

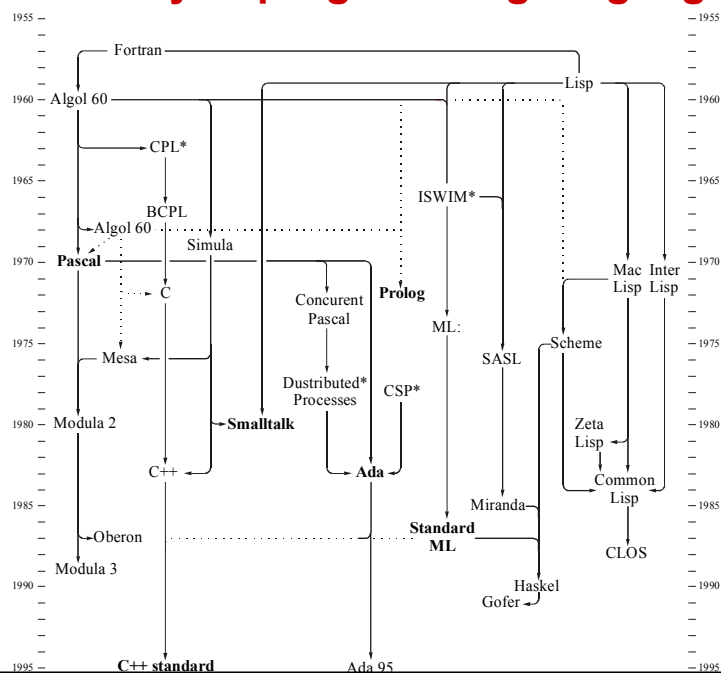


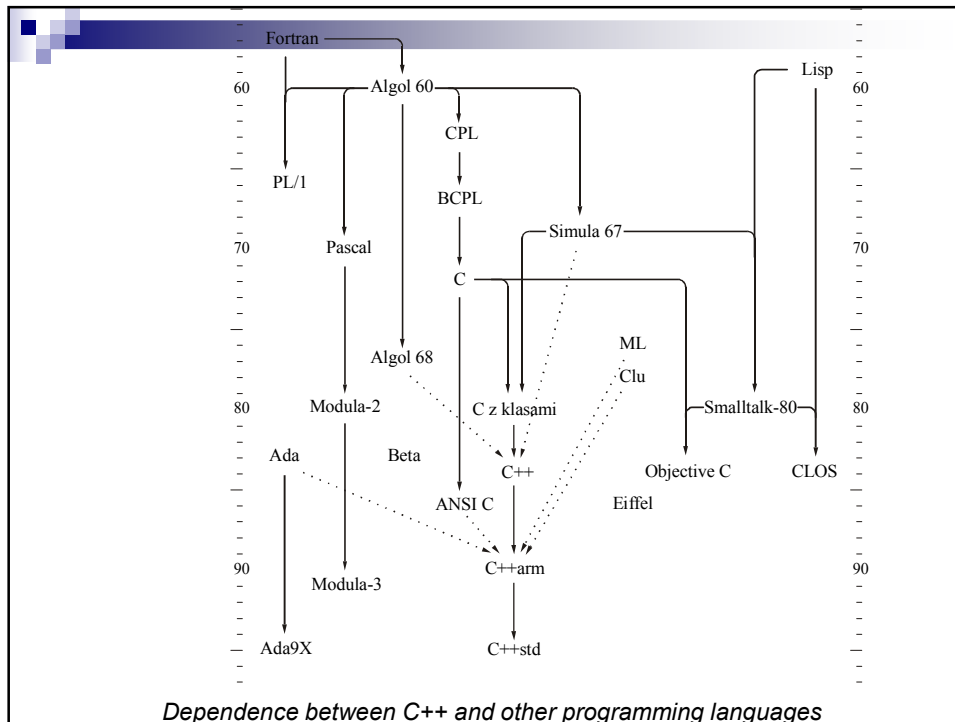
# Mathematical Linguistics

Formal Languages and Grammars  
Syntax Analysis

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## History of programming languages





## Language Definition

- The basis of each language is a **dictionary**. In **formal language theory**, elements of the dictionary (words) are called **symbols** (terminals).
- A sequence of words, which is built according to strict rules is called a **sentence**.
- A set of rules, which define a set of correct sentences is called a **grammar** or a **syntax**. Syntax (language structure) allows to check, if the given set of words is a sentence.
- Syntax and **semantics** (meanings) of the language are in the close relation, but in formal language theory only the purely syntactical aspects of languages are studied.

