
Note – Text in black is from CORBA Core 2.3. Text in Sky Blue is from the INS specification. Text in Magenta is from the Messaging specification. Text in Red is from the Core RTF. Changes from Components submission is in Blue. Only those changes relevant to the “local” feature of the Components spec are included in this version. Editorial modifications to improve readability are in Dark Green. The entire last section “Standard Exceptions” of the CORBA 2.3 version of this chapter has been moved to Chapter 4. This is reflected here as a stuck out entry for that section in the Contents table below.

This chapter describes OMG Interface Definition Language (IDL) semantics and gives the syntax for OMG IDL grammatical constructs.

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3.1 Overview

The OMG Interface Definition Language (IDL) is the language used to describe the interfaces that client objects call and object implementations provide. An interface definition written in OMG IDL completely defines the interface and fully specifies each operation’s parameters. An OMG IDL interface provides the information needed to develop clients that use the interface’s operations.

Clients are not written in OMG IDL, which is purely a descriptive language, but in languages for which mappings from OMG IDL concepts have been defined. The mapping of an OMG IDL concept to a client language construct will depend on the facilities available in the client language. For example, an OMG IDL exception might be mapped to a structure in a language that has no notion of exception, or to an exception in a language that does. The binding of OMG IDL concepts to several programming languages is described in this manual.

The description of OMG IDL’s lexical conventions is presented in Section 3.2, “Lexical Conventions,” on page 3-3. A description of OMG IDL preprocessing is presented in Section 3.3, “Preprocessing,” on page 3-11. The scope rules for identifiers in an OMG IDL specification are described in [Section 3.15, “Names and Scoping,” on page 3-51.](#)

[OMG IDL is a declarative language. The grammar is presented in Section 3.4, “OMG IDL Grammar,” on page 3-12 and associated semantics is described in the rest of this chapter either in place or through references to other sections of this standard.](#)

OMG IDL-specific pragmas (those not defined for C++) may appear anywhere in a specification; the textual location of these pragmas may be semantically constrained by a particular implementation.

A source file containing interface specifications written in OMG IDL must have an “.idl” extension.

The description of OMG IDL grammar uses a syntax notation that is similar to Extended Backus-Naur Format (EBNF). Table 3-1 lists the symbols used in this format and their meaning.

Table 3-1 IDL EBNF

Symbol	Meaning
::=	Is defined to be
	Alternatively
<text>	Nonterminal
"text"	Literal
*	The preceding syntactic unit can be repeated zero or more times
+	The preceding syntactic unit can be repeated one or more times
{ }	The enclosed syntactic units are grouped as a single syntactic unit
[]	The enclosed syntactic unit is optional—may occur zero or one time

3.2 Lexical Conventions

This section¹ presents the lexical conventions of OMG IDL. It defines tokens in an OMG IDL specification and describes comments, identifiers, keywords, and literals—integer, character, and floating point constants and string literals.

An OMG IDL specification logically consists of one or more files. A file is conceptually translated in several phases.

The first phase is preprocessing, which performs file inclusion and macro substitution. Preprocessing is controlled by directives introduced by lines having # as the first character other than white space. The result of preprocessing is a sequence of tokens. Such a sequence of tokens, that is, a file after preprocessing, is called a translation unit.

OMG IDL uses the ASCII character set, except for string literals and character literals, which use the ISO Latin-1 (8859.1) character set. The ISO Latin-1 character set is divided into alphabetic characters (letters) digits, graphic characters, the space (blank) character, and formatting characters. Table 3-2 shows the ISO Latin-1 alphabetic characters; upper and lower case equivalences are paired. The ASCII alphabetic characters are shown in the left-hand column of Table 3-2.

Table 3-2 The 114 Alphabetic Characters (Letters)

Char.	Description	Char.	Description
Aa	Upper/Lower-case A	Àà	Upper/Lower-case A with grave accent
Bb	Upper/Lower-case B	Áá	Upper/Lower-case A with acute accent
Cc	Upper/Lower-case C	Ââ	Upper/Lower-case A with circumflex accent
Dd	Upper/Lower-case D	Ãã	Upper/Lower-case A with tilde

1. This section is an adaptation of *The Annotated C++ Reference Manual*, Chapter 2; it differs in the list of legal keywords and punctuation.

Table 3-2 The 114 Alphabetic Characters (Letters) (Continued)

Char.	Description	Char.	Description
Ee	Upper/Lower-case E	Ää	Upper/Lower-case A with diaeresis
Ff	Upper/Lower-case F	Åå	Upper/Lower-case A with ring above
Gg	Upper/Lower-case G	Ææ	Upper/Lower-case diphthong A with E
Hh	Upper/Lower-case H	Çç	Upper/Lower-case C with cedilla
Ii	Upper/Lower-case I	Èè	Upper/Lower-case E with grave accent
Jj	Upper/Lower-case J	Éé	Upper/Lower-case E with acute accent
Kk	Upper/Lower-case K	Êê	Upper/Lower-case E with circumflex accent
Ll	Upper/Lower-case L	Ëë	Upper/Lower-case E with diaeresis
Mm	Upper/Lower-case M	Ìì	Upper/Lower-case I with grave accent
Nn	Upper/Lower-case N	Íí	Upper/Lower-case I with acute accent
Oo	Upper/Lower-case O	Îî	Upper/Lower-case I with circumflex accent
Pp	Upper/Lower-case P	Ïï	Upper/Lower-case I with diaeresis
Qq	Upper/Lower-case Q	Ññ	Upper/Lower-case N with tilde
Rr	Upper/Lower-case R	Òò	Upper/Lower-case O with grave accent
Ss	Upper/Lower-case S	Óó	Upper/Lower-case O with acute accent
Tt	Upper/Lower-case T	Ôô	Upper/Lower-case O with circumflex accent
Uu	Upper/Lower-case U	Õõ	Upper/Lower-case O with tilde
Vv	Upper/Lower-case V	Öö	Upper/Lower-case O with diaeresis
Ww	Upper/Lower-case W	Øø	Upper/Lower-case O with oblique stroke
Xx	Upper/Lower-case X	Ùù	Upper/Lower-case U with grave accent
Yy	Upper/Lower-case Y	Úú	Upper/Lower-case U with acute accent
Zz	Upper/Lower-case Z	Ûû	Upper/Lower-case U with circumflex accent
		Üü	Upper/Lower-case U with diaeresis
		ß	Lower-case German sharp S
		ÿ	Lower-case Y with diaeresis

Table 3-3 lists the decimal digit characters.

Table 3-3 Decimal Digits

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Table 3-4 shows the graphic characters.

Table 3-4 The 65 Graphic Characters

Char.	Description	Char.	Description
!	exclamation point	¡	inverted exclamation mark
"	double quote	¢	cent sign
#	number sign	£	pound sign
\$	dollar sign	¤	currency sign
%	percent sign	¥	yen sign

Table 3-4 The 65 Graphic Characters (Continued)

Char.	Description	Char.	Description
&	ampersand		broken bar
'	apostrophe	§	section/paragraph sign
(left parenthesis	¨	diaeresis
)	right parenthesis	©	copyright sign
*	asterisk	ª	feminine ordinal indicator
+	plus sign	«	left angle quotation mark
,	comma	¬	not sign
-	hyphen, minus sign		soft hyphen
.	period, full stop	®	registered trade mark sign
/	solidus	ˉ	macron
:	colon	°	ring above, degree sign
;	semicolon	±	plus-minus sign
<	less-than sign	²	superscript two
=	equals sign	³	superscript three
>	greater-than sign	´	acute
?	question mark	µ	micro
@	commercial at	¶	pilcrow
[left square bracket	•	middle dot
\	reverse solidus	¸	cedilla
]	right square bracket	¹	superscript one
^	circumflex	º	masculine ordinal indicator
_	low line, underscore	»	right angle quotation mark
‘	grave		vulgar fraction 1/4
{	left curly bracket		vulgar fraction 1/2
	vertical line		vulgar fraction 3/4
}	right curly bracket	¿	inverted question mark
~	tilde	×	multiplication sign
		÷	division sign

The formatting characters are shown in Table 3-5.

Table 3-5 The Formatting Characters

Description	Abbreviation	ISO 646 Octal Value
alert	BEL	007
backspace	BS	010
horizontal tab	HT	011
newline	NL, LF	012
vertical tab	VT	013

Table 3-5 The Formatting Characters

Description	Abbreviation	ISO 646 Octal Value
form feed	FF	014
carriage return	CR	015

3.2.1 Tokens

There are five kinds of tokens: identifiers, keywords, literals, operators, and other separators. Blanks, horizontal and vertical tabs, newlines, formfeeds, and comments (collective, “white space”), as described below, are ignored except as they serve to separate tokens. Some white space is required to separate otherwise adjacent identifiers, keywords, and constants.

If the input stream has been parsed into tokens up to a given character, the next token is taken to be the longest string of characters that could possibly constitute a token.

3.2.2 Comments

The characters `/*` start a comment, which terminates with the characters `*/`. These comments do not nest. The characters `//` start a comment, which terminates at the end of the line on which they occur. The comment characters `//`, `/*`, and `*/` have no special meaning within a `//` comment and are treated just like other characters. Similarly, the comment characters `//` and `/*` have no special meaning within a `/*` comment. Comments may contain alphabetic, digit, graphic, space, horizontal tab, vertical tab, form feed, and newline characters.

3.2.3 Identifiers

An identifier is an arbitrarily long sequence of ASCII alphabetic, digit, and underscore (“`_`”) characters. The first character must be an ASCII alphabetic character. All characters are significant.

When comparing two identifiers to see if they collide:

- Upper- and lower-case letters are treated as the same letter. Table 3-2 on page 3-3 defines the equivalence mapping of upper- and lower-case letters.
- All characters are significant.

Identifiers that differ only in case collide, and will yield a compilation error under certain circumstances. An identifier for a given definition must be spelled identically (e.g., with respect to case) throughout a specification.

There is only one namespace for OMG IDL identifiers in each scope. Using the same identifier for a constant and an interface, for example, produces a compilation error.

For example:

```
module M {
    typedef long Foo;
    const long thing = 1;
```

```

interface thing {           // error: reuse of identifier
  void doit (
    in Foo foo             // error: Foo and foo collide and refer to
                           different things
  );

  readonly attribute long Attribute; // error: Attribute collides with
                                     keyword attribute
};

```

3.2.3.1 Escaped Identifiers

As IDL evolves, new keywords that are added to the IDL language may inadvertently collide with identifiers used in existing IDL and programs that use that IDL. Fixing these collisions will require not only the IDL to be modified, but programming language code that depends upon that IDL will have to change as well. The language mapping rules for the renamed IDL identifiers will cause the mapped identifier names (e.g., method names) to be changed.

To minimize the amount of work, users may lexically “escape” identifiers by prepending an underscore (`_`) to an identifier. This is a purely lexical convention that **ONLY** turns off keyword checking. The resulting identifier follows all the other rules for identifier processing. For example, the identifier `_AnIdentifier` is treated as if it were `AnIdentifier`.

The following is a non-exclusive list of implications of these rules:

- The underscore does not appear in the Interface Repository.
- The underscore is not used in the DII and DSI.
- The underscore is not transmitted over “the wire.”
- Case sensitivity rules are applied to the identifier after stripping off the leading underscore.

For example:

```

module M {
  interface thing {
    attribute boolean abstract; // error: abstract collides with
                                // keyword abstract
    attribute boolean _abstract; // ok: abstract is an identifier
  };
};

```

To avoid unnecessary confusion for readers of IDL, it is recommended that interfaces only use the escaped form of identifiers when the unescaped form clashes with a newly introduced IDL keyword. It is also recommended that interface designers avoid defining new identifiers that are known to require escaping. Escaped literals are only recommended for IDL that expresses legacy interface, or for IDL that is mechanically generated.

