The Algol 68 Jargon File

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Table of Contents

1	In	ntroduction	2
2	\mathbf{N}	letalanguage	4
		Aleph	
	$\frac{2.1}{2.2}$	Pseudo Comment	
	$\frac{2.2}{2.3}$		
		Reference Language	
	2.4	Representation Language	
	$\frac{2.5}{2.6}$	Strict Language	
	2.6	Taggle	0
3	$\mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{i}}$	anguage	8
	3.1	Actual Parameter	8
	3.2	Affirmation	8
	3.3	Comment	9
	3.4	Completer	9
	3.5	Contraction	10
	3.6	Declarer	11
	3.7	Development	12
	3.8	Enquiry Clause	12
	3.9	Environment Enquiry	13
	3.10	Expression	14
	3.11	Field Selector	15
	3.12	Flip and Flop	15
	3.13	Formal Declarer	15
	3.14		
	3.15	Frobyt	17
	3.16	Go-On Symbol	18
	3.17	Incestuous Union	18
	3.18	Indicator	19
	3.19	Longsety	20
	3.20	Monads and Nomads	20
	3.21	Mode Indication	21
	3.22	Mode-Unit	22
	3.23	Ravelling	22
	3.24	Shortsety	23
	3.25	Sizety	23
	3.26	Statement	24
	3.27	Specification Part	24
	3.28	String Break	25
	3.29	Structure Display	25
	3.30	Subname	26
	3.31	Subscript	26
	3.32	Symbol	27
	3.33	Token	27
	3.34	Trimmer	28
	3.35	Vacuum	29
	3.36	Void-Unit	30

	3.38	Well-Formedness. Widening. Worthy Character.	. 32			
4	In	nplementation	34			
5	О	her her	35			
	5.1 5.2	Orthogonal	. 35 . 36			
Concept Index						
G	NU	General Public License	38			
		Free Documentation License				

This file provides definitions for many terms used in the context of the Algol 68 programming language and associated technologies. You can find this file in other formats along with the sources at https://jemarch.net.

1 Introduction

As C. H. Lindsey puts it in his legendary Informal Introduction to Algol 68, a language in which fundamental concepts combine in an orthogonal way requires very precise terminology. Algol 68 is the orthogonal programming language for antonomasia, and it for sure introduces a rich set of very precise terminology.

Furthermore, when the language got introduced the IFIP WG-2.1 took great care of using new terms for concepts that had their rough similar equivalences in other programming languages, instead of using the most common terms. Such is the case of assignation, which is similar but not exactly the same than the assignment of other programming languages. Many of the new terms are neologisms created for the occasion, also for good reasons as discussed below.

This all means that the Algol 68 programmers, implementors and aficionados need to get familiar with a very precise and somewhat extensive terminology. That may be quite confusing to the uninitiated.

As with most things related to Algol 68, mastering the terminology requires a little bit of effort and time, but believe me, it pays back in spades. Watching two Algol 68 programmers discussing about their programs is like watching two well greased machines: the terms they use are precise, and they can use terms referring to domain-specific concepts that would require the usage of a (probably not very well constructed on the fly) metaphor or analogy in other programming languages, and very little if anything is lost in translation. The communication is fast, rich and precise. It is also fun.

This jargon file is an attempt to gather and summarize this terminology for the benefit of anyone introducing herself in the enthralling world of algorithmic languages.

How to use this file

Each entry in the file describes the meaning of one particular term, including a more or less extensive description of the entity or concept described by the term. This usually involves programming examples, but note that the purpose of this file is *not* to be an Algol 68 manual. Usage examples of the term are shown in the form of hypothetical lines of dialogues. When applicable, the syntax of the concept associated with the term will be also explained as simplified syntactic rules from the Report. Finally, references to other entries or to the bibliography are included in the entries.

So how to look for a term in this file?

If you are reading this document in an *info* reader, then you can press m and introduce the term you are looking for. Your info reader shall be nice enough to provide auto-complete. References can then be followed the same way.

If you are reading this document as a man-page, then you will find references to all the entries of the jargon file in the SEE ALSO section below.

If you are reading this document as a PDF, then you can use either the table of contents or the concepts index you can found in the appendices. Depending on how nice your PDF reader is, and assuming you are not reading a printed document, you can probably follow the references by clicking on them.

If you are reading this document as an HTML in some website, then you can follow the hyperlinks in table of contents and indexes.

Bibliography

• The Revised Report on the Algorithmic Language Algol 68 By A. van Wijngaarden, B.J. Mailloux, J.E.L Peck, C.H.A. Koster, M. Sintzoff, C.H. Lindsey, L.G.L.T. Meertens and R.G. Fisker.

Referenced by marks like [RR section].

- $\bullet\,$ The Report on the Standard Hardware Representation for ALGOL 68 By Wilfred J. Hansen and Hendrik Boom.
 - Referenced by marks like [SHR section].
- The Informal Introduction to Algol68 By C.H. Lindsey and V.D. Meulen. Referenced by marks like [II section]

2 Metalanguage

2.1 Aleph

Meaning

The transput section of the Revised Report consists in a description of the transput facilities in the form of near-Algol 68 code, intended to serve as a precise reference of the intended programming interface and also of the semantics of the several operations like print or read. The same technique is used to describe the standard prelude.

Consider for example the mode channel, which part of the standard transput:

The fields of values of mode **channel** are not supposed to be accessed by users. In fact, one may imagine a transput implementation that uses different names for the fields, or a completely different set of fields. Algol 68, however, doesn't have secret fields.

In order to denote structure fields that-should-not-be-named, the authors of the Report resorted to a clever syntactic trick: to precede the fields names with a metanotion that produces an infinite number of f's, which are obviously impossible to write. Something like:

```
A) F :: f, F ; F.
```

a) unmentionable field: F tag.

In order to represent the productions of the metanotion F in the representation language, they chose the symbol Aleph, since it represents an alepth-sub-zero number of fs. Thus the mode above would be written, using % for Aleph:

The WG 2.1, however, didn't appreciate the joke, and ended using some strange glyph in both Report and Revised Report to represent Aleph.

2.2 Pseudo Comment

Meaning

The chapter 10 of the Algol 68 Revised Report describes the standard environment in which programs run. This chapter includes many code snippets with declarations and other entities that describe the interface provided by the standard preludes. However, code for the preludes is not given in full, suitable to be compiled form: many details are abstracted. Furthermore, the code that is actually provided in more detail is intended to serve as reference algorithms and is not necessarily the most efficient or even convenient way to encode the expressed logic.

In addition to regular comments, the code snippets in this part of the Report use pseudo-comments, which are delimited by a pair of bold tags \mathbf{c} , and represent either a declarer or a closed-clause, as suggested by the contents of the pseudo-comment.

An example of the usage of pseudo-comments from the report:

```
op round = (real a) int:
    c An integral value, if one exists, which is
    widenable to a real value differing by not more
    than one-half from the value of 'a'
    c;
```

Many other texts, articles and books in the Algol 68 sphere make use of pseudo-comments.

It may be even possible to add support to compilers so they recognize them and compile them into some appropriate run-time diagnostic, which could be helpful in top-level programming.

See Also

- See Section 3.3 [Comment], page 9,
- [RR 10.1.3.step7]

2.3 Reference Language

Meaning

The reference language is a particular representation language for Algol 68, used and suggested by the Revised Report. All the code examples in the report are written using the reference language.

Implementations of the language are encouraged (but not strictly required) to use representations that are reasonably close to the reference language whenever possible.

