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# Lecture 2: Syntax and Semantics

Part A: Describing Syntax

Part B: Describing Semantics

Chapter 3

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# Part A: Describing Syntax

# Introduction

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- What is syntax? What does syntax describe?
  - **Syntax**: the form or structure of the expressions, statements, and program units
- **Syntax vs. Semantics**
  - What is semantics? What does semantics describe?
  - **Semantics**: the meaning of the expressions, statements, and program units
  - Syntax and semantics provide **a language's definition**
  - Users of a language definition
    - Other language designers
    - Implementers
    - **Programmers** (the users of the language)

# Methods for Describing Syntax

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- Syntax Diagrams
  - Informal, used in early days
- Formal descriptions
  - Context Free Grammar (CFG)
    - CS3110
  - Backus–Naur Form (BNF)
    - Equivalent to CFG
    - More readable notations
      - E.g.  $E \rightarrow EaT \mid T$  in CFG could be described in BNF as:  
 $\langle \text{Expr} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{Expr} \rangle + \langle \text{Term} \rangle \mid \langle \text{Term} \rangle$
  - Extended BNF (EBNF)
    - A non-recursive way (iterative way) to express CFG

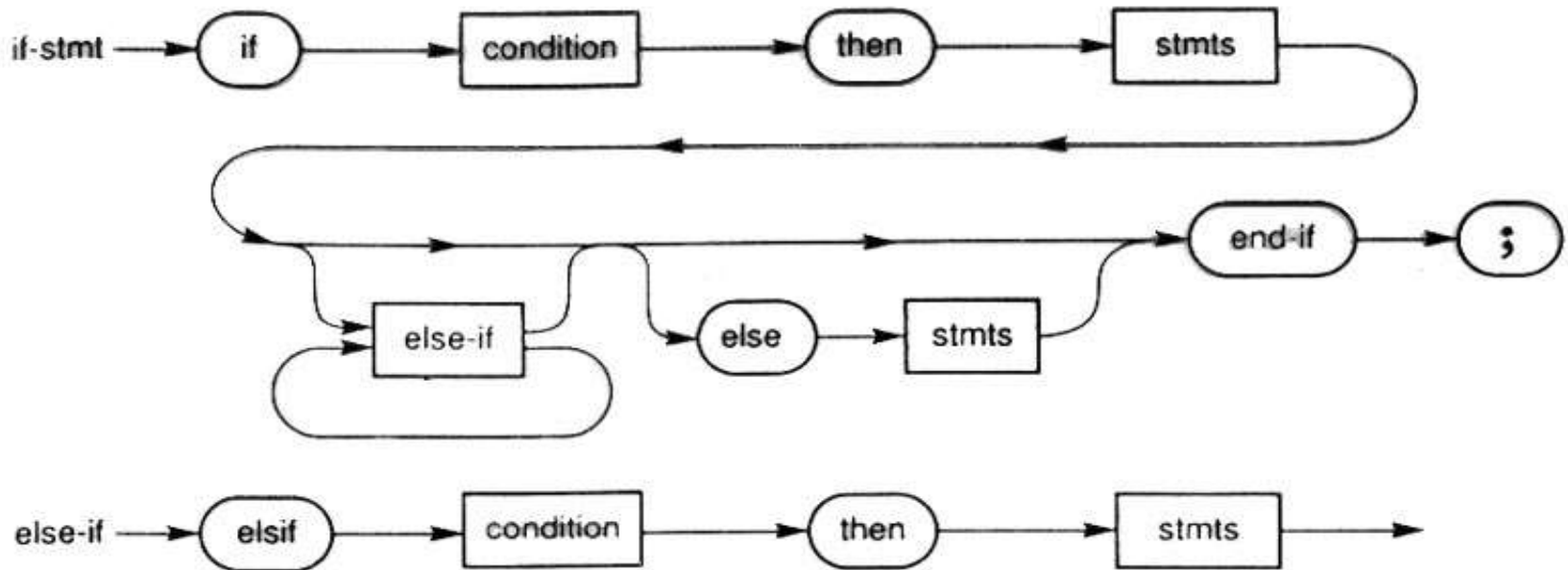
# Describing the syntax

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- Syntax diagram
  - Simple graphical representation, easy to read but not powerful enough to describe complexity in syntax, not support for compiler generator

# Syntax diagram: Example

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More examples

[Database SQL](#)

[Java syntax diagrams](#)

