Semantics In Text: Chapter 3

Outline

- Semantics:
 - Attribute grammars (static semantics)
 - Operational
 - Axiomatic
 - Denotational

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Static Semantics

- CFGs cannot describe all of the syntax of programming languages—context-specific parts are left out
- Static semantics refers to type checking and resolving declarations; has nothing to do with "meaning" in the sense of run-time behavior
- Often described using an attribute grammar (AG) (Knuth, 1968)
- Basic idea: add to CFG by carrying some semantic information along inside parse tree nodes
- Primary value of AGs:
 - Static semantics specification
 - Compiler design (static semantics checking)

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Dynamic Semantics

- No single widely acceptable notation or formalism for describing semantics
- Three common approaches:
 - Operational
 - Axiomatic
 - Denotational

Chapter 2: Competies

Operational Semantics

- Gives a program's meaning in terms of its implementation on a real or virtual machine
- Change in the state of the machine (memory, registers, etc.) defines the meaning of the statement
- To use operational semantics for a high-level language, a virtual machine in needed
- A pure hardware interpreter is too expensive
- A pure software interpreter also has problems:
 - machine dependent
 - Difficult to understand
- \blacksquare A better alternative: A complete computer simulation

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Operational Semantics (cont.)

- The process:
 - Identify a virtual machine (an idealized computer)
 - Build a translator (translates source code to the machine code of an idealized computer)
 - Build a simulator for the idealized computer
- Operational semantics is sometimes called translational semantics, if an existing PL is used in place of the virtual machine

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Operational Semantics Example

Pascal	Operational Semantics
for i := x to y do begin	i := x loop: if i>y goto out
end	i := i + 1 qoto loop
	out:

■ Operational semantics could be much lower level:

```
mov i,r1
mov y,r2
jmpifless(r2,r1,out)
...
```

out: ...

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Evaluation of Operational Semantics

- Advantages:
 - May be simple, intuitive for small examples
 - Good if used informally
 - Useful for implementation
- Disadvantages
 - Very complex for large programs
 - Lacks mathematical rigor
- Uses
 - Vienna Definition Language (VDL) used to define PL/I (Wegner 1972)
 - Compiler work

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Axiomatic Semantics

- Based on formal logic (first order predicate calculus)
- Original purpose: **formal program verification**
- Approach: **Define axioms** or inference rules for each statement type in the language
- Such an inference rule allows one to transform expressions to other expressions
- The expressions are called **assertions**, and state the relationships and constraints among variables that are true at a specific point in execution
- An assertion before a statement is called a **precondition**
- An assertion following a statement is a **postcondition**

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Weakest Preconditions

- Pre-post form: {P} statement {Q}
- A weakest precondition is the least restrictive precondition that will guarantee the postcondition
- An example:

$$a := b + 1 \{a > 1\}$$

- One possible precondition: {b > 10}
- Weakest precondition: {b > 0}

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Program Proofs

- Program proof process:
 - The postcondition for the whole program is the desired results
 - Work back through the program to the first statement
 - If the precondition on the first statement is the same as the program spec, the program is correct

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An Axiom for Assignment

• An axiom for assignment statements:

$$\{Q_{x\cdot>E}\}\ x:=E\ \{Q\}$$

- Substitute E for every x in Q $\left\{\begin{array}{l} P? \ \} \ x := y+1 \ \left\{\begin{array}{l} x>0 \ \right\} \\ P=x>0 \ _{x\rightarrow \ y+1} \\ P=y+1>0 \\ P=y\geq 0 \end{array} \right.$
- Basically, "undoing" the assignment and solving for y

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■ The Rule of Consequence:

$$\frac{\{P\} \ S \ \{Q\}, \ P' => \ P, \ Q => \ Q'}{\{P'\} \ S \ \{Q'\}}$$

■ For a sequence S1;S2 the inference rule is:

$$\frac{\{\text{P1}\}\ \text{S1}\ \{\text{P2}\},\ \{\text{P2}\}\ \text{S2}\ \{\text{P3}\}}{\{\text{P1}\}\ \text{S1};\ \text{S2}\ \{\text{P3}\}}$$

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A Rule for Loops

- An inference rule for logical pretest loops:
 - $\{P\}$ while B do S end $\{Q\}$
- The inference rule is:

 $\{I \text{ and } B\} S \{I\}$

 $\{I\}$ while B do S $\{I \text{ and (not B)}\}$

 \blacksquare Where I is the loop invariant

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Loop Invariant Characteristics

I must meet the following conditions:

- 1. $P \Rightarrow I$ (the loop invariant must be true initially)
- 2. $\{I\}$ B $\{I\}$ (evaluation of the Boolean must not change the validity of I)
- 3. {I and B} S {I} (I is not changed by executing the body of the loop)
- 4. (I and (not B)) \Rightarrow Q (if I is true and B is false, Q is implied)
- 5. The loop terminates (can be difficult to prove)

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More on Loop Invariants

- The loop invariant I is:
 - A weakened version of the loop postcondition, and
 - Also the loop's precondition
- I must be:
 - Weak enough to be satisfied prior to the beginning of the loop, but
 - when combined with the loop exit condition, it must be strong enough to force the truth of the postcondition

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Finding Loop Invariants

■ Work backwards through a few iterations and look for a pattern

while
$$y <> x \text{ do } y := y+1 \{y = x\}$$

$$\{P?\}\ y := y + 1\ \{y = x\}$$

$$P = \{y = x\}_{y \to y + 1} = \{y = x - 1\}$$
 —last iteration

$$\{P?\}\ y := y + 1\ \{y = x - 1\}$$

$$P = \{y = x-1\}_{y \to y+1} = \{y = x-2\}$$
 —next to

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Finding Invariants (cont.)