The reference language prescribes a representation (typographical marks) for many of the symbols in the strict language, including the infinite set of TAX-symbols, but there is still some room for implementations to diverge in the following aspects:

- Some symbols are not given a representation in the reference language, but could be given one by some other representation language. An example is brief-pragmat-symbol. Note that this does not apply to the symbols letter-aleph-symbol and primal-symbols for which no representation should exist out of the representation of the preludes.
- Implementations can add any number of representations for style-TALLY-letter-ABC-symbol and style-TALLY-monad-symbols, and any terminal production of STYLE other PRAGMENT item and other string item.
- The representation language provides several alternative representations for some symbols, typically operator symbols. In that case, implementations of the reference language must implement at least one of these representations.
- If an implementation uses an alphabet generated by the meta-notion ABC that differs from the reference language, then the resulting language is a variant of Algol 68. This happens in translations of the reference language to different natural languages.

See Also

- Section 2.5 [Strict Language], page 6,
- Section 2.4 [Representation Language], page 5,
- [RR 9.4]

2.4 Representation Language

Meaning

A construct in the strict language, which consists in a production tree leading to a terminal production consisting in a sequence of symbols such as 'bold begin symbol' 'skip symbol' 'bold end symbol', must be represented somehow so it can be read by either a human interpreter or some mechanical interpreter such as a computer program. A representation language assigns some particular representation to each symbol.

It is thus possible to represent programs in the Algol 68 strict language in different ways, tailored to different purposes. A publication language will likely use rich text, fonts and/or graphical features in order to represent symbols such as 'bold begin symbol', 'bold letter a symbol' or 'brief case symbol'. A programming language to be used by programmers and text processing programs would typically use some stropping regime, resulting for example in BEGIN SKIP END. Finally, a hardware language could use a compact binary representation to ease the storage, transmission and automatic processing of the programs.

The Revised Report suggests and uses a particular representation language, which is the reference language. Implementations are encouraged to use representations that are reasonably closed to the reference language whenever possible.

See Also

- Section 2.5 [Strict Language], page 6,
- Section 2.3 [Reference Language], page 5,
- [RR 9.3]

2.5 Strict Language

Meaning

A construct in the *strict language* is a production tree produced by the Algol 68 two-level grammar's hyper-rules and meta-production rules. The production tree leads to a terminal production whose constituents are symbols.

For example, the following particular program in the reference language:

begin skip end

corresponds to a program in the strict language whose terminal production is:

```
'bold begin symbol' 'skip symbol' 'bold end symbol'
```

See Also

• Section 2.4 [Representation Language], page 5,

2.6 Taggle

Meaning

The Standard Hardware Representation defines a *taggle* as a nonempty sequence of letters and digits. Taggles are the constituents of tags. For example, in:

```
int age of retirement = 65;
```

The tag age of retirement is composed by three taggles: age, of and retirement. Note how typographical display features (space characters in this case) can appear between taggles in a tag.

See Also

- [RR 9.4.2.2.a]
- [SHR 1]

3 Language

3.1 Actual Parameter

Meaning

An actual parameter is the right hand side of an identity declaration, and consists of an unit whose context is strong. The value yielded by this unit, after strong coercion if necessary, shall be of the same mode than the one specified by the formal declarer. The value is ascribed to the defining identifier in the identity declaration.

For example, in the following identity declaration the actual parameter is 0, which is in a strong context, and therefore gets widening to match the mode specified by the formal declarer real:

```
real ratio = 0;
```

Actual parameters also appear in routine calls, where they define the values passed to a procedure or an operator. This highlights that in Algol 68 the mechanism of associating formal parameters with actual parameters is the identity declaration: during a function call the internal values provided in the call get ascribed to the formal parameters. For example, in the following routine call:

```
multiply vectors ((10, 20), (1, 2));
```

The actual parameters are (10, 20) and (1, 2), which are row displays of some vector mode.

Syntax

```
Simplified [RR 4.4.1.A,d]:
```

```
A) MODINE :: MODE ; routine.
```

```
d) MODE source for MODINE:
```

```
where (MODINE) is (MODE), MODE source; where (MODINE) is (routine), MODE routine text.
```

Simplified [RR 5.2.1.1.c]:

c) MODE source:

strong MODE unit.

We are not including here the rules for routine text but these can be found in [RR 5.4.1.a,b].

See Also

- Section 3.14 [Formal Parameter], page 16,
- Section 3.13 [Formal Declarer], page 15,
- [II 2.2.1]
- [RR 4.4.1.d]

3.2 Affirmation

Meaning

The affirmation operation is defined for integral and real values in the standard prelude as:

```
op + = (1 int a) 1 int: a;
op + = (1 real a) 1 real: a;
```

In both cases the given value is returned as such, resulting in that a = +a.

See Also

- [RR 10.2.3.3]
- [RR 10.2.3.4]

3.3 Comment

Meaning

Like in other programming languages, comments in Algol 68 programs are intended to document the program and their contents are ignored by the compiler: they are stripped out by the lexer. There are three styles of comments, that differ only by the delimiters used to begin and end the comment.

The first style uses **comment** to delimit the comment contents:

```
comment
   This program does foo and bar.
   Written by John Doe.
comment
The second style uses co to delimit the comment contents:
   if not ok
   then co This happens rarely co
        abort
   fi
The third style uses # to delimit the comment contents:
   print (whatever) # XXX remove trace #
```

Comments of different styles can be nested. Therefore up to three nesting levels is supported, which must be more than enough.

3.4 Completer

Meaning

Serial clauses contain zero or more declarations and at least one unit. When more than an unit is present then the value yielded by the last one is the value yielded by the serial clause. For example, in the serial clause:

```
(int tmp := a; a := b; a / tmp)
```

The value yielded by the unit a / tmp is the value yielded by the serial clause. Sometimes, however, it is useful to have more than one "exit point" in a serial clause. For example:

```
begin
  int tmp := a;
  a := b;
  if tmp = 0 then divbyzero fi;
  a / temp exit
divbyzero:
  0
end
```

When the unit a / temp in the serial clause above gets elaborated, the fact it is separated from the next phrase by an exit rather than a go-on symbol (semicolon) marks it as an exit point and therefore as a mode-unit or expression rather than a statement to be voided. The syntax mandates that an exit shall always be followed by a label.

A completer is the combination of an exit followed by a label.

```
exit label:
```

The units preceding a completer in a serial clause are **mode-units**, i.e. expressions. In contrast, other units in the serial clause but the last one are **void-units**, also known as statements.

Note that enquiry clauses are not allowed to contain labels, and therefore they can't contain completers. This is to prevent code in if-parts, else-parts and do-parts to jump back to the enquiry clause of their enclosed clause.

See Also

- Section 3.16 [Go-On Symbol], page 18,
- [II 3.1.4]

3.5 Contraction

Meaning

Certain language constructions which can be cumbersome for the programmer to write can be "contracted" into equivalent forms. The resulting shorter form is called a *contraction*. The constructions that can be contracted are:

- Collateral variable declarations.
- Collateral identity declarations (constant declarations).
- Identity declarations of routine modes.
- Priority declarations.

See for example the following collateral declaration of several variables of the same name, followed by it's corresponding contraction:

```
int size, int offset, int value := 1024;
int size, offset, value := 1024;
```

In the contracted form above, the same actual declarer (int) is shared among all the declared variables. The elaboration is still collateral, as implied by the comma separator.

