

# Cyclone User's Manual

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The latest version of this manual should be available at  
<http://www.cs.cornell.edu/projects/cyclone/> and  
<http://www.research.att.com/projects/cyclone/>.

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# 1 Introduction

Cyclone is a language for C programmers who want to write secure, robust programs. It's a dialect of C designed to be *safe*: free of crashes, buffer overflows, format string attacks, and so on. Careful C programmers can produce safe C programs, but, in practice, many C programs are unsafe. Our goal is to make *all* Cyclone programs safe, regardless of how carefully they were written. All Cyclone programs must pass a combination of compile-time, link-time, and run-time checks designed to ensure safety.

There are other safe programming languages, including Java, ML, and Scheme. Cyclone is novel because its syntax, types, and semantics are based closely on C. This makes it easier to interface Cyclone with legacy C code, or port C programs to Cyclone. And writing a new program in Cyclone “feels” like programming in C: Cyclone tries to give programmers the same control over data representations, memory management, and performance that C has.

Cyclone's combination of performance, control, and safety make it a good language for writing systems and security software. Writing such software in Cyclone will, in turn, motivate new research into safe, low-level languages. For instance, originally, all heap-allocated data in Cyclone were reclaimed via a conservative garbage collector. Though the garbage collector ensures safety by preventing programs from accessing deallocated objects, it also kept Cyclone from being used in latency-critical or space-sensitive applications such as network protocols or device drivers. To address this shortcoming, we have added a region-based memory management system based on the work of Tofte and Talpin. The region-based memory manager allows you some real-time control over memory management and can significantly reduce space overheads when compared to a conventional garbage collector. Furthermore, the region type system ensures the same safety properties as a collector: objects cannot be accessed outside of their lifetimes.

This manual is meant to provide an informal introduction to Cyclone. We have tried to write the manual from the perspective of a C programmer who wishes either to port code from C to Cyclone, or develop a new system using Cyclone. Therefore, we assume a fairly complete understanding of C.

Obviously, Cyclone is a work in progress and we expect to make substantial changes to the design and implementation. Your feedback (and

patience) is greatly appreciated.

## 1.1 Acknowledgements

The people involved in the development of Cyclone are at Cornell and AT&T. Dan Grossman, Trevor Jim, and Greg Morrisett worked out the initial design and implementation, basing the language to some degree on Popcorn, a safe-C-like language that was developed at Cornell as part of the [Typed Assembly Language](#) (TAL) project. Mathieu Baudet contributed the bulk of the code for the link-checker. Matthew Harris did much of the hard work needed to wrap and import the necessary libraries. Yanling Wang ported bison and flex to Cyclone. Mike Hicks ported a number of libraries and programs to Cyclone, helped with the configuration and installation procedures, and many more things. All of these people have also contributed by finding and fixing various bugs. James Cheney has added support for representation types, singleton ints, marshalling support, etc. A number of other people have also helped to find bugs and/or contributed key design ideas including Mujtaba Ali, Fred Smith, Nathan Lutchansky, Rajit Manohar, Bart Samwell, Emmanuel Schanzer, Frances Spalding, Jeff Vinocur, and David Walker.

## 2 Cyclone for C Programmers

We begin with a quick overview of Cyclone, suitable for those who already know how to program in C. We'll explain some of the ways that Cyclone differs from C and some of the reasons why; you should come away with enough knowledge to start writing, compiling, and running your own Cyclone programs. We assume that the Cyclone compiler is already installed on your system (see [Appendix E](#) if you need to install the compiler).

### 2.1 Getting Started

Here's a Cyclone program that prints the string "hello, world."

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main() {
```

```

    printf("hello, world\n");
    return 0;
}

```

It looks rather like a C program—in fact, a C compiler will happily compile it. The program uses `#include` to tell the preprocessor to import some standard definitions, it defines a distinguished function `main` that serves as the entry point of the program, and it uses the familiar `printf` function to handle the printing; all of this is just as in C.

To compile the program, put it into a file `hello.cyc`, and run the command

```
cyclone -o hello hello.cyc
```

This tells the Cyclone compiler (`cyclone`) to compile the file `hello.cyc`; the `-o` flag tells the compiler to leave the executable output in the file `hello` (or, in Windows, `hello.exe`). If all goes well you can execute the program by typing

```
hello
```

and it will print

```
hello, world
```

It's interesting to compare our program with a version that omits the `return` statement:

```

#include <stdio.h>

int main() {
    printf("hello, world\n");
}

```

A C compiler will compile and run this version without warning. In contrast, Cyclone will warn that you have failed to return an `int`. Cyclone only warns you when you fail to return an integral type (`char`, `short`, `int`, etc.) but it gives an error if you fail to return other types (e.g., pointer types). This requirement of *definite return* ensures type safety while imposing minimal constraints on a programmer porting C code to Cyclone.

Definite return reflects Cyclone’s concern with safety. The caller of the function expects to receive a value of the return type; if the function does not execute a `return` statement, the caller will receive some incorrect value instead. If the returned value is supposed to be a pointer, the caller might try to dereference it, and dereferencing an arbitrary address can cause the program to crash. So, Cyclone requires a return statement with a value of the return type whenever type safety can be compromised.

## 2.2 Pointers

Programs that use pointers properly in C can be both fast and elegant. But when pointers are used improperly in C, they cause core dumps and buffer overflows. To prevent this, Cyclone introduces different kinds of pointers and either (a) puts some restrictions on how you can use pointers of a given kind or (b) places no restrictions but may insert additional run-time checks.

### Nullable Pointers

The first kind of pointer is indicated with a `*`, as in C. For example, if we declare

```
int x = 3;
int *y = &x;
```

then `y` is a pointer to the integer 3 (the contents of `x`). The pointer, `y`, is represented by a memory address, namely, the address of `x`. To refer to the contents of `y`, you use `*y`, so, for example, you can increment the value of `x` with an assignment like

```
*y = *y + 1;
```

This much is just as in C. However, there are some differences in Cyclone:

- You can’t cast an integer to a pointer. Cyclone prevents this because it would let you overwrite arbitrary memory locations. In Cyclone, `NULL` is a keyword suitable for situations where you would use a (casted) 0 in C. The compiler accepts 0 as a legal possibly-null pointer value, but using `NULL` is preferred.



- You can't do pointer arithmetic on a `*` pointer. Pointer arithmetic in C can take a pointer out of bounds, so that when the pointer is eventually dereferenced, it corrupts memory or causes a crash. (However, pointer arithmetic is possible using `@fat` and `@zeroterm` pointers.)
- There is one other way to crash a C program using pointers: you can dereference the `NULL` pointer or try to update the `NULL` location. Cyclone prevents this by inserting a null check whenever you dereference a `*` pointer (that is, whenever you use the `*`, `->`, or subscript operation on a pointer.)

These are drastic differences from C, particularly the restriction on pointer arithmetic. The benefit is that you can't cause a crash using `*` pointers in Cyclone.

### Fat Pointers

If you need to do pointer arithmetic in Cyclone, you can use a second kind of pointer, called a *fat pointer* and indicated by writing the qualifier `@fat` after the `*`. For example, here is a program that echoes its command-line arguments:

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(int argc, char *@fat *argv) {
    argc--; argv++; /* skip command name */
    if (argc > 0) {
        /* print first arg without a preceding space */
        printf("%s",*argv);
        argc--; argv++;
    }
    while (argc > 0) {
        /* print other args with a preceding space */
        printf(" %s",*argv);
        argc--; argv++;
    }
    printf("\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Except for the declaration of `argv`, which holds the command-line arguments, the program looks just like you would write it in C: pointer arithmetic (`argv++`) is used to move `argv` to point to each argument in turn, so it can be printed.

In C, `argv` would typically be declared with type `char **`, a pointer to a pointer to a character, which is thought of as an array of an array of characters. In Cyclone, `argv` is instead declared with type `char *@fat*@fat`, which is thought of in the same way: it is a (fat) pointer to a (fat) pointer to characters. The difference between an unqualified pointer and a `@fat` pointer is that a `@fat` pointer comes with bounds information and is thus “fatter” than a traditional pointer. Each time a fat pointer is dereferenced or its contents are assigned to, Cyclone inserts both a null check and a bounds check. This guarantees that a `@fat` pointer can never cause a buffer overflow.

Because of the bounds information contained in `@fat` pointers, `argc` is superfluous: you can get the size of `argv` by writing `numelts(argv)`. We’ve kept `argc` as an argument of `main` for backwards compatibility.

It’s worth remarking that you can always cast a `*` pointer to a `@fat` pointer (and vice-versa). So, it is possible to do pointer arithmetic on a value of type `*`, but only when you insert the appropriate casts to convert from one pointer type to another. Note that some of these casts can fail at run-time. For instance, if you try to cast a fat pointer that points to an empty sequence of characters to `char *`, then the cast will fail since the sequence doesn’t contain at least one character.

Finally, `@fat` pointers are used so frequently in Cyclone, that there is special character, `?` (question mark) that you can use as an abbreviation for `@fat`. For instance, we could write the prototype for `main` as:

```
int main(int argc, char ?? argv);
```

instead of the more verbose:

```
int main(int argc, char *@fat *@fat argv);
```

## Non-NULL Pointers

Another kind of pointer in Cyclone is the non-NULL pointer. A non-NULL pointer is indicated by the qualifier `@nonnull`. A `@nonnull` pointer is like an unqualified pointer, except that it is guaranteed not to be NULL.

This means that when you dereference a `@nonnull` pointer or assign to its contents, a null check is sometimes unnecessary.

`@nonnull` pointers are useful in Cyclone both for efficiency and as documentation. This can be seen at work in the standard library, where many functions take `@nonnull` pointers as arguments, or return `@nonnull` pointers as results. For example, the `getc` function that reads a character from a file is declared,

```
int getc(FILE *@nonnull);
```

This says that `getc` expects to be called with a non-NULL pointer to a `FILE`. Cyclone guarantees that, in fact, when the `getc` function is entered, its argument is not NULL. This means that `getc` does not have to test whether it is NULL, or decide what to do if it is in fact NULL.

In C, the argument of `getc` is declared to have type `FILE *`, and programmers can call `getc` with NULL. So for safety, C's `getc` ought to check for NULL. In practice, many C implementations omit the check; `getc(NULL)` is an easy way to crash a C program.

In Cyclone, you can still call `getc` with a possibly-NULL `FILE` pointer (a `FILE *`). However, Cyclone insists that you insert a check before the actual call:

```
FILE *f = fopen("/etc/passwd", "r");  
int c = getc((FILE *@nonnull)f);
```

Here `f` will be NULL if the file `/etc/passwd` doesn't exist or can't be read. So, in Cyclone `f` must be cast to `FILE *@nonnull` before the call to `getc`. The cast causes a null check. If you try to call `getc` without the cast, Cyclone will insert one for you automatically, and warn you that it is doing so.

These warnings do not mean that your program is unsafe—after all, Cyclone has inserted the check for you. However, you should pay attention to the warnings because they indicate a place where your program could suddenly halt (if the check fails), and because the inserted checks can slow down your program. It's worth rewriting your code to handle the error case better, or even eliminate the null check. For instance, if we rewrite the code above so that we explicitly test whether or not `fopen` succeeds in returning a non-NULL file descriptor:

```
FILE *f = fopen("/etc/passwd", "r");
if (f == NULL) {
    fprintf(stderr, "cannot open passwd file!");
    exit(-1);
}
int c = getc(f);
```

then Cyclone no longer issues a warning at the call to `getc` and the resulting code does not have to do a null check.

If you call `getc` with a `FILE *@nonnull`, of course, no check is required. For example, `stdin` is a `FILE *@nonnull` in Cyclone, so you can simply call `getc(stdin)`. In Cyclone you will find that many functions return `*@nonnull` pointers, so many of the pointers you deal with will already be `*@nonnull` pointers, and neither the caller nor the called function needs to do null checks—and this is perfectly safe.

Like `@fat` pointers, `@nonnull` pointers are so useful, Cyclone provides an abbreviation. Instead of writing `FILE *@nonnull`, you can simply write `FILE @` when you want to write the type of a non-NULL pointer to a `FILE`.

## Zero-Terminated Pointers

Fat pointers support arbitrary pointer arithmetic and subscripting, but they don't have the same representation as pointers in C. This is because we need extra information to determine the bounds and ensure that a subscript or dereference is in bounds. Unfortunately, this change in representations can make it difficult to interface with legacy C code where the representations might not be easily changed.

Fortunately, Cyclone supports one more pointer type where the representation matches C's and yet supports a limited form of pointer arithmetic and subscripting: the zero-terminated pointer. A zero-terminated pointer is a pointer to a sequence of elements that are guaranteed to be terminated with a zero. C's strings are a good example. In Cyclone, the type of C's strings can be written as `char *@zeroterm`. The `@zeroterm` qualifier indicates that the pointer points to a zero-terminated sequence. The qualifier is orthogonal to other qualifiers, such as `@fat` or `@nonnull`, so you can freely combine them.

Because C strings arise so frequently, the types `char *`, `char *@nonnull`,

and `char *@fat` are by default qualified with `@zeroterm`. You can override the `@zeroterm` qualifier on char pointers by putting in an explicit `@nozeroterm` qualifier (e.g., `char *@nozeroterm`). Pointers to other types (e.g., `int *`) have a default qualifier of `@nozeroterm`.

If `x` is a `* @zeroterm` pointer, you can use pointer arithmetic on it, as in `x+i`. However, the compiler inserts checks to ensure that (a) `i` is non-negative and (b) there is no zero between `x[0]` and `x[i-1]` inclusive. This ensures that you can't read past the terminating zero. In addition, when writing to a zero-terminated pointer, the compiler inserts checks to ensure that you don't replace the final zero with some other value. This is crucial for ensuring that a buffer overrun cannot occur. As in C, `x[i]` is equivalent to `x+i`, so subscripts come with the same checks.

Because of these checks, subscripts and pointer arithmetic on `* @zeroterm` can be fairly expensive. In particular, if you are not careful, you can turn what appears to be an  $O(n)$  algorithm into an  $O(n\text{-squared})$  one. You can avoid this overhead by casting the pointer to a `@fat` zero-terminated pointer. This computes the length of the sequence once and then uses the bounds information associated with the fat pointer to do any bounds checks.

Cyclone's constraints on zero-terminated pointers mean that you have to be careful when porting code from C. For instance, consider the following function:

```
void foo(char *s, int offset) {
    unsigned int len = strlen(s);
    for (unsigned int i = 0; offset+i < len; i++)
        s[offset+i] = 'a';
}
```

This code can be quite expensive when `offset` is large because the compiler must check that there is no intervening zero between `s[0]` and `s[offset+i]` for each iteration of the loop. You can get rid of this overhead by rewriting the code as follows:

```
void foo(char *s, int offset) {
    unsigned int len = strlen(s);
    s += offset;
    for (unsigned int i = 0; offset+i < len; i++, s++)
        *s = 'a';
}
```

Now the compiler is only checking that `*s` is not zero when it does the increment `s++`. In addition, however, the compiler is checking each time you do `*s = 'a'` that `*s` is not zero, because then you could overwrite the zero with an 'a' and potentially step outside the bounds of the buffer.

One way to get rid of all of these checks is to cast `s` to a non-zero-terminated fat pointer before entering the loop. When you cast a zero-terminated pointer to a non-zero-terminated fat pointer, the compiler calculates the length of the sequence once, decrements it by one, and then builds an appropriate fat pointer with this bounds information. When you write using the fat pointer, bounds checks (not zero checks) keep you from writing any value over the zero. Furthermore, if you write the code in a straightforward fashion using subscripting, the compiler is more likely to eliminate the bounds checks. Here is an example:

```
void foo(char *s, int offset) {
    char *@fat @nozero term fat_s = (char *@fat @nozero term)s;
    unsigned int len;
    fat_s += offset;
    len = numelts(fat_s);
    for (unsigned int i = 0; i < len; i++)
        fat_s[i] = 'a';
}
```

The Cyclone compiler generates code that works like the following C code:

```
struct _tagged_arr {
    char *base;
    char *curr;
    char *last;
};

void Cyc_foo(char *s, int offset) {
    struct _tagged_arr fat_s = {s, s, s+strlen(s)};
    unsigned int len;
    fat_s.curr += offset;
    if (fat_s.curr < fat_s.base || fat_s.curr >= fat_s.last)
        len = 0;
    else
        len = fat_s.last - fat_s.curr;
```

```

    { unsigned int i = 0;
      for(0; i < len; i++)
        fat_s.curr[i] = 'a';
    }
}

```

Notice that here, the compiler is able to eliminate all bounds checks within the loop and still ensure safety.

## Initializing Pointers

Pointers must be initialized before they are used to ensure that unknown bits do not get used as a pointer. This requirement goes for variables that have pointer type, as well for arrays, elements of arrays, and for fields in structures. Conversely, data that does not have pointer type need not be initialized before it is used, since doing so cannot result in a violation of safety. This decision adheres to the philosophy of C, but diverges from that of traditional type-safe languages like Java and ML.

## Other features of pointers

There's much more to Cyclone pointers than we've described here.

In particular, a pointer type can also specify that it points to a sequence of a particular (statically known) length using the `@numelts` qualifier. For instance, we can write:

```
void foo(int *@numelts(4) arr);
```

Here, the parameter `arr` is a pointer to a sequence of four integer values. Both the non-null and nullable pointers support explicit sequence bounds that are tracked statically. Indeed, both pointer kinds always have length information and when you write `"int *"` this is just short-hand for `"int *@numelts(1)"`.

We explain pointers in more detail in [Section 3](#).

## 2.3 Regions

Another potential way to crash a program or violate security is to dereference a *dangling pointer*: a pointer to storage that has been deallocated.

These are particularly insidious bugs because the error might not manifest itself immediately. For example, consider the following C code:

```
struct Point {int x; int y};

struct Point *newPoint(int x,int y) {
    struct Point result = {x,y};
    return &result;
}

void foo(struct Point *p) {
    p->y = 1234;
    return;
}

void bar() {
    struct Point *p = newPoint(1,2);
    foo(p);
}
```

The code has an obvious bug: the function `newPoint` returns a pointer to a locally-defined variable (`result`), even though the storage for that variable is deallocated upon exit from the function. That storage may be reused (e.g., by a subsequent procedure call) leading to subtle bugs or security problems. For instance, in the code above, after `bar` calls `newPoint`, the storage for the point is reused to store information for the activation record of the call to `foo`. This includes a copy of the pointer `p` and the return address of `foo`. Therefore, it may be that `p->y` actually points to the return address of `foo`. The assignment of the integer 1234 to that location could then result in `foo` “returning” to an arbitrary hunk of code in memory. Nevertheless, the C type-checker readily admits the code.

In Cyclone, this code would be rejected by the type-checker to avoid the kind of problems mentioned above. The reason the code is rejected is that the Cyclone compiler tracks object lifetimes and ensures that a pointer to an object can only be dereferenced if that object has not been deallocated.

Cyclone achieves this by assigning each object a symbolic *region* that corresponds to the lexical block in which the object is declared. Cyclone also tracks, for every pointer, what region it points into. The region pointed



to can be written as part of the pointer type, but usually the region can be omitted—the compiler is smart enough to discover the region automatically in most cases.

For example, the variable `result` in our code above lives within a region that corresponds to the invocation of the function `newPoint`. We write the name of the region explicitly using a back-quote, as in ``newPoint`. Because `result` lives in region ``newPoint`, the expression `&result` is a pointer into region ``newPoint`. The full Cyclone type of `&result`, with the explicit region, is `struct Point * @region(`newPoint)`.

When control flow exits a block, the storage (*i.e.*, the region) for that block is deallocated. Cyclone keeps track of the set of regions that are allocated and deallocated at every control-flow point and ensures that you only dereference pointers to allocated regions. For example, consider the following fragment of (bad) Cyclone code:

```
1 int f() {
2     int x = 0;
3     int *@region(`f) y = &x;
4     L:{ int a = 0;
5         y = &a;
6     }
7     return *y;
8 }
```

In the function `f` above, the variables `x` and `y` live within the region ``f` because they are declared in the outermost block of the function, and because the default region name for the block of a function is ``<function name>`. The storage for those variables will live as long as the invocation of the function. Note that since `y` is a pointer to `x`, the type of `y` is `int *@region(`f)`, indicating that `y` points into region ``f`.

The variable `a` does *not* live in region ``f`, because it is declared in an inner block, which we have labeled with `L`. The storage for the inner block `L` may be deallocated upon exit of the block, before the function itself returns. To be more precise, the storage for `a` is deallocated at line 7 in the code. Thus, it is an error to try to access this storage in the rest of the computation, as is done on line 7.

Cyclone detects the error because it gives the expression `&a` the type `int *@region(`L)`, meaning that the value is a pointer into region ``L`. So, the assignment `y = &a` fails to type-check because `y` expects to hold

a pointer into region ``f`, not region ``L`. The restriction, compared to C, is that a pointer's type indicates *one* region instead of *all* regions.

## Region Inference

If you had to write a `@region` qualifier on every pointer type, then writing code would be far from pleasant. Fortunately, Cyclone provides a number of mechanisms to cut down on the region annotations you have to write.

First off, you can omit the `@region` qualifier keyword and simply write the region name (e.g., ``r`) as long as you put the region name after any other qualifiers. For instance, instead of writing `"int *@nonnull @region(`r)"` we can simply write `"int @`r"`. In this document, we will use an explicit `@region` qualifier, but you'll find that the libraries and other example programs tend to use the abbreviations.

In addition, Cyclone often figures out the region of a pointer without the programmer providing the information. This is called *region inference*. For instance, we can rewrite the function `f` above without any region annotations, and without labelling the blocks:

```
1 int f() {
2     int x = 0;
3     int *y = &x;
4     { int a = 0;
5         y = &a;
6     }
7     return *y;
8 }
```

Cyclone can still figure out that `y` is a pointer into region ``f`, and `&a` is a pointer into a different (now anonymous) region, so the code should be rejected.

As we will show below, occasionally you will need to put explicit region annotations into the code to convince the type-checker that something points into a particular region, or that two things point into the same region. In addition, it is sometimes useful to put in the region annotations for documentation purposes, or to make type errors a little less cryptic.

You need to understand a few more details about regions to be an effective Cyclone programmer: the heap region, growable regions, region

polymorphism, dynamic regions, and default region annotations for function parameters. The following sections give a brief overview of these details.

## The Heap Region

There is a special region for the heap, written ``H`, that holds all of the storage for top-level variables, and for data allocated via `new` or `malloc`. For instance, if we write the following declarations at the top-level:

```
struct Point p = {0,1};
struct Point *ptr = &p;
```

then Cyclone figures out that `ptr` points into the heap region. To reflect this explicitly, we can put the region in the type of `ptr` if we like:

```
struct Point p = {0,1};
struct Point *@region(`H) ptr = &p;
```

As another example, the following function heap-allocates a point and returns it to the caller. We put the regions in here to be explicit:

```
struct Point *@region(`H) good_newPoint(int x,int y) {
    struct Point *@region(`H) p =
        malloc(sizeof(struct Point));
    p->x = x;
    p->y = y;
    return p;
}
```

Alternatively, we can use `new` to heap-allocate and initialize the result:

```
struct Point *@region(`H) good_newPoint(int x,int y) {
    return new Point{x,y};
}
```

## Growable Regions

Storage on the stack is implicitly allocated and recycled when you enter and leave a block. Storage in the heap is explicitly allocated via `new` or

`malloc`, but there is no support in Cyclone for explicitly freeing an object in the heap. The reason is that Cyclone cannot accurately track the lifetimes of individual objects within the heap, so it can't be sure whether dereferencing a pointer into the heap would cause problems. Instead, a conservative garbage collector is used to reclaim the data allocated in the heap.

Using a garbage collector to recycle memory is the right thing to do for most applications. For instance, the Cyclone compiler uses heap-allocated data and relies upon the collector to recycle most objects it creates when compiling a program. But a garbage collector can introduce pauses in the program, and as a general purpose memory manager, might not be as space- or time-efficient as routines tailored to an application.

To address these applications, Cyclone provides support for *growable regions* and *dynamic regions*. A growable region is similar to the region associated with a code block. In particular, when you execute:

```
{ region<'r> h;
    ...
}
```

this declares a new region `'r` along with a *region handle* `h`. The handle can be used for dynamically allocating objects within the region `'r`. All of the storage for the region is deallocated at the point of the closing brace. Unlike block regions, the number (and size) of objects that you allocate into the region is not fixed at compile time. In this respect, growable regions are more like the heap. You can use the `rnew(h)` and `rmalloc(h, ...)` operations to allocate objects within a growable region, where `h` is the handle for the region.

For instance, the following code takes an integer `n`, creates a new dynamic region and allocates an array of size `n` within the region using `rnew`.

```
int k(int n) {
    int result;
    { region<'r> h;
        int ?arr = rnew(h) {for i < n : i};
        result = process(h, arr);
    }
    return result;
}
```

It then passes the handle for the region and the array to some processing function. Note that the processing function is free to allocate objects into the region `r` using the supplied handle. After processing the array, we exit the region which deallocates the array, and then return the calculated result.

It is worth remarking that the heap is really just a growable region with global scope, and you can use the global variable `Core::heap_region` as a handle on the heap. Indeed, `new` and `malloc(...)` are just abbreviations for `rnew(Core::heap_region)` and `rmalloc(Core::heap_region,...)` respectively.

## Dynamic Regions

Block regions and growable regions allow you to create arenas that are lexically scoped. The lifetimes of these regions begin and end in a last-in-first-out (LIFO) manner that follows the block structure of the code. They are particularly good for allocating temporary data during a computation. But they are not so good when we cannot statically bound the lifetime of an object that we wish to allocate.

For example, consider an event loop where each event contains some data that should be passed to the event handler when the event is triggered. And assume that the event handler wishes to deallocate the data when it is invoked. Since we cannot determine when (or even if) the event handler will be invoked, we cannot statically determine the lifetime of its associated data.

In these situations, you can use a *dynamic region*. A dynamic region can be deallocated at (almost) any point within a program. However, before the data within a dynamic region can be accessed and before you can allocate new data into a dynamic region, the region must be *opened*. When you open a dynamic region, this checks that the region has not been deallocated, and also prevents someone from deallocating the region as long as it is open. In other words, once open, you are free to access or allocate data within the region, but you cannot free the region.

If you attempt to open a dynamic region that has already been freed, then an exception will be thrown. Dually, if you attempt to free a dynamic region that is currently open, then an exception will be thrown.

A dynamic region is created as follows:

```
let NewRegion{<'d> dh} = Core::rnew_dynregion(rh);
```

where `rh` is a handle for a region `'r`, `'d` is the name of the new dynamic region, and `dh` is the dynamic region handle. The dynamic region handle `dh` has type `dynregion_t<'d, 'r>`. We say that it is a handle for `'d` and is contained in the region `'r`.

To access or allocate data within a dynamic region, you must open the region as follows:

```
{ region sh = open(dh);  
  ...  
}
```

In this case, the dynamic region handle `dh` is opened and we are given a *static* region handle `sh`. The region remains opened throughout the scope of the static region handle. That is, the code in the curly braces `(...)` can access the region, but outside the curly braces, the data within the region may not be accessed. The static region handle `sh` can be used to allocate data within the dynamic region `'d`.

If the region `'d` has already been freed, then the `open` will fail by throwing the exception `Core::Open_Region`.

You can free a dynamic region (as long as it is not open) by calling the following function and passing in the dynamic region handle:

```
Core::free_dynregion(dh);
```

If the dynamic region has already been freed or if it is currently open, the `free_dynregion` will throw the exception `Core::Free_Region`.

The dynamic region handle `dh` is contained in the region `'r`. When `'r` is deallocated, then `dh` becomes inaccessible and thus `'d` is deallocated as well.

## Region Polymorphism

Another key concept you need to understand is called *region polymorphism*. This is just a fancy way of saying that you can write functions in Cyclone that don't care which specific region a given object lives in, as long as it's still alive. For example, the function `foo` from the beginning of this section is a region-polymorphic function. To make this clear, let us re-write the function making the regions explicit:

```
void foo(struct Point *@region(`r) p) {
    p->y = 1234;
    return;
}
```

The function is parameterized by a *region variable* ``r`, and accepts a pointer to a `Point` that lives in region ``r`. Note that ``r` can be instantiated with any region you like, including the heap, or a region local to a function. So, for instance, we can write the following:

```
void g() {
    struct Point p = {0,1};
    struct Point *@region(`g) ptr1 = &p;
    struct Point *@region(`H) ptr2 = new Point{2,3};
    foo(ptr1);
    foo(ptr2);
}
```

Note that in the first call to `foo`, we are passing a pointer into region ``g`, and in the second call to `foo`, we are passing in a pointer into the heap. In the first call, ``r` is implicitly instantiated with ``g`, and in the second call, with ``H`.

Cyclone automatically inserts region parameters for function arguments, so you rarely have to write them. For instance, `foo` can be written simply as:

```
void foo(struct Point * p) {
    p->y = 1234;
    return;
}
```

As another example, if you write the following:

```
void h(struct Point * p1, struct Point * p2) {
    p1->x += p2->x;
    p2->x += p2->y;
}
```

then Cyclone fills in the region parameters for you by assuming that the points `p1` and `p2` can live in any two regions ``r1` and ``r2`. To make this explicit, we would write:

```

void h(struct Point *@region(`r1) p1,
      struct Point *@region(`r2) p2) {
    p1->x += p2->x;
    p2->x += p2->y;
}

```

Now we can call `h` with pointers into any two regions, or even two pointers into the same region. This is because the code is type-correct *for all* regions ``r1` and ``r2`.

Occasionally, you will have to put region parameters in explicitly. This happens when you need to assert that two pointers point into the same region. Consider for instance the following function:

```

void j(struct Point * p1, struct Point * p2) {
    p1 = p2;
}

```

Cyclone will reject the code because it assumes that in general, `p1` and `p2` might point into *different* regions. That is, Cyclone fills in the missing regions as follows:

```

void j(struct Point *@region(`r1) p1,
      struct Point *@region(`r2) p2) {
    p1 = p2;
}

```

Now it is clear that the assignment does not type-check because the types of `p1` and `p2` differ. In other words, ``r1` and ``r2` *might* be instantiated with different regions, in which case the code would be incorrect. But you can make them the same by putting in the same explicit region for each pointer. Thus, the following code does type-check:

```

void j(struct Point *@region(`r) p1,
      struct Point *@region(`r) p2) {
    p1 = p2;
}

```

So, Cyclone assumes that each pointer argument to a function is in a (potentially) different region unless you specify otherwise. The reason we chose this as the default is that (a) it is often the right choice for code, (b)



it is the most general type in the sense that if it does work out, clients will have the most latitude in passing arguments from different regions or the same region to the function.

What about the results? Here, there is no good answer because the region of the result of a function cannot be easily determined without looking at the body of the function, which defeats separate compilation of function definitions from their prototypes. Therefore, we have arbitrarily chosen the heap as the default region for function results. Consequently, the following code:

```
struct Point * good_newPoint(int x,int y) {  
    return new Point{x,y};  
}
```

type-checks since the new operator returns a pointer to the heap, and the default region for the return type is the heap.

This explains why the original bad code for allocating a new point does not type-check:

```
struct Point *newPoint(int x,int y) {  
    struct Point result = {x,y};  
    return &result;  
}
```

The value `&result` is a pointer into region `'newPoint'` but the result type of the function needs to be a pointer into the heap (region `'H'`).

If you want to return a pointer that is not in the heap region, then you need to put the region in explicitly. For instance, the following code:

```
int * id(int *x) {  
    return x;  
}
```

will not type-check. To see why, let us rewrite the code with the default region annotations filled in. The argument is assumed to be in a region `'r'`, and the result is assumed to be in the heap, so the fully elaborated code is:

```
int *@region('H) id(int *@region('r) x) {  
    return x;  
}
```

Now the type-error is manifest. To fix the code, we must put in explicit regions to connect the argument type with the result type. For instance, we might write:

```
int *@region(`r) id(int *@region(`r) x) {  
    return x;  
}
```

or using the abbreviation:

```
int *`r id(int *`r x) {  
    return x;  
}
```

## Region Summary

In summary, each pointer in Cyclone points into a given region and this region is reflected in the type of the pointer. Cyclone won't let you dereference a pointer into a deallocated region. The lexical blocks declared in functions correspond to one type of region, and simply declaring a variable within that block allocates storage within the region. The storage is deallocated upon exit of the block. Growable regions are similar, except that a dynamic number of objects can be allocated within the region using the region's handle. Both block and growable regions have structured lifetimes. Dynamic regions, in contrast, support arbitrary lifetimes, but must be opened to be accessed. Finally, the heap is a special growable region that is garbage collected.

Region polymorphism and region inference make it possible to omit many region annotations on types. Cyclone assumes that pointers passed to functions may live in distinct regions, and assumes that result pointers are in the heap. These assumptions are not perfect, but (a) programmers can fix the assumptions by providing explicit region annotations, (b) it permits Cyclone files to be separately compiled.

The region-based type system of Cyclone is perhaps the most complicated aspect of the language. In large part, this is because memory management is a difficult and tricky business. We have attempted to make stack allocation and region polymorphic functions simple to use without sacrificing programmer control over the lifetimes of objects and without having to resort to garbage collection.

For more information about regions, see [Section 8](#).

## 2.4 Tagged Unions and Datatypes

It's often necessary to write a function that accepts an argument with more than one possible type. For example, in

```
printf("%d", x);
```

`x` should be an integer, but in

```
printf("%s", x);
```

`x` should be a pointer to a sequence of characters.

If we call `printf("%s", x)` with an integer `x`, instead of a pointer `x`, the program will likely crash. To prevent this, most C compilers treat `printf` specially: they examine the first argument and require that the remaining arguments have the appropriate types. However, a compiler can't check this if `printf` isn't called with a literal format string:

```
printf(s, x);
```

where `s` is a string variable. This means that in C, programs that use `printf` (or `scanf`, or a number of related functions) are vulnerable to crashes and corrupted memory. In fact, it's possible for someone else to crash your program by causing it to call `printf` with arguments that don't match the format string. This is called a *format string attack*, and it's an increasingly common exploit.

Cyclone provides *tagged unions* so that you can safely write functions that accept an argument with more than one possible type. Like a C union, a Cyclone `@tagged` union is a type that has several possible cases. Here's a simple example:

```
@tagged union T {
    int Integer;
    const char *@fat String;
};
union T x = {.Integer = 3};
union T y = {.String = "hello, world"};
```

This declares a new tagged union type `T`, that can hold either an integer or a string (remember, a string is a `char *@fat` in Cyclone). It also declares

to `union T` values `x` and `y` and initializes them with an integer and string respectively.

Just as with C unions, you can read and write any member of a tagged union. However, to prevent security holes, Cyclone enforces the property that you can only read the last member written. This prevents you from accidentally treating an integer as if it's a string or some other kind of pointer.

Cyclone enforces this safety property by inserting a hidden tag into the union (hence the `@tagged` qualifier.) You can test the tag by using the built-in `tagcheck` function. For instance, here is a function that uses the real `printf` to safely print out the contents of a `union T` value, regardless of its contents:

```
bool printT(union T w) {
    if (tagcheck(w.Integer))
        printf("%d", w);
    else
        printf("%s", w);
}
```

Note that `tagcheck(w.Integer)` does not return the value of the `Integer` member, but rather returns true if and only if the `Integer` member was the last member written (and is thus safe to read.)

Each write to a tagged union member causes the hidden tag to be updated, and each read is preceded by a check to ensure that the member was the last one written. If you attempt to read some member other than the last one written, then the `Match` exception is thrown. For example, the following code writes the `String` member and then attempts to read the `Integer` member, so it will throw a `Match` exception:

```
union T a;
int x;
a.String = "hello, world";
/* Next line fails */
x = a.Integer + 3;
```

When you have a big union, it can be awkward to use `tagcheck` to test the hidden tag. You might accidentally test the wrong member or forget to cover a member. In these cases, it's probably best to use *pattern matching* to

determine the tag and to extract the underlying value. For example, here is the function `printT` coded with pattern matching:

```
void printT(union T a) {
    switch (a) {
        case {.Integer = i}: printf("%d",i); return;
        case {.String = s}: printf("%s",s); return;
    }
}
```

The argument `a` has type `union T`, so it is either an `Integer` or `String`. Cyclone extends `switch` statements with *patterns* that distinguish between the cases. The first case,

```
case {.Integer = i}: printf("%d",i); return;
```

contains a pattern, `{Integer = i}`, that will match only `T` values where the `Integer` member was the last one written. The variable `i` is bound to the underlying integer, and it can be used in the body of the case. For example, `printT(x)` will print 3, since `x` holds `{.Integer = 3}`, and `printT(y)` will print `hello, world`. You can find out more about patterns in [Section 5](#);

Cyclone also supports untagged unions, but there are restrictions on how they may be used to ensure safety. In particular, you can write any value you like into a union, but you can only read out values that do not contain pointers. This ensures that you don't "spoof" a pointer with an integer or some other bogus value. So, the general rule is that you can use a normal C union if you aren't using pointers, but you must use a `@tagged union` if you are using pointers.

Cyclone provides another alternative to tagged unions for supporting heterogeneous values called a *datatype*. Tagged unions require space proportional to the largest member (plus room for the tag.) In contrast, a datatype only requires space for the member being used. However, datatypes cannot be updated with a different member and require a level of indirection.

Here is our example type re-coded using a datatype declaration:

```
datatype T {
    Integer(int);
    String(const char *fat);
};
```

```

datatype T.Integer x = Integer(3);
datatype T.String y = String("hello, world");

void printT(datatype T@ a) {
    switch (a) {
        case &Integer(i): printf("%d",i); return;
        case &String(s): printf("%s",s); return;
    }
}

```

In general, a datatype declaration includes a set of *constructors* which can be used to build datatype values. In this case, the constructors are `Integer` and `String`. The `Integer` constructor takes an `int` and returns a value of type `datatype T.Integer`. The `String` constructor takes a string and returns a `datatype T.String` value.

Note that the types of `x` and `y` are not the same so we can't interchange them, nor can we pass them directly to the `printT` function. In particular, their types reveal which constructor was used to build them. However, we can manipulate pointers to these values in an abstract way. In particular, we can pass a pointer to a `datatype T.Integer` value or a pointer to a `datatype T.String` value anywhere that expects a `datatype T`. For instance, we can write `printT(&x)` to print out the integer value in `x`, and we can write `printT(&y)` to print out the "hello, world" string in `y`.

For more on datatypes, see [Section 4](#).

## 2.5 Exceptions

So far we've glossed over what happens when you try to dereference a null pointer, or assign to an out-of-bounds `@fat` pointer. We've said that Cyclone inserts checks to make sure the operation is safe, but what if the checks fail? For safety, it would be sufficient to halt the program and print an error message—a big improvement over a core dump, or, worse, a program with corrupted data that keeps running.

In fact, Cyclone does something a bit more general than halting with an error message: it throws an *exception*. The advantage of exceptions is that they can be *caught* by the programmer, who can then take corrective action

and perhaps continue with the program. If the exception is not caught, the program halts and prints an error message. Consider our earlier example:

```
FILE *f = fopen("/etc/passwd", "r");
int c = getc((FILE @)f);
```

Suppose that there is no file `/etc/passwd`; then `fopen` will return `NULL`, and when `f` is cast to `FILE *@nonnull`, the implied null check will fail. The program will halt with an error message,

```
Uncaught exception Null_Exception
```

`Null_Exception` is one of a handful of standard exceptions used in Cyclone. Each exception is like a case of a datatype: it can carry along some values with it. For example, the standard exception `InvalidArg` carries a string. Exceptions can be handled in try-catch statements, using pattern matching:

```
FILE *f = fopen("/etc/passwd", "r");
int c;
try {
    c = getc((FILE *@nonnull)f);
}
catch {
case &Null_Exception:
    printf("Error: can't open /etc/passwd\n");
    exit(1);
case &InvalidArg(s):
    printf("Error: InvalidArg(%s)\n", s);
    exit(1);
}
```

Here we've "wrapped" the call to `getc` in a try-catch statement. If `f` isn't `NULL` and the `getc` succeeds, then execution just continues, ignoring the catch. But if `f` is `NULL`, then the null check will fail and the exception `Null_Exception` will be thrown; execution immediately continues with the catch (the call to `getc` never happens). In the catch, the thrown exception is pattern matched against the cases. Since the thrown exception is `Null_Exception`, the first case is executed here.

There is one important difference between an exception and a case of a datatype: with a datatype, all of the cases have to be declared at once, while a new exception can be declared at any time. So, exceptions are an *extensible* datatype. You can specify that a datatype is extensible when you declare it, using the `@extensible` qualifier. For example, here's how to declare a new exception:

```
@extensible datatype exn {  
    My_Exception(char *@fat);  
};
```

The type `@extensible datatype exn` is the type of exceptions, and this declaration introduces a new case for the `@extensible datatype exn` type: `My_Exception`, which carries a single value (a string). Exception values are created just like datatype values, and are thrown with a `throw` statement. For example,

```
throw new My_Exception("some kind of error");
```

or

```
throw new Null_Exception;
```

In practice, “`@extensible datatype`” is quite a mouthful. So, Cyclone allows you abbreviate it with just `datatype`, as long as you've declared a datatype as `@extensible` once. So a more typical way to declare a new exception in Cyclone is

```
datatype exn {  
    My_Exception(char ?);  
};
```

## 2.6 Additional Features of Cyclone

So far we've mentioned a number of advanced features of Cyclone that provide facilities needed to avoid common bugs or security holes in C. But there are many other features in Cyclone that are aimed at making it easier to write code, ranging from convenient expression forms, to advanced typing constructs. For instance, like GCC and C99, Cyclone allows you declare variables just about anywhere, instead of at the top of a block.



As another example, like Java, Cyclone lets you declare variables within the initializer of a `for`-statement.

In addition, Cyclone adds advanced typing support in the form of (a) parametric polymorphism, (b) structural subtyping, and (c) some unification-based, local-type inference. These features are necessary to type-check or port a number of (potentially) unsafe C idioms, usually involving “`void *`” or the like. Similarly, `@tagged` union types and `datatypes` can be used to code around many of the uses for C’s union types – another potential source of unsoundness. The rest of this section is a brief overview of these added features.

## 2.7 GCC and C99 Additions

GCC and the [ISO C99 standard](#) have some useful new features that we have adopted for Cyclone. Some of the ones that we currently support are:

- Statement expressions: There is a new expression form, `( { statement expression } )`. The statement is executed first, then the expression, and the value of the entire expression is the value of the expression
- Struct and Union expressions: If you’ve declared `struct point { int x; int y; }`; then you can write `point { .x=expression, .y=expression }` to allocate and initialize a struct point. The same sort of constructors may be used for unions, tagged or not.
- `//` comments as in Java or C++
- Declarations can appear in any statement position. It is not necessary to wrap braces around the declaration of a local variable.
- For-statements can include a declaration. For instance:

```
for (int x=0; x < n; x++) {  
    ...  
}
```

We expect to follow the C99 standard fairly closely.

## 2.8 Tuples

Tuples are like lightweight structs. They need not be declared in advance, and have member or field names that are implicitly 0, 1, 2, 3, etc. For example, the following code declares `x` to be a 3-tuple of an integer, a character, and a boolean, initialized with the values 42, 'z', and `true` respectively. It then checks to see whether the third component in the tuple is `true` (it is) and if so, increments the first component in the tuple.

