

Chapter 2: Regular Expressions & Context-Free Grammars

Yepang Liu

liuyp1@sustech.edu.cn

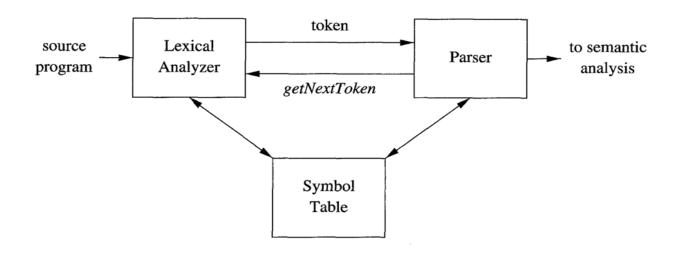
The chapter numbering in lecture notes does not follow that in the textbook.

Outline

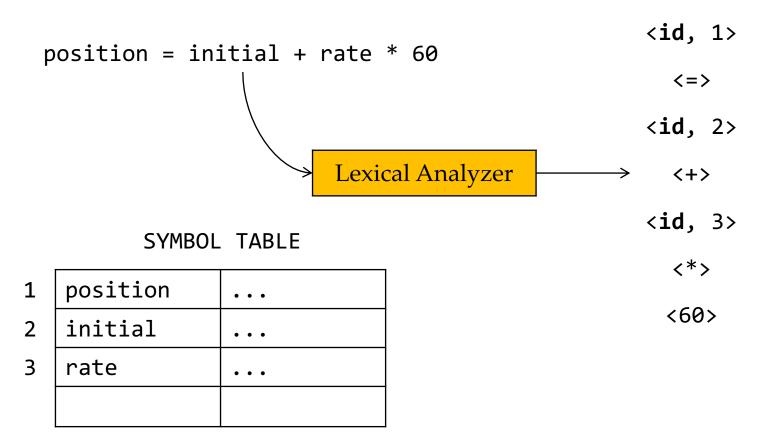
- The Role of Lexers: Recognizing Tokens
- Regular Expressions (for specifying tokens)
- The Role of Parsers: Finding Syntax Errors
- Context-Free Grammars (for describing syntax)

The Role of Lexical Analyzer

- Read the input characters of the source program, group them into lexemes, and produces a sequence of tokens
- Add lexemes into the symbol table when necessary



The Role of Lexical Analyzer



Tokens, Patterns, and Lexemes

- A *lexeme* is a string of characters that is a lowest-level syntactic unit in programming languages
- A *token* is a syntactic category representing a class of lexemes. Formally, it is a pair <token name, attribute value>
 - Token name: an abstract symbol representing the kind of the token
 - Attribute value (optional) points to the symbol table
- Each token has a particular *pattern*: a description of the form that the lexemes of the token may take

Examples

TOKEN	INFORMAL DESCRIPTION SAMPLE LEXE		
if	characters i, f	if	
${f else}$	characters e, l, s, e else		
comparison	<pre>< or > or <= or >= or != <=, !=</pre>		
id	letter followed by letters and digits pi, score, D2		
${f number}$	any numeric constant 3.14159, 0, 6.02		
literal	anything but ", surrounded by "'s	"core dumped"	

Consider the C statement: printf("Total = %d\n", score);

Lexeme	printf	score	"Total = %d\n"	(• • •
Token	id	id	literal	left_parenthesis	• • •

Attributes for Tokens

- When more than one lexeme match a pattern, the lexical analyzer must provide additional information, named *attribute values*, to the subsequent compiler phases
 - Token names influence parsing decisions
 - Attribute values influence semantic analysis, code generation etc.
- For example, an **id** token is often associated with: (1) its lexeme, (2) type, and (3) the location at which it is first found. Token attributes are stored in the symbol table.

Lexical Errors

• When none of the patterns for tokens match any prefix of the remaining input

• Example: int 3a = a * 3;

Outline

- The Role of Lexers: Recognizing Tokens
- Specification of Tokens (Regular Expressions)
- The Role of Parsers: Finding Syntax Errors
- Specification of Syntax (Context-Free Grammars)

Specification of Tokens

- Regular expression (正则表达式, regexp for short) is an important notation for specifying lexeme patterns
- Content of this part
 - Strings and Languages (串和语言)
 - Operations on Languages (语言上的运算)
 - Regular Expressions
 - Regular Definitions (正则定义)
 - Extensions of Regular Expressions

