

CMPT 379

Compilers

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Lexical Analysis

- Also called *scanning*, take input program *string* and convert into tokens

- Example:

```
double f = sqrt(-1);
```

T_DOUBLE	("double")
T_IDENT	("f")
T_OP	("=")
T_IDENT	("sqrt")
T_LPAREN	("(")
T_OP	("-")
T_INTCONSTANT	("1")
T_RPAREN	(")")
T_SEP	(";")

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Token Attributes

- Some tokens have attributes
 - T_IDENT “sqrt”
 - T_INTCONSTANT 1
- Other tokens do not
 - T_WHILE
- *Token=T_IDENT, Lexeme=“sqrt”, Pattern*
- Source code location for error reports

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Lexical errors

- What if user omits the space in “doublef”?
 - No lexical error, single token T_IDENT (“doublef”) is produced instead of sequence T_DOUBLE, T_IDENT(“f”)!
- Typically few lexical error types
 - E.g., illegal chars, opened string constants or comments that are not closed

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Lexical errors

- Lexical analysis should not disambiguate tokens,
 - e.g. unary op + versus binary op +
 - Use the same token T_PLUS for both
 - It's the job of the parser to disambiguate based on the context
- Language definition should not permit crazy long distance effects (e.g. Fortran)

DO 5 I = 1,5	T_DO T_INT(5) T_ID(I)
DO 5 I = 1.5	T_ID(DO5I) T_EQ

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Ad-hoc Scanners

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Implementing Lexers: Loop and switch scanners

- Ad hoc scanners
- Big nested switch/case statements
- Lots of `getc()/ungetc()` calls
 - Buffering; Sentinels for push-backs; streams
- Can be error-prone, use only if
 - Your language's lexical structure is very simple
 - The tools do not provide what you need for your token definitions
- Changing or adding a keyword is problematic
- Have a look at an actual implementation of an ad-hoc scanner

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Implementing Lexers: Loop and switch scanners

- Another problem: how to show that the implementation actually captures all tokens specified by the language definition?
- How can we show correctness
- Key idea: separate the definition of tokens from the implementation
- Problem: we need to reason about patterns and how they can be used to define tokens (recognize strings).

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Specification of Patterns using Regular Expressions

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Formal Languages: Recap

- Symbols: a, b, c
- Alphabet : finite set of symbols $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$
- String: sequence of symbols bab
- Empty string: ε Define: $\Sigma^\varepsilon = \Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\}$
- Set of all strings: Σ^* cf. *The Library of Babel*, Jorge Luis Borges
- (Formal) Language: a set of strings
 $\{ a^n b^n : n > 0 \}$

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Regular Languages

- The set of regular languages: each element is a regular language
- Each regular language is an example of a (formal) language, i.e. a set of strings
e.g. $\{a^m b^n : m, n \text{ are +ve integers}\}$

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Regular Languages

- Defining the set of all regular languages:
 - The empty set and $\{a\}$ for all a in Σ^ϵ are regular languages
 - If L_1 and L_2 and L are regular languages, then:
 - $L_1 \cdot L_2 = \{xy \mid x \in L_1 \text{ and } y \in L_2\}$ (concatenation)
 - $L_1 \cup L_2$ (union)
 - $L^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} L^i$ (Kleene closure)are also regular languages
 - There are no other regular languages

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Formal Grammars

- A formal grammar is a concise description of a formal language
- A formal grammar uses a specialized syntax
- For example, a **regular expression** is a concise description of a regular language
 - $(a|b)^*abb$: is the set of all strings over the alphabet $\{a, b\}$ which end in abb
- We will use regular expressions (regexps) in order to define tokens in our compiler,
 - e.g. lexemes for string tokens are $\backslash"(\Sigma\backslash")^*\backslash"$

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Regular Expressions: Definition

- Every symbol of $\Sigma \cup \{ \epsilon \}$ is a regular expression
 - E.g. if $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ then 'a', 'b' are regexps
- If r_1 and r_2 are regular expressions, then the core operators to combine two regexps are
 - Concatenation: r_1r_2 , e.g. 'ab' or 'aba'
 - Alternation: $r_1|r_2$, e.g. 'a|b'
 - Repetition: r_1^* , e.g. 'a*' or 'b*'
- No other core operators are defined
 - But other operators can be defined using the basic operators (as in lex regular expressions) e.g. $a^+ = aa^*$

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Expression	Matches	Example	Using core operators
c	non-operator character c	a	
$\backslash c$	character c literally	$\backslash *$	
$"s"$	string s literally	$"**"$	
$.$	any character but newline	$a.*b$	
$^$	beginning of line	abc	used for matching
$\$$	end of line	$abc\$$	used for matching
$[s]$	any one of characters in string s	$[abc]$	$(albc)$
$[^s]$	any one character not in string s	$[^a]$	(blc) where $\Sigma = \{a,b,c\}$
r^*	zero or more strings matching r	a^*	
r^+	one or more strings matching r	a^+	aa^*
$r^?$	zero or one r	$a^?$	$(a e)$
$r\{m,n\}$	between m and n occurrences of r	$a\{2,3\}$	$(aala^+aa)$
r_1r_2	an r_1 followed by an r_2	ab	
$r_1 r_2$	an r_1 or an r_2	$a b$	
(r)	same as r	$(a b)$	
r_1/r_2	r_1 when followed by an r_2	$abc/123$	used for matching

Regular Expressions: Definition

- Note that operators apply recursively and these applications can be ambiguous
 - E.g. is $aa|bc$ equal to $a(a|b)c$ or $((aa)|b)c$?
- Avoid such cases of ambiguity - provide explicit arguments for each regexp operator
 - For convenience, for examples on this page, let us use the symbol \cdot to denote the operator for concatenation
- Remove ambiguity with an explicit regexp tree
 - $a(a|b)c$ is written as $(\cdot(\cdot a(|ab)))c$ or in postfix: $aab| \cdot c \cdot$
 - $((aa)|b)c$ is written as $(\cdot(|(\cdot aa)b))c$ or in postfix: $aa \cdot b| \cdot c \cdot$

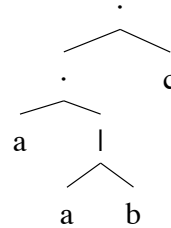
Regular Expressions: Definition

- Remove ambiguity with an explicit regexp tree

$a(a|b)c$ is written as

$(\cdot(\cdot a(|ab)))c$

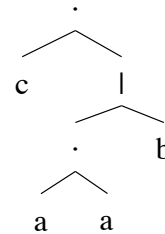
or in postfix: $aab| \cdot c \cdot$



$((aa)|b)c$ is written as

$(\cdot(|(\cdot aa)b))c$

or in postfix: $aa \cdot b|c \cdot$



- Does the order of concatenation matter?

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Equivalence of Regexps

- $(R|S)|T == R|(S|T) == R|S|T$
- $(RS)T == R(ST)$
- $(R|S) == (S|R)$
- $R^*R^* == (R^*)^* == R^*$
 $== RR^* | \epsilon$
- $R^{**} == R^*$
- $(R|S)T = RT|ST$
- $R(S|T) == RS | RT$
- $(R|S)^* == (R^*S^*)^* == (R^*S)^*R^* == (R^*|S^*)^*$
- $RR^* == R^*R$
- $(RS)^*R == R(SR)^*$
- $R = R|R = R\epsilon$

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Equivalence of Regexps

- $0(10)^*1|(01)^*$
- $(01)(01)^*|(01)^*$
- $(01)(01)^*|(01)(01)^*|\epsilon$
- $(01)(01)^*|\epsilon$
- $(01)^*$
- $(RS)^*R == R(SR)^*$
- $RS == (RS)$
- $R^* == RR^*|\epsilon$
- $R == R|R$
- $R^* == RR^*|\epsilon$

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Regular Expressions

- To describe all lexemes that form a token as a *pattern*
 - $(0|1|2|3|4|5|6|7|8|9)^+$
- Need decision procedure: to which token does a given sequence of characters belong (if any)?
 - Finite State Automata
 - Can be deterministic (DFA) or non-deterministic (NFA)

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Implementing Regular Expressions with Finite-state Automata

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Deterministic Finite State Automata: DFA

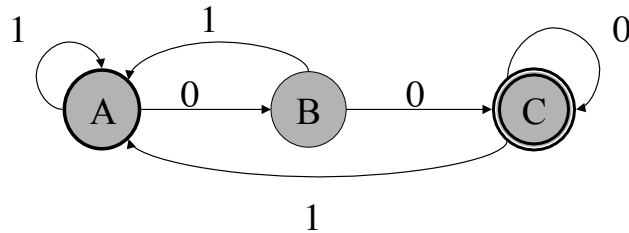
- A set of states S
 - One start state q_0 , zero or more final states F
- An alphabet Σ of input symbols
- A transition function:
 - $\delta: S \times \Sigma \Rightarrow S$
- Example: $\delta(1, a) = 2$

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DFA: Example

- What regular expression does this automaton accept?