The same can be applied to identity declarations. If we turn the variables above into constants, we have:

```
int size = 0, int offset = 0, int value = 1024;
int size = 0, offset = 0, value = 1024;
```

Note that you cannot mix variable declarations and constant declarations in the same contraction. If you tried to do:

```
int alignment = 1, int value := 1024;
int alignment = 1, value := 1024; # BAD #
```

The first collateral declaration is perfectly valid, but the resulting contraction is not. The reason is that in the variable declaration for value the mode at the left is an actual declarer that generates a new name to hold the value, whereas the mode at the left in the identity declaration for alignment is a formal declarer. This becomes more clear if we explicit the generator in the variable declaration:

```
int alignment = 1, loc int value := 1024;
int alignment = 1, value := 1024; # BAD #
```

Identity declarations of routines can become clunky:

```
proc([]real,real)real waverage = ([]real numbers, real weight) real:
begin
```

 $rac{\cdot \cdot \cdot}{ ext{end}}$

The corresponding contracted form, where the actual declarer is shortened to **proc**, would be:

```
proc waverage = ([]real numbers, real weight) real:
begin
   ...
end
```

Note however that the contraction form of a routine declaration is less expressive than the uncontracted form. In the contracted form it is required for the right hand side to be a routine text. That is not the case in the uncontracted form, in which the right hand side can be any unit yielding a routine of the expected mode, like in:

Finally, collateral declarations of the priority of operators can also be contracted in the expected way:

```
prio isoneof = 6, prio ismanyof = 6;
prio isoneof = 6, ismanyof = 6;
```

Syntax

Simplified [RR 4.1.1.b:c]:

- b) COMMON joined definition of PROPS:
 - COMMON joined definition of PROPS, and also token, joined definition of PROP.
- c) COMMON joined definition of PROP: COMMON definition of PROP.

Note that and also token is the comma symbol in most representations.

The rules above are used in the syntax of all the constructs mentioned in this article. For example the following simplified rule [RR 4.3.1.a] implements priority declarations:

```
a) priority declaration of DECS: priority token, priority joined definition of DECS.
```

Where priority plays the role of COMMON and DECS of PROPS. The rules for the other constructions are built the same way, so we are not including them here.

See Also

- [II 1.1.3,2.1.2,4.2.2.1]
- [RR 4.1.1.b:c]

3.6 Declarer

Meaning

A declarer is a source construct that specifies some particular mode. The simplest form of a declarer is the name of a mode, which can be one of the predefined primitive modes such as **int**, **real** or **compl**, or a mode indication previously defined by the programmer, such as **tree_node**. Declarers can get arbitrarily complicated depending the mode they specify. For example, the declarer corresponding to a ref to a row of structs is **ref[]struct (int age, string name).**

Declarers specify modes, but they are not the same than modes. Different declarers can specify the same mode. This is the case for example with union(int,real) and union(real,int), which specify the same united mode (unions are commutative and associative in Algol 68). Also,

declarers can convey information that is not properly part of the mode it specifies. An example is [10:20] int, which denotes the mode row of integers but that also specify bounds which are not part of the mode. This is an example of actual declarer, that provides bounds to be used by a sample generator.

There are three kind of declarers, depending on the context where they appear and whether they convey bounds information or not: formal declarers, actual declarers and virtual declarers.

See Also

- Section 3.13 [Formal Declarer], page 15,
- Actual Declarer
- Virtual Declarer
- Mode
- [RR 4.6]

3.7 Development

Meaning

Development is the process of replacing a mode indication by its actual declarer. For example, given the following mode declaration:

```
mode tree_node = struct (int payload, ref tree_node left, right);
```

In the example below, which denotes a variable declaration, the occurrence of the mode indication **tree_node** is developed into the full structure mode definition:

```
tree_node top = (0, nil);
```

Which is then equivalent to:

```
struct (int payload, ref tree_node left, right) top = (0, nil);
```

The term "development" is not to be confused with "elaboration". The first applies to modes, the second to phrases and clauses. The first happens at compile-time, the second at run-time. It doesn't make sense to elaborate a mode, nor to develop a formula for example.

Usage

• "The mode node develops into a structure"

See Also

• [II 1.3.3.1]

3.8 Enquiry Clause

Meaning

An enquiry clause is a serial clause in a meek context that doesn't immediately contain labels, and therefore nor completers. Serial clauses that appear in the enquiry clause can feature labels and completers on their own.

Enquiry clauses (or just "enquiries") can be found in the following constructions:

- In conditional clauses, the if-part is an enquiry clause that must yield an **int**.
- In case clauses, the in-part is an enquiry clause that must yield an **int**.
- In loop clauses, if present, the while-part is an enquiry clause that must yield a **bool**.
- In conformity clauses, the case-part' is an enquiry clause that must yield an union.

Early drafts of the language used regular serial clauses in these contexts, which led to an unexpected problem. Consider the following conditional clause:

```
if int i := x + 10; xxx: i = 0
then ...
else ... i := 0; go to xxx ...
```

In conditional clauses the if-part introduces a range that is visible in the rest of the clause. In the example above, if x is not zero when the clause is elaborated the else part gets elaborated and jumps back to the if-part. Similar situations happen in case, loop and conformity clauses. To avoid these difficulties, enquiry clauses got introduced with the restrictions explained above.

See Also

- Conditional Clause
- Loop Clause
- Enquiry Clause
- Conformity Clause
- [II 3.2.4.2]
- [II 3.2.4.3]
- [II 3.5.2]
- [II 3.6]

3.9 Environment Enquiry

Meaning

An environment enquiry is a kind of procedure defined in the standard prelude whose purpose is to provide information about the properties of the particular implementation used to compile the program.

Procedures implementing environment enquiries do not take any argument and yield a value of some appropriate mode. For example, the max int environment enquiry yields a value of mode int, whereas null character yields a value of mode char.

The section 10.2.1 of the Revised Report defines the environment enquiries that a conforming implementation must provide. These are:

int int lenghts

1 plus the number of extra lenghts of integers. This determines how many **long** entries in a longsety preceding **int** are meaningful in the implementation.

int int shorts

1 plus the number of extra shorts of integers. This determines how many **short** entries in a shorsety preceding **int** are meaningful in the implementation.

sizety int sizety max int

The largest sizety integral value.

int real lengths

1 plus the number of extra lenghts of real numbers. This determines how many **long** entries in a longsety preceding **real** are meaningful in the implementation.

int real shorts

1 plus the number of extra shorts of real numbers. This determines how many **short** entries preceding **real** in a shortsety are meaningful in the implementation.

sizety real sizety max real

The largest sizety real value.

sizety real sizety small real

The smallest sizety real value such that both sizety 1 + sizety small real > sizety 1 and sizety 1 - sizety small real < sizety 1.

int bit lengths

1 plus the number of extra longs of bits. This determines how many **long** entries in a longsety preceding **bits** are meaningful in the implementation.

bin bit shorts

1 plus the number of extra shorts of bits. This determines how many **short** entries in a shortsety preceding **bits** are meaningful in the implementation.

int sizety bits width

The number of elements in a value of mode sizety bits.

int bytes lenghts

1 plus the number of extra longs of bytes. This determines how many **long** entries in a longsety preceding **bytes** are meaningful in the implementation.

int bytes shorts

1 plus the number of extra shorts of bytes. This determines how many **short** entries in a shortsety preceding **bytes** are meaningful in the implementation.

int sizety bytes width

The number of elements in a value of mode sizety bytes.

op abs = (char a) int

The integral equivalent of the character a.

op repr = (int a) char

That character x, if it exists, for hich abs x = a.

int max abs char

The largest integral equivalent of a character.

char null character

Some character.

char flip The character used to represent true during transput.

char flop The character used to represent false during transput.

char errorchar

The character used to represent unconvertible arithmetic values.

char blank

The blank character.

