

FOUNDATIONS OF COMPUTER SCIENCE LECTURE 4: Regular grammars

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Grammars for generating regular languages



- We now provide a further method to characterize regular languages
- *Generative Grammars* can easily describe certain features that have a recursive structure, which makes them useful in a variety of applications
- They are a powerful tool in computer science (and not only) and their use goes far beyond regular languages
- (Generative) Grammars were first used in the formal study of human languages
- Grammars heavily occur in the specification and compilation of programming languages:
 - A grammar for a programming language is the reference way to learn the language syntax;
- Designers of compilers and interpreters for programming languages often start by the grammar;
- Most compilers and interpreters contain a component called a *parser* (originating from the grammar) that extracts the meaning of a program before generating the compiled code or performing the interpreted execution.

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Algebric Expressions on Natural numbers

recursive way of describing syntactic entities	EXPR	::=	EXPR+EXPR EXPR×EXPR (EXPR) NUMB
	NUMB	::=	DIGIT NONZERODIGIT DIGITSEQ
	DIGITSEQ	::=	DIGIT DIGIT DIGITSEQ
	DIGIT	::=	O NONZERODIGIT
NONZERODIGIT ::=		Г ::=	1 2 9

Here:

- Capital-letter words are items that have to be replaced for generating a valid entity
- Digits 0,...,9 and symbols $+,\times,(,)$ are constants
- Only sequences of constants are elements of the laguage generated by the grammar

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EX.: Number 1903 is produced as NUMB \Rightarrow NONZERODIGIT DIGITSEQ \Rightarrow 1 DIGITSEQ \Rightarrow 1 DIGITSEQ \Rightarrow "followed by" \Rightarrow 19 DIGITSEQ \Rightarrow 19 DIGITSEQ \Rightarrow 190 DIGITSEQ \Rightarrow 190 DIGIT \Rightarrow 1903
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QUESTION: Why don't we use the following (simpler) description for numbers?

NUMB ::= DIGIT | DIGIT NUMB



Grammar for Algebraic Expressions (cont'd)

EX.: Number 31 is produced as

NUMB \Rightarrow NONZERODIGIT DIGITSEQ \Rightarrow 3 DIGITSEQ \Rightarrow 3 DIGIT \Rightarrow 31

EX.: Expression (1903+31)×31 is produced as

$$EXPR \Rightarrow EXPR \times EXPR \Rightarrow (EXPR) \times EXPR \Rightarrow (EXPR+EXPR) \times EXPR$$

⇒⇒⇒ (NUMB+NUMB)×NUMB

$$\Rightarrow \Rightarrow \Rightarrow \Rightarrow (1903+31) \times \text{NUMB}$$
 (see above)

$$\Rightarrow \Rightarrow \Rightarrow (1903+31)\times 31$$
 (see above)

Formal Definition



DEFINITION

A grammar is a 4-tuple (V, Σ, R, S) , where

- 1. V is a finite set called the variables,
- 2. Σ is a finite set, disjoint from V, called the *terminals*,
- **3.** R is a finite set of *rules*, with $R \subseteq (V \cup \Sigma)^+ \times (V \cup \Sigma)^*$
- **4.** $S \in V$ is the start variable.

Notationally, rules with the same LHS (i.e., first component) are grouped together, i.e.

If (α, β_1) , ..., (α, β_n) are all the rules in R with first component α ,

we shall write them as $\alpha := \beta_1 | \dots | \beta_n$

::= reads "rewrites"

If u, v, α , β are strings of variables and terminals, and (α, β) is a rule of the grammar, we say that $u\alpha v$ **yields** $u\beta v$, written $u\alpha v \Rightarrow u\beta v$. yields -> replaces

We say that u derives v, written $u \Rightarrow^* v$, if u = v or there exists a sequence $u_1, u_2, ..., u_k$ (for $k \ge 0$) such that $u \Rightarrow u_1 \Rightarrow u_2 \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow u_k \Rightarrow v$.

The *language of the grammar* G is $L(G) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \Rightarrow^* w\}$.

The previous example, formally



In the grammar for algebraic expressions, we have that

- $V = \{EXPR, NUMB, DIGIT, NONZERODIGIT, DIGITSEQ\}$
- $\Sigma = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, +, \times, (,)\}$
- S = EXPR
- R has been given in the first slide of the example, viz.

