Introduction to Lexical Analysis

Outline

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

Lexical Analysis

- What do we want to do? Example: if (i == j) then z = 0; else z = 1;
- The input is just a string of characters:
 if (i == j)\nthen\n\tz = 0;\n\telse\n\t\tz = 1;
- Goal: Partition input string into substrings
 - where the substrings are tokens
 - and classify them according to their role

What's a Token?

- A syntactic category
 - In English:

noun, verb, adjective, ...

In a programming language:
 Identifier, Integer, Keyword, Whitespace, ...

Tokens

- Tokens correspond to sets of strings
 - these sets depend on the programming language
- 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

What are Tokens Used for?

- Classify program substrings according to role
- Output of lexical analysis is a stream of tokens . . .
- ... which is input to the parser
- Parser relies on token distinctions
 - An identifier is treated differently than a keyword

Designing a Lexical Analyzer: Step 1

- Define a finite set of tokens
 - Tokens describe all items of interest
 - Choice of tokens depends on language, design of parser
- Recall

if (i == j)\nthen\n\tz = 0;\n\telse\n\t\tz = 1;

 Useful tokens for this expression: Integer, Keyword, Relation, Identifier, Whitespace, (,), =,;

Designing a Lexical Analyzer: Step 2

- Describe which strings belong to each token
- Recall:
 - 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

Lexical Analyzer: Implementation

An implementation must do two things:

- 1. Recognize substrings corresponding to tokens
- 2. Return the value or <u>lexeme</u> of the token
 - The lexeme is the substring

Example

• Recall:

if (i == j)\nthen\n\tz = 0;\n\telse\n\t\tz = 1;

- Token-lexeme groupings:
 - Identifier: i, j, z
 - Keyword: if, then, else
 - Relation: ==
 - Integer: 0,1
 - (,), =, ; single character of the same name

Why do Lexical Analysis?

- Dramatically simplify parsing
 - The lexer usually discards "uninteresting" tokens that don't contribute to parsing
 - E.g. Whitespace, Comments
 - Converts data early
- Separate out logic to read source files
 - Potentially an issue on multiple platforms
 - Can optimize reading code independently of parser

True Crimes of Lexical Analysis

- Is it as easy as it sounds?
- Not quite!
- Look at some programming language history . . .

Lexical Analysis in FORTRAN

- FORTRAN rule: Whitespace is insignificant
- E.g., VAR1 is the same as VA R1

FORTRAN whitespace rule was motivated by inaccuracy of punch card operators

A terrible design! Example

- Consider
 - -DO 5 I = 1,25
 - -DO 5 I = 1.25
- The first is DO 5 I = 1 , 25
- The second is DO5I = 1.25
- Reading left-to-right, the lexical analyzer cannot tell if DO51 is a variable or a DO statement until after "," is reached

Lexical Analysis in FORTRAN. 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. ==

Another Great Moment in Scanning History

PL/1: Keywords can be used as identifiers:

IF THEN THEN THEN = ELSE; ELSE ELSE = IF

can be difficult to determine how to label lexemes

More Modern True Crimes in Scanning

Nested template declarations in C++

vector<vector<int>> myVector

vector < vector < int >> myVector

(vector < (vector < (int >> myVector)))

Review

- The goal of lexical analysis is to
 - Partition the input string into *lexemes* (the smallest program units that are individually meaningful)
 - Identify the token of each lexeme
- Left-to-right scan \Rightarrow lookahead sometimes required

Next

- We still 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



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

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 of strings we want our language to contain
- The standard notation for regular languages is regular expressions

Atomic Regular Expressions

• Single character

$$c' = \{ "c" \}$$

• Epsilon

$$\mathcal{E} = \left\{ "" \right\}$$

Compound Regular Expressions

Union

$$A + B = \left\{ s \mid s \in A \text{ or } s \in B \right\}$$

Concatenation

$$AB = \left\{ ab \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B \right\}$$

