BBM 301 – Programming Languages

Fall 2022, Lecture 2

Today

Describing Syntax and Semantics (Chapter 3)

Creating computer programs

- Each programming language provides a set of primitive operations
- Each programming language provides
 mechanisms for combining primitives to
 form more complex, but legal, expressions
- Each programming language provides mechanisms for deducing meanings or values associated with computations or expressions

Aspects of languages

- Primitive constructs
 - Programming language: numbers, strings, simple operators
 - **English**: words
- Syntax— which strings of characters and symbols are well-formed
 - Programming language: 3.2 + 3.2 is a valid C expression
 - English: "cat dog boy" is not syntactically valid, as not in form of acceptable sentence

Aspects of languages

- Static semantics which syntactically valid strings have a meaning
 - English "I are big" has form <noun> <intransitive verb> <noun>, so syntactically valid, but is not valid English because "I" is singular, "are" is plural
 - Programming language for example, iteral>
 coperator> is a valid syntactic form, but
 2.3/"abc" is a static semantic error!

Aspects of languages

- Semantics what is the meaning associated with a syntactically correct string of symbols with no static semantic errors
 - English can be ambiguous
 - "I cannot recommend this student too highly"
 - "He does not deserve high praise" or
 - "Even the highest praise would be inadequate for him"
 - "Yaşlı adamın yüzüne dalgın dalgın baktı."
 - Programming languages always has exactly one meaning
 - But meaning (or value) may not be what programmer intended

Today

- Syntax: the form or structure of the expressions, statements, and program units
- 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)

Example: Syntax and Semantics

- while statement in Java
- semantics: when boolean_expr is true, statement will be executed

 The meaning of a statement should be clear from its syntax (Why?)

Describing Syntax: Terminology

Alphabet: Σ, All strings: Σ*

 A sentence is a string of characters over some alphabet

• A *language* is a set of sentences, $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$

Describing Syntax: Terminology

- A language is a set of sentences
 - Natural languages: English, Turkish, ...
 - Programming languages: C, Fortran, Java,...
 - Formal languages: a*b*, 0ⁿ1ⁿ
- String of the language:
 - Sentences
 - Program statements
 - Words (aaaaabb, 000111)

Lexemes

- A lexeme is the lowest level syntactic unit of a language (e.g., *, sum, begin)
- Lower level constructs are given not by the syntax but by lexical specifications.
- Examples: identifiers, constants, operators, special words.

```
total, sum_of_products, 1254, ++, (:
```

 So, a language is considered as a set of strings of lexemes rather than strings of chars.

Token

- A token of a language is a category of lexemes
- For example, identifier is a token which may have lexemes, or instances, sum and total

Example in Java Language

```
x = (y+3.1) * z 5;
x = (y+3.1) * z_5 ; Lexemes
                                      Tokens
                                      identifier
                      x
                                      equal_sign
                                      left_paren
                                      right_paren
                                      for
                      for
                                      identifier
                                      plus op
                                      float literal
                      3.1
                                      mult_op
                                      identifier
                      z 5
                                      semi colon4
```

Describing Syntax

- Higher level constructs are given by syntax rules.
- Syntax rules specify which strings from Σ* are in the language
- Examples: organization of the program, loop structures, assignment, expressions, subprogram definitions, and calls.

Elements of Syntax

- An alphabet of symbols
- Symbols are terminal and non-terminal
 - Terminals cannot be broken down
 - Non-terminals can be broken down further
- Grammar rules that express how symbols are combined to make legal sentences
- Rules are of the general form

```
non-terminal symbol ::= list of zero or more
terminals or non-terminals
```

 One uses rules to recognize (parse) or generate legal sentences

Context-Free Grammars

Context-Free Grammars

- Developed by Noam Chomsky in the mid-1950s
- Language generators, meant to describe the syntax of natural languages
- Define the class of context-free languages
- Programming languages are contained in the class of CFL's.

Backus-Naur Form (BNF)

- A notation to describe the syntax of programming languages.
- Named after
 - John Backus Algol 58
 - Peter Naur Algol 60
- A metalanguage is a language used to describe another language.
- BNF is a metalanguage used to describe PLs.

