

Compiler Design

Department of software Engineering

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Chapter Two

Lexical Analyzer

Lexical Analyzer

- The function of the lexical analyzer is to read the source program, one character at a time, and to translate it into a sequence of primitive units called “*tokens*”.
- how tokens are expressed using **Regular Expression**?
- **regular grammars** for generating languages.
- how **Deterministic Finite State Automata** recognize tokens?

Tokens

- Token represents a set of strings described by a pattern.
 - Identifier represents a set of strings which start with a letter continues with letters and digits
 - The actual string is called as *lexeme*.
 - Tokens: identifier, number, operations, delimiter, ...
- Since a token can represent more than one lexeme, additional information should be held for that specific lexeme. This additional information is called as the *attribute* of the token.
- For simplicity, a token may have a single attribute which holds the required information for that token.
 - For identifiers, this attribute a pointer to the symbol table, and the symbol table holds the actual attributes for that token.
- Some attributes:
 - <id, attr> where attr is pointer to the symbol table
 - <assg, op, _> no attribute is needed (if there is only one assignment operator)
 - <num, val> where val is the actual value of the number.
- Token type and its attribute uniquely identifies a lexeme.
- **Regular expressions** are widely used to specify patterns.

Alphabet, String & Languages

- **Alphabets:**

- An alphabet is a finite, nonempty set of symbols.
- Conventionally, we use the symbol Σ for an alphabet.
- Common alphabet include:
 - $\Sigma = \{ 0, 1 \}$, the *binary* alphabet.
 - $\Sigma = \{ a, b, \dots, z \}$, the set of all lower-case letters.

- **Strings:**

- A string (or sometimes word) is a finite sequence of symbols chosen from some alphabet.
- Example: 01101, 111, 0001, 111 ... are strings from the binary alphabet $\Sigma = \{ 0, 1 \}$.

Alphabet, String & Languages

- **Empty string:**
 - The empty string is the string with zero occurrences of symbols and is denoted by ϵ . (i.e. the string consisting of no symbols)
- **Length of Strings:**
 - Let X be a string, the notation $|X|$ denotes the *length* of X (i.e. the number of symbols contained in the string).
 - Example: $|aba|=3$, $|a|=1$, $|\epsilon|=0$, etc.

Alphabet, String & Languages

- **Power of an alphabet:**
 - If Σ is an alphabet, we can express the set of all strings of a certain length from that alphabet by using an *exponential notation*. We define Σ^k to be the set of strings of length k , each of whose symbol is in Σ .
 - $\Sigma^0 = \{\epsilon\}$, regardless of what alphabet Σ is.
 - If $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$, then $\Sigma^1 = \{0,1\}$, $\Sigma^2 = \{00, 01, 10, 11\}$,
 $\Sigma^3 = \{000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111\}$
- The set of all strings over an alphabet Σ is conventionally denoted Σ^* .
 - Example: $\{0,1\}^* = \{\epsilon, 0, 1, 00, 01, 10, 11, 000, \dots\}$
 - $\Sigma^* = \Sigma^0 \cup \Sigma^1 \cup \Sigma^2 \cup \Sigma^3 \cup \dots$

Alphabet, String & Languages

- The set of non empty strings from alphabet Σ is denoted Σ^+ (excluding the empty string from the set of strings)
 - $\Sigma^+ = \Sigma^1 \cup \Sigma^2 \cup \Sigma^3 \cup \dots$
 - $\Sigma^* = \Sigma^+ \cup \{\epsilon\}$.

Alphabet, String & Languages

- **Operation on strings**
 - **concatenation (product):**
 - Let **x** and **y** be strings. Then **xy** denotes the concatenation of x and y is, the string formed by making a copy of x and followed it by a copy of y.
 - *Example:* Let $x = 01101$ and $y = 110$, then $xy = 01101110$ ($yx = 11001101$)
- **Note:** For any string w,
 $\epsilon w = w\epsilon = w$ (i.e. ϵ is the identity for concatenation)

Alphabet, String & Languages

- **Languages:** A set of strings all of which are chosen from some Σ^* , where Σ is a particular alphabet, is called a *language*.
- If Σ is an alphabet, and $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$, then L is a Language over Σ .
- **Example:** A language L over an alphabet V is a subset of V^* . For instance, if $V = \{a, b, c\}$, the following are languages on V .
 - $L_1 = \emptyset$ (the empty language; i.e. the empty subset of V)
 - $L_2 = \{\epsilon\}$ (The language containing just the empty string; notice that $L_1 \neq L_2$)
 - $L_3 = \{a, b, c\} = V$ (the language whose elements are just the strings of length 1)
 - $L_4 = \{aa, ba, ab\}$

Alphabet, String & Languages

- $L_5 = \{a, aaa, aaaaa, bc\}$
- $L_6 = \{ab, aab, aaab, aaaab, \dots\}$ (the infinite language whose strings consists of any number of a's followed by a single b; L_6 can also be defined in the more compact way $L_6 = \{a^n b | n \geq 1\}$)
- $L_7 = \{(ab)^n c^m | n \geq 1, m \geq 2\}$
- $L_8 = \{\{(a^n b^n | n \geq 1\} = \{ab, aabb, aaabbb, \dots\}$
- **Note:** It's common to describe a language using a “set former”
 $\{w | \text{something about } w\}$ this expression is read “the set of words w such that (whatever is said about w to the right of the vertical bar)”

Alphabet, String & Languages

- Operations on languages

Operation	Definition
<i>union of L and M</i> written $L \cup M$	$L \cup M = \{s \mid s \in L \text{ or } s \in M\}$
<i>concatenation of L and M</i> written LM	$LM = \{st \mid s \in L \text{ and } t \in M\}$
<i>Kleene closure of L</i> written L^*	$L^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} L^i$
<i>positive closure of L</i> written L^+	$L^+ = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} L^i$

Regular Expression (RE)

- A **regular expression** is a “user-friendly,” declarative way of describing a regular language.
- We use regular expressions to describe **tokens** of programming language.
- A RE is built up of simpler regular expressions (using defining rules)
- Each RE denotes a language.
- A language denoted by a RE is called as a regular set.
- Regular expressions are used in e.g.
 1. UNIX grep command
 2. UNIX Lex (Lexical analyzer generator) and Flex (Fast Lex) tools.