```
$(int,char,bool) x = $(42,'z',true)
```

```
if (x[2])  
    x[0]++;
```

The above code would be roughly equivalent to writing:

```
struct {int f0; char f1; bool f2;} x = {42,'z',true};  
if (x.f2)  
    x.f1++;
```

Thus, tuple types are written `$(type1, ..., typen)`, tuple constructor expressions are written `$(exp1, ..., expn)`, and extracting the *i*th component of a tuple is written using subscript notation `exp[i-1]`. Note that, consistent with the rest of C, the members start with 0, not 1.

Unlike structs, tuple types are treated equivalent as long as they are structurally equivalent. As in C, struct types are equivalent only if they have the same tag or name. (Note that in C, all struct declarations have a tag, even if the compiler has to gensym one.)

## 2.9 Creating Arrays

There are about four ways to create arrays in Cyclone. One can always declare an array and provide an initializer as in C. For instance:

```
int foo[8] = {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8};  
char s[4] = "bar";
```

are both examples from C for creating arrays. Note that Cyclone follows C's conventions here, so that if you declare arrays as above within a function, then the lifetime of the array coincides with the activation record of the enclosing scope. In other words, such arrays will be stack allocated.

To create heap-allocated arrays (or strings) within a Cyclone function, you should either use “new” operator with either an array initializer or an array comprehension. The following code demonstrates this:

```
// foo is a pointer to a heap-allocated array
int *[8]foo = new {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8};

// s is a checked pointer to a heap-allocated string
char ?s = new "bar";

// a non-null pointer to the first 100 even numbers
int @[100]evens = new {for i < 100 : 2*i};
```

## 2.10 Subtyping

Cyclone supports “extension on the right” and “covariant depth on const” subtyping for pointers. This simply means that you can cast a value *x* from having a type “pointer to a struct with 10 fields,” to “pointer to a struct having only the first 5 fields.” For example, if we have the following definitions:

```
typedef struct Point {float x,y;} *point;

typedef struct CPoint {float x,y; int color;} *cpoint;

float xcoord(point p) {
    return p->x;
}
```

then you can call `xcoord` with either a `point` or `cpoint` object. You can also cast a pointer to a tuple having 3 fields (e.g., `$(int, bool, double)*`) to a pointer to a tuple having only 2 fields (e.g., `$(int, bool)*`). In other words, you can forget about the “tail” of the object. This allows a degree of polymorphism that is useful when porting C code. In addition, you can do “deep” casts on pointer fields that are `const`. (It is unsafe to allow deep casts on non-`const` fields.) Also, you can cast a field from being non-`const` to being `const`. You can also cast a constant-sized array to an equivalent pointer to a struct or tuple. In short, Cyclone attempts to allow you to cast

one type to another as long as it is safe. Note, however, that these casts must be explicit.

We expect to add more support for subtyping in the future (e.g., subtyping on function pointers, bounded subtyping, etc.)

## 2.11 Let Declarations

Sometimes, it's painful to declare a variable because you have to write down its type, and Cyclone types can be big when compared to their C counterparts since they may include bounds information, regions, *etc.* Therefore, Cyclone includes additional support for type inference using let declarations. In particular, you can write:

```
int foo(int x) {
    let y = x+3;
    let z = 3.14159;
    return (int)(y*z);
}
```

Here, we declared two variables *y* and *z* using “let.” When you use *let*, you don't have to write down the type of the variable. Rather, the compiler infers the type from the expression that initializes the variable. More generally, you can write “let *pattern* = *exp*;” to destructure a value into a bunch of variables. For instance, if you pass a tuple to a function, then you can extract the components as follows:

```
int sum($(int,int,int) args) {
    let $(x,y,z) = args;
    return (x+y+z);
}
```

## 2.12 Polymorphic Functions

As mentioned above, Cyclone supports a limited amount of subtyping polymorphism. It also supports a fairly powerful form of parametric polymorphism. Those of you coming from ML or Haskell will find this familiar. Those of you coming from C++ will also find it somewhat familiar. The basic idea is that you can write one function that abstracts the types

of some of the values it manipulates. For instance, consider the following two functions:

```
$(char*,int) swap1($(int,char*) x) {  
    return $(x[1], x[0]);  
}  
$(int,int) swap2($(int,int) x) {  
    return $(x[1], x[0]);  
}
```

The two functions are quite similar: They both take in a pair (i.e., a 2-tuple) and return a pair with the components swapped. At the machine-level, the code for these two functions will be exactly the same, assuming that ints and char \*s are represented the same way. So it seems silly to write the code twice. Normally, a C programmer would replace the definition with simply:

```
$(void *,void *) swap1($(void *,void *) x) {  
    return $(x[1], x[0]);  
}
```

(assuming you added tuples to C). But of course, this isn't type-safe because once I cast the values to void \*, then I can't be sure what type I'm getting out. In Cyclone, you can instead write something like this:

```
$(`b`,`a) swap($(`a`,`b) x) {  
    return $(x[1],x[0]);  
}
```

The code is the same, but it abstracts what the types are. The types `a and `b are type variables that can be instantiated with any word-sized, general-purpose register type. So, for instance, you can call swap on pairs of integers, pairs of pointers, pairs of an integer and a pointer, etc.:

```
let $(x,y) = swap($("hello",3)); // x is 3, y is hello  
let $(w,z) = swap$(4,3);          // w is 3, z is 4
```

Note that when calling a polymorphic function, you need not tell it what types you're using to instantiate the type variables. Rather, Cyclone figures this out through unification.

C++ supports similar functionality with templates. However, C++ and Cyclone differ considerably in their implementation strategies. First, Cyclone only produces one copy of the code, whereas a C++ template is specialized and duplicated at each type that it is used. This approach requires that you include definitions of templates in interfaces and thus defeats separate compilation. However, the approach used by Cyclone does have its drawbacks: in particular, the only types that can instantiate type variables are those that can be treated uniformly. This ensures that we can use the same code for different types. The general rule is that values of the types that instantiate a type variable must fit into a machine word and must be passed in general-purpose (as opposed to floating-point) registers. Examples of such types include `int`, pointers, `datatype`, and `xdatatype` types. Other types, including `char`, `short`, `long`, `long long`, `float`, `double`, `struct`, and `tuple` types violate this rule and thus values of these types cannot be passed to a function like `swap` in place of the type variables. In practice, this means that you tend to manipulate a lot of pointers in Cyclone code.

The combination of parametric polymorphism and sub-typing means that you can cover a lot of C idioms where `void*` or unsafe casts were used without sacrificing type-safety. We use polymorphism a lot when coding in Cyclone. For instance, the standard library includes many container abstractions (lists, sets, queues, etc.) that are all polymorphic in the element type. This allows us to re-use a lot of code. In addition, unlike C++, those libraries can be compiled once and need not be specialized. On the downside, this style of polymorphism does not allow you to do any type-specific things (e.g., overloading or ad-hoc polymorphism.) Someday, we may add support for this, but in the short run, we're happy not to have it.

## 2.13 Polymorphic Data Structures

Just as function definitions can be parameterized by types, so can `struct` definitions, `datatype` definitions, and even `typedefs`. For instance, the following `struct` definition is similar to the one used in the standard library for lists:

```
struct List<'a> { 'a hd; struct List<'a> * tl; };  
typedef struct List<'a> *list_t<'a>;
```

Here, we've declared a `struct List` parameterized by a type `'a`. The `hd` field contains an element of type `'a` and the `tl` field contains a possibly-null pointer to a `struct List` with elements of type `'a`. We then define `list_t<'a>` as an abbreviation for `struct List<'a>*`. So, for instance, we can declare both integer and string lists like this:

```
list_t<int> ilist = new List{1,new List{2,null}};
list_t<string_t> slist = new List{.hd = "foo",
                                   .tl = new List{"bar",null}};
```

Note that we use “new” as in C++ to allocate a new `struct List` on the heap and return a pointer to the resulting (initialized) `List` object. Note also that the field designator (“`.hd`”, “`.tl`”) are optional.

Once you have polymorphic data structures, you can write lots of useful polymorphic code and use it over and over again. For instance, the standard list library (see `lib/list.h`) includes functions for mapping over a list, looking up items in a list, concatenating two lists, copying lists, sorting lists, etc.

## 2.14 Abstract and Existential Types

Suppose you want to declare an abstract type for implementing stacks. In Cyclone, the way this is accomplished is by declaring a `struct` that encapsulates the implementation type, and by adding the “abstract” qualifier to the `struct` definition. For instance, if we write:

```
abstract struct Queue<'a> { list_t<'a> front, rear; };
```

then this declares a polymorphic `Queue` implementation that is abstract. The definition of the `struct` is available within the unit that declares the `Queue`, but will not be made available to the outside world. (This will be enforced by a link-time type-checker that we are currently putting together.) Typically, the provider of the `Queue` abstraction would write in an interface file:

```
extern struct Queue<'a>;
```

The `abstract` keyword in the implementation ensures that the definition does not leak to a client.

Typedefs can be made abstract by writing:

```
typedef _ foo_t;
```

However, our current implementation does not support later redefining `foo_t` as a non-abstract typedef. The default kind for the type is `B`; you can write an explicit kind like this:

```
typedef _::A bar_t;
```

Generally abstract structs are sufficient. An abstract typedef is useful in some cases, though, such as when the abstracted type is actually `int`.

It's also possible to code up "first-class" abstract data types using `structs` with *existentially quantified type variables*. Existential types are described in [Section 12](#).

For an example of the use of existential types, see the `fn.h` and `fn.cyc` files in the standard library, which implement first-class closures.

## 2.15 Restrictions

Though Cyclone adds many new features to C, there are also a number of restrictions that it must enforce to ensure code does not crash. Here is a list of the major restrictions:

- Cyclone does not permit some of the casts that are allowed in C because incorrect casts can lead to crashes, and it is not always possible for us to determine what is safe. In general, you should be able to cast something from one type to another as long as the underlying representations are compatible. Note that Cyclone is very conservative about "compatible" because it does not know the size or alignment constraints of your C compiler.
- Cyclone does not support pointer arithmetic on thin pointers unless they are zero-terminated and even then, there are checks to make sure you can't go past a zero. Pointer arithmetic is not unsafe in itself, but it can lead to unsafe code when the resulting pointer is assigned or dereferenced. You can cast the thin pointer value to a `@fat` value and then do the pointer arithmetic instead.
- Cyclone inserts a NULL check when a possibly-NULL pointer is dereferenced and it cannot determine statically that the pointer is not NULL.



- If a function's return type is not "bits-only" (i.e., contains pointers), Cyclone requires that the function executes a return statement, throws an exception, or calls a `noreturn` function on every possible execution path. This is needed to ensure that the value returned from the function has the right type, and is not just a random value left in a register or on the stack.
- Untagged unions in Cyclone can hold arbitrary values, but you can only read out "bits." In particular, the members you can read out can only have combinations of chars, ints, shorts, longs, floats, doubles, structs of bits, or tuples of bits. Pointer types are not supported. This avoids the situation where an arbitrary bit pattern is cast to a pointer and then dereferenced. If you want to use multiple types, then use `@tagged unions` or `datatypes`.
- Cyclone only supports limited forms of `malloc` (and `calloc`). You must write `malloc(sizeof(t)*n)` and `t` must be a "bits-only" type. You can use `calloc` to allocate arrays of (possibly NULL) pointers (e.g., `calloc(sizeof(char*), 34)`).
- Cyclone performs a static analysis to ensure that every non-numeric (i.e., pointer) variable and struct field is initialized before it is used. This prevents a random stack value from being used improperly. The analysis is somewhat conservative so you may need to initialize things earlier than you would do in C. There is only limited support for initializing memory in a procedure separate from the one that does the allocation.
- Cyclone does not permit `gotos` from one scope into another. C warns against this practice, as it can cause crashes; Cyclone rules it out entirely.
- Cyclone places some limitations on the form of switch statements that rule out crashes like those caused by unrestricted `goto`. Furthermore, Cyclone prevents you from accidentally falling through from one case to another. To fall through, you must explicitly use the `fallthru` keyword. Otherwise, you must explicitly `break`, `goto`, `continue`, `return`, or throw an exception. However, adjacent cases for a switch statement (with no intervening statement) do not require an explicit `fallthru`.

- In the near future, Cyclone will place some restrictions on linking for safety reasons. In particular, if you import a variable or function with one type, then it must be exported by another file with that type. In addition, access to C code will be restricted based on a notion of security roles.
- Cyclone has some new keywords (beyond those of C99 and GCC) that can no longer be used as identifiers. The list includes: `abstract`, `alias`, `calloc`, `datatype`, `dynregion_t`, `export`, `fallthru`, `__gen`, `let`, `malloc`, `namespace`, `numelts`, `__cyclone_port_on__`, `__cyclone_port_off__`, `region`, `regions`, `reset_region`, `rmalloc`, `rnew`, `tagcheck`, `tag_t`, `throw`, `try`, `using`, `sizeof`, and `sizeof_t`.
- Cyclone prevents you from using pointers to stack-allocated objects as freely as in C to avoid security holes. The reason is that each declaration block is placed in a conceptual “region” and the type system tracks the region into which a pointer points.
- Cyclone does not allow you to explicitly free a heap-allocated object. Instead, you can either use the region mechanism or rely upon the conservative garbage collector to reclaim the space.

In addition, there are a number of shortcomings of the current implementation that we hope to correct in the near future. For instance:

- Cyclone currently does not support nested type declarations within a function. All `struct`, `union`, `enum`, `datatype`, and `typedef` definitions must be at the top-level.
- Cyclone does not allow a `typedef` declaration to be shadowed by another declaration.

### 3 Pointers

As in C, one should think of Cyclone pointers as just addresses. Operations on pointers, such as `*x`, `x->f`, and `x[e]`, behave the same as in C, with the exception that run-time checks sometimes precede memory

accesses. (Exactly when and where these checks occur is described below.) However, Cyclone prevents memory errors such as dereferencing dangling pointers or indexing outside an array's bounds, so it may reject some operations on pointers that C would accept.

In order to enforce memory safety and distinguish between different uses of pointers, Cyclone pointer types include additional qualifiers when compared to their C counterparts. These qualifiers are described briefly below and in more detail throughout this section:

- `@nullable`: Pointers with this qualifier may be `NULL`. This qualifier is present by default and overridden by the `@nonnull` qualifier. A dereference of a `@nullable` pointer will generally be preceded by a `NULL`-check.
- `@nonnull`: Pointers with this qualifier may never be `NULL`, and thus never need to be checked for `NULL` upon dereference. This qualifier is not present by default and must be put in explicitly. The qualifier may be abbreviated by using `"@"` in place of the usual pointer `"*"`. So, for instance, the type `"int *@nonnull"` can be abbreviated by `"int @"`. Currently, the `@nonnull` qualifier cannot be used on pointers with the `@fat` qualifier.
- `@thin`: Pointers with this qualifier have the same representation as in C (i.e., a single machine word.) However, arithmetic on thin pointers is not supported except when the pointer is also qualified as `@zeroterm` (see below). This qualifier is present by default and overridden by the `@fat` qualifier.
- `@fat`: Pointers with this qualifier consist of a thin pointer plus additional information needed to support safe pointer arithmetic and dereferencing. (The current implementation uses three words in total.) Each dereference of a fat pointer incurs both a `NULL`-check and a bounds check to ensure that the pointer points to a valid object. The `@fat` qualifier cannot be used with the `@nonnull` or `@numelts` qualifiers (though we expect to change this in the future.) The `numelts` operation may be applied to fat pointers to determine the number of elements in the (forward) sequence that may be safely dereferenced. Finally, the qualifier may be abbreviated by using `"?"` in place of the

usual pointer “\*”. So, for instance, the type “int \*@fat” can be abbreviated by “int ?”.

- `@numelts(e)`: The term `e` must be a *static* expression (i.e., a constant expression or one involving `sizeof`) and indicates an upper bound on the number of objects that the pointer refers to. For example, if `p` has type `T *@numelts(42)`, then either `p` is `NULL` or else for  $0 \leq i < e$ , the expression `p[i]` is guaranteed to contain a `T` object. This qualifier may not be used in conjunction with `@fat`. If omitted on a `@thin` pointer, then `@numelts(1)` is inserted by default. This qualifier can be abbreviated by writing the bounds expression `e` in curly braces. For instance, the type “int \*@numelts(42)” can be abbreviated by “int \*{42}”.
- `@zeroterm`: This qualifier is used for zero-terminated sequences, such as C-style strings, and provides an alternative to fat pointers for doing safe pointer arithmetic without knowing bounds statically. This qualifier can only be used on pointers whose element type admits zero or `NULL` as a value, including integral types, and `@nullable` pointer types. Arithmetic in the forward direction is possible with zero-terminated pointers (e.g., `p++`) as is a subscript with a positive index (e.g., `p[i]`). However, the compiler inserts code to ensure that the index does not step over the final zero. When updating a zero-terminated array, the compiler also ensures that the final zero is not overwritten with a non-zero value. It is generally best to coerce a thin, zero-terminated pointer to a fat, zero-terminated pointer to avoid these overheads. This qualifier is only present by default for char pointers. It can be overridden with the `@nozeroterm` qualifier. This qualifier may also be used on array types.
- `@nozeroterm`: This qualifier is present by default on all pointer types except for char pointers. It is used to override the implicit `@zeroterm` qualfier for char pointers. This qualifier may also be used on array types.
- `@region('r')`: This qualifier is used to indicate the region into which a pointer points (in this case region `'r'`). The qualifier may be abbreviated by simply writing the region name after any other Cyclone qualifiers. For instance, the type “int \*@nonnull @region'r”

may be abbreviated as “`int @`r`”. The rules about default region annotations are context-dependent and therefore described below.

### 3.1 Pointer Subtyping

Some pointer types may be safely used in contexts where another pointer type is expected. In particular, `T*@nonnull` is a subtype of `T*@nullable` which means that a not-null pointer can be passed anywhere a possibly-null pointer is expected.

Similarly, a `T*@numelts(42)` pointer can be passed anywhere a `T*@numelts(30)` pointer is expected, because the former describes sequences that have at least 42 elements, which satisfies the constraint that it has at least 30 elements.

In addition, `T*@region(`r)` is a subtype of `T*@region(`s)` when region ``r` *outlives* region ``s`. The heap region (``H`) outlives every region so you can safely use a heap pointer anywhere another region is expected. Outer blocks and outer regions outlive inner blocks and regions. For example the following code is type-correct:

```
void foo(int x) {
    int *@region(`foo) y = &x;
    L:{
        int *@region(`L) z = y;
    }
}
```

because region ``foo` outlives region ``L`. By default, regions passed in to a function outlive any regions defined in the function (because they will live across the function call). Finally, you can specify outlives relations among region parameters within a function’s prototype. The following code specifies that input region ``r` outlives input region ``s` so it’s safe to treat ``r` pointers as if they were ``s` pointers:

```
void bar(int *@region(`r) x,
         int *@region(`s) y : {`s} > `r);
```

In general, the outlives relation is specified after the function arguments by separating the relations with a colon (`:`) and giving a comma-separated list of primitive outlives relations. These outlives relations are of the form

“ $\{r_1, \dots, r_n\} > r$ ” and specify that region  $r$  outlives all of the regions  $r_1$  through  $r_n$ .

Finally, when  $T$  is a subtype of  $S$ , then  $T^*$  is a subtype of  $\text{const } S^*$ . So, for instance, if we declare:

```
// nullable int pointers
typedef int * nintptr_t;
// not-nullable int pointers
typedef int *@nonnull intptr_t;
```

then `intptr_t *` is a subtype of `const nintptr_t *`. Note, however, that “const” is important to get this kind of deep subtyping.

The following example shows what could go wrong if we allowed deep subtyping without the `const`:

```
void f(int *@nonnull *@nonnull x) {
    int *@nullable *@nonnull y = x;
    // would be legal if int *@nullable *@nonnull
    // was a subtype of int *@nonnull *@nonnull.
    *y = NULL;
    // legal because *y has type int *@nullable
    **x;
    // seg faults even though the type of *x is
    // int *@nonnull
}
```

## 3.2 Pointer Coercions

In addition to pointer subtyping, Cyclone provides a number of *coercions* which allow you to convert a pointer value from one type to another. For instance, you can coerce a thin pointer with 42 elements to a fat pointer:

```
int arr[42];
int *@thin @numelts(42) p = arr;
int *@fat pfat = p;
```

As another example, you can coerce a thin, zero-terminated pointer to a fat, zero-terminated pointer:

```

int strlen(char *@zeroterm s) {
    char *@fat @zeroterm sfat = s;
    return numelts(s);
}

```

In both cases, the compiler inserts code to convert from the thin representation to an appropriate fat representation. In the former case, the bounds information can be calculated statically. In the latter case, the bounds information is calculated dynamically (by looking for the zero that terminates the sequence.) In both cases, the coercion is guaranteed to succeed, so the compiler does not emit a warning.

In other cases, a coercion can cause a run-time exception to be thrown. For instance, if you attempt to coerce a `@nullable` pointer to a `@nonnull` pointer, and the value happens to be `NULL`, then the exception `NullPointerException` is thrown. In general, the compiler will warn you when you try to coerce from one pointer representation to another where a run-time check must be inserted, and that check might fail. A dataflow analysis is used to avoid some warnings, but in general, it's not smart enough to get rid of all of them. In these cases, you can explicitly cast the pointer from one representation to the other, and the compiler will not generate a warning (though it will still insert the run-time check to ensure safety.)

Here is a list of some of the coercions that are possible:

- `T` can be coerced to `S` when `T` is a subtype of `S`.
- `T*@nullable` can be coerced to `T*@nonnull` but might throw an exception at run-time.
- `T*@thin@numelts(c)` can be coerced to `T*@fat` when `c` is a constant expression.
- `T*@fat` can be coerced to `T*@thin @numelts(c)` when `c` is a constant expression, but might throw an exception at run-time.
- `T*@thin@zeroterm` can be coerced to `T*@fat@zeroterm` and vice versa.
- `T*@thin@zeroterm` can be coerced to `const T*@fat@nozeroterm`.
- `T*@thin@zeroterm` can be coerced to `T*@fat@nozeroterm`, but access to the trailing zero is lost.

### 3.3 Default Region Qualifiers

The rules the compiler uses for filling in `@region` qualifiers when they are omitted from pointer types are a little complicated, but they are designed to avoid clutter in the common case:

- In function-argument types, a fresh (polymorphic) region name is used.
- In function-return types, ``H` is used.
- In type definitions, including `typedef`, ``H` is used.
- In function bodies, unification is used to infer the region based on how the location assigned the pointer type is used in the function.

Thus, be warned that

```
typedef int * foo_t;  
void g(foo_t);
```

is different than

```
void g(int *);
```

The reason is clear when we fill in the default region qualifiers. In the first case, we have:

```
typedef int *@region(`H) foo_t;  
void g(foo_t);
```

whereas in the second case we have:

```
void g(int *@region(`r));
```

### 3.4 Static Expression Bounds

The bound for the `@numelts` qualifier must be a *static* expression. A static expression is either a constant expression, or an expression involving `sizeof(T)` for a type-level expression `T`. The `sizeof` construct is used to connect the value of a run-time integer to the static bound on an array. For example, the following function takes in an integer `num` and pointer to a sequence of `num` integers and returns the sum of the sequence:



```

int sum(tag_t<'n> num,
        int *@nonnull @numelts(valueof('n)) p) {
    int a = 0;
    for (unsigned i = 0; i < num; i++)
        a += p[i];
}

```

The type of `num` is specified as `tag_t<'n>`. This simply means that `num` holds an integer value, called `'n`, and the number of elements of `p` is equal to `n`. This form of dependency is common enough that it can be abbreviated as follows:

```
int sum(tag_t num, int p[num]);
```

and the compiler will fill in the missing information.

## 4 Tagged Unions and Datatypes

In addition to `struct`, `enum`, and `union`, Cyclone provides `@tagged union` and `datatype` declarations as ways to construct new aggregate types. Like a union type, each `@tagged union` and `datatype` has a number of *variants* (or members). Unlike conventional unions, an object of a `@tagged union` or `datatype` type is exactly one variant, we can detect (or discriminate) that variant at run-time, and the language prevents using an object as though it had a different variant.

The difference between `@tagged unions` and `datatypes` is that the former look and behave much like traditional unions, whereas the latter look and behave more like the algebraic datatypes found in functional languages such as ML. Furthermore, datatypes can be either closed or `@extensible`. A closed datatype's members are specified all together when the datatype is declared, whereas an `@extensible` datatype supports adding new members after the fact (much like adding a new subclass to a class-based OO language.)

In this section, we first discuss `@tagged unions`, then closed datatypes, and finally `@extensible datatypes`.

## 4.1 Tagged Unions

A tagged union declaration looks just like a C union, except that it you must specify the `@tagged` qualifier when declaring it. For example:

```
@tagged union Foo {
    int i;
    double d;
    char *@fat s;
};
```

The primary difference with C unions is that a tagged union includes a hidden tag. The tag indicates which member was last written. So, for example:

```
union Foo x;
x.i = 3;
x.s = "hello";
```

causes the hidden tag to first indicate that the `i` member was written, and then is updated to record that the `s` member was written.

When you attempt to read a member of a tagged union, a check is done on the hidden tag to ensure that this was the last member written, and thus the union contains a valid object of that member's type. If some other member was last updated, then a `Match_Exception` will be thrown.

You can test the hidden tag of a tagged union by using the `tagcheck` operation. For example:

```
void printFoo(union Foo x) {
    if (tagcheck(x.i))
        printf("%d",x.i);
    else if (tagcheck(x.d))
        printf("%g",x.d);
    else if (tagcheck(x.s))
        printf("%s",x.s);
}
```

Alternatively, you can use pattern matching (described in the next section) which will ensure that you cover all of the cases properly. For instance, the function above may be rewritten as:

```

void printFoo(union Foo x) {
    switch (x) {
        case {.i = i}: printf("%d",i); break;
        case {.d = d}: printf("%g",d); break;
        case {.s = s}: printf("%s",s); break;
    }
}

```

If we failed to leave out one of the cases in the pattern match, then the compiler would warn us. This is particularly helpful when you add new variants to a tagged union, for then the compiler pinpoints the spots that you need to update in your code. Therefore, we encourage the use of pattern matching where possible.

## 4.2 Datatypes

At its simplest, a datatype looks just like an enum declaration. For example, we could say:

```
datatype Color { Red, Green, Blue };
```

As with enum, the declaration creates a type (called `datatype Color`) and three constants `Red`, `Green`, and `Blue`. Unlike enum, these constants do not have type `datatype Color`. Instead, each variant has its *own type*, namely `datatype Color.Red`, `datatype Color.Green`, and `datatype Color.Blue`. However, a pointer to one of these values can be treated as a sub-type of a pointer to a `datatype Color`. So you can write:

```

datatype Color.Red red = Red;
datatype Color *c = &red;

```

In this simple example, we are splitting hairs, but we will soon find all these distinctions useful.

Unlike enum, datatype variants may carry any fixed number of values, as in this example:

```

datatype Shape {
    Point,
    Circle(float),

```

```

    Ellipse(float, float),
    Polygon(int, float),
};

```

A `Point` has no accompanying information, a `Circle` has a radius, an `Ellipse` has two axis lengths, and a (regular) `Polygon` has a number of sides and a radius. (The value fields do not have names, so it is often better style to have a variant carry one value of a struct type, which of course has named members.) This example creates five types: datatype `Shape`, datatype `Shape.Point`, datatype `Shape.Circle`, datatype `Shape.Ellipse`, and datatype `Shape.Polygon`. Like in our previous example, datatype `Shape.Point*` is a subtype of datatype `Shape*` and `Point` is a constant of type datatype `Shape.Point`.

Variants that carry one or more values are treated differently. `Circle` becomes a *constructor*; given a float it produces an object of type datatype `Shape.Circle`, for example `Circle(3.0)`. Similarly, `Ellipse(0,0)` has type datatype `Shape.Ellipse` (thanks to implicit casts from `int` to `float` for 0) and `Polygon(7,4.0)` has type datatype `Shape.Polygon`. The arguments to a constructor can be arbitrary expressions of the correct type, for example, `Ellipse(rand(), sqrt(rand()))`.

Here are some examples which allocate a `Point` and `Circle` respectively, but then use subtyping to treat the resulting values as if they are `Shape` pointers:

```

datatype Shape *s1 = new Point;
datatype Shape *s2 = new Circle(3.0);

```

Datatypes are particularly useful for building recursive structures. For example, a small language of arithmetic expressions might look like this:

```

enum Unops { Negate, Invert };
enum Binops { Add, Subtract, Multiply, Divide };
typedef datatype Exp *@nonnull exp_t;
datatype Exp {
    Int(int),
    Float(float),
    Unop(enum Unops, exp_t),
    Binop(enum Binops, exp_t, exp_t)
};

```

A function returning an expression representing the multiplication of its parameter by two can be written like this:

```
exp_t double_exp(datatype Exp e) {
    return new Binop(Multiply, e, new Int(2));
}
```

**Accessing Datatype Variants** Given a value of a datatype type, such as datatype `Shape`, we do not know which variant it is. It could be a `Circle` or `Shape`, etc. In Cyclone, we use *pattern matching* to determine which variant a given datatype value actually is, and to extract the arguments that were used to build the datatype value. For example, here is how you could define `isCircle`:

```
bool isCircle(datatype Shape *s) {
    switch(s) {
        case &Circle(r): return true;
        default: return false;
    }
}
```

When a switch statement's argument is a pointer to a datatype, the cases describe variants. One variant of datatype `Shape *` is a pointer to a `Circle`, which carries one value. The corresponding pattern has `&` for the pointer, `Circle` for the constructor name, and one identifier for each value carried by `Circle`. The identifiers are binding occurrences (declarations, if you will), and the initial values are the values of the fields of the `Circle` at which `s` points. The scope is the extent of the case clause.

Here is another example:

*[The reader is asked to indulge compiler-writers who have forgotten basic geometry.]*

```
extern area_of_ellipse(float, float);
extern area_of_poly(int, float);
float area(datatype Shape *s) {
    float ans;
    switch(s) {
        case &Point:
            ans = 0;
    }
}
```

```

        break;
    case &Circle(r):
        ans = 3.14*r*r;
        break;
    case &Ellipse(r1,r2):
        ans = area_of_ellipse(r1,r2);
        break;
    case &Polygon(sides,r):
        ans = area_of_poly(sides,r);
        break;
    }
    return ans;
}

```

The cases are compared in order against `s`. The following are compile-time errors:

- It is possible that a member of the `datatype` type matches none of the cases. Note that `default` matches everything.
- A case is useless because it could only match if one of the earlier cases match. For example, a default case at the end of the `switch` in `area` would be an error.

As you can discover in Section 5, Cyclone has much richer pattern-matching support than we have used here.

**Polymorphism and Datatypes** A `datatype` declaration may be polymorphic over types and regions just like a `struct` or `union` definition (see the section on [polymorphism](#)). For example, here is a declaration for binary trees where the leaves can hold some `BoxKind 'a`:

```

datatype Tree<'a> {
    Leaf('a);
    Node(datatype Tree<'a>*, datatype Tree<'a>*);
};

```

In the above example, the root may be in any region, but all children will be in the heap. The following version allows the children to be in any region, but they must all be in the same region. (The root can still be in a different region.)