BNF uses abstractions for syntactic structures.

```
<LHS> → <RHS>
```

- LHS: abstraction being defined
- RHS: definition
- "→" means "can have the form"
- Sometimes ::= is used for →

- Example, Java assignment statement can be represented by the abstraction <assign>
- <assign> → <var> = <expression>
- This is a rule or production
- Here, <var> and <expression> must also be defined.
- example instances of this abstraction can be
 total = sub1 + sub2
 myVar = 4

- These abstractions are called Variables or Nonterminals of a Grammar.
- Lexemes and tokens are the Terminals of a grammar.
- Nonterminals are often enclosed in angle brackets
- Examples of BNF rules:

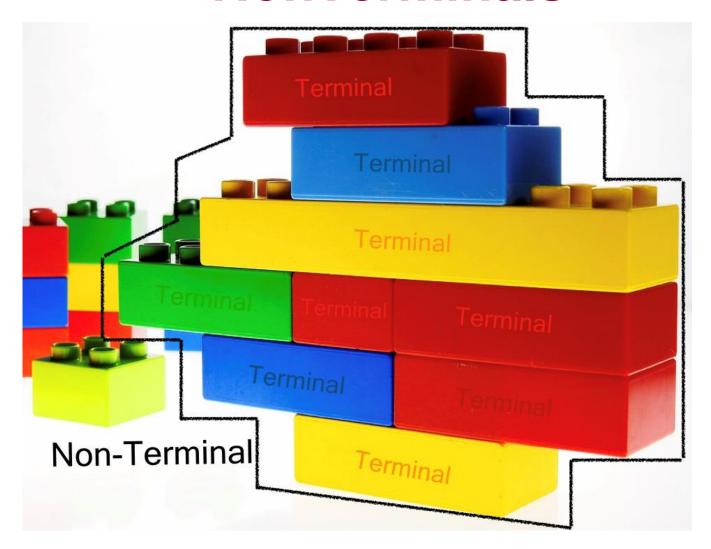
```
<ident_list> → identifier | identifier, <ident_list>
<if_stmt> → if <logic_expr> then <stmt>
```

A formal definition of rule:

A *rule* has a left-hand side (LHS), which is a nonterminal, and a right-hand side (RHS), which is a string of terminals and/or nonterminals

• Grammar: a finite non-empty set of rules

Additional Notes on Terminals and NonTerminals



Additional Notes on Terminals and NonTerminals

- Terminals are the smallest block we consider in our grammars.
- A terminal could be either:
 - a quoted literal
 - a regular expression
 - a name referring to a terminal definition.

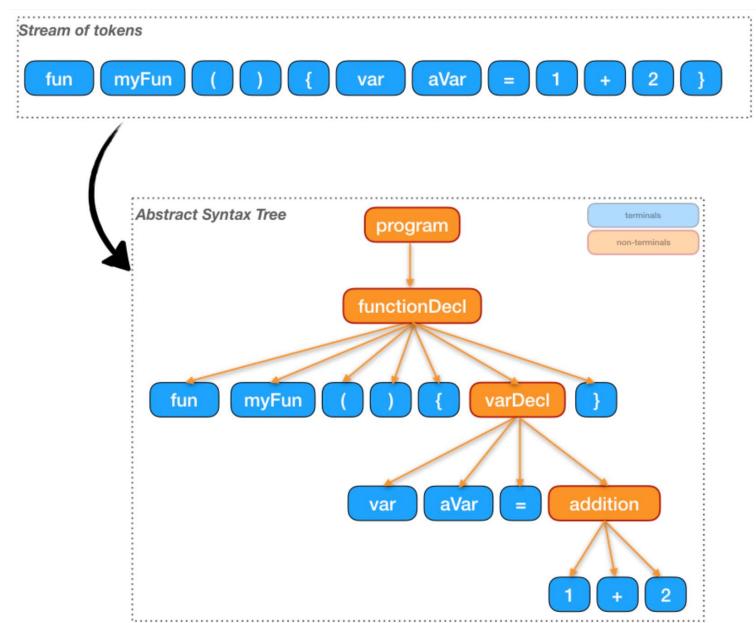
Terminals

- Let's see some typical terminals:
 - identifiers: these are the names used for variables, classes, functions, methods and so on.
 - keywords: almost every language uses
 keywords. They are exact strings that are used to
 indicate the start of a definition (think about class
 in Java or def in Python), a modifier (public,
 private, static, final, etc.) or control flow structures
 (while, for, until, etc.)