Definition: Regular Expressions

- **Regular Expressions (RE)** (over an alphabet Σ):
 - ε is a RE denoting the set $\{\varepsilon\}$
 - If $a \in \Sigma$, then a is RE denoting $\{a\}$
 - If r and s are Res, denoting $L(r)$ and $L(s)$, then
 1. (r) is a RE denoting $L(r)$
 2. $(r)|(s)$ is RE denoting $L(r) \cup L(s)$
 3. $(r)(s)$ is a RE denoting $L(r)L(s)$
 4. $(r)^*$ is RE denoting $L(r)^*$

Regular Expression Operators

$X Y$ concatenation	X followed by Y
$X Y$ alternation	X or Y (alternatives)
X^* Kleene closure	Zero or more occurrences of X
X^+	One or more occurrence of X
(X) grouping	Used for grouping (as in programming languages)

Algebraic properties of REs

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Axiom	Description
$r s = s r$	$ $ is commutative
$r (s t) = (r s) t$	$ $ is associative
$(rs)t = r(st)$	concatenation is associative
$r(s t) = rs rt$ $(s t)r = sr tr$	concatenation distributes over $ $
$\varepsilon r = r$ $r\varepsilon = r$	ε is the identity for concatenation
$r^* = (r \varepsilon)^*$	relation between $*$ and ε
$r^{**} = r^*$	$*$ is idempotent

Example

- Let $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$
 1. $a|b$ denotes $\{a, b\}$
 2. $(a|b)(a|b)$ denotes $\{aa, ab, ba, bb\}$
i.e., $(a|b)(a|b) = aa|ab|ba|bb$
 3. a^* denotes $\{\epsilon, a, aa, aaa, \dots\}$
 4. $(a|b)^*$ denotes the set of all strings of a's and b's (including ϵ)
i.e., $(a|b)^* = (a^*|b^*)^*$
 5. $a|a^*b$ denotes $\{a, b, ab, aab, aaab, aaaab, \dots\}$

Describing Tokens by RE

- **digit** = $0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9$
- **unsigned_integer** = digit digit^*
- **signed_integer** = $(+ \mid - \mid e) \text{ unsigned_integer}$
- **Letters** = $A \mid B \mid C \mid \dots \mid Y \mid Z$
- **Keywords** = $\text{BEGIN} \mid \text{END} \mid \text{IF} \mid \text{THEN} \mid \text{ELSE}$
- **Identifier** = $\text{letter (letter|digit)}^*$
- Given two strings:
 - $L = \{ a, b, c, \dots, z \}$
 - $D = \{ 0, 1, 2, \dots, 9 \}$
 - $L ((L \mid D)^*)$ = “Set of strings that start with a letter, followed by zero or more letters and digits.”

RE Examples

- Given an Alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$, construct a RE for:

a) All strings beginning with a :

$$a(a \mid b)^*$$

b) All strings containing aba :

$$(a \mid b)^*aba(a \mid b)^*$$

c) All strings of *even length*:

$$((a \mid b)(a \mid b))^* = (aa \mid ba \mid ab \mid bb)^* = ((a \mid b)^2)^*$$

d) All strings of *odd length*:

$$(a \mid b)((a \mid b)^2)^* = (a \mid b)(aa \mid ba \mid ab \mid bb)^*$$

RE exercise

- Given an Alphabet $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$, construct a RE for:
 - Q1. The set of all strings which have at least one occurrence of the substring 001.
 - Q2. The set of all strings that contain an even number of 0s or an even number of 1s.
 - Q3. the set of all strings with an even number of 0's followed by an odd number of 1's.
 - Q4. The set of all strings whose fifth symbol from right is 0.
 - Q5. The set of all strings that start with 0 and end with 1.

Regular Grammars

- A **grammar** is a list of rules which can be used to produce or generate all the strings of a language, and which does not generate any strings which are not in the language.
- Grammar: generative description of a language
- Automaton: analytical description.
- A **grammar** is a quadruple

$G = (V, T, S, P)$ where

- V is a finite set of **variables**
- T is a finite set of symbols, called **terminals**
- S is in V and is called the **start symbol**
- P is a finite set of **productions**, which are **rules**.

Regular Grammars

- **Notation:**
 - *Terminals* (lower-case letters, operator symbols, digits, keywords, Punctuation symbols, etc...)
 - *Non-Terminals* (Upper-case letters, special symbols such as statement, expression, A, B, C and etc...)
- In a regular grammar, all *productions* have one of two forms:
 1. $A \rightarrow aA$
 2. $A \rightarrow a$

Where *A* is any *non-terminal* and *a* is any *terminal* symbol.

Example

1. $S \rightarrow abS \mid a$

Can you figure out what language it generates?

- $L = \{w \in \{a,b\}^* \mid w \text{ contains alternating } a\text{'s and } b\text{'s, begins with an } a, \text{ and ends with a } b\} \cup \{a\}$
- $L((ab)^*a)$

2. $S \rightarrow aaA$

$$A \rightarrow abA \mid aB$$

$$B \rightarrow b$$

Can you figure out what language it generates?

- $L = \{w \in \{a,b\}^* \mid w \text{ is } aa \text{ followed by at least one set of alternating } ab\text{'s}\}$
- $L(aaab(ab)^*)$

Finite Automata/Machine (FA)

- A *recognizer* for a language is a program that takes a string x , and answers “yes” if x is a sentence of that language, and “no” otherwise.
- We call the recognizer of the tokens as a **finite automata**.
- A finite automata can be:
 - **Deterministic FA (DFA)** or
 - **Non-deterministic FA (NFA)**
- This means that we may use a deterministic or non-deterministic automata as lexical analyzer.
- Both deterministic and non-deterministic automata recognize regular sets.

FA

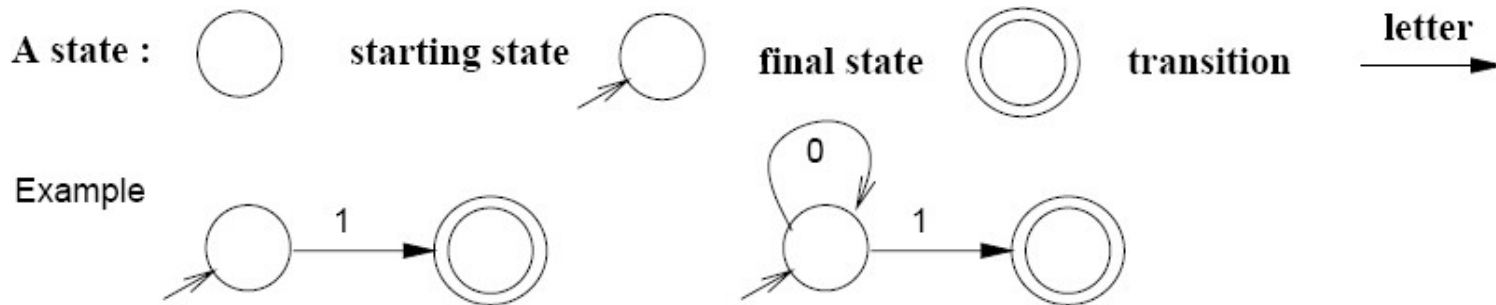
- Which one?
 - Deterministic – faster recognizer, but it may take more space
 - Non-deterministic – slower, but it may take less space.
 - Deterministic automata are widely used lexical analyzers.
- First, we define regular expressions for tokens; Then we convert them into a DFA to get a lexical analyzer for our tokens.

Conti...

