

Regex

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1 Overview

A *regular expression* (or *regexp*, or *pattern*) is a text string that describes some (mathematical) set of strings. A regexp r *matches* a string s if s is in the set of strings described by r .

Using the Regex library, you can:

- see if a string matches a specified pattern as a whole, and
- search within a string for a substring matching a specified pattern.

Some regular expressions match only one string, i.e., the set they describe has only one member. For example, the regular expression ‘foo’ matches the string ‘foo’ and no others. Other regular expressions match more than one string, i.e., the set they describe has more than one member. For example, the regular expression ‘f*’ matches the set of strings made up of any number (including zero) of ‘f’s. As you can see, some characters in regular expressions match themselves (such as ‘f’) and some don’t (such as ‘*’); the ones that don’t match themselves instead let you specify patterns that describe many different strings.

To either match or search for a regular expression with the Regex library functions, you must first compile it with a Regex pattern compiling function. A *compiled pattern* is a regular expression converted to the internal format used by the library functions. Once you’ve compiled a pattern, you can use it for matching or searching any number of times.

The Regex library consists of two source files: `regex.h` and `regex.c`. Regex provides three groups of functions with which you can operate on regular expressions. One group—the GNU group—is more powerful but not completely compatible with the other two, namely the POSIX and Berkeley UNIX groups; its interface was designed specifically for GNU. The other groups have the same interfaces as do the regular expression functions in POSIX and Berkeley UNIX.

We wrote this chapter with programmers in mind, not users of programs—such as Emacs—that use Regex. We describe the Regex library in its entirety, not how to write regular expressions that a particular program understands.

2 Regular Expression Syntax

Characters are things you can type. *Operators* are things in a regular expression that match one or more characters. You compose regular expressions from operators, which in turn you specify using one or more characters.

Most characters represent what we call the match-self operator, i.e., they match themselves; we call these characters *ordinary*. Other characters represent either all or parts of fancier operators; e.g., ‘.’ represents what we call the match-any-character operator (which, no surprise, matches (almost) any character); we call these characters *special*. Two different things determine what characters represent what operators:

1. the regular expression syntax your program has told the Regex library to recognize, and
2. the context of the character in the regular expression.

In the following sections, we describe these things in more detail.

2.1 Syntax Bits

In any particular syntax for regular expressions, some characters are always special, others are sometimes special, and others are never special. The particular syntax that Regex recognizes for a given regular expression depends on the value in the `syntax` field of the pattern buffer of that regular expression.

You get a pattern buffer by compiling a regular expression. See Section 7.1.1 [GNU Pattern Buffers], page 18, and Section 7.2.1 [POSIX Pattern Buffers], page 24, for more information on pattern buffers. See Section 7.1.2 [GNU Regular Expression Compiling], page 18, Section 7.2.2 [POSIX Regular Expression Compiling], page 25, and Section 7.3.1 [BSD Regular Expression Compiling], page 28, for more information on compiling.

Regex considers the value of the `syntax` field to be a collection of bits; we refer to these bits as *syntax bits*. In most cases, they affect what characters represent what operators. We describe the meanings of the operators to which we refer in Chapter 3 [Common Operators], page 7, Chapter 4 [GNU Operators], page 14, and Chapter 5 [GNU Emacs Operators], page 16.

For reference, here is the complete list of syntax bits, in alphabetical order:

RE_BACKSLASH_ESCAPE_IN_LISTS

If this bit is set, then ‘\’ inside a list (see Section 3.6 [List Operators], page 10, quotes (makes ordinary, if it’s special) the following character; if this bit isn’t set, then ‘\’ is an ordinary character inside lists. (See Section 2.4 [The Backslash Character], page 5, for what ‘\’ does outside of lists.)

RE_BK_PLUS_QM

If this bit is set, then ‘\+’ represents the match-one-or-more operator and ‘\?’ represents the match-zero-or-more operator; if this bit isn’t set, then ‘+’ represents the match-one-or-more operator and ‘?’ represents the match-zero-or-one operator. This bit is irrelevant if `RE_LIMITED_OPS` is set.

RE_CHAR_CLASSES

If this bit is set, then you can use character classes in lists; if this bit isn’t set, then you can’t.

RE_CONTEXT_INDEP_ANCHORS

If this bit is set, then ‘^’ and ‘\$’ are special anywhere outside a list; if this bit isn’t set, then these characters are special only in certain contexts. See Section 3.9.1 [Match-beginning-of-line Operator], page 13, and Section 3.9.2 [Match-end-of-line Operator], page 13.

RE_CONTEXT_INDEP_OPS

If this bit is set, then certain characters are special anywhere outside a list; if this bit isn’t set, then those characters are special only in some contexts and are ordinary elsewhere. Specifically, if this bit isn’t set then ‘*’, and (if the syntax bit **RE_LIMITED_OPS** isn’t set) ‘+’ and ‘?’ (or ‘\+’ and ‘\?’), depending on the syntax bit **RE_BK_PLUS_QM**) represent repetition operators only if they’re not first in a regular expression or just after an open-group or alternation operator. The same holds for ‘{’ (or ‘\{’, depending on the syntax bit **RE_NO_BK_BRACES**) if it is the beginning of a valid interval and the syntax bit **RE_INTERVALS** is set.

RE_CONTEXT_INVALID_OPS

If this bit is set, then repetition and alternation operators can’t be in certain positions within a regular expression. Specifically, the regular expression is invalid if it has:

- a repetition operator first in the regular expression or just after a match-beginning-of-line, open-group, or alternation operator; or
- an alternation operator first or last in the regular expression, just before a match-end-of-line operator, or just after an alternation or open-group operator.

If this bit isn’t set, then you can put the characters representing the repetition and alternation characters anywhere in a regular expression. Whether or not they will in fact be operators in certain positions depends on other syntax bits.

RE_DOT_NEWLINE

If this bit is set, then the match-any-character operator matches a newline; if this bit isn’t set, then it doesn’t.

RE_DOT_NOT_NULL

If this bit is set, then the match-any-character operator doesn’t match a null character; if this bit isn’t set, then it does.

RE_INTERVALS

If this bit is set, then Regex recognizes interval operators; if this bit isn’t set, then it doesn’t.

RE_LIMITED_OPS

If this bit is set, then Regex doesn’t recognize the match-one-or-more, match-zero-or-one or alternation operators; if this bit isn’t set, then it does.

RE_NEWLINE_ALT

If this bit is set, then newline represents the alternation operator; if this bit isn’t set, then newline is ordinary.

RE_NO_BK_BRACES

If this bit is set, then ‘{’ represents the open-interval operator and ‘}’ represents the close-interval operator; if this bit isn’t set, then ‘\{’ represents the open-interval operator and ‘\}’ represents the close-interval operator. This bit is relevant only if `RE_INTERVALS` is set.

RE_NO_BK_PARENS

If this bit is set, then ‘(’ represents the open-group operator and ‘)’ represents the close-group operator; if this bit isn’t set, then ‘\(’ represents the open-group operator and ‘\)’ represents the close-group operator.

RE_NO_BK_REFS

If this bit is set, then Regex doesn’t recognize ‘\digit’ as the back reference operator; if this bit isn’t set, then it does.

RE_NO_BK_VBAR

If this bit is set, then ‘|’ represents the alternation operator; if this bit isn’t set, then ‘\|’ represents the alternation operator. This bit is irrelevant if `RE_LIMITED_OPS` is set.

RE_NO_EMPTY_RANGES

If this bit is set, then a regular expression with a range whose ending point collates lower than its starting point is invalid; if this bit isn’t set, then Regex considers such a range to be empty.

RE_UNMATCHED_RIGHT_PAREN_ORD

If this bit is set and the regular expression has no matching open-group operator, then Regex considers what would otherwise be a close-group operator (based on how `RE_NO_BK_PARENS` is set) to match ‘)’.

