

Lecture Notes in Computer Science

Edited by G. Goos and J. Hartmanis

94

Semantics-Directed Compiler Generation

Proceedings of a Workshop
Aarhus, Denmark, January, 1980

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Springer-Verlag
Berlin Heidelberg New York

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AMS Subject Classifications (1970): 68B10
CR Subject Classifications (1974): 4.12, 5.24

ISBN 3-540-10250-7 Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg New York
ISBN 0-387-10250-7 Springer-Verlag New York Heidelberg Berlin

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© by Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 1980
Printed in Germany

Printing and binding: Beltz Offsetdruck, Hemsbach/Bergstr.
2145/3140-543210

Lecture Notes in Computer Science

- Vol. 1: GI-Gesellschaft für Informatik e.V. 3. Jahrestagung, Hamburg, 8.–10. Oktober 1973. Herausgegeben im Auftrag der Gesellschaft für Informatik von W. Brauer. XI, 508 Seiten. 1973.
- Vol. 2: GI-Gesellschaft für Informatik e.V. 1. Fachtagung über Automatentheorie und Formale Sprachen, Bonn, 9.–12. Juli 1973. Herausgegeben im Auftrag der Gesellschaft für Informatik von K.-H. Böhlting und K. Indermark. VII, 322 Seiten. 1973.
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INTRODUCTION

For several reasons it is becoming more and more common to provide formal definitions of the semantics of new programming languages, using techniques such as denotational semantics, attribute and affix grammars, algebraic semantics, operational definitions and axiomatic definitions. The construction of such a definition tends to expose ambiguities and unexpected implications of proposed language features, and thus can be a significant aid when designing a new language. A precise definition of the "meaning" of a program is of course essential when implementing a compiler or other language processor, and such definitions have in some cases guided the development of implementations. Further, the existence of formal definitions of source and object languages makes it possible to formally prove the correctness of compilers.

A number of translator-writing systems have been devised to systematize and simplify the task of compiler construction. These are usually syntax-directed, and provide in addition to parsing some means of manipulating symbol tables, parse tree attributes, etc. Still, compiler writing is at present largely handcraft - construction of such a large and complex piece of software requires considerable creativity, is quite prone to errors, and involves an enormous amount of work.

Correctness proofs for real compilers seem to be more of an ideal than a reality at this time, since construction of a correctness proof seems to require even more creativity and labor than construction of the compiler itself.

Clearly both problems would be alleviated if there were a closer connection between the semantic definition of the language and the structure of its compiler, just as parsing problems were much simplified after a firm connection was made between syntax definition and parser structure.

An ideal solution would be a true compiler generator, which if given definitions of the syntax and semantics of a programming language would automatically produce a compiler of acceptable compile-time and run-time efficiency. The purpose of the workshop was to bring together researchers whose work brings us closer to this goal.

The papers presented at the workshop naturally fall into four categories. The first group contains three papers with a common goal: to produce a compiler from the denotational semantics of a programming language. The second group is concerned with the use of abstract algebra to define semantics, to specify compilers and to prove them correct. The third group has to do with several aspects of attribute or affix grammars. These are a powerful and natural medium for expressing compilers, and thus provide a promising output language for compiler generators. The last group contains three papers which are related to compiler generation but not in the earlier categories, including one on the formal semantic definition of the ADA programming language. The definition is intended to serve

"for the validation of implementations and as a guideline for implementors ... (and) as an input for a compiler generator when the technology becomes available." As such it is likely to stimulate further research in automating the compiler generation process.

The "Workshop on Semantics-Directed Compiler Generation" was held January 14-18 at the University of Aarhus, Denmark. The meeting was made possible by grants from the Danish Research Council (Forskningsråd) and the Aarhus University Computer Science Department (Datalogisk Afdeling). Local arrangements were handled by an organizing committee consisting of Neil Jones, Peter Mosses and Mogens Nielsen and by the workshop secretary, Karen Møller. The department deserves a round of thanks for providing (in addition to funds) the use of its reproduction, secretarial and library facilities, and for providing an excellent milieu for work and discussion. The contributions of a number of individuals are warmly acknowledged, including Karen Møller, Mogens Nielsen, Lene Rold and of course the participants in the workshop, without whose professional expertise the workshop would not have been possible.

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TRANSFORMING DENOTATIONAL SEMANTICS INTO PRACTICAL ATTRIBUTE GRAMMARS*

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1. INTRODUCTION

It is generally accepted that, in order to reason about programs, a formal definition of the semantics of the programming language is a prerequisite. Additionally, such a definition must be the basis for the systematic composition and verification of specific implementations of the language, especially compilers. The mathematical method of Scott and Strachey [ScS 71] has been developed to provide a universal concept for describing formally languages and implementation issues [MiS 76].

