

Lexical Analysis

Lecture 3-4

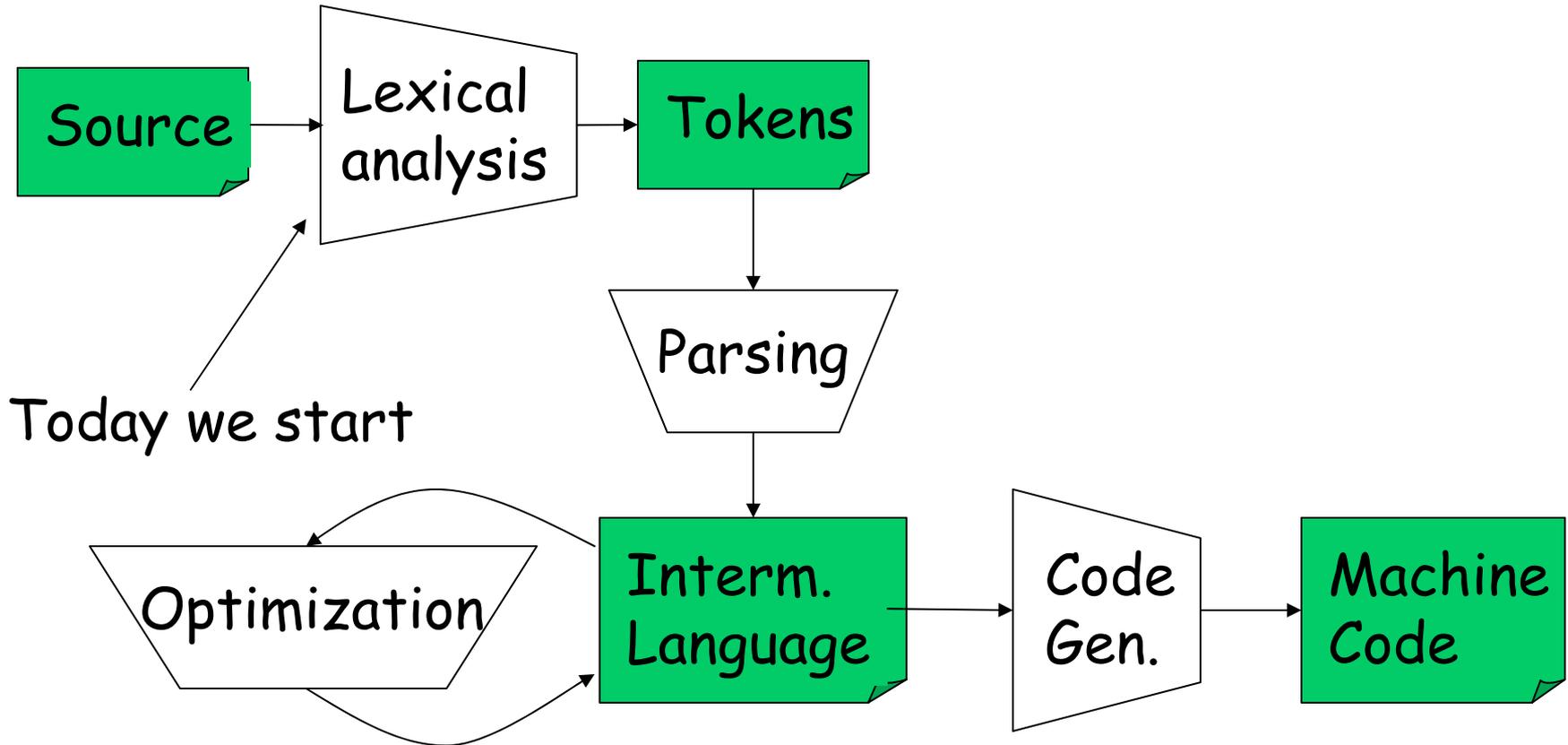
Course Administration

- PA1 due **September 16 11:59:59 PM**
- Read Chapters 1-3 of Red Dragon Book
- Continue Learning about Flex or JLex

Outline

- Informal sketch of lexical analysis
 - Identifies tokens in input string
- Issues in lexical analysis
 - Lookahead
 - Ambiguities
- Specifying lexers
 - Regular expressions
 - Examples of regular expressions

Recall: The Structure of a Compiler



Lexical Analysis

- What do we want to do? Example:

```
if (i == j)
    z = 0;
else
    z = 1;
```

- The input is just a sequence of characters:

```
\tif (i == j)\n\t\tz = 0;\n\telse\n\t\tz = 1;
```

- Goal: Partition input string into substrings
 - And classify them according to their role

What's a Token?

- Output of lexical analysis is a stream of tokens
- A token is a syntactic category
 - In English:
noun, verb, adjective, ...
 - In a programming language:
Identifier, Integer, Keyword, Whitespace, ...
- Parser relies on the token distinctions:
 - E.g., identifiers are treated differently than keywords

Tokens

- Tokens correspond to sets of strings.
- Identifier: *strings of letters or digits, starting with a letter*
- Integer: *a non-empty string of digits*
- Keyword: *"else" or "if" or "begin" or ...*
- Whitespace: *a non-empty sequence of blanks, newlines, and tabs*
- OpenPar: *a left-parenthesis*

Lexical Analyzer: Implementation

- An implementation must do two things:
 1. Recognize substrings corresponding to tokens
 2. Return the value or lexeme of the token
 - The lexeme is the substring

Lexical Analyzer: Implementation

- The lexer usually discards “uninteresting” tokens that don't contribute to parsing.
- Examples: Whitespace, Comments
- Question: What happens if we remove all whitespace and all comments prior to lexing?

Lookahead.

