

# Artificial Languages, Part 1 (Syntax)

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March 27, 2017

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- 5 The cost of processing language is measured in processing time and memory.
- 6 The more expressive our language, the more expensive it will be to run our software over it.
- 7 Classifications of languages (like the Chomsky hierarchy) help us recognize what kind of software we need to accomplish our processing goals.



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  - $\mathbf{P} ::= P | Q | R | \dots$

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  - $\mathbf{P} ::= P \mid Q \mid R \mid \dots$
  - **Atom** ::=  $\mathbf{P}\mathbf{t}_1 \dots \mathbf{t}_n$  where  $n$  is the arity of  $\mathbf{P}$
  - $\varphi ::= \mathbf{Atom} \mid \neg\varphi \mid (\varphi \wedge \varphi) \mid (\varphi \vee \varphi) \mid (\varphi \rightarrow \varphi) \mid (\varphi \leftrightarrow \varphi) \mid \forall \mathbf{v}\varphi \mid \exists \mathbf{v}\varphi$

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- $\forall \mathbf{v} \forall \mathbf{v} ((P_{\mathbf{t}\mathbf{t}} \wedge P_{\mathbf{t}}) \rightarrow \exists \mathbf{v} \exists \mathbf{v} ((P_{\mathbf{t}\mathbf{t}} \wedge P_{\mathbf{t}}) \wedge (P_{\mathbf{t}\mathbf{t}} \wedge P_{\mathbf{t}})))$
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# Bottom-up parse

- $\forall w \forall x ((F_{xw} \wedge A_w) \rightarrow \exists y \exists z ((P_{xy} \wedge A_y) \wedge (F_{xz} \wedge D_z)))$
- $\forall \mathbf{v} \forall \mathbf{v} ((F_{\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}} \wedge A_{\mathbf{v}}) \rightarrow \exists \mathbf{v} \exists \mathbf{v} ((P_{\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}} \wedge A_{\mathbf{v}}) \wedge (F_{\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}} \wedge D_{\mathbf{v}})))$
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# Parsing is a search through a space of possible solutions

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# Parsing is a search through a space of possible solutions

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- $\forall w \forall x ((F_{xw} \wedge A_w) \rightarrow \exists y \exists z ((P_{xy} \wedge A_y) \wedge (F_{xz} \wedge D_z)))$
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- $\forall \mathbf{t} \forall \mathbf{t} (\varphi \rightarrow \exists \mathbf{t} \exists \mathbf{t} \varphi)$

# Parsing is a search through a space of possible solutions

We can go wrong!

- $\forall w \forall x ((Fwx \wedge Aw) \rightarrow \exists y \exists z ((Pxy \wedge Ay) \wedge (Fxz \wedge Dz)))$
- $\forall v \forall v ((Fvv \wedge Av) \rightarrow \exists v \exists v ((Pvv \wedge Av) \wedge (Fvv \wedge Dv)))$
- $\forall v \forall v ((Pvv \wedge Pv) \rightarrow \exists v \exists v ((Pvv \wedge Pv) \wedge (Pvv \wedge Pv)))$
- $\forall t \forall t ((Ptt \wedge Pt) \rightarrow \exists t \exists t ((Ptt \wedge Pt) \wedge (Ptt \wedge Pt)))$
- $\forall t \forall t ((\mathbf{Atom} \wedge \mathbf{Atom}) \rightarrow \exists t \exists t ((\mathbf{Atom} \wedge \mathbf{Atom}) \wedge (\mathbf{Atom} \wedge \mathbf{Atom})))$
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- Stuck! No rule applies, so we must backtrack.

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- $\forall t \forall t (\varphi \rightarrow \exists t \exists t \varphi)$
- Stuck! No rule applies, so we must backtrack.
- A conforming expression should have *some* path to our start symbol, but how do we program software to make the right choices?

# Parsing as search

- Grammars like the ones we've seen typically have the parsing problem of which rules to apply in which order.

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- Rules of thumb (heuristics) for ordering the productions can save time, but only on average.

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- Rules of thumb (heuristics) for ordering the productions can save time, but only on average.
- Ideally we'd like an efficient and deterministic path through the search space that allows us to quit early if the expression doesn't conform.

# Parsing as search

- Grammars like the ones we've seen typically have the parsing problem of which rules to apply in which order.
- Nondeterministic parsing software explores one path of choices, and if no rule applies will back up and try a different path.
- If all possible paths are exhausted for an expression, then the parse fails because the expression doesn't conform to the grammar.
- The time required to explore all those possibilities is expensive, even for very fast computers.
- Rules of thumb (heuristics) for ordering the productions can save time, but only on average.
- Ideally we'd like an efficient and deterministic path through the search space that allows us to quit early if the expression doesn't conform.
- It turns out that some languages are easy to parse: consider, for example, the set of strings consisting of the letter 'b'.

