### **UE19CS351: Compiler Design**

### **Chapter 3: Lexical Analysis**

- 1. The Role of the Lexical Analyzer
- 2. Input buffering
- 3. Specification of Tokens.
- 4. Recognition of Tokens
- 5. Design of a Lexical Analyzer Generator.

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- > The main task of the lexical analyzer is to
  - Read the input characters of the source program, group them into meaningful units called lexemes, and
  - Produce as output a sequence of tokens for each lexeme in the source program.
- The stream of tokens is sent to the parser for syntax analysis.
- When the lexical analyzer discovers a lexeme constituting an identifier, it needs to enter that lexeme into the symbol table.

The interactions between Lexical analyzer, symbol table and parser are suggested in Fig. 3.1.

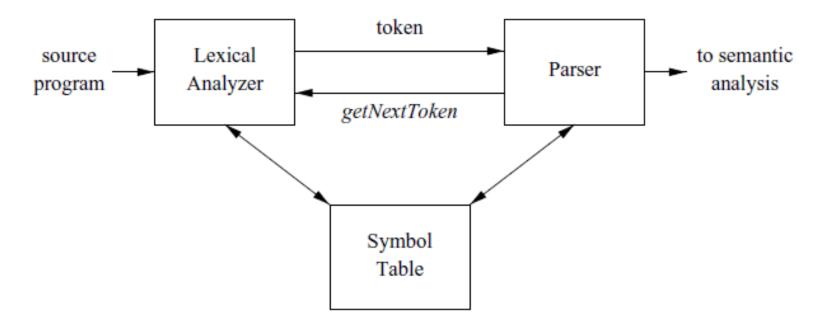


Figure 3.1 Interactions between the lexical analyzer and the parser

The lexical analyzer may perform certain other tasks besides identification of lexemes.

- One such task is stripping out comments and whitespace.
  (blank, newline, tab, and perhaps other characters that are used to separate tokens in the input).
- Another task is **correlating error messages** generated by the compiler with the source program.
  - For instance, the lexical analyzer may keep track of the number of newline characters seen, so it can associate a line number with each error message.

The lexical analyzer may perform certain other tasks besides identification of lexemes. cont..

- > In some compilers,
  - the lexical analyzer makes a copy of the source program with the error messages inserted at the appropriate positions.
  - If the source program uses a macro, the expansion of macros may also be performed by the lexical analyzer.

- Sometimes, lexical analyzers are divided into a cascade of two processes:
  - a) Scanning consists of the simple processes such as
    - deletion of comments and
    - compaction of consecutive whitespace characters into one.

b) Lexical analysis is the more complex portion, where the scanner produces the sequence of tokens as output.

### > Assignments:

- Write a Lex program to remove comment lines and also count the number of comments in a program.
  - Take as input the lex.yy.c file and eliminate all the comments.
- 2. Write a program in a preferred programming language to develop a simple lexical analyzer.
  - Input: C/C++ program
  - Output: Remove comments; Generate Tokens; Store generated tokens in table (Symbol table).

### **Lexical Analysis Versus Parsing**

- There are a number of reasons why the analysis portion of a compiler is normally separated into
  - 1. Lexical Analysis and
  - 2. Syntax Analysis (parsing) phases.

### **Lexical Analysis Versus Parsing**

- 1. Simplicity of design is the most important consideration.
  - The separation of lexical and syntactic analysis often allows us to simplify at least one of these tasks.
    - For example, a parser that had to deal with comments and whitespace as syntactic units would be considerably more complex than one that can assume comments and whitespace have already been removed by the lexical analyzer.
  - If we are designing a new language, separating lexical and syntactic concerns can lead to a cleaner overall language design.

### **Lexical Analysis Versus Parsing**

2. Compiler efficiency is improved. A separate lexical analyzer allows us to apply specialized techniques that serve only the lexical task, not the job of parsing.

In addition, specialized buffering techniques for reading input characters can speed up the compiler significantly.

**3. Compiler portability is enhanced.** Input-device-specific peculiarities can be restricted to the lexical analyzer.

#### Tokens, Patterns, and Lexemes

#### > Token

A token is a pair consisting of a token name and an optional attribute value.
< token-name, attribute-value>

#### Token name:

- It is an abstract symbol representing a kind of lexical unit.
- Examples: A particular keyword (E.g. <IF>, <WHILE>), or a sequence of input characters denoting an identifier.
- The token names are the input symbols that the parser processes.

we shall generally write the name of a token in boldface. We will often refer to a token by its token name.

#### Tokens, Patterns, and Lexemes

A pattern is a description of the form that the lexemes of a token may take.

**For keywords**, the pattern is just the sequence of characters that form the keyword.

```
if {printf("\nkeyword\n"); return IF;}
while {printf("\nkeyword\n"); return WHILE;}
```

**For identifiers** and some other tokens, the pattern is a more complex structure that is matched by many strings. <ID, while>

```
[a-zA-Z][a-zA-Z0-9_]* {printf("\nValid input\n"); yylval = yytext; return ID;}
```

A lexeme is a sequence of characters in the source program that matches the pattern for a token and is identified by the lexical analyzer as an instance of that token.

■ Table below gives some **typical tokens**, their informally described patterns, and some sample lexemes.

