

Chapter 3: Lexical Analysis

Principles of Programming Languages

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- Chomsky Hierarchy
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- Using Finite Automata to describe tokens
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Introduction

- **Syntax:** the form or structure of the expressions, statements, and program units
- **Semantics:** the meaning of the expressions, statements, and program units
- Syntax and semantics provide a language's definition
 - Users of a language definition
 - Other language designers
 - Implementers
 - Programmers (the users of the language)

Terminology

- *A sentence* is a string of characters over some alphabet
- *A language* is a set of sentences

Terminology

- Sentences: $a = b + c$; or $c = (a + b) * c$;
- Syntax:
 - $\langle \text{assign} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{id} \rangle = \langle \text{expr} \rangle ;$
 - $\langle \text{id} \rangle \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$
 - $\langle \text{expr} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{id} \rangle + \langle \text{expr} \rangle$
 - $\mid \langle \text{id} \rangle * \langle \text{expr} \rangle$
 - $\mid (\langle \text{expr} \rangle)$
 - $\mid \langle \text{id} \rangle$
- Semantics of $a = b + c$;

Formal Definition of Languages

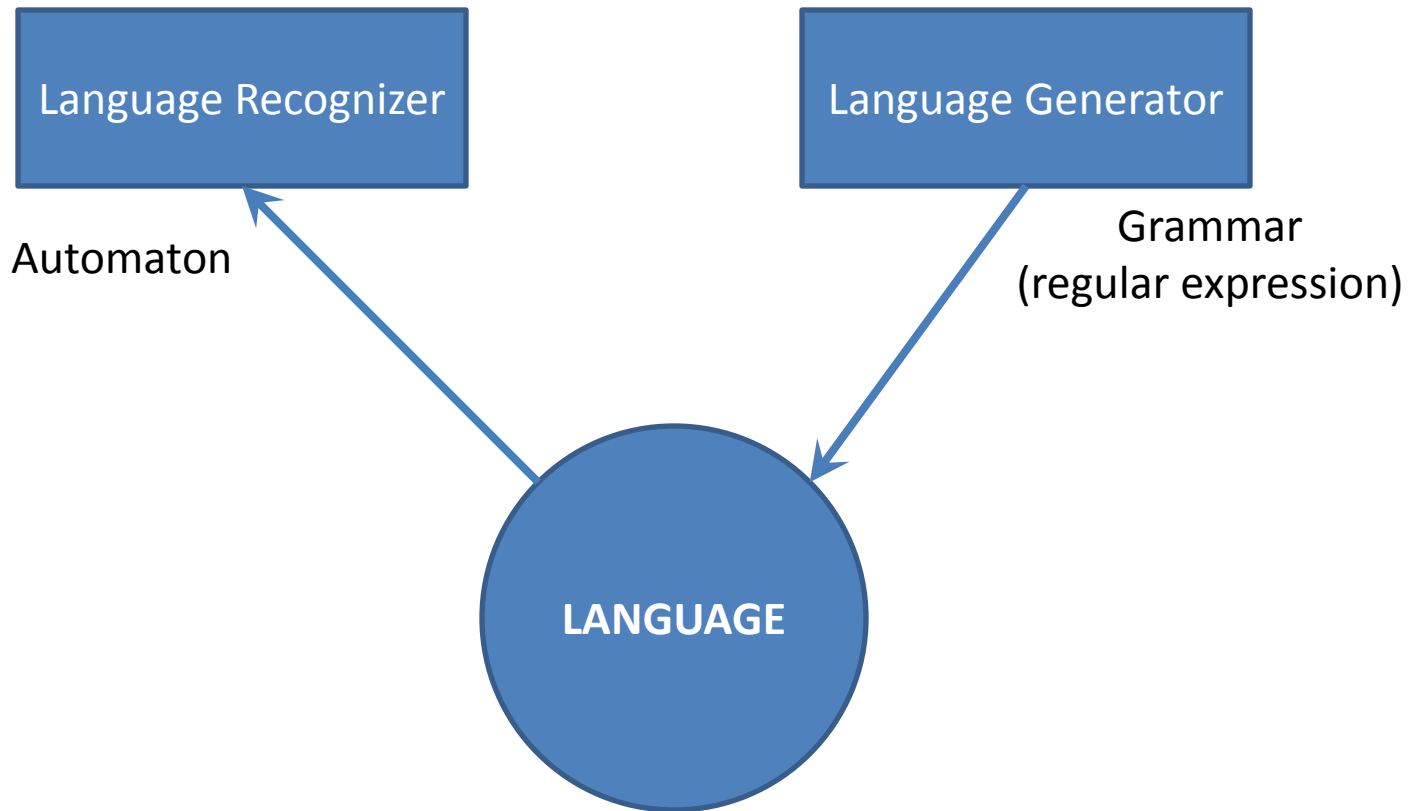
- **Recognizers**

- A recognition device reads input strings of the language and decides whether the input strings belong to the language
- Example: syntax analysis part of a compiler

- **Generators**

- A device that generates sentences of a language
- One can determine if the syntax of a particular sentence is correct by comparing it to the structure of the generator

