



Programming Languages & Paradigms

PROP HT 2011

Lecture 2

Parsing, Names, Binding, Scope

Beatrice Åkerblom
beatrice@dsv.su.se

Thursday, November 3, 11

Why is it important to know how compilers work?

- To enhance understanding of programming languages
- To write better (more efficient) code in a high-level languages
- To learn techniques that can be useful also in other situations

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Different Approaches

- Compiled
- Interpreted
- Hybrid
- JIT-compiled
- Line-By-Line
- ...

All of the above still need lexical analysis and syntactical analysis

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Semantics

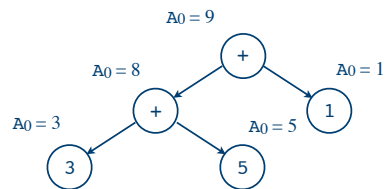
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Static Semantics (?)

- Static semantics is used to describe properties that syntactically valid programs also must have to be semantically valid, e.g. that they are type correct
 - really more related to legal forms of programs rather than meaning
 - some cannot be described by BNF, some just very verbose
 - attribute grammars -- add to CFG by carrying some semantic information along inside parse tree nodes

Attribute tree:



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Dynamic Semantics

- Dynamic semantics is used to describe how the meaning of valid programs should be interpreted
- No single widely acceptable notation or formalism
- Three common (but not the only) approaches:
 - Operational
 - Denotational
 - Axiomatic

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Dynamic Semantics - Operational

- Operational semantics
 - The meaning of a statement defined by describing the effect of running it on a machine
 - Change in the state of the machine defines the meaning of the statement
 - $\langle e, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow v$ if the expression e is evaluated or executed starting in the state σ , the resulting computation terminates and yields the result v

$$a ::= n \mid X \mid a_0 + a_1 \mid a_0 - a_1 \mid a_0 * a_1$$

$$\frac{\langle a_0, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow n_0 \quad \langle a_1, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow n_1}{\langle a_0 + a_1, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow n} \quad \text{where } n \text{ is the sum of } n_0 \text{ and } n_1$$

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Dynamic Semantics - Operational

- Advantages:
 - May be simple, intuitive for small examples
 - Good if used informally
 - Useful for implementation
- Disadvantages
 - Very complex for large programs
 - Lacks mathematical rigour
- Uses:
 - Compiler work

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Dynamic Semantics - Denotational



- Denotational semantics
 - Mathematical denotation of the meaning of the program (typically, a function)
 - The most abstract semantics description method
 - Define a function that maps a program (a syntactic object) to its meaning (a semantic object)
 - Facilitates reasoning about the program, but not always easy to find suitable semantic domains

$[[e]] : States \rightarrow Values \quad [[e]](\sigma) = v$

$A[[a]]: \Sigma \rightarrow N$

$[[n]] = \{(\sigma, n) | \sigma \in \Sigma\}$

$[[X]] = \{(\sigma, \sigma(X)) | \sigma \in \Sigma\}$

$[[a_0 + a_1]] = \{(\sigma, n_0 + n_1) | (\sigma, n_0) \in A[[a_0]] \& (\sigma, n_1) \in A[[a_1]]\}$

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Ada



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Denotational vs. Operational



- Denotational semantics is similar to high-level operational semantics, except:
 - Machine is gone
 - Language is mathematics (lambda calculus)
- The difference between denotational and operational semantics:
 - In operational semantics, the state changes are defined by coded algorithms for a virtual machine
 - In denotational semantics, they are defined by rigorous mathematical functions

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Dynamic Semantics - Denotational



- Advantages:
 - Compact & precise, with solid mathematical foundation
 - Can be used to prove the correctness of programs
 - Can be an aid to language design
- Disadvantages
 - Requires mathematical sophistication
 - Hard for programmer to use
- Uses
 - Compiler generation and optimization

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Dynamic Semantics - Axiomatic



