

COMP3012/G53CMP: Lecture 2

Defining Programming Languages

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This Lecture

- Programming language definition basics.
- Backus-Naur Form (BNF) and Extended BNF (EBNF)
- Concrete Syntax
 - Lexical syntax for MiniTriangle
 - Context-free syntax for MiniTriangle
- Abstract Syntax
 - Abstract syntax for MiniTriangle
- Representing Abstract Syntax Trees (ASTs)

Syntax and Semantics (1)

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 - Some languages have graphical syntax.
 - **Abstract Syntax**: **trees** representing the essential structure of syntactically valid programs.

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 - **Static Semantics**: the static, at *compile-time*, meaning of programs and program fragments.
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 - **Dynamic Semantics**: what programs and program fragments mean (or do) when executed, at *run-time*.

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- Language definitions (aka **specifications**) can be **formal** or **informal**. Usually they are somewhere in between.

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- The source language syntax must be known to design the scanner and parser properly.
- The target language syntax must be known to generate syntactically correct target code.
- The semantics of both the source and target language must be known to ensure that the translation **preserves the meaning** of source programs; i.e. **compiler correctness**.

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- the **Object Language**: the language being defined
- the **Meta Language**: the language of the definition itself.

Moreover, the semantics of the meta language must be well understood!

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- Most programming languages are defined more or less informally.
- “Informal” does not mean “lack of rigour”: it is possible to be precise also in a natural language.
- An example of a well-written, predominantly informal language specification is that of Java:
<http://java.sun.com/docs/books/jls>
(See e.g. Third Edition, Section 14.9.)

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- **inference rules and logic** for specifying static and/or dynamic semantics
- **denotational semantics** for specifying dynamic semantics.

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- The CFLs capture common programming language ideas such as
 - nested structure
 - balanced parentheses
 - matching keywords like `begin` and `end`.
- Most “reasonable” CFLs can be recognised by a simple machine: a **deterministic pushdown automaton**.

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 - Simple naming conventions used to distinguish terminals and non-terminals:
 - nonterminals: uppercase letters, like A , B , S
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 - Start symbol usually called S .



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 - terminals with **variable spelling** and special symbols are written like *this*
 - The start symbol is often implied by the context.

CFG Notation (3)

For example:

$$\textit{AssignStmt} \rightarrow \underline{\textit{Identifier}} := \textit{Expr}$$

Here,

- *AssignStmt* and *Expr* are nonterminals
- *:=* is a terminal
- *Identifier* is also a terminal, but its possible spellings are defined elsewhere (usually by a *lexical grammar*).

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- Additional EBNF constructs:
 - parentheses for grouping
 - | for alternatives *within* parentheses
 - * for iteration (W&B's notation).
- EBNF is **no more powerful** than BNF: any EBNF grammar can be transformed into BNF.

EBNF: Example

The following EBNF grammar

$$\textit{Block} \rightarrow \mathbf{begin} (\textit{Decl} \mid \textit{Stmt})^* \mathbf{end}$$

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$$\textit{Block} \rightarrow \mathbf{begin} \textit{BlockRec} \mathbf{end}$$
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Thus we see that EBNF can be quite a bit more concise and readable than plain BNF.

EBNF: ISO Notation

Watt & Brown use their own EBNF variant.

The more common variant is the ISO (International Organization for Standardization) version (ISO/IEC 14977:1996):

ISO	W&B
$\{ A \}$	A^*
$[A]$	$(A \mid \epsilon)$

MiniTriangle

The source language in the coursework is called *MiniTriangle* (derived from Watt & Brown).

Example:

```
let
  var y: Integer := 0
in
  begin
    y := y + 1;
    putint(y)
  end
```

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 - **language symbols** or **tokens**
 - **white space**
 - **comments**
- The **Context-Free syntax**.

MiniTriangle Lexical Syntax (1)

- Program* → $(Token \mid Separator)^*$
- Token* → *Keyword* | *Identifier* | *IntegerLiteral* | *Operator*
| , | ; | : | := | = | (|) | eol
- Keyword* → **begin** | **const** | **do** | **else** | **end** | **if** | **in**
| **let** | **then** | **var** | **while**
- Identifier* → *Letter* | *Identifier Letter* | *Identifier Digit*
except *Keyword*
- IntegerLiteral* → *Digit* | *IntegerLiteral Digit*
- Operator* → + | - | * | / | < | <= | == | != | >= | > | && | || | !
- Separator* → *Comment* | space | eol
- Comment* → // (any character except eol)* eol

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- Note! Each individual character of a terminal is actually a terminal symbol! I.e., really:

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Keyword \rightarrow **b e g i n** | **c o n s t** | ...
- Special characters are written like this.
Note! They are single terminal symbols!

