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# Topic 5: Types

COS 320

Compiling Techniques

Princeton University  
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# Types: potential benefits (I)

For programmers:

- help to eliminate common programming mistakes, particularly mistakes that might lead to runtime errors (or prevent program from being compiled)
- provide abstractions and modularization discipline: can substitute code with alternative implementation without breaking surrounding program context

Example (ML signatures):

```
sig
  type sorted_list
  val sort : int list -> sorted_list
  val lookup : sorted_list -> int -> bool
  val insert: sorted_list -> int -> sorted_list
end
```

Internal definition of sorted\_list not revealed to clients, so can replace one implementation by another one!

Similarly for other invariants.

# Types: potential benefits (II)

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## For language designers:

- yields structuring mechanism for programs – thus encodes abstraction principles that motivate development of new language
- basis for studying (interaction between) language features (references, exceptions, IO, other side effects, h-o-functions)
- formal basis for reasoning about program behavior (verification, security analysis, resource usage)

# Types: potential benefits (III)

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## For compiler writers:

- filter out programs that backend should never see (and can't handle)
- provide information that's useful in later phases:
  - is that + a floating point add or an integer add?
  - does value  $v$  fit into a single register? (size of data types)
  - how should the stack frame for function  $f$  be organized (number and type/size of function arguments and return value)
- support generation of efficient code:
  - less code needed for handling errors (and handling casting)
  - enables sharing of implementations (source of confusion eliminated by types)
- postY2k: typed intermediate languages
  - model intermediate representations as full language, with types that communicate structural code properties and analysis results between compiler phases (example: different types for caller/callee registers)
- "refined" type systems: provide alternative formalism for program analysis and optimization

# Type-enforced safety guarantees

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- Memory Safety – can't dereference something not a pointer
- Control-Flow Safety – can't jump to something not code
- Type Safety – typing predications ("this value will be a string") come true at run time, so no operator-operand mismatches

All these errors are eliminated during development time,  
so applications much more robust!

Prevents programmer from writing code that "obviously" can't be right.

Contrast with C (weakly typed): implicit casting, null pointers, array-out-of-bounds, buffer overruns, security violations

# Type systems: limitations

- Can't eliminate all runtime errors
  - division by zero (input dependence)
  - exception behavior often not modeled/enforced
- static type analyses are typically conservative: will reject some safe programs due to fundamental undecidability of perfectly predicting control flow
- Types typically involve some programmer annotations -
  - burden
  - + documentation;
  - + burden occurs at compile time, not runtime
- cryptic error messages  but trade-off against debugging/tracing effort upon hitting segfault

# Types: design & implementation tasks

Practical tasks (for compiler writer): develop algorithms for

- **type inference**: given an expression  $e$ , calculate whether there some type  $T$  such that  $e:T$  holds. If so, return (the best such) type  $T$ , or a representation of all such types.  
May need program annotations.
- **type checking**: given a fully type-annotated program, check that the typing rules are indeed applied correctly

Theoretical tasks (language designer): study

- **uniqueness** of typings, existence of **best** types
- **decidability** and **complexity** of above tasks / algorithms
- **type soundness**: give a precise definition of “good behavior (runtime model, error model) and prove that “well-typed programs can’t go wrong” (Milner)
- **Common formalism: derivation systems (cf formal logic)**
  - formal judgments, derivation/typing rules, derivation trees

# Defining a Formal Type System

- RE  $\rightarrow$  Lexing
- CFG  $\rightarrow$  Parsers
- Inductive Definitions  $\rightarrow$  Type Systems / logical derivation systems

Components of a type system:

- a notion of *types*
- specification of *syntactic judgment forms* – A judgment is an assertion/claim, may or may not be true.
  - implicitly or explicitly underpinned by an interpretation (“validity”)
  - Typical judgement forms for type systems in PL:  $\vdash e:T$ ,  $\Gamma \vdash e:T$
- *inference rules* – tell us how to obtain new judgment instances from previously derived ones
  - should preserve validity so that only “true” judgments can be derived



# Inference Rules

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An inference rule has a set of **premises**  $J_1, \dots, J_n$  and one **conclusion**  $J$ , separated by a horizontal line:

$$\frac{J_1 \dots J_n}{J}$$

Read:

- If I can establish the truth of the premises  $J_1, \dots, J_n$ , I can conclude:  $J$  is true.
- To check  $J$ , check  $J_1, \dots, J_n$ .