- Axiomatic semantics
 - Based on formal logic
 - Originally used for formal program verification
 - Define axioms or inference rules for each statement type in the language
 - The inference rules allows transformation of expressions to other expressions
 - The expressions (assertions) state the relationships and constraints among variables that are true at a specific point in execution

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Dynamic Semantics



- Each form of semantic description has its place:
- Operational
 - Informal descriptions
 - Compiler work
- Denotational
 - Formal definitions
 - Provably correct implementations
- Axiomatic
 - Reasoning about particular properties
 - Proofs of correctness

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Dynamic Semantics - Axiomatic



- Advantages
 - May be useful in proofs of correctness
 - Solid theoretical foundations
- Disadvantages
 - Predicate transformers are hard to define
 - Hard to give complete meaning
 - Does not suggest implementation
- Uses of Axiomatic Semantics
 - Reasoning about correctness

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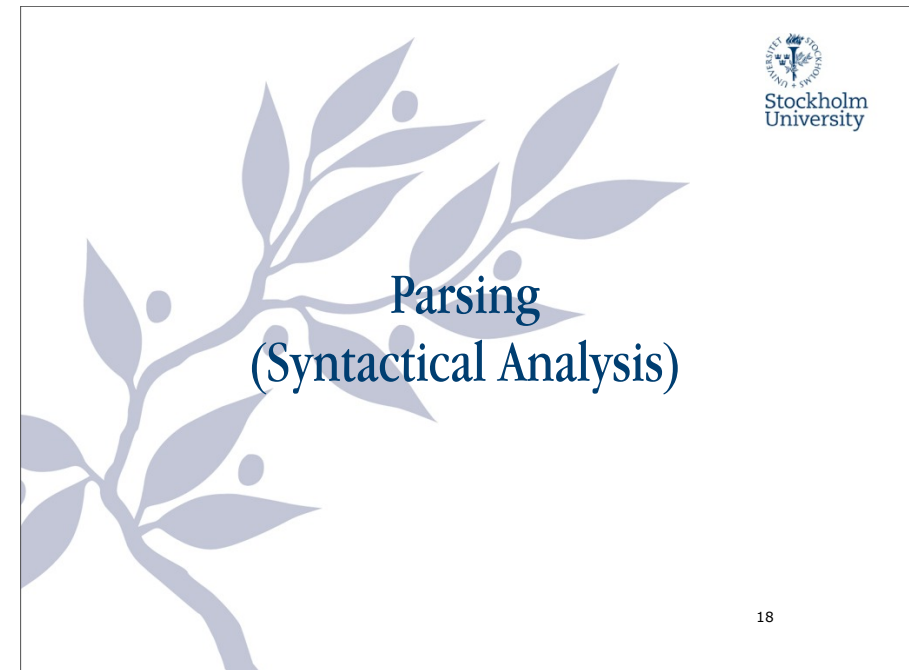
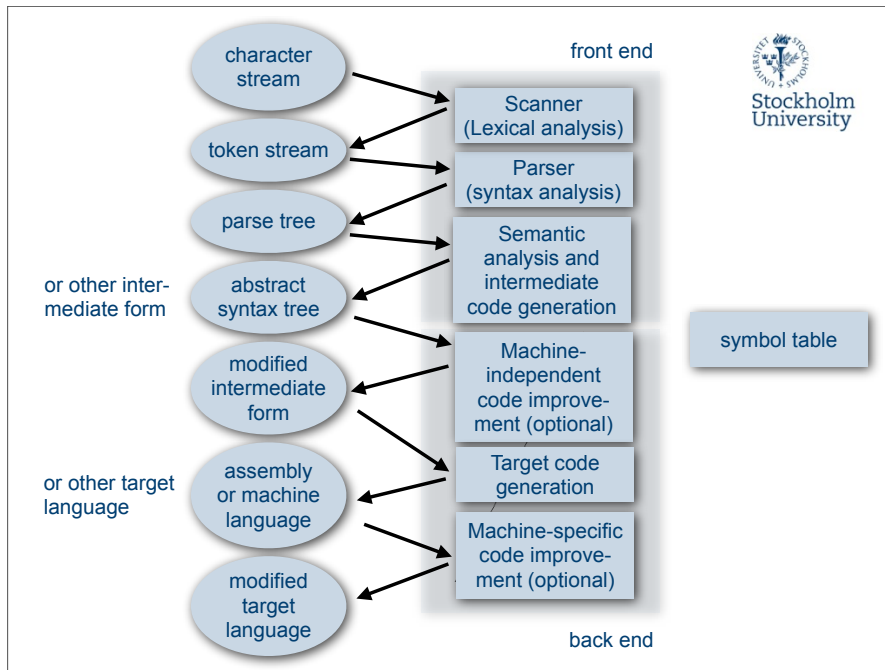
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Back to “Reality”