3.2.4 Keywords

The identifiers listed in Table 3-6 are reserved for use as keywords and may not be used otherwise, unless escaped with a leading underscore.

Table 3-6 Keywords

abstract	double	local	raises	typedef
any	exception	long	readonly	unsigned
attribute	enum	module	sequence	union
boolean	factory	native	short	ValueBase
case	FALSE	Object	string	valuetype
char	fixed	octet	struct	void
const	float	oneway	supports	wchar
context	in	out	switch	wstring
custom	inout	private	TRUE	
default	interface	public	truncatable	

Keywords must be written exactly as shown in the above list. Identifiers that collide with keywords (see Section 3.2.3, “Identifiers,” on page 3-6) are illegal. For example, “**boolean**” is a valid keyword; “**Boolean**” and “**BOOLEAN**” are illegal identifiers.

For example:

```

module M {
    typedef Long Foo;           // Error: keyword is long not Long
    typedef boolean BOOLEAN;  // Error: BOOLEAN collides with
                                // the keyword boolean;
};

```

OMG IDL specifications use the characters shown in Table 3-7 as punctuation.

Table 3-7 Punctuation Characters

;	{	}	:	,	=	+	-	()	<	>	[]
'	"	\		^	&	*	/	%	~				

In addition, the tokens listed in Table 3-8 are used by the preprocessor.

Table 3-8 Preprocessor Tokens

#	##	!		&&
---	----	---	--	----

3.2.5 Literals

This section describes the following literals:

- Integer
- Character
- Floating-point
- String

- Fixed-point

3.2.5.1 Integer Literals

An integer literal consisting of a sequence of digits is taken to be decimal (base ten) unless it begins with 0 (digit zero). A sequence of digits starting with 0 is taken to be an octal integer (base eight). The digits 8 and 9 are not octal digits. A sequence of digits preceded by 0x or 0X is taken to be a hexadecimal integer (base sixteen). The hexadecimal digits include a or A through f or F with decimal values ten through fifteen, respectively. For example, the number twelve can be written 12, 014, or 0XC.

3.2.5.2 Character Literals

A character literal is one or more characters enclosed in single quotes, as in 'x.' Character literals have type **char**.

A character is an 8-bit quantity with a numerical value between 0 and 255 (decimal). The value of a space, alphabetic, digit, or graphic character literal is the numerical value of the character as defined in the ISO Latin-1 (8859.1) character set standard (See Table 3-2 on page 3-3, Table 3-3 on page 3-4, and Table 3-4 on page 3-4). The value of a null is 0. The value of a formatting character literal is the numerical value of the character as defined in the ISO 646 standard (see Table 3-5 on page 3-5). The meaning of all other characters is implementation-dependent.

Nongraphic characters must be represented using escape sequences as defined below in Table 3-9. Note that escape sequences must be used to represent single quote and backslash characters in character literals.

Table 3-9 Escape Sequences

Description	Escape Sequence
newline	\n
horizontal tab	\t
vertical tab	\v
backspace	\b
carriage return	\r
form feed	\f
alert	\a
backslash	\\
question mark	\?
single quote	\'
double quote	\"
octal number	\ooo
hexadecimal number	\xhh
unicode character	\uhhhh

If the character following a backslash is not one of those specified, the behavior is undefined. An escape sequence specifies a single character.

The escape `\ooo` consists of the backslash followed by one, two, or three octal digits that are taken to specify the value of the desired character. The escape `\xhh` consists of the backslash followed by `x` followed by one or two hexadecimal digits that are taken to specify the value of the desired character.

The escape `\uhhhh` consists of a backslash followed by the character `'u'`, followed by one, two, three or four hexadecimal digits. This represents a unicode character literal. Thus the literal `"\u002E"` represents the unicode period `'.'` character and the literal `"\u3BC"` represents the unicode greek small letter `'mu'`. The `\u` escape is valid only with `wchar` and `wstring` types. Because a wide string literal is defined as a sequence of wide character literals a sequence of `\u` literals can be used to define a wide string literal. Attempts to set a `char` type to a `\u` defined literal or a `string` type to a sequence of `\u` literals result in an error.

A sequence of octal or hexadecimal digits is terminated by the first character that is not an octal digit or a hexadecimal digit, respectively. The value of a character constant is implementation dependent if it exceeds that of the largest `char`.

Wide character literals have an **L** prefix, for example:

```
const wchar C1 = L'X';
```

Attempts to assign a wide character literal to a non-wide character constant or to assign a non-wide character literal to a wide character constant result in a compile-time diagnostic.

Both wide and non-wide character literals must be specified using characters from the ISO 8859-1 character set.

3.2.5.3 *Floating-point Literals*

A floating-point literal consists of an integer part, a decimal point, a fraction part, an `e` or `E`, and an optionally signed integer exponent. The integer and fraction parts both consist of a sequence of decimal (base ten) digits. Either the integer part or the fraction part (but not both) may be missing; either the decimal point or the letter `e` (or `E`) and the exponent (but not both) may be missing.

3.2.5.4 *String Literals*

A string literal is a sequence of characters (as defined in Section 3.2.5.2, "Character Literals," on page 3-9) surrounded by double quotes, as in `"..."`.

Adjacent string literals are concatenated. Characters in concatenated strings are kept distinct. For example,

```
"\xA" "B"
```

contains the two characters '\xA' and 'B' after concatenation (and not the single hexadecimal character '\xAB').

The size of a string literal is the number of character literals enclosed by the quotes, after concatenation. Within a string, the double quote character " must be preceded by a \.

A string literal may not contain the character '\0'.

Wide string literals have an L prefix, for example:

```
const wstring S1 = L"Hello";
```

Attempts to assign a wide string literal to a non-wide string constant or to assign a non-wide string literal to a wide string constant result in a compile-time diagnostic.

Both wide and non-wide string literals must be specified using characters from the ISO 8859-1 character set.

A wide string literal shall not contain the wide character with value zero.

3.2.5.5 *Fixed-Point Literals*

A fixed-point decimal literal consists of an integer part, a decimal point, a fraction part and a d or D. The integer and fraction parts both consist of a sequence of decimal (base 10) digits. Either the integer part or the fraction part (but not both) may be missing; the decimal point (but not the letter d (or D)) may be missing.

3.3 *Preprocessing*

OMG IDL is preprocessed according to the specification of the preprocessor in "International Organization for Standardization. 1998. ISO/IEC 14882 Standard for the C++ Programming Language. Geneva: International Organization for Standardization." The preprocessor may be implemented as a separate process or built into the IDL compiler.

Lines beginning with # (also called "directives") communicate with this preprocessor. White space may appear before the #. These lines have syntax independent of the rest of OMG IDL; they may appear anywhere and have effects that last (independent of the OMG IDL scoping rules) until the end of the translation unit. The textual location of OMG IDL-specific pragmas may be semantically constrained.

A preprocessing directive (or any line) may be continued on the next line in a source file by placing a backslash character ("\"), immediately before the newline at the end of the line to be continued. The preprocessor effects the continuation by deleting the backslash and the newline before the input sequence is divided into tokens. A backslash character may not be the last character in a source file.

A preprocessing token is an OMG IDL token (see Section 3.2.1, "Tokens," on page 3-6), a file name as in a **#include** directive, or any single character other than white space that does not match another preprocessing token.

The primary use of the preprocessing facilities is to include definitions from other OMG IDL specifications. Text in files included with a **#include** directive is treated as if it appeared in the including file. The **#pragma** directive that is used to include RepositoryIds is described in Section 10.6, “RepositoryIds,” on page 10-42.

3.4 OMG IDL Grammar

(1)	<specification>	::= <definition> ⁺
(2)	<definition>	::= <type_dcl> “,” <const_dcl> “,” <except_dcl> “,” <interface> “,” <module> “,” <value> “,”
(3)	<module>	::= “module” <identifier> “{“ <definition> ⁺ “}”
(4)	<interface>	::= <interface_dcl> <forward_dcl>
(5)	<interface_dcl>	::= <interface_header> “{“ <interface_body> “}”
(6)	<forward_dcl>	::= [“abstract” “local”] “interface” <identifier>
(7)	<interface_header>	::= [“abstract” “local”] “interface” <identifier> [<interface_inheritance_spec>]
(8)	<interface_body>	::= <export> [*]
(9)	<export>	::= <type_dcl> “,” <const_dcl> “,” <except_dcl> “,” <attr_dcl> “,” <op_dcl> “,”
(10)	<interface_inheritance_spec>	::= “:” <interface_name> { “,” <interface_name> } [*]
(11)	<interface_name>	::= <scoped_name>
(12)	<scoped_name>	::= <identifier> “:” <identifier> <scoped_name> “:” <identifier>
(13)	<value>	::= (<value_dcl> <value_abs_dcl> <value_box_dcl> <value_forward_dcl>)
(14)	<value_forward_dcl>	::= [“abstract”] “valuetype” <identifier>
(15)	<value_box_dcl>	::= “valuetype” <identifier> <type_spec>
(16)	<value_abs_dcl>	::= “abstract” “valuetype” <identifier> [<value_inheritance_spec>] “{“ <export> [*] “}”
(17)	<value_dcl>	::= <value_header> “{“ <value_element> [*] “}”
(18)	<value_header>	::= [“custom”] “valuetype” <identifier> [<value_inheritance_spec>]
(19)	<value_inheritance_spec>	::= [“:” [“truncatable”] <value_name> { “,” <value_name> } [*]] [“supports” <interface_name> { “,” <interface_name> } [*]]

- (20) <value_name> ::= <scoped_name>
- (21) <value_element> ::= <export> | <state_member> | <init_dcl>
- (22) <state_member> ::= (“public” | “private”)
<type_spec> <declarators> “;”
- (23) <init_dcl> ::= “factory” <identifier>
“(“ [<init_param_decls>])” “;”
- (24) <init_param_decls> ::= <init_param_decl> { “,” <init_param_decl> }*
- (25) <init_param_decl> ::= <init_param_attribute> <param_type_spec>
<simple_declarator>
- (26) <init_param_attribute> ::= “in”
- (27) <const_dcl> ::= “const” <const_type>
<identifier> “=” <const_exp>
- (28) <const_type> ::= <integer_type>
| <char_type>
| <wide_char_type>
| <boolean_type>
| <floating_pt_type>
| <string_type>
| <wide_string_type>
| <fixed_pt_const_type>
| <scoped_name>
| <octet_type>
- (29) <const_exp> ::= <or_expr>
- (30) <or_expr> ::= <xor_expr>
| <or_expr> “|” <xor_expr>
- (31) <xor_expr> ::= <and_expr>
| <xor_expr> “^” <and_expr>
- (32) <and_expr> ::= <shift_expr>
| <and_expr> “&” <shift_expr>
- (33) <shift_expr> ::= <add_expr>
| <shift_expr> “>>” <add_expr>
| <shift_expr> “<<” <add_expr>
- (34) <add_expr> ::= <mult_expr>
| <add_expr> “+” <mult_expr>
| <add_expr> “-” <mult_expr>
- (35) <mult_expr> ::= <unary_expr>
| <mult_expr> “*” <unary_expr>
| <mult_expr> “/” <unary_expr>
| <mult_expr> “%” <unary_expr>
- (36) <unary_expr> ::= <unary_operator> <primary_expr>
| <primary_expr>
- (37) <unary_operator> ::= “-”
| “+”
| “~”
- (38) <primary_expr> ::= <scoped_name>
| <literal>
| “(” <const_exp> “)”