Terminals

- literals: these permit to define values in our languages. We can have string literals, numeric literal, char literals, boolean literals (but we could consider them keywords as well), array literals, map literals, and more, depending on the language
- separators and delimiters: like colons, semicolons, commas, parenthesis, brackets, braces
- whitespaces: spaces, tabs, newlines.
- comments

Terminals and Non-terminals



Non-terminals

- Examples of non-terminals are:
 - program/document: represent the entire file
 - module/classes: group several declarations togethers
 - functions/methods: group statements together
 - statements: these are the single instructions.
 Some of them can contain other statements.
 Example: loops
 - expressions: are typically used within statements and can be composed in various ways

Examples

An initial example

Consider the sentence "Mary greets John"

<sentence> ::= <subject>ct><index</pre>
<subject> ::= Mary
cpredicate> ::= <verb><object>

A simple grammar

<verb> ::= greets

<object> ::= John

Alternations

Multiple definitions can be separated by | (OR).

```
<object> ::= John | Alfred
```

This adds "Mary greets Alfred" to legal sentences

```
<subject> ::= Mary | John | Alfred
<object> ::= Mary | John | Alfred
```

Alternation to the previous grammar

```
<sentence> ::= <subject><predicate>
<subject> ::= <noun>
<predicate> ::= <verb><object>
<verb> ::= greets
<object> ::= <noun>
<noun> ::= Mary | John | Alfred
```

Infinite Number of Sentences

```
<object> ::= John |
           John again |
           John again and again |
Instead use recursive definition
<object> ::= John |
           John <repeat factor>
<repeat factor> ::= again
                  again and <repeat factor>
A rule is recursive if its LHS appears in its RHS
```

Simple example for PLs

How you can describe simple arithmetic?

```
<expr> ::= <expr> <operator> <expr> | <var>
< operator > ::= + | - | * | /
<var> ::= a | b | c | ...
<var> ::= <signed number>
<signed number> ::= + <number> | - <number>
<number> ::= <number> <digit> | <digit>
....
....
```

Identifiers

```
<identifier> → <letter> |
    <identifier><letter> |
    <identifier><digit>
```

PASCAL/Ada If Statement

```
<if_stmt> \rightarrow if <logic_expr> then <stmt> <if_stmt> \rightarrow if <logic_expr> then <stmt> else <stmt>
```

Or

Grammars and Derivations

- A grammar is a generative device for defining languages
- The sentences of the language are generated through a sequence of applications of the rules, starting from the special nonterminal called start symbol.
- Such a generation is called a derivation.
- Start symbol represents a complete program. So it is usually named as cprogram.

An Example Grammar

```
<stmt list> → <stmt> |
           <stmt> ; <stmt list>
<stmt> → <var> := <expression>
\langle var \rangle \rightarrow A | B | C
<expression>→ <var> |
             <var> <arith op> <var>
<arith op> → + | - | * | /
```

Derivation

- In order to check if a given string represents a valid program in the language, we try to derive it in the grammar.
- At each step we replace a nonterminal with its definition (RHS of the rule).

Derivations

- Every string of symbols in a derivation is a sentential form
- A sentence is a sentential form that has only terminal symbols
- A leftmost derivation is one in which the leftmost nonterminal in each sentential form is the one that is expanded
- A derivation may be neither leftmost nor rightmost

program> ⇒ begin <stmt_list> end

Leftmost derivation

- ⇒ begin <stmt> ; <stmt_list> end
 ⇒ begin <var> := <expression>; <stmt_list> end
- Rightmost derivation
 - ⇒ begin <stmt> ; <stmt_list> end
 - ⇒ begin <stmt>; <stmt> end

```
Derive string:
                           <stmt list> → <stmt> | <stmt> ; <stmt list>
begin A := B; C := A * B end
                           <stmt> → <var> := <expression>
                           <expression>→ <var> | <var> <arith op> <var>
                          <arith_op> → + | - | * | /
              ⇒ begin <stmt_list> end
program>
              ⇒ begin <stmt>; <stmt_list> end
              ⇒ begin <var> := <expression>; <stmt_list> end
              ⇒ begin A := <expression>; <stmt_list> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; <stmt_list> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; <stmt> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; <var> := <expression> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := <expression> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := \langle var \rangle \langle arith_op \rangle \langle var \rangle end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A <arith_op> <var> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * <var> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * B end
```

