#### G54FOP: Lecture 1

#### Basic Formal Language Notions and Abstract Syntax

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#### **About These Slides**

We give a brief recap on some central notions from the theory of formal languages, covered in a typical undergraduate course on that topic such as G52MAL, before moving on to abstract syntax.

To recap, consult the G52MAL lecture notes:

http://www.cs.nott.ac.uk/~nhn/G52MAL

or a book on the topic, such as

John E. Hopcroft, Rajeev Motwani, Jeffrey D. Ullman. *Introduction to Automata Theory, Languages, and Computation, 2nd edition*, Addison Wesley, 2001.

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- Syntax: the form of programs
  - Concrete Syntax (or Surface Syntax):

     (typically) the exact character sequences
     that are syntactically valid programs.
  - Abstract Syntax: the essential structure of syntactically valid programs.

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  - Dynamic Semantics: what programs and program fragments mean (or do) when executed, at run-time.

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- We will start by looking at syntax, recapitulating some notions from the theory of formal languages related to *concrete syntax*, and then move on to *abstract syntax*.

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The term **string** is often used interchangeably with the term **word**.

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A common (and important) instance is  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ .

 $\epsilon$ , the empty word, is **never** a symbol of an alphabet.

alphabet words

$$\Sigma = \{a, b\}$$

?

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$$\epsilon, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb,$$

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```

Note the distinction between  $\epsilon$ ,  $\emptyset$ , and  $\{\epsilon\}$ !

#### **Exercises**

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- What about the set of all natural numbers smaller than some given number n?
- Homework:
  - Suggest an alphabet of a handful of drink ingredients.
  - List some words over your alphabet.
  - Does all possible words describe "interesting" drinks?
  - Define a language of interesting drinks.

#### All Words over an Alphabet (1)

Given an alphabet  $\Sigma$  we define the set  $\Sigma^*$  as set of words (or sequences) over  $\Sigma$ :

- The empty word  $\epsilon \in \Sigma^*$ .
- given a symbol  $x \in \Sigma$  and a word  $w \in \Sigma^*$ ,  $xw \in \Sigma^*$ .
- These are all elements in  $\Sigma^*$ .

This is called an *inductive definition*.

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Inductive definitions and reasoning by induction over inductively defined structures will be recurring themes in this module.

#### All Words over an Alphabet (2)

Example: Given  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ , some elements of  $\Sigma^*$  are

- $\epsilon$  (the empty word)
- **0**, 1
- 00, 10, 01, 11
- 000, 100, 010, 110, 001, 101, 011, 111
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Note: although there are infinitely many words in  $\Sigma^*$ , each word has a *finite* length!

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- $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ , or equivalently
- $L \in \mathcal{P}(\Sigma^*)$ .

#### Some examples of languages:

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- The set of words that contain the same number of 0s and 1s is a language over  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ . (Finite or infinite?)
- The set of correct Java programs. This is a language over the set of UNICODE characters.

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- The CFLs captures ideas common in programming languages such as
  - nested structure
  - balanced parentheses
  - matching keywords like begin and end.
- Most "reasonable" CFLs can be recognised by a fairly simple machine: a deterministic pushdown automaton.

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- allows context-free constraints to be expressed
- imparts a hierarchical structure to the words in the language
- allows simple and efficient parsing:
  - determining if a word belongs to the language
  - determining its *phrase structure* if so.

A Context-Free Grammar is a 4-tuple (N,T,P,S) where

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- T is a finite set of terminals (the alphabet of the language being described)
- $N \cap T = \emptyset$  (N and T are disjoint)
- ullet S, the **start symbol**, is a distinguished element of N
- P is a finite set of productions, written  $A \to \alpha$ , where  $A \in N$  and  $\alpha \in (N \cup T)^*$

# Context-Free Grammar: Example

$$G = (\{S, A\}, \{a, b\}, P, S)$$

where P consists of the productions

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon$$

$$S \rightarrow aA$$

$$A \rightarrow bS$$

#### **Context-Free Grammars: Notation**

Productions with the same LHS are usually grouped together. For example, the productions for *S* from the previous example:

$$S \to \epsilon \mid aA$$

This is (roughly) what is known as **Backus-Naur Form**.

