Formal Semantics

CSc 520	 In order for 1. compiler writers to know exactly how to implement a language, and
Principles of Programming Languages	 anguage, and anguage users to know exactly what (combinations of) language constructs mean,
50: Semantics — Introduction	the meaning of a language needs to be defined.
Christian Collberg collberg@cs.arizona.edu Department of Computer Science University of Arizona	 Most definitions of real languages are in a stylized, but informal, English. It is also possible to give formal semantic language definitions.
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Formal Semantics...

- In practice, most languages are not defined in a formal, precise, mathematical way.
- There have been some attempts, for example Modula-2, Algol 68, and PL/I.
- "Simple" languages such as Scheme and Haskell are comparatively easy to define formally, compared to C, C++, Java, etc.

Formal Semantics — Modula-2

- The Modula-2 specification was written in VDM-SL (Vienna Development Method - Specification Language), a formalism for giving a precise definition of a programming language in a denotational style.
- It was over 500 pages long, and didn't include specifications of the standard libraries.
- Wirth's original Modula-2 report was 28 pages.
- For a history of this disastrous standardization effort, See http://www.scifac.ru.ac.za/cspt/sc22wg13.htm.
- Note also that Modula-2 is a very simple language compared to Ada, C++, Java, etc.

Formal Semantics — PL/I

Methods

- VDL (Vienna Definition Language) was used to specify In this class we will consider two methods for defining the PL/I. semantics of programming languages: A specification has two parts: Operational semantics define a computation by giving 9 step-by-step transformations on a abstract machine that 1. A translator that specified a translation into an simulate the execution of the program. abstract syntax tree, 2. an interpreter of the abstract syntax tree. **Denotational semantics** constructs a mathematical object (typically a function) which is the meaning of the VDL is a kind of operational semantics. program. PL/I is large and complex. The resulting (large) document was called the Vienna Telephone Directory. It was impossible to comprehend. —Spring 2005—50 [5] 520-Spring 2005-50 [6] **Operational Semantics Contextual Constraints**
- A compiler performs syntactic and semantic analysis.
 There really isn't a sharp distinction between the two.
- Is String x; ...; print x/2 a syntactic or semantic error?
- Some would say that it violates the static semantic rules of the language, and hence is a semantic (not a syntactic) error.
- Others would say it violates context-sensitive syntax rules of the language. I.e., they'd consider the program as a whole to determine if it is well-formed or not.
- We will use the term contextual constraints for those rules that restricts the programs which are considered well-formed.

- Operational Semantics specifies a language through the steps by which each program is executed.
- This is often done informally. For example, the statement while E do C is specified as
 - 1. Evaluate E to a truthvalue B;
 - 2. If B =true then execute C, then repeat from 1).
 - 3. If B =false, terminate.
- The emphasis is on specifying the steps needed to execute the program. This makes the specification useful for language implementers.

Operational Semantics...

- We need two things:
 - 1. an abstract syntax, and
 - 2. an interpreter.
- The abstract syntax defines the structure of each construct in the language, for example, that an if-statement consists of three parts: the test *e*, the then-part *c*₁ and the else-part *c*₂:

if ::= e:bool_expr c_1 :statement c_2 :statement

Note that no syntactic information is given.

The interpreter generates a sequence of machine configurations that define the program's semantics. The interpreter is defined by rewriting rules.

Operational Sem. — **Peano Arithmetic**

Abstract Syntax ($N \in Nat$, the Natural Numbers): $N ::= \underline{0} | \underline{S}(N) | (N \pm N) | (N \times N)$ Interpreter:

$$\begin{split} I\left[\!\left[(n+0)\right]\!\right] &\Rightarrow n\\ I\left[\!\left[(m+S(n))\right]\!\right] &\Rightarrow S(I\left[\!\left[(m+n)\right]\!\right]) \end{split}$$

 $I: N \rightarrow N$

$$I \llbracket (n \times 0) \rrbracket \Rightarrow 0$$

$$I \llbracket (m \times S(n)) \rrbracket \Rightarrow I \llbracket ((m \times n) + m) \rrbracket$$

where $m, n \in Nat$

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Operational Sem. — **Peano Arithmetic**

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- The rewrite rules are used to turn an expression into standard form, containing only S (succ) and 0.
- S(S(S(S(0)))) = 4.

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Operational Sem. — Simple...