2.2 Predefined Syntaxes

If you’re programming with Regex, you can set a pattern buffer’s (see Section 7.1.1 [GNU Pattern Buffers], page 18, and Section 7.2.1 [POSIX Pattern Buffers], page 24) `syntax` field either to an arbitrary combination of syntax bits (see Section 2.1 [Syntax Bits], page 2) or else to the configurations defined by Regex. These configurations define the syntaxes used by certain programs—GNU Emacs, POSIX Awk, traditional Awk, Grep, Egrep—in addition to syntaxes for POSIX basic and extended regular expressions.

The predefined syntaxes—taken directly from `regex.h`—are:

```
[[[ syntaxes ]]]
```

2.3 Collating Elements vs. Characters

POSIX generalizes the notion of a character to that of a collating element. It defines a *collating element* to be “a sequence of one or more bytes defined in the current collating sequence as a unit of collation.”

This generalizes the notion of a character in two ways. First, a single character can map into two or more collating elements. For example, the German ‘ß’ collates as the collating element ‘s’ followed by another collating element ‘s’. Second, two or more characters can

map into one collating element. For example, the Spanish ‘ll’ collates after ‘l’ and before ‘m’.

Since POSIX’s “collating element” preserves the essential idea of a “character,” we use the latter, more familiar, term in this document.

2.4 The Backslash Character

The ‘\’ character has one of four different meanings, depending on the context in which you use it and what syntax bits are set (see Section 2.1 [Syntax Bits], page 2). It can: 1) stand for itself, 2) quote the next character, 3) introduce an operator, or 4) do nothing.

1. It stands for itself inside a list (see Section 3.6 [List Operators], page 10) if the syntax bit `RE_BACKSLASH_ESCAPE_IN_LISTS` is not set. For example, ‘[\]’ would match ‘\’.
2. It quotes (makes ordinary, if it’s special) the next character when you use it either:
 - outside a list,¹ or
 - inside a list and the syntax bit `RE_BACKSLASH_ESCAPE_IN_LISTS` is set.
3. It introduces an operator when followed by certain ordinary characters—sometimes only when certain syntax bits are set. See the cases `RE_BK_PLUS_QM`, `RE_NO_BK_BRACES`, `RE_NO_BK_VAR`, `RE_NO_BK_PARENS`, `RE_NO_BK_REF` in Section 2.1 [Syntax Bits], page 2. Also:
 - ‘\b’ represents the match-word-boundary operator (see Section 4.1.2 [Match-word-boundary Operator], page 14).
 - ‘\B’ represents the match-within-word operator (see Section 4.1.3 [Match-within-word Operator], page 14).
 - ‘\<’ represents the match-beginning-of-word operator (see Section 4.1.4 [Match-beginning-of-word Operator], page 14).
 - ‘\>’ represents the match-end-of-word operator (see Section 4.1.5 [Match-end-of-word Operator], page 14).
 - ‘\w’ represents the match-word-constituent operator (see Section 4.1.6 [Match-word-constituent Operator], page 14).
 - ‘\W’ represents the match-non-word-constituent operator (see Section 4.1.7 [Match-non-word-constituent Operator], page 14).
 - ‘\`’ represents the match-beginning-of-buffer operator and ‘\’ represents the match-end-of-buffer operator (see Section 4.2 [Buffer Operators], page 15).
 - If Regex was compiled with the C preprocessor symbol `emacs` defined, then ‘\sclass’ represents the match-syntactic-class operator and ‘\Sclass’ represents the match-not-syntactic-class operator (see Section 5.1 [Syntactic Class Operators], page 16).

¹ Sometimes you don’t have to explicitly quote special characters to make them ordinary. For instance, most characters lose any special meaning inside a list (see Section 3.6 [List Operators], page 10). In addition, if the syntax bits `RE_CONTEXT_INVALID_OPS` and `RE_CONTEXT_INDEP_OPS` aren’t set, then (for historical reasons) the matcher considers special characters ordinary if they are in contexts where the operations they represent make no sense; for example, then the match-zero-or-more operator (represented by ‘*’) matches itself in the regular expression ‘*foo’ because there is no preceding expression on which it can operate. It is poor practice, however, to depend on this behavior; if you want a special character to be ordinary outside a list, it’s better to always quote it, regardless.

4. In all other cases, Regex ignores '\'. For example, '\n' matches 'n'.

3 Common Operators

You compose regular expressions from operators. In the following sections, we describe the regular expression operators specified by POSIX; GNU also uses these. Most operators have more than one representation as characters. See Chapter 2 [Regular Expression Syntax], page 2, for what characters represent what operators under what circumstances.

For most operators that can be represented in two ways, one representation is a single character and the other is that character preceded by ‘\’. For example, either ‘(’ or ‘\(’ represents the open-group operator. Which one does depends on the setting of a syntax bit, in this case `RE_NO_BK_PARENS`. Why is this so? Historical reasons dictate some of the varying representations, while POSIX dictates others.

Finally, almost all characters lose any special meaning inside a list (see Section 3.6 [List Operators], page 10).

3.1 The Match-self Operator (*ordinary character*)

This operator matches the character itself. All ordinary characters (see Chapter 2 [Regular Expression Syntax], page 2) represent this operator. For example, ‘f’ is always an ordinary character, so the regular expression ‘f’ matches only the string ‘f’. In particular, it does *not* match the string ‘ff’.

3.2 The Match-any-character Operator (.)

This operator matches any single printing or nonprinting character except it won’t match a:

newline if the syntax bit `RE_DOT_NEWLINE` isn’t set.
 null if the syntax bit `RE_DOT_NOT_NULL` is set.

The ‘.’ (period) character represents this operator. For example, ‘a.b’ matches any three-character string beginning with ‘a’ and ending with ‘b’.

3.3 The Concatenation Operator

This operator concatenates two regular expressions *a* and *b*. No character represents this operator; you simply put *b* after *a*. The result is a regular expression that will match a string if *a* matches its first part and *b* matches the rest. For example, ‘xy’ (two match-self operators) matches ‘xy’.

3.4 Repetition Operators

Repetition operators repeat the preceding regular expression a specified number of times.

3.4.1 The Match-zero-or-more Operator (*)

This operator repeats the smallest possible preceding regular expression as many times as necessary (including zero) to match the pattern. ‘*’ represents this operator. For example, ‘o*’ matches any string made up of zero or more ‘o’s. Since this operator operates on the smallest preceding regular expression, ‘fo*’ has a repeating ‘o’, not a repeating ‘fo’. So, ‘fo*’ matches ‘f’, ‘fo’, ‘foo’, and so on.

Since the match-zero-or-more operator is a suffix operator, it may be useless as such when no regular expression precedes it. This is the case when it:

- is first in a regular expression, or
- follows a match-beginning-of-line, open-group, or alternation operator.

Three different things can happen in these cases:

1. If the syntax bit `RE_CONTEXT_INVALID_OPS` is set, then the regular expression is invalid.
2. If `RE_CONTEXT_INVALID_OPS` isn't set, but `RE_CONTEXT_INDEP_OPS` is, then `*` represents the match-zero-or-more operator (which then operates on the empty string).
3. Otherwise, `*` is ordinary.

The matcher processes a match-zero-or-more operator by first matching as many repetitions of the smallest preceding regular expression as it can. Then it continues to match the rest of the pattern.

If it can't match the rest of the pattern, it backtracks (as many times as necessary), each time discarding one of the matches until it can either match the entire pattern or be certain that it cannot get a match. For example, when matching `ca*ar` against `caaar`, the matcher first matches all three `a`'s of the string with the `a*` of the regular expression. However, it cannot then match the final `ar` of the regular expression against the final `r` of the string. So it backtracks, discarding the match of the last `a` in the string. It can then match the remaining `ar`.