# BNF and Context-Free Grammars

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- **Context-Free Grammars (CFG)**
  - Developed by Noam Chomsky in the mid-1950s
  - Language generators, meant to describe the syntax of natural languages
  - Define a class of languages called context-free languages
  - CS3110: Formal Languages and Automata
- **Backus-Naur Form BNF**
  - Invented by John Backus to describe Algol 58
  - Published in 1959
  - BNF is equivalent to context-free grammars

# Sample BNF Rules

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- An abstraction (or nonterminal symbol) can have more than one RHS

```
<stmt> → <single_stmt>
        | begin <stmt_list> end
<single_stmt> → ...
<stmt_list> → ...
```

A name inside  $\langle \rangle$ , e.g.  $\langle \text{stmt} \rangle$  is a nonterminal symbol to be defined



# An Example Grammar

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$\langle \text{program} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{stmts} \rangle$

$\langle \text{stmts} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{stmt} \rangle \mid \langle \text{stmt} \rangle ; \langle \text{stmts} \rangle$

$\langle \text{stmt} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{var} \rangle = \langle \text{expr} \rangle$

$\langle \text{var} \rangle \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid d$

$\langle \text{expr} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{term} \rangle + \langle \text{term} \rangle \mid \langle \text{term} \rangle - \langle \text{term} \rangle$

$\langle \text{term} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{var} \rangle \mid \text{const}$

- **Ambiguous and unambiguous grammars**
  - The above is an ambiguous grammar
    - Details discussed in CS3110, omitted here.

# Extended BNF (EBNF)

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- Optional parts are placed in brackets **[ ]**

`<fun_call> -> ident '(' '['<expr_list>']' )'`

- Alternative parts of RHSs are placed inside parentheses **()** and separated via vertical bars **|**

`<term> -> <term> (+|-) const`

- Repetitions (0 or more) are placed inside braces **{ }**

`<ident> -> letter {letter|digit}`

- Note: similar to regular expression notation

# Example

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- The following are a few examples of function calls or a Java-like static method calls

`f();      f(a, a+b);    f(x*y, 3*x, 4);`

- From above we summarize the function call as:

A function name followed by (), or

A function name followed by a list of parameters inside the () where each parameter could be an expression.

- Thus, the EBNF syntax rule for the function call could be

`<fun_call> -> id '(['<expr_list>'])'`

- Optional parts are placed in brackets [ ]
  - Parameters are optional

# BNF and EBNF

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- **BNF**

```
<expr> → <expr> + <term>  
        | <expr> - <term>  
        | <term>
```

```
<term> → <term> * <factor>  
        | <term> / <factor>  
        | <factor>
```

- **EBNF**

```
<expr> → <term> { (+ | -) <term> }  
<term> → <factor> { (* | /) <factor> }
```

# Recent Variations in EBNF

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- Alternative right-hand sides are put on separate lines
  - Note: we have followed this convention
- Use of a colon **:** instead of **=>**  
`<expr> : <term> { (+ | -) oneof <term> }`
- Use of **opt** for optional parts
- Use of **oneof** for choices

(For information only.)

# Examples

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- Java Syntax Rules
  - [Java Syntax by Oracle](#)
  - [Java Syntax Diagram and EBNF](#)
- Python Syntax Rules
  - [Python 3 Syntax](#)

Note: Since BNF no longer practically used, we now often use BNF referring to EBNF syntax description.

# Interpreting Syntax Rules: if-stmt

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- Java Syntax Rules
  - [Java Syntax by Oracle](#)
  - [Java Syntax Diagram and EBNF](#)

## Oracle:

IfThenStatement:

if ( Expression ) Statement

IfThenElseStatement:

if ( Expression ) StatementNoShortIf else Statement

IfThenElseStatementNoShortIf:

if ( Expression ) StatementNoShortIf else StatementNoShortIf

## Cui:

if\_statement ::= "if" "(" expression ")" statement [ "else" statement ]