Iteration

 $A^* = \bigcup_{i \ge 0} A^i$ where $A^i = A...i$ times ...A

Regular Expressions

- **Def**. The *regular expressions over* Σ are the smallest set of expressions including
 - \mathcal{E} c'where $c \in \Sigma$ A + Bwhere A, B are rexp over Σ AB""" A^* where A is a rexp over Σ

Syntax vs. Semantics

- To be careful, we should distinguish syntax and semantics (meaning) of regular expressions
 - $L(\varepsilon) = \{""'\}$ $L('c') = \{"c"\}$ $L(A+B) = L(A) \cup L(B)$ $L(AB) = \{ab \mid a \in L(A) \text{ and } b \in L(B)\}$ $L(A^*) = \bigcup_{i \ge 0} L(A^i)$



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

'else' + 'if' + 'begin' + \cdots

Note: 'else' abbreviates 'e''l''s"e'

Integer: a non-empty string of digits

digit = '0'+'1'+'2'+'3'+'4'+'5'+'6'+'7'+'8'+'9'integer = digit digit^{*}

Abbreviation: $A^+ = AA^*$

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?



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

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

Example 1: Phone Numbers

- Regular expressions are all around you!
- Consider +46(0)18-471-1056

$\Sigma = \text{digits} \cup \{+,-,(,)\}$ country = digit digit city = digit digit univ = digit digit digit extension = digit digit digit digit phone_num = '+'country'('0')'city'-'univ'-'extension

Example 2: Email Addresses

• Consider *kostis@it.uu.se*

- $\sum = \text{letters } \cup \{., @\}$
- name = $letter^+$
- address = name '@' name '.' name '.' name



- Regular expressions describe many useful languages
- Regular languages are a language specification
 - We still need an implementation
- Next: Given a string s and a regular expression R, is

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

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

Implementation of Lexical Analysis

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

Notation

- For convenience, we will use a variation (we will allow user-defined abbreviations) in regular expression notation
- Union: $A + B \equiv A \mid B$
- Option: $A + \varepsilon \equiv A$?
- Range: $a'+b'+...+z' \equiv [a-z]$
- Excluded range: complement of [a-z] = [^a-z]

Regular Expressions \Rightarrow Lexical Specifications

- 1. Select a set of tokens
 - Integer, Keyword, Identifier, LeftPar, ...
- 2. Write a regular expression (pattern) for the lexemes of each token
 - Integer = digit +
 - Keyword = 'if' + 'else' + ...
 - Identifier = letter (letter + digit)*
 - LeftPar = '('
 - ...

Regular Expressions \Rightarrow Lexical Specifications

- 3. Construct R, a regular expression matching all lexemes for all tokens
 - R = Keyword + Identifier + Integer + ... $= R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + ...$

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 \Rightarrow Lexical Specifications

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

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

5. It must be that

 $x_1...x_i \in L(R_j)$ for some i and j (if there is a choice, pick a smallest such j)

 Report token j, remove ×1...×i from input and go to step 4

How to Handle Spaces and Comments?

1. We could create a token Whitespace

Whitespace = $(' + ' n' + ' t')^+$

- We could also add comments in there
- An input " \t\n 555 " is transformed into Whitespace Integer Whitespace
- 2. Lexical analyzer skips spaces (preferred)
 - Modify step 5 from before as follows: It must be that x_k ... x_i ∈ L(R_j) for some j such that x₁ ... x_{k-1} ∈ L(Whitespace)
 - Parser is not bothered with spaces

Ambiguities (1)

- There are ambiguities in the algorithm
- How much input is used? What if
 - $x_1...x_i \in L(R)$ and also $x_1...x_K \in L(R)$
- The "maximal munch" rule: Pick the longest possible substring that matches R

Ambiguities (2)

- Which token is used? What if
 - $x_1...x_i \in L(R_j)$ and also $x_1...x_i \in L(R_k)$
- Rule: use rule listed first (j if j < k)
- Example:
 - R_1 = Keyword and R_2 = Identifier
 - "if" matches both
 - Treats "if" as a keyword not an identifier

• What if

No rule matches a prefix of input?

