### Chapter 2 :: **Programming Language Syntax**

Programming Language Pragmatics

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### Introduction

- programming languages need to be precise
  - natural languages less so
  - both form (syntax) and meaning (semantics) must be unambiguous
  - we need good notation (or a metalanguage) to describe precise languages by recognizing tokens
    - regular expressions
    - · context-free grammars

4

6

### **Tokens**

1

- · tokens are the building blocks of programs
  - shortest strings with linguistic meaning
    - similar to parts of speech in natural language
  - examples
    - $\bullet$  keywords (e.g., for, if, else in Python)
    - identifiers (e.g., names of variables and functions)
    - symbols (e.g., mathematical operators + and \*)
    - literals (e.g., integer 37, floating point 3.14159)



### **Scanning**

- scanning, or lexical analysis, is the first step in making sense of a computer program
- scanner reads a stream of characters and groups them into tokens (or identifies them as invalid)
  - tokenization
  - e.g., a Python scanner identifies keywords such as def and identifiers such as **foo** and **bar**
  - considerations
    - · case sensitivity
    - · international characters
    - maximum lengths

3

### **Scanning**

- considerations
  - case sensitivity
    - Python, C case-sensitive
    - Fortran case-insensitive
    - Haskell names beginning with capital letters have special meaning
  - character set
    - Python allows Unicode letters in identifiers
    - C, Fortran must be ASCII
    - Haskell allows characters such as single quotes in identifiers
  - length limits
    - C only first 63 characters guaranteed to matter
    - Fortran identifiers are ≤ 6 characters



### **Regular Expressions**

- the lexical form of a token is typically specified by a regular expression
- also called a regex or a regexp
- describe patterns of characters
  - we are interested in three characteristics:
    - i. valid characters which comprise the string
    - ii. smallest string(s)
    - iii. special pattern(s) of strings produced (must fully capture description of strings)
  - for example, x[xyz]\*
    - i. strings comprised of x, y, and z
    - ii. smallest string: x
  - iii. strings must begin with x
- · help us find tokens in the programming language
- useful in unix/linux environments

5

### **Regular Expressions**

- given an alphabet  $\Sigma$ , a regular expression (RE) describes a set of strings composed of characters from  $\Sigma$
- alphabet
  - non-empty set of characters
  - examples
    - ASCII character set
    - FBCDIC character set
    - · APL's freaky-deaky character set
    - Unicode Glagolitic character set
- for concreteness, think ASCII · a string is a sequence of characters
- **೪೬೩೮ ೭೫ ೩೯೩೮೨ №೩೯೦೦೬ ೩೯ ೩೪೫೭೫೩೬೭೮ ೮**

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### **Regular Expressions Formal Definition**

- regular expressions over an alphabet Σ are defined as follows
  - 1. the empty set Ø
  - 2.  $\,\epsilon$  denoting the set consisting of only the empty string (e.g., "" in Python)
  - 3. if  $c \in \Sigma$  , then c is an RE denoting the set that contains only the
  - 4.  $\alpha \mid \beta$  denoting the union of regular expressions  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$
  - 5.  $\alpha\beta$  denoting the set of concatenations of strings of regular expressions  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$
  - 6.  $\alpha*$  denoting the union of the concatenations of  $\alpha$  with itself, zero or more times
    - $\alpha\ast$  is called the Kleene closure of  $\alpha$  (for Stephen Cole Kleene, 1909-1994, American mathematician)



7

- if Σ = {a, b, c, d}, then
  - the RE a denotes the set containing only a
  - the RE a | b represents the set {a, b} (a or b)
  - the RE ab represents the set {ab}

**Regular Expressions Operators** 

- the RE (a|b)c represents the set {ac, bc}
- the RE (a|b)(c|d) represents the set {ac, ad, bc, bd}
- the RE a\* represents the set {ε, a, aa, aaa, aaaa, . . .}

**RE Operator Precedence** 

8

• operator precedence for purposes of association

(a)

α\* αβ

α|β

• thus,  $ab^*c|d$  is interpreted as  $((a(b^*))c)|d$ , which represents the {d, ac, abc, abbc, abbbc, . . .}



9

- in keeping with the convention for REs in many computer systems, we delimit sets of characters with square brackets [] and omit any separators (requiring we suspend concatenation inside square brackets to avoid ambiguity)
  - [abc] denotes the set {a, b, c}