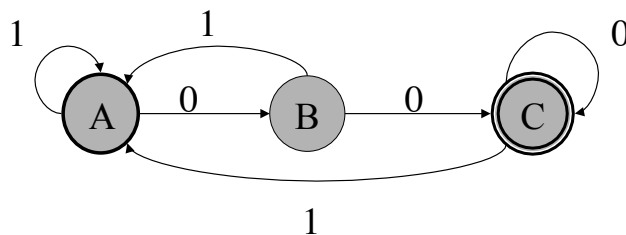
A: start state
C: final state

Answer: $(011)^*00$

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DFA simulation



Input string: 00100

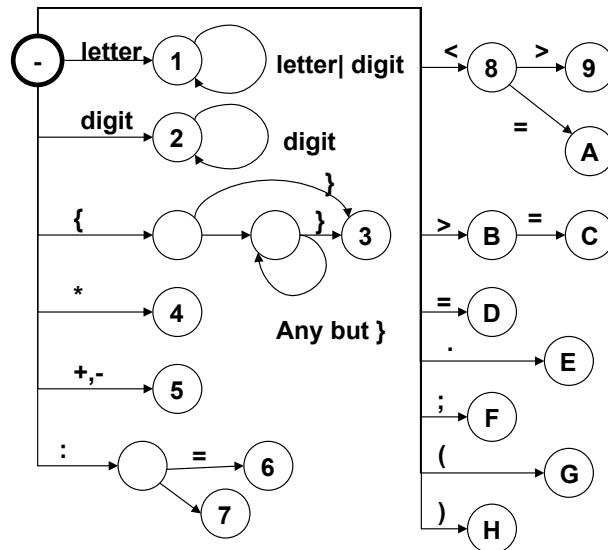
DFA simulation takes at most n steps for input of length n to return accept or reject

- Start state: A
 - $\delta(A,0) = B$
 - $\delta(B,0) = C$
 - $\delta(C,1) = A$
 - $\delta(A,0) = B$
 - $\delta(B,0) = C$
- no more input and C is final state: **accept**

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FA: Pascal Example



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Building a Lexical Analyzer

- Token \Rightarrow Pattern
- Pattern \Rightarrow Regular Expression
- Regular Expression \Rightarrow NFA
- NFA \Rightarrow DFA
- DFAs or NFAs for all the tokens \Rightarrow **Lexical Analyzer**
- Two basic rules to deal with multiple matching:
greedy match + regexp ordering

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Note that **greedy** means *longest leftmost match*

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Lexical Analysis using Lex

```
%{
#include <stdio.h>
#define NUMBER 256
#define IDENTIFIER 257
%}

/* regexp definitions */
num [0-9]+

%%

{num}      { return NUMBER; }
[a-zA-Z0-9]+ { return IDENTIFIER; }

%%

int
main () {
    int token;
    while ((token = yylex())) {
        switch (token) {
            case NUMBER: printf("NUMBER: %s, LENGTH:%d\n", yytext, yyleng); break;
            case IDENTIFIER: printf("IDENTIFIER: %s, LENGTH:%d\n", yytext, yyleng); break;
            default: printf("Error: %s not recognized\n", yytext);
        }
    }
}
```

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NFAs

- NFA: like a DFA, except
 - A transition can lead to more than one state, that is, $\delta: S \times \Sigma \Rightarrow 2^S$
 - One state is chosen non-deterministically
 - Transitions can be labeled with ϵ , meaning states can be reached without reading any input, that is,
$$\delta: S \times \Sigma \cup \{ \epsilon \} \Rightarrow 2^S$$

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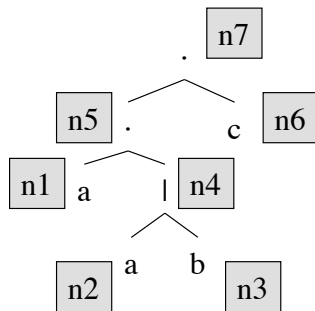
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Thompson's construction

Converts regexps to NFA

Build NFA recursively
from regexp tree

Build NFA with left-to-right parse
of postfix string using a stack



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Input = aab|c

- read a, push n1 = nfa(a)
- read a, push n2 = nfa(a)
- read b, push n3 = nfa(b)
- read |, n3=pop(); n2=pop(); push n4 = nfa(or, n2, n3)
- read ., n4 = pop(); n1 = pop(); push n5 = nfa(cat, n1, n4)
- read c, push n6 = nfa(c)
- read ., n6 = pop(); n5 = pop(); push n7 = nfa(cat, n5, n6)

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Thompson's construction

- Converts regexps to NFA
- Six simple rules
 - Empty language
 - Symbols
 - Empty String
 - Alternation (r_1 or r_2)
 - Concatenation (r_1 followed by r_2)
 - Repetition (r_1^*)

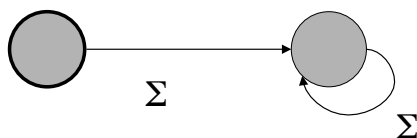
Used by Ken Thompson for pattern-based search in text editor QED (1968)
To keep things simple our version is more verbose

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Thompson Rule 0

- For the empty language ϕ (optionally include a *sinkhole* state)

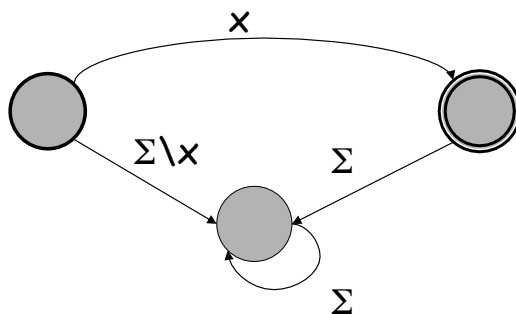


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Thompson Rule 1

- For each symbol x of the alphabet, there is a NFA that accepts it (include a *sinkhole* state)

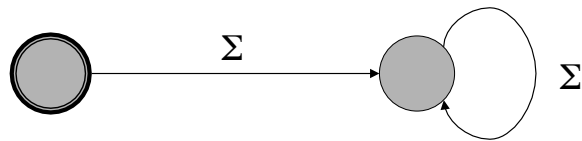


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Thompson Rule 2

- There is an NFA that accepts only ϵ

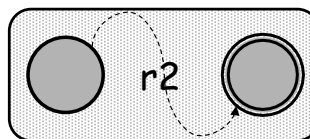
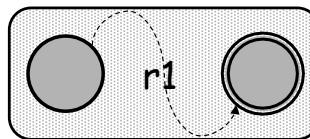


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Thompson Rule 3

- Given two NFAs for r_1 , r_2 , there is a NFA that accepts $r_1|r_2$

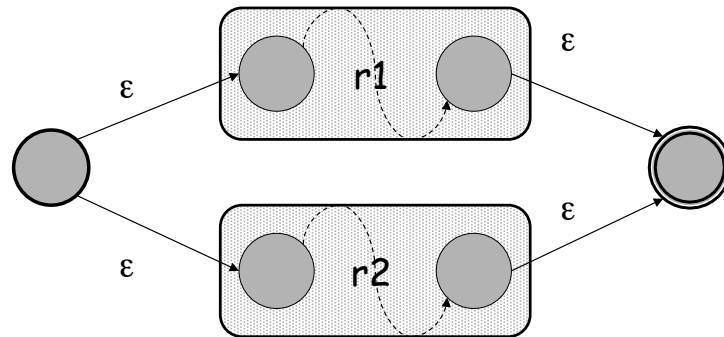


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Thompson Rule 3

- Given two NFAs for r_1 , r_2 , there is a NFA that accepts $r_1|r_2$

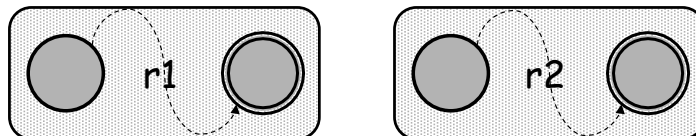


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Thompson Rule 4

- Given two NFAs for r_1 , r_2 , there is a NFA that accepts r_1r_2

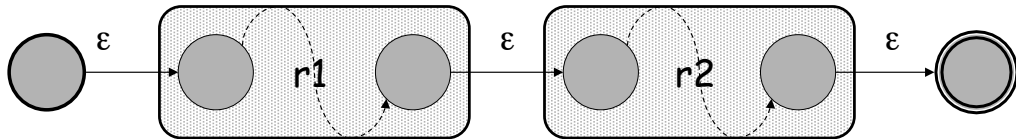


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Thompson Rule 4

- Given two NFAs for r_1 , r_2 , there is a NFA that accepts $r_1 r_2$

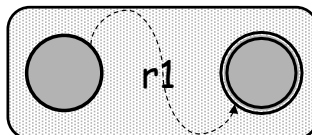


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Thompson Rule 5

- Given a NFA for r_1 , there is an NFA that accepts r_1^*

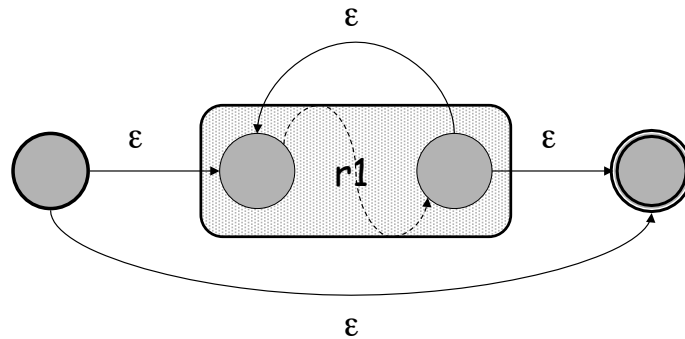


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Thompson Rule 5

- Given a NFA for r_1 , there is an NFA that accepts r_1^*



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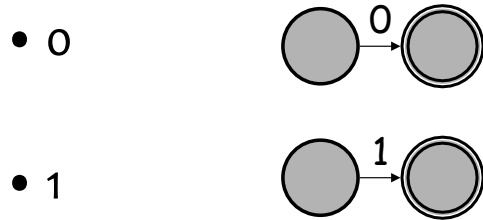
Example