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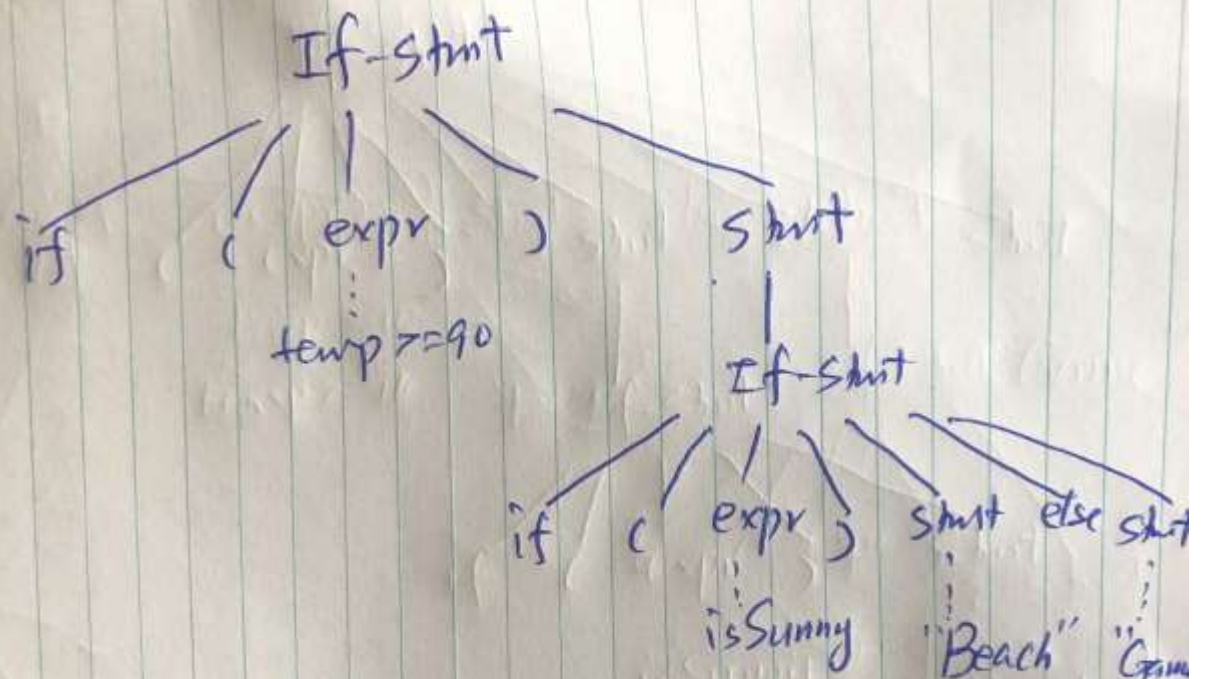
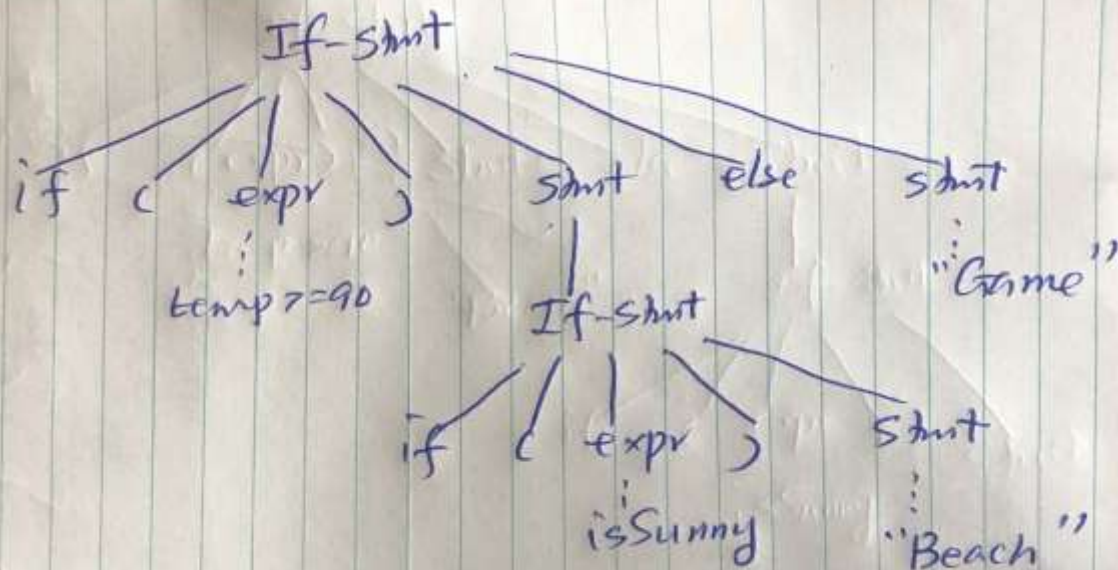
```
if (temperature >= 90) {  
    if (isSunny)  
        System.out.println("Beach");  
} else  
    System.out.println("Game");
```

Today's temperature is **80** and isSunny is **True**, what do you do?

A. Beach      B. Game      C. Nothing      D. Other

Today's temperature is **95** and isSunny is **False**, what do you do?





