A Formal Specification of a Programming Language: Design of Pit

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Abstract. Formal specifications and supporting tools have shown to be very effective to improve the quality and correctness of a software system. A language can be simple once understood, and yet communicating this understanding to another person can be unusually difficult, perhaps because a new language often represents a new paradigm. This communication is particularly important when developing a new language; the compiler and other tools are still under development, so learning by doing isn’t always possible, and yet to correctly implement the compiler, a solid understanding of the language is necessary. In this paper, we use Z notation to formally specify part of Pit, which is a general-purpose programming language that we are currently developing. The main idea behind Pit is to create a language where the programmer can choose between allocating memory manually by using statically-typed “primitive” variables or allowing the compiler to insert memory management code automatically by using dynamically-typed “auto” variables. This feature, in turn, allows a programmer to choose between automatically ensuring that there are no buffer overrun or integer overflow vulnerabilities in the code.

1. Introduction

There are a number of motivations for applying a well-established formal method, any of which is considered a viable alternative solution to the informal and ad hoc practice of software design [8]. The application of a formal method to specify a language helps prevent ambiguity, inconsistency, and incompleteness.

A compiler is a large and complex piece of software; it translates a program written in one language such as Pit into a program in another language such as assembly code, machine code, or perhaps C. One of the main characteristics of any compiler is to preserve the semantics of the program being compiled [7]. Therefore, developing correct compilers that can generate faithful target code without introducing any errors is critically important. In this paper, we use Z notation [5] to formally specify part of Pit [11] to help us design this part of the language before we begin work.

Pit is a general-purpose programming language that we are currently developing at University of North Dakota. The goal is to create a language where the programmer can choose between allocating memory manually by using statically-typed “primitive” variables or alternatively allowing the compiler to insert memory management code automatically by using dynamically-typed “auto” variables. This feature allows the programmer to choose between automatically ensuring that there are no buffer overrun or integer overflow vulnerabilities in the code at the cost of efficiency and writing more efficient code at the cost of maintainability and more opportunities for bugs. The innovation is that because the same language supports both, the programmer can choose to write code both ways in the same function, rather than choosing between one or the other for the entire module. This is useful for areas besides security; for example, managing a data structure using automatic memory allocation is also much easier.

The core language and primitive variables are similar to C, and the auto variables are similar in many respects to variables implemented by scripting languages such as Perl or Python. Primitive variables are simply the classical variable types provided by C: integer, float, string, struct, and function, plus trivial variations such as characters, pointers, signed or unsigned integers, etc, with identical semantics. Auto variables are implemented syntactically as another type of variable. What this means is rather than
specifying that a variable is an int, float, etc, the “auto” keyword is simply used instead. Semantically, auto represents a meta-type, indicating that the type of the variable is dynamic and determined automatically during run-time by the value assigned to it. Memory for auto variables is allocated and freed automatically. The types that can be stored in an auto variable are integer, float, string, array, hash (instead of struct), and reference (instead of pointer). (In Pit, “strings” are homogeneous sequences and “arrays” are heterogeneous sequences.) Automatic memory management includes the sub-values stored in auto variables, such as elements in arrays and hashes, and referents of references. The compiler implements auto variables by translating every operation on an auto variable into a function call to a supporting library. Pit is self-hosting, in the sense that the compiler tools and supporting libraries for the language could all be written in Pit with no tools written in other languages. This is possible because primitive variables are used to construct the infrastructure required by auto variables and because no virtual machine is used.

While the semantics for the primitive variables are obvious because they are the same as the semantics for C variables, the semantics for auto variables require some explanation. Conversationally, it is convenient to say that they work similarly to variables in Perl or Python, but this is informal and somewhat inaccurate at best. Intuitively, it is a good starting point, but to describe exactly what they are, we wrote a formal description of exactly what an auto variable is. (That description is the goal of this paper.) To that end, we use Z notation to describe how they behave and, to some degree, how they are implemented.

2. Related Work

When it comes to the formal specification of a programming language [3, 4], it covers the syntax and semantics, which are the main constraints of any language. The form in which a program has to be written is described by the syntactical constraints. The syntax usually is defined through a grammar and it describes the rules according to which programs have to be composed.

Our work is related and influenced by the work by Gray et al [9] and [10]. In [9], they used MetaPRL formal programming environment to write a complete compiler for ML-like language. In [10], the authors have used formal methods to specify programming languages; their main focus is on the reusability of formal specification in specifying the programming languages.