- Set of all binary strings that are divisible by four (include 0 in this set)
- Defined by the regexp: $((0|1)^*00) | 0$
- Apply Thompson's Rules to create an NFA

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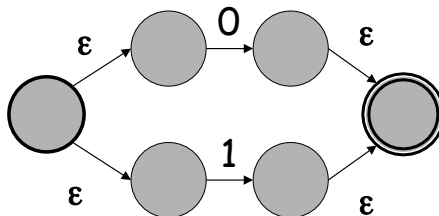
Basic Blocks 0 and 1



(this version does not report errors: no *sinkholes*)

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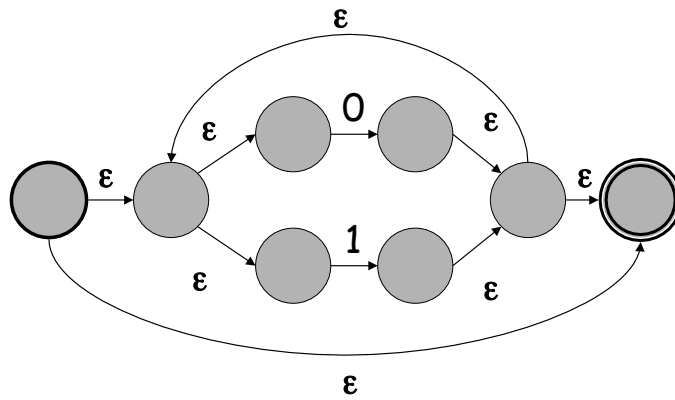
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0|1

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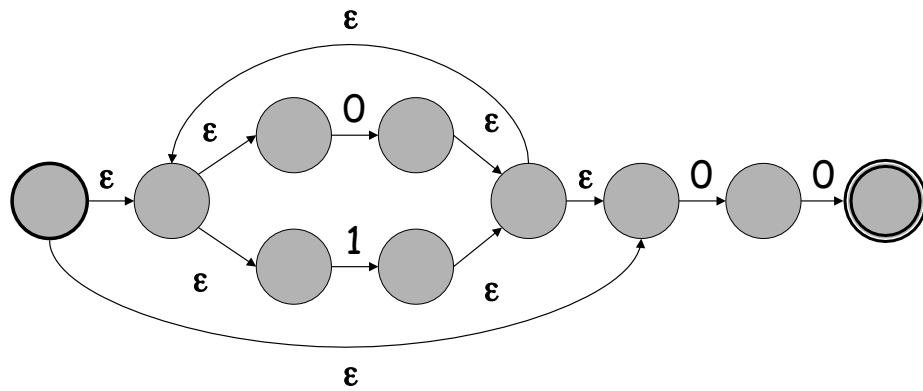
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$(0|1)^*$

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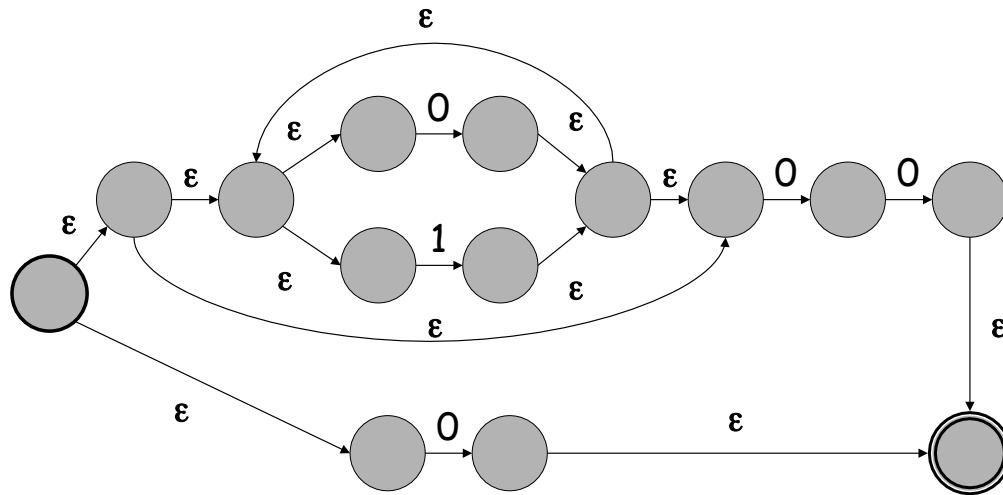
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$(0|1)^*00$

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$((0|1)^*00)l0$

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Simulating NFAs

- Similar to DFA simulation
- But have to deal with ϵ transitions and multiple transitions on the same input
- Instead of one state, we have to consider sets of states
- Simulating NFAs is a problem that is closely linked to converting a given NFA to a DFA

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NFA to DFA Conversion

- Subset construction
- Idea: subsets of set of all NFA states are *equivalent* and become one DFA state
- Algorithm simulates movement through NFA
- Key problem: how to treat ϵ -transitions?

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ϵ -Closure

- Start state: q_0
- ϵ -closure(S): S is a set of states
initialize: $S \leftarrow \{q_0\}$
 $T \leftarrow S$
repeat $T' \leftarrow T$
 $T \leftarrow T' \cup [\cup_{s \in T'} \text{move}(s, \epsilon)]$
until $T = T'$

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ϵ -Closure (T: set of states)

```
push all states in T onto stack
initialize  $\epsilon$ -closure(T) to T
while stack is not empty do begin
  pop t off stack
  for each state u with  $u \in \text{move}(t, \epsilon)$  do
    if  $u \notin \epsilon\text{-closure}(T)$  do begin
      add u to  $\epsilon\text{-closure}(T)$ 
      push u onto stack
    end
  end
end
```

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NFA Simulation

- After computing the ϵ -closure move, we get a set of states
- On some input extend all these states to get a new set of states

$$\text{DFAedge}(T, c) = \epsilon\text{-closure}(\cup_{q \in T} \text{move}(q, c))$$

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NFA Simulation

- Start state: q_0
- Input: c_1, \dots, c_k

$T \leftarrow \epsilon\text{-closure}(\{q_0\})$

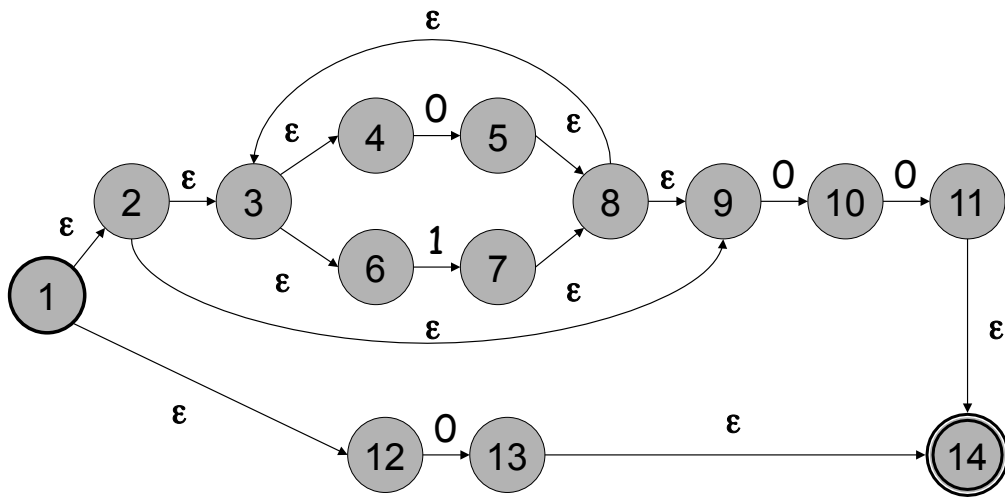
for $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** k

$T \leftarrow \text{DFAedge}(T, c_i)$

Conversion from NFA to DFA

- Conversion method closely follows the NFA simulation algorithm
- Instead of simulating, we can collect those NFA states that behave identically on the same input
- Group this set of states to form one state in the DFA