Independently, much effort has been devoted to the development of practical compiler generators (see [Räi 77] for an overview). These systems are mostly based on the concept of attribute grammars (AGs), as introduced in [Knu 68]. Since attribute grammar definitions describe the compilation of a language in many of its technical details, they cannot be viewed to describe the abstract semantics. Thus, the problem arises, to prove a compiler description correct with respect to an abstract semantics definition, or, even better, to develop a compiler description correctly. This paper is a contribution to a solution of this problem.

*The work reported in this paper was sponsored by the Sonderforschungsbereich 49 -Programmiertechnik- at the Technical University of Munich.

Much work has already been done concerning the development of compilers from denotational definitions of languages and target machines [BjØ 77, Jon 76, MiS 76]. Thereby, the development process has been divided into two major phases. In the first phase, the abstract language definition is transformed into an implementation-oriented definition. The latter defines a language in terms of the data types (operations and objects) of an abstract machine, which is relatively close to the real target machine. In this step, well-known implementation techniques are used implicitly. The transformation is guided by very general software development principles, as that of (stepwise) refining data abstractions [Hoa 72]. The methods for formulating the correctness proofs are well-understood [MNV 73, Rey 74]. The resulting definition is denotational but already effective in the sense that it can be input to an experimental compiler generating system, as described in [Mos 75].

The second phase has to develop the concrete compiler from that implementation-oriented definition. Apart from some very informal arguments in [BjØ 77], we do not know of any satisfactory solution in the literature, illustrating the principles of this second phase. The work reported here is based on the observation that this phase is mostly language and implementation independent, but depends on the meta language to be used for compiler descriptions.

The development phase is divided into three major steps. The first modifies the given denotational definition such that it can be considered to be an attribute grammar in some generalized sense: The semantic domains are re-structured into domains of n -ary functions, yielding m -ary results. The function parameters become the inherited, the results the synthesized attributes of that syntactic constructs with which the domain is associated. Equations over parameters and results serve to define the (functional) meaning. The equations are similar to attribute rules.

In the second step, the analyzation of the dependencies between the arguments and results of the semantic objects yields a separation between static and dynamic semantics. The denotational definition in attribute grammar form is splitted into two parts. An attribute grammar (in the classical sense) is obtained for the static semantics. The dynamic remainder is embodied in a description of the interpretation of the attributed program tree with re-

spect to given input data. The handling of semantic errors is added. This leads to rejecting erroneous programs from being interpreted. The principle of defunctionalization [Rey 72] is applied to handle semantic objects such as "procedure addresses" in symbol tables by references to the corresponding nodes in the program tree.

In a last step, the interpretation description has to be transformed into a description of code generation. This step is not dealt with in this paper. For a first approach which is based upon relating interpretation schemes with code templates on a flow graph level, we refer to [Gan 79c]. The primitive operations in these flow graphs constitute an interface to the description of concrete target machines.

The main result of the paper will be that most of the transformation steps are *mechanizable* or, at least, can be supported by *automatic methods*.

We assume that the reader is familiar with the denotational semantics method, at least at the level of [Ten 76]. Additionally, it is necessary that the reader has some acquaintance with the use of attribute grammars for the definition of semantic analysis and the preparation of code generation, at least at the level of [LRS 76].

2. BASIC NOTATIONS

Domains and basic functions

Domains are complete lattices. B denotes, as usually, the boolean domain $\{\perp, \text{true}, \text{false}, T\}$. If D_1, \dots, D_m are $m \geq 0$ domains and s_1, \dots, s_m are pairwise distinct symbols, then $D = [s_1 : D_1, s_2 : D_2, \dots, s_m : D_m]$ is the cartesian product of the domains, where s_i is the name of the i -th selector, i.e. $\lambda x. x.s_i$ denotes the projection from D to its i -th component D_i . For $m = 0$, D is the domain of empty records, $D = \{\perp, (), T\}$. (We write simply $D = D_1 \times D_2 \times \dots \times D_m$, if the selector names are of no interest.) $\text{make}_D(x_1, \dots, x_m)$, für $x_i \in D_i$, denotes the tuple $(x_1, \dots, x_m) \in D$ (We write simply (x_1, \dots, x_m) , if D is determined by the context.)

