Lexical Analysis

We start this chapter with a description of the task of lexical analysis and then present regular expressions as specification mechanism for this task. Regular expressions can be automatically converted into non-deterministic finite state machines, which implement lexical analysis. Non-deterministic finite-state machines can be made deterministic, which is preferred for implementing lexical analyzers, often called scanners. Another transformation on the resulting deterministic finite-state machines attempts to reduce the size of the machines. These three steps together make up an automatic process generating lexical analyzers from specifications. Another module working in close cooperation with such a finite-state machine is the screener. It filters out keywords, comments etc. and may do some bookkeeping.

2.1 The Task of Lexical Analysis

Let us assume that the source program is stored in a file. It consists of a sequence of characters. Lexical analysis, i.e., the scanner, reads this sequence from left to right and decomposes it into a sequence of lexical units, called symbols. Scanner, screener, and parser may work in an integrated way. In this case, the parser calls the combination scanner-screener to obtain the next symbol. The scanner starts the analysis with the character that follows the end of the last found symbol. It searches for the longest prefix of the remaining input that is a symbol of the language. It passes a representation of this symbol on to the screener, which checks whether this symbol is relevant for the parser. If not it is ignored, and the screener reactivates the scanner. Otherwise, it passes a possibly transformed representation of the symbol on to the parser.

The scanner must, in general, be able to recognize infinitely many or at least very many different symbols. The set of symbols is, therefore, divided into finitely many classes. One symbol class will consist of symbols that have a similar syntactic role. We distinguish:

- The alphabet is the set of characters that may occur in program texts. We use the letter $\Sigma$ to denote alphabets.
- A symbol is a word over the alphabet $\Sigma$. Examples are $xyz12$, $125$, class “abc”.
- A symbol class is a set of symbols. Examples are the set of identifiers, the set of int-constants, and the set of character strings. We denote these by Id, Intconst and String, respectively.
- The representation of a symbol comprises all of the mentioned informations about a symbol that may be relevant for later phases of compilation. The scanner might represent the word $xyz12$ as pair (Id, “xyz12”), consisting of the name of the class and the found symbol, and pass this representation on to the screener. The screener could replace “xyz12” by the internal representation of an identifier, for example, a unique number, and then pass this on to the parser.
The complement word from $L$. The concatenation of words is not commutative respectively. Concatenation is a binary operation on the set $\Sigma$. Several words can be concatenated to a new word. Concatenation of words is not commutative. This means that the word $x \cdot y$ is, in general, different from the word $y \cdot x$. Like the addition on numbers, concatenation of words is associative, i.e.

$$x \cdot (y \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot z \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in \Sigma^*$$

The empty word $\varepsilon$ is the neutral element with respect to concatenation of words, i.e.

$$x \cdot \varepsilon = \varepsilon \cdot x = x \quad \text{for all } x \in \Sigma^*.$$ 

In the following, we will write $xy$ for $x \cdot y$.

For a word $w = xy$ with $x, y \in \Sigma^*$ we call $x$ a prefix and $y$ a suffix of $w$. Prefixes and suffixes are special subwords. In general, word $y$ is a subword of word $w$, if $w = xyz$ for words $x, y \in \Sigma^*$. Prefixes, suffixes and, in general, subwords of $w$ are called proper, if they are different from $w$.

Subsets of $\Sigma^*$ are called (formal) languages. We need some operations on languages. Assume that $L, L_1, L_2 \subseteq \Sigma^*$ are languages. The union $L_1 \cup L_2$ consists of all words from $L_1$ and $L_2$:

$$L_1 \cup L_2 = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \in L_1 \text{ oder } w \in L_2 \}.$$ 

The concatenation $L_1 \cdot L_2$ (abbreviated $L_1 L_2$) consists of all words resulting from concatenation of a word from $L_1$ with a word from $L_2$:

$$L_1 \cdot L_2 = \{ xy \mid x \in L_1, y \in L_2 \}.$$ 

The complement $\overline{L}$ of language $L$ consists of all words in $\Sigma^*$ that are not contained in $L$:

$$\overline{L} = \Sigma^* - L.$$ 

For $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ we denote $L^n$ as the $n$-times concatenation of $L$, $L^*$ as the union of arbitrary concatenations, and $L^+$ as the union of non-empty concatenations of $L$, i.e.

$$L^n = \{ w_1 \ldots w_n \mid w_1, \ldots, w_n \in L \}$$

$$L^* = \{ w_1 \ldots w_n \mid \exists n \geq 0. \ w_1, \ldots, w_n \in L \} = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} L^n$$

$$L^+ = \{ w_1 \ldots w_n \mid \exists n > 0. \ w_1, \ldots, w_n \in L \} = \bigcup_{n \geq 1} L^n$$

The operation $(\cdot)^*$ is called Kleene-star.
2.2 Regular Expressions and Finite-State Machines

Regular Languages and Regular Expressions

The languages described by symbol classes as they are recognized by the scanner are non-empty regular languages.

Each non-empty regular language can be constructed starting with singleton languages and applying the operations union, concatenation, and Kleene-Star. Formally, the set of all regular languages over an alphabet $\Sigma$ is inductively defined by:

- The empty set $\emptyset$ and the set $\{\epsilon\}$, consisting only of the empty word, are regular.
- The sets $\{a\}$ for all $a \in \Sigma$ are regular over $\Sigma$.
- $R_1$ and $R_2$ regular languages over $\Sigma$, so are $R_1 \cup R_2$ and $R_1 R_2$.
- Is $R$ regular over $\Sigma$, then also $R^*$.

According to this definition, each regular language can be specified by a regular expression. Regular expression over $\Sigma$ and the regular languages described by them are also defined inductively:

- $\emptyset$ is a regular expression over $\Sigma$, which describes the regular language $\emptyset$.
- $\epsilon$ is a regular expression over $\Sigma$, and it describes the regular language $\{\epsilon\}$.
- For each $a \in \Sigma$ is $a$ a regular expression over $\Sigma$ that describes the regular language $\{a\}$.
- $R_1$ and $R_2$ regular expressions over $\Sigma$ that describe the regular languages $R_1$ and $R_2$ respectively, then $(R_1 | R_2)$ and $(R_1 R_2)$ are regular expressions over $\Sigma$ that describe the regular languages $R_1 \cup R_2$ and $R_1 R_2$, respectively.
- Is $r$ a regular expression over $\Sigma$, that describes the regular language $R$, then $r^*$ is a regular expression over $\Sigma$ that describes the regular language $R^*$.

In practical applications, $r^*$ is often used as abbreviation for $(r | \epsilon)$ and sometimes also $r^+$ for the expression $(rr^*)$.

In the definition of regular expressions we assumed that the symbols for the empty set and the empty word were not contained in $\Sigma$, similarly to the parentheses (,) and the operators | and * and also ?, +. These characters belong to the description mechanism for regular expressions and not to the regular languages described by the regular expressions. They are called meta characters. However, the set of representable characters is limited, so that some meta characters may also appear in the described regular languages. A programming system generating scanners from descriptions given as regular expressions needs to make clear when such a character is a meta character and when it is a character of the language. One way to do this is to use escape characters. In many specification languages for regular languages the \ character is used as escape character. For example, to represent the meta character | also as a character of the alphabet one would precede it with a \. So, in a regular expression, the vertical bar would be represented as \|.