- Two important points:
 1. The goal is to partition the string. This is implemented by reading left-to-right, recognizing one token at a time
 2. "Lookahead" may be required to decide where one token ends and the next token begins
 - Even our simple example has lookahead issues
 - i vs. if
 - = vs. ==

Next

- We need
 - A way to describe the lexemes of each token
 - A way to resolve ambiguities
 - Is `if` two variables `i` and `f`?
 - Is `==` two equal signs `=` `=`?

Regular Languages

- There are several formalisms for specifying tokens
- *Regular languages* are the most popular
 - Simple and useful theory
 - Easy to understand
 - Efficient implementations

Languages

Def. Let Σ be a set of characters. A *language over Σ* is a set of strings of characters drawn from Σ
(Σ is called the *alphabet*)

Examples of Languages

- Alphabet = English characters
- Language = English sentences
- Not every string on English characters is an English sentence
- Alphabet = ASCII
- Language = C programs
- Note: ASCII character set is different from English character set

Notation

- Languages are sets of strings.
- Need some notation for specifying which sets we want
- For lexical analysis we care about *regular languages*, which can be described using *regular expressions*.

Regular Expressions and Regular Languages

- Each regular expression is a notation for a regular language (a set of words)
- If A is a regular expression then we write $L(A)$ to refer to the language denoted by A

Atomic Regular Expressions

- Single character: 'c'

$$L('c') = \{ "c" \} \quad (\text{for any } c \in \Sigma)$$

- Concatenation: AB (where A and B are reg. exp.)

$$L(AB) = \{ ab \mid a \in L(A) \text{ and } b \in L(B) \}$$

- Example: $L('i' 'f') = \{ "if" \}$
(we will abbreviate 'i' 'f' as 'if')

Compound Regular Expressions

- Union

$$L(A \mid B) = \{ s \mid s \in L(A) \text{ or } s \in L(B) \}$$

- Examples:

'if' | 'then' | 'else' = { "if", "then", "else" }

'0' | '1' | ... | '9' = { "0", "1", ..., "9" }

(note the ... are just an abbreviation)

- Another example:

('0' | '1') ('0' | '1') = { "00", "01", "10", "11" }

More Compound Regular Expressions

- So far we do not have a notation for infinite languages
- Iteration: A^*
 $L(A^*) = \{ "" \} [L(A) [L(AA) [L(AAA) [\dots$
- Examples:
 $'0'^* = \{ "", "0", "00", "000", \dots \}$
 $'1' '0'^* = \{ \text{strings starting with } 1 \text{ and followed by } 0\text{'s} \}$
- Epsilon: ε
 $L(\varepsilon) = \{ "" \}$

Example: Keyword

- Keyword: *"else" or "if" or "begin" or ...*

'else' | 'if' | 'begin' | ...

(Recall: *'else'* abbreviates *'e' 'l' 's' 'e'*)

Example: Integers

Integer: *a non-empty string of digits*

digit = '0' | '1' | '2' | '3' | '4' | '5' | '6' | '7' | '8' | '9'

number = digit digit*

Abbreviation: $A^+ = A A^*$

Example: Identifier

Identifier: *strings of letters or digits, starting with a letter*

letter = 'A' | ... | 'Z' | 'a' | ... | 'z'

identifier = letter (letter | digit) *

Is (letter* | digit*) the same ?

Example: Whitespace

Whitespace: a non-empty sequence of blanks, newlines, and tabs

$(' ' | '\t' | '\n')^+$

(Can you spot a small mistake?)

Example: Phone Numbers

- Regular expressions are all around you!
- Consider (510) 643-1481

$\Sigma = \{ 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, 9, (,), - \}$

area = digit³

exchange = digit³

phone = digit⁴

number = '(' area ')' exchange '-' phone

Example: Email Addresses

- Consider *necula@cs.berkeley.edu*

Σ = letter | '.' | '@' }

name = letter⁺

address = name '@' name ('.' name)*

Summary

- Regular expressions describe many useful languages
- Next: Given a string s and a regexp R , is

$$s \in L(R)?$$

- But a yes/no answer is not enough!
- Instead: partition the input into lexemes
- We will adapt regular expressions to this goal

Outline

- Specifying lexical structure using regular expressions
- Finite automata
 - Deterministic Finite Automata (DFAs)
 - Non-deterministic Finite Automata (NFAs)
- Implementation of regular expressions
RegExp \Rightarrow NFA \Rightarrow DFA \Rightarrow Tables

Regular Expressions => Lexical Spec. (1)

1. Select a set of tokens
 - Number, Keyword, Identifier, ...
2. Write a R.E. for the lexemes of each token
 - Number = `digit+`
 - Keyword = `'if' | 'else' | ...`
 - Identifier = `letter (letter | digit)*`
 - OpenPar = `'('`
 - ...

Regular Expressions => Lexical Spec. (2)

3. Construct R , matching all lexemes for all tokens

$$\begin{aligned} R &= \text{Keyword} \mid \text{Identifier} \mid \text{Number} \mid \dots \\ &= R_1 \quad \mid R_2 \quad \mid R_3 \quad \mid \dots \end{aligned}$$

Facts: If $s \in L(R)$ then s is a lexeme

- Furthermore $s \in L(R_i)$ for some "i"
- This "i" determines the token that is reported

Regular Expressions => Lexical Spec. (3)

4. Let the input be $x_1 \dots x_n$
($x_1 \dots x_n$ are characters in the language alphabet)
 - For $1 \leq i \leq n$ check
 $x_1 \dots x_i \in L(R)$?
5. It must be that
 $x_1 \dots x_i \in L(R_j)$ for some i and j
6. Remove $x_1 \dots x_i$ from input and go to (4)

