

# Slides to Accompany *Programming Languages and Methodologies*

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Chapter 2, Parts 1 and 2: Formal Grammars

# Programs are Strings

Consider the following code fragment:

```
void main(void)
{
    char *message[] = {"Hello ", "World"};
    int i;

    for(i = 0; i < 2; ++i)
        printf("%s", message[i]);
    printf("\n");
}
```

*The code might as well appear as follows:*

```
void main(void) { char *message[] = {"Hello ", "World"}; int i;
for(i = 0; i < 2; ++i) printf("%s", message[i]); printf("\n"); }
```

## Another Example

Consider the Lisp function definition:

```
(defun hello  
  (print  
    (cons 'Hello (list 'World))))
```

*Again, as the compiler sees it:*

```
(defun hello (print (cons 'Hello (list 'World))))
```

## The Point(s)

- The source code (i.e., your program) is merely a sequence of symbols.
- This sequence (string) is characterized via formal grammars.
- The programming language which allows production of these strings exists to facilitate communication between the programmer and the compiler.

## Formal Grammars

- Grammars generate languages
- The syntax of a programming language may be described through specification of a grammar.
- There are many different types of grammars (later).

# Language Syntax Specification and Productions

- The syntax of a programming language may basically be written using a set of reserved words (primitives) and rules (productions) for combining these reserved words to form programs.
- For example, a part of the syntax of Pascal may be shown in BNF:

$$\begin{aligned}function - identifier &::= identifier \\ identifier &::= letter\{letter - or - digit\} \\ letter &::= a|b|c|\dots|z|\dots|A|\dots|Z \\ digit &::= 0|1|2|3|4|\dots|9 \\ letter - or - digit &::= letter|digit\end{aligned}$$

$::=$  means 'is defined as'

$|$  means 'or'

$\{\}$  indicates items which may be repeated zero or more times

## What About a Programming Language Compiler?

- Part of a compiler is a *grammatical recognizer* or *parser*.
- A compiler or interpreter for a (higher-level) language attempts to generate lower level machine instructions by determining the desired structure of the input high level language program through *parsing* the input or source code.
- The compiler/interpreter begins with processing of the program as an input string.
- This processing is based upon checking if the string meets a formal specification of the programming language syntax.



## An Alphabet and Forming Strings

- An alphabet ( $V$ ) is a finite, nonempty set of *symbols*, e.g.:

$$V = \{a, b, c, \dots z\}$$

- The concatenation of  $a$  and  $b$ , denoted  $a \circ b$ , produces a sequence of two symbols simply denoted hereafter as  $ab$ .
- A *string* over  $V$  is either a single symbol from  $V$  or a sequence of symbols formed by concatenation of zero or more symbols from  $V$ . Therefore, from  $V$  above, ' $a$ ' ' $ab$ ' ' $az$ ' and ' $azab$ ' are strings or *sentences* over  $V$ .
- The length of (or number of symbols in) string  $s$  is denoted  $|s|$ .

- A string has a natural ordering of elements from left to right.
- Often it is convenient to denote a string like  $x = aaa \dots a$ , where a symbol (or sequence of symbols) is repeated  $n$  times as  $x = a^n$ . For example:

$$aabbbcccc = a^2b^3c^4$$

## The Closure Set

Define  $V^+$  as

$$V^+ = V \cup V^2 \cup V^3 \cup \dots$$

$V^+$  is the set of all nonempty sentences producible using  $V$ .  
Adding the empty string to  $V^+$  produces  $V^*$ , i.e.,

$$V^* = \{\epsilon\} \cup V^+$$

$V^*$  is denoted the *closure (set)* of  $V$  and  $V^+ = V^* - \{\epsilon\}$  is often called the *positive closure* of  $V$ .

## Languages Using Strings

*Grammars are used with  $V$  to give some meaning to a subset of strings,  $L \subseteq V^*$ .*

$L$  is called a *language*. Furthermore:

- Languages are generated by grammars.
- Another viewpoint is that a grammar restricts the production of strings from  $V$ .
- Grammars are used to recognize (parse) elements of a language.

## Grammar: Formal Definition

A *grammar*

$$G = (V_T, V_N, P, S)$$

consists of the following four entities:

1. A set of terminal or primitive symbols (primitives), denoted  $V_T$  (or, alternately,  $\Sigma$ ). These are the elemental 'building blocks' of the grammar (and corresponding language).
2. A set of *non-terminal symbols, or variables*, which are used as intermediate quantities in the generation of an outcome consisting solely of terminal symbols. This set is denoted as  $V_N$  (or, alternately,  $N$ ).

Note that  $V_T$  and  $V_N$  are disjoint sets, i.e.,  $V_T \cap V_N = \emptyset$ .

