

Compost Final Report

December 15, 2023

```
val name_email_map : (string * string) list =  
[("Roger Burtonpatel", "roger.burtonpatel@tufts.edu");  
 ("Randy Dang", "randy.dang@tufts.edu");  
 ("Jasper Geer", "jasper.geer@tufts.edu");  
 ("Jackson Warhover", "jackson.warhover@tufts.edu")]
```

Contents

1	Introduction	4
2	Language Tutorial	4
2.1	Notational Convention	4
2.2	Compost Basics	4
2.3	Custom Datatypes	5
2.4	How to Use Compiler	7
3	Language Manual	7
3.1	Introduction	7
3.2	More Notational Conventions	7
3.3	Lexical Conventions	8
3.3.1	Whitespace	8
3.3.2	Comments	8
3.3.3	Literals	8
3.3.4	Integer Literals	8
3.3.5	Symbol Literals	8
3.3.6	Other Literals	9
3.3.7	Reserved Words	9
3.4	Values	9
3.4.1	Integers	9
3.4.2	Symbols	9
3.4.3	Booleans	9
3.4.4	Unit	9
3.4.5	Variant Values	9
3.4.6	Functions	10
3.5	Names	10

3.6	Type Expressions	10
3.6.1	Primitive Types	10
3.6.2	Function Types	11
3.6.3	Datatypes	11
4	Expressions	11
4.1	Case Expressions	12
4.1.1	Typing	13
4.1.2	Consumption	13
4.1.3	Evaluation	13
4.2	If Expressions	13
4.2.1	Typing	13
4.2.2	Consumption	13
4.2.3	Evaluation	13
4.3	Begin Expressions	14
4.3.1	Typing	14
4.3.2	Consumption	14
4.3.3	Evaluation	14
4.4	Apply Expressions	14
4.4.1	Typing	14
4.4.2	Consumption	14
4.4.3	Evaluation	14
4.5	Let Expressions	15
4.5.1	Typing	15
4.5.2	Consumption	15
4.5.3	Evaluation	15
4.6	Name Expressions	15
4.6.1	Typing	15
4.6.2	Consumption	15
4.6.3	Evaluation	16
4.7	Dup Expressions	16
4.7.1	Typing	16
4.7.2	Consumption	16
4.7.3	Evaluation	16
5	Definitions	16
5.1	Type Annotations	17
5.2	Val Bindings	17
5.3	Function Definitions	17
5.4	Use Declarations	18
6	The Structure of Compost Programs	18

7	Initial Basis	18
7.1	Equality	18
7.2	Arithmetic	19
7.3	Comparison	19
7.4	Boolean Logic	20
7.5	I/O: Printing	20
7.6	I/O: Input	20
7.7	Lists and Helpers	21
7.7.1	Integers	21
7.7.2	Symbols	22
7.7.3	Booleans	23
8	Project Plan	23
9	Architectural Design	24
10	Test Plan	24
11	Lessons Learned	24
12	Appendix	24

1 Introduction

Compost is a statically-typed pure functional programming language with an affine type system. That is, the type system guarantees that no two live references ever exist to the same heap object. Programs in Compost include no explicit memory management and run without the need for a run-time garbage collector. This is because in a manner akin to Rust, the Compost compiler performs compile-time memory management, inserting memory-freeing directives and guaranteeing memory safety for all Compost programs.

In order to make this guarantee, we must place one major restriction on the programmer to ensure that the compiler is performing a decidable task: each variable can be used at most once in a given scope. That is, if a variable **could** have been referenced already in the current scope, the programmer is not allowed to reference it again. When we enforce this restriction, we can determine the point at which a variable in scope will not be used and insert free directives accordingly.

A memory safe language is useful because it guarantees that memory-related bugs will never be introduced by programmers; any such errors would be caught by the compiler ahead of time. This is an especially handy feature when writing implementations of critical systems (such as medical devices) where memory-related bugs could potentially be very costly. The lack of a need for automatic garbage collection also leads to better performance.

2 Language Tutorial

A short explanation telling a novice how to use your language (consider this an informal version of a Language Reference Manual).

Explains how to use the compiler in its simplest form and run a compiled program.

Incrementally introduces how the language works through informal, well-documented code examples.

