

# Software II: Principles of Programming Languages

## Lecture 3 – Formal Descriptions of a Programming Language

# Lexics vs. Syntax Vs. Semantics

- Lexics refers to issues regarding the assembly of words that comprise a statement.
- Syntax refers to issues regarding the grammar of a statement.
- Semantics refers to issues regarding the meaning of a statement.

# Lexical Structure of Programming Languages

- It was believed in the early days of programming language development that it was sufficient to be able specify the syntax of a programming language. We now know that this is not enough.
- This led to the development of context-free grammars and Backus-Naur Form.

# Programming Language Syntax

- Syntax is defined as “*the arrangement of words as elements in a sentence to show their relationship.*”
- Syntax provides a great deal of information that we need to understand a program and to guide its translation.
- Example  
 $2 + 3 \times 4 = 14$  (*not 20 – multiplication takes precedence*)

# Programming Language Semantics

- Semantics is defined as “*the meaning of a symbol or set of symbols.*”
- This is equally important in translating a programming correctly and may be more difficult to express unambiguously.

# Tokens

- The lexical structure of program consists of sequence of characters that are assembled into character strings called lexemes which have directly related to tokens, the element of a languages grammar to which they correspond.
- Tokens fall into several distinct categories:
  - reserved words
  - literals or constants
  - special symbols such as `< = +`
  - identifiers, such as `x24`, `average`, `balance`

# Reserved Words and Standard Identifiers

- Reserved words serve a special purpose within the syntax of a language; for this reason, they are generally not allowed to be used as user-defined identifiers.
- Reserved words are sometimes confused with standard identifiers, which are identifiers defined by the language, but serve no special syntactic purpose.
- The standard data types are standard identifiers in Pascal and Ada.

# Free- and Fixed-Field Formats

- Fixed-field format is a holdover from the day of punch cards
  - A fixed field syntax uses the positioning within a line to convey information.
  - E g., FORTRAN, COBOL and RPG use fixed-field formats.
  - SNOBOL4 uses the first character on the line to distinguish between statement labels, continuations and comments
- Free-field formats allow program statements to be written anywhere on a line without regard to position on the line or to line breaks.



# Delimiting Lexemes

- Most languages work with lexemes of differing length; this could create problems.
  - If the input is **doif** is the lexeme **doif** or are there two lexemes **do** and **if**?
  - The easiest way to handle this is to use the principle of longest substring, i.e., the longest possible string is the lexeme.
- As a result, we typically use white space as a delimiter separating lexemes in a source file.

# Scanning FORTRAN

- FORTRAN breaks many of the rules of lexical analysis
- FORTRAN ignores white space, which leads to:

```
DO 99 I = 1, 10
```

**vs**

```
DO 99 I = 1.10
```

- FORTRAN allows keywords to be defined as variables:

```
IF = 2
```

```
IF (IF.LT.0)  IF = IF + 1
```

```
ELSE IF = IF + 2
```

# Regular Expressions

- The lexemes of a programming languages are described formally by the use of regular expressions, where there are 3 operations, concatenation, repetition and selection:
  - $a|b$  denotes a *or* b.
  - $ab$  denotes a *followed by* b
  - $(ab)^*$  denotes a followed by b *zero or more times*
  - $(a|b)c$  denotes a or b followed by c

# Extending Regular Expressions

- There are other operators that we can add to regular expression notations that make them easier to write:

**[a-z]**      any character from **a** through **z**

**r+**   one or more occurrences of **r**

**?**   An optional term

**.**   Any one character

- Examples

**[0-9]+**                      describes an integer

**[0-9]+ (\.[0-9]+)?**       describes an unsigned real

# What Is A Grammar?

The grammar of a language is expressed formally as

**G** = (**T**, **N**, **S**, **P**) where

**T** is a set of *terminals* (the basic, atomic symbols of a language).

**N** is a set of *nonterminals* (symbols which denote particular arrangements of terminals).

**S** is the *start symbol* (a special nonterminal which denotes the program as a whole).

**P** is the set of *productions* (rules showing how terminals and nonterminal can be arranged to form other nonterminals).

# An Example Of A Grammar?

- We can describe the manner in which sentences in English are composed:

1.  $\overline{\text{sentence}} \rightarrow \text{noun-phrase verb-phrase}.$
2.  $\text{noun-phrase} \rightarrow \text{article noun}$
3.  $\text{article} \rightarrow \mathbf{a} \mid \mathbf{the}$
4.  $\text{noun} \rightarrow \mathbf{girl} \mid \mathbf{dog}$
5.  $\text{verb-phrase} \rightarrow \text{verb noun-phrase}$
6.  $\text{verb} \rightarrow \mathbf{sees} \mid \mathbf{pets}$

*Start  
symbol*

*Non-  
terminals*

*Terminals*

# Parsing A Sentence

- Let's examine the sentence “*the girl sees a dog.*”

*sentence*  $\Rightarrow$  *noun-phrase verb-phrase* . (Rule 1)

*sentence*  $\Rightarrow$  *article noun verb-phrase* . (Rule 2)

*sentence*  $\Rightarrow$  **the** *noun verb-phrase* . (Rule 3)

*sentence*  $\Rightarrow$  **the girl** *verb-phrase* . (Rule 4)

*sentence*  $\Rightarrow$  **the girl** *verb noun-phrase* . (Rule 5)

*sentence*  $\Rightarrow$  **the girl sees** *noun-phrase* . (Rule 6)

*sentence*  $\Rightarrow$  **the girl sees** *article noun* . (Rule 2)

*sentence*  $\Rightarrow$  **the girl sees a** *noun* . (Rule 3)

*sentence*  $\Rightarrow$  **the girl sees a dog** . (Rule 3)

# Context –Free Grammars and BNFs

- Context-Free grammars are grammars where non-terminals (collections of tokens in a language) always are deconstructed the same way, *regardless of the context* in which they are used.
- BNF (Backus-Naur form) is the standard notation or *metalanguage* used to specify the grammar of the language.



# Backus-Naur Form

BNF (*B*ackus-*N*aur *F*orm) is a metalanguage for describing a context-free grammar.

- The symbol  $::=$  (or  $\rightarrow$ ) is used for *may derive*.
- The symbol  $|$  separates alternative strings on the right-hand side.

Example       $E ::= E + T \mid T$   
                   $T ::= T * F \mid F$   
                   $F ::= \text{id} \mid \text{constant} \mid (E)$

where E is *Expression*, T is *Term*, and F is *Factor*

# Syntax

- We can use BNF to specify the syntax of a programming language, and determine if we have a ***syntactically correct program***.
- Syntactic correctness does not mean that a program is semantically correct. We could write:  
**The home/ ran/ girl**  
and recognize that this is nonsensical even if the grammar is correct.
- A language is a set of finite-length strings with characters chosen from the language's alphabet.
  - This includes the set of all programs written in *<fill in your favorite programming language>* .

