

Defining Object-Oriented Execution Semantics Using Graph Transformations

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Abstract. In this paper we describe an application of the theory of graph transformations to the practise of language design. In particular, we have defined the static and dynamic semantics of a small but realistic object-oriented language (called TAAL) by mapping the language constructs to graphs (the static semantics) and modelling their effect by graph transformation rules (the dynamic semantics). This gives rise to execution models for all TAAL-programs, which can be used as the basis for formal verification.

This work constitutes a first step towards a method for defining all aspects of software languages, besides their concrete syntax, in a consistent and rigorous manner. Such a method facilitates the integration of formal correctness in the software development trajectory.

1 Introduction

A widely recognized proposal for combating the maintenance and evolution problems faced in software engineering is the model driven approach, brought to the world's attention by the OMG's Model Driven Architecture (MDA) framework [17]. In this approach, models and model transformations are central concepts. The models are specified in diverse (modeling and programming) software languages (SLs), and the model transformations define relations between these languages.

Model transformations are intended to be correctness preserving: they should not introduce errors or essential changes. This, however, can be guaranteed only if the meaning of the SLs involved is defined with sufficient precision. Unfortunately, this is often lacking: many SLs have a well-defined syntax but only an informal semantics, e.g. described by text or, in the case of a programming language, by a compiler.

The longer-term goal of our research is to define a way in which all aspects of SLs, besides their concrete syntax, can be defined in a consistent and rigorous

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manner. As a common formal foundation we use graphs and graph transformations, which we believe to be powerful enough to capture all relevant SL aspects. Furthermore, current research in the field of graph transformations [23] offers us a large knowledge base of theories ready to apply to our topic. Ultimately, we plan to develop a meta-language for designing SLs. This meta-language will enable us to provide semantic definitions of the source and target SLs involved in a given model transformation on a compatible basis; this in turn will enable us to precisely formulate and check the requirement of correctness preservation. We believe these abilities to be essential in realizing the full potential of MDA.

This paper describes the first phase of our research: the formal definition of both the static and the dynamic semantics of a small but realistic object-oriented language, called TAAL, using graph transformations. We have defined our own language because in this way we can avoid dealing with more complex constructs like exception handling and multi-threading. Still TAAL includes common object-oriented features like inheritance. While formal, we do not leave this exercise on a theoretical level only: we have developed a parser/analyzer and used an existing graph transformation tool so as to actually simulate programs. In fact, all graphs shown in this paper are directly taken from the implementation. We are confident that we can extend the approach described here to be applicable to a large category of SLs, including modeling languages and imperative programming languages.

This paper is structured as follows. Sect. 2 gives an overview of our approach and introduces graph transformations and TAAL. In Sect. 3 we discuss how we represent and generate the flow of control of a TAAL-program. Sect. 4 then discusses our main contribution, namely our way of specifying object-oriented dynamic semantics through an operational definition. We conclude in Sect. 5 with a brief description of the tooling used and some remarks on related and further work. All steps described in this paper are explained by using a simple example.

2 Approach

In this work we model object-oriented programs as graphs, and specify their semantics using graph transformations. The approach we have taken is to define a small language that nonetheless contains the most relevant concepts from object-oriented programming languages. This language is called TAAL. We define a series of transformations that will turn any TAAL-program into a simulation of its execution.

The transformations are depicted in Fig. 1. The first transformation, from textual program to Flat Abstract Syntax Graph, actually consists of three transformations. Due to space limitations, we do not discuss the details of these transformations, two of which are similar to the first steps in a compiler [3]. The interested reader is referred to [13]. The more interesting transformations, i.e. the flow graph construction and the simulation, involve the application of

graph transformations and will therefore be discussed in more detail. The graph transformations are carried out in the Groove Tool Set [20].