2.1 Notational Convention

In this section and the rest of this document, code listings will appear in “verbatim” as follows:

```
(define foo ()  
  bar)
```

2.2 Compost Basics

Compost is a parenthesized functional language with a syntax similar to Scheme syntax, but it is a compiled language rather than interpreted. A Compost program consists of a sequence of definitions, which mainly include preprocessor macros, function definitions, and custom datatype definitions. For every function definition, there must also exist a type annotation that defines the argument and return types of that function. The function with name `main` defines the entry point

of the program, and it must take in no arguments and return type `unit`.

Function definitions are specified via the `define` keyword. Here is a program that simply prints the string “Hello, World!” (`print-sym` is a built-in function that takes in a single symbol argument and prints it to `stdout`).

```
(: main (-> () unit)) ;; type annotation: defines 'main' as function taking no
                        ;; arguments and returning type 'unit'
(define main ()        ;; definition for 'main' function, the entry
                        ;; point of the program
  (print-sym 'Hello, World!)) ;; prints out 'Hello, World' symbol
```

Preprocessor macros are specified via the `val` keyword and can improve code readability and/or reduce code duplication. This program uses a preprocessor macro to accomplish the same functionality as above:

```
(val hello-str 'Hello, World!) ;; defines the name 'hello-str' as the string
                                ;; 'Hello, World!'
                                ;; This is analogous to the following in C:
                                ;; #define hello-str "Hello, World!"
(: main (-> () unit)) ;; type annotation
(define main () ;; program entry point
  (print-sym hello-str)) ;; prints out 'Hello, World' symbol
```

Functions are called in the same manner as they are in Scheme. Here is an example of the definition of a function `compute` that performs arithmetic on two numbers and is called within `main`.

```
(: compute (-> (int int) int)) ;; type annotation: defines 'compute' as a
                                ;; function taking in two ints as arguments
                                ;; and returns an int
(define compute (x y)
  (+ (* x 2) y)) ;; multiply x by 2 and add y. Prefix arithmetic operators
                ;; are built-in

(: main (-> () unit)) ;; type annotation
(define main () ;; program entry point
  (print-int (compute 2 3))) ;; prints the result of calling 'compute' on
                             ;; the numbers 2 (bound to 'x') and 3 (bound
                             ;; to 'y'), as an integer. Result should be
                             ;; 7.
```

2.3 Custom Datatypes

The most interesting functionality provided to the user is the ability to define and use custom abstract data types. Such datatypes can be defined with the `datatype` keyword and the definitions

of one or more variant constructors, which define ways that instances of that datatype can be created. For example, a linked list of integers can be defined as follows:

```
;; Definition of linked list of integers, which can be constructed in two
;; ways (one defines the case of a non-empty list, and the other defines
;; the case of an empty list)
(datatype int-list
  ([cons-int (int int-list)] ;; Variant constructor 1: create a non-empty
                             ;; int-list by calling 'cons-int' on an int
                             ;; and another int-list.
  [nil-int-list ()]))      ;; Variant constructor 2: create an empty
                             ;; int-list by calling 'nil-int-list' with
                             ;; no arguments
```

If this datatype definition exists somewhere in the program, then `int-list` exists as a type and both `cons-int` and `nil-int-list` exist as constructors that can be called.

For example, a three-element linked list can be constructed as follows:

```
;; macro that constructs linked list with elements: [0, 1, 2]
(val len3list (cons-int 0 (cons-int 1 (cons-int 2 (nil-int-list)))))
```

To “unpack” the components of a custom datatype within a function, we support top-level pattern matching on the variant constructor definitions via `case` expressions. For example, below is a function that gets the length of an `int-list`.

```
;; Gets length of int-list 'x xs' in terms of number of elements
(: len-int-list (-> (int-list) int)) ;; type annotation: takes in an int-list
                                     ;; as input and returns an int
(define len-int-list (x xs) ;; binds argument to name 'x xs'
  (case x xs ;; begins pattern matching on the int-list 'x xs'
    [(cons-int x xs) ;; specify non-empty case with appropriate variant
     ;; constructor
     (+ 1 (len-int-list xs))] ;; expression to evaluate in non-empty
                              ;; case (add 1 to length of sub-list 'xs')
    [(nil-int-list) ;; specify empty case with appropriate variant
     ;; constructor
     0])) ;; expression to evaluate in empty case (length is just 0)
```