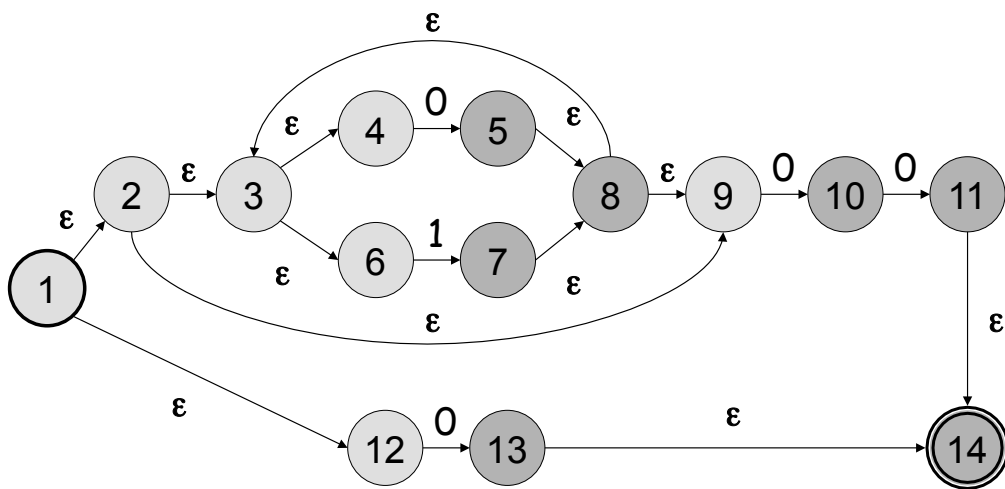
Example: subset construction



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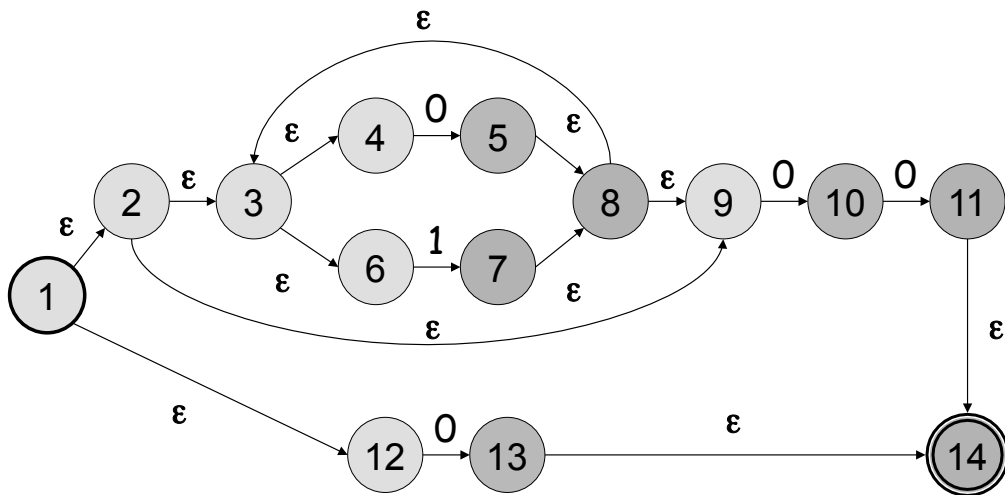
ϵ -closure(q_0)



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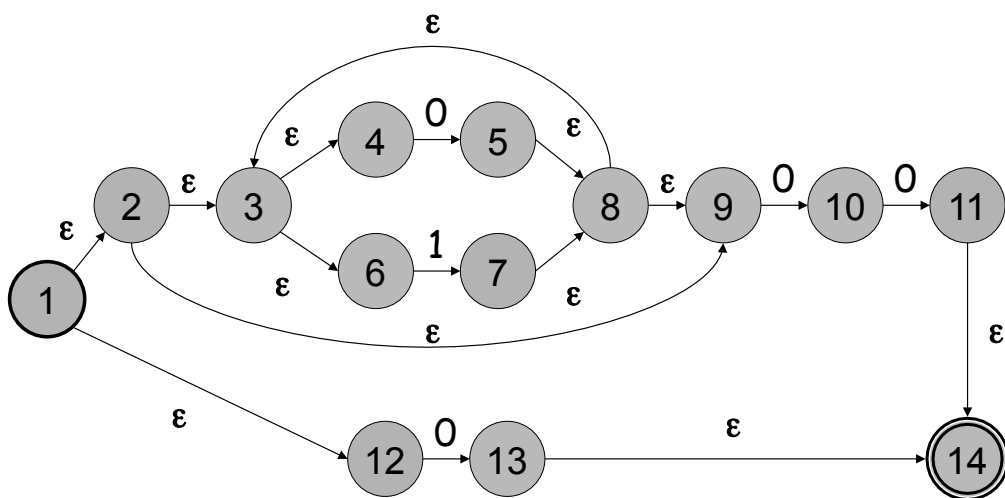
$\text{move}(\epsilon\text{-closure}(q_0), 0)$



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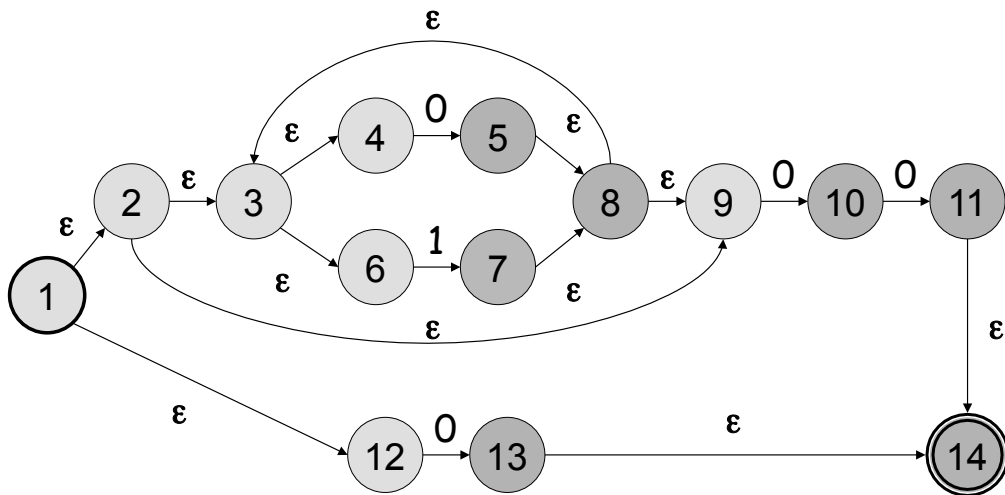
$\epsilon\text{-closure}(\text{move}(\epsilon\text{-closure}(q_0), 0))$



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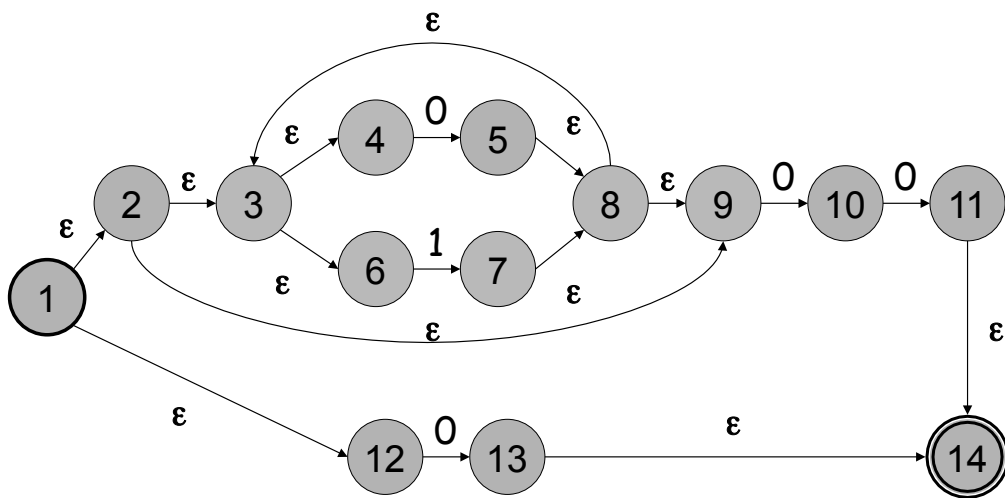
$\text{move}(\epsilon\text{-closure}(q_0), 1)$



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$\epsilon\text{-closure}(\text{move}(\epsilon\text{-closure}(q_0), 1))$



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Subset Construction

```
add  $\epsilon$ -closure( $q_0$ ) to  $Dstates$  unmarked
while  $\exists$  unmarked  $T \in Dstates$  do begin
  mark  $T$ ;
  for each symbol  $c$  do begin
     $U := \epsilon$ -closure(move( $T, c$ ));
    if  $U \notin Dstates$  then
      add  $U$  to  $Dstates$  unmarked
       $Dtrans[d, c] := U$ ;
    end
  end
end
```

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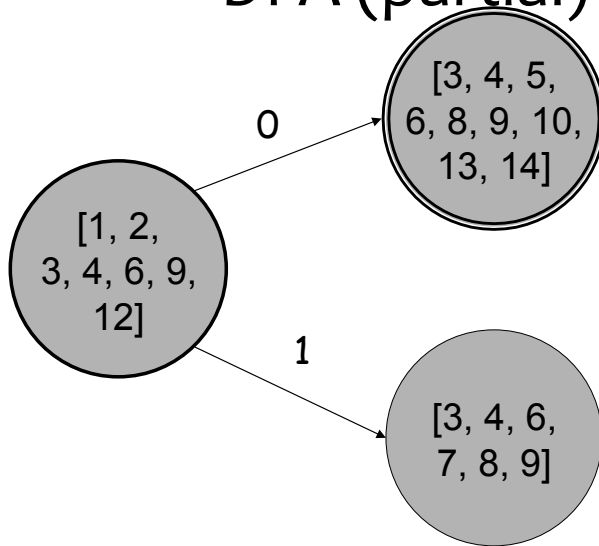
Subset Construction

```
states[0] =  $\epsilon$ -closure( $\{q_0\}$ )
 $p = j = 0$ 
while  $j \leq p$  do begin
  for each symbol  $c$  do begin
     $e = DFAedge(states[j], c)$ 
    if  $e = states[i]$  for some  $i \leq p$ 
    then  $Dtrans[j, c] = i$ 
    else  $p = p + 1$ 
       $states[p] = e$ 
       $Dtrans[j, c] = p$ 
    end
   $j = j + 1$ 
end
end
```