TOKEN	INFORMAL DESCRIPTION	SAMPLE LEXEMES
If	characters i, f	if
else	characters e, l, s, e	else
comparison	< or > or <= or >= or !=	<=, !=
id	letter followed by letters and digits	pi, score, D2
number	any numeric constant	3.14159, 0, 6.02e23
literal	anything but ", surrounded by " 's	"core dumped"

Figure 3.2: Examples of tokens

➤ Example 3.1: To see how these concepts are used in practice, in the C statement

```
printf ("Total = %d\n", score);
```

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```
printf ("Total = %d\n", score);
```

- both printf and score are lexemes matching the pattern for token id, and
- "Total = °/,d\n" is a lexeme matching the pattern for token literal.

In many programming languages, the **following classes cover most or all of the tokens**:

- 1. One token for each **keyword**. The pattern for a keyword is the same as the keyword itself.
- 2. Tokens for the **operators**, either individually or in classes such as the token comparison mentioned in Fig. 3.2.
- 3. One token representing all **identifiers**.
- One or more tokens representing constants, such as numbers and literal
- 5. Tokens for each **punctuation symbol**, such as left and right parentheses, comma, and semicolon.

### **Attributes for Tokens**

- When more than one lexeme can match a pattern, the lexical analyzer must provide the subsequent compiler phases additional information about the particular lexeme that matched.
  - For example, the pattern for token **number** matches both 10 and 11, but it is extremely important for the code generator to know which lexeme was found in the source program.

### **Attributes for Tokens**

The lexical analyzer returns to the parser a token; the token name influences parsing decisions, while the attribute value influences translation of tokens after the parse.

#### **Attributes for Tokens**

- Assume that tokens have at most one associated attribute, although this attribute may have a structure that combines several pieces of information.
  - The most important example is the token id, where we need to associate with the token a great deal of information.

Normally, information about an identifier — e.g., its lexeme, its type, and the location at which it is first found is kept in the symbol table.

Thus, the appropriate attribute value for an identifier is a pointer to the symbol-table entry for that identifier.

■ Example 3.2: The token names and associated attribute values for the Fortran statement E = M \* C \*\* 2 are written below as a sequence of pairs.

Note that in certain pairs, **especially operators**, **punctuation**, **and keywords**, **there is no need for an attribute value**. In this example, the token **number** has been given an integer-valued attribute.

Lexer implementation is language dependent

### Syntactic Sugar:

- Syntactic sugar is syntax within a programming language that is designed to make things easier to read or to express.
- Example:
  - In C: a[i] is a syntactic sugar for \*(a+i)
  - In C: a+=b is equivalent to a = a + b
  - In C#: var x = expr (compiler deduces type of x from expr)
- Compilers expand sugared constructs into fundamental constructs (Desugaring).

- □Scanning is Hard in C++
  - C++ template syntax:
    - template <class T>
  - C++ stream syntax:
    - cin >> var;
  - C++ binary right shift syntax:
    - a >> 4;
  - Nested templates:
    - A<B<C>>D;

### □Scanning is Hard in PL/I

- Identifiers can be PL/I keywords or programmer-defined names.
  Because PL/I can determine from the context if an identifier is a keyword, you can use any identifier as a programmer-defined name.
  - PL/1: Keywords can be used as identifiers.

```
IF THEN THEN THEN = ELSE; ELSE ELSE = IF
```

Can be difficult to determine how to label lexemes.

□ Scanning is Hard in Python

### Python Blocks

Scoping handled by whitespace:

```
if w == z:
    a = b
    c = d
else:
    e = f
q = h
```

What does that mean for the scanner?

#### In Python,

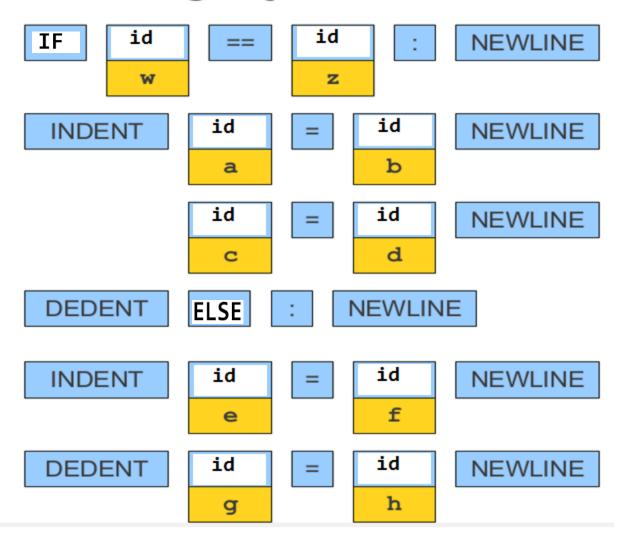
- Indentation is not ignored.
- Leading whitespace is used to compute a line's indentation level, which in turn is used to determine the block of statements.

- Scanning is Hard in Python
  - In Python lexical analysis, most of the white space magic is in the lexer, the lexer emits three special tokens: NEWLINE, INDENT, and DEDENT.
  - The parser reads
    - NEWLINE as the end of a logical line,
    - INDENT as the beginning of a block and
    - DEDENT as the end of a block.
  - Note that INDENT and DEDENT encode change in indentation, not the total amount of indentation.

### Scanning Python