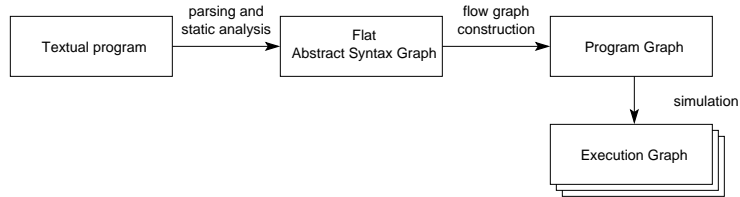


Figure 1: Overview of the transformation from program to simulation.

During flow graph construction we apply a set of graph transformation rules to transform a plain graph representing the abstract syntax of the textual program, called the Flat Abstract Syntax Graph, into a graph that includes control flow information. The result of this transformation is called the Program Graph. The execution of the TAAL-program is simulated by Execution Graphs which are the result of applying another set of graph transformation rules. These rules define the dynamic (or execution) semantics of our object-oriented language TAAL.

Note that the Program Graph and the corresponding Execution Graphs are at a different level of modelling. This is reflected in Fig. 1 by the use of a vertical arrow instead of a horizontal one. The Program Graph is a single graph representing the static TAAL-program including control flow information, whereas during simulation the dynamics of the program execution are represented by a series of Execution Graphs, each of which represents the system state at a certain point in time.

2.1 The Formalism

After the parsing and static analysis phase, the textual program in Fig. 1 is represented as a plain graph (the Flat Abstract Syntax Graph), and the subsequent transformations are driven by sets of graph transformation rules. Such rules are themselves given as graphs. This will be shown later in this section.

In this paper we use edge-labelled graphs, defined over a global set Lab of labels, as follows.

Definition 1. A graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$ consists of:

- a set V of vertices (or nodes), and
- a set $E \subseteq V \times Lab \times V$ of edges.

The following is a definition of a graph transformation rule.

Definition 2. A graph transformation rule $p = \langle L, R, \mathcal{N} \rangle$ consists of:

- a graph L being the left hand side (LHS) of the rule;
- a graph R being the right hand side (RHS) of the rule;
- a set of graphs \mathcal{N} being the negative application conditions (NACs).

The application of a graph transformation rule transforms a graph G , the *source graph*, into a graph H , the *target graph*, by looking for an occurrence of L in G and then replacing that occurrence of L with R , resulting in H . The role of the NACs [10] is that they can still prevent application of the rule when an occurrence of the LHS has been found, namely if there is an occurrence of some $N \in \mathcal{N}$ in G that *extends* the candidate occurrence of L . A precise technical description of the search for occurrences and the transformation process is given in [22]; for a more theoretical exposition see [23].

It is important to realize that the application of a graph transformation rule to a given graph G is non-deterministic in that there may be more than one occurrence of L in G ; but for any particular occurrence, the application is deterministic.

Individual graph transformation rules are collected into *graph production systems* (GPSs), which as a whole are used to model transformation or computation processes. The application of a GPS comes down to the unscheduled, non-deterministic application of successive individual rules until a graph is obtained that cannot be transformed any further. Note that this introduces another level of non-determinism, namely in the choice of rule to be applied. A GPS is *confluent* if it is such that the order of application actually does not make a difference to the end result.

In this paper we use two GPSs, namely to model the flow graph construction and simulation steps of Fig. 1. As we will see, the first of these is confluent whereas the second is deterministic due to the fact that at any stage during the transformation system, at most one rule is applicable, which then has precisely one occurrence.

When visualizing graphs and graph transformation rules, we use a shorthand notation for labelled edges pointing from one node to itself, so called *self-edges*. In this shorthand notation we put the label inside the node.

Example 1. Fig. 2 (i) depicts a graph transformation rule by showing its LHS and its RHS. The LHS consists of three nodes and five labelled edges; the RHS consists of three nodes and six labelled edges. Note that self-edges are also counted. The result of applying this transformation rule is the creation of a **flowNext**-edge and the redirection of the **flowIn**-edge. (To be precise, the **flowIn**-edge in the LHS graph will be removed and a new **flowIn**-edge will be created.)

