CSE 413 Autumn 2008

Parsers, Scanners & Regular Expressions

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Agenda

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

And the point is...

How do execute this?

```
int nPos = 0;
int k = 0;
while (k < length) {
    if (a[k] > 0) {
        nPos++;
     }
}
How do we understand what it means?
```

Compilers vs. Interpreters

Interpreter

A program that reads a source program and executes that program

Compiler

□ A program that translates a program from one language (the *source*) to another (the *target*)

Interpreter

Interpreter Execution engine Program execution interleaved with analysis running = true; while (running) { analyze next statement; execute that statement; } May involve repeated analysis of some statements (loops, functions)

Compiler

- Read and analyze entire program
- Translate to semantically equivalent program in another language
 - Presumably easier to execute or more efficient
 - Should "improve" the program in some fashion
- Offline process
 - Tradeoff: compile time overhead (preprocessing step)
 vs execution performance

Hybrid approaches

Well-known example: Java

- Compile Java source to byte codes Java Virtual Machine language (.class files)
- Execution
 - Interpret byte codes directly, or
 - Compile some or all byte codes to native code
 - Just-In-Time compiler (JIT) detect hot spots & compile on the fly to native code

Variation: .NET

- Compilers generate MSIL
- □ All IL compiled to native code before execution

Compiler/Interpreter Structure

First approximation

- □ Front end: analysis
 - Read source program and understand its structure and meaning
- □ Back end: synthesis
 - Execute or generate equivalent target program



Common Issues

Compilers and interpreters both must read the input – a stream of characters – and "understand" it; *analysis*

```
w h i l e ( k < l e n g t h ) { <nl> <tab> i f ( a [ k ] > 0 ) <nl> <tab> <tab> { tab> { n P o s + + ; } <nl> <tab> }
```

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) statement expr ::= id | int | expr + expr id ::= a | b | c | i | j | k | n | x | y | z int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9

Context-Free Grammars

- Formally, a grammar G is a tuple <N,Σ,P,S> where
 - □ N a finite set of non-terminal symbols
 - $\Box \Sigma$ a finite set of terminal symbols
 - □ P a finite set of productions
 - A subset of N × (N \cup Σ)*
 - \square S the start symbol, a distinguished element of N
 - If not specified otherwise, this is usually assumed to be the non-terminal on the left of the first production

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 nonterminal – can use either at different times

Alternative Notations

- There are several syntax notations for productions in common use; all mean the same thing *ifStmt* ::= if (*expr*) *stmt*
 - $ifStmt \rightarrow if(expr)stmt$
 - <ifStmt> ::= if (<expr>) <stmt>

Example Derivation

program ::= statement | program statement statement ::= assignStmt | ifStmt assignStmt ::= id = expr ; ifStmt ::= if (expr) statement expr ::= id | int | expr + expr id ::= a | b | c | i | j | k | n | x | y | z int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9

a = 1; if (a + 1) b = 2;

Parsing

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

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
 - Procedural interface ask the scanner for new tokens when needed



Scanner Example

Input text

// this statement does very little if $(x \ge y) y = 42$;

Token Stream



Notes: tokens are atomic items, not character strings; comments are *not* tokens

Parser Example

Token Stream Input



Abstract Syntax Tree



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)

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, ...) as an attribute; identifiers will have a string with the actual id

Typical Tokens in Programming Languages

Operators & Punctuation

 \Box + - * / () { } [] ; : :: < <= == = != ! ...

□ 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.