```
if w == z:
    a = b
    c = d
else:
    e = f
q = h
```

### Scanning Python



- How INDENT and DEDENT tokens are generated in Python Lexical Analyzer?
  - Before the first line of the file is read, a single zero is pushed on to stack; this will never be popped off again. The numbers pushed on the stack will always be strictly increasing from bottom to top.
  - At the beginning of each logical line, the line's indentation level is compared to the top of the stack.
    - If it is equal, nothing happens.
    - If it is larger, it is pushed on to the stack, and one INDENT token is generated.
    - If it is smaller, it must be one of the numbers occurring on the stack; all numbers on the stack that are larger are popped off, and for each number popped off a DEDENT token is generated.
  - At the end of the file, a DEDENT token is generated for each number remaining on the stack that is larger than zero.

■ Example of a correctly (though confusingly) indented piece of Python code:

- How INDENT and DEDENT tokens are generated in Python Lexical Analyzer?
  - Before the first line of the file is read, a single zero is pushed on the stack; At the beginning of each logical line, the line's indentation level is compared to the top of the stack.
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    - If it is smaller, it must be one of the numbers occurring on the stack; all numbers on the stack that are larger are popped off, and for each number popped off a DEDENT token is generated.
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Actually, the first three errors are detected by the parser; only the last error is found by the lexical analyzer — the indentation of statement return r does not match a level popped off the stack.

#### **Lexer Feedback**

C and C++ lexers require lexical feedback to differentiate between typedef names and identifiers.

That is, the context-sensitive lexer needs help from the "context-free" parser to distinguish between an identifier "foo" and a typedef name "foo". In this