We introduce operator precedences to save on parentheses: The ?-operator has the highest precedence, followed by the Kleene-star (\_)\*, and then possibly the operator (\_)\+, then concatenation and finally the alternative operator |

Example 2.2.1 The following table lists a number of regular expressions together with the languages described by them, and some of even all of their elements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>regular expression</th>
<th>described language</th>
<th>elements of the language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$a</td>
<td>b$</td>
<td>${a, b}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ab^* a$</td>
<td>${a} {b}^* {a}$</td>
<td>$aa, aba, abba, abba, \ldots$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$(ab)^*$</td>
<td>$(ab)^*$</td>
<td>$\epsilon, ab, abab, \ldots$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$abba$</td>
<td>${abba}$</td>
<td>$abba$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regular expressions that contain the empty set as symbol can be simplified by repeated application of the following equalities:

$r | \emptyset = \emptyset | r = r$
$r . \emptyset = \emptyset . r = \emptyset$
$\emptyset^* = \epsilon$
The equality symbol, ‘=’, between two regular expressions means that both describe the same language. We can prove:
Our applications only have regular expressions that describe non-empty languages. No symbol to describe the empty set is, therefore, needed. The empty word is needed to represent empty alternatives. The ‘?’-operator suffices to represent this. No extra representation of the empty word is needed.

Finite-State Machines

We have seen that regular expressions are used for the specification of symbol classes. The implementation of recognizers uses finite-state machines (FSMs). Finite-state machines are acceptors for regular languages. They maintain one state variable that can only take on finitely many values, the states of the finite-state machine. Fig. 2.1 shows that furthermore FSMs have an input tape and an input head, which reads the input on the tape from left to right. The working of the FSM is described by a transition relation $\Delta$.

Formally, we represent a non-deterministic finite-state machine (with $\varepsilon$-transitions) (NFSM) as a tuple $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Delta, q_0, F)$ where

- $Q$ is a finite set of states,
- $\Sigma$ is a finite alphabet, the input alphabet,
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the initial state,
- $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of final states, and
- $\Delta \subseteq Q \times (\Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\}) \times Q$ is the transition relation.

A transition $(p, x, q) \in \Delta$ expresses that $M$ can change from its current state $p$ into the state $q$. Is $x \in \Sigma$ then $x$ must be the next character in the input and after reading $x$ the input head if moved by one character. Is $x = \varepsilon$ then no character of the input is read upon this transition. The input head remains at its actual position. Such a transition is called an $\varepsilon$-transition.

Of particular interest for implementations are finite-state machines without $\varepsilon$-transitions, which in addition have in each state exactly one transition under each character. Such a finite-state machine deterministic finite-state machine (DFSM). For such a DFSM the transition relation $\Delta$ is a function $\Delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$.

We describe the workings of a DFSM in comparison with a DFSM used as a scanner. The description of the working of a scanner is put into boxes. A deterministic finite-state machine should check whether given input words are contained in a language or not. It accepts the input word if it arrives in a final state after reading the whole word.
2.2 Regular Expressions and Finite-State Machines

A deterministic finite-state machine used as a scanner decomposes the input word into a sequence of subwords corresponding to symbols of the language. Each symbol drives the DFSM from its initial state into one of its final states.

The deterministic finite-state machine starts in its initial state. Its input head is positioned at the beginning of the input head.

A scanner’s input head is always positioned at the first not yet consumed character.

It then makes a number of steps. Depending on the actual state and the next input symbol the DFSM changes its state and moves its input head to the next character. The DFSM accepts the input word when the input is exhausted and the actual state is a final state.

Quite analogously, the scanner performs a number of steps. It reports that it has found a symbol or that it has detected an error when no further step is possible. If the actual state is not a final state and there is no transition under the next input character the scanner returns to the last input character that brought it into a final state for some symbol class. It delivers as value this class together with the newly consumed prefix of the input. Then the scanner restarts in the initial state with its input head positioned at the first not yet consumed input character. The scanner has detected an error if by rewinding the last transitions it does not find a final state.

Our goal is to derive an implementation of an acceptor of a regular language out of a specification of the language, that is, to construct out of a regular expression \( r \) a deterministic finite-state machine that accepts the language described by \( r \). In a first step, a non-deterministic finite-state machine for \( r \) is constructed that accepts the language described by \( r \). In a second step this is made deterministic.

A finite-state machine \( M = (Q, \Sigma, \Delta, q_0, F) \) starts in its initial state \( q_0 \) and non-deterministically performs a sequence of steps, a computation, under the given input word. The input word is accepted if the computation leads to a final state.

The future behavior of a finite-state machine is fully determined by its actual state \( q \in Q \) and the remaining input \( w \in \Sigma^* \). This pair \( (q, w) \) makes up the configuration of the finite-state machine. A pair \( (q_0, w) \) is an initial configuration. Pairs \( (q, \varepsilon) \) such that \( q \in F \) are final configurations.

The step-relation \( \tau_M \) is a binary relation on configurations. For \( q, p \in Q, a \in \Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\} \) and \( w \in \Sigma^* \), holds \( (q, aw) \, \tau_M \, (p, w) \) if and only if \( (q, a, p) \in \Delta \) and \( a \in \Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\} \). \( \tau_M \) denotes the reflexive, transitive hull of the relation \( \tau_M \). The language accepted by the finite-state machine \( M \) is defined as

\[
L(M) = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid (q_0, w) \, \tau_M^* \, (q_f, \varepsilon) \text{ with } q_f \in F \}.
\]

Example 2.2.2 Table 2.1 shows the transition relation of a finite-state machine \( M \) in the form of a two-dimensional matrix \( T_M \). The states of the FSM are denoted by the numbers \( 0, \ldots, 7 \). The alphabet is the set \( \{0, \ldots, 9, E, +, -\} \). Each row of the table describes the transitions for one of the states of the FSM. The columns correspond to the characters in \( \Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\} \). The entry \( T_M[q, x] \) contains the set of states \( p \) such that \( (q, x, p) \in \Delta \). The state \( 0 \) is the initial state. \( \{1, 4, 7\} \) is the set of final states. This FSM recognizes unsigned int- and float-constants. The accepting (final) state 1 can be reached through computations on int-constants. Accepting states 4 and 6 can be reached under float-constants. □

A finite-state machine \( M \) can be graphically represented as a finite transition diagram. A transition diagram is a finite, directed, edge-labeled graph. The vertices of this graph correspond to the states of \( M \), the edges to the transitions of \( M \). An edge from \( p \) to \( q \) that is labeled with \( x \) corresponds to a transition \( (p, x, q) \). The start vertex of the transition diagram, corresponding to the initial state, is marked by an arrow pointing to it. The end vertices, corresponding to final states, are represented by doubly circled vertices. A \( w \)-path in this graph for a word \( w \in \Sigma^* \) is a path from a vertex \( q \) to a vertex \( p \), such that \( w \) is the concatenation of the edge labels. The language accepted by \( M \) consists of all words in \( w \in \Sigma^* \), for which there exists a \( w \)-Weg in the state diagram from \( q_0 \) to a vertex \( q \in F \).

Example 2.2.3 Fig. 2.2 shows the transition diagram corresponding to the finite-state machine of example 2.2.2. □
Table 2.1. The transition relation of a finite-state machine to recognize unsigned int- and float-constants. The first column represents the identical columns for the digits $i = 0, \ldots, 9$, the fifth the ones for $+$ and $-$. 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$T_M$</th>
<th>$i$</th>
<th>$.$</th>
<th>$E$</th>
<th>$+,$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>${1, 2}$</td>
<td>${3}$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>${1}$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>${4}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>${2}$</td>
<td>${4}$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>${4}$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>${4}$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>${5}$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>${7}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>${6}$</td>
<td>${6}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>${7}$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>${7}$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2.2. The transition diagram for the finite-state machine of Example 2.2.2. The character digit stands for the set \{0, 1, \ldots, 9\}, an edge labeled with digit for edges labeled with 0, 1, \ldots, 9 with the same source and target vertices.