# Strategies for resolving “dangling else”

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- Adding additional keyword
  - Ruby, VB
  - Pseudo code for demonstrating the concept

```
if (temperature >= 90)
```

```
    if (isSunny)
```

```
        “Beach”;
```

```
    end if;
```

```
else
```

```
    “Game”;
```

```
end if;
```

```
if (temperature >= 90)
```

```
    if (isSunny)
```

```
        “Beach”;
```

```
    else
```

```
        “Game”;
```

```
    end if;
```

```
end if;
```

# Strategies for resolving “dangling else”

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- Using indentation
  - Python
  - Pseudo code for demonstrating the concept

```
if temperature >= 90:
    if isSunny:
        "Beach"
else:
    "Game";
```

```
if temperature >= 90:
    if isSunny:
        "Beach";
else:
    "Game";
```

# Strategies for resolving “dangling else”

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- Requiring { } (block) for then & else branch
  - Go, Rust, Swift
  - Pseudo code for demonstrating the concept

```
if (temperature >= 90) {  
  
    if (isSunny) {  
        “Beach”;  
    }  
    else {  
        “Game”;  
    } //end of inside if  
};
```

```
if (temperature >= 90) {  
  
    if (isSunny) {  
        “Beach”;  
    }  
} //end of inside if  
else {  
    “Game”;  
};
```

# Strategies for resolving “dangling else”

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- Writing unambiguous grammar or additional rule

- Kotlin, C#, JavaScript

- Same as Java

Syntax rule (e.g. Kotlin)

ifExpression (used by primaryExpression) :

    'if' '(' expression ')' (controlStructureBody | ';' )

    | 'if' '(' expression ')' controlStructureBody? ';' ? 'else' (controlStructureBody | ';' )

;

“else matches the closest if” or similar sentence

- Did you find it in language documentation?

- Some languages take this as de facto, not good.

- If **part (2) syntax rule** is an ambiguous grammar, must add additional note/rule to resolve the ambiguity  
some may consider this addition as a semantic rule

# Group Activity and Discussion

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- Find a (formal/trustable) document that describe the syntax of your group's language in a EBNF or similar way (give a link to the document.)
- Show the syntax rule for the if statement in your language
- Rewrite the Java-like if statement (see next slide) in your group's language
- Check if your language's syntax for if statement is ambiguous or not (i.e. able to produce two parse trees for the given if statement or not.)
  - If ambiguous, discuss how the language resolves the ambiguity
  - If not, discuss how the Java-like ambiguity is avoided