**RE Notational Conventions** 

- abc represents the set {abc}
- inside square brackets we denote a range of characters with the first and last character connected by a dash - (this assumes the alphabet is
  - [0-9] represents the set of decimal digits (0|1|2|3|4|5|6|7|8|9)
  - [a-zA-Z] denotes all of the lowercase and uppercase letters



**RE Examples** 

10

- REs for tokens in Python
  - 1. an identifier (e.g., variable name) must begin with either an underscore or an alphabetic character followed by zero or more underscores or alphanumeric characters
    - assuming it's ASCII, can write this in RE form as [ a-zA-Z][ 0-9a-zA-Z]\*
  - 2. a positive integer can be described as a nonzero decimal digit followed by zero or more decimal digits w
    - · we can capture this succinctly with the RE [1-9][0-9]\*
  - 3. in decimal notation, a positive floating point number is a decimal digit followed by a decimal point followed by zero or more decimal digits, or a decimal point followed by one or more decimal digits
    - · an appropriate RE is [0-9].[0-9]\* | .[0-9][0-9]\*



11 12

### **RE Examples**

4. A positive floating point number in scientific notation is more complicated, as any of the forms

100.0, 1e2, 1e+2, 1.e2, 1.0e2, 1.0e02, 0.01, 1e-2, 1.e-2, 1.0e-2, 1.0e-02

plus any of these preceded by 0 are valid, captured by the RE [0-9]\*(.[0-9]\* | .[0-9]\* [eE][+- $\epsilon$ ][0-9][0-9]\* | [eE][+- $\epsilon$ ][0-9][0-9]\*) This RE means

- · zero or more digits, followed by
  - a decimal point followed by zero or more digits
  - a decimal point followed by zero or more digits then e or E
  - e or E

If there is an e or E, it is followed by

- an optional sign or +, followed by
  - a decimal digit, followed by
  - zero or more decimal digits



14

16

### **REs in Practice**

- REs are extremely useful when specifying textual patterns for searches
- languages such as C and Python, POSIX operating systems (i.e., Unix and Linux), and editors such as emacs and vim include tools for specifying and searching for regular expressions
- most of these facilities can express more than just regular expressions and include "syntactic sugar" to make it easier to specify patterns

14



13

### **RE Metacharacters**

 in many RE systems (e.g., C, Python, POSIX), the following characters are metacharacters

- these have special meaning other than their literal meaning

ELSEVIER

### **Regular Expressions in POSIX**

- · the POSIX standard specifies two types of Res
  - Basic Regular Expressions (BREs)
  - Extended Regular Expressions (EREs)
  - (there is actually a third type, Simple Regular Expressions, but their use is discouraged)
- having two kinds of REs is problematic
  - $-\,$  in BREs, metacharacters used as metacharacters (rather than as literals) are escaped with  $\backslash$
  - in EREs, metacharacters used as literals (rather than as metacharacters) are escaped with \ (default)
  - some tools (e.g., egrep) expect EREs by default; others (e.g., grep) expect BREs but use EREs if the -E option is specified

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15

### **POSIX ERE Metacharacters**

- () matches the enclosed RE
  - () matches the null string
- . matches any single character
  - d.g matches "dog "
  - [d.g] matches only a 'd', '.', or 'g'
- ^ matches the start of the string
  - ^dog matches the "dog" in "dogleg" but not in "underdog"
- \$ matches the end of string
- \* matches 0 or more repetitions of the preceding RE
- ab\* will match "a", "ab", or "abb", "abbb", ....
- + matches one or more repetitions of the preceding RE
  - ab+ will not match "a" but will match "ab", "abb", "abbb", ....
- ? matches zero or one repetitions of the preceding RE
  - ab? will match either "a" or "ab"
  - useful when a character is optional in the RE



**POSIX ERE Metacharacters (cont.)** 

- [] a bracket expression is used to indicate a list of characters
  - the list can contain characters
    - [dog] will match 'd', 'o', or 'g'
    - use \] to include a literal ']' inside a bracketed list
  - ranges of characters indicated by two characters separated by a -
    - [a-z] matches any lowercase ASCII letter (includes ~ in EBCDIC!)
    - [1-5][0-9] will match any two-digit number from 10 to 59
  - if is escaped (e.g., [a\-z]) it will match a literal most metacharacters lose their special meaning inside sets
    - [(+\*)] will match any of '(', '+', '\*', or ')'
  - if the first character in a bracketed list is ^ then all the characters that are not in the set will be matched
    - [^42] will match any character except '4' and '2'
    - the caret ^ has no special meaning if not the first character

