-expression else text-expression
simple-text-expression
    = text-primary { & text-primary }
text-primary
    = notext
    | string
    | variable
    | function-designator
    | "(" text-expression ")"
object-expression
    = simple-object-expression
    | if-clause simple-object-expression else object-expression
simple-object-expression
    = none
    | variable
    | function-designator
    | object-generator
    | local-object
    | qualified-object
    | "(" object-expression ")"
object-generator
    = new class-identifier [ actual-parameter-part ]
local-object
    = this class-identifier
qualified-object
    = simple-object-expression qua class-identifier
designational-expression
    = simple-designational-expression
    | if-clause simple-designational-expression
    else designational-expression
simple-designational-expression
    = label
    | switch-designator
    | "(" designational-expression ")"
switch-designator
    = switch-identifier "(" subscript-expression ")"
switch-identifier
    = identifier
label
    = identifier

```

## Chapter 4: Statements

```

statement
    = { label : } unconditional-statement
    | { label : } conditional-statement
    | { label : } for-statement
unconditional-statement
    = assignment-statement
    | while-statement
    | goto-statement

```

```

| procedure-statement
| object-generator
| connection-statement
| compound-statement
| block
| dummy-statement
| activation-statement
assignment-statement
= value-assignment
| reference-assignment
value-assignment
= value-left-part := value-right-part
value-left-part
= destination
| simple-text-expression
value-right-part
= value-expression
| text-expression
| value-assignment
destination
= variable
| procedure-identifier
reference-assignment
= reference-left-part :- reference-right-part
reference-left-part
= destination
reference-right-part
= reference-expression
| reference-assignment
conditional-statement
= if-clause { label : } unconditional-statement [ else statement ]
| if-clause { label : } for-statement
if-clause
= if Boolean-expression then
while-statement
= while Boolean-expression do statement
for-statement
= for-clause statement
for-clause
= for simple-variable for-right-part do
simple-variable
= identifier
for-right-part
= := value-for-list-element { , value-for-list-element }
= :- reference-for-list-element { , reference-for-list-element }
value-for-list-element
= value-expression [ while Boolean-expression ]
| text-expression
| arithmetic-expression
step arithmetic-expression until arithmetic-expression
reference-for-list-element
= reference-expression [ while Boolean-expression ]
goto-statement
= ( goto | go to ) designational-expression
procedure-statement
= procedure-identifier-1 [ actual-parameter-part ]
connection-statement
= inspect object-expression when-clause { when-clause }
[ otherwise-clause ]
| inspect object-expression do connection-block-2
[ otherwise-clause ]
when-clause
= when class-identifier do connection-block-1
otherwise-clause
= otherwise statement
connection-block-1
= statement
connection-block-2
= statement

```

```

compound-statement
    = begin compound-tail
compound-tail
    = statement { ; statement } end
block
    = subblock
    | prefixed-block
subblock
    = block-head ; compound-tail
block-head
    = begin declaration { ; declaration }
prefixed-block
    = block-prefix main-block
block-prefix
    = class-identifier [ actual-parameter-part ]
main-block
    = block
    | compound-statement
dummy-statement
    = empty

```

## Chapter 5: Declarations

```

declaration
    = simple-variable-declaration
    | array-declaration
    | switch-declaration
    | procedure-declaration
    | class-declaration
    | external-declaration
simple-variable-declaration
    = type type-list
type-list
    = type-list-element { , type-list-element }
type-list-element
    = identifier
    | constant-element
array-declaration
    = [ type ] array array-segment { , array-segment }
array-segment
    = array-identifier { , array-identifier }
    "(" bound-pair-list ")"
array-identifier
    = identifier
bound-pair-list
    = bound-pair { , bound-pair }
bound-pair
    = arithmetic-expression : arithmetic-expression
switch-declaration
    = switch switch-identifier := switch-list
switch-list
    = designational-expression { , designational-expression }
procedure-declaration
    = [ type ] procedure procedure-heading ; procedure-body
procedure-heading
    = procedure-identifier
    [ formal-parameter-part ; [ mode-part ] specification-part ]
procedure-body
    = statement
procedure-identifier
    = identifier
formal-parameter-part
    = "(" formal-parameter { , formal-parameter } ")"
formal-parameter
    = identifier
specification-part
    = specifier identifier-list ; { specifier identifier-list ; }
specifier

```