3.4.2 The Match-one-or-more Operator (+ or \+)

If the syntax bit `RE_LIMITED_OPS` is set, then Regex doesn't recognize this operator. Otherwise, if the syntax bit `RE_BK_PLUS_QM` isn't set, then `+` represents this operator; if it is, then `\+` does.

This operator is similar to the match-zero-or-more operator except that it repeats the preceding regular expression at least once; see Section 3.4.1 [Match-zero-or-more Operator], page 7, for what it operates on, how some syntax bits affect it, and how Regex backtracks to match it.

For example, supposing that `+` represents the match-one-or-more operator; then `ca+r` matches, e.g., `car` and `caaar`, but not `cr`.

3.4.3 The Match-zero-or-one Operator (? or \?)

If the syntax bit `RE_LIMITED_OPS` is set, then Regex doesn't recognize this operator. Otherwise, if the syntax bit `RE_BK_PLUS_QM` isn't set, then `?` represents this operator; if it is, then `\?` does.

This operator is similar to the match-zero-or-more operator except that it repeats the preceding regular expression once or not at all; see Section 3.4.1 [Match-zero-or-more Operator], page 7, to see what it operates on, how some syntax bits affect it, and how Regex backtracks to match it.

For example, supposing that `?` represents the match-zero-or-one operator; then `ca?r` matches both `car` and `cr`, but nothing else.

3.4.4 Interval Operators (`{ ... }` or `\{ ... \}`)

If the syntax bit `RE_INTERVALS` is set, then Regex recognizes *interval expressions*. They repeat the smallest possible preceding regular expression a specified number of times.

If the syntax bit `RE_NO_BK_BRACES` is set, ‘`{`’ represents the *open-interval operator* and ‘`}`’ represents the *close-interval operator*; otherwise, ‘`\{`’ and ‘`\}`’ do.

Specifically, supposing that ‘`{`’ and ‘`}`’ represent the open-interval and close-interval operators; then:

`{count}` matches exactly *count* occurrences of the preceding regular expression.

`{min,}` matches *min* or more occurrences of the preceding regular expression.

`{min, max}` matches at least *min* but no more than *max* occurrences of the preceding regular expression.

The interval expression (but not necessarily the regular expression that contains it) is invalid if:

- *min* is greater than *max*, or
- any of *count*, *min*, or *max* are outside the range zero to `RE_DUP_MAX` (which symbol `regex.h` defines).

If the interval expression is invalid and the syntax bit `RE_NO_BK_BRACES` is set, then Regex considers all the characters in the would-be interval to be ordinary. If that bit isn’t set, then the regular expression is invalid.

If the interval expression is valid but there is no preceding regular expression on which to operate, then if the syntax bit `RE_CONTEXT_INVALID_OPS` is set, the regular expression is invalid. If that bit isn’t set, then Regex considers all the characters—other than backslashes, which it ignores—in the would-be interval to be ordinary.

3.5 The Alternation Operator (`|` or `\|`)

If the syntax bit `RE_LIMITED_OPS` is set, then Regex doesn’t recognize this operator. Otherwise, if the syntax bit `RE_NO_BK_VBAR` is set, then ‘`|`’ represents this operator; otherwise, ‘`\|`’ does.

Alternatives match one of a choice of regular expressions: if you put the character(s) representing the alternation operator between any two regular expressions *a* and *b*, the result matches the union of the strings that *a* and *b* match. For example, supposing that ‘`|`’ is the alternation operator, then ‘`foo|bar|quux`’ would match any of ‘`foo`’, ‘`bar`’ or ‘`quux`’.

The alternation operator operates on the *largest* possible surrounding regular expressions. (Put another way, it has the lowest precedence of any regular expression operator.) Thus, the only way you can delimit its arguments is to use grouping. For example, if ‘`(`’ and ‘`)`’ are the open and close-group operators, then ‘`fo(o|b)ar`’ would match either ‘`fooar`’ or ‘`fobar`’. (‘`foo|bar`’ would match ‘`foo`’ or ‘`bar`’.)

The matcher usually tries all combinations of alternatives so as to match the longest possible string. For example, when matching ‘`(fooq|foo)*(qbarquux|bar)`’ against ‘`fooqbarquux`’, it cannot take, say, the first (“depth-first”) combination it could match, since then it would be content to match just ‘`fooqbar`’.

3.6 List Operators ([...] and [^ ...])

Lists, also called *bracket expressions*, are a set of one or more items. An *item* is a character, a character class expression, or a range expression. The syntax bits affect which kinds of items you can put in a list. We explain the last two items in subsections below. Empty lists are invalid.

A *matching list* matches a single character represented by one of the list items. You form a matching list by enclosing one or more items within an *open-matching-list operator* (represented by '[') and a *close-list operator* (represented by ']').

For example, '[ab]' matches either 'a' or 'b'. '[ad]*' matches the empty string and any string composed of just 'a's and 'd's in any order. Regex considers invalid a regular expression with a '[' but no matching ']'.¹

Nonmatching lists are similar to matching lists except that they match a single character *not* represented by one of the list items. You use an *open-nonmatching-list operator* (represented by '[^1') instead of an open-matching-list operator to start a nonmatching list.

For example, '[^ab]' matches any character except 'a' or 'b'.

If the `posix_newline` field in the pattern buffer (see Section 7.1.1 [GNU Pattern Buffers], page 18, is set, then nonmatching lists do not match a newline.

Most characters lose any special meaning inside a list. The special characters inside a list follow.

- ']' ends the list if it's not the first list item. So, if you want to make the ']' character a list item, you must put it first.
- '\' quotes the next character if the syntax bit `RE_BACKSLASH_ESCAPE_IN_LISTS` is set.
- '[:' represents the open-character-class operator (see Section 3.6.1 [Character Class Operators], page 10) if the syntax bit `RE_CHAR_CLASSES` is set and what follows is a valid character class expression.
- ':]' represents the close-character-class operator if the syntax bit `RE_CHAR_CLASSES` is set and what precedes it is an open-character-class operator followed by a valid character class name.
- '-' represents the range operator (see Section 3.6.2 [Range Operator], page 11) if it's not first or last in a list or the ending point of a range.

All other characters are ordinary. For example, '[.*]' matches '.' and '*'.

3.6.1 Character Class Operators ([: ... :])

If the syntax bit `RE_CHARACTER_CLASSES` is set, then Regex recognizes character class expressions inside lists. A *character class expression* matches one character from a given class. You form a character class expression by putting a character class name between an *open-character-class operator* (represented by '[') and a *close-character-class operator* (represented by ':]'). The character class names and their meanings are:

alnum letters and digits

¹ Regex therefore doesn't consider the '^' to be the first character in the list. If you put a '^' character first in (what you think is) a matching list, you'll turn it into a nonmatching list.

<code>alpha</code>	letters
<code>blank</code>	system-dependent; for GNU, a space or tab
<code>cntrl</code>	control characters (in the ASCII encoding, code 0177 and codes less than 040)
<code>digit</code>	digits
<code>graph</code>	same as <code>print</code> except omits space
<code>lower</code>	lowercase letters
<code>print</code>	printable characters (in the ASCII encoding, space tilde—codes 040 through 0176)
<code>punct</code>	neither control nor alphanumeric characters
<code>space</code>	space, carriage return, newline, vertical tab, and form feed
<code>upper</code>	uppercase letters
<code>xdigit</code>	hexadecimal digits: 0–9, a–f, A–F

These correspond to the definitions in the C library’s `<ctype.h>` facility. For example, `[:alpha:]` corresponds to the standard facility `isalpha`. Regex recognizes character class expressions only inside of lists; so `[[[:alpha:]]]` matches any letter, but `[:alpha:]` outside of a bracket expression and not followed by a repetition operator matches just itself.