If we wanted to print the length of `len3list` in our driver, we can do so as follows:

```
(: main (-> () unit)) ;; type annotation
(define main () ;; program entry point
  (print-int (len-int-list len3list))) ;; prints number of elements in
                                       ;; 'len3list'
```

2.4 How to Use Compiler

To use our compiler to compile Compost code, there should be a script called `compile-compost` in the top-level directory. Ensure that `cc` is symlinked to some version of `clang`, and simply execute that script as such:

```
./compile-compost file.com
```

where `file.com` is the name of a file containing a Compost program. An executable with the same name but the extension removed (`file` in the above case) will appear in the same directory as the Compost program. Run the executable with:

```
./file
```

With the above example, the `compile-compost` script internally runs the following command:

```
dune exec compost file.com | llc -relocation-model=pic | cc -x assembler -o file -
```

3 Language Manual

Include your language reference manual. Make sure it's been updated if you've made *any* changes since the first LRM deliverable was turned in. I **will** use this to try to write my own programs in your language!

3.1 Introduction

This language reference manual contains a formal description of Compost's syntax, along with an informal description of its semantics and type system. In addition, an initial basis for Compost programs is outlined.

3.2 More Notational Conventions

Grammar rules are written in extended Backus-Naur format, as follows:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \textit{rule} & ::= & (\textit{nonterminal} \textit{terminal}) \\ & | & \{ \textit{other-rule} \} \end{array}$$

Parentheses are concrete syntax, but any pair of balanced parentheses may be freely exchanged for a pair of square brackets. For example, the following two declarations are indistinguishable in the abstract syntax:

```
(val x 1)
```

```
[val x 1]
```

Note that braces are used in a manner akin to the Kleene closure, that is, a term enclosed in braces may be omitted or arbitrarily repeated.

3.3 Lexical Conventions

3.3.1 Whitespace

The following characters are considered as whitespace and, with one exception, ignored during tokenization: spaces, tabs, carriage returns, and newlines.

3.3.2 Comments

Comments are introduced by the character `;` and terminated by the newline character. Comments are treated as whitespace.

3.3.3 Literals

literal ::= *integer-literal*
 | *symbol-literal*
 | *boolean-literal*
 | *unit-literal*

Literals introduce values of Compost’s primitive types. All literals are valid expressions.

3.3.4 Integer Literals

integer-literal ::= token composed only of digits, possibly prefixed with a `+` or `-`.

The `+` prefix denotes a positive integer and the `-` prefix denotes a negative integer. The characters `1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0` are considered digits.

3.3.5 Symbol Literals

symbol-literal ::= `'{ symbol-character }'`

symbol-character ::= any unicode code point other than `'` and the backslash character unless escaped with a backslash.

That is, any sequence of `'`-delimited unicode characters is a valid symbol literal, as long as every instance of `'` or backslash are preceded by a backslash. This includes characters that would otherwise be treated as whitespace if they were found outside of the symbol literal setting. Escape sequences are replaced by their unescaped counterparts in the introduced symbol value. For example, the following are valid symbol literals:

```
'\'hello, world\''
```

```
'\\ is a backslash'
```

```
'I exist  
on multiple lines'
```

The following are *not* valid symbol literals:

`'Pini's Pizzeria' ;; the apostrophe should be escaped`

`'\ is missing an escape backslash'`

`'This is not a newline character: \n' ;; see above for proper usage of
;; multi-line strings`

3.3.6 Other Literals

boolean-literal ::= `true` | `false`

unit-literal ::= `unit`

3.3.7 Reserved Words

The following tokens are considered reserved:

`; () [] : _ -> if val define datatype use case begin let dup int bool sym unit`

3.4 Values

This section describes the kinds of values manipulated by Compost programs.

3.4.1 Integers

Integer values are 32-bit signed integers with a range of -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647.

3.4.2 Symbols

Symbol values are interned immutable strings of unicode characters.

3.4.3 Booleans

Boolean values are either the boolean `true` or the boolean `false`.

3.4.4 Unit

Unit values are the value `unit`.

3.4.5 Variant Values

Variant values are either a constant constructor or a non-constant constructor applied to a series of value arguments. We write an arbitrary constant constructor c as (c) and an arbitrary non-constant constructor d applied to arguments $v_1...v_n$ as $(d\ v_1\ \dots\ v_n)$.

