Describing Semantics of Programming Languages

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Two Semantics of Languages

- Static semantics
 - Meanings that can be determined statically (at compile time)
- Dynamic semantics
 - Meanings that can be determined dynamically

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216 2

Example: Static Semantics

- Context-free but cumbersome
 - Type checking
- Noncontext-free
 - Variables must be declared before they are used.

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216

How to Describe Static Semantics Formally?

- CFGs cannot describe all of the static semantics of programming languages.
- Need additions to CFGs to carry some semantic info. along through parse trees.
 - Attribute Grammars (AG)

Attribute Grammars (AG)

- Attribute Grammars (AGs)
 - = CFG + Additional features
- Primary value of AGs:
 - Static semantics specification
 - Static semantics checking

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216

Attribute Grammar

- An attribute grammar (AG) is a CFG G = (T, N, S, P) with the following additions:
 - Each grammar symbol X has
 - A set A(X) of attributes
 - Each rule has
 - A set of **semantic functions** that define certain attributes of the non-terminals in the rule.
 - A (possibly empty) set of **predicates** to check for attribute consistency.

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Attributes

- Each grammar symbol X has a set A(X) of attributes.
- Two kinds of attributes:
 - S(X): Synthesized attributes
 - To pass semantic info up a parse tree.
 - I(X): Inherited attributes
 - To pass semantic info down a parse tree.

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Attributes

• Intrinsic attributes

- Synthesized attributes of leaf nodes in a parse tree
- Whose values are determined outside the parse tree and given.
- Initially, there are intrinsic attributes on the leaves

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Semantic Functions

- Let $X_0 \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_n$ be a rule & $S(X_0) =$ The synthesized attributes of X_0
- The synthesized attributes of X₀ are computed by a semantic function of the form:
 - $-S(X_0) = f(A(X_1), ... A(X_n))$
 - Depends only on the attributes of the node's children nodes!

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Synthesized Attributes

X₁ X₂ ... X_n

Semantic Functions

- Let $X_0 \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_n$ be a rule & $I(X_j) =$ The inherited attributes of X_j , where 1 <= j <= n.
- The inherited attributes of X_j are computed by a semantic function of the form:
 - $-\operatorname{I}(X_{\mathfrak{j}})=\operatorname{f}(\operatorname{A}(X_{0}),\,\ldots\,,\operatorname{A}(X_{n}))$
 - Depends on the attributes of the node's parent and sibling nodes!

11

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Inherited Attributes

X₀

X₁ X₂ ... X_j ... X_n

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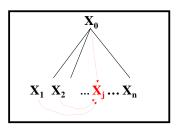
L-Inherited Attributes

- The inherited attributes of X_j are computed by a semantic function of the form:
 - $\; I(X_j) = f(A(X_0), \, \dots \, , \, A(X_{j-1}))$
 - Depends on the attributes of the node's parent and left sibling nodes!
 - L-attributed attribute

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13

L-Inherited Attributes



14

Predicates

- A **predicate** has the form of a Boolean expression on the attribute set $\{A(X_0), ..., A(X_n)\}$.
- Derivations are allowed:
 - Every predicate associated with every non-terminal is true.

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15

Example: CFG of Ada Procedures

• The name on the end of an Ada procedure must match the procedure's name.

CFG:

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Example: Attribute Grammar of Ada Procedures

• The name on the end of an Ada procedure must match the procedure's name.

AG:

Attribute:

string

Semantic function:

c_name>.string = c_name>.string

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Example: Attribute Grammar of Ada Procedures

• The name on the end of an Ada procedure must match the procedure's name.

AG:

<prec_def> \rightarrow procedure <prec_name>[1] <prec_body>
end <prec_name>[2]

Attribute:

string

Semantic function:

c_name>[1].string = c_name>[2].string

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Example: Assignment Statements

• A simple assignment statement.

CFG:

 $\begin{aligned} & < assign> \rightarrow < var> := < expr> \\ & < expr> \rightarrow < var> + < var> \\ & | < var> \\ & < var> \rightarrow A \mid B \mid C \end{aligned}$

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19

Example: Type Rules

- The type rules of a simple assignment statement:
 - The variables can be one of two types: int or real.
 - The type of the expression is that of its operands if the same. Otherwise real.
 - The type of LHS of an assignment must match the type of RHS.

 $\mathbf{A} := \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$

A: real B: int

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20

Example: Attributes

- Attributes:
 - actual_type = A synthesized attribute for <var>
 and <expr>
 - expected_type = An inherited attribute for <expr>>

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21

Example: Attribute Grammar of Assignment Statements Types

AG:

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Syntax rule:

<assign $> \rightarrow <$ var> := <expr>

Semantic rule:

 $<\!\!expr\!\!>\!\!.expected_type \leftarrow <\!\!var\!\!>\!\!.actual_type$

Example: Attribute Grammar Assignment Statements Types

AG:

Syntax rule:

 $\langle expr \rangle \rightarrow \langle var \rangle [1] + \langle var \rangle [2]$

Semantic rule:

<expr>.actual_type ← if (<var>[1].actual_type = int) and (<var>[2].actual_type = int) then int else real