$D = D_1 + \dots + D_m$, $1 \leq m \leq \infty$, is the (separated) sum of the D_i , i.e. $D = \{(i, x) \mid 1 \leq i \leq m, x \in D_i\} \cup \{\perp, T\}$. For $x \in D$, $x \text{ to } D_i$ denotes that $x_i \in D_i$ which corresponds to x in D , i.e. $(i, x_i) \text{ to } D_i = x_i$, $T \text{ to } D_i = T$, and \perp otherwise. Conversely, for $x_i \in D_i$ it is $x_i \text{ in } D = (i, x_i)$, if $x_i \notin \{\perp, T\}$. Otherwise it is $x_i \text{ in } D = x_i$. (If D is uniquely determined by the context, we sometimes omit $\text{in } D$.) $\text{is } D_i$ tests the type of a $x \in D$, i.e. $(i, x) \text{ is } D_j = \text{true}$, if $i = j$, and $(i, x) \text{ is } D_j = \text{false}$, if $i \neq j$. $\perp \text{ is } D_j = \perp$, $T \text{ is } D_j = T$.

Let D be a domain and $D^i = [s_1 : D, \dots, s_i : D]$, $i \geq 0$, with arbitrary selectors s_j . Then $D^* = D^0 + D^1 + D^2 + \dots$ is the domain of all lists with elements from D . nil (or nil_D) denotes the empty list $()$ in D^0 . $\text{append}(d^*, d) = (d_1, \dots, d_n, d)$, if $d^* = (d_1, \dots, d_n)$, adds an element $d \in D - \{\perp, T\}$ to d^* . $\text{hd}(d^*) = d$, if $d^* = (d, \dots)$, yields the head of d^* , whereas $\text{tl}(d^*) = (d', \dots)$, if $d^* = (d, d', \dots)$, eliminates the head in d^* . append , hd , and tl are *call-by-value* in their arguments, i.e. yield \perp , if one of the arguments is \perp , and yields T , if one of the arguments is T and if none is \perp .

If S is some countable set then $D = S^\square$ denotes the flat domain obtained by adjoining \perp and T to S (and by defining $\perp \leq s, s \leq T$, for all $s \in S, \perp \leq T$, and $s_1 \leq s_2 \Rightarrow s_1 = s_2$, for $s_1, s_2 \in S$). If D' is also a domain and if f is a partial mapping from S into D' , then the doubly strict extension of f to S^\square (i.e. $\perp \mapsto \perp, T \mapsto T, x \in S \mapsto f(x)$, if $f(x)$ defined, $x \in S \mapsto \perp$, otherwise) is also denoted by f .

If D_1 and D_2 are domains, then $D = [D_1 \rightarrow D_2]$ is the domain of continuous functions from D_1 into D_2 . For $f \in D, x \in D_1$, and $y \in D_2$, $f[x \leftarrow y]$ denotes that function which is identical to f , except that it maps x to y , i.e. $f[x \leftarrow y](z) = f(z)$, if $z \neq x$, and $f[x \leftarrow y](x) = y$. fix denotes the fixpoint operator, i.e. fix(f) yields the least fixpoint of $f \in D$. The conditional $c = \text{if } p \text{ then } x_1 \text{ else } x_2$, for $p \in B, x_1, x_2 \in D, D$ any domain, is doubly strict in p , i.e. $c = \perp$, if $p = \perp, c = T$, if $p = T, c = x_1$, if $p = \text{true}$, and $c = x_2$, if $p = \text{false}$. A function f is said to be total in an argument x , if $f(\dots, x, \dots) \in \{\perp, T\}$ implies $x \in \{\perp, T\}$. Our notation for defining (continuous) functions used in the sequel is very close to the notation for untyped lambda expressions introduced in [Don 76]. It is defined in the appendix.

Grammars and syntactic domains

We assume, for simplicity, that in any context-free production no grammar symbol occurs twice. To achieve this, indexes can be attached to the symbols. Moreover, ϵ -productions are forbidden.

Syntactic trees t , which we call program trees, are defined as usual: t is a labelled, ordered, rooted, and finite tree. The label $X(t, u)$ of a node u in t is a grammar symbol. At each node u in t , which is not a leaf, some syntactic production rule $\text{prod}(t, u) = X_0 \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_n$ is applied, i.e. it is $X(t, u) = X_0$ and u has n sons u_1, \dots, u_n in t , such that $X(t, u_i) = X_i$. The root of t is labelled with the start symbol. Subsequently, $\text{son}_i(t, u)$ denotes the i -th son of u in t , if $i > 0$. For $i = 0$ it denotes u itself. Instead of $\text{son}_i(t, u)$ we also write $u \circ i$ or $\text{son}_i(u)$, if t is determined by the context.

Additionally, lexical information $\text{lexinf}(t,u)$ is attached to the terminal leafs u in t .

We denote by TREES the flat domain $\{(t,u) \mid t \text{ syntactic tree, } u \text{ node in } t\}^\square$ of tree configurations given by a context-free grammar. Members of TREES are denoted by τ, τ', τ_1 , etc. (The doubly strict extensions of the above functions $X, \text{prod}, \text{son}_i$, and lexinf are the only standard functions over TREES which we allow to use in the following.)