An inference rule with no premises is called an **Axiom** –  $J$  always true

# But what IS a type?

## Competing views:

1. Types are mostly syntactic entities, with little inherent meaning:
  - the types for this language are  $A, B, C$ ; here are the typing rules
  - if you can't infer a type for  $e$  / check that  $e:T$  holds, reject  $e$ :  
untyped programs are not programs
  - intent / design goals of type system (partially) revealed by what you can do with well-typed programs (e.g. compile to efficient code)

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2. Types have "semantic content", for example by capturing properties an execution may have
  - types as an algorithmic approximation to classify behaviors
  - if you can't derive a judgement  $e:T$  using the typing rules, but  $e$  still "has" the behavior captured by  $T$ , that's fine
  - $\Rightarrow$  types describe properties of a priori untyped programs

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Many variations possible, depending on goals!

often more modular

# Type system for simple expressions

Starting point: abstract syntax

$$\begin{aligned} e & ::= \dots \mid -1 \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{tt} \mid \mathbf{ff} \\ & \quad \mid e \oplus e \mid \mathbf{if } e \mathbf{ then } e \mathbf{ else } e \\ \oplus & ::= + \mid - \mid \times \mid \wedge \mid \vee \mid < \mid = \end{aligned}$$

Step 1: define notion of types

Aim: separate integer expressions from boolean expressions, to prevent operations like  $5 + \mathbf{tt}$ .

Thus:  $\tau ::= \mathbf{bool} \mid \mathbf{int}$

# Type system for simple expressions

Step 2: decide on forms of judgments

$$\vdash e : \tau$$

Intuitive interpretation: “evaluating expression  $e$  yields value of type  $\tau$ .”

Step 3: define inference rules, ideally **syntax-directed**: one rule/axiom for each syntax former

Axioms (for atomic expressions):

$$\text{TT} \frac{}{\vdash \mathbf{tt} : \mathbf{bool}}$$

$$\text{FF} \frac{}{\vdash \mathbf{ff} : \mathbf{bool}}$$

$$\text{NUM} \frac{}{\vdash n : \mathbf{int}} \quad n \in \{\dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots\}$$

# Type system for simple expressions

Rules for non-atomic expressions: one hypothesis for each subexpression.

**Built-in operators:** prevent application of built-in operators to wrong kinds of arguments.

$$\text{IOP} \frac{\vdash e_1 : \mathbf{int} \quad \vdash e_2 : \mathbf{int}}{\vdash e_1 \oplus e_2 : \mathbf{int}} \quad \oplus \in \{+, -, \times\}$$

$$\text{BOP} \frac{\vdash e_1 : \mathbf{bool} \quad \vdash e_2 : \mathbf{bool}}{\vdash e_1 \oplus e_2 : \mathbf{bool}} \quad \oplus \in \{\wedge, \vee\}$$

$$\text{COP} \frac{\vdash e_1 : \mathbf{int} \quad \vdash e_2 : \mathbf{int}}{\vdash e_1 \oplus e_2 : \mathbf{bool}} \quad \oplus \in \{<, =\}$$

**Conditionals:** branch condition should be boolean, arms should agree on their type ( $\tau$ ), and overall type is  $\tau$ , too

$$\text{ITE} \frac{\vdash e_1 : \mathbf{bool} \quad \vdash e_2 : \tau \quad \vdash e_3 : \tau}{\vdash \mathbf{if } e_1 \mathbf{ then } e_2 \mathbf{ else } e_3 : \tau}$$

# Type Checking Implementation

```
fun check (e: Expr, t: Type): bool :=  
  case t of  
    Bool => (case e of ... )  
  | Int => (case e of ... );
```

type in the host language (the language  
the compiler is implemented in)



# Type Checking Implementation

```
fun check (e: Expr, t: Type): bool :=  
  case t of  
    Bool => (case e of .. )
```

expressions/types of the object language, ie the language for which we're writing a compiler

```
| Int => (case e of ... )
```

# Type Checking Implementation

```
fun check (e: Expr, t: Type): bool :=
  case t of
    Bool => (case e of
      tt => true
      | ff => true
      | f e1 e2 => (case f of
        AND => check (e1, Bool) andalso check (e2, Bool)
        | (*similar case for OR *)
        | LESS => check (e1, Int) andalso check(e2, Int)
        | (*similar cases for EQ etc*)
        | _ => false)
      | IF e1 THEN e2 ELSE e3 => check (e1, Bool) andalso
        check (e2, Bool) andalso (e3, Bool))
    | Int => (case e of ... )
```

Alternative: swap nesting of case distinctions for expressions and types.

