

Concepts of Programming Language Design Syntax

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Overview

So far

- revision of inference rules, natural (rule) induction
- simple languages specified using inference rules
- proofs on inductively defined languages

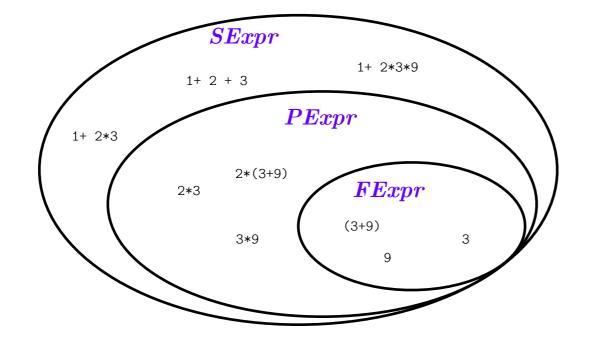
• This week:

- concrete syntax of a language
- first-order & higher-order abstract syntax,
- static and dynamic semantics



Concrete Syntax

- ullet the inference rules for SExpr defined the concrete syntax of a simple language, including precedence and associativity
- the concrete syntax of a language is designed with the human user in mind
- not adequate for internal representation during compilation



$$\frac{e_1}{e_1} \frac{\textbf{SExpr}}{e_1 + e_2} \frac{e_2}{\textbf{SExpr}}$$

$$\frac{e}{e} \frac{\textbf{PExpr}}{e \textbf{SExpr}}$$

$$\frac{e \ \textbf{\textit{SExpr}}}{(e) \ \textbf{\textit{FExpr}}}$$

$$\frac{n \in \textbf{\textit{Int}}}{n \ \textbf{\textit{FExpr}}}$$



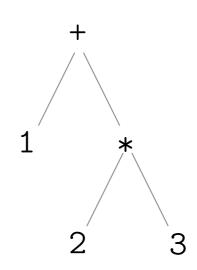
• Example:

$$-1 + 2 * 3$$

$$-1 + (2 * 3)$$

$$-(1) + ((2) * (3))$$

- what is the problem?



- Concrete syntax contains too much information
 - these expressions all have different derivations, but semantically, they represent the same arithmetic expression
- After parsing, we're just interested in three cases: an expression is either
 - an addition
 - a multiplication, or
 - a number

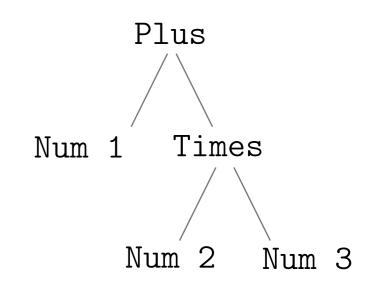


we use Haskell style terms of the form

(
$$Operator\ arg_1\ arg_2....$$
)

to represent parsed programs unambiguously; e.g.,

 we define the abstract grammar of arithmetic expressions as follows:



$$i \in Int \ ext{(Num } i \text{)} expr$$

$$t_1 \ oldsymbol{expr} t_2 \ oldsymbol{expr}$$
 (Plus $t_1 \ t_2$) $oldsymbol{expr}$

$$t_1 \ oldsymbol{expr} t_2 \ oldsymbol{expr} \ oldsymbol{(Times} \ t_1 \ t_2) \ oldsymbol{expr} \ oldsymbol{expr}$$



• BNF:

```
expr ::= (Num Int) | (Plus <math>expr expr) | (Times expr expr)
```

Abstract syntax terms of the form

```
(Operator\ arg_1\ arg_2....)
```

can directly be translated into Haskell data types:

```
i \in Int \ 	ext{(Num } i \text{)} expr
```

$$t_1 \ oldsymbol{expr} t_2 \ oldsymbol{expr}$$
 (Plus $t_1 \ t_2$) $oldsymbol{expr}$



Parsers

- check if the program (sequence of tokens) is derivable from the rules of the concrete syntax
- turn the derivation into an abstract syntax tree (AST)
- Transformation rules
 - we formalise this with inference rules as a binary relation ↔:

We write

$$e SExpr \leftrightarrow t expr$$

iff the (concrete grammar) expression e corresponds to the (abstract grammar) expression t.

Usually, many different concrete expressions correspond to a single abstract expression

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Example:

```
- 1 + 2 * 3 \underbrace{SExpr} \leftrightarrow (Plus (Num 1) (Times (Num 2) (Num 3))) \underbrace{expr}
- 1 + (2 * 3) \underbrace{SExpr} \leftrightarrow (Plus (Num 1) (Times (Num 2) (Num 3))) \underbrace{expr}
- (1) + ((2)*(3)) \underbrace{SExpr} \leftrightarrow (Plus (Num 1) (Times (Num 2) (Num 3))) \underbrace{expr}
```



Formal definition: we define a parsing relation
 → formally as an extension of the structural rules of the concrete syntax.