## Formal Languages

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- A **formal language** is a subset of finite strings of elements of the finite set which is called the **alphabet**.
- A **formal language** is defined by means of a **formal grammar**, and the same language can be defined by many different grammars.

### EXAMPLE 1

---

```
<sentence> ::= <subject > <predicate>  
<subject> ::= flowers | stars  
<predicate> ::= bloom | shine
```

Sentences that can be constructed from this formal grammar:

- flowers bloom
- stars shine
- stars bloom
- flowers shine

## BNF (Backus-Naur Form)

- **Start symbol:** <sentence>,
- **Non-terminal symbols** (non-terminals): <sentence>, <subject>, <predicate>;
- **Terminal symbols** (terminals): flowers, stars, bloom, shine;
- **Metasymbols** BNF notation : <, >, ::=, |
- **Production rules** – rules which allow to define a language.

### EXAMPLE 1

$S ::= AB$   
 $A ::= x \mid y$   
 $B ::= z \mid w$

Sentences generated by this grammar:

xz, yz, xw, yw.

*By applying rules of consecutive replacements, which is called a **derivation**, language sentence can be generated from the start symbol:*

$S \rightarrow AB \rightarrow xB \rightarrow xw$

$S \rightarrow AB \rightarrow yB \rightarrow yz$

$S \xrightarrow{*} yz$

## Chomsky Grammar

– mathematical definition of a language

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1. A language  $L = L(T, N, P, S)$  is defined by:
  - $T$  – a dictionary of terminal symbols;
  - $N$  – a set of non-terminal symbols;
  - $P$  – a set of production rules (syntax rules);
  - $S$  – start symbol, which belongs to  $N$ .

## Chomsky Grammar, cont.

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2. A language  $L(T, N, P, S)$  is a set of terminal symbol sequences  $\xi$ , which can be derived from  $S$  according to rule 3:

$$L = \{ \xi \mid S \xrightarrow{*} \xi \quad \text{i} \quad \xi \in T^* \},$$

where: Greek letters denote symbol sequences,

$T^*$  - a set of all symbol sequences over  $T$ .

## Chomsky Grammar, cont.

---

3. A sequence  $\delta_n$  can be derived from a sequence  $\delta_0$  if and only if such sequences exist  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_{n-1}$ , such that each sequence  $\delta_i$  can be directly derived from a sequence  $\delta_{i-1}$  according to rule 4.

$$(\delta_0 \xrightarrow{*} \delta_n) \leftrightarrow ((\delta_{i-1} \rightarrow \delta_i) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n)$$

## Chomsky Grammar, cont.

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4. A sequence  $\eta$  can be directly derived from a sequence  $\xi$  if and only if such sequences exist  $\alpha, \beta, \xi', \eta'$  and the following conditions are satisfied:
- $\xi = \alpha \xi' \beta$
  - $\eta = \alpha \eta' \beta$
  - $P$  consists production rule  $\xi' ::= \eta'$

## EXAMPLE 1

A grammar with a recursion, that uses finite number of rules, allows to generate an infinite number of sentences.

$$\begin{aligned} S &::= xA \\ A &::= z \mid yA \end{aligned}$$

An example of a set of sentences, which can be generated from the start symbol S:

xz  
xyz  
xyyz  
xyyyz  
.....

## EXAMPLE 2

A grammar with a recursion defining integer numbers:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \text{integer number} \rangle &::= \langle \text{digit} \rangle \\ &\quad \mid \langle \text{integer number} \rangle \langle \text{digit} \rangle \\ \langle \text{digit} \rangle &::= 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \end{aligned}$$

Examples of sentences:

1	4321
21	54321
321	154321

### EXAMPLE 3

A grammar with a recursion:

```
<sentence> ::= <subject> <predicate>
<subject> ::= James | Lucy
<predicate> ::= <verb> <noun phrase>
<verb> ::= eats | likes
<noun phrase> ::= <adjective><noun phrase>|<noun>
<noun> ::= nuts | almonds
<adjective> ::= salted | crisp | roasted
```

Examples of sentences:

