

Designing A Language

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Aspects of Language Design

- **Syntax:** How the language looks to the user.
- **Semantics:** What the language means; how it language behaves when executed.
- **Pragmatics:** Practical aspects of working with the language in a development environment.

What's Most Important?

- Semantics, by far
- There can be many different syntaxes for the same semantics.

Syntaxes:

"Hello World!" in Various Languages

They all mean basically the same thing.

```
// Hello World in Java
```

```
class HelloWorld
{
  static public void main( String args[] )
  {
    System.out.println( "Hello World!" );
  }
}
```

```
% Hello World! in LaTeX
\documentclass{article}
\begin{document}
Hello World!
\end{document}
```

```
# Hello World in Python
print "Hello World"
```

```
; Hello World in Scheme
```

```
(display "Hello, world!")
(newline)
```

```
// Hello World in C++
```

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
main()
{
  std::cout << "Hello World!" << std::endl;
  return 0;
}
```

```
% Hello World in Prolog
```

```
:- write('Hello World!') , nl .
```

Scheme Syntax

- Scheme finesses the issue of syntax by taking a rather minimalist approach.
- The syntax of Scheme reflects little more than the "abstract syntax" of a language.

Abstract Syntax?

- Abstract syntax means recognizing that various language constructs have specific parts of specific types,

but paying little attention to how the connection of those parts is specified.

Abstract Syntax Example: "if" construct

- Typical "if" has 3 parts:
 - test part
 - true branch
 - false branch

"if" in C or Java

```
if( ... )    /* conditional part */
{
    ...     /* true branch */
}
else
{
    ...     /* false branch */
}
```

"if" in Python

```
if ... : # conditional part
    ... # true branch
else:
    ... # false branch
```

"if" in Scheme

```
(if ... ; conditional part
    ... ; true branch
    ... ; false branch
)
```

Scheme's "if" is Abstract

- Scheme's "if" looks like everything else in Scheme:
(keyword ... parts ...)
- This is both good and bad.

The Bad

- Since everything looks alike, there are few visual clues, other than keywords and indentation, to differentiate one construct from another.

The Good

- The syntax is very uniform, so that part of compilation is made trivial.
- Adding new constructs to the language is easy; we don't have to stop and think up symbols.
- Programs can be read as data easily, allowing new interpreters or transformation systems to be constructed.

Same semantics, Different syntax

- We'll develop the language using abstract syntax.
- If later desired, we can add on a front-end to provide different syntax.

Making our Own Scheme-Like Language

- Entire S expressions can be read with one statement, so no scanning step is necessary.
- An S expression is either:
 - an atom (symbol, numeral, string, etc.)
 - a list (begins and ends with parens)

S Expression Examples

- (This is one S expression)
- (So are the following)
 - abcd
 - efg345
 - 678
 - (a (deeply (nested (expression))))
- (S stands for "symbolic")

A Mini-Language

- Let's say we want a language to do logic design.
- The syntax will resemble a subset of Scheme.
- The focus is on logic functions and equations.

Language Elements

- Domain: 0 for false, 1 for true
- Functions: and, or, not, xor, nand, nor, implies, =
- Definable variables
- if, let, let, let*
- User-definable functions via lambda expressions

Language Semantics

- The semantics of the language will be defined by giving it's Eval function.
- We'll use a capital "E", because "eval" is already built into Scheme (it is an interpreter for Scheme itself).

Example Arguments to Eval

- 0
- (and 1 0)
- (or (and 1 (not 0)) (nor 1 0))
- x
- (or (and x (not y)) (nor z w))
- (if x y z)
- (let ((x (and y z)) (w (nor y z))) (or x w))
- and others

Defining Eval

```
(define (Eval exp env) ...)
```

returns the result of evaluating the **exp** argument, which will ultimately come in as an *S* expression from the command line.

The purpose of **env** will be discussed later.

Basis for Eval

- The basis consists of S expressions that are not lists, such as 0, 1, and identifiers.
- The recursion part consists of lists that represent composites, such as function application, etc.

Dichotomy