- By extension, we get $I = \{ y < x \}$
- When we factor in that the loop may not be executed even once (when y = x), we get

$$I = \{ y \le x \}$$

- This also satisfies loop termination, so
- $\blacksquare P = I = \{y \le x\}$

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Is I a Loop Invariant?

- Does $\{y \le x\}$ satisfy the 5 conditions?
- (1) $\{y \le x\} \Rightarrow \{y \le x\}$?
- (2) if $\{y \le x\}$ and y <> x is then evaluated, is $\{y \le x\}$ still true?
- (3) if $\{y \le x\}$ and y <> x are both true and then y := y+1 is executed, is $\{y \le x\}$ true?
- (4) does $\{y \le x\}$ and $\{y = x\} \Rightarrow \{y = x\}$?
- (5) Can you argue convincingly that the program segment terminates?

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A Harder Loop Invariant Example

{P} while
$$y < x + 1$$
 do $y := y + 1$ { $y > 5$ }
{ $y > 5$ } _{$y -> y + 1$} $\Rightarrow y > 4$
{ $y > 4$ } _{$y -> y + 1$} $\Rightarrow y > 3$

- etc.

 Tells us nothing about x because x is not in Q = {y > 5}
- What else can we do?

Using Loop Criterion 4

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- Try guessing invariant using criterion 4:
- \blacksquare {I and (not B)} \Rightarrow Q
- I? and $y \ge x + 1 \Rightarrow y > 5$
- I? and $y > x \Rightarrow y > 5$
- any $x \ge 5$ satisfies implication
- so . . . let $I = \{x \ge 5\}$
- Do the 4 Axioms hold?

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Evaluation of Axiomatic Semantics

- Advantages
 - lacktriangle Can be very abstract
 - May be useful in proofs of correctness
 - Solid theoretical foundations
- Disadvantages
 - Predicate transformers are hard to define
 - Hard to give complete meaning
 - Does not suggest implementation
- Uses of Axiomatic Semantics
 - Semantics of Pascal
 - Reasoning about correctness

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Denotational Semantics

- Based on recursive function theory
- The most abstract semantics description method
- Originally developed by Scott and Strachey (1970)
- **Key idea**: Define a function that maps a program (a syntactic object) to its meaning (a semantic object)

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Denotational vs. Operational

- Denotational semantics is similar to high-level operational semantics, except:
 - Machine is gone
 - Language is mathematics (lamda calculus)
- The difference between denotational and operational semantics:
 - In operational semantics, the state changes are defined by coded algorithms for a virtual machine
 - In denotational semantics, they are defined by rigorous mathematical functions

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Denotational Specification Process

- 1. Define a mathematical object for each language entity
- 2. Define a function that maps instances of the language entities onto instances of the corresponding mathematical objects

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Program State

- The meaning of language constructs are defined only by the values of the program's variables
- The state of a program is the values of all its current variables, plus input and output state

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

■ Let VARMAP be 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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Example: Decimal Numbers

<digit> -> 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
<dec_num> -> <digit> | <dec_num> <digit>

- $M_{dec}('0') = 0$, $M_{dec}('1') = 1$, ..., $M_{dec}('9') = 9$
- $M_{dec}(< dec_num>) \Delta=$

$$<$$
digit $> \Rightarrow M_{dec}(<$ digit $>)$

$$10 \times M_{dec}(< dec_num>) + M_{dec}(< digit>)$$

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Expressions

■ M_e(<expr>, s) Δ=
case <expr> of
 <dec_num> ⇒ M_{dec}(<dec_num>)
 <var> ⇒ VARMAP(<var>, s)
 <binary_expr> ⇒
 if (<binary_expr>.<operator> = '+') then
 Me(<binary_expr>.<left_expr>, s) +
 Me(<binary_expr>.<right_expr>, s)
 else
 Me(<binary_expr>.<left_expr>, s)
 else
 Me(<binary_expr>.<left_expr>, s)
 %
 Me(<binary_expr>.<left_expr>, s)
 %
 Me(<binary_expr>.<left_expr>, s)
 %
 Me(<binary_expr>.<right_expr>, s)

