CSCI312 Principles of Programming Languages

Chapter 2 Syntax

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Review

Principles of PL

syntax, naming, types, semantics

Paradigms of PL design

imperative, OO, functional, logic

What makes a successful PL

simplicity and readability clarity about binding reliability support abstraction orthogonality efficient implementation

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Thinking about Syntax

The *syntax* of a programming language is a precise description of all its grammatically correct programs.

Precise syntax was first used with Algol 60, and has been used ever since.

Three levels:

- *Lexical syntax*
- *Concrete syntax*
- Abstract syntax

Levels of Syntax

Lexical syntax = all the basic symbols of the language (names, values, operators, etc.)

- Concrete syntax = rules for writing expressions, statements and programs.
- Abstract syntax = internal representation of the program, favoring content over form. E.g.,
 - $-C: if (expr) \dots discard()$
 - Ada: if (expr) then discard then

2.1 Grammars

A *metalanguage* is a language used to define other languages.

- A *grammar* is a metalanguage used to define the syntax of a language.
- *Our interest*: using grammars to define the syntax of a programming language.

2.1.1 Backus-Naur Form (BNF)

- Stylized version of a context-free grammar (cf. Chomsky hierarchy)
- Sometimes called Backus Normal Form
- First used to define syntax of Algol 60
- Now used to define syntax of most major languages

BNF Grammar

Set of *productions*: *P terminal* symbols: *T nonterminal* symbols: *N start* symbol: $S \in N$

A *production* has the form $A \rightarrow \omega$ where $A \in N$ and $\omega \in (N \cup T)^*$

Example: Binary Digits

Consider the grammar: $binaryDigit \rightarrow 0$ $binaryDigit \rightarrow 1$

or equivalently: $binaryDigit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1$

Here, | is a metacharacter that separates alternatives.

2.1.2 Derivations

Consider the grammar: $Integer \rightarrow Digit \mid Integer \ Digit$ $Digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9$

We can *derive* any unsigned integer, like 352, from this grammar.

Derivation of 352 as an Integer

A 6-step process, starting with:

Integer

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Derivation of 352 (step 1)

Use a grammar rule to enable each step:

 $Integer \Rightarrow Integer \ Digit$

Derivation of 352 (steps 1-2)

Replace a nonterminal by a right-hand side of one of its rules:

 $Integer \Rightarrow Integer \ Digit$ $\Rightarrow Integer \ 2$

Derivation of 352 (steps 1-3)

Each step follows from the one before it.

 $Integer \Rightarrow Integer \ Digit$ $\Rightarrow Integer \ 2$ $\Rightarrow Integer \ Digit \ 2$

Derivation of 352 (steps 1-4)

 $Integer \Rightarrow Integer \ Digit$ $\Rightarrow Integer \ 2$ $\Rightarrow Integer \ Digit \ 2$ $\Rightarrow Integer \ 5 \ 2$

Derivation of 352 (steps 1-5)

Integer \Rightarrow Integer Digit \Rightarrow Integer 2 \Rightarrow Integer Digit 2 \Rightarrow Integer 5 2 \Rightarrow Digit 5 2

Derivation of 352 (steps 1-6)

You know you' re finished when there are only terminal symbols remaining.

Integer
$$\Rightarrow$$
 Integer Digit
 \Rightarrow Integer 2
 \Rightarrow Integer Digit 2
 \Rightarrow Integer 5 2
 \Rightarrow Digit 5 2
 \Rightarrow 3 5 2

A Different Derivation of 352

Integer \Rightarrow Integer Digit \Rightarrow Integer Digit Digit \Rightarrow Digit Digit Digit \Rightarrow 3 Digit Digit \Rightarrow 3 5 Digit \Rightarrow 3 5 2

This is called a *leftmost derivation*, since at each step the leftmost nonterminal is replaced. (The first one was a *rightmost derivation*.)

Notation for Derivations

Integer
$$\Rightarrow$$
 * 352

Means that 352 can be derived in a finite number of steps using the grammar for *Integer*.

 $352 \in L(G)$

Means that 352 is a member of the language defined by grammar G.

$$L(G) = \{ \omega \in T^* \mid Integer \Rightarrow^* \omega \}$$

Means that the language defined by grammar G is the set of all symbol strings ω that can be derived as an *Integer*.

Problem in this Grammar

Consider the grammar:

 $Integer \rightarrow Digit \mid Integer \ Digit$ $Digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9$

 $Integer \rightarrow Digit \mid SDigit \; AInteger$ $AInteger \rightarrow Digit \mid AInteger \; Digit$ $Digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9$ $SDigit \rightarrow 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9$

We can derive 031, 0003, 0000

2.1.3 Parse Trees

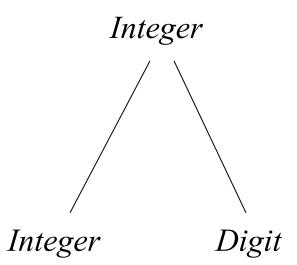
A *parse tree* is a graphical representation of a derivation.

