

# **Lexical Analysis**

CS143

Lecture 3

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# Outline

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- Informal sketch of lexical analysis
  - Identifies tokens in input string
- Issues in lexical analysis
  - Lookahead
  - Ambiguities
- Specifying lexers (aka. scanners)
  - By regular expressions (aka. regex)
  - Examples of regular expressions

# Lexical Analysis

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- What do we want to do? Example:

```
if (i == j)
    Z = 0;
else
    Z = 1;
```

- The input is just a string of characters:

```
\tif (i == j)\n\t\tz = 0;\n\telse\n\t\tz = 1;
```



- Goal: Partition input string into substrings
  - Where the substrings are called tokens

# What's a Token?

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- A syntactic category
  - In English:  
noun, verb, adjective, ...
  - In a programming language:  
Identifier, Integer, Keyword, Whitespace, ...

# Tokens

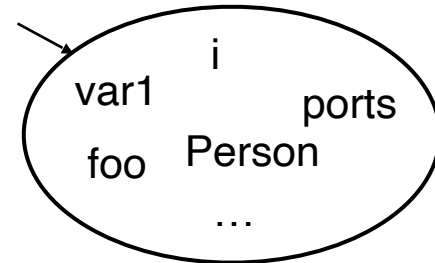
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- A token class corresponds to a set of strings

- **Examples**

- Identifier: strings of letters or digits, starting with a letter
- Integer: a non-empty string of digits
- Keyword: “else” or “if” or “begin” or ...
- Whitespace: a non-empty sequence of blanks, newlines, and tabs

Infinite set



# What are Tokens For?

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- Classify program substrings according to role
- Lexical analysis produces a stream of tokens
- ... which is input to the parser
  
- Parser relies on token distinctions
  - An identifier is treated differently than a keyword

# Designing a Lexical Analyzer: Step 1

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- Define a finite set of tokens
  - Tokens describe all items of interest
    - Identifiers, integers, keywords
  - Choice of tokens depends on
    - language
    - design of parser





# Designing a Lexical Analyzer: Step 2

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- Describe which strings belong to each token
- Recall:
  - Identifier: strings of letters or digits, starting with a letter
  - Integer: a non-empty string of digits
  - Keyword: “else” or “if” or “begin” or ...
  - Whitespace: a non-empty sequence of blanks, newlines, and tabs

# Lexical Analyzer: Implementation

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- An implementation must do two things:
  1. Classify each substring as a token
  2. Return the value or lexeme (value) of the token
    - The lexeme is the actual substring
    - From the set of substrings that make up the token
- The lexer thus returns token-lexeme pairs
  - And potentially also line numbers, file names, etc. to improve later error messages



# Lexical Analyzer: Implementation

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- The lexer usually discards “uninteresting” tokens that don’t contribute to parsing.
- Examples: Whitespace, Comments

# True Crimes of Lexical Analysis

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- Is it as easy as it sounds?
- Sort of... if you do not make it hard!
- Look at some history

# Lexical Analysis in FORTRAN

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- FORTRAN rule: Whitespace is insignificant
- E.g., `VAR1` is the same as `VA R1`
- A terrible design!
- Historical footnote: FORTRAN Whitespace rule motivated by inaccuracy of punch card operators

# FORTRAN Example

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- Consider
  - DO 5 I = 1,25
  - DO 5 I = 1.25

# Lexical Analysis in FORTRAN (Cont.)

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- Two important points:
  1. The goal is to partition the string. This is implemented by reading left-to-right, recognizing one token at a time
  2. “Lookahead” may be required to decide where one token ends and the next token begins



# Lookahead

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- Even our simple example has lookahead issues
  - `i` vs. `if`
  - `=` vs. `==`

# Lexical Analysis in PL/I

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- PL/I keywords are not reserved

IF ELSE THEN THEN = ELSE; ELSE ELSE = THEN

# Lexical Analysis in PL/I (Cont.)

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- PL/I Declarations:

DECLARE (ARG1,.. ., ARGN)

- Cannot tell whether DECLARE is a keyword or array reference until after the ).
  - Requires arbitrary lookahead!