Acceptors

The next theorem guarantees that a non-deterministic finite-state machine can be constructed for a regular expression.

**Theorem 2.2.1** For each regular expression $r$ over an alphabet $\Sigma$ there exists a non-deterministic finite-state machine $M_r$ with input alphabet $\Sigma$, such that $L(M_r)$ is the regular language described by $r$.

We now present a method that constructs the transition diagram of a non-deterministic finite-state machine for a regular expression $r$ over an alphabet $\Sigma$. The construction starts with an edge leading from the initial state to a final state. This edge is labeled with $r$.

$r$ will be decomposed according to its syntactical structure, and in parallel the transition diagram is built up. This is done by the rules of Fig. 2.3. They are applied until all remaining edges are labeled with $\emptyset$, $\varepsilon$ or characters from $\Sigma$. Then, the edges labeled with $\emptyset$ are removed.

The application of a rule replaces the edge whose label is matched by the label of the left side by a corresponding copy of the subgraph of the right side. Exactly one rule is applicable for each operator. The application of the rule removes an edge labeled with a regular expression $r$ and inserts new edges that are labeled with the argument expressions of the outermost constructor in $r$. The rule for the Kleene-star inserts additional $\varepsilon$-edges. This method can be implemented by the following program snippet if we take natural numbers as states of the finite-state machine.
2.2 Regular Expressions and Finite-State Machines

Fig. 2.3. The rules for the construction of a finite-state machine for a regular expression.

\[
\text{trans} \leftarrow \emptyset; \\
\text{count} \leftarrow 1; \\
generate(0, r, 1); \\
\text{return} (\text{count}, \text{trans});
\]

The set \text{trans} globally collects the transitions of the generated FSM, and the global counter \text{count} keeps track of the largest natural number used as state. A call to a procedure \text{generate} for \((p, r', q)\) inserts all transitions of a finite-state machine for the regular expression \(r'\) with initial state \(p\) and final state \(q\) into the set \text{trans}. New states are created by incrementing the counter \text{count}. This procedure is recursively defined over the structure of the regular expression \(r'\):

\[
\text{void generate} (\text{int } p, \text{Exp } r', \text{int } q) \{ \\
\text{switch } (r') \{ \\
\text{case } (r_1 | r_2) : \text{generate}(p, r_1, q); \text{generate}(p, r_2, q); \text{return}; \\
\text{case } (r_1.r_2) : \text{int } q_1 \leftarrow ++\text{count}; \text{generate}(p, r_1, q_1); \text{generate}(q_1, r_2, q_2); \text{return}; \\
\text{case } r_1^* : \text{int } q_1 \leftarrow ++\text{count}; \text{int } q_2 \leftarrow ++\text{count}; \text{trans} \leftarrow \text{trans} \cup \{(p, \varepsilon, q_1), (q_2, \varepsilon, q), (q_2, \varepsilon, q_1)\} \text{generate}(q_1, r_1, q_2); \text{return}; \\
\text{case } \emptyset : \text{return}; \\
\text{case } x : \text{trans} \leftarrow \text{trans} \cup \{(p, x, q)\}; \text{return}; \\
\} 
\]

\text{Exp} denotes the type ‘regular expression’ over the alphabet \(\Sigma\). We have used a \text{JAVA}-like programming language as implementation language. The \text{switch}-statement was extended by \text{pattern matching} to elegantly deal with structured data such as regular expressions. This means that patterns are not only used to select between alternatives but also to identify partial structures.

A procedure call \text{generate}(0, r, 1) terminates after \(n\) rule applications where \(n\) is the number of occurrences of operators and symbols in the regular expression \(r\). If \(l\) is the value of the counter after the call, the generated FSM has \(\{0, \ldots, l\}\) as set of states, where 0 is the initial state and 1 the only final state. The transitions are collected in the set \text{trans}. The FSM \(M_r\) can be computed in linear time.
Example 2.2.4 The regular expression $a(a \mid 0)^*$ over the alphabet $\{a, 0\}$ describes the set of words $\{a, 0\}^*$ beginning with an $a$. Fig. 2.4 shows the construction of the state diagram of a NFS that accepts this language.

![State Diagram](image)

**Fig. 2.4. Construction of a state diagram for the regular expression $a(a \mid 0)^*$**

The Subset Construction

For implementations, deterministic finite-state machines are preferable to non-deterministic finite-state machines. A deterministic finite-state machine $M$ has no transitions under $\varepsilon$ and for each pair $(q, a)$ with $q \in Q$ and $a \in \Sigma$, it has exactly one successor state. So, for each state $q$ in $M$ and each word $w \in \Sigma^*$ it has exactly one $w$-path in the transition diagram of $M$ starting in $q$. If $q$ is chosen as initial state of $M$ then $w$ is in the language of $M$ if and only if this path leads to a final state of $M$. Fortunately, we have Theorem 2.2.2.

**Theorem 2.2.2** For each non-deterministic finite-state machine one can construct a deterministic finite-state machine that recognizes the same language. □

**Proof.** The proof is constructive and provides the second step of the generation method for scanners. It uses the subset construction. Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Delta, q_0, F)$ be an NFSM. Goal of the subset construction is to construct a DFSM $P(M) = (P(Q), \Sigma, P(\Delta), P(q_0)P(F))$ that recognizes the same language as $M$. For a word $w \in \Sigma^*$ let $\text{states}(w) \subseteq Q$ be the set of all states $q \in Q$ for which there exists a $w$-path leading from the initial state $q_0$ to $q$. The DFSM $P(M)$ is given by:

- $P(Q) = \{\text{states}(w) \mid w \in \Sigma^*\}$
- $P(q_0) = \text{states}(\varepsilon)$
- $P(F) = \{\text{states}(w) \mid w \in L(M)\}$
- $P(\Delta)(S, a) = \text{states}(wa)$ for $S \in P(Q)$ and $a \in \Sigma$ if $S = \text{states}(w)$

We convince ourselves that our definition of the transition function $P(\Delta)$ is reasonable. To do this we show that for words $w, w' \in \Sigma^*$ with $\text{states}(w) = \text{states}(w')$ it holds that $\text{states}(wa) = \text{states}(w'a)$ for all $a \in \Sigma$. It follows in particular that $M$ and $P(M)$ accept the same language.
2.2 Regular Expressions and Finite-State Machines

We need a systematic way to construct the states and the transitions of $\mathcal{P}(M)$. The set of final states of $\mathcal{P}(M)$ can be easily constructed if the set of states of $\mathcal{P}(M)$ is known because it holds:

$$\mathcal{P}(F) = \{ A \in \mathcal{P}(M) \mid A \cap F \neq \emptyset \}$$

For a set $A \subseteq Q$ we define the set of $\varepsilon$-successor states $A$ as

$$\text{FZ}_\varepsilon(A) = \{ p \in Q \mid \exists q \in S. (q, \varepsilon) \mathrel{\mathcal{R}_M} (p, \varepsilon) \}$$

This set consists of all states that can be reached from states in $S$ by $\varepsilon$-paths in the transition diagram of $M$. This closure can be computed by the following function:

```plaintext
set(state) closure(set(state) S) {
    set(state) result ← ∅;
    list(state) W ← list_of(S);
    state q, q';
    while (W ≠ []) {
        q ← hd(W);
        W ← tl(W);
        if (q ∉ result) {
            result ← result ∪ \{ q \};
            forall (q' : (q, ε, q') ∈ \Δ)
                W ← q' :: W;
        }
    }
    return result;
}
```