# Grammar For Simple Assignment Statements

$\langle \text{assignment statement} \rangle ::= \langle \text{variable} \rangle = \langle \text{arithmetic expression} \rangle$

$\langle \text{arithmetic expression} \rangle ::= \langle \text{term} \rangle \mid \langle \text{arithmetic expression} \rangle + \langle \text{term} \rangle \mid$   
 $\langle \text{arithmetic expression} \rangle - \langle \text{term} \rangle$

$\langle \text{term} \rangle ::= \langle \text{primary} \rangle \mid \langle \text{term} \rangle \times \langle \text{primary} \rangle \mid \langle \text{term} \rangle / \langle \text{primary} \rangle$

$\langle \text{primary} \rangle ::= \langle \text{variable} \rangle \mid \langle \text{number} \rangle \mid (\langle \text{arithmetic expression} \rangle)$

$\langle \text{variable} \rangle ::= \langle \text{identifier} \rangle \mid \langle \text{identifier} \rangle [\langle \text{subscript list} \rangle]$

$\langle \text{subscript list} \rangle ::= \langle \text{arithmetic expression} \rangle \mid \langle \text{subscript list} \rangle, \langle \text{arithmetic expression} \rangle$

# Generating Strings

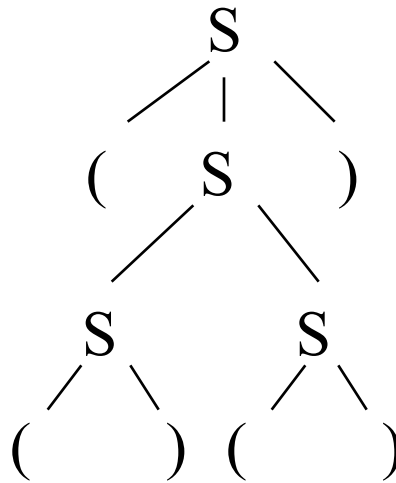
- To generate strings that belong to our language, we use a single-replacement rule: the generation of strings in our language all begin with a single symbol which we replace with the right-hand side of a production:
- $S \rightarrow SS \mid ( S ) \mid ( )$
- We can generate the string:  $(( ) ( ) )$

$S \Rightarrow ( S ) \Rightarrow ( S S ) \Rightarrow ( ( ) S ) \Rightarrow ( ( ) ( ) )$

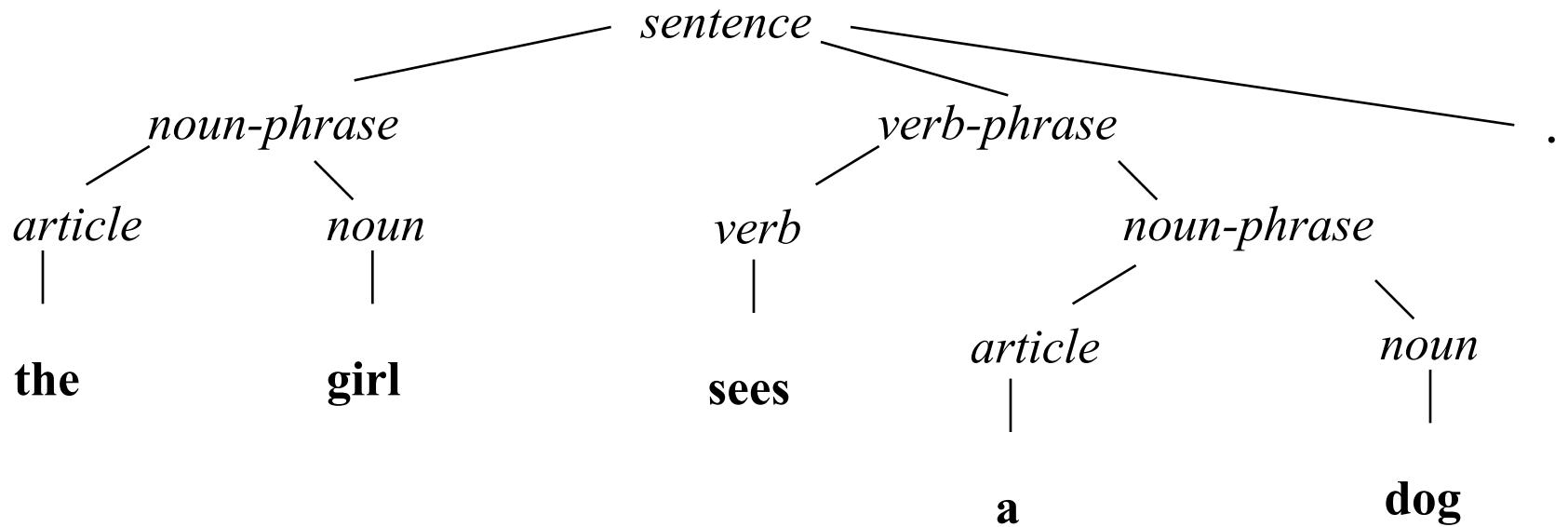
sentential forms

sentence

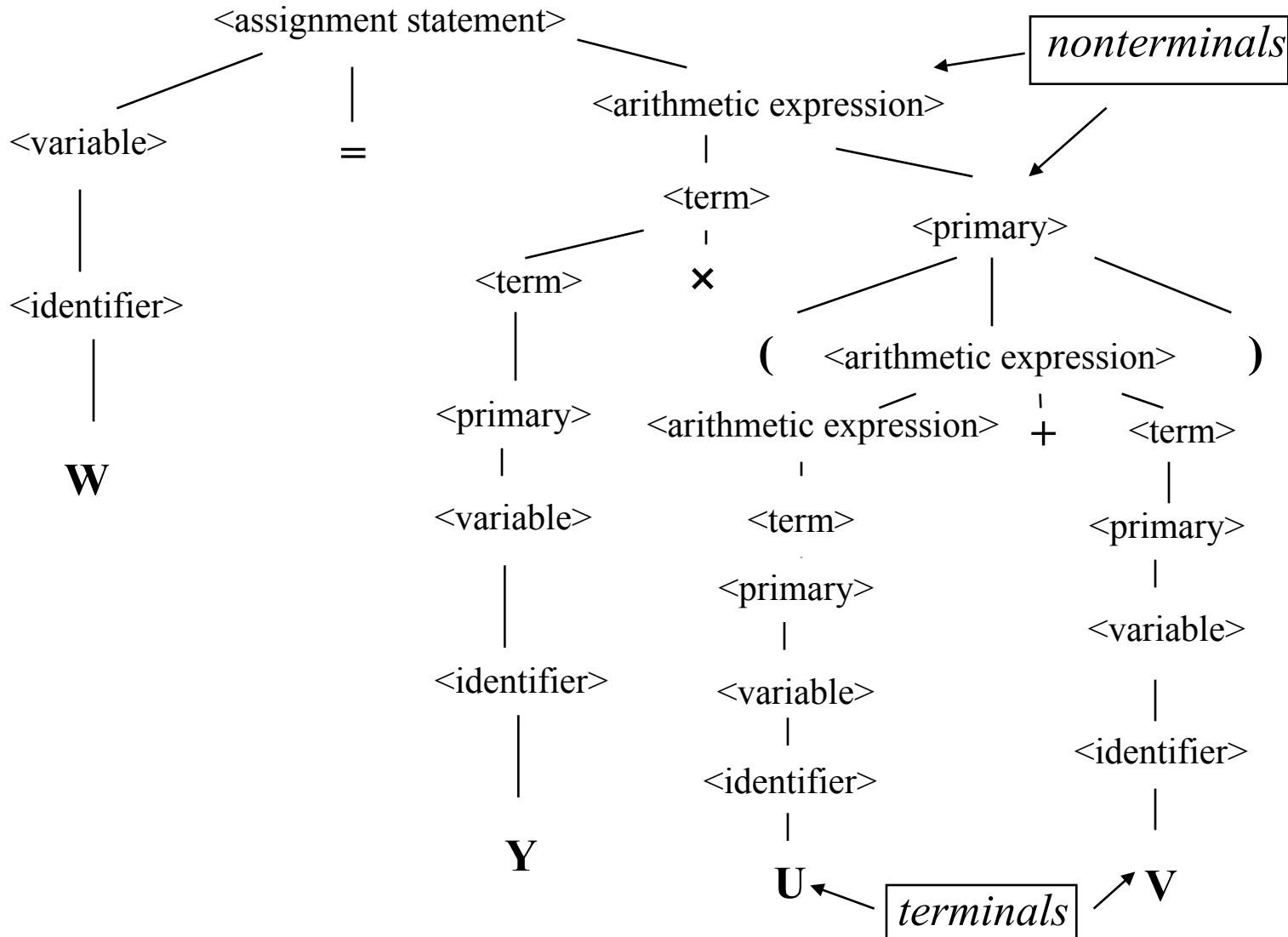
# Parse Tree For ( ( ) ( ) )



# Parse Tree for “The girl sees a dog”



# Parse Tree for an Assignment Statement



# Using BNF To Specify Regular Expressions

- We can also use BNF to specify how we assemble the words that comprise our language:

```
<digit> ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8  
           | 9
```

```
<unsigned integer> ::= <digit> | <unsigned  
integer> <digit>
```

- These strings are much simple that the ones that comprise programs and are called *regular expressions*.