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 ← formally as an extension of the structural rules of the concrete syntax.

$$e_1 \ SExpr \leftrightarrow e_1' \ expr \ e_2 \ PExpr \leftrightarrow e_2' \ expr \ e_1 + e_2 \ SExpr \leftrightarrow (ext{Plus } e_1' \ e_2') \ expr \ e_1 \ PExpr \leftrightarrow e_1' \ expr \ e_2 \ FExpr \leftrightarrow e_2' \ expr \ e_1^* \ e_2 \ PExpr \leftrightarrow e' \ expr \ e_1^* \ e_2 \ PExpr \leftrightarrow e' \ expr \ e_1^* \ e_2 \ PExpr \leftrightarrow e' \ expr \ e_1^* \ e_2 \ PExpr \leftrightarrow e' \ expr \ e_1^* \ e_2^* \ expr \ e_1^* \ e_2^* \ expr \ e_2^* \ expr \ e_1^* \ e_2^* \ expr \ e_2^* \ e_2^*$$



The translation relation ↔

The binary syntax translation relation

$$e \leftrightarrow e'$$

can be viewed as translation function

- input is e
- output is e'
- derivations are unambiguously determined by e
 - since the grammar of the concrete syntax was unambiguous
- ightharpoonup e' is unambiguously determined by the derivation
 - for each valid concrete syntax term, there is only one rule we can apply at each step of the full proof



The translation relation ↔

- Derive the abstract syntax as follows:
 - (1) bottom up, decompose the concrete expression e according to the left hand side of ↔
 - (2) top down, synthesise the abstract expression e' according to the right hand side of each ↔ from the rules used in the derivation.
- Example: derivation for 1 + 2 * 3



```
e_1 \stackrel{}{SExpr} \leftrightarrow e_1' \quad e_2 \stackrel{}{PExpr} \leftrightarrow e_2' \qquad e \stackrel{}{PExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_1 + e_2 \stackrel{}{SExpr} \leftrightarrow (	ext{Plus} \ e_1' \ e_2') \qquad e \stackrel{}{SExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_1 \stackrel{}{PExpr} \leftrightarrow e_1' \quad e_2 \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e_2' \qquad e \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_1 * e_2 \stackrel{}{PExpr} \leftrightarrow (	ext{Times} \ e_1' \ e_2') \qquad e \stackrel{}{PExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_1 \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_1 \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_2 \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_3 \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_4 \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_4 \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_4 \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_5 \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
e_5 \stackrel{}{FExpr} \leftrightarrow e'
```

1 + 2*3 $\underbrace{SExpr} \leftrightarrow (Plus(Num 1) (Times (Num 2) (Num 3))$



Do the rules actually specify a deterministic algorithm?

$$e_1 \ SExpr \leftrightarrow e_1' \ expr \ e_2 \ PExpr \leftrightarrow e_2' \ expr \ e_1 + e_2 \ SExpr \leftrightarrow (ext{Plus } e_1' \ e_2') \ expr \ e_1 \ PExpr \leftrightarrow e_1' \ expr \ e_2 \ FExpr \leftrightarrow e_2' \ expr \ e_1 * e_2 \ PExpr \leftrightarrow (ext{Times } e_1' e_2') \ expr \ e_1 * e_2 \ PExpr \leftrightarrow (ext{Times } e_1' e_2') \ expr \ e_2 \ FExpr \leftrightarrow e' \ expr \ e_3 \ FExpr \leftrightarrow e' \ expr \ e_4 \ e_5 \ expr \ e_5 \ ex$$



Parsing and inference rules

• The parsing problem

Given a sequence of tokens s SExpr, find t such that

$$s SExpr \leftrightarrow t expr$$

Requirements

A parser should be

- ▶ total for all expressions that are correct according to the concrete syntax, that is
 - there must be a $t\ expr$ for every $s\ SExpr$
- \blacktriangleright unambiguous, that is for every t_1 and t_2 with
 - s $SExpr \leftrightarrow t_1$ expr and s $SExpr \leftrightarrow t_2$ expr we have $t_1 = t_2$



Parsing and pretty printing

The parsing problem

Given a sequence of tokens s SExpr, find t such that

$$s SExpr \leftrightarrow t expr$$

- What about the inverse?
 - given $t\ expr$, find $s\ SExpr$
- The inverse of parsing is unparsing
 - unparsing is often ambiguous
 - unparsing is often partial (not total)
- Pretty printing
 - unparsing together with appropriate formatting is called pretty printing
 - due to the ambiguity of unparsing, this will usually not reproduce the original program (but a semantically equivalent one)

