2. Lexical Analysis

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Thanks to Jens Palsberg and Tony Hosking for their kind permission to reuse and adapt the CS132 and CS502 lecture notes. 
http://www.cs.ucla.edu/~palsberg/
http://www.cs.purdue.edu/homes/hosking/
Roadmap

> Introduction
> Regular languages
> Finite automata recognizers
> From RE to DFAs and back again
> Limits of regular languages

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Lexical Analysis

1. Maps sequences of characters to tokens
2. Eliminates white space (tabs, blanks, comments etc.)

\[
x = x + y
\]

\[
<\text{ID}, x> \ <\text{EQ}> \ <\text{ID}, x> \ <\text{PLUS}> \ <\text{ID}, y>
\]

The string value of a token is a lexeme.
How to specify rules for token classification?

A scanner must recognize various parts of the language’s syntax

**White space**

\[<\text{ws}> ::= \text{ws} \ ' ' \]
\[\mid \text{ws} \ 't' \]
\[\mid ' ' \]
\[\mid '\t' \]

**Keywords and operators**

specified as literal patterns: do, end

**Comments**

opening and closing delimiters: /* ... */
Specifying patterns

Other parts are harder:

**Identifiers**

alphabetic followed by \( k \) alphanumerics (\(_, $, \&\), …)

**Numbers**

- integers: 0 or digit from \( 1−9 \) followed by digits from \( 0−9 \)
- decimals: integer ’.’ digits from \( 0−9 \)
- reals: (integer or decimal) ’\( E \)' (+ or —) digits from \( 0−9 \)
- complex: ’( ’ real ’,’ real ’) ’

*We need an expressive notation to specify these patterns!*
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## Languages and Operations

A *language* is a set of strings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Union</td>
<td>( L \cup M = { s \mid s \in L \text{ or } s \in M } )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concatenation</td>
<td>( LM = { st \mid s \in L \text{ and } t \in M } )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kleene closure</td>
<td>( L^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} L^i )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive closure</td>
<td>( L^+ = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} L^i )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Formally, a language is a set of strings (or “sentences”). We can perform various operations over languages, such as union, concatenation etc.

In the slide, L and M are languages, while s and t are strings. Operations over languages produce new languages by iterating over strings they contain.

The Kleene closure produces all possible concatenations of strings in a language L.

Examples:

L = \{a, b\}, M = \{c, d\}
LM = \{ac, ad, bc, bd\}
L* = \{^, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, aaa, aab, aba, ... \}
Production Grammars

- Powerful formalism for language description
  - Start symbol (S0)
  - Production rules (A → abA)
  - Non-terminals (A, B)
  - Terminals (a,b)

- Rewriting
A common way to specify languages is with the help of *production grammars*. These consist of a set of *rewrite rules* that allow you *generate* all possible strings in a language.

A grammar starts with a *start symbol* $S_0$, and consists of a number of rules of the form

$$A \rightarrow abA$$

consisting of *non-terminals*, like $S_0$ and $A$, that can be *expanded* using further production rules, and *terminals*, like $a$ and $b$, that cannot.

By repeated expending terminals using different rules, one can generate all possible strings in the language specified by the grammar.
Detail: The Chomsky Hierarchy

- **Type 0**: \( \alpha \rightarrow \beta \)
  - Unrestricted grammars generate *recursively enumerable languages*. Minimal requirement for recognizer: Turing machine.

- **Type 1**: \( \alpha A \beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta \)
  - Context-sensitive grammars generate *context-sensitive languages*, recognizable by linear bounded automata.

- **Type 2**: \( A \rightarrow \gamma \)
  - Context-free grammars generate *context-free languages*, recognizable by non-deterministic push-down automata.

- **Type 3**: \( A \rightarrow a \) and \( A \rightarrow aB \)
  - Regular grammars generate *regular languages*, recognizable by finite state automata.

*NB: A is a non-terminal; \( \alpha, \beta, \gamma \) are strings of terminals and non-terminals*
Since compilers need to recognize languages rather than generate them, we need a way to turn a grammar into a recogniser.

The Chomsky Hierarchy (named after Noam Chomsky) formalizes how different constraints over the production rules produce very different classes of languages. Unrestricted grammars (i.e., where the left and right-hand sides of the rules may contain a mix of terminals and non-terminals) are the hardest to parse, and require a Turing machine to recognize them.

