## Formal languages, formal grammars, and regular expressions

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#### Unit #1

Formal grammar, language and regular expression

Finite-state automaton (FSA)

Finite-state transducer (FST)

Morphological analysis using FST

### Regular expression

- Two concepts:
  - Regular expression in formal language theory
  - Regular expression (or pattern) in pattern matching/programming languages:
    - Ex: /^\d+(\.\d+)\1/
- Both concepts describe a set of strings.
- The two concepts are closely related, but the latter is often more <u>expressive</u> than the former.

#### Outline

- Formal languages
  - Regular languages
  - Context-free languages
  - ...
- Regular expression in formal language theory
- Formal grammars
  - Regular grammars
  - Context-free grammars
- "Regular expression" in pattern matching

## Formal languages

### Definition of <u>formal</u> language

- An <u>alphabet</u> is a finite set of symbols:
  - Ex:  $\Sigma$  = {a, b, c}
- A <u>string</u> is a <u>finite</u> sequence of symbols from a particular alphabet juxtaposed:
  - Ex: the string "baccab"
  - Ex: empty string  $\epsilon$
- A <u>formal language</u> is a set of strings defined over some alphabet.
  - Ex1: {aa, bb, cc, aaaa, abba, acca, baab, bbbb, ....}
  - $Ex2: {a^n b^n | n > 0}$
  - Ex3: the *empty set*  $\phi$

### Definition of regular languages

- The class of <u>regular languages</u> over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  is formally defined as:
  - The empty set,  $\phi$ , is a regular language
  - $\forall$  a ∈  $\Sigma \cup \{\epsilon\}$ , {a} is a regular language.
  - If L1 and L2 are regular languages, then so are:
    - (a)  $L_1 \bullet L_2 = \{x \ y \mid x \in L_1; y \in L_2\}$  (concatenation)
    - (b)  $L_1 \cup L_2$  (union or disjunction)
    - (c)  $L_1^* = \{x_1 \ x_2 \ ... x_n \ | \ x_i \in L_1 \ , \ n \in N \}$  (Kleene closure)
  - There are no other regular languages.

#### Kleene star

#### Another way to define L\*:

- $L^1 = L$
- Ln = Ln-1 L
- $L^* = \{ \epsilon \} \bigcup L^1 \bigcup L^2 \bigcup ...$

#### **Examples:**

- L = {a, bc}
- L<sup>2</sup> = {aa, abc, bca, bcbc}
- L\* =  $\{\epsilon, a, bc, aa, abc, bca, bcbc, aaa, ....\}$

#### **Properties**

- Regular languages are closed under
  - Concatenation
  - Union
  - Kleene closure
- Regular languages are also closed under:
  - Intersection:  $L_1 \cap L_2$
  - − Difference: L<sub>1</sub> − L<sub>2</sub>
  - Complementation:  $\Sigma^*$  L<sub>1</sub>
  - Reversal

#### Are the following languages regular?

- {a, aa, aaa, ....}
- Any finite set of strings
- $\{xy \mid x \in \Sigma^*, \text{ and } y \text{ is the reverse of } x\}$
- $\{xx \mid x \in \Sigma^*\}$
- $\{a^n b^n | n \in N\}$
- $\{a^n b^n c^n | n \in N\}$
- → To prove a language is not regular or context-free, use pumping lemma.

## Regular expression

# Definition of Regular Expression (as in formal language theory)

- The set of regular expressions is defined as follows:
  - (1) Every symbol of  $\Sigma$  is a regular expression
  - (2)  $\epsilon$  is a regular expression
  - (3) If  $\mathbf{r_1}$  and  $\mathbf{r_2}$  are regular expressions, so are  $(\mathbf{r_1})$ ,  $\mathbf{r_1} \mathbf{r_2}$ ,  $\mathbf{r_1} \mathbf{r_2}$ ,  $\mathbf{r_1}^*$
  - (4) Nothing else is a regular expression.

#### Examples

• Let r1=a, r2=b

 ab matches the RegEx r1 r2, and (r1 | r2)\*, but not (r1 | r2).

#### Examples

- ab\*c
- a (0|1|2|..|9)\* b
- (CV | CCV)<sup>+</sup> C?C?: C is a consonant, V is a vowel

Other operations that we can use:

- $a^+ = a a^*$
- a? =  $(a | \epsilon)$

## Relation between regular language and Regex

- They are equivalent:
  - With every regular expression we can associate a regular language.
  - Conversely, every regular language can be obtained from a regular expression.
- Examples:
  - Regular expression = ab\*c
  - Regular language = {ac, abc, abbc, ....}.
    = {ab\*c}

## Formal grammars

### Definition of formal grammar

A formal grammar is a concise description of a formal language. It is a (N,  $\Sigma$ , P, S) tuple:

- A finite set N of nonterminal symbols
- A finite set Σ of terminal symbols that is disjoint from N
- A finite set P of production rules, each of the form:
   (Σ ∪ N)\* N (Σ ∪ N)\* → (Σ ∪ N)\*
- A distinguished symbol S ∈ N that is the start symbol

## Chomsky hierarchy

The left-hand side of a rule must contain at least one non-terminal.

$$\alpha$$
,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*$ , A,B  $\in N$ , a  $\in \Sigma$ 

- Type 0: unrestricted grammar: no other constraints.
- Type 1: Context-sensitive grammar: The rules must be of the form:  $\alpha$  A  $\beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$
- Type 2: Context-free grammar (CFGs): The rules must be of the form:  $A \rightarrow \alpha$
- Type 3: Regular grammar: The rules are of the forms: right regular grammar:  $A \rightarrow a$ ,  $A \rightarrow aB$ , or  $A \rightarrow \epsilon$ left regular grammar:  $A \rightarrow a$ ,  $A \rightarrow Ba$ , or  $A \rightarrow \epsilon$

Are there other kinds of grammars?

#### Ex: CFG vs. Reg Grammar

- Let G1 be a CFG and G2 be a Regular grammar, both with the alphabet {a, b} and the start symbol S.
- Rules for G1: {S → a S b, S→ ε}
- Rules for G2:

$$\{S \rightarrow a S, S \rightarrow b S1, S1 \rightarrow bS1, S1 \rightarrow \epsilon, S \rightarrow \epsilon\}$$

- $L(G1) = \{a^n b^n\}, L(G2) = \{a^* b^*\}$
- L(G1) is a subset of L(G2).

## CFG vs. Reg Grammar (cont)

- CFG has less restriction on the FORM of the production rules than regular grammar; that's why type 0 grammar is called "unrestricted".
- Thus, CFG is more "powerful" in expressing the constraints on the strings generated by the grammar than regular grammar:
  - In L(G1), the numbers of a and b are the same.
  - L(G2) does not have that constraint.
- As a result, L(G1) is a subset of L(G2).

#### Strings generated from a grammar

The rules are:

$$S \rightarrow x | y | z | S + S | S - S | S * S | S/S | (S)$$

- What strings can be generated?
- A grammar is ambiguous if there exists at least one string which has multiple parse trees.

Is this grammar ambiguous?

#### Languages generated by grammars

• Given a grammar G, L(G) is the set of strings that can be generated from G.

• Ex: 
$$G = (N, \Sigma, P, S)$$
  
 $N = \{S\}, \Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$   
 $P = \{S \rightarrow aSb, S \rightarrow c\}$ 

What is L(G)?

$$L(G) = \{a^n c b^n\}$$

# The relation between regular grammars and regular languages

- The regular grammars describe exactly all regular languages.
- All the following are equivalent:
  - Regular language: alphabet, operations
  - Regular expression: alphabet, operations
  - Regular grammar: terminals, non-terminals, production rules
  - Finite state automaton (FSA): alphabet, states, edges

#### Relation between grammars and languages

Chomsky hierarchy	Grammars	Languages	Minimal automaton
Type-0	Unrestricted	Recursively enumerable	Turing machine
Type-1	Context-sensitive	Context-sensitive	Linear-bounded
Type-2	Context-free	Context-free	Nondeterministic pushdown
Type-3	Regular	Regular	Finite state

## Relation between grammars and languages (from wikipedia page)\*\*

Chomsky hierarchy	Grammars	Languages	Minimal automaton
Type-0	Unrestricted	Recursively enumerable	Turing machine
n/a	(no common name)	Recursive	Decider
Type-1	Context-sensitive	Context-sensitive	Linear-bounded
n/a	Indexed	Indexed	Nested stack
n/a	Tree-adjoining	Mildly context- sensitive	Thread
Type-2	Context-free	Context-free	Nondeterministic pushdown
n/a	Deterministic context-free	Deterministic context-free	Deterministic pushdown
Type-3	Regular	Regular	Finite state 25

### How about human languages?

- Are they formal languages?
  - What is the alphabet?
  - What is a string?
- What type of formal languages are they?

Ex: crossing dependency in Dutch: N<sub>1</sub> N<sub>2</sub> V<sub>1</sub> V<sub>2</sub>

English: John believes Mary bought a car.

Dutch: John Mary believes bought a car.

#### Outline

- Formal language
  - Regular language
- Regular expression in formal language theory
- Formal grammar
  - Regular grammar
- Patterns in pattern matching → J&M-ed2 2.1

#### Patterns in Perl or Python

```
[ab]
       alb
       match any character
       the starting position in a string
       the ending position in a string
        defines a marked subexpression
(..)
a*
        match "a" zero or more times
        match "a" one or more time
a+
a?
        match "a" zero or one time
a{n,m} "a" appears n to m times
```

### Special symbols in the patterns

```
\s match any whitespace char, [ \t\n\r\f\v] \d match any digit, [0-9] \w match any letter or digit, [a-zA-Z0-9_] \S match any non-whitespace char
```

### Examples

Integer: (\+|\-)?\d+

Real number: (\+|\-)?\d+\.\d+

Scientific notation: (\+|\-)? \d+ (\.\d+)?e (\+|\-)?\d+

Integer, real number, or scientific notation: (+|-)? d+ (..d+)? (e (+|-)?d+)?

## Numbered groups

$$/^(.*)\1$/ \Leftrightarrow \{xx \mid x \in \Sigma^*\}$$

$$/^{(.+)a(.+)}1^2$$
  $\Leftrightarrow$  {xayxy | x, y  $\in \Sigma^*$ }

→ The extra power comes from the ability to refer to "numbered groups".