Each internal node of the tree corresponds to a step in the derivation.

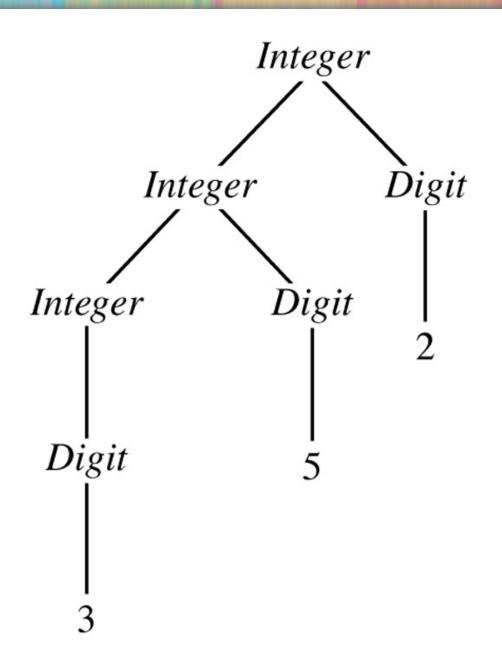
The children of a node represents a right-hand side of a production.

Each leaf node represents a symbol of the derived string, reading from left to right.

E.g., The step *Integer* \Rightarrow *Integer Digit* appears in the parse tree as:



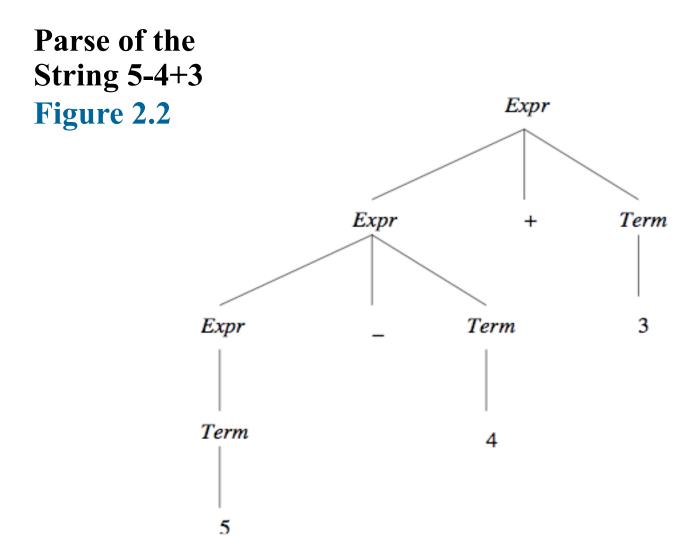
Parse Tree for 352 as an *Integer* Figure 2.1



Arithmetic Expression Grammar

The following grammar defines the language of arithmetic expressions with 1-digit integers, addition, and subtraction.

$$Expr \rightarrow Expr + Term \mid Expr - Term \mid Term$$
$$Term \rightarrow 0 \mid ... \mid 9 \mid (Expr)$$



2.1.4 Associativity and Precedence

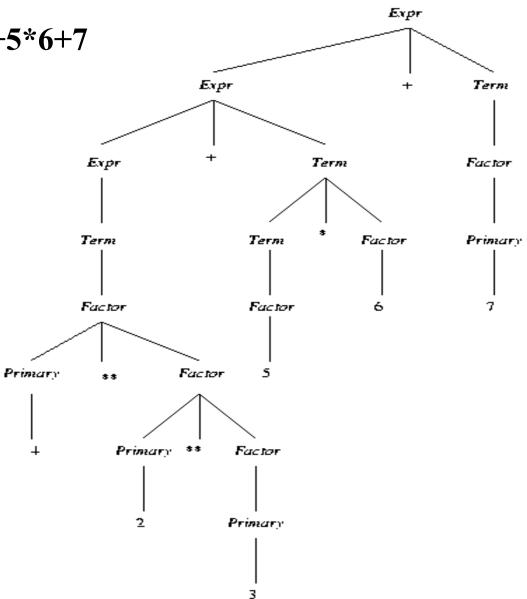
A grammar can be used to define associativity and precedence among the operators in an expression.

E.g., + and - are left-associative operators in mathematics;

* and / have higher precedence than + and -.

Consider the more interesting grammar G_1 :

Expr -> Expr + Term | Expr - Term | Term Term -> Term * Factor | Term / Factor | Term % Factor | Factor Factor -> Primary ** Factor | Primary Primary -> 0 | ... | 9 | (Expr) Parse of 4**2**3+5*6+7 for Grammar *G*₁ Figure 2.3



Associativity and Precedence for Grammar *G*₁ Table 2.1

Precedence	Associativity	Operators
3	right	**
2	left	* / %
1	left	+ -

Note: These relationships are shown by the structure of the parse tree: highest precedence at the bottom, and left-associativity on the left at each level.

2.1.5 Ambiguous Grammars

A grammar is *ambiguous* if one of its strings has two or more different parse trees.

E.g., Grammar G_1 above is unambiguous.