```
datatype Tree<'a, 'r> {
  Leaf('a);
  Node(datatype Tree<'a, 'r> *'r,
       datatype Tree<'a, 'r> *'r);
};
```

## Future

- Currently, given a value of a variant type (e.g., `datatype Shape.Circle`), the only way to access the fields is with pattern-matching even though the variant is known. We may provide a tuple-like syntax in the future.

## 4.3 Extensible Datatypes

We now explain how an `@extensible datatype` type differs from a `datatype`. The main difference is that later declarations may continue to add variants. Extensible datatypes are useful for allowing clients to extend data structures in unforeseen ways. For example:

```
@extensible datatype Food;
datatype Food { Banana; Grape;
               Pizza(list_t<datatype Food*>) };
datatype Food { Candy; Broccoli };
```

After these declarations, `Pizza(new List(new Broccoli, NULL))` is a well-typed expression.

If multiple declarations include the same variants, the variants must have the same declaration (the number of values, types for the values, and the same existential type variables).

Because different files may add different variants and Cyclone compiles files separately, no code can know (for sure) all the variants of an `@extensible datatype`. Hence all pattern-matches against a value of an `@extensible datatype` type must end with a case that matches everything, typically default.

There is one built-in `@extensible datatype` type: `@extensible datatype exn` is the type of exceptions. Therefore, you declare new `exn` constructors like this:

```
datatype exn {BadFilename(string)};
```

The implementation of `@extensible datatype` types is very similar to that of `datatype` types, but variant tags cannot be represented as small integers because of separate compilation. Instead, these tags are represented as pointers to unique locations in static data.

## 5 Pattern Matching

Pattern matching provides a concise, convenient way to bind parts of large objects to new local variables. Two Cyclone constructs use pattern matching, `let` declarations and `switch` statements. Although the latter are more common, we first explain patterns with [let declarations](#) because they have fewer complications. Then we describe all the [pattern forms](#). Then we describe [switch statements](#).

You must use patterns to access values carried by [tagged unions](#), including exceptions. In other situations, patterns make code more readable and less verbose.

### 5.1 Let Declarations

In Cyclone, you can write

```
let x = e;
```

as a local declaration. The meaning is the same as `t x = e;` where `t` is the type of `e`. In other words, `x` is bound to the new variable. Patterns are much more powerful because they can bind several variables to different parts of an aggregate object. Here is an example:

```
struct Pair { int x; int y; };
void f(struct Pair pr) {
    let Pair(fst,snd) = pr;
    ...
}
```

The pattern has the same structure as a `struct Pair` with parts being variables. Hence the pattern is a match for `pr` and the variables are initialized with the appropriate parts of `pr`. Hence “`let Pair(fst,snd)`



`= pr`” is equivalent to `“int fst =pr.x; int snd = pr.y”`. A let-declaration’s initializer is evaluated only once.

Patterns may be as structured as the expressions against which they match. For example, given type

```
struct Quad { struct Pair p1; struct Pair p2; };
```

patterns for matching against an expression of type `struct Quad` could be any of the following (and many more because of constants and wildcards—see below):

- `Quad(Pair(a,b),Pair(c,d))`
- `Quad(p1, Pair(c,d))`
- `Quad(Pair(a,b), p2)`
- `Quad(p1,p2)`
- `q`

In general, a let-declaration has the form `“let p = e;”` where `p` is a pattern and `e` is an expression. In our example, the match always succeeds, but in general patterns can have compile-time errors or run-time errors.

At compile-time, the type-checker ensures that the pattern makes sense for the expression. For example, it rejects `“let Pair(fst,snd) = 0”` because `0` has type `int` but the pattern only makes sense for type `struct Pair`.

Certain patterns are type-correct, but they may not match run-time values. For example, constants can appear in patterns, so `“let Pair(17,snd) = pr;”` would match only when `pr.x` is `17`. Otherwise the exception `Match_Exception` is thrown. Patterns that may fail are rarely useful and poor style in let-declarations; the compiler emits a warning when you use them. In switch statements, possibly-failing patterns are the norm—as we explain below, the whole point is that one of the cases’ patterns should match.

## 5.2 Pattern Forms

So far, we have seen three pattern forms: variables patterns, struct patterns, and constant patterns. We now describe all the pattern forms. For each form, you need to know:

- The syntax
- The types of expressions it can match against (to avoid a compile-time error)
- The expressions the pattern matches against (other expressions cause a match failure)
- The bindings the pattern introduces, if any.

There is one compile-time rule that is the same for all forms: All variables (and type variables) in a pattern must be distinct. For example, “let Pair(fst,fst) = pr;” is not allowed.

You may want to read the descriptions for variable and struct patterns first because we have already explained their use informally.

- **Variable patterns**

- Syntax: an identifier
- Types for match: all types
- Expressions matched: all expressions
- Bindings introduced: the identifier is bound to the expression being matched

- **Wildcard patterns**

- Syntax: `_` (underscore, note this use is completely independent of `_` for [type inference](#))
- Type for match: all types
- Expressions matched: all expressions
- Bindings introduced: none. Hence it is like a variable pattern that uses a fresh identifier. Using `_` is better style because it indicates the value matched is not used. Notice that “let `_` = `e` ;” is equivalent to `e`.

- **As patterns**

- Syntax: `p as x` where `p` is a pattern and `x` is an identifier.

- Types for match: all types
- Expressions matched: all expressions
- Bindings introduced: the identifier *x* is bound to the expression being matched, and the expression is further matched against the pattern *p*. Thus, a variable pattern is simply shorthand for “\_ as *x*”.

- **Reference patterns**

- Syntax: *\*x* (i.e., the *\** character followed by an identifier)
- Types for match: all types
- Expressions matched: all expressions. (Very subtle notes: Currently, reference patterns may only appear inside of other patterns so that the compiler can determine the region for the pointer type assigned to *x*. They also may not occur under a *datatype* pattern that has existential types unless there is a pointer pattern in-between.)
- Bindings introduced: *x* is bound to *the address of* the expression being matched. Hence if matched against a value of type *t* in region *r*, the type of *x* is *t@r*.

- **Numeric constant patterns**

- Syntax: An *int*, *char*, or *float* constant
- Types for match: numeric types
- Expressions matched: numeric values such that *==* applied to the value and the pattern yields true. (Standard C numeric promotions apply. Note that comparing floating point values for equality is usually a bad idea.)
- Bindings introduced: none

- **NULL constant patterns**

- Syntax: *NULL*
- Types for match: nullable pointer types, including *?* types
- Expressions matched: *NULL*

- Bindings introduced: none
- **Enum patterns**
  - Syntax: an enum constant
  - Types for match: the enum type containing the constant
  - Expressions matched: the constant
  - Bindings introduced: none
- **Tuple patterns**
  - Syntax:  $\$(p_1, \dots, p_n [, \dots])$  where  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  are patterns. The trailing comma and ellipses  $(\dots)$  are optional.
  - Types for match: if no ellipses, then tuple types with exactly  $n$  fields, where  $p_i$  matches the type of the tuple's  $i$ th field. If the ellipses are present, then matches a tuple with at least  $n$  fields.
  - Expressions matched: tuples where the  $i$ th field matches  $p_i$  for  $i$  between 1 and  $n$ .
  - Bindings introduced: bindings introduced by  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ .
- **Struct patterns**
  - Syntax: There are three forms:
    - \*  $X(p_1, \dots, p_n [, \dots])$  where  $X$  is the name of a struct with  $n$  fields and  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  are patterns. This syntax is shorthand for  $X\{.f_1 = p_1, \dots, .f_n = p_n [, \dots]\}$  where  $f_i$  is the  $i$ th field in  $X$ .
    - \*  $X\{.f_1 = p_1, \dots, .f_n = p_n [, \dots]\}$  where the fields of  $X$  are  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  but not necessarily in that order
    - \*  $\{.f_1 = p_1, \dots, .f_n = p_n [, \dots]\}$  which is the same as above except that struct name  $X$  has been omitted.
  - Types for match: `struct X` (or instantiations when `struct X` is polymorphic) such that  $p_i$  matches the type of  $f_i$  for  $i$  between 1 and  $n$ . If the ellipses are not present, then each member of the struct must have a pattern.
  - Expressions matched: structs where the value in  $f_i$  matches  $p_i$  for  $i$  between 1 and  $n$ .

- Bindings introduced: bindings introduced by  $p_1, \dots, p_n$

- **Tagged Union patterns**

- Syntax: There are two forms:
  - \*  $X\{.f_i = p\}$  where the members of  $X$  are  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  and  $f_i$  is one of those members.
  - \*  $\{\{.f_1 = p\}$  which is the same as above except that union name  $X$  has been omitted.
- Types for match: `union X` (or instantiations when `union X` is polymorphic) such that  $p$  matches the type of  $f_i$ .
- Expressions matched: tagged unions where the last member written was  $f_i$  and the value of that member matches  $p$ .
- Bindings introduced: bindings introduced by  $p$ .

- **Pointer patterns**

- Syntax:  $\&p$  where  $p$  is a pattern
- Types for match: pointer types, including  $? \text{ types}$ . Also `datatype Foo @` (or instantiations of it) when the pattern is  $\&\text{Bar}(p_1, \dots, p_n)$  and `Bar` is a variant of `datatype Foo` and  $p_i$  matches the type of the  $i$ th value carried by `Bar`.
- Expressions matched: non-null pointers where the value pointed to matches  $p$ . Note this explanation includes the case where the expression has type `datatype Foo @` and the pattern is  $\&\text{Bar}(p_1, \dots, p_n)$  and the current variant of the expression is “pointer to `Bar`”.
- Bindings introduced: bindings introduced by  $p$

- **Datatype patterns**

- Syntax:  $X$  if  $X$  is a variant that carries no values. Else  $X(p_1, \dots, p_n[\dots])$  where  $X$  is the name of a variant and  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  are patterns. As with tuple and struct patterns, the ellipses are optional.
- Types for match: `datatype Foo` (or instantiations of it).
- Expressions matched: If  $X$  is non-value-carrying, then  $X$ . If  $X$  is value-carrying, then values created from the constructor  $X$  such that  $p_i$  matches the  $i$ th field.
- Bindings introduced: bindings introduced by  $p_1, \dots, p_n$

## 5.3 Switch Statements

In Cyclone, you can switch on a value of any type and the case “labels” (the part between case and the colon) are patterns. The switch expression is evaluated and then matched against each pattern in turn. The first matching case statement is executed. Except for some restrictions, Cyclone’s switch statement is therefore a powerful extension of C’s switch statement.

### Restrictions

- *You cannot implicitly “fall-through” to the next case.* Instead, you must use the `fallthru;` statement, which has the effect of transferring control to the beginning of the next case. There are two exceptions to this restriction: First, adjacent cases with no intervening statement do not require a fall-through. Second, the last case of a switch does not require a fall-through or break.
- The cases in a switch *must be exhaustive*; it is a compile-time error if the compiler determines that it could be that no case matches. The rules for what the compiler determines are described below.
- *A case cannot be unreachable.* It is a compile-time error if the compiler determines that a later case may be subsumed by an earlier one. The rules for what the compiler determines are described below. (C almost has this restriction because case labels cannot be repeated, but Cyclone is more restrictive. For example, C allows cases after a default case.)
- The body of a switch statement must be a *sequence of case statements* and case statements can appear only in such a sequence. So idioms like Duff’s device (such as “`switch(i%4) while(i-- >=0) { case 3: ... }`”) are not supported.
- A constant case label must be a constant, *not a constant expression*. That is, case `3+4:` is allowed in C, but not in Cyclone. Cyclone supports this feature with a separate construct: `switch "C" (e) { case 3+4: ... }`. This construct is much more like C’s `switch`: The labels must be constant numeric expressions and `fallthru` is never required.

**An Extension of C** Except for the above restrictions, we can see Cyclone’s switch is an extension of C’s switch. For example, consider this code (which has the same meaning in C and Cyclone):

```
int f(int i) {
    switch(i) {
        case 0:  f(34); return 17;
        case 1:  return 17;
        default: return i;
    }
}
```

In Cyclone terms, the code tries to match against the constant 0. If it does not match (*i* is not 0), it tries to match against the pattern 1. Everything matches against default; in fact, default is just alternate notation for “case `_`”, i.e., a case with a [wildcard pattern](#). For performance reasons, switch statements that are legal C switch statements are translated to C switch statements. Other switch statements are translated to, “a mess of tests and gotos”.

We now discuss some of the restrictions in terms of the above example. Because there is no “implicit fallthrough” in non-empty cases, the return statement in case 0 cannot be omitted. However, we can replace the “return 17;” with “fallthru;” a special Cyclone statement that immediately transfers control to the next case. fallthru does not have to appear at the end of a case body, so it acts more like a goto than a fallthrough. As in our example, any case that matches all values of the type switched upon (e.g., `default:`, `case _:`, `case x:`) must appear last, otherwise later cases would be unreachable. (Note that other types may have even more such patterns. For example `Pair(x,y)` matches all values of type `struct Pair int x; int y;`).

**Much More Powerful** Because Cyclone case labels are patterns, a switch statement can match against any expression and bind parts of the expression to variables. Also, **fallthru can (in fact, must) bind values** to the next case’s pattern variables. This silly example demonstrates all of these features:

```
extern int f(int);}
```

```

int g(int x, int y) {
    // return f(x)*f(y), but try to avoid using multiplication
    switch($(f(x),f(y))) {
    case $(0,_): fallthru;
    case $_,0): return 0;
    case $(1,b): fallthru(b+1-1);
    case $(a,1): return a;
    case $(a,b): return a*b;
    }
}

```

The only part of this example using a still-unexplained feature is “fallthru(b)”, but we explain the full example anyway. The switch expression has type `$(int,int)`, so all of the cases must have patterns that match this type. Legal case forms for this type not used in the example include “case `$(_,id):`”, “case `$(id,_)`”, “case `id:`”, “case `_:`”, and “default:”.

The code does the following:

- It evaluates the pair `$(f(x), f(y))` and stores the result on the stack.
- If `f(x)` returned 0, the first case matches, control jumps to the second case, and 0 is returned.
- Else if `f(y)` returned 0, the second case matches and 0 is returned.
- Else if `f(x)` returned 1, the third case matches, `b` is assigned the value `f(y)` returned, control jumps to the fourth case after assigning `b+1-1` to `a`, and `a` (i.e., `b + 1 - 1`, i.e., `b`, i.e., `f(y)`) is returned.
- Else if `f(y)` returned 1, the fourth case matches, `a` is assigned the value `f(x)` returned, and `a` is returned.
- Else the last case matches, `a` is assigned the value `f(x)` returned, `b` is assigned the value `f(y)` returned, and `a*b` is returned.

Note that the switch expression is evaluated only once. Implementation-wise, the result is stored in a compiler-generated local variable and the value of this variable is used for the ensuring pattern matches.



The general form of `fallthru` is as follows: If the next case has no bindings (i.e., identifiers in its pattern), then you must write `fallthru;`. If the next case has  $n$  bindings, then you must write `fallthru(e1, ..., en)` where each  $e_i$  is an expression with the appropriate type for the  $i$ th binding in the next case's pattern, reading from left to right. (By appropriate type, we mean the type of the expression that would be bound to the  $i$ th binding were the next case to match.) The effect is to evaluate  $e_1$  through  $e_n$ , bind them to the identifiers, and then goto the body of the next case. `fallthru` is not allowed in the last case of a switch, not even if there is an enclosing switch.

We repeat that `fallthru` may appear anywhere in a case body, but it is usually used at the end, where its name makes the most sense. ML programmers may notice that `fallthru` with bindings is strictly more expressive than `or-patterns`, but more verbose.

**Case Guards** We have withheld the full form of Cyclone case labels. In addition to case  $p$ : where  $p$  is a pattern, you may write `case p && e:` where  $p$  is a pattern and  $e$  is an expression of type `int`. (And since `e1 && e2` is an expression, you can write `case p && e1 && e2:` and so on.) Let's call  $e$  the case's *guard*.

The case matches if  $p$  matches the expression in the switch and  $e$  evaluates to a non-zero value.  $e$  is evaluated only if  $p$  matches and only after the bindings caused by the match have been properly initialized. Here is a silly example:

```
extern int f(int);
int g(int a, int b) {
  switch ($(a,b-1)) {
    case $(0,y) && y > 1: return 1;
    case $(3,y) && f(x+y) == 7 : return 2;
    case $(4,72): return 3;
    default: return 3;
  }
}
```

The function `g` returns 1 if  $a$  is 0 and  $b$  is greater than 2. Else if  $x$  is 3, it calls the function `f` (which of course may do arbitrary things) with the

sum of a and b. If the result is 7, then 2 is returned. In all other cases (x is not 3 or the call to f does not return 7), 3 is returned.

Case guards make constant patterns unnecessary (we can replace case 3: with `case x && x==3:`, for example), but constant patterns are better style and easier to use.

Case guards are not interpreted by the compiler when doing exhaustiveness and overlap checks, as explained below.

**Exhaustiveness and Useless-Case Checking** As mentioned before, it is a compile-time error for the type of the switch expression to have values that none of the case patterns match or for a pattern not to match any values that earlier patterns do not already match. Rather than explain the precise rules, we currently rely on your intuition. But there are two rules to guide your intuition:

- In terms of exhaustiveness checking, the compiler acts as if any case guard might evaluate to false.
- In terms of exhaustiveness checking, numeric constants cannot make patterns exhaustive. Even if you list out all 256 characters, the compiler will act as though there is another possibility you have not checked.

We emphasize that checking does not just involve the “top-level” of patterns. For example, the compiler rejects the switch below because the third case is redundant:

```
enum Color { Red, Green };
void f(enum Color c1, enum Color c2) {
    switch ($(c1,c2)) {
        case $(Red,x): return;
        case $(x,Green): return;
        case $(Red,Green): return;
        default: return;
    }
}
```

**Rules for No Implicit Fall-Through** As mentioned several times now, Cyclone differs from C in that a case body may not implicitly fall-through to the next case. It is a compile-time error if such a fall-through might occur. Because the compiler cannot determine exactly if an implicit fall-through could occur, it uses a precise set of rules, which we only sketch here. The exact same rules are used to ensure that a function (with return type other than void) does not “fall off the bottom.” The rules are very similar to the rules for ensuring that Java methods do not “fall off the bottom.”

The general intuition is that there must be a break, continue, goto, return, or throw along all control-flow paths. The value of expressions is not considered except for numeric constants and logical combinations (using `&&`, `||`, and `? :`) of such constants. The statement `try s catch ...` is checked as though an exception might be thrown at any point while `s` executes.

## 6 Type Inference

Cyclone allows many explicit types to be elided. In short, you write `_` (underscore) where a type should be and the compiler tries to figure out the type for you. Type inference can make C-like Cyclone code easier to write and more readable. For example,

```
_ x = malloc(sizeof(sometype_t));
```

is a fine substitute for

```
sometype_t * x = malloc(sizeof(sometype_t));
```

Of course, explicit types can make code more readable, so it is often better style not to use inference.

Inference is even more useful because of Cyclone’s advanced typing constructs. For example, it is much easier to write down `_` than a type for a function pointer.

We now give a rough idea of when you can elide types and how types get inferred. In practice, you tend to develop a sense of which idioms succeed, and, if there’s a strange compiler-error message about a variable’s type, you give more explicit information about the variable’s type.

**Syntax** As far as the parser is concerned, `_` is a legal type specifier. However, the type-checker will immediately reject `_` in these places (or at least it should):

- As part of a top-level variable or function's type.
- As part of a `struct`, `union`, `datatype`, or `typedef` declaration.

Note that `_` can be used for part of a type. A silly example is `$(_, int) = $(3, 4)`; a more useful example is an explicit cast to a non-nullable pointer (to avoid a compiler warning). For example:

```
void f(some_big_type * x, some_big_type @ y) {  
    if(x != NULL) {  
        y = (_ *@nonnull) x;  
    }  
}
```

**Semantics** Except for the subtleties discussed below, using `_` should not change the meaning of programs. However, it may cause a program not to type-check because the compiler no longer has the type information it needs at some point in the program. For example, the compiler rejects `x->f` if it does not know the type of `x` because the different struct types can have members named `f`.

The compiler infers the types of expressions based on uses. For example, consider:

```
_ x = NULL;  
x = g();  
x->f;
```

This code will type-check provided the return type of `g` is a pointer to a struct with a field named `f`. If the two statements were in the other order, the code would not type-check. Also, if `g` returned an `int`, the code would not type-check, even without the `x->f` expression, because the `_ x = NULL` constrains `x` to have a pointer type.

However, the above discussion assumes that sequences of statements are type-checked in order. This is true, but *in general the type-checker's order is unspecified*.

**Subtleties** In general, inference has subtle interactions with implicit coercions (such as from `t*@nonnull` to `t*@nullable`) and constants that have multiple types (such as numeric constants).

The following is a desirable property: If a program is modified by replacing some explicit types with `_` and the program still type-checks, then its meaning is the same. *This property does not hold!* Here are two examples:

**Numeric Types** This program prints -24 1000:

```
int f() {
  char c = 1000;
  return c;
}
int g() {
  _ c = 1000; // compiler infers int
  return c;
}
int main() {
  printf("%d %d", f(), g());
  return 0;
}
```

**Order Matters** Here is an example where the function's meaning depends on the order the type-checker examines the function:

```
void h1(int *@nonnull c, int maybe) {
  _ a;
  if(maybe)
    a = c;
  else
    a = NULL;
}
```

At first, the type of `a` is completely unconstrained. If we next consider `a = c`, we will give `a` the type of `c`, namely `int *@nonnull`, an `int` pointer that cannot be `NULL`. Clearly that makes the assignment `a = NULL` problematic, but Cyclone allows assignment from nullable pointers to non-nullable pointers; it gives a compile-time warning and inserts a run-time

check that the value is not `NULL`. Here the check will fail and an exception will be raised. That is, `hl(p, 0)` is guaranteed to raise an exception.

But what if the type-checker examines `a = NULL` first? Then the type-checker will constrain `a`'s type to be a nullable pointer to an unconstrained type. Then the assignment `a = c` will constrain that type to be `int`, so the type of `a` is `int *`. An assignment from `int *@nonnull` to `int *` is safe, so there is no warning. Moreover, the assignment `a = NULL` is not a run-time error.

*The order of type-checking is left unspecified. In the future, we intend to move to a system that is order-independent.*

## 7 Polymorphism

Use ``a` instead of `void *`.

## 8 Memory Management Via Regions

### 8.1 Introduction

C gives programmers complete control over how memory is managed. An expert programmer can exploit this to write very fast programs. However, bugs that creep into memory-management code can cause crashes and are notoriously hard to debug.

Languages like Java and ML use garbage collectors instead of leaving memory management in the hands of ordinary programmers. This makes memory management much safer, since the garbage collector is written by experts, and it is used, and, therefore, debugged, by every program. However, removing memory management from the control of the applications programmer can make for slower programs.

Safety is the main goal of Cyclone, so we provide a garbage collector. But, like C, we also want to give programmers as much control over memory management as possible, without sacrificing safety. Cyclone's region system is a way to give programmers more explicit control over memory management.

In Cyclone, objects are placed into *regions*. A region is simply an area of memory that is allocated and deallocated all at once (but not for our two

special regions; see below). So to deallocate an object, you deallocate its region, and when you deallocate a region, you deallocate all of the objects in the region. Regions are sometimes called “arenas” or “zones.”

Cyclone has five kinds of regions:

**Block regions** As in C, local variables are allocated on the runtime stack; the stack grows when a block is entered, and it shrinks when the block exits. We call the area on the stack allocated for the local variables of a block the *block region* of the block. A block region has a fixed size—it is just large enough to hold the locals of the block, and no more objects can be placed into it. The region is deallocated when the block containing the declarations of the local variables finishes executing. With respect to regions, the parameters of a function are considered locals—when a function is called, its actual parameters are placed in the same block region as the variables declared at the start of the function.

**Growable regions** Cyclone also has *growable regions*, which are regions that you can add objects to over time. You create a growable region in Cyclone with a statement,

```
region identifier; statement
```

This declares and allocates a new dynamic region, named *identifier*, and executes *statement*. After *statement* finishes executing, the region is deallocated. Within *statement*, objects can be added to the region, as we will explain below.

Typically, *statement* is a compound statement:

```
{ region identifier;  
  statement1  
  ...  
  statementn  
}
```

**The heap** Cyclone has a special region called the *heap*. There is only one heap, and it is never deallocated. New objects can be added to the heap at any time (the heap can grow). Cyclone uses a garbage collector to automatically remove objects from the heap when they are no

longer needed. You can think of garbage collection as an optimization that tries to keep the size of the heap small. (Alternatively, you can avoid garbage collection all together by specifying the `-nogc` flag when building the executable.)

**Dynamic regions** Block and growable regions obey a strictly last-in-first-out (LIFO) lifetime discipline. This is often convenient for storing temporary data, but sometimes, the lifetime of data cannot be statically determined. Such data can be allocated in a *dynamic region*. A dynamic region supports deallocation at (essentially) any program point. However, before the data in a dynamic region may be accessed, the dynamic region must be *opened*. The open operation fails by throwing an exception if the dynamic region has already been freed. Note that each data access within a dynamic region does not require a check. Rather, you can open a given dynamic region once, access the data many times with no additional cost, and then exit the scope of the open. Thus, dynamic regions amortize the cost of checking whether or not data are still live and localize failure points.

**The unique region** Cyclone has another special region called the *unique region*. The unique region type is ``U`, meaning that its pointers (so-called *unique pointers*) look like, e.g. `int *`U`. The unique region is like the heap in that it can grow arbitrarily, it is never deallocated *en masse*, and that it uses garbage collection to free unreachable memory. In addition, individual objects inside of the unique region can be freed explicitly using `ufree`. For freeing objects to be sound, we impose restrictions on how pointers into the unique region can be used.

Objects outside of the heap and unique region live until their region is deallocated; there is no way to free such an object earlier. Objects in the heap or unique region can be garbage collected once they are unreachable (i.e., they cannot be reached by traversing pointers) from the program's variables. Objects in other regions always appear reachable to the garbage collector (so everything reachable from them appears reachable as well).

Cyclone forbids following dangling pointers. This restriction is part of the type system: it's a compile-time error if a dangling pointer (a pointer into a deallocated region or to a deallocated object) might be followed.



There are no run-time checks of the form, “is this pointing into a live region?” As explained below, each pointer type has a region and objects of the type may only point into that region.

## 8.2 Allocation

You can create a new object on the heap using one of a few kinds of expression:

- `new expr` evaluates *expr*, places the result into the heap, and returns a pointer to the result. It is roughly equivalent to

```
t @ temp = malloc(sizeof(t)); // where t is the type of expr
*temp = expr;
```

For example, `new 17` allocates space for an integer on the heap, initializes it to 17, and returns a pointer to the space. For another example, if we have declared

```
struct Pair { int x; int y; };
```

then `new Pair(7,9)` allocates space for two integers on the heap, initializes the first to 7 and the second to 9, and returns a pointer to the first.

- `new array-initializer` allocates space for an array, initializes it according to *array-initializer*, and returns a pointer to the first element. For example,

```
let x = new { 3, 4, 5 };
```

declares a new array containing 3, 4, and 5, and initializes `x` to point to the first element. More interestingly,

```
new { for identifier < expr1 : expr2 }
```

is roughly equivalent to

```

unsigned int sz = expr1;
t @ temp = malloc(sz * sizeof(t2)); // where t is the type of e
for (int identifier = 0; identifier < sz; identifier++)
    temp[identifier] = expr2;

```

That is, *expr*<sub>1</sub> is evaluated first to get the size of the new array, the array is allocated, and each element of the array is initialized by the result of evaluating *expr*<sub>2</sub>. *expr*<sub>2</sub> may use *identifier*, which holds the index of the element currently being initialized.

For example, this function returns an array containing the first *n* positive even numbers:

```

int *@fat n_evens(int n) {
    return new {for next < n : 2*(next+1)};
}

```

Note that:

- *expr*<sub>1</sub> is evaluated exactly once, while *expr*<sub>2</sub> is evaluated *expr*<sub>1</sub> times.
  - *expr*<sub>1</sub> might evaluate to 0.
  - *expr*<sub>1</sub> might evaluate to a negative number. If so, it is implicitly converted to a very large unsigned integer; the allocation is likely to fail due to insufficient memory. Currently, this will cause a crash!!
  - Currently, for array initializers are the only way to create an object whose size depends on run-time data.
- `malloc(sizeof(type))`. Returns a @nonnull pointer to an uninitialized value of type *type*.
  - `malloc(n*sizeof(type))` or `malloc(sizeof(type)*n)`. The type must be a bits-only type (i.e., cannot contain pointers, tagged unions, zero-terminated values, etc.) If *n* is a compile-time constant expression, returns a @thin pointer with @numelts(*n*). If *n* is not a compile-time constant, returns a @fat pointer to the sequence of *n* uninitialized values.

- `calloc(n, sizeof(type))`. Similar to the `malloc` case above, but returns memory that is zero'd. Therefore, `calloc` supports types that are bits-only or zero-terminated.
- `malloc(e)` where `e` is an expression not of one of the above forms. If `e` is constant, returns a `char *@numelts(e)@nozero term` otherwise returns a `char *@fat@nozero term`.

Unique pointers can be allocated just as with the heap, but the context must make clear that a unique pointer is desired. For example, in the following the variable `temp` is allocated in the heap:

```
t * temp = malloc(sizeof(t));
```

Modifying it slightly, we allocate into the unique region instead:

```
t *`U temp = malloc(sizeof(t));
t * temp2 = (t *`U)malloc(sizeof(t));
```

Unfortunately, our type inference system for allocation is overly simple, so you can't do something like:

```
t * temp = malloc(sizeof(t));
ufree(temp);
```

In an ideal world, the fact that `temp` was passed to `ufree` would signal that it is a unique pointer, rather than a heap pointer.

Objects can be created in a dynamic region using the following analogous expressions.

- `rnew(identifier) expr`
- `rnew(identifier) array-initializer`
- `rmalloc(identifier, sizeof(type))`
- `rmalloc(identifier, n*sizeof(type))`
- `rmalloc(identifier, sizeof(type)*n)`
- `rmalloc(identifier, e)`
- `rcalloc(identifier, n, sizeof(type))`

Note that `new`, `malloc`, `calloc`, `rnew`, `rmalloc` and `rcalloc` are keywords.

The Cyclone library has global variables `Core::heap_region` and `Core::unique_region` which are handles for the heap and unique regions, respectively. So, for example, `new expr` can be replaced with `rnew(heap_region, expr)`. We also define a macro `unew(expr)` that expands to `rnew(unique_region, expr)`.

The only way to create an object in a stack region is declaring it as a local variable. Cyclone does not currently support `salloc`; use a growable region instead.

### 8.3 Common Uses

Although the type system associated with regions is complicated, there are some simple common idioms. If you understand these idioms, you should be able to easily write programs using regions, and port many legacy C programs to Cyclone. The next subsection will explain the usage patterns of unique pointers, since they are substantially more restrictive than other pointers.

Remember that every pointer points into a region, and although the pointer can be updated, it must always point into that same region (or a region known to outlive that region). The region that the pointer points to is indicated in its type, but omitted regions are filled in by the compiler according to context.

When regions are omitted from pointer types in function bodies, the compiler tries to infer the region. However, it can sometimes be too “eager” and end up rejecting code. For example, in

```
void f1(int * x) {
    int * y = new 42;
    y = &x;
}
```

the compiler uses `y`’s initializer to decide that `y`’s type is `int * `H`. Hence the assignment is illegal, the parameter’s region (called ``f1`) does not outlive the heap. On the other hand, this function type-checks:

```
void f2(int x) {
    int * y = &x;
```

```

    y = new 42;
}

```

because `y`'s type is inferred to be `int *`f2` and the assignment makes `y` point into a region that outlives ``f2`. We can fix our first function by being more explicit:

```

void f1(int * x) {
    int *`f1 y = new 42;
    y = &x;
}

```

Function bodies are the only places where the compiler tries to infer the region by how a pointer is used. In function prototypes, type declarations, and top-level global declarations, the rules for the meaning of omitted region annotations are fixed. This is necessary for separate compilation: we often have no information other than the prototype or declaration.

In the absence of region annotations, function-parameter pointers are assumed to point into any possible region. Hence, given

```

void f(int * x, int * y);

```

we could call `f` with two stack pointers, a dynamic-region pointer and a heap-pointer, etc. Hence this type is the “most useful” type from the caller’s perspective. But the callee’s body (`f`) may not type-check with this type. For example, `x` cannot be assigned to a heap pointer because we do not know that `x` points into the heap. If this is necessary, we must give `x` the type `int *`H`. Other times, we may not care what region `x` and `y` are in so long as they are the *same* region. Again, our prototype for `f` does not indicate this, but we could rewrite it as

```

void f(int *`r x, int *`r y);

```

Finally, we may need to refer to the region for `x` or `y` in the function body. If we omit the names (relying on the compiler to make up names), then we obviously won’t be able to do so.

Formally, omitted regions in function parameters are filled in by fresh region names and the function is “region polymorphic” over these names (as well as all explicit regions).

In the absence of region annotations, function-return pointers are assumed to point into the heap. Hence the following function will not type-check:

```
int * f(int * x) { return x; }
```

Both of these functions will type-check:

```
int * f(int *`H x) { return x; }  
int *`r f(int *`r x) {return x; }
```

The second one is more useful because it can be called with any region.

In type declarations (including `typedef` for now) and top-level variables, omitted region annotations are assumed to point into the heap. In the future, the meaning of `typedef` may depend on where the `typedef` is used. In the meantime, this code will type-check because it is equivalent to the first function in the previous example:

```
typedef int * foo_t;  
foo_t f(foo_t x) { return x; }
```

If you want to write a function that creates new objects in a region determined by the caller, your function should take a region handle as one of its arguments.<sup>1</sup> The type of a handle is `region_t<`r>`, where ``r` is the region information associated with pointers into the region. For example, this function allocates a pair of integers into the region whose handle is `r`:

```
$(int,int)*`r f(region_t<`r> r, int x, int y) {  
    return rnew(r) $(x,y);  
}
```

Notice that we used the same ``r` for the handle and the return type. We could have also passed the object back through a pointer parameter like this:

```
void f2(region_t<`r> r,int x,int y,$(int,int)*`r *`s p){  
    *p = rnew(r) $(7,9);  
}
```

Notice that we have been careful to indicate that the region where `*p` lives (corresponding to ``s`) may be different from the region for which `r` is the handle (corresponding to ``r`). Here's how to use `f2`:

---

<sup>1</sup>The following discussion does not include allocating into the unique region; this will be described in Section [8.5.4](#).

```

{ region rgn;
  $(int,int) *`rgn x = NULL;
  f2(rgn,3,4,&x);
}

```

The `s and `rgn in our example are unnecessary because they would be inferred.

typedef, struct, and datatype declarations can all be parameterized by regions, just as they can be parameterized by types. For example, here is part of the list library.