- Simple is a language with if-statements, while-statements, assignment-statements, and integer arithmetic.
- The semantic function *I* interprets commands.
- The semantic function ν interprets expressions.
- The store σ maps variables to their values.
- Assignments update the store.
- The result of the interpretation (the semantics of the program) is the resulting store.

Interpreter:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} I & : & C \times \Sigma \to \Sigma \\ \nu & : & E \times \Sigma \to T \cup Z \end{array}$$

Semantic Equations:

$$\begin{split} I(skip,\sigma) &= \sigma\\ I(V := E, \sigma) &= \sigma[V \mapsto \nu(E, \sigma)]\\ I(C_1 \; ; \; C_2, \sigma) &= E(C_2, E(C_1, \sigma))\\ I(\text{if } E \; \text{then} \; C_1 \; \text{else} \; C_2 \; \text{end}, \sigma) &= I(C_1, \sigma) \; \text{if} \; \nu(E, \sigma) = \text{true}\\ I(C_2, \sigma) \; \text{if} \; \nu(E, \sigma) = \text{false} \end{split}$$

Operational Sem. — Simple...

Interpreter:

while *E* do *C* end =
if *E* then (*C*; while *E*do *C* end) else skip

$$\nu(V, \sigma) = \sigma[V]$$

 $\nu(N, \sigma) = N$
 $\nu(E_1 + E_2, \sigma) = \nu(E_1, \sigma) + \nu(E_2, \sigma)$
 $\nu(E_1 = E_2, \sigma) = \text{true if } \nu(E, \sigma) = \nu(E, \sigma)$
 $= \text{false if } \nu(E, \sigma) \neq \nu(E, \sigma)$
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Denotational Semantics...
• We need three things:
1. an abstract syntax,
2. a semantic algebra defining a computational model, and
3. valuation functions.
• The valuation functions map the syntactic constructs of the language to the semantic algebra.
• Denotational semantics relies on defining an object in terms of its constituent parts.

Denotational Semantics

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- We think of each program as implementing a mathematical function.
- An imperative program is a function from inputs to outputs. This function is the meaning of the program.