Language	Machine	Grammar
Regular	Finite Automaton	Regular Expression, Regular Grammar
Context-Free	Pushdown Automaton	Context-Free Grammar
Recursively Enumerable	Turing Machine	Unrestricted Phrase- Structure Grammar

FA Representation

- A finite state automata is a model of behavior composed of finite number of states, transitions between those states and actions.
- **FA components:**



Formal Definition of FA

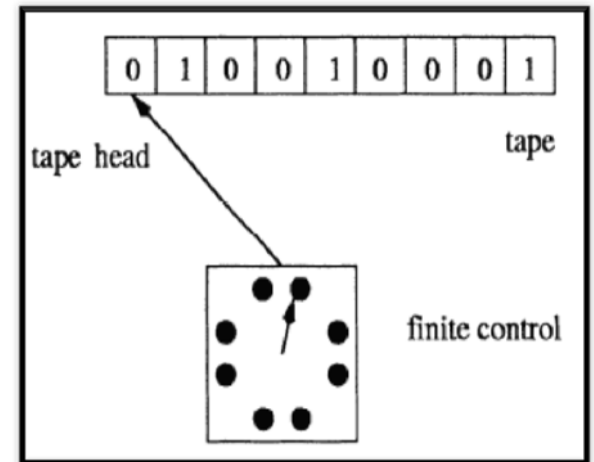
An finite automaton is a 5-tuple = $(\Sigma, Q, q_0, F, \delta)$

- Σ is a finite set called the **alphabet**,
- Q is a **finite** set called **states**,
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the **start state**,
- $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of **final states** (Accept states)
- A transition function:

$$\delta : Q \times \Sigma \longrightarrow Q$$

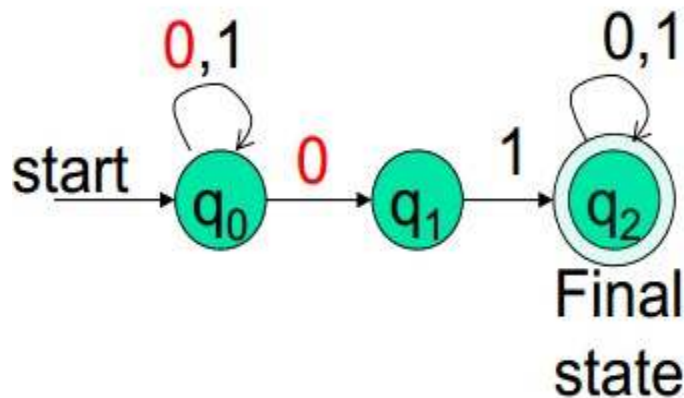
How Machine M operates.

- M “reads” one letter at a time from the input string (going from left to right)
- M starts in state q_0 .
- If M is in state q_i reads the letter a then
 - If $\delta(q_i, a)$ is undefined then CRASH.
 - Otherwise M moves to state $\delta(q_i, a)$
- The output of a finite automaton is “accepted” if the automaton is now in an accept state (double circle) and reject if it is not.



Con't

- We can describe the given FA (M1) formally by writing $M_1 = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, F)$, where

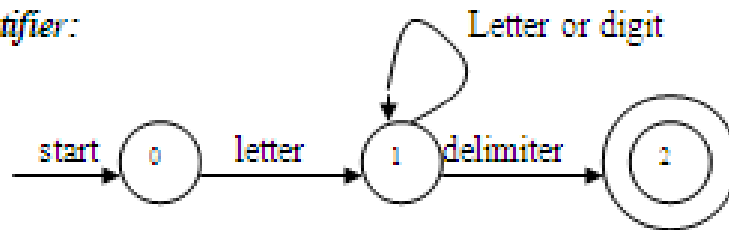


- $Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_2\}$
- $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$
- start state = q_0
- $F = \{q_2\}$
- Transition table

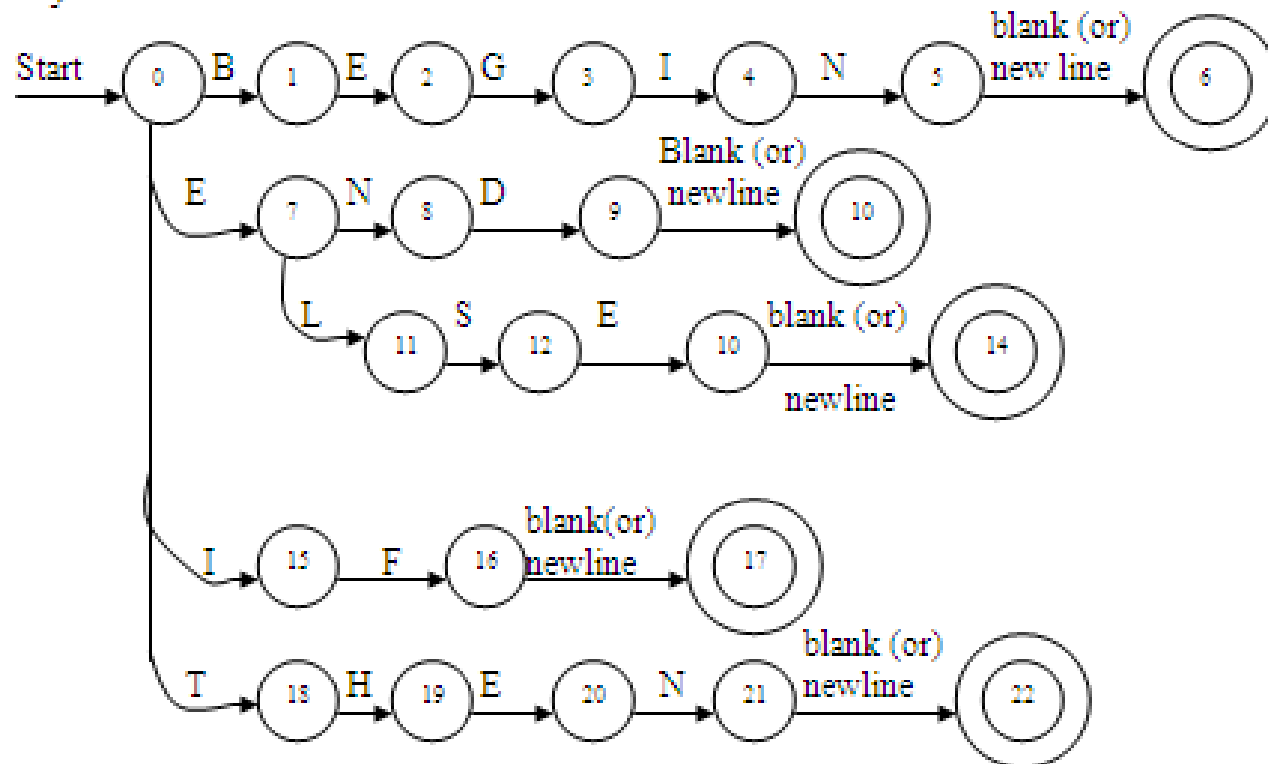
symbols		
δ	0	1
states → q_0	$\{q_0, q_1\}$	$\{q_0\}$
q_1	\emptyset	$\{q_2\}$
$*q_2$	$\{q_2\}$	$\{q_2\}$

FA for recognizing Tokens

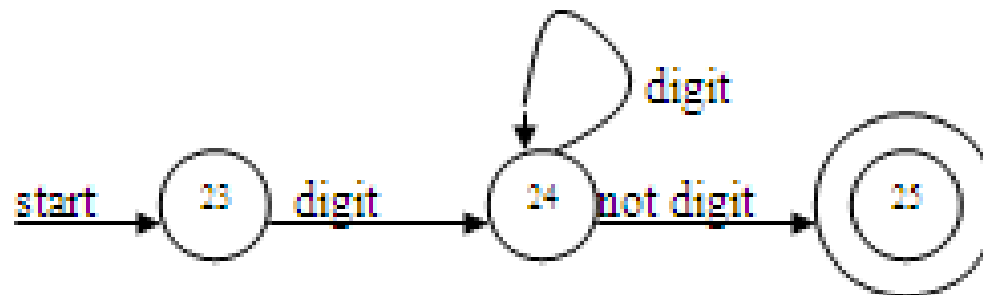
Identifier:



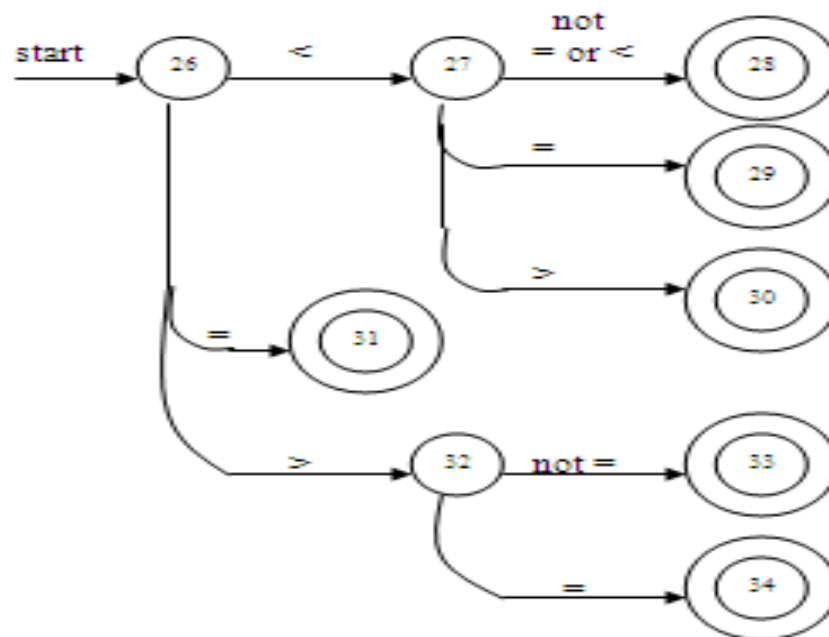
Keywords:



Constant:



Relops:

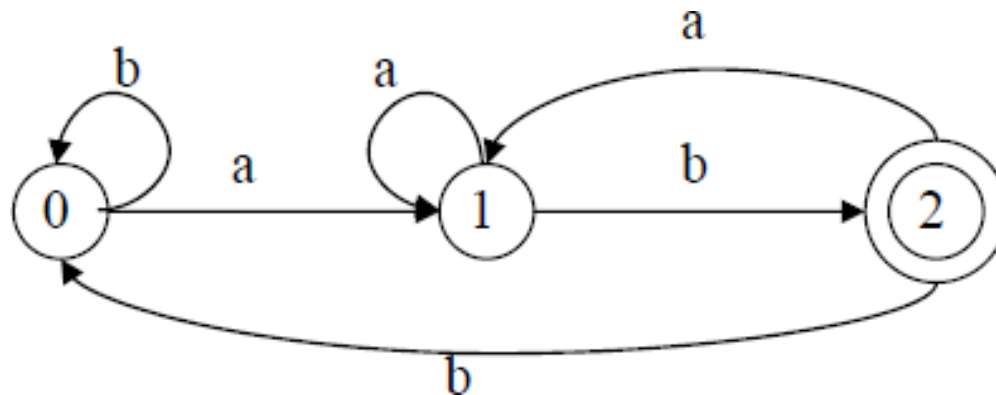


DFA Vs NFA

- When the machine is in a given state and reads the next input symbol, we know what the next state will be – it is **determined**.
- In **nondeterministic** machine, several choices may exist for the next state at any point.
- **Non-determinism** is a generalization of determinism, so every *deterministic finite automaton* is automatically a *non-deterministic finite automaton*.
- DFAs are clearly a subset of NFAs.

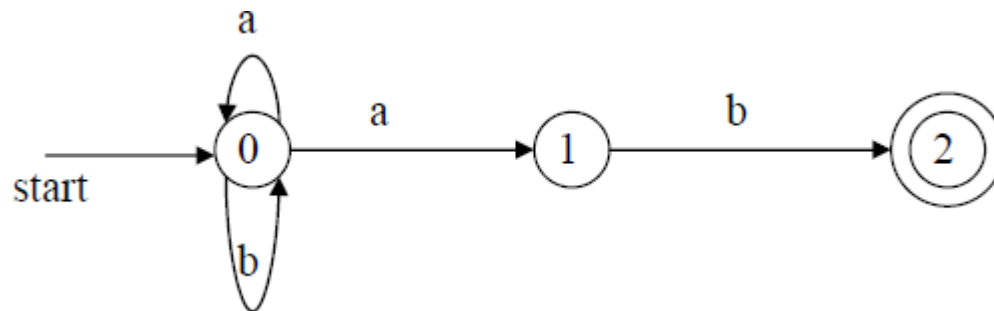
DFA

- Every state of a DFA always has exactly one existing transition arrow for each symbol in the alphabet. (one transition per input per state)
- No ϵ -moves.
- **Example:** The DFA to recognize the language $(a|b)^* ab$ is as follows:



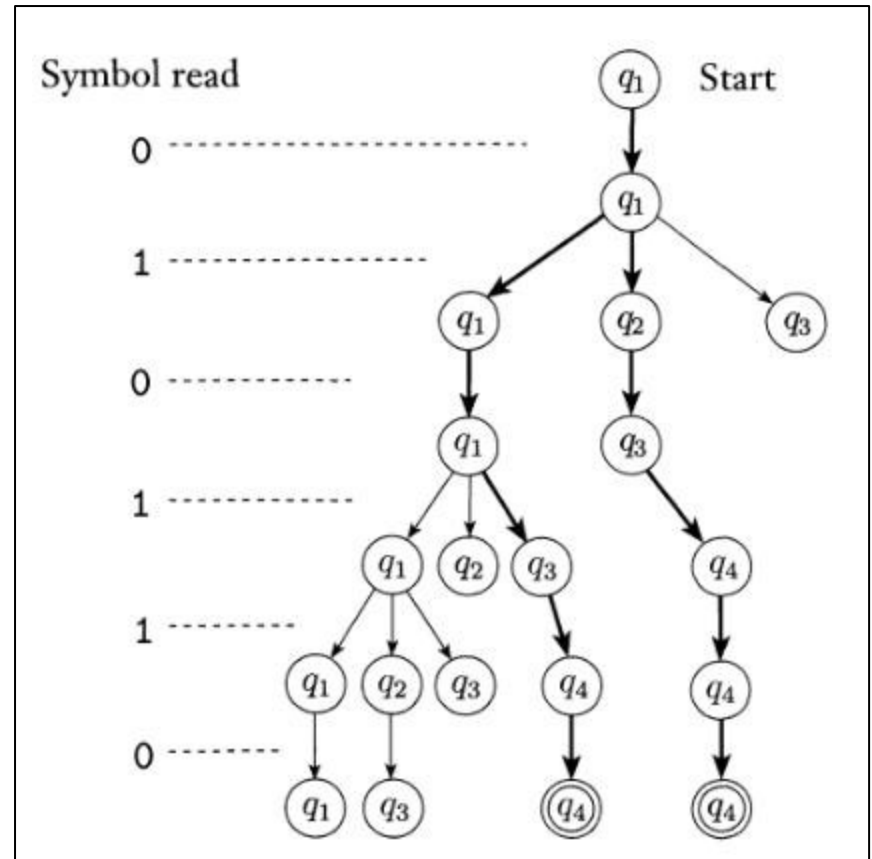
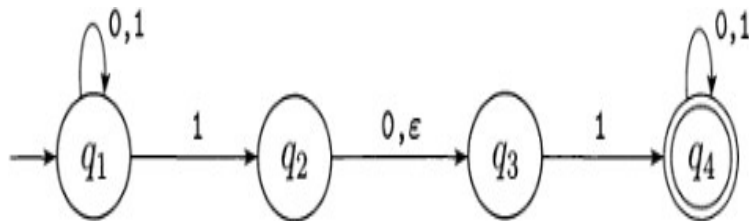
NFA