```

struct List<`a,`r>{`a hd; struct List<`a,`r> *`r tl;};
typedef struct List<`a,`r> *`r list_t<`a,`r>;

// return a fresh copy of the list in r2
list_t<`a,`r2> rcopy(region_t<`r2> r2, list_t<`a> x) {
  list_t result, prev;

  if (x == NULL) return NULL;
  result = rnew(r2) List{.hd=x->hd,.tl=NULL};
  prev = result;
  for (x=x->tl; x != NULL; x=x->tl) {
    prev->tl = rnew(r2) List(x->hd,NULL);
    prev = prev->tl;
  }
  return result;
}
list_t<`a> copy(list_t<`a> x) {
  return rcopy(heap_region, x);
}

// Return the length of a list.
int length(list_t x) {
  int i = 0;
  while (x != NULL) {
    ++i;
    x = x->tl;
  }
  return i;
}

```

```
}
```

The type `list_t<type, rgn>` describes pointers to lists whose elements have type `type` and whose “spines” are in `rgn`.

The functions are interesting for what they *don’t* say. Specifically, when types and regions are omitted from a type instantiation, the compiler uses rules similar to those used for omitted regions on pointer types. More explicit versions of the functions would look like this:

```
list_t<'a, 'r2> rcopy(region_t<'r2> r2, list_t<'a, 'r1> x) {  
    list_t<'a, 'r2> result, prev;  
    ...  
}  
list_t<'a, 'H> copy(list_t<'a, 'r> x) { ... }  
int length(list_t<'a, 'r> x) { ... }
```

## 8.4 Dynamic Regions

*To be filled in, but see the tutorial for hints.*

## 8.5 Using Unique Pointers

*Note: Unique pointers are still under developement and are likely to change substantially by the next release. Therefore, we discourage their use for now.*

The main benefit of regions is also their drawback: to free data you must free an entire region. This implies that to amortize the cost of creating a region, one needs to allocate into it many times. Furthermore, the objects allocated in a region should be mostly in use until the region is freed, or else memory will be wasted in the region that is unused by the program.

For the cases in which neither situation holds, we can use the unique region which allows unique pointers to be freed individually. To prevent dangling pointers, a static analysis ensures that no unique pointer is aliased (i.e., the object is, in fact, uniquely pointed to) at the time it is freed; however, we allow controlled forms of aliasing up until that point. In particular, we have a primitive `alias` that allows pointers to be aliased within the surrounding code block, and we use syntax `a ::= b` to allow two unique pointers `a` and `b` to be atomically swapped. Careful use of the swap operator allows us to store unique pointers in objects that are not



themselves uniquely pointed to. Finally, to properly deal with polymorphism, particularly when performing allocation, we introduce new kinds for describing regions. In practice, all of these mechanisms are necessary for writing useful and reusable code.

### 8.5.1 Simple Unique Pointers

Having a unique pointer ensures the object pointed to is not reachable by any other means. When pointers are first allocated, e.g. using `malloc`, they are unique. Such pointers are allowed to be *read through* (that is, dereferenced or indexed) but not copied, as the following example shows:

```
char c, *buf = calloc(MAXBUF, sizeof(char));
int i = 0;
while ((c = getchar()) > 0 && !isspace(c)) {
    buf[i++] = c;
}
printf("%s", buf);
free(buf);
```

This piece of code reads characters from `stdin` until a word is formed, and then prints that word. Because the process of storing to the buffer does not copy its unique pointer, it can be safely freed.

When a unique pointer is copied, e.g. when passed as a parameter to a function or stored in a datastructure, we say it has been *consumed*. We ensure that consumed pointers are not read through or copied via a dataflow analysis. When a consumed pointer is assigned to, very often it can be *unconsumed*, making it accessible again. Here is a simple example that initializes a datastructure with unique pointers:

```
1 struct pair { int *x; int *y; } p;
2 int *x = new 1; // initializes x
3 p.x = x;        // consumes x
4 x = new 2;      // unconsumes x
5 p.y = x;        // consumes x
```

If an attempt was made to read through or copy `x` between lines 3 and 4 or after line 5, the flow analysis would reject the code, as in

```

int *`U x = new 1; // initializes x
p.x = x;           // consumes x
p.y = x;           // rejected! x has been consumed already

```

Note that if you fail to free a unique pointer, it will eventually be garbage collected.

### 8.5.2 Aliasing Unique Pointers

Programmers often write code that aliases values temporarily, e.g. by storing them in loop iterator variables or by passing them to functions. Such reasonable uses would be severely hampered by “no alias” restrictions on unique pointers. To address this problem, we introduce a primitive called `alias` that permits temporary aliasing of a unique pointer, provided that no aliases are live when the block completes. Here is a simple example:

```

char *`fat`U dst, *`fat`U src = ...
{ alias <`r> x = (char *`fat`r)src; // consumes src
  memcpy(dst,x,numelts(x)); }
// src unconsumed
...
ufree(src);

```

The `alias` primitive introduces a fresh region variable ``r`, and aliases `src` with the variable `x` which is cast to point into ``r`. This operation consumes `src` for the duration of the surrounding block, and allows `x` to be freely aliased. As such, we can pass `x` to the `memcpy` function, and when the block exits, we unconsume and can therefore ultimately free `src`.

Intuitively, the `alias` operation is sound because we cast a unique pointer to instead point into a fresh region, for which there is no possibility of either creating new values or storing existing values into escaping data structures. As such we cannot create aliases. However, we must take care when aliasing data having recursive type. For example, the following code is unsound:

```

void foo(list_t<`a,`U> l) {
  alias <`r> x = (list_t<`a,`r>)l;
  x->tl = x; // unsound: creates alias!
}

```

In this case, the `alias` effectively created many values in the fresh region `'r'`: one for each element of the list. This allows storing an alias in an element reachable from the original expression `l`, so that when the block is exited, this alias escapes.

To prevent this, we only allow “deep” aliasing when the aliased pointers are immutable. For example, if we have a list structure whose tail pointers are `const`, call it `clist_t`, we rule out the above code because the assignment to `x->tl` would be forbidden. Here is an example implementation of the `length` function using deep aliasing:

```
int length(list_t<int, 'U> l) {
    alias <'r> x = (clist_t<int, 'r>)l;
    int len = 0;
    while (x != NULL) {
        len++;
        x = x->tl;
    }
    return len;
}
```

Note that this function is not that useful, since it will consume the list `l`. Instead, we would rather that the function itself take a `clist_t` pointer, and have the caller perform the alias, so that the unique list could be unconsumed after calling `length`. It is on our to-do list to change the standard libraries to be more “unique-friendly” in this way.

### 8.5.3 Nested Unique Pointers

You can also store unique pointers into other datastructures that could be themselves allocated in some region. For example, the above example function `length` took in a list whose “spine” was allocated in the unique region. Therefore, each `tl` pointer in the list is a nested pointer. Nested unique pointers cannot be read directly. In particular, the following code is illegal:

```
void f(list_t<int, 'U> l) {
    l = l->tl;
}
```

This code is disallowed because the unique pointer `l->tl` is nested. We make this restriction to keep the invariant that if some unique pointer `l` is unconsumed, then all unique pointers that it points to are also unconsumed. The assignment above would violate this invariant. We maintain this invariant to both simplify the flow analysis, and also to allow unique pointers to be pointed to by non-unique pointers. In particular, a non-unique pointer can always be considered unconsumed, which implies that any unique pointers it points to must always be unconsumed as well.

To allow nested unique pointers to be read and used, we provide an swap operator, having syntax `:=:`. In particular, the code `a :=: b` will swap the contents of `a` and `b`. We can use this to swap out a nested unique pointer, and replace it with a different one; we will often swap in `NULL`, since this is a unique pointer that is always unconsumed. This allows us to write the length function on a unique list without using the `alias` primitive (as we did above), freeing each list element as we go:

```
int length_unique(list_t<int, 'U> l) {
    int len = 0;
    list_t<int, 'U> x;
    while (l != NULL) {
        x = NULL;
        len++;
        x :=: l->tl;
        Core::ufree(l);
        l = x;
    }
    return len;
}
```

It is often useful to have a non-unique datastructure contain unique pointers. For example, you could have a normal queue whose elements are unique pointers. This way you can freely add and remove elements from the queue, and then free the unique pointers when the elements are removed. One caveat is that we currently do not support instantiating polymorphic value variables (i.e. non-region variables) with unique pointers, because this could result in aliasing. For example, the following code is not allowed:

```
list_t<int @'U> l = new List(new l, NULL);
```

We can fix this problem by extending the current type system, and plan to do so in the near future. In the meantime, you need to create separate, non-polymorphic versions of library utilities. For example, you would have to create your own version of `list` that can hold `int @'U` pointers.

Note that by implementing the swap operation atomically, unique pointers would be thread-safe as well. We implemented things this way looking ahead to when Cyclone will have threads.

#### 8.5.4 Polymorphic Region Allocation

As described in Section 8.3, we can write functions that take as arguments a region handle to allocate into. For example, we wrote a function `rcopy` that copies a list into some region `'r2`. However, we didn't provide the full story that accounts for the unique region. In particular, consider the following function:

```
$(int @'r, int @'r) make_pair(region_t<'r> rgn) {
    int @x = rnew (rgn) 1;
    return $(x, x);
}
```

This function will return a pair of pointers to the same object. If we pass in something other than the unique region, this function will behave properly:

```
$(int @,int@) pair = make_pair(heap_region);
```

However, things can go badly wrong if we pass in the unique region instead:

```
$(int @'U,int @'U) pair = make_pair(unique_region);
ufree(pair[0]);
int x = pair[1]; // error! dereferences freed pointer
```

The problem is that `make_pair` creates an alias; if we pass in the unique region for `rgn`, we can free one of these aliases (e.g. the pointer via the first element of the pair), but then dereference the other (i.e. via the second pair element).

To prevent this behavior, we have to classify the two different kinds of regions that we support: aliasable regions, whose pointers can be freely

aliased, and unique regions, whose pointers cannot be aliased but can be freed. To do this, we define *kinds* R for aliasable regions and UR for unique ones. We can then classify a polymorphic region variable with the proper kind. This allows us to change the `make_pair` function as follows:

```
$(int @`r, int @`r) make_pair(region_t<`r::R> rgn) {
    int @x = rnew (rgn) 1;
    return $(x, x);
}
```

Now we have specified specifically that ``r` must be an aliasable region (in fact, when not specified, this is the default). As such, the illegal code above will not typecheck because we are attempting to instantiate a unique region (having kind UR) for an aliasable one, which is disallowed.

For generality, we introduce a third region kind TR (which stands for “top region”); TR is a “super-kind” of R and UR, meaning that types having TR kind can be used in places expecting types of R or UR kind. This also means that pointers into a TR-kind region can neither be aliased nor freed, since we might instantiate either the unique region (whose pointers cannot be aliased) or an aliasable region (whose pointers cannot be freed) in place of the TR-kind variable.

We can now generalize the `rcopy` example above:

```
struct List<`a,`r::TR>{`a hd; struct List<`a,`r> *`r tl;};
typedef struct List<`a,`r> *`r list_t<`a,`r>;

// return a fresh copy of the list in r2
list_t<`a,`r2> rcopy(region_t<`r2::TR> r2, list_t<`a> x) {
    if (x == NULL) return NULL;
    else {
        list_t rest = rcopy(r2,x->tl);
        return rnew(r2) List{.hd=x->hd,.tl=rest};
    }
}
list_t<`a> copy(list_t<`a> x) {
    return rcopy(heap_region, x);
}
```

We have made three key changes to the prior version of `rcopy`:

1. The definition of `List` has been generalized so that its `r` region variable now has kind `TR`. This implies that lists can point into any region, whether unique or aliasable.
2. The region handle `r2` now has kind `TR`, rather than the default `R`. This means that we can pass in any region handle, and thus copy a list into any kind of region.
3. We have made `rcopy`'s implementation recursive. This was necessary to avoid creating aliases to the newly created list. In particular, if we were to have used a `prev` pointer as in the version from Section 8.3, we would have two pointers to the last-copied element: the `tl` field of the element before it in the list, and the current iterator variable `prev`. The use of recursion allows us to iterate to the end of the list and construct it back to front, in which no aliases are required. The cost is we need to do extra stack allocation. This example illustrates that it is sometimes difficult to program using no-alias pointers. This is why, in cases other than allocation, we would prefer to use the `alias` construct to allow temporary aliasing.

## 8.6 Type-Checking Regions

Because of recursive functions, there can be any number of live regions at run time. The compiler the following general strategy to ensure that only pointers into live regions are dereferenced:

- Use compile-time *region names*. Syntactically these are just type variables, but they are used differently.
- Decorate each pointer type and handle type with one region name.
- Decorate each program point with a (finite) set of region names. We call the set the point's *capability*.
- To dereference a pointer (via `*`, `->`, or subscript), the pointer's type's region name must be in the program point's capability. Similarly, to use a handle for allocation, the handle type's region name must be in the capability.

- Enforce a type system such that the following is impossible: A program point  $P$ 's capability contains a region name  $\text{'r}$  that decorates a pointer (or handle) expression  $expr$  that, at run time, points into a region that has been deallocated and the operation at  $P$  dereferences  $expr$ .

This strategy is probably too vague to make sense at this point, but it may help to refer back to it as we explain specific aspects of the type system.

Note that in the rest of the documentation (and in common parlance) we abuse the word “region” to refer both to region names and to run-time collections of objects. Similarly, we confuse a block of declarations, its region-name, and the run-time space allocated for the block. (With loops and recursive functions, “the space allocated” for the block is really any number of distinct regions.) But in the rest of this section, we painstakingly distinguish region names, regions, etc.

### 8.6.1 Region Names

Given a function, we associate a distinct region name with each program point that creates a region, as follows:

- If a block (blocks create stack regions) has label  $L$ , then the region-name for the block is  $\text{'L}$ .
- If a block has no label, the compiler makes up a unique region-name for the block.
- In region  $r \text{ } <\text{'foo}> \text{ } s$ , the region-name for the construct is  $\text{'foo}$ .
- In region  $r \text{ } s$ , the region-name for the construct is  $\text{'r}$ .

The region name for the heap is  $\text{'H}$ , and the region name for the unique region is  $\text{'U}$ . Region names associated with program points within a function should be distinct from each other, distinct from any region names appearing in the function's prototype, and should not be  $\text{'H}$  or  $\text{'U}$ . (So you cannot use  $H$  as a label name.) Because the function's return type cannot mention a region name for a block or region-construct in the function, it is impossible to return a pointer to deallocated storage.



In region  $r < 'r > s$  and region  $r s$ , the type of  $r$  is `region_t<'r>`. In other words, the handle is decorated with the region name for the construct. Pointer types' region names are explicit, although you generally rely on inference to put in the correct one for you.

### 8.6.2 Capabilities

In the absence of explicit effects (see below), the capability for a program point includes exactly:

- `'H` and `'U`
- The effect corresponding to the function's prototype. Briefly, any region name in the prototype (or inserted by the compiler due to an omission) is in the corresponding effect. Furthermore, for each type variable `'a` that appears (or is inserted), `"regions('a)"` is in the corresponding effect. This latter effect roughly means, "I don't know what `'a` is, but if you instantiate with a type mentioning some regions, then add those regions to the effect of the instantiated prototype." This is necessary for safely type-checking calls that include function pointers.
- The region names for the blocks and `"region r s"` statements that contain the program point

For each dereference or allocation operation, we simply check that the region name for the type of the object is in the capability. It takes extremely tricky code (such as existential region names) to make the check fail.

### 8.6.3 Assignment and Outlives

A pointer type's region name is part of the type. If  $e1$  and  $e2$  are pointers, then  $e1 = e2$  is well-typed only if the region name for  $e2$ 's type "outlives" the region name for  $e1$ 's type. By outlives, we intuitively mean the region corresponding to one region name will be deallocated after the region corresponding to the other region name. The rules for outlives are as follows:

- Every region outlives itself.

- ``U` outlives ``H` which outlives every other region name.
- Region names for inner blocks outlive region names for outer blocks.
- For regions in function prototypes, you can provide explicit “out-lives” as in this example:

```
void f(int *`r1*`r2 x,int *`r3 y; {`r2} > `r1, {`r3} > `r2);
```

This says that ``r1` outlives ``r2` and ``r2` outlives ``r3`. The body will be checked under these assumptions. Calls to `f` will type-check only if the compiler knows that the region names of the actual arguments obey the outlives assumptions. There are some restrictions on specifying outlives relationships when considering possibly-unique region names, but these rarely come up in practice.

For handlers, if ``r` is a region name, there is at most one value of type `region_t<`r>` (there are 0 if ``r` is a block’s name), so there is little use in creating variables of type `region_t<`r>`.

#### 8.6.4 Type Declarations

A `struct`, `typedef`, or `datatype` declaration may be parameterized by any number of region names. The region names are placed in the list of type parameters. They must be followed by their kind – i.e. either “`::R`”, “`::UR`”, or “`::TR`” – except for `typedef` declarations (where the region name appears in the underlying type). For example, given

```
struct List<`a,`r::TR>{`a hd; struct List<`a,`r> *`r tl;};
```

the type `struct List<int,`H>` is for a list of ints in the heap. Notice that all of the “cons cells” of the `List` will be in the same region (the type of the `tl` field uses the same region name ``r` that is used to instantiate the recursive instance of `struct List<`a,`r>`). However, we could instantiate ``a` with a pointer type that has a different region name, as long as that region has kind `R`.

`datatype` declarations must also be instantiated with an additional region name. An object of type `datatype `r Foo` is treated (capability-wise) as a pointer with region name ``r`. If the region name is omitted from a use of a `datatype` declaration, it is implicitly ``H`.

### 8.6.5 Function Calls

If a function parameter or result has type `int *`r` or `region_t<`r>`, the function is polymorphic over the region name ``r`. That is, the caller can instantiate ``r` with any region *in the caller's current capability* as long as the region has the correct kind. This instantiation is usually implicit, so the caller just calls the function and the compiler uses the types of the actual arguments to infer the instantiation of the region names (just like it infers the instantiation of type variables).

The callee is checked knowing nothing about ``r` except that it is in its capability (plus whatever can be determined from explicit outlives assumptions), and that it has the given kind. For example, it will be impossible to assign a parameter of type `int *`r` to a global variable. Why? Because the global would have to have a type that allowed it to point into any region. There is no such type because we could never safely follow such a pointer (since it could point into a deallocated region).

### 8.6.6 Explicit and Default Effects

If you are not using existential types, you now know everything you need to know about Cyclone regions and memory management. Even if you are using these types and functions over them (such as the closure library in the Cyclone library), you probably don't need to know much more than "provide a region that the hidden types outlive".

The problem with existential types is that when you "unpack" the type, you no longer know that the regions into which the fields point are allocated. We are sound because the corresponding region names are not in the capability, but this makes the fields unusable. To make them usable, we do not hide the capability needed to use them. Instead, we use a *region bound* that is not existentially bound.

If the contents of existential packages contain only heap pointers, then ``H` is a fine choice for a region bound.

These issues are discussed in [Section 12](#).

## 9 Namespaces

As in C++, namespaces are used to avoid name clashes in code. For example:

```
namespace Foo {  
    int x = 0;  
    int f() { return x; }  
}
```

declares an integer named `Foo::x` and a function named `Foo::f`. Note that within the namespace, you don't need to use the qualified name. For instance, `Foo::f` refers to `Foo::x` as simply `x`. We could also simply write `"namespace Foo;"` (note the trailing semi-colon) and leave out the enclosing braces. Every declaration (variables, functions, types, type-defs) following this namespace declaration would be placed in the `Foo` namespace.

As noted before, you can refer to elements of a namespace using the `"::"` notation. Alternatively, you can open up a namespace with a `"using"` declaration. For example, we could follow the above code with:

```
namespace Bar {  
    using Foo {  
        int g() { return f(); }  
    }  
    int h() { return Foo::f(); }  
}
```

Here, we opened the `Foo` namespace within the definition of `Bar::g`. One can also write `"using Foo;"` to open a namespace for the remaining definitions in the current block.

Namespaces can nest as in C++.

Currently, namespaces are only supported at the top-level and you can't declare a qualified variable directly. Rather, you have to write a namespace declaration to encapsulate it. For example, you cannot write `"int Foo::x = 3;"`

The following subtle issues and **implementation bugs** may leave you scratching your head:

- The current implementation translates qualified Cyclone variables to C identifiers very naively: each `::` is translated to `_` (underscore). This translation is wrong because it can introduce clashes that are not clashes in Cyclone, such as in the following:

```
namespace Foo { int x = 7; }
int Foo_x = 9;
```

So avoid prefixing your identifiers with namespaces in your program. We intend to fix this bug in a future release.

- Because `#include` is defined as textual substitution, the following are usually very bad ideas: Having `"namespace Foo;"` or `"using Foo;"` at the top level of a header file. After all, you will be changing the identifiers produced or the identifiers available in every file that includes the header file. Having `#include` directives within the scope of namespace declarations. After all, you are changing the names of the identifiers in the header file by (further) qualifying them. Unfortunately, the current system uses the C pre-processor before looking at the code, so it cannot warn you of these probable errors.

In short, you are advised to not use the "semicolon syntax" in header files and you are advised to put all `#include` directives at the top of files, before any namespace or using declarations.

- The translation of identifiers declared `extern "C"` is different. Given

```
namespace Foo { extern "C" int x; }
```

the Cyclone code refers to the global variable as `Foo::x`, but the translation to C will convert all uses to just `x`. The following code will therefore get compiled incorrectly (`f` will return 4):

```
namespace Foo { extern "C" int x; }
int f() {
    int x = 2;
    return x + Foo::x;
}
```

## 10 Varargs

C functions that take a variable number of arguments (vararg functions) are syntactically convenient for the caller, but C makes it very difficult to ensure safety. The callee has no fool-proof way to determine the number of arguments or even their types. Also, there is no type information for the compiler to use at call-sites to reject bad calls.

Cyclone provides three styles of vararg functions that provide different trade-offs for safety, efficiency, and convenience.

First, you can call C vararg functions just as you would in C:

```
extern "C" void foo(int x, ...);
void g() {
    foo(3, 7, "hi", 'x');
}
```

However, for the reasons described above, `foo` is almost surely unsafe. All the Cyclone compiler will do is ensure that the vararg arguments at the call site have some legal Cyclone type.

Actually, you can declare a Cyclone function to take C-style varargs, but Cyclone provides no way to access the vararg arguments for this style. That is why the example refers to a C function. (In the future, function subtyping could make this style less than completely silly for Cyclone functions.)

The second style is for a variable number of arguments of one type:

```
void foo(int x, ...string_t args);
void g() {
    foo(17, "hi", "mom");
}
```

The syntax is a type and identifier after the "...". (The identifier is optional in prototypes, as with other parameters.) You can use any identifier; `args` is not special. At the call-site, Cyclone will ensure that each vararg has the correct type, in this case `string_t`.

Accessing the varargs is simpler than in C. Continuing our example, `args` has type `string_t *@fat `foo` in the body of `foo`. You retrieve the first argument ("hi") with `args[0]`, the second argument ("mom") with `args[1]`, and so on. Of course, `numelts(args)` tells you how many arguments there are.

This style is implemented as follows: At the call-site, the compiler generates a stack-allocated array with the array elements. It then passes a “fat pointer” to the callee with bounds indicating the number of elements in the array. Compared to C-style varargs, this style is less efficient because there is a bounds-check and an extra level of indirection for each vararg access. But we get safety and using vararg functions is just as convenient. No heap allocation occurs.

A useful example of this style is in the list library:

```
list_t<'a> list(... 'a argv) {
    list_t result = NULL;
    for (int i = numelts(argv) - 1; i >= 0; i--)
        result = new List{argv[i],result};
    return result;
}
```

Callers can now write `list(1,2,3,4,5)` and get a list of 5 elements.

The third style addresses the problem that it’s often desirable to have a function take a variable number of arguments of *different* types. For example, `printf` works this way. In Cyclone, we could use a datatype in conjunction with the second style. The callee then uses an array subscript to access a vararg and a switch statement to determine its datatype variant. But this would not be very convenient for the caller—it would have to explicitly “wrap” each vararg in the datatype type. The third style makes this wrapping implicit. For example, the type of `printf` in Cyclone is:

```
extern datatype PrintArg<'r::R> {
    String_pa(const char ? *@nonnull @nozero term 'r);
    Int_pa(unsigned long);
    Double_pa(double);
    LongDouble_pa(long double);
    ShortPtr_pa(short *@nonnull 'r);
    IntPtr_pa(unsigned long *@nonnull 'r);
};
typedef datatype PrintArg<'r> *@nonnull 'r parg_t<'r>;
int printf(const char *@fat fmt, ... inject parg_t);
```

The special syntax “`inject`” is the syntactic distinction for the third style. The type must be a `datatype` type. In the body of the vararg function, the array holding the vararg elements have this `datatype` type, with the function’s region. (That is, the wrappers are stack-allocated just as the vararg array is.)

At the call-site, the compiler implicitly wraps each vararg by finding a `datatype` variant that has the expression’s type and using it. The exact rules for finding the variant are as follows: Look in order for a variant that carries exactly the type of the expression. Use the first variant that matches. If none, make a second pass and find the first variant that carries a type to which the expression can be coerced. If none, it is a compile-time error.

In practice, the `datatype` types used for this style of vararg tend to be quite specialized and used only for vararg purposes.

Compared to the other styles, the third style is less efficient because the caller must wrap and the callee unwrap each argument. But everything is allocated on the stack and call sites do everything implicitly. A testament to the style’s power is the library’s implementation of `printf` and `scanf` entirely in Cyclone (except for the actual I/O system calls, of course).

## 11 Definite Assignment

It is unsafe to allow memory to be used as a value of a particular type just because the memory has been allocated at that type. In other words, you cannot use memory that has not been properly initialized. Most safe languages enforce this invariant by making allocation and initialization a single operation. This solution is undesirable in Cyclone for at least two reasons:

- Many idioms require declaring variables in a wider scope than is convenient for initializing the variable.
- C code, which we wish to port to Cyclone, is full of separated allocation and initialization, including all heap-allocated storage (i.e., `malloc`).

Inspired by Java’s rules for separate declaration and initialization of local variables, Cyclone has a well-defined, sound system for checking that



memory is written before it is used. The rules are more complicated than in Java because we support pointers to uninitialized memory, as is necessary for `malloc`, and because C's order-of-evaluation is not completely specified.

Here we begin with idioms that the analysis does and does not permit. With a basic sense of the idea, we expect programmers can generally not worry about the exact rules of the analysis. However, when the compiler rejects code because memory may be uninitialized, the programmer needs to know how to rewrite the code in order to pass the analysis. For this reason, we also give a more complete description of the rules.

We begin with examples not involving pointers. If you are familiar with Java's definite assignment, you can skip this part, but note that `struct` and tuple fields are tracked separately. So you can use an initialized field before another field of the same object is initialized. (Java does not allow separate allocation and initialization of object fields. Rather, it inserts `null` or `0` for you.)

Finally, we do allow uninitialized numeric values to be accessed. Doing so is dangerous and error-prone, but does not compromise type safety, so we allow it.

The following code is accepted:

```
extern int maybe();
int f() {
    int *x, *y, *z;
    if(maybe())
        x = new 3;
    else
        x = new 4;
    while(1) {
        y = x;
        break;
    }
    if(z = new maybe() && maybe() && q = new maybe())
        return q;
    else
        return z;
}
```

In short, the analysis checks that every control-flow path between a variable's declaration and use includes an assignment to the variable. More generally, the analysis works on memory locations, not just variables. The analysis knows that loop bodies and conditional branches are only executed if the value of certain expressions are 0 or not 0.

The following code is safe, but is not accepted:

```
extern int maybe();
int f() {
    int * x = new 1;
    int * y;
    int b = maybe();
    if(b)
        y = 2;
    if(b)
        return y;
    return 0;
}
```

The problem is that the analysis does not know that the second `if`-guard is true only if the first one is. General support for such “data correlation” would require reasoning about two different expressions at different times evaluating to the same value.

Unlike Java, Cyclone supports pointers to uninitialized memory. The following code is accepted:

```
extern int maybe();
int f() {
    int * x;
    int * z;
    int ** y;
    if(maybe()) {
        x = new 3;
        y = &x;
    } else {
        y = &z;
        z = new 3;
    }
    return *y;
}
```

```
}
```

The analysis does not know which branch of the if will be taken, so after the conditional it knows that either “x is initialized and y points to x” or “z is initialized and y points to z.” It merges this information to “y points to somewhere initialized,” so the function returns an initialized value, as required. (It is safe to return uninitialized ints, but we reject such programs anyway.)

However, this code is rejected even though it is safe:

```
extern int maybe();
int f() {
    int * x;
    int * z;
    int ** y;
    if(maybe()) {
        y = &x;
    } else {
        y = &z;
    }
    x = new 3;
    z = new 3;
    return *y;
}
```

The problem is that the analysis loses too much information after the conditional. Because y may allow (in fact, does allow) access to uninitialized memory and the analysis does not know exactly where y points, the conditional is rejected.

A compelling use of pointers to uninitialized memory is porting C code that uses malloc, such as the following (the cast is not necessary in Cy-clone):

```
struct IntPair { int x; int y; };
struct IntPair * same(int z) {
    struct IntPair * ans =
        (struct IntPair *)malloc(sizeof(struct IntPair));
    ans->x = z;
    ans->y = z;
}
```

```

    return ans;
}

```

There is limited support for passing a pointer to uninitialized memory to a function that initializes it. See [Section 12](#).

Certain expression forms require their arguments to be fully initialized (that is, everything reachable from the expression must be initialized) even though the memory is not all immediately used. These forms are the expression in “let *p* = *e*” and the argument to `switch`. We hope to relax these restrictions in the future.

You should now know enough to program effectively in Cyclone without immediately initializing all memory. For those wanting a more complete view of the language definition (i.e., what the analysis does and does not accept), we now go into the details. Note that the analysis is sound and well-specified—there is never a reason that the compiler rejects your program for unexplainable reasons.

For each local variable and for each program point that allocates memory, the analysis tracks information about each field. We call each such field a *place*. For example, in this code:

```

struct B { int * x; $(int*,int*) y; };
void f() {
    struct B b;
    struct B * bp = malloc(sizeof(B));
    ...
}

```

the places are `b.x`, `b.y[0]`, `b.y[1]`, `bp`, `<1>.x`, `<1>.y[0]`, and `<1>.y[1]` where we use `<1>` to stand for the `malloc` expression (a program point that does allocation). An initialization state can be “*must point to P*” where *P* is a path. For example, after the second declaration above, we have “*bp must point to <1>*.” An ensuing assignment of the form “*bp->x = new 3*” would therefore change the initialization state of `<1>.x`. If there is not a unique path to which a place definitely points, then we keep track of the place’s *initialization level* and *escapedness*. A place is *escaped* if we do not know exactly all of the places that must point to it. For example, both of the following fragments would cause all the places starting with `<1>` to be escaped afterwards (assuming `bp` must point to `<1>`):

```

struct B * bp2;                                some_fun(bp);
if(maybe())
    bp2 = bp;

```

Note that if “p must point to P,” then p is implicitly unescaped because we cannot know that p points to P if we don’t know all the pointers to p. The initialization level is either None or All. All means p and everything reachable from p (following as many pointers as you want) is initialized.

Note that our choice of tracking “must point to” instead of “must alias” forces us to reject some safe programs, such as this one:

```

int f() {
    int * x, int *y;
    int **p1;
    if(maybe())
        p1 = &x;
    else
        p1 = &y;
    *p1 = new 7;
    return *p1;
}

```

Even though p1 has not escaped, our analysis must give it initialization-level None. Moreover, x and y escape before they are initialized, so the conditional is rejected.

For safety reasons, once a place is escaped, any assignment to it must be a value that is fully initialized, meaning everything reachable from the value is initialized. This phenomenon is why the first function below is accepted but not the second (the list\_t typedefs is defined in the List library):

```

list_t<'a,'H> copy(list_t<'a> x) {
    struct List *@nonnull result, *@nonnull prev;

    if (x == NULL) return NULL;
    result = new List{.hd=x->hd,.tl=NULL};
    prev = result;
    for (x=x->tl; x != NULL; x=x->tl) {
        struct List *@nonnull temp = malloc(sizeof(struct List));

```

```

        temp->hd = x->hd;
        temp->tl = NULL;
        prev->tl = temp;
        prev = temp;
    }
    return result;
}

list_t<'a','r2> rcopy(region_t<'r2> r2, list_t<'a> x) {
    struct List *@nonnull result, *@nonnull prev;

    if (x == NULL) return NULL;
    result = rnew(r2) List{.hd=x->hd,.tl=NULL};
    prev = result;
    for (x=x->tl; x != NULL; x=x->tl) {
        prev->tl = malloc(sizeof(struct List));
        prev->tl->hd = x->hd;
        prev->tl->tl = NULL;
        prev = prev->tl;
    }
    return result;
}

```

In the for body, we do not know where prev must point (on the first loop iteration it points to the first malloc site, but on ensuing iterations it points to the second). Hence prev->tl may be assigned only fully initialized objects.

## 12 Advanced Features

The features in this section are largely independent of the rest of Cyclone. It is probably safe to skip them when first learning the language, but it is valuable to learn them at some point because they add significant expressiveness to the language.

## 12.1 Existential Types

The implementation of a `struct` type can have *existentially bound type variables* (as well as region variables, tag variables, and so on). Here is a useless example:

```
struct T { <'a> 'a f1; 'a f2; };
```

Values of type `struct T` have two fields with the same (boxed) type, but there is no way to determine what the type is. Different values can use different types. To create such a value, expressions of any appropriate type suffice:

```
struct T x = T{new 3, new 4};
```

Optionally, you can explicitly give the type being used for `'a`:

```
struct T x = T{<int*@nonnull> new 3, new 4};
```

As with other lists of type variables, multiple existentially bound types should be comma-separated.

Once a value of an existential variant is created, there is no way to determine the types at which it was used. For example, `T("hi", "mom")` and `T(8, 3)` both have type `struct T`.

The only way to read fields of a `struct` with existentially bound type variables is pattern matching. That is, the field-projection operators (`.` and `->`) will *not* type-check. The pattern can give names to the correct number of type variables or have the type-checker generate names for omitted ones. Continuing our useless example, we can write:

```
void f(struct T t) {  
    let T{<'b> x,y} = t;  
    x = y;  
}
```

We can now see why the example is useless; there is really nothing interesting that `f` can do with the fields of `t`. In other words, given `T("hi", "mom")`, no code will ever be able to use the strings `"hi"` or `"mom"`. In any case, the scope of the type `'b` is the same as the scope of the variables `x` and `y`. There is one more restriction: For subtle reasons, you cannot use a reference pattern (such as `*x`) for a field of a `struct` that has existentially bound type variables.

Useful examples invariably use function pointers. For a realistic library, see `fn.cyc` in the distribution. Here is a smaller (and sillier) example; see the following two sections for an explanation of why the `regions('a) > 'r` stuff is necessary.

```
int f1(int x, int y) { return x+y; }
int f2(string x, int y) {printf("%s",x); return y; }
struct T<'r::R> {<'a> : regions('a) > 'r
    'a f1;
    int f('a, int);
};
void g(bool b) {
    struct T<'H> t;
    if(b)
        t = Foo(37,f1);
    else
        t = Foo("hi",f2);
    let T{<'b> arg,fun} = t;
    'b x = arg;
    int (*f)('b,int) = fun;
    f(arg,19);
}
```

We could replace the last three lines with `fun(arg)`—the compiler would figure out all the types for us. Similarly, the explicit types above are for sake of explanation; in practice, we tend to rely heavily on type inference when using these advanced typing constructs.

## 12.2 The Truth About Effects, Capabilities, and Region Bounds

An *effect* or *capability* is a set of (compile-time) region names. We use *effect* to refer to the region names that must be “live” for some expression to type-check and *capability* to refer to the region names that are “live” at some program point. A *region bound* indicates that all the regions in a set outlive one particular region. Each program point has a set of “known region bounds”.

The intuition is that a program point’s capability and region bounds must imply that an expression’s effect describes live regions, else the expression does not type-check. As we’ll see, default effects for functions



were carefully designed so that most Cyclone code runs no risk of such an “effect check” ever failing. But using existential types effectively requires a more complete understanding of the system, though perhaps not as complete as this section presents.

The form of effects or capabilities is described as follows:

- $\{\}$  is the empty set. At most the heap region is accessed by an expression having this effect.
- $\{`r\}$  is the set containing exactly the region name  $`r$ .
- $e1 + e2$  is the set containing the effects  $e1$  and  $e2$ . That is, we write  $+$  for set-union.
- $\text{regions}(t)$ , where  $t$  is a type is the set containing all of the region names contained in  $t$  and  $\text{regions}(`a)$  for all type variables  $`a$  contained in  $t$ .

The description of  $\text{regions}(t)$  appears circular, but in fact if we gave the definition for each form of types, it would not be. The point is that  $\text{regions}(`a)$  is an “atomic effect” in the sense that it stands for a set of regions that cannot be further decomposed without knowing  $`a$ . The primary uses of  $\text{regions}(t)$  are described below.

The form of a region bound is  $e > r$  where  $e$  is an effect and  $r$  is a region name.

We now describe the capability at each program point. On function entry, the capability is the function’s effect (typically the regions of the parameters and result, but fully described below). In a local block or a growable-region statement, the capability is the capability of the enclosing context plus the block/statement’s region name.

The known region bounds at a program point are described similarly: On function entry, the bounds are the function prototype’s explicit bounds (typically none, but fully described below). In a local block or a growable-region statement, we add  $e > `r$  where  $e$  is the capability of the enclosing context and  $`r$  is the block/statement’s region name. That is, we add that the set of region names for the enclosing context describes only regions that will outlive the region described by  $`r$ . (As usual, the compiler generates  $`r$  in the common case that none is explicitly provided.) Creating a dynamic region does not introduce any region bounds, but opening

one does. Creating a `resettable` growable region does not introduce any bounds.

We can now describe an expression's effect: If it reads or writes to memory described by a region name ``r`, then the effect contains `{`r}`. If it calls a function with effect `e`, then the effect contains `e`. Every function (type) has an effect, but programmers almost never write down an explicit effect. To do so, one puts `“; e”` at the end of the parameter list, where `e` is an effect. For example, we could write:

```
`a id(`a x; {}) { return x; }
```

because the function does not access any memory.

If a function takes parameters of types `t1, . . . , tn` and returns a value of type `t`, the default effect is simply `regions(t1) + . . . + regions(tn) + regions(t)`. In English, the default assumption is that a function may dereference any pointers it is passed, so the corresponding regions must be live. In our example above, the default effect would have been `regions(`a)`. If the caller had instantiated ``a` with `int*`r`, then with the default effect, the type-checker would require ``r` to be live, but with the explicit effect `{}` it would not. However, dangling pointers can be created only when using existential types, so the difference is rarely noticed.

By default, a function (type) has no region bounds. That is, the function does not assume any “outlives” relationships among the regions it accesses. Adding explicit outlives relationships enables more subtyping in the callee and more stringent requirements at the call site (namely that the relationship holds).

We can describe when a capability `e` and a set of region bounds `b` imply an effect, although your intuition probably suffices. A “normalized effect” is either `{}` or unions of “atomic effects”, where an atomic effect is either `{`r}` or `regions(`a)`. For any effect `e1`, we can easily compute an equivalent normalized effect `e2`. Now, `e` and `b` imply `e1` if they imply every `{`r}` and `regions(`a)` in `e2`. To imply `{`r}` (or `regions(`a)`), we need `{`r}` (or `regions(`a)`) to be in (a normalized effect of) `e` or for `b` to contain some `e3 > `r2` such that `e` and `b` imply ``r2` and `e3` and `b` imply `{`r}` (or `regions(`a)`). Or something like that.

All of these complications are unnecessary except for existential types, to which we now return. Explicit bounds are usually necessary to make values of existential types usable. To see why, consider the example from

the previous section, with the `struct` declaration changed to remove the explicit bound:

```
struct T<'r::R> {<'a> : regions('a) > 'r
    'a fl;
    int f('a, int);
};
```

(So the declaration of `t` should just have type `struct T`.) Now the function call `f(arg, 19)` at the end of `g` will not type-check because the (default) effect for `f` includes `regions('b)`, which cannot be established at the call site. But with the bound, we know that `regions('b) > 'H`, which is sufficient to prove the call won't read through any dangling pointers.

## 12.3 Interprocedural Memory Initialization

We currently have limited support for functions that initialize parameters. if you have an `*@nonnull1` parameter (pointing into any region), you can use an attribute `__attribute__((initializes(1)))` (where it's the first parameter, use a different number otherwise) to indicate that the function initializes through the parameter.

Obviously, this affects the definite-assignment analysis for the callee and the call-site. In the callee, we know the parameter is initialized, but not what it points to. The memory pointed to must be initialized before returning. Care must be taken to reject this code:

```
void f(int *@nonnull*@nonnull x) __attribute__((initializes(1))) {
    x = new (new 0);
    return x;
}
```

In the caller, the actual argument must point to a known location. Furthermore, this location must not be reachable from any other actual arguments, i.e., there must be no aliases available to the callee.

Two common idioms not yet supported are:

1. The parameter is initialized only if the return value satisfies some predicate; for example, it is 0.

2. The caller can pass NULL, meaning do not initialize through this parameter.

## A Porting C code to Cyclone

Though Cyclone resembles and shares a lot with C, porting is not always straightforward. Furthermore, it's rare that you actually port an entire application to Cyclone. You may decide to leave certain libraries or modules in C and port the rest to Cyclone. In this Chapter, we want to share with you the tips and tricks that we have developed for porting C code to Cyclone and interfacing Cyclone code against legacy C code.

### A.1 Semi-Automatic Porting

The Cyclone compiler includes a simple porting mode which you can use to try to move your C code closer to Cyclone. The porting tool is not perfect, but it's a start and we hope to develop it more in the future.

When porting a file, say `foo.c`, you'll first need to copy the file to `foo.cyc` and then edit it to add `__cyclone_port_on__`; and `__cyclone_port_off__`; around the code that you want Cyclone to port. For example, if after copying `foo.c`, the file `foo.cyc` contains the following:

```
1.  #include <stdio.h>
2.
3.  void foo(char *s) {
4.      printf(s);
5.  }
6.
7.  int main(int argc, char **argv) {
8.      argv++;
9.      for (argc--; argc >= 0; argc--, argv++)
10.         foo(*argv);
11. }
```

then you'll want to insert `__cyclone_port_on__`; at line 2 and `__cyclone_port_off__`; after line 11. You do not want to port standard include files such as `stdio`, hence the need for the delimiters.

Next compile the file with the `-port` flag:

```
cyclone -port foo.cyc > rewrites.txt
```

and pipe the output to a file, in this case `rewrites.txt`. If you edit the output file, you will see that the compiler has emitted a list of edits such as the following:

```
foo.cyc(5:14-5:15): insert '?' for '*'
foo.cyc(9:24-9:25): insert '?' for '*'
foo.cyc(9:25-9:26): insert '?' for '*'
```

You can apply these edits by running the `rewrite` program on the edits:

```
rewrite -port foo.cyc > rewrites.txt
```

(The `rewrite` program is written in Cyclone and included in the `tools` sub-directory.) This will produce a new file called `foo_new.cyc` which should look like this:

```
#include <stdio.h>

__cyclone_port_on__;

void foo(char ?s) {
    printf(s);
}

int main(int argc, char ??argv) {
    argv++;
    for (argc--; argc >= 0; argc--, argv++)
        foo(*argv);
}

__cyclone_port_off__;
```

Notice that the porting system has changed the pointers from thin pointers to fat pointers (?) to support the pointer arithmetic that is done in `main`, and that this constraint has flowed to procedures that are called (e.g., `foo`).

You'll need to strip out the `port-on` and `port-off` directives and then try to compile the file with the Cyclone compiler. In this case, the rewritten code in `foo_new.cyc` compiles with a warning that `main` might not return an integer value. In general, you'll find that the porting tool doesn't always produce valid Cyclone code. Usually, you'll have to go in and modify the code substantially to get it to compile. Nonetheless, the porting tool can take care of lots of little details for you.

## A.2 Manually Translating C to Cyclone

To a first approximation, you can port a simple program from C to Cyclone by following these steps which are detailed below:

- Change pointer types to fat pointer types where necessary.
- Use comprehensions to heap-allocate arrays.
- Use tagged unions for unions with pointers.
- Initialize variables.
- Put breaks or fallthrus in switch cases.
- Replace one temporary with multiple temporaries.
- Connect argument and result pointers with the same region.
- Insert type information to direct the type-checker.
- Copy “const” code or values to make it non-const.
- Get rid of calls to free, calloc, etc.
- Use polymorphism or tagged unions to get rid of void\*.
- Rewrite the bodies of vararg functions.
- Use exceptions instead of setjmp.

Even when you follow these suggestions, you’ll still need to test and debug your code carefully. By far, the most common run-time errors you will get are uncaught exceptions for null-pointer dereference or array out-of-bounds. Under Linux, you should get a stack backtrace when you have an uncaught exception which will help narrow down where and why the exception occurred. On other architectures, you can use `gdb` to find the problem. The most effective way to do this is to set a breakpoint on the routines `_throw_null()` and `_throw_arraybounds()` which are defined in the runtime and used whenever a null-check or array-bounds-check fails. Then you can use `gdb`’s backtrace facility to see where the problem occurred. Of course, you’ll be debugging at the C level, so you’ll want to use the `-save-c` and `-g` options when compiling your code.

**Change pointer types to fat pointer types where necessary.** Ideally, you should examine the code and use thin pointers (e.g., `int*` or better `int*@nonnull`) wherever possible as these require fewer run-time checks and less storage. However, recall that thin pointers do not support pointer arithmetic. In those situations, you'll need to use fat pointers (e.g., `int*@fat` which can also be written as `int?`). A particularly simple strategy when porting C code is to just change all pointers to fat pointers. The code is then more likely to compile, but will have greater overhead. After changing to use all fat pointers, you may wish to profile or reexamine your code and figure out where you can profitably use thin pointers.

**Use comprehensions to heap-allocate arrays.** Cyclone provides limited support for `malloc` and separated initialization but this really only works for bits-only objects. To heap- or region-allocate and initialize an array that might contain pointers, use `new` or `rnew` in conjunction with array comprehensions. For example, to copy a vector of integers `s`, one might write:

```
int *@fat t = new {for i < numelts(s) : s[i]};
```

**Use tagged unions for unions with pointers.** Cyclone only lets you read members of unions that contain “bits” (i.e., ints; chars; shorts; floats; doubles; or tuples, structs, unions, or arrays of bits.) So if you have a C union with a pointer type in it, you'll have to code around it. One way is to simply use a `@tagged` union. Note that this adds hidden tag and associated checks to ensure safety.

**Initialize variables.** Top-level variables must be initialized in Cyclone, and in many situations, local variables must be initialized. Sometimes, this will force you to change the type of the variable so that you can construct an appropriate initial value. For instance, suppose you have the following declarations at top-level:

```
struct DICT;
struct DICT *@nonnull new_dict();
struct DICT *@nonnull d;
void init() {
    d = new_dict();
}
```

Here, we have an abstract type for dictionaries (`struct Dict`), a constructor function (`new_dict()`) which returns a pointer to a new dictionary, and a top-level variable (`d`) which is meant to hold a pointer to a dictionary. The `init` function ensures that `d` is initialized. However, Cyclone would complain that `d` is not initialized because `init` may not be called, or it may only be called after `d` is already used. Furthermore, the only way to initialize `d` is to call the constructor, and such an expression is not a valid top-level initializer. The solution is to declare `d` as a “possibly-null” pointer to a dictionary and initialize it with `NULL`:

```
struct DICT;
struct DICT *nonnull new_dict();
struct DICT *d;
void init() {
    d = new_dict();
}
```

Of course, now whenever you use `d`, either you or the compiler will have to check that it is not `NULL`.

**Put breaks or fallthrus in switch cases.** Cyclone requires that you either break, return, continue, throw an exception, or explicitly fallthru in each case of a switch.

**Replace one temporary with multiple temporaries.** Consider the following code:

```
void foo(char * x, char * y) {
    char * temp;
    temp = x;
    bar(temp);
    temp = y;
    bar(temp);
}
```

When compiled, Cyclone generates an error message like this:

```
type mismatch: char *@zero term #0 != char *@zero term #1
```



The problem is that Cyclone thinks that `x` and `y` might point into different regions (which it named #0 and #1 respectively), and the variable `temp` is assigned both the value of `x` and the value of `y`. Thus, there is no single region that we can say `temp` points into. The solution in this case is to use two different temporaries for the two different purposes:

```
void foo(char * x, char * y) {
    char * temp1;
    char * temp2;
    temp1 = x;
    bar(temp1);
    temp2 = y;
    bar(temp2);
}
```

Now Cyclone can figure out that `temp1` is a pointer into the region #0 whereas `temp2` is a pointer into region #1.

**Connect argument and result pointers with the same region.** Remember that Cyclone assumes that pointer inputs to a function might point into distinct regions, and that output pointers, by default point into the heap. Obviously, this won't always be the case. Consider the following code:

```
int *foo(int *x, int *y, int b) {
    if (b)
        return x;
    else
        return y;
}
```

Cyclone complains when we compile this code:

```
returns value of type int *#0 but requires int *
    #0 and 'H failed to unify.
returns value of type int *#1 but requires int *
    #1 and 'H failed to unify.
```

The problem is that neither `x` nor `y` is a pointer into the heap. You can fix this problem by putting in explicit regions to connect the arguments and the result. For instance, we might write:

```
int *`r foo(int *`r x, int *`r y, int b) {
    if (b)
        return x;
    else
        return y;
}
```

and then the code will compile. Of course, any caller to this function must now ensure that the arguments are in the same region.

**Insert type information to direct the type-checker.** Cyclone is usually good about inferring types. But sometimes, it has too many options and picks the wrong type. A good example is the following:

```
void foo(int b) {
    printf("b is %s", b ? "true" : "false");
}
```

When compiled, Cyclone warns:

```
(2:39-2:40): implicit cast to shorter array
```

The problem is that the string `"true"` is assigned the type `const char ?{5}` whereas the string `"false"` is assigned the type `const char ?{6}`. (Remember that string constants have an implicit 0 at the end.) The type-checker needs to find a single type for both since we don't know whether `b` will come out true or false and conditional expressions require the same type for either case. There are at least two ways that the types of the strings can be promoted to a unifying type. One way is to promote both to `char?` which would be ideal. Unfortunately, Cyclone has chosen another way, and promoted the longer string (`"false"`) to a shorter string type, namely `const char ?{5}`. This makes the two types the same, but is not at all what we want, for when the procedure is called with false, the routine will print

```
b is fals
```

Fortunately, the warning indicates that there might be a problem. The solution in this case is to explicitly cast at least one of the two values to `const char ?`:

```
void foo(int b) {  
    printf("b is %s", b ? ((const char ?)"true") : "false");  
}
```

Alternatively, you can declare a temp with the right type and use it:

```
void foo(int b) {  
    const char ? t = b ? "true" : "false"  
    printf("b is %s", t);  
}
```

The point is that by giving Cyclone more type information, you can get it to do the right sorts of promotions.

**Copy “const” code or values to make it non-const.** Cyclone takes `const` seriously. C does not. Occasionally, this will bite you, but more often than not, it will save you from a core dump. For instance, the following code will seg fault on most machines:

```
void foo() {  
    char ?x = "howdy"  
    x[0] = 'a';  
}
```

The problem is that the string "howdy" will be placed in the read-only text segment, and thus trying to write to it will cause a fault. Fortunately, Cyclone complains that you’re trying to initialize a non-const variable with a const value so this problem doesn’t occur in Cyclone. If you really want to initialize x with this value, then you’ll need to copy the string, say using the `dup` function from the string library:

```
void foo() {
    char ?x = strdup("howdy");
    x[0] = 'a';
}
```

Now consider the following call to the `strtoul` code in the standard library:

```
extern unsigned long strtoul(const char ?'r n,
                             const char ?'r*'r2 endptr,
                             int base);

unsigned long foo() {
    char ?x = strdup("howdy");
    char ?*e = NULL;
    return strtoul(x,e,0);
}
```

Here, the problem is that we're passing non-const values to the library function, even though it demands const values. Usually, that's okay, as `const char ?` is a super-type of `char ?`. But in this case, we're passing as the `endptr` a pointer to a `char ?`, and it is not the case that `const char ?*` is a super-type of `char ?*`. In this case, you have two options: Either make `x` and `e` const, or copy the code for `strtoul` and make a version that doesn't have const in the prototype.

**Get rid of calls to `free`, `calloc` etc.** There are many standard functions that Cyclone can't support and still maintain type-safety. An obvious one is `free()` which releases memory. Let the garbage collector free the object for you, or use region-allocation if you're scared of the collector. Other operations, such as `memset`, `memcpy`, and `realloc` are supported, but in a limited fashion in order to preserve type safety.

**Use polymorphism or tagged unions to get rid of `void*`.** Often you'll find C code that uses `void*` to simulate polymorphism. A typical example is something like `swap`:

```
void swap(void **x, void **y) {
```

```

    void *t = x;
    x = y;
    y = t;
}

```

In Cyclone, this code should type-check but you won't be able to use it in many cases. The reason is that while `void*` is a super-type of just about any pointer type, it's not the case that `void**` is a super-type of a pointer to a pointer type. In this case, the solution is to use Cyclone's polymorphism:

```

void swap('a *x, 'a *y) {
    'a t = x;
    x = y;
    y = t;
}

```

Now the code can (safely) be called with any two (compatible) pointer types. This trick works well as long as you only need to "cast up" from a fixed type to an abstract one. It doesn't work when you need to "cast down" again. For example, consider the following:

```

int foo(int x, void *y) {
    if (x)
        return *((int *)y);
    else {
        printf("%s\n", (char *)y);
        return -1;
    }
}

```

The coder intends for `y` to either be an `int` pointer or a string, depending upon the value of `x`. If `x` is true, then `y` is supposed to be an `int` pointer, and otherwise, it's supposed to be a string. In either case, you have to put in a cast from `void*` to the appropriate type, and obviously, there's nothing preventing someone from passing in bogus combinations of `x` and `y`. The solution in Cyclone is to use a tagged union to represent the dependency and get rid of the variable `x`:

```

@tagged union IntOrString {
    int Int;
    const char *@fat String;
};
typedef union IntOrString i_or_s;
int foo(i_or_s y) {
    switch (y) {
        case {.Int = i}: return i;
        case {.String = s}:
            printf("%s\n", s);
            return -1;
    }
}

```

**Rewrite the bodies of vararg functions.** See the section on varargs for more details.

**Use exceptions instead of setjmp.** Many uses of setjmp/longjmp can be replaced with a try-block and a throw. Of course, you can't do this for things like a user-level threads package, but rather, only for those situations where you're trying to "pop-out" of a deeply nested set of function calls.

### A.3 Interfacing to C

When porting any large code from C to Cyclone, or even when writing a Cyclone program from scratch, you'll want to be able to access legacy libraries. To do so, you must understand how Cyclone represents data structures, how it compiles certain features, and how to write wrappers to make up for representation mismatches. Sometimes, interfacing to C code is as simple as writing an appropriate interface. For instance, if you want to call the `acos` function which is defined in the C Math library, you can simply write the following:

```
extern "C" double acos(double);
```

The `extern "C"` scope declares that the function is defined externally by C code. As such, its name is not prefixed with any namespace information by the compiler. Note that you can still embed the function within

a Cyclone namespace, it's just that the namespace is ignored by the time you get down to C code. If you have a whole group of functions then you can wrap them with a single `extern "C" { ... }`, as in:

```
extern "C" {
    double acos(double);
    float  acosf(float);
    double acosh(double);
    float  acoshf(float);
    double asin(double);
}
```

The `extern C` approach works well enough that it covers many of the cases that you'll encounter. However, the situation is not so when you run into more complicated interfaces. Sometimes you will need to write some wrapper code to convert from Cyclone's representations to C's and back.

Another useful tool is the `extern "C include"` mechanism. It allows you to write C definitions within a Cyclone file. Here is a simple example:

```
extern "C include" {
    char peek(unsigned int i) {
        return *((char *)i);
    }

    void poke(unsigned int i, char c) {
        *((char *)i) = c;
    }
} export {
    peek, poke;
}
```

In this example, we've defined two C functions `peek` and `poke`. Cyclone will not compile or type-check them, but rather pass them on to the C compiler. The `export` clause indicates which function and variable definitions should be exported to the Cyclone code. If we only wanted to export the `peek` function, then we would leave the `poke` function out of the `export` list.

A more complicated example can be found in `tests/pcdemo.cyc`. The goal of this example is to show how you can safely suck in a large C

interface (in this case, the Perl Compatible Regular Expression interface), write wrappers around some of the functions to convert representations and check properties, and then safely export these wrappers to Cyclone.

## B Frequently Asked Questions

**What does  $\$(type_1, type_2)$  mean? What does  $\$(expr_1, expr_2)$  mean?** Cyclone has *tuples*, which are anonymous structs with fields numbered 0, 1, 2, .... For example,  $\$(int, string\_t)$  is a pair of an `int` and a `string_t`. An example value of this type is  $\$(4, "cyclone")$ . To extract a field from a tuple, you use array-like notation: you write `x[0]`, not `x.0`.

**What does `int @` mean?** In Cyclone `@` is a pointer that is guaranteed not to be `NULL`. The Cyclone compiler guarantees this through static or dynamic checks. For example,

```
int *x = NULL;
```

is not an error, but

```
int @x = NULL;
```

is an error. Note that “`int @`” is shorthand for the more verbose “`int *@nonnull`”.

**What does `int *{37}` mean?** This is the type of (possibly-null) pointers to a sequence of at least 37 integers, which can also be written as “`int *@numelts(37)`”. The extra length information is used by Cyclone to prevent buffer overflows. For example, Cyclone will compile `x[expr]` into code that will evaluate `expr`, and check that the result is less than 37 before accessing the element. Note that `int *` is just shorthand for `int *{1}`. Currently, the expression in the braces must be a compile-time constant.

**What does `int *`r` mean?** This is the type of a pointer to an `int` in region ``r`. A region is just a group of objects with the same lifetime—all objects in a region are freed at once. Cyclone uses this region information to prevent dereferencing a pointer into a previously freed



region. Regions can have a “nested” structure, for example, if the region for a function parameter is a variable, then the function may assume that the parameter points into a region whose lifetime includes the lifetime of the function.

**What does ``H` mean?** This is Cyclone’s heap region: objects in this region cannot be explicitly freed, only garbage-collected. Effectively, this means that pointers into the heap region can always be safely dereferenced; conceptually, objects in the heap last “forever,” since they are always available if needed; garbage collection is like an optimization that frees objects after they are no longer needed.

**What does `int @{37}`r` mean?** A pointer can come with all or none of the nullity, bound, and region annotation. This type is the type of non-`null` pointers to at least 37 consecutive integers in region ``r`. When the bound is omitted it default to 1.

**What is a pointer type’s region when it’s omitted?** Every pointer type has a region; if you omit it, the compiler puts it in for you implicitly. The region added depends on where the pointer type occurs. In function arguments, a new region variable is used. In function results and type definitions (including `typedef`), the heap region (``H`) is used. In function bodies, the compiler looks at the uses (using unification) to try to determine a region.

**What does `int ?` mean?** The `?` a special kind of pointer that carries along bounds information. It is a “questionable” pointer: it might be `NULL` or pointing out of bounds. An `int ?` is a pointer to an integer, along with some information that allows Cyclone to check whether the pointer is in bounds at run-time. These are the only kinds of pointers that you can use for pointer arithmetic in Cyclone.

**What does ``a` mean?** ``a` is a *type variable*. Type variables are typically used in polymorphic functions. For example, if a function takes a parameter of type ``a`, then the function can be called with a value of *any* suitable type. If there are two arguments of type ``a`, then any call will have to give values of the same type for those parameters. And if the function returns a type ``a`, then it must return a result of the same type as the the argument. Syntactically, a type variable is any identifier beginning with ``` (backquote).

**What is a “suitable” type for a type variable?** The last question said that a type variable can stand for a “suitable” type. Unfortunately, not all types are “suitable.” Briefly, the “suitable” types are those that fit into a general-purpose machine register, typically including `int`, and pointers. Non-suitable types include `float`, `struct` types (which can be of arbitrary size), tuples, and questionable pointers. Technically, the suitable types are the types of “box kind,” described below.

**How do I cast from `void *`?** You can’t do this in Cyclone. A `void *` in C really does not point to `void`, it points to a value of some type. However, when you cast from a `void *` in C, there is no guarantee that the pointer actually points to a value of the expected type. This can lead to crashes, so Cyclone doesn’t permit it. Cyclone’s polymorphism and tagged unions can often be used in places where C needs to use `void *`, and they are safe.

**What does `_` (underscore) mean in types?** Underscore is a “wildcard” type. It stands for some type that the programmer doesn’t want to bother writing out; the compiler is expected to fill in the type for the programmer. Sometimes, the compiler isn’t smart enough to figure out the type (you will get an error message if so), but usually there is enough contextual information for the compiler to succeed. For example, if you write

```
_ x = new Pair(3,4);
```

the compiler can easily infer that the wildcard stands for `struct Pair @`. In fact, if `x` is later assigned `NULL`, the compiler will infer that `x` has type `struct Pair *` instead.

Note that `_` is not allowed as part of top-level declarations.

**What do ``a::B`, ``a::M`, ``a::A`, ``a::R`, ``a::UR`, ``a::TR` and ``a::E` mean?**

Types are divided into different groups, which we call kinds. There are four “normal” kinds: `B` (for Box), `M` (for Memory), `A` (for Any), and `E` (for Effect); and three “region” kinds: `R` (for Region), `UR` (for unique region), and `TR` (for either regular or unique region). The notation `typevar :: kind` says that a type variable belongs to a kind.

A type variable can only be instantiated by types that belong to its kind.

Box types include `int`, `long`, `region_t`, `tag_t`, `enums`, and `non-fat pointers`. Memory types include all box types, `void`, `char`, `short`, `long long`, `float`, `double`, `arrays`, `tuples`, `datatype` and `@extensible datatype` variants, `@fat pointers`, and `non-abstract structs` and `unions`. Any types include all types that don't have kind `R`, `UR`, `TR`, or `E`. For the region types, `R` indicates “normal” regions like the heap, stack, and dynamic regions; `UR` indicates the unique region (i.e. only `'U` or an alias of it has kind `UR`); and `TR` indicates either; `UR` and `TR` kinds are used generally only in certain region-polymorphic functions; see Section 8.5.4. Effect types are sets of regions (these are explained elsewhere).

**What does it mean when type variables don't have explicit kinds?** Every type variable has a kind, but usually the programmer doesn't have to write it down. In function prototypes, the compiler will infer the most permissive kind. For example,

```
void f('a *'b x, 'c * y, 'a z);
```

is shorthand for

```
void f('a::B *'b::R x, 'c::M * y, 'a::B z)
```

In type definitions, no inference is performed: an omitted kind is shorthand for `::B`. For example,

```
struct S<'a, 'r::R> { 'a *'r x; };
```

is shorthand for

```
struct S<'a::B, 'r::R> { 'a *'r x; };
```

but

```
struct S<'a, 'r>{ 'a *'r x; };
```

is not.

**What does `struct List<'a, 'r::R>` mean?** `struct List` takes a type of box kind and a region and produces a type. For example, `struct List<int, 'H>` is a type, and `struct List<struct List<int, 'H>@, 'H>` is a type. `struct List<'a, 'r::R>` is a list whose elements all have type `'a` and live in region `'r`.

**What is a `@tagged union`?** In C, when a value has a union type, you know that in fact it has one of the types of the union's fields, but there is no guarantee which one. This can lead to crashes in C. Cyclone's `@tagged unions` are like C unions with some additional information (a tag) that lets the Cyclone compiler determine what type the underlying value actually has, thus helping to ensure safety.

**What is `abstract`?** `abstract` is a storage-class specifier, like `static` or `extern`. When attached to a top-level type declaration, it means that other files can use the type but cannot look at the internals of the type (e.g., other files cannot access the fields of an abstract struct). Otherwise, `abstract` has the same meaning as the `auto` (default) storage class. Hence `abstract` is a way to state within a Cyclone file that a type's representation cannot be exported.

**What are the Cyclone keywords?** In addition to the C keywords, the following have special meaning and cannot be used as identifiers: `abstract`, `catch`, `datatype`, `fallthru`, `let`, `malloc`, `namespace`, `new`, `NULL`, `region_t`, `regions`, `rmalloc`, `rnew`, `throw`, `try`, `using`. As in gcc, `__attribute__` is reserved as well.

**What are `namespace` and `using`?** These constructs provide a convenient way to help avoid name clashes. `namespace X` prepends `X::` to the declarations in its body (rest of file in case of `namespace X`;) and `using X` makes the identifiers prepended with `X::` available without having to write the `X::`.

**What is `fallthru`?** In Cyclone, you cannot implicitly fall through from one switch case to the next (a common source of bugs in C). Instead, you must explicitly fall through with a `fallthru` statement. So, to port C code, place `fallthru`; at the end of each case that implicitly

falls through; note that `fallthru` may not appear in the last case of a switch.

`fallthru` is useful for more than just catching bugs. For instance, it can appear anywhere in a case; its meaning is to immediately goto the next case. Second, when the next case of the switch has pattern variables, a `fallthru` can (and must) be used to specify expressions that will be bound to those variables in the next case. Hence `fallthru` is more powerful (but more verbose) than “or patterns” in ML.

**What is `new`?** `new expr` allocates space in the heap region, initializes it with the result of evaluating `expr`, and returns a pointer to the space. It is roughly equivalent to

```
type @temp = malloc(sizeof(type));
*temp = expr;
```

where `type` is the type of `expr`. You can also write

```
new { for i < expr1 : expr2 }
```

to heap-allocate an array of size `expr1` with the `ith` element initialized to `expr2` (which may mention `i`).

**How do I use tuples?** A tuple type is written `$(type0, ..., typen)`. A value of the type is constructed by `$(expr0, ..., exprn)`, where `expri` has type `typei`. If `expr` has type `$(type0, ..., typen)`, you can extract the component `i` using `expr[i]`. The expression in the brackets must be a compile-time constant. In short, tuples are like anonymous structs where you use `expr[i]` to extract fields instead of `expr.i`. There is no analogue of the `->` syntax that can be used with pointers of structs; if `expr` has type `$(type1, ..., typen)`, you can extract component `i` by `(*expr)[i]`.

**What is `{for i < expr1 : expr2}`?** This is an array initializer. It can appear where array initializers appear in C, and it can appear as the argument to `new`. It declares an identifier (in this case, `i`) whose

scope is *expr<sub>2</sub>*. *expr<sub>1</sub>* is an expression which is evaluated to an unsigned integer giving the desired size of the array. The expression *expr<sub>2</sub>* is evaluated *expr<sub>1</sub>* times, with *i* ranging over 0, 1, ..., *expr<sub>1</sub>*-1; the result of each evaluation initializes the *i*<sup>th</sup> element of the array.

The form `new {for i < expr1 : expr2}` allocates space for a new array and initializes it as just described. This form is the only way to create arrays whose size depends on run-time information. When `{for i < expr1 : expr2}` is not an argument to `new`, *expr<sub>1</sub>* must be constant and *expr<sub>2</sub>* may not mention *i*. This restriction includes all uses at top-level (for global variables).

**How do I throw and catch exceptions?** A new exception is declared as in

```
datatype exn { MyExn };
```

The exception can be thrown with the statement

```
throw MyExn;
```

You can catch the expression with a `try/catch` statement:

```
try statement1 catch { case MyExn: statement2 }
```

If *statement<sub>1</sub>* throws an `MyExn` and no inner `catch` handles it, control transfers to *statement<sub>2</sub>*.

The `catch` body can have any number of `case` clauses. If none match, the exception is re-thrown.

Exceptions can carry values with them. For example, here's how to declare an exception that carries an integer:

```
datatype exn { MyIntExn(int) };
```

Values of such exceptions must be heap-allocated. For example, you can create and throw a `MyIntExn` exception with

```
throw new MyIntExn(42);
```

To catch such an exception you must use an `&`-pattern:

```
try statement1
catch {
  case &MyIntExn(x): statement2
}
```

When the exception is caught, the integer value is bound to *x*.

The `exn` type is just a pre-defined `@extensible` datatype type. Therefore, all the standard rules for extending, creating objects, and destructing objects of a datatype apply.

**How efficient is exception handling?** Entering a `try` block is implemented using `set jmp`. Throwing an exception is implemented with `long jmp`. Pattern-matching a datatype against each case variant in the `catch` clause is a pointer-comparison. In short, exception handling is fairly lightweight.

**What does `let` mean?** In Cyclone, `let` is used to declare variables. For example,

```
let x, y, z;
```

declares the three variables *x*, *y*, and *z*. The types of the variables do not need to be filled in by the programmer, they are filled in by the compiler's type inference algorithm. The `let` declaration above is equivalent to

```
_ x;
_ y;
_ z;
```

There is a second kind of `let` declaration, with form

```
let pattern = expr;
```

It evaluates *expr* and matches it against *pattern*, initializing the pattern variables of *pattern* with values drawn from *expr*. For example,

```
let x = 3;
```

declares a new variable `x` and initializes it to 3, and

```
let $(y,z) = $(3,4);
```

declares new variables `y` and `z`, and initializes `y` to 3 and `z` to 4.

**What is a pattern and how do I use it?** Cyclone's patterns are a convenient way to destructure aggregate objects, such as structs and tuples. They are also the only way to destructure datatypes. Patterns are used in Cyclone's `let` declarations, `switch` statements, and `try/catch` statements.

**What does `_` mean in a pattern?** It is a wildcard pattern, matching any value. For example, if `f` is a function that returns a pair, then

```
let $(_,y) = f(5);
```

is a way to extract the second element of the pair and bind it to a new variable `y`.

**What does it mean when a function has an argument with type ``a`?** Any type that looks like ``` (backquote) followed (without whitespace) by an identifier is a type variable. If a function parameter has a type variable for its type, it means the function can be called with any pointer or with an int. However, if two parameters have the same type variable, they must be instantiated with the same type. If all occurrences of ``a` appear directly under pointers (e.g., ``a *`), then an actual parameter can have any type, but the restrictions about using the same type still apply. This is called *parametric polymorphism*, and it's used in Cyclone as a safe alternative to casts and `void *`.

**Do functions with type variables get duplicated like C++ template functions? Is there run-time**

No and no. Each Cyclone function gives rise to one function in the output, and types are not present at run-time. When a function is called, it does not need to know the types with which the caller is instantiating the type variables, so no instantiation actually occurs—the types are not present at run-time. We do not have to duplicate the



code because we either know the size of the type or the size does not matter. This is why we don't allow type variables of memory kind as parameters—doing so would require code duplication or run-time types.

**Can I use varargs?** Yes, Cyclone has a way of supporting variable-argument functions. It is not quite the same as C's, but it is safe. For instance, we have written type-safe versions of `printf` and `scanf` all within Cyclone. See the documentation on varargs for more information.

**Why can't I declare types within functions?** We just haven't implemented this support yet. For now, you need to hoist type declarations and typedefs to the top-level.

**What casts are allowed?** Cyclone doesn't support all of the casts that C does, because incorrect casts can lead to crashes. Instead, Cyclone supports a safe subset of C's casts. Here are some examples.

All of C's numeric casts, conversions, and promotions are unchanged.

You can always cast between `type@{const-expr}`, `type*{const-expr}`, and `type?`. A cast from `type?` to one of the other types includes a run-time check that the pointer points to a sequence of at least `const-expr` objects. A cast to `type@{const-expr}` from one of the other types includes a run-time check that the pointer is not `NULL`. No other casts between these type have run-time checks. A failed run-time check throws `Null_Exception`. A pointer into the heap can be cast to a pointer into another region. A pointer to a struct or tuple can be cast to a pointer to another struct or tuple provided the "target type" is *narrower* (it has fewer fields after "flattening out" nested structs and tuples) and each (flattened out) field of the target type could be the target of a cast from the corresponding field of the source type. A pointer can be cast to `int`. The type `type*{const-expr1}` can be cast to `type*{const-expr2}` provided `const-expr2 < const-expr1`, and similarly for `type@{const-expr1}` and `type@{const-expr2}`.

An object of type `datatype T.A @` can be cast to `datatype T @`. The current implementation isn't quite as lenient as it should be. For example, it rejects a cast from `int *{4}` to `$(int, int)*{2}`, but this cast is safe.

For all non-pointer-containing types *type*, you can cast from a *type* ? to a char ?. This allows you to make frequent use of `memcpy`, `memset`, *etc.*

**Why can't I implicitly fall-through to the next `switch` case?** We wanted to add an explicit `fallthru` construct in conjunction with pattern matching, and we decided to enforce use of `fallthru` in all cases because this is a constant source of bugs in C code.

**Do I have to initialize global variables?** You currently must provide explicit initializers for global variables that may contain pointers, so that the compiler can be sure that uninitialized memory containing pointers is not read. In the future, we expect to provide some support for initializing globals in constructor functions.

Two techniques help with initializing global arrays. First, if an array element could be 0 or NULL, the compiler will insert 0 for any elements you do not specify. For example, you can write

```
int x[37] = {};
```

to declare a global array `x` initialized with 37 elements, all 0. Second, you can use the comprehension form

```
int x[37] = { for i < expr1 : expr2 }
```

provided that *expr*<sub>1</sub> and *expr*<sub>2</sub> are constant expressions. Currently, *expr*<sub>2</sub> may not use the variable `i`, but in the future it will be able to. Note that it is not possible to have a global variable of an abstract type because it is impossible to know any constant expression of that type.

**Are there threads?** Cyclone does not yet have a threads library and some of the libraries are not re-entrant. In addition, because Cyclone uses unboxed structs of three words to represent fat pointers, and updating them is not an atomic operation, it's possible to introduce unsoundnesses by adding concurrent threads. However, in the future, we plan to provide support for threads and a static analysis for preventing these and other forms of data races.

**Can I use `set jmp` and `long jmp`?** No. However, Cyclone has exceptions, which can be used for non-local control flow. The problem with `set jmp` and `long jmp` is that safety demands we prohibit a `long jmp` to a place no longer on the stack. A future release may have more support for non-local control flow.

**What types are allowed for union members?** Currently, union members cannot contain pointers. You can have numeric types (including bit fields and enumerations), structs and tuples of allowable union-member types, and other unions.

**Why can't I do anything with values of type `void *`?** Because we cannot know the size of an object pointed to by a pointer of type `void *`, we prohibit dereferencing the pointer or casting it to a different pointer type. To write code that works for all pointer types, use type variables and polymorphism. Tagged unions can also substitute in some cases where `void *` is used in C.

**What is `aprintf`?** The `aprintf` function is just like `printf`, but the output is placed in a new string allocated on the heap.

**How do I access command-line arguments?** The type of `main` should be

```
int main(int argc, char ?? argv);
```

As in C, `argc` is the number of command-line arguments and `argv[i]` is a string with the  $i^{\text{th}}$  argument. Unlike C, `argv` and each element of `argv` carry bounds information. Note that `argc` is redundant—it is always equal to `numelts(argv)`.

**Why can't I pass a stack pointer to certain functions?** If the type of a function parameter is a pointer into the heap region, it cannot be passed a stack parameter. Pointer types in typedef and struct definitions refer to the heap region unless there is an explicit region annotation.

**Why do I get an incomprehensible error when I assign a local's address to a pointer variable?** If the pointer variable has a type indicating that it points into the heap, then the assignment is illegal. Try initializing the pointer variable with the local's address, rather than delaying the assignment until later.

**How much pointer arithmetic can I do?** On fat pointers, you can add or subtract an `int` (including via increment/decrement), as in C. It is okay for the result to be outside the bounds of the object pointed to; it is a run-time error to dereference outside of the bounds. (The compiler inserts bounds information and a run-time check; an exception is thrown if the check fails.) Currently, we do not support pointer arithmetic on the other pointer types. As in C, you can subtract two pointers of the same type; the type of the result is `unsigned int`.

**What is the type of a literal string?** The type of the string constant `"foo"` is `char @{4}` (remember the trailing null character). However, there are implicit casts from `char @{4}` to `char @{2}`, `char *{4}`, and `char ?`, so you shouldn't have to think too much about this.

**Are strings NUL-terminated?** Cyclone follows C's lead on this. String literals like `"foo"` are NUL-terminated. Many of the library functions consider a NUL character to mark the end of a string. And library functions that return strings often ensure that they are NUL terminated. However, there is no guarantee that a string is NUL terminated. For one thing, as in C, the terminating NUL may be overwritten by any character. In C this can be exploited to cause buffer overflows. To avoid this in Cyclone, strings generally have type `char ?`, that is, they carry bounds information. In Cyclone a string ends when a NUL character is found, or when the bounds are exceeded.

**How do I use `malloc`?** `malloc` is a Cyclone primitive, not a library function. Currently it has an extremely restricted syntax: You must write `malloc(sizeof(type))`. The result has type `type@`, so usually there is no need to explicitly cast the result (but doing so is harmless). Usually the construct `new expr` is more convenient than `malloc` followed by initialization, but `malloc` can be useful for certain idioms and when porting C code.

Notice that you cannot (yet) use `malloc` to allocate space for arrays (as in the common idiom, `malloc(n*sizeof(type))`). Also, the type-checker uses a conservative analysis to ensure that the fields of the allocated space are written before they are used.

**Can I call `free`?** Yes and no. Individual memory objects may not be freed. In future versions, we may support freeing objects for which you

can prove that there are no other pointers to the object. Until then, you must rely on a garbage collector to reclaim heap objects or use regions (similar to “arenas” or “zones”) for managing collections of objects.

For porting code, we have defined a `free` function that behaves as a no-op, having type

```
void free('a::A ?);
```

**Is there a garbage collector?** Yes, we use the Boehm-Demers-Weiser conservative collector. If you don’t want to use the garbage collector (e.g., because you know that your program does little or no heap allocation), you can use the `-nogc` flag when linking your executable. This will make the executable smaller.

If you link against additional C code, that code must obey the usual rules for conservative garbage collection: no wild pointers and no calling `malloc` behind the collector’s back. Instead, you should call `GC_malloc`. See the collector’s documentation for more information.

Note that if you allocate all objects on the stack, garbage collection will never occur. If you allocate all objects on the stack or in regions, it is very unlikely collection will occur and nothing will actually get collected.

**How can I make a stack-allocated array?** As in C, you declare a local variable with an array type. Also as in C, all uses of the variable, except as an argument to `sizeof` and `&`, are promoted to a pointer. If your declaration is

```
int x[256];
```

then uses of `x` have type `int @'L{256}` where `L` is the name of the block in which `x` is declared. (Most blocks are unnamed and the compiler just makes up a name.)

Stack-allocated arrays must be initialized when they are declared (unlike other local variables). Use an array-initializer, as in