Recognizers vs. Generators



Chomsky Hierarchy

Grammars	Languages	Automaton	Restrictions ($w_1 \rightarrow w_2$)
Type-0	Phrase-structure	Turing machine	w_1 = any string with at least 1 non-terminal w_2 = any string
Type-1	Context-sensitive	Bounded Turing machine	w_1 = any string with at least 1 non-terminal w_2 = any string at least as long as w_1
Type-2	Context-free	Non-deterministic pushdown automaton	w_1 = one non-terminal w_2 = any string
Type-3	Regular	Finite state automaton	w_1 = one non-terminal $w_2 = tA$ or t (t = terminal A = non-terminal)

Syntax Analysis

- The syntax analysis portion of a language processor nearly always consists of two parts:
 - A low-level part called a *lexical analyzer* (mathematically, a finite automaton based on a regular grammar)
 - A high-level part called a *syntax analyzer*, or parser (mathematically, a push-down automaton based on a context-free grammar, or BNF)

Reasons to Separate Lexical and Syntax Analysis

- *Simplicity* - less complex approaches can be used for lexical analysis; separating them simplifies the parser
- *Efficiency* - separation allows optimization of the lexical analyzer
- *Portability* - parts of the lexical analyzer may not be portable, but the parser always is portable

Lexical Analysis

- A lexical analyzer is a pattern matcher for character strings
- A lexical analyzer is a “front-end” for the parser
- Identifies substrings of the source program that belong together – *lexemes*
 - Lexemes match a character pattern, which is associated with a lexical category called a *token*

Lexeme vs. Token

```
result = oldsum - value / 100;
```

Lexemes

result

=

oldsum

-

value

/

100

;

