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Principles for Software Composition

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02 - Preliminaries

From syntax to semantics

Programming languages

When we define a programming language, we fix its:

well-formed programs, 1. syntax exclude nonsense reduce allowed programs, 2. types exclude common mistakes 3. pragmatics how to use constructs and features 4. (semantics) the meaning of (well-typed) programs

Formal syntax

The syntax of a formal language rigorously defines

1. the alphabet

which symbols can be used

2. the grammatical structure of programs

which sequences of symbols are valid, which sequences should be discarded

Standard ways for defining syntax are, e.g. regular expressions, context-free grammars, BNF notation, syntax diagrams,...

Example

A BNF grammar and its corresponding syntax diagram



Type systems

Type systems can be used to

1. limit the occurrence of errors

2. allow compiler optimisation

3. reduce the presence of bugs

different type systems can be defined for the same language!

4. discourage programming malpractices

Type systems are often presented as logic rules

Example

```
...
bool b := true;
while (b <= (b && i)) do {
    i := i-1;
}</pre>
```

Benefits of formalisation

Standardisation of the language

programmers write syntactically correct programs implementors write correct parsers

Formal analysis of language properties ambiguity, expressiveness, recognizability, comparability

Automatic implementation of compiler's front-end yacc, Bison, xtext, ...

Exercise

Take the alphabet
$$A \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \{(,)\}$$

Define the grammar for strings of balanced parentheses

S ::= ?

Pragmatics

Programmers should understand the code they type

Every language manual also contains

- 1. natural language descriptions of the various constructs
- 2. sample code fragments and usage patterns
- 3. examples of malpractices
- We call them pragmatics
- 1. how to exploit the various features
- 2. how compilers should be designed
- 3. which auxiliary tools are available

Is it enough?

Natural language descriptions should be

- 1. as much precise as possible
- 2. understandable
- 3. unambiguous but not pedantic

Still ...

- 1. it is difficult (nearly impossible) to cover all cases
- 2. many points will remain open to different interpretations
- 3. inconsistencies can arise
- 4. good practices do not eliminate problems (hide them)

Some issues

- How to prove conformance to some specification?
- How to prove absence of problems?
- How to produce reliable code?
- How to prove vendors' compliance?
- How to prove correctness of an implementation?
- How to define the correct outcomes of test cases?
- How to early detect ambiguities, anomalies, inconsistencies?
- How to expose weaknesses?

Best practices





Test-driven development



Still...

Cost of software fails in 2017



606 fails from 314 companies



3.6 billion people affected



US\$1.7 trillion



268 years



IT WORKS on my machine

Resolving bugs early and often reduces associated costs



Semantics

The word *semantics* was introduced in 1900 as

the study of how words change their meanings (M. Bréal)

Ironically its meaning has now changed to

the study of the attachment between the sentences of a language (written, spoken or formal) and their meanings

In Computer Science, it is concerned with

the study of the meaning of (well-typed) programs

Formal semantics assigns rigorous non-ambiguous meaning: it tells programmers the meaning of the code they type (at some level of abstraction)

Someone will always say

(my) implementation is the semantics of the language



correct by definition machine-independent? portability? how long it will last? useful abstraction for other programmers? how to reason on it? what about competitors?

Exercise

- 1. DO NOT ask questions
- 2. open your favourite text editor

3. implement as fast as possible the following primitive, by writing the corresponding code in your favourite imperative programming language

repeat c until b

4. DO NOT show your solution to others

5. send your code to bruni@di.unipi.it with subject "I did it"

Benefits of formalisation

Standardisation of the reference model of the language

official, machine-independent a mental model for programmers a benchmark for implementors

Formal analysis of language properties subtleties, expressiveness, type safety, program compliance, subject reduction

Automatic implementation of compiler's back-end prototypical interpreter for experimentation

Still...

semantics is harder to formalize than syntax!

different methods

heavy math and logic involved

don't make me waste my time, I want to code







and then...



SOFTWARE BUGS IN HISTORY

The Ariane 5 Disaster





SOFTWARE BUGS IN HISTORY

Mars Climate Orbiter Disassembly



SOFTWARE BUGS IN HISTORY

Losing \$460m in 45 minutes

and then...