MiniTriangle: Tokens

Some valid MiniTriangle tokens:

- `const3` (Identifier)
- `const` (Keyword)
- `42` (Integer-Literal)
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The grammar is *ambiguous*!

A: An implicit “*maximal munch rule*” used to disambiguate!

MiniTriangle Context-Free Syntax (1)

(Small version: other (extended) versions later.)

Program → *Command*

Commands → *Command*

| *Command ; Commands*

Command → *VarExpression := Expression*

| *VarExpression (Expressions)*

| **if** *Expression* **then** *Command* **else** *Command*

| **while** *Expression* **do** *Command*

| **let** *Declarations* **in** *Command*

| **begin** *Commands* **end**

MiniTriangle Context-Free Syntax (2)

Expressions → *Expression*
| *Expression* , *Expressions*

Expression → *PrimaryExpression*
| *Expression* *Operator* *PrimaryExpression*

PrimaryExpression → *IntegerLiteral*
| *VarExpression*
| *Operator* *PrimaryExpression*
| (*Expression*)

VarExpression → *Identifier*

MiniTriangle Context-Free Syntax (3)

Declarations → *Declaration*
| *Declaration ; Declarations*

Declaration → **const** *Identifier* : *TypeDenoter* = *Expression*
| **var** *Identifier* : *TypeDenoter*
| **var** *Identifier* : *TypeDenoter* := *Expression*