See Also

- [RR 10.2.1]
- Section 3.12 [Flip and Flop], page 15,

3.10 Expression

See Also

• Section 3.22 [Mode-Unit], page 22,

3.11 Field Selector

Meaning

Structure modes consist on one or more fields, each of which have a mode on their own and a name. For example, this is how we would declare a mode for a node in a linked list:

```
node = struct (int id, real weight, ref node next);
```

The names of the fields in the structure, id, weight and next, are known as field selectors of the structure mode. Field selectors look like identifiers and are formed using the same rules, but they are not identifiers: they cannot be used on their own, and can only appear in a program text as part of a selection, like in next of node.

Note that the field selectors are integral part of the structure mode. The two structure modes struct (int a, int b) and struct (int x, int y) are different modes, since the field selectors of their fields are different. All the fields in a structure mode must feature a field selector: there is no provision in the language for "anonymous" fields.

Syntax

Simplified [RR 4.6.1.d]:

d) structured with FIELDS mode declarator: structure token, FIELDS portrayer of FIELDS brief pack.

Simplified [RR 1.2.1.I:J]:

```
I) FIELDS :: FIELD ; FIELDS FIELD.
```

J) FIELD :: MODE field TAG.

Note that TAG is the metanotion that produces identifier tokens.

See Also

- [II 2.4.1]
- [RR 4.6.1.d,1.2.1.I:J]

3.12 Flip and Flop

Meaning

During transput, the boolean values **true** and **false** are represented by two characters known as *flip* and *flop* respectively. The particular characters used for flip and flop are provided by two environment enquiries. Most implementation have used the character T for flip and F for flop.

See Also

- [RR 10.2.1]
- Section 3.9 [Environment Enquiry], page 13,

3.13 Formal Declarer

Meaning

A formal declarer specifies the mode of the value being ascribed in an identity declaration. It appears on the left hand side of an identity declaration, before the defining identifier. For example, in the following identity declaration the formal declarer is the mode indication **real**:

```
real pi = 3.141592;
```

Formal declarers also appear in routine texts as the modes of formal parameters, which shouldn't be surprising, since the mechanism of associating formal parameters with actual parameters in a routine call is the identity declaration: during a function call the internal values provided in the call get ascribed to the formal parameters. For example, in the following routine the mode indications **ref tree** and [] **int** are formal declarers:

```
proc set tree weights = (ref tree node, []int weights) void:
begin
   ...
end
```

The mode specified in a cast is also a formal declarer. In the following example, where a cast is used in the firm context of an operator, the formal declarer is **real**:

```
c := real (2) * pi * r;
```

Note that (unlike actual declarers) formal declarers of row modes do not include bounds. If bounds are provided they are ignored, although some implementation may offer checking the bounds at run-time as a security measure. This could be particularly useful in formal parameters, where the run-time check would make sure multiples of the expected bounds get passed to the routine.

Syntax

Simplified [RR 4.4.1.c] (formal declarer in identity declaration):

```
A) MODINE :: MODE ; routine.
```

c) identity definition of MODE TAG: MODE defining identifier with TAG, is defined as token, source for MODINE.

Simplified [RR 4.6.1.r] (formal declarer in formal parameter):

r) MODE parameter joined declarer:

formal MODE declarer.

Simplified [RR 5.5.1.a] (formal declarer in cast):

a) MOID cast:

formal MOID declarer, strong MOID ENCLOSED clause.

In 4.4.1.c the formal declarer is the MODE before the defining identifier.

Note that is defined as token is the equal sign character in the standard representation.

See Also

- [II 2.2.1]
- [RR 4.4.1.c,4.6.1.r,5.5.1.a]

3.14 Formal Parameter

Meaning

A formal parameter is the left hand side of an identity declaration, and consists of a formal declarer, which indicates the mode of the internal object being ascribed in the identity declaration, followed by a defining identifier to which the value will be ascribed. In the identity declaration:

```
real ratio = 2.71828;
```

The formal parameter is **real ratio**, the formal declarer is the mode indication **real** and the defining identifier is **ratio**.

Formal parameters also appear in routine texts, where they define which values are accepted as parameters by the routine when it is called. This highlights that in Algol 68 the mechanism of associating formal parameters with actual parameters is the identity declaration: during a function call the internal values provided in the call get ascribed to the formal parameters. For example, in the following routine:

```
proc multiply vectors = (vector a, vector b) vector:
begin
    ...
end
```

The formal parameters are **vector** a and **vector** b.

Note that formal parameters may appear "distributed" in the case of contracted definitions. In the following example:

```
real x, y, z;
```

There are three formal parameters, which are **real** x, **real** y and **real** z.

Syntax

Simplified [RR 4.4.1.a:c]

- A) MODINE :: MODE ; routine.
 - a) MODINE identity declaration of DECS: formal MODINE declarer, identity joined definition of DECS.
 - b) routine declarer: procedure token.
 - c) identity definition of MODE TAG:

MODE defining identifier with TAG, is defined as token, MODE source for MODINE.

Note that is defined as token is the equal sign character in the standard representation.

See Also

- See Section 3.13 [Formal Declarer], page 15,
- [II 2.2.1]
- [RR 4.4.1.a:c]

3.15 Frobyt

Meaning

A Frobyt or FROBYT is a for-, from-, by- or to-part of a loop clause. Loops featuring frobyts are endowed with an iterator, which may be explicit or explicit, and they will never run indefinitely.

The following loop clause has frobyts **for** and **to**, and has an explicit iterator **i**. It iterates 100 times:

The following loop clause has frobyts for and while, and has an explicit iterator i used to determine whether we are in the first iteration. Since the loop is endowed with an iterator and it doesn't feature a to-part, it will iterate at most max_int times, at which point the iterator would overflow:

```
for i while node :/=: no node
do print ((name of node));
```

```
if i > 0 then print ((",")) fi;
  node := next of node
od
```

The following loop is endowed by an interator, this time implicit, due to the presence of the frobyt to:

```
to 1000 while node :/=: no node
do c process node c od
```

If the by-part of a loop clause is negative, then the to-part defaults to min_int.

3.16 Go-On Symbol

Meaning

The go-on symbol separates the phrases (declarations and units) in serial clauses. The concrete syntax for the go-on symbol is almost always the semicolon character;

Consider for example the following closed clause, that consists on a serial clause with a declaration, a statement (voided assignation) and a final expression that determines the value of the serial clause:

```
(int t := x; x := y; t)
```

In Algol 68 the go-on symbol always implies serial elaboration. In the example above, the declaration is elaborated first, then the assignation and finally the final expression.

Strictly speaking, it is not legal to put extra go-on symbols after the sequence of phrases: unlike in ALGOL 60, Algol 68 doesn't support the notion of "empty statement" (**skip** is used for that purpose instead) so the following code is invalid:

```
begin foo;
    bar;
baz;
```

However, some implementations are lenient and just emit a warning about the superfluous go-on symbol. That is the case of both GNU Algol 68 and Algol 68 Genie.

Syntax

```
Simplified [RR 3.2.1.b]:
    b) SOID series:
        strong void unit, go on token, SOID series;
        declaration of DECS, go on token, SOID series LABSETY;
        label definition of LAB, series with LABSETY;
        completion token, label definition of LAB, series with LABSETY;
        SOID unit.
```

See Also

• [RR 3.2.1.b]

3.17 Incestuous Union

Meaning

An incestuous union is an union that contains two or more alternatives whose modes are firmly related. Two modes M1 and M2 are firmly related if it would be possible to coerce a value of mode M1 to a value of mode M2 in a firm context, or to vice versa.