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Another common way of writing productions is

$$A ::= \alpha$$

# The Directly Derives Relation (1)

To formally define the language generated by

$$G = (N, T, P, S)$$

we first define a binary relation  $\Rightarrow$  on strings over

 $N \cup T$ , read "directly derives in grammar G", being the least relation such that

$$\alpha A \gamma \Rightarrow_{G} \alpha \beta \gamma$$

whenever  $A \to \beta$  is a production in G.

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whenever  $A \rightarrow \beta$  is a production in G. **Note:** a production can be applied regardless of context, hence *context-free*.

# The Directly Derives Relation (2)

When it is clear which grammar G is involved, we use  $\Rightarrow$  instead of  $\Rightarrow$ .

Example: Given the grammar

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \to & \epsilon \mid aA \\ A & \to & bS \end{array}$$

we have

$$S \Rightarrow \epsilon$$
  $aA \Rightarrow abS$   $S \Rightarrow aA$   $SaAaa \Rightarrow SabSaa$ 

The relation  $\underset{G}{\overset{*}{\Rightarrow}}$ , read "derives in grammar G", is the reflexive, transitive closure of  $\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}$ .

That is,  $\underset{G}{\overset{*}{\Rightarrow}}$  is the least relation on strings over  $N \cup T$  such that:

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$$\alpha \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$$

(reflexive)

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$$\alpha \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} \alpha \qquad \qquad \text{(reflexive)}$$

$$\alpha \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} \beta$$
 if  $\alpha \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} \gamma \wedge \gamma \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} \beta$  (transitive)

Again, we use  $\overset{*}{\Rightarrow}$  instead of  $\overset{*}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}}$  when G is obvious.

Example: Given the grammar

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \to & \epsilon \mid aA \\ A & \to & bS \end{array}$$

we have

$$S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \epsilon \qquad S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} abS$$

$$S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} aA \qquad S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} ababS$$

$$aA \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} abS \qquad S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} abab$$

# Language Generated by a Grammar

The language generated by a context-free grammar

$$G = (N, T, P, S)$$

denoted L(G), is defined as follows:

$$L(G) = \{ w \mid w \in T^* \land S \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} w \}$$

A language L is a Context-Free Language (CFL) iff L = L(G) for some CFG G.

A string  $\alpha \in (N \cup T)^*$  is a *sentential form* iff  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$ .

# Language Generation: Example

#### Given the grammar

$$G = (N = \{S, A\}, T = \{a, b\}, P, S)$$
 where  $P$  are the productions

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \to & \epsilon \mid aA \\ A & \to & bS \end{array}$$

#### we have

$$L(G) = \{(ab)^i \mid i \ge 0\}$$
  
= \{\epsilon, ab, abab, ababab, abababab, \ldots\}

# Example: MiniTriangle CFG (1)

#### Concrete syntax for MiniTriangle:

```
Program
                -Command
Commands

ightarrow Command
                 Command : Commands
Command
            \rightarrow VarExpression := Expression
                 VarExpression (Expressions)
                 if Expression then Command else Command
                 while Expression do Command
                 let Declarations in Command
                 begin Commands end
```

# Example: MiniTriangle CFG (2)

```
Expression
Expressions
                           Expression , Expressions
Expression
                          Primary Expression
                           Expression Operator PrimaryExpression
Primary Expression
                          IntegerLiteral
                           VarExpression
                           Operator Primary Expression
                           ( Expression )
                          Identifier
VarExpression
```