- Problem: Can't just get stuck ...
- Solution:
 - Write a rule matching all "bad" strings
 - Put it last
- Lexical analysis tools allow the writing of: $R = R_1 + ... + R_n + Error$
 - Token Error matches if nothing else matches



- 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)

Regular Languages & Finite Automata

Basic formal language theory result:

Regular expressions and finite automata both define the class of regular languages.

Thus, we are going to use:

- Regular expressions for specification
- Finite automata for implementation (automatic generation of lexical analyzers)

- A finite automaton is a *recognizer* for the strings of a regular language
- A finite automaton consists of
 - A finite input alphabet Σ
 - A set of states S
 - A start state n
 - A set of accepting states $\mathsf{F} \subseteq \mathsf{S}$
 - A set of transitions state $\rightarrow^{\text{input}}$ state

Finite Automata

Transition

$$s_1 \rightarrow^a s_2$$

• Is read

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

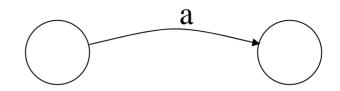
- If end of input
 - If in accepting state \Rightarrow accept
- Otherwise
 - If no transition possible \Rightarrow reject

Finite Automata State Graphs

• A state

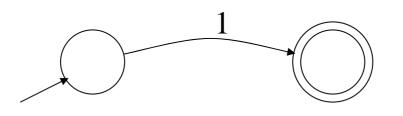
- The start state
- An accepting state

• A transition



A Simple Example

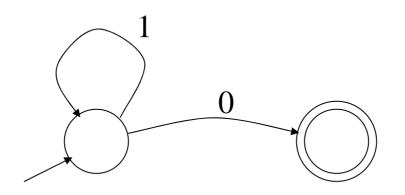
• A finite automaton that accepts only "1"



 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

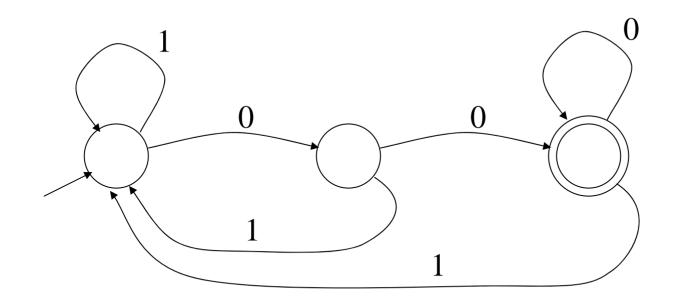
Another Simple Example

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



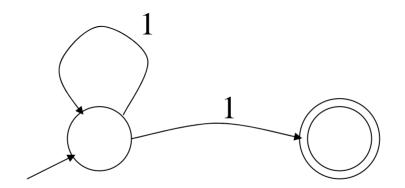
And Another Example

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



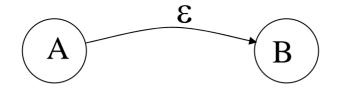
And Another Example

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

• Another kind of transition: $\epsilon\text{-moves}$



 Machine can move from state A to state B without reading input Deterministic and Non-Deterministic Automata

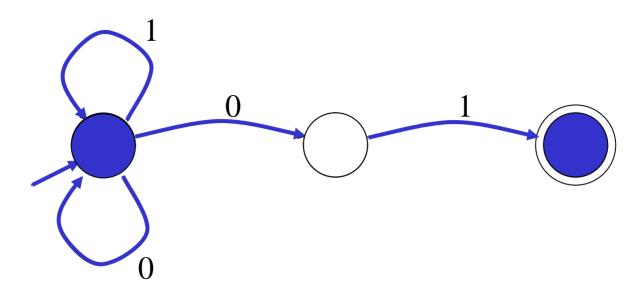
- Deterministic Finite Automata (DFA)
 - One transition per input per state
 - No ϵ -moves
- Non-deterministic Finite Automata (NFA)
 - Can have multiple transitions for one input in a given state
 - Can have ϵ -moves
- Finite automata have finite memory
 - Enough to only encode the current state