James likes almonds

James likes roasted almonds

James likes salted roasted almonds

James likes crisp salted roasted almonds

Lucy eats nuts

Lucy eats crisp nuts

## Chomsky Hierarchy

The Chomsky hierarchy consists of the following levels:

type-0 – recursively enumerable languages

recursive languages

type-1 – context-sensitive languages

type-2 – context-free languages

type-3 – regular languages



## Regular Languages

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**Regular languages** – formal languages, that are generated by **regular grammars** or **regular expressions**. A regular grammar restricts its rules to the following forms:

$$A ::= a$$

$$A ::= aB$$

$$A ::= \varepsilon$$

where:  $A \in N, B \in N, a \in T$

## Context-sensitive and Context-free Languages

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**Context-free language** – a formal language, which is defined by the set of **context-free** rules, i.e. rules of the form:

$$A ::= \xi \quad \text{and} \quad (A \in N, \xi \in (N \cup T)^*)$$

**Context-sensitive language** – formal language, which is defined by the rules of the form:

$$\alpha A \beta ::= \alpha \xi \beta \quad \text{for non-empty } \xi \\ (A \in N, \alpha, \beta \in (N \cup T)^*, \xi \in (N \cup T)^+)$$

## Recursive and Recursively Enumerable Languages

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**Recursive language** – a formal language, for which decisive algorithm exists, if the given string belongs to the language or not (the algorithm halts in all cases).

**Recursively enumerable language** – formal language, for which decisive algorithm exists, if the given string belongs to the language or not; the algorithm must halt and accept the strings belonging to the language, and for the strings do not belonging to the language, it can either halt and reject the string or do not give any answer at all (an infinite loop).

$\alpha ::= \xi$  for non-empty  $\alpha$  ( $\alpha \in (\mathbf{N} \cup \mathbf{T})^+$ ,  $\xi \in (\mathbf{N} \cup \mathbf{T})^*$ )

## Syntax Analysis

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- Syntax analysis deals with **derivation** of sentence structures and sentences.
- Main task of **syntax analysis** is the design of derivation algorithms for languages with complex grammatical structures.

## Top-down Parsing

**Top-down parsing** can be viewed as an attempt to find left-most derivations of an input-stream by searching for parse-trees using a top-down expansion of the given formal grammar rules.

As the result of **top-down analysis**, the language sentence is generated from the start symbol.

### EXAMPLE 1

```
<sentence> ::= < subject > <predicate>  
< subject > ::= flowers | stars  
<predicate> ::= bloom | shine
```

*Do the sentence "stars shine" belong to the language?*

<sentence>	stars shine
<subject> <predicate>	stars shine
stars < predicate >	stars shine
< predicate >	shine
shine	shine
---	---

## EXAMPLE 2

$S ::= xA$   
 $A ::= z \mid yA$

Does the sentence "xyz" belong to the language?

S	xyz
xA	xyz
A	yz
yA	yz
A	yz
yA	yz
A	z
z	z
--	--

## EXAMPLE 3

$S ::= A \mid B$   
 $A ::= xA \mid y$   
 $B ::= xB \mid z$

Parsing procedure for sentence "xxxz"

S	xxxz
A	xxxz
xA	xxxz
A	xxz
xA	xxz
A	xz
xA	xz
A	z

FIRST/FIRST conflict

## LL(1) Grammars

### RULE 1:

For the given grammar:

$$A ::= \xi_1 \mid \xi_2 \mid \dots \mid \xi_n$$

the FIRST sets in sentences, which can be derived from  $\xi_i$  must be separated, i.e.

$$\text{FIRST}(\xi_i) \cap \text{FIRST}(\xi_j) = \emptyset \text{ for each } i \neq j.$$

## LL(1) Grammars

**FIRST**( $\xi$ ) is a set of all the terminal symbols, which can occur at the first position in the sentences derived from  $\xi$ . This set can be determined from the following rules:

1. If the first symbol of the argument is a terminal symbol then

$$\text{FIRST}(a\xi) = \{a\}$$

2. If the first symbol is a non-terminal and the production exists

$$A ::= \alpha_1 \mid \alpha_2 \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n$$

then

$$\text{FIRST}(A\xi) = \text{FIRST}(\alpha_1) \cup \text{FIRST}(\alpha_2) \cup \dots \cup \text{FIRST}(\alpha_n)$$

### EXAMPLE 3

$$\begin{aligned} S &::= A \mid B \\ A &::= xA \mid y \\ B &::= xB \mid z \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} S &::= C \mid xS \\ C &::= y \mid z \end{aligned}$$

Parsing procedure for sentence "xxxz"

