Fundamental Concepts of Programming Languages Definition of PLs Lecture 03

conf. dr. ing. Ciprian-Bogdan Chirila

University Politehnica Timisoara Department of Computing and Information Technology

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Lecture outline

- The definition of PLs
- Syntax
- Syntax grammars
- Syntax diagrams
- Semantics
- Operational semantics
- Attributed grammars
- Axiomatic semantics
- Denotational semantics

The PL

- Is a formal notation
- The form and meaning are described by a set of rules
- The rules establish
 - program correctness
 - what will happen during execution
- Syntactical rules form the PL syntax
- Semantic rules form PL semantics

PL definition

- $L = < S_m, S_t, f : S_t > S_m >$
- S_m is the language semantics
- S_t is the language syntax
- f is the association function of syntax to certain semantics

Formal definition method of PLs

- defining an alphabet A out of base symbols
- defining A* set containing all possible symbol strings which may be constructed from the elements of A
- ullet a set of rules to select the set of correct programs $P\subseteq A^{m{*}}$
- the semantic specification of each element $p \in P$

The syntax

- Syntax rules generate an infinite set of sentences
- Only a subset of them are semantically correct
- Sentences are made out of symbols
- Symbols are made out of characters respecting the lexical rules
- Lexical rules belong to the PL syntax
- All symbols from the PL vocabulary
 - Identifiers, keywords
 - begin, end in Pascal
 - \bullet +, ++, <= , in C
 - Integer literals, float literals, string literals

Grammars

- All syntactical rules of a language form the grammar
- How to write a grammar?
- BNF Bachus Naur Form
 - Used for Algol 60
- Extended BNF EBNF
 - Metalanguage
 - A language used to define another language

EBNF

::= defined as
| or
< and > used for non-terminals
[and] used for optional sequences
{ and } used for sequences repeated zero or more times

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The syntax

- The syntax is a set of EBNF relations or rules
- A relation defines
 - A non-terminal specified at left hand side of ::=
 - Non-terminals and terminals at the right hand side of ::=
- Terminals are language symbols
- Each right hand side used non-terminal must be defined in a different relation
- A complete grammar must define all non-terminals
- One non-terminal is defined as the starting symbol of the grammar
- Usually is called <program>

The program

- A string of symbols or terminals
- Is syntactically correct if the symbol string can be derived based on the grammar rules beginning from the starting symbol

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Grammar example

```
<expression> ::= <term> { +|- <term> }
<term> ::= <factor> { *|: <factor> }
<factor> ::= number | identifier | ( <expression> )
<assignment> ::= identifier := <expression>
<instructions> ::= <assignment> { ; <assignment> }
<program> ::= prog identifier; <instructions> end.
```

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Program example

```
prog example;
    a:=2*(x+3);
    b:=a-1
end.
```

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Program example

- Is syntactically correct if it can be derived based on the rules and starting from the <program> non-terminal
- The derivation process can be better illustrated drawing a tree where:
 - The root is the starting symbol
 - The inner nodes are non-terminals
 - The leaves are terminals
- Such a tree is called syntax tree

The derivation process



Syntactic analysis

- To check the syntactical correctness of a program
- Bottom-up
 - To start from the symbols
 - To replace right hand side sequences with rules
 - To repeat until the starting symbols is reached
- Top-down
 - To begin at the starting symbol
 - To replace non-terminals according to the grammar rules

Syntax diagrams



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Syntax diagrams

- A symbols succession is correct if it can be generated by traversing the diagram from the beginning to the end
- Meeting a rectangle
 - the corresponding non-terminal must be verified;
- Meeting a circle/ellipse
 - the corresponding terminal must be found;

Regular expressions

- Lexical rules can be expressed using regular expressions
- Each regular expression e denotes a set of strings S formed with the letters of an alphabet A applying a set of operators