```

    = type [ array | procedure ]
    | label
    | switch
mode-part
    = name-part [ value-part ]
    | value-part [ name-part ]
name-part
    = name identifier-list ;
value-part
    = value identifier-list ;
identifier-list
    = identifier { , identifier }
class-declaration
    = [ prefix ] main-part
prefix
    = class-identifier
main-part
    = class class-identifier
      [ formal-parameter-part ; [ value-part ]
      specification-part ] ;
      [ protection-part ; ] [ virtual-part ; ]
      class-body
class-identifier
    = identifier
class-body
    = statement
    | split-body
split-body
    = initial-operations inner-part final-operations
initial-operations
    = ( begin | block-head ; ) { statement ; }
inner-part
    = { label : } inner
final-operations
    = end
    | ; compound-tail
virtual-part
    = virtual : virtual-spec ; { virtual-spec ; }
virtual-spec
    = specifier identifier-list
    | procedure procedure-identifier procedure-specification
protection-part
    = protection-specification { ; protection-specification }

```

```

protection-specification
  = hidden identifier-list
  | protected identifier-list
  | hidden protected identifier-list
  | protected hidden identifier-list
constant-element
  = identifier = value-expression
  | identifier = string

```

## Chapter 6: Program modules

```

SIMULA-source-module
  = [ external-head ]
    ( program | procedure-declaration | class-declaration )
external-head
  = external-declaration ; { external-declaration ; }
external-declaration
  = external-procedure-declaration
  | external-class-declaration
program
  = statement
external-procedure-declaration
  = external [ kind ] [ type ] procedure external-list
  | external kind procedure external-item procedure-specification
kind
  = identifier
procedure-specification
  = is procedure-declaration
external-class-declaration
  = external class external-list
external-list
  = external-item { , external-item }
external-item
  = identifier [ = external-identification ]
external-identification
  = string

```

## Chapter 12: Class Simulation