S	xxxz
xS	xxxz
S	xxz
xS	xxz
S	xz
xS	xz
S	z
C	z
z	z
--	--

## Left-factoring

Production of a form:

$$A ::= \alpha\xi_1 \mid \alpha\xi_2 \mid \dots \mid \alpha\xi_n$$

should be rewritten as:

$$A ::= \alpha A'$$

$$A' ::= \xi_1 \mid \xi_2 \mid \dots \mid \xi_n$$

## EXAMPLE 4

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### FIRST/FOLLOW conflict

Given a grammar:

$S ::= Ax$   
 $A ::= x \mid \varepsilon$

where:  $\varepsilon$  is an empty symbol

Parsing procedure  
for sentence "x"

S	x
Ax	x
xx	x
x	--

## LL(1) Grammars

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### RULE 2:

For the each symbol  $A \in N$ , from which an empty symbol can be derived ( $A \xrightarrow{*} \varepsilon$ ), a set of its FIRST symbols must be separated from the set of symbols, which can follow any sequence derived from A, i.e.

$$\text{FIRST}(A) \cap \text{FOLLOW}(A) = \emptyset$$

## LL(1) Grammars

---

A set **FOLLOW**(A) is determined as follows:  
for each production  $P_i$  of a form:

$$X ::= \xi A \eta$$

$S_i$  means  $\text{FIRST}(\eta_i)$  and a set  $\text{FOLLOW}(A)$  is a sum of all sets  $S_i$ . If only an empty symbol can be derived from one  $\eta_i$  then a set  $\text{FOLLOW}(X)$  must be included into  $\text{FOLLOW}(A)$  also.

## Recursion

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Production:

$$A ::= B \mid AB$$

generates sentences: B, BB, BBB, ...

According to rule 1, their usage is forbidden,  
because:

$$\text{FIRST}(B) \cap \text{FIRST}(AB) = \text{FIRST}(B) \neq \emptyset$$



## Recursion

---

Production:

$$A ::= \varepsilon \mid AB$$

generates sentences:  $\varepsilon$ , B, BB, BBB, ...

According to rule 1, their usage is forbidden, because:

$$\text{FIRST}(A) = \text{FIRST}(B)$$

and therefore:

$$\text{FIRST}(A) \cap \text{FOLLOW}(A) \neq \emptyset.$$

## Left recursion removal

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According to 1 & 2 grammatical rules, the usage of **left recursion** is forbidden in LL grammars.

Problem solutions:

- exchange of left recursion into right recursion
$$A ::= \varepsilon \mid BA$$
- substitution of left recursion with an iteration.

In EBNF notation, description  $\{B\}$  means iteration i.e. repetition of B symbol zero, one, two, ... or infinite number of times. Production:

$$A ::= \{B\}$$

generates sentences:  $\varepsilon$ , B, BB, BBB, ...

## EXAMPLE 5

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Given a grammar:

$$\begin{array}{l} S ::= A \mid S - A \\ A ::= a \mid b \mid c \end{array} \quad \Rightarrow \quad a - b - c = ((a - b) - c)$$

where:  $\{a, b, c, -\} \in T$

$$\begin{array}{l} S ::= A \mid A - S \\ A ::= a \mid b \mid c \end{array} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (a - (b - c))$$

These two grammars are not semantically equivalent

## Left recursion removal

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The following production rule:

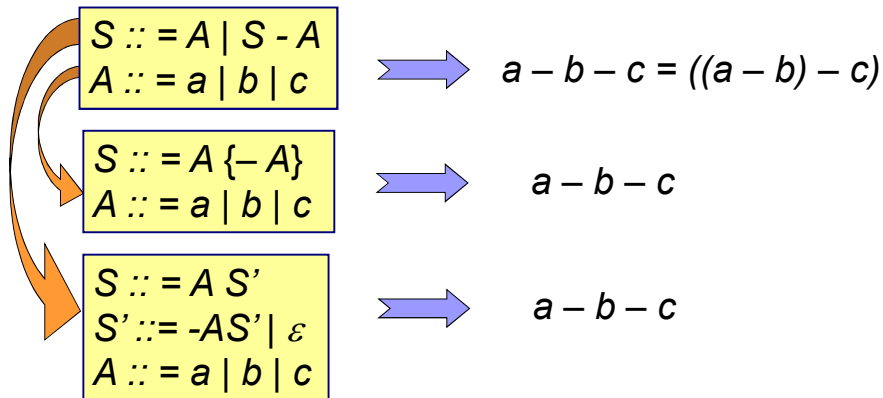
$$A ::= A\alpha_1 \mid A\alpha_2 \mid \dots \mid A\alpha_n \mid \beta_1 \mid \beta_2 \mid \dots \mid \beta_m$$

can be rewritten as:

$$\begin{array}{l} A ::= \beta_1 A' \mid \beta_2 A' \mid \dots \mid \beta_m A' \\ A' ::= \alpha_1 A' \mid \alpha_2 A' \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n A' \mid \varepsilon \end{array}$$