The states of the non-deterministic finite-state machine reachable from $A$ are collected in the set `result`. The list $W$ contains all elements in `result` whose $\varepsilon$-transitions are not yet processed. As long as $W$ is not empty, the first state $q$ from $W$ is selected. To do this, functions `hd` and `tl` are used that return the first element and the tail of a list, respectively. Is $q$ already contained in `result`, nothing needs to be done. Otherwise, $q$ is inserted into the set `result`. The all transitions $(q, \varepsilon, q')$ for $q$ in \Δ are considered and the successor states $q'$ are added to $W$. By applying the closure operator $\text{FZ}_\varepsilon(\_ \_)$, the initial state $\mathcal{P}(q_0)$ of the subset automaton can be computed:

$$\mathcal{P}(q_0) = S_\varepsilon = \text{FZ}_\varepsilon(\{ q_0 \})$$

To construct the set of all states $\mathcal{P}(M)$ together with the transition function $\mathcal{P}(\Delta)$ of $\mathcal{P}(M)$, bookkeeping of the set $Q' \subseteq \mathcal{P}(M)$ of already generated states and the set $S' \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\Delta)$ of already created transitions is performed. Initially, $Q' = \{ \mathcal{P}(q_0) \}$ and $S' = \emptyset$.

For a state $S \in Q'$ and each $a \in \Sigma$ its successor state $S'$ under $a$ and $Q'$ and the transition $(S, a, S')$ are added to $\Delta$. The successor state $S'$ for $S$ under a character $a \in \Sigma$ is obtained by collecting the successor states of all states $q \in S$ under $a$ and adding all $\varepsilon$-successor states:

$$S' = \text{FZ}_\varepsilon(\{ p \in Q \mid \exists q \in S. (q, a, p) \in \Delta \})$$

The function `nextState()` serves to compute this set:

```plaintext
set(state) nextState(set(state) S, symbol x) {
    set(state) S' ← ∅;
    state q, q';
    forall (q' : q ∈ S, (q, x, q') ∈ \Δ)
        S' ← S' ∪ \{ q' \};
    return closure(q');
}
```
The extensions of $Q'$ and $\Delta'$ are performed until all successor states of the states in $Q'$ under characters from $\Sigma$ are already contained in the set $Q'$. Technically, this means that the set of all states $states$ and the set of all transitions $trans$ of the subset automaton can be computed iteratively by the following loop:

```
list(set(state)) W;
set(state) $S_0$ ← closure(\{q_0\});
states ← \{S_0\}; W ← [S_0];
trans ← \emptyset;
set(state) $S, S'$;
while (W ≠ []) {
  $q$ ← hd(W); W ← tl(W);
  forall ($x \in \Sigma$) {
    $S'$ ← nextState($S, x$);
    trans ← trans ∪ \{(S, x, $S'$)\};
    if ($S' \notin states$) {
      states ← states ∪ \{S'\};
      W ← W ∪ \{S'\};
    }
  }
}
```

The subset construction, applied to the finite-state machine of Example 2.2.4 could be executed by the steps described in Fig. 2.5. The states of the DFSM to be constructed are denoted by primed natural numbers $0', 1', \ldots$. The initial state $0'$ is the set \{0\}. The states in $Q'$ whose successor states are already computed are underlined. The state $3'$ is the empty set of states, i.e. the error state. It can never be left.

It is the successor state of a state $q$ under $a$ if there is no transition under $a$ from $q$ heraus. □

**Minimization**

The deterministic finite-state machines generated from regular expressions in the first two steps are in general not the smallest possible that would accept the given language. There might be states that have the same acceptance behavior. We say, states $p$ and $q$ of a DFSM have the same acceptance behavior if the DFSM goes from $p$ and $q$ either under all input words into a final state or under all input words into a non-final state. Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Delta, q_0, F)$ be a deterministic finite-state machine. To formalize the concept, same acceptance behavior, we extend the transition function $\Delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$ of the DFSM $M$ function $\Delta^* : Q \times \Sigma^* \rightarrow Q$ that maps each pair $(q, w) \in Q \times \Sigma^*$ to the unique state in which ends the $w$-path from $q$ in the transition diagram of $M$. The function $\Delta^*$ is defined inductively over the length of words:

$$\Delta^*(q, \varepsilon) = q \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta^*(q, aw) = \Delta^*(\Delta(q, a), w)$$

for all $q \in Q$, $w \in \Sigma^*$ and $a \in \Sigma$. States $p, q \in Q$ have the same acceptance behavior if

$$\Delta^*(p, w) \in F \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \Delta^*(q, w) \in F$$

In this case we write $p \sim_M q$. The relation $\sim_M$ is an equivalence relation on $Q$. The DFSM $M$ is called minimal if the equivalence relation $\sim_M$ is trivial, that is, there are no states $p \neq q$ in $Q$ with $p \sim_M q$. For each DFSM a minimal DFSM can be constructed, which is even unique up to isomorphism. This is the claim of the following theorem.
2.2 Regular Expressions and Finite-State Machines

Theorem 2.2.3 For each deterministic finite-state machine \( M \), a minimal deterministic finite-state machine \( M' \) can be constructed that accepts the same language as \( M \). This minimal deterministic finite-state machine is unique up to renaming of states.

Proof. For a deterministic finite-state machine \( M = (Q, \Sigma, \Delta, q_0, F) \) we define a deterministic finite-state machine \( M' = (Q', \Sigma, \Delta', q_0', F') \) that is minimal. As set of states of the deterministic finite-state machine \( M' \) we choose the set of equivalence classes of states of the DFSM \( M \) under \( \sim_M \).

For a state \( q \in Q \) let \( [q]_M \) be the equivalence class of state \( s \) \( q \) with respect to the relation \( \sim_M \), i.e.

\[
[q]_M = \{ p \in Q \mid q \sim_M p \}
\]

The set of states of \( M' \) is given by:

\[
Q' = \{ [q]_M \mid q \in Q \}
\]

Correspondingly, the initial state and the set of final states of \( M' \) are defined by

\[
q'_0 = [q_0]_M \quad F' = \{ [q]_M \mid q \in F \}
\]

and the transition function of \( M \) for \( q' \in Q' \) and \( a \in \Sigma \) is defined by

\[
\Delta' (q', a) = [\Delta(q, a)]_M \quad \text{for a } q \in Q \text{ such that } q' = [q]_M.
\]

One convinces oneself that the new transition function \( \Delta' \) is well-defined, i.e. that for \( [q_1]_M = [q_2]_M \) it holds \( [\Delta(q_1, a)]_M = [\Delta(q_2, a)]_M \) for all \( a \in \Sigma \). Furthermore, one shows that

\[
\Delta'(q, w) \in F' \quad \text{if and only if} \quad (\Delta')^*([q]_M, a) \in F'
\]
holds for all \( q \in Q \) and \( w \in \Sigma^* \). This implies that \( L(M) = L(M') \). We claim that the DFSM \( M' \) is minimal. To show this we assume there were still states \([q_1]_M \neq [q_2]_M \) in \( M' \) that had the same acceptance behavior in \( M' \). This would mean that \((\Delta')^*(([q_1]_M, w)) \in F'\). But then also holds \( \Delta^*(q_1, w) \in F \) if and only if \( \Delta^*(q_2, w) \in F \). Therefore, \( q_1 \) and \( q_2 \) would have the same acceptance behavior in \( M \), i.e. \( q_1 \sim_M q_2 \). But since \( \sim_M \) is an equivalence relation this means that \([q_1]_M = [q_2]_M \), which is a contradiction to our assumption.

We conclude that \( M' \) is indeed the desired minimal deterministic finite-state machine. The practical construction of \( M' \) requires to compute the equivalence classes \([q]_M \) of the relation \( \sim_M \).