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- ## Parsing
- What is parsing?
 - Check if the input program is correct
 - Produce parse tree or error messages
 - Two major approaches
 - Top-down parsing
 - Bottom-up parsing
 - Won't work on all context-free grammars
 - Properties of grammar determine parse-ability
 - We may be able to transform a grammar



Top-Down Parsers -- LL(1), recursive descent

- Start with the root of the parse tree grow toward leaves
 - Root of the tree: node labeled with the start symbol
- Algorithm:
 - Repeat until the fringe of the parse tree matches input string
 - At a node A, select a production for A
 - Add a child node for each symbol on rhs
 - If a terminal symbol is added that doesn't match, backtrack
 - Find the next node to be expanded (a non-terminal)
- Done when:
 - Leaves of parse tree match input string (success)
 - All productions exhausted in backtracking (failure)

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Algol family



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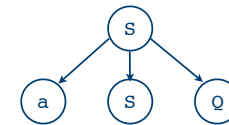
Grammar: Input string:
 S ::= abc | aSQ aabbcc
 bQc ::= bbcc
 cQ ::= Qc



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Grammar: Input string:
 S ::= abc | aSQ aabbcc
 bQc ::= bbcc
 cQ ::= Qc

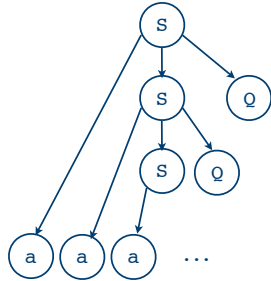


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Grammar:
 $S ::= abc \mid aSQ$
 $bQc ::= bbcc$
 $cQ ::= Qc$

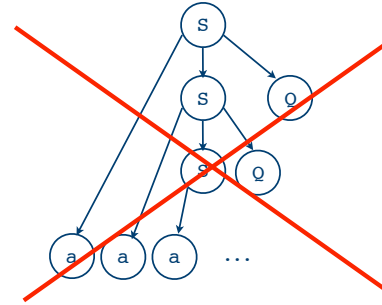
Input string:
 aabbcc



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Grammar:
 $S ::= abc \mid aSQ$
 $bQc ::= bbcc$
 $cQ ::= Qc$

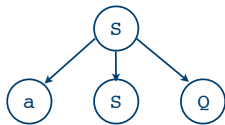
Input string:
 aabbcc



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Grammar:
 $S ::= abc \mid aSQ$
 $bQc ::= bbcc$
 $cQ ::= Qc$

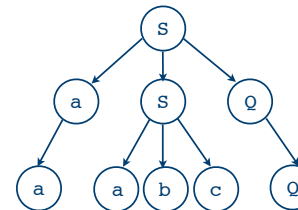
Input string:
 aabbcc



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Grammar:
 $S ::= abc \mid aSQ$
 $bQc ::= bbcc$
 $cQ ::= Qc$

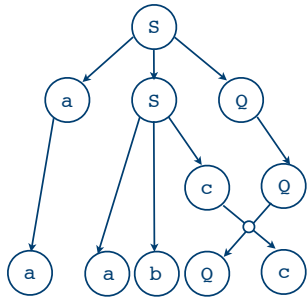
Input string:
 aabbcc



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Grammar:
 $S ::= abc \mid aSQ$
 $bQc ::= bbcc$
 $cQ ::= Qc$