# Type Inference Implementation

```
fun infer (e:Expr): Type option =  
  case e of  
    tt => Some Bool  
  | ff => Some Bool  
  | BINOP f e1 e2 => ???  
  | ...
```

# Type Inference Implementation

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fun infer (e:Expr): Type option =  
  case e of  
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  | BINOP f e1 e2 => (case f of  
    AND => if check(e1, Bool) andalso check(e2, Bool)  
    then Some Bool else None  
  | ...
```

# Type Inference Implementation

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fun infer (e:Expr): Type option =
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```
case e of
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```
  | BINOP f e1 e2 => (case f of
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```
    AND => if check(e1, Bool) andalso check(e2, Bool)
```

```
      then Some Bool else None
```

```
  | ...
```

alternative that does not use **check**:

```
case (infer e1, infer e2) of
```

```
(Some bool, Some bool) => Some bool
```

```
| (_, _) => None
```

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case e of
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  | ff => Some Bool
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  | BINOP f e1 e2 => (case f of
```

```
    AND => if check(e1, Bool) andalso check(e2, Bool)  
            then Some Bool else None
```

```
    | PLUS => if check (e1, Int) andalso check(e2, Int)  
              then Some Int else None
```

```
    | LESS => if check (e1, Int) andalso check (e2, Int)  
              then Some Bool else None
```

```
    | ... )
```

```
  | IF e1 THEN e2 ELSE e3 => ???
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alternative that does not use **check**:

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case (infer e1, infer e2) of  
  (Some bool, Some bool) => Some bool  
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fun infer (e:Expr): Type option =
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  | BINOP f e1 e2 => (case f of
      AND => if check(e1, Bool) andalso check(e2, Bool)
              then Some Bool else None
      | (*similar cases for other binops*) )
  | IF e1 THEN e2 ELSE e3 => if check(e1, Bool)
                              then case (infer e2, infer e3) of
                                  (Some t1, Some t2) =>
                                      if t1=t2 then Some t1 else None
                                  | (_, _) => None
                              else None
  | (*other expressions*)
```

equality between types  
(often defined by induction)

Improvement: replace return type “**Type** option” by type that allows informative error messages in case where inference fails.

# Type system for simple expressions

## Exercise

Perform syntax-directed inference for the expressions

- $3 + (\text{if } (3 < 5) \wedge ((2 + 2) = 5) \text{ then } 7 \text{ else } (2 * 5))$
- $3 + (\text{if } (3 < 5) \wedge ((2 + 2) = 5) \text{ then } 7 \text{ else } (5 + \text{tt}))$ .

Are the derivations/final judgments unique?



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## Exercise (homework)

Define a simple type system for above expressions  $e$  that counts the number of atomic subexpressions.

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Define a simple type system for above expressions  $e$  that counts the number of atomic subexpressions.

**Next:** type system for languages with variables, functions, references, and products/records. These features require new types, judgment forms, and rules

# Adding variables (I)

Starting point (absyn): extend syntax of expressions:

$$e ::= \dots \mid x$$

where  $x$  ranges over identifiers

Step 1 (types): no changes – still only booleans and integers

Step 2 (judgments): expressions can contain variables, hence we can only associate types with expressions if we are given the types of the variables (assumptions).

aka symbol table

## Contexts

A (typing) **context**  $\Gamma$  is a partial function mapping variables to types, usually written in the form  $x_0 : \tau_0, \dots, x_n : \tau_n$ , where all the  $x_i$  are distinct. Note: not all identifiers are required to occur.

Example:  $\Gamma = x : \mathbf{int}, y : \mathbf{bool}, z : \mathbf{int}$

# Adding variables (II)

Step 2 (ctd'): judgments with contexts:  $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$

Step 3.1 (axioms): essentially no changes for **constant** expressions (just add  $\Gamma$ ):

$$\text{TT} \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{tt} : \mathbf{bool}} \qquad \text{FF} \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{ff} : \mathbf{bool}}$$

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Novel rule (**context lookup**):  $\text{VAR} \frac{x : \tau \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau}$

Step 3.2 (rules for composite expressions): essentially no changes (just add  $\Gamma$  everywhere) **side condition**

Shortcoming?

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**Shortcoming?** cannot add a binding to variables.

# Adding variables (III)

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Extension by let-binding (ML-style)

Step 1: add new composite expression former:

$$e ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{let } x = e \mathbf{ in } e \mathbf{ end}$$

Step 2: define update operation  $\Gamma[x : \tau]$  on contexts:  
delete any binding for  $x$  in  $\Gamma$  (if existent), then add  
binding  $x : \tau$ . No changes in format of judgments

Step 3: new typing rule:



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$$\text{LET} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \sigma \quad \Gamma[x : \sigma] \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{let\ } x = e_1 \mathbf{\ in\ } e_2 \mathbf{\ end} : \tau}$$



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## Exercise

Perform inference (i.e. find  $\tau$  if existent) for

- $b : \mathbf{bool} \vdash \mathbf{if\ } b \mathbf{\ then\ let\ } x = 3 \mathbf{\ in\ } x \mathbf{\ end\ else\ } 4 : \tau$
- $x : \mathbf{int}, y : \mathbf{int} \vdash \mathbf{let\ } x = x < y \mathbf{\ in\ if\ } x \mathbf{\ then\ } y \mathbf{\ else\ } 0 \mathbf{\ end} : \tau$
- $x : \mathbf{int}, y : \mathbf{int} \vdash \mathbf{let\ } x = x < y \mathbf{\ in\ if\ } x \mathbf{\ then\ } y \mathbf{\ else\ } x \mathbf{\ end} : \tau$

# Adding functions (I)

Starting point (absyn): two characteristic operations:

## Function formation

$$e ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{fun} \ f(x) = e_1 \ \mathbf{in} \ e_2 \ \mathbf{end}$$

declares function  $f$  with formal parameter  $x$  and body  $e_1$ . Name  $f$  may be referred to in  $e_1$  (recursion) and  $e_2$ . Name  $x$  only in  $e_1$ .