Semantics

Different approaches

Roughly, semantics definition methods fall into three groups

1. Operational

2. Denotational

3. Axiomatic

of the computation is achieved only the **effect** is of interest

it is of interest **how** the effect

only the **effect** is of interest, not how it is obtained

the focus is on valid **assertions** about the computation

Operational semantics



as opposed to a physical existing device

Idea: define some kind of abstract machine and describe the meaning of a program in terms of the steps or instructions that this machine executes to perform the task

Rationale: explain computations the emphasis is on states and state transformations

$$s_0 \to s_1 \to s_2 \to \cdots \to s_n \to r$$

Founding fathers

['70] small-step: semantics of LISP by John McCarthy (1960) and of Algol 68 (1975)

John McCarthy, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass.

April 1960

 $\langle e_0 + e_1, \sigma \rangle \longrightarrow \langle e'_0 + e_1, \sigma \rangle$

['80] SOS approach: Gordon Plotkin introduced the structural (syntax-oriented and inductively defined) operational semantics in 1981 (one of the most cited technical reports in computer science, published in a journal only more than 20 years later). $\langle e_0, \sigma \rangle \longrightarrow \langle e'_0, \sigma \rangle$

['90] big-step: Gilles Kahn introduced the natural semantics in 1987, where the result is computed in a single step

 $s_0 \rightarrow r$

Overview

Nowadays the transition relation is typically defined inductively, by axioms and inference rules according to the syntax of the program (SOS style).

Advantages:

immediate translation to Horn clauses in logic programming; prototype Prolog interpreter (almost) for free; strong connections to the syntax of the language; rules for different constructs are neatly separated; useful to detect underspecified behaviours; involved mathematics is usually not much complicated; SOS descriptions are easy to read, even for non-specialists; could appear in any manual (but usually it won't)

Denotational semantics

Idea: the meaning of a program is some mathematical object (e.g. a function from input to output) and the steps taken to calculate the result are unimportant

 $[\![\cdot]\!]:\mathsf{Programs}\to\mathsf{Domains}$

Rationale: functions are independent of their means of computation and hence are simpler than the step-by-step sequence of operations of operational semantics

Founding fathers

['60/'70]: Christopher Strachey and Dana Scott

OUTLINE OF A MATHEMATICAL THEORY OF COMPUTATION by Dana Scott Princeton University

Compositionally principle: the semantics takes the form of a function that assigns an element of some mathematical domain to each individual construct in such a way that

> the meaning of a composite construct does not depend on the particular form of the constituent constructs, but only on their meanings

Overview

Advantages:

mathematically elegant; useful to detect underspecified behaviours; can be used to derive prototype implementations; has served as inspiration for many programming languages; difficult to apply to concurrent, interactive systems

Axiomatic semantics

Idea: describe the constructs in a programming language by providing logical axioms that are satisfied by these constructs

Rationale: prove the correctness of a program with respect to a given specification

 $\vdash \{P\} \ c \ \{Q\}$

Founding fathers

['60]: Robert W. Floyd (1967) and Tony Hoare (1969)

Robert W. Floyd

ASSIGNING MEANINGS TO PROGRAMS

An Axiomatic Basis for Computer Programming

C. A. R. HOARE The Queen's University of Belfast,* Northern Ireland

Hoare logic: a statement is accompanied by a precondition (the state before the execution) and a postcondition (after the execution)

the meaning of a program is a logical proposition that states some property of the output whenever some properties of the input are met



Advantages:

emphasis on proof correctness from the very start; strikingly elegant proof systems; can be used to prove absence of bugs; difficult to apply to concurrent, interactive systems

Make love not war

Different semantics are often seen in opposition one each other, but this should not be the case! We would gain much more from their combination!



This course

We focus on operational and denotational semantics

We will present the fundamental ideas and methods behind these approaches and stress their relationship, by proving some relevant correspondence theorems.

$$s_0 \rightarrow r$$

$$\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket : \mathsf{Programs} \to \mathsf{Domains}$$

A taste of semantics methods

A simple language

Informal syntax of numerical expressions

- any numeral N is an expression;
- if E_1 and E_2 are expressions, then $E_1 \oplus E_2$ is an expression;
- if E_1 and E_2 are expressions, then $E_1 \otimes E_2$ is an expression.