3.6.2 The Range Operator (-)

Regex recognizes *range expressions* inside a list. They represent those characters that fall between two elements in the current collating sequence. You form a range expression by putting a *range operator* between two characters.² ‘-’ represents the range operator. For example, ‘a-f’ within a list represents all the characters from ‘a’ through ‘f’ inclusively.

If the syntax bit `RE_NO_EMPTY_RANGES` is set, then if the range’s ending point collates less than its starting point, the range (and the regular expression containing it) is invalid. For example, the regular expression `[z-a]` would be invalid. If this bit isn’t set, then Regex considers such a range to be empty.

Since ‘-’ represents the range operator, if you want to make a ‘-’ character itself a list item, you must do one of the following:

- Put the ‘-’ either first or last in the list.
- Include a range whose starting point collates strictly lower than ‘-’ and whose ending point collates equal or higher. Unless a range is the first item in a list, a ‘-’ can’t be its starting point, but *can* be its ending point. That is because Regex considers ‘-’ to be the range operator unless it is preceded by another ‘-’. For example, in the ASCII encoding, ‘)’, ‘*’, ‘+’, ‘,’ , ‘-’, ‘.’, and ‘/’ are contiguous characters in the collating sequence. You might think that `[D-+--/]` has two ranges: ‘)-+’ and ‘--/’. Rather, it has the ranges ‘)-+’ and ‘+--’, plus the character ‘/’, so it matches, e.g., ‘,’ , not ‘.’.
- Put a range whose starting point is ‘-’ first in the list.

For example, `[-a-z]` matches a lowercase letter or a hyphen (in English, in ASCII).

² You can’t use a character class for the starting or ending point of a range, since a character class is not a single character.

3.7 Grouping Operators (`(...)` or `\(... \)`)

A *group*, also known as a *subexpression*, consists of an *open-group operator*, any number of other operators, and a *close-group operator*. Regex treats this sequence as a unit, just as mathematics and programming languages treat a parenthesized expression as a unit.

Therefore, using *groups*, you can:

- delimit the argument(s) to an alternation operator (see Section 3.5 [Alternation Operator], page 9) or a repetition operator (see Section 3.4 [Repetition Operators], page 7).
- keep track of the indices of the substring that matched a given group. See Section 7.1.8 [Using Registers], page 22, for a precise explanation. This lets you:
 - use the back-reference operator (see Section 3.8 [Back-reference Operator], page 12).
 - use registers (see Section 7.1.8 [Using Registers], page 22).

If the syntax bit `RE_NO_BK_PARENS` is set, then `'(` represents the open-group operator and `)'` represents the close-group operator; otherwise, `'\('` and `'\)'` do.

If the syntax bit `RE_UNMATCHED_RIGHT_PAREN_ORD` is set and a close-group operator has no matching open-group operator, then Regex considers it to match `)'`.

3.8 The Back-reference Operator (`\digit`)

If the syntax bit `RE_NO_BK_REF` isn't set, then Regex recognizes back references. A back reference matches a specified preceding group. The back reference operator is represented by `'\digit'` anywhere after the end of a regular expression's *digit*-th group (see Section 3.7 [Grouping Operators], page 12).

digit must be between `'1'` and `'9'`. The matcher assigns numbers 1 through 9 to the first nine groups it encounters. By using one of `'\1'` through `'\9'` after the corresponding group's close-group operator, you can match a substring identical to the one that the group does.

Back references match according to the following (in all examples below, `'('` represents the open-group, `')'` the close-group, `'{'` the open-interval and `'}'` the close-interval operator):

- If the group matches a substring, the back reference matches an identical substring. For example, `'(a)\1'` matches `'aa'` and `'(bana)na\1bo\1'` matches `'banabanabobana'`. Likewise, `'(.*)\1'` matches any (newline-free if the syntax bit `RE_DOT_NEWLINE` isn't set) string that is composed of two identical halves; the `'(.*)'` matches the first half and the `'\1'` matches the second half.
- If the group matches more than once (as it might if followed by, e.g., a repetition operator), then the back reference matches the substring the group *last* matched. For example, `'((a*)b)*\1\2'` matches `'aabababa'`; first group 1 (the outer one) matches `'aab'` and group 2 (the inner one) matches `'aa'`. Then group 1 matches `'ab'` and group 2 matches `'a'`. So, `'\1'` matches `'ab'` and `'\2'` matches `'a'`.
- If the group doesn't participate in a match, i.e., it is part of an alternative not taken or a repetition operator allows zero repetitions of it, then the back reference makes the whole match fail. For example, `'(one()|two()-and-(three\2|four\3)'` matches `'one-and-three'` and `'two-and-four'`, but not `'one-and-four'` or `'two-and-three'`. For example, if the pattern matches `'one-and-'`, then its group 2 matches the empty

string and its group 3 doesn't participate in the match. So, if it then matches `'four'`, then when it tries to back reference group 3—which it will attempt to do because `'\3'` follows the `'four'`—the match will fail because group 3 didn't participate in the match.

You can use a back reference as an argument to a repetition operator. For example, `'(a(b))\2*'` matches `'a'` followed by two or more `'b'`s. Similarly, `'(a(b))\2{3}'` matches `'abbbb'`.

If there is no preceding *digit*-th subexpression, the regular expression is invalid.

3.9 Anchoring Operators

These operators can constrain a pattern to match only at the beginning or end of the entire string or at the beginning or end of a line.

3.9.1 The Match-beginning-of-line Operator (^)

This operator can match the empty string either at the beginning of the string or after a newline character. Thus, it is said to *anchor* the pattern to the beginning of a line.

In the cases following, `'^'` represents this operator. (Otherwise, `'^'` is ordinary.)

- It (the `'^'`) is first in the pattern, as in `'^foo'`.
- The syntax bit `RE_CONTEXT_INDEP_ANCHORS` is set, and it is outside a bracket expression.
- It follows an open-group or alternation operator, as in `'a\(^b\)'` and `'a|\^b'`. See Section 3.7 [Grouping Operators], page 12, and Section 3.5 [Alternation Operator], page 9.

These rules imply that some valid patterns containing `'^'` cannot be matched; for example, `'foo^bar'` if `RE_CONTEXT_INDEP_ANCHORS` is set.

If the `not_bol` field is set in the pattern buffer (see Section 7.1.1 [GNU Pattern Buffers], page 18), then `'^'` fails to match at the beginning of the string. See Section 7.2.3 [POSIX Matching], page 26, for when you might find this useful.

If the `newline_anchor` field is set in the pattern buffer, then `'^'` fails to match after a newline. This is useful when you do not regard the string to be matched as broken into lines.

3.9.2 The Match-end-of-line Operator (\$)

This operator can match the empty string either at the end of the string or before a newline character in the string. Thus, it is said to *anchor* the pattern to the end of a line.

It is always represented by `'$'`. For example, `'foo$'` usually matches, e.g., `'foo'` and, e.g., the first three characters of `'foo\nbar'`.

Its interaction with the syntax bits and pattern buffer fields is exactly the dual of `'^'`s; see the previous section. (That is, “beginning” becomes “end”, “next” becomes “previous”, and “after” becomes “before”.)

4 GNU Operators

Following are operators that GNU defines (and POSIX doesn't).

4.1 Word Operators

The operators in this section require Regex to recognize parts of words. Regex uses a syntax table to determine whether or not a character is part of a word, i.e., whether or not it is *word-constituent*.

4.1.1 Non-Emacs Syntax Tables

A *syntax table* is an array indexed by the characters in your character set. In the ASCII encoding, therefore, a syntax table has 256 elements. Regex always uses a `char *` variable `re_syntax_table` as its syntax table. In some cases, it initializes this variable and in others it expects you to initialize it.