If always the leftmost nonterminal is replaced, then it is called leftmost derivation. 56

```
Derive string:
                            <stmt list> → <stmt> | <stmt> ; <stmt list>
begin A := B; C := A * B end
                            <stmt> → <var> := <expression>
                            <expression>→ <var> | <var> <arith op> <var>
                           <arith_op> → + | - | * | /
               ⇒ begin <u><stmt_list></u> end
cprogram>
               ⇒ begin <stmt> ; <stmt_list> end
               ⇒ begin <stmt> ; <stmt> end
               ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <expression> end
               ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <var> <arith_op> <var> end
               ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <var> <arith_op> B end
               ⇒ begin <stmt> ; <var> := <var> * B end
               \Rightarrow begin <stmt>; <var> := A * B end
               \Rightarrow begin <stmt>; C := A * B end
               \Rightarrow begin <var> := <expression>; C := A * B end
               \Rightarrow begin <var> := <var>; C := A * B end
               \Rightarrow begin \langle var \rangle := B ; C := A * B end
```

If always the rightmost nonterminal is replaced, then it is called **rightmost derivation**.

 \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * B end

```
Derive string:
                                            <stmt list> → <stmt> | <stmt> ; <stmt list>
begin A := B; C := A * B end
                                            <stmt> → <var> := <expression>
                                            <var>
                                                            \rightarrow A | B | C
                                            <expression>→ <var> | <var> <arith op> <var>
                                          <arith op> → + | - | * | /
                         ⇒ begin <stmt_list> end
  cprogram>
                         ⇒ begin <stmt>; <stmt list> end
                         ⇒ begin <var> := <expression>; <stmt_list> end
                         ⇒ begin A := <expression>; <stmt_list> end
                                                                                        Leftmost derivation
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; <stmt_list> end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; <stmt> end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; \langle var \rangle := \langle expression \rangle end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := <expression> end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := \langle var \rangle \langle arith_op \rangle \langle var \rangle end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A <arith_op> <var> end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * \langle var \rangle end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * B end
  program>
                         ⇒ begin <stmt_list> end
                         ⇒ begin <stmt>; <stmt_list> end
                         \Rightarrow begin <stmt>; <stmt> end
                         ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <expression> end
                                                                                        Rightmost derivation
                         ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <var> <arith_op> <var> end
                         ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <var><arith_op> B end
                         \Rightarrow begin <stmt>; <var> := <var> * B end
                         \Rightarrow begin <stmt>; <var> := A * B end
                         \Rightarrow begin <stmt>; C := A * B end
                         \Rightarrow begin <var> := <expression>; C := A * B end
                         \Rightarrow begin <var> := <var>; C := A * B end
                         \Rightarrow begin \langle var \rangle := B ; C := A * B end
                                                                                                          58
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * B end
```

A hierarchical Parse Tree

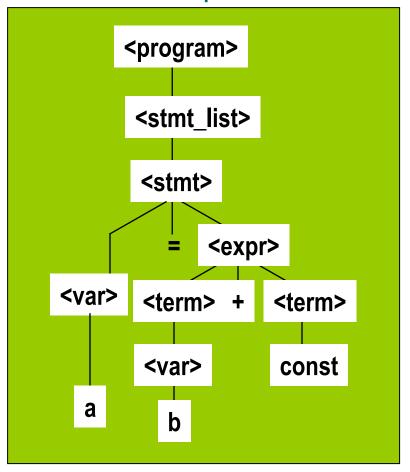
representation of a derivation

program> begin A := B; C := A * B end <stmt list> begin end <stmt list> <stmt> := <expression> <stmt> <var> := <expression> <var> <var> <var><arith op> <var> 61 В

Another Example

```
a = b + const
```

- \Rightarrow <stmt_list>
- **⇒ <stmt>**
- \Rightarrow <var> = <expr>
- \Rightarrow <var> = <term> + <term>
- \Rightarrow <var> = <term> + const
- \Rightarrow <var> = <var> + const
- \Rightarrow <var> = b + const
- \Rightarrow a = b + const
- ⇒ <stmt list>
- **⇒ <stmt>**
- \Rightarrow a = <expr>
- \Rightarrow a = <term> + <term>
- \Rightarrow a = <var> + <term>
- \Rightarrow a = b + <term>
- \Rightarrow a = b + const