```
int y[] = { 0, 1, 2, 3 };
int z[] = { for i < 256 : i };
```

To pass (a pointer to) the array to another function, the function must have a type indicating it can accept stack pointers, as explained elsewhere.

**Can I use `salloc` or `realloc`?** Currently, we don't provide support for `salloc`. For `realloc`, we do provide support, but only on heap-allocated `char` buffers.

**Why do I have to cast from `*` to `@` if I've already tested for `NULL`?** Our compiler is not as smart as you are. It does not realize that you have tested for `NULL`, and it insists on a check (the cast) just to be sure. You can leave the cast implicit, but the compiler will emit a warning. We are currently working to incorporate a flow analysis to omit spurious warning. Because of aliasing, threads, and undefined evaluation order, a sound analysis is non-trivial.

**Why can't a function parameter or struct field have type ``a::M`?** Type variables of memory kind can be instantiated with types of any size. There is no straightforward way to compile a function with an argument of arbitrary size. The obvious way to write such a function is to manipulate a pointer to the arbitrary size value instead. So your parameter should have type ``a::M *` or ``a::M @`.

**Can I see how Cyclone compiles the code?** Just compile with flags `-save-c` and `-pp`. This tells the compiler to save the C code that it builds and passes to `gcc`, and print it out using the pretty-printer. You will have to work to make some sense out of the C code, though. It will likely contain many `extern` declarations (because the code has already gone through the preprocessor) and generated type definitions (because of tuples, tagged unions, and questionable pointers). Pattern-matching code gets translated to a mess of temporary variables and `goto` statements. Array-bounds checks and `NULL` checks can clutter array-intensive and pointer-intensive code. And all `typedefs` are expanded away before printing the output.

**Can I use `gdb` on the output?** You can run `gdb`, but debugging support is not all the way there yet. By default, source-level debugging operations within `gdb` will reference the C code generated by the Cyclone compiler, not the Cyclone source itself. In this case, you need to be aware of three things. First, you have to know how Cyclone translates top-level identifiers to C identifiers (it prepends `Cyc_` and separates namespaces by `_` instead of `::`) so you can set breakpoints at functions. Second, it can be hard to print values because many Cyclone types get translated to `void *`. Third, we do not yet have source correlation, so if you step through code, you're stepping through C code, not Cyclone code.

To improve this situation somewhat, you can compile your files with the option `--lineno`. This will insert `#line` directives in the generated C code that refer to the original Cyclone code. This will allow you to step through the program and view the Cyclone source rather than the generated C. However, doing this has two drawbacks. First, it may occlude some operation in the generated C code that is causing your bug. Second, compilation with `--lineno` is significantly slower than without. Finally, the result is not bug-free; sometimes the debugger will fall behind the actual program point and print the wrong source lines; we hope to fix this problem soon.

Two more hints: First, on some architectures, the first memory allocation appears to seg fault in `GC_findlimit`. This is correct and documented garbage-collector behavior (it handles the signal but `gdb` doesn't know that); simply continue execution. Second, a common use of `gdb` is to find the location of an uncaught exception. To do this, set a breakpoint at `throw` (a function in the Cyclone runtime).

**Can I use `gprof` on the output?** Yes, just use the `-pg` flag. You should also rebuild the Cyclone libraries and the garbage collector with the `-pg` flag. The results of `gprof` make sense because a Cyclone function is compiled to a C function.

Notes for Cygwin users: First, the versions of `libgmon.a` we have downloaded from cygnus are wrong (every call gets counted as a self-call). We have modified `libgmon.a` to fix this bug, so download our version and put it in your cygwin/lib directory. Second, timing information should be ignored because `gprof` is only sampling

100 or 1000 times a second (because it is launching threads instead of using native Windows profiling). Neither of these problems are Cyclone-specific.

**Is there an Emacs mode for Cyclone?** Sort of. In the `doc/` directory of the distribution you will find a `font-lock.el` file and elisp code (in `cyclone_dot_emacs.el`) suitable for inclusion in your `.emacs` file. However, these files change C++ mode and use it for Cyclone rather than creating a new Cyclone mode. Of course, we intend to make our own mode rather than destroy C++-mode's ability to be good for C++. Note that we have not changed the C++ indentation rules at all; our elisp code is useful only for syntax highlighting.

**Does Cyclone have something to do with runtime code generation?** Cyclone has its roots in Popcorn, a language which was safe but not as compatible with C. An offshoot of Popcorn added safe runtime code generation, and was called Cyclone. The current Cyclone language is a merger of the two, refocused on safety and C compatibility. Currently, the language does not have support for runtime code generation.

**What platforms are supported?** You need a platform that has gcc, GNU make, ar, sed, either bash or ksh, and the ability to build the Boehm-Demers-Weiser garbage collector. Furthermore, the size of `int` and all C pointers must be the same. We actively develop Cyclone in Cygwin (a Unix emulation layer for Windows 98, NT, 2K), Linux, and Mac OS X. Versions have run on OpenBSD and FreeBSD.

**Why aren't there more libraries?** We are eager to have a wider code base, but we are compiler writers with limited resources. Let us know of useful code you write.

**Why doesn't `List::imp_rev(1)` change 1 to its reverse?** The library function `List::imp_rev` mutates its argument by reversing the `tl` fields. It returns a pointer to the new first cell (the old last cell), but `1` still points to the old first cell (the new last cell).

**Can I inline functions?** Functions can be declared inline as in ISO C99. You can get additional inlining by compiling the Cyclone output with the `-O2` flag. Whether a function is inlined or not has no effect on Cyclone type-checking.



**If Cyclone is safe, why does my program crash?** There are certain classes of errors that Cyclone does not attempt to prevent. Two examples are stack overflow and various numeric traps, such as division-by-zero. It is also possible to run out of memory. Other crashes could be due to compiler bugs or linking against buggy C code (or linking incorrectly against C code).

Note that when using `gdb`, it may appear there is a seg fault in `GC_-findlimit()`. This behavior is correct; simply continue execution.

**What are compile-time constants?** Cyclone's compile-time constants are `NULL`, integer and character constants, and arithmetic operations over compile-time constants. Unlike C, `sizeof(t)` is not an integral constant expression in our current implementation of Cyclone because our compiler does not know the actual size of aggregate types; we hope to repair this in a future version. Constructs requiring compile-time constants are: tuple-subscript (e.g., `x[3]` for tuple `x`), sizes in array declarations (e.g., `int y[37]`), and sizes in pointer bounds (e.g., `int * x{124}`).

**How can I get the size of an array?** If `expr` is an array, then `numelts(expr)` returns the number of elements in the array. If `expr` is a pointer to an array, `numelts(expr)` returns the number of elements in the array pointed to. If `expr` is a fat pointer, then the number of elements is calculated at runtime from the bounds information contained in the fat pointer. For other types, the size is determined at compile-time.

## C Libraries

### C.1 C Libraries

Cyclone provides partial support for the following C library headers, at least on Linux. On other platforms (e.g., Cygwin), some of these headers are not available. Furthermore, not all definitions from these headers are available, but rather, those that we could easily make safe.

<aio.h>	<arpa/inet.h>	<assert.h>
<complex.h>	<cpio.h>	<ctype.h>
<dirent.h>	<dlfcn.h>	<errno.h>
<fcntl.h>	<fenv.h>	<float.h>
<fmtmsg.h>	<fnmatch.h>	<ftw.h>
<getopt.h>	<glob.h>	<grp.h>
<inttypes.h>	<iso646.h>	<langinfo.h>
<libgen.h>	<limits.h>	<locale.h>
<math.h>	<monetary.h>	<mqueue.h>
<ndbm.h>	<net/if.h>	<netdb.h>
<netinet/in.h>	<netinet/tcp.h>	<nl_types.h>
<poll.h>	<pthread.h>	<pwd.h>
<regex.h>	<sched.h>	<search.h>
<semaphore.h>	<setjmp.h>	<signal.h>
<spawn.h>	<stdarg.h>	<stdbool.h>
<stddef.h>	<stdint.h>	<stdio.h>
<stdlib.h>	<string.h>	<strings.h>
<stropts.h>	<sys/dir.h>	<sys/file.h>
<sys/ioctl.h>	<sys/ipc.h>	<sys/mman.h>
<sys/msg.h>	<sys/resource.h>	<sys/select.h>
<sys/sem.h>	<sys/shm.h>	<sys/socket.h>
<sys/stat.h>	<sys/statvfs.h>	<sys/syslog.h>
<sys/time.h>	<sys/timeb.h>	<sys/times.h>
<sys/types.h>	<sys/uio.h>	<sys/un.h>
<sys/utsname.h>	<sys/wait.h>	<tar.h>
<termios.h>	<tgmath.h>	<time.h>
<trace.h>	<ucontext.h>	<ulimit.h>
<unistd.h>	<utime.h>	<utmpx.h>
<wchar.h>	<wctype.h>	<wordexp.h>

## C.2 <array.h>

Defines namespace `Array`, implementing utility functions on arrays.

```
void qsort(cmpfn_t<'a','r','r'>,'a ?'r x,int len);
```

`qsort(cmp,x,len)` sorts the first `len` elements of array `x` into ascending order (according to the comparison function `cmp`) by the Quick-Sort algorithm. `cmp(a,b)` should return a number less than, equal to,

or greater than 0 according to whether a is less than, equal to, or greater than b. `qsort` throws `Core::InvalidArg("Array::qsort")` if `len` is negative or specifies a segment outside the bounds of `x`.

`qsort` is not a stable sort.

```
void msort(cmpfn_t<'a','H','H>,'a ?x,int len);
```

`msort(cmp,x,len)` sorts the first `len` elements of array `x` into ascending order (according to the comparison function `cmp`), by the Merge-Sort algorithm. `msort` throws `Core::InvalidArg("Array::msort")` if `len` is negative or specifies a segment outside the bounds of `x`.

`msort` is a stable sort.

```
'a ?from_list(List::list_t<'a> l);
```

`from_list(l)` returns a heap-allocated array with the same elements as the list `l`.

```
List::list_t<'a> to_list('a ?x);
```

`to_list(x)` returns a new heap-allocated list with the same elements as the array `x`.

```
'a ?copy('a ?x);
```

`copy(x)` returns a fresh copy of array `x`, allocated on the heap.

```
'b ?map('b (@f)('a),'a ?x);
```

`map(f,x)` applies `f` to each element of `x`, returning the results in a new heap-allocated array.

```
'b ?map_c('b (@f)('c,'a),'c env,'a ?x);
```

`map_c(f,env,x)` is like `map(f,x)` except that `f` requires a closure `env` as its first argument.

```
void imp_map('a (@f)('a),'a ?x);
```

`imp_map(f,x)` replaces each element `xi` of `x` with `f(xi)`.

```
void imp_map_c('a (@f)('b,'a),'b env,'a ?x);
```

`imp_map_c` is a version of `imp_map` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
datatype exn{
  Array_mismatch
};
```

Array\_mismatch is thrown when two arrays don't have the same length.

```
'c ?map2('c (@f)('a, 'b), 'a ?x, 'b ?y);
```

If *x* has elements *x*<sub>1</sub> through *x*<sub>*n*</sub>, and *y* has elements *y*<sub>1</sub> through *y*<sub>*n*</sub>, then `map2(f, x, y)` returns a new heap-allocated array with elements `f(x1, y1)` through `f(xn, yn)`. If *x* and *y* don't have the same number of elements, Array\_mismatch is thrown.

```
void app('b (@f)('a), 'a ?'r x);
```

`app(f, x)` applies *f* to each element of *x*, discarding the results. Note that *f* must not return void.

```
void app_c('c (@f)('a, 'b), 'a env, 'b ?x);
```

`app_c(f, env, x)` is like `app(f, x)`, except that *f* requires a closure *env* as its first argument.

```
void iter(void (@f)('a), 'a ?x);
```

`iter(f, x)` is like `app(f, x)`, except that *f* returns void.

```
void iter_c(void (@f)('b, 'a), 'b env, 'a ?x);
```

`iter_c(f, env, x)` is like `app_c(f, env, x)` except that *f* returns void.

```
void app2('c (@f)('a, 'b), 'a ?x, 'b ?y);
```

If *x* has elements *x*<sub>1</sub> through *x*<sub>*n*</sub>, and *y* has elements *y*<sub>1</sub> through *y*<sub>*n*</sub>, then `app2(f, x, y)` performs `f(x1, y1)` through `f(xn, yn)` and discards the results. If *x* and *y* don't have the same number of elements, Array\_mismatch is thrown.

```
void app2_c('d (@f)('a, 'b, 'c), 'a env, 'b ?x, 'c ?y);
```

`app2_c` is a version of `app` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
void iter2(void (@f)('a,'b),'a ?x,'b ?y);
```

iter2 is a version of app2 where the function returns void.

```
void iter2_c(void (@f)('a,'b,'c),'a env,'b ?x,'c ?y);
```

iter2\_c is a version of app2\_c where the function returns void.

```
'a fold_left('a (@f)('a,'b),'a accum,'b ?x);
```

If x has elements x1 through xn, then fold\_left(f,accum,x) returns f(f(...(f(x2,f(x1,accum))),xn-1),xn).

```
'a fold_left_c('a (@f)('c,'a,'b),'c env,'a accum,'b ?x);
```

fold\_left\_c is a version of fold\_left where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
'b fold_right('b (@f)('a,'b),'a ?x,'b accum);
```

If x has elements x1 through xn, then fold\_right(f,accum,x) returns f(x1,f(x2,...,f(xn-1,f(xn,a))...)).

```
'b fold_right_c('b (@f)('c,'a,'b),'c env,'a ?x,'b accum);
```

fold\_right\_c is a version of fold\_right where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
'a ?rev_copy('a ?x);
```

rev\_copy(x) returns a new heap-allocated array whose elements are the elements of x in reverse order.

```
void imp_rev('a ?x);
```

imp\_rev(x) reverses the elements of array x.

```
bool forall(bool (@pred)('a),'a ?x);
```

forall(pred,x) returns true if pred returns true when applied to every element of x, and returns false otherwise.

```
bool forall_c(bool (@pred)('a,'b),'a env,'b ?x);
```

forall\_c is a version of forall where the predicate argument requires a closure as its first argument.

`bool exists(bool (@pred)('a), 'a ?x);`

`exists(pred,x)` returns true if `pred` returns true when applied to some element of `x`, and returns false otherwise.

`bool exists_c(bool (@pred)('a,'b), 'a env, 'b ?x);`

`exists_c` is a version of `exists` where the predicate argument requires a closure as its first argument.

`$('a,'b) ?zip('a ?'r1 x, 'b ?y);`

If `x` has elements `x1` through `xn`, and `y` has elements `y1` through `yn`, then `zip(x,y)` returns a new heap-allocated array with elements `$(x1,y1)` through `$(xn,yn)`. If `x` and `y` don't have the same number of elements, `Array_mismatch` is thrown.

`$('a ?, 'b ?) split($('a,'b) ?x);`

If `x` has elements `$(a1,b1)` through `$(an,bn)`, then `split(x)` returns a pair of new heap-allocated arrays with elements `a1` through `an`, and `b1` through `bn`.

`bool memq('a ?l, 'a x);`

`memq(l,x)` returns true if `x` is == an element of array `l`, and returns false otherwise.

`bool mem(int (@cmp)('a,'a), 'a ?l, 'a x);`

`mem(cmp,l,x)` is like `memq(l,x)` except that the comparison function `cmp` is used to determine if `x` is an element of `l`. `cmp(a,b)` should return 0 if `a` is equal to `b`, and return a non-zero number otherwise.

`'a ?extract('a ?x,int start,int *len_opt);`

`extract(x,start,len_opt)` returns a new array whose elements are the elements of `x` beginning at index `start`, and continuing to the end of `x` if `len_opt` is NULL; if `len_opt` points to an integer `n`, then `n` elements are extracted. If `n<0` or there are less than `n` elements in `x` starting at `start`, then `Core::InvalidArg("Array::extract")` is thrown.

### C.3 <bitvec.h>

Defines namespace Bitvec, which implements bit vectors. Bit vectors are useful for representing sets of numbers from 0 to n, where n is not too large.

```
typedef int ?'r bitvec_t<'r>;
```

bitvec\_t is the type of bit vectors.

```
bitvec_t new_empty(int);
```

new\_empty(n) returns a bit vector containing n bits, all set to 0.

```
bitvec_t new_full(int);
```

new\_full(n) returns a bit vector containing n bits, all set to 1.

```
bitvec_t new_copy(bitvec_t);
```

new\_copy(v) returns a copy of bit vector v.

```
bool get(bitvec_t,int);
```

get(v,n) returns the nth bit of v.

```
void set(bitvec_t,int);
```

set(v,n) sets the nth bit of v to 1.

```
void clear(bitvec_t,int);
```

clear(v,n) sets the nth bit of v to 0.

```
bool get_and_set(bitvec_t,int);
```

get\_and\_set(v,n) sets the nth bit of v to 1, and returns its value before the set.

```
void clear_all(bitvec_t);
```

clear\_all(v) sets every bit in v to 0.

```
void set_all(bitvec_t);
```

set\_all(v) sets every bit in v to 1.

```

bool all_set(bitvec_t bvec, int sz);
    all_set(v) returns true if every bit in v is set to 1, and returns false
    otherwise.

void union_two(bitvec_t dest, bitvec_t src1, bitvec_t src2);
    union_two(dest, src1, src2) sets dest to be the union of src1
    and src2: a bit of dest is 1 if either of the corresponding bits of src1
    or src2 is 1, and is 0 otherwise.

void intersect_two(bitvec_t dest, bitvec_t src1, bitvec_t src2);
    intersect_two(dest, src1, src2) sets dest to be the intersec-
    tion of src1 and src2: a bit of dest is 1 if both of the corresponding
    bits of src1 and src2 are 1, and is 0 otherwise.

void diff_two(bitvec_t dest, bitvec_t src1, bitvec_t src2);
    diff_two(dest, src1, src2) sets dest to be the difference of src1
    and src2: a bit of dest is 1 if the corresponding bit of src1 is 1, and
    the corresponding bit of src2 is 0; and is 0 otherwise.

bool compare_two(bitvec_t src1, bitvec_t src2);
    compare_two(src1, src2) returns true if src1 and src2 are equal,
    and returns false otherwise.

```

## C.4 <buffer.h>

Defines namespace Buffer, which implements extensible character arrays. It was ported from Objective Caml.

```
typedef struct t @T;
```

T is the type of buffers.

```
T create(unsigned int n);
```

create(n) returns a fresh buffer, initially empty. n is the initial size of an internal character array that holds the buffer's contents. The internal array grows when more than n character have been stored in the buffer; it shrinks back to the initial size when reset is called. If n is negative, no exception is thrown; a buffer with a small amount of internal storage is returned instead.



`mstring_t contents(T);`

`contents(b)` heap allocates and returns a string whose contents are the contents of buffer `b`.

`size_t length(T);`

`length(b)` returns the number of characters in buffer `b`.

`void clear(T);`

`clear(b)` makes `b` have zero characters. Internal storage is not released.

`void reset(T);`

`reset(b)` sets the number of characters in `b` to zero, and sets the internal storage to the initial string. This means that any storage used to grow the buffer since the last create or reset can be reclaimed by the garbage collector.

`void add_char(T, char);`

`add_char(b, c)` appends character `c` to the end of `b`.

`void add_substring(T, string_t, int offset, int len);`

`add_substring(b, s, ofs, len)` takes `len` characters starting at offset `ofs` in string `s` and appends them to the end of `b`. If `ofs` and `len` do not specify a valid substring of `s`, then the function throws `InvalidArg("Buffer::add_substring")`. Note, the substring specified by `offset` and `len` may contain NUL (0) characters; in any case, the entire substring is appended to `b`, not just the substring up to the first NUL character.

`void add_string(T, string_t);`

`add_string(b, s)` appends the string `s` to the end of `b`.

`void add_buffer(T buf_dest, T buf_source);`

`add_buffer(b1, b2)` appends the current contents of `b2` to the end of `b1`. `b2` is not modified.

## C.5 <core.h>

The file <core.h> defines some types and functions outside of any namespace, and also defines a namespace Core.

The following declarations are made outside of any namespace.

```
typedef const char ?@nozero term 'r string_t<'r>;
```

A `string_t<'r>` is a constant array of characters allocated in region `'r`.

```
typedef char ?@nozero term 'r mstring_t<'r>;
```

An `mstring_t<'r>` is a non-const (mutable) array of characters allocated in region `'r`.

```
typedef string_t<'r1> @'r2 stringptr_t<'r1, 'r2>;
```

A `stringptr_t<'r1, 'r2>` is used when a “boxed” string is needed, for example, you can have a list of string pointers, but not a list of strings.

```
typedef mstring_t<'r1> @'r2 mstringptr_t<'r1, 'r2>;
```

`mstringptr_t` is the mutable version of `stringptr_t`.

```
typedef char *@nozero term 'r Cbuffer_t<'r>;
```

`Cbuffer_t` is a possibly-NULL, non-zero-terminated C buffer

```
typedef char @@nozero term 'r CbufferNN_t<'r>;
```

`CbufferNN_t` is a non-NULL, non-zero-terminated C buffer

```
typedef const char ?@nozero term 'r buffer_t<'r>;
```

`buffer_t` is a non-zero-terminated dynamically sized buffer

```
typedef int bool;
```

In Cyclone, we use `bool` as a synonym for `int`. We also define macros `true` and `false`, which are 1 and 0, respectively.

The rest of the declarations are in namespace Core.

```
struct NewRegion<'r2::R>{<'r1::R>
  dynregion_t<'r1,'r2> dynregion;
};
```

The `NewRegion` struct is used to return a new dynamic region. The region is allocated as a sub-region of `r2`.

```
typedef tag_t<valueof_t(sizeof('a'))> sizeof_t<'a>;
sizeof_typ<T> is the singleton type of sizeof(T).
```

```
struct Opt<'a>{
  'a v;
};
```

A struct `Opt` is a cell with a single field, `v` (for value).

```
typedef struct Opt<'a> *'r opt_t<'a,'r>;
```

An `opt_t` is a pointer to a struct `Opt`. An `opt_t` can be used to pass an optional value to a function, or return an optional result. For example, to return no result, return `NULL`; to return a result `x`, return `new Opt(x)`.

Another way to return an option result of type `t` would be to return a pointer to `t`. The `opt_t` type is useful primarily when porting Objective Caml code, which has a corresponding type.

```
opt_t<'b,'H> opt_map('b (@f)('a),opt_t<'a,'r> x);
```

`opt_map(f,x)` applies `f` to the value contained in option `x`, if any, and returns the result as an option; if `x` is `NULL`, `opt_map(f,x)` returns `NULL`.

```
mstring_t<'H> new_string(unsigned int);
```

`new_string(n)` allocates space for `n` characters on the heap and returns a pointer to the space. All of the characters are set to `NUL` (0).

```
mstring_t<'r> rnew_string(region_t<'r>,unsigned int);
```

`rnew_string(r,n)` allocates space for `n` characters in the region with handle `r`, and returns a pointer to the space. All of the characters are set to `NUL` (0).

```
bool true_f(`a);
```

`true_f` is the constant true function: `true_f(x)` returns true regardless of the value of `x`.

```
bool false_f(`a);
```

`false_f` is the constant false function.

```
`a fst($(`a`,`b`) @);
```

`fst(x)` returns the first element of the pair pointed to by `x`.

```
`b snd($(`a`,`b`) @);
```

`snd(x)` returns the second element of the pair pointed to by `x`.

```
`c third($(`a`,`b`,`c`) @);
```

`third(x)` returns the third element of the triple pointed to by `x`.

```
`a identity(`a);
```

`identity` is the identity function: `identity(x)` returns `x`.

```
int intcmp(int,int);
```

`intcmp` is a comparison function on integers: `intcmp(i1,i2)` returns a number less than, equal to, or greater than 0 according to whether `i1` is less than, equal to, or greater than `i2`.

```
int charcmp(char,char);
```

`charcmp` is a comparison function on `char`.

```
int ptrcmp(`a @`r ,`a @`r );
```

`ptrcmp` is a comparison function on pointers.

```
int nptrcmp(`a *`r ,`a *`r );
```

`nptrcmp` is a comparison function on nullable pointers.

```
datatype exn{  
  Invalid_argument(string_t)  
};
```

`Invalid_argument` is an exception thrown by library functions when one of their arguments is inappropriate.

```
datatype exn{
  Failure(string_t)
};
```

Failure is an exception that's thrown by library functions when they encounter an unexpected error.

```
datatype exn{
  Impossible(string_t)
};
```

The Impossible exception is thrown when a supposedly impossible situation occurs (whether in a library or in your own code). For example, you might throw Impossible if an assertion fails.

```
datatype exn{
  Not_found
};
```

The Not\_found exception is thrown by search functions to indicate failure. For example, a function that looks up an entry in a table can throw Not\_found if the entry is not found.

```
region_t<'H> heap_region;
```

heap\_region is the region handle of the heap.

```
region_t<'U> unique_region;
```

unique\_region is the region handle of the unique pointer region.

```
void ufree('a ?'U ptr) __attribute__((noliveunique(1)));
```

ufree frees a unique pointer.

```
region_t<'RC> refcnt_region;
```

refcnt\_region is the region handle of the reference-counted region. Data allocated in this region contains an additional reference count for managing aliases.

```
$(int, 'a ?'RC ) refptr_count('a ?'RC ptr);
```

refptr\_count(p) returns the current reference count for p (always ≥ 1) and p itself.

```
$('a ?'RC , 'a ?'RC ) alias_refptr('a ?'RC ptr);
```

`alias_refptr(p)` returns the original pointer `p` and an alias to it, and increments the reference count by 1.

```
void drop_refptr('a ?'RC ptr) __attribute__((noliveunique(1)));
```

`free_refptr(p)` decrements the reference count on `p` by 1. If the reference count goes to 0, it frees `p`. This will not recursively decrement reference counts to embedded pointers, meaning that those pointers will have to get GC'ed if `p` ends up being freed.

```
struct NewRegion<'r2> rnew_dynregion(region_t<'r2>,
                                     const char @@nozeroterm file,
                                     int lineno);
```

A call to `rnew_dynregion(r2)` returns a new dynamic region allocated within `r2`.

```
struct NewRegion _new_dynregion(const char @@nozeroterm file,
                                  int lineno);
```

A call to `new_dynregion()` returns a new dynamic region allocated in the heap.

```
datatype exn{
  Open_Region
};
```

The `Open_Region` exception is thrown when one attempts to open a dynamic region that is either already open or has been freed.

```
datatype exn{
  Free_Region
};
```

The `Free_Region` exception is thrown when one attempts to free a dynamic region that is either open or has already been freed.

```
void free_dynregion(dynregion_t<'r1, 'r2>);
```

A call to `free_dynregion(d)` attempts to free the storage associated with the dynamic region handle `d`. If `d` has been opened or `d` has already been freed, then the exception `Free_Region` is thrown.

```
bool try_free_dynregion(dynregion_t<'r1','r2>);
```

A call to `try_free_dynregion(d)` attempts to free the storage associated with the dynamic region handle `d`. If `d` has been opened or `d` has already been freed, then it returns 0, and otherwise returns 1 upon success.

```
'a ?'r mkfat('a @{sizeof('n)}'r arr,Core::sizeof_t<'a> s,  
              tag_t<'n> n);
```

`mkfat` can be used to convert a thin pointer (`@`) of elements of type `'a` to a fat pointer (`?`). It requires that you pass in the size of the element type, as well as the number of elements.

```
unsigned int arr_prevsize('a ?,sizeof_t<'a>);
```

`arr_prevsize(p,sz)` returns the buffer space available preceding the pointer `p` in the dynamic array `p` points into. `sz` is the size of the elements in the array returned by `sizeof`.

## C.6 <dict.h>

Defines namespace `Dict`, which implements dictionaries: mappings from keys to values. The dictionaries are implemented functionally: adding a mapping to an existing dictionary produces a new dictionary, without affecting the existing dictionary. To enable an efficient implementation, you are required to provide a total order on keys (a comparison function).

We follow the conventions of the Objective Caml `Dict` library as much as possible.

Namespace `Dict` implements a superset of namespace `SlowDict`, except that `delete_present` is not supported.

```
typedef struct Dict<'a','b','r> dict_t<'a','b','r>;
```

A value of type `dict_t<'a','b','r>` is a dictionary that maps keys of type `'a` to values of type `'b`; the dictionary datatypes live in region `'r`.

```
datatype exn{  
  Present  
};
```

`Present` is thrown when a key is present but not expected.

```
datatype exn{
  Absent
};
```

Absent is thrown when a key is absent but should be present.

```
dict_t<'a, 'b> empty(int (@cmp)('a, 'a));
```

`empty(cmp)` returns an empty dictionary, allocated on the heap. `cmp` should be a comparison function on keys: `cmp(k1, k2)` should return a number less than, equal to, or greater than 0 according to whether `k1` is less than, equal to, or greater than `k2` in the ordering on keys.

```
dict_t<'a, 'b, 'r> rempty(region_t<'r>, int (@cmp)('a, 'a));
```

`rempty(r, cmp)` is like `empty(cmp)` except that the dictionary is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
dict_t<'a, 'b, 'r> rshare(region_t<'r>, dict_t<'a, 'b, 'r2>:@region({ 'r2}))
```

`rshare(r, d)` creates a virtual copy in region `'r` of the dictionary `d` that lives in region `'r2`. The internal data structures of the new dictionary share with the old one.

```
bool is_empty(dict_t d);
```

`is_empty(d)` returns true if `d` is empty, and returns false otherwise.

```
int cardinality(dict_t d);
```

`cardinality(d)` returns the number of keys in the dictionary.

```
bool member(dict_t<'a> d, 'a k);
```

`member(d, k)` returns true if `k` is mapped to some value in `d`, and returns false otherwise.

```
dict_t<'a, 'b, 'r> insert(dict_t<'a, 'b, 'r> d, 'a k, 'b v);
```

`insert(d, k, v)` returns a dictionary with the same mappings as `d`, except that `k` is mapped to `v`. The dictionary `d` is not modified.



```
dict_t<'a','b','r> insert_new(dict_t<'a','b','r> d,'a k,
                               'b v);
```

`insert_new(d,k,v)` is like `insert(d,k,v)`, except that it throws `Present` if `k` is already mapped to some value in `d`.

```
dict_t<'a','b','r> inserts(dict_t<'a','b','r> d,list_t<$( 'a,
                                                                'b) @> l);
```

`inserts(d,l)` inserts each key, value pair into `d`, returning the resulting dictionary.

```
dict_t<'a','b> singleton(int (@cmp)('a','a'),'a k,'b v);
```

`singleton(cmp,k,v)` returns a new heap-allocated dictionary with a single mapping, from `k` to `v`.

```
dict_t<'a','b','r> rsingleton(region_t<'r>,int (@cmp)('a,
                                                                'a),
                               'a k,'b v);
```

`rsingleton(r,cmp,k,v)` is like `singleton(cmp,k,v)`, except the resulting dictionary is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
'b lookup(dict_t<'a','b> d,'a k);
```

`lookup(d,k)` returns a pointer to the value associated with key `k` in `d`, or throws `Absent` if `k` is not mapped to any value.

```
'b lookup_other(dict_t<'a','b','r> d,int (@cmp)('c','a),
                  'c k);
```

`lookup_other(d,cmp,k)` returns a pointer to the value associated with key `k` in `d`, or throws `Absent` if `k` is not mapped to any value. The comparison function associated with the dictionary is ignored and instead, the `cmp` argument is used. Note that `cmp` must respect the same ordering constraints as the dictionary's built-in comparison in order to succeed. This is useful when the dictionary has keys that are pointers into one region, but you want to look up with a key that is a pointer into another region.

```
'b *'r lookup_opt(dict_t<'a','b','r> d,'a k);
```

`lookup_opt(d,k)` returns `NULL` if `k` is not mapped to any value in `d`,

and returns a non-NULL, heap-allocated option containing the value  $k$  is mapped to in  $d$  otherwise.

```
bool lookup_bool(dict_t<'a,'b> d,'a k,'b @ans);
```

If  $d$  maps  $k$  to a value, then `lookup_bool(d,k,ans)` assigns that value to  $*ans$  and returns true; otherwise, it returns false.

```
'c fold('c (@f)('a,'b,'c),dict_t<'a,'b> d,'c accum);
```

If  $d$  has keys  $k_1$  through  $k_n$  mapping to values  $v_1$  through  $v_n$ , then `fold(f,d,accum)` returns  $f(k_1,v_1,\dots,f(k_n,v_n,accum)\dots)$ .

```
'c fold_c('c (@f)('d,'a,'b,'c),'d env,dict_t<'a,'b> d,'c accum);
```

`fold_c(f,env,d,accum)` is like `fold(f,d,accum)` except that  $f$  takes closure  $env$  as its first argument.

```
void app('c (@f)('a,'b),dict_t<'a,'b> d);
```

`app(f,d)` applies  $f$  to every key/value pair in  $d$ ; the results of the applications are discarded. Note that  $f$  cannot return void.

```
void app_c('c (@f)('d,'a,'b),'d env,dict_t<'a,'b> d);
```

`app_c(f,env,d)` is like `app(f,d)` except that  $f$  takes closure  $env$  as its first argument.

```
void iter(void (@f)('a,'b),dict_t<'a,'b> d);
```

`iter(f,d)` is like `app(f,d)` except that  $f$  returns void.

```
void iter_c(void (@f)('c,'a,'b),'c env,dict_t<'a,'b> d);
```

`iter_c(f,env,d)` is like `app_c(f,env,d)` except that  $f$  returns void.

```
void iter2(void (@f)('b,'b),dict_t<'a,'b> d1,dict_t<'a,'b> d2);
```

For every key  $k$  in the domain of both  $d_1$  and  $d_2$ , `iter2(f,d1,d2)` performs  $f(\text{lookup}(d_1,k), \text{lookup}(d_2,k))$ . If there is any key present in  $d_1$  but not  $d_2$ , then `Absent` is thrown.

```
void iter2_c(void (@f)('c,'b,'b),'c env,dict_t<'a,'b> d1,
             dict_t<'a,'b> d2);
```

`iter2_c` is like `iter` except that `f` takes a closure as its first argument.

```
'c fold2_c('c (@f)('d,'a,'b1,'b2,'c),'d env,dict_t<'a,
                                                    'b1> d1,
            dict_t<'a,'b2> d2,'c accum);
```

If `k1` through `kn` are the keys of `d1`, then `fold2_c(f,env,d1,d2,accum)`

returns `f(env,k1,lookup(k1,d1),lookup(k1,d2), ... f(env,kn,lookup(kn,`

If there is any key present in `d1` but not `d2`, then `Absent` is thrown.

```
dict_t<'a,'b,'r> rcopy(region_t<'r>,dict_t<'a,'b>);
```

`rcopy(r,d)` returns a copy of `d`, newly allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
dict_t<'a,'b> copy(dict_t<'a,'b>);
```

`copy(r,d)` returns a copy of `d`, newly allocated on the heap.

```
dict_t<'a,'c> map('c (@f)('b),dict_t<'a,'b> d);
```

`map(f,d)` applies `f` to each value in `d`, and returns a new dictionary with the results as values: for every binding of a key `k` to a value `v` in `d`, the result binds `k` to `f(v)`. The returned dictionary is allocated on the heap.

```
dict_t<'a,'c,'r> rmap(region_t<'r>,'c (@f)('b),dict_t<'a,
                                                    'b> d);
```

`rmap(r,f,d)` is like `map(f,d)`, except the resulting dictionary is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
dict_t<'a,'c> map_c('c (@f)('d,'b),'d env,dict_t<'a,
                                                    'b> d);
```

`map_c(f,env,d)` is like `map(f,d)` except that `f` takes `env` as its first argument.

```
dict_t<'a,'c,'r> rmap_c(region_t<'r>,'c (@f)('d,'b),
                        'd env,dict_t<'a,'b> d);
```

`rmap_c(r,f,env,d)` is like `map_c(f,env,d)` except that the resulting dictionary is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
dict_t<'a','b','r> union_two_c('b (@f)('c','a','b','b'),'c env,
                                dict_t<'a','b','r> d1,dict_t<'a,
                                    'b,
                                    'r> d2);
```

`union_two_c(f,env,d1,d2)` returns a new dictionary with a binding for every key in `d1` or `d2`. If a key appears in both `d1` and `d2`, its value in the result is obtained by applying `f` to the two values, the key, and `env`. Note that the resulting dictionary is allocated in the same region as `d2`. (We don't use `union` as the name of the function, because `union` is a keyword in Cyclone.)

```
dict_t<'a','b','r> intersect('b (@f)('a','b','b'),dict_t<'a,
                                    'b,
                                    'r> d1,
                                dict_t<'a','b','r> d2);
```

`intersect(f,d1,d2)` returns a new dictionary with a binding for every key in both `d1` and `d2`. For every key appearing in both `d1` and `d2`, its value in the result is obtained by applying `f` to the key and the two values. Note that the input dictionaries and result must be allocated in the same region.

```
dict_t<'a','b','r> intersect_c('b (@f)('c','a','b','b'),'c env,
                                dict_t<'a','b','r> d1,dict_t<'a,
                                    'b,
                                    'r> d2);
```

`intersect_c(f,env,d1,d2)` is like `intersect(f,d1,d2)`, except that `f` takes `env` as its first argument.

```
bool forall_c(bool (@f)('c','a','b'),'c env,dict_t<'a,
                                    'b> d);
```

`forall_c(f,env,d)` returns true if `f(env,k,v)` returns true for every key `k` and associated value `v` in `d`, and returns false otherwise.

```
bool forall_intersect(bool (@f)('a','b','b'),dict_t<'a,
                                    'b> d1,
                                dict_t<'a','b> d2);
```

`forall_intersect(f,d1,d2)` returns true if `f(k,v1,v2)` returns

true for every key  $k$  appearing in both  $d1$  and  $d2$ , where  $v1$  is the value of  $k$  in  $d1$ , and  $v2$  is the value of  $k$  in  $d2$ ; and it returns false otherwise.

```
$( 'a', 'b') @'r rchoose(region_t<'r>,dict_t<'a','b> d);
```

`rchoose(r,d)` returns a key/value pair from  $d$ , allocating the pair in region  $r$ ; if  $d$  is empty, `Absent` is thrown.

```
list_t<$( 'a', 'b') @> to_list(dict_t<'a','b> d);
```

`to_list(d)` returns a list of the key/value pairs in  $d$ , allocated on the heap.

```
list_t<$( 'a', 'b') @'r , 'r> rto_list(region_t<'r>,dict_t<'a,
                                     'b> d);
```

`rto_list(r,d)` is like `to_list(d)`, except that the resulting list is allocated in the region with handle  $r$ .

```
dict_t<'a','b> filter(bool (@f)('a','b'),dict_t<'a','b> d);
```

`filter(f,d)` returns a dictionary that has a binding of  $k$  to  $v$  for every binding of  $k$  to  $v$  in  $d$  such that `f(k,v)` returns true. The resulting dictionary is allocated on the heap.

```
dict_t<'a','b','r> rfilter(region_t<'r>,bool (@f)('a,
                                                'b),
                           dict_t<'a','b> d);
```

`rfilter(r,f,d)` is like `filter(f,d)`, except that the resulting dictionary is allocated in the region with handle  $r$ .

```
dict_t<'a','b> filter_c(bool (@f)('c','a','b'),'c env,dict_t<'a,
                                     'b> d);
```

`filter_c(f,env,d)` is like `filter(f,d)` except that  $f$  takes a closure `env` as its first argument.

```
dict_t<'a','b','r> rfilter_c(region_t<'r>,bool (@f)('c,
                                                'a,
                                                'b),
                             'c env,dict_t<'a','b> d);
```

`rfilter_c(r,f,env,d)` is like `filter_c(f,env,d)`, except that the resulting dictionary is allocated in the region with handle  $r$ .

```
dict_t<'a','b> difference(dict_t<'a','b> d1,dict_t<'a,
                                'b> d2);
```

`difference(d1,d2)` returns a dictionary that has a binding of `k` to `v` for every binding of `k` to `v` in `d1` where `k` is not in `d2`. (Note that the values of `d2` are not relevant to `difference(d1,d2)`.) The resulting dictionary is allocated on the heap.

```
dict_t<'a','b','r> rdifference(region_t<'r>,dict_t<'a,
                                'b> d1,
                                dict_t<'a','b> d2);
```

`rdifference(d1,d2)` is like `difference(d1,d2)`, except that the resulting dictionary is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
dict_t<'a','b> delete(dict_t<'a','b>,'a);
```

`delete(d,k)` returns a dictionary with the same bindings as `d`, except that any binding of `k` is removed. The resulting dictionary is allocated on the heap.