Programming languages are mostly context-free (only non-terminals on the left-hand side), with occasionally some context-sensitive features. Typically the tokens of a programming language (i.e., identifiers, strings, comments etc.) are Type 3 and can be recognized by a FSA.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chomsky_hierarchy
Grammars for regular languages

*Regular grammars generate regular languages*

**Definition:**
In a *regular grammar*, all productions have one of two forms:

1. $A \rightarrow aA$
2. $A \rightarrow a$

where $A$ is any non-terminal and $a$ is any terminal symbol

These are also called type 3 grammars (Chomsky)
Regular languages can be described by *Regular Expressions*

*Regular expressions (RE) over an alphabet \( \Sigma \):*

1. \( \varepsilon \) is a RE denoting the set \{\( \varepsilon \}\}
2. If \( a \in \Sigma \), then \( a \) is a RE denoting \{\( a \}\}
3. If \( r \) and \( s \) are REs denoting \( L(r) \) and \( L(s) \), then:
   - \( (r) \mid (s) \) is a RE denoting \( L(r) \cup L(s) \)
   - \( (r)(s) \) is a RE denoting \( L(r)L(s) \)
   - \( (r)^* \) is a RE denoting \( L(r)^* \)

We adopt a *precedence* for operators: *Kleene closure*, then *concatenation*, then *alternation* as the order of precedence.

For any RE \( r \), there exists a grammar \( g \) such that \( L(r) = L(g) \)
Epsilon is the set with the “empty” string. As you can see, we don’t define $a^+$ (1 or more copies of $a$) or $[a]$ (optional $a$) as they can be derived.

Patterns are often specified as regular languages. Notations used to describe a regular language (or a regular set) include both regular expressions and regular grammars.
Examples

Let $\Sigma = \{a,b\}$

> $a | b$ denotes $\{a,b\}$

> $(a | b) (a | b)$ denotes $\{aa,ab,ba,bb\}$

> $a^*$ denotes $\{\varepsilon,a,aa,aaa,\ldots\}$

> $(a | b)^*$ denotes the set of all strings of a’s and b’s (including $\varepsilon$)

> Universit(ä | ae)t Bern(e | ) ...
## Algebraic properties of REs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Property</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$r \mid s = s \mid r$</td>
<td>is commutative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r \mid (s \mid t) = (r \mid s) \mid t$</td>
<td>is associative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r \ (s \mid t) = (rs)t$</td>
<td>concatenation is associative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r(s \mid t) = rs \mid rt$</td>
<td>concatenation distributes over $\mid$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$(s \mid t)r = sr \mid tr$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\varepsilon r = r$</td>
<td>$\varepsilon$ is the identity for concatenation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r \varepsilon = r$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r * = (r \mid \varepsilon)^*$</td>
<td>$\varepsilon$ is contained in $*$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r ** = r^*$</td>
<td>$*$ is idempotent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Examples of using REs to specify lexical patterns

**Identifiers**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{letter} & \rightarrow (a \mid b \mid c \mid \ldots \mid z \mid A \mid B \mid C \mid \ldots \mid Z) \\
\text{digit} & \rightarrow (0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9) \\
\text{id} & \rightarrow \text{letter} ( \text{letter} \mid \text{digit} )^* \\
\end{align*}
\]

**Numbers**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{integer} & \rightarrow (+ \mid - \mid \varepsilon)(0 \mid (1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid \ldots \mid 9) \mid \text{digit}^*) \\
\text{decimal} & \rightarrow \text{integer} . ( \text{digit} )^* \\
\text{real} & \rightarrow (\text{integer} \mid \text{decimal}) \mathbb{E} (+ \mid -) \text{digit}^* \\
\text{complex} & \rightarrow (\text{'}\text{real}\text{',}\text{'}\text{real}\text{}') \\
\end{align*}
\]
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Recognizers

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{letter} & \rightarrow ( a \mid b \mid c \mid \ldots \mid z \mid A \mid B \mid C \mid \ldots \mid Z ) \\
\text{digit} & \rightarrow ( 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 ) \\
\text{id} & \rightarrow \text{letter} \ ( \text{letter} \mid \text{digit} )^* \\
\end{align*}
\]

From a regular expression we can construct a **deterministic finite automaton** (DFA)
Any regular language can be recognized by a deterministic finite state automaton (DFA).

