

LANGUAGE PROCESSORS

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UNIT 3: FORMAL
GRAMMARS



OUTLINE

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OUTLINE

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Motivation

- ▶ A grammar is a powerful tool for describing and analyzing languages.
- ▶ A grammar is a set of rules (*productions*) by which valid sentences in a language are constructed.

Definitions (I)

- ▶ Alphabet Σ
 - ▶ Finite, non-empty set of symbols (for example, letters and characters).
- ▶ Word w
 - ▶ Finite sequence of symbols drawn from an alphabet (sentence and string are also use as synonyms).
- ▶ Empty word λ, ε
 - ▶ word of length 0.
- ▶ Universe $W(\Sigma)$
 - ▶ All words that can be formed with elements from Σ .
- ▶ Language $L(\Sigma)$
 - ▶ Any subset of $W(\Sigma)$.

Definitions (II)

- Grammar
 - Set of rules by which valid sentences in a language are constructed.
- Nonterminal
 - Grammar symbol that can be replaced to a sequence of symbols.
- Terminal
 - Actual word in the language (not further expansion is possible).
- Production
 - Grammar rule that defines how to replace/exchange symbols
- Derivation
 - A sequence of applications of the rules of a grammar that produces a finished string of terminals.

Formal grammar

- $G = \{\Sigma_T, \Sigma_N, S, P\}$
 - Σ_T terminal symbols alphabet
 - Σ_N nonterminal symbols alphabet
 - $\Sigma_V = \Sigma_T \cup \Sigma_N$
 - $\Sigma_T \cap \Sigma_N = \emptyset$
 - S axiom or start symbol ($S \in \Sigma_N$)
 - P finite set of productions:
 - $w \rightarrow z$
 - $w \rightarrow^* z$
 - $w \rightarrow^+ z$

BNF notation (extended)

- ▶ Formal notation to describe the syntax of a given language
 - ▶ ::= meaning “is defined as”
 - ▶ | “or”
- Nonterminals are usually represented by uppercase letters
- Terminals by lowercase letters

Example grammar

► $G = \{\Sigma_T, \Sigma_N, S, P\}$

$\Sigma_T = \{x, y, z\}$

$\Sigma_N = \{S, A, B\}$

$P = \{S ::= AB,$

$A ::= Ax \mid y,$

$B ::= z\}$

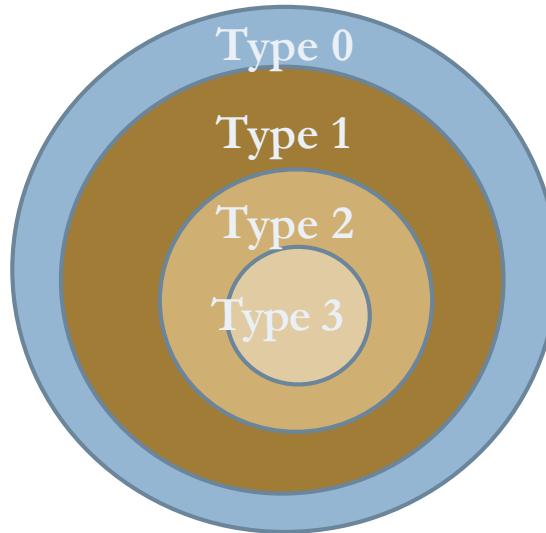
Grammar Hierarchy (Chomsky)

- ▶ **Type 0:** unrestricted grammars
 - ▶ $\underline{u} \rightarrow \underline{v}$ (\underline{u} not null)
- ▶ **Type 1:** context-sensitive grammars
 - ▶ $P = \{xAy ::= xvy \text{ where } x, y \in \Sigma_V^* \wedge A \in \Sigma_N \wedge v \in \Sigma_V^+\}$
 - ▶ $\underline{uXw} \rightarrow \underline{uvw}$ (v not null, X single nonterminal)
- ▶ **Type 2:** context-free grammars
 - ▶ $P = \{A ::= v \text{ where } A \in \Sigma_N \wedge v \in \Sigma_V^+\}$
 - ▶ $X \rightarrow \underline{v}$ (X single nonterminal)

Grammar Hierarchy (Chomsky)

▶ Type 3: regular or linear grammars

- ▶ $X \rightarrow a, X \rightarrow aY, X \rightarrow \epsilon$
- ▶ linear on the left
 - ▶ $P = \{(A ::= Ba) \cup (A ::= a) \mid A, B \in \Sigma_N \wedge a \in \Sigma_T^*\}$
- ▶ linear on the right
 - ▶ $P = \{(A ::= aB) \cup (A ::= a) \mid A, B \in \Sigma_N \wedge a \in \Sigma_T^*\}$



Definitions (II)

- ▶ **Sentential form:**
 - ▶ x is a sentential form if $S \rightarrow_* x$
- ▶ **Sentence:**
 - ▶ x is a sentence if it is a sentential form and $x \in \Sigma_T^*$
- ▶ **Language generated by a grammar G :**
 - ▶ $L(G) = \{x \text{ where } S \rightarrow_* x, x \in \Sigma_T^*\}$
- ▶ **Grammar equivalence:**
 - ▶ G_1 and G_2 are equivalent if $L(G_1) = L(G_2)$

Parse representation

- ▶ We can represent the application of rules to derive a sentence in two ways:
 - ▶ A derivation.
 - ▶ A parse tree.