Statement Basics

■ The meaning of a single statement executed in a state s is a new state s' (that reflects the effects of the statement)

$$M_{stmt}(Stmt, s) = s'$$

■ For a sequence of statements:

$$\begin{split} & \text{M}_{\text{stmt}}(\text{Stmt1; Stmt2 , s)} \ \Delta = \\ & \text{M}_{\text{stmt}}(\text{Stmt2 , M}_{\text{stmt}}(\text{Stmt1 , s)}) \\ & \text{r} \\ & \text{M}_{\text{stmt}}(\text{Stmt1; Stmt2 , s)} = \text{S'' where} \\ & \text{s'} = \text{M}_{\text{stmt}}(\text{Stmt1 , s)} \\ & \text{s''} = \text{M}_{\text{stmt}}(\text{Stmt2 , s'}) \end{split}$$

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Assignment Statements

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$$M_a(x := E, s) \Delta =$$

$$s' = \{\langle i_1', v_1' \rangle, \langle i_2', v_2' \rangle, ..., \langle i_n', v_n' \rangle \},$$
where for $j = 1, 2, ..., n$,
$$v_j' = VARMAP(i_j, s) \quad \text{if} \quad i_j \neq x$$

$$v_j' = M_e(E, s) \quad \text{if} \quad i_j = x$$

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Sequence of Statements

Initial state $s_0 = \langle mem_{0}, i_0, o_0 \rangle$

$$M_{stmt}(P, s) = M_{stmt}(P1, M_{stmt}(x := 5, s))$$

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{S}_1 &= < \mathbf{mem}_1, \mathbf{i}_1, \mathbf{o}_1 > \ \mathbf{where} \\ & \ \mathsf{VARMAP}(\mathbf{X}, \, \mathbf{s}_1) = \mathbf{5} \\ & \ \mathsf{VARMAP}(\mathbf{Z}, \, \mathbf{s}_1) = \ \mathsf{VARMAP}(\mathbf{Z}, \, \mathbf{s}_0) \ \ \mathsf{for \ all} \ \ \mathbf{Z} \neq \mathbf{X} \\ & \ \mathbf{i}_1 = \ \mathbf{i}_0, \ \mathbf{o}_1 = \mathbf{o}_0 \end{split}$$

Sequence of Statements (cont.)

$$M_{stmt}(P1, s_1) = M_{stmt}(P2, \underbrace{M_{stmt}(y := x + 1, s_1)}_{c.})$$

$$\begin{aligned} s_2 &= \langle \mathsf{mem}_2, \, \mathsf{i}_2, \, \mathsf{o}_2 \rangle \; \mathsf{where} \\ & \mathsf{VARMAP}(\mathsf{y}, \, \mathsf{s}_2) = \mathsf{M}_\mathsf{e}(\ \, \mathsf{x} + 1 \ \, , \, \mathsf{s}_1) = 6 \\ & \mathsf{VARMAP}(\mathsf{z}, \, \mathsf{s}_2) = \mathsf{VARMAP}(\mathsf{z}, \, \mathsf{s}_1) \; \; \mathsf{for \; all} \; \; \mathsf{z} \neq \mathsf{y} \\ & \mathsf{i}_2 &= \mathsf{i}_1 \\ & \mathsf{o}_2 &= \mathsf{o}_2 \end{aligned}$$

 $o_2 = o_1$

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Sequence of Statements (cont.)

$$M_{stmt}(P2, s_2) = M_{stmt}(write (x * y), s_2) = s_3$$

 $s_3 = \langle mem_3, i_3, o_3 \rangle$ where
 $VARMAP(z, s_3) = VARMAP(z, s_2)$ for all z
 $i_3 = i_2$
 $o_3 = o_2 \cdot M_e(x * y, s_2) = o_2 \cdot 30$

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Sequence of Statements (concl.)

```
So,
M_{stmt}(P, s_0) = s_3 = \langle mem_3, i_3, o_3 \rangle where
    VARMAP(y, s_3) = 6
    VARMAP(x, s_3) = 5
    VARMAP(z, s_3) = VARMAP(z, s_0) for all z \neq x, y
    o_3 = o_0 \cdot 30
```

Logical Pretest Loops

- The meaning of the loop is the value of the program variables after the loop body has been executed the prescribed number of times, assuming there have been no errors
- In essence, the loop has been converted from iteration to recursion, where the recursive control is mathematically defined by other recursive state mapping functions
- Recursion, when compared to iteration, is easier to describe with mathematical rigor

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Logical Pretest Loops (cont.)

```
■ M_1(while B do L, s) \Delta=
     if M_b(B, s) = false then
     else
        M_I(while B do L, M_s(L, s))
```

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Evaluation of Denotational Semantics

- Advantages:
 - Compact & precise, with solid mathematical foundation
 - Provides a rigorous way to think about programs
 - Can be used to prove the correctness of programs
 - Can be an aid to language design
 - Has been used in compiler generation systems
- Disadvantages
 - Requires mathematical sophistication
 - Hard for programmer to use
- HSes
 - Semantics for Algol-60, Pascal, etc.
 - Compiler generation and optimization

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Summary

- Each form of semantic description has its place:
 - Operational
 - ■Informal descriptions
 - ■Compiler work
 - Axiomatic
 - ■Reasoning about particular properties
 - ■Proofs of correctness
 - Denotational
 - **■**Formal definitions
 - ■Provably correct implementations

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