# Example - Another Expression Grammar

- Let's take a look at another simple expression grammar:

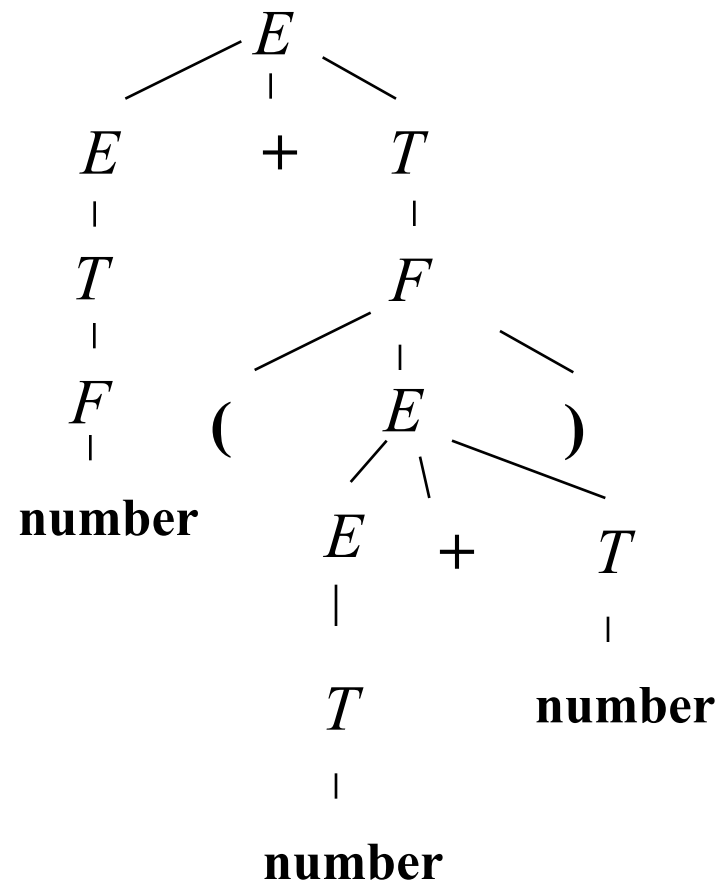
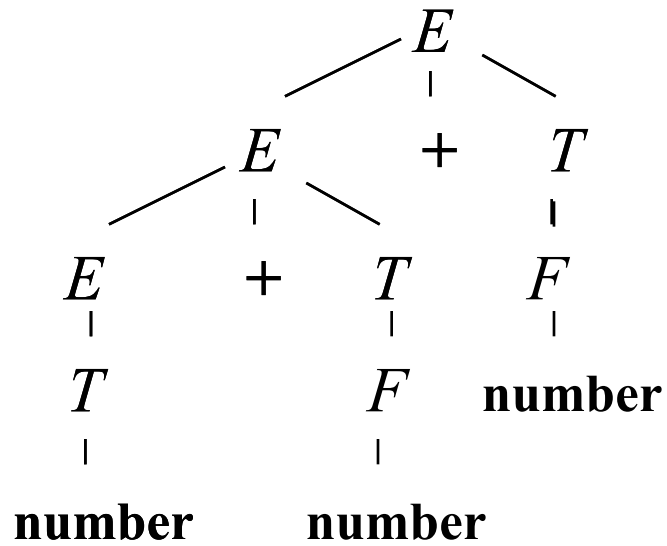
$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$$

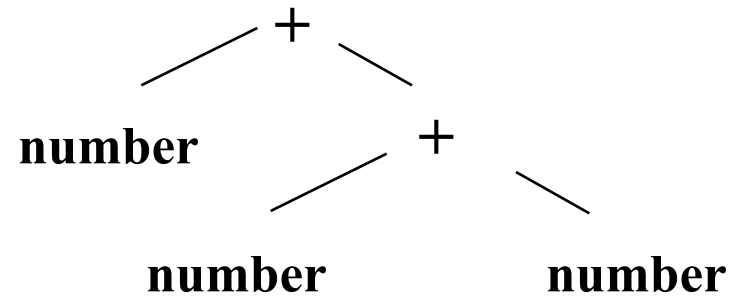
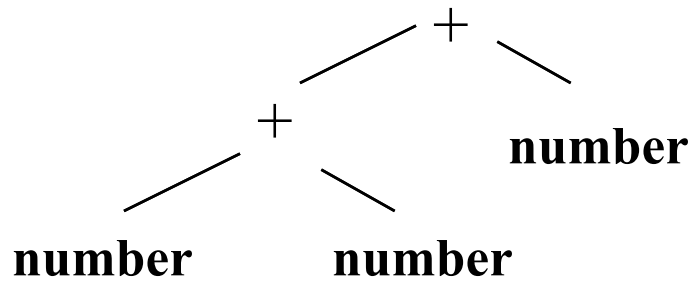
$$F \rightarrow (E) \mid \mathbf{number}$$

