Report on the Larch Shared Language Version 2.3

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Authors' Abstract

The Larch family of languages is used to specify program interfaces in a two-tiered definitional style. Each Larch specification has components written in two languages: one that is designed for a specific programming language and another that is independent of any programming language. The former are the *Larch interface languages*, and the latter is the *Larch Shared Language (LSL)*. Version 2.3 of LSL is similar to previous versions, but contains a number of refinements based on experience writing specifications and developing tools to support the specification process. This report contains an informal introduction and a self-contained language definition.

This report supersedes Pieces II and III of *Larch in Five Easy Pieces* [Guttag, Horning, and Wing 1985b] and "Report on the Larch Shared Language" [Guttag and Horning 1986].

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Chapter 1

Overview

1.1. Introduction

The Larch family of specification languages supports a two-tiered definitional approach to specification [Guttag, Horning, and Wing 1985a]. Each specification has components written in two languages: one designed for a specific programming language and another independent of any programming language. The former are called *Larch interface languages*, and the latter the *Larch Shared Language* (*LSL*).

Larch interface languages are used to specify the interfaces between program components. Each specification provides the information needed to use the interface and to write programs that implement it. A critical part of each interface is how the component communicates with its environment. Communication mechanisms differ from programming language to programming language, sometimes in subtle ways. It is easier to be precise about communication when the interface specification language reflects the programming language. Specifications written in such interface languages are generally shorter than those written in a "universal" interface language. They are also clearer to programmers who implement components and to programmers who use them.

Each Larch interface language deals with what can be observed about the behavior of components written in a particular programming language. It incorporates programming-language-specific notations for features such as side effects, exception handling, iterators, and concurrency. Its simplicity or complexity depends largely upon the simplicity or complexity of the observable state and state transformations of its programming language. For example, an interface specification for a window system procedure to be implemented in CLU [Liskov and Guttag 1986] might be

```
addWindow = proc (v: View, w: Window, c: Coord) signals (duplicate)
modifies v
ensures v_{post} = addW(v, w, c)
except when w \in v signals duplicate ensures v_{post} = v
```

To understand such a specification, it is necessary to know both the meanings of the interface language constructs (e.g., **proc**, **signals**, **modifies**) and the meanings of operators appearing in expressions (e.g., addW, \in). Larch Shared Language specifications are used to define the latter. Specifiers are not limited to a fixed set of operators, but can use LSL to create specialized vocabularies suitable for particular interface specifications. An LSL specification that defined the meaning of addW and \in could be used to give precise

answers to questions such as what it means for a window to be in a view (visible or possibly obscured?), or what it means to add a window to a view that may contain other windows at the same location.

Larch encourages a separation of concerns, with mathematical abstractions in the LSL tier, and programming pragmatics in the interface tier. We encourage specifiers to keep the difficult parts in the LSL tier, for several reasons:

- LSL abstractions are more likely to be reusable than interface specifications.
- LSL has a simpler underlying semantics than most programming languages (and hence than most interface languages), so that specifiers are less likely to make mistakes.
- It is easier to make and check claims about semantic properties of LSL specifications than about semantic properties of interface specifications.

This chapter is an informal introduction to the Larch Shared Language, Version 2.3. It introduces all the features of the language, briefly discusses how they are intended to be used, and closes with a reference grammar. The following chapter is a rigorous definition of the language.

1.2. Simple Algebraic Specifications

LSL's basic unit of specification is a *trait*. A trait may describe an abstract data type or may encapsulate a property shared by several data types. Consider the following specification of tables that store values in indexed places:

```
Table: trait

introduces

new: \rightarrow Tab

add: Tab, Ind, Val \rightarrow Tab

\_\in\_: Ind, Tab \rightarrow Bool

lookup: Tab, Ind \rightarrow Val

isEmpty: Tab \rightarrow Bool

size: Tab \rightarrow Card

asserts \forall i, i': Ind, val: Val, t: Tab

lookup(add(t, i, val), i') == if i = i' then val else lookup(t, i')

\neg(i \in \text{new})

i \in \text{add}(t, i', val) == i = i' \lor i \in t

size(new) == 0

size(add(t, i, val)) == if i \in t then size(t) else size(t) + 1

isEmpty(t) == size(t) = 0
```

This is similar to a conventional algebraic specification [Bidoit 1988; Dahl, Langmyhr, and Owe 1986; Gaudel 1985; Guttag and Horning 1978; Wirsing 1989]. The part of the specification following **introduces** declares a list of *operators* (function identifiers), each with its *signature* (the *sorts* of its domain and range). Every operator used in a trait must be declared; the signatures are used to sort-check *terms* (expressions) in much the same way as function calls are type-checked in programming languages. The remainder of this specification constrains the operators by means of equations.

An equation consists of two terms of the same sort, separated by ==. Equations of the form term == true can be abbreviated by simply writing the term; thus the second equation in the trait above is an abbreviation for $\neg(i \in new) == true$.

The characters "__" in an operator declaration indicate that the operator will be used in mixfix expressions. For example, \in is declared as a binary infix operator. Infix, prefix, postfix, and distributed operators are integral parts of many familiar notations, and their use can contribute substantially to the readability of specifications. LSL's grammar for mixfix terms is intended to ensure that legal terms parse as readers expect—even without studying the grammar. Writers of specifications should study the grammar in Section 1.13—although fully parenthesized terms are always acceptable.¹

The name of a trait is independent of the names that appear within it. In particular, we do not use sort identifiers to name units of specification. A trait need not correspond to an abstract data type, and often does not.

Each trait defines a *theory* (a set of formulas without free variables) in typed first-order logic with equality. Each theory contains the trait's assertions, the conventional axioms of first-order logic, everything that follows from them, and nothing else. This interpretation guarantees that the formulas in the theory follow only from the presence of assertions in the trait—never from their absence. This is in contrast to algebraic specification languages based on initial or final algebras [Ehrig and Mahr 1985; Goguen, Thatcher, and Wagner 1978; Sanella and Tarlecki 1987; Wand 1979]. Our interpretation is essential

¹ LSL has a very simple precedence scheme for operators: postfix operators consisting of a period followed by an identifier bind most tightly. Other user-defined operators and the built-in Boolean negation operator (¬) bind more tightly than the built-in in equational operators (= and ≠), which bind more tightly than the built-in Boolean connectives (∧, ∨, and ⇒), which bind more tightly than ==. For example, the term x + w.a.b = y ∨ z is equivalent to ((x + ((w.a).b)) = y) ∨ z. LSL allows unparenthesised infix terms with multiple operators at the same precedence level only if they are the same; it associates such terms from left to right. Thus x ∧ y ∧ z is equivalent to (x ∧ y) ∧ z, but x ∨ y ∧ z isn't allowed.

to ensure that all theorems proved about an incomplete specification remain valid when it is completed.

LSL requires that each trait be *consistent*: it must not define a theory containing the equation true == false. Consistency is often difficult to prove, and is undecidable in general. But inconsistencies are often easy to detect [Garland, Guttag, and Horning 1990], and can be a useful indication that there is something wrong with a trait.

1.3. Getting Richer Theories

Equational theories are useful, but a stronger theory is often needed, for example, when specifying an abstract data type. The constructs **generated by** and **partitioned by** provide two ways of strengthening equational specifications.

A generated by clause asserts that all values of a sort can be generated by a given list of operators, thus providing a "generator induction" schema for the sort. For example, the natural numbers are generated by 0 and successor, and the integers are generated by 0, successor, and predecessor.

The axiom "Tab generated by new, add", if added to Table, could be used to prove theorems by induction over new and add, such as

 $\forall \ t: \ \texttt{Tab} \ \Big(\ \texttt{isEmpty}(t) \ \forall \ \exists \ i: \ \texttt{Ind} \ ig(\ i \in t \ ig) \Big)$

A partitioned by clause asserts that all distinct values of a sort can be distinguished by a given list of operators. Terms that are not distinguishable using any of the partitioning operators of their sort are equal. For example, sets are partitioned by \in , because sets that contain the same elements are equal.

The axiom "Tab partitioned by \in , lookup", if added to Table, could be used to derive theorems that do not follow from the equations alone, such as

 $\forall t: \texttt{Tab}, i, i: \texttt{Ind}, v: \texttt{Val} (\texttt{add}(\texttt{add}(t, i, v), i', v) = \texttt{add}(\texttt{add}(t, i', v), i, v))$

1.4. Combining Traits

Table contains a number of totally unconstrained operators (e.g., +). Such traits are not very useful. Additional assertions dealing with these operators could be added to Table. However, for modularity, it is often better to include a separate trait by reference. This makes it easier to reuse pieces of other specifications and handbooks. We might add to trait Table:

includes Cardinal

The theory associated with the including trait is the theory associated with the union of all of the **introduces** and **asserts** clauses of the trait body and the included traits.