In this paper we use a shorthand notation for graph transformation rules by displaying them as single graphs. The different roles a graph element can have in the transformation process are distinguished by different coloured shapes:

- thin solid nodes and edges, called *readers*: they are required to be in the source graph in order for the rule to apply, and are unaffected by rule application, i.e. they are still present in the target graph.
- thin dashed nodes and edges (blue in a coloured print-out), called *erasers*: they are required to be in the source graph in order for the rule to apply, and are deleted by rule application.

- fat solid nodes and edges (green), called *creators*: they are not required to be in the source graph, and are created by rule application.
- fat dashed nodes and edges (red), called *embargoes* (or negative application conditions): they are forbidden to occur in a graph in order for the rule to apply.

Fig. 2 (ii) shows the graph transformation rule from Fig. 2 (i) using the described shorthand notation. Note that this rule does not include negative application conditions.

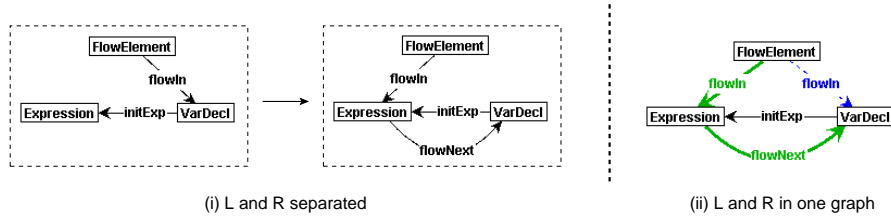


Figure 2: Example of a graph transformation rule.

When using graphs for representing *states* and graph transformations as *state transitions*, applying graph transformations is analogue to creating a *transition system* in which the transitions are labelled with the names of the transformation rules. In Sect. 4 we will show a labelled transition system generated this way representing the simulation of an example program.

2.2 The Mini Language TAAL

In this section we discuss the mini language TAAL, which incorporates the basic aspects of many commonly used object-oriented programming languages. For instance, the notions of class, attribute, operation, inheritance, instantiation and overriding are all present. The meta-model shown in Fig. 3 gives an impression of the abstract syntax of the language. The driving intuition behind the semantics is that a TAAL-program has essentially the same meaning as a corresponding Java-program. An important difference with Java is that the start of the program is represented by a single start expression. Listing 1 contains a TAAL-program that will be used as example throughout this paper. More details on the definition of TAAL can be found in [13]. We emphasize that the developed sets of transformation rules enable simulation of any TAAL-program, not just this example.

Some elements from Fig. 3 that will be referred to later in this paper are **Program**, **ObjectType**, **OperImpl**, and **VarDecl**. The class **Program** represents the whole program. The Flat Abstract Syntax Graph of any TAAL-program has exactly one instance of this class. Within a TAAL-program we can declare multiple data-structures, each being an instance of **ObjectType**. Such a data-structure may contain operations (being instances of **OperImpl**) and fields (being instances of

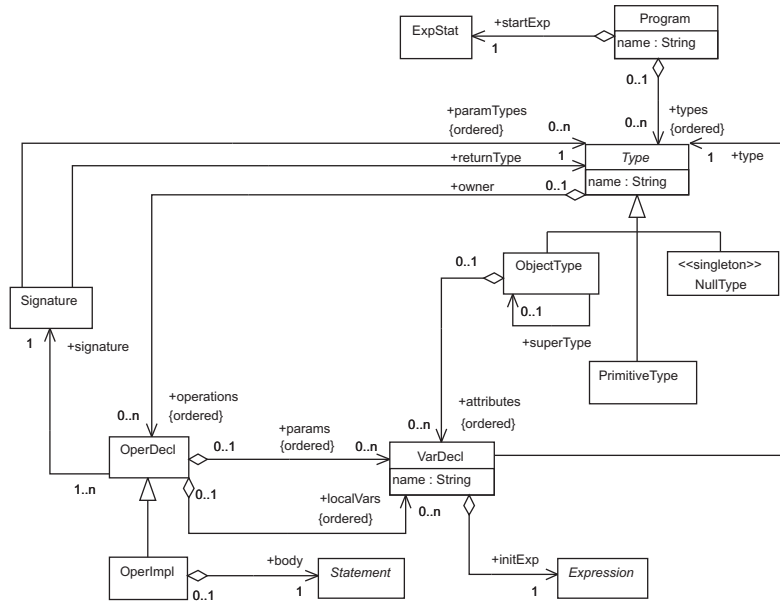


Figure 3: The types in the abstract syntax graph meta-model.