Ν	numerals	vs numbers	n
syntax for writing numbers	5		$5 \in \mathbb{N}$ mathematical objects, concepts
	101	$5\!\in\mathbb{N}$	
	five		
Formal syntax

 $\mathsf{E} ::= \mathsf{N} \mid \mathsf{E} \oplus \mathsf{E} \mid \mathsf{E} \otimes \mathsf{E}$

 \oplus 3 \otimes 4 not a well-formed numerical expression



two abstract syntax trees

we use brackets

 $1 \oplus (2 \otimes 3)$

or fix operators precedence to solve ambiguities

Assign meaning $E := N | E \oplus E | E \otimes E$

this is just syntax!

is N necessarily a number?

is \oplus necessarily the arithmetic sum?

is \otimes necessarily the arithmetic product?

maybe we are speaking about matrices with addition and multiplication

or sets with union and intersection

or strings with concatenation and least common prefix

or trees with branching and merging

Informal semantics

Informal semantics of numerical expressions

- a numeral N evaluates to its corresponding number *n*;
- to evaluate an expression of the form $E_1 \oplus E_2$ we evaluate E_1 and E_2 and sum their values;
- to evaluate an expression of the form $\mathsf{E}_1\otimes\mathsf{E}_2$ we evaluate E_1 and E_2 and multiply their values.

Three rules are enough to determine the value of any well-formed expression, no matter how large

Note that we are not telling the order in which arguments are evaluated: is it important?

Pragmatics

We can provide some examples

- 2 evaluates to 2;
- $(1\oplus 2)\otimes 3$ evaluates to 9;
- $(1\oplus 2)\otimes (3\oplus 4)$ evaluates to 21

Small-step semantics

Runtime numerical expressions

 $\mathsf{E} ::= n \mid \mathsf{N} \mid \mathsf{E} \oplus \mathsf{E} \mid \mathsf{E} \otimes \mathsf{E}$

the state of the abstract machine can mix intermediate results with expressions



How to define the transition relation?

Inference rules

Inference rules

 $(rule name) \frac{premises}{conclusion} side \ condition$

If the premises and the side condition are met then the conclusion can be drawn

The conclusion is a single judgement The premises consist of one, none or more judgements The side condition is a logical predicate The rule name is just a convenient label

SOS rules

$$(num) \frac{1}{\mathsf{N} \to n}$$

$$(sum)\frac{1}{n_0\oplus n_1\to n} = n_0+n_1$$

$$(sumL) \frac{\mathsf{E}_0 \to \mathsf{E}'_0}{\mathsf{E}_0 \oplus \mathsf{E}_1 \to \mathsf{E}'_0 \oplus \mathsf{E}_1}$$

$$(sumR)\frac{\mathsf{E}_1\to\mathsf{E}_1'}{\mathsf{E}_0\oplus\mathsf{E}_1\to\mathsf{E}_0\oplus\mathsf{E}_1'}$$

(prodR)—

Some derivations

$$(prodL)\frac{(num)\frac{1}{1 \to 1}}{(1 \oplus 2) \to (1 \oplus 2)}$$
$$(prodL)\frac{(1 \oplus 2) \otimes (3 \oplus 4) \to (1 \oplus 2) \otimes (3 \oplus 4)}{(1 \oplus 2) \otimes (3 \oplus 4) \to (1 \oplus 2) \otimes (3 \oplus 4)}$$

$$(num) \frac{(num)}{2 \to 2}$$
$$(sumR) \frac{(1 \oplus 2) \to (1 \oplus 2)}{(1 \oplus 2) \otimes (3 \oplus 4) \to (1 \oplus 2) \otimes (3 \oplus 4)}$$

$$(sum) \frac{(sum)}{(1\oplus 2) \to 3}^{3=1+2}$$

 $(prodL) \frac{(1\oplus 2) \otimes (3\oplus 4) \to 3 \otimes (3\oplus 4)}{(1\oplus 2) \otimes (3\oplus 4) \to 3 \otimes (3\oplus 4)}$

A computation

 $(1\oplus 2)\otimes (3\oplus 4) \rightarrow (1\oplus 2)\otimes (3\oplus 4)$ $\rightarrow (1 \oplus 2) \otimes (3 \oplus 4)$ \rightarrow 3 \otimes (3 \oplus 4) \rightarrow 3 \otimes (3 \oplus 4) \rightarrow 3 \otimes (3 \oplus 4) $\rightarrow 3 \otimes 7$ $\rightarrow 21$ $\not\rightarrow$

 $(1\oplus 2)\otimes (3\oplus 4) \rightarrow^* 21$

Another computation

 $(1\oplus 2)\otimes (3\oplus 4) \rightarrow (1\oplus 2)\otimes (3\oplus 4)$ $\rightarrow (1 \oplus 2) \otimes (3 \oplus 4)$ $\rightarrow (1 \oplus 2) \otimes (3 \oplus 4)$ $\rightarrow (1 \oplus 2) \otimes 7$ $\rightarrow (1 \oplus 2) \otimes 7$ $\rightarrow 3 \otimes 7$ $\rightarrow 21$ $\not\rightarrow$

 $(1\oplus 2)\otimes (3\oplus 4) \rightarrow^* 21$

Confluence?