A finite state automaton (FSA) has a finite number of states, a start state, a number of final states, and labelled transitions between them. An FSA is deterministic if, given a state and a label, there is always a unique transition to take. In contrast, a non-deterministic finite automation (NFA) may offer a (non-deterministic) choice of transitions.

In the example, the start state is 0, the final states are 2 and 3 (leading respectively to acceptance or rejection of the input), and the transitions are all deterministic.

On any given input of a letter, a digit or another character, there is always a unique transition available.

The obvious question now is, given a regular expression, how can we generate the corresponding DFA?
Code for the recognizer

```c
char ← next_char();
state ← 0;        /* code for state 0 */
done ← false;
token_value ← ""   /* empty string */
while( not done ) {
    class ← char_class[char];
    state ← next_state[class,state];
    switch(state) {
        case 1:    /* building an id */
            token_value ← token_value + char;
            char ← next_char();
            break;
        case 2:    /* accept state */
            token_type = identifier;
            done = true;
            break;
        case 3:    /* error */
            token_type = error;
            done = true;
            break;
    }
}
return token_type;
```
Note that the transitions are encoded in the next_state matrix.
Two tables control the recognizer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>char_class</th>
<th>char</th>
<th>a-z</th>
<th>A-Z</th>
<th>0-9</th>
<th>other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>value</td>
<td></td>
<td>letter</td>
<td>letter</td>
<td>digit</td>
<td>other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>next_state</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>letter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>digit</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To change languages, we can just change tables
Automatic construction

> **Scanner generators** automatically construct code from regular expression-like descriptions
  — construct a DFA
  — use *state minimization* techniques
  — emit code for the scanner (table driven or direct code)

> A key issue in automation is an interface to the parser

> *lex* is a scanner generator supplied with UNIX
  — emits C code for scanner
  — provides macro definitions for each token (used in the parser)
  — nowadays JavaCC, ANTLR, Bison etc. are more popular
What about the RE $(a \mid b)^*abb$?

State $s_0$ has multiple transitions on $a$!

This is a non-deterministic finite automaton
A **non-deterministic finite automaton** (NFA) consists of:

1. a set of states \( S = \{ s_0, \ldots, s_n \} \)
2. a set of **input symbols** \( \Sigma \) (the alphabet)
3. a transition function \( \text{move} (\delta) \) mapping state-symbol pairs to sets of states
4. a distinguished **start state** \( s_0 \)
5. a set of distinguished **accepting (final) states** \( F \)

A **Deterministic Finite Automaton** (DFA) is a special case of an NFA:

1. no state has a \( \varepsilon \)-transition, and
2. for each state \( s \) and input symbol \( a \), there is at most one edge labeled \( a \) leaving \( s \).

A DFA **accepts** \( x \) iff there exists a **unique** path through the transition graph from the \( s_0 \) to an accepting state such that the labels along the edges spell \( x \).
Example: the set of strings containing an even number of zeros and an even number of ones

The RE is $(00 \mid 11)^* ((01 \mid 10)(00 \mid 11)^* (01 \mid 10)(00 \mid 11)^*)^*$

Note how the RE walks through the DFA.
The states capture whether there are an even number or odd number of zeroes or ones. This gives 4 possible states.

Note how the RE effectively takes all possible paths through the DFA, always returning back to the start/accepting state: Initially we might just visit states s1 and s2, always returning to s0, then we might visit s3 via s1 or s2, possibly loop back through s1 or s2, return to s0, loop again through s1 and s2 without visiting s3, and then repeat any number of times.
DFAs and NFAs are equivalent

1. DFAs are a subset of NFAs

2. Any NFA can be converted into a DFA, by *simulating sets of simultaneous states*:
   — each DFA state corresponds to a set of NFA states
   — NB: possible exponential blowup
The key idea to converting a NFA to a DFA is to construct a new DFA that simulates taking all possible paths simultaneously whenever there is a non-deterministic choice. The simulator then may be in multiple states at once. Since a DFA must always be in a unique state, the states of the DFA must be all possible subsets of the NFA states.

In theory this could blow up exponentially, but very often only few of these subsets are actually reachable in practice.
NFA to DFA using the subset construction
In the NFA we start in s0, so in the DFA we start in \{s0\}. Then we simultaneously follow a to s0 and s1, leading to DFA state \{s0,s1\}. Alternatively we can follow b back to \{s0\}.

We continue to follow all possible transitions through the NFA, thus generating only the reachable states of the DFA.