3. A set of *productions, or production rules or rewriting rules*

which govern how strings may be formed. It is this set of productions, coupled with the terminal symbols, which principally gives the grammar its 'structure.' The set of productions is denoted  $P$ .

4. A starting (or root) symbol, denoted  $S$ .  $S \in V_N$ .

## Grammar Application Modes

A grammar may be used in one of two modes:

1. *Generative*: The grammar is used to create a string of terminal symbols using  $P$ ; a *sentence* in the language of the grammar is thus generated.
2. *Analytic*: Given a sentence (possibly in the language of the grammar), together with specification of  $G$ , one seeks to determine:
  - (a) If the sentence was generated by  $G$ ; and, if so,
  - (b) The structure (usually characterized as the sequence of productions used) of the sentence. This is where we begin to consider semantics.



## Languages, Possible Strings and $L(G)$

- Any subset  $L \subseteq V_T^*$  is a *language*.
- If  $|L|$  is finite, the language is called finite, otherwise it is infinite.
- The *language generated by grammar  $G$* , denoted  $L(G)$ , is the set of all strings which satisfy
  1. Each string consists solely of terminal symbols from  $V_T$  of  $G$ ; and
  2. Each string was produced from  $S$  using  $P$  of  $G$ .



## Grammar Types/Definitions

1. Symbols beginning with a capital letter (e.g.,  $S_1$  or  $S$ ) are elements of  $V_N$ .
2. Symbols beginning with a lowercase letter (e.g.,  $a$  or  $b$ ) are elements of  $V_T$ .
3.  $n$  denotes the length of string  $s$ , i.e.,

$$n = |s|$$

4. Greek letters (e.g.,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ) represent (possibly empty) strings, typically comprised of terminals and/or nonterminals.

## $T_1$ : Context-Sensitive (CS)

A  $T_1$  or context sensitive grammar restricts productions to:

$$\alpha\alpha_i\beta \rightarrow \alpha\beta_i\beta$$

meaning  $\beta_i$  replaces  $\alpha_i$  *in the context of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$* , where  $\alpha, \beta \in (V_N \cup V_T)^*, \alpha_i \in V_N$  and  $\beta_i \in (V_N \cup V_T)^* - \{\epsilon\}$ . Note that  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$  (or both) may equal  $\epsilon$ .

Furthermore,  $|\alpha\alpha_i\beta| \leq |\alpha\beta_i\beta|$  Replacements involving the empty string are treated as a special case.

## $T_2$ :Context Free (CFG) (corrected)

In a  $T_2$  or context-free grammar<sup>a</sup>, the production restrictions are:

$$\alpha_1 = S_1 \in V_N$$

( $\alpha_1$  *must be a single nonterminal* )

$$S_1 \rightarrow \beta_2$$

where  $\beta_2 \in (V_N \cup V_T)^*$ .

Note a CFG production allows  $S_1$  to be replaced by string  $\beta_2$  *independently or irrespective of the context in which  $S_1$  appears.*

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<sup>a</sup>There appear to be multiple definitions of this.

## Representation and Complexity

In progressing from a  $T_0$  to a  $T_4$  grammar, notice that as production restrictions increase, representational power decreases.

At the same time, increasing production restrictions leads to simpler parsers.

Parsing complexity in a  $T_2$  (CFG) grammar is a linear function of the number of rewrite rules in a derivation.

Denoting  $L(T_i)$  as the class of language generated by grammar  $T_i$ , the above restrictions indicate:

$$L(T_3) \subset L(T_2) \subset L(T_1) \subset L(T_0)$$

## Parsing and Complexity

Context free grammars and the class of context-free languages they generate are paramount in the study of programming languages, since they are reasonably adequate for describing the syntax of many programming languages. It is also worth noting:

- Context-free grammars are important because they are the most descriptively versatile grammars for which effective (and efficient) parsers are available.
- *The production restrictions increase in going from context-sensitive ( $T_1$ ) to context free ( $T_2$ ) cases.*

## A Sample $G_s$ : Type and $L(G_s)$

$$S \rightarrow AB$$

$$S \rightarrow C$$

$$A \rightarrow C$$

$$A \rightarrow a$$

$$B \rightarrow b$$

$$B \rightarrow c$$

$$C \rightarrow d$$

In BNF:

$$\langle s \rangle ::= \langle a \rangle \langle b \rangle \mid \langle c \rangle$$

$$\langle a \rangle ::= \langle c \rangle \mid a$$

$$\langle b \rangle ::= b \mid c$$

$$\langle c \rangle ::= d$$

$S$  is the starting symbol and  $V_T$  and  $V_N$  may be deduced from the productions.

1. What type(s) of grammar do we have?
2. What is  $L(G_s)$  corresponding to  $G_s$ ?