Consider the following union mode definition:

```
mode datum = union (int,ref int,proc int);
```

This union is incestuous, as both **ref int** and **proc int** values can be coerced to **int** in a firm context, by dereferencing and deproceduring respectively. If allowed in the language, this would lead to an ambiguity. After the assignation in the following example, the value stored in the union variable mydatum may either an **int** or a **ref int**:

```
int var;
datum mydatum := var;
```

To avoid these ambiguities incestuous unions are not allowed by the language and should be reported in compile-time errors by Algol 68 compilers.

Syntax

```
[RR 4.7.1.a]:
```

```
f) WHETHER MOODSETY1 with MOODSETY2 incestuous:
    where (MOODSETY2) is (MOOD MOODSETY3),
    WHETHER MOODSETY1 MOOD with MOODSETY3 incestuous
    or MOOD is firm union of MOODSETY1 MOODSETY3 mode;
```

See Also

- [RR 4.7.1.f]
- Firmly Related

3.18 Indicator

Meaning

An *indicator* is either an identifier, a mode indication or an operator. In all cases it specifies or denotes some other entity: identifiers specify the internal objects ascribed to them in identity declarations, mode indications specify modes associated to them in mode declarations, and operators specify routines ascribed to them in operation declarations.

The indicator in the following identity declaration is pi:

```
real pi = 3.14;
```

The indicator in the following mode declaration is **tree_node**:

```
mode tree_node = struct (int payload, ref tree_node next);
```

The indicator in the following operation declaration is +:

```
op + = (tree_node n1, tree_node n2) tree_node: ...;
```

Syntax

```
[RR 4.8.1.A,G]:
```

```
A) INDICATOR :: identifier ; mode indication ; operator.
G) TAX :: TAG ; TAB ; TAD ; TAM.
```

See Also

- Section 3.21 [Mode Indication], page 21,
- [II 1.1.1]
- [RR 4.8.1.A]

3.19 Longsety

Meaning

A longsety is a sequence of zero or more long bold tags. The term follows the fashion of the Revised Report, where the suffix -ety means "or empty".

The Algol 68 modes **int**, **real**, **compl**, **bits** and **bytes** can be prefixed with any number of **long** tag words. The effect of each **long** is to double the precision of the mode.

At some point, however, a "saturation" point is reached where the addition of extra **long** has no further effect on the mode. Where that point resides is up to the particular implementation.

For example, if the precision of **int** is four bytes or 32-bit, the precision of **long int** is 64-bit, and the precision of **long long int** is 128-bit.

A longsety can also be used in an integral denotation in order to specify the mode of the denotation. For example in the formula:

```
long 20 + long 30
```

The denotations long 20 and long 30 are of mode long int, which determines its precision. The reason why it is important to specify the mode in the denotations is that in Algol 68 it is not legal to widen to a mode having a different precision, so the following identity declaration is not legal:

```
long long int number = 100; # BAD #
```

This is because the mode of the denotation 100 is int whereas the expected mode is long long int. This can be achieved by a longsety in the denotation:

```
long long int number = long long 100;
```

Note that some Algol 68 implementations allow to widen to modes having a different precision.

Syntax

```
Simplified [RR 1.2.1.E]: 
 E) LONGSETY :: long LONGSETY ; EMPTY.
```

See Also

- Section 3.24 [Shortsety], page 23,
- Section 3.25 [Sizety], page 23,
- [II 2.7.2]
- [RR 1.2.1E]

3.20 Monads and Nomads

Meaning

Algol68 operators, be them predefined or defined by the programmer, can be referred via either bold tags or sequences of certain non-alphabetic symbols. For example, the dyadic operator + is defined for many modes to perform addition, the monadic operator entire gets a real value and rounds it to an integral value, and the operator :=: is the identity relation. Many operators provide both bold tag names and symbols names, like in the case of :/=: that can also be written as isnt.

Bold tags are lexically well delimited, and if the same tag is used to refer to a monadic operator and to a dyadic operator, no ambiguity can arise. For example in the code:

```
op plus = (int a, b) int: a + b,
plus = (int a): a;
```

```
int val = 2 plus plus 3;
```

It is clear that the second instance of **plus** refers to the monadic operator and the first instance refers to the dyadic operator. If one would write **plusplus**, it would be a third different bold tag.

However, symbols are not lexically delimited as words, and one symbol can appear immediately following another symbol. This can lead to ambiguities. For example, if we were to define a C-like monadic operator ++ like:

```
op ++ = (ref int a) int: (int t = a; a +:=1; t);
```

Then the expression ++a would be ambiguous: is it ++a or +(+a)?. In a similar way, if we would use ++ as the name of a dyadic operator, an expression like a++b could be also interpreted as both a++b and a+(+b).

To avoid these problems Algol 68 divides the symbols which are suitable to appear in the name of an operator into two classes: monads and nomads. *Monads* are symbols that can be used as monadic operators. *Nomads* are symbols which can be used as both monadic or dyadic operators.

The Revised Report defines the sets of monads and nomads as metanotions, referring to symbols in an abstract way using symbolical names like "is at most" or "plus i times". These symbols do not always have a clear correspondence in click-able and printable symbols in all computers, so different implementations provide slightly different sets of monads and nomads. For example, in both GNU Algol 68 and Algol 68 Genie the set of monads is "&+-~!? and the set of nomads is ></=*.

Now that we know about monads and nomads, we can give the precise rules to conform valid operator names in Algol 68:

- A bold tag.
- Any monad.
- A monad followed by a nomad.
- A monad optionally followed by a nomad followed by either := or =:, but not by both.

Syntax

Simplified [RR 9.4.2.I,H] defines monads and nomads as metanotions:

```
    H) MONAD :: or; and; ampersand; differs from; is at most; is at least; over; percent; indow; floor; ceiling; plus i times; not; tilde; down; up; plus; minus; style TALLY monad.
    I) NOMAD :: is less than; is greater than; divided by; equals; times; asterisk.
```

See Also

• [RR 9.4.2.I,H]

3.21 Mode Indication

Meaning

A mode indication is a bold word, an external object, that specifies a mode. Examples are **int** and **complex**. It is possible to introduce new mode indications via mode declarations. A mode indication is interchangeable with the mode it denotes within its range, which spans until the end of the current block. For example, the following mode declaration declares a mode indication **tuple**, which is visible until the end of the closed clause:

```
mode tuple = [2];
...
end
```

Mode indications are very often abbreviated and referred to as "MOIDs" or "moids".

Syntax

Simplified [RR 4.8.1.A,a]:

```
A) {\tt INDICATOR} :: identifier; mode indication; operator.
```

- G) TAX :: TAG ; TAB ; TAD ; TAM.
- a) QUALITY new defining INDICATOR with TAX: TAX token.

Note that TAB is the meta-notion for a bold tag.

See Also

- [II 2.3]
- [RR 4.8.1.A,a]

3.22 Mode-Unit

See Also

• Section 3.36 [Void-Unit], page 30,

3.23 Ravelling

Meaning

Algol 68 unions are both commutative and associative. The associativity implies that, for example, given the declaration:

```
mode u1 = union (int, real);
```

Then writing union (u1, string) results in the mode union (int, real, string). This associativity, which is conceptually clear, is syntactically implemented by an operation known as ravelling and consists in that, given a set of modes, some of them united, the united modes in the set are replaced by their components.

Syntax

Simplified [RR 4.7.1] is a predicate that determines whether a given set of moids ravels to a set of moods:

```
g) WHETHER MOIDS ravels to MOODS:
where (MOIDS) is (MOODS), WHETHER true;
where (MOIDS) is
(MOODSETY union of MOODS1 mode MOIDSETY),
WHERE MOODSETY MOODS1 MOIDSETY ravels to MOODS.
```

See Also

• [RR 4.7.1]

3.24 Shortsety

Meaning

A shortsety is a sequence of one or more **short** bold tags. The term follows the fashion of the Revised Report, where the suffix -ety means "or empty".