It is often convenient to combine several traits dealing with different aspects of the same operator. This is common when specifying something that is not easily thought of as an abstract data type. Consider, for example, the following specifications of properties of relations:

```
Reflexive: trait

introduces ... \diamond ...: T, T \rightarrow Bool

asserts \forall t: T

t \diamond t

Symmetric: trait

introduces ... \diamond ...: T, T \rightarrow Bool

asserts \forall t, t': T

t \diamond t' == t' \diamond t

Transitive: trait

introduces ... \diamond ...: T, T \rightarrow Bool

asserts \forall t, t', t": T

(t \diamond t' \land t' \diamond t") \Rightarrow t \diamond t"
```

Equivalence1: trait includes Reflexive, Symmetric, Transitive

The trait Equivalence1 has the same associated theory as the following less structured trait:

```
Equivalence2: trait

introduces __ \diamond __: T, T \rightarrow Bool

asserts \forall t, t', t'': T

t \diamond t

t \diamond t' == t' \diamond t

(t \diamond t' \land t' \diamond t'') \Rightarrow t \diamond t''
```

1.5. Renaming

Equivalence1 relies heavily on the use of the same operator symbol, \diamond , and the same sort identifier, T, in three included traits. In the absence of such happy coincidences, renaming can be used to make names coincide, to keep them from coinciding, or simply to replace them with more suitable names, for example,

Equivalence: trait

```
includes (Reflexive, Symmetric, Transitive) (\equiv for \diamond)
```

The phrase Tr(name1 for name2) stands for the trait Tr with every occurrence of name2 (which must be either a sort or operator name) replaced by name1. If name2 is a sort identifier, this renaming may change the signatures associated with some of the operators in Tr.

If Table were augmented by the generated by, partitioned by, and includes clauses of the two previous sections, the specification

```
SparseArray: trait
    includes Integer,
       Table(Arr for Tab, defined for \in, assign for add, \_[\_] for lookup, Int for Ind)
would be equivalent to
  SparseArray: trait
    includes Integer, Cardinal
    introduces
       new: \rightarrow Arr
       assign: Arr, Int, Val \rightarrow Arr
       defined: Int, Arr \rightarrow Bool
       \_[\_]: Arr, Int \rightarrow Val
       isEmpty: Arr \rightarrow Bool
       size: Arr \rightarrow Card
     asserts
       Arr generated by new, assign
       Arr partitioned by defined, __[__]
       \forall i, i': Int, val: Val, t: Arr
         assign(t, i, val)[i'] == if i = i' then val else t[i']
         \negdefined(i, new)
         defined(i, assign(t, i', val)) == i = i' \lor defined(i, t)
         size(new) == 0
         size(assign(t, i, val)) == if defined(i, t) then size(t) else size(t) + 1
         isEmpty(t) == size(t) = 0
```

Note that the infix operator symbol $__\in_$ was replaced by the operator defined, and that the operator lookup was replaced by the mixfix operator symbol $__[__]$. Renamings preserve the order of operands.

Any sort or operator in a trait can be renamed when that trait is referenced in another trait. Some, however, are more likely to be renamed than others. It is often convenient to single these out so that they can be renamed positionally. For example, if the header for the SparseArray trait had been "SparseArray(Val): trait", the phrases "includes SparseArray(Int)" and "includes SparseArray(Int for Val)" would be equivalent.

1.6. Stating Intended Consequences

It is not possible to prove the "correctness" of a specification, because there is no absolute standard against which to judge correctness. But specifications can contain errors, and specifiers need help in locating them. Since LSL specifications cannot generally be executed, they cannot be tested in the way that programs are commonly tested. LSL sacrifices executability in favor of brevity, clarity, and flexibility, and provides other ways to check specifications.

This section briefly describes ways in which specifications can be augmented with redundant information to be checked during validation. Chapter 3 defines the checks rigorously. A separate paper discusses the use of LP, the Larch Prover [Garland, Guttag, and Horning 1990] to assist in specification debugging.

Checkable properties of LSL specifications fall into three categories: *consistency*, *theory containment*, and *completeness*. As discussed in Section 1.2, the requirement of consistency makes any trait whose theory contains true == false illegal.

Claims about theory containment are made using **implies**. Consider the claim that **SparseArray** guarantees that an array with a defined element isn't empty. To indicate that this claim should be checked, we could add to **SparseArray**

```
implies \forall a: Arr, i: Int
defined(i, a) \Rightarrow \neg isEmpty(a)
```

The theory claimed to be implied can be specified using the full power of the language, including equations, **generated by** and **partitioned by** clauses, and references to other traits. In addition to assisting in error detection, implications help readers confirm their understanding, and can simplify reasoning about higher-level traits.

The initial design of LSL incorporated a built-in requirement of completeness. However, we quickly concluded that this was better left to the specifier's discretion. It is useful to check certain aspects of completeness long before a specification is finished, yet most finished specifications (intentionally) don't fully define all their operators. Claims about how complete a specification is are made using **converts**. Adding the claim "**implies converts isEmpty**" to Table says that the trait's axioms fully define **isEmpty**. This means that, if the interpretations of all the other operators are fixed, there is a unique interpretation of **isEmpty** satisfying the axioms.

Now consider adding the stronger claim "implies converts isEmpty, lookup" to Table. The meaning of terms of the form lookup(new, i) is not defined by the trait, so it isn't possible to verify this claim. The incompleteness could be resolved by adding another axiom to the trait, for example, "lookup(new, i) == errorVal". However, the specifier of Table should not be concerned with whether Val has an errorVal operator, and should not be required to introduce irrelevant constraints on lookup. Extra axioms give readers more details to assimilate. They may preclude useful specializations of a general specification. And sometimes there is no reasonable axiom that would make an operator convertible (consider division by 0).

LSL provides an **exempting** clause that lists terms that need not be defined. The claim "**implies converts isEmpty**, lookup **exempting** \forall *i*: Ind lookup(new, *i*)" means that, if interpretations of the other operators and of all terms matching lookup(new, *i*) are fixed, there are unique interpretations of isEmpty and lookup that satisfy the trait's axioms. This is provable from the specification.

1.7. Recording Assumptions

It is useful to construct general specifications that can be specialized in a variety of ways. Consider, for example,

```
Bag(E): trait

introduces

\{ \}: \rightarrow B

insert, delete: E, B \rightarrow B

\_\in\_: E, B \rightarrow Bool

asserts

B generated by \{ \}, insert

B partitioned by delete, \in

\forall b: B, e, e': E

\neg(e \in \{ \})

e \in insert(e', b) == e = e' \lor e \in b

delete(e, \{ \}) == \{ \}

delete(e', insert(e, b)) == if e = e' then b else insert(e, delete(e', b))
```

We might specialize this to IntegerBag by renaming E to Int and including it in a trait in which operators dealing with Int are specified, for example,

```
IntegerBag: trait
includes Integer, Bag(Int)
```

The interactions between Integer and Bag are very limited. Nothing in Bag makes any assumptions about the meaning of the operators, such as 0, +, and <, that are defined in Integer. Consider, however, extending Bag to Bag1 by adding an operator rangeCount,

```
Bag1(E): trait

includes Bag, Cardinal

introduces

rangeCount: E, E, B \rightarrow Card

_-<_:: E, E \rightarrow Bool

asserts \forall e, e', e'': E, b: B

rangeCount(e, e', { }) == 0

rangeCount(e, e', insert(e'', b)) ==

rangeCount(e, e', b) + ( if e < e'' \land e'' < e' then 1 else 0 )
```

As written, Bag1 makes no assumptions about the properties of the < operator. Suppose, however, that we wish to require that, in any specialization of this trait, < provides an ordering on the values of sort E. We can add such a requirement with an *assumption*:

```
Bag2(E): trait

assumes TotalOrder(E)

includes Bag, Cardinal

introduces rangeCount: E, E, B \rightarrow Card

asserts \forall e, e', e'': E, b: B

rangeCount(e, e', { }) == 0

rangeCount(e, e', insert(e'', b)) ==

rangeCount(e, e', b) + ( if e < e'' \land e'' < e' then 1 else 0 )

implies \forall e, e', e'': E, b: B

e' \le e'' \Rightarrow rangeCount(e, e', b) \le rangeCount(e, e'', b)
```

The theory associated with Bag2 is the same as if TotalOrder(E) had been included rather than assumed; Bag2 inherits all the declarations and axioms of TotalOrder. Therefore, the assumption can be used to derive various properties of Bag2, including the implication that rangeCount is monotonic in its second argument.