Predicate:

<expr>.actual_type = <expr>.expected_type

23

Example: Attribute Grammar Assignment Statements Types

AG:

Syntax rule:

 $\langle expr \rangle \rightarrow \langle var \rangle$

Semantic rule:

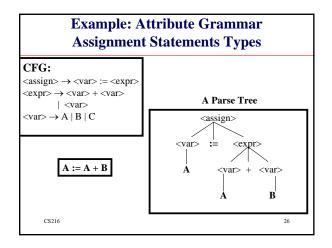
<expr>.actual_type \leftarrow <var>.actual_type

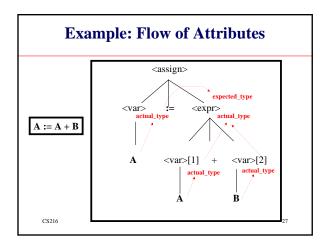
Predicate:

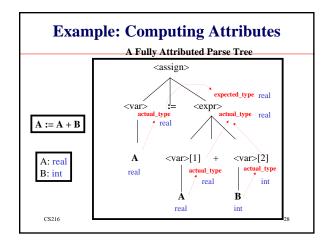
 $<\!\!expr\!\!>\!\!.actual_type = <\!\!expr\!\!>\!\!.expected_type$

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Example: Attribute Grammar Assignment Statements Types AG: Syntax rule: <var> → A | B | C Semantic rule: <var>.actual_type ← look-up(<var>.string) CS216 CS216







Computing Attribute Values

- If all attributes were **inherited**, the tree could be decorated in **top-down order**.
- If all attributes were **synthesized**, the tree could be decorated in **bottom-up order**.
- In many cases, both kinds of attributes are used, and it is some combination of top-down and bottom-up that must be used.

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29

Dynamic Semantics of Languages

- Dynamic Semantics
 - cannot be determined statically (at compile time)
 - can only be determined by executing dynamically

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How to Describe Dynamic Semantics?

- Three methods to describe semantics formally:
 - Operational Semantics
 - Axiomatic Semantics
 - Denotational Semantics
- No single widely acceptable notation or formalism for describing semantics

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Three Formal Methods

- Operational Semantics
 - By using operations of an actual or hypothetical machine.
- Axiomatic Semantics
 - By using mathematical logic.
- Denotational Semantics
 - By using mathematical functions.

216 32

Three Formal Methods

31

- All these methods are syntax-directed.
 - The semantic definitions are based on a CFG or BNF rule.

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1. Operational Semantics

- · Based on machines.
- Describe the meaning of a program by specifying how the program is to be executed on a machine whose operations are completely known.

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Operational Semantics

- To use operational semantics for a high-level language, a defining machine in needed.
- Focuses on the individual steps by which each program is executed.
- The change in the state of the machine (memory, registers & etc.) defines the meaning of the program.

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Operational Semantics: Evaluation

- Give useful insight into the way the program is implemented.
- Too much details hard to understand the net effect of executing a program.
- Good if used informally
 - Extremely complex if used formally.

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2. Axiomatic Semantics

- Based on formal logic (first order predicate calculus).
- Describe the meaning of a program by describing the effect its execution has on assertions about the data manipulated by the program.

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Axiomatic Semantics

- Precondition:
 - An assertion before a statement (the relationships and constraints among variables that are true at that point in execution).
- Postcondition:
 - An assertion following a statement.
- Pre-post form: {**P**} statement {**Q**}

Example: Axiomatic Semantics

 $\{P\}$ $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{1}$ $\{a > 1\}$

- One possible precondition: $\{b > 10\}$
- Weakest precondition:
 - The least restrictive precondition that will guarantee the postcondition.
- Weakest precondition: {b > 0}

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Proof of Program Correctness

- Using Axiomatic Semantics:
 - The postcondition for the whole program is the desired results.
 - Work back through the program to the first statement and find the weakest preconditions.
 - If the precondition on the first statement is the same as the program spec, then the program is correct.

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Axiomatic Semantics: Evaluation

- Developing axioms or inference rules for all of the statements in a language is difficult.
- It is a good tool for correctness proofs, and an excellent framework for reasoning about programs.
- It is not as useful for language users and compiler writers.

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3. Denotational Semantics

- Based on mathematics (recursive function theory).
- Describe the meaning of a program by using mathematical functions.
- The most abstract semantics description method.

Denotational Semantics

- Define syntactic domains.
- Define semantic domains.
- Define semantic functions from a syntactic domain to a semantic domain.



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Example: Binary numbers

• The syntax of binary numbers:

```
\begin{array}{c|c} \mbox{<br/>bin_num>} \rightarrow 0 \\ & | \ 1 \\ & | \mbox{<br/>bin_num>} 0 \\ & | \mbox{<br/>bin_num>} 1 \end{array}
```

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43

44

Example: Binary numbers

- The semantics of binary numbers:
 - The domain of syntactic values = The syntax
 - The domain of semantic values = The set of nonnegative decimal integer values.
 - The semantic function = maps the syntactic objects to the objects in the semantic domain.