Derivation

- ▶ A derivation is a sequence of applications of the rules of a grammar that produces a word (a string of terminals)
- ▶ Leftmost derivation
 - ▶ the leftmost nonterminal symbol is always replaced when the rules are applied
- ▶ Rightmost
 - ▶ the rightmost nonterminal symbol is always replaced when the rules are applied

Example derivation

$S ::= AB$

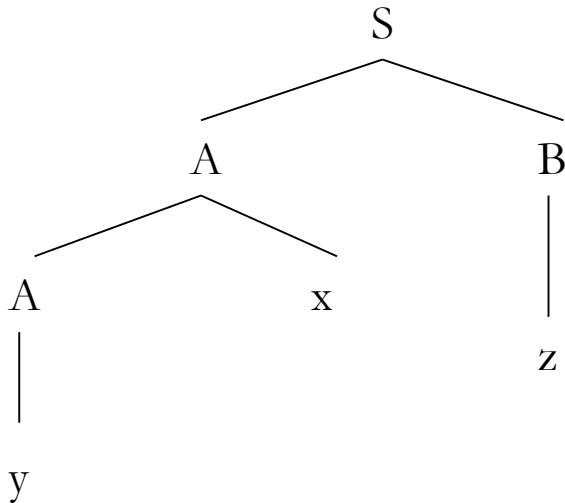
$A ::= Ax \mid y$

$B ::= z$

$S \rightarrow AB \rightarrow AxB \rightarrow yxB \rightarrow yxz$

Parse tree

- ▶ It shows how each symbol derives from other symbols in a hierarchical manner. It does not encode the order the productions are applied



Issues in parsing context-free grammars

- ▶ Ambiguity
- ▶ Recursive rules
- ▶ Left-factoring

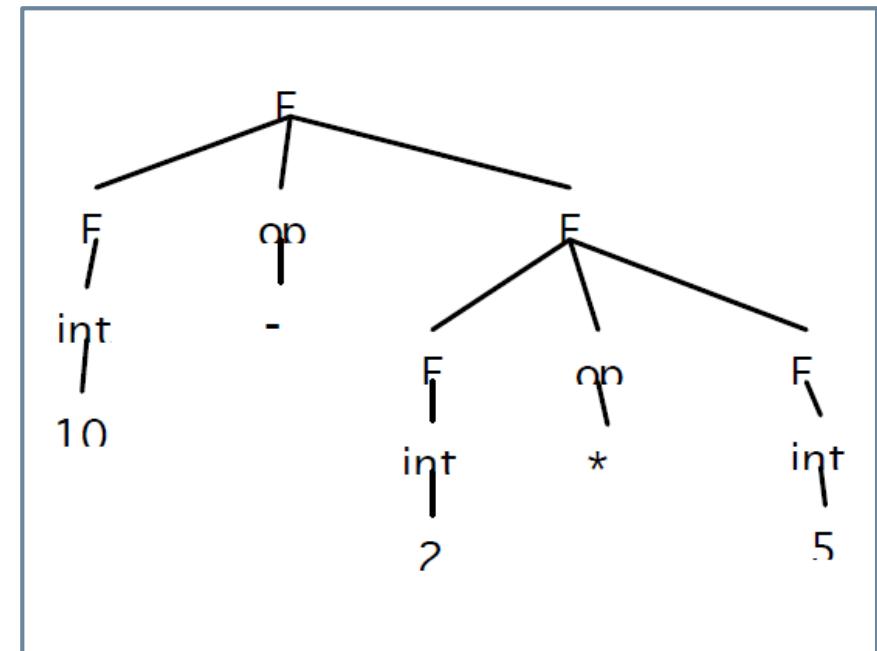
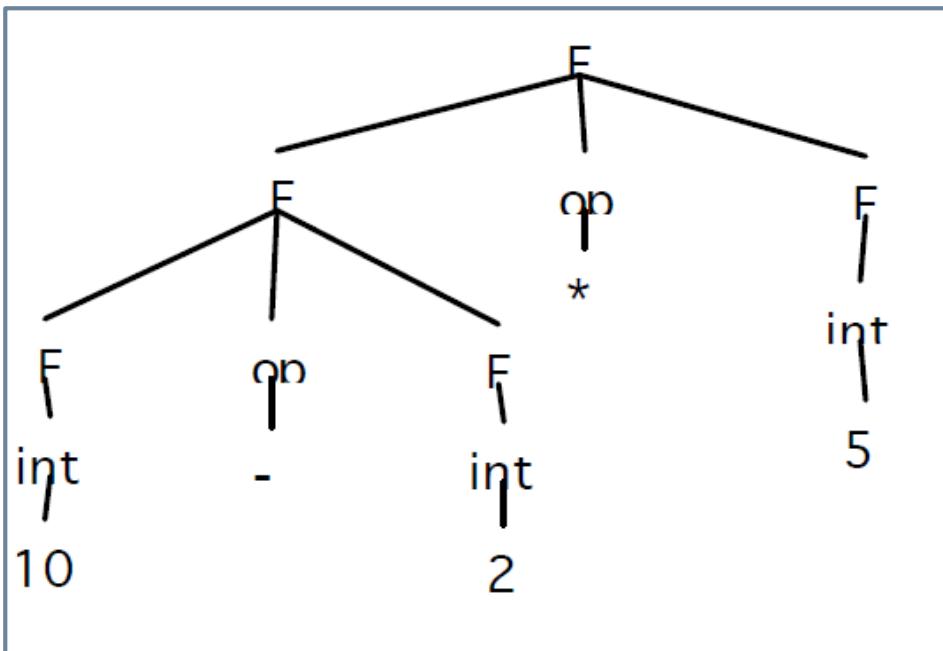
Ambiguity (I)