- If Regex is compiled with the preprocessor symbols `emacs` and `SYNTAX_TABLE` both undefined, then Regex allocates `re_syntax_table` and initializes an element *i* either to `Sword` (which it defines) if *i* is a letter, number, or `'_'`, or to zero if it's not.
- If Regex is compiled with `emacs` undefined but `SYNTAX_TABLE` defined, then Regex expects you to define a `char *` variable `re_syntax_table` to be a valid syntax table.
- See Section 5.1.1 [Emacs Syntax Tables], page 16, for what happens when Regex is compiled with the preprocessor symbol `emacs` defined.

4.1.2 The Match-word-boundary Operator (`\b`)

This operator (represented by `'\b'`) matches the empty string at either the beginning or the end of a word. For example, `'\brat\b'` matches the separate word `'rat'`.

4.1.3 The Match-within-word Operator (`\B`)

This operator (represented by `'\B'`) matches the empty string within a word. For example, `'\c\Brat\Be'` matches `'crate'`, but `'dirty \Brat'` doesn't match `'dirty rat'`.

4.1.4 The Match-beginning-of-word Operator (`\<`)

This operator (represented by `'\<'`) matches the empty string at the beginning of a word.

4.1.5 The Match-end-of-word Operator (`\>`)

This operator (represented by `'\>'`) matches the empty string at the end of a word.

4.1.6 The Match-word-constituent Operator (`\w`)

This operator (represented by `'\w'`) matches any word-constituent character.

4.1.7 The Match-non-word-constituent Operator (`\W`)

This operator (represented by `'\W'`) matches any character that is not word-constituent.

4.2 Buffer Operators

Following are operators which work on buffers. In Emacs, a *buffer* is, naturally, an Emacs buffer. For other programs, Regex considers the entire string to be matched as the buffer.

4.2.1 The Match-beginning-of-buffer Operator (`\``)

This operator (represented by `\``) matches the empty string at the beginning of the buffer.

4.2.2 The Match-end-of-buffer Operator (`\'`)

This operator (represented by `\'`) matches the empty string at the end of the buffer.

5 GNU Emacs Operators

Following are operators that GNU defines (and POSIX doesn't) that you can use only when Regex is compiled with the preprocessor symbol `emacs` defined.

5.1 Syntactic Class Operators

The operators in this section require Regex to recognize the syntactic classes of characters. Regex uses a syntax table to determine this.

5.1.1 Emacs Syntax Tables

A *syntax table* is an array indexed by the characters in your character set. In the ASCII encoding, therefore, a syntax table has 256 elements.

If Regex is compiled with the preprocessor symbol `emacs` defined, then Regex expects you to define and initialize the variable `re_syntax_table` to be an Emacs syntax table. Emacs' syntax tables are more complicated than Regex's own (see Section 4.1.1 [Non-Emacs Syntax Tables], page 14). See Section "Syntax" in *The GNU Emacs User's Manual*, for a description of Emacs' syntax tables.

5.1.2 The Match-syntactic-class Operator (`\sclass`)

This operator matches any character whose syntactic class is represented by a specified character. '`\sclass`' represents this operator where *class* is the character representing the syntactic class you want. For example, '`w`' represents the syntactic class of word-constituent characters, so '`sw`' matches any word-constituent character.

5.1.3 The Match-not-syntactic-class Operator (`\Sclass`)

This operator is similar to the match-syntactic-class operator except that it matches any character whose syntactic class is *not* represented by the specified character. '`\Sclass`' represents this operator. For example, '`w`' represents the syntactic class of word-constituent characters, so '`Sw`' matches any character that is not word-constituent.

6 What Gets Matched?

Regex usually matches strings according to the “leftmost longest” rule; that is, it chooses the longest of the leftmost matches. This does not mean that for a regular expression containing subexpressions that it simply chooses the longest match for each subexpression, left to right; the overall match must also be the longest possible one.

For example, `(ac*)(c*d[ac]*)\1` matches `acdacaaa`, not `acdac`, as it would if it were to choose the longest match for the first subexpression.

7 Programming with Regex

Here we describe how you use the Regex data structures and functions in C programs. Regex has three interfaces: one designed for GNU, one compatible with POSIX and one compatible with Berkeley UNIX.

7.1 GNU Regex Functions

If you're writing code that doesn't need to be compatible with either POSIX or Berkeley UNIX, you can use these functions. They provide more options than the other interfaces.

7.1.1 GNU Pattern Buffers

To compile, match, or search for a given regular expression, you must supply a pattern buffer. A *pattern buffer* holds one compiled regular expression.¹

You can have several different pattern buffers simultaneously, each holding a compiled pattern for a different regular expression.

`regex.h` defines the pattern buffer `struct` as follows:

```
[[[ pattern_buffer ]]]
```

7.1.2 GNU Regular Expression Compiling

In GNU, you can both match and search for a given regular expression. To do either, you must first compile it in a pattern buffer (see Section 7.1.1 [GNU Pattern Buffers], page 18).

Regular expressions match according to the syntax with which they were compiled; with GNU, you indicate what syntax you want by setting the variable `re_syntax_options` (declared in `regex.h` and defined in `regex.c`) before calling the compiling function, `re_compile_pattern` (see below). See Section 2.1 [Syntax Bits], page 2, and Section 2.2 [Predefined Syntaxes], page 4.

You can change the value of `re_syntax_options` at any time. Usually, however, you set its value once and then never change it.

`re_compile_pattern` takes a pattern buffer as an argument. You must initialize the following fields:

`translate` initialization

`translate`

Initialize this to point to a translate table if you want one, or to zero if you don't. We explain translate tables in Section 7.1.7 [GNU Translate Tables], page 22.

`fastmap` Initialize this to nonzero if you want a fastmap, or to zero if you don't.

`buffer`

`allocated`

If you want `re_compile_pattern` to allocate memory for the compiled pattern, set both of these to zero. If you have an existing block of memory (allocated with `malloc`) you want Regex to use, set `buffer` to its address and `allocated` to its size (in bytes).

¹ Regular expressions are also referred to as "patterns," hence the name "pattern buffer."

`re_compile_pattern` uses `realloc` to extend the space for the compiled pattern as necessary.

To compile a pattern buffer, use:

```
char *
re_compile_pattern (const char *regex, const int regex_size,
                  struct re_pattern_buffer *pattern_buffer)
```

`regex` is the regular expression's address, `regex_size` is its length, and `pattern_buffer` is the pattern buffer's address.

If `re_compile_pattern` successfully compiles the regular expression, it returns zero and sets `*pattern_buffer` to the compiled pattern. It sets the pattern buffer's fields as follows:

`buffer` to the compiled pattern.

`used` to the number of bytes the compiled pattern in `buffer` occupies.

`syntax` to the current value of `re_syntax_options`.

`re_nsub` to the number of subexpressions in `regex`.

`fastmap_accurate`

to zero on the theory that the pattern you're compiling is different than the one previously compiled into `buffer`; in that case (since you can't make a fastmap without a compiled pattern), `fastmap` would either contain an incompatible fastmap, or nothing at all.

If `re_compile_pattern` can't compile `regex`, it returns an error string corresponding to one of the errors listed in Section 7.2.2 [POSIX Regular Expression Compiling], page 25.

7.1.3 GNU Matching

Matching the GNU way means trying to match as much of a string as possible starting at a position within it you specify. Once you've compiled a pattern into a pattern buffer (see Section 7.1.2 [GNU Regular Expression Compiling], page 18), you can ask the matcher to match that pattern against a string using:

```
int
re_match (struct re_pattern_buffer *pattern_buffer,
         const char *string, const int size,
         const int start, struct re_registers *regs)
```

`pattern_buffer` is the address of a pattern buffer containing a compiled pattern. `string` is the string you want to match; it can contain newline and null characters. `size` is the length of that string. `start` is the string index at which you want to begin matching; the first character of `string` is at index zero. See Section 7.1.8 [Using Registers], page 22, for an explanation of `regs`; you can safely pass zero.