- In any NFA a state may have zero, one, or many existing arrows for each alphabet symbol.
- Can have ϵ -moves. (in other words, we can move from one state to another one without consuming any symbol.)
- A NFA accepts a string x , if and only if there is a path from the starting state to one of accepting states that edge labels along this path spell out x .
- Example: The NFA to recognize the language $(a|b)^* ab$ is as follows:



How does an NFA computes?

Computation

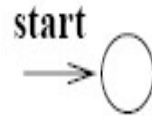


From Regular Expression to DFA

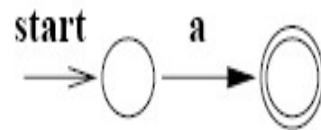
Regular Exp.

DFA

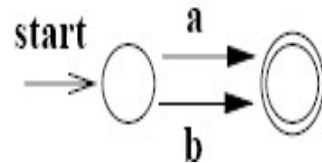
e



a



$a \mid b$

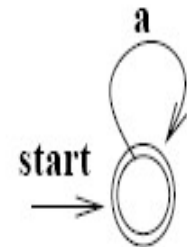


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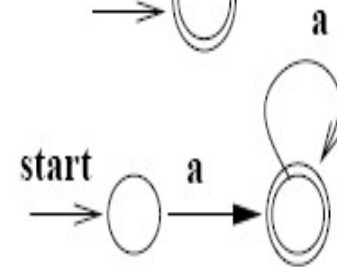
Regular Exp.

DFA

a^*

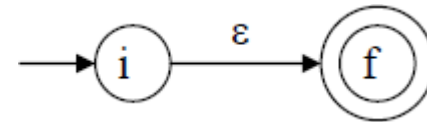


a^+

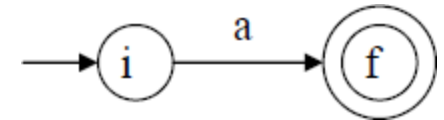


RE to NFA (Thomson Construction)

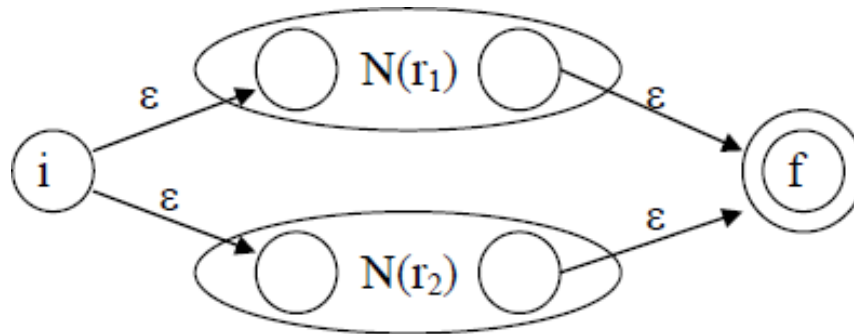
1. To recognize an empty string ϵ :



2. To recognize a symbol a in the alphabet Σ :



3. For regular expression $r1 | r2$: ($N(r1)$ and $N(r2)$ are NFAs for regular expressions $r1$ and $r2$)

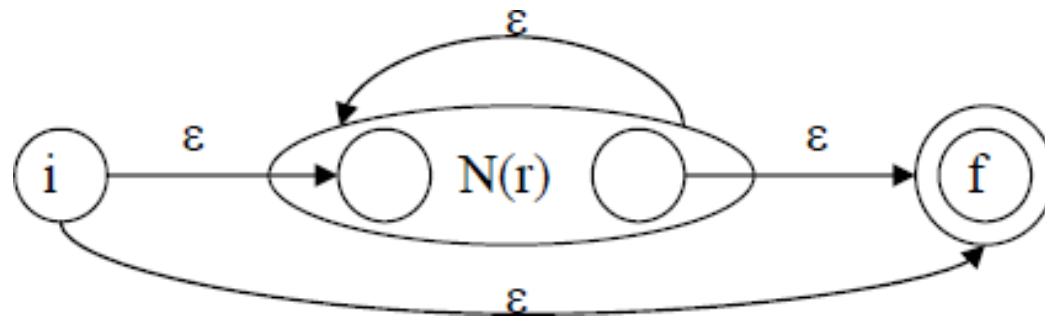


RE to NFA (Thomson Construction)

4. For regular expression **r_1r_2** :

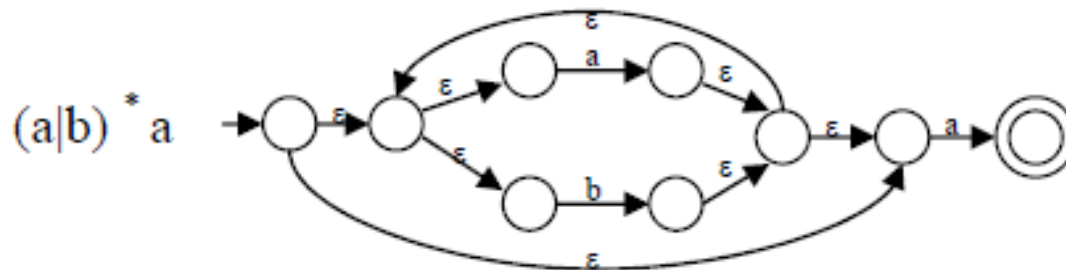
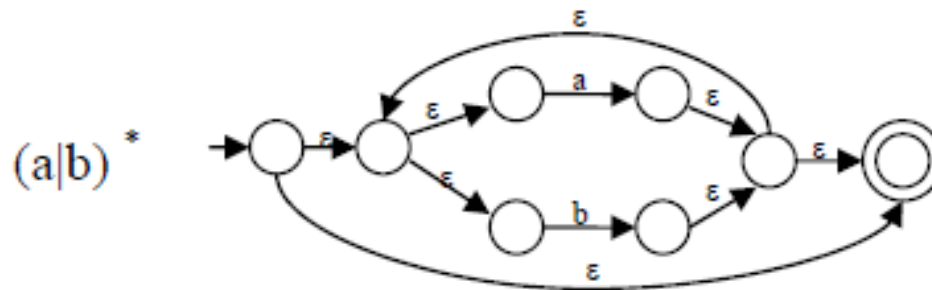
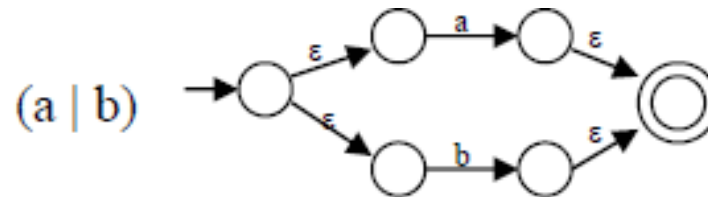
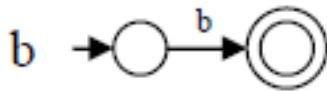
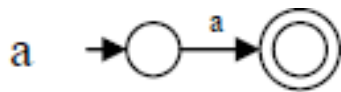


5. For regular expression **r^*** :



RE to NFA: Example

- For a RE $(a|b)^*a$, the NFA construction is shown below.