```
(define (Eval exp env)
```

```
  (if (list? exp)
```

```
      (Eval-composite exp env) ; e.g. '(and 0 1)
```

```
      (Eval-basic exp env))) ; e.g. 0, 1, 'x
```

Eval-basic

```
(define (Eval-basic exp env)
  (cond
    ((constant? exp) exp)
    ((variable? exp) (get-value exp env))
    (else (Eval-error "unrecognized" exp))))
```

All functions are subject to later modification as we design.

Avoid "Magic Numbers"

```
(define logic-true 1)      ; May wish to change later  
(define logic-false 0)
```

```
(define (true? x) (equal? logic-true x))  
(define (false? x) (equal? logic-false x))  
(define (constant? x) (or (true? x) (false? x)))
```

```
(define (variable? var)  
  (symbol? var))
```

Eval-error

```
(define (Eval-error msg exp)
  (error msg exp))
```

error is built-in and throws an exception, meaning that a jump out of Eval takes place.

error does not return a value.

First Test Cases

(define base ()); Discussed later

(test (Eval 0 base) logic-false)

(test (Eval 1 base) logic-true)

Eval-composite

- When Eval-composite is called, we already know the argument is a list.
- But it could be empty.

```
(define (Eval-composite exp env)
  (if (null? exp)
      (Eval-error "empty list is meaningless" exp)
      (Eval-operator (first exp) (rest exp) env)))
```

Eval-operator

```
(define (Eval-operator operator actuals env)
  (case operator
    ('not (Eval-not actuals env))
    ('and (Eval-and actuals env))
    ('or (Eval-or actuals env))
    (else (Eval-error "unrecognized operator in "
                      (cons operator actuals))))))
```

:: actuals means actual arguments

Eval-not

```
(define (Eval-not actuals env)
  (if (length1? actuals)
      (if (true? (Eval (first actuals) env))
          logic-false
          logic-true)
      (Eval-error "wrong arguments to not operator" actuals)))
```

```
(define (length1? x)
  (and (list? x) (not (null? x)) (null? (rest x))))
```

First test cases for not

(test (Eval '(not 0) base) logic-true)

(test (Eval '(not 1) base) logic-false)

Eval-and

```
(define (Eval-and actuals env)
  (if (null? actuals)
      logic-true
      (if (true? (Eval (first actuals) env))
          (Eval-and (rest actuals) env)
          logic-false)))
```

Test cases

(test (Eval '(and 0 0) base) logic-false)

(test (Eval '(and 0 1) base) logic-false)

(test (Eval '(and 1 0) base) logic-false)

(test (Eval '(and 1 1) base) logic-true)

Other operators are similar

- or, nand, nor, xor, implies, etc.

Testing Nested Expressions

- Must do something similar for other operators (and, or, ...)

```
(test (Eval '(not (not 0))) 0)
```

```
(test (Eval '(not (not 1))) 1)
```

```
(test (Eval '(not (not (not 0)))) 1)
```

```
(test (Eval '(not (not (not 1)))) 0)
```

Handling Variables

- The env ("environment") argument holds the bindings of variables to values.
- A convenient way to represent it is by an association list.
- Then assoc can be used to look up the variable and get the binding.

Getting the Value of a Variable

```
(define (get-value var env)
  (let (
        (found (assoc var env))
      )
    (if found
        (second found)
        (Eval-error "unbound variable" var))))
```

let special form

- *let* is one means by which variables get bindings.
- A *let* form consists of a list of "equations" and a result expression.
- An "equation" is a list of pairs: a lhs variable and a rhs expression.
- The rhs's are evaluated in the outer environment, then the result expression is evaluated in a new environment created by adding bindings to the outer environment.

Eval-let

```
(define (Eval-let actuals env)
  (if (length2? actuals)
      (let* (
          (equations (first actuals))
          (result-exp (second actuals))
          )
        (if (well-formed? equations)
            (let* (
                (lhs-vars (map first equations))
                (rhs-vals (map (lambda (eqn) (Eval (second eqn) env)) equations))
                (new-env (add-bindings lhs-vars rhs-vals env))
                )
              (Eval result-exp new-env))
            (Eval-error "error in equations of let" (cons 'let actuals))))
      (Eval-error "let construct must be a list of length two" (cons 'let actuals))))
```

add-bindings