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R = \begin{cases} & (\mathsf{EXPR} \,,\, \mathsf{EXPR+EXPR}) \,,\, (\mathsf{EXPR} \,,\, \mathsf{EXPR\timesEXPR}) \,,\, (\mathsf{EXPR} \,,\, \mathsf{(EXPR)} \,) \,,\, (\mathsf{EXPR} \,,\, \mathsf{NUMB}) \,, \\ & (\mathsf{NUMB} \,,\, \mathsf{DIGIT}) \,,\, (\mathsf{NUMB} \,,\, \mathsf{NONZERODIGIT} \,\, \mathsf{DIGITSEQ}) \,, \\ & (\mathsf{DIGITSEQ} \,,\, \mathsf{DIGIT}) \,,\, (\mathsf{DIGITSEQ} \,,\, \mathsf{DIGIT} \,\, \mathsf{DIGITSEQ}) \,, \\ & (\mathsf{DIGIT} \,,\, \mathsf{O}) \,,\, (\mathsf{DIGIT} \,,\, \mathsf{NONZERODIGIT}) \,, \\ & (\mathsf{NONZERODIGIT} \,,\, \mathsf{1}) \,,\, (\mathsf{NONZERODIGIT} \,,\, \mathsf{2}) \,,\, \ldots \, (\mathsf{NONZERODIGIT} \,,\, \mathsf{9}) \end{cases}
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Grammars are usually given just by their rules (grouped by the LHSs):

- The variables are denoted in capital letters (or in square parenthesis, e.g. <EXPR>)
- Terminals are usually well-identifiable symbols (or simply the remaining symbols)
- The starting variable is usually the left part of the first production given

the "-" is NOT a terminal symbol

Regular Grammars



According to the restrictions that we pose on the shape of the rules, we have different kinds of grammars

both L & R lineas:

A grammar $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ is said every variable rewrites in a string of terminals

- *left-linear* if, for every $(\alpha, \beta) \in R$, we have that $\alpha \in V$ and $\beta \in (\Sigma^* \cup V\Sigma^*)$;
- *right-linear* if, for every $(\alpha, \beta) \in R$, we have that $\alpha \in V$ and $\beta \in (\Sigma^* \cup \Sigma^* V)$;
- regular, if it is either left- or right-linear.

EXAMPLE: The following grammar for natural numbers (derived from the previous one for algebraic expressions on naturals) is regular (actually, right-linear):

NUMB ::= 0 | 1 DIGITSEQ | ... | 9 DIGITSEQ this is right linear as we have a terminal symbol followed by a variable

DIGITSEQ ::= ε | 0 DIGITSEQ | ... | 9 DIGITSEQ (see def above)

EXERCISE: define a left-linear grammar for natural numbers.

REMARK: For algebraic expressions, regular grammars are not enough (We will see other kinds of grammars later on in this course!)



Another example for regular grammars

The (regular) language 0(10)* is generated by the right-linear grammar

$$S ::= 0A$$

$$A ::= \varepsilon \mid 10A$$

or, equivalently, by the left-linear grammar

$$S := 0 \mid S10$$

With the first grammar, we can derive 0101010 as follows:

$$S \Rightarrow 0A \Rightarrow 010A \Rightarrow 01010A \Rightarrow 0101010A \Rightarrow 0101010$$

With the second grammar, the derivation is instead:

$$S \Rightarrow S10 \Rightarrow S1010 \Rightarrow S101010 \Rightarrow 0101010$$

Regular Languages vs Right-linear Grammars



Thm1: If *L* is regular, then it is generated by a right-linear grammar.

Proof:

Let L = L(M) for a DFA $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$. the variables are essentially the states

First suppose that q_0 is not a final state.

Then, L = L(G), where G is the right-linear grammar (Q, Σ, R, q_0) , where R includes

- q := aq', whenever $\delta(q, a) = q'$
- q := a, whenever $\delta(q, a) \in F$.

Then, by induction on |w|, we can prove that $\delta(q, w) = q'$ if and only if $q \Rightarrow wq'$.

If q_0 is final, we consider the grammar $G' = (Q \cup \{S\}, \Sigma, R', S)$ with $S \notin Q$ and

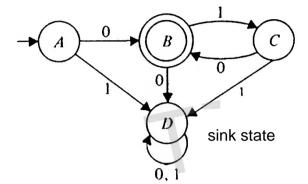
$$R' = R \cup \{ S := \varepsilon \mid q_0 \}$$

where *R* is built as above.

Example



Consider the following DFA for language $0(10)^*$:



The right-linear grammar from this DFA is

construction is easier with right-linear grammar (more natural, as we first give 0D | 1D D ::= 0/1 and then transition)

Notice that variable D is not really needed (in the automaton we need state D because the automaton is deterministic, and so we have to handle, e.g., strings that start with a 1) in the grammar it's not needed as D only transitions to D (sink state)

Hence, a more compact grammar (equivalent to the previous one) is

$$C ::= OB | O$$



Regular Languages vs Left-linear Grammars

Cor1: If *L* is regular, then it is generated by a left-linear grammar.

Proof:

Since L is regular, also L^{R} is regular (by closure properties of reg.lang's).

Let $L^{R} = L(M)$ for a DFA M.

By Thm1, there exists a right-linear grammar G s.t. $L^{R} = L(G)$.