18



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### **POSIX ERE Metacharacters (cont.)**

- specifies a match to either the RE that precedes or follows the |
- {m} matches the preceding RE exactly m times
- {,n} matches the preceding RE not more than n times
- {m,} matches the preceding RE at least m times
- $\{m,n\}$  matches the preceding RE between m and n times

19

### **POSIX ERE Character Classes**

shorthand for common sets of characters

Shorthand	ASCII RE	Characters Represented	
[:upper:]	[A-Z]	uppercase letters	
[:lower:]	[a-z]	lowercase letters	
[:alpha:]	[a-zA-Z]	all letters	
[:alnum:]	[a-zA-Z0-9]	all digits and letters	
[:digit:]	[0-9]	digits	
[:xdigit:]	[0-9A-Fa-f]	hexadecimal digits	
[:punct:]	[.,!?:;]	punctuation	
[:blank:]	[\t]	space and tab characters	
[:space:]	[\t\n\r\f\v]	whitespace characters	
[:cntrl:]		control characters	
[:graph:]	[^\t \n\r\f\v]	printed characters	
[:print:]	[^\t\n\r\f\v]	printed characters and space	



20

### **Regular Expressions in Python**

- Python's re module provides tools for handling regular expressions
  - similar to POSIX, but has more features and can handle patterns more complex than REs
  - HOWTO guide is a good place to start

### **Finite Automata and REs**

- regular expressions can be recognized using finite automata (FA)
  - also called finite state machines (CSCI 423)
- · a finite automaton consumes a string, one character at a time
  - depending on the character, the FA may or may not change to a
- the FA accepts (recognizes) a string if and only if the FA finds itself in one of a distinguished set of final (or accepting) states when the entire string has been consumed
- a coin-operated vending machine is a physical example of an FA

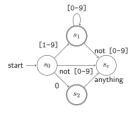


21

22

### **Finite Automata Example**

- an unsigned integer is either zero, or one or more digits where the first digit is nonzero
  - [0][1-9][0-9]\*]
- here is an FA that will recognize the RE; final states are indicated by double circles



### **Finite Automata Formalism**

- · preceding example described an FA in terms of its transition diagram
- formally, an FA is a quintuple (S,  $\Sigma$ ,  $\delta$ , s<sub>0</sub>, SF ), where
  - 1. S is the set of states, which is finite
  - 2.  $\Sigma$  is the alphabet used by the recognizer, typically the union of the edge labels in the transition diagram;  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  must be finite
  - 3.  $\delta(s,c): S \times \Sigma \rightarrow S$  is a function of a state  $s \in S$  and a character  $c \in \Sigma$ 
    - 1. encodes the transitions of the FA
    - 2. when the FA is in state s and sees a c, it makes a transition to  $% \left\{ 1,2,\ldots ,n\right\}$ the state  $\delta(s, c)$
  - 4.  $s_0 \in S$  is the designated start state
  - SF ⊂ S is the set of final states
- · the cost of applying an FA to a string is proportional to the length of the string, even if the FA has a large number of states



### Kleene's Equivalence Theorem

- Kleene showed that REs and FAs were equivalent in the sense that
  - given an RE, you can build an FA that will recognize that RE, and
  - given an FA, you can build an RE that is recognized by the FA
- in fact, there exist practical algorithms for transforming an RE into an FA and an FA into an RE
- the ability to transform REs into FAs that recognize them makes possible to automate the generation of scanners!

### lex and flex

- scanners (also called lexers or lexical analyzers) can be automatically generated
- one of the earliest scanner generators in widespread use was lex, developed at Bell Labs in the 1970s
- an open source analog, flex, was developed in the 1980s and is available from the GNU project
- a scanner generator takes as its input the names of the tokens and the REs that describe them (as well as actions to take when a token is recognized) and generates code that implements the scanner

deterministic finite automaton (DFA) for recognizing Pascal tokens

to get one token after another

we run the machine over and over



25

### **Scanning**

- · recall that the scanner is responsible for
  - tokenizing source
  - removing comments
  - saving text of identifiers, numbers, strings
- suppose we are building an ad-hoc (hand-written) scanner for Pascal
  - we read the characters one at a time with look-ahead
  - always take the longest possible token from the input
- regular expressions "generate" a regular language; DFAs "recognize" it