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- with one of those slashes being the rightmost character.
- We can easily parse this from left to right, and quit right away if one of the rules is broken.

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- The second diagram adds some additional states and arcs, but is completely deterministic.

# Nondeterministic Finite State Automaton

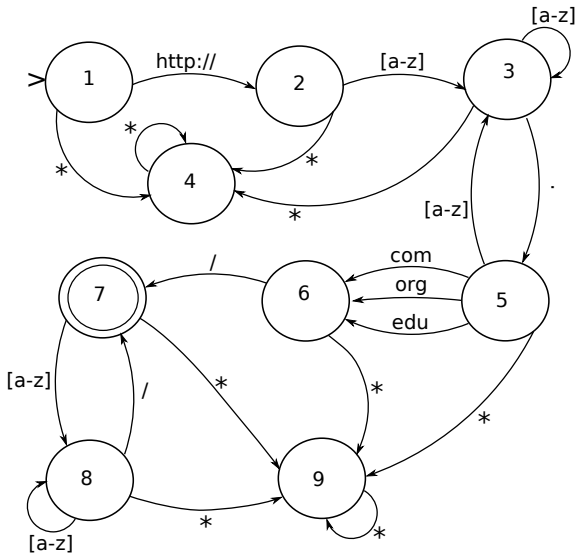


Figure 1: NFA Parser for URL grammar

# Deterministic Finite State Automaton

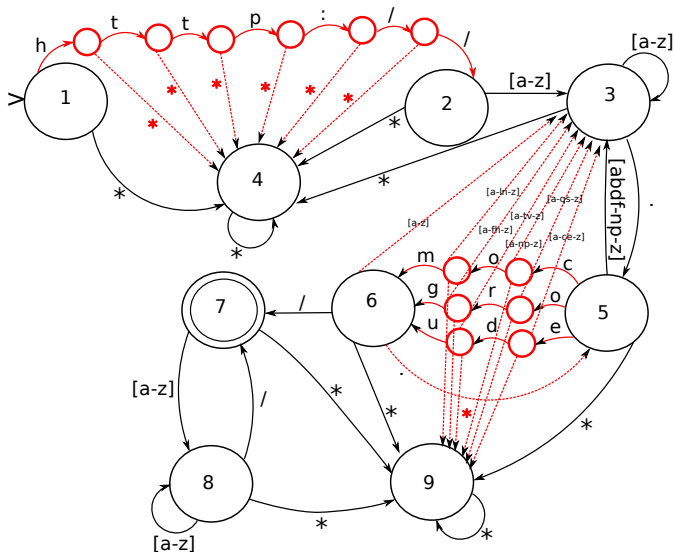


Figure 2: DFA Parser for URL grammar



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- $\forall \mathbf{x} (\mathbf{Vx} \leftrightarrow \exists \mathbf{z} \mathbf{Lxz})$

*A vocabulary (or alphabet)  $V$  is a finite nonempty set of elements, called symbols. A word (or sentence) over  $V$  is a string of finite length of elements of  $V$ . The empty string or null string, denoted by  $\lambda$ , is the string containing no symbols. The set of all words over  $V$  is denoted by  $V^*$ . A language over  $V$  is a subset of  $V^*$ .*

*A phrase-structure grammar  $G = \langle V, T, S, P \rangle$  consists of a vocabulary  $V$ , a subset  $T$  of  $V$  consisting of terminal elements, a start symbol  $S$  from  $V$ , and a set of productions  $P$ . The set  $V - T$  is denoted by  $N$ . Elements of  $N$  are called nonterminal symbols. Every production in  $P$  must contain at least one nonterminal on its left side.*

# Phrase-structure grammar

```
<protocol> ::= http://  
<letter>   ::= a|b|c|d|e|f|g|h|i|j|k|l|m  
<letter>   ::= n|o|p|q|r|s|t|u|v|w|x|y|z  
<slash>    ::= /  
<dot>      ::= .  
<string>   ::= <letter><string>|<letter>  
<host>     ::= <string><dot><host>|<string><dot>  
<domain>   ::= com|org|edu  
<site>     ::= <host><domain><slash>  
<dir>      ::= <string><slash>  
<body>     ::= <dir><body>|<dir>  
<url>      ::= <protocol><site><body>|<protocol><site>
```



# Rosen on languages and derivability

*Let  $G = \langle V, T, S, P \rangle$  be a phrase-structure grammar. Let  $w_0 = lz_0r$  (that is, the concatenation of  $l$ ,  $z_0$ , and  $r$ ) and  $w_1 = lz_1r$  be strings over  $V$ . If  $z_0 \rightarrow z_1$  is a production of  $G$ , we say that  $w_1$  is directly derivable from  $w_0$  and we write  $w_0 \Rightarrow w_1$ . If  $w_0, w_1, \dots, w_n, n \geq 0$ , are strings over  $V$  such that  $w_0 \Rightarrow w_1, w_1 \Rightarrow w_2, \dots, w_{n-1} \Rightarrow w_n$ , then we say that  $w_n$  is derivable from  $w_0$ , and we write  $w_0 \xRightarrow{*} w_n$ . The sequence of steps used to obtain  $w_n$  from  $w_0$  is called a derivation.*

