Programming Languages and Compilers (CS 421)

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https://courses.engr.illinois.edu/cs421/fa2017/CS421A

Based on slides by Elsa Gunter, which were inspired by earlier slides by Mattox Beckman, Vikram Adve, and Gul Agha

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Course Objectives

New programming paradigm

- Functional programming
- Environments and Closures
- Patterns of Recursion
- Continuation Passing Style

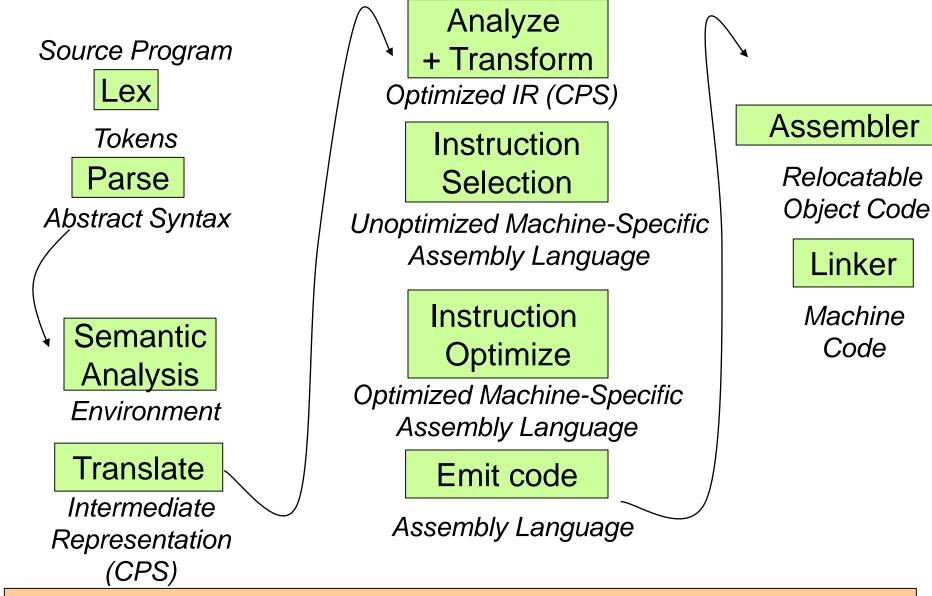
Phases of an interpreter / compiler

- Lexing and parsing
- Type systems
- Interpretation

Programming Language Semantics

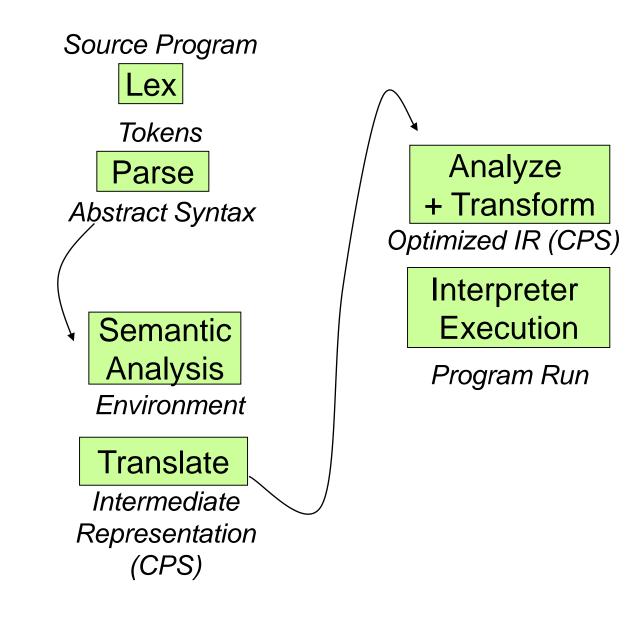
- Lambda Calculus
- Operational Semantics
- Axiomatic Semantics

Major Phases of a Compiler



Modified from "Modern Compiler Implementation in ML", by Andrew Appel

Major Phases of a PicoML Interpreter



Meta-discourse

Language Syntax and Semantics

- Syntax
 - Regular Expressions, DFSAs and NDFSAs
 - Grammars
- Semantics
 - Natural Semantics
 - Transition Semantics

Where We Are Going Next?