- C, C++, and Java have a large number of
 - operators and
 - precedence levels

Instead of using a large grammar, we can:

- Write a smaller ambiguous grammar, and
- Give separate precedence and associativity (e.g., Table 2.1)

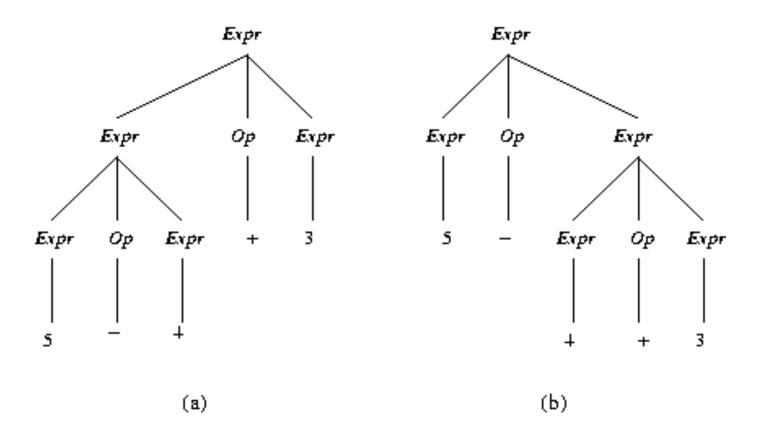
An Ambiguous Expression Grammar G_2

Expr -> Expr Op Expr | (Expr) | IntegerOp -> + | - | * | / | % | **

Notes:

- G_2 is equivalent to G_1 . I.e., its language is the same.
- G_2 has fewer productions and nonterminals than G_1 .
- However, G_2 is ambiguous.

Ambiguous Parse of 5-4+3 Using Grammar G₂ Figure 2.4



The Dangling Else

IfStatement -> if (Expression) Statement | if (Expression) Statement else Statement Statement -> Assignment | IfStatement | Block Block -> { Statements } Statements -> Statements Statement | Statement

Example

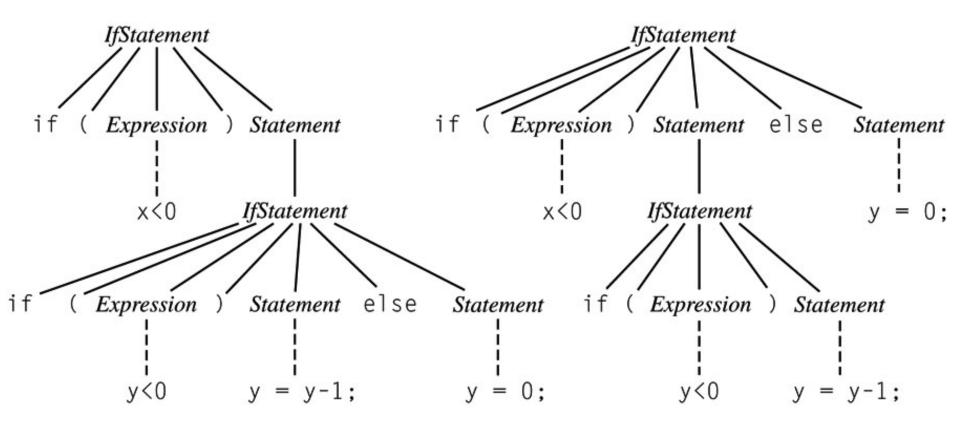
With which 'if' does the following 'else' associate

if
$$(x < 0)$$

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

Answer: *either one!*

The *Dangling Else* Ambiguity Figure 2.5



Solving the dangling else ambiguity

- 1. Algol 60, C, C++: associate each else with closest if; use {} or begin...end to override.
- 2. Algol 68, Modula, Ada: use explicit delimiter to end every conditional (e.g., if...fi)
- 3. Java: rewrite the grammar to limit what can appear in a conditional:

IfThenStatement -> if (Expression) Statement IfThenElseStatement -> if (Expression) StatementNoShortIf else Statement

The category *StatementNoShortIf* includes all except *IfThenStatement*.

2.2 Extended BNF (EBNF)

BNF:

- recursion for iteration
- nonterminals for grouping

EBNF: additional metacharacters

- { } for a series of zero or more
- () for a list, must pick one
- [] for an optional list; pick none or one

EBNF Examples

Expression is a list of one or more Terms separated by
operators + and Expression -> Term { (+ | -) Term }
IfStatement -> if (Expression) Statement [else Statement]

C-style EBNF lists alternatives vertically and uses _{opt} to signify optional parts. E.g., IfStatement:

if (Expression) Statement ElsePart_{opt} ElsePart:

else Statement

EBNF to BNF

We can always rewrite an EBNF grammar as a BNF grammar. E.g.,

 $A \to x \{y\} z$

can be rewritten:

 $\begin{array}{c|c} A \rightarrow x A'z \\ A' \rightarrow & | y A' \end{array}$

(Rewriting EBNF rules with (), [] is left as an exercise.)

While EBNF is no more powerful than BNF, its rules are often simpler and clearer.