Were each state a final state, i.e. \( Q = F \) then all states were equivalent, and \( Q = [q_0]_M \) were the only state of \( M' \).

Let us assume in the following that not every state is a final state, i.e. \( Q \neq F \). The algorithm manages a partition \( \Pi \) on the set \( Q \) of the states of the DFSM \( M \). A partition on the set \( Q \) is a set of non-empty subsets of \( Q \), whose union is \( Q \).

A partition \( \Pi \) is called stable under the transition relation \( \Delta \), if for all \( q' \in \Pi \) and all \( a \in \Sigma \) there is a \( p' \in \Pi \) such that

\[
\{ \Delta(q, a) \mid q \in q' \} \subseteq p'
\]

In a stable partition, all transitions from one set of the partition lead into exactly one set of the partition.

In the partition \( \Pi \), the sets of states are managed of which we assume that they have the same acceptance behavior. If it turns out that a set \( q' \in \Pi \) contains states with different acceptance behavior then the set \( q' \) is split up. Different acceptance behavior of two states \( q_1 \) and \( q_2 \) is recognized when the successor states \( \Delta(q_1, a) \) and \( \Delta(q_2, a) \) for a \( a \in \Sigma \) lie in different sets of \( \Pi \). The partition is apparently not stable. Such a split of a set in a partition is called refinement of \( \Pi \). The successive refinement of the partition \( \Pi \) terminates if there is no need for further splitting of any set in the obtained partition. \( \Pi \) is stable under the transition relation \( \Delta \).

The construction of the minimal deterministic finite-state machine proceeds as follows: The partition \( \Pi \) is initialized with \( \Pi = \{F, Q\setminus F\} \). Let us assume that the actual partition \( \Pi \) of the set \( Q \) of states of \( M' \) is not yet stable under \( \Delta \). Then there exists a set \( q' \in \Pi \) and a \( a \in \Sigma \) such that the set \( \{ \Delta(q, a) \mid q \in q' \} \) is not completely contained in any of the sets in \( \Pi \). Such a set \( q' \) is then split to obtain a new partition \( \Pi' \) that consists of all non-empty elements of the set

\[
\{ \{ q \in q' \mid \Delta(q, a) \in p' \} \mid p' \in \Pi \}
\]

The partition \( \Pi' \) of \( q' \) consists of all non-empty subsets of states from \( q' \) that lead under \( a \) into the same sets in \( \Pi \). The set \( q' \in \Pi \) is replaced by the partition \( \Pi' \) of \( q' \), i.e. the partition \( \Pi \) is refined to the partition \( (\Pi \setminus \{q'\}) \cup \Pi' \).

If a sequence of such refinement steps arrives at a stable partition \( \Pi \) the set of states of \( M' \) has been computed.

\[
\Pi = \{ [q]_M \mid q \in Q \}
\]

Each refinement step increases the number of sets in \( \Pi \). A partition of the set \( Q \) may only have as many sets as \( Q \) has elements. Therefore, the algorithm terminates after finitely many steps. The proof that the minimal DFSM is unique up to renaming of states is the subject of Exercise 9.

**Example 2.2.6** We illustrate the presented method by minimizing the deterministic finite-state machine of Example 2.2.5. At the beginning, partition \( \Pi \) is given by

\[
\{ \{0', 3'\}, \{1', 2'\} \}
\]

This Partition is not stable. The first set \( \{0', 3'\} \) must be split into the partition \( \Pi' = \{ \{0'\}, \{3'\} \} \). The corresponding refinement of partition \( \Pi \) produces the partition

\[
\{ \{0'\}, \{3'\}, \{1', 2'\} \}
\]

This partition is stable under \( \Delta \). It therefore delivers the states of the minimal deterministic finite-state machine. The transition diagram of the so constructed deterministic finite-state machine is shown in Fig. 2.6.
2.3 A Language for the Specification of Lexical Analyzers

We have met regular expressions as specification mechanism for symbol classes in lexical analysis. For practical purposes, one often would like to have something more comfortable.

Example 2.3.1 The following regular expression describes the language of unsigned \textit{int}-constants of Examples 2.2.2 and 2.2.3.

\[(0|1|2|3|4|5|6|7|8|9)(0|1|2|3|4|5|6|7|8|9)^*\]

A similar specification of \textit{float}-constants would stretch over three lines. ☐

In the following, we will present some extensions of the specification mechanism that increase the comfort, but not the expressive power of this mechanism. The class of languages that can be described remains the same.

2.3.1 Character classes

In the specification of a lexical analyzer, one should be able to group sets of characters into \textit{classes} if these characters can be exchanged against each other without changing the symbol class of symbols in which they appear. This is particularly helpful in the case of large classes, for instance the class of all \textit{Unicode}-characters. Examples of frequently occurring character classes are:

\[
\text{alpha} = a - z A - Z \\
\text{digit} = 0 - 9
\]

The first two definitions of character classes define classes by using intervals in the underlying character code, e.g. the ASCII. Note that we need another meta character, ‘-’, for the specification of intervals. Using this feature, we can nicely specify the symbol class of identifiers:

\[
\text{Id} = \text{alpha} (\text{alpha} | \text{digit})^* \\
\]

The specification of character classes only uses three meta character, namely ‘=’, ‘-’, and the blank.

Example 2.3.2 The regular expression for unsigned \textit{int} and \textit{float}-constants is simplified through the use of the character classes digit = 0 – 9 to:

\[
digit \digit^* \\
\digit \digit^* E(\pm | -)\digit \digit^* | \digit^*(\digit | \digit.\digit)\digit^*(E(\pm | -)\digit \digit^*)?
\]

☐
2.3.2 Non-recursive Parentheses

Programming languages have lexical units that are characterized by the enclosing parentheses. Examples are strings and comments. Parentheses limiting comments can be composed of several characters: \(( \ast \) and \( \ast \)) or \( / \ast \) and \( \ast / \) or \( / / \) and \( \ast \n \) (newline). More or less arbitrary texts can be enclosed in the opening and the closing parentheses. This is not easily described. A comfortable abbreviation for this is:

\[ r_1 \text{ until } r_2 \]

Let \( L_1, L_2 \) the languages described by \( r_1 \) bzw. \( r_2 \) where \( L_2 \) does not contain the empty word. The language described by the \text{until}-expression is:

\[ L_1 \Sigma^* L_2 \Sigma^* L_2 \]

A comment starting with \( // \) and ending at the end of line can be described by:

\[ // \text{ until } \n \]

2.4 Scanner Generation

Section 2.2 described methods to derive a non-deterministic finite-state machine from a regular expression, from this a deterministic finite-state machine, and finally a minimal deterministic finite-state machine. In what follows we present the necessary extension for the practical generation of scanners and screeners.

2.4.1 Character Classes

Character classes were introduced to simplify regular expressions. They may also lead to smaller finite-state machines. The character-class definition

\[
\text{alpha} = a - z \\
\text{digit} = 0 - 9
\]

can be used to replace the 26 transitions between states under letters by one transition under bu. This simplifies the FSM for the expression

\[
\text{Id} = \text{alpha} (\text{alpha} \mid \text{digit})^*
\]

considerably. The implementation uses a map \( \chi \) that associates each character \( a \) with its class or practically with a code for the class. This map is stored in an array indexed by the character codes. The array components contain the code for the character class. In order for \( \chi \) to be a function each character must be member of exactly one character class. Character classes are implicitly introduced for characters that don’t explicitly occur in a class and those that occur directly in a symbol-class definition. The problem of non-disjoint character classes is resolved by refining the classes to become disjoint. Let us assume that the classes \( z_1, \ldots, z_k \) were specified. The generator introduces for each intersection \( \tilde{z}_1 \cap \ldots \cap \tilde{z}_k \) that is non-empty a new character class. \( \tilde{z}_i \) either denotes \( z_i \) or the complement of \( z_i \). Let \( D \) be the set of these newly introduced character classes. Each character class \( z_i \) corresponds to one of the alternatives \( d_i = (d_{i1} \mid \ldots \mid d_{ir_i}) \) of character classes in \( D \). Each occurrence of the character class \( z_i \) in the regular expression is then replaced by \( d_i \).

