

# The Pumping Lemma & Introduction to Parsing

CSCI 3136: Principles of Programming Languages

# Agenda

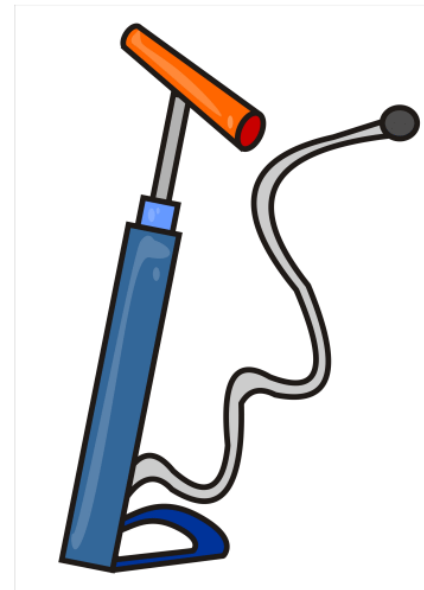
- Announcements
  - Assignment 2 is out and due **May 31**
- Readings:
  - Today: 2.3.0, 2.3.1
  - Note: I recommend using alternative texts for this part of the course:
  - E..g, Hopcorft et al, “Introduction to Automata Theory”
- Lecture Contents
  - Pumping Lemma
  - Introduction to Parsing

# Examples from last lecture:

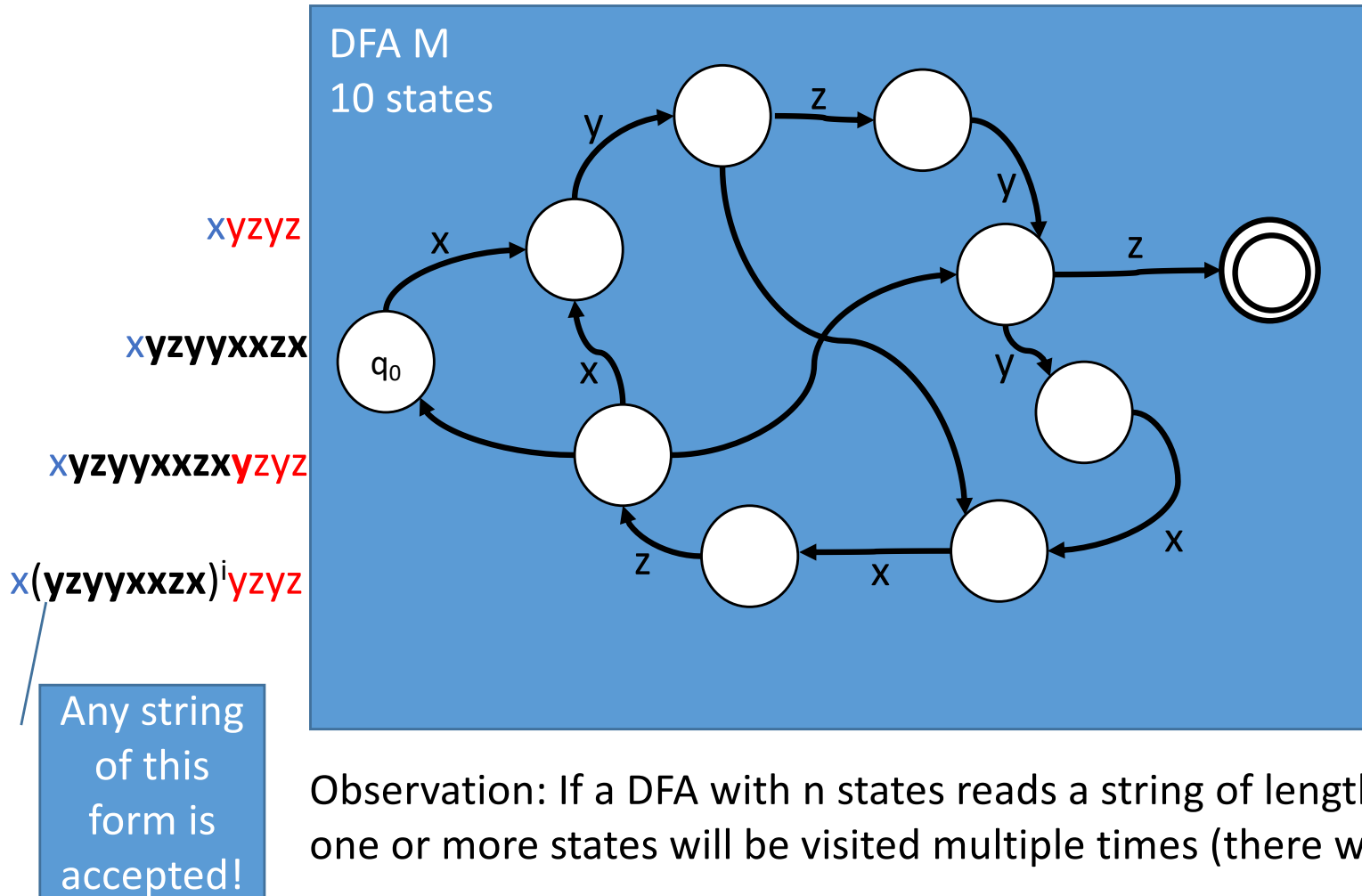
- Show that  $L = \{a^p \mid p \text{ is not prime}\}$  is not regular.
  - Recall that  $\{a^p \mid p \text{ is prime}\}$  is not regular
- Show that  $L = \{a^p b^q \mid p \text{ or } q \text{ is prime}\}$  is not regular.
- Show that  $L = \{a^p a^* a^p \mid p \text{ is prime}\}$  is regular.

