DD1362 Programming Paradigms

Formal Languages and Syntactic Analysis Lecture 2

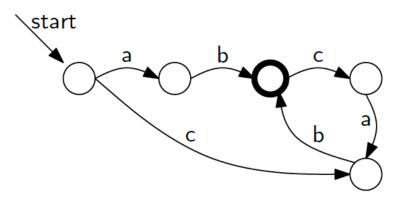
Philipp Haller

April 12th, 2021



Review of Lecture 1

- Formal languages
 - "Language = subset of Σ*"
- Regular expressions
 - Example: letter (letter | digit)*
- Finite automata
 - Example:



 $\Sigma^* = \text{set of all}$ words over alphabet Σ

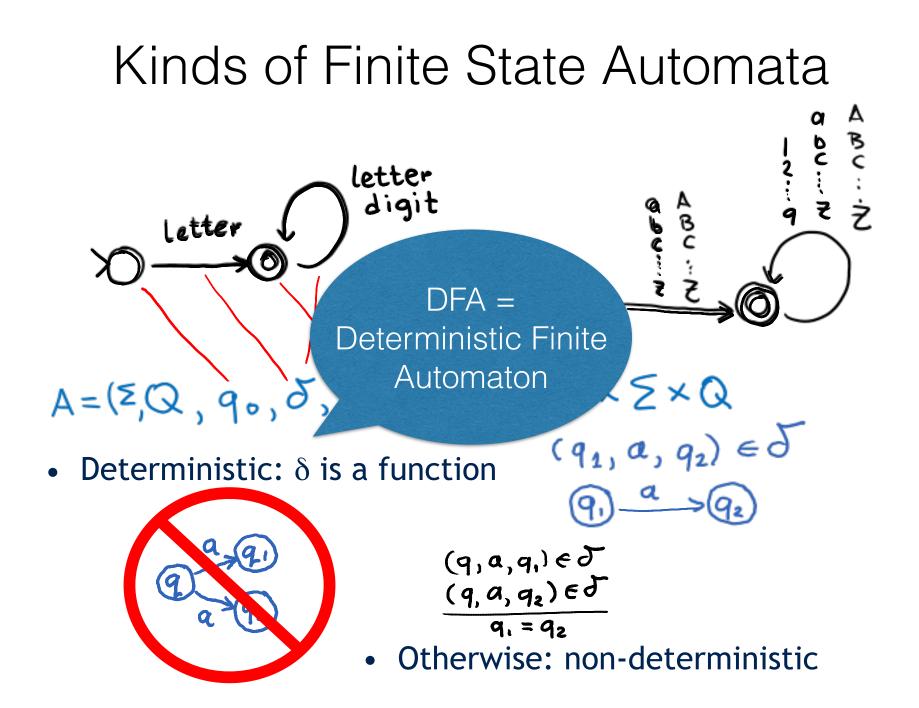
Today's Lecture

- Finite automata formally
- Regular languages
- Context-free grammars

Finite Automata Formally

Finite Automata Formally letter digit Letter i.e. $\begin{aligned} & \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \times \mathcal{Z} \times \mathbb{Q} \\ & (q_1, a, q_2) \in \mathcal{S} \end{aligned}$ $A = (\Sigma, Q, q)$

- Σ alphabet
- Q states (nodes in the graph)
- q₀ initial state (with '>' sign in drawing)
- δ transitions (labeled edges in the graph)
- F final states (double circles)



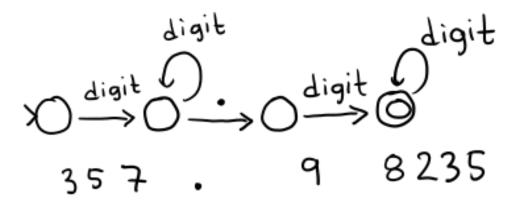
Regular Expressions and Automata

Theorem:

If L is a set of words, then it is a value of a regular expression *if and only if* it is the set of words accepted by some finite automaton.

Using DFAs to Recognize Languages

DFA for recognizing valid floating-point numbers?