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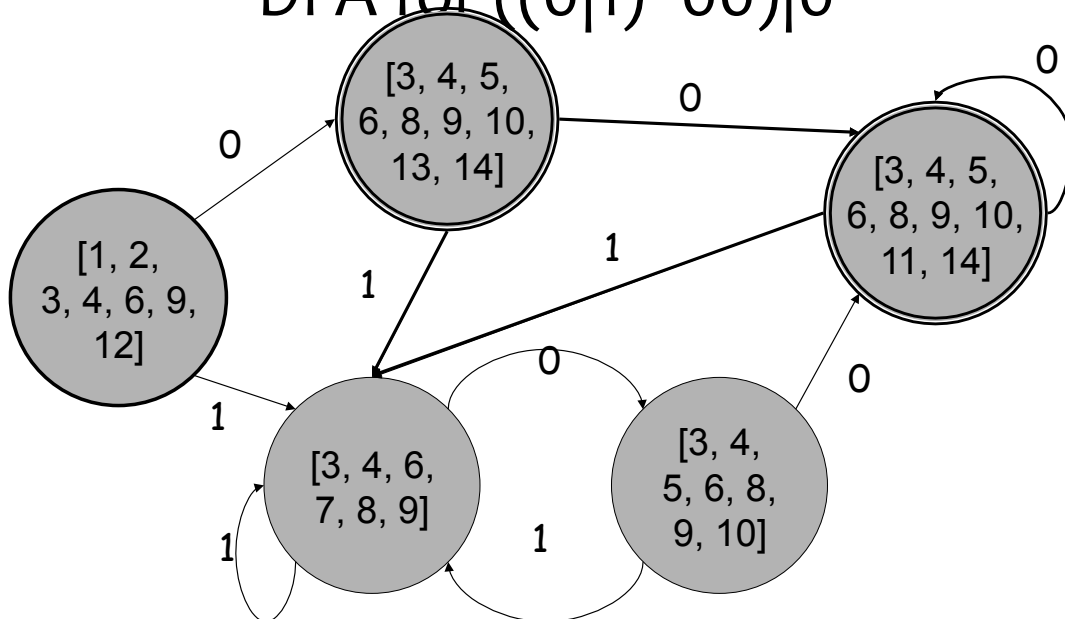
DFA (partial)



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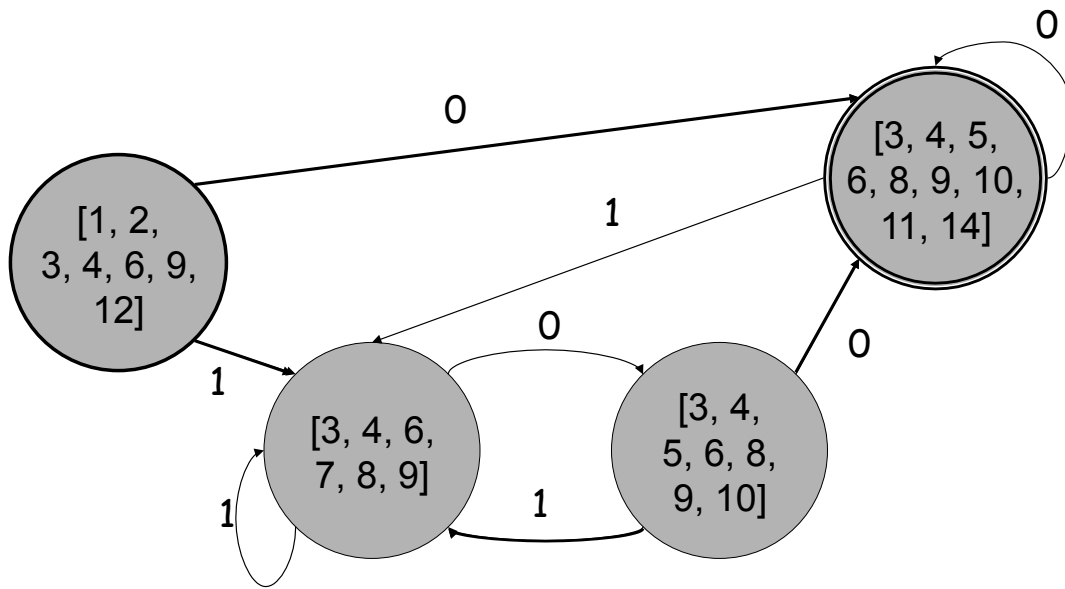
DFA for $((0|1)^*00)|0$



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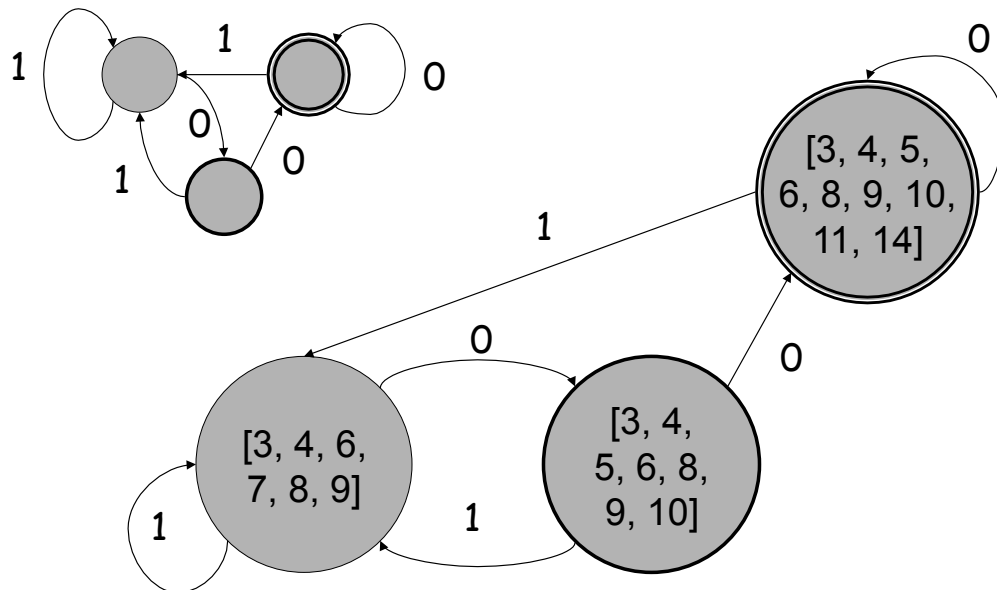
Minimization of DFAs



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Minimization of DFAs

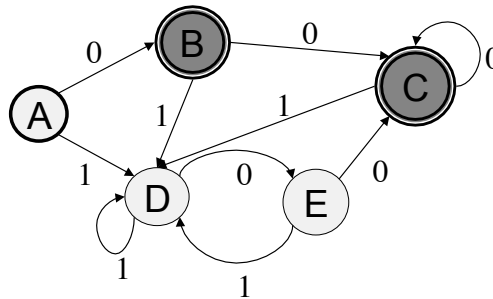


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Minimization of DFAs

- Algorithm for minimizing the number of states in a DFA
- Step 1: partition states into 2 groups: accepting and non-accepting



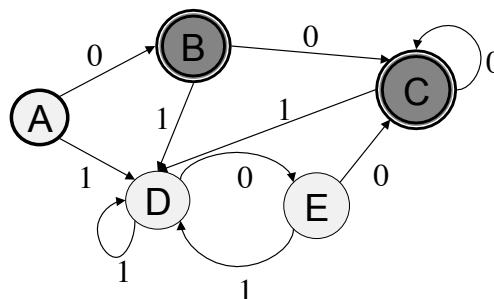
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Minimization of DFAs

- Step 2: in each group, find a sub-group of states having property P
- P: The states have transitions on each symbol (in the alphabet) to the *same* group

A, 0: blue
 A, 1: yellow
 E, 0: blue
 E, 1: yellow
 D, 0: yellow
 D, 1: yellow



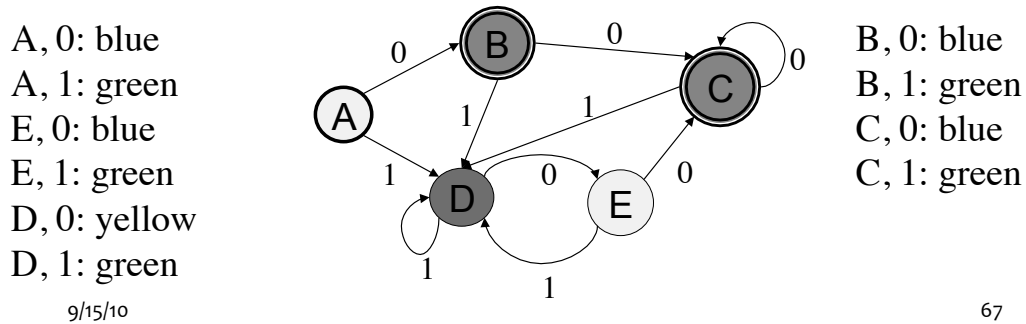
B, 0: blue
 B, 1: yellow
 C, 0: blue
 C, 1: yellow

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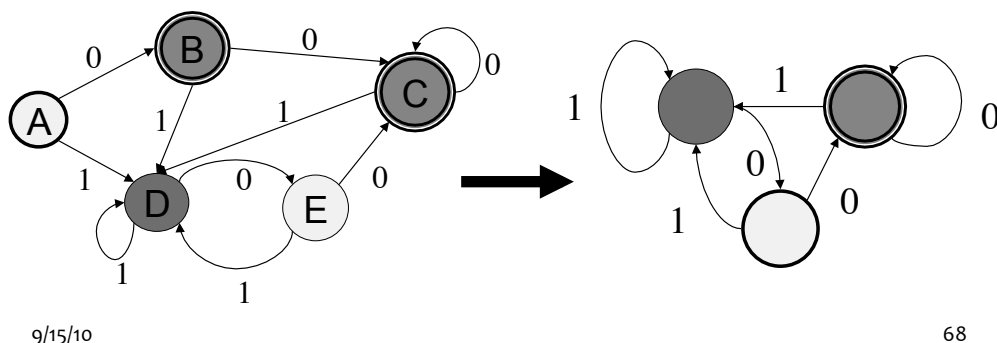
Minimization of DFAs