Strings and Languages

- Alphabet (字母表): any finite set of symbols
 - Examples of symbols: letters, digits, and punctuations
 - Examples of alphabets: {1, 0}, ASCII, Unicode
- A **string** (串) over an alphabet is a <u>finite</u> sequence of symbols drawn from the alphabet
 - The length of a string s, denoted |s|, is the number of symbols in s (i.e., cardinality)
 - Empty string (空串): the string of length 0, ϵ

Terms (using banana for illustration)

- Prefix (前缀) of string s: any string obtained by removing 0 or more symbols from the end of s (ban, banana, ϵ)
- Proper prefix (真前缀): a prefix that is not ϵ and not s itself (ban)
- Suffix (后缀): any string obtained by removing 0 or more symbols from the beginning of s (nana, banana, ϵ).
- Proper suffix (真后缀): a suffix that is not ϵ and not equal to s itself (nana)

Terms Cont.

- Substring (子串) of s: any string obtained by removing any prefix and any suffix from s (banana, nan, ϵ)
- Proper substring (真子串): a substring that is not ϵ and not equal to s itself (nan)
- Subsequence (子序列): any string formed by removing 0 or more not necessarily consecutive symbols from *s* (bnn)



How many substrings & subsequences does banana have?

(Two substrings are different as long as they have different start/end index)

String Operations (串的运算)

- Concatenation (连接): the concatenation of two strings *x* and *y*, denoted *xy*, is the string formed by appending *y* to *x*
 - x = dog, y = house, xy = doghouse
- Exponentiation (幂/指数运算): $s^0 = \epsilon$, $s^1 = s$, $s^i = s^{i-1}s$
 - x = dog, $x^0 = \epsilon$, $x^1 = dog$, $x^3 = dogdogdog$

Language (语言)

- A language is any countable set¹ of strings over some fixed alphabet
 - The set containing only the empty string, that is $\{\epsilon\}$, is a language, denoted \emptyset
 - The set of all grammatically correct English sentences
 - The set of all syntactically well-formed C programs

¹ In mathematics, a countable set is a set with the same cardinality (number of elements) as some subset of the set of natural numbers. A countable set is either a finite set or a countably infinite set.

Operations on Languages (语言的运算)

· 并,连接, Kleene闭包,正闭包



Stephen C. Kleen

OPERATION	DEFINITION AND NOTATION	
Union of L and M	$L \cup M = \{s \mid s \text{ is in } L \text{ or } s \text{ is in } M\}$	
$\overline{Concatenation ext{ of } L ext{ and } M}$	$LM = \{ st \mid s \text{ is in } L \text{ and } t \text{ is in } M \}$	
$Kleene\ closure\ { m of}\ L$	$L^* = \cup_{i=0}^{\infty} L^i$	
Positive closure of L	$L^+ = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} L^i$	

The exponentiation of L can be defined using concatenation. L^n means concatenating L n times.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stephen_Cole_Kleene

Examples

- $L = \{A, B, ..., Z, a, b, ..., z\}$
- $D = \{0, 1, ..., 9\}$

LUD	{A, B,, Z, a, b,, z, 0, 1,,9}	
LD	the set of 520 strings of length two, each consisting of one letter followed by one digit	
L^4	the set of all 4-letter strings	
\mathbf{L}^*	the set of all strings of letters, including ϵ	
$L(L \cup D)^*$?	
D ⁺	?	

Note: L, D might seem to be the alphabets of letters and digits. We define them to be languages: all strings happen to be of length one.

Regular Expressions - For Describing Languages/Patterns

Rules that define regexps over an alphabet Σ :

- **BASIS**: two rules form the basis:
 - ϵ is a regexp, $L(\epsilon) = \{\epsilon\}$
 - If a is a symbol in Σ , then a is a regexp, and $L(a) = \{a\}$
- **INDUCTION:** Suppose **r** and **s** are regexps denoting the languages L(**r**) and L(**s**)
 - (r) | (s) is a regexp denoting the language $L(r) \cup L(s)$
 - (r)(s) is a regexp denoting the language L(r)L(s)
 - (r)* is a regexp denoting (L(r))*
 - (r) is a regexp denoting L(r). Additional parentheses do not change the language an expression denotes.

Regular Expressions Cont.

- Following the rules, regexps often contain unnecessary pairs of parentheses. We may drop some if we adopt the conventions:
 - Precedence: closure * > concatenation > union |
 - **Associativity:** All three operators are left associative, meaning that operations are grouped from the left, e.g., a | b | c would be interpreted as (a | b) | c
- Example: (a) $| ((b)^*(c)) = a | b^*c$

Regular Expressions Cont.