# Java-like if statement

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```
if (temperature >= 90) if (isSunny) System.out.println("Beach");  
else System.out.println("Game");
```

# Summary

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- **Syntax diagram** is an easy, graphical method to describe syntax of "simple" programming languages
- BNF and context-free grammars are equivalent meta-languages
  - Well-suited for describing the syntax of programming languages
- **EBNF** (now often simply referred to as **BNF**) is the method now popularly used to describe the syntax of programming languages.



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## Part B: Describing Semantics

# Topics

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- Introduction
- **Attribute grammars**
  - Syntax + semantics
- Semantics descriptions
  - **Operational semantics**
  - Denotational semantics
  - Axiomatic semantics

# Introduction

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- **Semantics:** the meaning of the expressions, statements, and program units
- There is no single widely acceptable notation or formalism for describing semantics
- Several needs for a methodology and notation for semantics:
  - Programmers need to know what statements mean
  - Compiler writers must know exactly what language constructs do
  - Correctness proofs would be possible
  - Compiler generators would be possible
  - Designers could detect ambiguities and inconsistencies

# Describing Semantics

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- Attribute grammar
  - Syntax-directed translations
- Operational semantics
  - Informal way of describing the semantics
  - Popularly used
- Denotational semantics
  - Formal description of semantics
- Axiomatic Semantics
  - Based on formal logic

# Attribute Grammars: Concept

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- Semantic meanings (i.e. actions) associated with CFG rules
- Limited power
- Commonly used cases
  - Arithmetic expression evaluation
  - Type checking of expressions and statements
- CS4110: Compilers and Interpreters
  - Discusses details of “syntax-directed translation”
  - In this class, we will give an example to illustrate the idea behind.

# Example: Attribute Grammar for (simple) Arithmetic Expressions

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Syntax	Semantics
$E \rightarrow E1 + T$	$E.v = E1.v + T.v$
$E \rightarrow T$	$E.v = T.v$
$T \rightarrow T1 * F$	$T.v = T1.v * F.v$
$T \rightarrow F$	$T.v = F.v$
$F \rightarrow \text{num}$	$F.v = \text{num.lexval}$

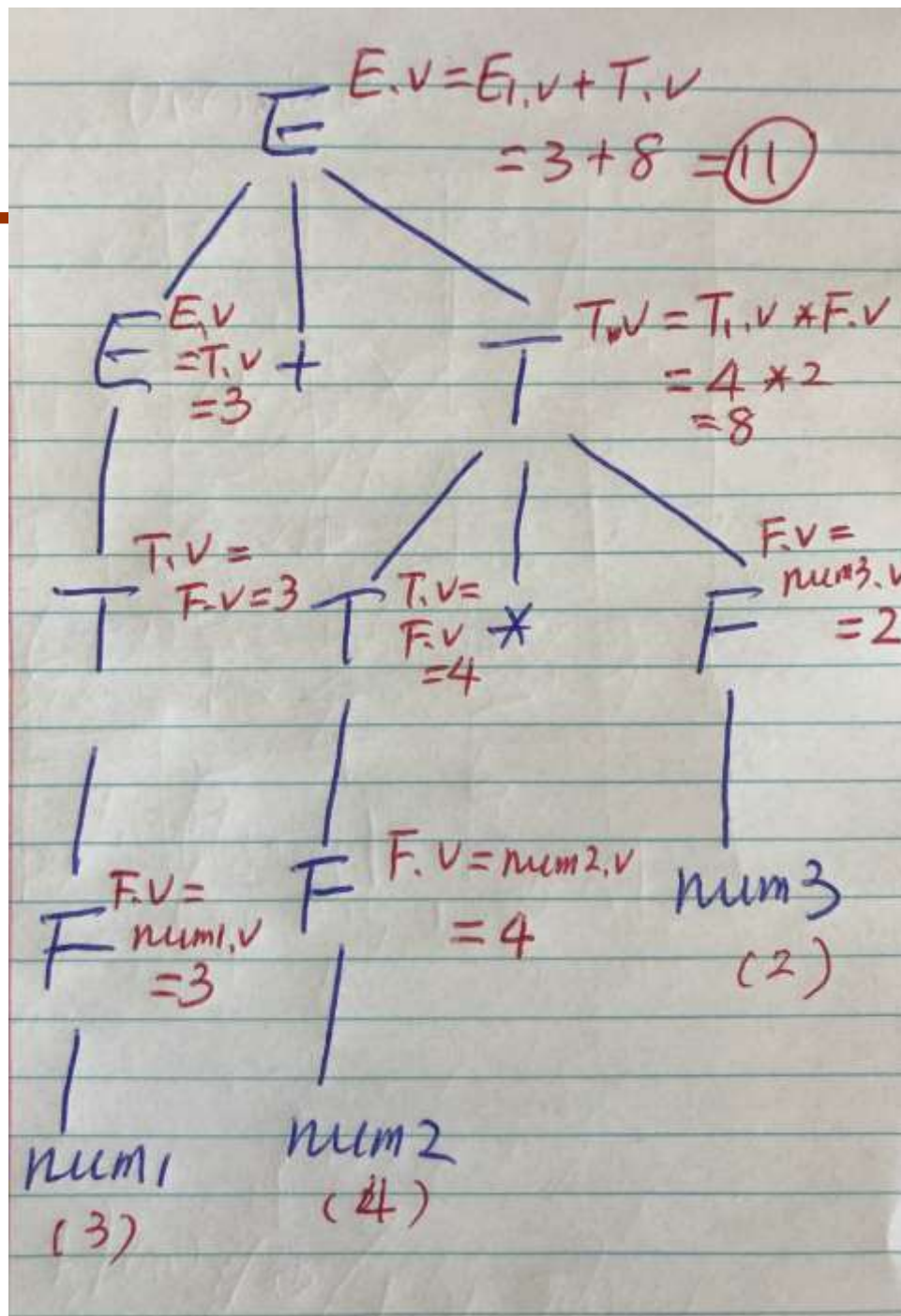
## Notes:

- (1) For simplicity we use E, T, F instead of <Expr>, <Term>, <Factor>
- (2) E, E1 are same symbols in syntax, but need to distinguish them semantically (e.g. 3+4+8, 4+8 syntactically both are expressions, semantically they're different, one means 15, the other 12.)
- (3) E.v here v is the attribute for symbol E. num.lexval refers to the lexical value of a number, e.g. 3 and 4 syntactically both are num but their lexical values are different.

# Attributed Grammar: Semantics Analysis

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- Syntax Directed Translation
  - Evaluate semantic meaning/values along parse tree
- Example:
  - Expression:  $3 + 4 * 2$
  - After lexical analysis:  $\text{num} + \text{num} * \text{num}$ 
    - For semantic analysis, we need to distinguish the symbols, so  
 $\text{num1} + \text{num2} * \text{num3}$
    - Here we simply use  $\text{num.v}$  to refer to a number's lexical value  
 $\text{num1.v} = 3 \quad \text{num2.v} = 4 \quad \text{num3.v} = 2$
  - Now we build a parse tree for  $\text{num} + \text{num} * \text{num}$ 
    - And evaluate the semantic values along the parse tree



This illustrates that based on semantic rules defined in the attribute grammar, the meaning of  $3+4*2$  is 11.



# Operational Semantics

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- Operational Semantics
  - Describe the meaning of a program by executing its statements on a machine, either simulated or actual. The change in the state of the machine (memory, registers, etc.) defines the meaning of the statement
- Levels of uses
  - At the highest level, the interest is in the final result of the execution of a complete program, called *natural operational semantics*.
  - At the lowest level, operational semantics can be used to determine the precise meaning of a program through an examination of the complete sequence of state changes that occur when the program is executed, called *structural operational semantics*.

# Basic Process

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1. design an appropriate intermediate language
  - Here we use assembly like pseudo code as intermediate language, e.g.  