3. Informal Description of Auto Variables

Studies show that the programming languages which have been designed with one of the various formal methods have better syntax and semantics, few exceptions and are easier to learn. But despite the obvious advantages, attribute grammars, axiomatic semantics, operational semantics, denotational semantics or any of the other most widely used formal methods for programming language description have not gained popularity and general use [9, 10]. One reason might be that semantics is much more difficult to describe than syntax and semantic descriptions are not easy to read. On the other hand, a more compelling reason might be that they lack modularity, extensibility and reusability. Though we are not addressing any of these issues in our study, we have created a formal semantic specification for part of Pit.

If auto variables could only store simple values, such as integers, floats, and references, they would obviously not be particularly useful. Their power becomes apparent when they are compounded to create a complex data structure. Creating a complex data structure using auto variables is trivial. To do so, simply assign an array or hash to an element of an array or hash, as follows.

```plaintext
1. private auto $root;  // Declare $root as a local variable
2. $root = array{};    // Assign an empty array to it
3. $root(0) = hash{};  // Assign an empty hash to the zero element
4. $root(0)("key0") = "array element 0, hash element key0";
5. $root(0)("key1") = "array element 0, hash element key1";
6. $root(1) = hash{};
7. $root(1)("key0") = "array element 1, hash element key0";
8. $root(1)("key1") = "array element 1, hash element key1";
...```

This code is concise because there is no need to explicitly instruct the compiler how much memory to allocate for the array or hash tables, when to free the memory or what the type of each value is. On line 2, we create an array and assign it to $root, which dynamically assumes the array type. The memory for the array is initially allocated with a size of zero, and later it is extended as necessary. On lines 3 and 6, we create hashes and assign them to elements of the array $root. Since the array was previously too small to hold the elements, it is automatically extended to a length of one, and then to a length of two. Similarly, the elements in the hashes need not exist before a value is assigned; they are created automatically as necessary. For comparison, here is similar logic using only primitive variables.

```plaintext
1. private array(struct("key0" array(char, 64), "key1" array(char, 64)), 2) $root;
2. $root(0)("key0") = "array element 0, hash element key0";
3. $root(0)("key1") = "array element 0, hash element key1";
4. $root(1)("key0") = "array element 1, hash element key0";
5. $root(1)("key1") = "array element 1, hash element key1";

we invest a lot of time and code in manually allocating the memory with a dynamic size, we lose the ability to extend the array dynamically. Also, the structs are not extensible at all, and there are several opportunities for a buffer overrun vulnerability if the input strings come from a distrusted source. These are the same problems that all C code must deal with. However, the striking similarity between the two examples shows two things: first, that choosing between the two approaches is easy for the programmer; second, if the programmer uses the above implementation, an optimizer will be able to eliminate much of the inefficiency by converting some patterns found in the first example into patterns shown in the second example when possible. While beyond the scope of our current work, an optimizer will eventually being an important tool in mitigating the cost of using auto variables instead of primitive variables.