VarDecl). The classes **Statement** and **Expression** are abstract and indicate that the language facilitates different types of both.

```

1  program amoebaworld
2  { new Amoeba().clone() }
3  class Amoeba
4  child: Amoeba;
5  clone() : Amoeba {
6  child := new Amoeba();
7  return child;
8  }
9  endclass
10 endprogram

```

Listing 1: An example TAAL-program.

The result of the parsing and static analysis of a TAAL program (see Fig. 1) is a Flat Abstract Syntax Graph. The Flat Abstract Syntax Graph of the example from Listing 1 is shown in Fig. 4. This graph is an instance of the meta-model from Fig. 3. Some cross-referencing edges have been grayed-out in order to make the graph more readable.

3 Flow Graph Construction

Flow graph construction is the analysis of the flow of control and the construction of flow graph elements which will later on enable the program's simulation. The

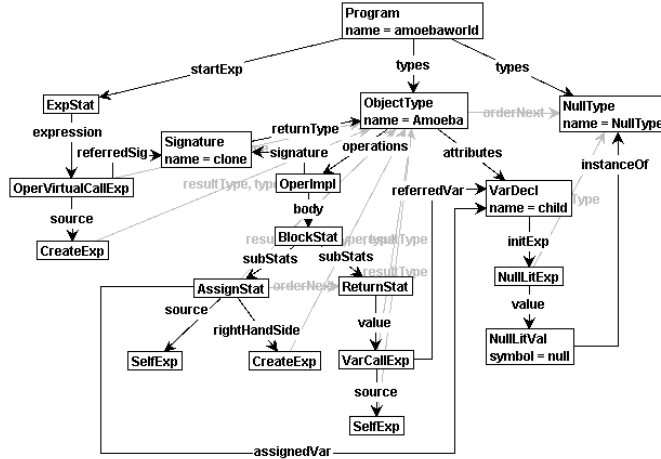


Figure 4: Flat Abstract Syntax Graph for the example.

result of this analysis is the Program Graph (cf. Fig. 1), which consists of the Flat Abstract Syntax Graph enriched with a number of flow graphs. In this section we will describe the structure of flow graphs and the way we construct them.

Flow Graph Structure. Traditionally (e.g. [9]), flow graphs are directed graphs consisting of four types of nodes (also called flow elements), namely one *start node*, one *end node*, and a number of *procedure* and *predicate nodes* in between, which are connected by *successor*-edges. In our approach we enrich flow graphs with a new node-type, namely the *context node*, and distinct between three types of successor-edges, namely *flowNext*, *flowTrue*, and *flowFalse*. Fig. 5 shows the meta-model of such Flow Graphs.

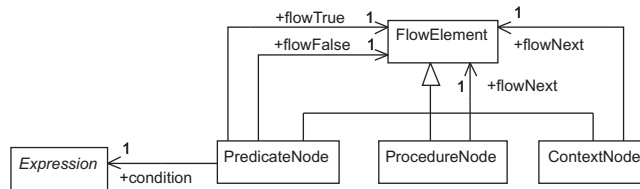


Figure 5: Flow Graph meta-model.

Procedure nodes represent statements or expressions after which it is deterministic which statement to execute next. Predicate nodes represent executable statements and expressions that are related to a boolean condition. The actual value of the condition determines which statement will be executed next. The context nodes represent the start and end node of each Flow Graph. Note that as a result every Flow Graph is cyclic.

The edges in a Flow Graph represent the sequential relation between statements. Fig. 5 shows what kind of edges are allowed between different flow elements. The edges have one of the labels *flowNext*, *flowTrue*, or *flowFalse*.

Flow Graphs, in this paper, appear at three different contexts corresponding to the type of context-node (the types are elements from Fig. 3).

