# Introduction to Lexical Analysis 

Scanning and Regular Expressions

## Lexical Analysis

Definition:

- reads characters and produces sequences of tokens.

Target:

- Towards automated Lexical Analysis.


## First Step

- First step in any translation: determine whether the text to be translated is well constructed in terms of the input language.
- Syntax is specified with parts of speech - syntax checking matches parts of speech against a grammar.
In natural languages, mapping words to part of speech is idiosyncratic.
In formal languages, mapping words to part of speech is syntactic:
- based on denotation
- makes this a matter of syntax
- reserved keywords are important


## Lexical Analysis

What does lexical analysis do?
Recognises the language's parts of speech.

## Goals of Lexical Analysis

- Convert from physical description of a program into sequence of of tokens.
- Each token represents one logical piece of the source file - a keyword, the name of a variable, etc.
- Each token is associated with a lexeme.
- The actual text of the token: "137," "int," etc.
- Each token may have optional attributes.
- Extra information derived from the text - perhaps a numeric value.
- The token sequence will be used in the parser to recover the program structure.


## Choosing Tokens

## What Tokens are Useful Here?

```
for (int k = 0; k < myArray[5]; ++k) {
    cout << k << endl;
}
```


## What Tokens are Useful Here?

for (int $k=0 ; k<m y A r r a y[5] ; ~++k) ~\{$ cout << k << endl;
\}


## What Tokens are Useful Here?

for (int k = 0; k < myArray[5]; ++k) \{ cout << k << endl;
\}


Identifier
IntegerConstant

## Choosing Good Tokens

- Very much dependent on the language.
- Typically:
- Give keywords their own tokens.
- Give different punctuation symbols their own tokens.
- Group lexemes representing identifiers, numeric constants, strings, etc. into their own groups.
- Discard irrelevant information (whitespace, comments)


## Scanning is Hard

- FORTRAN: Whitespace is irrelevant

> DO $5 \mathrm{I}=1,25$
> DO $5 \mathrm{I}=1.25$

## Scanning is Hard

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> DO 5 I $=1,25$
> DO5I $=1.25$

## Scanning is Hard

- FORTRAN: Whitespace is irrelevant

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { D0 } 5 \mathrm{I} & =1,25 \\
\text { D05I } & =1.25
\end{aligned}
$$

- Can be difficult to tell when to partition input.


## Scanning is Hard

- C + + : Nested template declarations
vector<vector<int>> myVector


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- C + + : Nested template declarations
vector < vector < int >> myVector


## Scanning is Hard

- C + + : Nested template declarations
(vector < (vector < (int >> myVector)))


## Scanning is Hard

- C + + : Nested template declarations

$$
(\text { vector < (vector < (int >> myVector)) ) }
$$

- Again, can be difficult to determine where to split.


## Scanning is Hard

- PL/1: Keywords can be used as identifiers.


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IF THEN THEN THEN = ELSE; ELSE ELSE = IF
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## Scanning is Hard

- PL/1: Keywords can be used as identifiers.


## IF THEN THEN THEN = ELSE; ELSE ELSE = IF

- Can be difficult to determine how to label lexemes.


## Challenges in Scanning

- How do we determine which lexemes are associated with each token?
- When there are multiple ways we could scan the input, how do we know which one to pick?
How do we address these concerns
- efficiently?


## Some Definitions

- A vocabulary (alphabet) is a finite set of symbols.
- A string is any finite sequence of symbols from a vocabulary.
- A language is any set of strings over a fixed vocabulary.
- A grammar is a finite way of describing a language.
- A context-free grammar, $G$, is a 4-tuple, $G=(S, N, T, P)$, where:
$S$ : starting symbol
$N$ : set of non-terminal symbols
$T$ : set of terminal symbols
$P$ : set of production rules
- A language is the set of all terminal productions of $G$.


## Cat Language

- Example:

S=CatWord;
$N=\{$ CatWord $\}$;
$T=\{$ miau $\}$;
$P=\{$ CatWord $\rightarrow$ CatWord miau | miau\}

## Example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S=E ; \\
& N=\{E, T, F\} ; \\
& T=\left\{+,{ }^{*},(,,, x\}\right. \\
& P=\{E \rightarrow T \mid E+T, \\
& T \rightarrow F \mid T^{*} F, \\
& \\
& \quad F \rightarrow(E) \mid x\} \\
& \rightarrow \text { Use left most derivation }
\end{aligned}
$$

To derive the expression: $\mathrm{X}+\mathrm{X} * \mathrm{X}$.