Above, we mentioned that auto variables are implemented by translating every operation into a function call to a supporting language library. More precisely, for each auto variable, the compiler allocates a pointer where the variable’s value would otherwise be stored; then each operation on it is translated into a function call so that a run-time library can manage its memory, type, value, ref-count, etc appropriately. For example, if an auto variable is declared in a function, the compiler allocates a pointer in the stack frame and a function call is inserted to allocate a glob of memory on the heap with the initial value of undefined (undefined is described later). Further operations on the variable result in the compiler inserting more function calls. At the end of the function, another function call is inserted to decrement each auto variable’s ref-count or free it if appropriate. This way, it is valid to store a reference to the auto variable outside the function, since the glob need not necessarily be freed immediately when the function returns. In what follows, the exact translation for part of the example above into intermediate code for a 64-bit machine:

```plaintext
// "$root" above is translated into "%base - 64b" here, which was already // allocated in the stack frame. After each group of statements, the // stack is back to its initial state.

// 1.  private auto $root;
stack_alloc 64b;                        // Subtract 8 bytes (64 bits) from // the stack pointer
call $lang.auto.new.undef;             // Constructs a new auto with the // value undefined and ref-count of 1
store <ptr> [ %base - 64b ], <ptr>;   // Pops the pointer to the new auto // and stores it at %base - 64b

// 2.  $root = array{};
stack_alloc 64b;                        // Constructs a new auto with the // value of an empty array
store <ptr>, <ptr> [ %base - 64b ];    // Pushes the location of $root
call $lang.auto.refcount_inc;          // Inc ref-count because a binary // operator call decs the ref-count // of both inputs
call $lang.auto.binop.assign;          // Perform the assignment, store the
Although the translation looks somewhat obfuscated, it is no more so than the assembly output from a conventional C compiler, and this is easy output for a compiler to generate. Notice that since a glob may be pointed to in multiple places if references to it are created, and therefore it cannot be reallocated with a larger size (because this may require relocating the glob). This means that the glob’s value element must store a pointer to the value rather than the actual value, since the value must be reallocated if it changes in size. This extra layer of indirection allows, for example, string buffers that are stored in auto variables to be extended automatically as necessary rather than allowing a buffer overrun. It also allows for certain improvements to efficiency that we describe later.

4. Formal Description of Auto Variables

At this point, we have established some informal familiarity with what auto variables are. Now we will describe formally how auto variables are allocated, how their dynamic type and value are tracked, and how operations on them behave.

3.1 Statement of Justification

A formal specification of the semantics of auto variables is useful in several ways. Most obviously, it allows us to reason about what is specified before implementation so we have a clear idea of what to implement before we start. Later, it is also useful as an aid in communicating what we implemented so that other people can understand how to use the language. It also builds confidence in the language as a possible tool for use in a system where safety or reliability is important. Another benefit is it encourages portability of code written in Pit because if someone in the future decides to improve or re-implement the Pit compiler or the accompanying libraries, he can return to this formal specification for a clearer understanding of what must not change. This way existing code written in Pit is less likely to encounter portability problems between the old and new compilers.

3.2 Conventions

Z notation [5] directly represents nothing more than relations between mathematical sets; there is no inherent sequential meaning to the notation. The representation of a sequential system is introduced by certain conventions that represent the state of a system (or subsystem, such as an abstract data type) that allow us to write relations between a set that represents the state of the system before an operation is executed and a set that represents the state of the system after an operation. The common convention for this is to decorate the names of the after-states with a single-quote. Inputs to such an operation are decorated with a question mark, and outputs are decorated with an exclamation point.

The specification that follows uses the notation for abstract data types extensively. An ADT’s state is represented with a schema, and variables in other schemas may be declared with the ADT’s name as the type. Strictly speaking, the name of the ADT represents the set of all possible states for the ADT, and the declared variable represents one state in that set, just as a variable declared as an integer represents one integer in the set of all possible integers.

Operations on ADTs are named with the name of the ADT, followed by an underscore and the name of the operation, and to be unambiguous, underscores are only used in schema names that represent operations on ADTs; CamelCase is used otherwise. When referred to in text, a schema’s name is always capitalized. Because plain Z is not object oriented, we simply use this naming convention to associate operations with the structures they must operate on. We decided not to use extensions that provide object orientation because we do not need any advanced features of object orientation. Also, the implementation cannot be
object oriented as it must ultimately be called from assembly language by code emitted from a compiler; therefore, using an object oriented extension to Z would widen the gap between the specification and implementation with little benefit.

Pit supports exceptions, so we had to introduce a convention for representing exceptions. While the exact syntax for representing exceptions is not discussed here, the accompanying libraries must handle errors through exceptions. To represent this, we simply use an output parameter called “exception!” in all the operational schemas. The caller must check this output parameter after every operation, and if this is set to “null”, no exception occurred and execution continues normally; otherwise, the caller must branch to the exception handler. The basic type EXCEPTION represents the possible assignments for this output variable. The actual implementation of exception handling is more elegant, but because it is too low-level to represent here, this is a simple way to represent the logic in the specification:

```
EXCEPTION ::= null | type_mismatch
```

GLOBID is a basic type that uniquely identifies each instance of the ADTs. This simply represents a memory address. This means that variables declared with this type are pointers. We sometimes need this so that if a variable needs to be shared between several structures in a way that makes it changes in all of them if it changes in one of them. This works well because memory addresses really just map integers to data; we represent this here with partial functions mapping GLOBIDs to variables. While we don’t mention it formally, GLOBID should simply be implemented as a pointer.