3. DENOTATIONAL DEFINITIONS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Denotational definitions are given by semantic valuation functions which map constructs in the program to the abstract values (numbers, functions, etc.) which they denote. The valuation functions are defined recursively. The value denoted by a construct - the meaning of the construct - is specified in terms of the values denoted by its syntactic components.

For later purposes, we have to define this more formally. A denotational definition associates

- *semantic domains* $D[X]$ with each grammar symbol X ,
- *semantic functions* Σ_p with each syntactic rule p , such that

$$\Sigma_p \in \left[\prod_{i \geq 0} D[X[p, i]] \rightarrow D[X[p, 0]] \right], \text{ if } X[p, i] \text{ is the } i\text{-th symbol in } p.$$

Thereby it specifies for any program tree t and any node u in t a *meaning* $\mu[u] \in D[t(u)]$, given by

- $\mu[u] = \text{lexinf}(t, u)$, if u is a (terminal) leaf
- $\mu[u] = \text{fix}(\lambda \mu. \Sigma_p(\mu, \mu[u \circ l], \dots, \mu[u \circ n_p]))$, if the rule p is applied at u , where the fixpoint operator is applied to solve the possible recursions.

When considering the syntactic domain TREES, we extend μ to $\mu \in [\text{TREES} \rightarrow D]$, D being the sum of all semantic domains, defined by

$$\mu(\tau) = \begin{cases} \perp, & \tau = \perp \\ \top, & \tau = \top \\ \mu[u] \text{ in } D, & \tau = (t, u). \end{cases}$$

Denotational definitions of a language can be given on different levels of abstraction. Following the classification in [MiS 76] and [Sto 77], the most abstract definition operates with domains of complicated functionality and rich structure, and is free of implementation details, i.e. avoids prejudicing an implementer towards any particular technique. Such a definition is called the *standard semantics* of the language. Our example which will be giv-

en in the next section is located somewhere between the *store* and the *stack semantics* levels (cf. [MiS 76]), since it already contains strategies for symbol table administration and storage allocation. In fact, we need such a level as our starting point in this paper: Since we want to study the both language and implementation *independent* aspects of compiler description development, we start from a level of abstraction where the standard semantics definition has already been refined by introducing various implementation-oriented concepts (as shown in [MiS 76, Bjø 77, Jon 76, Sto 77]). This description is neither an interpreter nor a compiler description yet, but it describes the meanings by combining primitive and implementation-oriented data types, using the standard constructors (including *fix*), into objects of almost arbitrary complexity.

Such definitions are the starting-point for applying the development principles to be investigated in this paper.

Interpreter definitions are used to define an interpretation η of program constructs. In contrast to denotational definitions, they operate explicitly on the tree configurations, i.e. on the syntactic domain TREES. They also attach semantic domains $D[X]$ to the grammar symbols X and semantic functions ϵ_p , called *interpretation functions*, to the syntactic rules $p = X_0 \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_n$. But this time it is $\epsilon_p \in [TREES \rightarrow D[X_0]]$. Thus, the ϵ_p can refer to all operations on trees, e.g. *son_i*, *lexinf*, in particular, recursively, to the interpretation function η itself. η is specified by the ϵ_p as follows: $\eta \in [TREES \rightarrow D]$, where D is the sum of all $D[X]$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \eta(\tau) = & \text{rec } \underline{\text{if}} \quad \text{prod}(\tau) = p_1 \text{ then } \underline{\epsilon_{p_1}}(\tau) \text{ in } D \\ & \underline{\text{elsif}} \text{ prod}(\tau) = p_2 \text{ then } \underline{\epsilon_{p_2}}(\tau) \text{ in } D \\ & \dots \\ & \underline{\text{elsif}} \text{ prod}(\tau) = p_n \text{ then } \underline{\epsilon_{p_n}}(\tau) \text{ in } D \\ & \underline{\text{else}} \quad - \quad \tau \text{ is terminal} \\ & \quad \text{lexinf}(\tau) \text{ in } D, \end{aligned}$$

if p_1, \dots, p_n are the syntactic rules of the grammar.

Any denotational definition can be regarded as an interpreter definition by defining

$\epsilon_p(\tau) = \Sigma_p(n(\tau) \text{ to } D[X_0], n(\text{son}_1(\tau)) \text{ to } D[X_1], \dots, n(\text{son}_n(\tau)) \text{ to } D[X_n]),$
if p as above.

One verifies easily that in that case in fact $\mu = \eta$ holds.

Note that due to the fact that our syntactic domain `TREES` is a primitive one, there is no possibility of defining semantic aspects by complex manipulations of the source programs as in [AdB 77].

The next section presents a denotational language definition from which we shall develop a compiler description.