## EXAMPLE 5

Given a grammar:



These grammars are semantically equivalent

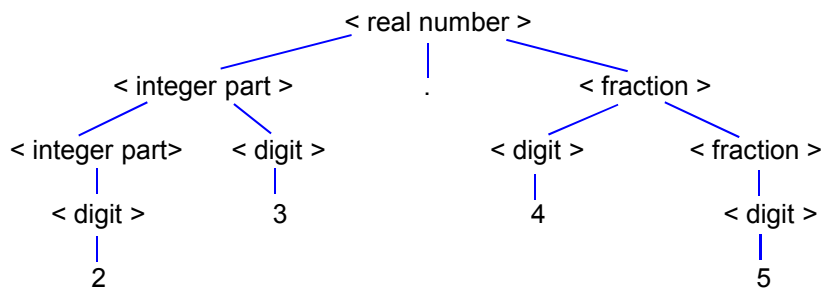
## Parse tree

- A **parse tree** (a concrete syntax tree) is hierarchical structure, which shows graphically a sentence derivation from a formal grammar.
- A **root node** is labelled by the start symbol. **Branch nodes** are labelled by non-terminal and **leaf nodes** by terminal or empty symbols.
- **Branch structure** represents productions. Main branch is labelled by the left production side, and branches derived from it are labelled by the right production side, in the order from left to right.