```
dict_t<'a','b','r> rdelete(region_t<'r>,dict_t<'a','b>,
                                'a);
```

`rdelete(r,d,k)` is like `delete(d,k)` except that the result is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
dict_t<'a','b','r> rdelete_same(dict_t<'a','b','r>,'a);
```

`rdelete_same(d,k)` is like `delete(d,k)`, except that the resulting dictionary is allocated in the same region as the input dictionary `d`. This can be faster than `delete(d,k)` because it avoids a copy when `k` is not a member of `d`.

```
Iter::iter_t<$( 'a','b'),'bd> make_iter(region_t<'r1> rgn,
                                dict_t<'a','b','r2> d:@region(region_t<'r1>,
                                'r2>
                                @region({ 'r1,
                                'r2,
```

`make_iter(s)` returns an iterator over the set `s`;  $O(\log n)$  space is allocated in `rgn` where `n` is the number of elements in `d`

## C.7 <filename.h>

Defines a namespace `Filename`, which implements some useful operations on file names that are represented as strings.

`mstring_t concat(string_t, string_t);`

Assuming that `s1` is a directory name and `s2` is a file name, `concat(s1, s2)` returns a new (heap-allocated) file name for the child `s2` of directory `s1`.

`mstring_t chop_extension(string_t);`

`chop_extension(s)` returns a copy of `s` with any file extension removed. A file extension is a period (‘.’) followed by a sequence of non-period characters. If `s` does not have a file extension, `chop_extension(s)` throws `Core::Invalid_argument("chop_extension")`.

`mstring_t dirname(string_t);`

`dirname(s)` returns the directory part of `s`. For example, if `s` is `"foo/bar/baz"`, `dirname(s)` returns `"foo/bar"`.

`mstring_t basename(string_t);`

`basename(s)` returns the file part of `s`. For example, if `s` is `"foo/bar/baz"`, `basename(s)` returns `"baz"`.

`bool check_suffix(string_t, string_t);`

`check_suffix(filename, suffix)` returns true if `filename` ends in `suffix`, and returns false otherwise.

`mstring_t gnuify(string_t);`

`gnuify(s)` forces `s` to follow Unix file name conventions: any Windows separator characters (backslashes) are converted to Unix separator characters (forward slashes).

## C.8 <fn.h>

Defines namespace `Fn`, which implements closures: a way to package up a function with some hidden data (an environment). Many of the library functions taking function arguments have versions for functions that require an explicit environment; the closures of namespace `Fn` are different,

they combine the function and environment, and the environment is hidden. They are useful when two functions need environments of different type, but you need them to have the same type; you can do this by hiding the environment from the type of the pair.

A value of type `fn_t<'arg, 'res, 'eff>` is a function and its closure; `'arg` is the argument type of the function, `'res` is the result type, and `'bd` is a region that `regions('arg)` outlive.

`fp2fn( f )` converts a function pointer to a closure.

```
fn_t<'a, 'c, 'bd> compose(fn_t<'a, 'b, 'bd> g, fn_t<'b, 'c,
                                'bd> f:@region(regions
```



```
fn_t<$( 'a, 'b) @, 'c, 'bd> uncurry(fn_t<'a, fn_t<'b, 'c,
                                     'bd>, 'bd> f:@region(region_t<'r> r,
```

`uncurry(f)` converts a closure that takes two arguments in sequence into a closure that takes the two arguments as a pair: if `x` points to a pair `$(x1,x2)`, then `apply(uncurry(f),x)` has the same effect as `apply(f,x1),x2)`.

```
List::list_t<'b> map_fn(fn_t<'a, 'b> f,List::list_t<'a> x);
```

`map_fn(f,x)` maps the closure `f` on the list `x`: if `x` has elements `x1` through `xn`, then `map_fn(f,x)` returns a new heap-allocated list with elements `apply(f,x1)` through `apply(f,xn)`.

## C.9 <hashtable.h>

Defines namespace `Hashtable`, which implements mappings from keys to values. These hash tables are imperative—values are added and deleted destructively. (Use namespace `Dict` or `SlowDict` if you need functional (non-destructive) mappings.) To enable an efficient implementation, you are required to provide a total order on keys (a comparison function).

```
typedef struct Table<'a, 'b, 'r> @'r table_t<'a, 'b, 'r>;
```

A `table_t<'a, 'b>` is a hash table with keys of type `'a` and values of type `'b`.

```
table_t<'a, 'b> create(int sz,int (@cmp)('a, 'a),int (@hash)('a));
```

`create(sz,cmp,hash)` returns a new hash table that starts out with `sz` buckets. `cmp` should be a comparison function on keys: `cmp(k1,k2)` should return a number less than, equal to, or greater than 0 according to whether `k1` is less than, equal to, or greater than `k2`. `hash` should be a hash function on keys. `cmp` and `hash` should satisfy the following property: if `cmp(k1,k2)` is 0, then `hash(k1)` must equal `hash(k2)`.

```
table_t<'a, 'b, 'r> rcreate(region_t<'r> r,int sz,int (@cmp)('a,
                                                                    'a),
                                                                    int (@hash)('a));
```

`rcreate(r,sz,cmp,hash)` is similar to `create` but allocates its result

in the region `r` instead of the heap.

```
void insert(table_t<'a','b> t, 'a key, 'b val);
```

`insert(t, key, val)` binds `key` to `value` in `t`.

```
'b lookup(table_t<'a','b> t, 'a key);
```

`lookup(t, key)` returns the value associated with `key` in `t`, or throws `Not_found` if there is no value associated with `key` in `t`.

```
'b *'r lookup_opt(table_t<'a','b','r> t, 'a key);
```

`lookup_opt(t, key)` returns a pointer to the value associated with `key` in `t`, or `NULL` if there is no value associated with `key`.

```
bool try_lookup(table_t<'a','b> t, 'a key, 'b @data);
```

`try_lookup(t, key, p)` tries to find the `key` in the table `t`. If successful, it sets `*p` to the value associated with `key` and returns `true`. If the `key` is not found, then `try_lookup` returns `false`.

```
void resize(table_t<'a','b> t);
```

`resize(t)` increases the size (number of buckets) in table `t`. `resize` is called automatically by functions like `insert` when the buckets of a hash table get large, however, it can also be called by the programmer explicitly.

```
void remove(table_t<'a','b> t, 'a key);
```

`remove(t, key)` removes the most recent binding of `key` from `t`; the next-most-recent binding of `key` (if any) is restored. If there is no value associated with `key` in `t`, `remove` returns silently.

```
int hash_string(string_t s);
```

`hash_string(s)` returns a hash of a string `s`. It is provided as a convenience for making hash tables mapping strings to values.

```
int hash_stringptr(stringptr_t p);
```

`hash_stringptr(p)` returns a hash of a string pointer `p`.

```
void iter(void (@f)('a,'b), table_t<'a','b> t);
```

`iter(f, t)` applies `f` to each `key/value` pair in `t`.

```
void iter_c(void (@f)('a,'b,'c),table_t<'a,'b> t,'c env);
    iter_c(f,t,e) calls f(k,v,e) for each key/value pair (k,v).
```

## C.10 <iter.h>

Defines namespace `Iter`, which implements imperative iterators over sets/sequences of elements.

```
typedef struct Iter<'a,'bd> iter_t<'a,'bd>;
```

A value of type `iter_t<'a,'bd>` is an iterator over elements of type `'a`.

```
bool next(iter_t<'a>,'a @);
```

If there is a next element, `next(i,p)` returns `true` and assigns the next element to `*p`. If there is no next element, `next(i,p)` returns `false` without assigning anything to `*p`.

## C.11 <list.h>

Defines namespace `List`, which implements generic lists and various operations over them, following the conventions of the Objective Caml list library as much as possible.

```
struct List<'a,'r>{
    'a hd;
    struct List<'a,'r> *'r tl;
};
```

A `struct List` is a memory cell with a head field containing an element and a tail field that points to the rest of the list. Such a structure is traditionally called a cons cell. Note that every element of the list must have the same type `'a`, and every cons cell in the list must be allocated in the same region `'r`.

```
typedef struct List<'a,'r> *'r list_t<'a,'r>;
```

A `list_t` is a possibly-NULL pointer to a `struct List`. Most of the functions in namespace `List` operate on values of type `list_t` rather than `struct List`. Note that a `list_t` can be empty (NULL) but a `struct List` cannot.

```
typedef struct List<'a,'r> @'r List_t<'a,'r>;
```

A `List_t` is a non-NULL pointer to a struct `List`. This is used much less often than `list_t`, however it may be useful when you want to emphasize that a list has at least one element.

```
list_t<'a> list(... 'a);
```

`list(x1,...,xn)` builds a heap-allocated list with elements `x1` through `xn`.

```
list_t<'a,'r> rlist(region_t<'r>,... 'a);
```

`rlist(r, x1,...,xn)` builds a list with elements `x1` through `xn`, allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
int length(list_t<'a> x);
```

`length(x)` returns the number of elements in list `x`.

```
'a hd(List_t<'a> x);
```

`hd(x)` returns the first element of list `x`.

```
list_t<'a,'r> tl(List_t<'a,'r> x);
```

`tl(x)` returns the tail of list `x`.

```
list_t<'a> copy(list_t<'a> x);
```

`copy(x)` returns a new heap-allocated copy of list `x`.

```
list_t<'a,'r> rcopy(region_t<'r>,list_t<'a> x);
```

`rcopy(r,x)` returns a new copy of list `x`, allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
list_t<'b> map('b (@f)('a),list_t<'a> x);
```

If `x` has elements `x1` through `xn`, then `map(f,x)` returns `list(f(x1),...,f(xn))`.

```
list_t<'b,'r> rmap(region_t<'r>,'b (@f)('a),list_t<'a> x);
```

If `x` has elements `x1` through `xn`, then `rmap(r,f,x)` returns `rlist(r,f(x1),...,f(xn))`.

```
list_t<'b> map_c('b (@f)('c,'a),'c env,list_t<'a> x);
```

`map_c` is a version of `map` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
list_t<'b', 'r> rmap_c(region_t<'r>, 'b (@f)('c, 'a), 'c env,
                        list_t<'a> x);
```

`rmap_c` is a version of `rmap` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
datatype exn{
  List_mismatch
};
```

`List_mismatch` is thrown when two lists don't have the same length.

```
list_t<'c> map2('c (@f)('a, 'b), list_t<'a> x, list_t<'b> y);
```

If `x` has elements `x1` through `xn`, and `y` has elements `y1` through `yn`, then `map2(f, x, y)` returns a new heap-allocated list with elements `f(x1, y1)` through `f(xn, yn)`. If `x` and `y` don't have the same number of elements, `List_mismatch` is thrown.

```
list_t<'c', 'r> rmap2(region_t<'r>, 'c (@f)('a, 'b), list_t<'a> x,
                      list_t<'b> y);
```

`rmap2(r, f, x, y)` is like `map2(f, x, y)`, except that the resulting list is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
void app('b (@f)('a), list_t<'a> x);
```

`app(f, x)` applies `f` to each element of `x`, discarding the results. Note that `f` must not return `void`.

```
void app_c('c (@f)('a, 'b), 'a, list_t<'b> x);
```

`app_c` is a version of `app` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
void app2('c (@f)('a, 'b), list_t<'a> x, list_t<'b> y);
```

If `x` has elements `x1` through `xn`, and `y` has elements `y1` through `yn`, then `app2(f, x, y)` performs `f(x1, y1)` through `f(xn, yn)` and discards the results. If `x` and `y` don't have the same number of elements, `List_mismatch` is thrown.

```
void app2_c('d (@f)('a, 'b, 'c), 'a env, list_t<'b> x, list_t<'c> y);
```

`app2_c` is a version of `app2` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
void iter(void (@f)('a),list_t<'a> x);
```

`iter(f,x)` is like `app(f,x)`, except that `f` returns void.

```
void iter_c(void (@f)('b,'a),'b env,list_t<'a> x);
```

`iter_c` is a version of `iter` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
void iter2(void (@f)('a,'b),list_t<'a> x,list_t<'b> y);
```

`iter2` is a version of `app2` where the function returns void.

```
void iter2_c(void (@f)('a,'b,'c),'a env,list_t<'b> x,  
             list_t<'c> y);
```

`iter2_c` is a version of `iter2` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
'a fold_left('a (@f)('a,'b),'a accum,list_t<'b> x);
```

If `x` has elements `x1` through `xn`, then `fold_left(f,accum,x)` returns `f(f(...(f(x2,f(x1,accum))),xn-1),xn)`.

```
'a fold_left_c('a (@f)('c,'a,'b),'c,'a accum,list_t<'b> x);
```

`fold_left_c` is a version of `fold_left` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
'b fold_right('b (@f)('a,'b),list_t<'a> x,'b accum);
```

If `x` has elements `x1` through `xn`, then `fold_right(f,accum,x)` returns `f(x1,f(x2,...,f(xn-1,f(xn,a))...))`.

```
'b fold_right_c('b (@f)('c,'a,'b),'c,list_t<'a> x,'b accum);
```

`fold_right_c` is a version of `fold_right` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
list_t<'a> revappend(list_t<'a,'r> x,list_t<'a,'H> y);
```

If `x` has elements `x1` through `xn`, `revappend(x,y)` returns a list that starts with elements `xn` through `x1`, then continues with `y`. Cons cells for the first `n` elements are newly-allocated on the heap, and `y` must be allocated on the heap.

```
list_t<'a','r> rrevappend(region_t<'r>,list_t<'a> x,
                           list_t<'a','r> y);
```

`rrevappend(r,x,y)` is like `revappend(x,y)`, except that `y` must be allocated in the region with handle `r`, and the result is allocated in the same region.

```
list_t<'a> rev(list_t<'a> x);
```

`rev(x)` returns a new heap-allocated list whose elements are the elements of `x` in reverse.

```
list_t<'a','r> rrev(region_t<'r>,list_t<'a> x);
```

`rrev(r,x)` is like `rev(x)`, except that the result is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
list_t<'a','r> imp_rev(list_t<'a','r> x);
```

`imp_rev(x)` imperatively reverses list `x` (the list is side-effected). Note that `imp_rev` returns a list. This is because the first cons cell of the result is the last cons cell of the input; a typical use is therefore `x = imp_rev(x)`.

```
list_t<'a> append(list_t<'a> x,list_t<'a','H> y);
```

If `x` has elements `x1` through `xn`, `append(x,y)` returns a list that starts with elements `x1` through `xn`, then continues with `y`. Cons cells for the first `n` elements are newly-allocated on the heap, and `y` must be allocated on the heap.

```
list_t<'a','r> rappend(region_t<'r>,list_t<'a> x,list_t<'a,
                                                                'r> y);
```

`rappend(r,x,y)` is like `append(x,y)`, except that `y` must be allocated in the region with handle `r`, and the result is allocated in the same region.

```
list_t<'a','r> imp_append(list_t<'a','r> x,list_t<'a,
                                                                'r> y);
```

`imp_append(x,y)` modifies `x` to append `y` to it, destructively. Note that `imp_append` returns a list. This is because `x` might be NULL, in which case, `imp_append(x,y)` returns `y`; so a typical use would be `x = imp_append(x,y)`.

```
list_t<'a> flatten(list_t<list_t<'a, 'H>> x);
```

In `flatten(x)`, `x` is a list of lists, and the result is a new heap-allocated list with elements from each list in `x`, in sequence. Note that `x` must be allocated on the heap.

```
list_t<'a, 'r> rflatten(region_t<'r>, list_t<list_t<'a, 'r>> x);
```

`rflatten(r, x)` is like `flatten(x)`, except that the result is allocated in the region with handle `r`, and each element of `x` must be allocated in `r`.

```
list_t<'a> merge_sort(int (@cmp)('a, 'a), list_t<'a> x);
```

`merge_sort(cmp, x)` returns a new heap-allocated list whose elements are the elements of `x` in ascending order (according to the comparison function `cmp`), by the MergeSort algorithm.

```
list_t<'a, 'r> rmerge_sort(region_t<'r>, int (@cmp)('a, 'a),  
                           list_t<'a> x);
```

`rmerge_sort(r, x)` is like `merge_sort(x)`, except that the result is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
list_t<'a, 'r> rimp_merge_sort(int (@cmp)('a, 'a), list_t<'a,  
                               'r> x);
```

`rimp_merge_sort` is an imperative version of `rmerge_sort`: the list is sorted in place. `rimp_merge_sort` returns a list because the first cons cell of the sorted list might be different from the first cons cell of the input list; a typical use is `x = rimp_merge_sort(cmp, x)`.

```
list_t<'a> merge(int (@cmp)('a, 'a), list_t<'a, 'H> x,  
                list_t<'a, 'H> y);
```

`merge(cmp, x, y)` returns the merge of two sorted lists, according to the `cmp` function.

```
list_t<'a, 'r3> rmerge(region_t<'r3>, int (@cmp)('a, 'a),  
                      list_t<'a> a, list_t<'a> b);
```

`rmerge(r, cmp, x, y)` is like `merge(cmp, x, y)`, except that `x`, `y`, and the result are allocated in the region with handle `r`.



```
list_t<'a','r> imp_merge(int (@cmp)('a','a'),list_t<'a,
                                'r> a,
                                list_t<'a','r> b);
```

`imp_merge` is an imperative version of `merge`.

```
datatype exn{
  Nth
};
```

`Nth` is thrown when `nth` doesn't have enough elements in the list.

```
'a nth(list_t<'a> x,int n);
```

If `x` has elements `x0` through `xm`, and  $0 \leq n \leq m$ , then `nth(x,n)` returns `xn`. If `n` is out of range, `Nth` is thrown. Note that the indexing is 0-based.

```
list_t<'a','r> nth_tail(list_t<'a','r> x,int i);
```

If `x` has elements `x0` through `xm`, and  $0 \leq n \leq m$ , then `nth(x,n)` returns the list with elements `xn` through `xm`. If `n` is out of range, `Nth` is thrown.

```
bool forall(bool (@pred)('a'),list_t<'a> x);
```

`forall(pred,x)` returns true if `pred` returns true when applied to every element of `x`, and returns false otherwise.

```
bool forall_c(bool (@pred)('a','b'),'a env,list_t<'b> x);
```

`forall_c` is a version of `forall` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
bool exists(bool (@pred)('a'),list_t<'a> x);
```

`exists(pred,x)` returns true if `pred` returns true when applied to some element of `x`, and returns false otherwise.

```
bool exists_c(bool (@pred)('a','b'),'a env,list_t<'b> x);
```

`exists_c` is a version of `exists` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
list_t<$( 'a', 'b') @, 'H> zip(list_t<'a> x, list_t<'b> y);
```

If  $x$  has elements  $x_1$  through  $x_n$ , and  $y$  has elements  $y_1$  through  $y_n$ , then  $\text{zip}(x, y)$  returns a new heap-allocated array with elements  $\&\$(x_1, y_1)$  through  $\&\$(x_n, y_n)$ . If  $x$  and  $y$  don't have the same number of elements, `List_mismatch` is thrown.

```
list_t<$( 'a', 'b') @'r2 , 'r1> rzip(region_t<'r1> r1, region_t<'r2> r2,
                                     list_t<'a> x, list_t<'b> y);
```

$\text{rzip}(r_1, r_2, x, y)$  is like  $\text{zip}(x, y)$ , except that the list returned is allocated in the region with handle  $r_1$ , and the pairs of that list are allocated in the region with handle  $r_2$ .

```
list_t<$( 'a', 'b', 'c') @, 'H> zip3(list_t<'a> x, list_t<'b> y,
                                     list_t<'c> z);
```

If  $x$  has elements  $x_1$  through  $x_n$ , and  $y$  has elements  $y_1$  through  $y_n$ , and  $z$  has elements  $z_1$  through  $z_n$ , then  $\text{zip3}(x, y, z)$  returns a new heap-allocated array with elements  $\&\$(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  through  $\&\$(x_n, y_n, z_n)$ . If  $x$  and  $y$  don't have the same number of elements, `List_mismatch` is thrown.

```
list_t<$( 'a', 'b', 'c') @'r2 , 'r1> rzip3(region_t<'r1> r1,
                                           region_t<'r2> r2,
                                           list_t<'a> x, list_t<'b> y,
                                           list_t<'c> z);
```

$\text{rzip3}(r_1, r_2, x, y, z)$  is like  $\text{zip3}(x, y, z)$ , except that the list returned is allocated in the region with handle  $r_1$ , and the pairs of that list are allocated in the region with handle  $r_2$ .

```
$(list_t<'a>, list_t<'b>) split(list_t<$( 'a', 'b') @> x);
```

If  $x$  has elements  $\&\$(a_1, b_1)$  through  $\&\$(a_n, b_n)$ , then  $\text{split}(x)$  returns a pair of new heap-allocated arrays with elements  $a_1$  through  $a_n$ , and  $b_1$  through  $b_n$ .

```
$(list_t<'a>, list_t<'b>, list_t<'c>) split3(list_t<$( 'a',
                                                    'b',
                                                    'c') @> x);
```

If  $x$  has elements  $\&\$(a_1, b_1, c_1)$  through  $\&\$(a_n, b_n, c_n)$ , then  $\text{split}(x)$

returns a triple of new heap-allocated arrays with elements a1 through an, and b1 through bn, and c1 through cn.

```
$(list_t<'a','r1>,list_t<'b','r2>) rsplit(region_t<'r1> r1,
                                           region_t<'r2> r2,
                                           list_t<$( 'a,
                                                         'b) @> x);
```

`rsplit(r1,r2,x)` is like `split(x)`, except that the first list returned is allocated in the region with handle `r1`, and the second list returned is allocated in the region with handle `r2`.

```
$(list_t<'a','r3>,list_t<'b','r4>,list_t<'c','r5>) rsplit3(region_t<'r3>
                                                           region_t<'r4>
                                                           region_t<'r5>
                                                           list_t<$( 'a,
                                                             'b,
                                                             'c) @>
```

`rsplit(r1,r2,r3,x)` is like `split3(x)`, except that the first list returned is allocated in the region with handle `r1`, the second list returned is allocated in the region with handle `r2`, and the third list returned is allocated in the region with handle `r3`.

```
bool memq(list_t<'a> l,'a x);
```

`memq(l,x)` returns true if `x` is == an element of list `l`, and returns false otherwise.

```
bool mem(int (@compare)('a,'a),list_t<'a> l,'a x);
```

`mem(cmp,l,x)` is like `memq(l,x)` except that the comparison function `cmp` is used to determine if `x` is an element of `l`. `cmp(a,b)` should return 0 if `a` is equal to `b`, and return a non-zero number otherwise.

```
'b assoc(list_t<$( 'a,'b) @> l,'a k);
```

An association list is a list of pairs where the first element of each pair is a key and the second element is a value; the association list is said to map keys to values. `assoc(l,k)` returns the first value paired with key `k` in association list `l`, or throws `Core::Not_found` if `k` is not paired with any value in `l`. `assoc` uses `==` to decide if `k` is a key in `l`.

```
'b assoc_cmp(int (@cmp)('a','c'),list_t<$('a','b') @> l,
               'c x);
```

`assoc_cmp(cmp, l, k)` is like `assoc(l, k)` except that the comparison function `cmp` is used to decide if `k` is a key in `l`. `cmp` should return 0 if two keys are equal, and non-zero otherwise.

```
bool mem_assoc(list_t<$('a','b') @> l, 'a x);
```

`mem_assoc(l, k)` returns true if `k` is a key in association list `l` (according to `==`).

```
bool mem_assoc_cmp(int (@cmp)('a','c'),list_t<$('a','b') @> l,
                   'c x);
```

Same as `mem_assoc`, but uses comparison function `cmp` rather than pointer equality `==`.

```
list_t<'a','r> delete(list_t<'a','r> l, 'a x);
```

`delete(l, k)` returns the list with the first occurrence of `x` removed from it, if `x` was in the list; otherwise raises `Core::Not_found`. Side-effects original list `l`.

```
list_t<'a','r> delete_cmp(int (@cmp)('a','a'),list_t<'a,
                           'r> l,
                           'a x);
```

`delete(l, k)` returns the list with the first `e` in the list such that `cmp(x, e) == 0`. If no such `e` exists, raises `Core::Not_found`. Side-effects original list `l`.

```
Core::opt_t<'c> check_unique(int (@cmp)('c','c'),list_t<'c> x);
```

`check_unique(cmp, x)` checks whether the sorted list `x` has duplicate elements, according to `cmp`. If there are any duplicates, one will be returned; otherwise, `NULL` is returned.

```
'a ?to_array(list_t<'a> x);
```

`to_array(x)` returns a new heap-allocated array with the same elements as list `x`.

```
'a ?'r rto_array(region_t<'r> r, list_t<'a> x);
```

`rto_array(r, x)` is like `to_array(x)`, except that the resulting array is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
list_t<'a> from_array('a ?arr);
```

`from_array(x)` returns a new heap-allocated list with the same elements as array `x`.

```
list_t<'a, 'r2> rfrom_array(region_t<'r2> r2, 'a ?arr);
```

`rfrom_array(r, x)` is like `from_array(x)`, except that the resulting list is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
int list_cmp(int (@cmp)('a, 'b), list_t<'a> l1, list_t<'b> l2);
```

`list_cmp(cmp, l1, l2)` is a comparison function on lists, parameterized by a comparison function `cmp` on list elements.

```
bool list_prefix(int (@cmp)('a, 'b), list_t<'a> l1, list_t<'b> l2);
```

`list_prefix(cmp, l1, l2)` returns true if `l1` is a prefix of `l2`, using `cmp` to compare the elements of `l1` and `l2`.

```
list_t<'a> filter(bool (@f)('a), list_t<'a> x);
```

`filter(f, x)` returns a new heap-allocated list whose elements are the elements of `x` on which `f` returns true, in order.

```
list_t<'a> filter_c(bool (@f)('b, 'a), 'b env, list_t<'a> x);
```

`filter_c` is a version of `filter` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

```
list_t<'a, 'r> rfilter(region_t<'r> r, bool (@f)('a),  
                      list_t<'a> x);
```

`rfilter_c(r, f, x)` is like `filter_c(f, x)`, except that the resulting list is allocated in the region with handle `r`.

```
list_t<'a, 'r> rfilter_c(region_t<'r> r, bool (@f)('b,  
                                                                'a),  
                        'b env, list_t<'a> x);
```

`rfilter_c` is a version of `rfilter` where the function argument requires a closure as its first argument.

## C.12 <pp.h>

Defines a namespace PP that has functions for implementing pretty printers. Internally, PP is an implementation of Kamin's version of Wadler's pretty printing combinators, with some extensions for doing hyperlinks in Tk text widgets.

All of the internal data structures used by PP are allocated on the heap.

```
typedef struct Doc @doc_t;
```

A value of type `doc_t` is a "document" that can be combined with other documents, formatted at different widths, converted to strings or files.

```
void file_of_doc(doc_t d,int w,FILE @f);
```

`file_of_doc(d,w,f)` formats `d` to width `w`, and prints the formatted output to `f`.

```
string_t string_of_doc(doc_t d,int w);
```

`string_of_doc(d,w)` formats `d` to width `w`, and returns the formatted output in a heap-allocated string.

```
$(string_t,list_t<$(int,int,int,string_t) @>) @string_and_links(doc_t d,int w,
```

`string_and_links(d,w)` formats `d` to width `w`, returns the formatted output in a heap-allocated string, and returns in addition a list of hyperlinks. Each hyperlink has the form `$(line,char,length,contents)`, where `line` and `char` give the line and character in the formatted output where the hyperlink starts, `length` gives the number of characters of the hyperlink, and `contents` is a string that the hyperlink should point to. The `line`, `char`, and `length` are exactly what is needed to create a hyperlink in a Tk text widget.

```
doc_t nil_doc();
```

`nil_doc()` returns an empty document.

```
doc_t blank_doc();
```

`blank_doc()` returns a document consisting of a single space character.

`doc_t line_doc();`

`line_doc()` returns a document consisting of a single line break.

`doc_t oline_doc();`

`oline_doc()` returns a document consisting of an optional line break; when the document is formatted, the pretty printer will decide whether to break the line.

`doc_t text(string_t<'H> s);`

`text(s)` returns a document containing exactly the string `s`.

`doc_t textptr(stringptr_t<'H> p);`

`textptr(p)` returns a documents containing exactly the string pointed to by `p`.

`doc_t text_width(string_t<'H> s,int w);`

`text_width(s,w)` returns a document containing exactly the string `s`, which is assumed to have `w` characters. This is useful when `s` contains markup character that don't take up space when printed, e.g., instructions for making text bold.

`doc_t hyperlink(string_t<'H> shrt,string_t<'H> full);`

`hyperlink(shrt,full)` returns a document that will be formatted as the string `shrt` linked to the string `full`.

`doc_t nest(int k,doc_t d);`

`nest(k,d)` returns a document that will be formatted like document `d`, but indented by `k` spaces.

`doc_t cat(... doc_t);`

`cat(d1, d2, ..., dn)` returns a document consisting of document `d1` followed by `d2`, and so on up to `dn`.

`doc_t cats(list_t<doc_t,'H> doclist);`

`cats(l)` returns a document containing all of the documents in list `l`, in order.

`doc_t cats_arr(doc_t ?docs);`

`cats_arr(a)` returns a document containing all of the documents in array `a`, in order.

`doc_t doc_union(doc_t d1, doc_t d2);`

`doc_union(d1, d2)` does ?? FIX.

`doc_t tab(doc_t d);`

`tab(d)` returns a document formatted like `d` but indented by a tab stop.

`doc_t seq(string_t<'H> sep, list_t<doc_t, 'H> l);`

`seq(sep, l)` returns a document consisting of each document of `l`, in sequence, with string `sep` between each adjacent element of `l`.

`doc_t ppseq(doc_t (@pp)('a), string_t<'H> sep, list_t<'a> l);`

`ppseq` is a more general form of `seq`: in `ppseq(pp, sep, l)`, `l` is a list of values to pretty print in sequence, `pp` is a function that knows how to pretty print a value, and `sep` is a string to print between each value.

`doc_t seq1(string_t<'H> sep, list_t<doc_t, 'H> l0);`

`seq1` is like `seq`, except that the resulting document has line breaks after each separator.

`doc_t ppseq1(doc_t (@pp)('a), string_t<'H> sep, list_t<'a> l);`

`ppseq1` is like `ppseq`, except that the resulting document has line breaks after each separator.

`doc_t group(string_t<'H> start, string_t<'H> stop, string_t<'H> sep, list_t<doc_t, 'H> l);`

`group(start, stop, sep, l)` is like `cat(text(start), seq(sep, l), text(stop))`.

`doc_t group1(string_t<'H> start, string_t<'H> stop, string_t<'H> sep, list_t<doc_t, 'H> l);`

`group1` is like `group` but a line break is inserted after each separator.



```
doc_t egroup(string_t<'H> start,string_t<'H> stop,string_t<'H> sep,
              list_t<doc_t,'H> l);
```

`egroup` is like `group`, except that the empty document is returned if the list is empty.

### C.13 <queue.h>

Defines namespace `Queue`, which implements generic imperative queues and various operations following the conventions of the Objective Caml queue library as much as possible.

```
typedef struct Queue<'a,'r> @'r queue_t<'a,'r>;
```

A value of type `queue_t<'a,'r>` is a first-in, first-out queue of elements of type `'a`; the queue data structures are allocated in region `'r`.

```
bool is_empty(queue_t<'a>);
```

`is_empty(q)` returns true if `q` contains no elements, and returns false otherwise.

```
queue_t<'a> create();
```

`create()` allocates a new, empty queue on the heap and returns it.

```
void add(queue_t<'a,'H> q,'a x);
```

`add(q,x)` adds `x` to the end of `q` (by side effect).

```
void radd(region_t<'r> r,queue_t<'a,'r> q,'a x);
```

`radd(r,q,x)` is like `add(q,x)` except that the queue lives in the region with handle `r`.

```
void push(queue_t<'a,'H> q,'a x);
```

`push(q,x)` adds `x` to the front of `q` (by side effect).

```
void rpush(region_t<'r> r,queue_t<'a,'r> q,'a x);
```

`rpush(r,q,x)` is like `push(q,x)` except that the queue lives in the region with handle `r`.

```
datatype exn{
  Empty
};
```

Empty is an exception raised by take and peek.

```
`a take(queue_t<'a>);
```

take(q) removes the element from the front on q and returns it; if q is empty, exception Empty is thrown.

```
`a peek(queue_t<'a>);
```

peek(q) returns the element at the front of q, without removing it from q. If q is empty, exception Empty is thrown.

```
void clear(queue_t<'a>);
```

clear(q) removes all elements from q.

```
int length(queue_t<'a>);
```

length(q) returns the number of elements in q.

```
void iter(void (@f)('a), queue_t<'a>);
```

iter(f, q) applies f to each element of q, from first to last. Note that f must return void.

```
void app('b (@f)('a), queue_t<'a>);
```

app(f, q) applies f to each element of q, from first to last. Note that f must return a value of kind M.

The following procedures are specialized to work with no-aliasable and/or unique pointers.

```
`a *`U take_match(region_t<'r> r, queue_t<'a *`U , 'r> q,
                  bool (@f)('b, 'a *`r2 ), 'b env);
```

take\_match(r, q, f, c) looks through the queue (starting from the front) and returns the element x for which f(x, c) returns true.

```
`a noalias_take(queue_t<'a> q, 'a null_elem);
```

noalias\_take(q) is as take, above, but works when the queue contains potentially-unique elements; the caller needs to supply a 'null' element to swap with the element in the first spot in the queue.

```
'a *`U ptr_take(queue_t<'a *`U > q);
```

`ptr_take(q)` is a wrapper for `noalias_take(q, NULL)`.

## C.14 <rope.h>

Defines namespace `Rope`, which implements character arrays that can be concatenated in constant time.

```
typedef struct Rope_node @rope_t;
```

A value of type `rope_t` is a character array that can be efficiently concatenated.

```
rope_t from_string(string_t<'H>);
```

`from_string(s)` returns a rope that has the same characters as string `s`. Note that `s` must be heap-allocated.

```
mstring_t to_string(rope_t);
```

`to_string(r)` returns a new, heap-allocated string with the same characters as rope `r`.

```
rope_t concat(rope_t, rope_t);
```

`concat(r1, r2)` returns a rope whose characters are the characters of `r1` followed by the characters of `r2`.

```
rope_t concata(rope_t ?);
```

`concata(a)` returns a rope that contains the concatenation of the characters in the array `a` of ropes.

```
rope_t concatl(List::list_t<rope_t>);
```

`concatl(l)` returns a rope that contains the concatenation of the characters in the list `l` of ropes.

```
unsigned int length(rope_t);
```

`length(r)` returns the number of characters in the rope `r`, up to but not including the first NUL character.

```
int cmp(rope_t,rope_t);
```

`cmp(r1,r2)` is a comparison function on ropes: it returns a number less than, equal to, or greater than 0 according to whether the character array of `r1` is lexicographically less than, equal to, or greater than the character array of `r2`.

## C.15 <set.h>

Defines namespace `Set`, which implements polymorphic, functional, finite sets over elements with a total order, following the conventions of the Objective Caml set library as much as possible. Sets can also be used imperatively, but choosing the `imp_` variations of functions, but unioning and intersecting imperative sets should be done with caution.

```
typedef struct Set<'a,'r> @'r set_t<'a,'r>;
```

A value of type `set_t<'a,'r>` is a set with elements of type `'a`. The data structures used to implement the set (not the elements of the set!) are in region `'r`.

The set creation functions require a comparison function as an argument. The comparison function should return a number less than, equal to, or greater than 0 according to whether its first argument is less than, equal to, or greater than its second argument.