(39)	<literal>	::=	<integer_literal> <string_literal> <wide_string_literal> <character_literal> <wide_character_literal> <fixed_pt_literal> <floating_pt_literal> <boolean_literal>
(40)	<boolean_literal>	::=	“TRUE” “FALSE”
(41)	<positive_int_const>	::=	<const_exp>
(42)	<type_dcl>	::=	“typedef” <type_declarator> <struct_type> <union_type> <enum_type> “native” <simple_declarator> <constr_forward_decl>
(43)	<type_declarator>	::=	<type_spec> <declarators>
(44)	<type_spec>	::=	<simple_type_spec> <constr_type_spec>
(45)	<simple_type_spec>	::=	<base_type_spec> <template_type_spec> <scoped_name>
(46)	<base_type_spec>	::=	<floating_pt_type> <integer_type> <char_type> <wide_char_type> <boolean_type> <octet_type> <any_type> <object_type> <value_base_type>
(47)	<template_type_spec>	::=	<sequence_type> <string_type> <wide_string_type> <fixed_pt_type>
(48)	<constr_type_spec>	::=	<struct_type> <union_type> <enum_type>
(49)	<declarators>	::=	<declarator> { “,” <declarator> }*
(50)	<declarator>	::=	<simple_declarator> <complex_declarator>
(51)	<simple_declarator>	::=	<identifier>
(52)	<complex_declarator>	::=	<array_declarator>
(53)	<floating_pt_type>	::=	“float” “double” “long” “double”
(54)	<integer_type>	::=	<signed_int>

		<unsigned_int>
(55)	<signed_int>	::= <signed_short_int> <signed_long_int> <signed_longlong_int>
(56)	<signed_short_int>	::= "short"
(57)	<signed_long_int>	::= "long"
(58)	<signed_longlong_int>	::= "long" "long"
(59)	<unsigned_int>	::= <unsigned_short_int> <unsigned_long_int> <unsigned_longlong_int>
(60)	<unsigned_short_int>	::= "unsigned" "short"
(61)	<unsigned_long_int>	::= "unsigned" "long"
(62)	<unsigned_longlong_int>	::= "unsigned" "long" "long"
(63)	<char_type>	::= "char"
(64)	<wide_char_type>	::= "wchar"
(65)	<boolean_type>	::= "boolean"
(66)	<octet_type>	::= "octet"
(67)	<any_type>	::= "any"
(68)	<object_type>	::= "Object"
(69)	<struct_type>	::= "struct" <identifier> "{" <member_list> "}"
(70)	<member_list>	::= <member> ⁺
(71)	<member>	::= <type_spec> <declarators> " ;"
(72)	<union_type>	::= "union" <identifier> "switch" " (" <switch_type_spec> ")" " {" <switch_body> "}"
(73)	<switch_type_spec>	::= <integer_type> <char_type> <boolean_type> <enum_type> <scoped_name>
(74)	<switch_body>	::= <case> ⁺
(75)	<case>	::= <case_label> ⁺ <element_spec> " ;"
(76)	<case_label>	::= "case" <const_exp> " :" "default" " :"
(77)	<element_spec>	::= <type_spec> <declarator>
(78)	<enum_type>	::= "enum" <identifier> " {" <enumerator> { " , " <enumerator> } * " ;"
(79)	<enumerator>	::= <identifier>
(80)	<sequence_type>	::= "sequence" "<" <simple_type_spec> " ;" <positive_int_const> ">" "sequence" "<" <simple_type_spec> ">"
(81)	<string_type>	::= "string" "<" <positive_int_const> ">" "string"
(82)	<wide_string_type>	::= "wstring" "<" <positive_int_const> ">" "wstring"
(83)	<array_declarator>	::= <identifier> <fixed_array_size> ⁺

(84)	<code><fixed_array_size></code>	::=	<code>"[" <positive_int_const> "]"</code>
(85)	<code><attr_dcl></code>	::=	<code>["readonly"] "attribute"</code> <code><param_type_spec> <simple_declarator></code> <code>{ "," <simple_declarator> }*</code>
(86)	<code><except_dcl></code>	::=	<code>"exception" <identifier> "{" <member>* "}"</code>
(87)	<code><op_dcl></code>	::=	<code>[<op_attribute>] <op_type_spec></code> <code><identifier> <parameter_dcls></code> <code>[<raises_expr>] [<context_expr>]</code>
(88)	<code><op_attribute></code>	::=	<code>"oneway"</code>
(89)	<code><op_type_spec></code>	::=	<code><param_type_spec></code> <code> </code> <code>"void"</code>
(90)	<code><parameter_dcls></code>	::=	<code>"(" <param_dcl> { "," <param_dcl> }* ")"</code> <code> </code> <code>"(" ")"</code>
(91)	<code><param_dcl></code>	::=	<code><param_attribute> <param_type_spec></code> <code><simple_declarator></code>
(92)	<code><param_attribute></code>	::=	<code>"in"</code> <code> </code> <code>"out"</code> <code> </code> <code>"inout"</code>
(93)	<code><raises_expr></code>	::=	<code>"raises" "(" <scoped_name></code> <code>{ "," <scoped_name> }* ")"</code>
(94)	<code><context_expr></code>	::=	<code>"context" "(" <string_literal></code> <code>{ "," <string_literal> }* ")"</code>
(95)	<code><param_type_spec></code>	::=	<code><base_type_spec></code> <code> </code> <code><string_type></code> <code> </code> <code><wide_string_type></code> <code> </code> <code><scoped_name></code>
(96)	<code><fixed_pt_type></code>	::=	<code>"fixed" "<" <positive_int_const> ","</code> <code><positive_int_const> ">"</code>
(97)	<code><fixed_pt_const_type></code>	::=	<code>"fixed"</code>
(98)	<code><value_base_type></code>	::=	<code>"ValueBase"</code>
(99)	<code><constr_forward_decl></code>	::=	<code>"struct" <identifier></code> <code> </code> <code>"union" <identifier></code>

3.5 OMG IDL Specification

An OMG IDL specification consists of one or more type definitions, constant definitions, exception definitions, or module definitions. The syntax is:

(1)	<code><specification></code>	::=	<code><definition>⁺</code>
(2)	<code><definition></code>	::=	<code><type_dcl> ";"</code> <code> </code> <code><const_dcl> ";"</code> <code> </code> <code><except_dcl> ";"</code> <code> </code> <code><interface> ";"</code> <code> </code> <code><module> ";"</code> <code> </code> <code><value> ";"</code>

See Section 3.6, "Module Declaration," on page 3-17, for the specification of `<module>`.

See Section 3.7, “Interface Declaration,” on page 3-17, for the specification of <interface>.

See Section 3.8, “Value Declaration,” on page 3-24, for the specification of <value>.

See Section 3.9, “Constant Declaration,” on page 3-29, Section 3.10, “Type Declaration,” on page 3-33, and Section 3.11, “Exception Declaration,” on page 3-46 respectively for specifications of <const_dcl>, <type_dcl>, and <except_dcl>.

3.6 Module Declaration

A module definition satisfies the following syntax:

(3) **<module>** ::= “**module**” <identifier> “{” <definition>+ “}”

The module construct is used to scope OMG IDL identifiers; see Section 3.14, “CORBA Module,” on page 3-50 for details.

3.7 Interface Declaration

An interface definition satisfies the following syntax:

(4) **<interface>** ::= <interface_dcl>
| <forward_dcl>

(5) **<interface_dcl>** ::= <interface_header> “{” <interface_body> “}”

(6) **<forward_dcl>** ::= [“abstract” | “local”] “interface” <identifier>

(7) **<interface_header>** ::= [“abstract” | “local”] “interface” <identifier>
[<interface_inheritance_spec>]

(8) **<interface_body>** ::= <export>*

(9) **<export>** ::= <type_dcl> “;”
| <const_dcl> “;”
| <except_dcl> “;”
| <attr_dcl> “;”
| <op_dcl> “;”

3.7.1 Interface Header

The interface header consists of three elements:

1. An optional modifier specifying if the interface is an abstract interface.
2. The interface name. The name must be preceded by the keyword **interface**, and consists of an identifier that names the interface.
3. An optional inheritance specification. The inheritance specification is described in the next section.

The <identifier> that names an interface defines a legal type name. Such a type name may be used anywhere an <identifier> is legal in the grammar, subject to semantic constraints as described in the following sections. Since one can only hold references

to an object, the meaning of a parameter or structure member, which is an interface type is as a *reference* to an object supporting that interface. Each language binding describes how the programmer must represent such interface references.

Abstract interfaces have slightly different rules and semantics from “regular” interfaces, as described in Section 6.2, “Semantics of Abstract Interfaces,” on page 6-1. They also follow different language mapping rules.

3.7.2 Interface Inheritance Specification

The syntax for inheritance is as follows:

```
(10) <interface_inheritance_spec> ::= ":" <interface_name>
                                     { "," <interface_name> } *
(11)   <interface_name> ::= <scoped_name>
(12)   <scoped_name> ::= <identifier>
                       | ":" <identifier>
                       | <scoped_name> ":" <identifier>
```

Each **<scoped_name>** in an **<interface_inheritance_spec>** must denote a previously defined interface. See Section 3.7.5, “Interface Inheritance,” on page 3-19 for the description of inheritance.

3.7.3 Interface Body

The interface body contains the following kinds of declarations:

- Constant declarations, which specify the constants that the interface exports; constant declaration syntax is described in Section 3.9, “Constant Declaration,” on page 3-29.
- Type declarations, which specify the type definitions that the interface exports; type declaration syntax is described in Section 3.10, “Type Declaration,” on page 3-33.
- Exception declarations, which specify the exception structures that the interface exports; exception declaration syntax is described in Section 3.11, “Exception Declaration,” on page 3-46.
- Attribute declarations, which specify the associated attributes exported by the interface; attribute declaration syntax is described in Section 3.13, “Attribute Declaration,” on page 3-49.
- Operation declarations, which specify the operations that the interface exports and the format of each, including operation name, the type of data returned, the types of all parameters of an operation, legal exceptions that may be returned as a result of an invocation, and contextual information that may affect method dispatch; operation declaration syntax is described in Section 3.12, “Operation Declaration,” on page 3-47.

Empty interfaces are permitted (that is, those containing no declarations).

Some implementations may require interface-specific pragmas to precede the interface body.

3.7.4 Forward Declaration

A forward declaration declares the name of an interface without defining it. This permits the definition of interfaces that refer to each other. **The syntax is: optionally the keyword `abstract`, followed by the keyword `interface`, followed by an `<identifier>` that names the interface.**

Multiple forward declarations of the same interface name are legal.

It is illegal to inherit from a forward-declared interface whose definition has not yet been seen:

```

module Example {
    interface base;           // Forward declaration

    // ...

    interface derived : base {}; // Error
    interface base {};         // Define base
    interface derived : base {}; // OK
};

```

3.7.5 Interface Inheritance

An interface can be derived from another interface, which is then called a *base* interface of the derived interface. A derived interface, like all interfaces, may declare new elements (constants, types, attributes, exceptions, and operations). In addition, unless redefined in the derived interface, the elements of a base interface can be referred to as if they were elements of the derived interface. The name resolution operator (“::”) may be used to refer to a base element explicitly; this permits reference to a name that has been redefined in the derived interface.

A derived interface may redefine any of the type, constant, and exception names that have been inherited; the scope rules for such names are described in Section 3.14, “CORBA Module,” on page 3-50.

An interface is called a direct base if it is mentioned in the `<interface_inheritance_spec>` and an indirect base if it is not a direct base but is a base interface of one of the interfaces mentioned in the `<interface_inheritance_spec>`.

An interface may be derived from any number of base interfaces. Such use of more than one direct base interface is often called multiple inheritance. The order of derivation is not significant.

An abstract interface may only inherit from other abstract interfaces.

An interface may not be specified as a direct base interface of a derived interface more than once; it may be an indirect base interface more than once. Consider the following example:

```
interface A { ... }
interface B: A { ... }
interface C: A { ... }
interface D: B, C { ... }
interface E: A, B { ... };           // OK
```

The relationships between these interfaces is shown in Figure 3-1. This “diamond” shape is legal, as is the definition of E on the right.