- Let's parse the expressions  $3 + 4 + 5$  and  $3 + (4 + 5)$

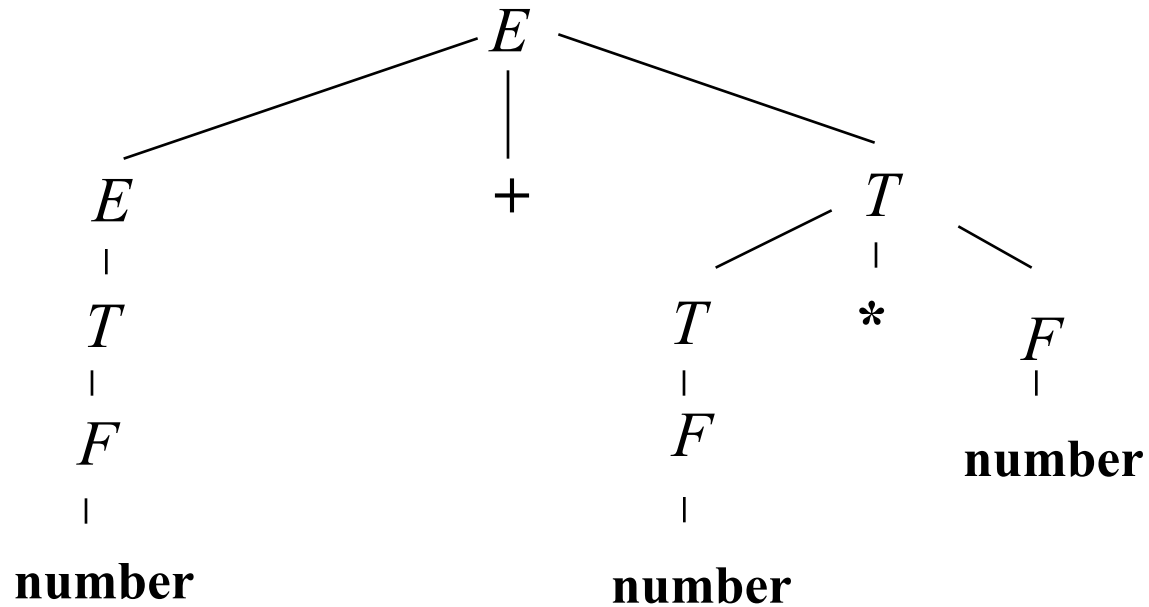
# Expression Parse Trees



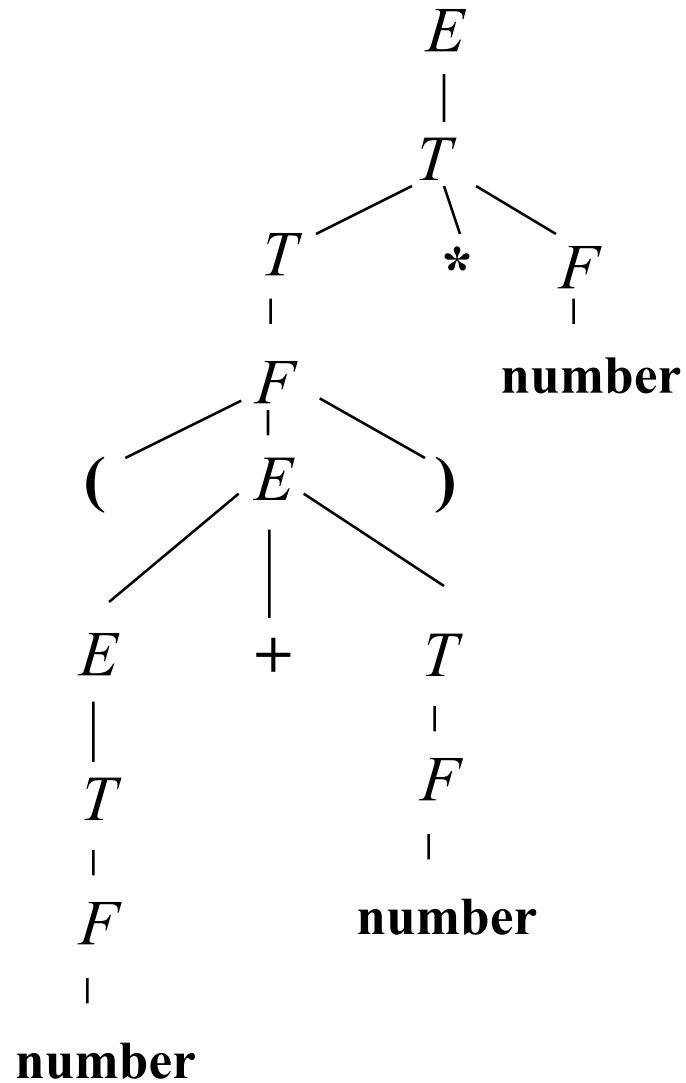
# Abstract Syntax Trees for Expression



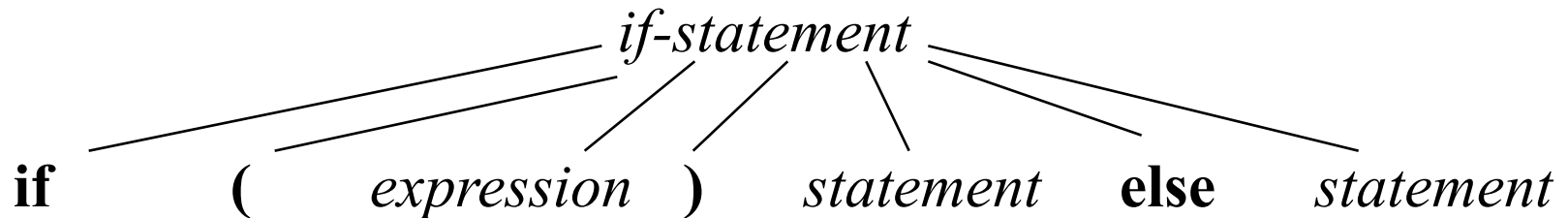
# Parsing $3 + 4 * 5$



# Parsing $(3 + 4) * 5$

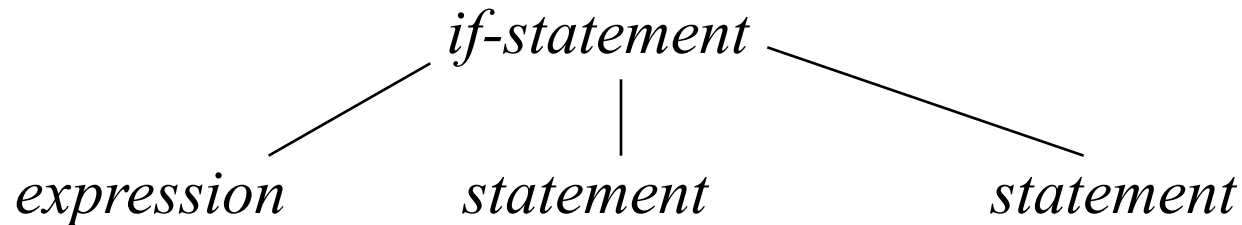


# Parse Tree For If-Then-Else



*if-statement*  $\rightarrow$  **if** ( *expression* ) *statement* **else** *statement*

# Abstract Syntax Tree For If-Then-Else



*if-statement*  $\rightarrow$  **if** ( *expression* ) *statement* **else** *statement*

# Extended Backus-Naur Form

EBNF (*E*xtended *B*ackus-*N*aur *F*orm) adds a few additional metasympols whose main advantage is replacing recursion with iteration.

- $\{a\}$  means that  $a$  occurs zero or more times.
- $[a]$  means that  $a$  appears once or not at all.

Example      Our expression grammar can become:

$$E ::= T \{ + T \}$$
$$T ::= F \{ * F \}$$
$$F ::= \text{id} \mid \text{constant} \mid (E)$$

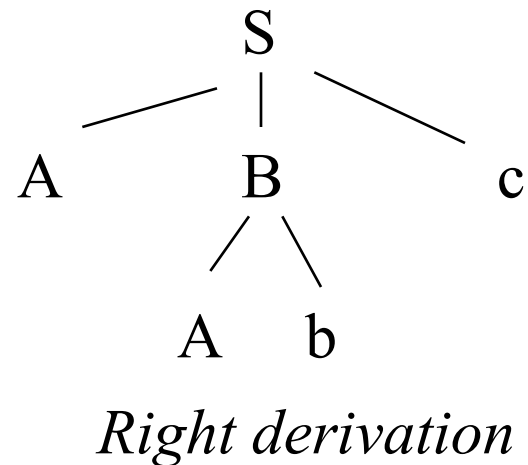
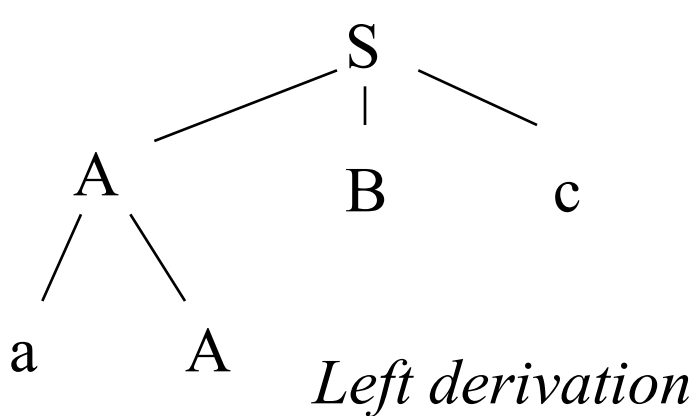


# Left and right derivations

Remember our grammar:

$$S ::= A B c$$
$$A ::= a A \mid b$$
$$B ::= A b \mid a$$

How do we parse the string *abbbc*?



# Ambiguity

- Any grammar that accurately describes the language is equally valid.
- Sometimes, there may be more than one way to parse a program correctly. If this is the case, the grammar is said to be ambiguous.
- **They /are flying / planes.**  
**They are/ flying planes.**
- Ambiguity (which is NOT desirable) is usually a property of the grammar and not of the language itself.