```
[ GLOBID ]
```

Similarly, we use VALUEID to represent a unique identifier for each value. Each value has a ref-count that lets us use a copy-on-write implementation (explained later). Again, these should be implemented as simple pointers:

```
[ VALUEID ]
```

There are two minor things about the specification that are slightly nonstandard. First, some schemas are defined after they are used; we did this because it is significantly clearer to explain the schemas in the order they are presented, and it has no impact on their meaning. Second, unfortunately there is no standard notation for comments within a schema; we use a common convention, which are right-justified square brackets above or to the right of what it describes.

### 4.0 Core Structure

The Glob schema is the central part of this specification. It describes a single variable by encapsulating what the current type of the variable is along with its value. Glob is an abstract data type that represents a data structure pointed to by one or more auto variables. It can store an integer, fraction, string, array, hash, reference, or function-reference. Every auto variable is simply a GLOBID stored on the stack. Every Glob must have at least one reference on the stack or in another auto variable (when the GLOBID for a Glob is deleted, the Glob is freed).

Undef is a special value with a type distinct from all other types. Normally it means that no value has been assigned to the variable, but undef can also be explicitly assigned, if desired, as a way to represent a null-value. It is equal to itself and no other value, so code can explicitly check for the undef value by comparison. In boolean context, it always evaluates to false. Any other operation on the undef value causes an exception. (When dealing with strings, often C code will use the null-pointer as a distinct value from the empty string. Undef is useful in the same way, however it is also useful in more contexts than just string manipulation.) This is a rather strange data type, because it represents only one possible value; therefore, if a variable’s type is undef, its value is undef as well. When implemented, this means that apart from the Glob, no memory needs to be allocated for this value. For example, a null-pointer for the value is sufficient to describe undef. For the purposes of our specification, we define UNDEF to be a basic type with one
possible value. The global variable `undef` is always set to that value; this variable is simply a notational convenience.

```
[ UNDEF ]