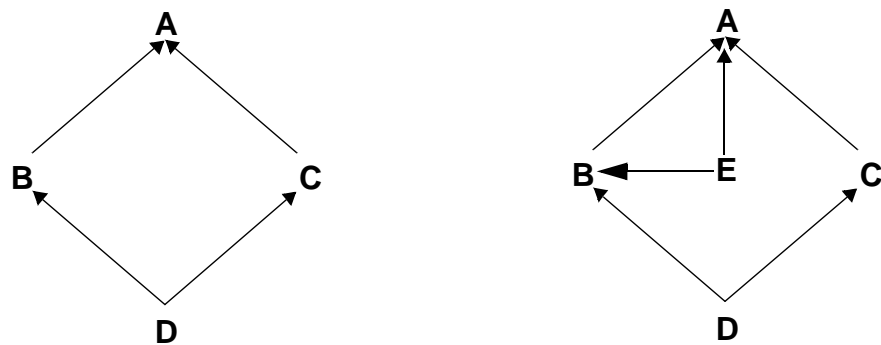


Figure 3-1 Legal Multiple Inheritance Example

References to base interface elements must be unambiguous. A Reference to a base interface element is ambiguous if the name is declared as a constant, type, or exception in more than one base interface. Ambiguities can be resolved by qualifying a name with its interface name (that is, using a `<scoped_name>`). It is illegal to inherit from two interfaces with the same operation or attribute name, or to redefine an operation or attribute name in the derived interface.

So for example in:

```
interface A {
    typedef long L1;
    short opA(in L1 I_1);
};

interface B {
    typedef short L1;
    L1 opB(in long I);
};

interface C: B, A {
    typedef L1 L2;           // Error: L1 ambiguous
    typedef A::L1 L3;       // A::L1 is OK
    B::L1 opC(in L3 I_3);   // all OK no ambiguities
};
```

```
};
```

References to constants, types, and exceptions are bound to an interface when it is defined (i.e., replaced with the equivalent global **<scoped_name>**s). This guarantees that the syntax and semantics of an interface are not changed when the interface is a base interface for a derived interface. Consider the following example:

```
const long L = 3;
```

```
interface A {
    typedef float coord[L];
    void f (in coord s);           // s has three floats
};
```

```
interface B {
    const long L = 4;
};
```

```
interface C: B, A { };           // what is C::f()'s signature?
```

The early binding of constants, types, and exceptions at interface definition guarantees that the signature of operation **f** in interface **C** is

```
typedef float coord[3];
void f (in coord s);
```

which is identical to that in interface **A**. This rule also prevents redefinition of a constant, type, or exception in the derived interface from affecting the operations and attributes inherited from a base interface.

Interface inheritance causes all identifiers defined in base interfaces, both direct and indirect, to be visible in the current naming scope. A type name, constant name, enumeration value name, or exception name from an enclosing scope can be redefined in the current scope. An attempt to use an ambiguous name without qualification produces a compilation error. Thus in

```
interface A {
    typedef string<128> string_t;
};
```

```
interface B {
    typedef string<256> string_t;
};
```

```
interface C: A, B {
    attribute string_t    Title;           // Error: string_t ambiguous
    attribute A::string_t Name;           // OK
    attribute B::string_t City;           // OK
};
```

Operation and attribute names are used at run-time by both the stub and dynamic interfaces. As a result, all operations attributes that might apply to a particular object must have unique names. This requirement prohibits redefining an operation or attribute name in a derived interface, as well as inheriting two operations or attributes with the same name.

```
interface A {  
    void make_it_so();  
};  
  
interface B: A {  
    short make_it_so(in long times); // Error: redefinition of make_it_so  
};
```

For a complete summary of allowable inheritance and supporting relationships among interfaces and valuetypes see Table 3-10 on page 3-29.

3.7.6 Local Interface

3.7.6.1 Semantics

The semantics associated with local types are as follows:

- An interface declaration containing the keyword **local** declares a *local interface*. An interface declaration not containing the keyword **local** is referred to as an *unconstrained interface*. An object implementing a local interfaces is referred to as a *local object*.
- A local interface may inherit from other local or unconstrained interfaces.
- An unconstrained interface may not inherit from a local interface. An interface derived from a local interface must be explicitly declared **local**.
- A valuetype may support a local interface.
- Any IDL type, including an unconstrained interface, may appear as a parameter, attribute, return type, or exception declaration of a local interface.
- A **local** interface is a *local type*, as is any non-interface type declaration constructed using a local interface or other local type. For example, a **struct**, **union**, or **exception** with a member that is a local interface is also itself a local type.
- A local type may be used as a parameter, attribute, return type, or exception declaration of a local interface or of a **valuetype**.
- A local type may not appear as a parameter, attribute, return type, or exception declaration of an unconstrained interface or as a state member of a **valuetype**.

- Local types cannot be marshaled and references to local objects cannot be converted to strings. Any attempt to marshal a local object, such as via an unconstrained base interface, as an **Object**, or as the contents of an **any**, or to pass a local object to **ORB::object_to_string**, shall result in a **MARSHAL** system exception with OMG minor code 2.
- The usage of client side language mappings for local types shall be identical to those of equivalent unconstrained types.
- The DII is not supported on local objects, nor are asynchronous invocation interfaces.
- The **non_existent**, **is_equivalent** and **hash CORBA::Object** pseudo-operations shall be supported by references to local objects.
- The **is_a**, **get_interface**, **get_domain_managers**, **get_policy**, **get_client_policy**, **set_policy_overrides**, **get_policy_overrides**, and **validate_connection** pseudo-operations, and any DII support pseudo-operations, may result in a **NO_IMPLEMENT** system exception with minor code 3 when invoked on a reference to a local object.
- Language mappings shall specify server side mechanisms, including base classes and/or skeletons if necessary, for implementing local objects, so that invocation overhead is minimized.
- Invocations on local objects are not ORB mediated. Specifically, parameter copy semantics are not honored, interceptors are not invoked, and the execution context of a local object does not have ORB service **Current** object contexts that are distinct from those of the caller. Implementations of local interfaces are responsible for providing the parameter copy semantics expected by clients.
- Local objects have no inherent identities beyond their implementations' identities as programming objects. The lifecycle of the implementation is the same as the lifecycle of the reference.
- Instances of local objects defined as part of OMG specifications to be supplied by ORB products or object service products shall be exposed through the **ORB::resolve_initial_references** operation or through some other local object obtained from **resolve_initial_references**.

3.7.6.2 *LocalObject*

Local interfaces are implemented by using **CORBA::LocalObject** to provide implementations of **Object** pseudo operations and any other ORB specific support mechanisms that are appropriate for such objects. Object implementation techniques are inherently language mapping specific. Therefore, the **LocalObject** type is not defined in IDL, but is specified by each language mapping.

The **LocalObject** type provides implementations of the following **Object** pseudo-operations that raise the **NO_IMPLEMENT** system exception:

- **is_a**
- **get_interface**

- `get_domain_managers`
- `get_policy`
- `get_client_policy`
- `set_policy_overrides`
- `get_policy_overrides`
- `validate_connection`

Additionally, it provides implementations of the following pseudo-operations:

- `non_existent` - always returns false.
- `hash` - returns a hash value that is consistent for the lifetime of the object.
- `is_equivalent` - returns true if the references refer to the same **LocalObject** implementation.

Attempting to use a **LocalObject** to create a DII request results in a **NO_IMPLEMENT** system exception with standard minor code 4. Attempting to marshal or stringify a **LocalObject** results in a **MARSHAL** system exception with standard minor code 4. Narrowing and widening of references to **LocalObjects** must work as for regular object references.

For a complete summary of allowable inheritance and supporting relationships among interfaces and valuetypes see Table 3-10 on page 3-29.

3.8 Value Declaration

There are several kinds of value type declarations: “regular” value types, boxed value types, abstract value types, and forward declarations.

A value declaration satisfies the following syntax:

```
(13)      <value> ::= ( <value_dcl> | <value_abs_dcl> |
                <value_box_dcl> | <value_forward_dcl> )
```

3.8.1 Regular Value Type

A regular value type satisfies the following syntax:

```
(17)      <value_dcl> ::= <value_header> “{“ <value_element>* “}”
```

```
(18)      <value_header> ::= [“custom” ] “valuetype” <identifier>
                [ <value_inheritance_spec> ]
```

```
(21)      <value_element> ::= <export>
                | <state_member> |
                | <init_dcl>
```

3.8.1.1 Value Header

The value header consists of two elements:

1. The value type's name and optional modifier specifying whether the value type uses custom marshaling.
2. An optional value inheritance specification. The value inheritance specification is described in the next section.

3.8.1.2 Value Element

A value can contain all the elements that an interface can as well as the definition of state members, and initializers for that state.

3.8.1.3 Value Inheritance Specification

- (19) **<value_inheritance_spec>** ::= [":" ["truncatable"] <value_name> { "," <value_name> }*] ["supports" <interface_name> { "," <interface_name> }*]
- (20) **<value_name>** ::= <scoped_name>

Each **<value_name>** and **<interface_name>** in a **<value_inheritance_spec>** must denote previously defined value type or interface. See Section 3.8.5, "Valuetype Inheritance," on page 3-28 for the description of value type inheritance.

The **truncatable** modifier may not be used if the value type being defined is a custom value.

3.8.1.4 State Members

- (22) **<state_member>** ::= ("public" | "private") <type_spec> <declarators> ";"

Each **<state_member>** defines an element of the state, which is marshaled and sent to the receiver when the value type is passed as a parameter. A state member is either public or private. The annotation directs the language mapping to hide or expose the different parts of the state to the clients of the value type. The private part of the state is only accessible to the implementation code and the marshaling routines.

Note that certain programming languages may not have the built in facilities needed to distinguish between the public and private members. In these cases, the language mapping specifies the rules that programmers are responsible for following.

3.8.1.5 Initializers

- (23) **<init_dcl>** ::= "factory" <identifier> "([<init_param_decls>])" ";"
- (24) **<init_param_decls>** ::= <init_param_decl> { "," <init_param_decl> }*
- (25) **<init_param_decl>** ::= <init_param_attribute> <param_type_spec> <simple_declarator>
- (26) **<init_param_attribute>** ::= "in"

In order to ensure portability of value implementations, designers may also define the signatures of initializers (or constructors) for non abstract value types. Syntactically these look like local operation signatures except that they are prefixed with the keyword **factory**, have no return type, and must use only in parameters. There may be any number of factory declarations. The names of the initializers are part of the name scope of the value type. **Initializers defined in a valuetype are not inherited by derived valuetypes, and hence the names of the initializers are free to be reused in a derived valuetype.**

If no initializers are specified in IDL, the value type does not provide a portable way of creating a runtime instance of its type. There is no default initializer. This allows the definition of IDL value types, which are not intended to be directly instantiated by client code.

3.8.1.6 Value Type Example

```
interface Tree {
    void print()
};

valuetype WeightedBinaryTree {
    // state definition
    private unsigned long weight;
    private WeightedBinaryTree left;
    private WeightedBinaryTree right;
    // initializer
    factory init(in unsigned long w);
    // local operations
    WeightSeq pre_order();
    WeightSeq post_order();
};
valuetype WTree: WeightedBinaryTree supports Tree {};
```

3.8.2 Boxed Value Type

(15) `<value_box_dcl> ::= "valuetype" <identifier> <type_spec>`

It is often convenient to define a value type with no inheritance or operations and with a single state member. A shorthand IDL notation is used to simplify the use of value types for this kind of simple containment, referred to as a "value box."

Value box is particularly useful for strings and sequences. Basically one does not have to create what is in effect an additional namespace that will contain only one name.

An example is the following IDL:

```
module Example {
    interface Foo {
        ... /* anything */
    };
};
```

```

valuetype FooSeq sequence<Foo>;
interface Bar {
    void dolt (in FooSeq seq1);
};

```

The above IDL provides similar functionality to writing the following IDL. However the type identities (repository ID's) would be different.

```

module Example {
    interface Foo {
        ... /* anything */
    };
    valuetype FooSeq {
        public sequence<Foo> data;
    };
    interface Bar {
        void dolt (in FooSeq seq);
    };
};

```

The former is easier to manipulate after it is mapped to a concrete programming language.