Lexing Example

$R = \text{Whitespace} \mid \text{Integer} \mid \text{Identifier} \mid '+'$

- Parse "f +3 +g"
 - "f" matches R , more precisely Identifier
 - "+" matches R , more precisely '+'
 - ...
 - The token-lexeme pairs are
(Identifier , "f"), ('+', "+"), (Integer , "3")
(Whitespace , " "), ('+', "+"), (Identifier , "g")
- We would like to drop the Whitespace tokens
 - after matching Whitespace , continue matching

Ambiguities (1)

- There are ambiguities in the algorithm
- Example:
 - $R = \text{Whitespace} \mid \text{Integer} \mid \text{Identifier} \mid '+'$
- Parse "foo+3"
 - "f" matches R , more precisely Identifier
 - But also "fo" matches R , and "foo", but not "foo+"
- How much input is used? What if
 - $x_1 \dots x_i \in L(R)$ and also $x_1 \dots x_k \in L(R)$
 - "Maximal munch" rule: Pick the longest possible substring that matches R

More Ambiguities

$R = \text{Whitespace} \mid \text{'new'} \mid \text{Integer} \mid \text{Identifier}$

- Parse "new foo"
 - "new" matches R , more precisely 'new'
 - but also Identifier , which one do we pick?
- In general, if $x_1 \dots x_i \in L(R_j)$ and $x_1 \dots x_i \in L(R_k)$
 - Rule: use rule listed first (j if $j < k$)
- We must list 'new' before Identifier

Error Handling

$R = \text{Whitespace} \mid \text{Integer} \mid \text{Identifier} \mid '+'$

- Parse " $=56$ "
 - No prefix matches R : not " $=$ ", nor " $=5$ ", nor " $=56$ "
- Problem: Can't just get stuck ...
- Solution:
 - Add a rule matching all "bad" strings; and put it last
- Lexer tools allow the writing of:
 $R = R_1 \mid \dots \mid R_n \mid \text{Error}$
 - Token Error matches if nothing else matches

Summary

- Regular expressions provide a concise notation for string patterns
- Use in lexical analysis requires small extensions
 - To resolve ambiguities
 - To handle errors
- Good algorithms known (next)
 - Require only single pass over the input
 - Few operations per character (table lookup)

Finite Automata

- Regular expressions = specification
- Finite automata = implementation

- A finite automaton consists of
 - An input alphabet Σ
 - A set of states S
 - A start state n
 - A set of accepting states $F \subseteq S$
 - A set of transitions $\text{state} \xrightarrow{\text{input}} \text{state}$

Finite Automata

- Transition

$$s_1 \xrightarrow{a} s_2$$

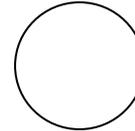
- Is read

In state s_1 on input "a" go to state s_2

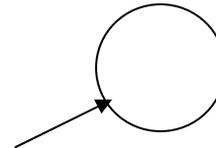
- If end of input (or no transition possible)
 - If in accepting state => accept
 - Otherwise => reject

Finite Automata State Graphs

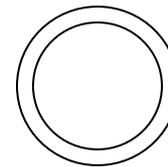
- A state



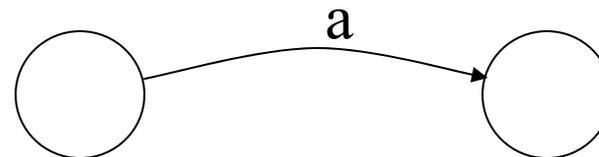
- The start state



- An accepting state

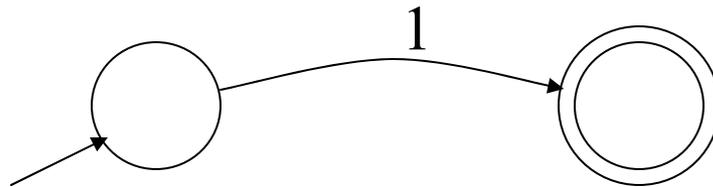


- A transition



A Simple Example

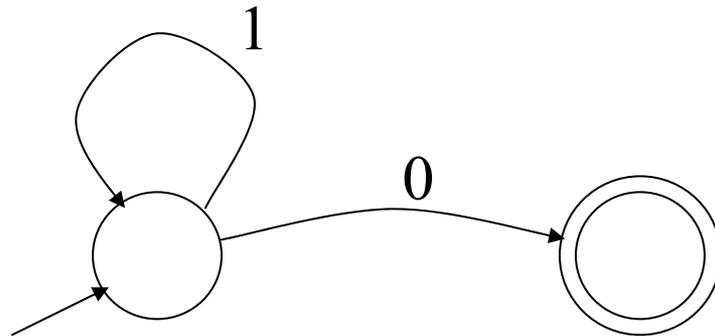
- A finite automaton that accepts only "1"



- A finite automaton accepts a string if we can follow transitions labeled with the characters in the string from the start to some accepting state