Tokens

IDENT

ASSIGN_OP

IDENT

SUBTRACT_OP

IDENT

DIVISION_OP

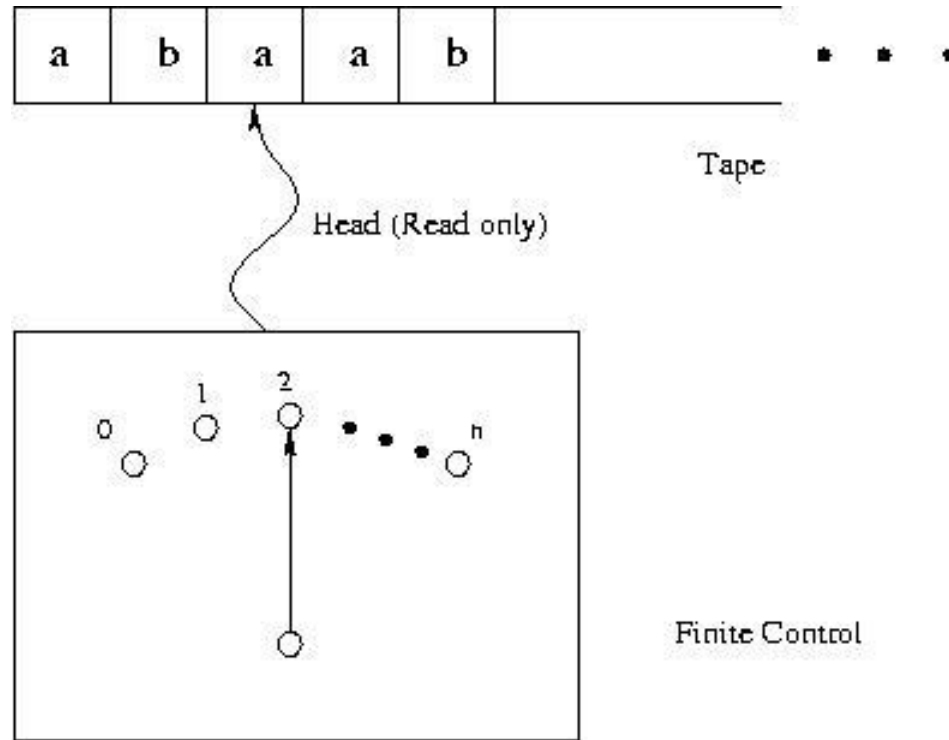
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SEMICOLON

Lexical Analysis

- The lexical analyzer is usually a function that is called by the parser when it needs the next token
- Three approaches to building a lexical analyzer:
 - Design a state diagram that describes the tokens and write a program that implements the state diagram
 - Design a state diagram that describes the tokens and hand-construct a table-driven implementation of the state diagram
 - Write a formal description of the tokens and use a software tool that constructs table-driven lexical analyzers given such a description

Deterministic Finite Automata



Finite Automaton

DFA

- DFA is a 5-tuple $M = (K, \Sigma, \delta, s, F)$
- K = a finite set of states
- Σ = alphabet
- $s \in K$ is the initial state
- $F \subseteq K$ is the set of final states
- δ transition function, a function from $K \times \Sigma$ to K

DFA

- E.g., $M = (K, \Sigma, \delta, s, F)$

$$K = \{q_0, q_1\} \quad \Sigma = \{a, b\} \quad s = q_0 \quad F = \{q_0\}$$

δ	q	σ	$\delta(q, \sigma)$
	q_0	a	q_0
	q_0	b	q_1
	q_1	a	q_1
	q_1	b	q_0

What is the language accepted by M , a.k.a. $L(M)$?

- Test with the input $aabba$

DFA

- Test with the input *aabba*

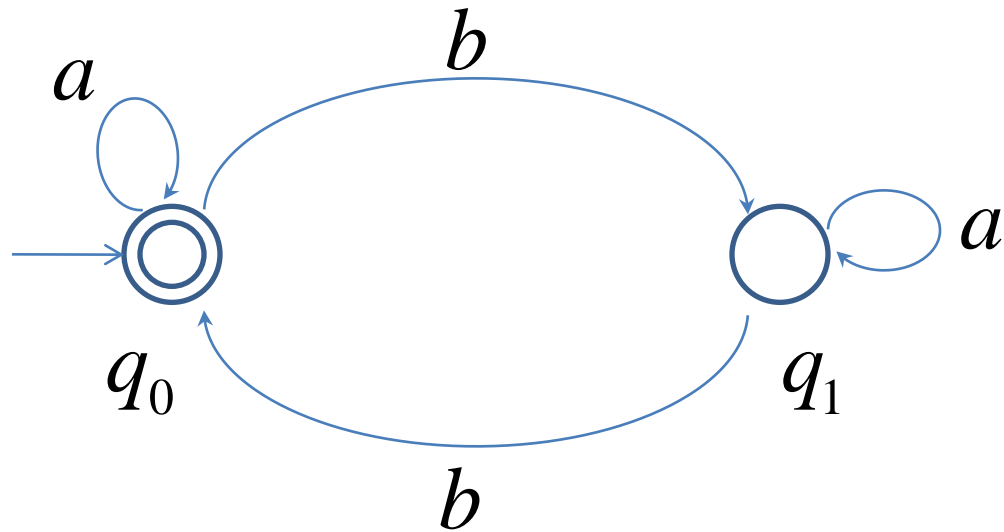
$$(q_0, aabba) \rightarrow (q_0, abba) \rightarrow (q_0, bba) \rightarrow (q_1, ba) \rightarrow (q_0, a) \rightarrow (q_0, e)$$