```
set_t<'a> empty(int (@cmp)('a,'a));
```

`empty(cmp)` creates an empty set given comparison function `cmp`. The set is heap-allocated.

```
set_t<'a,'r> rempty(region_t<'r> r,int (@cmp)('a,'a));
```

`rempty(r,cmp)` creates an empty set in the region with handle `r`.

```
set_t<'a> singleton(int (@cmp)('a,'a),'a x);
```

`singleton(cmp,x)` creates a set on the heap with a single element, `x`.

```
set_t<'a> from_list(int (@cmp)('a,'a),list_t<'a> l);
```

`from_list(cmp,l)` creates a set on the heap; the elements of the set are the elements of the list `l`.

```

set_t<'a> insert(set_t<'a,'H> s,'a elt);
    insert(s,elt) returns a set containing all the elements of s, plus
    elt. The set s is not modified.

void imp_insert(set_t<'a,'H> s,'a elt);
    imp_insert(s,elt) returns modifies s to additionally contain elt,
    if not already present.

set_t<'a,'r> rinsert(region_t<'r> r,set_t<'a,'r> s,
                    'a elt);
    rinsert(r,s,elt) is like insert(s,elt), except that it works on
    sets allocated in the region with handle r.

void imp_rinsert(region_t<'r> r,set_t<'a,'r> s,'a elt);
    imp_rinsert(r,s,elt) is like imp_insert(s,elt), except that
    it works on sets allocated in the region with handle r.

set_t<'a> union_two(set_t<'a,'H> s1,set_t<'a,'H> s2);
    union_two(s1,s2) returns a set whose elements are the union of the
    elements of s1 and s2. (We use the name union_two because union
    is a keyword in Cyclone.)

set_t<'a> intersect(set_t<'a,'H> s1,set_t<'a,'H> s2);
    intersect(s1,s2) returns a set whose elements are the intersection
    of the elements of s1 and s2.

set_t<'a> diff(set_t<'a,'H> s1,set_t<'a,'H> s2);
    diff(s1,s2) returns a set whose elements are the elements of s1 that
    are not members of s2.

set_t<'a> delete(set_t<'a,'H> s,'a elt);
    delete(s,elt) returns a set whose elements are the elements of s,
    minus elt.

'a imp_delete(set_t<'a,'H> s,'a elt);
    imp_delete(s,elt) imperatively deletes elt from s, if present. re-
    turns the element (in case the element in the set differs from elt due
    to how the comparison function was specified).

```

```

int cardinality(set_t s);
    cardinality(s) returns the number of elements in the set s.

bool is_empty(set_t s);
    is_empty(s) returns true if s has no members, and returns false otherwise.

bool member(set_t<'a> s, 'a elt);
    member(s, elt) returns true if elt is a member of s, and returns false otherwise.

bool subset(set_t<'a> s1, set_t<'a> s2);
    subset(s1, s2) returns true if s1 is a subset of s2, and returns false otherwise.

int setcmp(set_t<'a> s1, set_t<'a> s2);
    setcmp(s1, s2) returns a number less than, equal to, or greater than 0 according to whether s1 is less than, equal to, or greater than s2 in the subset order.

bool equals(set_t<'a> s1, set_t<'a> s2);
    equals(s1, s2) returns true if s1 equals s2 have the same elements, and returns false otherwise.

'b fold('b (@f)('a, 'b), set_t<'a> s, 'b accum);
    If s is a set with elements x1 through xn, then fold(f, s, accum) returns f(x1, f(x2, f(..., f(xn, accum) ...))).

'b fold_c('b (@f)('c, 'a, 'b), 'c env, set_t<'a> s, 'b accum);
    fold_c(f, env, s, accum) is like fold, except that the function f takes an extra (closure) argument, env.

void app('b (@f)('a), set_t<'a> s);
    app(f, s) applies f to each element of s, in no particular order; the result of the application is discarded. Notice that f cannot return void; use iter instead of app for that.

void iter(void (@f)('a), set_t<'a> s);
    iter(f, s) is like app(f, s), except that f must return void.

```

```
void iter_c(void (@f)('c,'a),'c env,set_t<'a> s);
```

`iter_c` is a version of `iter` where the function argument `f` requires a closure.

```
datatype exn{
  Absent
};
```

Absent is an exception thrown by the `choose` function.

```
'a choose(set_t<'a> s);
```

`choose(s)` returns some element of the set `s`; if the set is empty, `choose` throws Absent.

```
Iter::iter_t<'a,'bd> make_iter(region_t<'r1> rgn,set_t<'a,
                                                                    'r2> s:@region
                                                                    @region
```

`make_iter(s)` returns an iterator over the set `s`; a constant amount of space is allocated in `rgn`.

## C.16 <slowdict.h>

Defines namespace `SlowDict`, which implements polymorphic, functional, finite maps whose domain must have a total order. We follow the conventions of the Objective Caml Dict library as much as possible.

The basic functionality is the same as `Dict`, except that `SlowDict` supports `delete_present`; but region support still needs to be added, and some functions are missing, as well.

```
typedef struct Dict<'a,'b> @dict_t<'a,'b>;
```

A value of type `dict_t<'a,'b>` is a dictionary that maps keys of type `'a` to values of type `'b`.

```
datatype exn{
  Present
};
```

Present is thrown when a key is present but not expected.

```
datatype exn{
  Absent
};
```

Absent is thrown when a key is absent but should be present.

```
dict_t<'a, 'b> empty(int (@cmp)('a, 'a));
```

`empty(cmp)` returns an empty dictionary, allocated on the heap. `cmp` should be a comparison function on keys: `cmp(k1, k2)` should return a number less than, equal to, or greater than 0 according to whether `k1` is less than, equal to, or greater than `k2` in the ordering on keys.

```
bool is_empty(dict_t d);
```

`is_empty(d)` returns true if `d` is empty, and returns false otherwise.

```
bool member(dict_t<'a> d, 'a k);
```

`member(d, k)` returns true if `k` is mapped to some value in `d`, and returns false otherwise.

```
dict_t<'a, 'b> insert(dict_t<'a, 'b> d, 'a k, 'b v);
```

`insert(d, k, v)` returns a dictionary with the same mappings as `d`, except that `k` is mapped to `v`. The dictionary `d` is not modified.

```
dict_t<'a, 'b> insert_new(dict_t<'a, 'b> d, 'a k, 'b v);
```

`insert_new(d, k, v)` is like `insert(d, k, v)`, except that it throws `Present` if `k` is already mapped to some value in `d`.

```
dict_t<'a, 'b> inserts(dict_t<'a, 'b> d, list_t<$('a, 'b) @> l);
```

`inserts(d, l)` inserts each key, value pair into `d`, returning the resulting dictionary.

```
dict_t<'a, 'b> singleton(int (@cmp)('a, 'a), 'a k, 'b v);
```

`singleton(cmp, k, v)` returns a new heap-allocated dictionary with a single mapping, from `k` to `v`.

```
'b lookup(dict_t<'a, 'b> d, 'a k);
```

`lookup(d, k)` returns the value associated with key `k` in `d`, or throws `Absent` if `k` is not mapped to any value.



Core::opt\_t<'b> **lookup\_opt**(dict\_t<'a,'b> d,'a k);

lookup\_opt(d,k) returns NULL if k is not mapped to any value in d, and returns a non-NULL, heap-allocated option containing the value k is mapped to in d otherwise.

dict\_t<'a,'b> **delete**(dict\_t<'a,'b> d,'a k);

delete(d,k) returns a dictionary with the same bindings as d, except that any binding of k is removed. The resulting dictionary is allocated on the heap.

dict\_t<'a,'b> **delete\_present**(dict\_t<'a,'b> d,'a k);

delete\_present(d,k) is like delete(d,k), except that Absent is thrown if k has no binding in d.

'c **fold**('c (@f)('a,'b,'c),dict\_t<'a,'b> d,'c accum);

If d has keys k1 through kn mapping to values v1 through vn, then fold(f,d,accum) returns f(k1,v1,...f(kn,vn,accum)...).

'c **fold\_c**('c (@f)('d,'a,'b,'c),'d env,dict\_t<'a,'b> d,'c accum);

fold\_c(f,env,d,accum) is like fold(f,d,accum) except that f takes closure env as its first argument.

void **app**('c (@f)('a,'b),dict\_t<'a,'b> d);

app(f,d) applies f to every key/value pair in d; the results of the applications are discarded. Note that f cannot return void.

void **app\_c**('c (@f)('d,'a,'b),'d env,dict\_t<'a,'b> d);

app\_c(f,env,d) is like app(f,d) except that f takes closure env as its first argument.

void **iter**(void (@f)('a,'b),dict\_t<'a,'b> d);

iter(f,d) is like app(f,d) except that f returns void.

void **iter\_c**(void (@f)('c,'a,'b),'c env,dict\_t<'a,'b> d);

iter\_c(f,env,d) is like app\_c(f,env,d) except that f returns void.

```
dict_t<'a','c> map('c (@f)('b),dict_t<'a','b> d);
```

`map(f,d)` applies `f` to each value in `d`, and returns a new dictionary with the results as values: for every binding of a key `k` to a value `v` in `d`, the result binds `k` to `f(v)`. The returned dictionary is allocated on the heap.

```
dict_t<'a','c> map_c('c (@f)('d,'b),'d env,dict_t<'a,
                                     'b> d);
```

`map_c(f,env,d)` is like `map(f,d)` except that `f` takes a closure `env` as its first argument.

```
$( 'a','b) @choose(dict_t<'a','b> d);
```

`choose(d)` returns a key/value pair from `d`; if `d` is empty, `Absent` is thrown. The resulting pair is allocated on the heap.

```
list_t<$( 'a','b) @> to_list(dict_t<'a','b> d);
```

`to_list(d)` returns a list of the key/value pairs in `d`, allocated on the heap.

## C.17 <xarray.h>

Defines namespace `Xarray`, which implements a datatype of extensible arrays.

```
typedef struct Xarray<'a','r> @'r xarray_t<'a','r>;
```

An `xarray_t` is an extensible array.

```
int length(xarray_t<'a>);
```

`length(a)` returns the length of extensible array `a`.

```
'a get(xarray_t<'a>,int);
```

`get(a,n)` returns the `n`th element of `a`, or throws `Invalid_argument` if `n` is out of range.

```
void set(xarray_t<'a>,int,'a);
```

`set(a,n,v)` sets the `n`th element of `a` to `v`, or throws `Invalid_argument` if `n` is out of range.

```

xarray_t<'a> create(int, 'a);
    create(n, v) returns a new extensible array with starting size n and
    default value v.

xarray_t<'a, 'r> rcreate(region_t<'r>, int, 'a);
    rcreate(r, n, v) returns a new extensible array with starting size n
    and default value v in region r.

xarray_t<'a> create_empty();
    create_empty() returns a new extensible array with starting size 0.

xarray_t<'a, 'r> rcreate_empty(region_t<'r>);
    rcreate_empty(r) returns a new extensible array with starting size
    0 in region r.

xarray_t<'a> singleton(int, 'a);
    singleton(n, v) returns a new extensible array with a single ele-
    ment v.

xarray_t<'a, 'r> rsingleton(region_t<'r>, int, 'a);
    rsingleton(r, n, v) returns a new extensible array with a single el-
    ement v in region r.

void add(xarray_t<'a>, 'a);
    add(a, v) makes the extensible array larger by adding v to the end.

int add_ind(xarray_t<'a>, 'a);
    add_ind(a, v) makes a larger by adding v to the end, and returns v.

'a ?to_array(xarray_t<'a>);
    to_array(a) returns a normal (non-extensible) array with the same
    elements as a.

'a ?'r rto_array(region_t<'r>, xarray_t<'a>);
    rto_array(a, r) returns a normal (non-extensible) array with the
    same elements as a allocated in region r.

```

`xarray_t<'a> from_array('a ?arr);`

`from_array(a)` returns an extensible array with the same elements as the normal (non-extensible) array `a`.

`xarray_t<'a,'r> rfrom_array(region_t<'r>,'a ?arr);`

`rfrom_array(r,a)` returns an extensible array with the same elements as the normal (non-extensible) array `a`, allocated in region `r`.

`xarray_t<'a> append(xarray_t<'a>,xarray_t<'a>);`

`append(a1,a2)` returns a new extensible array whose elements are the elements of `a1` followed by `a2`. The inputs `a1` and `a2` are not modified.

`xarray_t<'a,'r> rappend(region_t<'r>,xarray_t<'a>,xarray_t<'a>);`

`rappend(r,a1,a2)` returns a new extensible array whose elements are the elements of `a1` followed by `a2`, allocated in region `r`. The inputs `a1` and `a2` are not modified.

`void app('b (@f)('a),xarray_t<'a>);`

`app(f,a)` applies `f` to each element of `a`, in order from lowest to highest. Note that `f` returns `'a`, unlike with `iter`.

`void app_c('b (@f)('c,'a),'c,xarray_t<'a>);`

`app_c(f,e,a)` applies `f` to `e` and each element of `a`, in order from lowest to highest.

`void iter(void (@f)('a),xarray_t<'a>);`

`iter(f,a)` applies `f` to each element of `a`, in order from lowest to highest. Note that `f` returns `void`, unlike with `app`.

`void iter_c(void (@f)('b,'a),'b,xarray_t<'a>);`

`iter_c(f,e,a)` applies `f` to `e` and each element of `a`, in order from lowest to highest.

`xarray_t<'b> map('b (@f)('a),xarray_t<'a>);`

`map(f,a)` returns a new extensible array whose elements are obtained by applying `f` to each element of `a`.

```
xarray_t<'b','r> rmap(region_t<'r>,'b (@f)('a),xarray_t<'a>);
```

`rmap(r,f,a)` returns a new extensible array whose elements are obtained by applying `f` to each element of `a`, and allocated in region `r`.

```
xarray_t<'b> map_c('b (@f)('c,'a),'c,xarray_t<'a>);
```

`map_c(f,e,a)` returns a new extensible array whose elements are obtained by applying `f` to `e` and each element of `a`.

```
xarray_t<'b','r> rmap_c(region_t<'r>,'b (@f)('c,'a),  
                        'c,xarray_t<'a>);
```

`rmap_c(r,f,e,a)` returns a new extensible array whose elements are obtained by applying `f` to `e` and each element of `a`. The result is allocated in region `r`.

```
void reuse(xarray_t<'a> xarr);
```

`reuse(a)` sets the number of elements of `a` to zero, but does not free the underlying array.

```
void delete(xarray_t<'a> xarr,int num);
```

`delete(a,n)` deletes the last `n` elements of `a`.

```
void remove(xarray_t<'a> xarr,int i);
```

`remove(a,i)` removes the element at position `i` from `a`; elements at positions greater than `i` are moved down one position.

## D Grammar

The grammar of Cyclone is derived from ISO C99. It has the following additional keywords: `abstract`, `alias`, `as`, `calloc`, `catch`, `datatype`, `dynregion_t`, `export`, `fallthru`, `inject`, `let`, `malloc`, `namespace`, `new`, `NULL`, `numelts`, `offsetof`, `realloc`, `region_t`, `region`, `regions`, `reset_region`, `rmalloc`, `rnew`, `tagcheck`, `tag_t`, `throw`, `try`, `using`, `sizeof`, `sizeof_t`. As in gcc, `__attribute__` is reserved as well.

The non-terminals *character-constant*, *floating-constant*, *identifier*, *integer-constant*, *string*, and *typedef-name* are defined lexically as in C. A *type-var* is

defined as a C *identifier* preceded by a ` (backquote), optionally followed by `::kind`.

The start symbol is *translation-unit*.

*translation-unit*:

```
(empty)
external-declaration translation-unitopt
using identifier ; translation-unit
namespace identifier ; translation-unit
using identifier { translation-unit } translation-unit
namespace identifier { translation-unit } translation-unit
extern "C" { translation-unit } translation-unit
extern "C include" { translation-unit } translation-unit
```

*external-declaration*:

```
function-definition
declaration
```

*function-definition*:

```
declaration-specifiersopt declarator
declaration-listopt compound-statement
```

*declaration*:

```
declaration-specifiers init-declarator-listopt ;
let pattern = expression ;
let identifier-list ;
resetableopt region < type-var > identifier ;
resetableopt region identifier ;
resetableopt region identifier = ( expression ) ;
alias < type-var > identifier = expression ;
```

*declaration-list*:

```
declaration
declaration-list declaration
```

*declaration-specifiers*:

```
storage-class-specifier declaration-specifiersopt
type-specifier declaration-specifiersopt
type-qualifier declaration-specifiersopt
function-specifier declaration-specifiersopt
```

*storage-class-specifier:*

auto  
register  
static  
extern  
extern "C"  
typedef  
abstract

*type-specifier:*

\_  
\_ :: *kind*  
void  
char  
short  
int  
long  
float  
double  
signed  
unsigned  
*enum-specifier*  
*struct-or-union-specifier*  
*datatype-specifier*  
*type-var*  
\$( *parameter-list* )  
region\_t  
region\_t < *any-type-name* >  
dynregion\_t < *any-type-name* >  
dynregion\_t < *any-type-name* , *any-type-name* >  
tag\_t  
tag\_t < *any-type-name* >  
typeof\_t ( *expression* )  
*typedef-name type-params<sub>opt</sub>*

*kind:*

*identifier*  
*typedef-name*

*type-qualifier:*

const  
restrict  
volatile  
@numelts ( *assignment-expression* )  
@region ( *any-type-name* )  
@thin  
@fat  
@zeroterm  
@nozeroterm  
@notnull  
@nullable

*enum-specifier:*

enum *identifier*<sub>opt</sub> { *enum-declaration-list* }  
enum *identifier*

*enum-field:*

*identifier*  
*identifier* = *constant-expression*

*enum-declaration-list:*

*enum-field*  
*enum-field* , *enum-declaration-list*

*function-specifier:*

inline

*struct-or-union-specifier:*

*struct-or-union* { *struct-declaration-list* }  
*struct-or-union* *identifier* *type-params*<sub>opt</sub> { *struct-declaration-list* }  
*struct-or-union* *identifier* *type-params*<sub>opt</sub>

*type-params:*

< *type-name-list* >

*struct-or-union:*

struct  
union  
@tagged union



*struct-declaration-list:*  
*struct-declaration*  
*struct-declaration-list struct-declaration*

*init-declarator-list:*  
*init-declarator*  
*init-declarator-list , init-declarator*

*init-declarator:*  
*declarator*  
*declarator = initializer*

*struct-declaration:*  
*specifier-qualifier-list struct-declarator-list ;*

*specifier-qualifier-list:*  
*type-specifier specifier-qualifier-list<sub>opt</sub>*  
*type-qualifier specifier-qualifier-list<sub>opt</sub>*

*struct-declarator-list:*  
*struct-declarator*  
*struct-declarator-list , struct-declarator*

*struct-declarator:*  
*declarator*  
*declarator<sub>opt</sub> : constant-expression*

*datatype-specifier:*  
*@extensible<sub>opt</sub> datatype identifier type-params<sub>opt</sub> { datatypefield-list }*  
*@extensible<sub>opt</sub> datatype identifier type-params<sub>opt</sub>*  
*@extensible<sub>opt</sub> datatype identifier . identifier type-params<sub>opt</sub>*

*datatypefield-list:*  
*datatypefield*  
*datatypefield ;*  
*datatypefield , datatypefield-list*  
*datatypefield ; datatypefield-list*

*datatypefield-scope*: one of  
extern static

*datatypefield*:  
*datatypefield-scope*<sub>opt</sub> *identifier*  
*datatypefield-scope*<sub>opt</sub> *identifier* ( *parameter-list* )

*declarator*:  
*pointer*<sub>opt</sub> *direct-declarator*

*direct-declarator*:  
*identifier*  
( *declarator* )  
*direct-declarator* [ *assignment-expression*<sub>opt</sub> ] *zero-term-qualifier*<sub>opt</sub>  
*direct-declarator* ( *parameter-type-list* )  
*direct-declarator* ( *effect*<sub>opt</sub> *region-order*<sub>opt</sub> )  
*direct-declarator* ( *identifier-list*<sub>opt</sub> )  
*direct-declarator* < *type-name-list* >

*effect*:  
; *effect-set*

*region-order*:  
: *region-order-list*

*region-order-list*:  
*atomic-effect* > *type-var*  
*atomic-effect* > *type-var*, *region-order-list*

*zero-term-qualifier*: one of  
@zeroterm @nozeroterm

*pointer*:  
\* *range*<sub>opt</sub> *region*<sub>opt</sub> *type-qualifier-list*<sub>opt</sub> *pointer*<sub>opt</sub>  
@ *range*<sub>opt</sub> *region*<sub>opt</sub> *type-qualifier-list*<sub>opt</sub> *pointer*<sub>opt</sub>  
? *region*<sub>opt</sub> *type-qualifier-list*<sub>opt</sub> *pointer*<sub>opt</sub>

*range*:  
{ *assignment-expression* }

*region:*

$\overline{\text{type-var}}$

*type-qualifier-list:*

*type-qualifier*

*type-qualifier-list type-qualifier*

*parameter-type-list:*

*parameter-list effect<sub>opt</sub> region-order<sub>opt</sub>*

*parameter-list , ... effect<sub>opt</sub> region-order<sub>opt</sub>*

*... inject<sub>opt</sub> parameter-declaration effect<sub>opt</sub> region-order<sub>opt</sub>*

*parameter-list , ... inject<sub>opt</sub> parameter-declaration effect<sub>opt</sub> region-order<sub>opt</sub>*

*effect-set:*

*atomic-effect*

*atomic-effect + effect-set*

*atomic-effect:*

*{ }*

*{ region-set }*

*type-var*

*regions ( any-type-name )*

*region-set:*

*type-var*

*type-var , region-set*

*parameter-list:*

*parameter-declaration*

*parameter-list , parameter-declaration*

*parameter-declaration:*

*specifier-qualifier-list declarator*

*specifier-qualifier-list abstract-declarator<sub>opt</sub>*

*identifier-list:*

*identifier*

*identifier-list , identifier*

*initializer:*

*assignment-expression*  
*array-initializer*

*array-initializer:*

*{ initializer-list<sub>opt</sub> }*  
*{ initializer-list , }*  
*{ for identifier < expression : expression }*

*initializer-list:*

*designation<sub>opt</sub> initializer*  
*initializer-list , designation<sub>opt</sub> initializer*

*designation:*

*designator-list =*

*designator-list:*

*designator*  
*designator-list designator*

*designator:*

*[ constant-expression ]*  
*. identifier*

*type-name:*

*specifier-qualifier-list abstract-declarator<sub>opt</sub>*

*any-type-name:*

*type-name*  
*{ }*  
*{ region-set }*  
*any-type-name + atomic-effect*

*type-name-list:*

*any-type-name*  
*type-name-list , type-name*

*abstract-declarator:*

*pointer*  
*pointer<sub>opt</sub> direct-abstract-declarator*

*direct-abstract-declarator:*

*( abstract-declarator )*  
*direct-abstract-declarator<sub>opt</sub> [ assignment-expression<sub>opt</sub> ] zero-term-qualifier<sub>opt</sub>*  
*direct-abstract-declarator<sub>opt</sub> ( parameter-type-list<sub>opt</sub> )*  
*direct-abstract-declarator<sub>opt</sub> ( effect<sub>opt</sub> region-order<sub>opt</sub> )*  
*direct-abstract-declarator < type-name-list >*

*statement:*

*labeled-statement*  
*expression-statement*  
*compound-statement*  
*selection-statement*  
*iteration-statement*  
*jump-statement*  
*reset\_region ( expression ) ;*

*labeled-statement:*

*identifier : statement*

*expression-statement:*

*expression<sub>opt</sub> ;*

*compound-statement:*

*{ block-item-list<sub>opt</sub> }*

*block-item-list:*

*block-item*  
*block-item block-item-list*

*block-item:*

*declaration*  
*statement*

*selection-statement:*

*if ( expression ) statement*  
*if ( expression ) statement else statement*  
*switch ( expression ) { switch-clauses }*  
*try statement catch { switch-clauses }*

*switch-clauses:*

```
(empty)
default : block-item-list
case pattern : block-item-listopt switch-clauses
case pattern && expression : block-item-listopt switch-clauses
```

*iteration-statement:*

```
while ( expression ) statement
do statement while ( expression ) ;
for ( expressionopt ; expressionopt ; expressionopt ) statement
for ( declaration expressionopt ; expressionopt ) statement
```

*jump-statement:*

```
goto identifier ;
continue ;
break ;
return ;
return expression ;
fallthru ;
fallthru ( argument-expression-listopt ) ;
```

*pattern:*

```
—
( pattern )
integer-constant
– integer-constant
floating-constant
character-constant
NULL
identifier
identifier type-paramsopt ( tuple-pattern-list )
$ ( tuple-pattern-list )
identifier ( tuple-pattern-list )
identifieropt { type-paramsopt field-pattern-listopt }
& pattern
* identifier
identifier as pattern
identifier < type-var >
identifier < _ >
```

*tuple-pattern-list:*

*...*  
*pattern*  
*pattern , tuple-pattern-list*

*field-pattern:*

*pattern*  
*designation pattern*

*field-pattern-list:*

*...*  
*field-pattern*  
*field-pattern , field-pattern-list*

*expression:*

*assignment-expression*  
*expression , assignment-expression*

*assignment-expression:*

*conditional-expression*  
*unary-expression assignment-operator assignment-expression*  
*unary-expression ::= assignment-expression*

*assignment-operator: one of*

*= \*= /= %= += -= <<= >>= &= ^= |=*

*conditional-expression:*

*logical-or-expression*  
*logical-or-expression ? expression : conditional-expression*  
*throw conditional-expression*  
*new array-initializer*  
*new logical-or-expression*  
*rnew ( expression ) array-initializer*  
*rnew ( expression ) logical-or-expression*

*constant-expression:*

*conditional-expression*

*logical-or-expression:*

*logical-and-expression*  
*logical-or-expression | | logical-and-expression*

*logical-and-expression:*

*inclusive-or-expression*

*logical-and-expression* && *inclusive-or-expression*

*inclusive-or-expression:*

*exclusive-or-expression*

*inclusive-or-expression* | *exclusive-or-expression*

*exclusive-or-expression:*

*and-expression*

*exclusive-or-expression* ^ *and-expression*

*and-expression:*

*equality-expression*

*and-expression* & *equality-expression*

*equality-expression:*

*relational-expression*

*equality-expression* == *relational-expression*

*equality-expression* != *relational-expression*

*relational-expression:*

*shift-expression*

*relational-expression* < *shift-expression*

*relational-expression* > *shift-expression*

*relational-expression* <= *shift-expression*

*relational-expression* >= *shift-expression*

*shift-expression:*

*additive-expression*

*shift-expression* << *additive-expression*

*shift-expression* >> *additive-expression*

*additive-expression:*

*multiplicative-expression*

*additive-expression* + *multiplicative-expression*

*additive-expression* - *multiplicative-expression*



*multiplicative-expression:*

*cast-expression*  
*multiplicative-expression* \* *cast-expression*  
*multiplicative-expression* / *cast-expression*  
*multiplicative-expression* % *cast-expression*

*cast-expression:*

*unary-expression*  
( *type-name* ) *cast-expression*

*unary-expression:*

*postfix-expression*  
++ *unary-expression*  
-- *unary-expression*  
*unary-operator* *cast-expression*  
sizeof *unary-expression*  
sizeof ( *type-name* )  
offsetof ( *type-name* , *identifier* )  
offsetof ( *type-name* , *integer-constant* )  
malloc ( *assignment-expression* )  
rmalloc ( *assignment-expression* , *assignment-expression* )  
calloc ( *assignment-expression* , sizeof ( *type-name* ) )  
realloc ( *assignment-expression* , *assignment-expression* , sizeof ( *type-name* ) )  
numelts ( *assignment-expression* )  
tagcheck ( *postfix-expression* . *identifier* )  
tagcheck ( *postfix-expression* -> *identifier* )  
sizeof ( *type-name* )

*unary-operator:* one of

& \* + - ~ !

*postfix-expression:*

*primary-expression*  
*postfix-expression* [ *expression* ]  
*postfix-expression* ( *argument-expression-list*<sub>opt</sub> )  
*postfix-expression* . *identifier*  
*postfix-expression* -> *identifier*

```

postfix-expression ++
postfix-expression --
( type-name ) { initializer-list }
( type-name ) { initializer-list , }

```

*primary-expression*:

```

identifier
constant
string
( expression )
primary-expression <>
primary-expression @ < type-name-list >
$( argument-expression-list )
identifier { type-paramsopt initializer-list }
( { block-item-list } )

```

*argument-expression-list*:

```

assignment-expression
argument-expression-list , assignment-expression

```

*constant*:

```

integer-constant
character-constant
floating-constant
NULL

```

## E Installing Cyclone

Cyclone currently only runs on 32-bit machines. It has been tested on Linux, Windows 98/NT/2K/XP using the Cygwin environment, and on Mac OS X. Other platforms might or might not work. Right now, there are a few 32-bit dependencies in the compiler, so the system will probably not work on a 64-bit machine without major changes.

To install and use Cyclone, you'll need to use the Gnu utilities, including gcc (the Gnu C compiler) and Gnu-Make. For Windows, you should first install the latest version of the [Cygwin](#) utilities to do the build, and make sure that the Cygwin bin directory is on your path. We use some

features of gcc extensively, so Cyclone definitely will not build with another C compiler.

Cyclone is distributed as a compressed archive (a .tar.gz file). Unpack the distribution into a directory; if you are installing Cyclone on a Windows system, we suggest you choose `c:\cyclone`.

From here, follow the instructions in the INSTALL file included in the distribution.

## F Tools

### F.1 The compiler

#### General options

The Cyclone compiler has the following command-line options:

- help** Print a short description of the command-line options.
- v** Print compilation stages verbosely.
- version** Print version number and exit.
- o *file*** Set the output file name to *file*.
- D*name*** Define a macro named *name* for preprocessing.
- D*name*=*defn*** Give macro *name* the definition *defn* in preprocessing.
- B*dir*** Add *dir* to the list of directories to search for special compiler files.
- I*dir*** Add *dir* to the list of directories to search for include files.
- L*dir*** Add *dir* to the list of directories to search for libraries.
- llib** Link library *lib* into the final executable.
- c** Produce an object ( .o ) file instead of an executable; do not link.
- x *language*** Specify *language* for the following input files
- s** Remove all symbol table and relocation information from the executable.

- O Optimize.
- O2 A higher level of optimization.
- O3 Even more optimization.
- p Compile for profiling with the `prof` tool.
- pg Compile for profiling with the `gprof` tool.
- pa Compile for profiling with the `aprof` tool.
- S Stop after producing assembly code.
- M Produce dependencies for inclusion in a makefile.
- MG When producing dependencies assume missing files are generated.  
Must be used with `-M`.
- MT *file* Make *file* be the target of any dependencies generated using the  
`-M` flag.
- E Stop after preprocessing.
- nogc Don't link in the garbage collector.

### Developer options

In addition, the compiler has some options that are primarily of use to its developers:

- g Compile for debugging. This is bulletproof for compiler developers, as the debugging information reflects the C code that the Cyclone code is compiled to, and not the Cyclone code itself. To have a look at Cyclone code during debugging (but not very cleanly as of yet), also pass in `-lineno` (see below).
- stopafter-parse Stop after parsing.
- stopafter-tc Stop after type checking.
- stopafter-toc Stop after translation to C.

- ic** Activate the link-checker.
- pp** Pretty print.
- up** Ugly print.
- tovc** Avoid gcc extensions in the C output.
- save-temps** Don't delete temporary files.
- save-c** Don't delete temporary C files.
- lineno** Insert `#line` directives in generated C code. This slows down compilation, but helps debugging. Works best when also using `-pp`.
- nochecks** Disable all null and array bounds checks (still uses "fat" representation of ? pointers).
- nonnullchecks** Disable null checks.
- noboundschecks** Disable array bounds checks (still uses "fat" representation of ? pointers).
- use-cpppath** Indicate which preprocessor to use.
- no-cpp-precomp** Disable smart preprocessing (mac only).
- nocyc** Don't add the implicit namespace `Cyc` to variable names in the C output.
- noremoveunused** Don't remove externed variables that aren't used.
- noexpandtypedefs** Don't expand typedefs in pretty printing.
- printalltvars** Print all type variables (even implicit default effects).
- printallkinds** Always print kinds of type variables.
- printfullevars** Print full information for evars (type debugging).

## F.2 The lexer generator

## F.3 The parser generator

## F.4 The allocation profiler, `aprof`

To get a profile of the allocation behavior of a Cyclone program, follow these steps:

1. Compile the program with the flag `-pa`. The resulting executable will be compiled to record allocation behavior. It will also be linked with a version of the standard library that records its allocation behavior. (If you get the message, “can’t find internal compiler file `libcyc_a.a`,” then ask your system administrator to install the special version of the library.)
2. Execute the program as normal. As it executes, it will write to a file `amon.out` in the current working directory; if the file exists before execution, it will be overwritten.
3. Run the program `aprof`. This will examine `amon.out` and print a report on the allocation behavior of the program.

## F.5 The C interface tool, `buildlib`

`buildlib` is a tool that semi-automatically constructs a Cyclone interface to C code. It scans C header files and builds Cyclone header files and stub code so that Cyclone programs can call the C code. We use it to build the Cyclone interface to the C standard library (in much the same way that `gcc` uses the `fixincludes` program).

To use `buildlib`, you must construct a *spec file* that tells it what C headers to scan, and what functions and constants to extract from the headers. By convention, the names of spec files end in `.cys`. If `spec.cys` is a spec file, then `buildlib` is invoked by

```
buildlib spec.cys
```

The output of `buildlib` is placed in a directory, `BUILDLIB.OUT`. The output consists of Cyclone header files and the stub files `cstubs.c` and `cycstubs.cyc`.

## Spec files

The form of a spec file is given by the following grammar.

*spec-file*:

(empty)  
*spec spec-file*

*spec*:

*header-name* : *directives* ;

*directives*:

(empty)  
*directive directives*

*directive*:

cpp { *balanced-braces* }  
include { *ids* }  
hstub *id<sub>opt</sub>* { *balanced-braces* }  
cycstub *id<sub>opt</sub>* { *balanced-braces* }  
cstub *id<sub>opt</sub>* { *balanced-braces* }

*ids*:

(empty)  
*id ids*

The non-terminal *id* refers to C identifiers, and *header-name* ranges over C header names (e.g., `stdio.h`, `sys/types.h`). We use *balanced-braces* to refer to any sequence of C tokens with balanced braces, ignoring braces inside of comments, strings, and character constants.

## Directives

**include** The include directive is used to extract constants and type definitions from C header files and put them into the equivalent Cyclone header file. For example, here is part of the spec that we use to interface to C's `errno.h`:

```
errno.h:  
include { E2BIG EACCES EADDRINUSE ... }
```

The spec says that the Cyclone version of `errno.h` should use the C definitions of error constants like `E2BIG`. These are typically macro-defined as integers, but the integers can differ from system to system. We ensure that Cyclone uses the right constants by running `buildlib` on each system.

For another example, our spec for `sys/types.h` reads, in part:

```
sys/types.h:
include { id_t mode_t off_t pid_t ... }
```

Here the symbols are typedef names, and the result will be that the Cyclone header file contains the typedefs that define `id_t`, etc. Again, these can differ from system to system.

You can use `include` to obtain not just constants (macros) and typedefs, but struct and union definitions as well. Furthermore, if a definition you `include` requires any other definitions that you do not explicitly `include`, those other definitions will be placed into the Cyclone header too.

Currently, `include` does not work for variable or function declarations. You have to use the `hstub` directive to add variable and function declarations to your Cyclone header.

**cstub** The `cstub` directive adds code (the *balanced-braces*) to the C stub file. If an optional *id* is used, then the code will be added to the stub file only if the *id* is declared by the C header. This is useful because every system defines a different subset of the C standard library.

**cycstub** The `cycstub` directive is like the `cstub` directive, except that the code is added to the Cyclone stub file.

**hstub** The `hstub` directive is like the `cstub` directive, except that the code is added to the Cyclone header file.

**cpp** The `cpp` directive is used to tell `buildlib` to scan some extra header files before scanning the header file of the spec. This is useful when a header file can't be parsed in isolation. For example, the standard C header `sys/resource.h` is supposed to define `struct timeval`, but on some systems, this is defined in `sys/types.h`, which must



be included before `sys/resource.h` for that file to parse. This can be handled with a spec like the following:

```
sys/resource.h:
cpp {
    #include <sys/types.h>
}
...
```

This will cause `sys/types.h` to be scanned by `buildlib` before `sys/resource.h`.

You can also use the `cpp` directive to directly specify anything that might appear in a C include file (e.g., macros).

## Options

`buildlib` has the following options.

**-d *directory*** Use *directory* as the output directory instead of the default `BUILDLIB.OUT`.

**-gather and -finish** `buildlib` works in two phases. In the gather phase, `buildlib` grabs the C headers listed in the spec file from their normal locations in the C include tree, and stores them in a special format in the output directory. In the finish phase, `buildlib` uses the specially formatted C headers to build the Cyclone headers and stub files. The `-gather` flag tells `buildlib` to perform just the gather phase, and the `-finish` flag tells it to perform just the finish phase.

`buildlib`'s two-phase strategy is intended to support cross compilation. A Cyclone compiler on one architecture can compile to a second architecture provided it has the other architecture's Cyclone header files. These headers can be generated on the first architecture from the output of the gather phase on the second architecture. This is more general than just having the second architecture's Cyclone headers, because it permits works even in the face of some changes in the spec file or `buildlib` itself (which would change the other architecture's Cyclone headers).

**-gatherscript** The `-gatherscript` flag tells `builddb` to output a shell script that, when executed, performs `builddb`'s gather phase. This is useful when porting Cyclone to an unsupported architecture, where `builddb` itself does not yet work. The script can be executed on the unsupported architecture, and the result can be moved to a supported architecture, which can then cross-compile itself to the new architecture.