# Lexical Analysis in C++

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- Unfortunately, the problems continue today

- C++ template syntax:

Foo<Bar>

- C++ stream syntax:

cin >> var;

- But there is a conflict with nested templates:

Foo<Bar<Bazz>>



Closing templates, not stream

# Review

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- The goal of lexical analysis is to
  - Partition the input string into lexemes
  - Identify the token of each lexeme
- Left-to-right scan  $\Rightarrow$  lookahead sometimes required

# Next

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- We still need
  - A way to describe the lexemes of each token
  - A way to resolve ambiguities
    - Is `if` two variables `i` and `f`?
    - Is `==` two equal signs `=` `=`?

# Regular Languages

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- There are several formalisms for specifying tokens
- Regular languages are the most popular
  - Simple and useful theory
  - Easy to understand
  - Efficient implementations

# Languages

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**Def.** Let alphabet  $\Sigma$  be a set of characters.  
A language over  $\Sigma$  is a set of strings of  
characters drawn from  $\Sigma$ .



# Examples of Languages

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- Alphabet = English characters
- Language = English sentences
- Not every string of English characters is an English sentence
- Alphabet = ASCII
- Language = C programs
- Note: ASCII character set is different from English character set

# Notation

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- Languages are sets of strings.
- Need some notation for specifying which sets we want
- The standard notation for regular languages is regular expressions.

# Atomic Regular Expressions

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- Single character

$$'c' = \{ "c" \}$$

- Epsilon

$$\varepsilon = \{ "" \}$$

← Not the empty set, but set with a single, empty, string.

# Compound Regular Expressions

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- Union

$$A + B = \{s \mid s \in A \text{ or } s \in B\}$$

- Concatenation

$$AB = \{ab \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$$

- Iteration

$$A^* = \bigcup_{i \geq 0} A^i \text{ where } A^i = \underbrace{AA \dots A}_{i \text{ times}}$$

# Regular Expressions

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- **Def.** The regular expressions over  $\Sigma$  are the smallest set of expressions including

$\varepsilon$

' $c$ ' where  $c \in \Sigma$

$A + B$  where  $A, B$  are rexp over  $\Sigma$

$AB$  " " "

$A^*$  where  $A$  is a rexp over  $\Sigma$

# Syntax vs. Semantics

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- Notation so far was imprecise

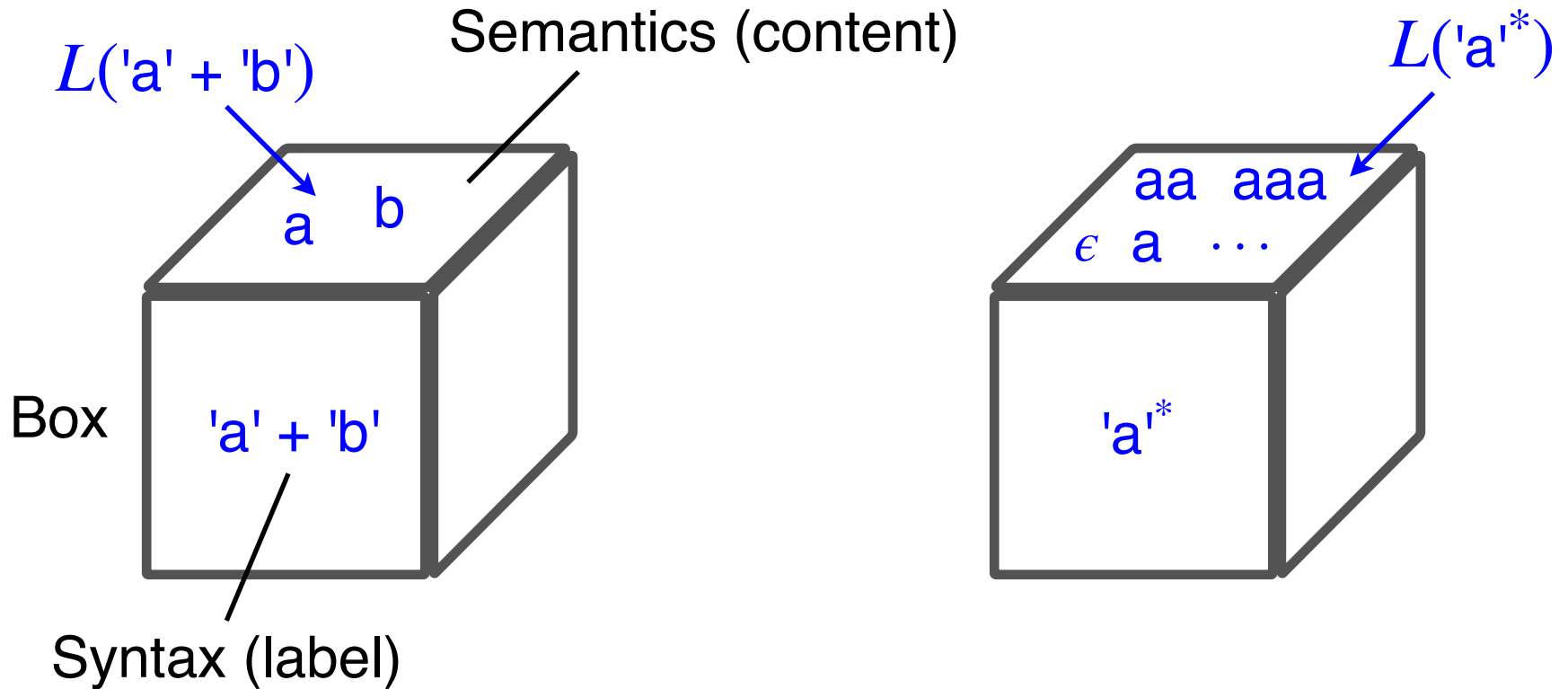
$$AB = \{ab \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$$