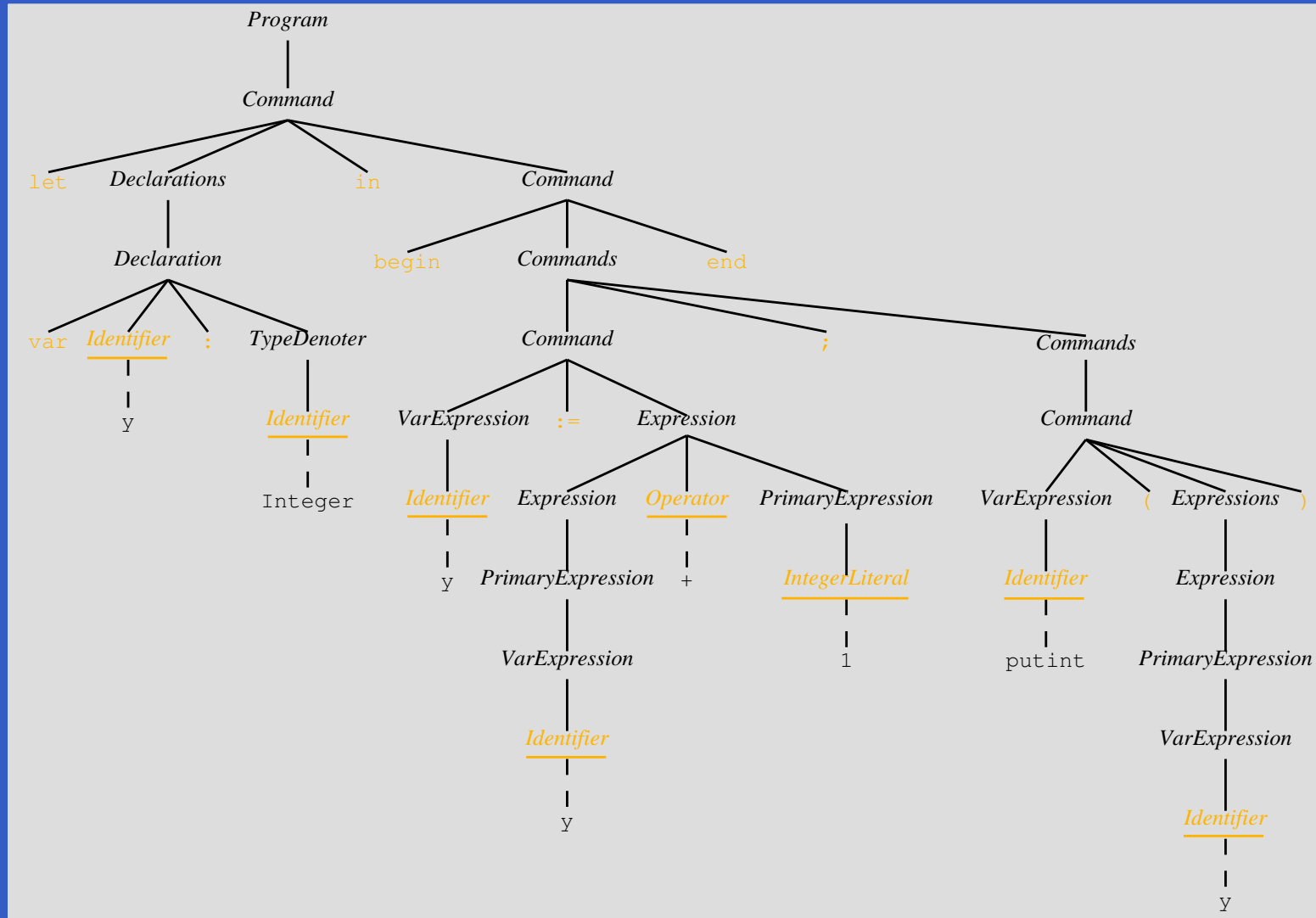
TypeDenoter → *Identifier*

Another MiniTriangle Program

The following is a ***syntactically*** valid MiniTriangle program (slightly changed from earlier to save some space):

```
let
  var y: Integer
in
  begin
    y := y + 1;
    putint(y)
  end
```

Parse Tree for the Program



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Together, the lexical grammar and the context-free grammar specify the ***concrete syntax***.

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In our case, both grammars are expressed in (E)BNF and looks similar.

So ...

- Why not join them?
- Why not do away with scanning, and just do parsing?

Why a Lexical Grammar? (2)

Answer:

- ***Simplicity***: dealing with white space and comments in the context free grammar becomes extremely complicated. (Try it!)

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- **Simplicity**: dealing with white space and comments in the context free grammar becomes extremely complicated. (Try it!)
- **Efficiency**:
 - Working on classified groups of characters (tokens) facilitates parsing: may be possible to use a simpler parsing algorithm.

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- **Efficiency**:
 - Working on classified groups of characters (tokens) facilitates parsing: may be possible to use a simpler parsing algorithm.
 - Grouping and classifying characters by as simple means as possible increases efficiency.

MiniTriangle Abstract Syntax (1)

This grammar specifies the **phrase structure** of MiniTriangle. In addition, it gives node labels to be used when drawing Abstract Syntax Trees.

<i>Program</i>	→	<i>Command</i>	Program
<i>Command</i>	→	<i>Expression</i> := <i>Expression</i>	CmdAssign
		<i>Expression</i> (<i>Expression</i> *)	CmdCall
		<i>Command</i> *	CmdSeq
		if <i>Expression</i> then <i>Command</i>	CmdIf
		else <i>Command</i>	
		while <i>Expression</i> do <i>Command</i>	CmdWhile
		let <i>Declaration</i> * in <i>Command</i>	CmdLet

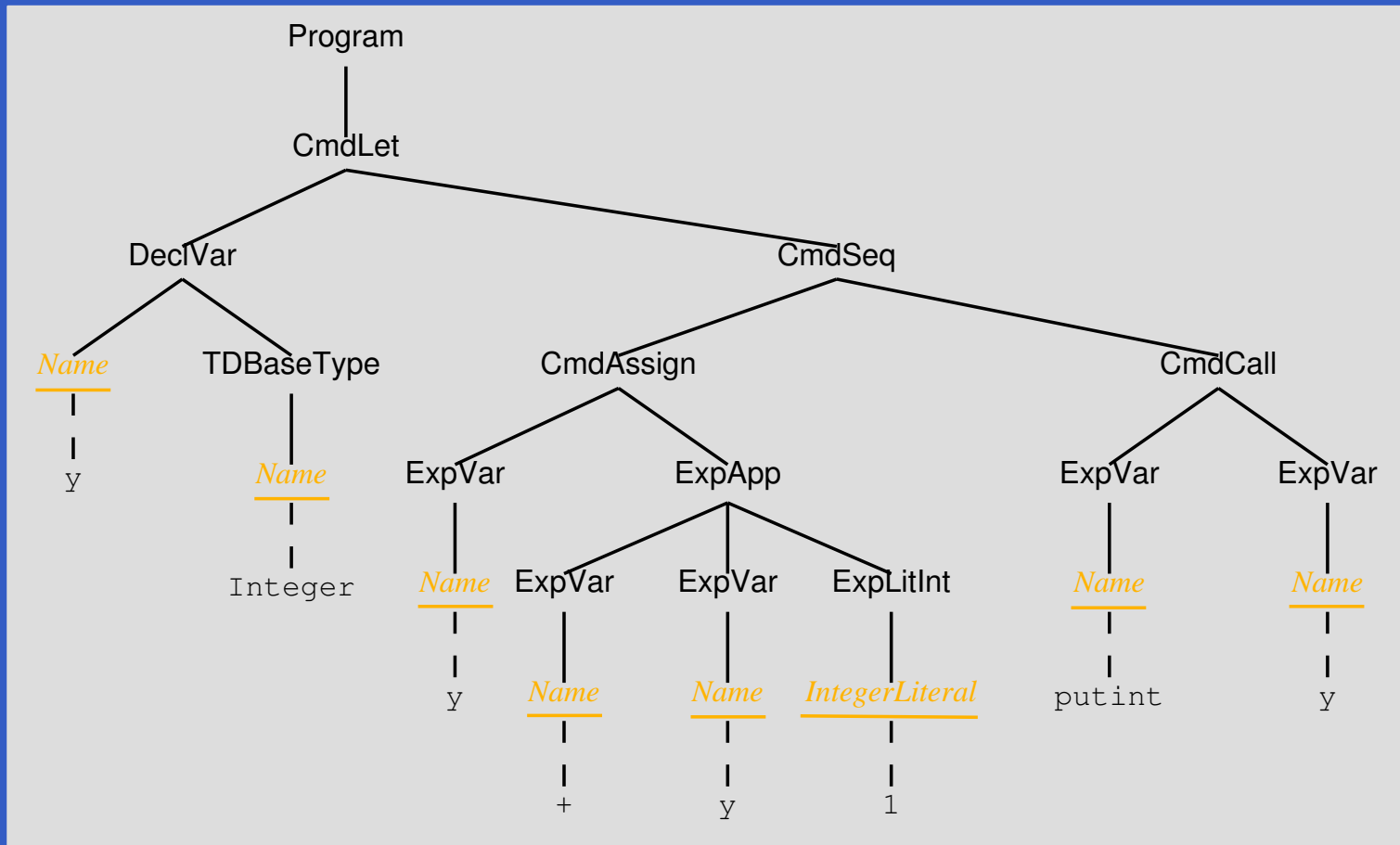
MiniTriangle Abstract Syntax (2)