## Validation

- To recognise a valid sentence we reverse this process.


## Exercise:

- what language is generated by the (non-context free) grammar:
$S=S$;
$N=\{A, B, S\} ;$
$T=\{a, b, c\} ;$
$P=\{S \rightarrow a b c / a A b c$,
$A b \rightarrow b A$,
$A c \rightarrow B b c c$,
$b B \rightarrow B b$,
$a B \rightarrow a a \mid a a A\}$
(for the curious: read about Chomsky's Hierarchy)


## Why study lexical analysis?

- To avoid writing lexical analysers (scanners) by hand.
- To simplify specification and implementation.
- To understand the underlying techniques and technologies.


## Why study lexical analysis?

- We want to specify lexical patterns (to derive tokens):
- Some parts are easy:
- WhiteSpace $\rightarrow$ blank | tab | WhiteSpace blank | WhiteSpace tab
- Keywords and operators (if, then, =, +)
- Comments (/* followed by */ in C, // in C++, \% in latex, ...)
- Some parts are more complex:
- Identifiers (letter followed by - up to $n$ - alphanumerics...)
- Numbers
- We need a notation that could lead to an implementation!


## Regular Expressions

- Patterns form a regular language. A regular expression is a way of specifying a regular language. It is a formula that describes a possibly infinite set of strings.
Regular Expression (RE) (over a vocabulary V):
- $\varepsilon$ is a RE denoting the empty set $\{\varepsilon\}$.
- If $a \in \mathrm{~V}$ then $a$ is a RE denoting $\{a\}$.
- If $r_{1}, r_{2}$ are REs then:
- $r_{1}{ }^{*}$ denotes zero or more occurrences of $r_{1}$;
- $r_{1} r_{2}$ denotes concatenation;
- $r_{1} / r_{2}$ denotes either $r_{1}$ or $r_{2}$;

Regular Expressions

- Shorthands:
- [a-d] for $a / b / c / d$;
- $r^{+}$for $r r^{*}$;
- $r$ ? for $r / \varepsilon$


## Operator Precedence

- Regular expression operator precedence is

$$
\begin{gathered}
(\mathrm{R}) \\
\mathrm{R}^{*} \\
\mathrm{R}_{1} \mathrm{R}_{2} \\
\mathrm{R}_{1} \mid \mathrm{R}_{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

- So $\mathbf{a b}{ }^{*} \mathbf{c} \mid \mathbf{d}$ is parsed as $\left(\left(\mathbf{a}\left(\mathbf{b}^{*}\right)\right) \mathbf{c}\right) \mid \mathbf{d}$


## Simple Regular Expressions

- Suppose the only characters are 0 and 1.
- Here is a regular expression for strings containing 00 as a substring:


## (0 | 1)*00(0 | 1)*

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## 1*0?1*

## 11110111 <br> 111111 <br> 0111

## Applied Regular Expressions

- Suppose our alphabet is a, @, and., where a represents "some letter."
- A regular expression for email addresses is
aa* (.aa*)* @ aa*.aa* (.aa*)*


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\mathrm{a}^{+} \text {(.aa*)* @ aa*.aa* (.aa*)* }
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## Applied Regular Expressions

- Suppose that our alphabet is all ASCII characters.
- A regular expression for even numbers is
$(+\mid-) ?(0|1| 2|3| 4|5| 6|7| 8 \mid 9) *(0|2| 4|6| 8)$


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$$
\begin{gathered}
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+1370 \\
-3248 \\
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\end{gathered}
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## Applied Regular Expressions

- Suppose that our alphabet is all ASCII characters.
- A regular expression for even numbers is
(+|-)?[0123456789]*[02468]

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## Applied Regular Expressions

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(+\mid-) ?[0-9] *[02468]
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
42 \\
+1370 \\
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-9999912
\end{gathered}
$$

## Regular Expressions

Describe the languages denoted by the following REs:

- a;
- a | b;
- $a^{*}$;
- (a | b)*;
- (a | b) (a | b);
- (a*b*)*;
- (a | b)*baa;