# Nonregular Languages

- Problem: Not all languages are regular!  
E.g.  $L = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$  is not regular.
- Intuition: We need to keep track of how many 0's we encounter.
- A DFA has a finite number of states, so beyond that number we cannot keep track.
- How do we prove this formally?  
The Pumping Lemma!



# Intuition

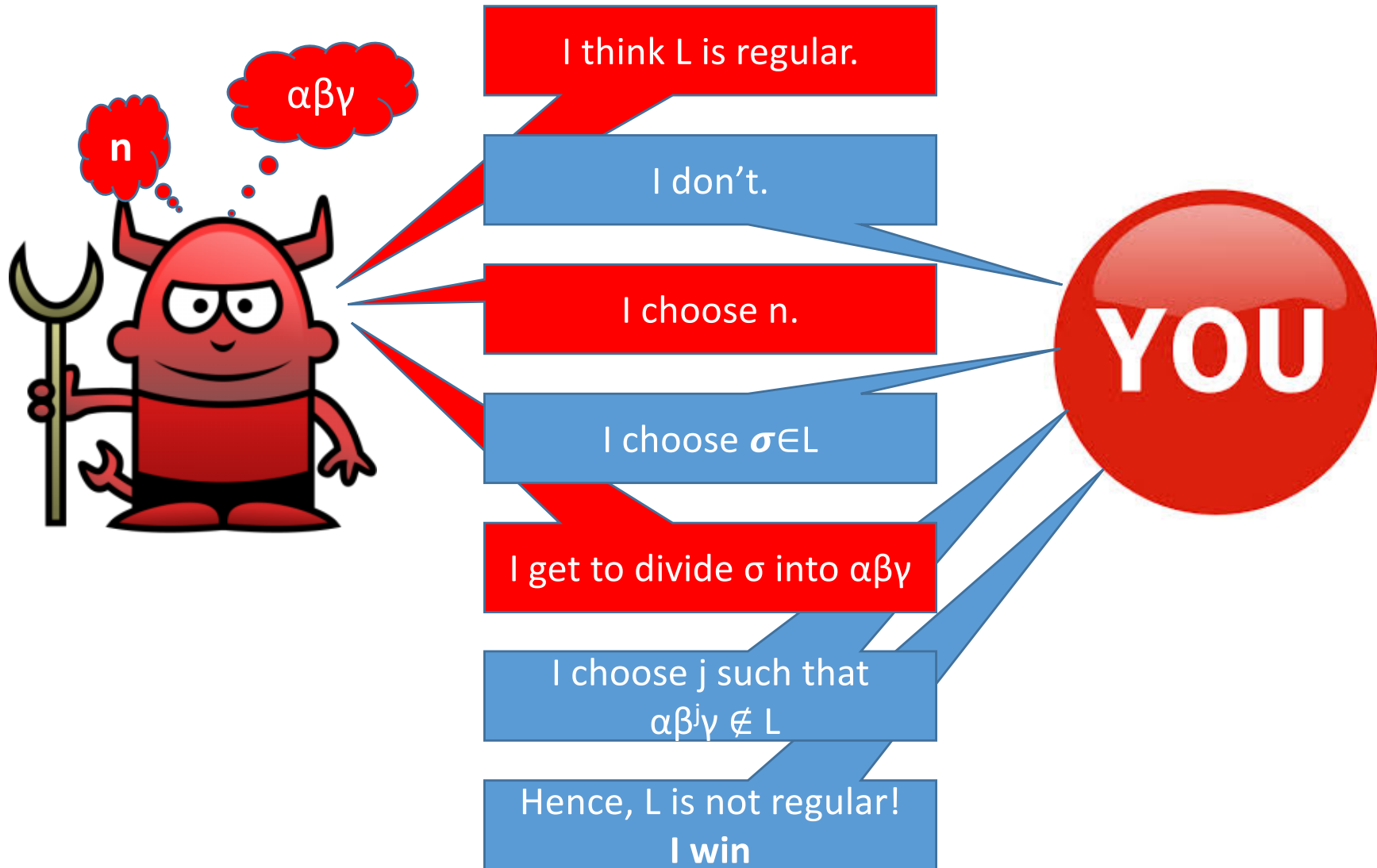


# The Pumping Lemma

For every regular language  $L$ , there exists a constant  $n$  such that every  $\sigma \in L$ , where  $|\sigma| \geq n$ , can be divided into three substrings  $\sigma = \alpha\beta\gamma$  with the following properties:

- $|\alpha\beta| \leq n$
  - $|\beta| > 0$ , and
  - $\alpha\beta^k\gamma \in L, \forall k \geq 0$
- 
- We can use this Lemma to show that a given language is non-regular.