Another Simple Example

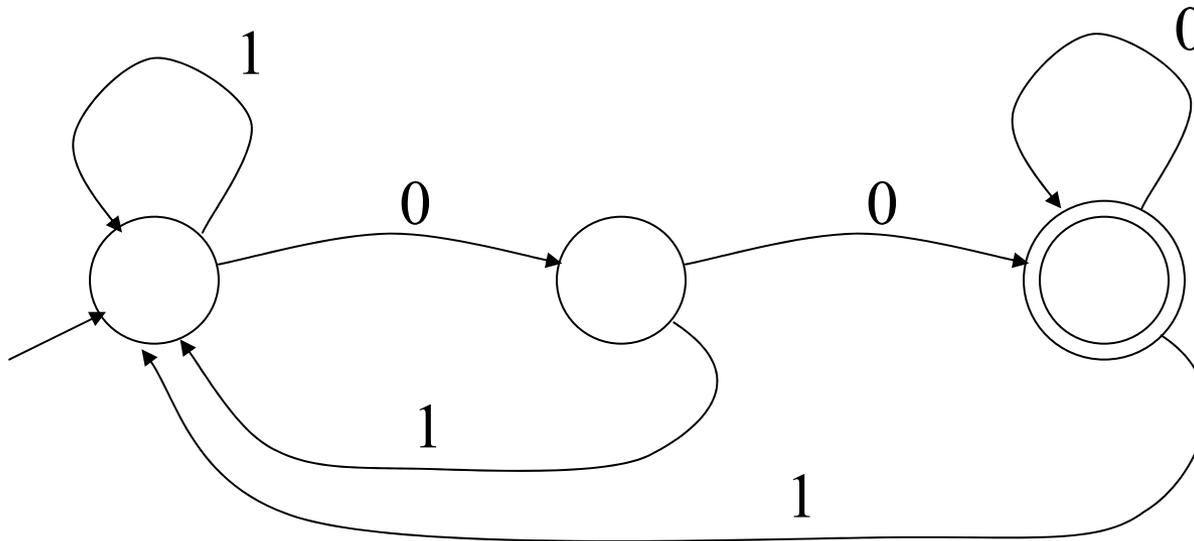
- A finite automaton accepting any number of 1's followed by a single 0
- Alphabet: $\{0,1\}$



- Check that "1110" is accepted but "110..." is not

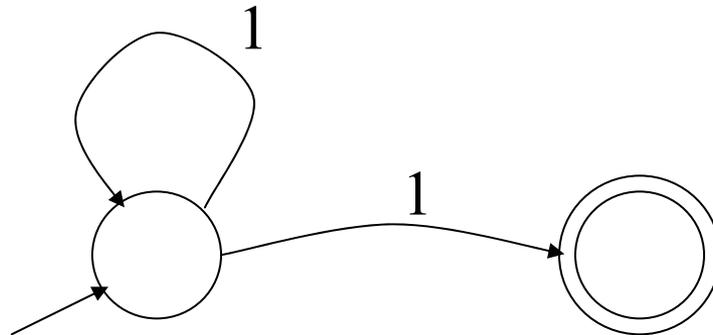
And Another Example

- Alphabet $\{0,1\}$
- What language does this recognize?



And Another Example

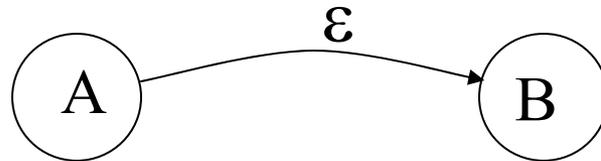
- Alphabet still $\{0, 1\}$



- The operation of the automaton is not completely defined by the input
 - On input "11" the automaton could be in either state

Epsilon Moves

- Another kind of transition: ϵ -moves



- Machine can move from state A to state B without reading input

Deterministic and Nondeterministic Automata

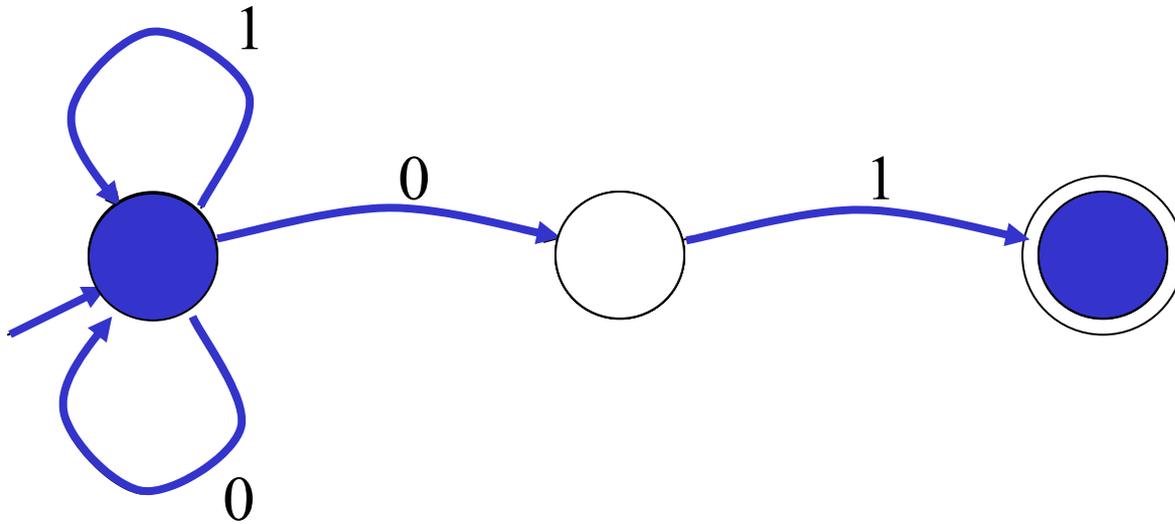
- Deterministic Finite Automata (DFA)
 - One transition per input per state
 - No ε -moves
- Nondeterministic Finite Automata (NFA)
 - Can have multiple transitions for one input in a given state
 - Can have ε -moves
- Finite automata have finite memory
 - Need only to encode the current state

Execution of Finite Automata

- A DFA can take only one path through the state graph
 - Completely determined by input
- NFAs can choose
 - Whether to make ε -moves
 - Which of multiple transitions for a single input to take

Acceptance of NFAs

- An NFA can get into multiple states



- Input: 1 0 1
- Rule: NFA accepts if it can get in a final state

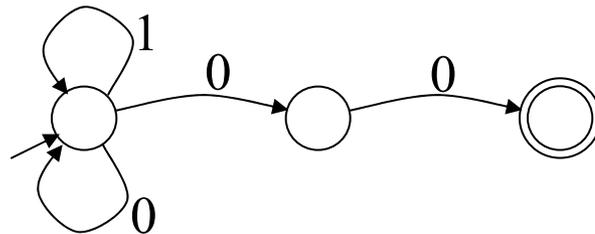
NFA vs. DFA (1)