- ▶ If a grammar permits more than one parse tree for the same sentence, then it is said to be ambiguous

- ▶ Example:
$$E ::= E \text{ Op } E \mid (E) \mid \text{int}$$
$$\text{Op} ::= + \mid - \mid * \mid /$$

Ambiguity (II)

- E.g. 10-2 *5



Ambiguity (III)

- ▶ Methods to handle ambiguity:
 - ▶ Rewrite the grammar unambiguously → only allow the one tree that correctly reflects our intention and eliminate the others.
 - ▶ Use the ambiguous grammar along with some disambiguating declarations.
- ▶ Example:

$E ::= ET_Op\ E\ | T$

$T_Op ::= +\ | -$

$T ::= TF_OpT\ | F$

$F_Op ::= *\ | /$

$F ::= (E)\ | \text{int}$

Ambiguity (IV)

- ▶ There is no magical technique that can be used to resolve all varieties of ambiguity:
 - ▶ It is an undecidable problem to determine whether any grammar is ambiguous
 - ▶ To attempt to mechanically remove all ambiguity.

Recursivity

- Productions are often defined in terms of themselves:
 $\text{variable_list} \rightarrow \text{variable} \mid \text{variable_list}, \text{variable}$
- **G is recursive if $\exists A \in \Sigma_N \mid (A ::= xAy) \in P$**
 - ▣ Left-recursive: $x = \lambda (A \rightarrow \underline{u} \mid A \underline{v})$
 - ▣ Right-recursive: $y = \lambda (A \rightarrow \underline{u} \mid \underline{v} A)$

Left Recursion (I)

- ▶ Some parsing methods (top-down) cannot handle left-recursive grammars
- ▶ To build this type of parsers, we need to transform the grammar to eliminate left-recursion

Left Recursion (II)

- ▶ Eliminating left recursion (one production)

$$P = (A ::= A \cdot \alpha | \beta)$$

1. $\Sigma_N = \Sigma_N \cup \{A'\}$
2. $P' = \{A ::= \beta \cdot A', A' ::= \alpha \cdot A' | \lambda\}$

- Example:

- ▶ $P = \{E ::= E * T | T\}$
- ▶ Solution: $P' := \{E ::= TE', E' ::= * TE' | \lambda\}$

Left Recursion (III)

▶ Eliminating the immediate left recursion

$$P = (A ::= A \cdot \alpha_1 | A \cdot \alpha_2 | \dots | A \cdot \alpha_n | \beta_1 | \beta_2 | \dots | \beta_m)$$

1. $\Sigma_N = \Sigma_N \cup \{A'\}$
2. $P' = P \cup \{A ::= \beta_1 \cdot A' | \beta_2 \cdot A' | \dots | \beta_m \cdot A'\},$
 $A' ::= \alpha_1 \cdot A' | \alpha_2 \cdot A' | \alpha_n \cdot A' | \lambda\}$

Left Recursion (IV)

▶ Example:

► $P : E ::= E * T \mid E + T \mid T$

▶ Solution:

► $P' : E ::= TE'$

$E' ::= * TE' \mid + TE' \mid \lambda$

Left Recursion (V)