Any IDL type may be used to declare a value box except for a valuetype.

The declaration of a boxed value type does not open a new scope. Thus a construction such as:

```

valuetype FooSeq sequence <FooSeq>;

```

is not legal IDL. The identifier being declared as a boxed value type cannot be used subsequent to its initial use and prior to the completion of the boxed value declaration.

3.8.3 Abstract Value Type

```

(15) <value_abs_dcl> ::= "abstract" "valuetype" <identifier>
    [ <value_inheritance_spec> ]
    "{" <export>* "}"

```

Value types may also be abstract. They are called abstract because an abstract value type may not be instantiated. No <state_member> or <initializers> may be specified. However, local operations may be specified. Essentially they are a bundle of operation signatures with a purely local implementation.

Note that a concrete value type with an empty state is not an abstract value type.

3.8.4 Value Forward Declaration

```

(14) <value_forward_dcl> ::= [ "abstract" ] "valuetype" <identifier>

```

A forward declaration declares the name of a value type without defining it. This permits the definition of value types that refer to each other. The syntax consists simply of the keyword **valuetype** followed by an **<identifier>** that names the value type.

Multiple forward declarations of the same value type name are legal.

Boxed value types cannot be forward declared; such a forward declaration would refer to a normal value type.

It is illegal to inherit from a forward-declared value type whose definition has not yet been seen.

3.8.5 Valuetype Inheritance

The terminology that is used to describe value type inheritance is directly analogous to that used to describe interface inheritance (see Section 3.7.5, “Interface Inheritance,” on page 3-19).

The name scoping and name collision rules for valuetypes are identical to those for interfaces. In addition, no valuetype may be specified as a direct abstract base of a derived valuetype more than once; it may be an indirect abstract base more than once. See Section 3.7.5, “Interface Inheritance,” on page 3-19 for a detailed description of the analogous properties for interfaces.

Values may be derived from other values and can support an interface and any number of abstract interfaces.

Once implementation (state) is specified at a particular point in the inheritance hierarchy, all derived value types (which must of course implement the state) may only derive from a single (concrete) value type. They can however derive from other additional abstract values and support an additional interface.

The single immediate base concrete value type, if present, must be the first element specified in the inheritance list of the value declaration’s IDL. It may be followed by other abstract values from which it inherits. The interface and abstract interfaces that it supports are listed following the **supports** keyword.

A stateful value that derives from another stateful value may specify that it is truncatable. This means that it is to “truncate” (see Section 5.2.5.2, “Value instance -> Value type,” on page 5-5) an instance to be an instance of any of its truncatable parent (stateful) value types under certain conditions. Note that all the intervening types in the inheritance hierarchy must be truncatable in order for truncation to a particular type to be allowed.

Because custom values require an exact type match between the sending and receiving context, **truncatable** may not be specified for a custom value type.

Non-custom value types may not (transitively) inherit from custom value types.

Boxed value types may not be derived from, nor may they derive from anything else.

			<mult_expr> "*" <unary_expr>
			<mult_expr> "/" <unary_expr>
			<mult_expr> "%" <unary_expr>
(36)	<unary_expr>	::=	<unary_operator> <primary_expr>
			<primary_expr>
(37)	<unary_operator>	::=	"-"
			"+"
			"~"
(38)	<primary_expr>	::=	<scoped_name>
			<literal>
			"(" <const_exp> ")"
(39)	<literal>	::=	<integer_literal>
			<string_literal>
			<wide_string_literal>
			<character_literal>
			<wide_character_literal>
			<fixed_pt_literal>
			<floating_pt_literal>
			<boolean_literal>
(40)	<boolean_literal>	::=	"TRUE"
			"FALSE"
(41)	<positive_int_const>	::=	<const_exp>

3.9.2 Semantics

The <scoped_name> in the <const_type> production must be a previously defined name of an <integer_type>, <char_type>, <wide_char_type>, <boolean_type>, <floating_pt_type>, <string_type>, <wide_string_type>, <octet_type>, or <enum_type> constant.

Integer literals have positive integer values. Only integer values can be assigned to integer type (**short**, **long**, **long long**) constants. Only positive integer values can be assigned to unsigned integer type constants. If the value of the right hand side of an integer constant declaration is too large to fit in the actual type of the constant on the left hand side, e.g.,

```
const short s = 655592;
```

or is inappropriate for the actual type of the left hand side, e.g.,

```
const octet o = -54;
```

it shall be flagged as a compile time error.

Floating point literals have floating point values. Only floating point values can be assigned to floating point type (**float**, **double**, **long double**) constants. If the value of the right hand side is too large to fit in the actual type of the constant to which it is being assigned it shall be flagged as a compile time error.

Fixed point literals have fixed point values. Only fixed point values can be assigned to fixed point type constants. If the fixed point value in the expression on the right hand side is too large to fit in the actual fixed point type of the constant on the left hand side, then it shall be flagged as a compile time error.

An infix operator can combine two integers, floats or fixeds, but not mixtures of these. Infix operators are applicable only to integer, float and fixed types.

If the type of an integer constant is **long** or **unsigned long**, then each subexpression of the associated constant expression is treated as an **unsigned long** by default, or a signed **long** for negated literals or negative integer constants. It is an error if any subexpression values exceed the precision of the assigned type (**long** or **unsigned long**), or if a final expression value (of type **unsigned long**) exceeds the precision of the target type (**long**).

If the type of an integer constant is **long long** or **unsigned long long**, then each subexpression of the associated constant expression is treated as an **unsigned long long** by default, or a signed **long long** for negated literals or negative integer constants. It is an error if any subexpression values exceed the precision of the assigned type (**long long** or **unsigned long long**), or if a final expression value (of type **unsigned long long**) exceeds the precision of the target type (**long long**).

If the type of a floating-point constant is **double**, then each subexpression of the associated constant expression is treated as a **double**. It is an error if any subexpression value exceeds the precision of **double**.

If the type of a floating-point constant is **long double**, then each subexpression of the associated constant expression is treated as a **long double**. It is an error if any subexpression value exceeds the precision of **long double**.

Fixed-point decimal constant expressions are evaluated as follows. A fixed-point literal has the apparent number of total and fractional digits, except that leading and trailing zeros are factored out, including non-significant zeros before the decimal point. For example, **0123.450d** is considered to be **fixed<5,2>** and **3000.00D** is **fixed<1,-3>**. Prefix operators do not affect the precision; a prefix **+** is optional, and does not change the result. The upper bounds on the number of digits and scale of the result of an infix expression, **fixed<d1,s1> op fixed<d2,s2>**, are shown in the following table:

Op	Result: fixed<d,s>
+	fixed<max(d1-s1,d2-s2) + max(s1,s2) + 1, max(s1,s2)>
-	fixed<max(d1-s1,d2-s2) + max(s1,s2) + 1, max(s1,s2)>
*	fixed<d1+d2, s1+s2>
/	fixed<(d1-s1+s2) + s_{inf}, s_{inf}>

A quotient may have an arbitrary number of decimal places, denoted by a scale of **s_{inf}**. The computation proceeds pairwise, with the usual rules for left-to-right association, operator precedence, and parentheses. All intermediate computations shall be

performed using double precision (i.e., 62 digit) arithmetic. If an individual computation between a pair of fixed-point literals actually generates more than 31 significant digits, then a 31-digit result is retained as follows:

fixed<d,s> => fixed<31, 31-d+s>

Leading and trailing zeros are not considered significant. The omitted digits are discarded; rounding is not performed. The result of the individual computation then proceeds as one literal operand of the next pair of fixed-point literals to be computed.

Unary (+ -) and binary (* / + -) operators are applicable in floating-point and fixed-point expressions. Unary (+ - ~) and binary (* / % + - << >> & | ^) operators are applicable in integer expressions.

The “~” unary operator indicates that the bit-complement of the expression to which it is applied should be generated. For the purposes of such expressions, the values are 2’s complement numbers. As such, the complement can be generated as follows:

Integer Constant Expression Type	Generated 2’s Complement Numbers
long	long -(value+1)
unsigned long	unsigned long (2**32-1) - value
long long	long long -(value+1)
unsigned long long	unsigned long (2**64-1) - value

The “%” binary operator yields the remainder from the division of the first expression by the second. If the second operand of “%” is 0, the result is undefined; otherwise

$$(a/b)*b + a\%b$$

is equal to a. If both operands are nonnegative, then the remainder is nonnegative; if not, the sign of the remainder is implementation dependent.

The “<<” binary operator indicates that the value of the left operand should be shifted left the number of bits specified by the right operand, with 0 fill for the vacated bits. The right operand must be in the range $0 \leq \text{right operand} < 64$.

The “>>” binary operator indicates that the value of the left operand should be shifted right the number of bits specified by the right operand, with 0 fill for the vacated bits. The right operand must be in the range $0 \leq \text{right operand} < 64$.

The “&” binary operator indicates that the logical, bitwise AND of the left and right operands should be generated.

The “|” binary operator indicates that the logical, bitwise OR of the left and right operands should be generated.

The “^” binary operator indicates that the logical, bitwise EXCLUSIVE-OR of the left and right operands should be generated.

<positive_int_const> must evaluate to a positive integer constant.

An octet constant can be defined using an integer literal or an integer constant expression, for example:

```
const octet O1 = 0x1;
const long L = 3;
const octet O2 = 5 + L;
```

Values for an octet constant outside the range 0 - 255 shall cause a compile-time error.

An enum constant can only be defined using a scoped name for the enumerator. The scoped name is resolved using the normal scope resolution rules Section 3.15, “Names and Scoping,” on page 3-51. For example:

```
enum Color { red, green, blue };
const Color FAVORITE_COLOR = red;

module M {
    enum Size { small, medium, large };
};
const M::Size MYSIZE = M::medium;
```

The constant name for the RHS of an enumerated constant definition must denote one of the enumerators defined for the enumerated type of the constant. For example:

```
const Color col = red; // is OK but
const Color another = M::medium; // is an error
```

3.10 Type Declaration

OMG IDL provides constructs for naming data types; that is, it provides C language-like declarations that associate an identifier with a type. OMG IDL uses the **typedef** keyword to associate a name with a data type; a name is also associated with a data type via the **struct**, **union**, **enum**, and **native** declarations; the syntax is:

- (42) **<type_dcl>** ::= “**typedef**” **<type_declarator>**
| **<struct_type>**
| **<union_type>**
| **<enum_type>**
| “**native**” **<simple_declarator>**
| **<constr_forward_decl>**
- (43) **<type_declarator>** ::= **<type_spec>** **<declarators>**

For type declarations, OMG IDL defines a set of type specifiers to represent typed values. The syntax is as follows:

- (44) **<type_spec>** ::= **<simple_type_spec>**
| **<constr_type_spec>**
- (45) **<simple_type_spec>** ::= **<base_type_spec>**

			<template_type_spec>
			<scoped_name>
(46)	<base_type_spec>	::=	<floating_pt_type>
			<integer_type>
			<char_type>
			<wide_char_type>
			<boolean_type>
			<octet_type>
			<any_type>
			<object_type>
			<value_base_type>
(47)	<template_type_spec>	::=	<sequence_type>
			<string_type>
			<wide_string_type>
			<fixed_pt_type>
(48)	<constr_type_spec>	::=	<struct_type>
			<union_type>
			<enum_type>
(49)	<declarators>	::=	<declarator> { “,” <declarator> }*
(50)	<declarator>	::=	<simple_declarator>
			<complex_declarator>
(51)	<simple_declarator>	::=	<identifier>
(52)	<complex_declarator>	::=	<array_declarator>

The **<scoped_name>** in **<simple_type_spec>** must be a previously defined type introduced by an interface declaration (**<interface_dcl>** - see Section 3.7, “Interface Declaration), a value declaration (**<value_dcl>**, **<value_box_dcl>** or **<abstract_value_dcl>** - see Section 3.8, “Value Declaration) or a type declaration (**<type_dcl>** - see Section 3.10, “Type Declaration). Note that exceptions are not considered types in this context.