| undefined : UNDEF |
```

Each Glob has a ref-count which, like in many other languages, lets us automatically figure out when to deallocate the Glob. Here, the ref-count for a Glob tracks the number of occurrences of its GLOBID. Do not confuse these with the ref-counts associated with a Value, which track the number of Globs referencing its VALUEID. (There are two purposes for ref-counts: to track how many auto variables reference a particular GLOBID, and to track how many Globs reference a particular VALUEID.) For efficiency, multiple Globs can refer to the same value, which means that both Globs and Values must have distinct ref-counts. This allows us to pass auto variables between functions without copying the data unless they are modified. This is not passing by-reference, because if the function changes the value, the other variable’s value does not change. Rather, it is copy-on-write. For example, consider an auto variable pointing to a Glob whose Value is storing an array. When the variable is passed to a function, a new Glob with a unique GLOBID is allocated and referenced by a new auto variable in the parameter list of the called function. The new Glob at first points to the same Value. At this time both Globs have a ref-count of one and the Value has a ref-count of two. If the function modifies the array, it is copied into a new Value at the time of modification, and the second Glob is modified to point to the new Value, while the ref-count of the old Value is decremented, after which both Globs still have a ref-count of one, both Values now have a ref-count of one, and the structures are independent of each other. If the called function does not modify the array, it is never copied and the ref-count of the Value is simply decremented when the function returns, saving an expensive copy operation. (When modifying the array, if more memory is not needed, the array should only be copied if its ref-count is greater than one; otherwise it should be modified in-place for efficiency.) The same logic applies to assignment. When one auto variable is assigned to another, a new Glob is allocated, but the Value is reused until either of the variables is modified. The same logic also applies to elements in the example array, not just the array itself, and so we can casually pass large complex data structures between functions without an expensive copy operation except when the structure is modified.

In the Glob schema, the value can be any single value from several possible sets. As this is the core of the specification, we will define it first to give the reader a context for understanding the schemas that follow. This represents a structure in memory that represents a reference count and a value. Notice that here we say the value of a Glob can be `undef`, another GLOBID, or a VALUEID. Undef is represented directly in the glob, as it requires no additional information. One way to implement this, assuming Glob is a struct and value is a pointer in it, would be to set the value element to null to represent `undef`. A Glob that references another Glob is also directly represented here, rather than as a value below, because again, we can simply use the same pointer for referencing a Glob or a Value, and allocating a structure in between would just be a waste of memory and CPU time. It is necessary to store what the type of the value is to differentiate between the different types that can be stored in Value and a pointer to a Glob. However, exactly how to store this is not important here; in the specification, we differentiate by checking which set the value is in (Fig. 1).

For convenience in our specification, we’ll explicitly track all the Globs using a partial function to map GLOBID to Globs. An explicit structure for this is not necessary during implementation, as the actual memory address suffices to uniquely identify a Glob, but here we must use a GLOBID to clarify whether two Globs with the same value are distinct, or whether they are the same Glob with two references. For the specification, we also need this to represent operations to create and destroy Globs. Free Globs always have a refcount of zero and a value of `undef`. The domain of `free_globs` represents all the possible return values for the memory allocator (Fig. 2).
The initial state of the system has no allocated globs. Notice that this one initialization schema implies the initial state (Fig. 3) of the other schemas that follow, such as AllAutos (Fig. 4) is a container representing all the auto variables. This includes both the auto variables created by the runtime environment via code emitted by the compiler when translating the program and auto variables defined by operations in the schemas in this specification, such as the reference operator and storage in arrays and hashes. For example, if an auto variable is storing a reference to an auto variable, the GLOBID for both the reference and the referent are included in the bag called autos. When a function is entered or exited, the code emitted by the compiler inserts code to update this by calling either $lang.auto.new.undef (represented by AllAutos_Create) or $lang.auto.refcount_inc (represented by Auto_IncRefcount), depending on whether it’s a new variable or an alias to an existing variable, and $lang.auto.refcount_dec (represented by Auto_DecRefcount). It is up to the compiler to add and subtract the references it creates from the refcounts by calling these functions; this is outside the scope of this specification because it depends heavily on the syntax of the language. $lang.auto.refcount_dec will never be called without a corresponding previous call to $lang.auto.refcount_inc; the compiler guarantees this.
When a new Glob is created, its ref-count always starts at one and its initial value. When a new Glob is created, its ref-count always starts at one and its initial value. AllAutos_IncRefcount (Fig. 6) and AllAutos_DecRefcount (Fig. 7) implicitly update the ref-count on the corresponding Glob, as described by AllAutos and AllGlobs. is always undef. We represent creating Globs as an operation on All_Globs that returns a Glob. Notice AllAutos_DecRefcount is a very loaded operation. When it is called, if there are no more occurrences of the glob_id, it implicitly moves the Glob from allocated_globs to free_globs, again because of the constraints in AllAutos and AllGlobs. This, in turn, implicitly sets the value to undef.
4.1 Structure of Encapsulated Values

