

CSE505: Graduate Programming Languages

Lecture 2 — Syntax

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Finally, some formal PL content

For our first *formal language*, let's leave out functions, objects, records, threads, exceptions, ...

What's left: integers, mutable variables, control-flow

(Abstract) syntax using a common *metalanguage*:

“A program is a statement s , which is defined as follows”

$$\begin{aligned} s &::= \text{skip} \mid x := e \mid s; s \mid \text{if } e \text{ } s \text{ } s \mid \text{while } e \text{ } s \\ e &::= c \mid x \mid e + e \mid e * e \\ (c &\in \{ \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots \}) \\ (x &\in \{ x_1, x_2, \dots, y_1, y_2, \dots, z_1, z_2, \dots, \dots \}) \end{aligned}$$

Syntax Definition

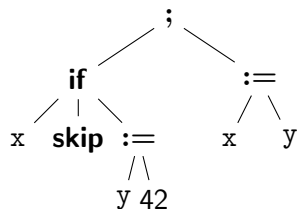
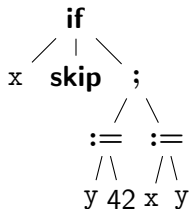
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- ▶ Blue is metanotation: $::=$ for “can be a” and $|$ for “or”
- ▶ *Metavariables* represent “anything in the *syntax class*”
- ▶ By *abstract syntax*, we mean that this defines a set of *trees*
 - ▶ Node has some label for “which alternative”
 - ▶ Children are more abstract syntax (subtrees) from the appropriate syntax class

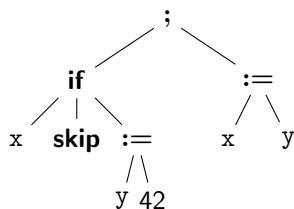
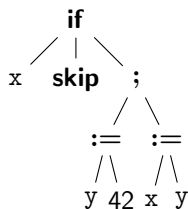
Examples

$s ::= \text{skip} \mid x := e \mid s; s \mid \text{if } e \text{ } s \text{ } s \mid \text{while } e \text{ } s$

$e ::= c \mid x \mid e + e \mid e * e$



Comparison to ML



```
type exp = Const of int | Var of string
```

```
          | Add of exp * exp | Mult of exp * exp
```

```
type stmt = Skip | Assign of string * exp | Seq of stmt * stmt
```

```
          | If of exp * stmt * stmt | While of exp * stmt
```

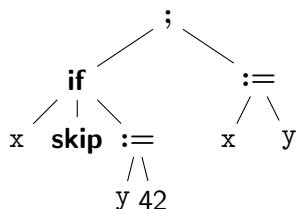
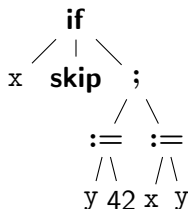
```
If(Var("x"),Skip,Seq(Assign("y",Const 42),Assign("x",Var "y")))
```

```
Seq(If(Var("x"),Skip,Assign("y",Const 42)),Assign("x",Var "y"))
```

Very similar to trees built with ML datatypes

- ▶ ML needs “extra nodes” for, e.g., “e can be a c”
- ▶ Also pretending ML's int is an integer

Comparison to strings



We are used to writing programs in *concrete syntax*, i.e., strings

That can be *ambiguous*: **if** x **skip** y **:= 42** ; x := y

Since writing strings is such a convenient way to represent trees, we allow ourselves parentheses (or defaults) for disambiguation

- ▶ Trees are our “truth” with strings as a “convenient notation”

if x **skip** (y := 42 ; x := y) versus (**if** x **skip** y := 42) ; x := y

Last word on concrete syntax

Converting a string into a tree is *parsing*

Creating concrete syntax such that parsing is unambiguous is one challenge of *grammar design*

- ▶ Always trivial if you require enough parentheses or keywords
 - ▶ Extreme case: LISP, 1960s; Scheme, 1970s
 - ▶ Extreme case: XML, 1990s
- ▶ Very well studied in 1970s and 1980s, now typically the least interesting part of a compilers course

For the rest of this course, we start with abstract syntax

- ▶ Using strings only as a convenient shorthand and asking if it's ever unclear what tree we mean

Inductive definition

$$\begin{aligned} s & ::= \text{skip} \mid x := e \mid s; s \mid \text{if } e \text{ s } s \mid \text{while } e \text{ s } \\ e & ::= c \mid x \mid e + e \mid e * e \end{aligned}$$

This grammar is a finite description of an infinite set of trees

The apparent self-reference is not a problem, provided the definition uses well-founded induction

- ▶ Just like an always-terminating recursive function uses self-reference but is not a circular definition!

Can give precise meaning to our metanotation & avoid circularity:

- ▶ Let $E_0 = \emptyset$
- ▶ For $i > 0$, let E_i be E_{i-1} union “expressions of the form c , x , $e_1 + e_2$, or $e_1 * e_2$ where $e_1, e_2 \in E_{i-1}$ ”
- ▶ Let $E = \bigcup_{i \geq 0} E_i$

The set E is what we mean by our compact metanotation

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- ▶ Let $E = \bigcup_{i \geq 0} E_i$.

The set E is what we mean by our compact metanotation

To get it: What set is E_1 ? E_2 ?

Could explain statements the same way: What is S_1 ? S_2 ? S ?

Proving Obvious Stuff

All we have is syntax (sets of abstract-syntax trees), but let's get the idea of proving things carefully...

Theorem 1: There exist expressions with three constants.

Our First Theorem

There exist expressions with three constants.

Pedantic Proof: Consider $e = 1 + (2 + 3)$. Showing $e \in E_3$ suffices because $E_3 \subseteq E$. Showing $2 + 3 \in E_2$ and $1 \in E_2$ suffices...

PL-style proof: Consider $e = 1 + (2 + 3)$ and definition of E .

Theorem 2: All expressions have at least one constant or variable.

Our Second Theorem

All expressions have at least one constant or variable.

Pedantic proof: By induction on i , for all $e \in \mathbf{E}_i$, e has ≥ 1 constant or variable.

- ▶ Base: $i = 0$ implies $\mathbf{E}_i = \emptyset$
- ▶ Inductive: $i > 0$. Consider *arbitrary* $e \in \mathbf{E}_i$ by cases:
 - ▶ $e \in \mathbf{E}_{i-1} \dots$
 - ▶ $e = c \dots$
 - ▶ $e = x \dots$
 - ▶ $e = e_1 + e_2$ where $e_1, e_2 \in \mathbf{E}_{i-1} \dots$
 - ▶ $e = e_1 * e_2$ where $e_1, e_2 \in \mathbf{E}_{i-1} \dots$

A “Better” Proof

All expressions have at least one constant or variable.

PL-style proof: By *structural induction* on (rules for forming an expression) e . Cases:

- ▶ $c \dots$
- ▶ $x \dots$
- ▶ $e_1 + e_2 \dots$
- ▶ $e_1 * e_2 \dots$

Structural induction invokes the induction hypothesis on *smaller* terms. It is equivalent to the pedantic proof, and more convenient in PL