\textbf{Example 2.4.1} Let us assume we had introduced the two classes

\[
\text{alpha} = a - z \\
\text{alphanum} = a - z0 - 9
\]
to define the symbol classes \( ld = \text{alpha alphanum}^* \). The generator would divide one of these character classes into

\[
digit' = \text{alphanum}\backslash\text{alpha} \\
\text{alpha}' = \text{alpha} \cap \text{alphanum} = \text{alpha}
\]

The occurrence of alphanum in the regular expression will be replaced by \((\text{alpha}' \mid \text{digit'})\). □

### 2.4.2 An Implementation of the until-Construct

Let us assume the scanner should recognize symbols whose symbol class is specified by the expression

\[ r = r_1 \text{ until } r_2 \]

After recognizing a word of the language for \( ur \), it needs to find a word of the language for \( r_2 \) and then halt. This task is a generalization of the pattern-matching problem on strings. There exist algorithms for this problem that solve this problem for regular patterns in time, linear in the length of the input. These are, for example, used in the UNIX-program EGREP. They construct a finite-state machine for this task. One could solve the task presented above by starting such an automaton in the final state of an automaton \( M_1 \) that recognizes the language for \( r_1 \). We will not do this, but present an approach to construct such an automaton.

Let \( L_1, L_2 \) be the languages described by the expressions \( r_1 \) and \( r_2 \). The language \( L \) defined by the expression \( r_1 \text{ until } r_2 \) is:

\[ L = L_1 \Sigma^* L_2 \Sigma^* L_2 \]

The process starts with automata for the languages \( L_1 \) and \( L_2 \), decomposes the regular expression describing the language, and applies standard constructions for automata. The process has the following seven steps: Fig. 2.7 shows all seven steps for an example.

1. The first step constructs FSMs \( M_1 \) and \( M_2 \) for the regular expressions \( r_1, r_2 \) where \( L(M_1) = L_1 \) and \( L(M_2) = L_2 \). A copy of the FSM for \( M_2 \) is needed for step 2 and one more in step 6.
2. A FSM \( M_3 \) is constructed for \( \Sigma^* L_2 \Sigma^* \) using the first copy of \( M_2 \).

The FSM \( M_3 \) non-deterministically accepts all words over \( \Sigma \) that contain a subword from \( L_2 \).
3. The FSM \( M_3 \) is transformed into a DFSM \( M_4 \) by the subset construction.
4. A DFSM \( M_5 \) is constructed that recognizes the language for \( \Sigma^* L_2 \Sigma^* \). To achieve this, the set of final states of \( M_4 \) is exchanged with the one of non-final states. Each state that was a final state is now a non-final state and vice versa. In particular, \( M_5 \) accepts the empty word since according to our assumption \( \epsilon \notin L_2 \). Therefore, the initial state of \( M_5 \) also is a final state.
5. The DFSM \( M_5 \) is transformed into a minimal DFSM \( M_6 \). All final states of \( M_4 \) are equivalent and dead since it is not possible to reach a final state of \( M_5 \) from any final states of \( M_4 \). This error state is removed.
6. Using the FSMs \( M_1, M_2 \) for \( L_1 \) and \( L_2 \) and \( M_6 \) a FSM \( M_7 \) for the language \( L_1 \Sigma^* L_2 \Sigma^* L_2 \) is constructed.

From each final state of \( M_6 \) including the initial state of \( M_6 \), there is a \( \epsilon \)-transition to the initial state of \( M_2 \). From there paths under all words \( w \in L_2 \) lead into the final state of \( M_2 \), which is the only final state of \( M_7 \).
7. The FSM \( M_7 \) is converted into a DFSM \( M_8 \) and possible minimized.
2.4.3 Sequences of regular expressions

Let a sequence

\[ r_0, \ldots, r_{n-1} \]

of regular expression be given for the symbol classes to be recognized by the scanner. A scanner recognizing the symbols in these classes can be generated in the following steps:

1. In a first step, FSMs \( M_i = (Q_i, \Sigma, \Delta_i, q_{0,i}, F_i) \) for the regular expressions \( r_i \) are generated where the \( Q_i \) should be pairwise disjoint.
2. The FSMs \( M_i \) are combined into a FSM \( M = (\Sigma, Q, \Delta, q_0, F) \) by adding a new initial state \( q_0 \) together with \( \varepsilon \)-transitions to the initial states \( q_{0,i} \) of the FSMs \( M_i \). The FSM \( M \), therefore, looks...

Fig. 2.7. The derivation of a DFSM for \( z \) until \( xy \) with \( x, y, z \in \Sigma \).
as follows:

\[ Q = \{ q_0 \} \cup Q_0 \cup \ldots \cup Q_{n-1} \]
\[ F = F_0 \cup \ldots \cup F_{n-1} \]
\[ \Delta = \{ (q_0, \varepsilon, q_0, i) \mid 0 \leq i \leq n-1 \} \cup \Delta_0 \cup \ldots \cup \Delta_{n-1} \].

The FSM \( M \) for the sequence accepts the union of the languages that were accepted by the FSMs \( M_i \). The final state reached by a successful run of the automaton indicates to which class the found symbol belongs.

3. The subset construction is applied to the FSM \( M \) resulting in a deterministic finite-state machine \( \mathcal{P}(M) \). A word \( w \) is associated with the \( i \)-th symbol class if it belongs to the language of \( r_i \), but to no language of the other regular expressions \( r_j, j < i \). Expressions with a smaller index are here preferred over expressions with larger indices.

To which symbol class a word \( w \) belongs can be computed by the DFSM \( \mathcal{P}(M) \). The word \( w \) belongs to the \( i \)-th symbol class if and only if it drives the DFSM \( \mathcal{P}(M) \) into a state \( q' \subseteq Q \) such that

\[ q' \cap F_i \neq \emptyset \quad \text{und} \quad q' \cap F_j = \emptyset \quad \text{f"ur alle} \ j < i. \]

The set of all these states \( q' \) is denoted by \( F'_i \).

4. After this step, one may minimize the DFSM \( \mathcal{P}(M) \). During minimization, the sets of final states \( F'_i \) and \( F'_j \) for \( i \neq j \) should be kept separate. The minimization algorithm should, therefore, start with the initial partition

\[ \Pi = \{ F'_0, F'_1, \ldots, F'_{n-1}, \mathcal{P}(Q) \setminus \bigcup_{i=0}^{n-1} F'_i \} \]

**Example 2.4.2** Let the following sequence of character classes be given:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{digit} &= 0 - 9 \\
\text{hex} &= A - F
\end{align*}
\]

The sequence of regular definitions

\[
\text{digit digit}* \\
\text{h}(\text{digit} \mid \text{hex})(\text{digit} \mid \text{hex})*
\]

for the symbol classes \( \text{Intconst} \) and \( \text{Hexconst} \) are processed in the following steps:

- FSMs are generated for these regular expressions.
The two FSMs are combined with a new initial state \( q_0 \):

\[
\begin{array}{c}
q_0 \\
\varepsilon \\
\end{array}
\xrightarrow{\text{digit}}
\begin{array}{c}
q_0 \\
\varepsilon \\
\end{array}
\]

The resulting FSM is then made deterministic:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{zi} \\
\text{digit} \\
\end{array}
\xrightarrow{1}
\begin{array}{c}
\text{digit} \\
\text{hex} \\
\end{array}
\]

An additional state 4 is needed, the error state corresponding to the empty set of original states. This state and all transitions into it are left out in the transition diagram in order to keep the readability.