Principle of Longest Match

- In most languages, the scanner should pick the longest possible string to make up the next token if there is a choice
- Example

return foobar != hohum;

should be recognized as 5 tokens



not more (i.e., not parts of words or identifiers, or ! and = as separate tokens)

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

Regular Expressions and FAs

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

Regular Expressions

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

Fundamental REs

re	L(re)	Notes
а	{ a }	Singleton set, for each a in Σ
ε	{ε}	Empty string
Ø	{ }	Empty language

Operations on REs

re	L(re)	Notes
rs	L(r)L(s)	Concatenation
r s	L(r) ∪L(s)	Combination (union)
r*	L(r)*	0 or more occurrences (Kleene closure)

Precedence: * (highest), concatenation, | (lowest)

Parentheses can be used to group REs as needed

Abbreviations

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

Abbr.	Meaning	Notes
r+	(rr*)	1 or more occurrences
r?	(r ε)	0 or 1 occurrence
[a-z]	(a b z)	1 character in given range
[abxyz]	(a b x y z)	1 of the given characters

Examples

re	Meaning
+	single + character
!	single ! character
=	single = character
!=	2 character sequence
<=	2 character sequence
hogwash	7 character sequence

More Examples

re	Meaning
[abc]+	
[abc]*	
[0-9]+	
[1-9][0-9]*	
[a-zA-Z][a-zA-Z0-9_]*	

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

Example

Possible syntax for numeric constants

digit ::= [0-9] digits ::= digit+ number ::= digits (. digits)? ([eE] (+ | -)? digits) ?

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
- Even if you don't use this explicitly, it is a good way to think about the problem

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
 - \Box Each labeled with symbol from Σ , or ϵ
- Operate by reading input symbols (usually characters)
 - Transition can be taken if labeled with current symbol
 - \Box ϵ -transition can be taken at any time
- Accept when final state reached & no more input
 - Scanner slightly different <u>accept longest match</u> each time called, even if more input; i.e., run the FSA each time the scanner is called
- Reject if no transition possible or no more input and not in final state (DFA)

Example: FSA for "cat"



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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

FAs in Scanners

- Want DFA for speed (no backtracking)
- Conversion from regular expressions to NFA is easy
- There is a well-defined procedure for converting a NFA to an equivalent DFA
 See formal language or compiler textbooks to
 - See formal language or compiler textbooks for details

Example: DFA for hand-written 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

Scanner DFA Example (1)



Scanner DFA Example (2)



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Scanner DFA Example (3)



Scanner DFA Example (4)



- Strategies for handling identifiers vs keywords
 - Hand-written scanner: look up identifier-like things in table of keywords to classify (good application of perfect hashing)
 - Machine-generated scanner: generate DFA with appropriate transitions to recognize keywords
 - Lots 'o states, but efficient (no extra lookup step)

Implementing a Scanner by Hand – Token Representation

A token is a simple, tagged structure

Simple Scanner Example

// global state and methods

static char nextch; // next unprocessed input character

// advance to next input char
void getch() { ... }

// skip whitespace and comments
void skipWhitespace() { ... }

Scanner getToken() method

```
// return next input token
public Token getToken() {
   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. ...
```

}

getToken() (2)

```
case '!': // ! or !=
       getch();
        if (nextch == '=') {
         result = new Token(Token.NEQ); getch(); return result;
        } else {
         result = new Token(Token.NOT); return result;
case '<': // < or <=
       getch();
        if (nextch == '=') {
         result = new Token(Token.LEQ); getch(); return result;
        } else {
         result = new Token(Token.LESS); return result;
// etc. ...
```

getToken() (3)

```
case '0': case '1': case '2': case '3': case '4':
case '5': case '6': case '7': case '8': case '9':
    // integer constant
    String num = nextch;
    getch();
    while (nextch is a digit) {
        num = num + nextch; getch();
    }
    result = new Token(Token.INT, Integer(num).intValue());
    return result;
```

. . .

getToken (4)

```
case 'a': ... case 'z':
case 'A': ... case 'Z': // id or keyword
string s = nextch; getch();
while (nextch is a letter, digit, or underscore) {
    s = s + nextch; getch();
}
if (s is a keyword) {
    result = new Token(keywordTable.getKind(s));
} else {
    result = new Token(Token.ID, s);
}
return result;
```

Alternatives

Use a tool to build the scanner from the (re) grammar
Often can be *more* efficient than hand-coded!
Build an ad-hoc scanner using regular expression package in implementation language

Ruby, Perl, Java, many others.