- Examples: Let $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$
 - a b denotes the language {a, b}
 - (a|b)(a|b) denotes {aa, ab, ba, bb}
 - a^* denotes $\{\epsilon$, a, aa, aaa, ...
 - $(a \mid b)^*$ denotes the set of all strings consisting of 0 or more a's or b's: $\{\epsilon$, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, aaa, ... $\}$
 - a l a*b denotes the string a and all strings consisting of 0 or more a's and ending in b: {a, b, ab, aab, aaab, ...}

Regular Language (正则语言)

- A regular language is a language that can be defined by a regexp
- If two regexps r and s denote the same language, they are *equivalent*, written as r = s

Regular Language Cont.

• Each algebraic law below asserts that expressions of two different forms are equivalent

Law	DESCRIPTION
r s=s r	is commutative
r (s t) = (r s) t	is associative
r(st) = (rs)t	Concatenation is associative
r(s t) = rs rt; (s t)r = sr tr	Concatenation distributes over
$\epsilon r = r\epsilon = r$	ϵ is the identity for concatenation
$r^* = (r \epsilon)^*$	ϵ is guaranteed in a closure
$r^{**} = r^*$	* is idempotent

Is
$$(a|b)(a|b) = aa|ab|ba|bb$$
 true?

| can be viewed as + in arithmetics, concatenation can be viewed as \times , * can be viewed as the power operator.

Regular Definitions (正则定义)

• For notational convenience, we can give names to certain regexps and use those names in subsequent expressions

If Σ is an alphabet of basic symbols, then a *regular definition* is a sequence of definitions of the form:

$$d_1 \rightarrow r_1$$

$$d_2 \rightarrow r_2$$

$$\dots$$

$$d_n \rightarrow r_n$$

where:

- Each d_i is a new symbol not in Σ and not the same as the other d's
- Each r_i is a regexp over the alphabet $\Sigma \cup \{d_1, d_2, ..., d_{i-1}\}$

Each new symbol denotes a regular language. The second rule means that you may reuse previously-defined symbols.

Examples

Regular definition for C identifiers

Regexp for C identifiers

```
(A|B|...|Z|a|b|...|z|_)((A|B|...|Z|a|b|...|z|_)|(0|1|...|9))*
```

Extensions of Regular Expressions

- **Basic operators:** union 1, concatenation, and Kleene closure * (proposed by Kleene in 1950s)
- A few notational extensions:
 - One of more instances: the unary, postfix operator *

$$\circ r^+ = rr^*, r^* = r^+ \mid \epsilon$$

Zero or one instance: the unary postfix operator?

$$\circ r? = r \mid \epsilon$$

Character classes: shorthand for a logical sequence

$$\circ [a_1 a_2 ... a_n] = a_1 | a_2 | ... | a_n$$

$$\circ [a-e] = a | b | c | d | e$$

• The extensions are only for notational convenience, they do not change the descriptive power of regexps

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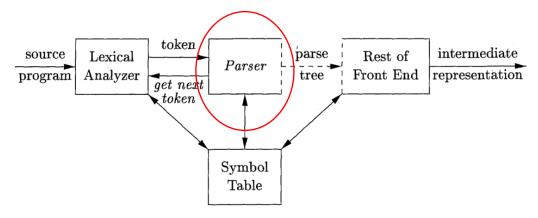
Describing Syntax

- The syntax of programming language constructs can be specified by context-free grammars¹
 - A grammar gives a precise and easy-to-understand syntactic specification of a programming language, defining its structure
 - For certain grammars, we can automatically construct an efficient parser
 - A properly designed grammar helps translate source programs into correct object code and detect errors

¹Can also be specified using BNF (Backus-Naur Form) notation, which basically can be seen as a variant of CFG: http://www.cs.nuim.ie/~ipower/Courses/Previous/parsing/node23.html

The Role of the Parser

- The parser obtains a string of tokens from the lexical analyzer and verifies that the string of token names can be generated by the grammar for the source language
- Report syntax errors in an intelligent fashion
- For well-formed programs, the parser constructs a parse tree
 - The parse tree need not be constructed explicitly



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- Context-Free Grammars (for describing syntax)
 - Formal definition of CFG
 - Ambiguity

- Derivation and parse tree
- CFG vs. regexp

Context-Free Grammar (上下文无关文法)

- A context-free grammar (CFG) consists of four parts:
 - **Terminals** (终结符号): Basic symbols from which strings are formed (token names)
 - Nonterminals (非终结符号): Syntactic variables that denote sets of strings
 - Usually correspond to a language construct, such as stmt (statements)
 - One nonterminal is distinguished as the **start symbol** (开始符号)
 - o The set of strings denoted by the start symbol is the language generated by the CFG
 - **Productions** (产生式): Specify how the terminals and nonterminals can be combined to form strings
 - Format: head → body
 - o head must be a nonterminal; body consists of zero or more terminals/nonterminals
 - Example: expression → expression + term