We have seen that there are many different evaluation sequences (non-determinism)

Are we guaranteed they all lead to the same outcome?

We can change the inference rules to impose some specific evaluation strategy (determinism)

For example, we can impose a left-to-right evaluation of arguments by changing rules (sumR) and (prodR)

Evaluation strategies

$$(num) \frac{1}{\mathsf{N} \to \mathsf{n}}$$

$$(sum)\frac{1}{n_0\oplus n_1\to n} = n_0+n_1$$

$$(sumL)\frac{\mathsf{E}_0\to\mathsf{E}_0'}{\mathsf{E}_0\oplus\mathsf{E}_1\to\mathsf{E}_0'\oplus\mathsf{E}_1}$$

$$(sumR)\frac{\mathsf{E}_1\to\mathsf{E}_1'}{n_0\oplus\mathsf{E}_1\to n_0\oplus\mathsf{E}_1'}$$

$$(prod)$$
————

(prodR)-

A computation

 $(1\oplus2)\otimes(3\oplus4)\to(1\oplus2)\otimes(3\oplus4)$

 $\rightarrow (1 \oplus 2) \otimes (3 \oplus 4)$

it is the only possible computation

 $\rightarrow 3 \otimes (3 \oplus 4)$ $\rightarrow 3 \otimes 7$ $\rightarrow 21$

$$(1\oplus2)\otimes(3\oplus4)
ightarrow^*$$
 21

 $\not\rightarrow$

Big-step semantics

a step $E_0 \longrightarrow n$

represents a whole computation!

How to define the transition relation?

Usually simpler than small-step rules

Can correspond to an efficient interpreter

SOS rules

$$(num) \frac{1}{\mathsf{N} \longrightarrow \mathsf{n}}$$

$$(sum)\frac{\mathsf{E}_{0}\longrightarrow n_{0}\quad \mathsf{E}_{1}\longrightarrow n_{1}}{\mathsf{E}_{0}\oplus\mathsf{E}_{1}\longrightarrow n} = n_{0}+n_{1}$$

(prod)-

to be completed together

A derivation



cannot express non-terminating computations

(derivations are possible only for terminating programs)

Denotational semantics

domain + interpretation function

 $\mathbb{N} \qquad \qquad \mathcal{E}\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket : Exp \to \mathbb{N}$

the choice of the domain has a term immediate consequences: (a piece of syntax) anyone knows already that every expression has expressions are **deterministic** and **normalising** every expression has an answer \mathcal{E}

different syntactic categories may its de require different domains! (a sema

its denotation (a semantic object)

Structural induction

 $\mathcal{E}\llbracket \mathsf{N} \rrbracket = \mathbf{n}$ $\mathcal{E}\llbracket \mathsf{E}_0 \oplus \mathsf{E}_1 \rrbracket = \mathcal{E}\llbracket \mathsf{E}_0 \rrbracket + \mathcal{E}\llbracket \mathsf{E}_1 \rrbracket$ $\mathcal{E}\llbracket \mathsf{E}_0 \otimes \mathsf{E}_1 \rrbracket = \mathcal{E}\llbracket \mathsf{E}_0 \rrbracket \cdot \mathcal{E}\llbracket \mathsf{E}_1 \rrbracket$

compositionality principle

the meaning of a composite construct does not depend on the particular form of the constituent constructs, but only on their meanings

An evaluation

 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}\llbracket(1\oplus 2)\otimes(3\oplus 4)\rrbracket &= \mathcal{E}\llbracket1\oplus 2\rrbracket \cdot \mathcal{E}\llbracket3\oplus 4\rrbracket \\ &= (\mathcal{E}\llbracket1\rrbracket + \mathcal{E}\llbracket2\rrbracket) \cdot (\mathcal{E}\llbracket3\rrbracket + \mathcal{E}\llbracket4\rrbracket) \\ &= (1+2) \cdot (3+4) \\ &= 21 \end{aligned}$

Comparison



normalisation / termination?