As seen above, OMG IDL type specifiers consist of scalar data types and type constructors. OMG IDL type specifiers can be used in operation declarations to assign data types to operation parameters. The next sections describe basic and constructed type specifiers.

3.10.1 Basic Types

The syntax for the supported basic types is as follows:

(53)	<floating_pt_type>	::=	“float”
			“double”
			“long” “double”
(54)	<integer_type>	::=	<signed_int>
			<unsigned_int>
(55)	<signed_int>	::=	<signed_short_int>
			<signed_long_int>
			<signed_longlong_int>
(56)	<signed_short_int>	::=	“short”

3.10.1.3 *Char Type*

OMG IDL defines a **char** data type that is an 8-bit quantity that (1) encodes a single-byte character from any byte-oriented code set, or (2) when used in an array, encodes a multi-byte character from a multi-byte code set. In other words, an implementation is free to use any code set internally for encoding character data, though conversion to another form may be required for transmission.

The ISO 8859-1 (Latin1) character set standard defines the meaning and representation of all possible graphic characters used in OMG IDL (i.e., the space, alphabetic, digit and graphic characters defined in Table 3-2 on page 3-3, Table 3-3 on page 3-4, and Table 3-4 on page 3-4). The meaning and representation of the null and formatting characters (see Table 3-5 on page 3-5) is the numerical value of the character as defined in the ASCII (ISO 646) standard. The meaning of all other characters is implementation-dependent.

During transmission, characters may be converted to other appropriate forms as required by a particular language binding. Such conversions may change the representation of a character but maintain the character's meaning. For example, a character may be converted to and from the appropriate representation in international character sets.

3.10.1.4 *Wide Char Type*

OMG IDL defines a **wchar** data type that encodes wide characters from any character set. As with character data, an implementation is free to use any code set internally for encoding wide characters, though, again, conversion to another form may be required for transmission. The size of **wchar** is implementation-dependent.

3.10.1.5 *Boolean Type*

The **boolean** data type is used to denote a data item that can only take one of the values TRUE and FALSE.

3.10.1.6 *Octet Type*

The **octet** type is an 8-bit quantity that is guaranteed not to undergo any conversion when transmitted by the communication system.

3.10.1.7 *Any Type*

The **any** type permits the specification of values that can express any OMG IDL type.

An **any** logically contains a TypeCode (see Section 3.10, "Type Declaration," on page 3-33) and a value that is described by the TypeCode. Each IDL language mapping provides operations that allow programmers to insert and access the TypeCode and value contained in an any.

3.10.2 Constructed Types

Structs, unions and enums are the constructed types. Their syntax is presented in this section:

```
(42)      <type_dcl> ::= "typedef" <type_declarator>
          | <struct_type>
          | <union_type>
          | <enum_type>
          | "native" <simple_declarator>
          | <constr_forward_decl>

(48)      <constr_type_spec> ::= <struct_type>
          | <union_type>
          | <enum_type>

(99)      <constr_forward_decl> ::= "struct" <identifier>
          | "union" <identifier>
```

3.10.2.1 Structures

The syntax for **struct** type is

```
(69)      <struct_type> ::= "struct" <identifier> "{" <member_list> "}"
(70)      <member_list> ::= <member>+
(71)      <member> ::= <type_spec> <declarators> ";;"
```

The **<identifier>** in **<struct_type>** defines a new legal type. Structure types may also be named using a **typedef** declaration.

Name scoping rules require that the member declarators in a particular structure be unique. The value of a **struct** is the value of all of its members.

3.10.2.2 Discriminated Unions

The discriminated **union** syntax is:

```
(72)      <union_type> ::= "union" <identifier> "switch"
          | "(" <switch_type_spec> ")"
          | "{" <switch_body> "}"

(73)      <switch_type_spec> ::= <integer_type>
          | <char_type>
          | <boolean_type>
          | <enum_type>
          | <scoped_name>

(74)      <switch_body> ::= <case>+
(75)      <case> ::= <case_label>+ <element_spec> ";;"
(76)      <case_label> ::= "case" <const_exp> ":"
          | "default" ":"
(77)      <element_spec> ::= <type_spec> <declarator>
```

OMG IDL unions are a cross between the C **union** and **switch** statements. IDL unions must be discriminated; that is, the union header must specify a typed tag field that determines which union member to use for the current instance of a call. The **<identifier>** following the **union** keyword defines a new legal type. Union types may also be named using a **typedef** declaration. The **<const_exp>** in a **<case_label>** must be consistent with the **<switch_type_spec>**. A **default** case can appear at most once. The **<scoped_name>** in the **<switch_type_spec>** production must be a previously defined **integer**, **char**, **boolean** or **enum** type.

Case labels must match or be automatically castable to the defined type of the discriminator. Name scoping rules require that the element declarators in a particular union be unique. If the **<switch_type_spec>** is an **<enum_type>**, the identifier for the enumeration is in the scope of the union; as a result, it must be distinct from the element declarators.

It is not required that all possible values of the union discriminator be listed in the **<switch_body>**. The value of a union is the value of the discriminator together with one of the following:

- If the discriminator value was explicitly listed in a **case** statement, the value of the element associated with that **case** statement;
- If a default **case** label was specified, the value of the element associated with the default **case** label;
- No additional value.

The values of the constant expressions for the case labels of a single union definition must be distinct. A union type can contain a default label only where the values given in the non-default labels do not cover the entire range of the union's discriminant type.

Access to the discriminator and the related element is language-mapping dependent.

Note – While any ISO Latin-1 (8859.1) IDL character literal may be used in a **<case_label>** in a union definition whose discriminator type is **char**, not all of these characters are present in all transmission code sets that may be negotiated by GIOP or in all native code sets that may be used by implementation language compilers and runtimes. When an attempt is made to marshal to CDR a **union** whose discriminator value of **char** type is not available in the negotiated transmission code set, or to demarshal from CDR a **union** whose discriminator value of **char** type is not available in the native code set, a **DATA_CONVERSION** system exception is raised. Therefore, to ensure portability and interoperability, care must be exercised when assigning the **<case_label>** for a **union** member whose discriminator type is **char**. Due to these issues, use of **char** types as the discriminator type for **unions** is not recommended.

3.10.2.3 Enumerations

Enumerated types consist of ordered lists of identifiers. The syntax is:

```
(78)      <enum_type> ::= "enum" <identifier>
          {"<enumerator> { "," <enumerator> }* "}
```

(79) **<enumerator> ::= <identifier>**

A maximum of 2^{32} identifiers may be specified in an enumeration; as such, the enumerated names must be mapped to a native data type capable of representing a maximally-sized enumeration. The order in which the identifiers are named in the specification of an enumeration defines the relative order of the identifiers. Any language mapping that permits two enumerators to be compared or defines successor/predecessor functions on enumerators must conform to this ordering relation. The **<identifier>** following the **enum** keyword defines a new legal type. Enumerated types may also be named using a **typedef** declaration.

3.10.3 Constructed Recursive Types and]Forward Declarations

Although the IDL syntax allows the generation of recursive constructed type specifications, the only recursion permitted for constructed types with the exception of valuetypes is through the use of the sequence template type. The component of a recursive sequence must identify a struct, union, or valuetype. (A valuetype is allowed to have a member of its own type either directly or indirectly through a member of a constructed type—see Section 3.8.1.6, “Value Type Example,” on page 3-26.) For example, the following is legal:²

```
struct Foo {
    long value;
    sequence<Foo> chain;    // Deprecated (see Section 3.10.3)
}
```

See “Sequences” on page 3-41 for details of the **sequence** template type.

IDL supports recursive types via a forward declaration for structures and unions (as well as for valuetypes—see Section 3.8.1.6, “Value Type Example,” on page 3-26). Because anonymous types are deprecated (see Section 3.10.7, “Deprecated Anonymous Types,” on page 3-44), the previous example is better written as:

```
struct Foo;                // Forward declaration
typedef sequence<Foo> FooSeq;
struct Foo {
    long value;
    FooSeq chain;
};
```

The forward declaration for the structure enables the definition of the sequence type **FooSeq**, which is used as the type of the recursive member.

Forward declarations are legal for structures and unions. Up to the point of the full definition of a forward-declared structure or union, that structure or union type can appear only as the element type of a sequence type definition.

².See Section 3.10.4.1, “Sequences,” on page 3-41 for details of the **sequence** template type.

If a structure or union is forward declared, a definition of that structure or union must follow the forward declaration in the same source file. Compilers shall issue a diagnostic if this rule is violated. Multiple forward declarations of the same structure or union are legal.

If a recursive structure or union member is used, the element type of the recursive sequence member must be the forward-declared name of a structure or union currently under definition. For example

```
struct Foo;           // Forward declaration
typedef sequence<Foo> FooSeq;
struct Bar {
    long value;
    FooSeq chain;    //Illegal, Foo is not an enclosing struct or union
};
```

Compilers shall issue a diagnostic if this rule is violated.

Recursive definitions can span multiple levels. For example:

```
union Bar;           // Forward declaration
typedef sequence<Bar> BarSeq;
union Bar switch(long) { // Define forward-declared union
    case 0:
        long l_mem;
    case 1:
        struct Foo {
            double d_mem;
            BarSeq nested;// OK, recurse on enclosing type being defined
        };
};
```

A sequence type that has a forward-declared element type can be used only as the recursive member type of a structure or union member until after the full definition of the structure or union. For example:

```
struct Foo;           // Forward declaration
typedef sequence<Foo> FooSeq;

interface I {
    FooSeq op();     // Illegal, definition of Foo not known
};

struct Foo {         // Provide definition of Foo
    long l_mem;
    FooSeq chain;
};

interface J {
    FooSeq op();     // OK, Foo is known
};
```


Compilers shall issue a diagnostic if this rule is violated.

3.10.4 Template Types

The template types are:

```
(47) <template_type_spec> ::= <sequence_type>
    | <string_type>
    | <wide_string_type>
    | <fixed_pt_type>
```

3.10.4.1 Sequences

OMG IDL defines the sequence type **sequence**. A sequence is a one-dimensional array with two characteristics: a maximum size (which is fixed at compile time) and a length (which is determined at run time).

The syntax is:

```
(80) <sequence_type> ::= "sequence" "<" <simple_type_spec> ","
    <positive_int_const> ">"
    | "sequence" "<" <simple_type_spec> ">"
```

The second parameter in a sequence declaration indicates the maximum size of the sequence. If a positive integer constant is specified for the maximum size, the sequence is termed a bounded sequence. If no maximum size is specified, size of the sequence is unspecified (unbounded).

Prior to passing a bounded or unbounded sequence as a function argument (or as a field in a structure or union), the length of the sequence must be set in a language-mapping dependent manner. After receiving a sequence result from an operation invocation, the length of the returned sequence will have been set; this value may be obtained in a language-mapping dependent manner.

A sequence type may be used as the type parameter for another sequence type. For example, the following:

```
typedef sequence< sequence<long> > Fred;
```

declares Fred to be of type "unbounded sequence of unbounded sequence of long". Note that for nested sequence declarations, white space must be used to separate the two ">" tokens ending the declaration so they are not parsed as a single ">>" token.

3.10.4.2 Strings

OMG IDL defines the string type **string** consisting of all possible 8-bit quantities except null. A string is similar to a sequence of char. As with sequences of any type, prior to passing a string as a function argument (or as a field in a structure or union), the length of the string must be set in a language-mapping dependent manner. The syntax is:

```
(81) <string_type> ::= "string" "<" <positive_int_const> ">"
```

| “string”

The argument to the string declaration is the maximum size of the string. If a positive integer maximum size is specified, the string is termed a bounded string; if no maximum size is specified, the string is termed an unbounded string.