# Ambiguous grammars

- While there may be an infinite number of grammars that describe a given language, their parse trees may be very different.
- A grammar capable of producing two different parse trees for the same sentence is called *ambiguous*. Ambiguous grammars are highly undesirable.

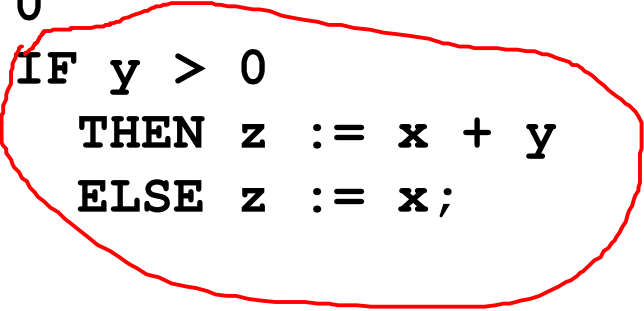
# Is it IF-THEN or IF-THEN-ELSE?

The IF-THEN=ELSE ambiguity is a classical example of an ambiguous grammar.

*Statement ::=       if Expression then Statement else Statement*  
*| if Expression then Statement*

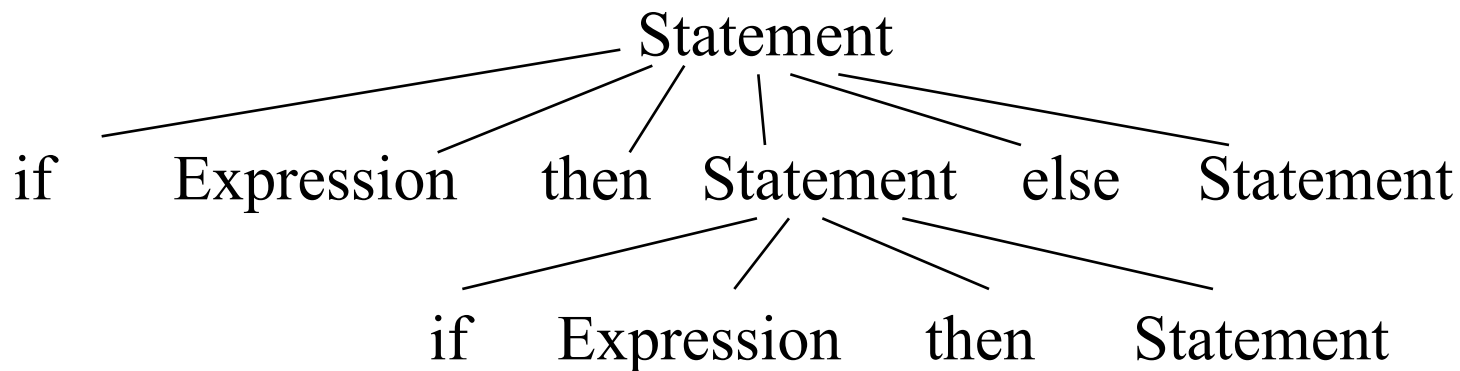
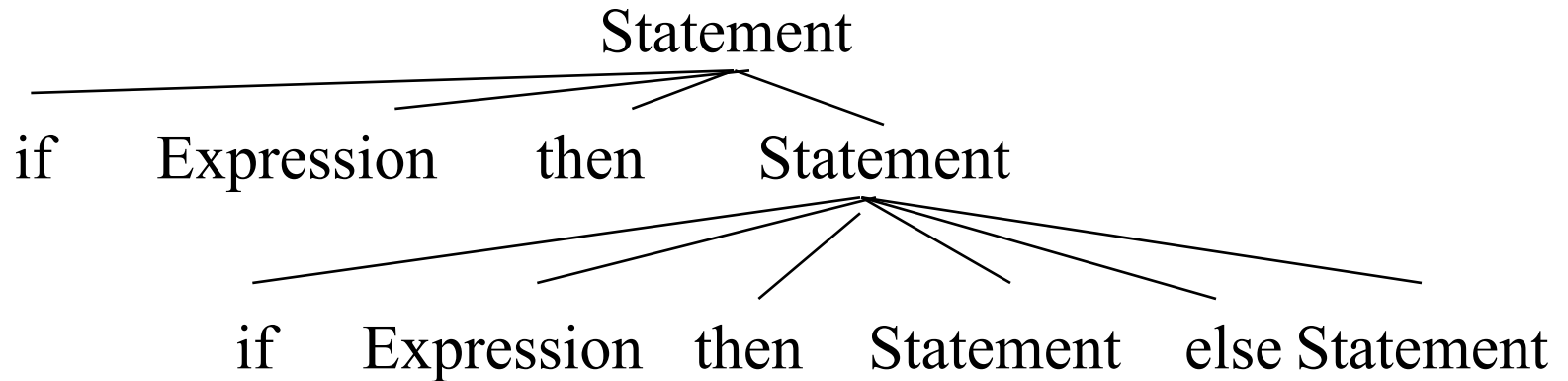
How would you parse the following string?

```
IF x > 0
  THEN IF y > 0
        THEN z := x + y
        ELSE z := x;
```



## Is it IF-THEN or IF-THEN-ELSE? (continued)

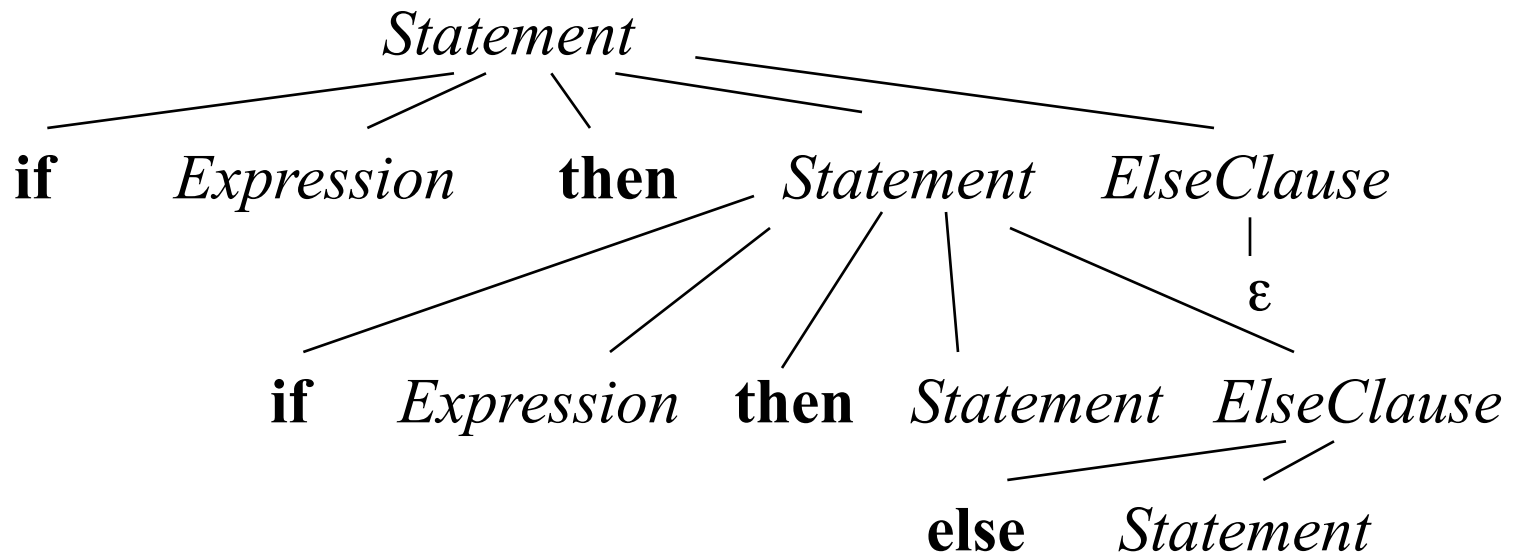
There are two possible parse trees:



Is it IF-THEN or IF-THEN-ELSE? (continued)

*Statement* ::=     **if** *Expression* **then** *Statement* *ElseClause*

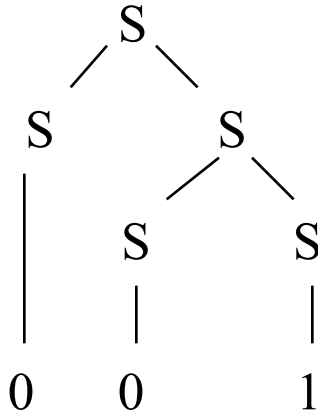
*ElseClause* ::=     **else** *Statement* |  $\epsilon$



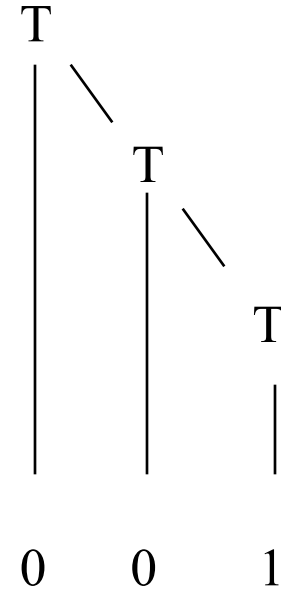
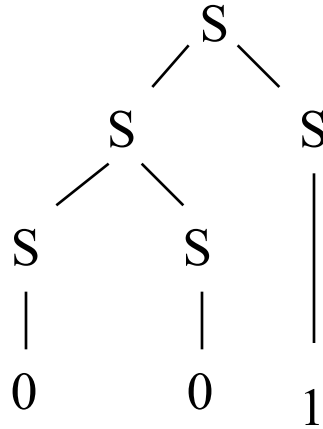
# Ambiguous Languages

- If every grammar in a language is ambiguous, we say that the language is inherently ambiguous.
- If we have two grammars:  
 $G_1: S \rightarrow SS \mid 0 \mid 1$   
 $G_2: T \rightarrow 0T \mid 1T \mid 0 \mid 1$   
 $G_1$  is ambiguous;  $G_2$  is not; therefore the language is **NOT** inherently ambiguous

# Ambiguity in Grammars



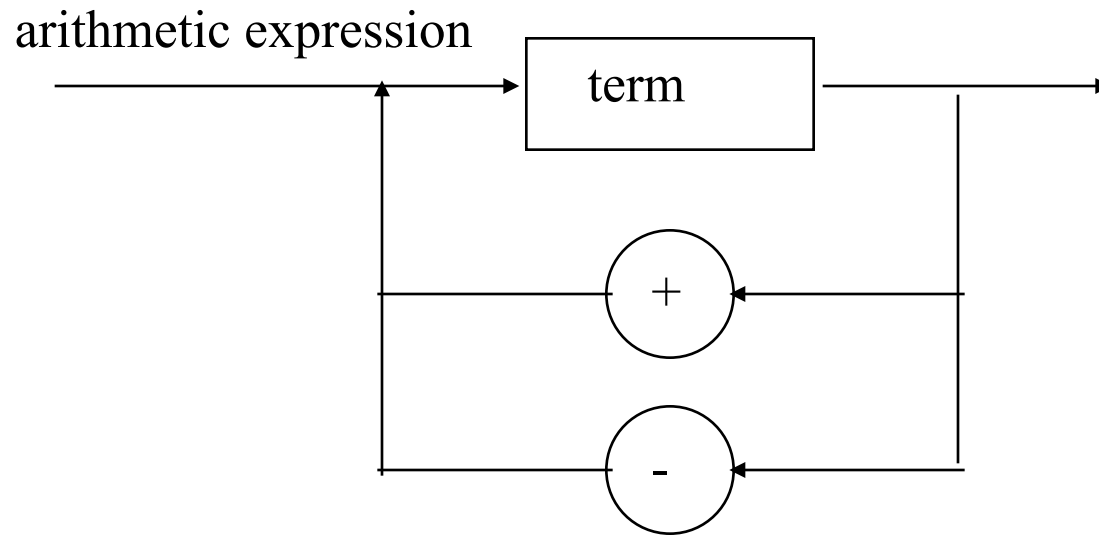
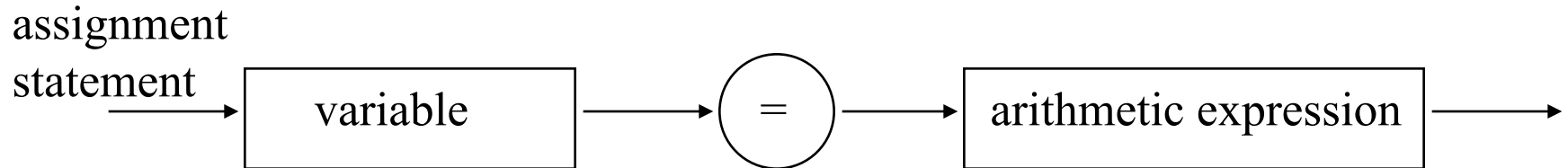
G1 : Ambiguous Grammar



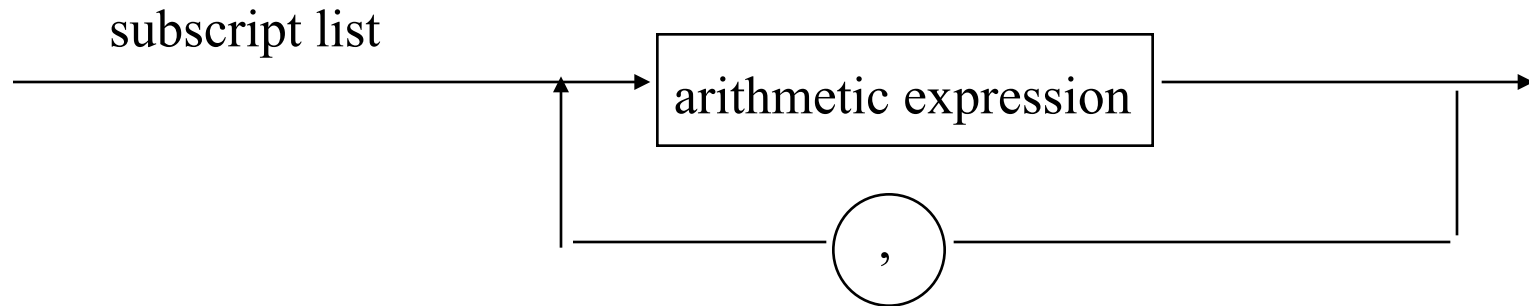
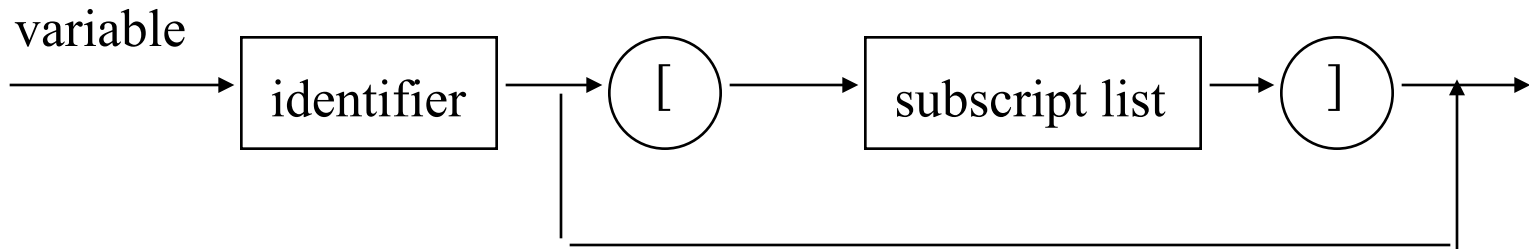
G2: Unambiguous Grammar