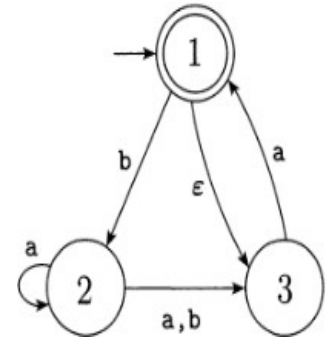


NFA to DFA

- The conversion from NFA to DFA:
 - Create a new state for each equivalent class in NFA.
 - The max number of states in DFA is 2^N , where N is the number of states in NFA.
- Steps to construct DFA that is an equivalent a given NFA:
 - a. First determine DFA's states.
 - b. Then, Determine the start and accept states of the DFA.
 - c. Finally, determine DFA's transition function.

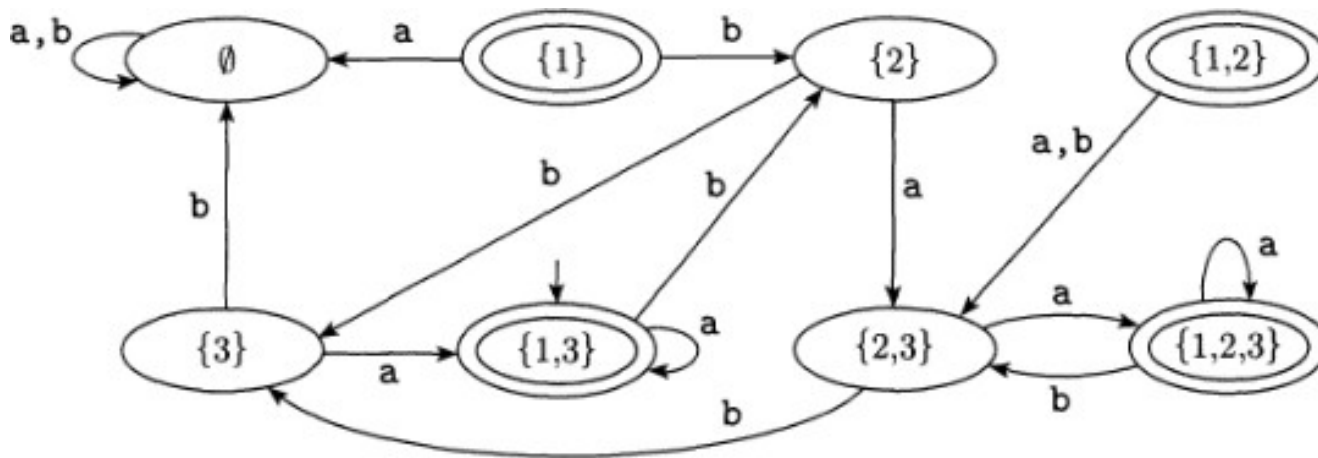
Example:

Construct an equivalent DFA from the given NFA.

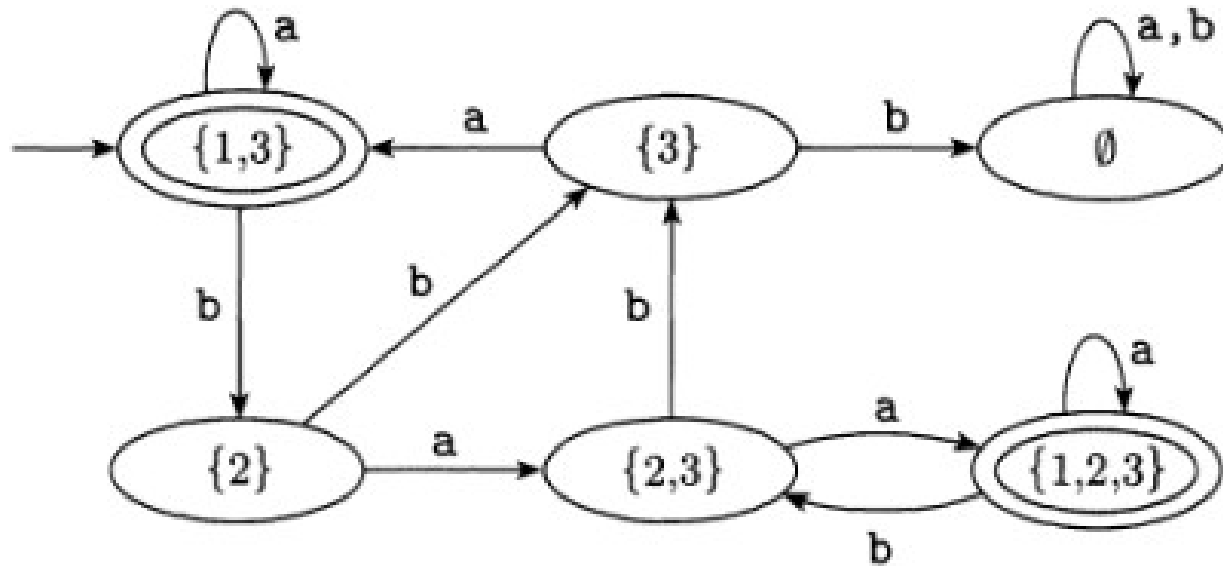


- **Step 1:** Determine DFA's number of states:
 - NFA $\{1, 2, 3\} \rightarrow$ DFA $\{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{2,3\}, \{1,2,3\}\}$.
- **Step 2:** Determine the start and accept states of DFA:
 - **Start states:** the set of states that are reachable from NFA's start state (1) by traveling ϵ arrow, plus the start state of NFA (1). Therefore **$\{1,3\}$ are start state.**
 - **Accept states:** The new accept states (of DFA) are those containing NFA's accept state; thus $\{\{1\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{1,2,3\}\}$
- **Step 3:** Determine DFA's transition function.

State	a	b
\emptyset	\emptyset	\emptyset
$\{1\}$	\emptyset	$\{2\}$
$\{2\}$	$\{2,3\}$	$\{3\}$
$\{3\}$	$\{1,3\}$	\emptyset
$\{1,2\}$	$\{2,3\}$	$\{2,3\}$
$\{1,3\}$	$\{1,3\}$	$\{2\}$
$\{2,3\}$	$\{1,2,3\}$	$\{3\}$
$\{1,2,3\}$	$\{1,2,3\}$	$\{2,3\}$



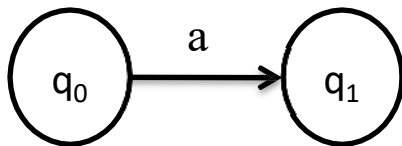
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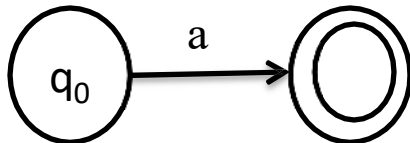
From DFA to Regular Grammar(RG)

- We can determine a RG directly from a DFA.