- Step 3: if a sub-group does not obey P split up the group into a separate group
- Go back to step 2. If no further sub-groups emerge then continue to step 4



Minimization of DFAs

- Step 4: each group becomes a state in the minimized DFA
- Transitions to individual states are mapped to a single state representing the group of states



NFA to DFA

- Subset construction converts NFA to DFA
- Complexity:
 - For FSAs, we measure complexity in terms of initial cost (creating the automaton) and per string cost
 - Let r be the length of the regexp and n be the length of the input string
 - NFA, Initial cost: $O(r)$; Per string: $O(rn)$
 - DFA, Initial cost: $O(r^2s)$; Per string: $O(n)$
 - DFA, common case, $s = r$, but worst case $s = 2^r$

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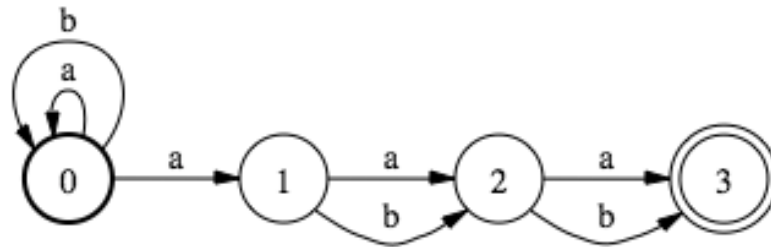
NFA to DFA

- A regexp of size r can become a 2^r state DFA, an exponential increase in complexity
 - Try the subset construction on NFA built for the regexp $\mathbf{A^*aA^{n-1}}$ where \mathbf{A} is the regexp $\mathbf{(a|b)}$
- Note that the NFA for regexp of size r will have r states
- Minimization can reduce the number of states
- But minimization requires determinization

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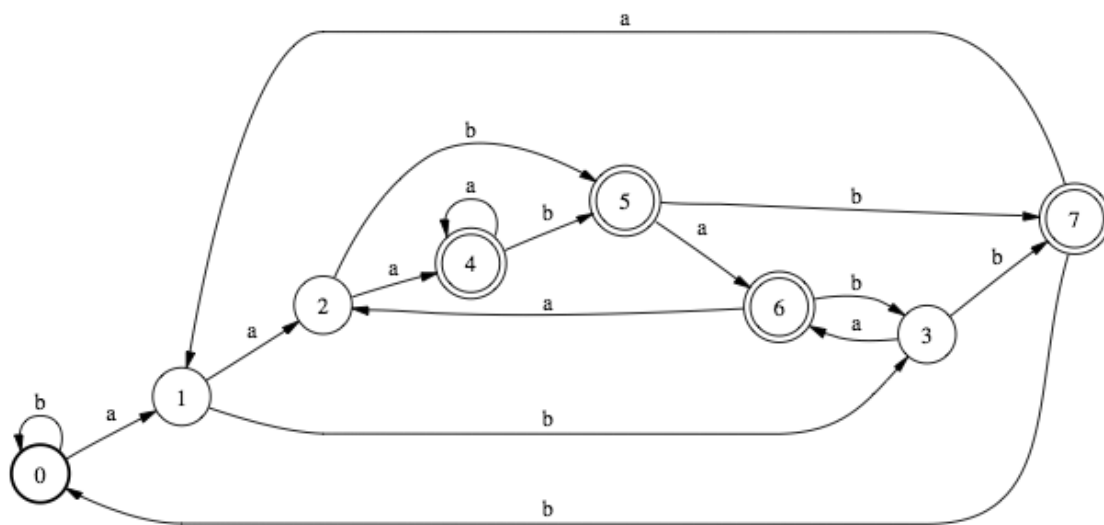
NFA to DFA



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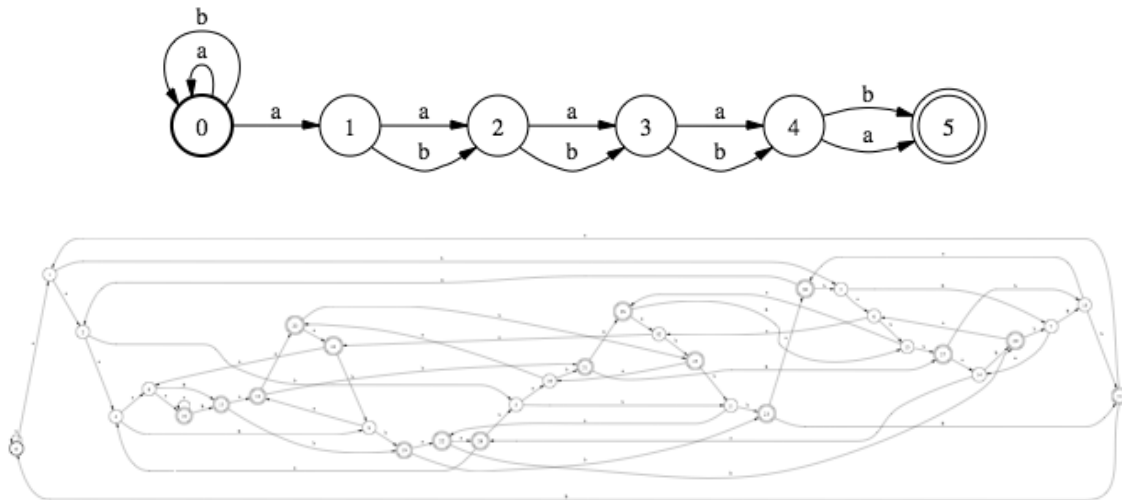
NFA to DFA



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NFA to DFA



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$2^5 = 32$ states

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NFA vs. DFA in the wild

Engine Type	Programs
DFA	<i>awk</i> (most versions), <i>egrep</i> (most versions), <i>flex</i> , <i>lex</i> , MySQL, Procmail
Traditional NFA	GNU <i>Emacs</i> , Java, <i>grep</i> (most versions), <i>less</i> , <i>more</i> , .NET languages, PCRE library, Perl, PHP (pcre routines), Python, Ruby, <i>sed</i> (most versions), <i>vi</i>
POSIX NFA	<i>mawk</i> , MKS utilities, GNU <i>Emacs</i> (when requested)
Hybrid NFA/DFA	GNU <i>awk</i> , GNU <i>grep/egrep</i> , Tcl

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Extensions to Regular Expressions

- Most modern regexp implementations provide extensions:
 - matching groups; \1 refers to the string matched by the first grouping (), \2 to the second match, etc.,
 - e.g. `([a-z]+)\1` which matches `abab` where `\1=ab`
 - match and replace operations,
 - e.g. `s/([a-z]+)/\1\1/g` which changes `ab` into `abab` where `\1=ab`
- These extensions are no longer “regular”. In fact, extended regexp matching is NP-hard
 - Extended regular expressions (including POSIX and Perl) are called REGEX to distinguish from regexp (which are regular)
- In order to capture these difficult cases, the algorithms used even for simple regexp matching run in time exponential in the length of the input

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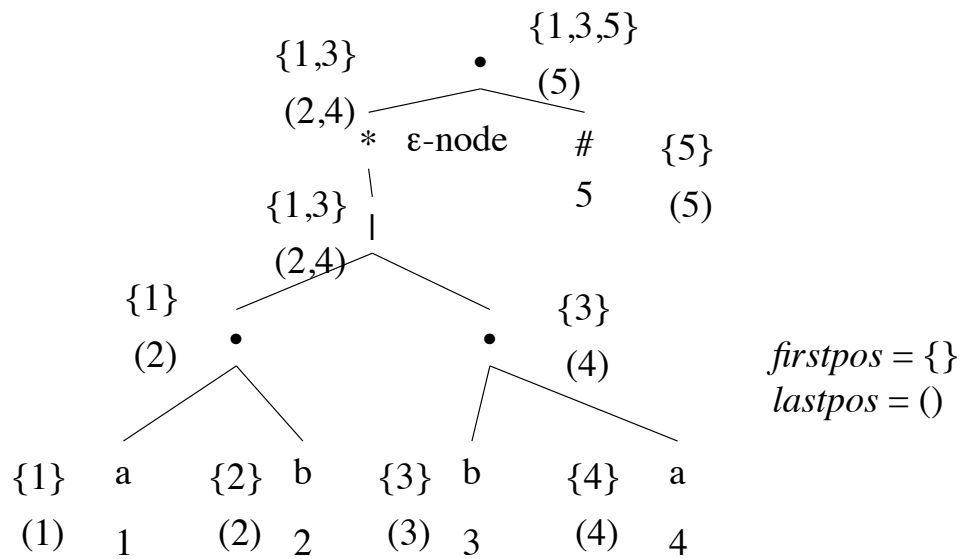
Converting Regular Expressions directly into DFAs

This algorithm was first used by Al Aho in `egrep`, and used in `awk`, `lex`, `flex`

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Regexp to DFA: $((ab) \mid (ba))^* \#$