```
(define (add-bindings vars vals env)
  (if (null? vars)
      env
      (add-bindings (rest vars)
                    (rest vals)
                    (cons (list (first vars) (first vals))
                        env))))
```

Example Test for Nested let

```
(test (Eval  
      '(let ((x 0) (y 1))  
            (let ((u (and x y)) (v (or x y)))  
                  (and (not u) v)))  
      base)  
logic-true)
```

Making a Command-Line Interface

- A command-line interface (CLI) is one that sequentially accepts input from a user or file and reacts to it.
- Examples are: Scheme command line, Python command line, Unix command line, Windows DOS command line.

Read-Eval-Print Loop (REPL)

- A REPL is a special case of a CLI, that repeats the following steps:
 - Read an expression
 - Evaluation the expression
 - Print the result
- This "loop" continues until some kind of end is signalled, such as:
 - A special expression, or
 - end-of-file.

REPL for a Scheme-like Language

- The procedure `read` reads an entire `S` expression at once, returning the value `read`:
(`read`)
- This value is then handed to an evaluator, to produce a value, and then another procedure, `print`, can print the result:
(`print`)

Looping

- Looping is handled by an un-ending tail-recursive call.
- For termination, read will return a special value end-of-file when end-of-file occurs.
- A conditional test can be used to determine whether or not to continue looping.

Prompting

- Most CLI's have some form of prompt to indicate to the user that the program is awaiting input.
- This can be accomplished by another print that prints the prompt.

Sequencing

- We want procedures to be called in a specific order:
 - prompt
 - read
 - check for end-of-file
 - if end-of-file, return
 - evaluate
 - print result
 - call recursively

begin form

- begin is a special form in Scheme that forces evaluation in first-to-last order.
- The value of the form is that of the last argument in the form.

```
> (begin 'a 'b 'c)  
c
```

Sample REPL

```
define (read-eval-print)
  (begin
    (prompt)
    (let ((expression (read)))
      (if (eof-object? expression)
          expression
          (begin
             (print (Eval expression ()))
             (read-eval-print)
             ))
        ))
  )
))
```

Supporting Definitions

```
(define (prompt)
  (newline)
  (display "> "))
```

Example from REPL User's View

```
> (and 1 0)
```

```
0
```

```
> (and 1 1)
```

```
1
```

```
> (or 1 0)
```

```
1
```

```
> (or (and 1 0) (and 1 1))
```

```
1
```

```
> (not (or (and 1 0) (and 1 1)))
```

```
0
```

EOF in Dr. Scheme

- Click on the eof symbol to force end-of-file

>

eof

Dr. Scheme type-in window

EOF in Unix/Linux

- The standard convention for end-of-file in Unix/Linux is to enter

control-d

Handling User Errors

- If user input results in error being called, the exception will throw out of the REPL and looping stops.
- To avoid this, we can **catch** the exception with an error handler.
- The error-handler is "wrapped around" the call to the evaluator.
- It returns a designated value when an exception is caught.

Example REPL with Error Handler

```
(define (error-handler x)
  (display (list "*** error:" x)))

(define (read-eval-print)
  (begin
    (prompt)
    (let (
      (expression (read))
      )
      (if (eof-object? expression)
          expression
          (begin
            (with-handlers (((lambda(x) #t) error-handler))
              (print (Eval expression ())))
            (read-eval-print)
            )
          )
      )
    )
  )
)
```

User's View Upon Error

```
> (and 0 1)
0
> (foo 0 1)
(*** error: #(struct:exn:fail
  unrecognized operator in (foo 0 1)
  #<continuation-mark-set>))
> (or 0 1)
1
```

A "struct" is being returned by the handler. We can present nicer error messages by extracting the message part.

Advice

- Debug most of your program *without* the error handler in the REPL, because it will catch your errors too, but not stop looping.
- This can be annoying, because you have to enter eof, then edit.
- Add the error handler in after (you think) everything else is working.