Parsing and pretty printing

Example

Given the abstract syntax term

```
(Times (Times (Num 3)(Num 4)) (Num 5))
```

pretty printing may produce the string

$$3 * 4 * 5$$
 or $(3 * 4) * 5$

- ▶ it's best to chose the most simple, readable representation
- ▶ but usually, this requires extra effort



- Local variable bindings (let)
 - Let's extend our simple expression language with
 - variables and variable bindings
 - \blacktriangleright let $v = e_1$ in e_2 end
- Example:

let
$$x = 3$$
$$x = 3$$
in let $y = x + 1$ in $x + 1$ in $x + y$ end end end

Concrete syntax (adding two new rules):



The end keyword is necessary for nested let-expressions:

let

$$x = 3$$

in 2 * let y = 5 in y + x

we'll leave it out when not needed to disambiguate



• First-order abstract syntax:

$$i \in Int$$
(Num i) $expr$

$$t_1 \ expr$$
 $t_2 \ expr$ (Times $t_1 \ t_2$) $expr$



- Scope
 - let $x = e_1$ in e_2 end introduces -or binds- the variable x for use within its scope e_2
 - we call the occurrence of x in the left-hand side of the binding its binding
 occurrence (or defining occurrence)
 - occurrences of x in e_2 are usage occurrences
 - finding the binding occurrence of a variable is called scope resolution
- Two types of scope resolution
 - * static (or lexical) scoping: scoping resolution happens at compile time
 - dynamic scoping: resolution happens at run time



Example:

```
let
  x = y
in let y = 2
  in x    scope of y
  scope of x
```

Out of scope variable: the first occurrence of y is out of scope



Example:

let
$$x = 5$$
 in let $x = 3$ in $x + x$

Shadowing: the inner binding of x is shadowing the outer binding



Scope

• Where the scope starts differs in different languages:

In Haskell:

```
let
    y = x
    x = 5
    scope of x
    y = x
    x = 5
    ...
    x = 5
    ...
```



Scope

Scope resolution

- resolving which usage occurrence of a variable belongs to which defining occurrence

• Static scope

- scope is determined according to where in the program (text) the variable is used

Dynamic scope

- scope is determined according when during the program execution a variable is used



Dynamic vs static scoping

```
int x = 10;
// Called by g()
int f()
   return x;
// g() has its own variable
// named as x and calls f()
int g()
   int x = 20;
   return f();
}
main()
  printf(f());
  printf(g());
```



Example:

what is the difference between these two expressions?

α-equivalence:

- ▶ they only differ in the *choice of the bound variable names*
- ▶ we call them *α-equivalent*
- \blacktriangleright we call the process of consistently changing variable names α -renaming
- \blacktriangleright the terminology is due to a conversion rule of the λ -calculus
- we write $e_1 = a$ e_2 if two expressions are α -equivalent
- ▶ the relation \equiv_a is a equivalence relation



- Free variables
 - a free variable is one without a binding occurrence

let
$$x = 1$$
 in $x + y$ end

- Substitution: replacing all occurrences of a free variable \mathbf{x} in an expression e by another expression e is called substitution
- Example: substituting x with 2 + y in

$$5 * x + 7$$

yields

$$5 * (2 + y) + 7$$



• We have to be careful when applying substitution:

let
$$y = 5$$
 in $y * x + 7$

$$\alpha - equivalent$$
let $z = 5$ in $z * x + 7$

- substitute x by 2 * y in both

- let
$$y = 5$$
 in $y * (2 * y) + 7$
- let $z = 5$ in $z * (2 * y) + 7$

not a-equivalent anymore!

- the free variable y of 2 * y is captured in the first expression



- Capture-free substitution: to substitute e' for x in e we require the free variables in e' to be different from the bound variables in e
- We a can always arrange for a substitution to be capture free
 - α -rename e



• Limitations of (first-order) abstract syntax

- Defining and usage occurrence of variables are treated the same
 - abstract syntax doesn't differentiate between binding and using occurrence of a variable, scope isn't clear from the syntax (see Let)
 - it's difficult to identify α-equivalent expressions
 - variables are just terms, like numbers



- Higher-order abstract syntax has variables and abstraction as special constructs
- A term of the form $(x \cdot e)$ is called **an abstraction**
 - the higher-order variable x is bound in the term e (i.e., the scope x of is e)
- variables and abstraction are a built-in feature of higher-order syntax