`re_match` matches the regular expression in `pattern_buffer` against the string `string` according to the syntax in `pattern_buffers's` `syntax` field. (See Section 7.1.2 [GNU Regular Expression Compiling], page 18, for how to set it.) The function returns `-1` if the compiled pattern does not match any part of `string` and `-2` if an internal error happens; otherwise, it returns how many (possibly zero) characters of `string` the pattern matched.

An example: suppose *pattern_buffer* points to a pattern buffer containing the compiled pattern for `'a*'`, and *string* points to `'aaaaab'` (whereupon *size* should be 6). Then if *start* is 2, `re_match` returns 3, i.e., `'a*'` would have matched the last three `'a'`'s in *string*. If *start* is 0, `re_match` returns 5, i.e., `'a*'` would have matched all the `'a'`'s in *string*. If *start* is either 5 or 6, it returns zero.

If *start* is not between zero and *size*, then `re_match` returns `-1`.

7.1.4 GNU Searching

Searching means trying to match starting at successive positions within a string. The function `re_search` does this.

Before calling `re_search`, you must compile your regular expression. See Section 7.1.2 [GNU Regular Expression Compiling], page 18.

Here is the function declaration:

```
int
re_search (struct re_pattern_buffer *pattern_buffer,
           const char *string, const int size,
           const int start, const int range,
           struct re_registers *regs)
```

whose arguments are the same as those to `re_match` (see Section 7.1.3 [GNU Matching], page 19) except that the two arguments *start* and *range* replace `re_match`'s argument *start*.

If *range* is positive, then `re_search` attempts a match starting first at index *start*, then at *start* + 1 if that fails, and so on, up to *start* + *range*; if *range* is negative, then it attempts a match starting first at index *start*, then at *start* - 1 if that fails, and so on.

If *start* is not between zero and *size*, then `re_search` returns `-1`. When *range* is positive, `re_search` adjusts *range* so that *start* + *range* - 1 is between zero and *size*, if necessary; that way it won't search outside of *string*. Similarly, when *range* is negative, `re_search` adjusts *range* so that *start* + *range* + 1 is between zero and *size*, if necessary.

If the `fastmap` field of *pattern_buffer* is zero, `re_search` matches starting at consecutive positions; otherwise, it uses `fastmap` to make the search more efficient. See Section 7.1.6 [Searching with Fastmaps], page 21.

If no match is found, `re_search` returns `-1`. If a match is found, it returns the index where the match began. If an internal error happens, it returns `-2`.

7.1.5 Matching and Searching with Split Data

Using the functions `re_match_2` and `re_search_2`, you can match or search in data that is divided into two strings.

The function:

```
int
re_match_2 (struct re_pattern_buffer *buffer,
            const char *string1, const int size1,
            const char *string2, const int size2,
            const int start,
            struct re_registers *regs,
            const int stop)
```

is similar to `re_match` (see Section 7.1.3 [GNU Matching], page 19) except that you pass *two* data strings and sizes, and an index *stop* beyond which you don't want the matcher to try matching. As with `re_match`, if it succeeds, `re_match_2` returns how many characters of *string* it matched. Regard *string1* and *string2* as concatenated when you set the arguments *start* and *stop* and use the contents of *regs*; `re_match_2` never returns a value larger than *size1* + *size2*.

The function:

```
int
re_search_2 (struct re_pattern_buffer *buffer,
             const char *string1, const int size1,
             const char *string2, const int size2,
             const int start, const int range,
             struct re_registers *regs,
             const int stop)
```

is similarly related to `re_search`.

7.1.6 Searching with Fastmaps

If you're searching through a long string, you should use a fastmap. Without one, the searcher tries to match at consecutive positions in the string. Generally, most of the characters in the string could not start a match. It takes much longer to try matching at a given position in the string than it does to check in a table whether or not the character at that position could start a match. A *fastmap* is such a table.

More specifically, a fastmap is an array indexed by the characters in your character set. Under the ASCII encoding, therefore, a fastmap has 256 elements. If you want the searcher to use a fastmap with a given pattern buffer, you must allocate the array and assign the array's address to the pattern buffer's `fastmap` field. You either can compile the fastmap yourself or have `re_search` do it for you; when `fastmap` is nonzero, it automatically compiles a fastmap the first time you search using a particular compiled pattern.

To compile a fastmap yourself, use:

```
int
re_compile_fastmap (struct re_pattern_buffer *pattern_buffer)
```

pattern_buffer is the address of a pattern buffer. If the character *c* could start a match for the pattern, `re_compile_fastmap` makes `pattern_buffer->fastmap[c]` nonzero. It returns 0 if it can compile a fastmap and `-2` if there is an internal error. For example, if `|` is the alternation operator and *pattern_buffer* holds the compiled pattern for `'a|b'`, then `re_compile_fastmap` sets `fastmap['a']` and `fastmap['b']` (and no others).

`re_search` uses a fastmap as it moves along in the string: it checks the string's characters until it finds one that's in the fastmap. Then it tries matching at that character. If the match fails, it repeats the process. So, by using a fastmap, `re_search` doesn't waste time trying to match at positions in the string that couldn't start a match.

If you don't want `re_search` to use a fastmap, store zero in the `fastmap` field of the pattern buffer before calling `re_search`.

Once you've initialized a pattern buffer's `fastmap` field, you need never do so again—even if you compile a new pattern in it—provided the way the field is set still reflects

whether or not you want a fastmap. `re_search` will still either do nothing if `fastmap` is null or, if it isn't, compile a new fastmap for the new pattern.

7.1.7 GNU Translate Tables

If you set the `translate` field of a pattern buffer to a translate table, then the GNU Regex functions to which you've passed that pattern buffer use it to apply a simple transformation to all the regular expression and string characters at which they look.

A *translate table* is an array indexed by the characters in your character set. Under the ASCII encoding, therefore, a translate table has 256 elements. The array's elements are also characters in your character set. When the Regex functions see a character *c*, they use `translate[c]` in its place, with one exception: the character after a `'\'` is not translated. (This ensures that, the operators, e.g., `'\B'` and `'\b'`, are always distinguishable.)

For example, a table that maps all lowercase letters to the corresponding uppercase ones would cause the matcher to ignore differences in case.² Such a table would map all characters except lowercase letters to themselves, and lowercase letters to the corresponding uppercase ones. Under the ASCII encoding, here's how you could initialize such a table (we'll call it `case_fold`):

```
for (i = 0; i < 256; i++)
    case_fold[i] = i;
for (i = 'a'; i <= 'z'; i++)
    case_fold[i] = i - ('a' - 'A');
```

You tell Regex to use a translate table on a given pattern buffer by assigning that table's address to the `translate` field of that buffer. If you don't want Regex to do any translation, put zero into this field. You'll get weird results if you change the table's contents anytime between compiling the pattern buffer, compiling its fastmap, and matching or searching with the pattern buffer.

7.1.8 Using Registers

A group in a regular expression can match a (possibly empty) substring of the string that regular expression as a whole matched. The matcher remembers the beginning and end of the substring matched by each group.

To find out what they matched, pass a nonzero `regs` argument to a GNU matching or searching function (see Section 7.1.3 [GNU Matching], page 19, and Section 7.1.4 [GNU Searching], page 20), i.e., the address of a structure of this type, as defined in `regex.h`:

```
struct re_registers
{
    unsigned num_regs;
    regoff_t *start;
    regoff_t *end;
};
```

Except for (possibly) the `num_regs`'th element (see below), the *i*th element of the `start` and `end` arrays records information about the *i*th group in the pattern. (They're

² A table that maps all uppercase letters to the corresponding lowercase ones would work just as well for this purpose.

declared as C pointers, but this is only because not all C compilers accept zero-length arrays; conceptually, it is simplest to think of them as arrays.)