The above schemas define our core memory structure and how to track ref-counts. Now we define the various things that can be stored in an auto variable. In the interest of efficiency, we have already defined undef and a reference to another Glob as possible values represented without the infrastructure below. In the implementation, it may be desirable to represent other common cases (such as integers that are no larger than a pointer) directly in the Glob rather than in the separate allocations below.

First, we need an ADT to hold the ref-count. We use a separate schema for this because the ref-count is always there regardless of which type of value is assigned. A suggested implementation is to define a struct for each type of value, all of which store the ref-count as the first element. Then when the ref-count is needed, it can be easily accessed without regard for which struct definition this is. To minimize the number of calls to the memory allocator, all the information for a Value (Fig. 8) should be stored in the same chunk of memory, if possible (hashes are probably the only exception to this).

AllValues (Fig. 9) is quite similar to AllGlobs; it gives us a way of tracking which Values are unique and it enforces ref-counts. The last part of the predicate in AllValues looks obtuse, but it is just expressing what we already intuitively know ref-counts of values to be. It is saying that the ref-count of a Value is always equal to the number of Globs that refer to its VALUEID.
### AllValues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AllGlobs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>allocated_values : VALUEID → Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>free_values : VALUEID → Value</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*dom* allocated_values ∩ *dom* free_values = ∅

*dom* allocated_values ∪ *dom* free_values = VALUEID

∀ x : ran allocated_values • x.refcount > 0

∀ x : ran free_values • x.refcount = 0

∀ v : *dom* allocated_values • allocated_values(v).refcount =

#{ g : dom allocated_globs | allocated_globs(g).value = v }

---

### Integer

| value : Z |

---

### Fraction

| num : Z |
| denom : N |

[The denominator must be positive.]

denom > 0

num = 0 ⇒ denom = 1

[Avoid dividing by zero.]

num > 0 ⇒ ¬ ∃ x : N • (x > 1) ∧ (num / x ∈ N) ∧ (denom / x ∈ N)

[This says fractions must be stored in reduced form.]

---

Fig. 9. AllValues Schema

Finally, after much infrastructure, we define the structure of each possible type. These should mostly be fairly obvious; all the difficult parts are expressed above. Integers (Fig. 10) and fractions (Fig. 11) are particularly easy possibilities. Notice that there is no bound on integers or on the numerator or denominator for fractions. This means that if an operation’s result cannot be stored in the amount of memory available, more must be allocated.

A String (Fig. 12) is a homogenous sequence of integers. (A primitive “string” can be any homogeneous sequence, like what C calls an array. The only purpose of supporting “string” separately from “array” in the context of auto variables is to provide an acceptably efficient way to represent sequences of integers. Allowing an unrestricted subtype here would require so much complexity it would defeat this purpose.) While usually the integers will be unsigned and 8 bits wide, the implementation must support both signed and unsigned at any size. An Array (Fig. 13) is a sequence of auto variables, allowing it to be heterogeneous. The contained auto variables may contain any valid type of data, including, for example, another Array.
A Hash (Fig. 14) can be thought of as a dynamic representation of a primitive struct. More precisely, it is a mapping of keys (a domain of unique strings, colloquially known as keys) to values (a range). It has all the properties of a partial function: each key must be unique, but a value can occur many times. It also has all the desirable properties of a hash table: finding or deleting a key is an $O(1)$ operation, and inserting a key is an $O(\log(n))$ operation (incurring the $\log(n)$ cost because sometimes the table must be extended, which requires reorganizing all the keys). Additionally, however, our Hash object remembers the order in which the keys were inserted (unless the order is explicitly modified), so iterating through the keys always yields the same order of elements. This may be implemented trivially by forming a two-way linked list out of the keys, in addition to inserting the keys into the hash table. There is no cost for this in terms of time-complexity (and only an irrelevant fixed cost to each write operation to maintain a couple of extra pointers), yet it adds much expressive value to the data structure. It also makes Hashes capable of everything a primitive struct is capable of. To achieve this efficiency, it must be a single hybrid data structure, not two separate structures, but in our specification, we represent the ordering of the keys separately from the partial function.

It would be infeasible to support auto variables to reference all the various combinations of types that a pointer can reference. However, supporting references to auto variables is necessary to support complex
data structures, and supporting references to functions is necessary to support abstract data types. (Further discussion of the implementation of abstract data types is beyond the scope of this discussion).

In Pit’s terminology, a pointer is just like C’s pointers, which are primitive integers storing a memory address with an optional static sub-type property that allows it to be dereferenced. Pointer arithmetic and conversions to and from integers are allowed. Pointers cannot reference auto variables. An auto variable cannot store a pointer, except by interpreting it as an integer when stored and providing a typecast when fetched. A reference is an auto variable that refers to another auto variable; it is a type that can only be stored in an auto variable, and it can only refer to auto variables. References do not allow arithmetic or conversions to and from integers. References are strong, meaning that they increment the reference count of the referent, thus preventing garbage collection for the duration of the reference. Because a reference is just a pointer in auto variable context with certain restrictions, we do not need to allocate an additional structure for it, and formally we have no additional schemas to represent it. As described above in the Glob schema, the value element of a Glob can simply store a GLOBID directly. Fref (Fig. 14) represents “function reference”. These function references are restricted to functions with a certain prototype by the compiler, so we don’t have to represent the prototype dynamically.

