Lexical Analysis

Lecture 2-4

Notes by G. Necula, with additions by P. Hilfinger

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Administrivia

- · Moving to 60 Evans on Wednesday
- · HW1 available
- · Pyth manual available on line.
- · Please log into your account and electronically register
- · Register your team with "make-team". See class announcement page. Project #1 available Friday.
- · Use "submit hw1" to submit your homework this week.
- Section 101 (9AM) is gone.

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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
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The Structure of a Compiler Lexical Tokens analysis Parsing Today we start Code Machine Interm. Optimization Code Language Gen. Prof. Hilfinger CS 164 Lecture 2

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: $\ (i == j)\n\t = 0;\n\t = 1;$
- · Goal: Partition input string into substrings - And classify them according to their role

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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

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Tokens

- Tokens correspond to <u>sets of strings</u>:
 - Identifiers: strings of letters or digits, starting with a letter
 - Integers: non-empty strings of digits
 - Keywords: "else" or "if" or "begin" or ...
 - Whitespace: non-empty sequences of blanks, newlines, and tabs
 - OpenPars: left-parentheses

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Lexical Analyzer: Implementation

- An implementation must do two things:
 - 1. Recognize substrings corresponding to tokens
 - 2. Return:
 - 1. The type or syntactic category of the token,
 - 2. the value or *lexeme* of the token (the substring itself).

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Example

Our example again:

 $\tif (i == j) \tilde{1} = 0; \tilde{1} = 1;$

- · Token-lexeme pairs returned by the lexer:
 - (Whitespace, "\t")
 (Keyword, "if")

 - (OpenPar, "(")
 - (Identifier, "i") - (Relation, "==")
 - (Identifier, "j")

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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?

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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. ==

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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 = =?

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Regular Languages

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

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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*)

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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

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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.

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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

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Atomic Regular Expressions

- Single character: 'c' $L('c') = \{ \text{"c"} \} \text{ (for any } c \in \Sigma)$
- Concatenation: AB (where A and B are reg. exp.)
 L(AB) = { ab | a ∈ L(A) and b ∈ L(B) }
- Example: L('i' 'f') = { "if" }
 (we will abbreviate 'i' 'f' as 'if')

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Compound Regular Expressions

Union

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

· Examples:

```
'if' | 'then' | 'else' = { "if", "then", "else"} 
'0' | '1' | ... | '9' = { "0", "1", ..., "9" }
```

(note the ... are just an abbreviation)

· Another example:

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

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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) | ...
```

• Examples:

```
'0'* = { "", "0", "00", "000", ...}
```

'1' '0'* = { strings starting with 1 and followed by 0's }

· Epsilon: ε

$$L(\varepsilon) = \{ "" \}$$

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...

Example: Keyword

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

('else' abbreviates 'e' 'l' 's' 'e')

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Example: Integers

Integer: a non-empty string of digits

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

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

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Example: Identifier

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

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Example: Whitespace

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

(Can you spot a subtle omission?)

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Example: Phone Numbers

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

```
\Sigma = { 0, 1, 2, 3, ..., 9, (, ), - }

area = digit<sup>3</sup>

exchange = digit<sup>4</sup>

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

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Example: Email Addresses

· Consider <u>necula@cs.berkeley.edu</u>

```
\Sigma = letters [ { ., @ }
name = letter*
address = name '@' name ('.' name)*
```

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Summary

- Regular expressions describe many useful languages
- Next: Given a string s and a R.E. 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

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Next: Outline

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

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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 = '('
 - ...

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Regular Expressions => Lexical Spec. (2)

 Construct R, matching all lexemes for all tokens

```
R = Keyword \mid Identifier \mid Number \mid ...
= R_1 \mid R_2 \mid R_3 \mid ...
```

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

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Regular Expressions => Lexical Spec. (3)

- 4. Let the input be $x_1...x_n$
 - $(x_1 \dots x_n]$ are characters in the language alphabet)
 - For 1 ≤ i ≤ n check

```
x_1...x_i \in L(R)?
```

5. It must be that

```
x_1...x_i \in L(R_i) for some i and j
```

6. Remove $x_1...x_i$ from input and go to (4)

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Lexing Example

R = Whitespace | Integer | Identifier | '+'

- Parse "f+3 +q"
 - "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

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Ambiguities (1)

- · There are ambiguities in the algorithm
- Example:

R = Whitespace | Integer | Identifier | '+'

- · 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
 - $x_1...x_i \in L(R)$ and also $x_1...x_K \in L(R)$
 - "Maximal munch" rule: Pick the longest possible substring that matches R

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More Ambiguities

R = Whitespace | 'new' | Integer | Identifier

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

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Error Handling

R = Whitespace | Integer | Identifier | '+'