B as a piece of syntax

B as a set  
(the semantics of the syntax)

# Syntax vs. Semantics

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# Syntax vs. Semantics

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- To be careful, we distinguish syntax and semantics.

$$L(\varepsilon) = \{\epsilon\}$$

$$L('c') = \{c\}$$

$$L(A + B) = L(A) \cup L(B)$$

$$L(AB) = \{ab \mid a \in L(A) \text{ and } b \in L(B)\}$$

$$L(A^*) = \bigcup_{i \geq 0} L(A^i)$$



# Segue

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- Regular expressions are simple, almost trivial
  - But they are useful!
- We will describe tokens in regular expressions

## Example: Keyword

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Keyword: “else” or “if” or “begin” or ...

‘else’ + ‘if’ + ‘begin’ + . . .

Abbreviation: ‘else’ = ‘e’ ‘l’ ‘s’ ‘e’

# Example: Integers

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Integer: a non-empty string of digits

digit = '0'+ '1'+ '2'+ '3'+ '4'+ '5'+ '6'+ '7'+ '8'+ '9'

integer = digit digit\*

Abbreviation:  $A^+ = AA^*$

Abbreviation:  $[0-2] = '0' + '1' + '2'$

## Example: Identifier

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Identifier: strings of letters or digits, starting with a letter

letter = 'A' + ... + 'Z' + 'a' + ... + 'z'

identifier = letter (letter + digit)\*

Is (letter\* + digit\*) the same as (letter + digit)\*?

## Example: Whitespace

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Whitespace: a non-empty sequence of blanks, newlines, and tabs

$$(' ' + '\n' + '\t')^+$$

# Example: Phone Numbers

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- Regular expressions are all around you!
- Consider (650)-723-3232

$\Sigma$  = digits  $\cup$  {-, (, )}

exchange = digit<sup>3</sup>

phone = digit<sup>4</sup>

area = digit<sup>3</sup>

phone\_number = '(' area ')' '-' exchange '-' phone

# Example: Email Addresses

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- Consider anyone@cs.stanford.edu

$\Sigma$  = letters  $\cup$  {.,@}

name = letter<sup>+</sup>

address = name '@' name '.' name '.' name

# Example: Unsigned Pascal Numbers

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digit = '0' + '1' + '2' + '3' + '4' + '5' + '6' + '7' + '8' + '9'

digits = digit<sup>+</sup>

opt\_fraction = ('.' digits) + ε

opt\_exponent = ('E' ('+' + '-' + ε) digits) + ε

num = digits opt\_fraction opt\_exponent



# Other Examples

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- File names
- Grep tool family

# Summary

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- Regular expressions describe many useful languages
  - We will look at non-regular languages next week
- Regular languages are a language specification
  - We still need an implementation
- Next time: Given a string  $s$  and a rexp  $R$ , is

$$s \in L(R)?$$