

## Agenda

- Basic concepts of formal grammars
- Scanner Theory
- Regular expressions
- Finite automata (to recognize regular expressions)
- Scanner Implementation


## Programming Language Specs

- Since the 1960s, the syntax of every significant programming language has been specified by a formal grammar
- First done in 1959 with BNF (Backus-Naur Form or Backus-Normal Form) used to specify the syntax of ALGOL 60
- Borrowed from the linguistics community (Chomsky)


## Grammar for a Tiny Language

- program ::= statement | program statement
- statement ::= assignStmt| ifStmt
- assignStmt ::= id = expr;
- ifStmt $::=$ if ( expr) stmt
- expr::= id | int | expr + expr
- Id $::=\mathrm{a}|\mathrm{b}| \mathrm{c}|\mathrm{i}| \mathrm{j}|\mathrm{k}| \mathrm{n}|\mathrm{x}| \mathrm{y} \mid \mathrm{z}$
- int ::=0|1|2|3|4|5|6|7|8|9

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## Productions

- The rules of a grammar are called productions
- Rules contain
- Nonterminal symbols: grammar variables (program, statement, id, etc.)
- Terminal symbols: concrete syntax that appears in programs ( $a, b, c, 0,1$, if, (, ...)
- Meaning of
nonterminal::= <sequence of terminals and nonterminals> In a derivation, an instance of nonterminal can be replaced by the sequence of terminals and nonterminals on the right of the production
- Often, there are two or more productions for a single


## Alternative Notations

- There are several syntax notations for productions in common use; all mean the same thing

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ifStmt }::=\text { if ( expr }) \text { stmt } \\
& \text { ifStmt } \rightarrow \text { if }(\text { expr }) \text { stmt } \\
& \text { <ifStmt> ::= if ( <expr> ) <stmt> }
\end{aligned}
$$

nonterminal - can use either at different times

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## Characters vs Tokens (review)

- Input text
// this statement does very little
if ( $x$ >= $y$ ) $y=42$;
- Token Stream

| IF | LPAREN | ID(x) | GEQ | ID(y) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| RPAREN |  |  | COMES | INT(42) | SCOLON |

## Why Separate the Scanner and Parser?

- Simplicity \& Separation of Concerns
- Scanner hides details from parser (comments, whitespace, etc.)
- Parser is easier to build; has simpler input stream (tokens)
- Efficiency
- Scanner can use simpler, faster design
- (But still often consumes a surprising amount of the compiler's total execution time)


## Parsing \& Scanning

- In real compilers the recognizer is split into two phases
Scanner: translate input characters to tokens
Also, report lexical errors like illegal characters and illegal symbols
- Parser: read token stream and reconstruct the derivation



## Tokens

- Idea: we want a distinct token kind (lexical class) for each distinct terminal symbol in the programming language - Examine the grammar to find these
- Some tokens may have attributes
- Examples: integer constant token will have the actual integer ( $17,42, \ldots$ ) as an attribute; identifiers will have a string with the actual id


## Parsing

- Parsing: reconstruct the derivation (syntactic structure) of a program
- In principle, a single recognizer could work directly from the concrete, character-by-character grammar
- In practice this is never done

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## Typical Tokens in <br> Programming Languages

- Operators \& Punctuation
" + - * / ( ) \{ \} [ ] ; : : : \ll= == = != ! ..
- Each of these is a distinct lexical class
- Keywords
- if while for goto return switch void...
- Each of these is also a distinct lexical class (not a string)
- Identifiers
- A single ID lexical class, but parameterized by actual id
- Integer constants
- A single INT lexical class, but parameterized by int value
- Other constants, etc.

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## Formal Languages \&

Automata Theory (in one slide)

- Alphabet: a finite set of symbols
- String: a finite, possibly empty sequence of symbols from an alphabet
- Language: a set, often infinite, of strings
- Finite specifications of (possibly infinite) languages
- Automaton - a recognizer, a machine that accepts all strings in a language (and rejects all other strings)
- Grammar - a generator, a system for producing all strings in the language (and no other strings)
- A particular language may be specified by many different grammars and automata
- A grammar or automaton specifies only one language

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## Regular Expressions

- Defined over some alphabet $\Sigma$
- For programming languages, commonly ASCII or Unicode
- If re is a regular expression, $L(r e)$ is the language (set of strings) generated by re


## Regular Expressions and FAs

- The lexical grammar (structure) of most programming languages can be specified with regular expressions
- Aside: Difficulties with Fortran
- Tokens can be recognized by a deterministic finite automaton
- Can be either table-driven or built by hand based on lexical grammar

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## Fundamental REs

| $\boldsymbol{r e}$ | $\boldsymbol{L}(\boldsymbol{r e})$ | Notes |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a | $\{\mathrm{a}\}$ | Singleton set, for each a in $\Sigma$ |
| $\varepsilon$ | $\{\varepsilon\}$ | Empty string |
| $\varnothing$ | $\}$ | Empty language |