Although there are 16 possible subsets of states of the NFA, only 4 states are actually reachable, thus avoiding any exponential explosion.
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Constructing a DFA from a RE

> RE → NFA
  — Build NFA for each term; connect with ε moves

> NFA → DFA
  — Simulate the NFA using the subset construction

> DFA → minimized DFA
  — Merge equivalent states

> DFA → RE
  — Construct \( R_{ij}^k = R_{ik}^{k-1} (R_{kk}^{k-1})^* R_{kj}^{k-1} \cup R_{ij}^{k-1} \)
  — Or convert via Generalized NFA (GNFA)
Building a DFA from a regular expression requires several steps.

1. We build a NFA from the RE by using *templates* representing the individual subexpressions, and *wiring them together with ε transitions* (i.e., that can be taken silently without consuming input).

2. We convert the NFA to a DFA using the *simulation approach* we have seen earlier.

3. This may generate a DFA with “too many states”, so we apply a *minimization algorithm* that merges equivalent states.

4. We close the loop, showing how from a DFA we can construct the equivalent RE. To do this, we *iteratively rewrite the DFA, replacing labels on transitions by RE fragments*, until we end up with a trivial DFA with two states and a transition labeled with the RE that we want.
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RE to NFA

- $N(\varepsilon)$: Start State
- $N(a)$
- $N(A|B)$
- $N(AB)$
- $N(A^*)$
Thee function $N$ takes as argument an RE and generates an equivalent NFA. $N$ is specified in a recursive rule-based fashion over the syntax of an RE. The dotted regions in the right-hand side represent recursive invocations of $N$. 
RE to NFA example: \((a \mid b)^*abb\)
To generate a NFA from the RE (a | b)*abb, we first generate N(a|b), combining the templates for N(A|B) and N(A).

Next we apply N(A*), adding two new states and three ε transitions.

We generate N(abb) by combining the N(A) and N(AB) templates, and finally we wire the two parts together by merging the states labeled (7) representing the end of (a|b)* and the start of abb.
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NFA to DFA: the subset construction

**Input:** NFA $N$

**Output:** DFA $D$ with states $S_D$ and transitions $T_D$ such that $L(D) = L(N)$

**Method:** Let $s$ be a state in $N$ and $P$ be a set of states. Use the following operations:

1. $\varepsilon$-closure$(s)$ — set of states of $N$ reachable from $s$ by $\varepsilon$ transitions alone
2. $\varepsilon$-closure$(P)$ — set of states of $N$ reachable from some $s$ in $P$ by $\varepsilon$ transitions alone
3. move$(T,a)$ — set of states of $N$ to which there is a transition on input $a$ from some $s$ in $P$

add state $P = \varepsilon$-closure$(s_0)$ unmarked to $S_D$

while $\exists$ unmarked state $P$ in $S_D$

mark $P$

for each input symbol $a$

$U = \varepsilon$-closure(move($P$, $a$))

if $U \notin S_D$

then add $U$ unmarked to $S_D$

$T_D[P, a] = U$

end for

end while

$\varepsilon$-closure$(s_0)$ is the start state of $D$

A state of $D$ is accepting if it contains an accepting state of $N$
This algorithm simply formalizes the subset construction we saw earlier.

We begin the start state $s_0$ of the input NFA $N$, and we use $P$ to represent the set of states (a “multi-state”) that we reach by simultaneously taking all transitions with the same label. Every time we reach a new multi-state $P$, we add it to the DFA we are building, $D$.

We also add $P$ to the set $S_D$ of “unmarked” multi-states that we have yet to explore.

Whenever we take a $P$ to explore, we “mark” it by removing it from $S_D$. Whenever we reach a “new” multi-state $P$ we add it to $D$ and $S_D$. When we run out of multi-states, we are done!
NFA to DFA using subset construction: example

A = \{0, 1, 2, 4, 7\}
B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8\}
C = \{1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7\}
D = \{1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9\}
E = \{1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10\}
We take as input the NFA at the top and generate the DFA below. From the start state 0, we can take $\varepsilon$ moves to states 1, 2, 4 and 7, hence our start (multi-)state is $A = \{0,1,2,4,7\}$. We add this state to our DFA.

From $A$ we can take transitions a (from either 2 or 7), or b (from 4). Following a leads us to states 3 or 8. Taking the $\varepsilon$-closure gives us $B = \{1,2,3,4,6,7,8\}$.