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Denoted by juxtaposition :  $e ::= \dots \mid e \ e$

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Step 1 (types): Function/arrow type:

$$\tau ::= \dots \mid \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$$

models functions with argument type  $\tau_1$  and return type  $\tau_2$

Step 2 (judgment form): no change

# Adding functions (II)

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Aim: prevent application of functions to arguments of wrong type. And prevent applications  $e e'$  where  $e$  is not a function.

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$$\Gamma[f : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2][X : \tau_1] \vdash e_1 : \tau_2$$

$$\text{FUN} \frac{\Gamma[f : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2][X : \tau_1] \vdash e_1 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{fun} f(x) = e_1 \mathbf{in} e_2 \mathbf{end} : \tau}$$

First hypothesis verifies construction/declaration of  $f$ .

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First hypothesis verifies construction/declaration of  $f$ . Second hypothesis verifies its use. Note that types  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  have to be guessed.

Rule for function application:



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Rule for function application:

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## Exercise (homework)

Define an expression that declares and uses the factorial function, and write down its typing derivation.

# References (cf. ML-primer)

Starting point (absyn): three characteristic operations:

Allocation, read, write (assign)

$$e ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{alloc} \ e \mid !e \mid e := e$$

Step 1 (types):  $\tau ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{ref} \ \tau \mid \mathbf{unit}$

Type  $\mathbf{ref} \ \tau$  models locations that can hold values of type  $\tau$ .

Step 2 (judgment form): no change

Step 3 (rules):

$$\text{ALLOC} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{alloc} \ e : \mathbf{ref} \ \tau} \quad \text{READ} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \mathbf{ref} \ \tau}{\Gamma \vdash !e : \tau}$$
$$\text{WRITE} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \mathbf{ref} \ \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 := e_2 : \mathbf{unit}}$$

Exercise (homework)

Redo factorial, but use a reference to hold the result.

# Products/tuples

Starting point (absyn): two characteristic operations:

## Product formation, projections

$$e ::= \dots \mid \langle e_1, \dots, e_n \rangle \mid \#_n e$$

Step 1 (types):  $\tau ::= \dots \mid \langle \tau_1, \dots, \tau_n \rangle$  ( $n = 0$  amounts to **unit**)

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$\text{PROJ} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \langle \tau_1, \dots, \tau_n \rangle}{\Gamma \vdash \#_k e : \tau_k} \quad 1 \leq k \leq n$

# Subtyping (I)

## Motivating observation

Expressions of type  $\langle \tau_1, \dots, \tau_n \rangle$  can be used as values of type  $\langle \tau_1, \dots, \tau_m \rangle$  for any  $m \leq n$ . Simply forget additional entries.

Indeed: any operation we may perform on an expression of the latter type (i.e. a projection  $\#_k e$ , which is only well-typed if  $k \leq m$ ) is also legal on expressions of the former type.



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## General idea

Type  $\tau$  is a **subtype** of  $\sigma$  if all values of type  $\tau$  may also count as values of type  $\sigma$ . Operations that handle arguments of type  $\sigma$  must also handle arguments of type  $\tau$ .

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Axiomatize this idea in new judgment form **subtyping**:  $\tau <: \sigma$ . Again, we justify the axiomatization only informally.

# Subtyping (II)

How to use subtyping: subsumption rule

$$\text{SUB} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma} \tau <: \sigma$$

Models the intuition that a  $\tau$ -value may be provided whenever a  $\sigma$ -value is expected, i.e. interpretation as subset of values.

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How to **establish** subtyping: Separate derivation system.

## Pre-order rules

$$\text{SREFL} \frac{}{\tau <: \tau}$$

$$\text{STRANS} \frac{\tau_1 <: \tau_2 \quad \tau_2 <: \tau_3}{\tau_1 <: \tau_3}$$

These two rules deal with the base types **int**, **bool**, **unit**.

Next slides: rules that propagate subtyping through the various type formers.

# Subtyping (III): propagating through products

Products (width): may **truncate** products

$$\text{SPROD} \frac{}{\langle \tau_1, \dots, \tau_n \rangle <: \langle \tau_1, \dots, \tau_m \rangle} m < n$$

Thought experiment: suppose  $n < m$  instead. Take some  $e$  with, say,  $\Gamma \vdash e : \langle \mathbf{int}, \mathbf{bool} \rangle$ . By (hypothetical) rule SPROD and SUB, have  $\Gamma \vdash e : \langle \mathbf{int}, \mathbf{bool}, \mathbf{int} \rangle$ . So  $\Gamma \vdash \#_3 e : \mathbf{int}$  is well-typed. But this will crash!