- Or we can say

$$(q_0, aabba) \xrightarrow{*} (q_0, e)$$

- So, *aabba* is accepted by *M*

State Diagram



q	σ	$\delta(q, \sigma)$
q_0	a	q_0
q_0	b	q_1
q_1	a	q_1
q_1	b	q_0

Example

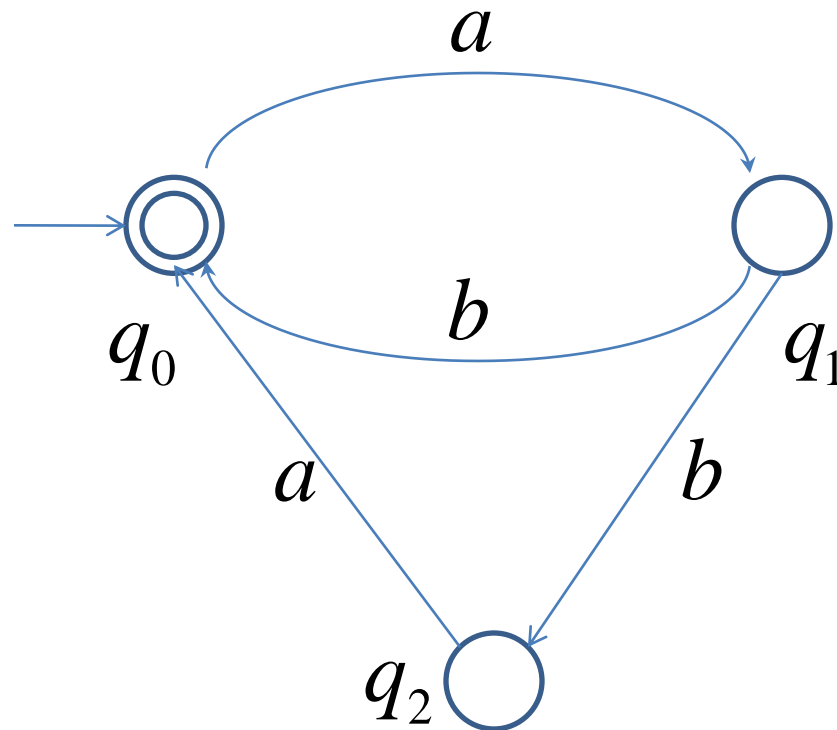
- Design a DFA M that accepts the language $L(M) = \{w: w \in \{a,b\}^* \text{ and } w \text{ does not contain three consecutive } b\text{'s}\}$.