- **Rules:**

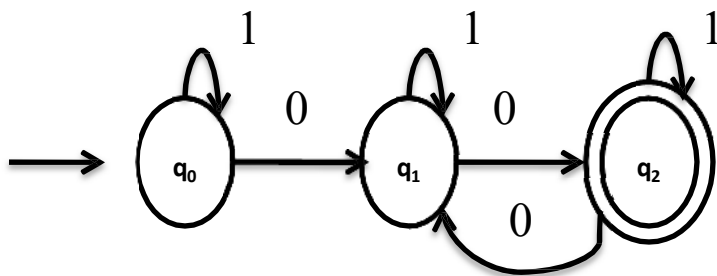


$$q_0 \rightarrow aq_1$$



$$q_0 \rightarrow a$$

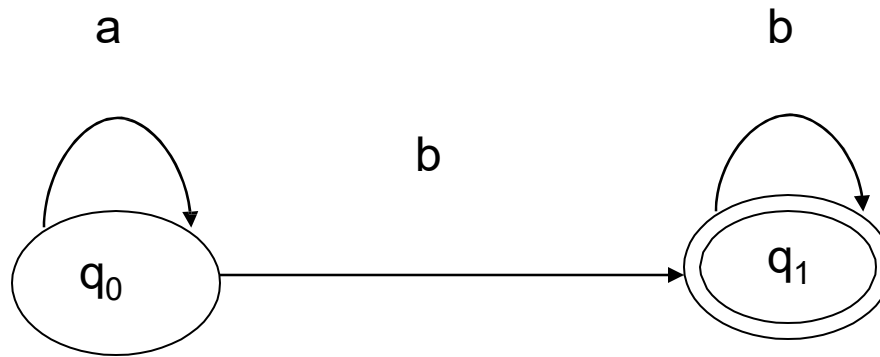
- **Example:**



$$\begin{aligned} q_0 &\rightarrow 1q_0|0q_1 \\ q_1 &\rightarrow 1q_1|0q_2 \\ q_2 &\rightarrow 1q_2|0q_1|\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

FA Vs RE Vs RL Vs RG

FSA:



Regular language: $\{b, ab, bb, aab, abb, \dots\}$

Regular expression: $a^* b^+$

Regular grammar:

$q_0 \rightarrow a q_0$

$q_0 \rightarrow b q_1$

$q_1 \rightarrow b q_1$

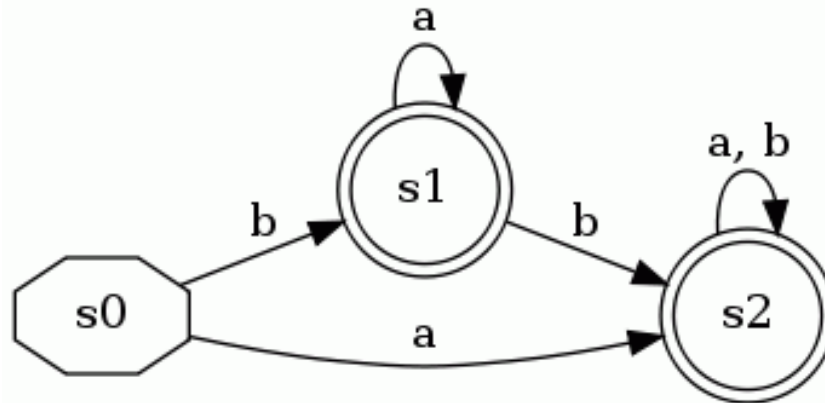
$q_1 \rightarrow \epsilon$

DFA Minimization

- Questions of DFA size:
 - Given a DFA, can we find one with fewer states that accepts the same language?
 - What is the smallest DFA for a given language?
 - Is the smallest DFA unique, or can there be more than one "smallest" DFA for the same language?
- All these questions have neat answers...
- The task of *DFA minimization*, then, is to automatically transform a given DFA into a state-minimized DFA
 - Several algorithms and variants are known
 - Note that this also in effect can minimize an NFA (since we know algorithm to convert NFA to DFA)

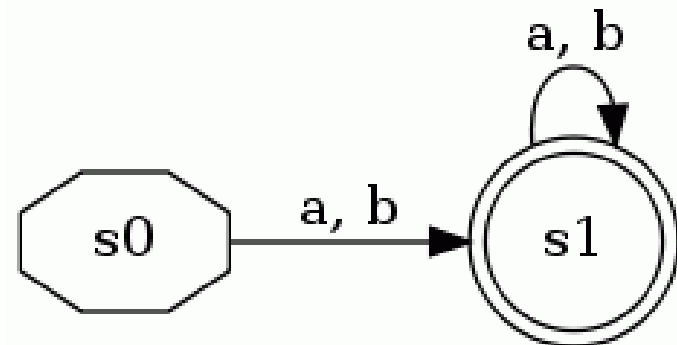
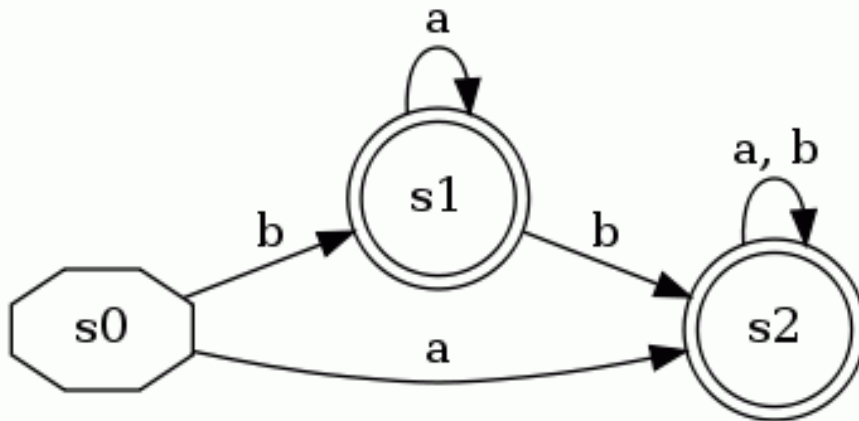
DFA Minimization

- Some states can be redundant:
 - The following DFA accepts $(a|b)^+$
 - State $s1$ is not necessary



DFA Minimization

- So these two DFAs are *equivalent*:



State Reduction by Partitioning

- We say two states **p** and **q** are **equivalent** (or indistinguishable), if, for every string $w \in \Sigma^*$, transition $\delta(\mathbf{p}, w)$ ends in an accepting state if and only if $\delta(\mathbf{q}, w)$ does. In the preceding slide states S_1 and S_2 are equivalent.
- There are efficient algorithms available for computing the sets of equivalent states of a given DFA.
- The following two slides show:
 - the detailed steps for computing equivalent state sets of the DFA
 - constructing the reduced DFA.