Ambiguity (Belirsizlik) in Grammars

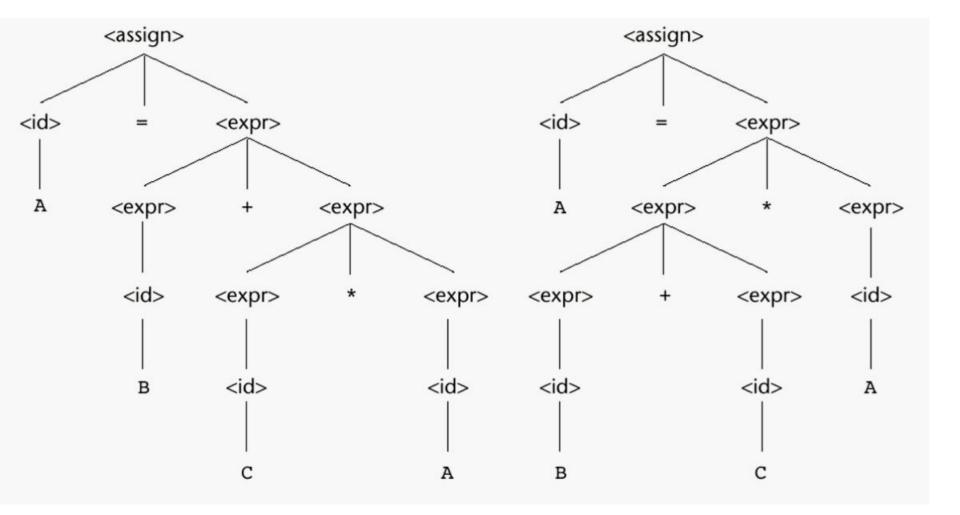
 A grammar is ambiguous if and only if it generates a sentential form that has two or more distinct parse trees

Example

Given the following grammar

Parse Tree(s) for A = B + C * A

Two Parse Trees for A = B + C * A

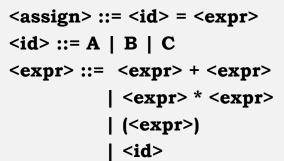


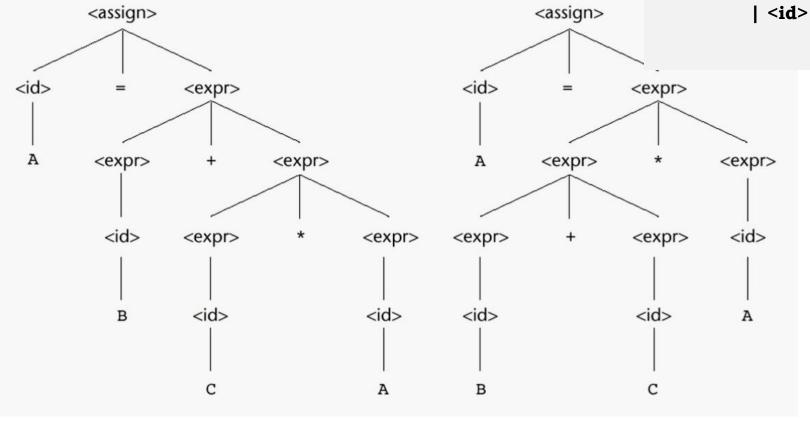
Two Leftmost derivations for A = B + C * A

```
=> A = < expr>
          => A = <u><expr></u> + <expr>
          => A = <id> + <expr>
          => A = B + < expr>
          => A = B + <expr> * <expr>
          => A = B + <id> * <expr>
          => A = B + C * < expr>
          => A = B + C * < id>
          => A = B + C * A
<assign> => <<u>id></u> = <expr>
          => A = <expr>
          => A = <expr> * <expr>
          => A = <expr> + <expr> * <expr>
          => A = <id> + <expr> * <expr>
          => A = B + <expr>* <expr>
          => A = B + <id>_* <expr>
          => A = B + C * < expr>
          => A = B + C * < id>
          => A = B + C * A
```

<assign> => <id> = <expr>

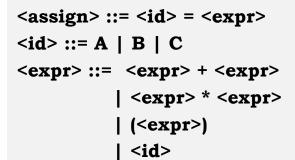
Two Rightmost derivations for A = B + C * A