- **Program** context. **Program** Flow Graphs control the startup of the program being modelled. In TAAL, program startup is modelled by the execution of the initial expression of the program (line 2 in Listing 1). A Program Graph always contains exactly one Flow Graph at **Program** context.
- **ObjectType** context. **ObjectType** Flow Graphs are traversed when an object is instantiated. Object creation will be discussed in more detail in Sect. 4. A Program Graph contains an **ObjectType** Flow Graph for each **ObjectType** being specified in the original program.
- **OperImpl** context. **OperImpl** Flow Graphs control the execution of the body of operations. A Program Graph contains an **OperImpl** Flow Graph for each operation that has been implemented in the original program.

Flow Graphs that appear in the Program Graph at any context are not interconnected. The connection between different Flow Graphs is established during simulation. For example, when instantiating a class inside a operation, the Flow Graph of that operation and the Flow Graph of the object to be created are then ‘dynamically connected’. This will be discussed in more detail in Sect. 4.

Graph Transformations for Flow Construction. To extract the flow information from the abstract syntax graph, we apply a set of graph transformation rules that traverses the syntax graph in a *top-down* fashion. The general approach is that for every type of statement or expression we specify a graph transformation rule. Each rule contains a node representing the statement type involved. Fig. 2 showed the Flow Graph construction rule for a **VarDecl**-element. These graph transformation rules together form a *confluent* graph production system.

After finishing the phase of Flow Graph construction the part of the Program Graph which models the Flow Graphs (i.e. projected on the flow-edges) is an instance of the meta-model shown in Fig. 5. The Program Graph which is constructed from the Flat Abstract Syntax Graph from Fig. 4 is shown in Fig. 6. Elements in Fig. 6 that are not part of any Flow Graph are grayed-out.

4 Simulation

This section presents the next step from Fig. 1, namely defining the operational semantics of TAAL, in terms of graph transformation. The graphs being transformed are so-called *Execution Graphs*, which represent snapshots of the program state. The transformation rules themselves simulate individual program constructs. The resulting GPS, when applied to a flow graph of the kind discussed in the previous section, gives to a transition system, in which the graphs

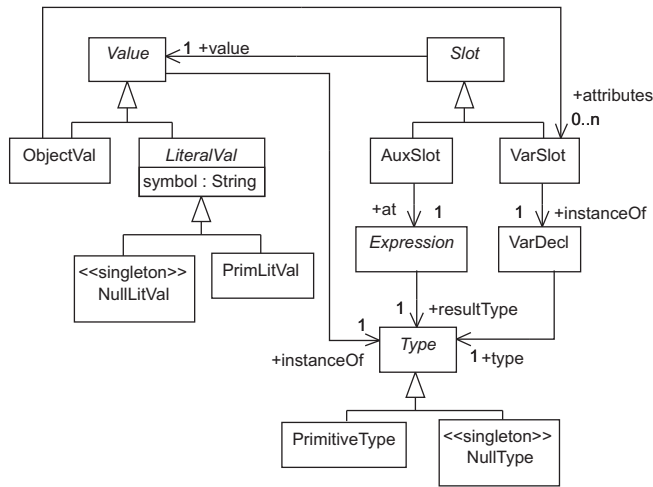


Figure 7: Value Graph meta-model.

control currently resides. In fact, for each sub-type of **ContextNode** there is one **Frame** sub-type.

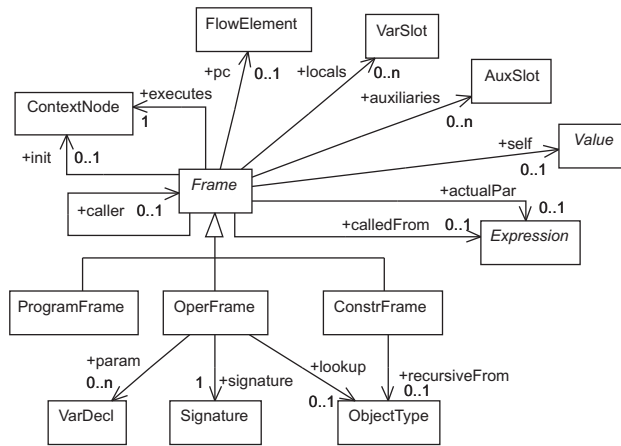


Figure 8: Frame Graph meta-model.