Corresponding regular expression? digit digit* . digit digit*

Regular Languages

Regular Languages

Regular expressions and finite automata have *the same expressive power*

- They "describe the same class of languages"
- Languages that can be described using either a regular expression or a DFA are called *regular languages*
- Examples of regular languages:
 - Names of labs in DD1362
 - All binary strings ("", "0", "1", "00", "01", ...)
 - Valid identifiers in a programming language

Properties of Regular Languages

Suppose A and B are regular languages over Σ . Then, the following properties hold:

- A = Σ* A (complement of A) is regular
 Proof idea: swap accepting and non-accepting states in DFA for A
- A U B is regular
 Proof idea: describe using R_A | R_B
- A \cap B is regular *Proof idea:* use A \cap B = $(\overline{A \cup B})$
- A B is regular *Proof idea:* use A - B = A \cap B

Limitations of Regular Expressions

- Are there languages that *cannot be described using a regular expression* (or a DFA)?
- If such languages exist, how can we prove that (no matter how clever we are) we could never find a regular expression describing that language?
- Example language: L = { aⁿbⁿ | n >= 0 } Intuition: (not a proof!)
 - After reading k 'a's and then only 'b's, the DFA needs to *remember* that only k 'b's may be read
 - A DFA can only remember a *fixed number of states*, however, in language L the number n is *arbitrarily large*

Automaton that Claims to Recognize $L = \{a^nb^n \mid n \ge 0\}$

- Assume there is a DFA recognizing L
- Let the DFA have K states, |Q| = K
- Feed it a, aa, aaa, Let q_i be state after reading a^i
- Consider the following sequence: q_0 , q_1 , q_2 , ..., q_K
- This sequence has length K+1 → a state must repeat: there is an index i such that
 q_i = q_{i+p} for some p > 0
- Then the automaton should accept a^{i+p} b^{i+p}
- But then it must also accept aⁱ b^{i+p}
- because it is in the same state after reading aⁱ as after a^{i+p}
- Thus, it does not accept the given language contradiction
- Therefore, no such DFA exists. QED

Context-free Grammars

Grammars

- To describe languages that cannot be described using regular expressions (or DFAs) *more powerful formalisms* are needed
- Grammars, more precisely, *context-free grammars* are such a formalism
- Let us revisit language L which cannot be expressed using a DFA (or regular expression): L = { aⁿbⁿ | n >= 0 }
- How could we describe L mathematically?

Grammar for Language L

- We can define L = { aⁿbⁿ | n >= 0 } mathematically using induction:
- **Base case i = 0:** The empty word $\varepsilon = a^0 b^0$ is a word in L
- Inductive case i+1 > 0: Let word w = aⁱbⁱ for some i >= 0 (w is in L) Then, awb is a word in L
- Grammars enable describing such languages using recursion

Grammar for Language L

- Grammar for language L:
 W → ε | aWb
- The above grammar can be understood as follows:
 - "A valid word W is either the empty word ε or an 'a' followed by a valid word followed by a 'b'."

Elements of a Grammar

Grammar G for language L: W $\rightarrow \varepsilon \mid aWb$

- *Terminal symbols* are elements of the underlying alphabet
 - Grammar G: terminal symbols a, b in alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$
- Non-terminal symbols stand for parts of a word
 - Grammar G: non-terminal symbol W
- Productions are rules for how non-terminal symbols are composed of terminal symbols and other non-terminal symbols
 - Two productions in grammar G (abbreviated using '|'):
 W → ε

W → aWb

Derivations

 $S \rightarrow B \mid AA$ $A \rightarrow cA \mid dB$ $B \rightarrow aSa \mid \varepsilon$

Start symbol S

This process is called *derivation*

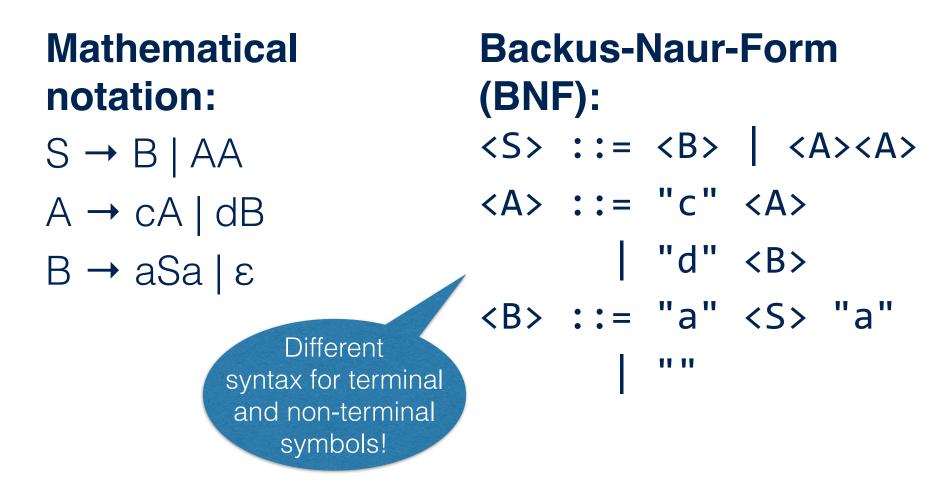
Q: How to find strings that are in the language?