## Examples

- integer $\rightarrow(+/-/ \varepsilon)(0 / 1 / 2 / \ldots / 9)+$
- integer $\rightarrow(+/-/ \varepsilon)\left(0 /(1 / 2 / \ldots / 9)(0 / 1 / 2 / \ldots / 9)^{*}\right)$
- decimal $\rightarrow$ integer.(0 / 1 / 2 / ... /9)*
- identifier $\rightarrow$ [a-zA-Z] [a-zA-Z0-9]*
- Real-life application (perl regular expressions):
- [+-]?(\d+\. $\backslash d+|\backslash d+\backslash.| \backslash . \backslash d+)$
- [+-]? (\d+\. $\backslash d+|\backslash d+\backslash .|\backslash . \backslash d+| \backslash d+)([e E][+-] ? \backslash d+) ?$
(for more information read: \% man perlre)
(Not all languages can be described by regular expressions. But, we don't care for now).


## Building a Lexical Analyser by hand

Based on the specifications of tokens through regular expressions we can write a lexical analyser. One approach is to check case by case and split into smaller problems that can be solved ad hoc. Example:

```
void get_next_token() {
    c=input_char();
    if (is_eof(c)) { token \leftarrow (EOF,"eof"); return}
    if (is_letter(c)) {recognise_id()}
    else if (is_digit(c)) {recognise_number()}
            else if (is_operator(c))||is_separator(c))
                                    {token \leftarrow (c,c)} //single char assumed
                                    else {token \leftarrow (ERROR,c)}
    return;
}
do {
    get_next_token();
    print(token.class, token.attribute);
} while (token.class != EOF);
```

Can be efficient; but requires a lot of work and may be difficult to modify!

## Building Lexical Analysers "automatically"

Idea: try the regular expressions one by one and find the longest match:

```
set (token.class, token.length) \leftarrow(NULL, 0)
// first
find max_length such that input matches }\mp@subsup{T}{1}{}->\mp@subsup{R}{R}{\prime
    if max_length > token.length
        set (token.class, token.length) \leftarrow(T1, max_length)
// second
find max_length such that input matches }\mp@subsup{T}{2}{}->\mp@subsup{R}{R}{2
    if max_length > token.length
        set (token.class, token.length) \leftarrow( }\mp@subsup{T}{2,}{\prime}\mathrm{ max_length)
// n-th
find max_length such that input matches }\mp@subsup{T}{n}{}->\mp@subsup{R}{R}{
    if max_length > token.length
                set (token.class, token.length) \leftarrow(T, max_length)
// error
if (token.class == NULL) { handle no_match }
```

Disadvantage: linearly dependent on number of token classes and requires restarting the search for each regular expression.

## We study REs to automate scanner construction!

Consider the problem of recognising register names starting with $r$ and requiring at least one digit:

$$
\text { Register } \rightarrow r(0 / 1 / 2 / \ldots / 9)(0 / 1 / 2 / \ldots / 9)^{*}\left(\text { or, Register } \rightarrow r \text { Digit Digit }{ }^{*}\right)
$$

## The RE corresponds to a transition diagram:



Depicts the actions that take place in the scanner.

- A circle represents a state; S0: start state; S2: final state (double circle)
- An arrow represents a transition; the label specifies the cause of the transition.

A string is accepted if, going through the transitions, ends in a final state (for example, r345, r0, r29, as opposed to a, r, rab)

## Towards Automation (finally!)

An easy (computerised) implementation of a transition diagram is a transition table: a column for each input symbol and a row for each state. An entry is a set of states that can be reached from a state on some input symbol. E.g.:

| state | ${ }^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ | digit |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $\mathbf{1}$ | - |
| $\mathbf{1}$ | - | $\mathbf{2}$ |
| $\mathbf{2}$ (final) | - | 2 |

If we know the transition table and the final state(s) we can build directly a recogniser that detects acceptance:
char=input_char();
state=0; // starting state
while (char != EOF) \{
state $\leftarrow$ table(state, char);
if (state == ‘' ${ }^{\prime}$ ) return failure;
word=word+char;
char=input_char();
if
if (state == FINAL) return acceptance; else return failure;

## DFA \& NFA

The generalised transition diagram is a finite automaton. It can be:

- Deterministic, DFA; as in the example
- Non-Deterministic, NFA; more than 1 transition out of a state may be possible on the same input symbol: think about: $(a / b)^{*} a b b$
Every regular expression can be converted to a DFA!