Input string:
 aabbcc

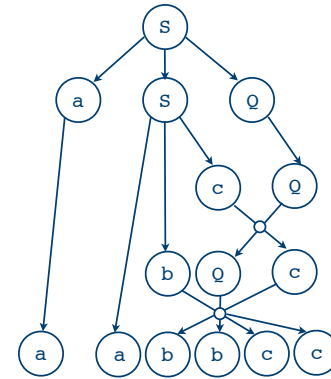


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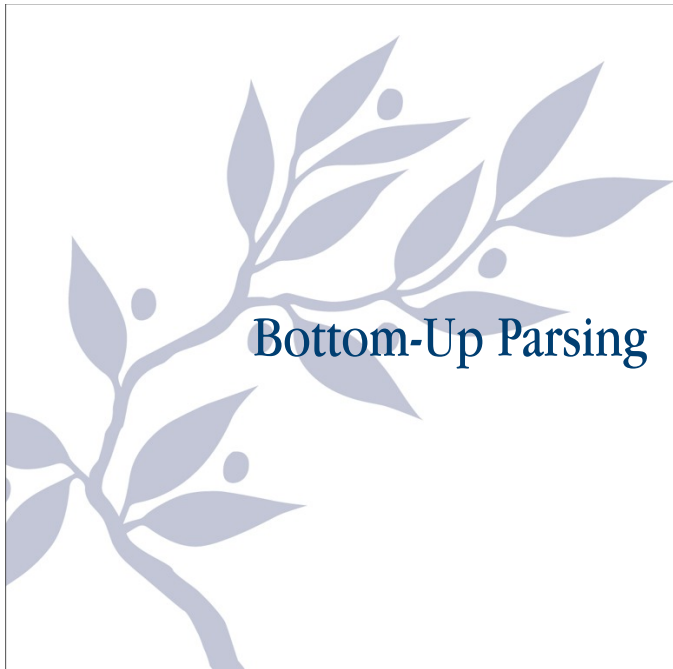
Grammar:
 $S ::= abc \mid aSQ$
 $bQc ::= bbcc$
 $cQ ::= Qc$

Input string:
 aabbcc



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Bottom-Up Parsing

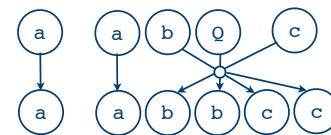


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Grammar:
 $S ::= abc \mid aSQ$
 $bQc ::= bbcc$
 $cQ ::= Qc$

Input string:
 aabbcc

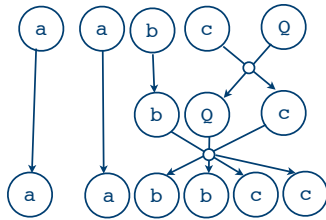


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Grammar:
 $S ::= abc \mid aSQ$
 $bQc ::= bbcc$
 $cQ ::= Qc$

Input string:
 aabbcc



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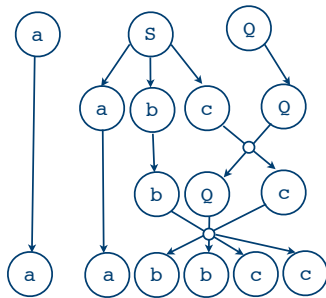
Assembler



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Grammar:
 $S ::= abc \mid aSQ$
 $bQc ::= bbcc$
 $cQ ::= Qc$

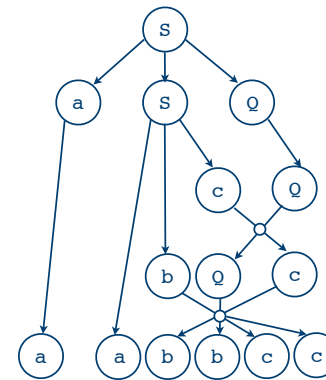
Input string:
 aabbcc



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Grammar:
 $S ::= abc \mid aSQ$
 $bQc ::= bbcc$
 $cQ ::= Qc$