The difference between **assumes** and **includes** appears when **Bag2** is used in another trait. Whenever a trait with assumptions is included or assumed, its assumptions must be *discharged*. For example, in

```
IntegerBag2: trait
includes Integer, Bag2(Int)
```

the assumption to be discharged is that the (renamed) theory associated with TotalOrder is a subset of the theory associated with Integer. When a trait includes a trait with assumptions, it is often possible to determine that these assumptions are discharged by noticing that the same traits are assumed or included in the including trait. For example, Integer itself might directly include TotalOrder.

1.8. Built-In Operators and Operator Overloading

In our examples, we have freely used various Boolean operators, plus some heavily overloaded and apparently unconstrained operators: **if_then_else_**, =, and \neq . Although these operators are definable within LSL, they are built into the language. This allows them to have appropriate syntactic precedence. More importantly, it guarantees that they have consistent meanings in all LSL specifications, so readers can rely on their intuitions about them. For example, the built-in definition of = guarantees that for any terms t1 and t2, t1 = t2 == true if and only if t1 == t2.

In addition to the built-in overloaded operators, LSL provides for user-defined overloadings. Each operator must be declared in an **introduces** clause and consists of an identifier (e.g., empty) or operator symbol (e.g., ____) and a signature. The signatures of most occurrences of overloaded operators are deducible from context. Consider, for example,

```
OrderedString(E, Str): trait

assumes TotalOrder(E)

introduces

empty: \rightarrow Str

insert: E, Str \rightarrow Str

\_<\_: Str, Str \rightarrow Bool

asserts

Str generated by empty, insert

\forall e, e': E, s, s': Str

empty < insert(e, s)

\neg(s < empty)

insert(e, s) < insert(e', s') == e < e' \lor (e = e' \land s < s')

implies TotalOrder(Str)
```

The operator symbol < is used in the last equation to denote two different operators, one relating terms of sort Str and the other, terms of sort E, but their contexts determine unambiguously which is which. LSL provides notations for disambiguating an overloaded

operator if context does not suffice. Any subterm of a term can be qualified by its sort. For example, "a:S = b" explicitly indicates that a is of sort S. Since the two operands of = must have the same sort, this qualification also implicitly defines the signatures of = and b. Outside of terms, overloaded operators can be disambiguated by directly affixing their signatures.

1.9. Enumerations, Tuples, and Unions

Enumerations, tuples, and unions provide compact, readable representations for common kinds of theories. They are just syntactic shorthands for things that could be written in LSL without them.

The enumeration shorthand defines a finite set of distinct constants and an operator that enumerates them. For example,

```
Temp enumeration of cold, warm, hot
```

is equivalent to including a trait whose body is:

```
introduces

cold, warm, hot: \rightarrow Temp

succ: Temp \rightarrow Temp

asserts

Temp generated by cold, warm, hot

equations

cold \neq warm

cold \neq hot

warm \neq hot

succ(cold) == warm

succ(warm) == hot
```

The tuple shorthand is used to introduce fixed-length tuples. For example,

```
C tuple of hd: E, tl: S
```

is equivalent to including a trait whose body is:

introduces

```
[--, --]: E, S \rightarrow C
-..hd: C \rightarrow E
-..tl: C \rightarrow S
set_hd: C, E \rightarrow C
set_tl: C, S \rightarrow C
asserts
C generated by [--, -]
C partitioned by .hd, .tl
\forall e, e': E, s, s': S
[e, s].hd == e
[e, s].tl == s
set_hd([e, s], e') == [e', s]
set_tl([e, s], s') == [e, s']
```

Each field name (e.g., hd) is incorporated in two distinct operators (e.g., $__$.hd:C \rightarrow E and set_hd:C,E \rightarrow C).

The union shorthand corresponds to the tagged unions found in many programming languages. For example,

S union of atom: A, cell: C

is equivalent to including a trait whose body is:

```
S_tag enumeration of atom, cell

introduces

atom: A \rightarrow S

cell: C \rightarrow S

...atom: S \rightarrow A

...cell: S \rightarrow C

tag: S \rightarrow S_tag

asserts

S generated by atom, cell

S partitioned by .atom, .cell, tag

\forall a: A, c: C

atom(a).atom == a

cell(c).cell == c

tag(atom(a)) == atom

tag(cell(c)) == cell
```

Each field name (e.g., atom) is incorporated in three distinct operators (e.g., atom: $\rightarrow S_tag$, atom: $A \rightarrow S$, and $__atom: S \rightarrow A$).

1.10. Characters and symbols

LSL was designed for use with an open-ended collection of programming languages, support tools, and input/output facilities, each of which may have its own lexical conventions and capabilities. To avoid conflicts, LSL assigns fixed meanings to only a small number of characters. To conform to local conventions and to exploit locally available capabilities, LSL's character and token classes are open-ended, and can be tailored for particular uses by *initialization files*, as discussed in Appendix II.

Contiguous sequences of identifier characters (alphanumerics and underscore) and contiguous sequences of operator characters (asterisk, plus, minus, period, slash, less-than, equal, greater-than) form single tokens. Whitespace characters are insignificant except for separating tokens. Each of the remaining characters constitutes a separate token.

There are several semantically equivalent forms of LSL. Any of these forms can be mechanically translated into any other without losing information.

- Presentation forms are used in environments with rich sets of characters (e.g., $\forall, \land, \lor, \in$), including this report.
- Interchange form is an encoding of LSL using a subset of the ASCII character set. Characters outside this subset are represented by *extended characters*—sequences of characters from the subset, set off by a backslash (or another designated character). Interchange form is the "lowest common denominator" for LSL. Each Larch tool must be able to parse it, and to generate it on demand.
- Interactive forms are used by Larch editors, browsers, checkers, etc., for input and output. Many will not be limited to character strings for input and output, and some may impose additional constraints and equivalences (e.g., case folding, operator precedence).

1.11. Further Examples

We have now covered all the facilities of the Larch Shared Language. The next series of examples illustrates their coordinated use.

The trait Container abstracts the common properties of data structures that contain elements, such as sets, bags, queues, stacks, and strings. Container is useful both as a starting point for specifications of many different data structures and as an assumption when defining generic operators over such data structures.

The generated by clause in Container asserts that each value of sort C can be constructed from new by repeated applications of insert. This assertion is carried along when Container is included in or assumed by other traits, even if they introduce additional operators with range C. Theorems proved by induction over new and insert will be valid in the theories associated with all such traits.

```
Container(E, C): trait

introduces

new: \rightarrow C

insert: E, C \rightarrow C

asserts C generated by new, insert
```

The trait LinearContainer includes Container. It constrains new and insert, inherited from Container, as well as the additional operators it introduces. The **partitioned** by clause indicates that next, rest, and isEmpty form a complete set of observers for sort C: for any terms t1 and t2 of sort C, if the equalities next(t1) == next(t2), rest(t1) == rest(t2), and isEmpty(t1) == isEmpty(t2) all hold, then t1 == t2. The axioms for next and rest are intentionally very weak (defining their meaning only for single-element containers) so that LinearContainer can be specialized to define stacks, queues, priority queues, and strings. The **converts** clause adds checkable redundancy to the specification by claiming that this trait fully defines isEmpty.

```
LinearContainer(E, C): trait

includes Container

introduces

isEmpty: C \rightarrow Bool

next: C \rightarrow E

rest: C \rightarrow C

asserts

C partitioned by next, rest, isEmpty

\forall c: C, e: E

isEmpty(new)

\negisEmpty(insert(e, c))

next(insert(e, new)) == e

rest(insert(e, new)) == new

implies converts isEmpty
```

PriorityQueue specializes LinearContainer by adding another operator, \in , and by further constraining next, rest, and insert. The first implication states a fact that can be proved using the induction rule inherited from Container. It may be helpful in reasoning about PriorityQueue and may help readers solidify their understanding of the trait. The second implication states that the trait defines next and rest (except when applied to new), isEmpty, and \in . The axioms that convert isEmpty are inherited from LinearContainer.

```
PriorityQueue(E, Q): trait

assumes TotalOrder(E)

includes LinearContainer(Q for C)

introduces __{e=-:} E, Q: \rightarrow Bool

asserts \forall e, e': E, q: Q

next(insert(e, q)) ==

if q = new then e else if next(q) < e then next(q) else e

rest(insert(e, q)) ==

if q = new then new else if next(q) < e then insert(e, rest(q)) else q

\neg(e \in new)

e \in insert(e', q) == e = e' \lor e \in q

implies

\forall q: Q, e: E

e \in q \Rightarrow \neg(e < next(q))

converts next, rest, isEmpty, \in exempting next(new), rest(new)
```

Unlike the preceding traits in this section, PriorityQueue specifies an abstract data type constructor. In such a trait there is a distinguished sort, sometimes called the "type of interest" [Guttag 1975] or "data sort" [Burstall and Goguen 1980]. An abstract data type's operators can be categorized as generators, observers, and extensions (sometimes in more than one way). A set of generators produces all the values of the distinguished sort. The extensions are the remaining operators whose range is the distinguished sort. The observers are the operators whose domain includes the distinguished sort and whose range is some other sort. An abstract data type specification usually converts the observers and extensions. For example, in PriorityQueue, Q is the distinguished sort, new and insert form a generator set, rest is an extension, next, isEmpty, and \in are the observers, and next, rest, and isEmpty form a partitioning set.