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Example
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```
exec [[while E do C]] =
  let exec-while env sto =
    let Boolean tr = evaluate [[E]] env sto in
        if tr then
            exec-while env (exec [[C]] env sto)
        else sto
    in
        exec-while
```

enotational Sem. — Peano Arithmetic

Denotational Sem. — Simple

Abstract Syntax ($N \in Nat$, the Natural Numbers): N ::= 0 | S(N) | (N + N) | (N × N) Semantic Algebra:

$$+ : \operatorname{Nat} \to \operatorname{Nat} \to \operatorname{Nat}$$

Valuation Function:

$$D : \operatorname{Nat} \to \operatorname{Nat}$$
$$D \llbracket (n+0) \rrbracket = D \llbracket n \rrbracket$$
$$D \llbracket (m+S(n)) \rrbracket = D \llbracket (m+n) \rrbracket + 1$$
$$D \llbracket (n \times 0) \rrbracket = 0$$
$$D \llbracket (m \times S(n)) \rrbracket = D \llbracket ((m \times n) + m) \rrbracket$$

where $m, n \in Nat$

Denotational Sem. — Simple...

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Semantic Algebra:

 $\begin{array}{rcl} \tau &\in & T = true, false; \mbox{ the boolean values} \\ \zeta &\in & Z = \{...-1,0,1,...\}; \mbox{ the integers} \\ + &: & Z \to Z \to Z \\ = &: & Z \to Z \to T \\ \sigma &\in & S = \mbox{Variable} \to \mbox{Numeral}; \mbox{ the state} \end{array}$

Valuation Functions:

$$C \in C \to (S \to S)$$

$$E \in E \to E \to (N \cup T)$$

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Abstract Syntax:

- $E \in Expression$
- $O \in Operator$
- $N \in Numeral$
- ${ { \hspace{-.4mm} \hspace{-.4$

 $\begin{array}{l} C ::= V := E \mid \text{if } E \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2 \text{ end } \mid \text{while } E \text{ do } C \text{ end } \mid C_1 \\ \underline{i} \quad C_2 \mid \text{skip} \end{array}$ $E ::= V \mid N \mid E_1 \ \underline{\bigcirc} \ E_2 \mid (E) \\ O ::= + \mid - \mid * \mid / \mid = \mid < \mid > \mid <> \end{array}$

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Denotational Sem. — Simple...

 $C \llbracket \mathbf{skip} \rrbracket \sigma = \sigma$ $C \llbracket V := E \rrbracket \sigma = \sigma \llbracket V \mapsto E \llbracket E \rrbracket \rrbracket \sigma$ $C \llbracket C1; C2 \rrbracket = C \llbracket C2 \rrbracket C \llbracket C1 \rrbracket \sigma$ $C \llbracket \mathbf{if} \ E \ \mathbf{then} \ C_1 \mathbf{else} \ C_2 \ \mathbf{end} \rrbracket \sigma = C \llbracket C1 \rrbracket \sigma \ \mathbf{if} \ E \llbracket E \rrbracket \sigma = \mathbf{true}$ $= C \llbracket C2 \rrbracket \sigma \ \mathbf{if} \ E \llbracket E \rrbracket \sigma = \mathbf{false}$ $C \llbracket \mathbf{while} \ E \ \mathbf{do} \ C \ \mathbf{end} \rrbracket \sigma =$ $\lim_{n \to \infty} C \llbracket (\mathbf{if} \ E \ \mathbf{then} \ C \ \mathbf{else} \ \mathbf{skip} \ \mathbf{end} \sigma$ $E \llbracket V \rrbracket \sigma = \sigma (V)$ $E \llbracket N \rrbracket = \zeta$ $E \llbracket E1 + E2 \rrbracket = E \llbracket E1 \rrbracket \sigma + E \llbracket E2 \rrbracket \sigma$ $E \llbracket E1 = E2 \rrbracket \sigma = E \llbracket E1 \rrbracket \sigma = E \llbracket E2 \rrbracket \sigma$

	Wren
Concrete Syntax of Wren	 Wren is a small imperative language that we will be using as a running example. The complete concrete syntax of Wren is given in the next few slides.
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Concrete Syntax	Concrete Syntax
<pre>program ::= program identifi er is block block ::= declaration_seq begin command_seq end declaration_seq ::= declaration declaration_seq declaration ::= var variable_list : type ; type ::= integer boolean variable_list ::= variable variable _, variable_list command_seq ::= command command ; command_seq command ::= variable := expr skip read variable write integer_expr while boolean expr do command_seq end while if boolean_expr then command_seq end if if boolean_expr then command_seq else command_seq end if</pre>	<pre>expr ::= integer_expr boolean_expr integer_expr ::= term integer_expr weak_op term term ::= element term strong_op element element ::= numeral variable (_ integer_expr) element boolean_expr ::= boolean_term boolean_expr or boolean_term boolean_term ::= boolean_element boolean_term and boolean_element boolean_element ::= true false variable comparison not (_ boolean_expr) (_ boolean_expr) comparison ::= integer_expr relation integer_expr</pre>
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Concrete Syntax...

Wren — Example

variable ::= identifi er program binary is var n,p : integer; identifi er::= letter | identifi erletter | identifi erdigit begin relation ::= <= | < | = | > | >= | <> read n; p := 2;weak_op ::= + while p<=n do p := 2*p strong_op ::= $* \mid /$ end while; $\mathsf{letter} ::= \underline{a} | \underline{b} | \underline{c} | \underline{d} | \underline{e} | \underline{f} | \underline{g} | \underline{h} | \underline{i} | \underline{j} | \underline{k} | \underline{l} | \underline{m}$ p := p/2; <u>|n|o|p|q|r|s|t|u|v|w|x|y|z</u> while p>0 do if n>= p then numeral ::= digit | digit numeral write 1; n := np digit ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9else write 0 end if; p := p/2end while end -Spring 2005-50 [25] 520—Spring 2005—50 [26] **Readings and References Acknowledgments** Read Chapter 1, in Syntax and Semantics of Some examples are taken from Introduction to Programming Languages, by Ken Slonneger and Barry Programming Languages, by Anthony A. Aaby, Kurtz, http://www.cs.uiowa.edu/~slonnegr/plf/Book. http://burks.brighton.ac.uk/burks/pcinfo/progdocs/plbook/semantic.htm The Wren lanuage is taken from the book Syntax and Semantics of Programming Languages, by Ken Slonneger and Barry Kurtz, http://www.cs.uiowa.edu/~slonnegr/plf/Book.