Regular expressions

- Let us suppose that S, S1, S2 are sets of strings
- Reunion

$$S_1\cup S_2=\{\mathsf{s}|\mathsf{s}\in S_1 ext{ or }\mathsf{s}\in S_2\}$$

Product or Catenation

$$S_1S_2{=}\{s_1s_2|s_1\in S_1 ext{ and } s_2\in S_2\}$$

Power

$$S^{n} = \begin{cases} \{\epsilon\} \ n = 0, \epsilon \text{ is the empty string} \\ S^{n-1}S, \forall n \in N, n \ge 1 \end{cases}$$

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Regular expressions

• Kleene closure or Star
$$S^* = \cup_{i=0}^\infty S^i$$

• Positive closure or Plus $S^+ = \cup_{i=1}^\infty S^i$

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Defining new sets

- \bullet the set of all letters and digits $\ \mbox{L} \, \cup \, \mbox{D}$
- all two length strings where LD
 - the first character is letter
 - the second character is digit
- the set of strings of 4 letters L⁴
- $\bullet\,$ the set of strings of letters of any length including the empty length string L^*
- ullet the set of digit strings containing at least a digit $oldsymbol{D}^+$

The construction of a regular expression

- Starting from an alphabet A
- ϵ is a regular expression
- a is a regular expression
- e1, e2, e regular expressions denoting the string sets S1, S2, S
- on these sets we can apply several
- the result will be a regular expression

Regular expression operators

- Reunion (e1)|(e2) denote the set S1 U S2
- Product or catenation (e1)(e2) denoting the set S1S2
- Star(e)* denoting the set (S)*
- all operators are left-associative
- the priority
 - from high to low
 - stat, product, reunion

Regular expression operators

• One or more

- Plus "+" operator
- ee^* is equivalent to e+

Zero or one

- The question mark "?" operator
- Character classes
 - The notation [c1c2c3c4] will designate the c1|c2|c3|c4 regular expression
 - a|b|...|z will become [a-z]

Example

- Ietter(letter|digit)*
 - Regular expression for identifiers
 - L(LUD)* from previous example
- digit -> [0-9]
- letter -> [A-Z, a-z]
- identifier -> letter(letter|digit)*
- digits -> digit+
- exponent -> ((E|e)(+|-)?digits)?
- o fraction -> (.digits)?
- number -> digits fraction exponent
- when names are used in the right hand side -> regular definition

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The semantics

- Semantic rules
 - The meaning associated to correct syntactical constructions

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- Describing syntax
 - BNF
 - EBNF
- Describing semantics
 - Coexist a series of methodologies
 - In research for one fully satisfiable

The semantics of a PL

- Is described in natural language
 - text, drawings, diagrams
- More or less exact or rigorous
- Good for learning
- Ambiguities are clarified by experiments

Why formal description of semantics?

PLs

- large spreading
- tend to be complex and diverse
- because applications
 - are complex, large, diverse
 - demand high reliability
- the solution: formal, mathematical notation
 - With no ambiguities
 - Difficult access
 - Needs special preparing to decipher the formalism

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Formalism advantages

- Avoiding gaps in language definition
 - Gaps are probable in the informal definition
- Reference documentation for the programmer
 - The programmer may clarify problems when reading the informal definition
- Reference documentation for the implementation
 - For the PL implementation team
 - Used for implementation validation and homologation

Formalism advantages

- Formal base for automated program checking
 - Formal checking algorithms need a rigorous PL definition
- Implementation independence
 - The formalisms guarantee that is independent of the implementation

Appreciations criteria for formal methods

- Completeness
 - The method capability of covering all syntax and semantic issues
- Simplicity
 - The ease of model creation no matter how complex the language is

Appreciations criteria for formal methods

Clarity

- understanding definitions easily
- natural PL description

• Expressivity on errors

• the method capability of detecting program errors

Appreciations criteria for formal methods

Changeability

• The method capability of defining places where restrictions or options are left free to implementers