A: **Apply the production rules** to generate valid strings starting from the grammar's start symbol Each step:

- For example, two derivations:
 S → B → aSa → aBa → aa
 S → B → aSa → aAAa → acAAa → acdBAa → acdAa → acdAa → acdBa → acdAa
- Normally, however, we are interested in the converse: Given a program, does it correspond to the grammar of [Java/ Scala/Go/...]?

Notation for Grammars

Two common notations for grammars:



Grammars for Programming Languages

- Context-free grammars are powerful enough to describe the *syntax of general-purpose programming languages* (Java, C#, Scala, ...)
- Syntax specifications of programming languages
 often make use of context-free grammars
 - Specs may introduce specific notations (example: Java Language Specification)
- Such grammars are the *primary basis for the implementation of parsers* for the specified languages

Example: Grammar for Expressions in the Scala language (Extract)

Expr	::=	(Bindings ['implicit'] id '_') '=>' Expr
		Expr1
Expr1	::=	<pre>'if' (' Expr ')' {nl} Expr [[semi] 'else' Expr]</pre>
		<pre>`while' (' Expr ')' {nl} Expr</pre>
		<pre>'try' Expr ['catch' Expr] ['finally' Expr]</pre>
		ʻdo' Expr [semi] ʻwhile' ʻ(' Expr ʻ)'
		<pre>'for' ('(' Enumers ')' '{' Enumers '}') {nl} ['yield'] Expr</pre>
		'throw' Expr
		'return' [Expr]
		[SimpleExpr '.'] id '=' Expr Extended
		SimpleExpr1 ArgumentExprs '=' Expr Backus-Naur Form
		PostfixExpr (EBNF)
		PostfixExpr Ascription
		<pre>PostfixExpr 'match' '{' CaseClauses '}'</pre>
PostfixExp	r ::=	InfixExpr [id [nl]]
InfixExpr	::=	PrefixExpr
		InfixExpr id [nl] InfixExpr
PrefixExpr	::=	['-' '+' '~' '!'] SimpleExpr

Let us create a grammar that describes the syntax for lists in Haskell, for example:

[1, 2, 3] 1:[2,3] [] 1:2:3:[]

Inductive definition:

- Base case 1: The empty list [] is a Haskell list
- Base case 2:

If L is a comma-separated sequence of list elements, then [L] is a Haskell list

Inductive case:
 If H is a list element and T is a list, then H:T is a list

Inductive definition:

• Base case 1:

The empty list [] is a Haskell list

• Base case 2:

If L is a comma-separated sequence of list elements, then [L] is a Haskell list

• Inductive case:

If H is a list element and T is a list, then H:T is a list

The three cases expressed in BNF:

```
<List> ::= "[]"
| "[" <ListElems> "]"
| <ListElem> ":" <List>
```

```
<List> ::= "[]"
| "[" <ListElems> "]"
| <ListElem> ":" <List>
```

Non-terminal <List> defined in terms of two additional non-terminals <ListElems> and <ListElem> Inductive definition of <ListElems>:

- Base case: if E is a list element, then E is also a sequence of list elements
- Inductive case: if E is a list element and L is a sequence of list elements, then E, L is a sequence of list elements

```
<List> ::= "[]"
| "[" <ListElems> "]"
| <ListElem> ":" <List>
<ListElems> ::= <ListElem>
| <ListElem> "," <ListElems>
```

Inductive definition of <ListElems>:

- Base case: if E is a list element, then E is also a sequence of list elements
- Inductive case: if E is a list element and L is a sequence of list elements, then E, L is a sequence of list elements

How to define <ListElem>?

- In real Haskell, list elements can be arbitrary Haskell expressions
- To keep our example simple enough: limit lists to list elements 0 and 1

Example: Grammar for Lists in Haskell
<List> ::= "[]"
| "[" <ListElems> "]"

<ListElem> ":" <List>

How to define <ListElem>?

- In real Haskell, list elements can be arbitrary Haskell expressions
- To keep our example simple enough: limit lists to list elements 0 and 1

Complete grammar for Haskell lists where each list element is either 0 or 1