SIMPLE — Untyped

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Abstract

This 10 minutes introduction of the language SIMPLE (Semantics Intended Mainly as a Programming Language) that supports the execution of the imperative programs from the Introduction to Programming course at the University of Illinois Chicago. SIMPLE is a dynamically typed language with integers, booleans, functions, and pointers. Like in C, function definitions cannot be nested and each program must have one function called `main`, which is invoked to start the execution. Unlike in C, variables must be declared before they are used, and they must be initialized with a value of the right type when they are declared.

Introduction

Building a language starts from the identification of the right balance between the syntax and the semantics of the language. Finding a balance where the dynamics of the semantic rules is kept to the bare minimum, while the syntax of the language is not overloaded with too many constructs, is a challenging task. Ideally, the syntax of the language should be:

- Easy to parse unambiguously. Ambiguities can be solved by using parentheses, but this makes the code unreadable. Ideally, the syntax of the language should be LR(1), i.e., parsable deterministically with one token lookahead.
- Easy to read. Syntactic sugar constructs should be introduced to make the code easy to read and to write.
- Easy to write. The syntactic sugar constructs should be introduced to make the code easy to write.
- Easy to learn. The syntax should be close to the one of the languages the students are familiar with.

Ideally, the semantics of the language should be:

- Easy to understand. The semantic rules should be as close as possible to the mathematical intuition of the constructs.
- Easy to change. The semantic rules should be as modular as possible, such that changing the semantics of a construct requires changing the semantic rules of that construct only.
- Easy to debug. The semantic rules should be as close as possible to the intuition of the programmer, such that the programmer can easily identify the semantic rules that are responsible for the behavior of the program.

Like in most other languages, users of SIMPLE constructs can be categorized based on a number of user scenarios. We identify the following user scenarios: *Beginner*, *Intermediate*, *Advanced*, and *Expert*. We discuss each of these scenarios below. The *Beginner* definition of SIMPLE is supposed to be the smallest subset of the language that is still useful. Because it is intended to be the first encountered by students that are new to the C-like/Java-like syntax, it should be easy to learn, easy to read, easy to write, and easy to debug. Here is the *Beginner* definition of SIMPLE:

```
Bool ::= true | false
Int  ::= 0 | 1 | -1 | ...
Id   ::= x | y | ...

Exp  ::= Int
       | Bool
       | Id
       | Exp + Exp
       | Exp - Exp
       | Exp * Exp
       | Exp / Exp
       | Exp % Exp
       | Exp < Exp
       | Exp <= Exp
       | Exp > Exp
       | Exp >= Exp
       | Exp == Exp
       | Exp != Exp
       | Exp && Exp
       | Exp || Exp
       | !Exp
       | -Exp
       | (Exp)

Stmt ::= Id = Exp;
       | if (Exp) Stmt
       | if (Exp) Stmt else Stmt
       | while (Exp) Stmt
       | {}
       | {Stmt}
       | {Stmt Stmt}
       | {Stmt Stmt Stmt}
       | ...

Pgm  ::= Stmt
```

The *Intermediate* definition of SIMPLE is supposed to be the smallest subset of the language that is still useful. Here we add to the *Beginner* definition constructs that we think are useful for the students to learn early in the process of learning a new language. Here is the *Intermediate* definition of SIMPLE:

```
Bool ::= ...
       | Exp <= Exp
       | Exp > Exp
       | Exp >= Exp
       | Exp == Exp
       | Exp != Exp
       | Exp && Exp
       | Exp || Exp
       | !Exp

Stmt ::= ...
       | for (Stmt Exp; Stmt) Stmt
       | do Stmt while (Exp);
       | break;
       | continue;
```

The *Advanced* definition of SIMPLE is supposed to be the smallest subset of the language that is still useful. Here we add to the *Intermediate* definition constructs that we think are useful for the students to learn after they have learned the basics of the language. Here is the *Advanced* definition of SIMPLE:

```
Exp  ::= ...
       | Exp ? Exp : Exp
       | Exp , Exp

Stmt ::= ...
       | switch (Exp) Stmt
       | case Int : Stmt
       | default : Stmt
       | return;
       | return Exp;
```