Variant constructors are monomorphic, that is, for any constructor c , there exist types $\tau_1... \tau_n$ such that for any application of constructor c to arguments $v_1...v_n$, v_i must have type τ_i for all $i \in 1, 2, \dots, n$.

3.4.6 Functions

Functions in Compost are first-class objects. Function values are mappings from ordered sets of values, to values. That is, a function f , when applied to values $v_1 \dots v_n$, produces a value v_r . Like variant constructors, functions are monomorphic, so the types of $v_1 \dots v_n$ and v_r are fixed.

3.5 Names

Compost places relatively liberal constraints on the sequences of characters considered valid names.

name ::= any token that is not an *int-lit*, does not contain whitespace (including a ; character indicating the start of a comment), a ', bracket, or parenthesis, and is not a reserved word.

Names are bound to datatypes, functions, values, and variant constructors, and are used to refer to them at various points in a program. Names are also used in the *use-declaration* syntactic form to refer to files.

3.6 Type Expressions

type-expression ::= *function-type*
| *int-type*
| *bool-type*
| *sym-type*
| *unit-type*
| *datatype*

3.6.1 Primitive Types

int-type ::= **int**

bool-type ::= **bool**

sym-type ::= **sym**

unit-type ::= **unit**

int is the type of integer values.

bool is the type of boolean values.

sym is the type of symbol values.

unit is the type of unit values.

3.6.2 Function Types

function-type ::= (\rightarrow ($\{$ *type* $\}$) *type*)

$(\rightarrow (\mathbf{t}_1 \dots \mathbf{t}_n) \mathbf{tr})$ is the type of function values which map ordered sets of values $v_1 \dots v_n$ of types $\mathbf{t}_1 \dots \mathbf{t}_n$ to value v_r of type \mathbf{tr} .

3.6.3 Datatypes

datatype ::= *name*

Datatypes are the types of variant constructor values. Multiple variant constructors may share the same type. Datatypes and their constructors can be defined by the programmer with the following syntax:

datatype-definition ::= (**datatype** *name* ($\{$ *variant-constructor-definition* $\}$))

variant-constructor-definition ::= (*name* ($\{$ *type-expression* $\}$))

A *name* bound to the new type τ_d appears directly following the **datatype** keyword, and this is followed by a list of variant constructor definitions. Each of these provides a *name* bound to the constructor, *c*, followed by a list of *type-expressions* $\tau_1 \dots \tau_n$ typing its arguments. Given this definition, a variant value ($c \ v_1 \dots v_n$) of type τ_d may be introduced by applying function value *c* to $v_1 \dots v_n$, where the type of v_i is τ_i for all $i \in 1, 2, \dots, n$

The placement of a datatype or variant constructor's definition has no bearing on where it can be referenced, introduced, or eliminated. In fact, datatypes may be defined recursively, as in the following example:

```
(datatype int-list
  ([cons (int int-list)]
   [nil ()]))
```

This declaration can be read as: “an **int-list** is either **cons** applied to an **int** and an **int-list**, or **nil** applied to nothing”.

ALERT: Hi, Randy Dang here. Reading through a copy-pasted form of the LRM is still a work-in-progress, and some of the section headers are LRM-specific rather than general sections that should be included in the report. Go to "Project Plan" for the next report-specific section after the LRM.

4 Expressions

expr ::= *literal*
 | *case-expression*
 | *if-expression*

	<i>begin-expression</i>
	<i>apply-expression</i>
	<i>let-expression</i>
	<i>dup-expression</i>
	<i>name-expression</i>

Meaningful computation is encoded in Compost as *expr* syntactic forms, or expressions. These appear either as the right-hand side of **val** declarations or as the bodies of functions.

We describe the semantics and typing rules of expressions largely informally but use formal notation to aid conciseness. Expressions are evaluated in an environment ρ mapping names to values. Initially, these environments contain the values and types of all globally bound names (functions, **val**-bound names). $\rho[x \mapsto v]$ is the modified environment ρ in which name x is bound to value v . $\rho[x]$ is the value mapped to by x in ρ .

There also exists a typing environment Γ mapping names to types. The same syntax is used to add bindings to Γ and denote the type mapped to by a name x . We also introduce a typing judgement $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ which can be read “expression e has type τ in context Γ ”. When Γ is used in a subsection, it refers to the environment in which that particular expression is typed, rather than the initial typing environment. This typing judgement is defined inductively on the structure of expressions by the following subsections.

