## 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

## Contents

2.1 Grammars
2.1.1 Backus-Naur Form
2.1.2 Derivations
2.1.3 Parse Trees
2.1.4 Associativity and Precedence
2.1.5 Ambiguous Grammars
2.2 Extended BNF
2.3 Syntax of a Small Language: Clite
2.3.1 Lexical Syntax
2.3.2 Concrete Syntax
2.4 Compilers and Interpreters
2.5 Linking Syntax and Semantics
2.5.1 Abstract Syntax
2.5.2 Abstract Syntax Trees
2.5.3 Abstract Syntax of Clite

## 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) ... 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:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { binaryDigit } \rightarrow 0 \\
& \text { binaryDigit } \rightarrow 1
\end{aligned}
$$

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

Here, | is a metacharacter that separates alternatives.

### 2.1.2 Derivations

Consider the grammar:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Integer } \rightarrow \text { Digit } \mid \text { Integer Digit } \\
& \text { Digit } \rightarrow 0|1| 2|3| 4|5| 6|7| 8 \mid 9
\end{aligned}
$$

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

## Derivation of 352 as an Integer

A 6-step process, starting with:

Integer

## Derivation of 352 (step 1)

Use a grammar rule to enable each step:

$$
\text { Integer } \Rightarrow \text { Integer Digit }
$$

## Derivation of 352 (steps 1-2)

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Integer } \Rightarrow \text { Integer Digit } \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \text { Integer } 2
\end{aligned}
$$

## Derivation of 352 (steps 1-3)

Each step follows from the one before it.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Integer } \Rightarrow \text { Integer Digit } \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \text { Integer } 2 \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \text { Integer Digit } 2
\end{aligned}
$$

## Derivation of 352 (steps 1-4)

Integer $\Rightarrow$ Integer Digit<br>$\Rightarrow$ Integer 2<br>$\Rightarrow$ Integer Digit 2<br>$\Rightarrow$ Integer 52

## Derivation of 352 (steps 1-5)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Integer } \Rightarrow \text { Integer Digit } \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \text { Integer } 2 \\
& \Rightarrow \text { Integer Digit } 2 \\
& \Rightarrow \text { Integer } 52 \\
& \Rightarrow \text { Digit } 52
\end{aligned}
$$

## Derivation of 352 (steps 1-6)

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Integer } \Rightarrow \text { Integer Digit } \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \text { Integer } 2 \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \text { Integer Digit } 2 \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \text { Integer } 52 \\
& \Rightarrow \text { Digit } 52 \\
& \quad \Rightarrow 352
\end{aligned}
$$

## A Different Derivation of 352

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Integer } \Rightarrow \text { Integer Digit } \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \text { Integer Digit Digit } \\
& \Rightarrow \text { Digit Digit Digit } \\
& \Rightarrow 3 \text { Digit Digit } \\
& \Rightarrow 35 \text { Digit } \\
& \Rightarrow 352
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $G$.

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

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

## Problem in this Grammar

Consider the grammar:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Integer } \rightarrow \text { Digit } \mid \text { Integer Digit } \\
& \text { Digit } \rightarrow 0|1| 2|3| 4|5| 6|7| 8 \mid 9 \\
& \text { Integer } \rightarrow \text { Digit } \mid \text { SDigit AInteger } \\
& \text { AInteger } \rightarrow \text { Digit } \mid \text { AInteger Digit } \\
& \text { Digit } \rightarrow 0|1| 2|3| 4|5| 6|7| 8 \mid 9 \\
& \text { SDigit } \rightarrow 1|2| 3|4| 5|6| 7|8| 9
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $\rightarrow 0|\ldots| 9 \mid($ Expr $)$

## Parse of the String 5-4+3

Figure 2.2


### 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 $\mid$ Expr - Term $\mid$ Term
Term $->$ Term * Factor $\mid$ Term / Factor $\mid$
Term \% Factor | Factor
Factor -> Primary ** Factor $\mid$ Primary
Primary -> $0|\ldots| 9 \mid$ (Expr)


## Associativity and Precedence for Grammar $\boldsymbol{G}_{\mathbf{1}}$

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 diffferent parse trees.
E.g., Grammar $\mathrm{G}_{I}$ 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 $G_{2}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Expr }->\text { Expr Op Expr } \mid \text { (Expr }) \mid \text { Integer } \\
& O p->+\left|-\left.\right|^{*}\right| /|\%|^{* *}
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $\boldsymbol{G}_{\mathbf{2}}$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { if }(x<0) \\
& \quad \text { if }(y<0) y=y-1 \\
& \quad \text { else } y=0
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $\{(+\mid-)$ Term $\}$ IfStatement $->$ if ( Expression ) Statement [ else Statement ]

C-style EBNF lists alternatives vertically and uses ${ }_{\text {opt }}$ to signify optional parts. E.g.,
IfStatement:
if ( Expression) Statement ElsePart ${ }_{\text {opt }}$
ElsePart:
else Statement

## EBNF to BNF

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

$$
A->x\{y\} z
$$

can be rewritten:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A->x A^{\prime} z \\
& A^{\prime}->\mid y A^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

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

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