- **Recursion:**

- $P:$
 - $A ::= B\alpha$
 - $B ::= A\beta \mid \lambda$

- **Algorithm**

1. Arrange the nonterminals in some order: A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n
2. For $i=1$ to n
 3. For $j=1$ to n
 - replace each production of the form: $A_i \rightarrow A_j \cdot \gamma$ by $A_i \rightarrow \delta_1 \cdot \gamma \mid \delta_2 \cdot \gamma \mid \dots \mid \delta_k \cdot \gamma$ where $A_j \rightarrow \delta_1 \mid \delta_2 \mid \dots \mid \delta_k$ are all the current A_j productions
 4. Eliminate the immediate left recursion in A_i

Left factoring (I)

- ▶ Left factoring is a grammar transformation that is useful for producing a grammar suitable for a type of parsers (predictive parsing).
- ▶ **Objective:** Eliminate productions that have common first symbol(s) on the right side of the productions:
 $\text{Stmt} \rightarrow \text{if Cond then Stmt else Stmt} \mid \text{if Cond then Stmt} \mid \text{Other} \mid \dots$

Left Factoring (II)

- ▶ For productions of the form:
 - ▶ $P: A ::= \beta \cdot \alpha_1 \mid \beta \cdot \alpha_2$
- ▶ Algorithm
 - 1. $\Sigma_N = \Sigma_N \cup \{A'\}$
 - 2. $P' = P \cup \{A ::= \beta \cdot A',$
 $A' ::= \alpha_1 \mid \alpha_2\}$

Left Factoring (III)

▶ Example:

► $P : S \rightarrow \text{if } C \text{ then } S \text{ else } S$

$S \rightarrow \text{if } C \text{ then } S$

$S \rightarrow \text{repeat } S \text{ until } C$

$S \rightarrow \text{repeat } S \text{ forever}$

▶ Solution:

► $P' : S \rightarrow \text{if } C \text{ then } SA'$

$S \rightarrow \text{repeat } SA''$

$A' \rightarrow \text{else } S \mid \lambda$

$A'' \rightarrow \text{until } C \mid \text{forever}$

Hidden left-factors and hidden left recursion (I)

- A grammar may not appear to have left recursion or left factors:

- $A \rightarrow da \mid acB$
 $B \rightarrow abB \mid daA \mid Af$

- $A \rightarrow da \mid acB$
 $B \rightarrow abB \mid daA \mid daf \mid acBf$



- $A \rightarrow da \mid acB$
 $B \rightarrow aM \mid daN$
 $M \rightarrow bB \mid cBf$
 $N \rightarrow A \mid f$

Hidden left-factors and hidden left recursion (II)

- ▶ A grammar may not appear to have left recursion or left factors:
 - ▶ $S \rightarrow Tu \mid wx$
 - $T \rightarrow Sq \mid vvS$
- ▶ $S \rightarrow Tu \mid wx$
- $T \rightarrow Tuq \mid wxq \mid vvS$
- ▶ $S \rightarrow Tu \mid wx$
- $T \rightarrow wxqT' \mid vvST'$
- $T' \rightarrow uqT' \mid \epsilon$

↓
S into T

Push-Down Automata (I)

- For syntax analysis, we have to take into account the context.

$$M = (\Sigma, \Gamma, Q, A_0, q_0, f, F)$$

where:

- Σ is the alphabet of input symbols.
- Γ is the stack alphabet
- Q is the set of states
- $A_0 \in \Gamma$ is the initial symbol in the stack
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the initial state
- $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of final states
- f is the transition function

$$f: Q \times (\Sigma \cup \{\lambda\}) \times \Gamma \rightarrow P(Q \times \Gamma^*)$$

Push-Down Automata (II)

- ▶ Language accepted by a Push Down Automaton:
 - ▶ Set of words that allow the transition from the initial state to a state in which both the stack and the input are empty.
 - ▶ Set of words that allow the transition from the initial state to one of the final states of the automaton

Push-Down Automata (III)

- E.g. Push-Down automaton necessary to accept the language of words with the same number of 0s and 1s.
 - $\delta(q_0, 0, Z_0) = \{(q_o, XZ_0)\}$
 - $\delta(q_0, 0, X) = \{(q_o, XX)\}$
 - $\delta(q_0, 1, X) = \{(q_o, \varepsilon)\}$
 - $\delta(q_0, 1, z_0) = \{(q_o, YZ_0)\}$
 - $\delta(q_0, 1, Y) = \{(q_o, YY)\}$
 - $\delta(q_0, 0, Y) = \{(q_o, \varepsilon)\}$
 - $\delta(q_0, \varepsilon, z_o) = \{(q_o, \varepsilon)\}$