Certain expressions will “consume” names, effectively moving them out of scope. As a rule of thumb, any name that can be consumed can only be consumed once in a given program path. Any names considered as consumed in a subexpression are considered consumed in the parent expression. Consumption is defined inductively on the structure of expressions by the following subsections.

Side effects are produced in evaluation order except in the case of **val**-bound names, which produce their associated expression’s side effects at **every** reference.

4.1 Case Expressions

case-expression ::= (**case** *expr* (**{** *case-branch* **}**))

case-branch ::= (*pattern* *expr*)

pattern ::= (*name* **{** *name* | **_** **}**)
| **_**

Note that we refer to instance of **_** in patterns as “wildcards”. Values of the form $(c\ v_1 \dots v_n)$ are eliminated by the *case-expression* syntactic form. Consider a case expression with n branches of the form:

(**case** *e*
 [(*c1* *v11* *v12* ...) *e1*]

...
 [(cn vn1 vn2 ...) en]))

4.1.1 Typing

We assert that the type of \mathbf{e} must be a datatype. Suppose that $\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{e} : \tau_d$. Each \mathbf{ci} must be a variant constructor of τ_d . For all $i \in 1, 2, \dots, n$, let $\tau_{i1}, \tau_{i2}, \dots, \tau_{im}$ be the types of \mathbf{ci} 's m arguments. We assert that the number of names and wildcards following \mathbf{ci} must be precisely m , and that all names must be fresh. Let Γ_i be $\Gamma[\mathbf{vi}1 \mapsto \tau_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{vim} \mapsto \tau_{im}]$. Note that wildcards are not bound. We assert that $\Gamma_i \vdash \mathbf{ei} : \tau_r$. The type of this expression in context Γ is τ_r .

4.1.2 Consumption

Names marked as consumed in \mathbf{e} are marked as consumed in all \mathbf{ei} .

4.1.3 Evaluation

Suppose evaluation of \mathbf{e} in environment ρ yields a value $v = (c \ v_i \ \dots \ v_m)$. If there exists some branch whose pattern is prefixed by c , it is evaluated in the environment ρ and its result is returned. Otherwise, the program halts with a runtime error.

Suppose this branch is the *case-branch* containing the pattern prefixed by variant constructor \mathbf{ck} . Evaluation of this branch yields the result of evaluating \mathbf{ek} in the modified environment $\rho' = \rho[\mathbf{vk}1 \mapsto v_1, \dots, \mathbf{vkm} \mapsto v_m]$. Note that we do not bind wildcards in ρ' .

4.2 If Expressions

if-expression ::= (if *expr expr expr*)

Consider an if expression of the form:

(if $\mathbf{e1} \ \mathbf{e2} \ \mathbf{e3}$)

4.2.1 Typing

We assert that the $\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{e1} : \mathbf{bool}$. We further assert that $\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{e2} : \tau_r$ and $\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{e3} : \tau_r$. The type of this expression in context Γ is τ_r .

4.2.2 Consumption

Names marked as consumed in $\mathbf{e1}$ are marked as consumed in $\mathbf{e1}$ and $\mathbf{e2}$.

4.2.3 Evaluation

Suppose evaluation of $\mathbf{e1}$ in environments ρ yields a boolean value v . If v is the value **true**, the expression $\mathbf{e1}$ is evaluated in environment ρ and its result is returned. If v is the value **false**, the expression $\mathbf{e2}$ is evaluated in environment ρ and its result is returned.

4.3 Begin Expressions

begin-expression ::= (**begin** { *expr* })

Consider a begin expression of the form:

(**begin** *e*₁ ... *e*_{*n*})

4.3.1 Typing

The type of this expression is the type of *e*_{*n*}.

4.3.2 Consumption

For all $i \in 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$, names marked as consumed in *e*_{*i*} are marked as consumed in *e*_{*i*} + 1.

4.3.3 Evaluation

Each *e*_{*i*} is evaluated in environment ρ in order from 1...*n*. We return the result of evaluating *e*_{*n*} in environment ρ .

4.4 Apply Expressions

apply-expression ::= (*expr* { *expr* })

Consider an apply expression of the form:

(**e** *e*₁ ... *e*_{*n*})

4.4.1 Typing

We assert that $\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{e} : (-> (t_1 \dots t_n) t_r)$. Each *e*_{*i*} must be of type *t*_{*i*} for $i \in 1, 2, \dots, n$. The type of this expression is *t*_{*r*}.