Modifiability

- The method capability of easily making modifications in the previous PL description
- Important in the PL definition phase

Formal methods of PL semantics

2 methods

- Intuitive
- Based on program translation concepts
- 2 methods
 - Mathematical
 - With a strong theoretical base
- methods comparison
 - using the presented criteria

Operational semantics

- Is defined by the effect its constructions make over a real or virtual processor
- The instruction semantics is denoted by
 - Knowing the computer state
 - Executing an instruction
 - Examining the new computer state

Operational semantics

- Real computer architectures are very complex
- Virtual machines are used instead
- Software interpreter executing virtual instructions
- Virtual machines can be designed such as PL semantics can be easily expressed with virtual instructions
- The set of virtual instructions must be simple enough to be implemented on any hardware machine
Applying the operational method

- Defining and implementing a virtual machine VM
- A translator converting the instructions of the L language into the instructions of the virtual machine VM
- State changes produced on the virtual machine by executing the virtual code resulted by translation L language instructions defines the instruction semantics

The structure of a virtual machine VM



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Virtual machine run

- Virtual processor
 - Instruction pointer IP
- Code memory C
- Data memory D
- VM cycle
 - Execute the instruction pointed by IP
 - If the instruction does not change IP, the IP register will be incremented and will denote the next instruction in C

Program example

i=first; for i:=first to last do begin ... end; i=first; loop: if i>last goto out ... i:=i+1 ... goto loop out: ...

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Operational description

- was used for the first time in the IBM Vienna subsidiary
- was used to define PL/I 1969
- VDL Vienna Definition Language
- is good for both programmers and implementers
- is not based on a complicated mathematical formalism
- is based on translation algorithms
- the PL semantic is defined in the terms of a different known low level language

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Attributed grammars

- Used when the translation process is coordinated by a grammar
- The semantics can be specified by attaching semantic attributed to the grammar symbols
 - Terminals
 - Non-terminals
- Proposed By Donald Knuth 1968

Attributed grammars

- The attribute values are computed through expressions or functions called semantics rules associated to the grammar rules
- The evaluation of semantic rules means semantic analysis
- The process is also called syntax directed translation
- There are several associations possible between semantic rules and grammar relations
 - syntax directed definitions SDD

Syntax directed definition

- Is a generalization of a grammar
- To each symbol we attach a set of attributes
- Results an attributed grammar
- Attribute representation
 - Numbers
 - Strings
 - Typed
 - Memory locations
- Attributes are computed during the development of the syntactic tree
- The attribute value is computed using a semantic rule associated with the production

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Example SDD for an office calculator

line>::=<expression>nl <expression>::=<expression>+<term>|<term> <term>::=<term>*<factor>|<factor> <factor>::=(<expression>)|number

Example SDD for an office calculator

- the definition associates to each non-terminal (<expression>,
 <term>, <factor>) an attribute having integer value named val
- For each production we compute the val attribute associated with the left hand-side non-terminal based on the values of the val attribute from right-hand side non-terminals

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SDD for the office calculator

| Grammar production | Semantic rules |
|---|--|
| line>::=<expression>nl</expression> | print(<expression>.val)</expression> |
| <expression>::=<expression n1>+<term></term></expression </expression> | < <u>expression.val</u> >:= <expression 1>.<u>val</u>+<term>.<u>val</u></term></expression |
| <expression>::=<term></term></expression> | <expression>.val:=<term>.val</term></expression> |
| <term>::=<term1>*<factor ></factor </term1></term> | <term>.<u>val</u>:=<term1>.<u>val</u>*<fact or>.<u>val</u></fact </term1></term> |
| <term>::=<factor></factor></term> | <term>.val:=<factor>.val</factor></term> |
| <factor>::=(<expression>)</expression></factor> | <factor>.val:=<expression>.val</expression></factor> |
| <factor>::=number</factor> | <factor>.val:=number.lexval</factor> |

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SDD for the office calculator