## EXAMPLE 6

Derive a number 23.45 from the given grammar:

```
<real number> ::= <integer part> . <fraction>
<integer part> ::= <digit> | <integer part> <digit>
<fraction> ::= <digit> | <digit> <fraction>
<digit> ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```



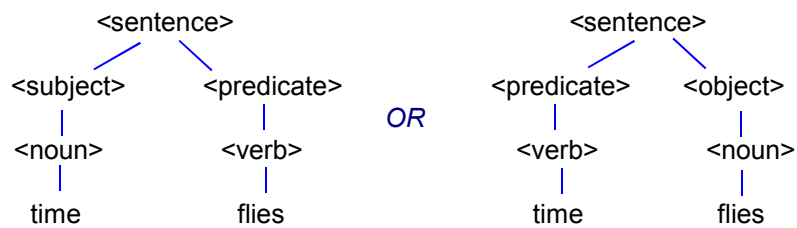
## Grammar ambiguity

Problem of **grammar ambiguity** occurs if the grammar generates sentences, which have more than one parse tree.

## EXAMPLE 1 - grammar ambiguity

$\langle \text{sentence} \rangle ::= \langle \text{subject} \rangle \langle \text{predicate} \rangle$   
 $\langle \text{sentence} \rangle ::= \langle \text{predicate} \rangle \langle \text{object} \rangle$   
 $\langle \text{subject} \rangle ::= \langle \text{noun} \rangle$   
 $\langle \text{predicate} \rangle ::= \langle \text{verb} \rangle$   
 $\langle \text{object} \rangle ::= \langle \text{noun} \rangle$   
 $\langle \text{verb} \rangle ::= \text{time} \mid \text{flies}$   
 $\langle \text{noun} \rangle ::= \text{time} \mid \text{flies}$

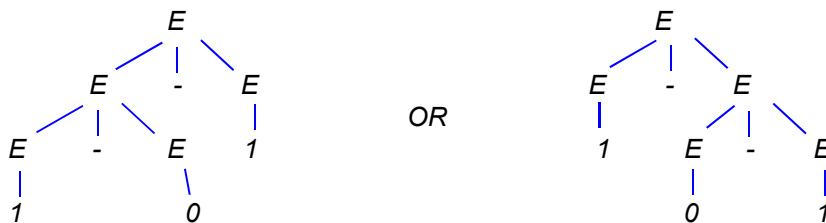
Two different parse trees can be drawn for the sentence **time flies** for the given grammar.



## EXAMPLE 2 - grammar ambiguity

Derive the sentence **1-0-1** from the given grammar:

$E ::= E - E \mid 0 \mid 1$

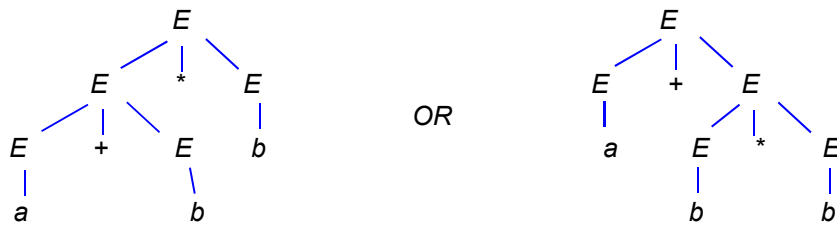


Two different parse trees can be drawn for the sentence **1-0-1**.

### EXAMPLE 3 - grammar ambiguity

Derive the sentence  $a+b*b$  from the given grammar:

$$E ::= E + E \mid E * E \mid a \mid b$$

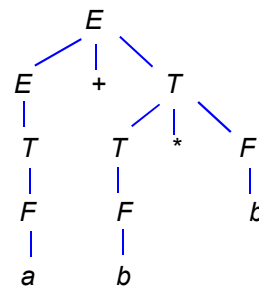


Two different parse trees can be drawn for the sentence  $a+b*b$

### EXAMPLE 3 - ambiguity removal

Derive the sentence  $a+b*b$  from the given grammar:

$$\begin{aligned} E &::= T \mid E + T \mid E - T \\ T &::= F \mid T * F \mid T / F \\ F &::= (E) \mid a \mid b \end{aligned}$$



Only one parse trees can be drawn for the sentence  $a+b*b$

Operators priority is correct for the given grammar!

## EXAMPLE 4 - grammar ambiguity

Grammar ambiguity is present also in *C* and *Pascal* languages for *IF* conditional instruction.

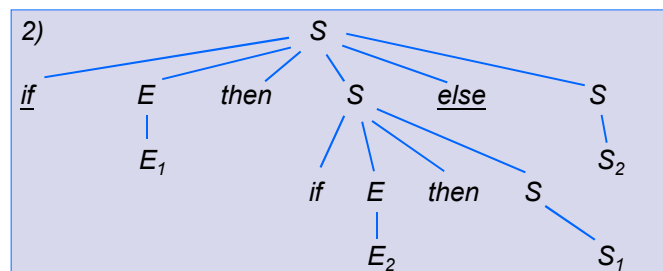
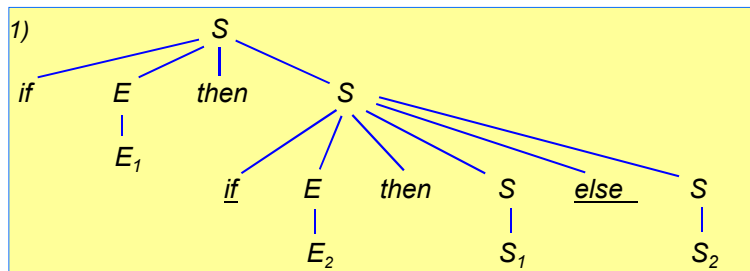
It is caused by productions:

```
S :: = if E then S
S :: if E then S else S
```

*Pascal*

For the sentence *if E<sub>1</sub> then if E<sub>2</sub> then S<sub>1</sub> else S<sub>2</sub>* two different parse trees can be derived.

*if E<sub>1</sub> then if E<sub>2</sub> then S<sub>1</sub> else S<sub>2</sub>*



## If-else ambiguity removal

---

If-else ambiguity problem in Pascal and C is solved in that way, that the key word **else** is combined with the latest key word **if**.

In this case the considered sentence is interpreted, as it is shown in parse tree 1.

## If-else ambiguity removal in Modula-2 language

---

```
S ::= <empty>
    | stmt
    | if E then SL end
    | if E then SL else SL end
SL ::= SL; S | S
```

Pascal: *if E<sub>1</sub> then if E<sub>2</sub> then S<sub>1</sub> else S<sub>2</sub>*

Modula-2: *1°. if E<sub>1</sub> then if E<sub>2</sub> then S<sub>1</sub> else S<sub>2</sub> end end*  
*2°. if E<sub>1</sub> then if E<sub>2</sub> then S<sub>1</sub> end else S<sub>2</sub> end*



## Pascal and Modula-2