A good heuristic for generating enough equations to adequately define an abstract data type is to write an equation defining the result of applying each observer or extension to each generator [Guttag 1975]. For PriorityQueue, this rule suggests writing equations for rest(new), next(new), isEmpty(new), $e \in new$, rest(insert(e, q)), next(insert(e, q)), isEmpty(insert(e, q)), and $e \in insert(e', q)$. PriorityQueue contains explicit equations for four of the eight, and inherits equations for two more from LinearContainer. The remaining two terms, next(new) and rest(new), are explicitly exempted.

The next two traits, PairwiseExtension and PairwiseSum, specify generic operators that can be used with various kinds of ordered containers.

Given a binary operator on elements, \circ , PairwiseExtension defines a new binary operator on containers, \odot . The result of applying \odot to a pair of containers is a container whose elements

are the results of applying \circ to corresponding pairs of their elements. The assumption of LinearContainer ensures that the notion of "corresponding pair" is well-defined; to understand why Container would not suffice, imagine defining \odot consistently for a Bag. The **exempting** clause indicates that, although the result of applying \odot to containers of unequal size is not specified, this is not an oversight. Since \circ is totally unconstrained in this trait, there aren't yet many interesting implications to state.

```
PairwiseExtension(E, C): trait

assumes LinearContainer

introduces

\_\circ\_: E, E \rightarrow E

\_\odot\_: C, C \rightarrow C

asserts \forall e, e': E, c, c': C

new \odot new == new

insert(e, c) \odot insert(e', c') == insert(e \circ e', c \odot c')

implies converts \odot

exempting \forall e: E, c: C

new \odot insert(e, c),

insert(e, c) \odot new
```

Now we specialize PairwiseExtension by binding \circ to an operator, +, whose definition is to be taken from the trait Cardinal.

```
PairwiseSum(C): trait
assumes LinearContainer(Card for E)
includes Cardinal,
PairwiseExtension(Card for E, + for ∘, ⊕ for ⊙)
implies (Associative, Commutative) (⊕ for ∘, C for T)
```

The validity of the implication that \oplus is associative and commutative stems from the replacement of \circ by +, whose axioms in a suitable trait Cardinal would imply its associativity and commutativity. The implication could then be proved by induction over new and insert.

1.12. Significant Decisions in the Design of LSL

Our basic assumption was that specifications will be constructed and checked incrementally. This led us to a design that ensures that adding axioms to a trait never invalidates theorems. The need to maintain this monotonicity property led us to construe the equations of a trait as denoting a first-order theory. Neither the initial algebra nor the final algebra interpretation of a set of equations has this property. Many traits correspond to complete abstract data types, but many others do not. So we included independent constructs to identify complete sets of constructors (**generated by**) and complete partitioning sets (**partitioned by**). Separating them provides useful flexibility.

The freedom to rename any of a trait's operators or sorts is also useful. In effect, all names appearing in a trait are formal parameters. An early version of LSL had only explicit lambda abstraction. We soon discovered that it was hard to get a trait's formal parameter list "right." If we kept it short, we often wished to substitute for a name that hadn't been included. If we used a longer list, we frequently didn't need to rename most of the potential parameters, and supplied the same names for the actuals as the formals. This experience led us to abolish explicit parameter lists in LSL 1.1 [Guttag and Horning 1986]; all renaming was of the form "id1 for id2." But the restriction to explicit renaming also proved cumbersome. In the current design, the specifier can choose to rename either positionally or explicitly.

Specifiers shouldn't start from scratch each time; LSL specifications are reusable. Handbooks of LSL specifications—some specialized for particular application domains play an important role in specification development. (The examples used in this report are, for expository purposes, atypically complete.) We chose not to build into LSL many constructs that can easily be supplied by handbook traits.

Reading specifications is an important activity. People read syntactic objects (traits), rather than semantic objects (theories). So we chose to define the mechanisms for combining LSL specifications syntactically. However, for each of our combining operations on traits, there is a corresponding operation on theories such that the theory associated with any combination of traits is the same as the combination of their associated theories.

There is a tension in the design of the syntax for terms. On one hand, we want to allow specifiers as much notational flexibility as we can. On the other, it is important that both people and tools be able to parse terms in interface language specifications without reference to operator declarations (which are off in LSL traits). Our grammar for terms is fairly flexible, but—because there is no way to specify the precedence of user-defined operators—requires more parentheses than we would like.

Operator names in LSL include full signatures, unlike many programming languages, where overloaded operators are qualified by a single type or by a module name. This decision resulted from our desire to make heavy use of overloading in interface specifications. Contextual disambiguation means that it is not usually necessary to clutter up terms with explicit sorts.

We made a conscious attempt to reduce the number of characters reserved by LSL, to avoid conflicts with programming language usages (which will be reflected in interface languages), to avoid conflicts with notations from mathematics and application domains (which will be reflected in handbooks), and to avoid problems with different character sets in different environments. There isn't any real choice about commas, colons, and parentheses; fortunately, their uses in mathematics and most programming languages are compatible. We reserved these four characters and then used them throughout, in preference to other characters, such as semicolons and brackets. We took almost exactly the opposite approach for keywords, which appear in traits, but not in interface specifications. We deliberately chose distinctive keywords and reserved them.

LSL's constructs for introducing checkable redundancy into specifications were chosen to expose classes of errors that we expect to be common. These facilities help specifiers increase the chance that a specification with an unintended meaning will be detectably illegal, in much the same way that type systems increase the chance that an erroneous program will be detectably illegal. In contrast to our emphasis on syntactic mechanisms for combining traits, we included a number of semantic constraints on their legality. This means that a theorem prover is needed to fully check traits [Garland, Guttag, and Horning 1990]. The constructs for checking have other costs: LSL would be considerably smaller without them, and it takes about as long to learn the part of the language involved with checking as it does to learn the part required to generate theories.

The Larch approach frequently leads to traits in which many things are left unconstrained, so traits are not required to completely define all operators. Instead, **converts** clauses allow the specifier to include checkable claims about completeness, which can reflect the trait's intended uses in interface specifications. Exactly what it means to completely define an operator was a delicate design issue for LSL. The meaning of a **converts** clause is that, given any fixed interpretations for the other operators and the exempted terms, the interpretations of the converted operators that satisfy the trait's axioms are unique.

LSL 1.1 contained two additional constructs, **imports** and **constrains**, that were used to claim that one theory was a conservative extension of another. We found that these constructs were difficult to explain, to use effectively, and to check, so we have dropped them from the language.

In many respects, LSL is distinguished from other specification languages as much by what it doesn't include as by what it does.

LSL provides no construct for hiding operators. The hiding constructs of other specification languages [e.g., Burstall and Goguen 1980] allow the introduction of auxiliary operators that don't have to be implemented. These operators are not completely hidden, since they must be read to understand the specification, and they are likely to appear in reasoning based on the specification. The two-tiered structure of Larch specifications means that none of the operators appearing in an LSL trait have to be implemented; they are all auxiliary functions to be used in writing interface specifications. We could say that the entire LSL tier is "hidden."

LSL does not provide constructs for specifying partial functions or error algebras. There is no mechanism other than sort checking for restricting the domain of operators. Terms such as lookup(new, i) are allowed, and no special error elements are built into the language to represent the values of such terms. As discussed in [Guttag, Horning, and Wing 1985a], preconditions and errors are handled in Larch interface languages.

Similarly, nondeterminism is left to the interface languages. It is frequently useful to write incomplete specifications that allow different interpretations of equality (and have non-isomorphic models). Thus, for many traits there are terms that are neither provably equal nor provably unequal. However, it is always the case in LSL that for every term t, t == t. The mathematical basis of algebra, and of LSL, depends on the validity of freely substituting equals for equals. This would be destroyed by the introduction of "nondeterministic functions."

We chose not to include higher-order entities in LSL. Traits are simple textual objects. Their associated theories are first-order theories. We sidestepped the subtle semantic problems associated with parameterized theories, theory parameters, and the like [Ehrig and Mahr 1985]. **Includes** and **assumes** clauses, together with renamings, make possible much of the reuse for which higher-order theories are advocated.