- NFAs and DFAs recognize the same set of languages (regular languages)
- DFAs are easier to implement
 - There are no choices to consider

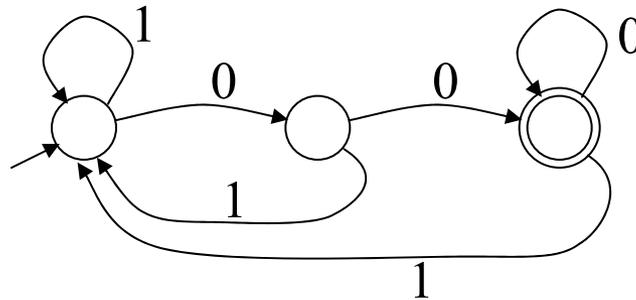
NFA vs. DFA (2)

- For a given language the NFA can be simpler than the DFA

NFA



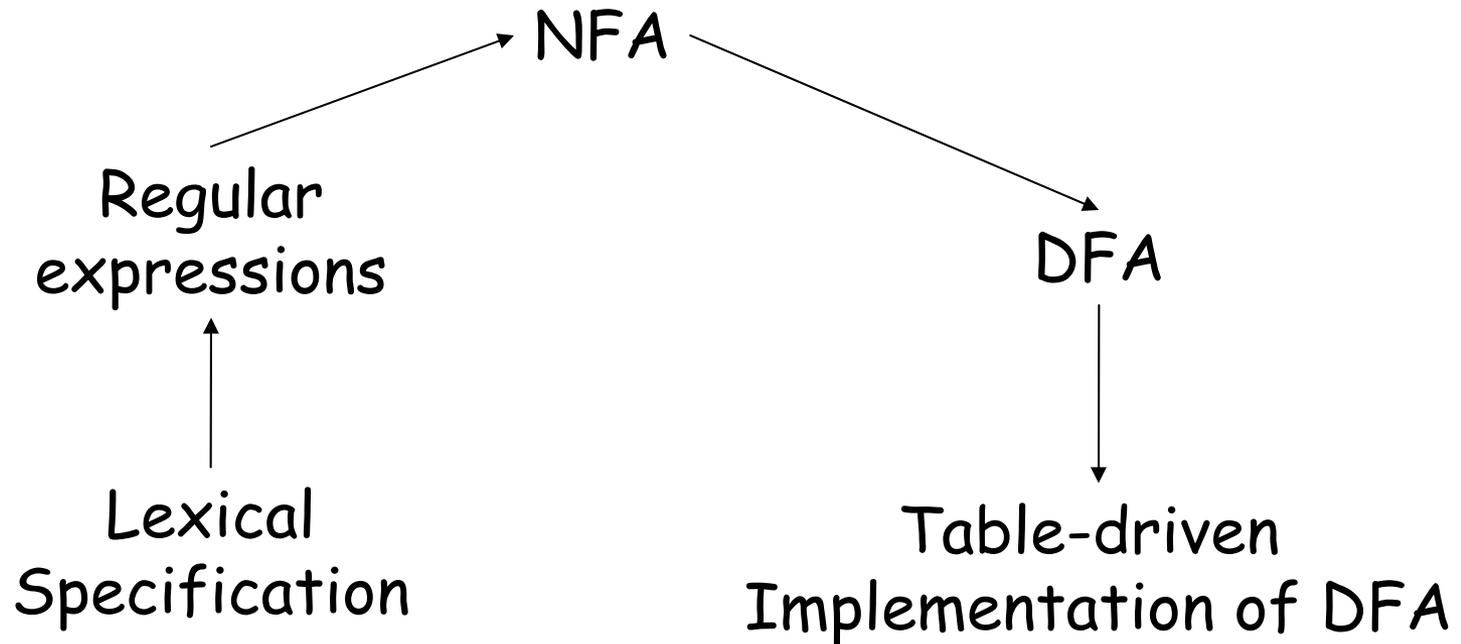
DFA



- DFA can be exponentially larger than NFA

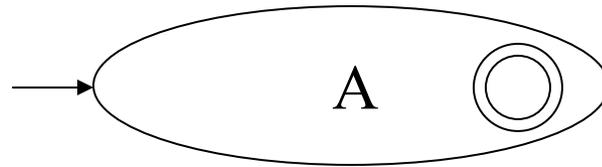
Regular Expressions to Finite Automata

- High-level sketch

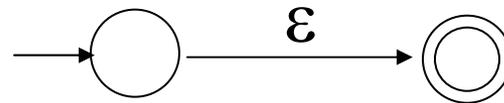


Regular Expressions to NFA (1)

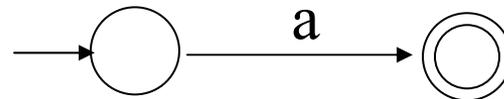
- For each kind of rexp, define an NFA
 - Notation: NFA for rexp A