Minimization of the DFSM does not change it in this example.

The new final state of the generated DFSM contains the old final state \( i_4 \) and, therefore, signals the recognition of symbols of symbol class \( \text{Intconst} \). Final state 3 contains \( h_5 \) and, therefore, signals the symbol class \( \text{Hexconst} \).

Generated scanners always search for longest prefixes of the remaining input that leads into a final state. The scanner will, therefore, make a transition out of state 1 if this is possible, that is, if a digit follows. If the next input character is not a digit, the scanner should return to state 1 and reset its reading head.

2.4.4 The Implementation of a Scanner

We have seen that the core of a scanner is a deterministic finite-state machine. The transition function of this machine can be represented by a two-dimensional array \( \delta \). This array is indexed by the actual state and the character class of the next input character. The selected array component contains the new state into which the DFSM should go when reading this character in the actual state. States and character classes are coded at non-negative integers. The access to \( \delta[q, a] \) is usually fast. However, the size of the array \( \delta \) may be large. This DFSM often contains many transitions into the error state \( \text{error} \). We, therefore, choose this state as the default value for the entries in \( \delta \). It then suffices to only represent transitions into non-error states. This might lead to a sparsely populated array, which can be compressed using well-known methods. These save much space at the cost of slightly increased access time. It should not be forgotten that the now empty entries represent transitions into the error state. These are still relevant for the scanners error-detecting capabilities. Thus, this information must still be available.

Let us consider one such compression method. Instead of using the original array \( \delta \) to represent the transition function we represent it by an array \( \text{RowPtr} \), which is indexed by states and whose components are addresses of the original rows of \( \delta \), see Fig. 2.8.

We haven’t won anything, yet, but even lost access efficiency. As said above, the rows of \( \delta \) to which entries in \( \text{RowPtr} \) point are often almost empty. The rows will, therefore, be overlaid into a 1-dimensional array \( \Delta \) in such a way that non-empty entries of \( \delta \) do not collide. To find the starting position for the next row to be inserted into \( \Delta \) one can use the first-fit strategy. This row will
be shifted over the array \( \Delta \) starting at its beginning, until no non-empty entries of this row collide with non-empty entries already allocated in \( \Delta \).

The index in \( \Delta \) at which the \( q \)–th row of \( \delta \) is allocated is stored in \( \text{RowPtr}[q] \). See Fig. 2.9.

One problem is that the represented DFSM has lost its ability to identify errors, that is, undefined transitions. Let us consider an undefined entry \( \Delta(q, a) \), representing a transition into the error state. However, \( \Delta(\text{RowPtr}[q] + a) \) might contain a non-empty entry stemming from a shifted row of a state \( p \neq q \). Another 1-dimensional array \( \text{Valid} \) is added, which has the same length as \( \Delta \). It contains the information to which states the entries in \( \Delta \) belong. This means that \( \text{Valid}[\text{RowPtr}[q] + a] = q \) if and only if \( \Delta(q, a) \) is defined. The transition function of the deterministic finite-state machine can then be implemented by a function \( \text{next()} \) as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
    \text{State next}(\text{State } q, \text{CharClass } a) \{ \\
    \quad \text{if } (\text{Valid}[\text{RowPtr}[q] + a] \neq q) \text{ return } \text{error} ; \\
    \quad \text{return } \Delta[\text{RowPtr}[q] + a] ; \\
    \}
\end{align*}
\]

2.5 The Screener

Scanners can be used in many applications, even beyond the pure splitting of a stream of characters according to a specification by regular expressions. Hence, also scanner generators are useful to auto-
matically implement scanners. Scanner often can do more than splitting character streams, for instance processing the tokens found in the stream.

To specify this extended functionality, each symbol class may have an associated semantic action. A scanner can, therefore, be specified as a sequence of pairs of the form

\[ r_0 \{ \text{action}_0 \} \]

\[ \ldots \]

\[ r_{n-1} \{ \text{action}_{n-1} \} \]

where the \( r_i \) are possibly extended regular expressions over character classes specifying the \( i \)-th symbol class, and \( \text{action}_i \) denotes the semantic action to be executed when a symbol of this class is found. The semantic actions are specified as code in a particular programming language if the scanner is to be implemented in this programming language. Different languages offer different adequate ways to return a representation of a found symbol. An implementation in C would, for instance, return an int-value as code for a symbol class. All other concerned values are stored into global values. Somewhat more comfort would be offered for an implementation of the scanner in a modern object-oriented languages such as JAVA. One could introduce a class Token whose subclasses \( C_i \) would correspond to the symbol classes. The last statement in \( \text{action}_i \) should be a return-statement returning an object of class \( C_i \) whose attributes would store all properties of the identified symbol. In a functional language such as OCAMLS, one could supply a data type token whose constructors \( C_i \) correspond to the different symbol classes. The semantic action \( \text{action}_i \) is written in the form of an expression of type token whose value \( C_i(\ldots) \) represents the identified symbol of class \( C_i \).

Semantic actions often need to access the text of the actual symbol. Some generated scanners have access to it in a global variable \( \text{yytext} \). Further global variables contain information such as the position of the actual symbol in the input. These are important for the generation of meaningful error messages. Some symbols should be ignored by the scanner. Instead of returning such a symbol to the parser the scanner would be asked for the next symbol from the input. For example, a comment might have to be skipped or a compiler directive might be realized and the next symbol be asked for. In a generator for C oder JAVA no return-statement would terminate the semantic actions.

A function \( \text{yylex()} \) is generated from such a specification. It returns the next symbol every time it is called. Let us assume a a function \( \text{scan()} \) has been generated for the sequence \( r_0, \ldots, r_{n-1} \) of regular expression. It would store the next symbol as a string in the global variable \( \text{yytext} \) and return the number \( i \) of the class of this symbol. The function \( \text{yylex()} \) might then be

```c
Token yylex() {
    while(true) {
        switch scan() {
            case 0 : action_0; break;
            \ldots
            case n - 1 : action_{n-1}; break;
            default : return error();
        }
    }
}
```

The function \( \text{error()} \) handles the case that an error occurs while the scanner attempts to identify the next symbol. If an action \( \text{action}_i \) does not have a return-statement the this action will resume execution at the beginning of the switch-statement and reads the next symbol in the remaining input. If if does possess a return-statement, executing it will terminate the switch-statement, the while-loop and the actual call of the function \( \text{yylex()} \).

### 2.5.1 Scanner States

Sometimes it is useful to recognize different symbol classes depending on some context. Many scanner generators produce scanners with scanner states. The scanner may pass from one state to another one
upon reading a symbol.

**Example 2.5.1** Skipping comments can be elegantly implemented using scanner states. For this purpose, a distinction is made between a state normal and a state comment.

Symbols from symbol classes that are relevant for the semantics are processed in state normal. An additional symbol class CommentInit contains the start symbol of a comment, e.g. `/*`. The semantic action triggered by recognizing the symbol `/ *` switches to state comment In state comment, only the end symbol for comments, `*/`, is recognized. All other input characters are skipped. The semantic action triggered upon finding the end-comment symbol switches back to state normal.