- 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:

 $R = R_1 \mid ... \mid R_n \mid Error$

- Token Error matches if nothing else matches

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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)

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Finite Automata

- · Regular expressions = specification
- Finite automata = implementation
- · A finite automaton consists of
 - An input alphabet $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$
 - A set of states S
 - A start state n
 - A set of accepting states $F \subseteq S$
 - A set of transitions state \rightarrow^{input} state

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Finite Automata

Transition

$$S_1 \rightarrow a S_2$$

· Is read

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

- · If end of input
 - If in accepting state => accept, othewise => reject
- If no transition possible => reject

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Finite Automata State Graphs

· A state



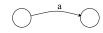
· The start state



An accepting state



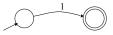
· A transition



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A Simple Example

· A finite automaton that accepts only "1"



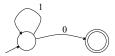
 A finite automaton accepts a string if we can follow transitions labeled with the characters in the string from the start to some accepting state

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Another Simple Example

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

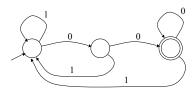


· Check that "1110" is accepted but "110..." is not

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And Another Example

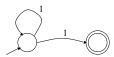
- · Alphabet {0,1}
- · What language does this recognize?



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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

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Epsilon Moves

• Another kind of transition: ϵ -moves



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

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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

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Execution of Finite Automata

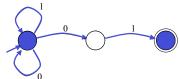
- A DFA can take only one path through the state graph
 - Completely determined by input
- · NFAs can choose
 - Whether to make ϵ -moves
 - Which of multiple transitions for a single input to take

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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

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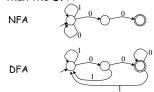
NFA vs. DFA (1)

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

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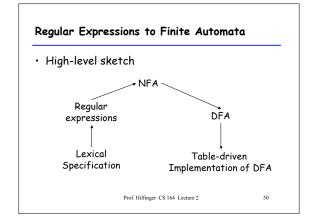
NFA vs. DFA (2)

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



· DFA can be exponentially larger than NFA

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Regular Expressions to NFA (1)

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



• For ϵ



· For input a

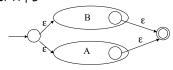


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Regular Expressions to NFA (2) · For AB



· For A | B

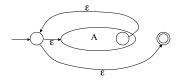


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Regular Expressions to NFA (3)

· For A*



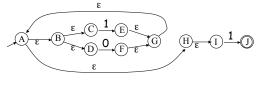
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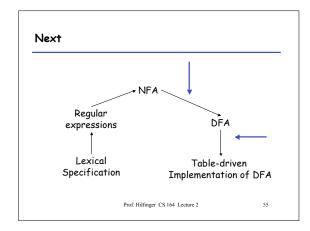
Example of RegExp -> NFA conversion

· Consider the regular expression (1 | 0)*1

· The NFA is



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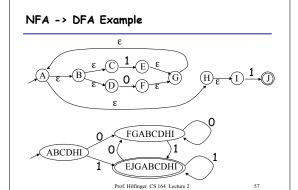


NFA to DFA. The Trick

- · Simulate the NFA
- Each state of resulting DFA = a non-empty subset of states of the NFA
- Start state
 - = the set of NFA states reachable through $\epsilon\text{-moves}$ from NFA start state
- Add a transition $S \rightarrow a S'$ 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

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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, but exponentially many

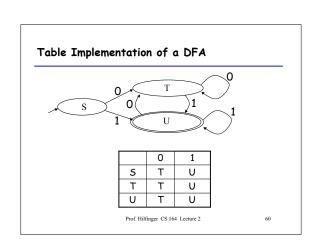
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Implementation

- · A DFA can be implemented by a 2D table T
 - One dimension is "states"
 - Other dimension is "input symbols"
 - For every transition $S_i \rightarrow^a S_k$ 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

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Implementation (Cont.)

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

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Perl's "Regular Expressions"

- Some kind of pattern-matching feature now common in programming languages.
- · Perl's is widely copied (cf. Java, Python).
- · Not regular expressions, despite name.
 - E.g., pattern /A (\S+) is a \$1/ matches "A spade is a spade" and "A deal is a deal", but not "A spade is a shove!"
 - But no regular expression recognizes this language!
 - Capturing substrings with (...) itself is an extension

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Implementing Perl Patterns (Sketch)

- · Can use NFAs, with some modification
- Implement an NFA as one would a DFA + use backtracking search to deal with states with nondeterministic choices.
- · Add extra states (with ϵ transitions) for parentheses.
 - "(" state records place in input as side effect.
 - ")" state saves string started at matching "("
 - \$n matches input with stored value.
- · Backtracking much slower than DFA implementation.

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