```
int foo;
typedef int foo;
foo x;
```

the first "foo" is an identifier while the second and third are typedef names.

You need to parse typedef declarations to figure this out.

■ This means that the parser and lexer are mutually recursive, so it doesn't make sense to say that the parser is context free while the lexer is context sensitive.

- The tokeniser doesn't make a distinction between the two. It just treats it as the token \*.
- The parser knows how to look up names. It knows that obj is a type, so can parse <type> \* <identifier> differently from <non-type> \* <non-type>.
- When typedef int obj; is parsed, it is interpreted and taken to mean obj now names a type. When parsing continues and obj \*var1; is seen, the results of the earlier semantic analysis are available for use.

#### Lexical Analyzer

#### Contextual keywords

Sometimes, we want to add a new keyword to a language, but can't break backward compatibility.

For example, when C# added **async/await**, they needed to retain async as an identifier, so that old programs that used variables or classes named async would still compile.

That is to say, the token async should be treated as an identifier under some circumstances, and as a keyword under others.

A keyword with this property is called a "contextual keyword" in C#.

Then the question is: when should we lex the string "async" appearing in the source code as an identifier, and when should we lex it as the async token?

We need information about the surrounding tokens to decide that.

#### Tricky Problems When Recognizing Tokens

- In some languages it is not immediately apparent when we have seen an instance of a lexeme corresponding to a token.
- The following example is taken from Fortran, in the fixed-format still allowed in Fortran 90. In the statement

do label var = expr1, expr2, expr3
statements
label continue

it is not apparent that the first lexeme is **DO5I**, an instance of the identifier token, until we see the dot following the 1.

Note that **blanks in fixed-format Fortran are ignored** (an archaic convention).

#### Tricky Problems When Recognizing Tokens

■ Had we seen a comma instead of the dot, we would

have had a do-statement

do label var = expr1, expr2, expr3 statements label continue

in which the first lexeme is the keyword DO.

#### **Standard Fixed Format**

The standard fixed format source lines are defined as follows:

The first 72 columns of each line are scanned.

The first five columns must be blank or contain a numeric label.

Continuation lines are identified by a nonblank, nonzero in column 6.

Short lines are padded to 72 characters.

Long lines are truncated.

#### Tricky Problems When Recognizing Tokens

Lexical analysis is complicated in some languages. FORTRAN, for example, allows white space inside of lexemes. The FORTRAN statement:

DO 5 I = 
$$1.25$$

is an assignment statement with three tokens:

ID	ASSIGNOP	NUM
DO5I	=	1.25

but the FORTRAN statement:

DO 5 I = 
$$1,25$$

is a DO-statement with seven tokens:

DOTOK	NUM	ID	ASSIGNOP	NUM	COMMA	NUM
DO	5	I	=	1	,	25

Before the lexical analyzer can produce the first token it must look ahead to see if there is a dot or a comma in this statement.

### The Role of the Lexical Analyzer

#### **Lexical Errors**

- It is hard for a lexical analyzer to tell, without the aid of other components, that there is a source-code error.
- For instance, if the string **fi** is encountered for the first time in a C program in the context:

$$fi (a == f(x)) ...$$

a lexical analyzer cannot tell whether fi is a misspelling of the keyword if or an undeclared function identifier.

Since fi is a valid lexeme for the token id, the lexical analyzer must return the token id to the parser and let some other phase of the compiler — probably the parser in this case — handle an error due to transposition of the letters.

## The Role of the Lexical Analyzer

#### **Lexical Errors**

- A lexical error is any input that can be rejected by the lexer. This generally results from token recognition falling off the end of the rules you've defined.
- For example:
  - [0-9]+ ===> NUMBER token
  - [a-zA-Z] ===> LETTERS token
  - anything else ===> error
- ☐ If lexer is a finite state machine that accepts valid input strings, then errors are going to be any input strings that do not result in that finite state machine reaching an accepting state.

## The Role of the Lexical Analyzer

#### **Lexical Errors**

- **■** Examples:
  - A lexical error could be an invalid or unacceptable character by the language, like '@' which is rejected as a lexical error for identifiers in Java (it's reserved).
  - Lexical errors are the errors thrown by your lexer when unable to continue. Which means that there's no way to recognize a lexeme as a valid token for your lexer.

# Lexical Analysis

# Input Buffering

let us examine some ways that the simple but important task of reading the source program can be speeded.

This task is made difficult by the fact that we often have to look one or more characters beyond the next lexeme before we can be sure we have the right lexeme.

> There are many situations where we need to look at least one additional character ahead.

- > There are many situations where we need to look at least one additional character ahead.
  - For instance, we cannot be sure we've seen the **end of an identifier until we see a character that is not a letter or digit**, and therefore is not part of the lexeme for **id**.
  - In C, single-character operators like -, =, or < could also be the beginning of a two-character operator like ->, ==, or <=.</p>
- Thus, a two-buffer scheme that handles large lookaheads safely is introduced.
- We then consider an improvement involving "sentinels" that saves time checking for the ends of buffers.

- Because of the amount of time taken to process characters and the large number of characters that must be processed during the compilation of a large source program,
  - specialized buffering techniques have been developed to reduce the amount of overhead required to process a single input character.
- An important scheme involves two buffers that are alternately reloaded, as suggested in Fig. 3.3.

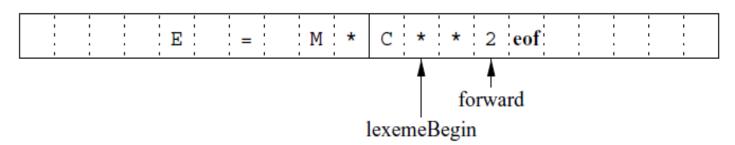
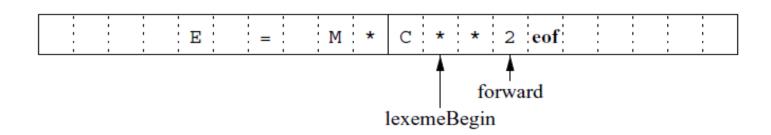


Figure 3.3: Using a pair of input buffers

- Each buffer is of the same size N, and N is usually the size of a disk block, e.g., 4096 bytes.
- Using one **system read command** we can read N characters into a buffer, rather than using one system call per character.
- If fewer than N characters remain in the input file, then a special character, represented by eof, marks the end of the source file and is different from any possible character of the source program.

- Two pointers to the input are maintained:
  - 1. Pointer lexemeBegin, marks the beginning of the current lexeme, whose extent we are attempting to determine.
  - 2. Pointer forward scans ahead until a pattern match is found;

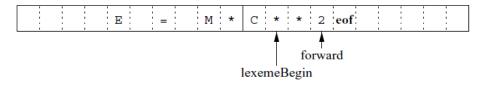


#### **Buffer Pairs**

- > Once the next lexeme is determined,
  - > forward is set to

> lexemeBegin is set to

- > Once the next lexeme is determined,
  - forward is set to the character at its right end.
    Then, after the lexeme is recorded as an attribute value of a token returned to the parser,
  - lexemeBegin is set to the character immediately after the lexeme just found.
  - In Fig. 3.3 below, we see **forward** has passed the end of the next lexeme, \*\* (the Fortran exponentiation operator), and **must be retracted one** position to its left.



- > Advancing forward pointer requires that
  - we first test whether we have reached the end of one of the buffers, and
  - > if so, we must reload the other buffer from the input, and
  - move forward to the beginning of the newly loaded buffer.

#### Sentinels

- > If we use Buffer Pairs, for each character read, we make two tests:
  - one for the end of the buffer, and
  - one to determine what character is read.
- We can combine the buffer-end test with the test for the current character if we extend each buffer to hold a sentinel character at the end.
- > The sentinel is a special character that cannot be part of the source program, and a natural choice is the character eof.

#### Sentinels

Figure 3.4 shows the same arrangement as Fig. 3.3, but with the sentinels added. Note that **eof** retains its use as a marker for the end of the entire input. **Any eof that appears other than at the end of a buffer means that the input is at an end**.

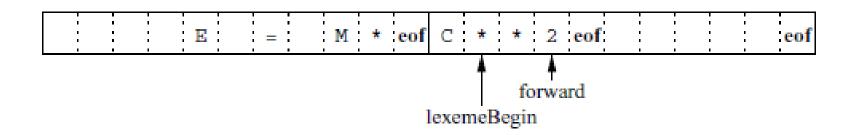


Figure 3.4: Sentinels at the end of each buffer

#### Sentinels

- Figure 3.5 summarizes the algorithm for advancing forward.
  - Notice how the first test, which can be part of a multiway branch based on the character pointed to by forward, is the only test we make, except in the case where we actually are at the end of a buffer or the end of the input.

#### = M \* eof C \* \* 2 eof **Sentinels** forward lexemeBegin switch ( \*forward++ ) { case eof: if (forward is at end of first buffer ) { reload second buffer; forward = beginning of second buffer; else if (forward is at end of second buffer) { reload first buffer; forward = beginning of first buffer; else /\* eof within a buffer marks the end of input \*/ terminate lexical analysis; break;

Cases for the other characters