```
a = b + c;           //corresponds to an add instruction  
if a < b goto L      //corresponds to branch less than  
goto L               //corresponds to jump instruction
```
2. Translate HL program to low-level program
  - See next slide for example
3. The meaning of low-level program (as executed on an ideal machine) is the meaning/semantics of the high-level program

# Operational Semantics – Example

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- **Translate** the following for-statement **into assembly (pseudo-code)**

HL code:           count = 0  
                  while (++count < max)  
                            cost = cost + count \* unit\_price;

LL equivalence: (for illustration of basic idea, not optimized)

```
count = 0
Loop:  count = count + 1
       if count >= max goto Exit
       temp = count * unit_price
       cost = cost + temp
       goto Loop
Exit:
```

# Operational Semantics – Practice

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- **Translate** the following for-statement **into assembly (pseudo-code)**

```
for (count = 0; count < max; count ++)  
    cost = cost + count * unit_price;
```

(note: knowledge of CS2640 very helpful.)

# Use case of operational semantics

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- In teaching programming languages
  - Particularly for 1<sup>st</sup> programming language
  - E.g. in explaining the **meaning of a C++ for loop**

C++ statement	meaning
<pre>for (expr1; expr2; expr3)   { ...stmts ... }</pre>	<pre>expr1 Loop: v= expr2       if v == 0 goto Out       ... stmts ...       expr3       goto Loop Out:</pre>

# Operational Semantics: Practice

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- Please define the meaning of a C++ if statement

```
if (a < b) {  
    count--;  
    sum += count * b;  
}  
else {  
    a *= b;  
    b /= count;  
}
```

# Denotational Semantics

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- Originally developed by Scott and Strachey (1970)
- Based on recursive function theory
- Provides a rigorous way to think about programs
- The most abstract semantics description method
- The basic idea is to recursively map the syntactic units to semantic domain which mimics memory states
- Because of its complexity, of little use to language users
- Details omitted here

# Axiomatic Semantics

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- Based on formal logic (predicate calculus)
- Original purpose: formal program verification
- Axioms or inference rules are defined for each statement type in the language (to allow transformations of logic expressions into more formal logic expressions)
  - Recall inference rules from CS1300
- The logic expressions are called *assertions*
  - *Preconditions*: prior to the assertion
  - *Postconditions*: after the assertion
- The semantics of a program is a mapping from preconditions to postconditions
- Details omitted here



# Summary

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- An **attribute grammar** is a descriptive formalism that can describe both the syntax and the semantics of a language
  - Limited power in semantics description
- Three primary methods of semantics description
  - Operational, denotational, axiomatic
  - **Operational semantics** widely used to (informally) describe the meaning of program constructs

# Learning Objectives

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- After Lecture 3, you should be able to
  - Name the methods used to describe syntax and semantics
  - Explain the meaning of a BNF or EBNF rule
  - Write EBNF rules for simple language constructs
  - Discuss the ambiguity issues in language constructs
  - Translate simple Java-like statements into intermediate codes with equivalency in semantics