Now, consider $G^{\mathbb{R}}$, the grammar obtained from G by reversing the RHSs of all its productions.

$$G^{\mathbb{R}}$$
 is left-linear and $L(G^{\mathbb{R}}) = (L(G))^{\mathbb{R}} = (L^{\mathbb{R}})^{\mathbb{R}} = L$.

reverse language and then reverse grammar

Right-linear Grammars vs Regular Languages



Thm2: If L is generated by a right-linear grammar, then L is regular.

Proof:

Let L=L(G), for some right-linear grammar $G=(V,\Sigma,R,S)$.

We construct an NFA with ε -moves, $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ that simulates derivations in G:

- Q consists of the symbols $[\alpha]$ such that $\alpha = S$ or α is a (not necessarily proper) suffix of some right-hand side of a rule in R all the suffixes of all the LHS
- $q_0 = [S]$
- $F = \{ [\varepsilon] \}$ a string always finishes with epsilon, so it's the only final state
- δ is defined as follows:
 - If $A \in V$, then $\delta([A], \varepsilon) = \{ [\alpha] \mid A ::= \alpha \in R \}$
 - If $a \in \Sigma$ and $\alpha \in (\Sigma^* \cup \Sigma^* V)$, then $\delta(\lceil a\alpha \rceil, a) = \{\lceil \alpha \rceil\}$. suffix evolution

By induction on |w|, we can show that $[\alpha] \in \delta([S], w)$ if and only if $S \Rightarrow^* w\alpha$.

As $[\varepsilon]$ is the unique final state, M accepts w (i.e., $[\varepsilon] \in \delta([S], w)$) if and only if $S \Rightarrow^* w$.

Example



Consider the right-linear grammar

$$S ::= 0A$$

0(10)*

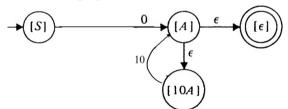
$$A ::= \varepsilon \mid 10A$$

Its associated automaton is:

vedi a casa, importante

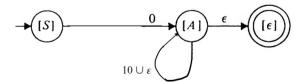
By deriving its associated regular expression (as we saw in the previous class), we obtain

- Consider q_{rip} to be [0A]
 - $q_i = [S], q_i = [A], R1 = R2 = \varepsilon, R3 = 0 \text{ and } R4 = \emptyset \text{ yield } [S] \xrightarrow{\varepsilon \varepsilon^* 0 \cup \emptyset} [A], \text{ with } \varepsilon \varepsilon^* 0 \cup \emptyset = 0$
 - $q_i = [10A], q_i = [A], R1 = 1, R2 = \varepsilon, R3 = 0 \text{ and } R4 = \emptyset \text{ yield } [10A] \xrightarrow{1\varepsilon*0 \cup \emptyset} \longrightarrow [A], \text{ with } 1\varepsilon*0 \cup \emptyset = 10$



[10A]

- Consider q_{rip} to be [10*A*]
 - $q_i = q_j = [A]$, R1 = R2 = ε , R3 = 10 and R4 = ε yield $[A] \xrightarrow{\varepsilon \varepsilon^* 10 \cup \varepsilon} [A]$, with $\varepsilon \varepsilon^* 10 \cup \varepsilon = 10 \cup \varepsilon$



- Consider q_{rip} to be [A]
 - $q_i = [S], q_j = [\varepsilon], R1 = 0, R2 = 10 \cup \varepsilon, R3 = \varepsilon \text{ and } R4 = \emptyset \text{ yield } [S] \xrightarrow{0(10 \cup \varepsilon)^* \varepsilon \cup \emptyset} \longrightarrow [\varepsilon], \text{ with } 0(10 \cup \varepsilon)^* \varepsilon \cup \emptyset = 0(10)^*$



Left-linear Grammars vs Regular Languages

Cor2: If *L* is generated by a left-linear grammar, then *L* is regular.

Proof:

Let L=L(G), for some left-linear grammar G.

Consider G^R , the right-linear grammar obtained by G by reversing the RHSs of its productions.

Trivially, $L(G^{R}) = (L(G))^{R}$.

By Thm2, since $G^{\mathbb{R}}$ is right-linear, $L(G^{\mathbb{R}})$ is a regular language.

Since regular languages are closed by reversion, $(L(G^R))^R$ is regular.

But
$$(L(G^R))^R = ((L(G))^R)^R = L(G)$$
, and so $L = L(G)$ is regular.

Left- vs Right-linear Grammars



Cor: *L* has a right-linear grammar if and only if it has a left-linear grammar.

Proof:

L=L(G), for some right-linear grammar

IFF L is regular (Thm1+Thm2)

IFF L=L(G), for some left-linear grammar (Cor1+Cor2)

Q.E.D.

REMARK 1: this Corollary also give an algorithm for passing from a left- to a right-linear grammar, and vice versa (by passing through automata)

REMARK 2: usually, right-linear grammars are much easier to invent and handle

→ there are algorithms that directly (and more efficiently) transform a left- into

a right-linear grammar (out of the scope of this course)
però vedi comunque se trovi qualcosa