Figure 3.5: Lookahead code with sentinels

## Lexical Analysis

# Specification of Tokens

Regular expressions are an important notation for specifying lexeme patterns.

we shall study the formal notation for regular expressions, and we shall see how these expressions are used in a lexical-analyzer generator.

#### **Strings and Languages**

- An alphabet is any finite set of symbols.
  - Typical examples of symbols are letters, digits, and punctuation. The set {0,1} is the binary alphabet.
- ASCII is an important example of an alphabet; it is used in many software systems.
- Unicode, which includes approximately 100,000 characters from alphabets around the world, is another important example of an alphabet.

#### **Strings and Languages**

- A string over an alphabet is a finite sequence of symbols drawn from that alphabet.
  - In language theory, the terms "sentence" and "word" are often used as synonyms for "string."
- The **length of a string** s, usually written **|s|**, is the number of occurrences of symbols in s.
  - For example, banana is a string of length six. The **empty string**, denoted  $\epsilon$ , is the string of length zero.

#### **Strings and Languages**

- ➤ A language is any countable set of strings over some fixed alphabet. This definition is very broad.
- Abstract languages like  $\emptyset$ , the empty set, or  $\{\epsilon\}$ , the set containing only the empty string, are languages under this definition.

#### Terms for Parts of Strings

The following string-related terms are commonly used:

- 1. A prefix of string s is any string obtained by removing zero or more symbols from the end of s. For example, ban, banana, and  $\epsilon$  are prefixes of banana.
- 2. A suffix of string s is any string obtained by removing zero or more symbols from the beginning of s. For example, nana, banana, and  $\epsilon$  are suffixes of banana.
- 3. A substring of s is obtained by deleting any prefix and any suffix from s. For instance, banana, nan, and  $\epsilon$  are substrings of banana.

#### Terms for Parts of Strings

#### The following string-related terms are commonly used:

- 4. The **proper** prefixes, suffixes, and substrings of a string  $\mathbf{s}$  are those, prefixes, suffixes, and substrings, respectively, of  $\mathbf{s}$  that are not  $\mathbf{\epsilon}$  or not equal to  $\mathbf{s}$  itself.
- 5. A **subsequence** of **s** is any string formed by deleting zero or more not necessarily consecutive positions of **s**. For example, baan is a subsequence of banana.

- If x and y are strings, then the concatenation of x and y, denoted xy, is the string formed by appending y to x.
- For example, if x = dog and y = house, then xy doghouse. The **empty string is the identity under concatenation**; that is, for any string s,  $\epsilon s = s\epsilon = s$ .
- ➤ If we think of concatenation as a product, we can define the "exponentiation" of strings as follows.
  - Define  $s^{\circ}$  to be  $\epsilon$ , and for all i > 0, define  $s^{i}$  to be  $s^{i-1}s$ . Since  $\epsilon s = s$ , it follows that  $s^{1} = s$ . Then  $s^{2} = ss$ ,  $s^{3} = sss$ , and so on.

#### **Operations on Languages**

- > In lexical analysis, the most important operations on languages are
  - > union,
  - > concatenation, and
  - closure
- Union is the familiar operation on sets.
- The **concatenation of languages** is all strings formed by taking a string from the first language and a string from the second language, in all possible ways, and concatenating them.

#### Operations on Languages

- The (Kleene) closure of a language L, denoted L\*, is the set of strings you get by concatenating L zero or more times.
  - Note that L°, the "concatenation of L zero times," is defined to be  $\{\epsilon\}$ , and inductively, L<sup>i</sup> is L<sup>i-1</sup>L.
- ➤ The positive closure of a language L, denoted L<sup>+</sup>, is the same as the Kleene closure, but without the term L°. That is, e will not be in L<sup>+</sup> unless it is in L itself.

Fig 3.6 Definitions of Operations on Languages

OPERATION	DEFINITION AND NOTATION			
Union of L and M	$LUM = \{s \mid s \text{ is in } L \text{ or } s \text{ is in } M\}$			
Concatenation of L and M	$LM = \{st \mid s \text{ is in } L \text{ and } t \text{ is in } M\}$			
Kleene closure of L	$L^{\textstyle *}=U^{\scriptscriptstyle \infty}_{i=0}L^i$			
Positive closure of	$L^+ = U^{\infty}_{\ i=1}  L^i$			

Figure 3.6: Definitions of operations on languages

#### **Operations on Languages**

- $\triangleright$  Example: Let L={A,B,...,Z,a,b,...,z} and D={0,1,2,...,9}
  - > LUDis
  - > LD is
  - > L<sup>4</sup> is

  - > L(LUD)\* is
  - > D<sup>+</sup> is

#### **Operations on Languages**

- > Example: Let L={A,B,....,Z,a,b,....,z} and D={0,1,2,....,9}
  - 1.  $L \cup D$  is the set of letters and digits strictly speaking the language with 62 strings of length one, each of which strings is either one letter or one digit.
  - 2. LD is the set of 520 strings of length two, each consisting of one letter followed by one digit.
  - 3.  $L^4$  is the set of all 4-letter strings.
  - 4.  $L^*$  is the set of all strings of letters, including  $\epsilon$ , the empty string.
  - 5.  $L(L \cup D)^*$  is the set of all strings of letters and digits beginning with a letter.
  - 6.  $D^+$  is the set of all strings of one or more digits.

#### **Regular Expressions**

- A regular expression is a sequence of characters that define a search pattern.
- If letter\_ is established to stand for any letter or the underscore, and digit is established to stand for any digit,

then we could describe the language of C identifiers by:

letter\_ ( letter\_ | digit )\*

#### **Regular Expressions**

- The regular expressions are built recursively out of smaller regular expressions. Each regular expression r denotes a language L(r), which is also defined recursively from the languages denoted by r's subexpressions.
- $\succ$  Here are the rules that define the regular expressions over some **alphabet**  $\Sigma$  and the languages that those expressions denote.
- BASIS: There are two rules that form the basis:
- 1.  $\epsilon$  is a regular expression, and  $L(\epsilon)$  is  $\{\epsilon\}$ , that is, the language whose sole member is the empty string.
- 2. If a is a symbol in  $\Sigma$ , then **a** is a regular expression, and L(a) = {a}, that is, the language with one string, of length one, with a in its one position.

#### **Regular Expressions**

➤ **INDUCTION:** There are four parts to the induction whereby larger regular expressions are built from smaller ones.

Suppose  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{s}$  are regular expressions denoting languages L(r) and L(s), respectively.

- 1. (r) | (s) is a regular expression denoting the language L(r) U L(s).
- 2. (r)(s) is a regular expression denoting the language L(r)L(s).
- 3.  $(r)^*$  is a regular expression denoting  $(L(r))^*$ .
- **4. (r)** is a regular expression denoting L(r).

This last rule says that we can add additional pairs of parentheses around expressions without changing the language they denote.

### **Regular Expressions**

- a) The unary operator \* has highest precedence and is left associative.
- **b)** Concatenation has second highest precedence and is left associative.
- c) | has lowest precedence and is left associative.
- Under these conventions, for example, we may replace the regular expression (a) | ((b)\*(c)) by a | b\*c.
  - Both expressions denote the set of strings that are either a single a or are zero or more b's followed by one c.

### **Regular Expressions**

Figure 3.7 shows some of the **algebraic laws** that hold for arbitrary regular expressions r, s, and t.

LAW	DESCRIPTION	
r s=s r	is commutative	
r (s t) = (r s) t	is associative	
r(st) = (rs)t	Concatenation is associative	
r(s t) = rs rt; (s t)r = sr tr	Concatenation distributes over	
$\epsilon \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r} \epsilon = \mathbf{r}$	$\epsilon$ is the identity for concatenation	
$r^* = (r \epsilon)^*$	ε is guaranteed in a closure	
$r^{**}=r^*$	* is idempotent	

#### **Regular Definitions**

- For notational convenience, we may wish to give names to certain regular expressions and use those names in subsequent expressions, as if the names were themselves symbols.
- $\triangleright$  If  $\sum$  is an alphabet of basic symbols, then a regular definition is a sequence of definitions of the form:

$$\begin{aligned} \textbf{d}_1 &\rightarrow \textbf{r}_1 \\ \textbf{d}_2 &\rightarrow \textbf{r}_2 \\ &\dots \\ \textbf{d}_n &\rightarrow \textbf{r}_n \end{aligned}$$

#### where:

- $\triangleright$  Each d<sub>i</sub> is a new symbol, not in  $\sum$  and not the same as any other of the d's and
- $\triangleright$  Each  $r_i$  is a regular expression over the alphabet  $\sum U \{d_1, d_2, ..., d_{i-1}\}$

### **Regular Definitions**

Example 3.5: A regular definition for the language of C identifiers.

### **Regular Definitions**

Example 3.5: A regular definition for the language of C identifiers.