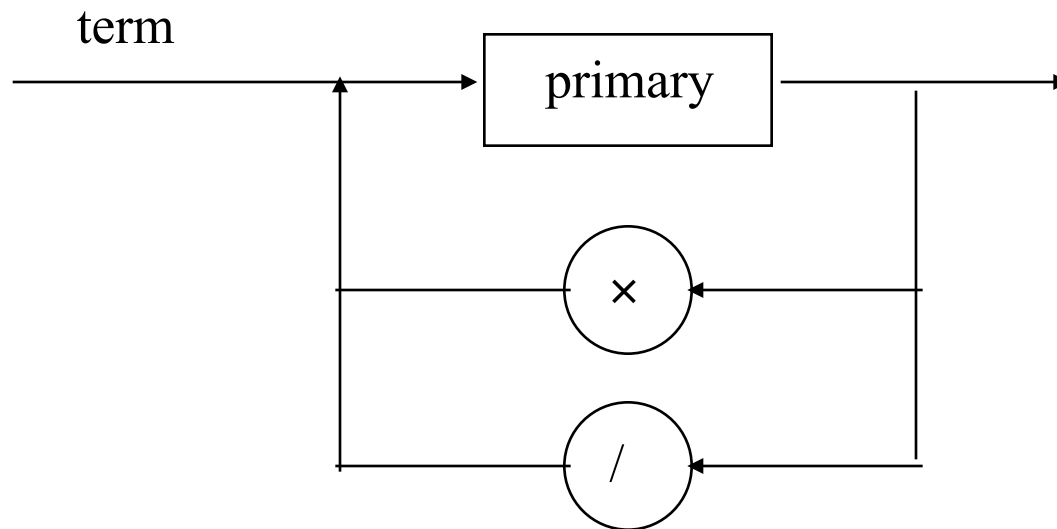
# Syntax Charts for Simple Assignment Statements



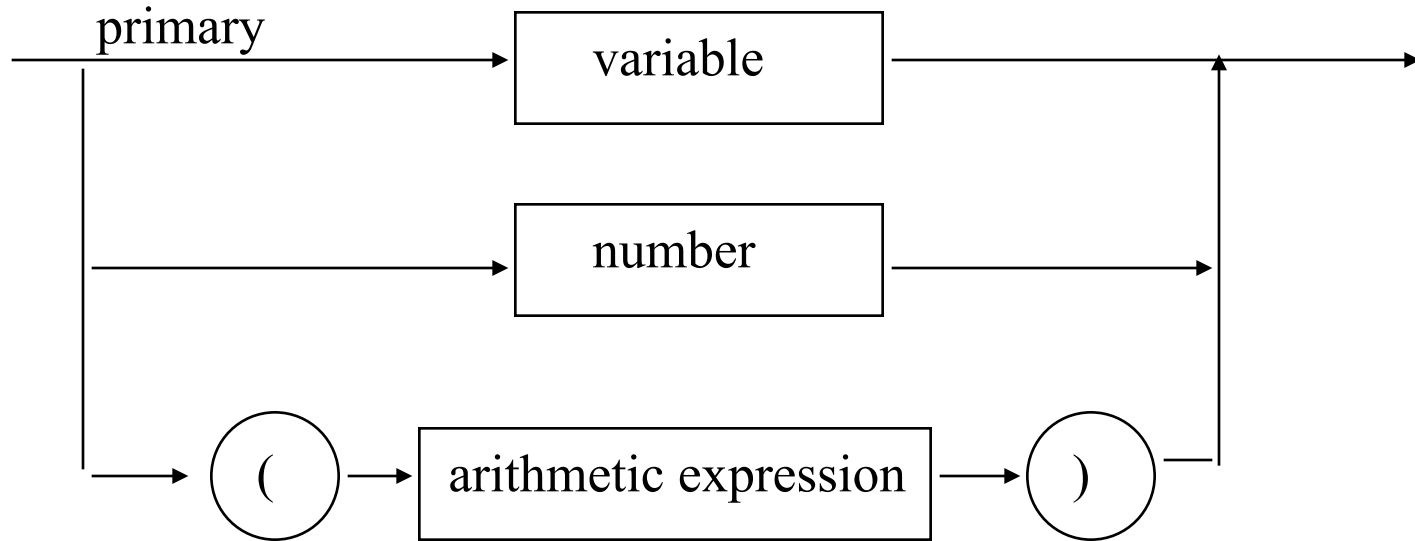
## Syntax Charts for Simple Assignment Statements (continued)



## Syntax Charts for Simple Assignment Statements (continued)



## Syntax Charts for Simple Assignment Statements (continued)



# What is an Attribute Grammar?

- An attribute grammar is an extension to a context-free grammar that is used to describe features of a programming language that cannot be described in BNF or can only be described in BNF with great difficulty.
- Examples
  - Describing the rule that float variables can be assigned integer values but the reverse is not true is difficult to describe complete in BNF.
  - The rule requiring that all variable must be declared before being used is impossible to describe in BNF.

# Static vs. Dynamic Semantics

- The static semantics of a language is indirectly related to the meaning of programs during execution. Its name comes from the fact that these specifications can be checked at compile time.
- Dynamic semantics refers to the meaning of expressions, statements and other program units. Unlike static semantics, these cannot be checked at compile time and can only be checked at runtime.

# What is an Attribute?

- An *attribute* is a property whose value is assigned to a grammar symbol.
- *Attribute computation functions* (or semantic functions) are associated with the productions of a grammar and are used to compute the values of an attribute.
- *Predicate functions* state some of the syntax and static semantics rules of the grammar.

# Definition of an Attribute Grammar

An attribute grammar is a grammar with the following added features:

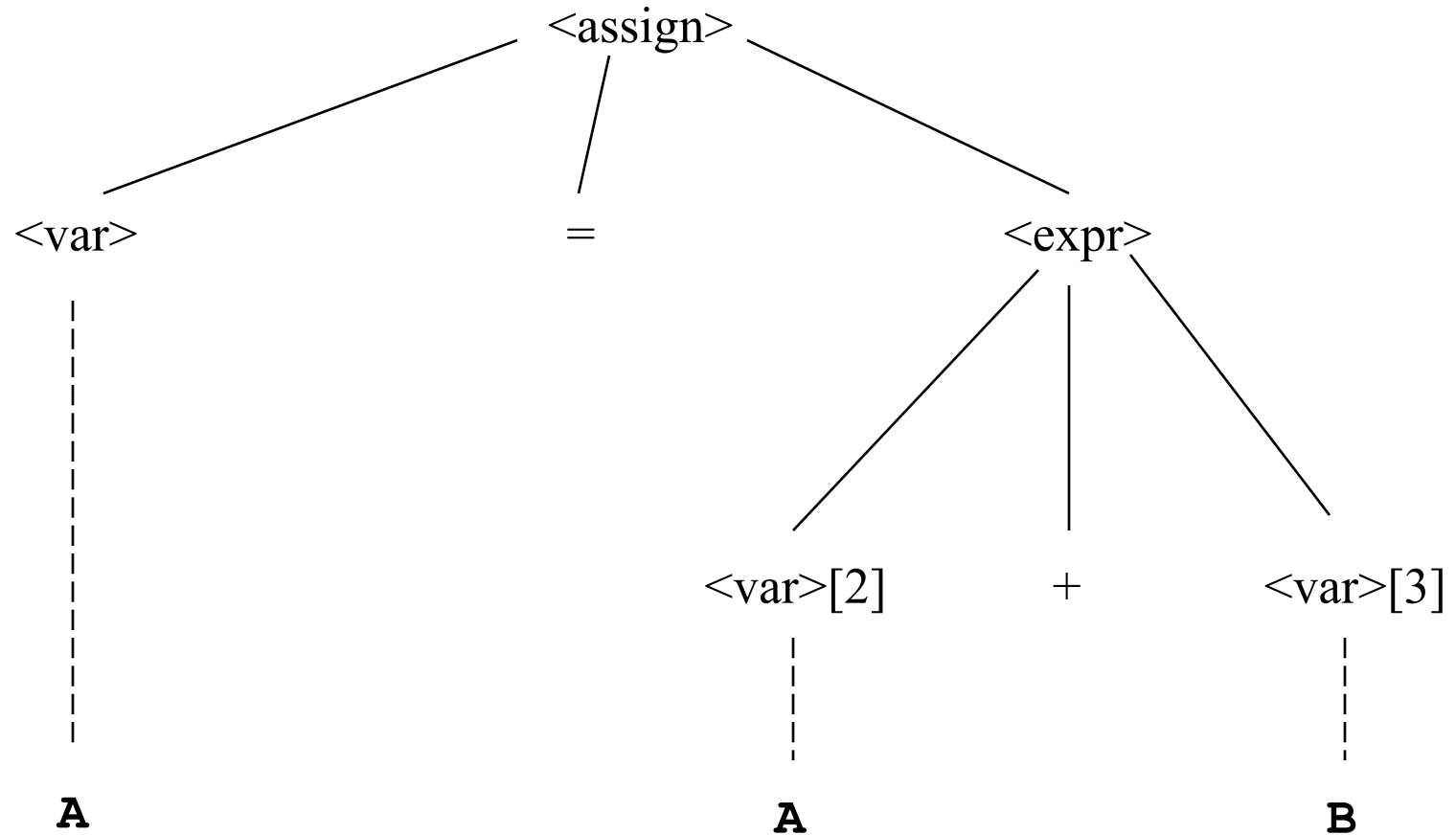
- Each symbol  $X$  has a set of attributes  $A(X)$ .
- $A(X)$  has two disjoint subsets:
  - $S(X)$ , synthesized attributes, which are passed up the parse tree
  - $I(X)$ , inherited attributes which are passed down the parse tree
- Each production of the grammar has a set of semantic functions and a set of predicate functions (which may be an empty set).
- Intrinsic attributes are synthesized attributes whose properties are found outside the grammar (e.g., symbol table)



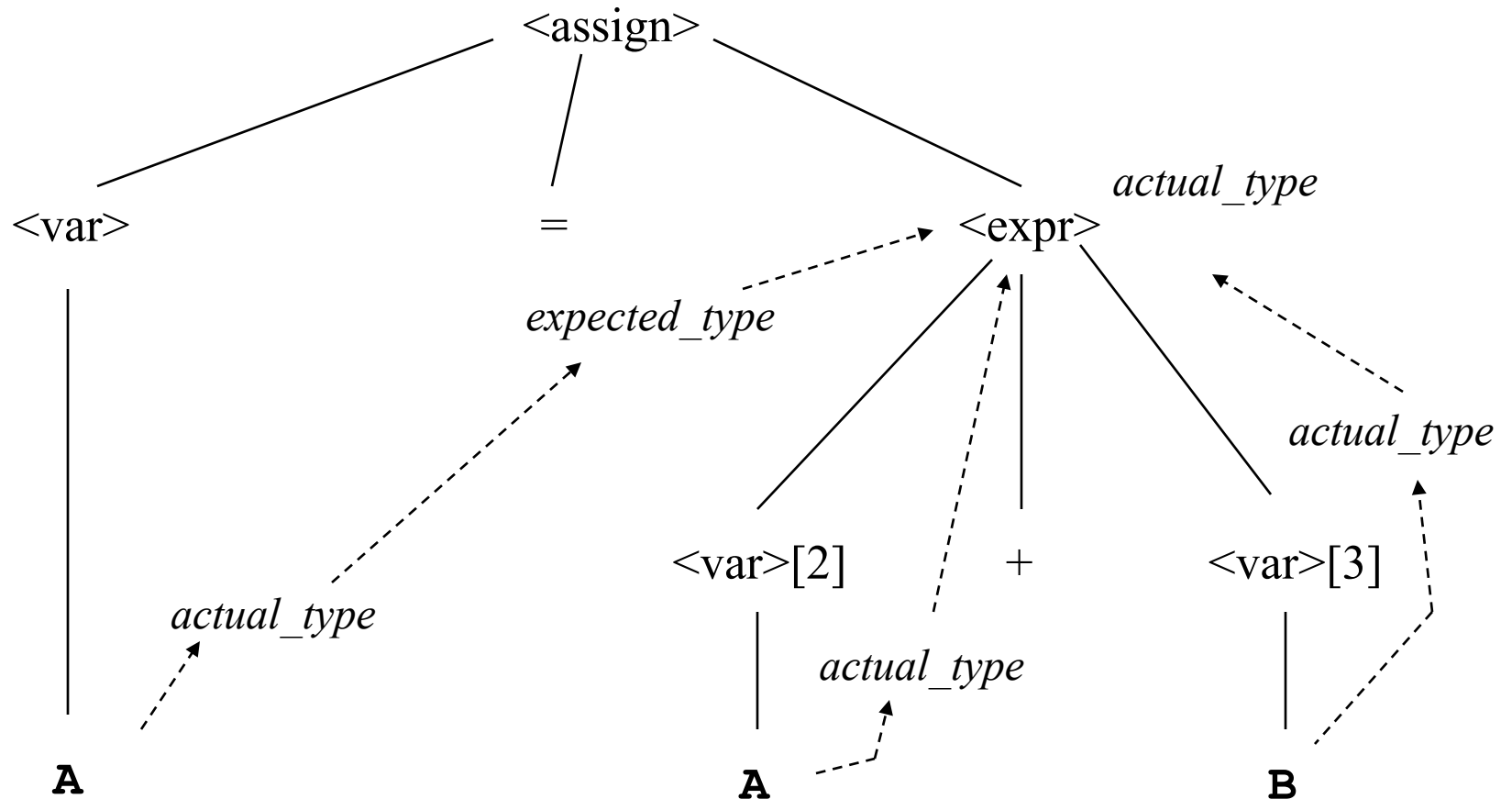
# An Attribute Grammar for Assignments

- Syntax rule:  $\langle \text{assign} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{var} \rangle = \langle \text{expr} \rangle$   
 Semantic rule:  $\langle \text{expr} \rangle.\text{expected\_type} \leftarrow \langle \text{var} \rangle.\text{actual\_type}$
  - Syntax rule:  $\langle \text{expr} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{var} \rangle[2] + \langle \text{var} \rangle[3]$   
 Semantic rule:  $\langle \text{expr} \rangle.\text{actual\_type} \leftarrow \text{if } (\langle \text{var} \rangle[2].\text{actual\_type} = \text{int})$   
                     and if  $(\langle \text{var} \rangle[3].\text{actual\_type} = \text{int})$  then int else real  
                     end if  
  
 Predicate:  $\langle \text{expr} \rangle.\text{actual\_type} = \langle \text{expr} \rangle.\text{expected\_type}$
  - Syntax rule:  $\langle \text{expr} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{var} \rangle$   
 Semantic rule:  $\langle \text{expr} \rangle.\text{actual\_type} \leftarrow \langle \text{var} \rangle.\text{actual\_type}$   
 Predicate:  $\langle \text{expr} \rangle.\text{actual\_type} = \langle \text{expr} \rangle.\text{expected\_type}$
4. Syntax rule:  $\langle \text{var} \rangle \rightarrow A \mid B \mid C$   
 Semantic rule:  $\langle \text{var} \rangle.\text{actual\_type} \leftarrow \text{look-up}(\langle \text{var} \rangle.\text{string})$

# Parse Tree for **A = A + B**



# Derivation of Attributes



# Fully Attributed Parse Tree