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*Let  $G = \langle V, T, S, P \rangle$  be a phrase-structure grammar. The language generated by  $G$  (or the language of  $G$ ), denoted by  $L(G)$ , is the set of all strings of terminals that are derivable from the starting state  $S$ . In other words,  $L(G) = \{w \in T^* \mid S \xRightarrow{*} w\}$ .*

# Production type determines grammar classification

Per Rosen, section 10.1:

- A *type 0* grammar has no restriction on its productions.

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- A *type 2* (context free) grammar can have productions only of the form  $w_1 \rightarrow w_2$ , where  $w_1$  is a single symbol that is not a terminal symbol.
- A *type 3* (regular) grammar can have productions only of the form  $w_1 \rightarrow w_2$  with  $w_1 = A$ , and either  $w_2 = aB$  or  $w_2 = a$ , where  $A$  and  $B$  are nonterminal symbols and  $a$  is a terminal symbol, or with  $w_1 = S$  and  $w_2 = \lambda$ .

# Chomsky hierarchy implications

- Regular languages (like our URL subset) can be summarized using DFAs, NFAs, and regular expressions.

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- Parsing non-regular, context free languages like our logic grammar always requires a stack memory, and often requires backtracking.
- We can usually tell that a language is not regular by seeing whether its productions meet Rosen's constraints.

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- $\varphi ::= \mathbf{Atom}|\neg\varphi|(\varphi \wedge \varphi)|(\varphi \vee \varphi)|(\varphi \rightarrow \varphi)|(\varphi \leftrightarrow \varphi)|\forall \mathbf{v}\varphi|\exists \mathbf{v}\varphi$

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- Being regular and being context-free are really properties of languages, not grammars.
- Some grammars that don't satisfy Rosen's type 3 definition still summarize regular languages.
- It can be challenging to verify whether a language is regular just by looking at the productions.

# The URL subset is a regular language

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<protocol> ::= http://  
<letter>   ::= a|b|c|d|e|f|g|h|i|j|k|l|m  
<letter>   ::= n|o|p|q|r|s|t|u|v|w|x|y|z  
<slash>    ::= /  
<dot>      ::= .  
<string>   ::= <letter><string>|<letter>  
<host>     ::= <string><dot><host>|<string><dot>  
<domain>   ::= com|org|edu  
<site>     ::= <host><domain><slash>  
<dir>      ::= <string><slash>  
<body>     ::= <dir><body>|<dir>  
<url>      ::= <protocol><site><body>|<protocol><site>
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- $\langle \text{atom} \rangle ::= \langle \text{pred} \rangle\langle \text{term} \rangle|\langle \text{atom} \rangle\langle \text{term} \rangle$
- $\langle \text{phi} \rangle ::= \langle \text{atom} \rangle|\langle \text{not} \rangle\langle \text{phi} \rangle|\langle \text{quant} \rangle\langle \text{var} \rangle\langle \text{phi} \rangle$

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# Pushdown Automaton

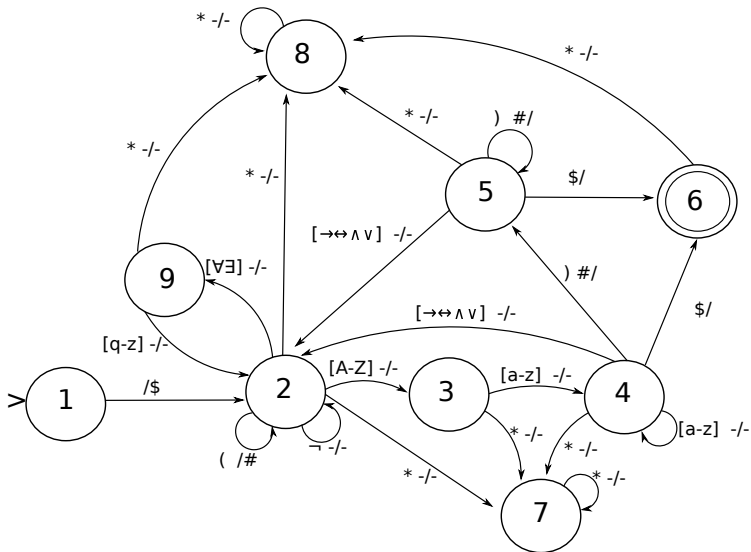


Figure 3: PDA Parser for the predicate logic grammar