# Using the Pumping Lemma is like an Argument with the Devil



# Applying the Pumping Lemma

Procedure: To show that  $L$  is not regular

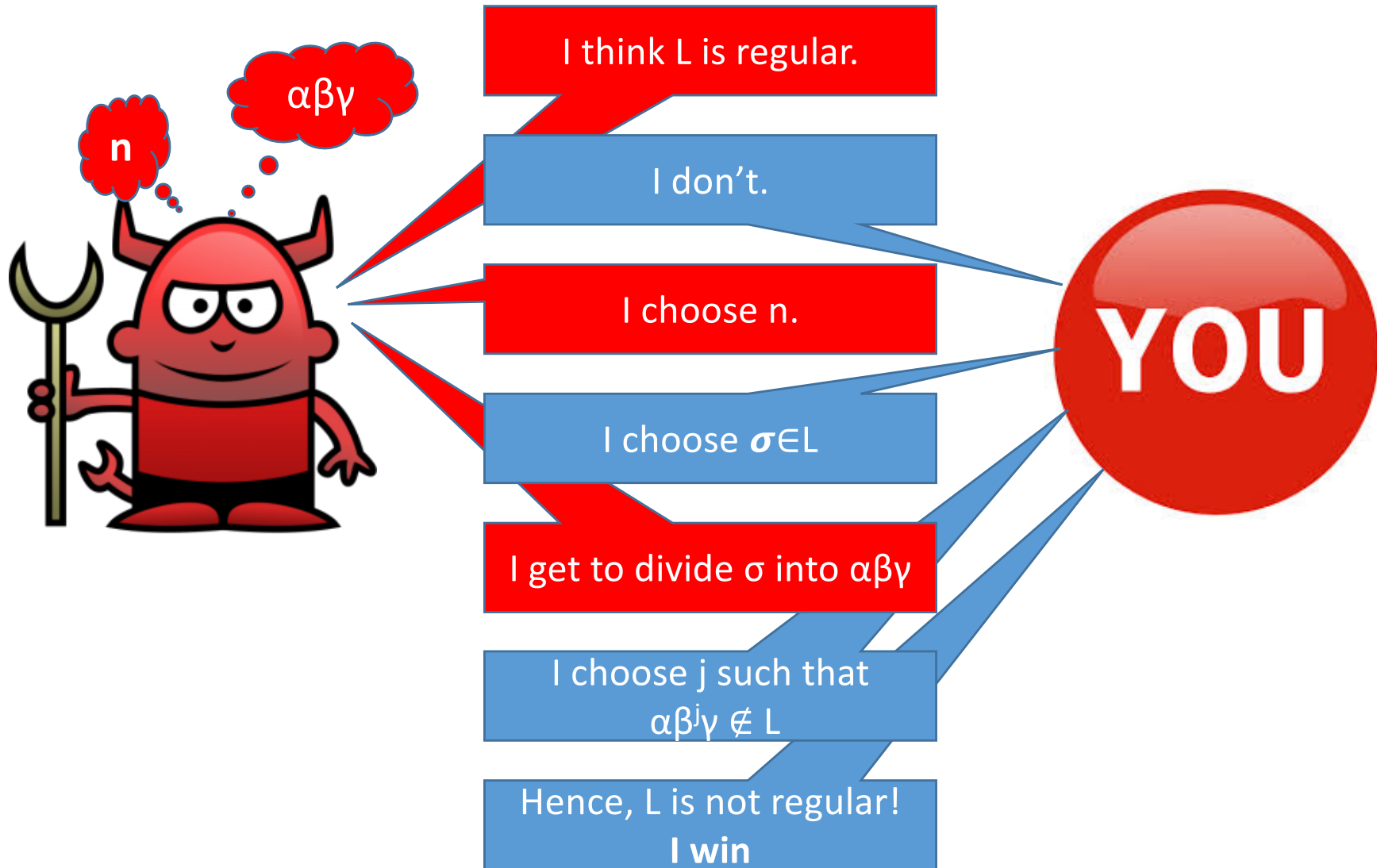
- Convince yourself  $L$  is not regular (intuition)
- Assume that  $L$  is regular and that there is a constant  $n$  as stated by the Pumping Lemma
- **Select  $\sigma \in L$  such that**
  - $|\sigma| > n$
  - $\sigma = \alpha\beta\gamma$ , **for all  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$** 
    - $|\alpha\beta| \leq n$
    - $|\beta| > 0$
  - There **exists a  $j \geq 0$**  such that  $\alpha\beta^j\gamma \notin L$
- But according to Pumping Lemma,  $\sigma \in L$ .
- Contradiction!
- Therefore  $L$  is not regular.