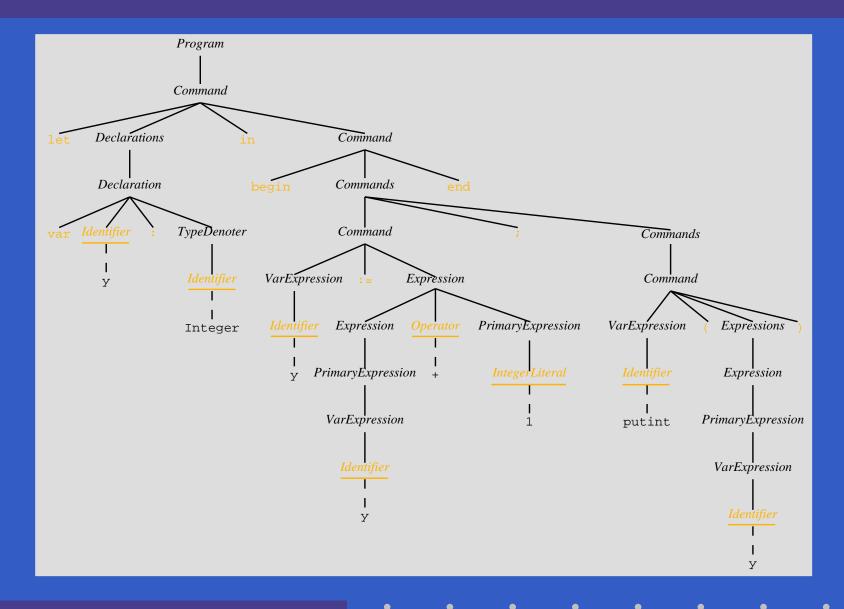
# Example: MiniTriangle CFG (3)

# A MiniTriangle Program

```
let
    var y: Integer
in

begin
    y := y + 1;
    putint(y)
end
```

# Parse Tree for the Program



# MiniTriangle Abstract Syntax (1)

The details of the concrete syntax often obscure the essence of the structure of a program. In contrast, abstract syntax describe this directly:

Program	$\longrightarrow$	Command	Program
Command	$\longrightarrow$	Expression := Expression	CmdAssign
		$Expression (Expression^*)$	CmdCall
		$Command^*$	CmdSeq
		if Expression then Command	Cmdlf
		else Command	
		while Expression do Command	CmdWhile
		let Declaration* in Command	CmdLet

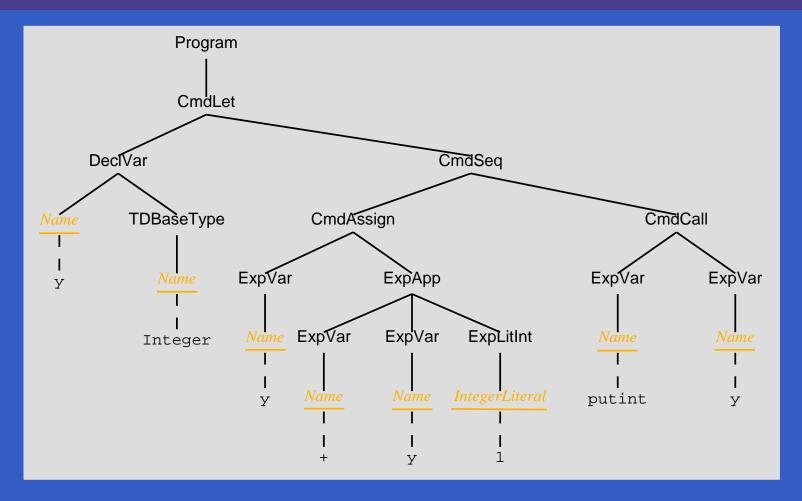
# MiniTriangle Abstract Syntax (2)

```
ExpLitInt
                     IntegerLiteral
Expression
                                                     ExpVar
                     Name
                     Expression (Expression^*)
                                                     ExpApp
                     const Name: TypeDenoter
                                                     DeclConst
Declaration
                     = Expression
                     var <u>Name</u> : TypeDenoter
                                                     DeclVar
                     ( := Expression \mid \epsilon )
                                                     TDBaseType
              \rightarrow Name
TypeDenoter
```

Note: Keywords and other fixed-spelling terminals serve only to make the connection with the concrete syntax clear.

 $Identifier \subseteq \underline{Name}, \ Operator \subseteq \underline{Name}$ 

# Abstract Syntax Tree for the Program



Key Point: The abstract syntax specifies *trees*, not strings.