- We want to turn strings (code) into computer instructions
- Done in phases
- Break the big strings into tokens (lex)
- Turn tokens into abstract syntax trees (parse)
- Translate abstract syntax trees into executable instructions (interpret or compile)

Syntax of English Language

Pattern I	Subject	Verb
	David	sings
	The dog	barked
	Susan	yawned

Pattern 2

Subject	Verb	Direct Object
David	sings	ballads
The professor	wants	to retire
The jury	found	the defendant guilty

Elements of Syntax

- Character set previously always ASCII, now often 64 character sets
- Keywords usually reserved
- Special constants cannot be assigned to
- Identifiers can be assigned to
- Operator symbols
- Delimiters (parenthesis, braces, brackets)
- Blanks (aka white space)

Elements of Syntax

Expressions if ... then begin ...; ... end else begin ...; ... end Type expressions $typexpr_1 \rightarrow typexpr_2$ Declarations (in functional languages) let pattern = expr Statements (in imperative languages) a = b + cSubprograms let pattern₁ = $expr_1$ in $expr_1$

Elements of Syntax

- Modules
- Interfaces
- Classes (for object-oriented languages)

Lexing and Parsing

- Converting strings to abstract syntax trees done in two phases
 - Lexing: Converting string (or streams of characters) into lists (or streams) of tokens (the "words" of the language)
 - Specification Technique: Regular Expressions
 - Parsing: Convert a list of tokens into an abstract syntax tree
 - Specification Technique: BNF Grammars

Formal Language Descriptions

Regular expressions, regular grammars, finite state automata

Context-free grammars, BNF grammars, syntax diagrams

 Whole family more of grammars and automata – covered in automata theory

Grammars

- Grammars are formal descriptions of which strings over a given character set are in a particular language
- Language designers write grammar
- Language implementers use grammar to know what programs to accept
- Language users use grammar to know how to write legitimate programs

Regular Expressions - Review

Start with a given character set – **a**, **b**, **c**...

Each character is a regular expression
 It represents the set of one string containing just that character

Regular Expressions

If x and y are regular expressions, then xy is a regular expression

- It represents the set of all strings made from first a string described by x then a string described by y
 If x={a,ab} and y={c,d} then xy ={ac,ad,abc,abd}.
- If x and y are regular expressions, then $x \lor y$ is a regular expression
 - It represents the set of strings described by either x or y

If $x = \{a,ab\}$ and $y = \{c,d\}$ then $x \lor y = \{a,ab,c,d\}$

Regular Expressions

- If x is a regular expression, then so is (x)
 - It represents the same thing as x
- If \mathbf{x} is a regular expression, then so is \mathbf{x}^*
 - It represents strings made from concatenating zero or more strings from x
 - If $x = \{a,ab\}$ then $x^* = \{"",a,ab,aa,aab,abab,...\}$

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It represents {""}, set containing the empty string

• **Ø**

It represents { }, the empty set

Example Regular Expressions

■ (0∨l)*l

- The set of all strings of **0**'s and **1**'s ending in 1,
- **•** {**I**, **0I**, **II**,...}
- a*b(a*)
 - The set of all strings of a's and b's with exactly one b

■ ((0l) ∨(l0))*

- You tell me
- Regular expressions (equivalently, regular grammars) important for lexing, breaking strings into recognized words

Example: Lexing

 Regular expressions good for describing lexemes (words) in a programming language

- Identifier = (a \lor b \lor ... \lor z \lor A \lor B \lor ... \lor Z) (a \lor b \lor ... \lor z \lor A \lor B \lor ... \lor Z \lor 0 \lor I \lor ... \lor 9)*
- Digit = (0 ∨ 1 ∨ … ∨ 9)
- Number = $0 \lor (1 \lor \ldots \lor 9)(0 \lor \ldots \lor 9)^* \lor$

-
$$(1 \lor \ldots \lor 9)(0 \lor \ldots \lor 9)^*$$

Keywords: if = if, while = while,...