```
[ FUNCTIONID ]

    Fref

    value : FUNCTIONID
```

**Fig. 15. Fref Schema**

### 4.2 Operations

The schemas represented by Fig. 16-18 represent the various operations that can be performed on auto variables. It is worth clarifying the context of these operations, because we’re trying to represent the semantics of operations on auto variables as written in Pit. A schema that represents an operation, for example, Auto_Add (Fig. 16) and Integer_Add (Fig. 17), create a new structure to hold the return value of the operation. Fraction_Add (Fig. 18) must reduce fractions to meet the requirements of the Fraction schema. For example, the representation of “$a = $b + $c - $d” are, informally, three operations, each requiring a place to hold the return value:

```
AllAutos_Create (glob_id! $temp1)
Auto_Add(left $b, right $c, result $temp1)
AllAutos_Create (glob_id! $temp2)
Auto_Subtract(left $temp1, right $d, result $temp2)
AllAutos_DecRefCount(glob_id $temp1)
AllAutos_Create (glob_id! $temp3)
Auto_Assign(left $a, right $temp2, result $temp3)
AllAutos_DecRefCount(glob_id $temp2)
AllAutos_DecRefCount(glob_id $temp3)
```

Obviously, substituting $a for $temp2 and eliminating $temp3 and the Auto_Assign operation, would be more efficient, but we are interested in the general case, not optimized cases, at this point, and in the general case, every operation has a return value. There are several oversights and syntactic problems in the example above, but we’ll ignore these for the moment; they are necessary as we map the informal description to the formal specification because for the moment we are not interested in a formal specification of the language’s syntax. The return value of the last operation in a statement gets its ref-count decremented or is freed.
Clearly, most of the binary operators will be nearly identical in their specification. They are so similar and there are so many, it would be confusing and a waste of time to specify all of them. We will specify only one operation for each set of operations that are almost identical. For example, subtract, multiply, divide, modulus, as well as bit-wise operations (or, nor, and, nand, xor, nxor, shifting) are omitted. Assignment is quite different, as explained below, so this one is not omitted. Unary operators differ substantially from binary operators, so we include negation.

```plaintext
Auto_Add

AllAutos
left? : GLOBID
right? : GLOBID
result? : GLOBID
exception! : EXCEPTION

if
   Integer_Add(
      left? → allocated_globs(left?).value
      right? → allocated_globs(right?).value
      result? → allocated_globs'(result?).value
   ) ∨ Fraction_Add(
      left? → allocated_globs(left?).value
      right? → allocated_globs(right?).value
      result? → allocated_globs'(result?).value
   )
then exception! = null
else exception! = type_mismatch [result is unchanged]
```

**Fig. 16.** Auto_Add Schema

```plaintext
Integer_Add

left? : Integer
right? : Integer
result! : Integer

result!.value = left?.value + right?.value
```

**Fig. 17.** Integer_Add Schema

```plaintext
Fraction_Add

left? : Integer
right? : Integer
result! : Integer

result!.num / result!.denom =
   left?.num / left?.denom + right?.num / right?.denom
```

**Fig. 18.** Fraction_Add Schema
Auto_Assign (Fig. 19) is another loaded operation, because this is where the ref-counts of Values come into play. In the statement “$a = $b”, the actual value is not copied. As described above, to accomplish this, Value has a ref-count that is distinct from Glob’s ref-count. For example, assume the ref-counts of the Globs for $a$ and $b$ start at one; these do not change. The sequential logic of the assignment is as follows:

- Decrement the ref-count on the previous value of $a$ (and free it if zero).
- Increment the ref-count of the value for $b$ twice.
- Point the Glob for $a$ at the value for $b$.
- Point the result Glob at the same value.

After this, $a$ and $b$ still have the same distinct Globs, but these Globs point to the same Value. If, for example, $b$ is incremented later with the statement “$b += 1$”, the link is broken. A new Value for $b$ is created, and the Glob for $b$ is pointed at it. The old Value’s ref-count is decremented, but not freed because $a$ still points to it (Notice that this is not the behavior expected from a reference; if $a$ were a reference to $b$, for example through the statement “$a = $b<-”, the ref-count for the Value of $b$ would be unaffected). In this case, the Glob for $a$ stores a pointer to the Glob for $b$. This time, the ref-count for the Glob for $b$, rather than its Value, is incremented. Afterwards, $a$ and $b$ still have distinct Globs, but the Glob for $a$ points to the one for $b$.

![Auto_Assign Schema](image)

Fig. 19. Auto_Assign Schema

5. Conclusion

Syntax and semantics are central to any programming language. When developing a programming language such as Pit [11], it is quite helpful to specify these constraints formally because creating a compiler is difficult, even with a clear understanding of the language. The design of a language can benefit from the application of formal methods by enhancing the precision and removing the ambiguity attributed with non-formal specifications [1]. A formal specification also provides a context in which correctness, an important property of a compiler, can be formally analyzed. It is also necessary to carefully analyze important aspects of the language during the early stages of development in an attempt to detect inconsistency. This was the main objective of this effort was successfully achieved using the Z notation [5]. With the obvious advantages, Z notation was clearly effective in representing the auto variable type. To assist us in our analysis of Pit, we have thus formally specified part of the language using Z notation.
6. Acknowledgements

The first author has been partly funded with grants from”, NASA North Dakota Space Grant Research Fellowships. The second author has been party funded with grants from NASA EPSCOR through NASA grant # NCC5-582.

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