CFG Example

- The grammar below defines simple arithmetic expressions
 - Terminal symbols: id, +, -, *, /, (,)
 - Nonterminals: expression, term (项), factor (因子)
 - Start symbol: expression
 - Productions:

```
○ expression → expression + term
```

- o expression → expression term
- \circ expression \rightarrow term
- o term → term * factor
- o term → term / factor
- o term → factor
- factor → (expression)
- \circ factor \rightarrow id

→ can be read as: can be in the form, can be replaced by, can be rewritten as, can produce, can generate, can make...

Notational Simplification

```
expression \rightarrow expression + term

expression \rightarrow expression - term

expression \rightarrow term

term \rightarrow term * factor

term \rightarrow term / factor

term \rightarrow factor

factor \rightarrow (expression)

factor \rightarrow id
```

```
E \rightarrow E + T \mid E - T \mid T
T \rightarrow T * F \mid T / F \mid F
F \rightarrow (E) \mid id
```

- | is a meta symbol to specify alternatives
- (and) are not meta symbols, they are terminal symbols

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Derivations

• **Derivation** (推导): Starting with the start symbol, nonterminals are rewritten using productions until only terminals remain

- Example:
 - CFG: $E \rightarrow -E \mid E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$
 - A derivation (a sequence of rewrites) of -(id) from *E*

$$\circ E \Rightarrow -E \Rightarrow -(E) \Rightarrow -(id)$$

Notations

- ⇒ means "derives in one step"
- ⇒ means "derives in zero or more steps"
 - $\alpha \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$ holds for any string α
 - If $\alpha \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \beta$ and $\beta \Rightarrow \gamma$, then $\alpha \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \gamma$
 - Example: $E \Rightarrow -E \Rightarrow -(E) \Rightarrow -(id)$ can be written as $E \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} -(id)$
- → means "derives in one or more steps"

Terminologies

- If $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$, where S is the start symbol of a grammar G, we say that α is *sentential form* of G (文法的句型)
 - May contain both terminals and nonterminals, and may be empty
 - Example: $E \Rightarrow -E \Rightarrow -(E) \Rightarrow -(E+E) \Rightarrow -(\mathbf{id}+E) \Rightarrow -(\mathbf{id}+\mathbf{id})$, here all strings of grammar symbols are sentential forms
- A *sentence* (句子) of *G* is a sentential form with no nonterminals
 - In the above example, only the last string -(id + id) is a sentence
- The *language generated* by a grammar is its set of sentences

Leftmost/Rightmost Derivations

- At each step of a derivation, we need to choose which nonterminal to replace
- In **leftmost derivations** (最左推导), the leftmost nonterminal in each sentential form is always chosen to be replaced

•
$$E \Rightarrow -E \Rightarrow -(E) \Rightarrow -(E+E) \Rightarrow -(id+E) \Rightarrow -(id+id)$$

• In **rightmost derivations** (最右推导), the rightmost nonterminal is always chosen to be replaced

•
$$E \Longrightarrow -E \Longrightarrow -(E) \Longrightarrow -(E+E) \Longrightarrow -(E+id) \Longrightarrow -(id+id)$$

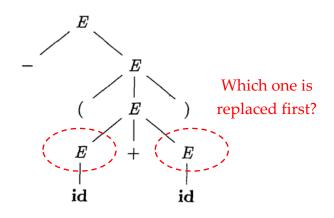
Parse Trees (语法分析树)

- A *parse tree* is a graphical representation of a derivation that <u>filters out the order</u> in which productions are applied
 - The root node (根结点) is the start symbol of the grammar
 - Each leaf node (叶子结点) is labeled by a terminal symbol*
 - Each interior node (内部结点) is labeled with a nonterminal symbol and represents the application of a production
 - The interior node is labeled with the nonterminal in the head of the production; the children nodes are labeled, from left to right, by the symbols in the body of the production

CFG:
$$E \rightarrow -E \mid E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$$

$$E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} -E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} -(E) \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} -(E + E) \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} -(id + E) \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} -(id + id)$$

^{*} Here, we assume that a derivation always produces a string with only terminals, so leaf nodes cannot be non-terminals.



Parse Trees (语法分析树) Cont.