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 $\epsilon\text{-moves}$
 - 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 an input if it <u>can</u> get in a final state

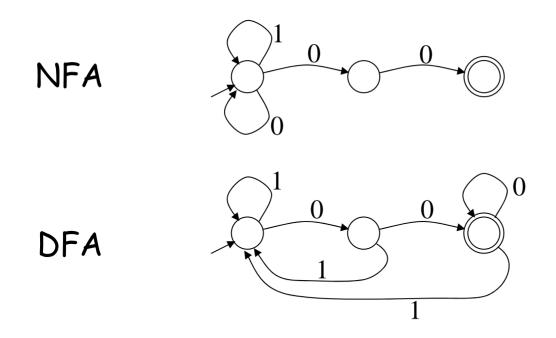
NFA vs. DFA (1)

 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)

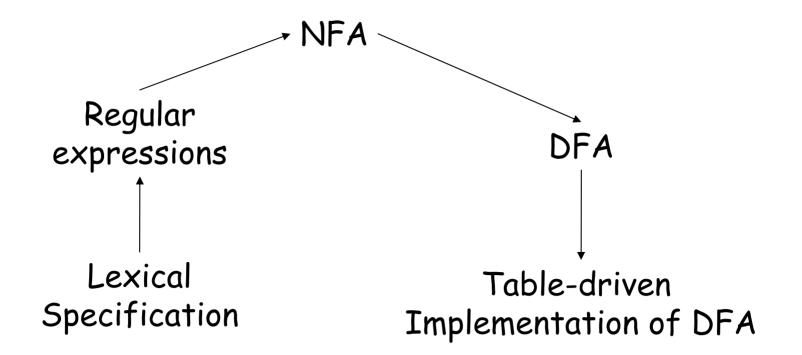
 For a given language the NFA can be simpler than the DFA



• DFA can be exponentially larger than NFA (contrary to what is shown in the above example)

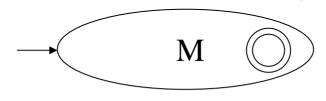
Regular Expressions to Finite Automata

High-level sketch

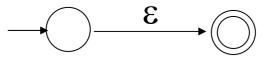


Regular Expressions to NFA (1)

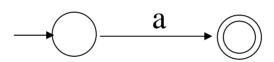
- For each kind of reg. expr, define an NFA
 - Notation: NFA for regular expression M



- i.e. our automata have one start and one accepting state
- For ε

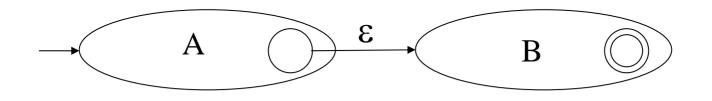


• For input a

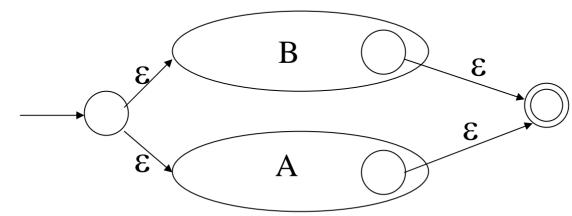


Regular Expressions to NFA (2)