4.4.2 Consumption

For all $i \in 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$, names marked as consumed in *e*_{*i*} are marked as consumed in *e*_{*i*} + 1.

4.4.3 Evaluation

Each *e*_{*i*} is evaluated in environment ρ in order from 1...*n*. Let *v*₁...*v*_{*n*} be the values returned by evaluating each *e*_{*i*}.

We return the result of applying *v*_{*f*} to arguments *v*₁...*v*_{*n*}.

4.5 Let Expressions

let-expression ::= (**let** ($\{ \textit{let-binding} \}$) *expr*)

let-binding ::= (*name* *expr*)

Consider a let expression of the form:

```
(let
  ([x1 e1]
   ...
   [xn en])
  e)
```

4.5.1 Typing

We assert that each $\mathbf{x}i$ for $i \in 1, 2, \dots, n$ be fresh. Given that $\Gamma_k : \mathbf{x}k : \tau_k$, for $k \in 1, 2, \dots, n-1$, we say that $\Gamma_{k+1} = \Gamma_k[\mathbf{x}k \mapsto \tau_k]$. As a base case, let $\Gamma_1 = \Gamma$. The type of this expression is the type of $\mathbf{e}n$ in context Γ_n .

4.5.2 Consumption

For any $i \in 1, 2, \dots, n$ we mark any names consumed in $\mathbf{e}i$ as consumed in both \mathbf{e} and all $\mathbf{e}k$ for $k > i$.

4.5.3 Evaluation

For all $i \in 1, 2, \dots, n$, let $\rho_{i+1} = \rho_i[\mathbf{x}i \mapsto v_i]$, where v_i is the value returned by evaluating $\mathbf{e}i$ in environment ρ_i . As a base case, let $\rho_1 = \rho$. We return the result of evaluating \mathbf{e} in environment ρ_{n+1} .

4.6 Name Expressions

name-expression ::= *name*

Consider a name expression of the form:

\mathbf{n}

4.6.1 Typing

We assert that \mathbf{n} be bound in Γ . We further assert that \mathbf{n} not be marked as consumed. The type of this expression is $\Gamma[\mathbf{n}]$.

4.6.2 Consumption

If the type of \mathbf{n} in context Γ is a datatype, it is marked as consumed.

4.6.3 Evaluation

We return the value $\rho[\mathbf{n}]$.

4.7 Dup Expressions

dup-expression ::= (dup *name*)

Consider a dup expression of the form:

(dup *n*)

4.7.1 Typing

We assert that *n* be bound in Γ and that $\Gamma[\mathbf{n}]$ be a datatype. We further assert that *n* not be marked as consumed. The type of this expression is $\Gamma[\mathbf{n}]$.

4.7.2 Consumption

n is **not** marked as consumed.

4.7.3 Evaluation

We return the value $\rho[\mathbf{n}]$.

5 Definitions

Syntactic forms in the *def* category are allowed only at the top level of a Compost program.

def ::= *val-binding*
 | *function-definition*
 | *datatype-definition*
 | *type-annotation*
 | *use-declaration*

We retain the environment notation conventions from the previous section.

Compost maintains a global Γ_g and ρ_g which are mutated by type annotations, **val** bindings, and function definitions. Additional bindings may be added to these environments at code points. A change to either of these global environments at a given code point is reflected at all succeeding code points. To determine the initial Γ or ρ at a **val** binding or function definition, we take the Γ_g and ρ_g at its opening parenthesis.

5.1 Type Annotations

type-annotation ::= (*:* *name type-expression*)

Type annotations constrain the type of globally bound names. Each bound name, whether bound by **val** or **define**, must have an associated type annotation. Consider a type annotation of the form:

(*:* *n t*)

If *n* is bound by **define**, then we bind *n* to *t* in Γ_g at the first character of the file. If *n* is bound by **val**, then we bind *n* to *t* in Γ_g at the closing parenthesis of the **val** binding.

5.2 Val Bindings

val-binding ::= (**val** *name exp*)

Consider a **val** binding of the form:

(**val** *x e*)

Let Γ, ρ be Γ_g, ρ_g at the opening parenthesis of the binding. Let Γ_c be Γ_g at the closing parenthesis of the binding.