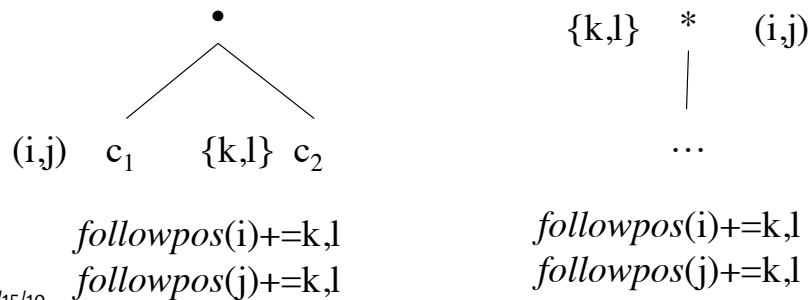


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Regexp to DFA: *followpos*

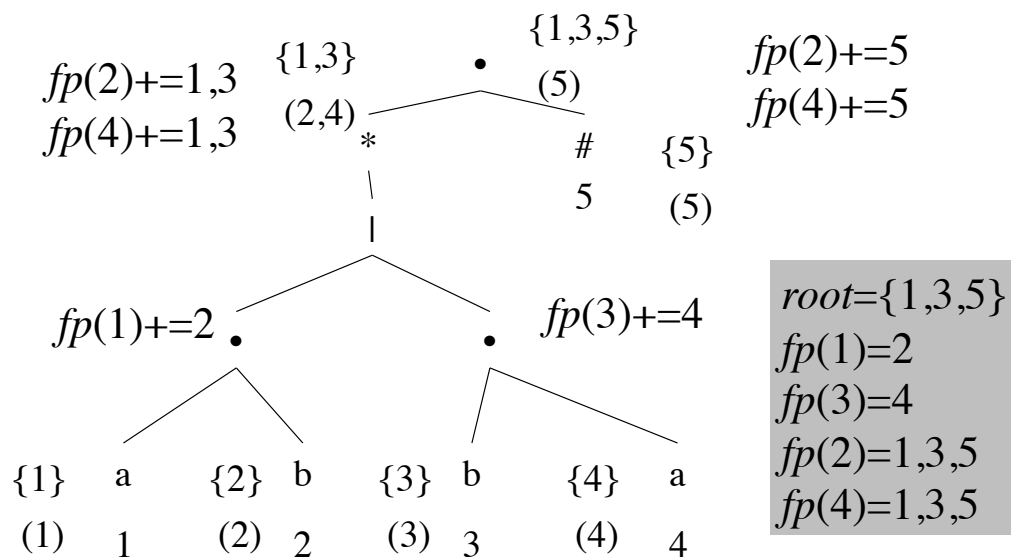
- $followpos(p)$ tells us which positions can follow a position p
- There are two rules that use the $firstpos \{ \}$ and $lastpos ()$ information



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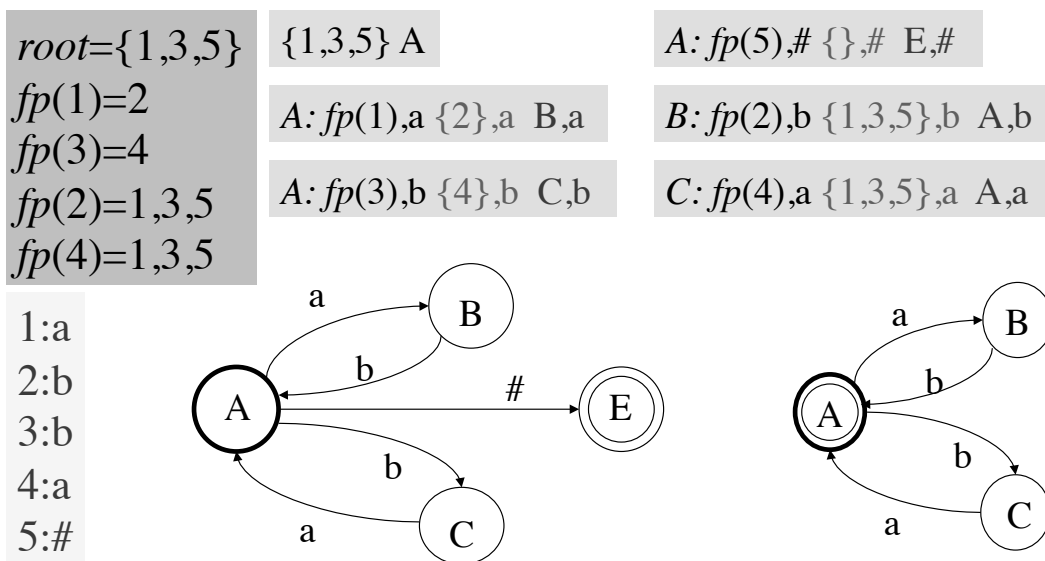
Regexp to DFA: $((ab) \mid (ba))^* \#$



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Regexp to DFA: $((ab) \mid (ba))^* \#$



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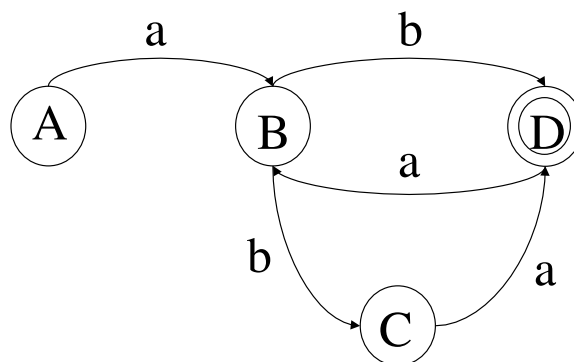
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Converting an NFA into a Regular Expression

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NFA to RegExp

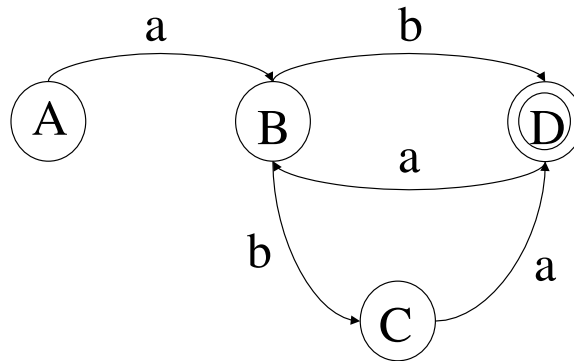


What is the regular expression for this NFA?

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NFA to RegExp



- $A = a B$
- $B = b D \mid b C$
- $D = a B \mid \epsilon$
- $C = a D$

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NFA to RegExp

- Three steps in the algorithm (apply in any order):
1. Substitution: for $B = X$ pick every $A = B \mid T$ and replace to get $A = X \mid T$
 2. Factoring: $(R S) \mid (R T) = R (S \mid T)$ and $(R T) \mid (S T) = (R \mid S) T$
 3. Arden's Rule: For any set of strings S and T , the equation $X = (S X) \mid T$ has $X = (S^*) T$ as a solution.

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NFA to RegExp

- $A = a B$
 $B = b D \mid b C$
 $D = a B \mid \epsilon$
 $C = a D$
- Substitute:
 $A = a B$
 $B = b D \mid b a D$
 $D = a B \mid \epsilon$
- Factor:
 $A = a B$
 $B = (b \mid b a) D$
 $D = a B \mid \epsilon$
- Substitute:
 $A = a (b \mid b a) D$
 $D = a (b \mid b a) D \mid \epsilon$

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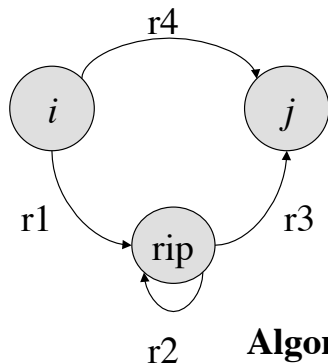
NFA to RegExp

- $A = a (b \mid b a) D$
 $D = a (b \mid b a) D \mid \epsilon$
- Factor:
 $A = (a b \mid a b a) D$
 $D = (a b \mid a b a) D \mid \epsilon$
- Arden:
 $A = (a b \mid a b a) D$
 $D = (a b \mid a b a)^* \epsilon$
- Remove epsilon:
 $A = (a b \mid a b a) D$
 $D = (a b \mid a b a)^*$
- Substitute:
 $A = (a b \mid a b a) (a b \mid a b a)^*$
- Simplify:
 $A = (a b \mid a b a)^+$

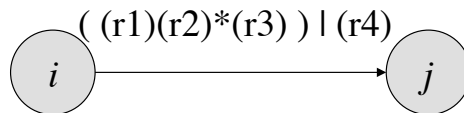
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NFA to Regexp using GNFA



Generalized NFA: transition function takes state and regexp and returns a set of states



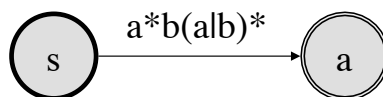
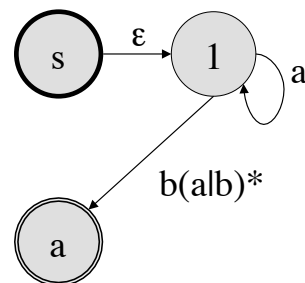
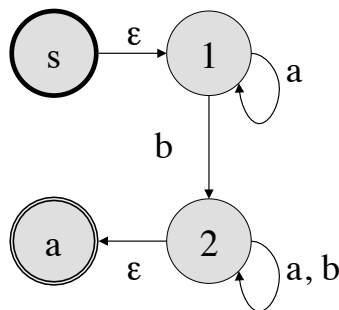
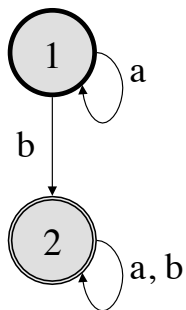
Algorithm:

1. Add new start & accept state
2. For each state s : rip state s creating GNFA, consider each state i and j adjacent to s
3. Return regexp from start to accept state

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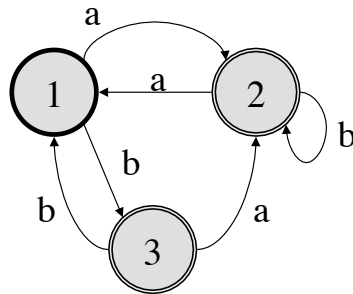
NFA to Regexp using GNFA