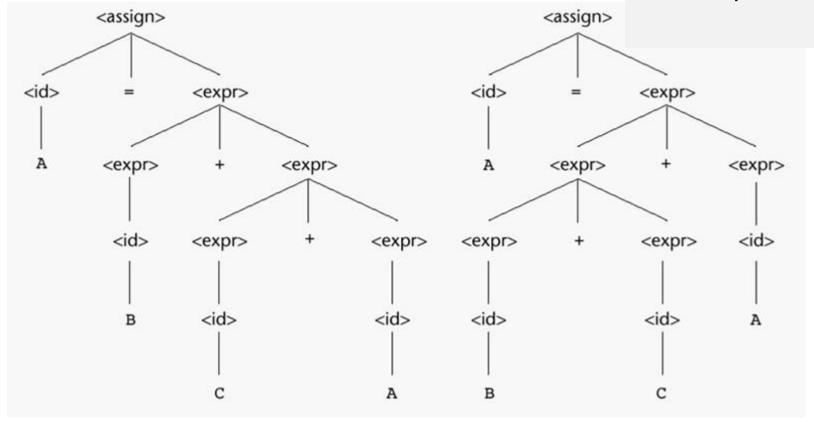




$$3 + [4 * 5]$$

$$[3+4]*5$$





$$[3+4]+5$$

Single leftmost derivation for A = B + C

There is also a single rightmost derivation And a single parse tree for A = B + C

Finding at least one string with more than a single parse tree (or more than a single leftmost derivation Or more than a single rightmost derivation) is sufficient to prove ambiguity of a grammar

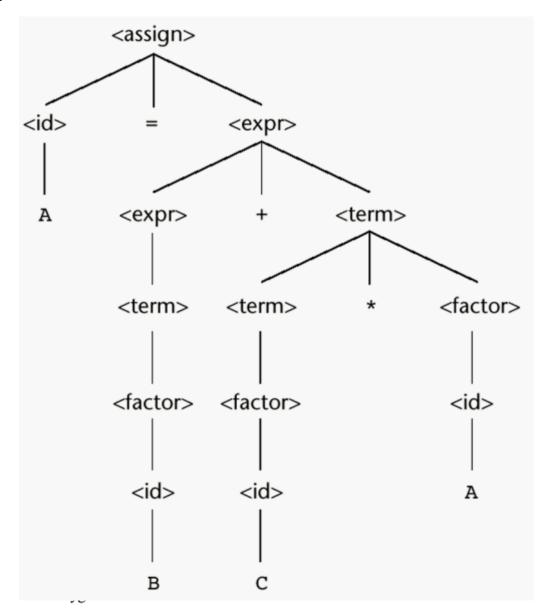
Handling Ambiguity

- The grammar of a PL must not be ambiguous
- There are solutions for correcting the ambiguity
 - Operator precedence
 - Associativity rules

Operator Precedence

- In mathematics * operation has a higher precedence than +
- This can be implemented with extra nonterminals

Unique Parse Tree for A = B + C * A



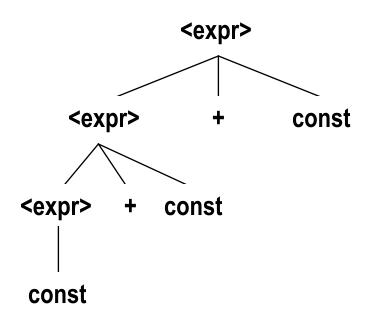
Associativity of Operators

- What about equal precedence operators?
- In math addition and multiplication are associative
 A+B+C = (A+B)+C = A+(B+C)
- However computer arithmetic may not be associative
- Ex: for floating point addition where floating points values store 7 digits of accuracy, adding eleven numbers together where one of the numbers is 10⁷ and the others are 1 result would be 1.000001 * 10⁷ only if the ten 1s are added first
- Subtraction and division are not associative
 A/B/C/D = ? ((A/B)/C)/D ≠A/(B/(C/D))

Associativity of Operators

Operator associativity can also be indicated by a grammar

```
<expr> -> <expr> + <expr> | const (ambiguous)
<expr> -> <expr> + const | const (unambiguous)
```