1.13. Grammar

trait	::=	<pre>simpleId [({ name [: signature] }⁺,)] : trait { shorthand external }[*] opPart[*] propPart[*] [consequences]</pre>
name	::=	simpleId opForm
opForm	::=	
-		$ \begin{bmatrix} __ \end{bmatrix} \{ simpleOp \mid logicalOp \mid eqOp \} \begin{bmatrix} __ \end{bmatrix} \\ \mid \begin{bmatrix} __ \end{bmatrix} openSym \begin{bmatrix} placeList \end{bmatrix} closeSym \begin{bmatrix} __ \end{bmatrix} \\ \mid \begin{bmatrix} __ \end{bmatrix} . simpleId $
placeList		$- \{ \{ sepSym \mid , \} - \}^*$
signature	::=	$sort^*, \rightarrow sort$
sort	::=	simpleId
shorth and	::=	$enumeration \mid tuple \mid union$
enumeration	::=	$sort$ enumeration of $simpleId^+$,
tuple	::=	sort tuple of fields ⁺ ,
union	::=	sort union of fields ⁺ ,
fields	::=	$simpleId^+$, : sort
external	::=	$\{ includes \mid assumes \} traitRef^+,$
traitRef	::=	$\{ simpleId \mid (simpleId^+,) \} [(renaming)]$
renaming	::=	$replace^+$, $name^+$, { , $replace$ }*
replace	::=	name for name [: signature]
opPart	::=	introduces opDcl ⁺
opDcl	::=	name ⁺ , : signature
propPart	::=	asserts genPartition * eqPart
genPartition	::=	sort { generated partitioned } by $operator^+$,
operator	::=	name [: signature]
eqPart	::=	$\begin{bmatrix} equations \ eqSeq \end{bmatrix} \{ \forall varDcl^+, eqSeq \}^*$
varDcl	::=	simpleId ⁺ , : sort
eqSeq	::=	$equation \{ eqSepSym equation \}^*$
equation	::=	term [== term]
term	::=	logicalTerm if term then term else term
logicalTerm	::=	equalityTerm { logicalOp equalityTerm }*
equalityTerm		
simpleOpTerm		
<u> </u>		secondary simpleOp ⁺
		$ $ secondary { simpleOp secondary }*
secondary	::=	primary [primary] bracketed [: sort] [primary]
bracketed	::=	$openSym \ [term \{ \{ sepSym \mid , \} term \}^* \] closeSym$
primary	::=	$\{(\text{term}) \text{simpleId} [(\text{term}^+,)] \} \{\text{.simpleId} \text{: sort} \}^*$
consequences		implies { traitRef*, genPartition* eqPart
		$ [traitRef^+, genPartition^+] eqSeq \} conversion^*$
conversion	=	converts $operator^+$, [exempting [$\forall varDcl^+$,] $term^+$,]
00111010101011	•• —	

Chapter 2

Language Definition

This chapter is a self-contained definition of the Larch Shared Language, Version 2.3. It defines the syntax and static semantics of LSL and the theory associated with each LSL specification.

- Section 1 defines the semantic core language (SCL), a small language (similar to a subset of LSL) that is sufficient to express any theory expressible in LSL. The semantics of LSL is defined by giving its translation into SCL.
- Section 2 defines a simple, unstructured subset of LSL and its translation into SCL.
- Sections 3–12 define successive language extensions. They extend the grammar, describe additional checking, and provide a normalization of each extension into the previously defined subset. Normalized specifications are further subject to the checking defined for the target subset. The theory associated with a specification is the theory associated with the translation into SCL of its normalization.
 - Section 3 introduces structural facilities for combining specifications.
 - Sections 4–5 introduce facilities for adding redundancy to a specification by stating intended consequences.
 - $\circ~$ Sections 6–12 introduce syntactic amenities.
- The Appendices discuss details of the logic used for LSL theories, the lexical structure of the language, and the grammatical notation used in this report.

2.1. SCL: The Semantic Core Language

Grammar

presentation	::=	$\{ \text{ generators } \text{ partitions } \text{ equation } \}^*$
generators	::=	sort generated by $operator^+$,
partitions	::=	$sort$ partitioned by $operator^+$,
operator	::=	name : signature
signature	::=	$domain \rightarrow range$
domain	::=	$sort^*$,
range	::=	sort
sort	::=	simpleId
equation	::=	expression == expression
expression	::=	$operator [(expression^+,)] variable$
variable	::=	simpleId :: sort

Definitions

- A presentation is *syntactically legal* if it satisfies the context-free grammar and the context-sensitive checks.
- The sort of an expression of the form operator [(expression⁺,)] is operator's range, and the sort of an expression of the form simpleId::sort is sort.
- A *constant* is an operator with an empty *domain*.

Context-sensitive checking

- The range of each operator in a generators must be the sort of the generators.
- At least one operator in a generators must have a domain in which the sort of the generators does not occur.
- The domain of each operator in a partitions must include the sort of the partitions.
- The range of at least one operator in a partitions must be different from the sort of the partitions.
- In each equation, the sorts of the two expressions must be the same.
- In each expression of the form operator [(expression*,)], the operator's domain must be the sequence of the sorts of the expressions.

Associated Theory

With each presentation, we associate a theory in typed first-order logic with equality.² Theories are constructed using the alphabet of SCL symbols for sorts, variables, and operators. We identify the SCL symbols ==, true: \rightarrow Bool, and false: \rightarrow Bool with the logical symbols =, true, and false, respectively.

The theory associated with a *presentation* is the smallest theory containing the set of formulas constructed as follows:

- The theory contains the universal closure of each equation.
- For each generators, S generated by op_1, \ldots, op_n , and for each formula P and each variable y of sort S, the theory contains the universal closure of the induction formula

$$(\forall yP) \equiv \bigwedge_{1 \le i \le n} \forall x_{i,1} \dots \forall x_{i,k_i} \left(\left[\bigwedge_{j:sort(x_{i,j}) = \mathbf{S}} P[y \leftarrow x_{i,j}] \right] \Rightarrow P[y \leftarrow t_i] \right)$$

 $^{^{2}}$ Appendix I contains some relevant definitions and examples.

where t_i is the expression op_i $(x_{i,1}, \ldots, x_{i,k_i})$ and the $x_{i,j}$ are distinct variables of the appropriate sorts that do not appear in P.

• For each partitions, S partitioned by op_1, \ldots, op_n , and for each pair of variables y and z of sort S, the theory contains the universal closure of the formula

$$(y=z) \equiv \bigwedge_{1 \le i \le n} \forall x_{i,1} \dots \forall x_{i,k_i} \left(\bigwedge_{j:sort(x_{i,j})=S} t_i[x_{i,j} \leftarrow y] = t_i[x_{i,j} \leftarrow z] \right)$$

where t_i is the expression op_i $(x_{i,1}, \ldots, x_{i,k_i})$ and the $x_{i,j}$ are distinct variables of the appropriate sorts that are distinct from y and z.

2.2. Simple Traits

Grammar

trait	::=	simpleId : trait traitBody
traitBody	::=	simpleTrait
simpleTrait	::=	opPart [*] propPart [*]
opPart	::=	
opDcl	::=	$name^+,: signature$
name	::=	$simpleId \mid opForm$
opForm	::=	if then else
		$ [_] { simpleOp logicalOp eqOp } [_]$
		$ [_] openSym [placeList] closeSym [_]$
		$\left[\begin{array}{c} __ \end{array} \right]$. simpleId
placeList	::=	$ [\{ sepSym , \}] $
signature	::=	$domain \rightarrow range$
domain	::=	$sort^*$,
range	::=	sort
sort	::=	simpleId
propPart	::=	asserts props
props	::=	$\{ \text{ generators } \text{ partitions } \}^* eqPart$
generators	::=	sort generated by $operator^+$,
partitions	::=	sort partitioned by $operator^+$,
operator	::=	name : signature
eqPart	::=	$[equations eqSeq] \{ quantifier eqSeq \}^*$
quantifier	::=	$\forall varDcl^+,$
varDcl	::=	$simpleId^+$, : sort
eqSeq	::=	$equation \{ eqSepSym \ equation \}^*$
equation	::=	term == term
term	::=	$name [(term^+,)] : sort$

The definition of *term* is replaced, not extended, in Section 2.8. The "subsets" of Sections 2.2–7 allow non-LSL *terms* that are useful in the translation of full to SCL.

Definitions

- A trait's theory is the theory associated with its translation into SCL.
- A *trait* or *traitBody* is *syntactically legal* if it satisfies the context-free grammar and the context-sensitive checks and its translation into SCL is syntactically legal.
- A trait or traitBody is semantically legal if it is syntactically legal and satisfies the semantic checks.
- The operator list of an $opDcl op_1, \ldots, op_n$: sig is op_1 : sig ... op_n : sig .
- The operator list of a simpleTrait is introduces followed by the union of the operator lists of its $opDcls.^3$
- The variable list of a varDcl v_1, \ldots, v_n : S is v_1 : S, ..., v_n : S.
- The variable list of an eqPart is \forall followed by the union of the variable lists of its varDcls.
- op:S and op: \rightarrow S are occurrences of the constant operator op: \rightarrow S.
- $op(t_1:S_1,...,t_n:S_n):S$ and $op:S_1,...,S_n \rightarrow S$ are occurrences of the operator $op:S_1,...,S_n \rightarrow S$.