The `start` and `end` arrays are allocated in various ways, depending on the value of the `regs_allocated` field in the pattern buffer passed to the matcher.

The simplest and perhaps most useful is to let the matcher (re)allocate enough space to record information for all the groups in the regular expression. If `regs_allocated` is `REGS_UNALLOCATED`, the matcher allocates $1 + re_nsub$ (another field in the pattern buffer; see Section 7.1.1 [GNU Pattern Buffers], page 18). The extra element is set to -1 , and sets `regs_allocated` to `REGS_REALLOCATE`. Then on subsequent calls with the same pattern buffer and `regs` arguments, the matcher reallocates more space if necessary.

It would perhaps be more logical to make the `regs_allocated` field part of the `re_registers` structure, instead of part of the pattern buffer. But in that case the caller would be forced to initialize the structure before passing it. Much existing code doesn't do this initialization, and it's arguably better to avoid it anyway.

`re_compile_pattern` sets `regs_allocated` to `REGS_UNALLOCATED`, so if you use the GNU regular expression functions, you get this behavior by default.

xx document `re_set_registers`

POSIX, on the other hand, requires a different interface: the caller is supposed to pass in a fixed-length array which the matcher fills. Therefore, if `regs_allocated` is `REGS_FIXED` the matcher simply fills that array.

The following examples illustrate the information recorded in the `re_registers` structure. (In all of them, '(' represents the open-group and ')' the close-group operator. The first character in the string *string* is at index 0.)

- If the regular expression has an *i*-th group not contained within another group that matches a substring of *string*, then the function sets `regs->start[i]` to the index in *string* where the substring matched by the *i*-th group begins, and `regs->end[i]` to the index just beyond that substring's end. The function sets `regs->start[0]` and `regs->end[0]` to analogous information about the entire pattern.

For example, when you match '(a(b))' against 'ab', you get:

- 0 in `regs->start[0]` and 2 in `regs->end[0]`
- 0 in `regs->start[1]` and 2 in `regs->end[1]`
- 0 in `regs->start[2]` and 1 in `regs->end[2]`
- 1 in `regs->start[3]` and 2 in `regs->end[3]`
- If a group matches more than once (as it might if followed by, e.g., a repetition operator), then the function reports the information about what the group *last* matched.

For example, when you match the pattern '(a)*' against the string 'aa', you get:

- 0 in `regs->start[0]` and 2 in `regs->end[0]`
- 1 in `regs->start[1]` and 2 in `regs->end[1]`
- If the *i*-th group does not participate in a successful match, e.g., it is an alternative not taken or a repetition operator allows zero repetitions of it, then the function sets `regs->start[i]` and `regs->end[i]` to -1 .

For example, when you match the pattern '(a)*b' against the string 'b', you get:

- 0 in `regs->start[0]` and 1 in `regs->end[0]`

- `-1` in `regs->start[1]` and `-1` in `regs->end[1]`
 - If the *i*-th group matches a zero-length string, then the function sets `regs->start[i]` and `regs->end[i]` to the index just beyond that zero-length string.
For example, when you match the pattern `'(a*)b'` against the string `'b'`, you get:
 - `0` in `regs->start[0]` and `1` in `regs->end[0]`
 - `0` in `regs->start[1]` and `0` in `regs->end[1]`
 - If an *i*-th group contains a *j*-th group in turn not contained within any other group within group *i* and the function reports a match of the *i*-th group, then it records in `regs->start[j]` and `regs->end[j]` the last match (if it matched) of the *j*-th group.
For example, when you match the pattern `'((a*)b)*'` against the string `'abb'`, group 2 last matches the empty string, so you get what it previously matched:
 - `0` in `regs->start[0]` and `3` in `regs->end[0]`
 - `2` in `regs->start[1]` and `3` in `regs->end[1]`
 - `2` in `regs->start[2]` and `2` in `regs->end[2]`
- When you match the pattern `'((a)*b)*'` against the string `'abb'`, group 2 doesn't participate in the last match, so you get:
- `0` in `regs->start[0]` and `3` in `regs->end[0]`
 - `2` in `regs->start[1]` and `3` in `regs->end[1]`
 - `0` in `regs->start[2]` and `1` in `regs->end[2]`
- If an *i*-th group contains a *j*-th group in turn not contained within any other group within group *i* and the function sets `regs->start[i]` and `regs->end[i]` to `-1`, then it also sets `regs->start[j]` and `regs->end[j]` to `-1`.
For example, when you match the pattern `'((a)*b)*c'` against the string `'c'`, you get:
 - `0` in `regs->start[0]` and `1` in `regs->end[0]`
 - `-1` in `regs->start[1]` and `-1` in `regs->end[1]`
 - `-1` in `regs->start[2]` and `-1` in `regs->end[2]`

7.1.9 Freeing GNU Pattern Buffers

To free any allocated fields of a pattern buffer, you can use the POSIX function described in Section 7.2.6 [Freeing POSIX Pattern Buffers], page 28, since the type `regex_t`—the type for POSIX pattern buffers—is equivalent to the type `re_pattern_buffer`. After freeing a pattern buffer, you need to again compile a regular expression in it (see Section 7.1.2 [GNU Regular Expression Compiling], page 18) before passing it to a matching or searching function.

7.2 POSIX Regex Functions

If you're writing code that has to be POSIX compatible, you'll need to use these functions. Their interfaces are as specified by POSIX, draft 1003.2/D11.2.

7.2.1 POSIX Pattern Buffers

To compile or match a given regular expression the POSIX way, you must supply a pattern buffer exactly the way you do for GNU (see Section 7.1.1 [GNU Pattern Buffers], page 18).

POSIX pattern buffers have type `regex_t`, which is equivalent to the GNU pattern buffer type `re_pattern_buffer`.

7.2.2 POSIX Regular Expression Compiling

With POSIX, you can only search for a given regular expression; you can't match it. To do this, you must first compile it in a pattern buffer, using `regcomp`.

To compile a pattern buffer, use:

```
int
regcomp (regex_t *preg, const char *regex, int cflags)
```

`preg` is the initialized pattern buffer's address, `regex` is the regular expression's address, and `cflags` is the compilation flags, which Regex considers as a collection of bits. Here are the valid bits, as defined in `regex.h`:

REG_EXTENDED

says to use POSIX Extended Regular Expression syntax; if this isn't set, then says to use POSIX Basic Regular Expression syntax. `regcomp` sets `preg`'s `syntax` field accordingly.

REG_ICASE

says to ignore case; `regcomp` sets `preg`'s `translate` field to a translate table which ignores case, replacing anything you've put there before.

REG_NOSUB

says to set `preg`'s `no_sub` field; see Section 7.2.3 [POSIX Matching], page 26, for what this means.

REG_NEWLINE

says that a:

- match-any-character operator (see Section 3.2 [Match-any-character Operator], page 7) doesn't match a newline.
- nonmatching list not containing a newline (see Section 3.6 [List Operators], page 10) matches a newline.
- match-beginning-of-line operator (see Section 3.9.1 [Match-beginning-of-line Operator], page 13) matches the empty string immediately after a newline, regardless of how `REG_NOTBOL` is set (see Section 7.2.3 [POSIX Matching], page 26, for an explanation of `REG_NOTBOL`).
- match-end-of-line operator (see Section 3.9.1 [Match-beginning-of-line Operator], page 13) matches the empty string immediately before a newline, regardless of how `REG_NOTEOL` is set (see Section 7.2.3 [POSIX Matching], page 26, for an explanation of `REG_NOTEOL`).

If `regcomp` successfully compiles the regular expression, it returns zero and sets `*pattern_buffer` to the compiled pattern. Except for `syntax` (which it sets as explained above), it also sets the same fields the same way as does the GNU compiling function (see Section 7.1.2 [GNU Regular Expression Compiling], page 18).