```

activation-statement
  = activation-clause [ scheduling-clause ]
activation-clause
  = activator object-expression
activator
  = activate
  | reactivate
scheduling-clause
  = timing-clause
  | ( before | after ) object-expression
timing-clause
  = simple-timing-clause [ prior ]
simple-timing-clause
  = ( at | delay ) arithmetic-expression

```



## APPENDIX B

### Implementation Aspects

According to Part I (section 5.1.3) of the Standard, an implementation of the language must document all implementation-dependent and -defined issues. This appendix summarises all characteristics of the language which in some manner depend upon the particular implementation of the language. It may thus be used as a checklist to be filled out for any given implementation.

It can also be a useful guide when preparing programs that potentially may be transferred to other manufacturers equipment. Keeping these points in mind when preparing a program may spare a programmer many a painful hour of debugging a program that behaves abnormally on some other host computer, while executing perfectly correct on his own system (or vice versa).

#### B.1 LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS

Extensions are allowed only if the following conditions are fulfilled:

a. The implementor provides a translator program, which takes any program accepted by that implementation and translates it into a valid program. The resulting program may contain a minimum of calls to non-SIMULA procedures in cases where this is absolutely necessary due to a lack of facilities in the language.

b. Each implementation has a switch which must be set to make the compiler accept programs with extensions.

An implementation which allows extensions, shall give warning messages for the use of such extensions.

c. All such extensions should be reported to the SIMULA Standards Group, which will send such reports to the SSG members for comments. Responses from SSG members will be sent to the originator through the SSG.

Additional file access modes and access mode values to those defined in 10.1.1 may be defined by an implementation.

An implementation may provide additional subclasses of **class** file.

#### B.2 ALLOWED IMPLEMENTATION RESTRICTIONS

It is recognised that all language processing systems have some restrictions due to e.g. limited capacity of the underlying hardware. Such restrictions are not mentioned here.

An implementation may restrict the value range of the ISO-code construct, and the character set defined in table 1.1, as long as the "basic" characters of the table are included.

An implementation may restrict the number of different block levels at which a system class may be used as a prefix.

An implementation may restrict, in any way, the use of "file" and its subclasses for prefixing or block prefixing.

The type **short integer** is allowed to be unsupported by an implementation in the sense that it must then be mapped unto **integer** (i.e. the key word **short** is ignored).

The type **long real** is allowed to be unsupported by an implementation in the sense that it must then be mapped unto **real** (i.e. the key word **long** is ignored, and the special symbol "&&" is treated as "&").

An implementation may restrict the use of the standard access modes and their possible standard values; in that case the procedure "setaccess" must treat such values as unrecognised, and return **false**.

An implementation may restrict the number of block levels at which an external class declaration may occur.

An implementation may restrict the possible values of access mode BYTESIZE in any way.

### **B.3 IMPLEMENTATION DEPENDENT CHARACTERISTICS**

Whether or not the procedure "terminate\_program" will close open external files (except those associated with sysin and sysout), is implementation-defined.

The effect of a parameter to printfile.spacing with value zero, may be device and implementation dependent, if the standard effect of "overprint" cannot be achieved.

The interpretation of directive lines (apart from the "%" -convention) is implementation dependent.

The interpretation of "kind" and of the external identification string in an external procedure declaration is implementation dependent, as is the identification of a separately compiled module if no external identification is given.

The size of the part of the file that is actually locked after a call to procedure "lock", is implementation dependent.

### **B.4 IMPLEMENTATION DEFINED CHARACTERISTICS**

The internal character set is implementation defined. An implementation is required to document the translation between the internal character set and the standard character set (as defined by ISO 646).