Context-sensitive checking

- No simpleId may occur more than once in any quantifier.
- If id:→S is in the operator list of a *simpleTrait*, then id:S may not be in the variable list of any of its *eqParts*.
- Each operator in the translation of a simpleTrait must be in its operator list.
- Each variable appearing in the translation of an eqPart must be in its variable list.

Translation

A trait is translated to a presentation in SCL by retaining its generators and partitions, deleting its opParts, and translating each propPart by deleting its quantifier and translating each term to an expression by replacing

- Each term of the form id:S by the constant operator id: \rightarrow S if id:S is in the operator list of the containing eqPart, and by the variable id::S otherwise.
- Each term of the form $op(t_1:S_1, ..., t_n:S_n)$:S by the expression $op:S_1, ..., S_n \rightarrow S(e_1, ..., e_n)$, where $e_1, ..., e_n$ are the translations of $t_1:S_1, ..., t_n:S_n$, respectively.

 $^{^{3}}$ For convenience, we will speak of the concatenation of lists as their "union."

Semantic checking

• Each *trait* must be *consistent*: the theory associated with its translation must not contain the formula "true = false".

2.3. Externals

Add to the grammar the productions:

traitBody	::=	$traitContext^+simpleTrait$
traitContext	::=	external
external	::=	$includes \mid assumes$
includes	::=	includes $traitRef^+$,
assumes	::=	assumes $traitRef^+$,
traitRef	::=	$\{ simpleId \mid (simpleId^+,) \} [(renaming)]$
renaming	::=	$\{ \ sortReplace \mid opReplace \ \}^*,$
sortReplace	::=	newSort for oldSort
newSort	::=	sort
oldSort	::=	sort
opReplace	::=	newOp for oldOp
newOp	::=	name
oldOp	::=	operator

Definitions

- The *name mapping* associated with a *renaming* is defined as follows:
 - Simultaneously, for each opReplace, replace the name part of each occurrence of its oldOp by its newOp.
 - Then, simultaneously, for each *sortReplace*, replace each occurrence of its *oldSort* by its *newSort*.
- The *normalization* of a *traitRef* is the image, under its name mapping, of the union of the normalizations of the referenced *traits*.
- The *operator list* of a *trait* is the union of the operator list of its *simpleTrait* and the operator lists of the *traitRefs* in its *externals*.
- The *operator list* of a *traitRef* is the image, under its name mapping, of the union of the operator lists of the normalizations of the referenced *traits*.
- The sort set of a trait, or a traitRef, is the set of sorts appearing in its operator list.

- The assertion list of a trait is the union of its propPart* and the images of the assertion lists of the traits referenced in its includes under their name mappings.
- The *local assumption list* of a *trait* is the union of the images, under their name mappings, of the local assumption and assertion lists of the *traits* referenced in its assumes.
- The *inherited assumption list* of a *trait* is the union of the images, under their name mappings, of the local assumption lists of the *traits* referenced in its *includes*.

- No *external* may be recursive.
- No sort may occur as an oldSort more than once in a renaming.
- Each oldSort must be in the sort set of a trait referenced by the enclosing traitRef.
- No operator may occur as an oldOp more than once in a renaming.
- Each *oldOp* must be in the operator list of a *trait* referenced by the enclosing *traitRef*.

Semantic checking

• The theory of each *trait* must contain the theory of the *traitBody* consisting of the union of its operator list and its inherited assumption list.

Normalization

• Replace the *traitBody* of each *trait* by the union of its operator list, its assertion list, and its local assumption list.

2.4. Consequences

Add to the grammar the productions:

traitBody	::=	$traitContext^*$ simpleTrait consequences
consequences	::=	implies conseqProps
conseqProps	::=	$traitRef^*, genPartition^* eqPart$
		[traitRef ⁺ , genPartition ⁺] eqSeq

Definition

• The traitBody associated with a consequences implies Refs Props is includes Refs opList asserts Props

where opList is the operator list of the enclosing traitBody.

• The traitBody associated with the consequences must be syntactically legal.

Semantic checking

• The theory of the enclosing *trait* must contain the theory of the *traitBody* associated with the *consequences*.

Normalization

• Remove the consequences.

2.5. Converts

Add to the grammar the productions:

consequences	::=	implies conseqProps conversion ⁺
conversion	::=	converts operator ⁺ , [exemption]
exemption	::=	exempting [quantifier] $term^+$,

Definition

- The traitBody associated with a conversion **converts** op_1, \ldots, op_n **exempting** \forall Vars t_1, \ldots, t_m in trait T is **includes** T (op'_1 for op_1, \ldots, op'_n for op_n), T **asserts** \forall Vars $t'_1 == t_1$ \vdots $t'_m == t_m$ **implies** $\forall x_1: S_{1,1}, \ldots, x_{k_1}: S_{1,k_1}$ $op'_1(x_1: S_{1,1}, \ldots, x_{k_1}: S_{1,k_1}):S_1 == op_1(x_1: S_{1,1}, \ldots, x_{k_1}: S_{1,k_1}):S_1$ \vdots $\forall x_n: S_{n,1}, \ldots, x_{k_n}: S_{n,k_n}$ $op'_n(x_1: S_{n,1}, \ldots, x_{k_n}: S_{n,k_n}):S_n == op_n(x_1: S_{n,1}, \ldots, x_{k_n}: S_{n,k_n}):S_n$ where $\circ op'_1, \ldots, op'_n$ are distinct fresh names,
 - t'_1, \ldots, t'_m are the terms obtained from t_1, \ldots, t_m by replacing the names in occurrences of each op_i by op'_i, and
 - $\circ S_{i,1}, \ldots, S_{i,k_i} \to S_i$ is the signature of op_i .

- The traitBody associated with each conversion must be syntactically legal.
- Each term in an exemption must contain an occurrence of an operator in the enclosing conversion.

Semantic checking

• The traitBody associated with each conversion must be semantically legal.

Normalization

• Remove each conversion.

2.6. Positional Renaming

Add to the grammar the productions:

trait	::=	simpleId ($formalList$) : trait $traitBody$
formalList	::=	$formal^+,$
formal	::=	$sort \mid operator$
renaming	::=	$actual^+, \{ , \{ sortReplace \mid opReplace \} \}^*$
actual	::=	$newSort \mid newOp$

Context-sensitive checking

- Each sort in a formalList must be in the sort set of the enclosing trait.
- Each operator in a formalList must be in the operator list of the enclosing trait.
- In a renaming with actuals, the number of actuals must equal the number of formals in the formalList of each referenced trait.

Normalization

- Replace each actual in a renaming by actual for formal, where formal is in the corresponding position in the formalList of the referenced trait.
- Remove each formalList.

2.7. Implicit Signatures and Sorts

Add to the grammar the productions:

operator::=nameterm::=name [($term^+$,)]

Definitions

- Any operator of the form opName:sig is a *completion* of the *abbreviated* operator opName, unless opName is also in the sort set of the enclosing *trait*.
- Any term of the form t:S is a completion of the abbreviated term t.

Context-sensitive checking

- For each abbreviated *operator* in a *traitRef* there must be a unique completion in the referenced *traits*' operator lists.
- For each abbreviated *operator* in a *formalList* or *conversion* there must be a unique completion in the enclosing *trait*'s operator list.
- For each abbreviated operator in a generators or partitions there must be a unique completion that makes it syntactically legal.
- There must be a unique set of completions for the abbreviated *terms* in a *trait* such that the resulting *trait* is syntactically legal.

Normalization

• Replace each abbreviated operator and term by its unique legal completion.

2.8. Mixfix Operators and Bracketing

Replace the production for term by:

term	::=	$logicalTerm \mid \mathbf{if} \ term \ \mathbf{then} \ term \ \mathbf{else} \ term$
logicalTerm	::=	equalityTerm { logicalOp equalityTerm }*
equality Term	::=	simpleOpTerm [eqOp simpleOpTerm]
simpleOpTerm	::=	$simpleOp^+$ secondary secondary $simpleOp^+$
		$ $ secondary { simpleOp secondary }*
secondary	::=	primary [primary] bracketed [: sort] [primary]
bracketed	::=	$openSym \ [term \{ \{ sepSym , \} term \}^* \] closeSym$
primary	::=	{ (term) simpleId [(term ⁺ ,)] } { .simpleId : sort }

*

• In any logical Term or simple Op Term of the form t_0 op₁... op_n t_n , the op_i must all be the same logical Op or simple Op.