State Reduction by Partitioning

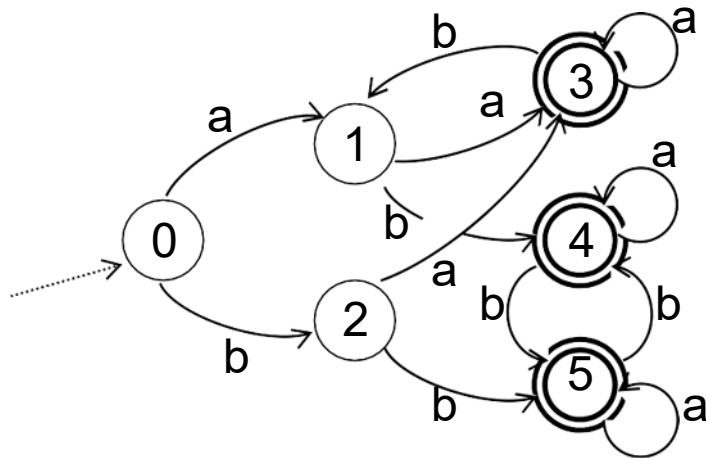


Figure (a) A DFA

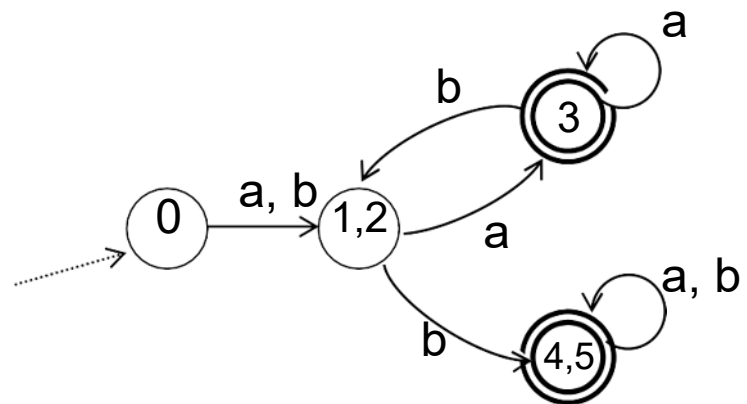


Figure (b) Reduced DFA

- **Step 0:** Partition the states according to accepting/non-accepting.

P_1

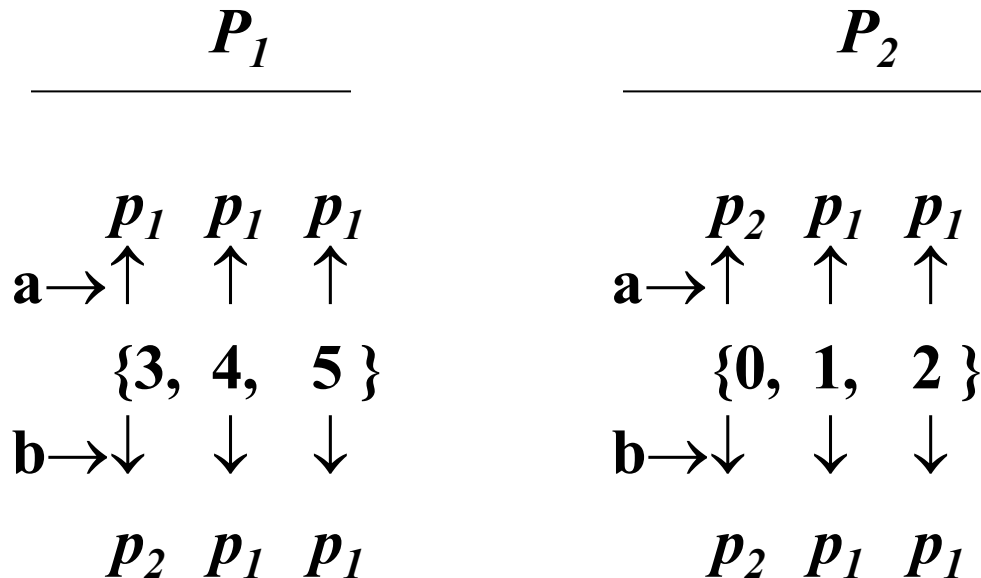
$\{ 3, 4, 5 \}$

P_2

$\{ 0, 1, 2 \}$

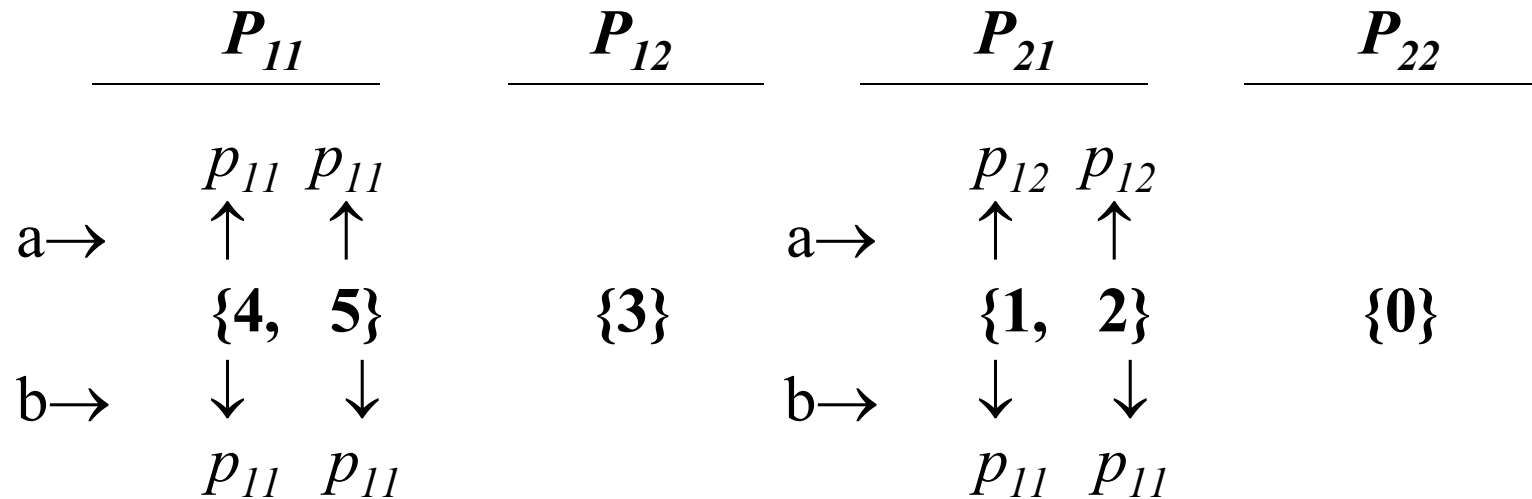
State Reduction by Partitioning(cont'ed)

- **Step 1:** Get the response of each state for each input symbol.
Notice that States 3 and 0 show different responses from the ones of the other states in the same set.



Record responses for each input symbol

- **Step 2:** Partition the sets according to the responses, and go to Step 1 until no partition occurs.



Partition the set, and record responses for each input symbol

- No further partition is possible for the sets P_{11} and P_{21} . So the final partition results are as follows.

{4, 5}	{3}	{1, 2}	{0}
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Exercise

- Minimize the given DFA.