• For AB

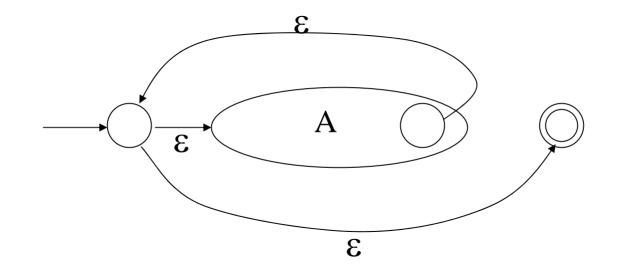


• For A + B



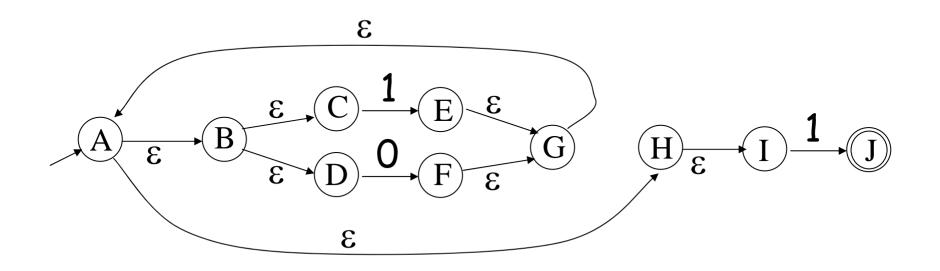
Regular Expressions to NFA (3)

• For A*



Example of Regular Expression \rightarrow NFA conversion

- Consider the regular expression (1+0)*1
- The NFA is

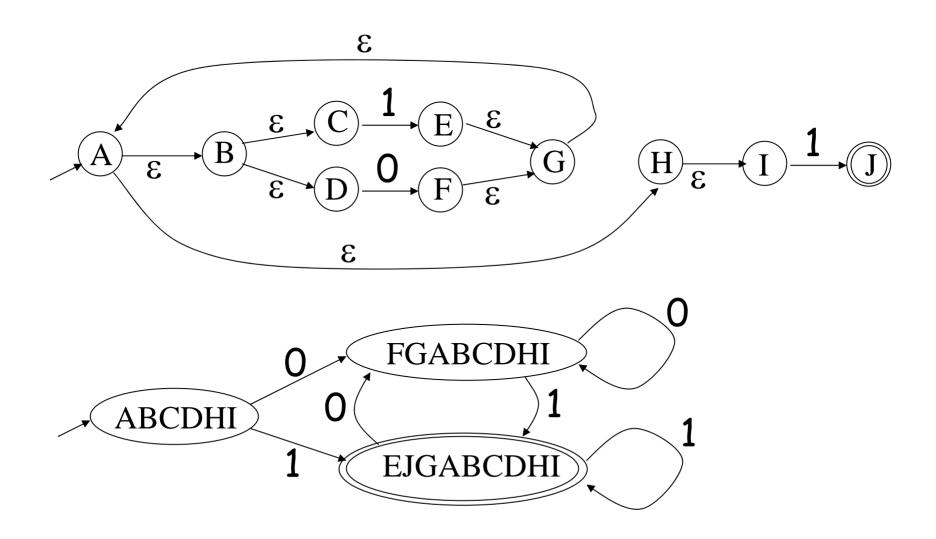


NFA to DFA. The Trick

- 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 $\epsilon\text{-moves}$ from NFA start state
- Add a transition S \rightarrow^{α} S' to DFA iff
 - S' is the set of NFA states reachable from <u>any</u> state in S after seeing the input a
 - considering ϵ -moves as well

- 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 subsets are there?
 - $2^N 1 =$ finitely many

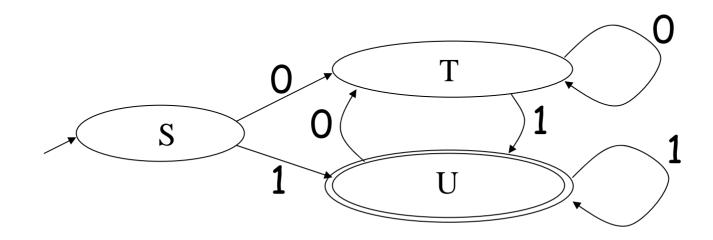
NFA to DFA Example



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

Table Implementation of a DFA



	0	1
S	Т	U
Т	Т	U
U	Т	U

Implementation (Cont.)

- NFA → DFA conversion is at the heart of tools such as lex, ML-Lex, 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

Two differences:

- DFAs recognize lexemes. A lexer must return a type of acceptance (token type) rather than simply an accept/reject indication.
- DFAs consume the complete string and accept or reject it. A lexer must *find* the end of the lexeme in the input stream and then find the *next* one, etc.