### CSE-505: Programming Languages

Zach Tatlock 2016

## Syntax Definition

```
\begin{array}{llll} s & ::= & \mathsf{skip} \mid x := e \mid s; s \mid \mathsf{if} \ e \ s \mid \mathsf{while} \ e \ s \\ e & ::= & c \mid x \mid e + e \mid e * e \\ (c & \in & \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}) \\ (x & \in & \{\mathtt{x}_1, \mathtt{x}_2, \ldots, \mathtt{y}_1, \mathtt{y}_2, \ldots, \mathtt{z}_1, \mathtt{z}_2, \ldots, \ldots\}) \end{array}
```

- ▶ 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

### 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"

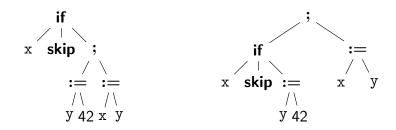
$$\begin{array}{llll} s & ::= & \mathsf{skip} \mid x := e \mid s; s \mid \mathsf{if} \ e \ s \mid \mathsf{while} \ e \ s \\ e & ::= & c \mid x \mid e + e \mid e * e \\ (c & \in & \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}) \\ (x & \in & \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, y_1, y_2, \ldots, z_1, z_2, \ldots, \ldots\}) \end{array}$$

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### **Examples**

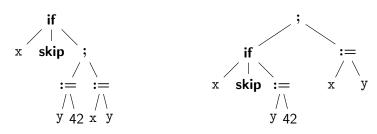
$$s ::= \operatorname{skip} | x := e | s; s | \text{ if } e s s | \text{ while } e s$$

$$e ::= c | x | e + e | e * e$$



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## Comparison to ML



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

- lacktriangle ML needs "extra nodes" for, e.g., "e can be a c"
- ► Also pretending ML's int is an integer

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# Last word on concrete syntax

Converting a string into a tree is parsing

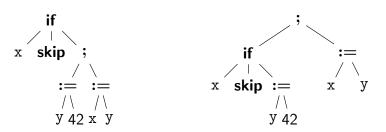
Creating concrete syntax such that parsing is unambiguous is one challenge of *grammar design* 

- ► 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

### 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

Inductive definition

 $s ::= \operatorname{skip} | x := e | s; s | \operatorname{if} e s s | \operatorname{while} e s$  e ::= c | x | e + e | e \* e

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  $e_1,e_2\in E_{i-1}$ "
- ightharpoonup Let  $E = \bigcup_{i > 0} E_i$

The set E is what we mean by our compact metanotation

#### Inductive definition

$$s ::= \operatorname{skip} | x := e | s; s | \text{ if } e s s | \text{ while } e s$$
 $e ::= c | x | e + e | e * e$ 

- ▶ 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  $e_1,e_2\in E_{i-1}$ ".
- lacksquare Let  $E=\bigcup_{i\geq 0}E_i$ .

The set  $oldsymbol{E}$  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  $S_1$ ?  $S_2$ ?  $S_2$ ?

## **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.

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#### 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  $e \in E_i$ , e has  $\geq 1$  constant or variable.

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

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# 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* . . .
- **▶** *x* . . .
- $ightharpoonup e_1 + e_2 \dots$
- $ightharpoonup e_1 * e_2 \dots$

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

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