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NFA to Regexp using GNFA



Rip states 1, 2, 3 in that order, and we get: $(a(aalb)^*ablb)$
 $((bala)(aalb)^*ablbb)^*((bala)(aalb)^*|\epsilon)la(aalb)^*$

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Implementing a Lexical Analyzer

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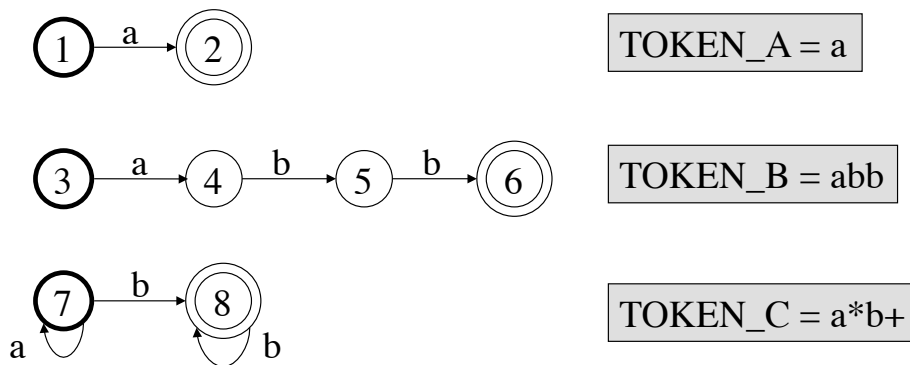
Lexical Analyzer using NFAs

- For each token convert its regexp into a DFA or NFA
- Create a new start state and create a transition on ϵ to the start state of the automaton for each token
- For input i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n run NFA simulation which returns some final states (each final state indicates a token)
- If no final state is reached then raise an error
- Pick the final state (token) that has the longest match in the input,
 - e.g. prefer DFA #8 over all others because it read the input until i_{30} and none of the other DFAs reached i_{30}
 - If two DFAs reach the same input character then pick the one that is listed first in the ordered list

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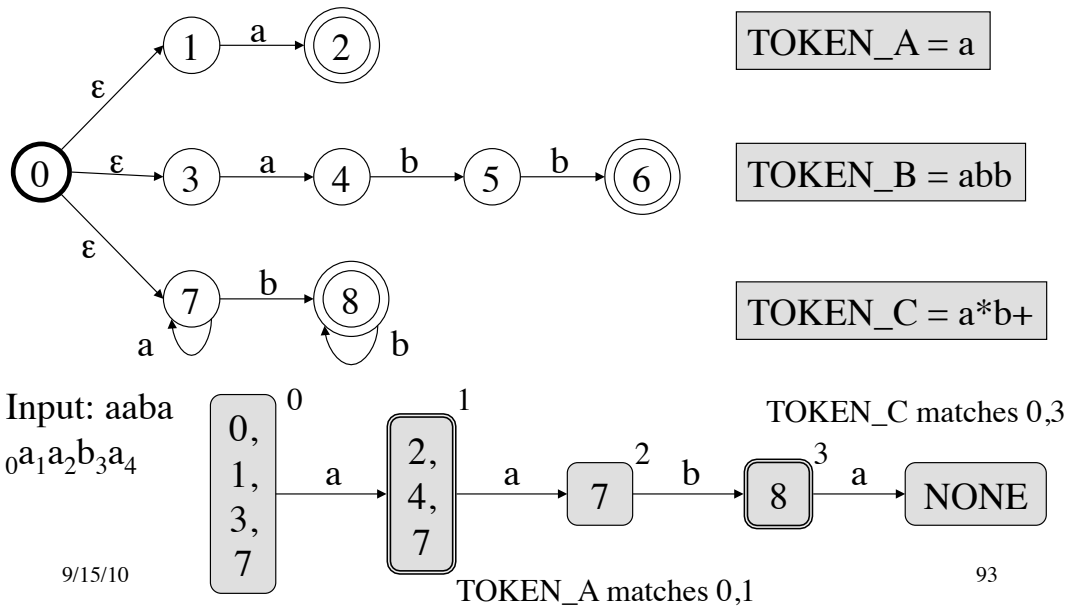
Lexical Analysis using NFAs



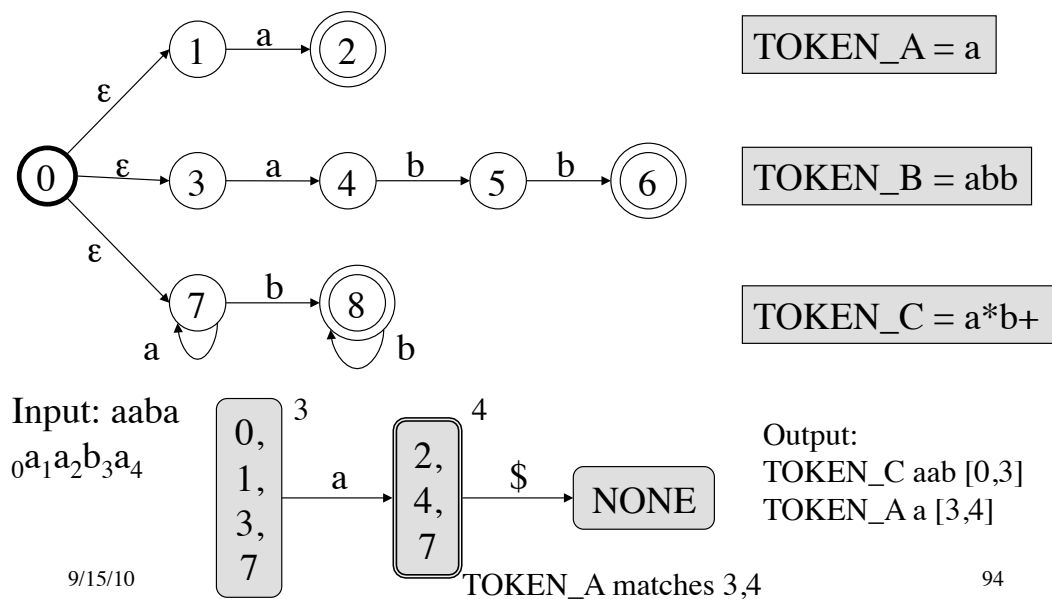
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Lexical Analysis using NFAs



Lexical Analysis using NFAs



Lexical Analyzer using DFAs

- Each token is defined using a regexp r_i
- Merge all regexps into one big regexp
 - $R = (r_1 \mid r_2 \mid \dots \mid r_n)$
- Convert R to an NFA, then DFA, then minimize
 - remember orig NFA final states with each DFA state

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Lexical Analyzer using DFAs

- The DFA recognizer has to find the *longest leftmost match* for a token
 - continue matching and report the last final state reached once DFA simulation cannot continue
 - e.g. longest match: `<print>` and not `<pr>`, `<int>`
 - e.g. leftmost match: for input string `aabaaaaab` the regexp `a*b` will match `aab` and not `aaaaab`
- If two patterns match the same token, pick the one that was listed earlier in R
 - e.g. prefer final state (in the original NFA) of r_2 over r_3

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Lookahead operator

- Implementing r_1/r_2 : match r_1 when followed by r_2
- e.g. a^+b/a^+c accepts a string bac but not abd
- The lexical analyzer matches $r_1 \epsilon r_2$ up to position q in the input
- But remembers the position p in the input where r_1 matched but not r_2
- Reset to start state and start from position p

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Efficient data-structures for DFAs

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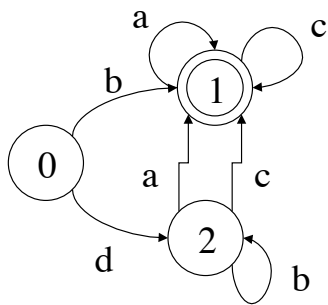
Implementing DFAs

- 2D array storing the transition table
- Adjacency list, more space efficient but slower
- Merge two ideas: array structures used for sparse tables like DFA transition tables
 - base & next arrays: Tarjan and Yao, 1979
 - Dragon book (default+base & next+check)

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Implementing DFAs



	a	b	c	d
0	-	1	-	2
1	1	-	1	-
2	1	2	1	-

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Implementing DFAs

	a	b	c	d
0	-	1	-	2
1	1	-	1	-
2	1	2	1	-

base

0	2
1	4
2	0

		-	1	-	2		
				1	-	1	-
1	2	1	-				
1	2	1	1	1	2	1	-
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	2	2	0	1	0	1	-

next

check

nextstate(*s*, *x*) :

$L := \text{base}[s] + x$

return next[L] **if** check[L] **eq** *s*

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Implementing DFAs

	a	b	c	d
0	-	1	-	2
1	1	-	1	-
2	1	2	1	-

base

0	1
1	3
2	0

default

	-	1	-	2		
			1	-	1	-
-	2	-	-			
-	2	1	1	2	1	-
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
-	2	0	1	0	1	-

next

check

nextstate(*s*, *x*) :

$L := \text{base}[s] + x$

return next[L] **if** check[L] **eq** *s*
else return *nextstate*(default[*s*], *x*)

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Summary

- Token \Rightarrow Pattern
- Pattern \Rightarrow Regular Expression
- Regular Expression \Rightarrow NFA
 - Thompson's Rules
- NFA \Rightarrow DFA
 - Subset construction
- DFA \Rightarrow minimal DFA
 - Minimization

\Rightarrow Lexical Analyzer (multiple patterns)