Normalization

Mixfix terms are translated by creating a function application for each mixfix operator occurrence. The translated name of the operator is an opForm derived by replacing each subterm by "__". Unless the operator is a constant, this is followed by a parenthesized list of translated subterms. Grouping parentheses—those in a primary of the form (term)—are discarded. For example, the mixfix term

$$((\mathbf{if} \ p \land q \land r \ \mathbf{then} \ s \cup \{e\} \ \mathbf{else} \ S[i]) \cap T)$$

is translated to the functional term

```
\_\_ \cap \_(if\_then\_else\_(\_ \land \_(\_ \land \_(p, q), r), \_ \cup \_(s, \{\_\_\}(e)), \_[\_](S, i)), T)
```

2.9. Implicit Markers

Definition

- A name is *markable* if it is a *simpleOp* or . *simpleId* and it appears
 - \circ in an operator, or
 - as a *newOp* that renames an *operator* whose *name* contains a single *simpleOp* or . *simpleId*.

Context-sensitive checking

- There must be a unique marking of each markable *name* by adding one or two "__"s, such that the resulting *trait* is syntactically legal, and
 - \circ if the name appears in a renaming in a traitRef, the normalization of the resulting traitRef is syntactically legal.
 - if the name appears as a newOp in a renaming, the newOp's and oldOp's markings have "__"s in the same positions.

Normalization

• Replace each markable *name* by its unique legal marking.

2.10. Built-in Operators

• Each explicit trait implicitly includes a trait with the traitBody

introduces

```
true: \rightarrow Bool
false: \rightarrow Bool
\neg\_: Bool \rightarrow Bool
\_\land\_: Bool, Bool \rightarrow Bool
\_\lor\_: Bool, Bool \rightarrow Bool
\_\Rightarrow\_: Bool, Bool \rightarrow Bool
```

asserts

Bool generated by true, false

```
\forall b: Bool
```

```
\neg true == false\neg false == truetrue \land b == bfalse \land b == falsetrue \lor b == truefalse \lor b == btrue \Rightarrow b == bfalse \Rightarrow b == true
```

• For each sort S in an explicit trait's sort set, it implicitly includes a trait with the traitBody

introduces

```
\begin{array}{c} \_=\_: \ \mathrm{S}, \ \mathrm{S} \to \ \mathrm{Bool} \\ \_\neq\_: \ \mathrm{S}, \ \mathrm{S} \to \ \mathrm{Bool} \\ \mathbf{if\_then\_else\_:} \ \mathrm{Bool}, \ \mathrm{S}, \ \mathrm{S} \to \ \mathrm{S} \\ \mathbf{asserts} \\ \mathbf{S \ partitioned \ by} = \\ \forall \ x, \ y, \ z: \ \mathrm{S} \\ x = x == \ \mathrm{true} \\ x = y == \ y = x \\ (x = y \land y = z) \Rightarrow x = z == \ \mathrm{true} \\ x \neq y == \ \neg(x = y) \\ \mathbf{if \ true \ then \ } x \ \mathbf{else} \ y == x \\ \mathbf{if \ false \ then \ } x \ \mathbf{else} \ y == y \end{array}
```

2.11. Boolean Terms as Equations

Add to the grammar the production:

equation ::= term

Normalization

• Replace each equation of the form term by term == true.

2.12. Shorthands

Add to the grammar the productions:

traitContext	::=	shorthand
shorth and	::=	$enumeration \mid tuple \mid union$
enumeration	::=	sort enumeration of $elementId^+$,
elementId	::=	simpleId
tuple	::=	sort tuple of fields ⁺ ,
union	::=	sort union of fields ⁺ ,
fields	::=	$fieldId^+,:$ sort
fieldId	::=	simpleId

Context-sensitive checking

- No elementId may occur more than once in an enumeration.
- No fieldId may occur more than once in a tuple or union.
- No sort in a fields may be the sort of the enclosing tuple or union.

Normalization

- Replace each fields of the form f_1, \ldots, f_n : S by f_1 : S, \ldots, f_n: S.
- For each enumeration of the form S enumeration of c_1, \ldots, c_n Include in the enclosing trait a trait with the traitBody

introduces

```
c_1, \ldots, c_n: \to S
succ: S \to S asserts
S generated by c_1, \ldots, c_n
equations
c_i \neq c_j
\operatorname{succ}(c_i) == c_{i+1}
for 1 \leq i < j \leq n
```

• For each tuple of the form S tuple of f₁: S₁, ..., f_n: S_n Include in the enclosing trait a trait with the traitBody

```
introduces

\begin{bmatrix} \dots, \dots, \dots \end{bmatrix} : S_1, \dots, S_n \to S
\cdot f_i : S \to S_i
set_f_i: S, S_i \to S
asserts

S generated by [\dots, \dots, \dots]

S partitioned by \cdot f_1, \dots, \cdot f_n

\forall s : S, x_1, y_1 : S_1, \dots, x_n, y_n : S_n
\begin{bmatrix} x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n \end{bmatrix} \cdot f_i == x_i
set_f_i([x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n], y_i) == [x_1, \dots, y_i, \dots, x_n]

for 1 \le i \le n.
```

• For each union of the form S union of $f_1: S_1, \ldots, f_n: S_n$ Include in the enclosing trait a trait with the traitBody

```
S_tag enumeration of f_1, \ldots, f_n
```

introduces

```
\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{f}_i \colon \mathbf{S}_i \to \mathbf{S} \\ \mathbf{.f}_i \colon \mathbf{S} \to \mathbf{S}_i \\ \mathbf{tag} \colon \mathbf{S} \to \mathbf{S}_- \mathbf{tag} \\ \textbf{asserts} \\ \mathbf{S} \ \textbf{generated by } \mathbf{f}_1, \ \dots, \ \mathbf{f}_n \\ \mathbf{S} \ \textbf{partitioned by } \mathbf{.f}_1, \ \dots, \ \mathbf{.f}_n, \ \mathbf{tag} \\ \forall \ x_1 \colon \mathbf{S}_1, \ \dots, \ x_n \colon \mathbf{S}_n \\ \mathbf{f}_i(x_i) \mathbf{.f}_i == x_i \\ \mathbf{tag}(\mathbf{f}_i(x_i)) == \mathbf{f}_i \\ \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq \mathbf{n}. \end{array}
```

• Finally, remove each *shorthand*.

Appendix I: Logical Details

A *theory* is a set of closed formulas (formulas without free variables) in typed first-order logic with equality. Each theory contains the conventional axioms of typed first-order logic with equality, and is closed under derivability with the conventional first-order rules of inference, and thus is closed under the usual notion of semantic consequence.

Theories are formulated using a universal alphabet, rather than the smaller alphabets occurring in individual *traits*, so that the schema associated with a *generators* does not depend on the enclosing *trait*.

The universal closure of a formula P is $\forall x_1, \ldots, \forall x_n P$, where x_1, \ldots, x_n are all the free variables in P.

The substitution of a formula e for a variable x in a formula P, denoted by $P[x \leftarrow e]$, is the result of simultaneously replacing every free occurrence of x in P by e, after renaming the bound variables as needed to avoid the capture of free variables in e.

An example of the induction schema for "Set generated by $\{\}$, insert" for a binary predicate P, whose first argument is of sort Set, is the formula

$$\forall y \Big((\forall x P(x, y)) \equiv \big(P(\{\}, y) \land \forall z \forall i (P(z, y) \Rightarrow P(\texttt{insert}(i, z), y)) \big) \Big)$$

The formula for "Set partitioned by \in " is

$$\forall x \forall y (x = y \equiv \forall i (i \in x = i \in y))$$

Appendix II: Lexical Structure

LSL was designed for use with an open-ended collection of programming languages, support tools, and input/output facilities, each of which may have its own lexical conventions and capabilities. To avoid conflicts, LSL assigns fixed meanings to only a small number of characters. To conform to local conventions and to exploit locally available capabilities, LSL's character and token classes are open-ended, and can be tailored by *initialization files*.

There are several semantically equivalent forms of LSL. Any of these forms can be mechanically translated into any other without losing information. *Interchange form* is an encoding of LSL using a subset of the ASCII character set. Characters outside this subset are represented by extended characters. Interchange form is the "lowest common denominator" for LSL. *Presentation forms* are used in environments with rich sets of characters, including this report. *Interactive forms* are used by Larch editors, browsers, checkers, etc., for input and output.

Contiguous sequences of identifier characters and contiguous sequences of operator characters form single tokens. Whitespace characters are insignificant except for separating tokens. Each of the remaining characters constitutes a separate token.