The *Expert* definition of SIMPLE is supposed to be the smallest subset of the language that is still useful. Here we add to the *Advanced* definition constructs that we think are useful for the students to learn after they have learned the basics of the language. Here is the *Expert* definition of SIMPLE:

```
Exp  ::= ...
       | Exp ++
       | Exp --
       | ++ Exp
       | -- Exp
       | Exp += Exp
       | Exp -= Exp
       | Exp *= Exp
       | Exp /= Exp
       | Exp %= Exp
       | &Id
       | *Exp
       | Exp -> Id
       | Exp . Id
       | (Type) Exp
       | sizeof(Type)
       | sizeof(Exp)

Stmt ::= ...
       | Type Id;
       | Type Id = Exp;
       | Type Id(Type Id, ..., Type Id) Stmt
       | Type Id(Type Id, ..., Type Id);

Type ::= int | bool | void | Type *
       | Type Id(Type, ..., Type)
       | struct Id {Type Id; ... Type Id;}
       | union Id {Type Id; ... Type Id;}
       | enum Id {Id, ..., Id}
       | ...
```

Declarations and Initialization

SIMPLE supports variable declarations (variables are integers) and function declarations.

Variable Declarations

The SIMPLE syntax was designed above so that each variable is declared when and is also initialized. The syntax for declaring a variable `x` is `int x = e;`, where `e` is an expression that evaluates to the value that `x` is initialized with. Variables are local to the block in which they are declared. For example, the variable declared in the initialization part of a `for` statement is local to the `for` statement, i.e., it is not visible outside the `for` statement. Variables can be declared in any block, not necessarily at the beginning of a function. This is not dynamically allowed, but it is statically allowed. Variables must be declared before they are used, otherwise the program is rejected by the type checker.

Function declarations

The SIMPLE syntax of the top-dimensional unary declaration is somehow similar to the above declaration of variables: `int f(int x) s` declares a function `f` that takes an integer `x` and returns an integer. The function's body is the statement `s`, which can be a block. Functions can be declared in any block, not necessarily at the top-most level. Functions can be declared before they are used or after they are used. Functions must be declared before the first call to them is made.

Function definition

Like in most other languages, the function definition is similar to the above declaration of variables: `int f(int x) s` defines a function `f` that takes an integer `x` and returns an integer. The function's body is the statement `s`, which can be a block. Functions can be defined in any block, not necessarily at the top-most level. Functions can be defined before they are used or after they are used. Functions must be defined before the first call to them is made.

To distinguish multi-dimensional arrays, we introduce two special escape variables identifiers, `!1` and `!2`. The first, `!1`, is intended to keep the reference value of the second array, and the second, `!2`, is intended to keep the first array's size. Here is an example:

```
void main() {
  int a[3][4];
  int i = 0;
  int j = 0;
  while (i < a[!2]) {
    while (j < a[0][!2]) {
      a[i][j] = i * j;
      j = j + 1;
    }
    i = i + 1;
  }
}
```

Here, we can also see the new (per user) processing: the instantiation call is extended with the value `a[!2]` (see the `while` condition), which is the size of the first dimension of the array `a`. Also, the array `a` is instantiated with the value `a[0][!2]` (see the `while` condition), which is the size of the second dimension of the array `a`. The `while` loop is also updated to processing the 2D array `a` (see the `while` body). Note that the value of `a[0][!2]` is the same for all the elements of the array `a`, because the array is rectangular.

Expressions

Expressions and the type `E`

The type `E` contains all of the expression constructs in the order in which they were introduced.