28

26

Scanning

## 27

### **Parsing**

- · a parser is responsible for recognizing syntax
- · scanners and parsers typically work together
  - the scanner feeds the parser a stream of tokens
  - the parser analyzes the tokens for grammatically correct



### **Context-free Grammars**

- a context-free grammar (CFG) G is a set of rules that describe what strings of symbols are valid sentences in a language
- the collection of sentences that can be derived from G is called the language defined by G, denoted L(G)
- the notation for CFGs is sometimes called Backus-Naur Form (BNF)
- with Kleene star and other facilitating symbols, the notation is termed Extended BNF (EBNF)



### **Context-free Grammars**

• consider the following CFG S

 $SheepNoise \rightarrow baaSheepNoise \mid baa$ 

- meaning
  - SheepNoise can derive the word baa followed by more SheepNoise
  - SheepNoise can derive the word baa
- · grammar S describes the language

baa, baa baa, baa baa baa, ...

31

### **Context-free Grammars**

- in general a CFG consists of
  - nonterminal symbols (e.g., SheepNoise)
    - · appear on left-hand side
  - terminal symbols (e.g., baa)
    - appear only on right-hand side
    - · words in the language
  - productions (e.g., single statement in CFG S)
    - · statements with arrows showing possible replacements
  - start symbol (e.g., SheepNoise)
    - nonterminal
    - if not explicitly stated, the left-hand non-terminal of the first production



**Derivations** 

CFG.S

SheepNoise → baa SheepNoise | baa

- · we can derive strings, such as baa baa
- begin with the start symbol, SheepNoise
  - choose a grammar rule for replacement
    - only one per line
  - repeat until the string consists of only terminals
  - strings of intermediate nonterminal/terminal strings called sentential forms

SheepNoise → baa SheepNoise

→ baa baa



**Backus-Naur Form** 

- · the notation for context-free grammars (CFG) is sometimes called Backus-Naur Form (BNF)
  - names for John Backus (who developed Fortran) and Peter Naur
  - necessary since regular expressions cannot specify nested constructs
  - used to define the syntax of a language
- written in their original notation, the sheep grammar S is

⟨SheepNoise⟩ ::= baa 〈SheepNoise〉 

- we will use
  - → instead of ::=
  - italics for nonterminals
  - Courier font for terminals



33

34

32

### **Extended Backus-Naur Form**

- for convenience, Extended Backus-Naur Form (EBNF) is often used
- · same as BNF, but augmented with extra operators
  - optional list: choose one or none
  - choose one from list ()
  - choose zero or more instances - choose zero or more instances
  - choose one or more instances
- · these symbols should never appear in any derivation
  - instead, make all decisions for operators in one step
  - for example.
    - production: str → x\*
    - derivation:  $str \rightarrow \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}$

**Formal Definition of CFG** 

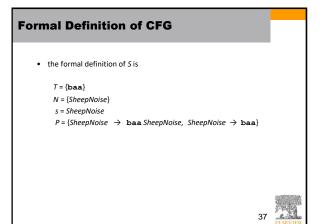
- in a context-free grammar, production rules allow only a single nonterminal on the left-hand side
- in a context-sensitive grammar, production rules allow multiple nonterminals on the left-hand side



36

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• consider the grammar

Integer → Digit | Integer Digit
Digit → 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9

• we can derive any unsigned integer, like 352, from this grammar

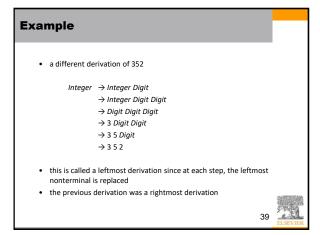
Integer → Integer Digit
→ Integer 2
→ Integer Digit 2
→ Integer 5 2
→ Digit 5 2

 $\rightarrow$  3 5 2

38

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39

• a parse tree is a graphical representation of a derivation

- each internal node of the tree corresponds to a step in the derivation

- the children of a node represent a right-hand side of a production

- each leaf node represents a symbol of the derived string reading from left to right

Parse Tree

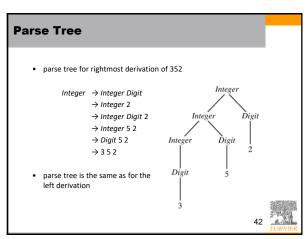
• parse tree for leftmost derivation of 352