Nondeterministic Finite Automata

- Permit several possible “next states” for a given combination of current state and input symbol
- Accept the empty string ϵ in state diagram
- Help simplifying the description of automata
- Every NFA is equivalent to a DFA

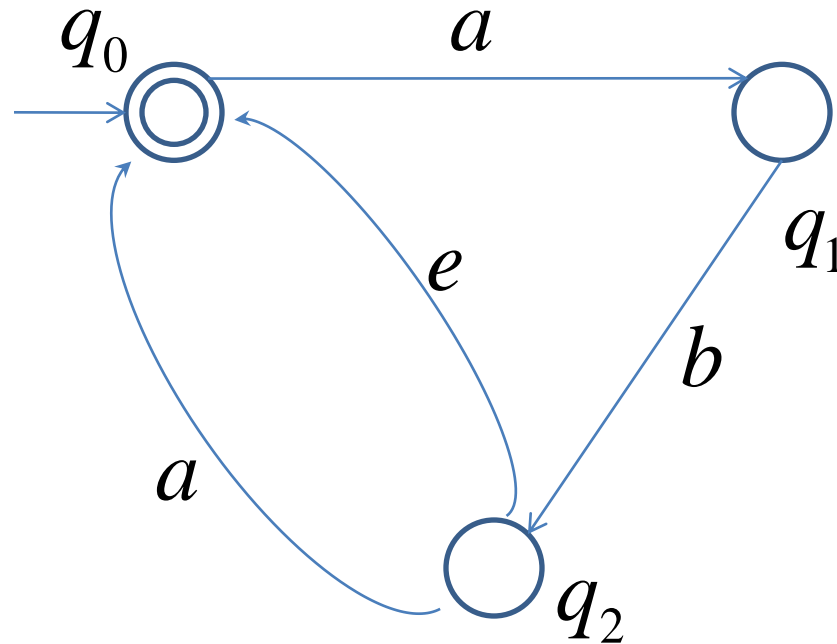
Example

- Language $L = (ab \cup aba)^*$



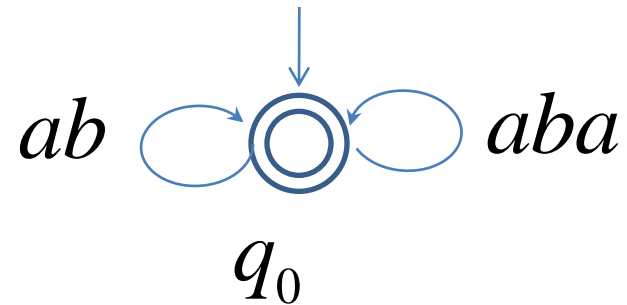
Example

- Language $L = (ab \cup aba)^*$



Example

- Language $L = (ab \cup aba)^*$



Example

- Design a NFA that accepts the following definition for IDENT
 - Starts with a letter
 - Has any number of letter or digit or “_” afterwards

Regular Expression (regex)

- Describe “regular” sets of strings
- Symbols other than () | * stand for themselves
- **Concatenation** $\alpha \beta$ = First part matches α , second part β
- **Union** $\alpha \mid \beta$ = Match α or β
- **Kleene star** α^* = 0 or more matches of α
- Use () for grouping

Regular Expression (regex)

$E(0|1|2|3|4|5|6|7|8|9)^*$

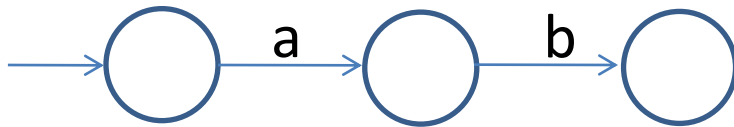
- An E followed by a (possibly empty) sequence of digits

E123

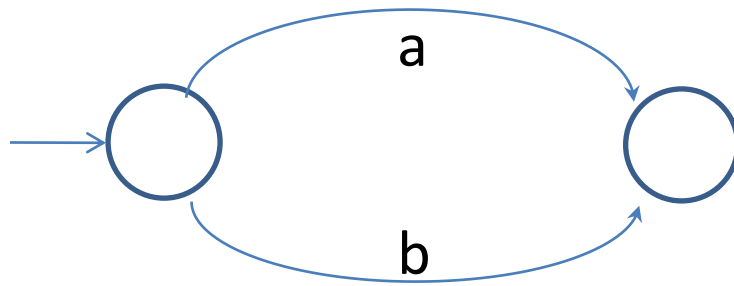
E9

E

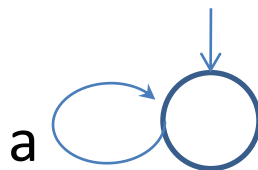
Regular Expression (regex)