Implementing Regular Expressions

- Regular expressions reasonable way to generate strings in language
- Not so good for recognizing when a string is in language
- Problems with Regular Expressions
 - which option to choose,
 - how many repetitions to make
- Answer: finite state automata
- Should have seen in CS374



Different syntactic categories of "words": tokens

Example:

Convert sequence of characters into sequence of strings, integers, and floating point numbers.
"asd 123 jkl 3.14" will become: [String "asd"; Int 123; String "jkl"; Float 3.14]

Lex, ocamllex

- Could write the reg exp, then translate to DFA by hand
 - A lot of work
- Better: Write program to take reg exp as input and automatically generates automata
- Lex is such a program
- ocamllex version for ocaml

How to do it

- To use regular expressions to parse our input we need:
 - Some way to identify the input string call it a lexing buffer
 - Set of regular expressions,
 - Corresponding set of actions to take when they are matched.

How to do it

- The lexer will take the regular expressions and generate a state machine.
- The state machine will take our lexing buffer and apply the transitions...
- If we reach an accepting state from which we can go no further, the machine will perform the appropriate action.

Mechanics

- Put table of reg exp and corresponding actions (written in ocaml) into a file <*filename*>.mll
- Call

ocamllex <*filename*>.mll

Produces Ocaml code for a lexical analyzer in file *<filename>*.ml

Sample Input

rule main = parse

```
['0'-'9']+ { print_string "Int\n"}
```

[['0'-'9']+'.'['0'-'9']+ { print_string "Float\n"}

```
[ ['a'-'z']+ { print_string "String\n"}
```

```
| _ { main lexbuf }
```

```
let newlexbuf = (Lexing.from_channel stdin) in
    print_string "Ready to lex.\n";
main newlexbuf
```

```
}
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```

```
General Input
```

```
{ header }
let ident = regexp ...
rule entrypoint [arg1... argn] = parse
       regexp { action }
    | regexp { action }
and entrypoint [arg1... argn] = parse
  ...and ...
```

{ trailer }

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Ocamllex Input

header and *trailer* contain arbitrary ocaml code put at top an bottom of *<filename>*.ml

Iet *ident* = *regexp* ... Introduces *ident* for use in later regular expressions

Ocamllex Input

- *<filename>*.ml contains one lexing function per *entrypoint*
 - Name of function is name given for *entrypoint*
 - Each entry point becomes an Ocaml function that takes n+l arguments, the extra implicit last argument being of type Lexing.lexbuf
- argl... argn are for use in action

Ocamllex Regular Expression

- Single quoted characters for letters: 'a'
- (underscore) matches any letter
- Eof: special "end_of_file" marker
- Concatenation same as usual
- *string*": concatenation of sequence of characters
- e_1 / e_2 : choice what was $e_1 \vee e_2$

Ocamllex Regular Expression

- [c₁ c₂]: choice of any character between first and second inclusive, as determined by character codes
- [^c₁ c₂]: choice of any character NOT in set
- *e*^{*}: same as before
- *e+*: same as *e e**
- e?: option was $e_1 \vee \varepsilon$

Ocamllex Regular Expression

- $e_1 \# e_2$: the characters in e_1 but not in e_2 ; e_1 and e_2 must describe just sets of characters
- *ident*: abbreviation for earlier reg exp in let *ident* = *regexp*
- e₁ as *id*: binds the result of e₁ to *id* to be used in the associated *action*

Ocamllex Manual

More details can be found at

<u>http://caml.inria.fr/pub/docs/manual-</u> <u>ocaml/lexyacc.html</u>

```
Example : test.mll
```

```
type result = Int of int | Float of float |
                 String of string
}
let digit = ['0'-'9']
let digits = digit+
let lower case = ['a'-'z']
let upper case = ['A'-'Z']
let letter = upper case | lower case
let letters = letter+
```

Example : test.mll