An example (partial) Execution Graph can be found in Fig. 9. This represents the state of our example program (Listing 1) before executing the return-statement in Line 7. At this moment three frames are active: the **ProgramFrame**, the **OperFrame** for the `clone` method, and the **ConstrFrame** for the creation of the new object.

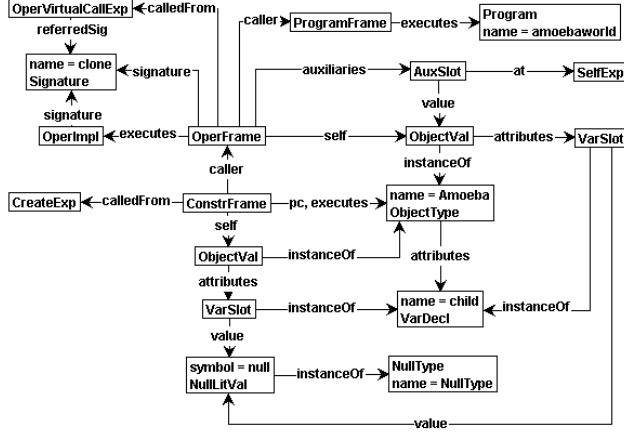


Figure 9: Fragment of an Execution Graph (at Line 7 of Listing 1).

4.2 Operational Semantics

We now discuss the graph transformation rules that define the dynamic semantics of TAAL. The rules essentially define the effect of the individual statements and expressions of the program in terms of the Value Graph and Frame Graph. For instance, object creation, and assignment to attributes are reflected in the Value Graph, whereas method invocation is reflected mainly in the Frame Graph.

This means that, when we apply the resulting transformation system to the start graph of a given program (being the Program Graph resulting from the Flow Graph construction described in the previous section), each rule application corresponds to the execution of a small step in the program. As an example, Fig. 10 shows the resulting transition system for the example program of Listing 1 in the form of another graph, where the edge labels are rule names. In Sect. 5 we describe the tools used to generate this view.

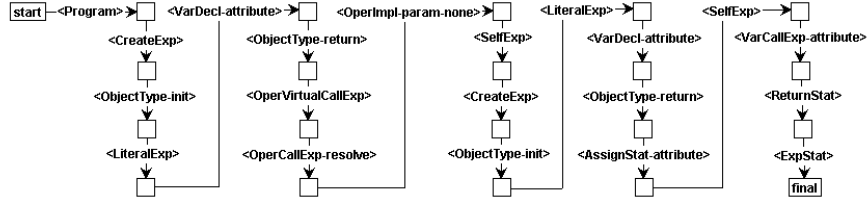


Figure 10: Transition system of the simulation of Listing 1.

The complete set of simulation rules for TAAL is too large to include in this paper. They can be found in [13]. Fig. 11 shows a few example rules. The complete set of rules can be divided into three categories: flow element execution rules, object creation rules, and method lookup rules. We believe these three categories to be invariant with respect to the chosen language.