If `regcomp` can't compile the regular expression, it returns one of the error codes listed here. (Except when noted differently, the syntax of in all examples below is basic regular expression syntax.)

REG_BADRPT

For example, the consecutive repetition operators ‘**’ in ‘a**’ are invalid. As another example, if the syntax is extended regular expression syntax, then the repetition operator ‘*’ with nothing on which to operate in ‘*’ is invalid.

REG_BADBR

For example, the *count* ‘-1’ in ‘a\{-1’ is invalid.

REG_EBRACE

For example, ‘a\{1’ is missing a close-interval operator.

REG_EBRACK

For example, ‘[a’ is missing a close-list operator.

REG_ERANGE

For example, the range ending point ‘z’ that collates lower than does its starting point ‘a’ in ‘[z-a]’ is invalid. Also, the range with the character class ‘[:alpha:]’ as its starting point in ‘[[:alpha:]-]’.

REG_ECTYPE

For example, the character class name ‘foo’ in ‘[[:foo:]]’ is invalid.

REG_EPAREN

For example, ‘a\’ is missing an open-group operator and ‘\a’ is missing a close-group operator.

REG_ESUBREG

For example, the back reference ‘\2’ that refers to a nonexistent subexpression in ‘\a)\2’ is invalid.

REG_EEND Returned when a regular expression causes no other more specific error.

REG_EESCAPE

For example, the trailing backslash ‘\’ in ‘a\’ is invalid, as is the one in ‘\’.

REG_BADPAT

For example, in the extended regular expression syntax, the empty group ‘()’ in ‘a()b’ is invalid.

REG_ESIZE

Returned when a regular expression needs a pattern buffer larger than 65536 bytes.

REG_ESPACE

Returned when a regular expression makes Regex to run out of memory.

7.2.3 POSIX Matching

Matching the POSIX way means trying to match a null-terminated string starting at its first character. Once you’ve compiled a pattern into a pattern buffer (see Section 7.2.2 [POSIX Regular Expression Compiling], page 25), you can ask the matcher to match that pattern against a string using:

```
int
regexec (const regex_t *preg, const char *string,
```

```
size_t nmatch, regmatch_t pmatch[], int eflags)
```

preg is the address of a pattern buffer for a compiled pattern. *string* is the string you want to match.

See Section 7.2.5 [Using Byte Offsets], page 27, for an explanation of *pmatch*. If you pass zero for *nmatch* or you compiled *preg* with the compilation flag `REG_NOSUB` set, then `regexexec` will ignore *pmatch*; otherwise, you must allocate it to have at least *nmatch* elements. `regexexec` will record *nmatch* byte offsets in *pmatch*, and set to `-1` any unused elements up to `pmatch[nmatch] - 1`.

eflags specifies *execution flags*—namely, the two bits `REG_NOTBOL` and `REG_NOTEOL` (defined in `regex.h`). If you set `REG_NOTBOL`, then the match-beginning-of-line operator (see Section 3.9.1 [Match-beginning-of-line Operator], page 13) always fails to match. This lets you match against pieces of a line, as you would need to if, say, searching for repeated instances of a given pattern in a line; it would work correctly for patterns both with and without match-beginning-of-line operators. `REG_NOTEOL` works analogously for the match-end-of-line operator (see Section 3.9.2 [Match-end-of-line Operator], page 13); it exists for symmetry.

`regexexec` tries to find a match for *preg* in *string* according to the syntax in *preg*'s `syntax` field. (See Section 7.2.2 [POSIX Regular Expression Compiling], page 25, for how to set it.) The function returns zero if the compiled pattern matches *string* and `REG_NOMATCH` (defined in `regex.h`) if it doesn't.

7.2.4 Reporting Errors

If either `regcomp` or `regexexec` fail, they return a nonzero error code, the possibilities for which are defined in `regex.h`. See Section 7.2.2 [POSIX Regular Expression Compiling], page 25, and Section 7.2.3 [POSIX Matching], page 26, for what these codes mean. To get an error string corresponding to these codes, you can use:

```
size_t
regerror (int errcode,
         const regex_t *preg,
         char *errbuf,
         size_t errbuf_size)
```

errcode is an error code, *preg* is the address of the pattern buffer which provoked the error, *errbuf* is the error buffer, and *errbuf_size* is *errbuf*'s size.

`regerror` returns the size in bytes of the error string corresponding to *errcode* (including its terminating null). If *errbuf* and *errbuf_size* are nonzero, it also returns in *errbuf* the first *errbuf_size* - 1 characters of the error string, followed by a null. *errbuf_size* must be a nonnegative number less than or equal to the size in bytes of *errbuf*.

You can call `regerror` with a null *errbuf* and a zero *errbuf_size* to determine how large *errbuf* need be to accommodate `regerror`'s error string.

7.2.5 Using Byte Offsets

In POSIX, variables of type `regmatch_t` hold analogous information, but are not identical to, GNU's registers (see Section 7.1.8 [Using Registers], page 22). To get information about registers in POSIX, pass to `regexexec` a nonzero *pmatch* of type `regmatch_t`, i.e., the address of a structure of this type, defined in `regex.h`:

```
typedef struct
{
    regoff_t rm_so;
    regoff_t rm_eo;
} regmatch_t;
```

When reading in Section 7.1.8 [Using Registers], page 22, about how the matching function stores the information into the registers, substitute *pmatch* for *regs*, *pmatch[i]->rm_so* for *regs->start[i]* and *pmatch[i]->rm_eo* for *regs->end[i]*.

7.2.6 Freeing POSIX Pattern Buffers

To free any allocated fields of a pattern buffer, use:

```
void
regfree (regex_t *preg)
```

preg is the pattern buffer whose allocated fields you want freed. **regfree** also sets *preg*'s **allocated** and **used** fields to zero. After freeing a pattern buffer, you need to again compile a regular expression in it (see Section 7.2.2 [POSIX Regular Expression Compiling], page 25) before passing it to the matching function (see Section 7.2.3 [POSIX Matching], page 26).

7.3 BSD Regex Functions

If you're writing code that has to be Berkeley UNIX compatible, you'll need to use these functions whose interfaces are the same as those in Berkeley UNIX.

7.3.1 BSD Regular Expression Compiling

With Berkeley UNIX, you can only search for a given regular expression; you can't match one. To search for it, you must first compile it. Before you compile it, you must indicate the regular expression syntax you want it compiled according to by setting the variable **re_syntax_options** (declared in **regex.h** to some syntax (see Chapter 2 [Regular Expression Syntax], page 2).

To compile a regular expression use:

```
char *
re_comp (char *regex)
```

regex is the address of a null-terminated regular expression. **re_comp** uses an internal pattern buffer, so you can use only the most recently compiled pattern buffer. This means that if you want to use a given regular expression that you've already compiled—but it isn't the latest one you've compiled—you'll have to recompile it. If you call **re_comp** with the null string (*not* the empty string) as the argument, it doesn't change the contents of the pattern buffer.

If **re_comp** successfully compiles the regular expression, it returns zero. If it can't compile the regular expression, it returns an error string. **re_comp**'s error messages are identical to those of **re_compile_pattern** (see Section 7.1.2 [GNU Regular Expression Compiling], page 18).

7.3.2 BSD Searching

Searching the Berkeley UNIX way means searching in a string starting at its first character and trying successive positions within it to find a match. Once you've compiled a pattern

using `re_comp` (see Section 7.3.1 [BSD Regular Expression Compiling], page 28), you can ask Regex to search for that pattern in a string using:

```
int  
re_exec (char *string)
```

string is the address of the null-terminated string in which you want to search.

`re_exec` returns either 1 for success or 0 for failure. It automatically uses a GNU fastmap (see Section 7.1.6 [Searching with Fastmaps], page 21).

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Version 2, June 1991

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```

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```

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```

```
signature of Ty Coon, 1 April 1989
Ty Coon, President of Vice
```

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