```
if E1 then S1
    else if E2 then S2
        else if E3 then S3
            else S4
```

Pascal:

```
if E1 then S1
    else if E2 then S2
        else if E3 then S3
            else S4 end
    end
end
```

Modula-2:

## Modula-2

```
if E1 then S1
    elsif E2 then S2
        elsif E3 then S3
            else S4
    end
```

```
S ::= if E then SL { elsif E then SL } [else SL] end
SL ::= SL; S | S
```

## Comparison of **BNF** and **MBNF** notations

	<b>MBNF</b>	<b>MEANING</b>	<b>BNF (EBNF)</b>
1	=	is defined as	::=
2		or	
3	.	end of formula	a terminating character is not used
4	[x]	option - zero or one repetition of string x	metasymbols [ ] are not used
5	{x}	zero or multi time repetition of string x	{x} in EBNF
6	(x   y ...   z)	any from strings: x, y, ..., z	metasymbols ( ) are not used
7	"a"	terminal symbol (from the language alphabet)	quotation marks "..." are not used
8	small letters sequence	non-terminal symbol	Non-terminals are inside the angle brackets <...>, small and capital letters are used, hyphen is not obligatory

## EXAMPLE

A grammar defining arithmetic expressions:

```
E ::= T | E + T | E - T
T ::= F | T * F | T / F
F ::= (E) | a | b
```

**BNF notation**

Corrected grammar of LL(1) class:

```
E ::= T E'
E' ::= +T E' | -T E' | ε
T ::= F T'
T' ::= *F T' | /F T' | ε
F ::= (E) | a | b
```

**BNF notation**

## EXAMPLE

Corrected grammar defining arithmetic expressions of LL(1) class:

```
E = T { ("+" | "-") T }.
T = F { ("*" | "/" ) F }.
F = "(" E ")" | "a" | "b".
```

**MBNF** notation

In this grammar a recursion was replaced by an iteration.

## Separators and terminators

*Separators – separate elements*

*Terminators – occur after each element, i.e. sentence*

```
S ::= <empty>
      | stmt
      | begin SL end
SL ::= SL; S | S
```

*Pascal:*

```
Pascal:   begin S1; S2; S3 end
           begin S1; S2; S3; end
           begin ;S1;; S2; S3;; end
```

## Empty Instruction

S ::= <empty>

*Pascal:*

| stmt  
| if E then S  
| if E then S else S  
| begin SL end  
| while E do S

SL ::= SL; S | S

S ::= <empty>

*Modula-2:*

| stmt  
| if E then SL end  
| if E then SL else SL end  
| begin SL end  
| while E do SL end

SL ::= SL; S | S

*Pascal:*     if E then ; S<sub>1</sub>;     - *semantic error*  
              if E then S<sub>1</sub>; else S<sub>2</sub>;   - *syntax error*  
*Modula-2:*   if E then S<sub>1</sub>; S<sub>2</sub> end  
              if E then S<sub>1</sub>; S<sub>2</sub> else S<sub>3</sub>; S<sub>4</sub> end

## GRAMMARS WITH TRANSLATION

- A grammar with translation is a context-free grammar, in which a set of terminal symbols is extended by additional symbols called symbols of translation.
- Symbols of translation generate an extra output statement in addition to the statement generated from the grammar.

## Example 1

---

Grammar of arithmetic expressions:

$$E ::= T E_1$$
$$E_1 ::= +T E_1 \mid -T E_1 \mid \varepsilon$$
$$T ::= F T_1$$
$$T_1 ::= * F T_1 \mid / F T_1 \mid \varepsilon$$
$$F ::= - F \mid (E) \mid \text{id}$$
$$\text{id} ::= a \mid b \mid c$$

---

## Example 2

---

Grammar of arithmetic expressions extended with translation into RPN (Reverse Polish Notation):

$$E ::= T E_1$$
$$E_1 ::= +T \{+\} E_1 \mid -T \{-\} E_1 \mid \varepsilon$$
$$T ::= F T_1$$
$$T_1 ::= * F \{*\} T_1 \mid / F \{/ \} T_1 \mid \varepsilon$$
$$F ::= - F \{-\} \mid (E) \mid \text{id} \{\text{id}\}$$
$$\text{id} ::= a \mid b \mid c$$

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