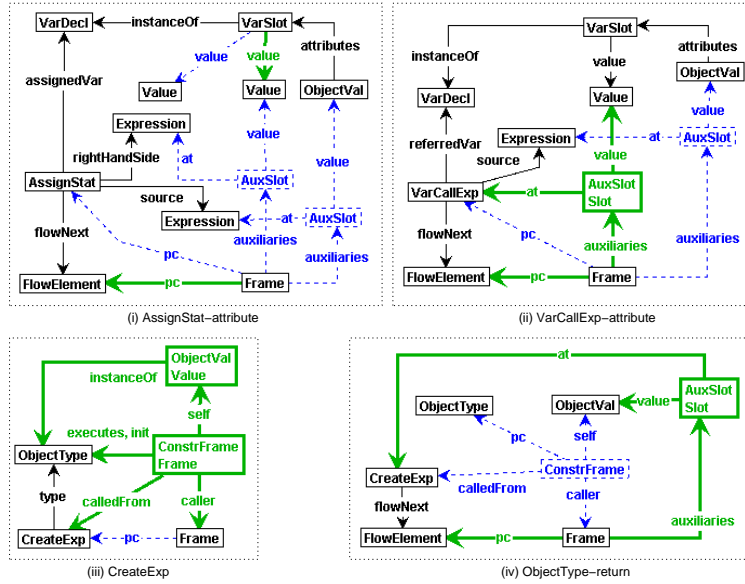


Figure 11: Example simulation rules.

Flow Element Execution. This category consists of a small number of rules (usually one, in some cases two) per kind of FlowElement. These rules describe the essential function of that particular FlowElement. They are always triggered by the fact that the `pc`-edge from a Frame node (in the Frame Graph) arrives at an instance of the relevant flow element type (in the Program Graph), and they also always adapt the `pc`-edge to point to a next statement in the Flow Graph. We illustrate this on two examples.

VarCallExp. A VarCallExp is an expression that retrieves the value of a variable. We distinguish two cases: the variable may be an instance variable or attribute (signalled by the fact that the VarCallExp-node has a `source`) or a local variable or parameter. The first of these is illustrated in Fig. 11 (ii). In either case the `referredVar` (in the Program Graph) identifies a unique VarSlot (in the Value Graph); execution of the VarCallExp-rule then consists of creating a fresh AuxSlot for the expression and assigning the current value of the `referredVar` to it. Furthermore, the `pc`-pointer is moved forward.

AssignStat. The effect of an AssignStat is to make a variable (modelled by a VarSlot) point to a pre-computed value - the `rightHandSide` of the assignment. Just as for the VarCallExp-rule, we have to distinguish the cases of instance and local variables; the former is illustrated in Fig. 11 (i). In either case, the `assignedVar` (possibly together with the AuxSlot at the `source`-referenced Expression) uniquely identifies a VarSlot-instance; this receives the value of the AuxSlot at the `rightHandSide`. The AuxSlot-instances involved are subsequently discarded.

Object Creation. This consists of allocating and initializing nodes for a new object and its instance variables. In most object-oriented languages, allocation and initialization are done in two different passes, of which the first assigns a default initial value to all fields. In TAAL, we have taken a more simplistic approach: all attributes have an initializing expression. This means we can construct locations for the variables and simultaneously assign initial values to those locations, provided we take care that this process starts at the top of the inheritance hierarchy. This results in the following steps:

Allocation: The actual object creation occurs when control reaches a **CreateExp**-instance. A **ConstrFrame** and an **ObjectVal** are created straight away. The **ObjectVal** is referenced through **self** from the **ConstrFrame**. Moreover, the fresh **ConstrFrame** has an **init**-pointer to the **ObjectType**, to indicate the fact that we are initializing an instance of this type. This is shown as rule **CreateExp** in Fig. 11 (iii).

Initialization: A **ConstrFrame**-instance with an **init**-edge to an **ObjectType** is treated in either of two ways, depending on whether the **ObjectType** has a super type. If it has a super type, then a new **ConstrFrame** is created recursively for that, but with the same **self**. If it has no super type, then execution is started, by replacing the **init**-edge with a **pc**-edge pointing to the first **FlowElement** reachable from the **ObjectType**. The subsequent simulation rules will compute initial values and assign them to newly instantiated **AuxSlot**-instances for the **ObjectVal**.

Termination: A **ConstrFrame** terminates when the **pc**-edge has arrived (back) at the **ObjectType**. The frame is discarded, and a **pc**-edge is (re)created at the caller frame. Just as for initialization, there is a case distinction, depending on whether the current frame was called recursively from a sub-type or directly from a **CreateExp**. The latter case is depicted in Fig. 11 (iv): the **ConstrFrame** is discarded and the underlying object, pointed to by **self**, is returned to the caller, where it is assigned to an **AuxSlot**-instance (also created freshly) storing the value at the **CreateExp**-node.