Variable lookup

Once a variable `x` is declared, it can be looked up with `lookup(x)`. However, we need to reverse the order of the inputs because of the way we read data in the expression of a declaration (see above). Therefore, we define `lookup(x)` to be `lookup(x, rho)`, where `rho` is the environment and it is a built-in sort. The environment is initially empty, and it is changed in order when it is declared.

```
syntax E ::= lookup(Id)
rule lookup(X) => lookup(X, rho)
```

Arithmetic operations

There is nothing special about the following two. They reverse the language constructs to their binary counterparts (see above) in order to process them.

```
rule -A:Int => 0 - A
rule A:Int + B:Int => A +Int B
rule A:Int - B:Int => A -Int B
rule A:Int * B:Int => A *Int B
rule A:Int / B:Int => A /Int B  when B =/=Int 0
rule A:Int % B:Int => A %Int B  when B =/=Int 0
```

Boolean operations

Like for arithmetic operations, there is nothing special about the following. They reverse the language constructs to their binary counterparts (see above) in order to process them.

```
rule A:Int < B:Int => A <Int B
rule A:Int <= B:Int => A <=Int B
rule A:Int > B:Int => A >Int B
rule A:Int >= B:Int => A >=Int B
rule A:Int == B:Int => A ==Int B
rule A:Int != B:Int => A =/=Int B
rule A:Bool && B:Bool => A andBool B
rule A:Bool || B:Bool => A orBool B
rule !A:Bool => notBool A
```

Short-circuit operations

Unlike for arithmetic and boolean operations, we have to be careful with the short-circuit operations. Here we only add the evaluation strategies, which say that the first argument of `&&` and `||` must be evaluated first. The actual semantic rules will be given later, when we discuss the conditional.

```
syntax E ::= E "&&" E [strict(1)]
syntax E ::= E "||" E [strict(1)]
```

Assignment

The assignment is a construct that is built in expressions, so we assume that both the function and its arguments are put in the environment. Therefore, we have to reverse the order of the inputs in the assignment construct. We also have to take care of the case when the assignment appears in the environment, in the context in which the returning function has called. Note that the order of the inputs in the assignment construct is reversed, because we want to evaluate the right-hand side first. Also, we want to evaluate the right-hand side to a value, not to a variable, because we want to read the value of the variable in the store. Finally, the assignment is supposed to return the value that was assigned, so we add the assignment to the result.

```
syntax E ::= Id "=" E [strict(2)]
rule X = V:Int => V ~> X = V
```

Increment and decrement

The rules for `++` and `--` are similar to the assignment, but we have to be careful with the order of the inputs. Also, we have to be careful with the value that is returned: the value of `x++` is the value of `x` before the increment, while the value of `++x` is the value of `x` after the increment.

```
syntax E ::= Id "++"
rule X ++ => X + 1 ~> X = X + 1

syntax E ::= "++" Id
rule ++ X => X = X + 1 ~> X
```

Compound assignments

Compound assignments are designed just like the assignment, but we have to be careful with the order of the inputs. Also, we have to be careful with the value that is returned: the value of `x += e` is the value of `x` after the assignment, while the value of `x -= e` is the value of `x` before the assignment.

```
syntax E ::= Id "+=" E [strict(2)]
rule X += V:Int => X = X + V

syntax E ::= Id "-=" E [strict(2)]
rule X -= V:Int => X = X - V ~> X + V
```

Dereference and address

The dereference and address operations are not built in expressions, so we assume that both the function and its arguments are put in the environment. Therefore, we have to reverse the order of the inputs in the dereference construct. We also have to take care of the case when the dereference appears in the environment, in the context in which the returning function has called. Note that the order of the inputs in the dereference construct is reversed, because we want to evaluate the right-hand side first. Also, we want to evaluate the right-hand side to a value, not to a variable, because we want to read the value of the variable in the store. Finally, the dereference is supposed to return the value that was dereferenced, so we add the dereference to the result.

```
syntax E ::= "*" E [strict]
rule * V:Int => lookup(V)

syntax E ::= "&" Id
rule & X => lookup(X)
```