```
let newlexbuf = (Lexing.from_channel stdin) in
print_string "Ready to lex.";
print_newline ();
main newlexbuf
```

Example

...

#use "test.ml";;

val main : Lexing.lexbuf -> result = <fun>
val __ocaml_lex_main_rec : Lexing.lexbuf ->
 int -> result = <fun>
Ready to lex.
hi there 234 5.2

- : result = String "hi"

What happened to the rest?!?

Example

- # let b = Lexing.from_channel stdin;;
 # main b;;
 hi 673 there
- : result = String "hi"
- # main b;;
- : result = Int 673
- # main b;;
- : result = String "there"

Problem

- How to get lexer to look at more than the first token at one time?
- Answer: *action* has to tell it to -- recursive calls
- Side Benefit: can add "state" into lexing
- Note: already used this with the _____ case

Example

```
rule main = parse
   (digits) '.' digits as f
    { Float (float of string f) :: main lexbuf}
 | digits as n
    { Int (int of string n) :: main lexbuf }
 | letters as s
    { String s :: main lexbuf}
 eof { [] }
  { main lexbuf }
```

Example Results

Ready to lex. hi there 234 5.2

- : result list = [String "hi"; String "there"; Int 234; Float 5.2]

Used Ctrl-d to send the end-of-file signal

#

Dealing with comments

First Attempt

```
let open_comment = "(*"
let close_comment = "*)"
```

```
rule main = parse
  (digits) '.' digits as f
   { Float (float_of_string f) :: main lexbuf}
   | digits as n
      { Int (int_of_string n) :: main lexbuf }
   | letters as s
      { String s :: main lexbuf}
```

Dealing with comments

- (* Continued from rule main *)
 | open_comment { comment lexbuf}
 | eof { [] }
 | { main lexbuf }
- and comment = parse
 close_comment

{ main lexbuf }
{ comment lexbuf }

Dealing with nested comments