- For ε

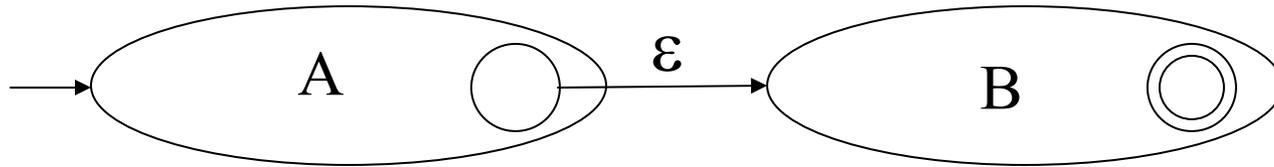


- For input a

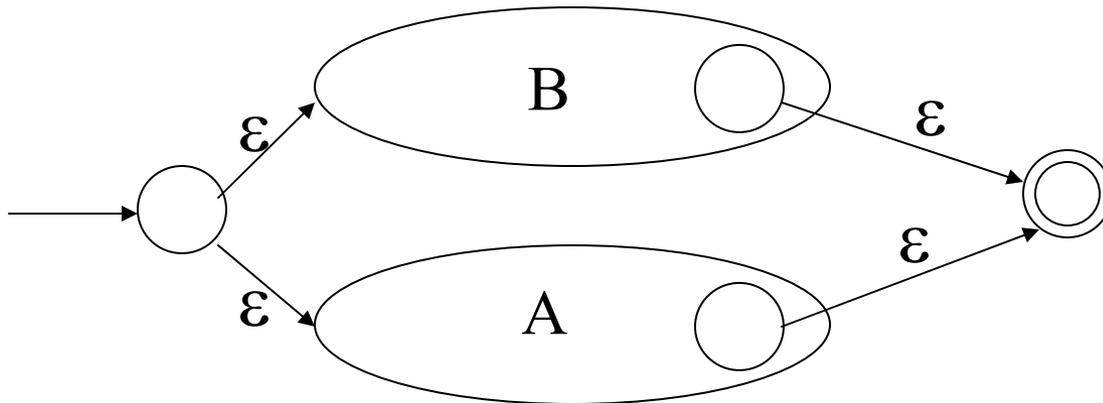


Regular Expressions to NFA (2)

- For AB

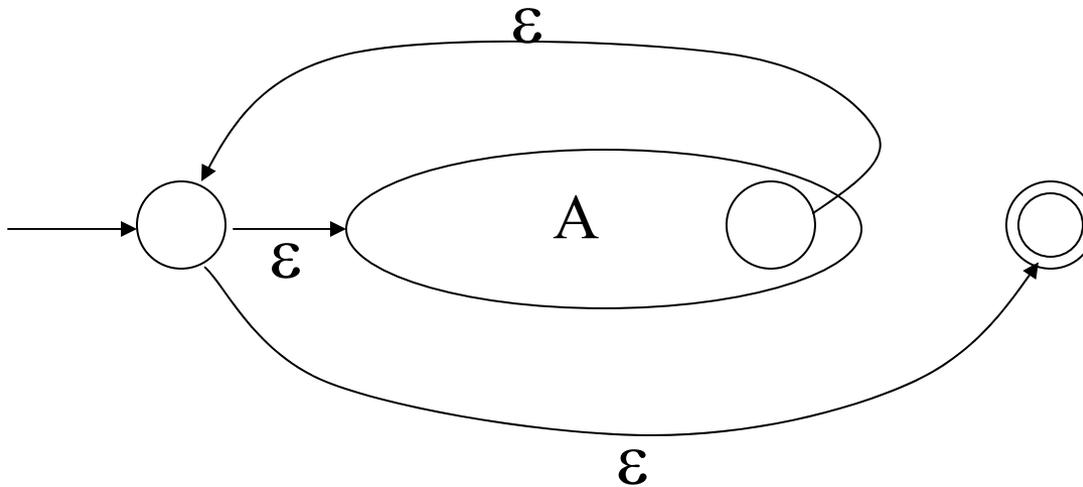


- For $A \mid B$



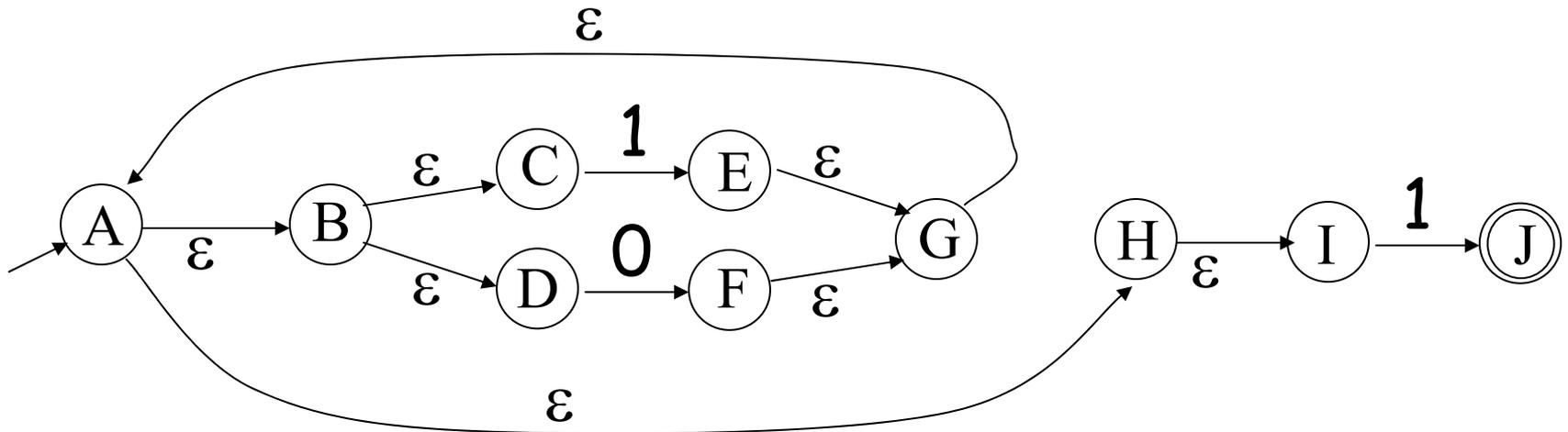
Regular Expressions to NFA (3)