The Algol 68 modes **int**, **real**, **compl**, **bits** and **bytes** can be prefixed with any number of **short** tag words. The effect of each **short** is to half the precision of the mode.

At some point, however, a "saturation" point is reached where the addition of extra **short** has no further effect on the mode. Where that point resides is up to the particular implementation.

For example, if the precision of **int** is four bytes or 32-bit, the precision of **short int** is 16-bit, and the precision of **short short int** is 8-bit.

A shortsety can also be used in an integral denotation in order to specify the mode of the denotation. For example in the formula:

```
short 20 + short 30
```

The denotations **short** 20 and **short** 30 are of mode **short int**, which determines its precision. The reason why it is important to specify the mode in the denotations is that in Algol 68 it is not legal to widen to a mode having a different precision, so the following identity declaration is not legal:

```
short short int number = 10; # BAD #
```

This is because the mode of the denotation 100 is int whereas the expected mode is **short short** int. This can be achieved by a shortsety in the denotation:

```
short short int number = short short 10;
```

Note that some Algol 68 implementations allow to widen to modes having a different precision.

Syntax

```
Simplified [RR 1.2.1.F]:
```

```
F) SHORTSETY :: short SHORTSETY ; EMPTY.
```

See Also

- Section 3.19 [Longsety], page 20,
- Section 3.25 [Sizety], page 23,
- [II 2.7.2] [RR 1.2.1.F]

3.25 Sizety

Meaning

A sizety is either a longsety or a shortsety. The term follows the fashion of the Revised Report, where the suffix -ety means "or empty".

For example, the sizety of a mode declared as long long bits is long long.

Usage

This term is useful in order to inquiry the number of size modifiers some particular mode has, like in:

- "What is the sizety of file_size?"
- "The sizety was wrong, I changed it to long long."

Note that this is not exactly the same than asking for the precision of **FILE_SIZE**. The sizety implies some particular precision, but only indirectly.

Syntax

```
Simplified [RR 1.2.1.F]:

SIZETY :: long LONGSETY ; short SHORTSETY ; EMPTY.
```

See Also

- Section 3.19 [Longsety], page 20,
- Section 3.24 [Shortsety], page 23,
- [II 2.7.2] [RR 1.2.1.F]

3.26 Statement

See Also

• Section 3.36 [Void-Unit], page 30,

3.27 Specification Part

Meaning

Each alternative in a conformity clause is composed by a *specification part*, which determines whether the alternative is chosen, followed by a unit that yields the value to which the clause elaborates in case the alternative is chosen. Each specification part contains a formal declarer followed by an optional defining identifier.

Consider for example the following conformity clause:

```
case datum
in (int i): i + 10,
    (real r): entier r + 10,
    (void): 0
```

The first alternative has a specification part (int i):. It specifies that the alternative is chosen in case the enquiry clause datum is an int, and ascribes that value to the identifier r (which becomes a defining identifier) in the following unit. The second alternative has a similar specification part (real r). The specification part of the third and last alternative, (void), doesn't have an identifier.

Syntax

Simplified [RR 3.4.1.j,k]:

```
    j) MODE specification defining new MODE TAG:
        declarative defining new MODE TAG brief pack, colon token.
    k) MOID specification defining new EMPTY:
        formal MOID declarer brief pack, colon token.
```

See Also

- Conformity Clause
- Section 3.13 [Formal Declarer], page 15,
- [II 3.6]
- [RR 3.4.1.j,k]

3.28 String Break

Meaning

The intrinsic value of each worthy character that appears inside a string denotation is itself. The string "/abc", for example, contains a slash character followed by the three letters a, b and c. A string break is a sequence of worthy characters that can occur inside a string or character denotation, that denotes some particular character.

String break sequences start with a break character. The Algol 68 Standard Hardware Representation allows implementations to define their own set of string breaks, but insists that the apostrophe should be the escape character. An example would be '/ to denote a newline character, for example. The GNU Algol 68 compiler deviates from this and uses the backslash character to start string breaks emulating the familiar escape sequences used in C-like languages.

See Also

• [SHR 3.1]

3.29 Structure Display

Meaning

When a collateral clause is in a strong context where a primary yielding a structure value is expected, its constituent units are elaborated collaterally as usual, and the resulting values are used to conform the value of the fields of a new structure value of the expected mode. These collateral clauses are called *structure displays*, and play the role of structure denotations in Algol 68, even though they are not truly denotations.

The constituent units of a structure display are known as the *field positions* of the structure display. They are always elaborated in strong context with the mode of the corresponding structure mode field expected. The units are elaborated collaterally.

Consider the following structured mode with a couple of **real** fields and the declaration of a constant of that mode:

```
mode vector = (real x, y);
vector v1 = (3.14, 10)
```

The right hand side of an identity declaration is a strong context, and therefore the required mode is known at compile-time. In this case the mode expected is **vector**. The collateral clause (3.14, 10) can then recognized as a structure display of that particular mode, and its constituent units 3.14 and 10 become strong field positions with expected mode **real**. This allows the widening of 10 to 10.0 in this case.

When the context is not strong, however, structure displays cannot be recognized as such. Consider the following operator that adds two **vectors**:

```
op + = (vector a, b) vector:
  (x of a + x of b, y of a + y of b)
```

Again, the structure display in the body of the routine text ascribed to the operator + is in a strong context expecting a **vector**, so no problem there. But then consider the following formula that uses the just defined operator:

```
(1, 2) + (3, 4)
```

That is not valid code and a compiler will complain. The operands of a formula are in firm context, and the collateral clauses are recognized as such, which are *void units*. To remedy this we are forced to use casts in order to surround the collateral clauses with a strong context with required mode **vector**:

```
vector (1, 2) + vector (3, 4)
```

Note that structure displays must have two or more field positions, or certain syntactic ambiguity known as *Yoneda's ambiguity* would arise: given **mode = m (ref m m); m nobuo, yoneda;** the assignation **nobuo := (yoneda)** is ambiguous. This difficulty can be easily circumvented by using the non-ambiguous **m of nobuo := yoneda**.

Syntax

```
Simplified [RR 3.3.1.e:h]:
    FIELD :: MODE field TAG.
e) strong structured with FIELDS FIELD mode collateral clause:
        FIELDS FIELD portrait.
f) FIELDS FIELD portrait:
        FIELDS portrait, and also token, FIELD portrait.
g) MODE field TAG portrait:
        strong MODE unit;
        h) *structure display:
        strong structured with FIELDS FIELD mode collateral clause.
```

Note that and also token is the comma symbol in most representations.

Note how the structure mode in e has at least two fields.

See Also

- [II 3.4]
- [RR 3.3.1.e:h]

3.30 Subname

Meaning

Selecting a name of a structure value results in another name, which is known as a *sub-name*. For example, given the following structure mode:

```
mode node = struct (int data, ref int next);
```

And a name of a value of mode node:

```
node anode := (0, nil);
```

Then selecting the field data of the structure name yields a sub-name with mode ref int:

```
data of anode := 100;
print ((data of anode))
```

It is said that the mode ref node is "endowed with sub-names".

See Also

• [II 1.4.1.2]

3.31 Subscript

Meaning

A subscript is used to refer to some particular entry in a multiple's dimension while slicing. For example, in the slice:

```
foo[1,2,3]
```

The subscript 1 refers to the entry in the first dimension of the multiple with index 1. This doesn't necessarily means the first element: it depends on the bounds of the dimension. Likewise,

the subscripts 2 and 3 refer to the values with indexes 2 and 3 in the second and third dimensions of the multiple. The action of applying a subscript is known as *subscripting*.