Following b from A leads us from state 4 to state 5, whose $\varepsilon$-closure is $C = \{1,2,4,5,6,7\}$.

We can now “mark” A and continue by exploring B and C. Eventually we reach state E, which includes the end state 10, and so represents a terminal state for the DFA.
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Theorem: For each regular language that can be accepted by a DFA, there exists a DFA with a minimum number of states.

Minimization approach: merge *equivalent* states.

States A and C are indistinguishable, so they can be merged!
States A and C can be merged because after $b^*a$ we always end up in state B.
This is analogous to the fact that $(a|bb^*a) = b^*a$. 
DFA Minimization algorithm

> Create lower-triangular table DISTINCT, initially blank
> For every pair of states \((p, q)\):
>  — If \(p_f\) is final and \(q\) is not, or vice versa
>    - \(DISTINCT(p_f, q) = \varepsilon\)
> > Loop until no change for an iteration:
>  — For every pair of states \((p, q)\) and each symbol \(\alpha\)
>   - If \(DISTINCT(p, q)\) is blank and \(DISTINCT(\delta(p, \alpha), \delta(q, \alpha))\) is not blank
>     - \(DISTINCT(p, q) = \alpha\)
> > Combine all states that are not distinct
The table DISTINCT (initially blank) records for each state if it is distinct from every other state. Every state is the same as itself, and DISTINCT(X,Y) ⇔ DISTINCT(Y,X), so we only need a lower triangle of the table.

Initially we only know that the final state \( p_f \) is distinct from every other state \( q \), so we put the label \( \varepsilon \) to record this in DISTINCT\((p_f,q)\) for all such \( q \).

We now **work backwards** looking for states with blank fields.

Suppose we do not yet know if \( p \) and \( q \) are distinct, i.e., DISTINCT\((p,q)\) is blank. Now suppose we can take an \( \alpha \) transition from \( p \) to \( \delta(p,\alpha) \) and from \( q \) to \( \delta(q,\alpha) \), but \( \delta(p,\alpha) \) and \( \delta(q,\alpha) \) are DISTINCT, then we can conclude that \( p \) and \( q \) are also distinct (since taking the same transition leads to distinct states). We record this as DISTINCT\((p,q) = \alpha\).
Minimization in action

C and A are *indistinguishable* so can be merged
E is the final state, so distinct from all other states. We mark all its squares with \( \varepsilon \).

Now we see that D has a b-transition to E and has blank entries, but no other state has b-transitions to E. We therefore mark all its squares with b. (The mark is the “proof” of distinctness: a b-move takes A and C both to C, and B to D. Since C and D are both distinct from E, we know that D is distinct from A, B and C.)

Now we note that B can take a b-move to D, but neither A nor C can, so we mark those squares with b.

We are left with A and C. An a-move brings both to B and a b-move brings both to C, so we cannot distinguish them.

There are no other blank squares left, so we are done, and A and C can be merged.
DFA Minimization example

It is easy to see that this is in fact the minimal DFA for \((a | b)^* abb \ldots\)
After merging A and C, we get the new DFA below (A/C=0, B=2, D=2, E=3).

Actually it is easy to see that this is the minimal DFA:

• Start with the required path abb. This gives us 4 states. Now add the missing arrows.
• Any a transition brings us to state 1, since we must follow with bb.
• Any b not in the path brings us back to state 0, since we must still follow with abb.
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DFA to RE via GNFA

> A **Generalized NFA** is an NFA where transitions may have any RE as labels

> **Conversion algorithm:**

1. *Add a new start state and accept state* with $\varepsilon$-transitions to/from the old start/end states
2. *Merge multiple transitions* between two states to a single RE choice transition
3. *Add empty $\emptyset$–transitions* between states where missing
4. *Iteratively “rip out” old states* and replace “dangling transitions” with appropriately labeled transitions between remaining states
5. *STOP when all old states are gone* and only the new start and accept states remain
The idea is that we iteratively simplify the GNFA, deleting states, but maintain equivalence by making the transitions more complex. At the end, we have a completely trivial GNFA with only two states, but the transitions (an RE) expresses the whole GNFA.
GNFA conversion algorithm