Strings are singled out as a separate type because many languages have special built-in functions or standard library functions for string manipulation. A separate string type may permit substantial optimization in the handling of strings compared to what can be done with sequences of general types.

3.10.4.3 *Wstrings*

The **wstring** data type represents a sequence of wchar, except the wide character null. The type wstring is similar to that of type string, except that its element type is wchar instead of char. The actual length of a wstring is set at run-time and, if the bounded form is used, must be less than or equal to the bound.

The syntax for defining a wstring is:

```
(82)    <wide_string_type> ::= “wstring” “<” <positive_int_const> “>”
        | “wstring”
```

3.10.4.4 *Fixed Type*

The **fixed** data type represents a fixed-point decimal number of up to 31 significant digits. The scale factor is a non-negative integer less than or equal to the total number of digits (note that constants with effectively negative scale, such as 10000, are always permitted).

The **fixed** data type will be mapped to the native fixed point capability of a programming language, if available. If there is not a native fixed point type, then the IDL mapping for that language will provide a fixed point data type. Applications that use the IDL fixed point type across multiple programming languages must take into account differences between the languages in handling rounding, overflow, and arithmetic precision.

The syntax of fixed type is:

```
(97)    <fixed_pt_type> ::= “fixed” “<” <positive_int_const> “,”
        <positive_int_const> “>”
(98)    <fixed_pt_const_type> ::= “fixed”
```

3.10.5 *Complex Declarator*3.10.5.1 *Arrays*

OMG IDL defines multidimensional, fixed-size arrays. An array includes explicit sizes for each dimension.

The syntax for arrays is:

(83) `<array_declarator> ::= <identifier> <fixed_array_size>+`

(84) `<fixed_array_size> ::= “[” <positive_int_const> “]”`

The array size (in each dimension) is fixed at compile time. When an array is passed as a parameter in an operation invocation, all elements of the array are transmitted.

The implementation of array indices is language mapping specific; passing an array index as a parameter may yield incorrect results.

3.10.6 Native Types

OMG IDL provides a declaration for use by object adapters to define an opaque type whose representation is specified by the language mapping for that object adapter.

The syntax is:

(42) `<type_dcl> ::= “native” <simple_declarator>`

(51) `<simple_declarator> ::= <identifier>`

This declaration defines a new type with the specified name. A native type is similar to an IDL basic type. The possible values of a native type are language-mapping dependent, as are the means for constructing them and manipulating them. Any interface that defines a native type requires each language mapping to define how the native type is mapped into that programming language.

A native type may be used to define operation parameters and results. However, there is no requirement that values of the type be permitted in remote invocations, either directly or as a component of a constructed type. Any attempt to transmit a value of a native type in a remote invocation may raise the **MARSHAL** standard **system** exception.

It is recommended that native types be mapped to equivalent type names in each programming language, subject to the normal mapping rules for type names in that language. For example, in a hypothetical Object Adapter IDL module

```
module HypotheticalObjectAdapter {
    native Servant;
    interface HOA {
        Object activate_object(in Servant x);
    };
};
```

the IDL type **Servant** would map to **HypotheticalObjectAdapter::Servant** in C++ and the **activate_object** operation would map to the following C++ member function signature:

```
CORBA::Object_ptr activate_object(
    HypotheticalObjectAdapter::Servant x);
```

The definition of the C++ type `HypotheticalObjectAdapter::Servant` would be provided as part of the C++ mapping for the `HypotheticalObjectAdapter` module.

Note – The native type declaration is provided specifically for use in object adapter interfaces, which require parameters whose values are concrete representations of object implementation instances. It is strongly recommended that it not be used in service or application interfaces. The native type declaration allows object adapters to define new primitive types without requiring changes to the OMG IDL language or to OMG IDL compiler.

3.10.7 *Deprecated Anonymous Types*

IDL currently permits the use of anonymous types in a number of places. For example:

```
struct Foo {
    long value;
    sequence<Foo> chain;    // Legal (but deprecated)
}
```

Anonymous types cause a number of problems for language mappings and are therefore deprecated by this specification. Anonymous types will be removed in a future version, so new IDL should avoid use of anonymous types and use a **typedef** to name such types instead. Compilers need not issue a warning if a deprecated construct is encountered.

The following (non-exhaustive) examples illustrate deprecated uses of anonymous types.

Anonymous bounded string and bounded wide string types are deprecated. This rule affects constant definitions, attribute declarations, return value and parameter type declarations, sequence and array element declarations, and structure, union, exception, and valuetype member declarations. For example

```
const string<5> GREETING = "Hello";    // Deprecated

interface Foo {
    readonly attribute wstring<5> name;    // Deprecated
    wstring<5> op(in wstring<5> param);    // Deprecated
};
typedef sequence<wstring<5> > WS5Seq;    // Deprecated
typedef wstring<5> NameVector [10];    // Deprecated
struct A {
    wstring<5> mem;    // Deprecated
};
// Anonymous member type in unions, exceptions,
// and valuetypes are deprecated as well.
```

This is better written as:

```

typedef string<5> GreetingType;
const GreetingType GREETING = "Hello";

typedef wstring<5> ShortWName;
interface Foo {
    readonly attribute ShortWName name;
    ShortWName op(in ShortWName param);
};
typedef sequence<ShortWName> NameSeq;
typedef ShortWName NameVector[10];
struct A {
    GreetingType mem;
};

```

Anonymous fixed-point types are deprecated. This rule affects attribute declarations, return value and parameter type declarations, sequence and array element declarations, and structure, union, exception, and valuetype member declarations.

```

struct Foo {
    fixed<10,5> member;           // Deprecated
};

```

This is better written as:

```

typedef fixed<10,5> MyType;
struct Foo {
    MyType member;
};

```

Anonymous member types in structures, unions, exceptions, and valuetypes are deprecated:

```

union U switch(long) {
    case 1:
        long array_mem[10];           // Deprecated
    case 2:
        sequence<long> seq_mem;      // Deprecated
    case 3:
        string<5> bstring_mem;
};

```

This is better written as:

```

typedef long LongArray[10];
typedef sequence<long> LongSeq;
typedef string<5> ShortName;
union U switch (long) {
    case 1:
        LongArray array_mem;
    case 2:
        LongSeq seq_mem;
    case 3:

```

```

        ShortName bstring_mem;
};

```

Anonymous array and sequence elements are deprecated:

```

typedef sequence<sequence<long> > NumberTree; // Deprecated
typedef fixed<10,2> FixedArray[10];

```

This is better written as:

```

typedef sequence<long> ListOfNumbers;
typedef sequence<ListOfNumbers> NumberTree;
typedef fixed<10,2> Fixed_10_2;
typedef Fixed_10_2 FixedArray[10];

```

The preceding examples are not exhaustive. They simply illustrate the rule that, for a type to be used in the definition of another type, constant, attribute, return value, parameter, or member, that type must have a name. Note that the following example is not deprecated (even though stylistically poor):

```

struct Foo {
    struct Bar {
        long l_mem;
        double d_mem;
    } bar_mem_1; // OK, not anonymous
    Bar bar_mem_2; // OK, not anonymous
};
typedef sequence<Foo::Bar> FooBarSeq; // Scoped names are OK

```

3.11 Exception Declaration

Exception declarations permit the declaration of struct-like data structures, which may be returned to indicate that an exceptional condition has occurred during the performance of a request. The syntax is as follows:

(86) **<except_dcl> ::= “exception” <identifier> “{“ <member>* “}”**

Each exception is characterized by its OMG IDL identifier, an exception type identifier, and the type of the associated return value (as specified by the **<member>** in its declaration). If an exception is returned as the outcome to a request, then the value of the exception identifier is accessible to the programmer for determining which particular exception was raised.

If an exception is declared with members, a programmer will be able to access the values of those members when an exception is raised. If no members are specified, no additional information is accessible when an exception is raised.

An identifier declared to be an exception identifier may thereafter appear only in a raises clause of an operation declaration, and nowhere else.

A set of standard **system** exceptions is defined corresponding to standard run-time errors, which may occur during the execution of a request. These standard **system** exceptions are documented in Section 4.11, “Exceptions,” on page 4-49.

3.12 Operation Declaration

Operation declarations in OMG IDL are similar to C function declarations. The syntax is:

```
(87)      <op_dcl> ::= [ <op_attribute> ] <op_type_spec>
                                     <identifier> <parameter_dcls>
                                     [ <raises_expr> ] [ <context_expr> ]
(89)      <op_type_spec> ::= <param_type_spec>
                             | “void”
```

An operation declaration consists of:

- An optional operation attribute that specifies which invocation semantics the communication system should provide when the operation is invoked. Operation attributes are described in Section 3.12.1, “Operation Attribute,” on page 3-47.
- The type of the operation’s return result; the type may be any type that can be defined in OMG IDL. Operations that do not return a result must specify the **void** type.
- An identifier that names the operation in the scope of the interface in which it is defined.
- A parameter list that specifies zero or more parameter declarations for the operation. Parameter declaration is described in Section 3.12.2, “Parameter Declarations,” on page 3-48.
- An optional raises expression that indicates which exceptions may be raised as a result of an invocation of this operation. Raises expressions are described in Section 3.12.3, “Raises Expressions,” on page 3-48.
- An optional context expression that indicates which elements of the request context may be consulted by the method that implements the operation. Context expressions are described in Section 3.12.4, “Context Expressions,” on page 3-49.

Some implementations and/or language mappings may require operation-specific pragmas to immediately precede the affected operation declaration.

3.12.1 Operation Attribute

The operation attribute specifies which invocation semantics the communication service must provide for invocations of a particular operation. An operation attribute is optional. The syntax for its specification is as follows:

```
(88)      <op_attribute> ::= “oneway”
```

When a client invokes an operation with the **oneway** attribute, the invocation semantics are best-effort, which does not guarantee delivery of the call; best-effort implies that the operation will be invoked at most once. An operation with the **oneway** attribute must not contain any output parameters and must specify a **void** return type. An operation defined with the **oneway** attribute may not include a raises expression; invocation of such an operation, however, may raise a standard **system** exception.

If an **<op_attribute>** is not specified, the invocation semantics is at-most-once if an exception is raised; the semantics are exactly-once if the operation invocation returns successfully.

3.12.2 Parameter Declarations

Parameter declarations in OMG IDL operation declarations have the following syntax:

```
(90)    <parameter_dcls> ::= "(" <param_dcl> { "," <param_dcl> }* ")"
        | "(" ")"
(91)    <param_dcl> ::= <param_attribute> <param_type_spec>
        <simple_declarator>
(92)    <param_attribute> ::= "in"
        | "out"
        | "inout"
(95)    <param_type_spec> ::= <base_type_spec>
        | <string_type>
        | <wide_string_type>
        | <scoped_name>
```

A parameter declaration must have a directional attribute that informs the communication service in both the client and the server of the direction in which the parameter is to be passed. The directional attributes are:

- **in** - the parameter is passed from client to server.
- **out** - the parameter is passed from server to client.
- **inout** - the parameter is passed in both directions.

It is expected that an implementation will *not* attempt to modify an **in** parameter. The ability to even attempt to do so is language-mapping specific; the effect of such an action is undefined.

If an exception is raised as a result of an invocation, the values of the return result and any **out** and **inout** parameters are undefined.

3.12.3 Raises Expressions

A **raises** expression specifies which exceptions may be raised as a result of an invocation of the operation. The syntax for its specification is as follows:

```
(93)    <raises_expr> ::= "raises" "(" <scoped_name>
        { "," <scoped_name> }* ")"
```


The optional **readonly** keyword indicates that there is only a single accessor function—the retrieve value function. Consider the following example:

```
interface foo {
    enum material_t {rubber, glass};
    struct position_t {
        float x, y;
    };

    attribute float radius;
    attribute material_t material;
    readonly attribute position_t position;

    ...
};
```

The attribute declarations are equivalent to the following pseudo-specification fragment, assuming that one of the leading ‘_’s is removed by application of the Escaped Identifier rule described in Section 3.2.3.1, “Escaped Identifiers,” on page 3-7:

```
...
float    __get_radius ();
void     __set_radius (in float r);
material_t __get_material ();
void     __set_material (in material_t m);
position_t __get_position ();
...