- number atom has an attribute named lexval
- the starting rule prints out the value of the <expression>

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Annotated syntax tree

- is a syntax tree which shows the nodes attributes
- The process is called syntax tree annotation
- A definition using only synthesized attributes is called an S-attributed definition

Example of annotated syntax tree



Axiomatic semantics

- To translate a correct construction into a mathematical meta-language
- A notation having well defined mathematical rules
- To determine a set of translation rules between
 - language construction domain
 - mathematical formula-meta-language

Axiomatic semantic meta-language

- C.A.R. Hoare 1969
- Has its roots in mathematical logic
- Based on predicates computation
- Predicates
 - Are logic expressions applied on program variables
 - Used to express states in the computing process

Preconditions and postconditions

- Instruction S
- Predicate P
 - that must be true after executing S
 - is called postcondition for S
- Predicate Q
 - is true
 - S is executed normally
 - Postcondition P is true
 - Is called precondition for S and P

Example

Notation: Q {S} P Example: S: x:=y+1 (integers) P: x>0 y=3 {x:=y+1} x>0 Q: y=3 -----Q: y>-1 y>-1 {x:=y+1} x>0

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Example

For

- instruction S
- postcondition P
- there are multiple (an infinite) preconditions available
- One of them is called the weakest precondition
- All preconditions Q imply the weakest precondition W
- For any true Q, W is also true

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Axiomatic semantic

- \forall precondition Q \rightarrow W (implication relationship)
- $\bullet~p \rightarrow q$ (means anytime p is true also q is true)
- y=3 -> y>-1 is TRUE
- y>0 -> y>-1 is TRUE
- y>-5 -> y>-1 is FALSE
- Only the weakest precondition is important
- To express the construction effect by predicate transformation
- To define the axsem frunction
 - axsem(S,P)=W
 - S language construction
 - P postcondition
 - W weakest precondition
- To define a language means defining axsem for all constructions

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axem for assignment instruction

- axsem{x:=E,P} $\rightarrow P_{X \rightarrow E}$
- $P_{X \to E}$ is the predicate P where all appearances of x were replaced by E
- In order that predicate P to be true after x got the value of E, before the assignment the predicate obtained replacing x by E must be true
- *P*_{X→E}{x:=E} P
- y>-1 {x:=y+1} x>0
 - in x>0 we replace x with y+1
 - y+1>0 or y>-1
 - the semantic of the assignment is that if y>-1 then x>0

Example

- We will use the assem function to find out in which condition x:=x+3 will produce a result x>8
- axsem(x:=x+3,x>8)=x>5
 - in x>8 we replace x by x+3
 - x+3>8 and x>5
 - if x>5 then after the assignment x>8
 - the semantic of the assignment is that if x>5 then x>8

axsem for an instruction sequence

- considering
- axsem(S1,P)=Q
- axsem(S2,Q)=R
- for the sequence S2;S1
- axsem(S2;S1,P)=R
- the postcondition created by S2 becomes precondition for S1
- R S2 Q
- Q S1 P
- after sequencing we got R S2 Q S1 P or R S2;S1 P

axsem for if instruction

- if B then L1 else L2 endif
- B condition
- L1, L2 instruction sequences
- axsem(instr-if,P)=
 - $B \Rightarrow \mathsf{axsem}(\mathsf{L1},\mathsf{P})$ and not B $\Rightarrow \mathsf{axsem}(\mathsf{L2},\mathsf{P})$

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Example

- if x>=y then max:=x else max:=y endif
- in the sequence computes max correctly
- then (x>=y and max=x) or (y>=x and max=y) must be true
- P is this postcondition, what is the precondition ?
- $(x \ge y) \Rightarrow ((x \ge y \text{ and } x=x) \text{ or } (y \ge x \text{ and } x=y))$ and $not(x \ge y) \Rightarrow ((x \ge y \text{ and } y=x) \text{ or } (y \ge x \text{ and } y=y)) = true$