The actual scanner state can be kept in a global variable `yystate`. The assignment `yystate ← state` changes the state to the new state. The specification of a scanner possessing scanner states has the form

\[
A_0 : \quad \text{class\_list}_0 \\
\vdots \\
A_{r-1} : \quad \text{class\_list}_{r-1}
\]

where `class\_list_j` is the sequence of regular expressions and semantic actions for state `A_j`. For the states normal and comment of Example 2.5.1 we get

\[
\text{normal} : \\
\quad / * \{ \quad yystate ← \text{comment}; \} \\
\quad \ldots \quad \// \quad \text{further symbol classes} \\
\text{comment} : \\
\quad * / \{ \quad yystate ← \text{normal}; \} \\
\quad \ldots \quad \{ \}
\]

The character `.` stands for an arbitrary input symbol. Since none of the actions for start, content, or end of comment has a `return`-statement no symbol is returned for the whole comment. \(\square\)

Scanner states only influence the selection of symbol classes of which symbols are recognized. To classify symbols according to scanner states the generation process of the function `yylex()` can be applied to the concatenation of the sequence `class\_list_j`. The only function that needs to be modified is the function `scan()`. To identify the next symbol this function has no longer one deterministic finite-state machine but a particular one, `M_j`, for each subsequence `class\_list_j`. Depending on the actual scanner state `A_j` first the corresponding DFSM `M_j` is selected and used for the identification of the next symbol.

### 2.5.2 Recognizing Reserved Words

Many possibilities exist for the distribution of duties between scanner and screener and for the functionality of the screener. The advantages and disadvantages are not easily determined. One example for two alternatives is the recognition of keywords. According to the distribution of duties given in the last chapter, the screener is in charge of recognizing reserved symbols (keywords). One possibility to do this is to form an extra symbol class for each reserved word. Fig. 2.10 shows a finite-state machine that recognizes several reserved words in its final states. Reserved keywords in C, JAVA and OCAML have the same form as identifiers. An alternative to recognizing them in the final states of a DFSM is to let the screener do it when it processes found identifiers.

The function `scan()` will signal that an identifier has been found. The semantic action associated with the symbol class `identifier` will then check whether and if yes which keyword has been found. This distribution of work between scanner and screener keeps the size of the DFSM small. On the other hand, an efficient way to recognize keywords should be used.

Identifiers are often internally represented by unique INT-values. The screener typically uses a hash table to compute this internal code. A hash table supports the efficient comparison of a newly found identifier with identifiers that have already been entered before. The keywords should be entered into the table before lexical analysis starts. The screener can then identify strings with the same effort necessary for other identifiers.
2.6 Exercises

1. **Kleene-Star**
   Let $\Sigma$ be an alphabet and $L, M \subseteq \Sigma^*$. Show:
   a) $L \subseteq L^*$.
   b) $\varepsilon \in L^*$.
   c) $u, v \in L^*$ implies $uv \in L^*$.
   d) $L^*$ is the smallest set with properties (1) - (3), that is, if a set $M$ satisfies:
      $L \subseteq M$, $\varepsilon \in M$ and $(u, v \in M \Rightarrow uv \in M)$ it follows $L^* \subseteq M$.
   e) $L \subseteq M$ implies $L^* \subseteq M^*$.
   f) $(L^*)^* = L^*$.

2. **Symbol classes**
   FORTRAN provides the implicit declaration of identifiers according to their leading character. Identifiers beginning with one of the letters $i, j, k, l, m, n$ are taken as int-variables or int-function result. All other identifiers denote float-variables.
   Give a definition of the symbol classes FloatId and IntId.

3. **Extended regular expressions**
   Extend the construction of finite-state machines for regular expressions from Fig. 2.3 in a way that it processes regular expressions $r^+$ and $r?$ directly. $r^+$ stands for $rr^*$ and $r?$ for $(r | \varepsilon)$.

4. **Extended regular expressions**
   Extend the construction of finite-state machines for regular expressions by a treatment of counting iteration, that is, by regular expressions of the form:
   
   $r\{u - o\}$ at least $u$ and at most $o$ consecutive instances of $r$
   
   $r\{u-\}$ at least $u$ consecutive instances of $r$
   
   $r\{-o\}$ at most $o$ consecutive instances of $r$
5. **Deterministic finite-state machines**  
Convert the finite-state machine of Fig. 2.10 into a deterministic finite-state machine.

6. **Sequences of regular definitions**  
Construct a deterministic finite-state machine for the sequence of regular definitions:

\[
\begin{align*}
bu \ (bu \mid zi)^* \\
bu&c \ (bu \mid zi)^* \\
bu \ bu&c \ (bu \mid zi)^*
\end{align*}
\]

for symbol classes Id, SysId and ComId.

7. **Character classes and symbol classes**  
Consider the following definitions of character classes:

\[
\begin{align*}
bu &= a - z \\
zi &= 0 - 9 \\
bzi &= 0 \mid 1 \\
ozi &= 0 - 7 \\
hzi &= 0 - 9 \mid A - F
\end{align*}
\]

and the definitions of symbol classes:

\[
\begin{align*}
b \ bzi^+ \\
o \ ozi^+ \\
h \ hzi^+ \\
ziz^+ \\
bu \ (bu \mid zi)^*
\end{align*}
\]

a) Give the partitioning of the character classes that a scanner generator would compute.  
b) Describe the generated finite-state machine using these character classes.  
c) Convert this finite-state machine into a deterministic one.

8. **Reserved identifiers**  
Construct a deterministic finite-state machine for the finite-state machine of Fig. 2.10.

9. **Uniqueness of minimal automata**  
Let \(M = (Q, \Sigma, \Delta, q_0, F)\) a minimal deterministic finite-state machine with \(L(M) = L\). Let \(M' = (Q', \Sigma, \Delta', q'_0, F')\) another minimal deterministic finite-state machine with \(L(M') = L\).  
Prove that \(M\) and \(M'\) are identical up to the renaming of states.  
Define a relation \(\sim \subseteq Q \times Q'\) with  
\[
q \sim q' \text{ falls } (\forall w \in \Sigma \ast . \Delta(q, w) \in F \iff \Delta'(q', w) \in F') .
\]

Show that this relation relates each element of \(Q\) to exactly one element in \(Q'\). Show in particular that \(q_0 \sim q'_0\) holds. Derive the claim from this.

10. **Table compression**  
Compress the table of the deterministic finite-state machine using the method of Section 2.2.

11. **Processing of Roman numbers**

a) Give a regular expression for Roman numbers.  
b) Generate a deterministic finite-state machine from this regular expression.  
c) Extend this finite-state machine such that it computes the decimal value of a Roman number.  
The finite-state machine can perform an assignment to one variable \(w\) with each state transition.  
The value is composed of the value of \(w\) and of constants. \(w\) is initialized with 0. Give an appropriate assignment for each state transition such that \(w\) contains the value of the recognized Roman number in each final state.
12. **Generation of a Scanner**

Generate a OCAML-function `yylex` from a scanner specification in OCAML.

Use wherever possible only functional constructs.

a) Write a function `skip` that skips the recognized symbol.

b) Extend the generator by scanner states. Write a function `next` that receives the successor state as argument.

### 2.7 Literature

The conceptual separation of scanner and screener was already proposed by F.L. DeRemer [DeR74]. Many so-called compiler generators support the generation of scanners from regular expressions. Johnson u.a. [JPAR68] describes such a system. The corresponding routine under UNIX, LEX, was realized by M. Lesk [Les75]. FLEX was implemented by Vern Paxson. The approach described in this chapter follows the scanner generator JFLEX for JAVA.

Compression methods for sparsely populated matrices as they generated in scanner and parser generators are described and analyzed in [TY79] and [DDH84].