```

The actual accessor function names are language-mapping specific. The attribute name is subject to OMG IDL’s name scoping rules; the accessor function names are guaranteed *not* to collide with any legal operation names specifiable in OMG IDL.

Attribute operations return errors by means of **system** exceptions.

Attributes are inherited. An attribute name *cannot* be redefined to be a different type. See Section 3.14, “CORBA Module,” on page 3-50 for more information on redefinition constraints and the handling of ambiguity.

3.14 CORBA Module

Names defined by the CORBA specification are in a module named CORBA. In an OMG IDL specification, however, OMG IDL keywords such as **Object** must not be preceded by a “**CORBA::**” prefix. Other interface names such as **TypeCode** are not OMG IDL keywords, so they must be referred to by their fully scoped names (e.g., **CORBA::TypeCode**) within an OMG IDL specification.

For example in:

```
#include <orb.idl>
module M {
    typedef CORBA::Object myObjRef; // Error: keyword Object scoped
```

```

typedef TypeCode myTypeCode;    // Error: TypeCode undefined
typedef CORBA::TypeCode TypeCode; // OK
};

```

The file **orb.idl** contains the IDL definitions for the CORBA module. Except for **CORBA::TypeCode**, the file **orb.idl** must be included in IDL files that use names defined in the CORBA module. **CORBA::TypeCode** can be used in IDL files without having to include **orb.idl**.

The version of **CORBA** specified in this release of the specification is version **<x.y>**, and this is reflected in the IDL for the **CORBA** module by including the following pragma version (see Section 10.6.5.3, “The Version Pragma,” on page 10-49):

```
#pragma version CORBA <x.y>
```

as the first line immediately following the very first **CORBA** module introduction line, which in effect associates that version number with the **CORBA** entry in the **IR**. The version number in that version pragma line must be changed whenever any changes are made to any remotely accessible parts of the **CORBA** module in an officially released OMG standard.

3.15 Names and Scoping

OMG IDL identifiers are case insensitive; that is, two identifiers that differ only in the case of their characters are considered redefinitions of one another. However, all references to a definition must use the same case as the defining occurrence. This allows natural mappings to case-sensitive languages. So for example:

```

module M {
  typedef long Long;    // Error: Long clashes with keyword long
  typedef long TheThing;
  interface I {
    typedef long MyLong;
    myLong op1(         // Error: inconsistent capitalization
      in TheThing thething; // Error: TheThing clashes with thething
    );
  };
};

```

3.15.1 Qualified Names

A qualified name (one of the form **<scoped-name>::<identifier>**) is resolved by first resolving the qualifier **<scoped-name>** to a scope **S**, and then locating the definition of **<identifier>** within **S**. The identifier must be directly defined in **S** or (if **S** is an interface) inherited into **S**. The **<identifier>** is not searched for in enclosing scopes.

When a qualified name begins with “**::**”, the resolution process starts with the file scope and locates subsequent identifiers in the qualified name by the rule described in the previous paragraph.

Every OMG IDL definition in a file has a global name within that file. The global name for a definition is constructed as follows.

Prior to starting to scan a file containing an OMG IDL specification, the name of the current root is initially empty (“”) and the name of the current scope is initially empty (“”). Whenever a **module** keyword is encountered, the string “::” and the associated identifier are appended to the name of the current root; upon detection of the termination of the **module**, the trailing “::” and identifier are deleted from the name of the current root. Whenever an **interface**, **struct**, **union**, or **exception** keyword is encountered, the string “::” and the associated identifier are appended to the name of the current scope; upon detection of the termination of the **interface**, **struct**, **union**, or **exception**, the trailing “::” and identifier are deleted from the name of the current scope. Additionally, a new, unnamed, scope is entered when the parameters of an operation declaration are processed; this allows the parameter names to duplicate other identifiers; when parameter processing has completed, the unnamed scope is exited.

The global name of an OMG IDL definition is the concatenation of the current root, the current scope, a “::”, and the <identifier>, which is the local name for that definition.

Note that the global name in an OMG IDL files corresponds to an absolute **ScopedName** in the Interface Repository. (See Section 10.5.1, “Supporting Type Definitions,” on page 10-10).

Inheritance causes all identifiers defined in base interfaces, both direct and indirect, to be visible in derived interfaces. Such identifiers are considered to be semantically the same as the original definition. Multiple paths to the same original identifier (as results from the diamond shape in Figure 3-1 on page 3-20) do not conflict with each other.

Inheritance introduces multiple global OMG IDL names for the inherited identifiers. Consider the following example:

```
interface A {
    exception E {
        long L;
    };
    void f() raises(E);
};

interface B: A {
    void g() raises(E);
};
```

In this example, the exception is known by the global names **::A::E** and **::B::E**.

Ambiguity can arise in specifications due to the nested naming scopes. For example:

```
interface A {
    typedef string<128> string_t;
};
```

```

interface B {
    typedef string<256> string_t;
};

interface C: A, B {
    attribute string_t    Title;           // Error: Ambiguous
    attribute A::string_t Name;           // OK
    attribute B::string_t City;           // OK
};

```

The declaration of attribute **Title** in interface **C** is ambiguous, since the compiler does not know which **string_t** is desired. Ambiguous declarations yield compilation errors.

3.15.2 Scoping Rules and Name Resolution

Contents of an entire OMG IDL file, together with the contents of any files referenced by `#include` statements, forms a naming scope. Definitions that do not appear inside a scope are part of the global scope. There is only a single global scope, irrespective of the number of source files that form a specification.

The following kinds of definitions form scopes:

- module
- interface
- valuetype
- struct
- union
- operation
- exception

The scope for module, interface, valuetype, struct and exception begins immediately following its opening '{' and ends immediately preceding its closing '}'. The scope of an operation begins immediately following its '(' and ends immediately preceding its closing ')'. The scope of an union begins immediately following the '(' following the keyword **switch**, and ends immediately preceding its closing '}'. The appearance of the declaration of any of these kinds in any scope, subject to semantic validity of such declaration, opens a nested scope associated with that declaration.

An identifier can only be defined once in a scope. However, identifiers can be redefined in nested scopes. An identifier declaring a module is considered to be defined by its first occurrence in a scope. Subsequent occurrences of a module declaration with the same identifier within the same scope reopens the module and hence its scope, allowing additional definitions to be added to it.

The name of an interface, value type, struct, union, exception or a module may not be redefined within the immediate scope of the interface, value type, struct, union, exception, or the module. For example:

```

module M {
    typedef short M;           // Error: M is the name of the module
                               //           in the scope of which the typedef is.
    interface I {
        void i (in short j); // Error: i clashes with the interface name I
    };
};

```

An identifier from a surrounding scope is introduced into a scope if it is used in that scope. An identifier is not introduced into a scope by merely being visible in that scope. The use of a scoped name introduces the identifier of the outermost scope of the scoped name. For example in:

```

module M {
    module Inner1 {
        typedef string S1;
    };

    module Inner2 {
        typedef string inner1; // OK
    };
}

```

The declaration of **Inner2::inner1** is OK because the identifier **Inner1**, while visible in module **Inner2**, has not been introduced into module **Inner2** by actual use of it. On the other hand, if module **Inner2** were:

```

module Inner2{
    typedef Inner1::S1 S2; // Inner1 introduced
    typedef string inner1; // Error
    typedef string S1; // OK
};

```

The definition of **inner1** is now an error because the identifier **Inner1** referring to the **module Inner1** has been introduced in the scope of module **Inner2** in the first line of the module declaration. Also, the declaration of **S1** in the last line is OK since the identifier **S1** was not introduced into the scope by the use of **Inner1::S1** in the first line.

Only the first identifier in a qualified name is introduced into the current scope. This is illustrated by **Inner1::S1** in the example above, which introduces “**Inner1**” into the scope of “**Inner2**” but does not introduce “**S1**.” A qualified name of the form “**::X::Y::Z**” does not cause “**X**” to be introduced, but a qualified name of the form “**X::Y::Z**” does.

Enumeration value names are introduced into the enclosing scope and then are treated like any other declaration in that scope. For example:

```

interface A {
    enum E { E1, E2, E3 }; // line 1

    enum BadE { E3, E4, E5 }; // Error: E3 is already introduced

```

```

// into the A scope in line 1 above
};

interface C {
    enum AnotherE { E1, E2, E3 };
};

interface D : C, A {
    union U switch ( E ) {
        case A::E1 : boolean b;// OK.
        case E2 : long l;      // Error: E2 is ambiguous (notwithstanding
                               // the switch type specification!!)
    };
};

```

Type names defined in a scope are available for immediate use within that scope. In particular, see Section 3.10.2, “Constructed Types,” on page 3-37 on cycles in type definitions.

A name can be used in an unqualified form within a particular scope; it will be resolved by successively searching farther out in enclosing scopes, while taking into consideration inheritance relationships among interfaces. For example:

```

module M {
    typedef long ArgType;
    typedef ArgType AType;      // line I1
    interface B {
        typedef string ArgType; // line I3
        ArgType opb(in AType i); // line I2
    };
};

module N {
    typedef char ArgType;      // line I4
    interface Y : M::B {
        void opy(in ArgType i); // line I5
    };
};

```

The following scopes are searched for the declaration of **ArgType** used on **line I5**:

1. Scope of **N::Y** before the use of **ArgType**.
2. Scope of **N::Y**'s base interface **M::B**. (inherited scope)
3. Scope of **module N** before the definition of **N::Y**.
4. Global scope before the definition of **N**.

M::B::ArgType is found in **step 2** in **line I3**, and that is the definition that is used in **line I5**, hence **ArgType** in **line I5** is **string**. It should be noted that **ArgType** is not **char** in **line I5**. Now if **line I3** were removed from the definition of interface **M::B** then **ArgType** on **line I5** would be **char** from **line I4**, which is found in **step 3**.

Following analogous search steps for the types used in the operation **M::B::opb** on **line I2**, the type of **AType** used on **line I2** is **long** from the **typedef** in **line I1** and the return type **ArgType** is **string** from **line I3**.

3.15.3 Special Scoping Rules for Type Names

Once a type has been *defined* anywhere within the scope of a module, interface or valuetype, it may not be redefined except within the scope of a nested module or interface. For example:

```

module M {
    typedef long ArgType;
    interface A {
        typedef string ArgType; // OK, redefined in nested scope
        struct S {
            ArgType x; // x is a string
        };
    };
    typedef double ArgType; // Error: redefinition in same scope
};

```

Once a type identifier has been *used* anywhere within the scope of an interface or valuetype, it may not be redefined within the scope of that interface or valuetype. Use of type names within nested scopes created by structs, unions, and exceptions, as well as within the unnamed scope created by an operation parameter list, are for these purposes considered to occur within the scope of the enclosing interface or valuetype. For example:

```

module M {
    typedef long ArgType;
    const long I = 10;
    typedef short Y;

    interface A {
        struct S {
            ArgType x[I]; // x is a long[10], ArgType and I are used
            long y; // Note: a new y is defined; the existing Y is not used
        };
        typedef string ArgType; // Error: ArgType redefined after use
        enum I {I1, I2}; // Error: I redefined after use
        typedef short Y; // OK because Y has not been used yet!
    };
};

```

Note that redefinition of a type after use in a module is OK as in the example:

```

typedef long ArgType;
module M {
    struct S {
        ArgType x; // x is a long
    };
};

```

```
};  
  
typedef string ArgType; // OK!  
struct T {  
    ArgType y; // Ugly but OK, y is a string  
};  
};
```