We assert that *x* be free in ρ and bound in Γ_g . Given $\Gamma_c[x] = \tau$, we assert that $\Gamma \vdash e = \tau$.

Let *v* be the result of evaluating *e* in environment ρ . We bind *x* to *v* in ρ_g at the closing parenthesis.

Note that if *e* produces a side effect, it is produced **only** when *x* is referenced and **every** time *x* is referenced. That is, references to **val**-bound names behave as zero-arity function calls rather than references to **let**-bound names. The secret sauce here is that **val** bindings are simply type-checked macros.

5.3 Function Definitions

function-definition ::= (**define** *name* (*{ name }*) *exp*)

Consider a function definition of the form:

(**define** *x* (*x1 ... xn*) *e*)

Let Γ, ρ be Γ_g, ρ_g at the opening parenthesis of the binding.

We assert that *x* be bound in Γ and free in ρ . We assert that $\Gamma[x] = (-> (\tau_1 \dots \tau_n) \tau_r)$. We assert that $\Gamma[x1 \mapsto \tau_1, \dots, xn \mapsto \tau_n] \vdash e : \tau_r$.

We bind *x*, in ρ_g at the first character of the file, to the function value that, when applied to arguments v_1, \dots, v_n , returns the result of evaluating *e* in the environment $\rho[x1 \mapsto v_1, \dots, xn \mapsto v_n]$.

5.4 Use Declarations

use-declaration ::= (**use** *filename*)

Use declarations are a thinly-veiled preprocessor directive which are replaced by the contents of the named file.

6 The Structure of Compost Programs

program ::= { *def* } *end-of-file*

Compost programs consists of a series of definitions. All executable programs must contain a function **main** of type `(-> () unit)`, which serves as the entry point for the program.

When a compiled Compost program is executed, **main** is invoked. The program terminates when **main** has been fully evaluated.

7 Initial Basis

Compost includes an initial basis providing those functions not possible or practical to define in terms of the rest of the core Compost language. A type annotation, description, and if possible, an implementaion, will be provided for each such function.

7.1 Equality

`(: =i (-> (int int) bool))`

Integer equality.

`(: =b (-> (bool bool) bool))`

Boolean equality.

`(: =s (-> (sym sym) bool))`

Symbol equality.

`(: =u (-> (unit unit) bool))`

Unit equality. Always returns **true**.

7.2 Arithmetic

`(: + (-> (int int) int))`

Two's complement addition.

`(: - (-> (int int) int))`

Two's complement subtraction.

`(: * (-> (int int) int))`

Two's complement multiplication.

`(: / (-> (int int) int))`

Two's complement div.

`(: % (-> (int int) int))`

Two's complement modulus.

`(: neg (-> (int) int))`

Two's complement negation.

7.3 Comparison

`(: > (-> (int int) bool))`

Returns **true** if the first argument is greater than the second. Returns **false** otherwise.

`(: < (-> (int int) bool))`

Returns **true** if the first argument is less than the second. Returns **false** otherwise.

`(: >= (-> (int int) bool))`

Returns **true** if the first argument is greater than or equal to the second. Returns **false** otherwise.

`(: <= (-> (int int) bool))`

Returns **true** if the first argument is less than or equal to the second. Returns **false** otherwise.

7.4 Boolean Logic

```
(: not (-> (bool) bool))
```

Logical NOT.

```
(: and (-> (bool bool) bool))
```

Logical AND.

```
(: or (-> (bool bool) bool))
```

Logical OR.

```
(: xor (-> (bool bool) bool))
```

Logical XOR.

7.5 I/O: Printing

The following functions print representations of primitive values to stdout.

```
(: print-int (-> (int) unit))
```

Prints the digits of decimal representation the absolute value of its argument in order from most to least significant, prefixed with a - if it is less than 0.

```
(: print-bool (-> (bool) unit))
```

Prints `true` to if its argument is the value `true` and prints `false` otherwise.

```
(: print-sym (-> (sym) unit))
```

Prints its symbol argument's associated string.

```
(: print-unit (-> (unit) unit))
```

Prints `unit`.

7.6 I/O: Input

```
(: in (-> () sym))
```

Returns a symbol containing a single character read from stdin. Note that all printable ASCII characters are initialized as symbols.