Character classification: Each character (or extended character) is classified as one of *idChar*, *opChar*, *whiteChar*, *extensionChar*, or *singleChar*. *whiteChar* contains blank, tab, and end-of-line. The required members of the other character classes are

idChar	ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
idChar	${\rm abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz}$
idChar	0123456789
idChar	-
opChar	* + / < = >
extensionChar	
$\operatorname{singleChar}$,:()

Unassigned characters can be assigned to any character class by a line in the initialization file like those above: the name of a class followed by characters to be assigned to it (possibly separated by *whiteChars*). Assigned characters cannot be reassigned. Characters that have not been explicitly assigned are classified as *singleChars*.

Extended characters start with an extensionChar. If the character following the extensionChar is an *idChar*, a comma, a colon, or a parenthesis, the extended character includes all following contiguous *idChars*; otherwise it extends only through the next character (which must be a visible character). The entire extended character is classified as though it were a character; if it has not been assigned, it is classified as a *singleChar*.

Unlike other character classes, assignment of a new extensionChar returns the previous extensionChar to unassigned status. Extended characters—even those classified as *idChars*—are not included in other extended characters.

The special class *endCommentChar* initially contains end-of-line. Any real character may be assigned to this class, but extended characters cannot. It is the only character class that is not disjoint from each of the others.

Token formation: Contiguous sequences of *idChars* and contiguous sequences of *opChars* form single tokens. *whiteChars* are insignificant except for separating tokens. Each singleChar constitutes a separate token.

Token translation: A token may be defined as a synonym for another token by including a line in the initialization file of the form

synonym old Token new Token

All occurrences of *newToken* are translated to *oldToken*.

Token classification: The initial members of the token classes are

quantifierSym	forall
logicalOp	$\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ $
eqOp	\eq \neq
equationSym	equals
eqSepSym	eqsep
selectSym	\select
$\operatorname{openSym}$	\setminus (
sepSym	$\setminus,$
closeSym	\setminus)
$\operatorname{simpleId}$	\:
mapSym	\land arrow
$\operatorname{markerSym}$	marker
$\operatorname{commentSym}$	$\setminus comment$

Unassigned tokens can be assigned to any token class by a line in the initialization file like those above: the name of a class followed by tokens to be assigned to it. Assigned tokens cannot be reassigned. Any tokens in a trait that have not been explicitly assigned are classified according to the following rules:

- If the token is a sequence of *idChars* that occurs as a terminal symbol of the grammar (a *keyword*), then that symbol.
- If the token is any other sequence of *idChars*, then *simpleId*.

- If the token is a *singleChar* that occurs as a terminal symbol of the grammar (comma, colon, or parenthesis), then that symbol.
- If the token is a sequence of *opChars*, then *simpleOp*.
- If the token is an extended character starting with an opening parenthesis, such as "\(large", then openSym.
- If the token is an extended character starting with a comma, then sepSym.
- If the token is an extended character starting with a closing parenthesis, then closeSym.
- If the token is an extended character starting with a colon, then *simpleId*.
- Otherwise, *simpleOp*.

If the token is classified as a *commentSym*, then it and all following characters up through the first occurrence of an *endCommentChar* are discarded, like *whiteChars*.

Initialization: The initialization file is processed before any traits. The extensions on each line are effective on all subsequent lines.

Sample initialization files: The following initialization file would be suitable for the presentation form used this report.

resenteerion rorm	about this is	oport.
idChar	,	
opChar	¬!#\$&	? @ ∈
$\operatorname{openSym}$	[{ <	
sepSym	;	
closeSym] } >	
selectSym	•	
synonym	$\$	\wedge
synonym	$\setminus or$	\vee
synonym	$\ \$	\Rightarrow
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\setminus not$	-
synonym	eq	=
$\operatorname{synonym}$	\neq	\neq
$\operatorname{synonym}$	\land arrow	\rightarrow
synonym	marker	
$\operatorname{synonym}$	equals	==
$\operatorname{synonym}$	\land	%

The following initialization file would be suitable for a form limited to the ASCII character set, allowing upper-case reserved words.

et, anoning app	er ease reserve.	a norabi
idChar	,	
opChar	$\sim ! \ \# \ \& \ ?$	0
$\operatorname{openSym}$	[{ \<	
sepSym	;	
closeSym] } \>	
selectSym	•	
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\$	&
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\setminus or$	
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\forall implies$	=>
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\setminus not$	\sim
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\langle eq$	=
$\operatorname{synonym}$	\neq	$\sim =$
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\land arrow$	->
$\operatorname{synonym}$	marker	
$\operatorname{synonym}$	equals	==
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\setminus comment$	%
$\operatorname{synonym}$	asserts	ASSERTS
$\operatorname{synonym}$	assumes	ASSUMES
$\operatorname{synonym}$	by	BY
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\operatorname{converts}$	CONVERTS
$\operatorname{synonym}$	else	ELSE
$\operatorname{synonym}$	enumeration	ENUMERATION
synonym	equations	EQUATIONS
synonym	exempting	EXEMPTING
$\operatorname{synonym}$	for	FOR
$\operatorname{synonym}$	generated	GENERATED
$\operatorname{synonym}$	if	IF
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\operatorname{includes}$	INCLUDES
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\operatorname{introduces}$	INTRODUCES
$\operatorname{synonym}$	$\operatorname{implies}$	IMPLIES
$\operatorname{synonym}$	of	OF
synonym	partitioned	PARTITIONED
$\operatorname{synonym}$	then	THEN
synonym	trait	TRAIT
$\operatorname{synonym}$	tuple	TUPLE
synonym	union	UNION

Appendix III: Grammatical Notation

	alternative separator
{ e }	e as a syntactic unit
[e]	optional e
e*	zero or more e's
e*,	zero or more e's, separated by commas
e^+	one or more e's
$e^+,$	one or more e's, separated by commas
alpha	the nonterminal symbol alpha
alpha	the reserved word alpha
,:()	the reserved comma, colon, and parenthesis characters

For readability of grammars throughout this report, certain tokens are used to denote symbol classes—although these particular tokens are *not* reserved, and could be assigned differently by an initialization file. The correspondence is as follows:

•	selectSym
\rightarrow	mapSym
	markerSym
==	equationSym
\forall	quantifierSym

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LSL 2.3 Reference Grammar

trait	::=	simpleId [({ name [: signature] } ⁺ ,)] : trait { shorthand external } [*] opPart [*] propPart [*] [consequences]
name	::=	$simpleId \mid opForm$
opForm	::=	if then else
		$ \left[\begin{array}{c} \end{array} \right] \left\{ simpleOp \mid logicalOp \mid eqOp \right\} \left[\begin{array}{c} \end{array} \right] \\ \left[\begin{array}{c} \end{array} \right] openSym \left[placeList \right] closeSym \left[\begin{array}{c} \end{array} \right] \\ \left[\begin{array}{c} \end{array} \right] \cdot simpleId $
placeList	::=	
signature	::=	$sort^*, \rightarrow sort$
sort	::=	simpleId
shorth and	::=	$enumeration \mid tuple \mid union$
enumeration	::=	$sort$ enumeration of $simpleId^+$,
tuple	::=	$sort extbf{tuple of } fields^+,$
union	::=	sort union of fields ⁺ ,
fields	::=	$simpleId^+$, : sort
external	::=	$\{ includes \mid assumes \} traitRef^+,$
traitRef	::=	$\{ simpleId \mid (simpleId^+,) \} [(renaming)] \}$
renaming	::=	$replace^+$, $name^+$, { , $replace$ }*
replace	::=	name for name [: signature]
opPart	::=	introduces $opDcl^+$
opDcl	::=	$name^+,: signature$
propPart	::=	asserts genPartition [*] eqPart
genPartition	::=	sort { generated partitioned } by $operator^+$,
operator	::=	name [: signature]
eqPart	::=	$[$ equations $eqSeq$ $] { \forall varDcl^+, eqSeq }^*$
varDcl	::=	$simpleId^+$, : sort
eqSeq	::=	$equation \{ eqSepSym equation \}^*$
equation	::=	term [== term]
term	::=	$logicalTerm \mid \mathbf{if} \ term \ \mathbf{then} \ term \ \mathbf{else} \ term$
logicalTerm	::=	equalityTerm { logicalOp equalityTerm }*
equality Term	::=	simpleOpTerm [eqOp simpleOpTerm]
simpleOpTerm	::=	$simpleOp^+$ secondary
		secondary simpleOp ⁺
		secondary { simpleOp secondary }*
secondary	::=	primary [primary] bracketed [: sort] [primary]
bracketed	::=	$openSym [term \{ \{sepSym , \} term \}^*] closeSym$
primary	::=	{ (term) simpleId [(term ⁺ ,)] } { . simpleId : sort }*
consequences	::=	implies { $traitRef^*$, $genPartition^* eqPart$ $ [traitRef^+, genPartition^+] eqSeq } conversion^*$
conversion	::=	converts operator ⁺ , [exempting [\forall varDcl ⁺ ,] term ⁺ ,]