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Denotational semantic

- Scott 1970
- S=<mem,i,o>
 - mem is a function representing the memory
 - mem:Id \rightarrow Z \cup {undef}
 - Id is the set of all identifiers
 - Z is the set of all integers
 - undef is the value of an undefined identifier
 - i,o input and output sequences
 - their values can be integers sequences or void sequence

Denotational semantic

- Using this representation each language construction is expressed as a function
- Functions show the modifications of the language construction produces on the system state
- All functions + all composition rules represents the semantic definition of the language
- Mathematical metalanguage for denotational semantic is the functional calculus

Arithmetical expression

- dsemEx:EX x S \rightarrow Z \cup {error}
 - S the set of states
 - EX the set of expressions
- dsemEx(E,s)=error
 - if s=<mem,i,o> and mem(v)=undef for a variable v from E; else
- dsemEx(E,s)=e
 - if s=<mem,i,o> and e is result of E expression evaluation after replacing each v identifier from E with mem(v)
- we assumed that expression have
 - no collateral effects
 - no overflows
 - no type errors

Assignment instruction

 $\bullet \ \mathsf{dsemAs:} \mathsf{AS} \times \mathsf{S} \to \mathsf{S} \, \cup \, \{\mathsf{error}\}$

- AS: the set of assignment instructions
- dsemAs(x:=E,s)=error
 - if dsemEx(E,s)=error; else
- dsemAs(x:E,s)=s'
 - where s = < mem, i, o >, s' = < mem', i', o' >

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- i'=i, o'=o
- mem'(y)=mem(y) for any $y \neq x$
- mem'(x)=dsemEx(E,s)

Read instruction

- x<-read
- dsemRd:RD x S \rightarrow S \cup {error}
 - RD the set of read instructions
 - dsemRd(x<-read,s)=error
 - if s=<mem,i,o> and i is void; else
 - dsemRD(x<-read,s)=s'
 - Where s = < mem, i, o > s' = < mem, i', o' >

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- o=o' i=li'
- mem'(y)=mem(y) for all $y \neq x$
- mem'(x)=|

Instruction sequence

• dsemIs:IS x S \rightarrow S \cup {error}

- IS is the set of all instruction sequences
- In case of a void list ϵ
 - dsemls(e,s)=s
- In case of a list T;L
 - dsemIs(T;L,s)=error
 - •if dsem(T,s)=error; else
 - dsemIs(T;L,s)=dsemIs(L,dsem(T,s))

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• dsem describes the semantic of T

If instruction

- if B then L1 else L2 end if
- B is an expression
 - =0 false
 - $\neq 0 \ true$
- L1,L2 instruction sequences

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If instruction

- dsemIf:IF \times S \rightarrow S \cup {error}
- IF is the set of all if instructions
- dsemIf(if B the L1 else L2 end if, s)=error
 - if dsemEx(B,s)=error; else
- dsemIf(if B then L1 else L2 end if,s)
 =dsemIs(L1,s) if dsemEx(B,s)≠0; else
 =dsemIs(L2,s)

While instruction

- while B do L end while
- B is an expression
 - =0 false
 - \neq 0 true
- L instruction sequence
- $\bullet \ \mathsf{dsemWhile:WHILE} \times \mathsf{S} \to \mathsf{S} \, \cup \, \{\mathsf{error}\}$
 - WHILE the set of all while instructions

While instruction

dsemWhile(while B do L end while, s)=error
 if dsemEx(B,s)=error; else
 dsemWhile(while B do L end while, s)=s
 if dsemEx(B,s)=0; else
 dsemWhile(while B do L end while, s)=error
 if dsemIs(L,s)=error; else
 dsemWhile(while B do L end while, dsemIs(L,s))

conf. dr. ing. Ciprian-Bogdan Chirila (Univer<mark>Fundamental Concepts of Programming Lang</mark>

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