Input string:
 aabbcc



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Recursive-Descent Parsing

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Recursive-Descent Parsing

- There is a subprogram for each nonterminal in the grammar, which can parse sentences that can be generated by that nonterminal
- EBNF is ideally suited for being the basis for a recursive-descent parser, because EBNF minimizes the number of nonterminals
- Assume we have a lexical analyzer named `lex`, which puts the next token code in `nextToken`
- The coding process when there is only one RHS:
 - For each terminal symbol in the RHS, compare it with the next input token; if they match, continue, else there is an error
 - For each nonterminal symbol in the RHS, call its associated parsing subprogram

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Recursive-Descent Parsing, cont'd

- A nonterminal that has more than one RHS requires an initial process to determine which RHS it is to parse
 - The correct RHS is chosen on the basis of the next token of input (the lookahead)
 - The next token is compared with the first token that can be generated by each RHS until a match is found
 - If no match is found, it is a syntax error
- Left Recursion Problem
- Pairwise Disjointness

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Lex, Yacc, Antlr

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Names and Binding, Scope

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Name, Binding and Scope

- A **name** is a term used for identification
- Most names are identifiers
- Symbols (like '+') can also be names

- A **binding** is an association between two things, such as a name and the thing it names
 - the association of values with identifiers

- The **scope** of a binding is the part of the program (textually) in which the binding is active

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Binding Time

- When the “binding” is created or, more generally, the point at which any implementation decision is made
 - language design time, e.g. operator symbols to operations
 - language implementation time, e.g. data type to the range of possible values
 - program writing time, e.g. choose algorithms, data structures and names
 - compile time, e.g. bind a variable to a data type
 - link time, e.g. bind a library call to the subprogram code
 - load time, e.g. bind a static variable to a memory cell
 - run time, e.g. bind a non-static local variable to a memory cell

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Static vs Dynamic

- A binding is static if it occurs before run time and remains unchanged throughout program execution
- A binding is dynamic if it occurs during run time and/or can change during execution of the program

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Static Type Binding

- Explicit, implicit, inferred
- Advantages
- Disadvantages

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Dynamic Type Binding

- Dynamic languages have **no** types bound to identifiers
- Advantages -- there are advantages!
- Disadvantages
 - error detection
 - documentation
 - cost

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C and C++



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Storage Binding and Lifetime

- Allocation - getting a cell from some pool of available cells
- Deallocation - putting a cell back into the pool
- The lifetime of a variable is the time during which it is bound to a particular memory cell
- **Static** - bound to memory cells before execution begins and remains bound to the same memory cell throughout execution
- **Stack-dynamic** - Storage bindings are created for variables when their declaration statements are elaborated
- **Explicit heap-dynamic** - Allocated and deallocated by explicit directives, specified by the programmer, which take effect during execution. Referenced only through pointers or references
- **Implicit heap-dynamic** - Allocation and deallocation caused by assignment statements

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Scope

- The scope of a variable is the range of statements over which it is visible.
- The nonlocal variables of a program unit are those that are visible but not declared there.
- The scope rules of a language determine how references to names are associated with variables

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Scope

- Static scope - with or without nested subprograms
- Blocks - block-structured language
- Declaration order - declarations first (before any code) or anywhere, declarations before use or not
- Global, hiding
- Dynamic Scoping - following execution path
- Advantages Static and Dynamic
- Disadvantages Static and Dynamic
- Scope and Lifetime

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Scoping Example

```
MAIN
- declaration of x
  SUB1
  - declaration of x
  ...
  call SUB2
  ...
  SUB 2
  ...
  - reference to x
  ...
  ...
call SUB1
...
```

MAIN calls SUB1

SUB1 calls SUB2

SUB2 uses x

Static scoping - reference to x is to MAIN's x

Dynamic scoping - reference to x is to SUB1's

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The End

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References

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- Aho, A., Lam, M., Sethi, R., Ullman, J. - Compilers: Principles, Techniques, and Tools
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- Grune, D & Jacobs, C - Parsing Techniques, a Practical Guide