When subscripts are provided for all the dimensions of a multiple the result of the slice is an element from the multiple.

Syntax

Simplified [RR 5.3.2.e]:

e) subscript : meek integral unit.

See Also

- [II 1.5.2]
- [RR 5.3.2.e]

3.32 Symbol

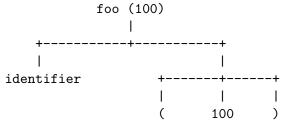
See Also

• Section 3.33 [Token], page 27,

3.33 Token

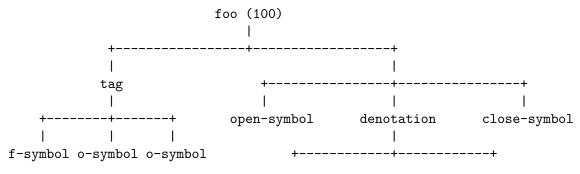
Meaning

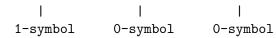
In most programming languages the tokens are the fundamental entities manipulated by the syntactic parser, and constitute the leaves of parse trees. A compiler component known as the lexical analyzer, or *lexer*, scans the source file and provides a flow of tokens. Typical tokens in these languages are strings, numerical literals and syntactic delimiters. For example:



Where the terminal production would be the tokens identifier, (, 100 and).

In Algol 68, on the other hand, the grammar extends all the way down to the individual letters, digits and symbols of a particular program: there is not a "lexical" specification separated from the "syntactic" specification. Therefore the individual digits of integral denotations, comments and its contents, string denotations and their contents *etc*, are all included in the grammar and are part of the parse tree. What is known as a *token* in other programming languages translates into the concept of *symbol* in Algol 68. The example above would be parsed in Algol 68 to something similar to:





Where the terminal production would be the symbols f-symbol, o-symbol, open-symbol, 1-symbol, 0-symbol, close-symbol.

In conventional languages comments are considered a purely lexical artifact, meaning they get not tokenized, but simply skipper over and ignored by the lexer. Comments therefore never appear as tokens in the syntax of these programming languages, and can appear virtually anywhere in the program source without impacting the resulting parse tree.

On the other hand, Algol 68 accommodates comments (and the very similar pragmats) by defining a *token* as a syntactic construct composed by an optional comment (or pragmat) followed by a symbol. Note that this doesn't mean any symbol can be preceded by a comment or a pragmat. Comments and pragments can therefore appear anywhere the grammar generates a sequence of symbols via a sequence of tokens, but not where the grammar generates a sequence of symbols directly, such as in string denotations or inside other comments and pragments.

Syntax

The tokens are realized in the syntax by the following meta-production rule in [RR 9.1.1]:

```
f) NOTION token :
     pragment sequence option, NOTION symbol.
g) *token : NOTION token.
h) *symbol : NOTION symbol.
```

See Also

- Section 3.32 [Symbol], page 27,
- Section 3.3 [Comment], page 9,
- Pragmat
- [RR 9.1.1]

3.34 Trimmer

Meaning

A *trimmer* is used to refer to a subset of values in a multiple's dimension while slicing. For example, in the slice:slice

```
foo[1:5]
```

The trimmer 1:5 refers to the values with index 1 to 5 in the only dimension of the multiple foo. The action of applying a trimmer is known as *trimming*, and it always yields a slice.

The multiple resulting from the slice above will have lower bound 1 an upper bound 5, but it is possible to "rebound" the result of trimming by using revised bounds. Consider:

```
[]int foo = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10);

[]int trim1 = foo[6:10];

[]int trim2 = foo[6:10 at 1];

[]int trim3 = foo[6:10 @ 1];
```

Where trim1 has lower bound 6 and upper bound 10, and both trim2 and trim3 have lower bound 1 and upper bound 5. All trim1, trim2 and trim3 contain values 6, 7, 8, 9, 10. Note that at and @ are alternative representations of the "at token".

All components of a trimmer are optional. If the lower bound of the trimmer is omitted (as in [:5]) then it defaults to the lower bound of the multiple's dimension. If the upper bound of the trimmer is omitted (as in [1:]) then it defaults to the upper bound of the multiple's

dimension. Both bounds can be omitted, resulting in: or simply an empty string, such as in the slice foo[2,]. If the lower bound revision part is omitted, the bounds of the resulting multiple are the same than the bounds specified in the trimmer (or implied by the trimmer.)

Syntax

Simplified [RR 5.3.2.f,g]:

```
f) trimmer : lower bound option, up to token, upper bound option, revised lower bound option.g) revised lower bound : at token, lower bound.
```

See Also

- [II 1.5.2]
- [RR 5.3.2.f,g]

3.35 Vacuum

Meaning

Row displays contain zero, two or more constituent units. A row display that contains no units is known as a *vacuum*. The vacuum yields an empty multiple when evaluated, with whatever number of dimensions required by the appropriate row mode. Each dimension has a lower bound of one and an upper bound of zero.

The following example shows an identity declaration that ascribes a multiple that contains no elements to the identifier empty:

```
[]int empty = ();
```

The empty collateral clause () is in a strong context where a multiple of mode []int is required, and therefore constitutes a row display. The following holds for the created multiple:

```
assert (lwb empty = 1);
assert (upb empty = 0);
assert (elems empty = 0);
```

The following example shows a similar identity declaration, but this time the row mode has three dimensions:

```
[,,]int empty cube = ();
```

Note how the vacuum is sill a single empty row display, i.e. it is not written ((())). All dimensions of the multiple have the same bounds:

```
assert (1 lwb empty = 1);
assert (1 upb empty = 0);
assert (1 elems empty = 0);
assert (2 lwb empty = 1);
assert (2 upb empty = 0);
assert (2 elems empty = 0);
assert (3 lwb empty = 1);
assert (3 upb empty = 0);
assert (3 elems empty = 0);
```

Syntax

```
[RR 3.3.1.k]:
```

```
k) *vacuum : EMPTY PACK.
```

See Also

- Row Display
- [II 3.5.1]
- [RR 3.3.1.k]

3.36 Void-Unit

Meaning

A serial clause contains one or more units. Of these, the units preceding a completer and the unit appearing last in the clause yield a value which in turn will be the value yielded by the complete serial clause.

Consider the following example:

```
begin
  int tmp := a;
  a := b;
  if tmp = 0 then divbyzero fi;
  a / temp exit
divbyzero:
  0
end
```

This particular serial clause contains one declaration, one label and four units.

The units a / tmp, which appears right before a completer, and and 0, which is the unit appearing last in the serial clause, yield an integral value which is the result of the serial clause. These are called **int-units** or, more generally, **mode-units**. These are also known as *expressions*.

On the other hand the units a := b and if tmp = 0 then divbyzero fi also yield values. For example, the assignation yields a of mode ref int. However, the value yielded by these units gets voided and discarded. These are void-units, also known as statements.

Syntax

```
Simplified [RR 3.2.1.b]:
```

```
b) SOID series with PROPSETY:
    strong void unit, go on token, SOID series with PROPSETY;
    where (PROPSETY) is (DECS DECSETY LABSETY),
    declaration of DECS, go on token,
    SOID series with DECSETY LABSETY;
    where (PROPSETY) is (LAB LABSETY),
    label definition of LAB,
    SOID series with LABSETY;
    where (PROPSETY) is (LAB LABSETY) and SOID balances SOID1 and SOID2,
    SOID1 unit, completion token, label definition of LAB,
    SOID2 series with LABSETY;
    where (PROPSETY) is (EMPTY),
    SOID unit.
```

In the hyper-rule above the first alternative matches a **void-unit**. Note that the unit is in a strong context with goal mode **void**, and therefore is subject to voiding.