**Note:** The collating sequence of character (and text) values is decided by the internal character set. Thus the values of character and text relations are implementation-defined.

The values of "inlength" and "outlength" (see ch. 10) are implementation- defined.

The actual external files connected to SYSIN and SYSOUT are implementation- defined.

An implementation may define the actions to be taken when format effectors are included in the program (see 1.9).

The relative value range of **real** and **long real** is implementation- defined.

The ranges in which conversions from an integer type to a real type, or from **real** to **long real**, are exact, are implementation-defined.

The range of a numeric item in a de-editing procedure is implementation defined.

If the REAL ITEM located by text procedure "getreal" is an integer within an implementation defined range, the conversion is exact.

The EXPONENT of the numeric item resulting from "putreal" has a fixed, implementation-defined number of characters.

The function values of "char" and "rank" are implementation-defined.

The exact definitions of the standard mathematical functions are implementation-defined.

The values of the environmental enquiries are implementation-defined.

The association between a file object and an external file is implementation defined.

The effect of several file objects representing the same (external) file is implementation defined.

The details of procedures "open" and "close" are implementation-defined.

The interpretation of a function value of "lock" less than -1 is implementation-defined.

Directfile.outimage reacts in an implementation-defined way if the length of the internal image is incompatible with the format of the external file.

Directfile.locate may invoke implementation defined checks and possibly instructions to an external memory device.

Printfile.LINES\_PER\_PAGE: the value at object generation and after close is implementation defined.

The "basic drawing" algorithm is implementation defined.

The effect of the conditions demanded for the parameters to "linear" not being fulfilled, is implementation defined.

The number of decimals in the field for seconds of the function "datetime" is implementation-defined.

The effect of the parameters to "histo" not fulfilling the condition:  $\text{length of A} = \text{length of B} + 1$ , is implementation defined.

The default BYTESIZE for bytefiles is implementation defined.

Evaluation of arithmetic expressions may give different results for different implementations.

## APPENDIX C

### Index of Syntactic Meta-symbols

Symbol	Defined in:	Referenced in:
activation-clause	12.2	12.2
activation-statement	12.2	4.
actual-parameter	3.1.4	3.1.4
actual-parameter-part	3.1.4	3.1.4, 3.8, 4.6, 4.10.1
arithmetic-expression	3.5	3., 3.1, 3.5, 4.4, 5.2, 12.2
arithmetic-relation	3.3.1	3.3
arithmetic-type	2.	2.
array-declaration	5.2	5.
array-identifier	5.2	5.2
array-identifier-1	3.1	3.1, 3.1.4
array-segment	5.2	5.2
assignment-statement	4.1	4.
attribute-identifier	3.1.5	3.1.5
block	4.10	4., 4.10.1
block-head	4.10	4.10, 5.5
block-prefix	4.10.1	4.10.1
Boolean-expression	3.2	3., 3.2, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4
Boolean-factor	3.2	3.2
Boolean-primary	3.2	3.2
Boolean-secondary	3.2	3.2
Boolean-term	3.2	3.2
Boolean-tertiary	3.2	3.2
bound-pair	5.2	5.2
bound-pair-list	5.2	5.2
character-constant	1.7	3.6
character-designator	1.7	1.7
character-expression	3.6	3., 3.6
character-relation	3.3.2	3.3
class-body	5.5	5.5
class-declaration	5.5	5., 6.
class-identifier	5.5	2., 3.3.4, 3.8, 4.8, 4.10.1, 5.5
compound-statement	4.9	4.
compound-tail	4.9	4.9, 4.10, 5.5
conditional-statement	4.2	4.
connection-block-1	4.8	4.8
connection-block-2	4.8	4.8
connection-statement	4.8	4.
constant-element	5.8	5.1
decimal-fraction	1.5	1.5
decimal-number	1.5	1.5
declaration	5.	4.10
designational-expression	3.9	3., 3.9, 4.5, 5.3
destination	4.1	4.1
digit	1.	1.4, 1.5, 1.6
dummy-statement	4.11	4.
equivalence	3.2	3.2
exponent-part	1.5	1.5
expression	3.	3.1.4
external-class-declaration	6.4	6.1
external-declaration	6.1	5., 6.1
external-head	6.1	6.
external-identification	6.5	6.5
external-item	6.5	6.3, 6.5

external-list	6.5	6.3, 6.4
external-procedure-declaration	6.3	6.1
factor	3.5	3.5
final-operations	5.5	5.5
for-clause	4.4	4.4
formal-parameter	5.4.2	5.4.2
formal-parameter-part	5.4.2	5.4, 5.5
format-effektor	1.9	1.9
for-right-part	4.4	4.4
for-statement	4.4	4., 4.2
function-designator	3.1.4	3.2, 3.5, 3.6, 3.7, 3.8
goto-statement	4.5	4.