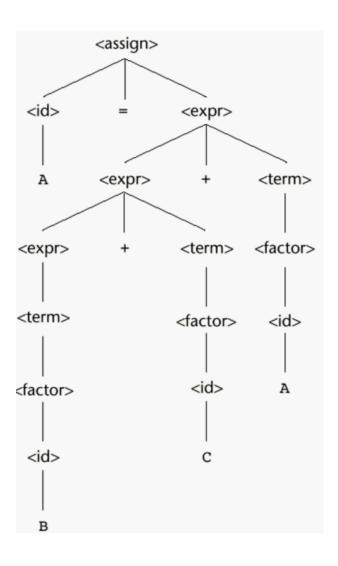
Associativity (birleşirlik)

- In a BNF rule, if the LHS appears at the beginning of the RHS, the rule is said to be left recursive
- Left recursion specifies left associativity

```
<expr> ::= <expr> + <term> | <term>
```

- Similar for the right recursion
- In most of the languages exponential is defined as a right associative operation

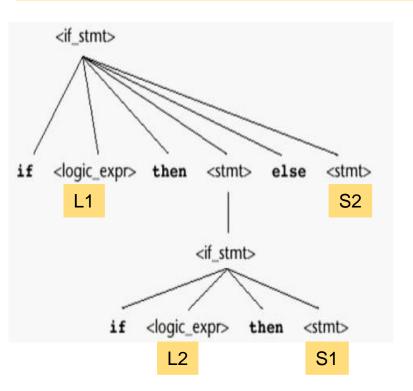
A parse tree for A = B + C + A illustrating the associativity of addition

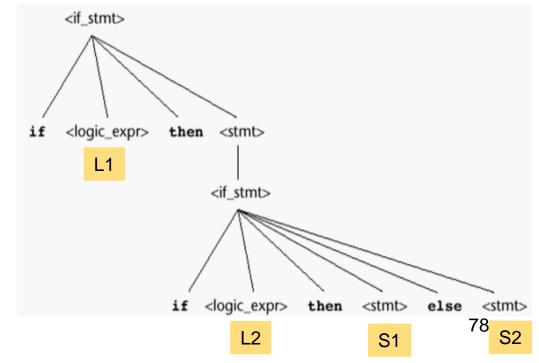


Left associativity
Left addition is lower than the right addition

Is this ambiguous?

Derive for: If L1 then if L2 then S1 else S2





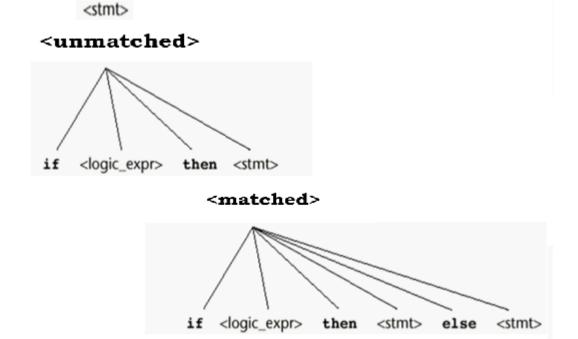
An Unambiguous grammar for "if then else"

- Dangling else problem: there are more if then else
- To design an unambiguous if-then-else statement we have to decide which if a dangling else belongs to
- Most PL adopt the following rule:
 - "an else is matched with the closest previous unmatched if statement"
 - (unmatched if = else-less if)

Has a unique parse tree

Draw the parse tree

If L1 then if L2 then S1 else S2



Extended BNF

- EBNF: Same power but more convenient
- Optional parts are placed in brackets []
 [X]: X is optional (0 or 1 occurrence)

```
<writeln> ::= WRITELN [(<item_list>)]
<selection>::= if (<expr>) <stmt> [else<stmt>]
```

Repetitions (0 or more) are placed inside braces { }
 {X}: 0 or more occurrences

```
<identlist> = <identifier> {,<identifier>}
```

 Alternative parts of RHSs are placed inside parentheses and separated via vertical bars

```
(X1|X2|X3): choose X1 or X2 or X3 <term> \rightarrow <term> (+|-) const
```

BNF vs Extended BNF

BNF

```
< expr> ::= <expr> + <term>
       | <expr> - <term>
        <term>
<term> ::= <term> * <factor>
      | <term> / <factor>
      <factor>
<factor> ::= <expr> ** <factor>
      <expr>
<expr> ::= (<expr>)
      | <id>
```

BNF vs Extended BNF

EBNF

Recent Variations in EBNF

- Alternative RHSs are put on separate lines
- Use of a colon instead of =>
- Use of opt for optional parts
- Use of one of for choices