 $\forall \mathsf{E}. \exists n. \mathsf{E} \rightarrow^* n$ $\forall \mathsf{E}. \exists n. \mathsf{E} \rightarrow n$ $\forall \mathsf{E}. \exists n. \mathcal{E}[\![\mathsf{E}]\!] = n$ must be provedmust be provedobvious

Comparison

determinacy? $\forall \mathsf{E}, n, m. \left(\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{E} \to^* n \\ \land \\ \mathsf{E} \to^* m \end{array} \right) \Rightarrow n = m$ must be proved $\forall \mathsf{E}, n, m. \left(\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{E} \longrightarrow n \\ \land \\ \mathsf{E} \longrightarrow m \end{array} \right) \Rightarrow n = m$ must be proved $\forall \mathsf{E}, n, m. \left(\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{E}\llbracket\mathsf{E}\rrbracket = n \\ \land \\ \mathcal{E}\llbracket\mathsf{E}\rrbracket = m \end{array} \right) \Rightarrow n = m$ obvious

Comparison



consistency?

$\forall \mathsf{E}, \mathbf{n}. \ (\mathsf{E} \to^* \mathbf{n} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathsf{E} \longrightarrow \mathbf{n} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{E}\llbracket\mathsf{E}\rrbracket = \mathbf{n})$

must be proved

Comparison

induced equivalences

$$\mathsf{E}_0 \equiv_s \mathsf{E}_1$$
$$\forall n. \ (\mathsf{E}_0 \to^* n \Leftrightarrow \mathsf{E}_1 \to^* n)$$

$$\mathsf{E}_0 \equiv_b \mathsf{E}_1$$
$$\forall \mathbf{n}. \ (\mathsf{E}_0 \longrightarrow \mathbf{n} \Leftrightarrow \mathsf{E}_1 \longrightarrow \mathbf{n})$$

 $\mathsf{E}_0 \equiv_d \mathsf{E}_1$ $\mathcal{E}\llbracket\mathsf{E}_0\rrbracket = \mathcal{E}\llbracket\mathsf{E}_1\rrbracket$

do they all coincide?

Comparison

then we can prove / disprove:

properties of specific expressions

 $2 \otimes 6 \equiv_s 3 \otimes 4$

properties of generic expressions

$\forall \mathsf{E}, \mathsf{E}_1, \mathsf{E}_2. \ \mathsf{E} \otimes (\mathsf{E}_1 \oplus \mathsf{E}_2) \equiv_d (\mathsf{E} \otimes \mathsf{E}_1) \oplus (\mathsf{E} \otimes \mathsf{E}_2)$

Comparison

congruences?

 $\mathsf{C}[\bullet] \, ::= [\bullet] \, \mid \, \mathsf{C}[\bullet] \oplus \mathsf{E} \, \mid \, \mathsf{E} \oplus \mathsf{C}[\bullet] \, \mid \, \mathsf{C}[\bullet] \otimes \mathsf{E} \, \mid \, \mathsf{E} \otimes \mathsf{C}[\bullet]$

contexts with a hole

filled context

C[•] C[E]

 $\forall \mathsf{E}_0,\mathsf{E}_1,\mathsf{C}[\bullet].\ (\mathsf{E}_0\equiv_s\mathsf{E}_1\Rightarrow\mathsf{C}[\mathsf{E}_0]\equiv_s\mathsf{C}[\mathsf{E}_1])\quad \text{must be proved}$

 $\forall \mathsf{E}_0, \mathsf{E}_1, \mathsf{C}[\bullet]. \ (\mathsf{E}_0 \equiv_b \mathsf{E}_1 \Rightarrow \mathsf{C}[\mathsf{E}_0] \equiv_b \mathsf{C}[\mathsf{E}_1])$ must be proved

 $\forall \mathsf{E}_0, \mathsf{E}_1, \mathsf{C}[\bullet]. \ (\mathsf{E}_0 \equiv_d \mathsf{E}_1 \Rightarrow \mathsf{C}[\mathsf{E}_0] \equiv_d \mathsf{C}[\mathsf{E}_1])$

obvious

Exercise

Expressions with variables $E := x | N | E \oplus E | E \otimes E$

How to evaluate expressions such as $(x \oplus 4) \otimes y$?

Need some memories $\mathbb{M} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \{ \sigma \mid \sigma : X \to \mathbb{N} \}$

machine states $\langle \mathsf{E}, \sigma \rangle$

interpretation function $\mathcal{E}[\![\cdot]\!]: Exp \to (\mathbb{M} \to \mathbb{N})$

Let's redefine the various semantics and properties