identifier	1.4	3.1.5, 3.9, 4.4, 5.1, 5.2, 5.4, 5.4.2, 5.4.3, 5.5, 5.8, 6.3, 6.5
identifier-1	3.1.5	3.1, 3.1.4
identifier-list	5.4.3	5.4.2, 5.4.3, 5.5.3, 5.5.4
if-clause	4.2	3.2, 3.5, 3.6, 3.7, 3.8, 3.9, 4.2
implication	3.2	3.2
initial-operations	5.5	5.5
inner-part	5.5	5.5
integer-type	2.	2.
ISO-code	1.6	1.6, 1.7
kind	6.3	6.3
label	3.9	3.9, 4., 4.2, 5.5
letter	1.	1.4
local-object	3.8	3.8
main-block	4.10.1	4.10.1
main-part	5.5	5.5
mode-part	5.4.3	5.4
name-part	5.4.3	5.4.3
non-quote-character	1.6	1.6, 1.7
object-expression	3.8	3., 3.8, 4.8, 12.2
object-generator	3.8	3.8, 4.
object-reference-type	2.	2.
object-reference-relation	3.3.5	3.3
object-relation	3.3.4	3.3
otherwise-clause	4.8	4.8
prefix	5.5	5.5
prefixed-block	4.10.1	4.10
primary	3.5	3.5
procedure-body	5.4	5.4
procedure-declaration	5.4	5., 6., 6.3
procedure-heading	5.4	5.4
procedure-identifier	5.4	4.1, 5.4, 5.5.3
procedure-identifier-1	3.1.4	3.1.4, 4.6
procedure-specification	6.3	5.5.3, 6.3
procedure-statement	4.6	4.
program	6.2	6.
protection-part	5.5.4	5.5
protection-specification	5.5.4	5.5.4
qualification	2.	2.
qualified-object	3.8	3.8
radix	1.5	1.5
radix-digit	1.5	1.5
real-type	2.	2.
reference-assignment	4.1	4.1
reference-comparator	3.3	3.3.5, 3.3.6
reference-expression	3.	3., 4.1, 4.4

reference-for-list-element	4.4	4.4
reference-left-part	4.1	4.1
reference-relation	3.2.1	3.2.1
reference-right-part	4.1	4.1
reference-type	2.	2.
relation	3.3	3.2
remote-identifier	3.1.5	3.1.5
scheduling-clause	12.2	12.2
simple-arithmetic-expression	3.5	3.3.1, 3.5
simple-Boolean-expression	3.2	3.2
simple-character-expression	3.6	3.3.2, 3.6
simple-designational-expression	3.9	3.9
simple-object-expression	3.8	3.1.5, 3.3.4, 3.3.5, 3.8
simple-string	1.6	1.6
simple-text-expression	3.7	3.3.3, 3.3.6, 3.7, 4.1
simple-timing-clause	12.2	12.2
simple-variable	4.4	4.4
simple-variable-1	3.1	3.1
simple-variable-declaration	5.1	5.
SIMULA-source-module	6.	
space	1.	1.9
specification-part	5.4.2	5.4, 5.5
specifier	5.4.2	5.4.2, 5.5.3
split-body	5.5	5.5
statement	4.	4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.8, 4.9, 5.4, 5.5, 6.2
string	1.6	3.7, 5.8, 6.5
string-separator	1.6	1.6
subblock	4.10	4.10
subscripted-variable	3.1	3.1
subscript-expression	3.1	3.1, 3.9
subscript-list	3.1	3.1
switch-declaration	5.3	5.
switch-designator	3.9	3.9
switch-identifier	3.9	3.1.4, 3.9, 5.3
switch-list	5.3	5.3
term	3.5	3.5
text-expression	3.7	3., 3.7, 4.1, 4.4
text-primary	3.7	3.1.5, 3.7
text-value-relation	3.3.3	3.3
text-reference-relation	3.3.6	3.3
timing-clause	12.2	12.2
token-separator	1.9	1.6
type	2.	5.1, 5.2, 5.4, 5.4.2, 6.3
type-list	5.1	5.1
type-list-element	5.1	5.1
unconditional-statement	4.	4., 4.2
unsigned-integer	1.5	1.5
unsigned-number	1.5	3.5
value-assignment	4.1	4.1
value-expression	3.	3., 4.1, 4.4, 5.8
value-for-list-element	4.4	4.4
value-left-part	4.1	4.1
value-part	5.4.3	5.4.3, 5.5
value-relational-operator	3.3	3.3.1, 3.3.2, 3.3.3
value-right-part	4.1	4.1
value-type	2.	2.
variable	3.1	3.2, 3.5, 3.6, 3.7, 3.8, 4.1
virtual-part	5.5.3	5.5
virtual-spec	5.5.3	5.5.3
when-clause	4.8	4.8
while-statement	4.3	4.



## **APPENDIX D**

### **Statutes of the SIMULA Standards Group (SSG)**

#### **Article 1. Objectives**

The SIMULA Standards Group (SSG) is an organisation which at all times shall: 1.1 be the final arbiter in the interpretation of the SIMULA language definition and be a centre for custody of this formal definition. 1.2 standardise the SIMULA language by minimizing its changes and preventing occurrence of SIMULA translators violating the language definition. 1.3 provide a forum for discussion and exchange of information relating to the use of the SIMULA language and its support.

#### **Article 2. Membership**

2.1 The SSG offers both full and extraordinary membership. Only full members have voting rights. 2.2 Full membership is open to organisations and firms responsible for the maintenance and support of a SIMULA system. It is required that each such SIMULA system is in active use. Any such organisation may apply for and be voted a full SSG member. 2.3 The Norwegian Computing Center (NCC), Oslo, Norway is ex officio a full member of the SSG. In addition, the SIMULA Development Group (SDG) Chairman and the Association of SIMULA Users (ASU) Chairman are also full members of the SSG. 2.4 The SSG can offer extraordinary membership to individuals in recognition of their contribution to the SSG work. 2.5 Once granted an SSG membership lasts until: - it is resigned by a particular member - it is revoked by the SSG because the conditions under which it was granted cease to exist or the member acts against the objectives of the SSG. 2.6 There is no fee for SSG membership.

