Principles of Programming Languages Lecture 01 Introduction

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Contents of the course

- Building blocks of progamming languages
- Vernacular for talking about programming languages
- Tools for describing the meaning of a program
- Techniques for reasoning about a program



- Improved understanding of programs
- Verify program transformations
- Verify compilers
- Design and verify static analyses

Key aspect: Semantics



Dynamics — run time

- describes execution of a program
- wide variety of styles

Statics — compile time

- describes checks before execution
- conditions that avoid certain execution errors
- principal example: types

Requirements



Description of

- syntax
- execution states
- evolving execution
- static rules

Checking that

- execution preserves static rules
- static rules enable execution







2 Syntax

- Concrete sytax
- Abstract syntax

3 Semantics





- Concrete syntax describes valid program texts
- Description in two stages
 - 1 lexical syntax
 - 2 context-free syntax



The lexical syntax defines the "atoms" of the language in terms of regular languages. The *lexical analysis* (*scanner, lexer*) of a compiler partitions a program into *lexemes* and maps them into *tokens*. (Lexemes are sequences of input characters, tokens are symbolic values.)



Typical lexeme classes are identifiers, numeric literals, opening and closing parentheses, and keywords

class	regexp	example	token
identifier	[A-Za-z][A-Za-z0-9]*	Catch22	<i>ident</i> (Catch22)
numeric lit	[-+]?[0-9]+	-42	num (42)
opening par	((openingPar
closing par))	closingPar
keyword	while	while	kwWhile

The scanner typically ignores *whitespace*, that is sequences of spaces, tabulators, line feeds, and so on. The scanner also removes comments.



- \blacksquare given by a context-free grammar ${\cal G}$
- symbols are tokens from lexical analysis
- a parser for G maps a token sequence to a derivation tree of G or fails if the token sequence is not in the language.



A grammar for parsing infix expressions.

It reflects the convention that / binds tighter than – and that both associate to the left.



Derivation tree for a / a - (a - a / a). TODO



Much of the structure of the derivation tree of a grammar suitable for parsing is irrelevant for the meaning of an expression. For that task, a much simpler structure is sufficient, the *abstract syntax*:

$$e$$
 ::= $e-e \mid e/e \mid a$

- Abstract syntax is also described by a context-free grammar
- The point of this grammar is not the set of strings derivable from it, but rather its set of derivation trees, the abstract syntax trees (AST).



More precisely, an AST is a term built from a signature of operation symbols (the above grammar is a common, but sloppy way of writing that signature). Technically, the non-terminals of the grammar are considered as types and an explicit signature specifies the restrictions.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} - & : & \langle expr \rangle \times \langle expr \rangle & \rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \\ / & : & \langle expr \rangle \times \langle expr \rangle & \rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \\ a & : & & \rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \end{array}$$



Functional programming languages directly support tree datatypes suitable for defining AST. For example, the type expr can be defined as follows in OCaml:

(The lexemes / and - cannot be used because they are predefined by the OCaml language. Constructors like subExpr, divExpr, conExpr must be used instead.)



PLT Redex is a domain specific language for *semantics engineering*. It provides extensive support for most constructions used in this course.

There are very few restrictions on lexemes in PLT Redex.





1 Prelude

2 Syntax

- Concrete sytax
- Abstract syntax

3 Semantics



- assign meaning to a program text
- usually by a mapping from AST to mathematical object
- different styles of semantics ⇔ different mathematical objects denotational: defines domains that capture final result of a program; the object is an element of a suitable domain
 - operational: defines an abstract machine which comes with a notion of (step-wise) execution; the object is a state of this machine
 - axiomatic: defines the meaning via logical formulas expressing pre- and postconditions; the object is a pair of pre- and postconditions

Operational Semantics



This Course

In this course, we concentrate on operational semantics because of its simple foundations.

Two styles of operational semantics

Small-step operational semantics describes program execution as

 a sequence of transformations starting from the
 initial state and ending with the final result (if any).

Big-step operational semantics describes program execution as a
 function from program text to the result. Often
 close to an interpreter.



$$e ::= e - e \mid e/e \mid n$$

where $n \in \mathbf{Q}$ ranges over rational numbers. Small-step operational semantics is specified as an abstract machine:

state expression e

transformation given by a transition relation $e \longrightarrow e'$, a binary relation on expressions

final state number *n*: particular expressions that denote final results, often called values

Small-step Operational Semantics Example transition relation





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Small-step Operational Semantics Example execution







Partial operations

There may be no useful transition from a (non-final) state. For example, 1/0 has no transition, but it is not a number.

Nondeterminism

Occasionally the order in which arguments are evaluated does not matter.

Concurrency

It is the point of modeling concurrent execution that any thread can take the next step.

Small-step Operational Semantics Deterministic rule set for evaluation of expressions





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Goal

Relate an expression to its final value.

- Need to specify binary relation, called *evaluation*, between expressions and numbers $e \hookrightarrow n$.
- Evaluation may be partial as for 1/0
- Evaluation is usually deterministic (i.e. a partial function)

Big-step Operational Semantics Example evaluation relation



$$n \hookrightarrow n$$

$$\frac{e_1 \hookrightarrow n_1 \quad e_2 \hookrightarrow n_2}{e_1 - e_2 \hookrightarrow m} \quad \text{where } m = n_1 - n_2 \in \mathbf{Q}$$

 $\frac{e_1 \hookrightarrow n_1 \quad e_2 \hookrightarrow n_2}{e_1/e_2 \hookrightarrow m} \quad \text{where } n_2 \neq 0 \text{ and } m = n_1/n_2 \in \mathbf{Q}$

Big-step Operational Semantics Example evaluation



$\frac{\begin{array}{ccc} 42 \hookrightarrow 42 & 1 \hookrightarrow 1 \\ \hline 42/1 \hookrightarrow 42 & \hline 17 \hookrightarrow 17 \\ \hline 17-17 \hookrightarrow 0 \\ \hline \hline (42/1) - (17-17) \hookrightarrow 42 \end{array}$



Nontermination observable in small-step; non-obvious solution for big-step

Exceptions small-step gets stuck on exceptional subexpressions like 1/0; big-step evaluation of every expression containing 1/0 is *undefined*

Evaluation order reasonably easy to define in small-step; more involved for big-step

Concurrency easy in small-step; non-obvious solution for big-step

But

- big-step is close to an interpreter (i.e., more intuitive, close to implementation)
- some properties are easier to prove for big-step

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