• Structure of a higher-order term: a higher-order term $m{e}$ can have one of four forms:

```
(1) a constant (e.g., int, string)
(2) a variable x
(3) (Operator e<sub>1</sub> ... e<sub>n</sub>)
▶ (Num 4)
▶ (Plus x (Num 4))
(4) an abstraction (x · e)
▶ (x · Plus x (Num 1))
▶ (x · (y · Plus x y)
```



Higher-order abstract syntax for let-expressions

Mapping of concrete to higher-order syntax

$$e_1 \; SExpr \leftrightarrow \dot{t}_1 \; expr \qquad e_2 \; SExpr \leftrightarrow t_2 \; expr$$

let $id = e_1 \; ext{in} \; e_2 \; ext{end} \; SExpr \; \leftrightarrow \; ext{(Let} \; t_1 \; (id. \; t_2) \;) \; expr$
 $id \; Ident$
 $id \; FExpr \leftrightarrow id \; expr$

Example:

```
let x = 5 in x+y SExpr \leftrightarrow (Let (Num 5) (x.Plus <math>x y)) expr
```



Some observations:

let
$$z = x$$
 let $x = x$ in x

First-order abstract syntax

```
(Let "z" (Var "x") (Var "z")) (Let "x" (Var "x") (Var "x"))

these terms may or may not be α-equivalent:
depends on what the Let-term actually means
```

Higher-order abstract syntax

```
(Let x (z.z)) ... (Let x (x.x)) ... these terms are definitely \alpha-equivalent: not relevant what the Let-term actually means
```



Definition: A notation for substitution

We write

$$t[x := t']$$

to denote a term t where all the free occurrences of x have been replaced by the term t.



Definition: Renaming

If we replace a variable in the binding and the body of an abstraction, it is called renaming, and the resulting term is a-equivalent to the original term:

$$(\boldsymbol{x}.\boldsymbol{t}) \equiv_{a} (\boldsymbol{y}.(\boldsymbol{t} [\boldsymbol{x} := \boldsymbol{y}]))$$

if y doesn't occur free in t (i.e., or $y \notin FV(t)$)

$$(x. (Plus x (Num 1)) \equiv_{\alpha} (y. (Plus y (Num 1)))$$



A inductive definition of FV(t):

$$FV\left(\mathbf{x}\right) = \{\mathbf{x}\}$$

$$FV\left(\left(\mathbf{Op}\ t_1\ ...\ t_n\right)\right) = FV(t_1) \cup \cup FV(t_n)$$

$$FV\left(\left(\mathbf{x}.t\right)\right) = FV\left(t\right) \setminus \{\mathbf{x}\}$$

- Again, we can use one definition of free variables for any language represented in higher-order abstract syntax
- With first-order, we have to define how to calculate the set of free variables for every concrete language we are looking at



• Substituting a free variable by another free variable:

$$x[x := y] = y$$



Substituting a free variable by another free variable:

```
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{x}[\mathbf{x} &:= \mathbf{y}] &= \mathbf{y} \\
\mathbf{z}[\mathbf{x} &:= \mathbf{y}] &= \mathbf{z}, & \text{if } \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{z} \\
(Op \ t_1 \dots t_n)[\mathbf{x} &:= \mathbf{y}] &= (Op \ t_1[\mathbf{x} &:= \mathbf{y}] \dots t_n[\mathbf{x} &:= \mathbf{y}]) \\
(\mathbf{x} &:= \mathbf{y}] &= (\mathbf{x} &:= \mathbf{y}) &= (\mathbf{x} &:= \mathbf{y}) \\
(\mathbf{z} &:= \mathbf{y}] &= (\mathbf{z} &:= \mathbf{y}) & \text{if } \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{z}, &\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{z}, \\
(\mathbf{y} &:= \mathbf{y}) &= undefined & \text{if } \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}
\end{aligned}
```



• Substituting a variable by a term u:

$$\mathbf{x}[\mathbf{x} := \mathbf{u}] = \mathbf{u}$$



Substituting a variable by a term u:

```
egin{array}{lll} m{x} [m{x} := m{u}] &= m{u} \\ m{z} [m{x} := m{u}] &= m{z}, & \mbox{if } m{x} 
eq m{z} \\ (Op \ t_1 \dots t_n) [m{x} := m{u}] &= (Op \ t_1 [m{x} := m{u}] \dots t_n [m{x} := m{u}]) \\ (m{x} . t) [m{x} := m{u}] &= (m{x} . t) \\ (m{z} . t) [m{x} := m{u}] &= m{z} . t [m{x} := m{u}], & \mbox{if } m{x} 
eq m{z}, & m{z} 
eq FV(m{u}), \\ (m{y} . t) [m{x} := m{u}] &= \mbox{undefined}, & \mbox{if } m{y} \in FV(m{u}). \end{array}
```