Integer → Integer Digit
→ Integer Digit Digit
→ Digit Digit Digit
→ 3 Digit Digit
→ 3 5 Digit
→ 3 5 Digit
→ 3 5 2

Digit

2

Digit
5



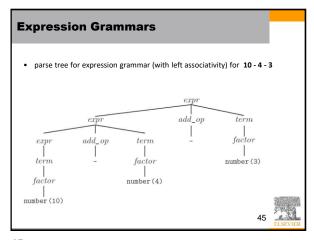
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# • expression Grammars • expression grammar with precedence and associativity 1. expr → term | expr add\_op term 2. term → factor | term mult\_op factor 3. factor → id | number | - factor | (expr) 4. add\_op → + | 5. mult\_op → \* | /

• parse tree for expression grammar (with precedence) for 3+4\*5

| Comparison of the comparison of th

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• another grammar with precedence and associativity

- + and - are left-associative operators in mathematics

- \* and / have higher precedence than + and 
• Grammar G<sub>1</sub>

Expr -> Expr + Term | Expr - Term | Term

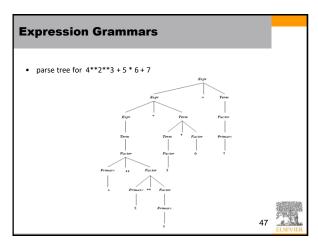
Term -> Term \* Factor | Term / Factor |

Term % Factor | Factor

Factor -> Primary \*\* Factor | Primary

Primary -> 0 | ... | 9 | (Expr)

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### **Ambiguous Grammars**

- a grammar is ambiguous if one of its strings has two or more different parse trees
  - grammar G<sub>1</sub> above is unambiguous
- $\bullet \;\;$  ambiguous expression grammar  $G_2$  equivalent to  $G_1$

```
\textit{Expr} \rightarrow \textit{Expr} \; \textit{Op} \; \textit{Expr} \mid (\textit{Expr}) \mid \; \textit{Integer}
Op -> + | - | * | / | % | **
```

- fewer productions and nonterminals, but ambiguous

49

# **Ambiguous Grammars** • ambiguous parse of 5 - 4 + 3 using $G_2$

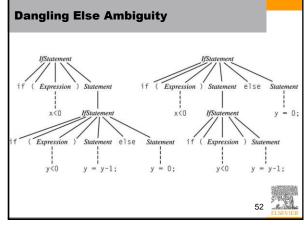
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### **Dangling Else Ambiguity**

• with which if statement does the else associate?

if 
$$(x < 0)$$
  
if  $(y < 0) y = y - 1$ ;  
else  $y = 0$ ;

51



52

54

### **Dangling Else Solutions**

- Python
  - uses indentation to specify nesting level
- C and C++
- associate each else with closest if
  - use { } or begin/end to override
- other languages
  - $\,-\,$  use explicit delimiter to end every conditional (e.g., if..fi)

53

# **Scanning and Parsing Programs** GCD program in C void main () { scanf ("%d %d", &i, &j); while (i != j) if (i > j) i = i - j; else j = j - i; printf ("%d\n", i);

Scannin	g and Paı	rsing Pro	grams	
<ul> <li>tokens</li> </ul>				
void	scanf	while	i	printf
main	(	(	=	(
(	"%d %d"	i	i	"%d\n"
)	,	!=	-	,
{	&	j	j	i
int	i	)	;	)
i	,	if	else	;
,	&	(	j	}
j	j	i	=	
;	)	>	j	
	;	j	-	
		)	i	
				55 ELSEVIER

• identifier

- function name, variable name

- main, x

• keyword

- type names, control structures

- int, if, for, while, return, etc.

• literal

- constants

- 3.14, "hello", 'c'

• operator

- mathematical, specialized

- +, =, sizeof

• delimiter

- (, ), (, ],;

56

Tokens	and Catego	ories			
– must l	d their categories be shown for every t rst two columns sho	•	d to show all		
void main	keyword identifier	scanf	identifier delimiter		
main )	delimiter	( "%d %d"	literal		
,	delimiter	,	delimiter		
int	keyword	&	operator		
i	identifier	i	identifier		
,	delimiter	,	delimiter		
j	identifier	&	operator		
;	delimiter	j	identifier		
		)	delimiter		
		;	delimiter		9-84-50
etc.				57	Eil