ab



$a \mid b$



a^*

Convenience Notation

- $\alpha^+ = \text{one or more (i.e. } \alpha\alpha^*)$
- $\alpha^? = 0 \text{ or } 1 \text{ (i.e. } (\alpha \mid e))$
- $[xyz] = x \mid y \mid z$
- $[x - y] = \text{all characters from } x \text{ to } y, \text{ e.g. } [0 - 9] = \text{all ASCII digits}$
- $[^x - y] = \text{all characters other than } [x - y]$

Convenience Notation

- $\backslash p\{Name\}$, where *Name* is a Unicode category (ex. L, N, Z for letter, number, space)
- $\backslash P\{Name\}$: complement of $\backslash p\{Name\}$
- \cdot matches any character
- \backslash is an escape. For example, $\backslash \cdot$ is a period, $\backslash \backslash$ a backslash

Regex Examples

- **Reserved words:** easy

WHILE = while

BEGIN = begin

DO = do

END = end

- **Integers:** `[+-]?[0-9]+`, or maybe `[+-]?\\p{N}+`
- Note: `+` loses its normal meaning inside `[]`, and a `-` just before `]` denotes itself

Regex Examples

- Hexadecimal numbers `0[Xx][0-9A-Fa-f] +`
- Quoted C++ strings: `" . * "`
- Well, actually not; the `.` will match a quote
- Better: `" [^ "] * "`
- Well, actually not; you can have a `\ "` in a quoted string
- `" ([^ " \ \] | \ \ .) * "`

Exercises

- IDENT
 - Starts with a letter
 - Has any number of letter or digit or “_” afterwards
- C++ floating-point literals
 - See <http://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/tfh6f0w2.aspx>

Scala Regex Library

- Find all matches

```
import scala.util.matching._  
val regex = new Regex("[0-9]+")  
regex.findAllIn("99 bottles, 98 bottles").toList  
List[String] = List(99, 98)
```

Check whether beginning matches

```
regex.findPrefixOf("99 bottles, 98  
bottles").getOrElse(null)  
String = 99
```

Scala Regex Library

- Groups

```
val regex = new Regex("([0-9]+) bottles")  
val matches = regex.findAllIn("99 bottles,  
98 bottles, 97 cans").matchData.toList
```

matches :

```
List[scala.util.matching.Regex.Match] =  
List(99 bottles, 98 bottles)
```

```
matches.map(_.group(1))
```

```
List[String] = List(99, 98)
```

Exercises

- Find NFA and regex for $a^n b^m$: $n+m$ is even
- Find NFA and regex for $a^n b^m$: $n \geq 1, m \geq 1$

Remind

- Design a state diagram that describes the tokens and write a program that implements the state diagram
- Design a state diagram that describes the tokens and hand-construct a table-driven implementation of the state diagram
- Write a formal description of the tokens and use a software tool that constructs table-driven lexical analyzers given such a description

What do lexical analyzers do?

- Lexical analyzers extract lexemes from a given input string and produce the corresponding tokens
- Old compilers: processed an entire source program
- New compilers: locate the next lexeme with token code, then return to syntax analyzer

What else?

- Skip comments and blanks outside lexemes
- Insert user-defined lexemes into the symbol table
- Detect syntactic errors in tokens
 - e.g. ill-formed floating-point literals

In the next lecture

- How can we describe grammar?
- What do syntax analyzers do after receiving lexemes from lexical analyzers?
- Build grammar for some parts of your popular programming languages

Summary

- Syntax analysis is a common part of language implementation
- A lexical analyzer is a pattern matcher that isolates small-scale parts of a program
- Regular expressions are built based on Finite Automata