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Example: Denotational Semantics of Binary numbers

```
\begin{array}{c} \mbox{<bin_num>} \rightarrow 0 \\ \mbox{|} \mbox{|} \mbox{|} \\ \mbox{|} \mbox{<bin_num>} 0 \\ \mbox{|} \mbox{<bin_num>} 1 \end{array}
```

0, 1, 2, 3, 4, (Non-negative integer values)

```
M_{b}(`0") = 0 \\ M_{b}(`1") = 1 \\ M_{b}(<\text{bin\_num}>`0") = 2 * M_{b}(<\text{bin\_num}>) \\ M_{b}(<\text{bin\_num}>`1") = 2 * M_{b}(<\text{bin\_num}>) + 1
```

Example: Denotational Semantics of Decimal Numbers

<dec_num $> \rightarrow 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9$ | <dec_num> (0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9)

> 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, (Non-negative integer values)

 $M_{dec}('0') = 0, \ M_{dec}\ ('1') = 1, \ ..., \ M_{dec}\ ('9') = 9$

$$\begin{split} &M_{dec} \; (<\! dec_num\! > '0') = 10 * M_{dec} \; (<\! dec_num\! >) \\ &M_{dec} \; (<\! dec_num\! > '1') = 10 * M_{dec} \; (<\! dec_num\! >) + 1 \end{split}$$

... M_{dec} (<dec_num> '9') = 10 * M_{dec} (<dec_num>) + 9

 $\frac{1}{1}$ dec ($\frac{1}{1}$ dec $\frac{1}$ dec $\frac{1}{1}$ dec $\frac{1}{1}$ dec $\frac{1}{1}$ dec $\frac{1}{1}$ dec $\frac{1}{$

Denotational vs. Operational Semantics

- The difference between denotational and operational semantics:
 - In operational semantics, the state changes are defined by coded algorithms.
 - in denotational semantics, they are defined by rigorous mathematical functions.

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The State of a Program

• S = The *state* of a program, i.e. the values of all its current variables:

```
s = \{\langle i_1, v_1 \rangle, \langle i_2, v_2 \rangle, ..., \langle i_n, v_n \rangle\}
```

• VARMAP = a function that, when given a variable name and a state, returns the current value of the variable:

```
VARMAP(i_j, s) = v_j
```

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Denotational Semantics of Expressions

```
<expr> → <dec_num> | <var> | <binary_expr>
<binary_expr> → <left_expr> <operator> <right_expr>
<operator> → + | *
```

```
\begin{split} &M_e(<&expr>,\,s) = \\ &case <&expr> of \\ &<&dec\_num> => M_{dec}(<&dec\_num>,\,s) \end{split}
```

16

50

Denotational Semantics of Expressions

```
M<sub>e</sub>(<expr>, s) =
case <expr> of
<var> =>
if VARMAP(<var>, s) = undef
then error
else VARMAP(<var>, s)
```

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Denotational Semantics of Expressions

```
\begin{split} M_e(<& expr>, s) = \\ & case < expr> of \\ & <& binary\_expr> >> \\ & if (M_e(<& binary\_expr>.<& left\_expr>, s) = undef \\ & OR \ M_e(<& binary\_expr>.<& right\_expr>, s) = \\ & undef) \\ & then \ error \\ & else \ if (<& binary\_expr>.<& operator> = '+' \\ & then \ M_e(<& binary\_expr>.<& left\_expr>, s) + \\ & M_e(<& binary\_expr>.<& left\_expr>, s) * \\ & else \ M_e(<& binary\_expr>.<& left\_expr>, s) * \\ & M_e(<& binary\_expr>.<& left\_expr>, s) * \\ & M_e(<& binary\_expr>.<& left\_expr>, s) * \\ & M_e(& binary
```

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Denotational Semantics of Assignment Statements

```
\begin{split} M_a(x := E, \, s) &= \\ & \text{if } M_e(E, \, s) = \text{error} \\ & \text{then error} \\ & \text{else} \\ & s' = \{ <\!i_1,\!v_1'\!>, <\!i_2,\!v_2'\!>, ..., <\!i_n,\!v_n'\!> \}, \\ & \text{where for } j = 1, \, 2, \, ..., \, n, \\ & v_j' = VARMAP(i_j, \, s) \text{ if } i_j <\!\!> x \\ & = M_e(E, \, s) \text{ if } i_j = x \end{split}
```

Denotational Semantics of Loops

```
\begin{split} &M_b(B,\,s) \text{: maps boolean exp to boolean values.} \\ &M_{sl}(L,\,s) \text{: maps statement lists to states.} \\ &M_l(\text{while B do L},\,s) = \\ &\text{if } M_b(B,\,s) = \text{undef} \\ &\text{then error} \\ &\text{else if } M_b(B,\,s) = \text{false} \\ &\text{then s} \\ &\text{else if } M_{sl}(L,\,s) = \text{error} \\ &\text{then error} \\ &\text{else if } M_l(\text{while B do L},\,M_{sl}(L,\,s)) \end{split}
```

Denotational Semantics: Evaluation

- Can be used to prove the correctness of programs.
- Provides a rigorous way to think about programs.
- Can be an aid to language design.
- Has been used in compiler generation systems.

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