See Also

• Section 3.26 [Statement], page 24,

• Section 3.4 [Completer], page 9,

3.37 Well-Formedness

Meaning

As is usual in modern programming languages Algol 68 supports an infinity of user defined modes, which are derived from the primitive modes¹. There are two ways a programmer could shoot herself in the foot while defining modes:

- Values of the specified mode may require infinite memory.
- The mode may introduce ambiguities if values of that mode may be strongly coerced into themselves.

The first problem arises in modes that somehow include themselves. This can happen both directly, when a structure mode has a field of its own mode, or indirectly like in the following example:

```
mode thunk = struct (int content, thunk_extra extra);
mode thunk_extra = struct (char ext code, thunk extra thunk);
```

The second problem is more difficult to find in practice. The following rather artificial example is taken from II:

```
mode itself = ref itself;
ref itself who = loc itself;
```

WHETHER true.

If some particular mode is free of these problems, it is said that the mode is well formed.

Note how the root cause of non-well formed modes is in all cases some sort of recursion. Structural recursion can be avoided by what is known as *shielding*: a **ref** or a **proc** "shields" the referred or procedured mode that follows from causing recursion. For example, the following mode is well formed and actually quite useful:

```
mode tree node = struct (int data, ref tree node left, right);
```

The well-formedness of modes can always be detected at compile-time using a method known as the *ying-yang algorithm* that is specified in the Revised Report as a predicate grammar (see below).

Syntax

```
[RR 7.1.1.A]:
    A) PREF :: procedure yielding ; REF to.
[RR 7.4.1.a:d]:
    a) WHETHER (NOTION) shields SAFE to SAFE:
        where (NOTION) is (PLAIN)
        or (NOTION) is (FLEXETY ROWS of)
        or (NOTION) is (union of) or (NOTION) is (void),
        WHETHER true.

b) WHETHER (PREF) shields SAFE to yin SAFE:
        WHETHER true.
c) WHETHER (structured with) sheilds SAFE to yang SAFE:
```

¹ In fact Algol 68 was the first language that seriously introduced the concept

d) WHETHER (procedure with) shields SAFE to ying yang SAFE: WHETHER true.

See Also

- [II 2.4.3]
- [RR 7.1.1.A,7.4,7.4.1.a:d]

3.38 Widening

Meaning

Widening is one of the six coercions. It is allowed in strong syntactic positions. This coercion transforms:

- Integers to real numbers of the same longsety.
- Real numbers to complex numbers of the same longsety.
- A bits value to an unpacked row of booleans.
- A **bytes** value to an unpacked row of characters.

Some implementations (like Algol 68 Genie) extend the meaning of widening by allowing transformations from, say, **int** to **long int** or from **long real** to **long long real**, but this is not allowed in the strict language, which requires using the **leng** and **shorten** operators instead.

Syntax

Simplified [RR 6.5.1.a:d]:

a) widened to SIZETY real FORM:

MEEK SIZETY integral FORM.

b) widened to structured with SIZETY real field re

SIZETY real field im mode FORM:

MEEK SIZETY real FORM:

widened to SIZETY real FORM.

c) widened to row of boolean FORM:

MEEK BITS FORM.

d) widened to row of character FORM:

MEEK BYTES FORM.

See Also

- Coercion
- [RR 6.5]

3.39 Worthy Character

Meaning

In the representation language both symbols and typographical display features are realized as a set of worthy characters and the newline. Effectively, an Algol 68 program is a sequence of worthy characters and newlines.

Different Algol 68 implementations support different sets of worthy characters. The GNU Algol 68 compiler considers the following characters as worthy characters:

```
a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z O 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
```

```
space tab " # $ % & ' ( ) * + , - . / : ; < = > [ \ ] ^ _ | ! ? ~
```

See Also

- $\bullet \;$ Section 2.4 [Representation Language], page 5,
- [SHR 1]

4 Implementation

5 Other

5.1 Orthogonal

Meaning

Adriaan van Wijngaarden championed the notion of orthogonal programming language and applied the notion in all its strength in the design of Algol 68. An orthogonal programming language is one such that it comprises a number of primitive independent concepts which are then applied in an orthogonal way. This makes the language very expressive, reduces the number of arbitrary rules (which the programmer has to remember) and avoids redundancy.

There are many examples of orthogonality in Algol 68. In fact, what is seldom found are arbitrary rules! One nice example is: take the notions of the comma separator , (in the Report that symbol is known as the *and also token*), collateral clauses, parallel clauses, declarations, multiple sub-scripting, actual argument passing, row display and structure display. These concepts are all independent. Now let's establish a rule: the comma separator implies collateral elaboration. Then let's apply this rule "orthogonally" by combining the concepts above.

Starting with the most obvious example, the units in the following collateral clause are elaborated collaterally, no surprise there:

$$(x * 2, y / 2)$$

If the following parallel clause there is still collateral elaboration, and it would be expected:

```
par begin generate data (), consume data () end
```

But then the indexes in the following multiple subscripting are also elaborated collaterally:

```
play voice ((monster at[get x (current map), get y (current map)]))
```

The actual parameters in the following procedure call are elaborated... collaterally!:

```
encrypt buffer (str, get random (seed))
```

The following contracted identity declarations are elaborated, surprise surprise, collaterally:

```
[]real randoms1 = get random (seed), randoms2 = get random (seed)
```

The field positions in the following structure display are also elaborated collaterally:

You get the point: there is no Algol 68 code where a comma separator doesn't imply collateral elaboration. Out of strings, comments and pragmats that's it. The programmer is only required to remember a number of N+M concepts (like the ones enumerated above) instead of the effect of combining them in N*M different combinations.

Algol 68 is not absolutely orthogonal, it has rules that introduce exceptions. An example is: "sizety modifiers can be applied to **int real**, **complex**, **bits**, **bytes** modes, but not to structured or rowed modes".

Usage

- "Algol 68 is an orthogonal programming language".
- "In this language concepts are applied orthogonally".
- "That rule you mention is not orthogonal".

See Also

• [RR 0.1.2]

Chapter 5: Other 36

5.2 Uninitiated Reader

Meaning

The original Report on the Algorithmic Language Algol 68, accepted in December 1968, was notoriously difficult to read, not only because of the usage of the two-level grammars and formal representation, but also because it lacked pragmatic descriptions.

The Revised Report, accepted at the end of 1973, incorporated many improvements in the described language, but also added many pragmatic descriptions to improve the readability. It also acknowledged the reported difficulties in the following famous paragraph in [RR 0.1.1]:

"The Group wishes to contribute to the solution of the problems of describing a language clearly and completely. The method adopted in this Report is based upon a formalized two-level grammar, with the semantics expressed in natural language, but making use of some carefully and precisely defined terms and concepts. It is recognized, however, that this method may be difficult for the uninitiated reader."

It is to note that, although the readability problems were in their most part fixed by the Revised Report, which was a way more accessible document than the original report, the bad reputation of the later persisted and contributed to create FUD and the false impression that the described language (as opposed to the method of representation) was very difficult to learn.

Usage

The uninitiated reader or simply the uninitiated is sometimes used to refer to inexperienced programmers or users.

C. H. Lindsey dedicated his Informal Introduction to ALGOL 68 "To the Uninitiated Reader".

See Also

• [RR 0.1.1]

Concept Index

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