<i>Expression</i>	→	<u><i>IntegerLiteral</i></u>	ExpLitInt
		<u><i>Name</i></u>	ExpVar
		<i>Expression</i> (<i>Expression</i> *)	ExpApp
<i>Declaration</i>	→	const <u><i>Name</i></u> : <i>TypeDenoter</i>	DeclConst
		= <i>Expression</i>	
		var <u><i>Name</i></u> : <i>TypeDenoter</i>	DeclVar
		(:= <i>Expression</i> ϵ)	
<i>TypeDenoter</i>	→	<u><i>Name</i></u>	TDBaseType

Note: Keywords and other fixed-spelling terminals serve only to make the connection with the concrete syntax clear.

Identifier \subseteq *Name*, *Operator* \subseteq *Name*

Abstract Syntax Tree for the Program



Note: **fixed-spelling** terminals are **omitted** because they are implied by the node labels.

Concrete vs. Abstract Syntax

Key points:

- Concrete syntax: **string** (generated from the lexical and context-free grammars)
- Abstract syntax: **tree**

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(Ways to describe **graphical** concrete syntax are more varied.)

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Mapping of abstract syntax to algebraic datatypes

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- Sequences are represented by lists.
- Options are represented by values of type `Maybe`.
- “Literal” terminals are ignored.

Concrete AST Representation (2)

```
data Command
  = CmdAssign Expression Expression
  | CmdCall Expression [Expression]
  | CmdSeq [Command]
  | CmdIf Expression Command Command
  | CmdWhile Expression Command
  | CmdLet [Declaration] Command
```


Concrete AST Representation (3)

```
data Expression
```

```
  = ExpLitInt Integer
```

```
  | ExpVar Name
```

```
  | ExpApp Expression [Expression]
```

```
data Declaration
```

```
  = DeclConst Name TypeDenoter Expression
```

```
  | DeclVar Name TypeDenoter (Maybe Expression)
```

Concrete AST Representation (4)

In fact, the lab code uses labelled fields:

```
data Command
  = CmdAssign {
      caVar      :: Expression,
      caVal      :: Expression,
      cmdSrcPos  :: SrcPos
    }
  | CmdCall {
      ccProc     :: Expression,
      ccArgs     :: [Expression],
      cmdSrcPos  :: SrcPos
    }
```

Haskell Representation of the Program

```
CmdLet
```

```
(DeclVar "y" (TDBaseName "Integer") Nothing)
(CmdSeq [CmdAssign (ExpVar "y")
         (ExpApp (ExpVar "+")
                 [ExpVar "y",
                  ExpLitInt 1]),
         CmdCall (ExpVar "putint")
                 [ExpVar "y"])])
```

Assumption:

```
type Name = String
```