- For A^*

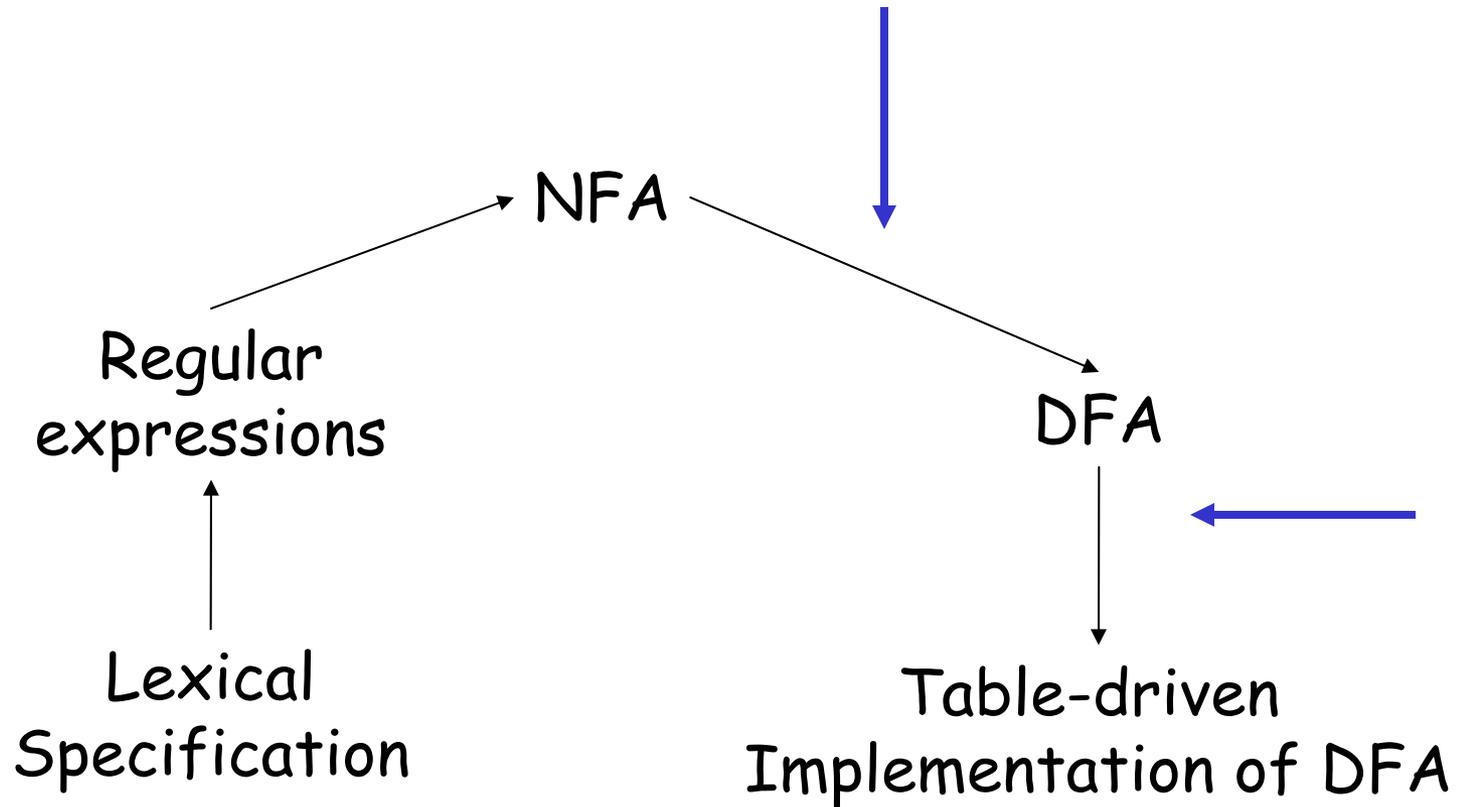


Example of RegExp -> NFA conversion

- Consider the regular expression
 $(1 \mid 0)^*1$
- The NFA is



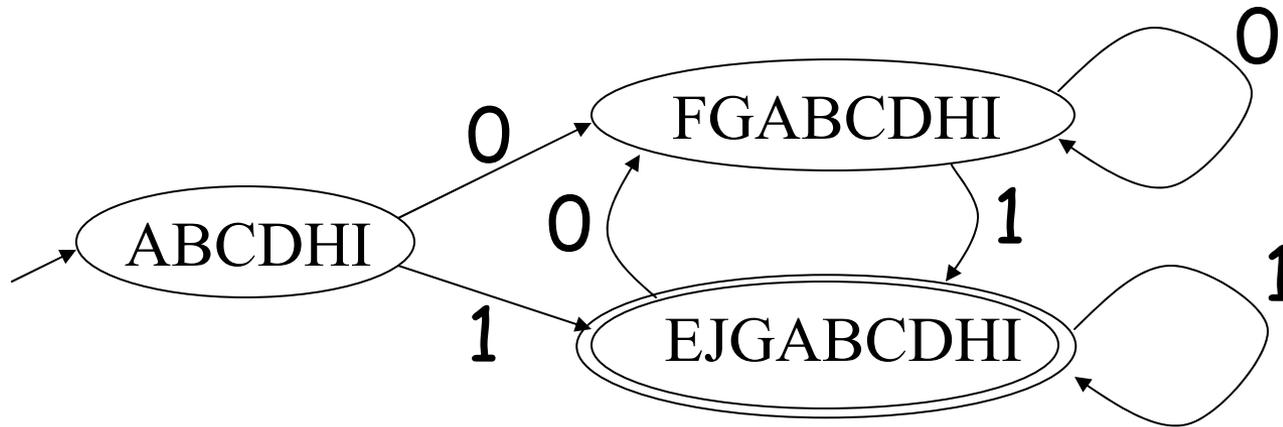
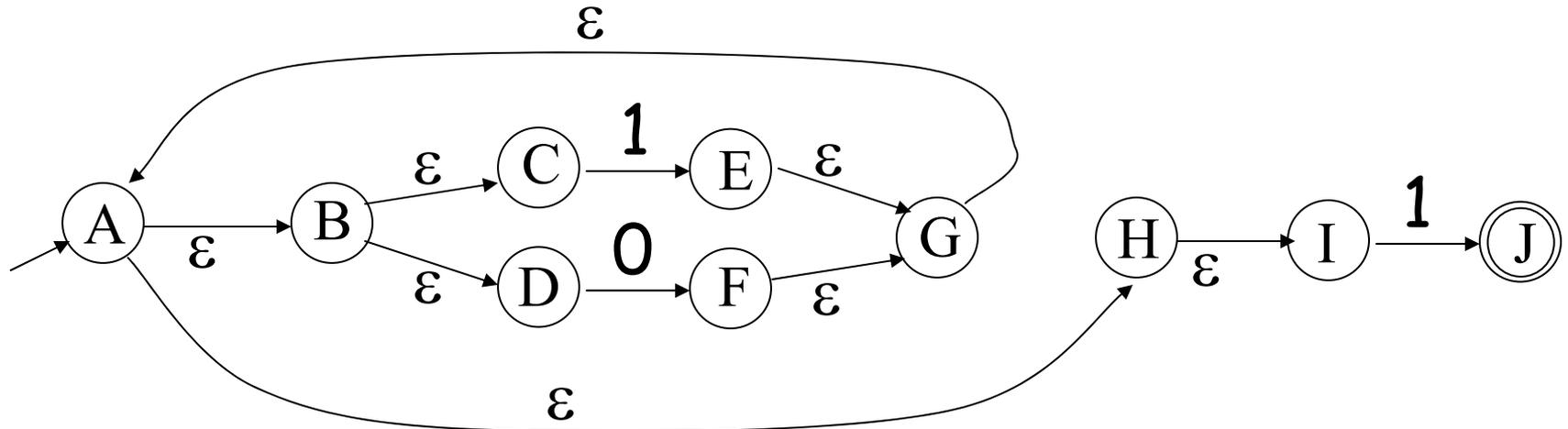
Next



NFA to DFA. The Trick

- Simulate the NFA
- Each state of DFA
 - = a non-empty subset of states of the NFA
- Start state
 - = the set of NFA states reachable through ε -moves from NFA start state
- Add a transition $S \xrightarrow{a} S'$ to DFA iff
 - S' is the set of NFA states reachable from the states in S after seeing the input a
 - considering ε -moves as well

NFA -> DFA Example



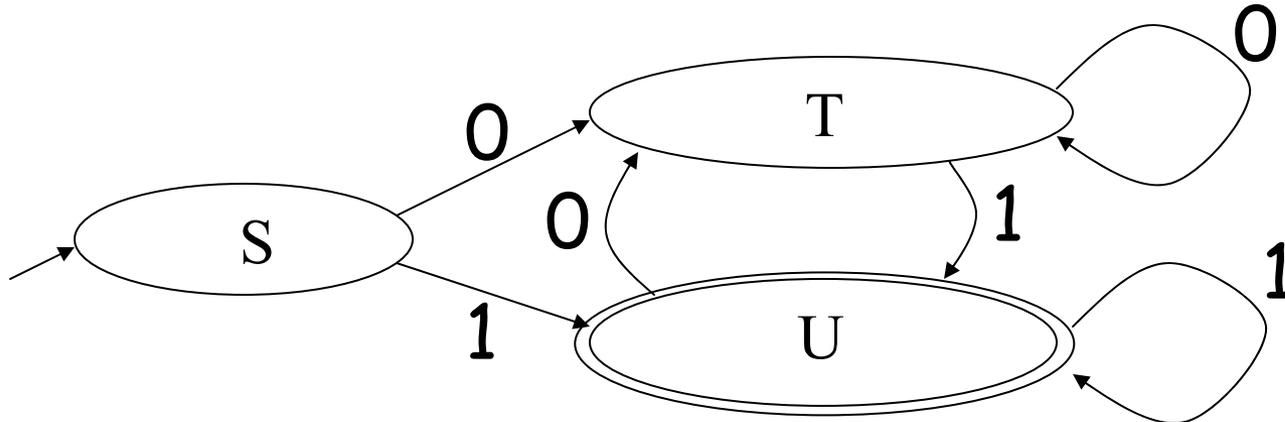
NFA to DFA. Remark

- An NFA may be in many states at any time
- How many different states ?
- If there are N states, the NFA must be in some subset of those N states
- How many non-empty subsets are there?
 - $2^N - 1 =$ finitely many

Implementation

- A DFA can be implemented by a 2D table T
 - One dimension is "states"
 - Other dimension is "input symbols"
 - For every transition $S_i \xrightarrow{a} S_k$ define $T[i,a] = k$
- DFA "execution"
 - If in state S_i and input a , read $T[i,a] = k$ and skip to state S_k
 - Very efficient

Table Implementation of a DFA



	0	1
S	T	U
T	T	U
U	T	U

Implementation (Cont.)

- NFA \rightarrow DFA conversion is at the heart of tools such as flex or jlex
- But, DFAs can be huge
- In practice, flex-like tools trade off speed for space in the choice of NFA and DFA representations

PA2: Lexical Analysis

- Correctness is job #1.
 - And job #2 and #3!
- Tips on building large systems:
 - Keep it simple
 - Design systems that can be tested
 - Don't optimize prematurely
 - It is easier to modify a working system than to get a system working