7.7 Lists and Helpers

7.7.1 Integers

```
(datatype list-int
  ([cons-int (int list-int)]
  [nil-int ()]))
```

Lisp-style lists of integers.

```
(: filter-list-int (-> ((-> (int) bool) list-int) list-int))
(define filter-list-int (f xxs)
  (case xxs
    ([ (cons-int x xs)
      (if (f x)
          (cons-int x (filter-list-int f xs))
          (filter-list-int f xs))]
      [(nil-int) (nil-int)])))
```

Returns a list containing all elements of `xxs` satisfying predicate `f`.

```
(: exists-list-int (-> ((-> (int) bool) list-int) bool))
(define exists-list-int (f xxs)
  (case xxs
    ([ (cons-int x xs)
      (if (f x)
          true
          (exists-list-int f xs))]
      [(nil-int) false])))
```

Returns `true` if some element of `xxs` satisfies predicate `f`, `false` otherwise.

```
(: concat-list-int (-> (list-int list-int) list-int))
(define concat-list-int (xxs ys)
  (case xxs
    ([ (cons-int x xs) (cons-int x (concat-list-int xs ys))]
      [(nil-int) ys])))
```

Concatenates two lists of integers.

7.7.2 Symbols

```
(datatype string
  ([append (int string)]
   [empty ()]))
```

Lisp-style lists of symbols.

```
(: filter-string (-> ((-> (int) bool) string) string))
(define filter-string (f xxs)
  (case xxs
    ([append x xs]
     (if (f x)
         (append x (filter-string xs))
         (filter-string f xs))]
      [(empty) (empty)])))
```

Returns a string containing all elements of `xxs` satisfying predicate `f`.

```
(: exists-string (-> ((-> (int) bool) string) bool))
(define exists-string (f xxs)
  (case xxs
    ([append x xs]
     (if (f x)
         true
         (exists-string f xs))]
      [(empty) false])))
```

Returns `true` if some element of `xxs` satisfies predicate `f`, `false` otherwise.

```
(: concat-string (-> (string string) string))
(define concat-string (xxs ys)
  (case xxs
    ([append x xs] (append x (concat-string xs ys))]
      [(empty) ys])))
```

Concatenates two strings.

7.7.3 Booleans

```
(datatype list-bool
  ([cons-bool (bool list-bool)]
   [nil-bool ()]))
```

Lisp-style lists of booleans.

```
(: filter-list-bool (-> ((-> (bool) bool) list-bool) list-bool))
(define filter-list-bool (f xxs)
  (case xxs
    ([ (cons-bool x xs)
      (if (f x)
          (cons-bool x (filter-list-bool xs))
          (filter-list-bool f xs))]
      [(nil-bool) (nil-bool)])))
```

Returns a list containing all elements of `xxs` satisfying predicate `f`.

```
(: exists-list-bool (-> ((-> (bool) bool) list-bool) bool))
(define exists-list-bool (f xxs)
  (case xxs
    ([ (cons-bool x xs)
      (if (f x)
          true
          (exists-list-bool f xs))]
      [(nil-bool) false])))
```

Returns `true` if some element of `xxs` satisfies predicate `f`, `false` otherwise.

```
(: concat-list-bool (-> (list-bool list-bool) list-bool))
(define concat-list-bool (xxs ys)
  (case xxs
    ([ (cons-bool x xs) (cons-bool x (concat-list-bool xs ys))]
      [(nil-bool) ys])))
```

Concatenates two lists of booleans.

8 Project Plan

Identify process used for planning, specification, and development

Show your project timeline

Identify roles/responsibilities/contributions of each team member

Describe the software development environment used (tools and languages)

If possible, include a visualization of version control commits (but not a dump of a commit log)

9 Architectural Design

Give block diagram showing the major components of your compiler and the interfaces between them

Summarize how the language's "interesting" features were implemented

State who implemented each component

10 Test Plan

Explain how your group approached unit and integration testing, and what automation was used.

Show two or three representative source language programs along with the target language program generated for each (if you can provide syntax highlighting and nice formatting that's REALLY useful)

State who did what

11 Lessons Learned

Each team member should explain their most important takeaways from working on this project

Include any advice the team has for future teams

12 Appendix

Attach a complete code listing of your translator with each module signed by its author(s)

Do not include any automatically generated files, only the sources.