#### **Article 3. Representation, Voting and Meetings**

3.1 All SSG members shall appoint one person to be its representative in the SSG. The duration of this person's appointment is determined by the member. 3.2 The SSG shall meet once every calendar year for an Annual Meeting. This meeting will, in addition to eventual matters of an administrative character, handle proposals related to the SIMULA language definition as described in the Formal Rules of the SSG operation. The Annual Meeting shall also elect one of the full member's representatives as SSG Chairman. In addition to the Annual Meeting the SSG may have extraordinary meetings when this is approved by a majority of the members. Decisions can only be taken regarding matters on the agenda presented to the members at least 3 weeks before the meeting, unless all members agree otherwise. 3.3 To constitute a quorum, all members of the SSG shall be notified of the Meeting and at least one more than a half of the member representatives shall be present or give their votes by mail. 3.4 Decisions by SSG are made by a majority vote among the representatives taking part in the vote. Changes to the SSG Statutes or a decision to dissolve the SSG, require 4/5 majority, as well as the consent of the NCC. 3.5 The SSG meetings are open to non-members who wish to attend. Such non-members will be granted observer status by the SSG. Observers have no voting rights and must apply to the SSG for each meeting they wish to attend.



## **Formal rules of the SSG operation**

1. The main task of the SSG is the maintenance of the SIMULA language definition (Common Base) which consists of: a) a clarification of obscure parts of the definition. b) removal of possible conflicts in the definition. c) alteration of the definition in line with the approved changes in the language.
2. The following types of language changes can be directly considered by the SSG: a) obvious oversights that have occurred in the text of the language definition during editing/printing. b) removal of language restrictions that are proved obsolete for language consistency and implementation. c) trivial extensions to the existing concepts that are felt relevant for continued use of the language in changing environment. All other changes must first be handled by the SDG and passed over in the form of a formal recommendation.
3. All proposals for language changes conforming to the above rules must be formulated in writing in a concise manner and submitted to the SSG secretariat. Any SIMULA user may submit such a proposal.
4. It is the responsibility of the SSG Chairman to notify receipt of each proposal, to register it and schedule its processing at one of the SSG meetings. Alternatively the SSG Chairman may point out any inadequacies in a proposal to its submitter. In either case the proposal will be announced at the next SSG meeting which may approve or revoke the Chairman's decision related to this proposal. Complete material related to a particular proposal will only be submitted to SSG members when the proposal is to be processed at the next meeting or on specific request.
5. In its final form every proposal will be an updating text to the Common Base. It will further indicate the original submitter, date of submission and its motivation. Alternative forms of the proposal and reasons for their rejection are valuable parts of the document. An example of a suitable form is attached to these rules. The logical consistency of the text, its clarity and conciseness are of utmost importance. To this aim the SSG or its Chairman may allocate one particular SSG member to bring the proposal into the required shape if this is deemed necessary.
6. It is the responsibility of the SSG Chairman to notify the submitter of a proposal about the result of its processing by the SSG if this is not otherwise obvious. It is also his/her responsibility to minimize the time spent on each proposal.
7. The final text of the proposals will be available from the SSG secretariat as a supplement to the Common Base until they are incorporated into this at its next revision. To simplify this process, at its approval a proposal will be assigned a number reflecting both the Common Base version it applies to and its chronological order.

Reg. No.: Accepted as SIMULA Standard Change No.:

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Title :

Submitter :

Date :

Affected section(s):

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Proposal:

Motivation:

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SSG decision on the above proposal: