

Artificial Languages, Part 1 (Syntax)

Dave Dubin

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

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Bottom-up parse

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- 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

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- It turns out that some languages are easy to parse: consider, for example, the set of strings consisting of the letter 'b'.

An easy URL subset grammar

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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.

Parsing a URL

- `http://www.whatever.something.com/abc/cba/wxy/qrs/`

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- Our first diagram is almost deterministic, but may still require some backtracking.
- The second diagram adds some additional states and arcs, but is completely deterministic.

Nondeterministic Finite State Automaton

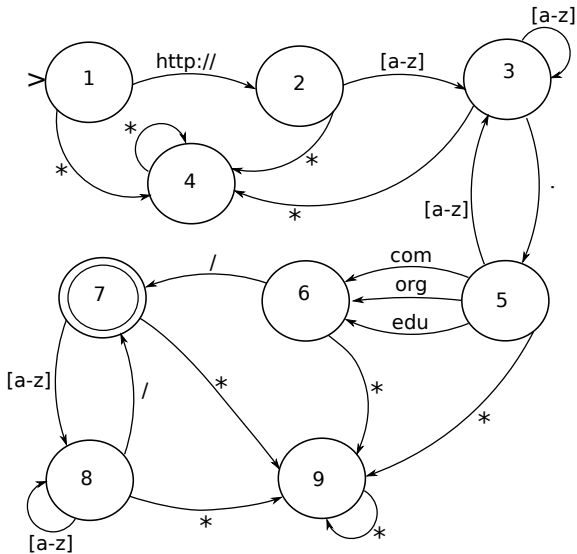


Figure 1: NFA Parser for URL grammar

Deterministic Finite State Automaton

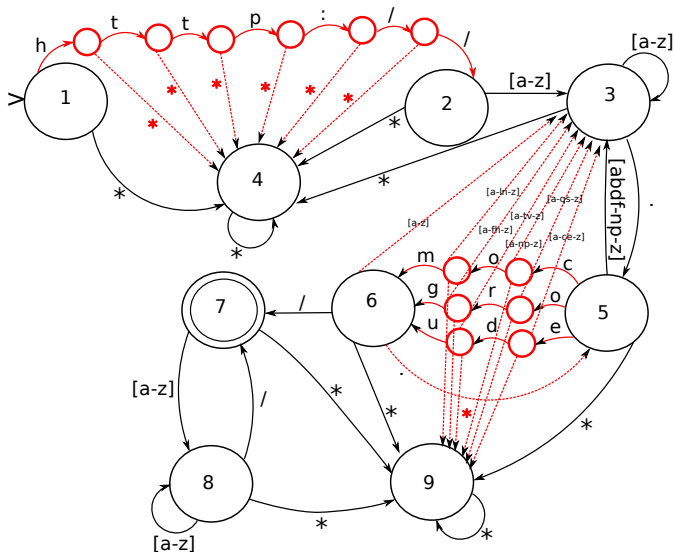


Figure 2: DFA Parser for URL grammar

Top-down derivation

Derivation (a term you read in Rosen) is parsing in reverse.

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

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 λ , 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, $L(G) = \{w \in T^ \mid S \xRightarrow{*} w\}$.*

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Per Rosen, section 10.1:

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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 $w_2 = \lambda$.

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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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- 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

```
<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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- $\langle \text{term} \rangle ::= \langle \text{const} \rangle|\langle \text{var} \rangle$
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- $\langle \text{phi} \rangle ::= \langle \text{atom} \rangle|\langle \text{not} \rangle\langle \text{phi} \rangle|\langle \text{quant} \rangle\langle \text{var} \rangle\langle \text{phi} \rangle$

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Pushdown Automaton

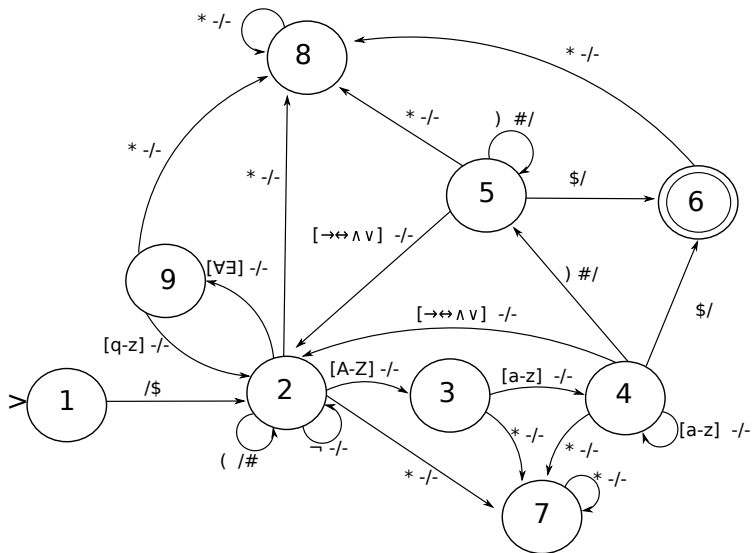


Figure 3: PDA Parser for the predicate logic grammar