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Products: depth

$$\text{PPROD} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \langle \tau_1, \dots, \tau_n \rangle}{\Gamma \vdash e : \langle \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n \rangle} \forall i. \tau_i <: \sigma_i$$

# Subtyping (IV): propagating through functions

## Propagation of subtyping through functions

$$\text{PFUN} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma_1 \rightarrow \sigma_2} \sigma_1 <: \tau_1, \tau_2 <: \sigma_2$$

Return position covariant: **weaker** guarantee on result

Argument position contravariant: **stronger** constraint on arguments (e.g. longer products),

Example:  $f(x) = \mathbf{let} \ z = \#_1 x \ \mathbf{in} \ \langle \mathbf{even}(z), z \rangle \ \mathbf{end}.$

Have  $\text{PFUN} \frac{\Gamma \vdash f : \langle \mathbf{int} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \mathbf{bool}, \mathbf{int} \rangle}{\Gamma \vdash f : \langle \mathbf{int}, \mathbf{int} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \mathbf{bool} \rangle}.$

Rule thus correctly sanctions the application

$\mathbf{let} \ arg = \langle 3, 4 \rangle \ \mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{let} \ res = f \ arg \ \mathbf{in} \ \#_1 res \ \mathbf{end} \ \mathbf{end}.$

# Subtyping (V): propagating through references

Guess

$$\text{PREF} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \mathbf{ref} \tau}{\Gamma \vdash e : \mathbf{ref} \sigma} \text{ ???}$$



# Subtyping (V): propagating through references

## Guess

$$\text{PREF} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \mathbf{ref} \tau}{\Gamma \vdash e : \mathbf{ref} \sigma} \quad ??? \tau = \sigma \text{ (invariance)}$$

Reason: read/write yield conflicting conditions

**Read** motivates  $\frac{\tau <: \sigma}{\mathbf{ref} \tau <: \mathbf{ref} \sigma}$ : if  $e$  evaluates to a reference holding  $\tau$  values, and any ( $\tau$ -)value we extract from that location (i.e.  $!e$ ) can also be interpreted as a  $\sigma$ -value, we should be allowed to consider  $e$  as holding  $\sigma$ -values, so that  $\vdash !e : \sigma$ .

**Write** motivates  $\frac{\sigma <: \tau}{\mathbf{ref} \tau <: \mathbf{ref} \sigma}$ : if  $e$  evaluates to a reference to which we may write a  $\tau$  value (i.e.  $\Gamma \vdash e : \mathbf{ref} \tau$ ), and if any  $\sigma$ -value (say  $\Gamma \vdash e' : \sigma$ ) may be considered a  $\tau$ -value, then we should be able to assign  $e'$  to  $e$ , i.e. allow  $\Gamma \vdash e := e' : \mathbf{unit}$

# HW4: type analysis

Differences between FUN and above language:

- functions declared at top-level, annotated with argument and return types No higher-order functions
- products start at 0

Challenge:

- subtyping destroys property that an expression has at most one type.
- rule SUB destroys syntax-directedness, and doesn't make the expression any smaller. Can apply SUB at any point.

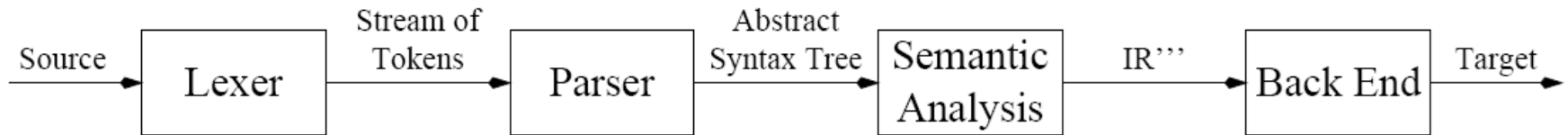
Task:

- reformulate type system so that it **is** syntax-directed: modify the rules such that subtyping is integrated differently, **BUT EXACTLY THE SAME JUDGMENTS SHOULD BE DERIVABLE** using **least common supertypes** (“joins”) and **greatest common subtype** (“meets”). Implement calculation of meets and joins.
- use these to implement syntax-directed inference

# Additional aspects

- separate name spaces for type definitions vs variables/ functions/procedures → separate environments (cf **Tiger**)
- when syntax-directedness fails, requiring user-supplied type annotations helps inference  
Example: functions declarations, in particularly (mutually) recursive ones
- not covered:
  - overloading (multiple typings for operators)  
example: arithmetic operations over int, float, double
  - additional syntactic category (eg statements): new judgements
  - Casting/coercion
    - explicit (ie visible in program syntax): similar to other operators
    - implicit: destroys syntax-directness similar to subtyping
    - often symbolizes/triggers change of representation (int -> double) that's significant for compiler backend
  - polymorphism (finite representations for infinitely many typings)
  - arrays, class/object systems incl inheritance, signatures/modules/interfaces

# Next steps



- IR code generation
- But first: need to learn a bit how data will be laid out in memory: **activation records** / frame stack

**Useful homework**: read MCIL's sections on TIGER's semantic analysis (Chapter 5) and, if possible, TIGER's activation record layout (Chapters 6)!

## Quiz 3: LR(0)

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How many states does the LR(0) parse table for the following grammar have? (You may guess or draw the parse table ;-)

$S \rightarrow B \$$

$P \rightarrow \varepsilon$

$E \rightarrow B$

$B \rightarrow id P$

$P \rightarrow ( E )$

$E \rightarrow B, E$

$B \rightarrow id ( E ]$

(cf MCIL, page 85, exercise 3.11)