Method Lookup. This is a phase that occurs each time after a method is called (through an **OperCallExp**). The call itself creates a new **OperFrame** (in the Frame Graph). However, the call (in the Program Graph) only references the *signature* of the method to be executed; a matching method implementation (**OperImpl**) must be looked up in the server object's **self**-type. When it is found, the arguments (in the Value Graph) are transferred to that **OperImpl**'s formal parameters. Finally, the new **OperFrame** is started by creating a **pc**-edge for it, after which the flow element execution rules take over.

5 Conclusion

The work described in this paper shows a complete example of how programming languages can be defined using graphs and graph transformation rules. The language definition of TAAL includes all necessary parts of a language definition: (abstract) syntax and semantics, which have been defined using a single formalism. Although other work has been presented that uses graphs and graph

transformation rules (e.g. [6]) for (parts of) language definitions, none of these reaches the same level of completeness. For instance, the semantics specification in [27] merely includes the static semantics, while our work encompasses execution semantics as well as static semantics. Independently, Hausmann and Engels [11, 8] have developed a similar approach to the definition of language semantics. Both their and our work is based on earlier work by the pUML group [15, 5].

The use of graph transformation rules to specify the semantic rules offers a number of advantages. First, the visual representation of the graph transformation rules provides an intuitive understanding of the semantics. Second, the graph transformation rules offer the possibility to include in one mathematical structure, the graph, information on both the run-time system and the program that is being executed. Traditional approaches to operational semantics (e.g. [1, 26, 19, 4, 12, 2, 7]) often need to revert to inclusion of run-time concepts in the syntax definition, e.g. inclusion of the concept of location to indicate a value that may possibly change over time. This seems to be an artificial manner of integrating parts of the language definition, i.e. of the abstract syntax and the semantic domain, that become much more natural in a graph representation. Finally, in graph transformation rules, context information can be included more naturally and uniformly than for example when using SOS-rules [26].

The example language that we have chosen comprises some of the fundamental aspects of object-oriented programming languages, like inheritance, including dynamic method look-up, and object creation. The structure of our solution makes us confident that the approach can be extended to real-life software languages in the object-oriented paradigm:

- All the transformation steps (parsing, static analysis, flow generation and simulation) are structured according to the concepts in the abstract syntax. This lends a modularity to the definitions that is independent of the language being defined.
- The structure of the Flow and Execution Graphs is generic, in the sense that the elements therein are not specific to TAAL; rather, they capture the essential aspects of imperative, object-oriented languages.

Work that is closely related to ours is by Corradini et al. [6]. They use graph transformations to formalize the semantics of a realistic programming language: they address a fairly large fragment of Java. Technically, the difference is that they interpret method invocation *unfolding* — meaning that the *program graph* changes dynamically. This obviates the need for the frame graph, at the price of having program-dependent rules (namely, one per method implementation).

Another difference is that they provide no tool support, and in that sense theirs is a more theoretical exercise. Another, less directly related source of research is on defining dynamic semantics of (UML-type) design models, where also the idea of using graph transformations has been proposed, e.g. in [8, 16, 25]. Furthermore, in Engels et al. [8] ideas are presented on how to use collaboration diagrams, interpreted as graph transformation rules, for defining SL semantics.

A final aspect of the work reported here is that we have not only developed the TAAL language definition but supporting tools as well. This means that we can actually compile and simulate any TAAL-program and store the resulting transition system so, for instance, all the ingredients for verification are there. Both tool sets as well as the full sets of transformation rules defined the flow generation and simulation phases are available for downloading [14, 21].

An area of further research will be to lift the approach outlined here to a more general level, thus creating a meta language to define software languages, including their semantics. A first step has already been reported in [24], in which rules are specified for building a control flow graph for any imperative object-oriented language. This will give rise to a method for defining the semantics of SLs, which fill the gap currently present in MDA, as pointed out in the introduction. We also intend to investigate whether this approach is applicable for non OO-languages as well. Currently we are working on implementing model checking techniques for verifying object-oriented programs where states are represented as graphs and execution steps as graph transformations.

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