## Operations on REs

| re | $\mathbf{L}(\boldsymbol{r e})$ | Notes |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $r s$ | $\mathrm{~L}(r) \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{s})$ | Concatenation |
| $\mathrm{r} \mid \mathrm{s}$ | $\mathrm{L}(r) \cup \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{s})$ | Combination (union) |
| $\mathrm{r}^{*}$ | $\mathrm{~L}(r)^{*}$ | 0 or more occurrences <br> (Kleene closure) |

- Precedence: * (highest), concatenation, | (lowest)
- Parentheses can be used to group REs as needed

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## Abbreviations

- The basic operations generate all possible regular expressions, but there are common abbreviations used for convenience. Typical examples:

| Abbr. | Meaning | Notes |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $r+$ | $\left(r^{*}\right)$ | 1 or more occurrences |  |  |
| $r ?$ | $(r \mid \varepsilon)$ | 0 or 1 occurrence |  |  |
| $[a-z]$ | $(a\|b\| \ldots \mid z)$ | 1 character in given range |  |  |
| $[a b x y z]$ | $(a\|b\| x\|y\| z)$ | 1 of the given characters |  |  |
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| \| More Examples |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| re | Meaning |  |
| [abc]+ |  |  |
| [abc]* |  |  |
| [0-9]+ |  |  |
| [1-9][0-9]* |  |  |
| [a-zA-Z][a-zA-Z0-9_]* |  |  |
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## Abbreviations

- Many systems allow abbreviations to make writing and reading definitions easier
name ::= re
- Restriction: abbreviations may not be circular (recursive) either directly or indirectly

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## Example

- Possible syntax for numeric constants
digit ::= [0-9]
digits ::= digit+
number::= digits (. digits )?
( $[\mathrm{eE}](+\mid-)$ ? digits $)$ ?

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## Recognizing REs

- Finite automata can be used to recognize strings generated by regular expressions
- Can build by hand or automatically
- Not totally straightforward, but can be done systematically
- Tools like Lex, Flex, and JLex do this automatically, given a set of REs


## Finite State Automaton (FSA)

- A finite set of states
- One marked as initial state
- One or more marked as final states
- States sometimes labeled or numbered
- A set of transitions from state to state
- Each labeled with symbol from $\Sigma$, or $\varepsilon$
- Operate by reading input symbols (usually characters)
- Transition can be taken if labeled with current symbol
- $\varepsilon$-transition can be taken at any time
- Accept when final state reached \& no more input
- Scanner slightly different - accept longest match each time called,

Reject if no transition possible or no more input state (DFA)

## Example: FSA for "cat"



## DFA vs NFA

- Deterministic Finite Automata (DFA)
- No choice of which transition to take under any condition
- Non-deterministic Finite Automata (NFA)
- Choice of transition in at least one case
- Accept - if some way to reach final state on given input
- Reject - if no possible way to final state




## From NFA to DFA

- Subset construction
- Construct a DFA from the NFA, where each DFA state represents a set of NFA states
- Key idea
- The state of the DFA after reading some input is the set of all states the NFA could have reached after reading the same input
- Algorithm: example of a fixed-point computation
- If NFA has $n$ states, DFA has at most $2^{n}$ states - => DFA is finite, can construct in finite \# steps
- Resulting DFA may have more states than needed - See books for construction and minimization details


## Example: DFA for handwritten scanner

- Idea: show a hand-written DFA for some typical programming language constructs - Then use to construct hand-written scanner
- Setting: Scanner is called whenever the parser needs a new token
- Scanner stores current position in input file
- Starting there, use a DFA to recognize the longest possible input sequence that makes up a token and return that token




## Implementing a Scanner by Hand - Token Representation

- A token is a simple, tagged structure public class Token \{
public int kind; // token's lexical class
public int intVal; // integer value if class = INT
public String id; $\quad / /$ actual identifier if class = ID
// lexical classes
public static final int EOF $=0 ; \quad / /$ "end of file" token
public static final int ID $=1$; // identifier, not keyword
public static final int INT = 2; // integer
public static final int LPAREN $=4$;
public static final int SCOLN $=5$;
public static final int SCOLN $=5$;
public static final int WHILE $=6 ;$
// etc. etc. etc. .


## Simple Scanner Example

// global state and methods
static char nextch; // next unprocessed input character
// advance to next input char
void getch () $\{\ldots$.
// skip whitespace and comments void skipWhitespace() $\{\ldots$... $\}$

## Scanner getToken() method

```
// return next input token
// return next input token
    Token result;
    skipWhiteSpace();
    if (no more input) {
        result = new Token(Token.EOF); return result;
    }
    switch(nextch) {
    case '(: result = new Token(Token.LPAREN); getch(); return result;
    case ')': result = new Token(Token.RPAREN); getch(); return result;
    case ';': result = new Token(Token.SCOLON); getch(); return result;
        // etc. ...
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```