$\sigma$  will (typically)  
be a function of  $n$

HARD  
PART



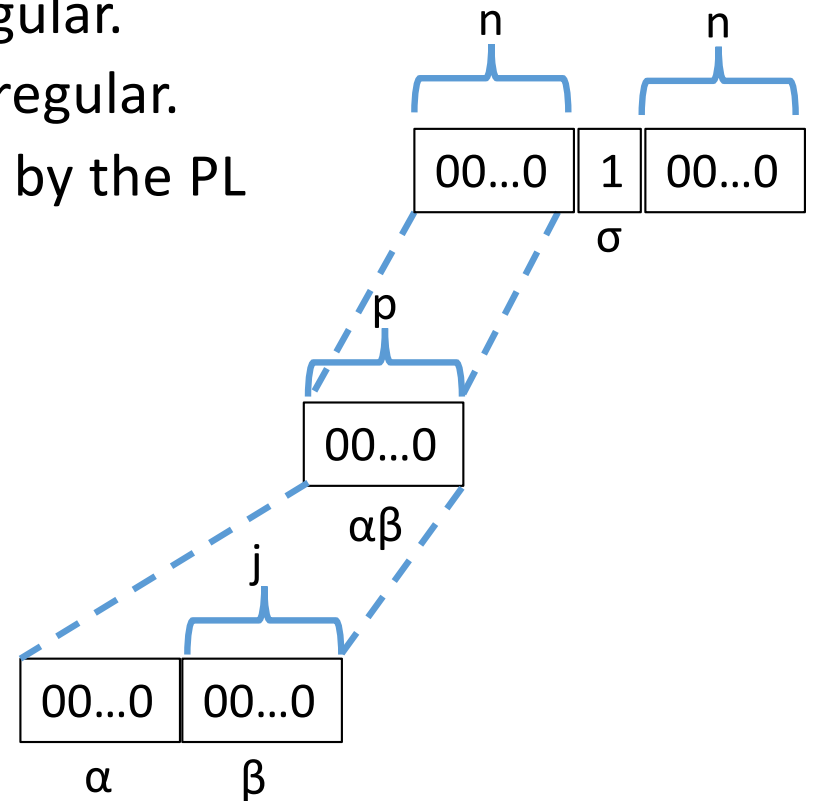
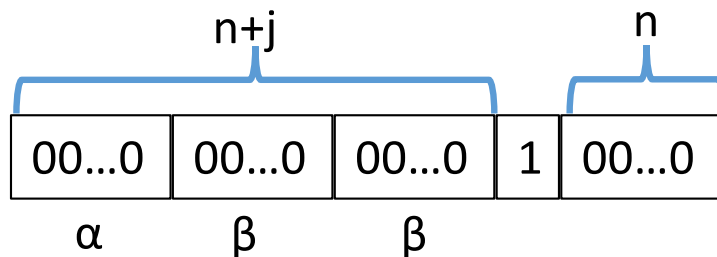
# Using the Pumping Lemma is like an Argument with the Devil



# Example: Use the Pumping Lemma

Show that  $L = \{0^m 1 0^m \mid m \geq 0\}$  is not regular.

- Proof by contradiction: Assume  $L$  is regular.
- If  $L$  is regular, then there exists an  $n$ , by the PL
- Select  $\sigma = 0^n 1 0^n$
- Therefore, **for all  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$** 
  - $\alpha\beta = 0^p$ , because  $p \leq n$
  - $\beta = 0^j$ ,  $0 < j \leq p$
- By the PL,  $\alpha\beta^2\gamma \in L$
- But  $\alpha\beta^2\gamma = 0^{n+j} 1 0^n \notin L$
- **Contradiction!**



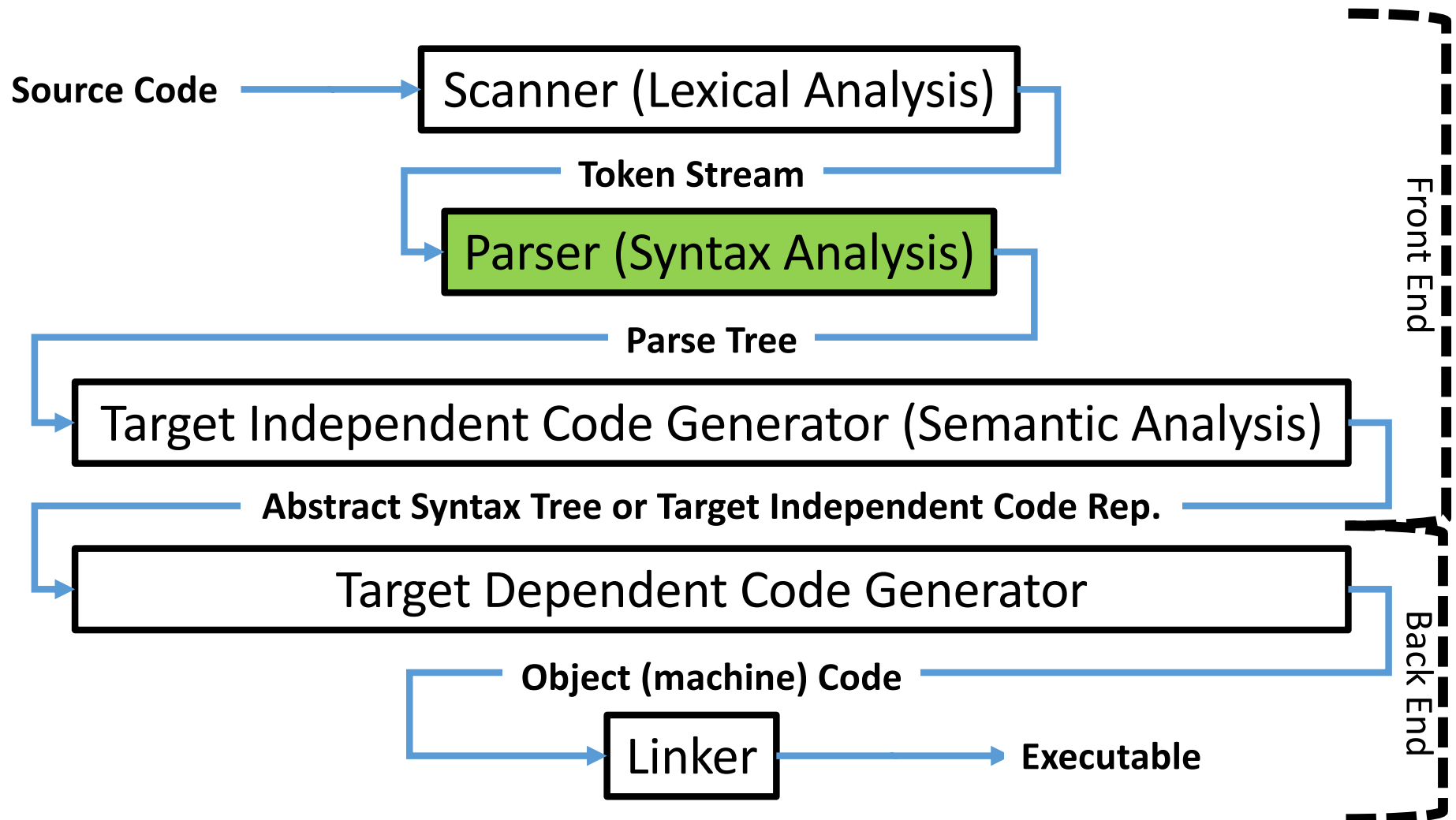
# Examples

- $L = \{a^i b^j \mid i < j\}$
- $L = \{a^p \mid p \text{ is prime}\}$
- $L = \{a^i b^j \mid i = j \bmod 3\}$   
This one is actually regular
- Note: We cannot use the Pumping Lemma to prove a language is regular.
- Question: How do you show a language is regular?
  - Construct a regular expression for the language
  - Construct an NFA that recognizes the language
  - Construct the language from known Regular Languages using closure properties of regular languages.
- So, we're done... right?

# Why Do We Need a Parser?

- A scanner yields a stream of tokens
- Q: Is this sufficient to determine if the input is a valid program?
- A: No! Most programming languages are not regular!  
E.g. braces and brackets must match:  $((1 + 3) * (3 + 2))$
- Scanners are useful for
  - Checking if program's tokens are correct
  - Providing higher level representation of programs
- Scanners cannot check if the syntax is correct
  - Analogy: Correctly spelled words do not make a correct sentence
- We need a different mechanism for checking syntax
- We need a parser

# Recall: Phases of Compilation



# Meet the Parser

- Parsing takes a stream of tokens
  - Checks whether the tokens represent a syntactically correct program
  - Creates a parse tree (a high level representation of the program)
- Question: How do we know what the correct syntax is?
- Answer: Based on the language specification
- Question: How do we specify the syntax
- Answer: By a grammar

# Grammars

- Idea: Grammars specify the syntax of a language
- Example: English Sentences
  - *Sentence* → *Phrase Verb Phrase* .
  - *Phrase* → *Noun* | *Adjective Phrase*
  - *Adjective* → big | small | green
  - *Noun* → boss | cheese
  - *Verb* → is | jumps | eats

Valid Sentences:

- Boss is big cheese.
- Boss eats green cheese.
- Green cheese jumps boss.

Not all valid sentences make sense!

# Example: Arithmetic Expressions

## Grammar

$E \rightarrow E \text{ Op } E$

$E \rightarrow - E$

$E \rightarrow ( E )$

$E \rightarrow \text{Number}$

$E \rightarrow \text{Identifier}$

$\text{Op} \rightarrow +$

$\text{Op} \rightarrow -$

$\text{Op} \rightarrow /$

$\text{Op} \rightarrow *$

## Valid Sentences

$(1 + 2 - 3) * 4$

$-- 3$

$a + b$

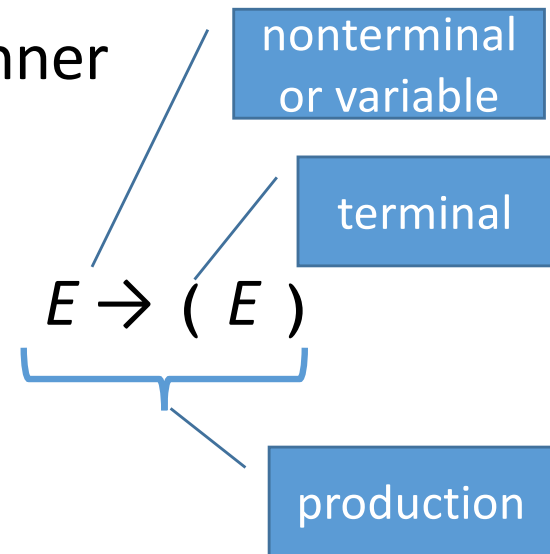
Typically programming languages are specified by Context Free Grammars (CFG)



# Context Free Grammars (CFG)

A CFG  $G$  is a 4-tuple  $G = (V, \Sigma, P, S)$  where

- $V$  is the set of non-terminals
  - Also known as “Variables”
  - Denoted by Capitalized letters/words
- $\Sigma$  is the set of terminals
  - The text tokens returned by the scanner
- $P$  is the set of productions
  - Of the form  $N \rightarrow (\Sigma \cup V)^*$ ,  $N \in V$
  - Also known as “Rewriting Rules”
- $S$  is the start symbol,  $S \in V$



# A CFG Example: Expressions

- $V = \{E, Op\}$
- $\Sigma = \{\text{identifier, number, (, ), +, -, *, /}\}$
- $P = \{$ 
  - $E \rightarrow E Op E$
  - $E \rightarrow -E$
  - $E \rightarrow ( E )$
  - $E \rightarrow \text{number}$
  - $E \rightarrow \text{identifier}$
  - $Op \rightarrow +$
  - $Op \rightarrow -$
  - $Op \rightarrow *$
  - $Op \rightarrow /$ $\}$
- $S = E$

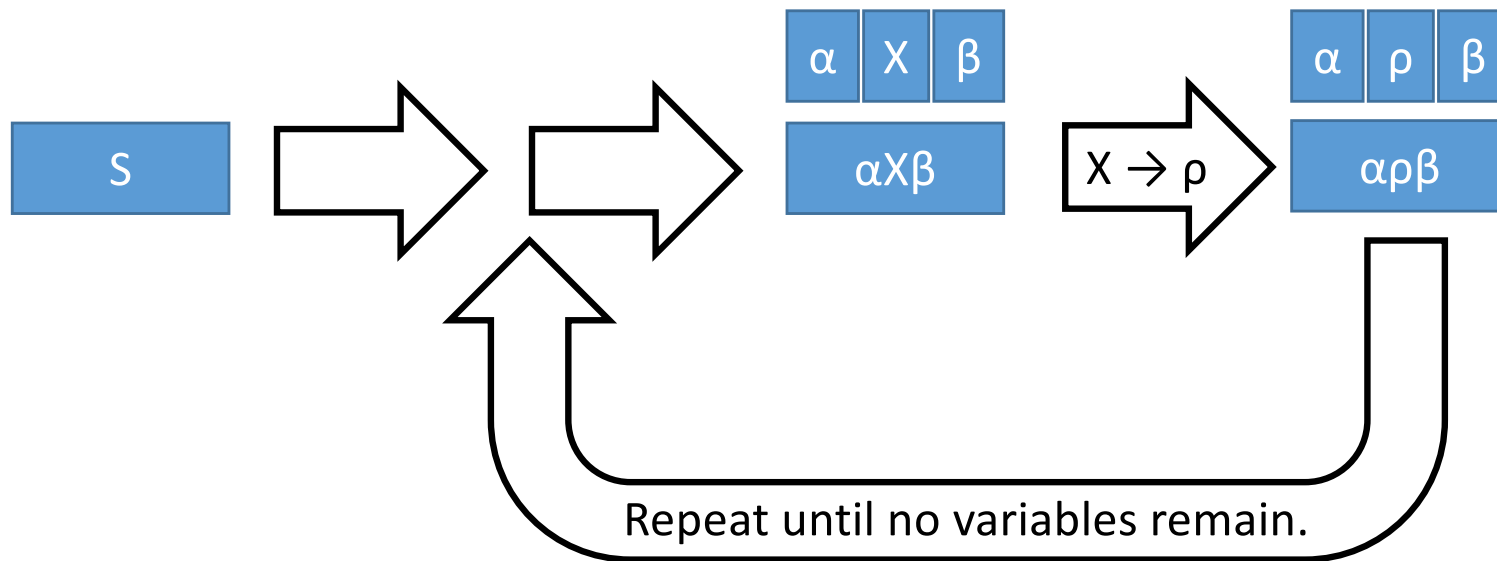
# Notes on CFG Notation

- Note: Alternative productions can be merged using |
  - E.g.,  $Op \rightarrow + \mid - \mid * \mid /$
- Several different notations are in use:
  - **Backus-Naur Form (BNF)** uses  $::=$  instead of  $\rightarrow$
  - **Optional Components notation**  $N_{opt}$  means that  $N$  is optional in the production
  - **Regular Expressions in RHS notation** allows regular expressions of terminals and nonterminals
- Question: How do we use a grammar?
- We determine whether a program is *derivable* from the grammar

# Derivations

- A derivation is a sequence of rewriting operations that starts with the string  $\sigma = S$  and then repeats the following until  $\sigma$  contains only terminals:
  - Select a non-terminal in  $X \in V$ , such that  $\sigma = \alpha X \beta$   
where  $\alpha, \beta \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$
  - Select a production in  $(X \rightarrow \rho) \in P$ ,
  - Replace  $X$  with  $\rho$  in the partial derivation  $\sigma$   
i.e.,  $\sigma = \alpha \rho \beta$
- Eventually,  $\sigma$  will consist of only terminals, meaning the derivation is complete.

# Derivations in a Nutshell



# Derivation Example of an Expression

Derive  $(42 + 13) * 11$

$\sigma = E$

$\Rightarrow E \text{ Op } E$

$\Rightarrow ( E ) \text{ Op } E$

$\Rightarrow ( E \text{ Op } E ) \text{ Op } E$

$\Rightarrow ( 42 \text{ **Op** } E ) \text{ Op } E$

$\Rightarrow ( 42 + E ) \text{ Op } E$

$\Rightarrow ( 42 + 13 ) \text{ **Op** } E$

$\Rightarrow ( 42 + 13 ) * E$

$\Rightarrow ( 42 + 13 ) * 11$

*Grammar*

1.  $E \rightarrow E \text{ Op } E$

2.  $E \rightarrow - E$

3.  $E \rightarrow ( E )$

4.  $E \rightarrow \text{Number}$

5.  $E \rightarrow \text{Identifier}$

6.  $\text{Op} \rightarrow +$

7.  $\text{Op} \rightarrow -$

8.  $\text{Op} \rightarrow /$

9.  $\text{Op} \rightarrow *$

# Definitions

- Definition: We write  $S \Rightarrow^* \sigma$  if there exists a derivation

$$S \Rightarrow \sigma_1 \Rightarrow \sigma_2 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \sigma$$

- Definition: Every grammar  $G$  defines a language:

$$L(G) = \{\sigma \in \Sigma^* \mid S \Rightarrow^* \sigma\}$$

- Definition: If  $G$  is a context-free grammar then  $L(G)$  is a context-free language.

- Example: What is the language defined by  $G = (V, \Sigma, P, S)$

- $V = \{S\}$
- $\Sigma = \{0, 1, \epsilon\}$
- $P = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow \epsilon \\ S \rightarrow 0 S 1 \end{array} \right\}$
- $S = S$

The language  $L(G) = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$

# Example 2

- What is the language defined by  $G = (V, \Sigma, P, S)$

- $V = \{S\}$
- $\Sigma = \{0,1,\epsilon\}$
- $P = \{$

$S \rightarrow \epsilon$

$S \rightarrow 0S0$

$S \rightarrow 1S1$

$\}$

- $S = S$

The language  $L(G) = \{\sigma\sigma^r \mid \sigma \in \Sigma^*\}$

Note:  $\sigma^r$  means reverse of  $\sigma$

- Observations:
  - These languages are nonregular
  - All regular languages are also context-free languages
  - There are more context-free than regular languages
- Q: How does we represent a derivation?



# Parse Trees

- A program is syntactically correct if it can be derived from the grammar of the language it is written in.
- To analyze the program we need a better representation of it.  
I.e., tokens are the input to the parser
- So, each derivation can be represented by a parse tree.

# Structure of Parse Trees

- Root:  $S$ , the start nonterminal
- Internal nodes: nonterminals
- Leaf nodes: terminals (called the *yield* of the tree)
- Edge( $X, w$ ) :  $X \in V$ ,  $w \in \alpha$ , where  $(X \rightarrow \alpha) \in P$ .

# Parse Tree Example of an Expression

$\sigma = E$

$\Rightarrow E \text{ Op } E$

$\Rightarrow ( E ) \text{ Op } E$

$\Rightarrow ( E \text{ Op } E ) \text{ Op } E$

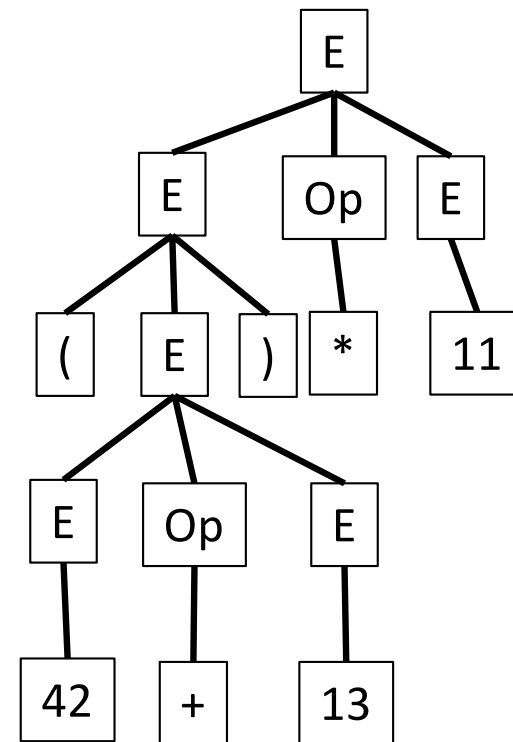
$\Rightarrow ( 42 \text{ **Op** } E ) \text{ Op } E$

$\Rightarrow ( 42 + E ) \text{ Op } E$

$\Rightarrow ( 42 + 13 ) \text{ **Op** } E$

$\Rightarrow ( 42 + 13 ) * E$

$\Rightarrow ( 42 + 13 ) * 11$

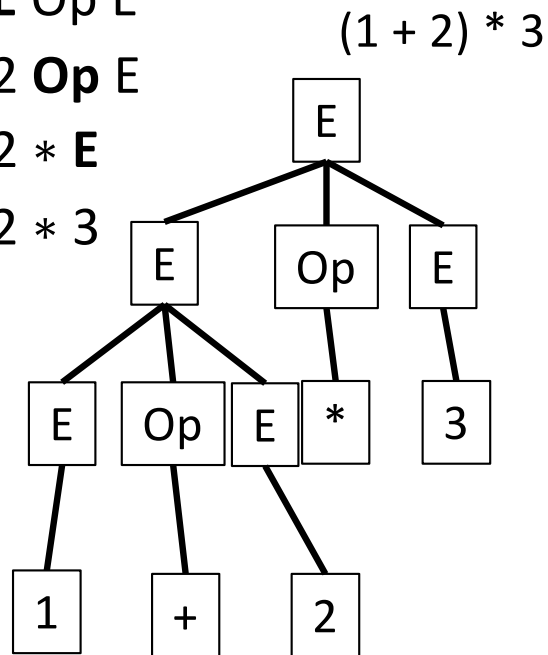


Another Example:  $1 + 2 * 3$

This is ambiguous!

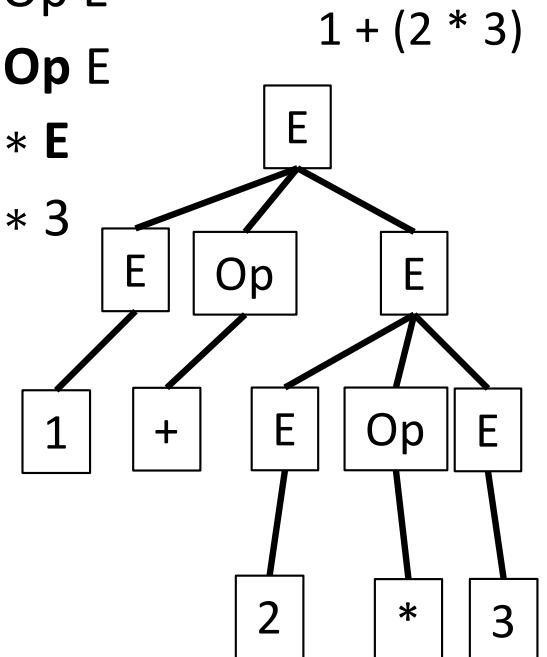
$\sigma = E$

$\Rightarrow E \text{ Op } E$   
 $\Rightarrow E \text{ Op } E \text{ Op } E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 \text{ Op } E \text{ Op } E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 + E \text{ Op } E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 + 2 \text{ Op } E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 + 2 * E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 + 2 * 3$



$\sigma = E$

$\Rightarrow E \text{ Op } E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 \text{ Op } E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 + E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 + E \text{ Op } E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 + 2 \text{ Op } E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 + 2 * E$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 + 2 * 3$



# Ambiguity

- Observations:
  - There are infinitely many grammars to specify the same language
  - There may be multiple parse trees for the same sentence!
- Definition: If multiple parse trees can be generated by  $G$  for the same sentence, then  $G$  is *ambiguous*.
- Definition: If  $L$  does not have an unambiguous grammar, then  $L$  is *inherently ambiguous*
  - Usually not the case for programming languages!

# An Unambiguous Expression Grammar

## Grammar

- $E \rightarrow T$
- $E \rightarrow E + T$
- $E \rightarrow E - T$
- $T \rightarrow F$
- $T \rightarrow T * F$
- $T \rightarrow T / F$
- $F \rightarrow \text{number}$
- $F \rightarrow \text{identifier}$
- $F \rightarrow (E)$

- Try deriving  $1 + 2 * 3$