- The leaves, from left to right, constitute a **sentential form** of the grammar, which is called the *yield* or *frontier* of the tree
- There is a many-to-one relationship between derivations and parse trees
 - However, there is a one-to-one relationship between leftmost/rightmost derivations and parse trees

CFG:
$$E o - E \mid E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$$

$$E \Rightarrow - E \Rightarrow - (E) \Rightarrow - (E + E) \Rightarrow - (id + E) \Rightarrow - (id + id)$$

$$E \Rightarrow - E \Rightarrow - (E) \Rightarrow - (E + E) \Rightarrow - (id + id)$$

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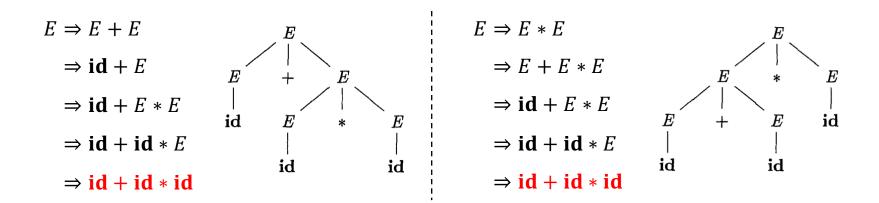
Derivation and parse tree

Ambiguity

CFG vs. regexp

Ambiguity (二义性)

- Given a grammar, if there are more than one parse tree for some sentence, it is ambiguous.
- Example CFG: $E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$



Both are leftmost derivations

The left tree corresponds to the commonly assumed precedence.

Ambiguity (二义性) Cont.

- The grammar of a programming language typically needs to be unambiguous
 - Otherwise, there will be multiple ways to interpret a program
 - Given $E \to E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$, how to interpret a + b * c?
- In some cases, it is convenient to use carefully chosen ambiguous grammars, together with disambiguating rules to discard undesirable parse trees
 - For example: multiplication before addition

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CFG vs. Regular Expressions

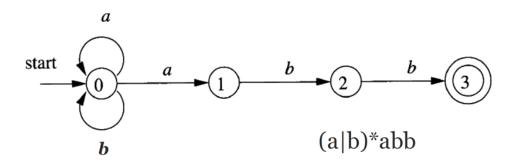
- CFGs are more expressive than regular expressions
 - 1. Every language that can be described by a regular expression can also be described by a grammar (i.e., every regular language is also a context-free language)
 - 2. Some context-free languages cannot be described using regular expressions

Any Regular Language Can be Described by a CFG

- (Proof by Construction) Each regular language can be accepted by an NFA. We can construct a CFG to describe the language:
 - For each state i of the NFA, create a nonterminal symbol A_i
 - If state *i* has a transition to state *j* on input *a*, add the production $A_i \rightarrow aA_j$
 - If state *i* goes to state *j* on input ϵ , add the production $A_i \rightarrow A_j$
 - If *i* is an accepting state, add $A_i \rightarrow \epsilon$
 - If i is the start state, make A_i be the start symbol of the grammar

Example: NFA to CFG

- $A_0 \rightarrow aA_0 \mid bA_0 \mid aA_1$
- $A_1 \rightarrow bA_2$
- $A_2 \rightarrow bA_3$
- $A_3 \rightarrow \epsilon$



Consider the string *baabb*: The process of the NFA accepting the sentence corresponds exactly to the derivation of the sentence from the grammar

Some Context-Free Languages Cannot be Described Using Regular Expressions

- Example: $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n > 0\}$
 - The language *L* can be described by CFG $S \rightarrow aSb \mid ab$
 - *L* cannot be described by regular expressions. In other words, we cannot construct a DFA to accept *L*

Proof by Contradiction

- Suppose there is a DFA *D* that accepts *L* and *D* has *k* states
- When processing a^{k+1} ..., D must enter a state s more than once (D enters one state after processing a symbol)¹
- Assume that *D* enters the state *s* after reading the *i*th and *j*th a ($i \ne j, i \le k+1, j \le k+1$)
- Since D accepts L, a^jb^j must reach an accepting state. There must exist a path labeled b^j from s to an accepting state
- Since a^i reaches the state s and there is a path labeled b^j from s to an accepting state, D will accept $a^i b^j$. Contradiction!!!

¹ a^{k+1}b^{k+1} is a string in L so D must accept it

Reading Tasks

- Chapter 3 of the dragon book
 - 3.1 The role of the lexical analyzer
 - 3.3 Specification of tokens

- Chapter 4 of the dragon book
 - 4.1 Introduction
 - 4.2 Context-Free Grammars
 - 4.3 Writing a Grammar (4.3.1 4.3.4)