```
rule main = parse ...
| open_comment { comment 1 lexbuf}
| eof { [] }
| _ { main lexbuf }
```

Types of Formal Language Descriptions

- Regular expressions, regular grammars
- Context-free grammars, BNF grammars, syntax diagrams
- Finite state automata
- Pushdown automata

 Whole family more of grammars and automata – covered in automata theory

BNF Grammars

Start with a set of characters, a,b,c,...
We call these *terminals*Add a set of different characters, X,Y,Z,...
We call these *nonterminals*One special nonterminal S called *start symbol*

BNF Grammars

BNF rules (aka *productions*) have form

X ::= *y*

where **X** is any nonterminal and y is a string of terminals and nonterminals

 BNF grammar is a set of BNF rules such that every nonterminal appears on the left of some rule **Example: Regular Grammars**

Regular grammar: <Balanced> ::= ε <Balanced> ::= 0<OneAndMore> <Balanced> ::= I<ZeroAndMore> <OneAndMore> ::= I<Balanced> <ZeroAndMore> ::= 0<Balanced>

Generates even length strings where every initial substring of even length has same number of 0's as 1's

Example of BNF: Regular Grammars

Subclass of BNF -- has only rules of the form:

<nonterminal>::=<terminal><nonterminal> or
<nonterminal>::=<terminal> or
<nonterminal>::=ɛ

- Defines same class of languages as regular expressions
- Important for writing lexers (programs that convert strings of characters into strings of tokens)
- Close connection to nondeterministic finite state automata
 - nonterminals = states;
 - rule = edge

BNF Grammars

BNF rules (aka *productions*) have form

X ::= *y*

where **X** is any nonterminal and y is a string of terminals and nonterminals

 BNF grammar is a set of BNF rules such that every nonterminal appears on the left of some rule

Sample BNF Grammar

- Language: Parenthesized sums of 0's and 1's
- Sum> ::= 0
- Sum >::= I
- Sum> ::= <Sum> + <Sum>
- Sum> ::= (<Sum>)

Sample Grammar

- Terminals: 0 I + ()
- Nonterminals: <Sum>
- Start symbol = <Sum>
- Sum> ::= 0
- Sum >::= |
- Sum> ::= <Sum> + <Sum>
- Sum> ::= (<Sum>)
- Can be abbreviated as

Given rules

X::= y**Z** w and **Z**::= v we may replace **Z** by v to say **X** => y**Z** w => yvw

- Sequence of such replacements called derivation
- Derivation called *right-most* if always replace the right-most non-terminal

Start with the start symbol:



Pick a non-terminal



Pick a rule and substitute:

Pick a non-terminal:

Pick a non-terminal:

Pick a rule and substitute:

<Sum> => <Sum> + <Sum >

Pick a non-terminal:

Pick a rule and substitute:

 <Sum >::= I
 <Sum> => <Sum> + <Sum >
 => (<Sum>) + <Sum>
 => (<Sum> + <Sum>) + <Sum>
 => (<Sum> + <Sum>) + <Sum>
 => (<Sum> + |) + <Sum>

Pick a non-terminal:

Pick a rule and substitute: Sum >::= 0 <Sum> => <Sum> + <Sum > => (<Sum>) + <Sum> => (<Sum> + <Sum>) + <Sum> => (<Sum> + 1) + <Sum> => (<Sum> + 1) + 0

Pick a non-terminal:

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Pick a rule and substitute Sum> ::= 0 <Sum> => <Sum> + <Sum>=> (<Sum>) + <Sum> => (<Sum> + <Sum>) + <Sum> => (<Sum> + |) + <Sum> => (<mark><Sum></mark> + I) 0 => (0 + 1) + 0

Parse Trees

- Graphical representation of derivation
- Each node labeled with either non-terminal or terminal
- If node is labeled with a terminal, then it is a leaf (no sub-trees)
- If node is labeled with a non-terminal, then it has one branch for each character in the right-hand side of rule used to substitute for it



Consider grammar: <exp> ::= <factor> | <factor> + <factor> <factor> ::= <bin> | <bin> * <exp> <bin> ::= 0 | |

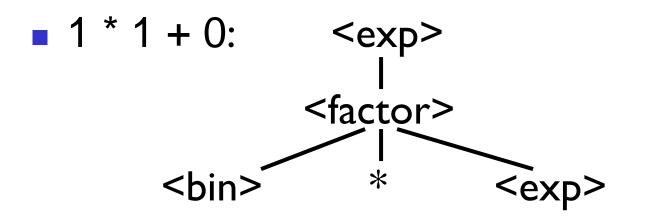
Goal: Build parse tree for I * I + 0 as an <exp>

■ 1 * 1 + 0: <exp>

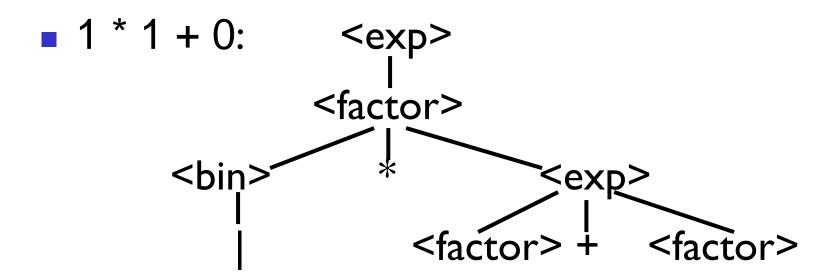
<exp> is the start symbol for this parse tree

1 * 1 + 0: <exp>I

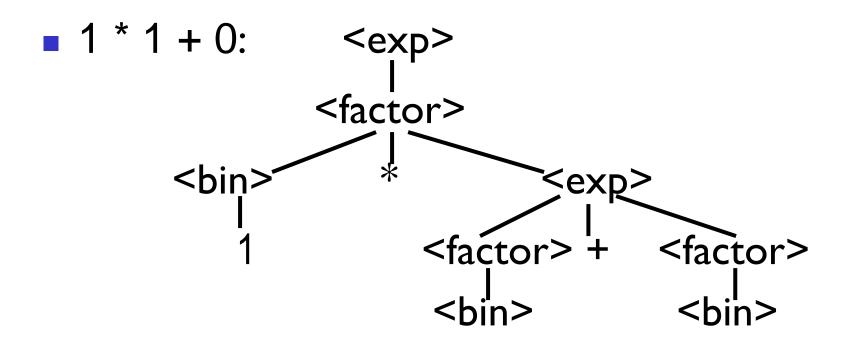
Use rule: <exp> ::= <factor>



Use rule: <factor> ::= <bin> * <exp>



Use rules: <bin> ::= I and <exp> ::= <factor> + <factor>



Use rule: <factor> ::= <bin>