1. Let $k$ be the number of states of $G$, $k \geq 2$
2. If $k=2$, then $RE$ is the label found between $q_s$ and $q_a$ (start and accept states of $G$)
3. While $k>2$, select $q_{\text{rip}} \neq q_s$ or $q_a$
   — $Q' = Q - \{q_{\text{rip}}\}$
   — For any $q_i \in Q' - \{q_a\}$ let $\delta'(q_i,q_j) = R_1 \ R_2 * R_3 \cup R_4$ where:
     $R_1 = \delta'(q_i,q_{\text{rip}})$, $R_2 = \delta'(q_{\text{rip}},q_{\text{rip}})$, $R_2 = \delta'(q_{\text{rip}},q_j)$, $R_4 = \delta'(q_i,q_j)$
   — Replace $G$ by $G'$
Add new start and accept states
Add missing empty transitions (we’ll just pretend they’re there)
An “empty transition” expresses that fact that “you can’t get there from here”. For example, you cannot get from 0 to s.
Delete an arbitrary state
Fix dangling transitions $s \rightarrow 1$ and $3 \rightarrow 1$

Don’t forget to merge the existing transitions!
We have to “repair” all transitions that go through the deleted node, in particular from s to 1 and from 3 to 1.

The RE from s to 1 is clearly b*a.

Note that there were two original paths from 3 to 1: the path bb*a via the deleted state 0, as well as the transition a directly from 3 to 1. Merging these yields bb*a|a (which is the same as b*a).
NB: $bb^*a|a = (bb^*|\varepsilon)a = b^*a$
Simplify the RE
Delete another state
\textbf{NB:} \( aa*b | bb*aa*b = (\varepsilon | bb*)aa*b = b*aa*b \)
Hm ... not what we expected
b*aa*b (b*aa*b)* b = (a|b)*abb ?

> We can rewrite:
  — b*aa*b (b*aa*b)* b
  — b*a*ab (b*a*ab)* b
  — (b*a*ab)* b*a* abb

> But does this hold?
  — (b*a*ab)* b*a* = (a|b)*

We can show that the minimal DFAs for these REs are isomorphic …
Proof: Split any string in \((a|b)^*\) by occurrences of \(ab\). This will match \((Xab)^*X\), where \(X\) does not contain \(ab\). \(X\) is clearly \(b^*a^*\).

Proof #2 (by @grammarware):
\[(b^*a^*ab)^*b^*a^* = (b^*a^+b)^*b^*a^* = b^*(a^+b^+)^*a^* = b^*(b^*|(a^+b^+)^*)a^* = b^*(b^*|(a^+b^+)^*|a^*)a^* = b^*(a|b)^*a^* = (a|b)^*\]
Roadmap

> Introduction
> Regular languages
> Finite automata recognizers
> From RE to DFAs and back again
> Limits of regular languages
Limits of regular languages

Not all languages are regular!

One cannot construct DFAs to recognize these languages:

\[ L = \{ p^k q^k \} \]
\[ L = \{ wcw^r \mid w \in \Sigma^*, w^r \text{ is } w \text{ reversed} \} \]

In general, DFAs cannot count!

However, one can construct DFAs for:

• Alternating 0’s and 1’s:
  \( (\varepsilon \mid 1)(01)^*(\varepsilon \mid 0) \)

• Sets of pairs of 0’s and 1’s
  \( (01 \mid 10)^+ \)
So, what is hard?

Certain language features can cause problems:

> Reserved words
  — PL/I had no reserved words
  — if then then then = else; else else = then

> Significant blanks
  — FORTRAN and Algol68 ignore blanks
  — do 10 i = 1,25
  — do 10 i = 1.25

> String constants
  — Special characters in strings
  — Newline, tab, quote, comment delimiter

> Finite limits
  — Some languages limit identifier lengths
  — Add state to count length
  — FORTRAN 66 — 6 characters(!)
How bad can it get?

Compiler needs context to distinguish variables from control constructs!
What you should know!

✎ What are the key responsibilities of a scanner?
✎ What is a formal language? What are operators over languages?
✎ What is a regular language?
✎ Why are regular languages interesting for defining scanners?
✎ What is the difference between a deterministic and a non-deterministic finite automaton?
✎ How can you generate a DFA recognizer from a regular expression?
✎ Why aren’t regular languages expressive enough for parsing?
Can you answer these questions?

 Why do compilers separate scanning from parsing?
 Why doesn’t NFA → DFA translation normally result in an exponential increase in the number of states?
 Why is it necessary to minimize states after translation a NFA to a DFA?
 How would you program a scanner for a language like FORTRAN?
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