

Recap

In summary:

- The specification of a lexical analyser generator consists of two parts:
 1. Specification of tokens – done through regular expressions.
 2. Specification of actions - done through action routines.
- The lexical analyser generator:
 - Processes the regular expressions and forms a graph called DFA.
 - Copies the action routines without any change.
 - Adds a driver routine whose behaviour we described.

These three things put together constitutes the lexical analyser.

Issues

- What are regular expressions? How can they be used to describe tokens?
- How can regular expressions be converted to DFA?

Introduction to Regular Expressions

A regular expressions denote a set of strings, also called *a language*. For example, $\mathbf{a^*b}$ denotes the language $\{\mathbf{b, ab, aab, aaab, \dots}\}$. We denote the language of a regular expression r as $L(r)$.

A single character is a regular expression.

- Examples: $\mathbf{a, Z, \backslash n, \backslash t}$.
- Denotes a singleton set containing the character. \mathbf{a} denotes the set $\{\mathbf{a}\}$.

Introduction to Regular Expressions

ϵ is a regular expression.

- Denotes $\{\epsilon\}$, the set containing the empty string.

Introduction to Regular Expressions

If r and s are regular expressions then $r|s$ is a regular expression.

- Examples: $a|b| \dots |z|A|B| \dots |Z$ and $0|1| \dots |9$. Let us call these regular expressions **LETTER** and **DIGIT**.
- $L(r|s)$ is the union of strings in $L(r)$ and $L(s)$.

Introduction to Regular Expressions

If r and s are regular expressions then rs is a regular expression.

- Examples: `begin` – with an assumed associativity.
- $\{\text{LETTER}\}(\{\text{LETTER}\}|\{\text{DIGIT}\})^*$.
 - Notice that the braces required around `LETTER` is a lex requirement and denotes that it is a synonym for a regular expression and not the literal `LETTER`.
- $L(rs)$ is the concatenation of strings x and y such that $x \in L(r)$ and $y \in L(s)$.

Introduction to Regular Expressions

If r is a regular expressions then r^* is a regular expression.

- Examples: $(\{\text{LETTER}\} \mid \{\text{DIGIT}\})^*$
- $L(r^*)$ is the concatenation of zero or more strings from $L(r)$.
Concatenation of zero strings is defined to be the null string.

Introduction to Regular Expressions

If r is a regular expressions then (r) is a regular expression. Parentheses are used for grouping.

- Examples: $(\{\text{LETTER}\} | \{\text{DIGIT}\})^*$
- The language denoted by (r) is $L(r)$.

Introduction to Regular Expressions

Shorthand: If r is a regular expressions then r^+ is a regular expression.

- Examples: $\{\text{DIGIT}\}^+$
- $L(r^+)$ is the concatenation of one or more strings from $L(r)$.
- $r^+ = rr^*$.

Introduction to Regular Expressions

Shorthand: If r is a regular expressions then $r?$ is a regular expression.

- Examples: $\{\text{DIGIT}\}?$ denotes zero or one occurrence of a digit.
- $r?$ stands for zero or one occurrence of strings in r .
- $r? = \epsilon | r$

Regular expressions provided by Lex

| <u>Expression</u> | <u>Describes</u> | <u>Example</u> |
|--|--|----------------------|
| <code>c</code> | any character <code>c</code> | <code>a</code> |
| <code>\c</code> | character <code>c</code> literally | <code>*</code> |
| <code>"s"</code> | string <code>s</code> literally | <code>"**"</code> |
| <code>.</code> | any character except newline | <code>a.*b</code> |
| <code>^</code> | beginning of a line | <code>^abc</code> |
| <code>\$</code> | end of line | <code>abc\$</code> |
| <code>[s]</code> | any character in <code>s</code> | <code>[abc]</code> |
| <code>[^s]</code> | any character not in <code>s</code> | <code>[^abc]</code> |
| <code>r*</code> | zero or more <code>r</code> 's | <code>a*</code> |
| <code>r+</code> | one or more <code>r</code> 's | <code>a+</code> |
| <code>r?</code> | zero or one <code>r</code> | <code>a?</code> |
| <code>r₁r₂</code> | <code>r₁</code> then <code>r₂</code> | <code>ab</code> |
| <code>r₁ r₂</code> | <code>r₁</code> or <code>r₂</code> | <code>a b</code> |
| <code>(r)</code> | <code>r</code> | <code>(a b)</code> |
| <code>r₁/r₂</code> | <code>r₁</code> when followed by <code>r₂</code> | <code>abc/123</code> |

Example of token specification in Lex

```
[ \t\n]+          { /*no action, no return*/ }
if                { return(IF); }
then              { return(THEN); }
else              { return(ELSE); }
{letter}({letter}|{digit})* {yylval=install_id(); return(ID);}

-?{digit}+(\.{digit}+)?(E[+-]?{digit}+)?
                                {yylval=atof(yytext); return(NUM);}

"<"                {yylval=LT; return(RELOP);}
"<="              {yylval=LE; return(RELOP);}
"+"               {yylval=PLUS; return(ADDOP);}
"*"               {yylval=MULT; return(MULOP);}
```

LEXICAL ERRORS

Primarily of two kinds:

1. Lexemes whose length exceed the bound specified by the language.
 - In (old time) Fortran, an identifier more than 7 characters long is a lexical error.
 - Most languages have a bound on the precision of numeric constants. A constant whose length exceeds this bound is a lexical error.
2. Illegal characters in the program.
 - The characters ~, & and @ occurring in a Pascal program (but not within a string or a comment) are lexical errors.
3. Unterminated strings or comments.

Handling Lexical Errors

The action taken on detection of an error are:

1. Issue an appropriate error message.
2.
 - Error of the first type—the entire lexeme is read and then truncated to the specified length. Generates a warning.
 - Error of the second type—
 - Skip illegal character—this is what was discussed earlier.
 - A possibility which is rarely practiced—pass the character to the parser which has better knowledge of the context in which error has occurred. This opens up more possibilities of recovery - replacement instead of deletion.
 - Error of the third type—wait till end of file and issue error message.