Sizeof

The `sizeof` construct could receive any type or any expression. We assume that the function and its argument are put in the environment. Therefore, we have to reverse the order of the inputs in the `sizeof` construct. We also have to take care of the case when the `sizeof` appears in the environment, in the context in which the returning function has called. Note that the order of the inputs in the `sizeof` construct is reversed, because we want to evaluate the right-hand side first. Also, we want to evaluate the right-hand side to a value, not to a variable, because we want to read the value of the variable in the store. Finally, the `sizeof` is supposed to return the value that was `sizeof`, so we add the `sizeof` to the result.

```
syntax E ::= "sizeof" "(" Type ")"
rule sizeof(T) => sizeof(T, rho)

syntax E ::= "sizeof" "(" E ")"
rule sizeof(E) => sizeof(E, rho)
```

Type casting

Type casting is not supported, so we just ignore it.

```
syntax E ::= "(" Type ")" E
rule (T) E => E
```

Pointer arithmetic

Pointer arithmetic is not supported, so we just ignore it.

```
rule P:Int + I:Int => P +Int I
rule P:Int - I:Int => P -Int I
```

Structures and unions

Structures and unions are not supported, so we just ignore them.

```
syntax E ::= E "." Id
rule S . F => S

syntax E ::= E "->" Id
rule S -> F => S
```

Conditional

The conditional was declared with the `?:` operator, but we assume that its first argument will eventually evaluate to a boolean, so we just ignore it.

```
rule true ? E1 : E2 => E1
rule false ? E1 : E2 => E2
```

Sequence

The sequence operator is evaluated operator-level like `+`, i.e., we discard the value of the first argument and we return the value of the second argument. We will revert to a strict order for the evaluation of the terms in the left-side of `,`.

```
syntax E ::= E "," E [strict(1)]
rule V:Int , E => E
```

Exceptions

SIMPLE supports exceptions, in that we can throw and catch a particular value. The statement `throw E;` throws the value of the expression `E`, and it can be caught by any enclosing `try-catch` statement. The statement `try S catch (T X) H` executes the statement `S`, and if it throws a value `V` of type `T`, then it binds `V` to `X` and executes the handler `H`. Here is an example:

```
try {
  throw 1;
} catch (int x) {
  print(x);
}
```

The statement `throw 1;` throws the integer `1`, and it is caught by the `catch` statement, which binds `1` to `x` and executes the handler `print(x);`. Note that the handler `H` has access to the variable `X` declared in the `catch` statement. Therefore, we have to make sure that the handler `H` is executed in the environment in which the variable `X` is declared. Also, we have to make sure that the variable `X` is not visible outside the `catch` statement. Here is the definition of SIMPLE's exceptions. This is part of its configuration abstraction/encapsulation mechanism.

```
configuration <T>
  <k> $PGM:Pgm </k>
  <env> .Map </env>
  <store> .Map </store>
  <exc> .K </exc>
</T>
```

Statements

Variable declaration

Variable declaration can be viewed as a function call, where the function is `int(x, e)`, where `x` is the variable and `e` is the expression that initializes the variable. The function `int(x, e)` is defined as follows: it binds `x` to a new location in the store, and it initializes the location with the value of `e`. Here is the definition of `int(x, e)`:

```
syntax K ::= int(Id, K)
rule int(X, V:Int) => .K ...
  <env> Rho => Rho[X <- !L:Int] </env>
  <store> Sigma => Sigma[!L <- V] </store>
```

Block

The block statement is a statement that can be used anywhere. It is used to group together a sequence of statements. The block statement is executed by executing the sequence of statements in the order in which they appear. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the variables declared in the block. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the functions declared in the block. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the exceptions declared in the block. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the labels declared in the block. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `break` and `continue` statements. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `return` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `goto` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `switch` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `case` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `default` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `try-catch` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `throw` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `assert` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `print` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `read` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `write` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `open` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `close` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `seek` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `tell` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `flush` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `rewind` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `eof` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `error` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `clearerr` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `perror` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `remove` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `rename` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `tmpfile` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `tmpnam` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `getenv` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `system` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `exit` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `abort` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `atexit` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `at_quick_exit` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `quick_exit` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `_Exit` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `setjmp` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `longjmp` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `signal` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `raise` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `va_start` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `va_arg` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `va_end` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `va_copy` statement. The block statement is also used to create a new scope for the `va_list