```
letter_ \rightarrow A | B | .... | Z | a | b | .... | z |_ digit \rightarrow 0 | 1 | .... | 9 id \rightarrow letter_ ( letter_ | digit )*
```

### **Regular Definitions**

Example 3.6: Unsigned numbers (integer or floating point) are strings such as 5280, 0.01234, 6.336E4, or 1.89E-4. The regular definition

### **Regular Definitions**

Example 3.6: Unsigned numbers (integer or floating point) are strings such as 5280, 0.01234, 6.336E4, or 1.89E-4. The regular definition

```
\begin{array}{ccc} \text{digit} & \rightarrow \\ & \text{digits} & \rightarrow \\ & \text{optionalFraction} & \rightarrow \\ & \text{optionalExponent} & \rightarrow \\ & \text{number} & \rightarrow \end{array}
```

### **Regular Definitions**

Example 3.6: Unsigned numbers (integer or floating point) are strings such as 5280, 0.01234, 6.336E4, or 1.89E-4. The regular definition

#### **Extensions of Regular Definitions**

- Many extensions have been added to regular expressions to enhance their ability to specify string patterns.
  - 1. One or more instances. The unary, postfix operator + represents the positive closure of a regular expression and its language.

If  $\mathbf{r}$  is a regular expression, then  $(r)^+$  denotes the language  $(L(r))^+$ .

The operator + has the same precedence and associativity as the operator \*.

Two useful algebraic laws,  $r^* = r^+ | \epsilon$  and  $r^+ = r r^* = r^* r$  relate the Kleene closure and positive closure.

### **Extensions of Regular Definitions**

2. Zero or one instance. The unary postfix operator ? means "zero or one occurrence." That is,  $\mathbf{r}$ ? is equivalent to  $\mathbf{r} \mid \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ , or put another way,  $L(\mathbf{r}?) = L(\mathbf{r}) \cup \{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}\}.$ 

The ? operator has the same precedence and associativity as \* and +.

3. Character classes. A regular expression  $a_1 | a_2 | \cdot \cdot \cdot | a_n$ , where the  $a_i$ 's are each symbols of the alphabet, can be replaced by the shorthand  $[a_1 a_2 \dots a_n]$ .

When  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  form a logical sequence, we can replace them by  $a_1$ - $a_n$ . Thus, [abc] is shorthand for a | b | c, and [a-z] is shorthand for a | b | .... | z.

### **Extensions of Regular Definitions**

Example 3.7 Using these shorthands, we can rewrite the regular definition of Example 3.5 as:

> The regular definition of Example 3.6 can also be simplified:

```
\begin{array}{rcl} \text{digit} & \rightarrow & 0 \mid 1 \mid .... \mid 9 \\ & \text{digits} & \rightarrow & \text{digit} \, \underline{\text{digit*}} \\ & & \text{optionalFraction} & \rightarrow & \setminus. \, \text{digits} \mid \varepsilon \\ & \text{optionalExponent} & \rightarrow & \left( \; \text{E} \left( \; + \; \mid \; - \; \mid \; \varepsilon \; \right) \; \text{digits} \; \right) \mid \varepsilon \\ & & \text{number} & \rightarrow & \text{digits} \, \, \underline{\text{optionalFraction}} \, \, \underline{\text{optionalExponent}} \end{array}
```

### **Extensions of Regular Definitions**

Example 3.7 Using these shorthands, we can rewrite the regular definition of Example 3.5 as:

```
letter_ \rightarrow [ A-Za-z_ ] 
digit \rightarrow [0-9] 
id \rightarrow letter_ ( letter_ | digit )*
```

> The regular definition of Example 3.6 can also be simplified:

```
digit \to [0-9] digits \to digit† number \to digits (\. digits)? | digit \. digits E [+-]? digits
```

# Lexical Analysis

# Recognition of Tokens

- Now, we must study
  - how to take the patterns for all the needed tokens and
  - build a piece of code that examines the input string and finds a prefix that is a lexeme matching one of the patterns.
- Our discussion will make use of the following running example

```
stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt | if expr then stmt else stmt | \epsilon expr \rightarrow term relop term | term term \rightarrow id | number
```

Figure 3.10: A grammar for branching statements in Pascal language

```
stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt | if expr then stmt else stmt | \in expr \rightarrow term relop term | term

term \rightarrow id | number
```

Figure 3.10: A grammar for branching statements

- **Example 3.8 :** The grammar fragment of Fig. 3.10 describes a simple form of branching statements and conditional expressions.
- The terminals of the grammar, which are if, then, else, relop, id, and number, are the names of tokens.

The patterns for these tokens are described using regular definitions, as in Fig. 3.11.

Figure 3.11: Patterns for tokens of Example 3.8

```
digit \rightarrow [0-9]
   digits → digit<sup>+</sup>
 letter \rightarrow [A-Za-z]
number → digits (\. digits)? | digit \. digits E [+-]? digits
       id \rightarrow letter (letter | digit)*
        if \rightarrow if
   then \rightarrow then
     else → else
    relop → < | > | <= | >= | = | <>
```

For this language, the lexical analyzer will recognize the keywords if, then, and else, as well as lexemes that match the patterns for relop, id, and number.

The lexical analyzer has an additional job of stripping out whitespace, by recognizing the "token" ws defined by:

```
ws \rightarrow (blank | tab | newline)^+
```

- Here, blank, tab, and newline are abstract symbols that we use to express the ASCII characters of the same names.
- Token ws is different from the other tokens in that, when we recognize it, we do not return it to the parser, but rather restart the lexical analysis from the character that follows the whitespace.

It is the following token that gets returned to the parser.

Our goal for the lexical analyzer is summarized in Fig. 3.12.

	<b>t</b>	<u> </u>
LEXEMES	TOKEN NAME	ATTRIBUTE VALUE
Any ws	-	_
if	if	_
then	then	_
else	else	<del>-</del>
Any id	id	Pointer to table entry
Any number	number	Pointer to table entry
<	relop	LT
<=	relop	LE
=	relop	EQ
$\Diamond$	relop	NE
>	relop	GT
>=	relop	GE

Figure 3.12: Tokens, their patterns, and attribute values

- This table shows, for each lexeme or family of lexemes, which token name is returned to the parser and what attribute value is returned.
- Note that for the six relational operators, symbolic constants **LT**, **LE**, and so on are used as the attribute value, in order to indicate which instance of the token **relop** we have found.

### **Transition Diagrams**

- As an intermediate step in the construction of a lexical analyzer, we first convert patterns into stylized flowcharts, called "transition diagrams."
- Transition diagrams have a collection of nodes or circles, called states.

Each state represents a condition that could occur during the process of scanning the input looking for a lexeme that matches one of several patterns.

### **Transition Diagrams**

Edges are directed from one state of the transition diagram to another.

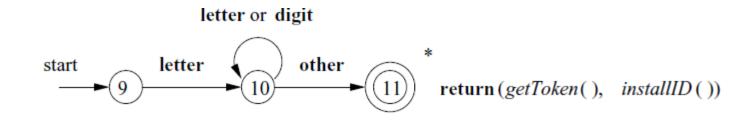
Each edge is labeled by a symbol or set of symbols.

We shall assume that all our transition diagrams are deterministic.

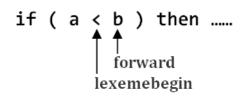
### **Transition Diagrams**

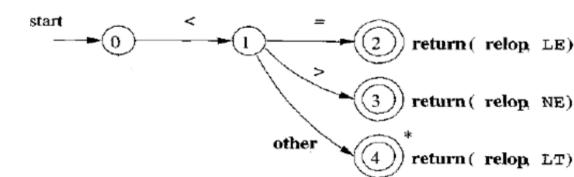
- Some important conventions about transition diagrams are:
  - Accepting, or final states indicate that a lexeme has been found, although the actual lexeme may not consist of all positions between the lexemeBegin and forward pointers.

In accepting state, if there is an action to be taken — typically returning a token and an attribute value to the parser — we shall attach that action to the accepting state.



### **Transition Diagrams**





- Some important conventions about transition diagrams are:
  - 2. In addition, if it is necessary to retract the forward pointer one position (i.e., the lexeme does not include the symbol that got us to the accepting state), then we shall additionally place a \* near that accepting state.
    - In our example, it is never necessary to retract forward by more than one position, but if it were, we could attach any number of \*'s to the accepting state.
  - 3. One state is designated the **start state**, or **initial state**; it is indicated by an edge, labeled "start," entering from nowhere. The transition diagram always begins in the start state before any input symbols have been read.

### **Transition Diagrams**

Example 3.9: Figure 3.13 is a transition diagram that recognizes the lexemes matching the token relop.

### **Transition Diagrams**

**Example 3.9:** Figure 3.13 is a transition diagram that recognizes the lexemes matching the token **relop**.

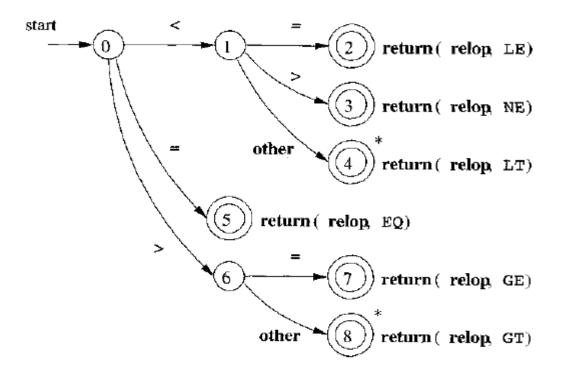
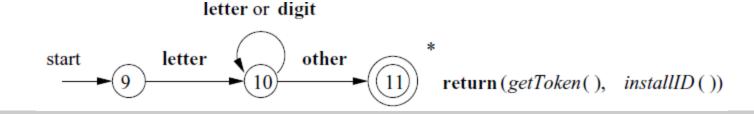


Figure 3.13: Transition diagram for relop

### Recognition of Reserved Words and Identifiers

- Recognizing keywords and identifiers presents a problem.
  Usually, keywords like if or then are reserved, so they are not identifiers even though they look like identifiers.
- ➤ A transition diagram like that of Fig. 3.14 is used to search for identifier lexemes, will also recognize the keywords if, then, and else of our running example.
- Figure 3.14: A transition diagram for id's and keywords

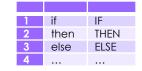


#### Recognition of Reserved Words and Identifiers

- > There are two ways that we can handle reserved words that look like identifiers:
  - 1. Install the reserved words in the symbol table initially.

A field of the symbol-table entry indicates that

- these strings are never ordinary identifiers, and
- tells which token they represent.

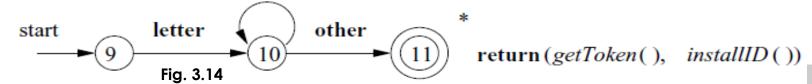


This method is in use in Fig. 3.14. When we find an identifier, a call to installID

- places it in the symbol table if it is not already there and
- returns a pointer to the symbol-table entry for the lexeme found.

Any identifier not in the symbol table during lexical analysis cannot be a reserved word, so its token is id.

letter or digit

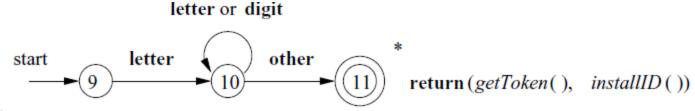


### Recognition of Reserved Words and Identifiers

- > There are two ways that we can handle reserved words that look like identifiers:
  - 1. Install the reserved words in the symbol table initially Cont...

The function *getToken* examines the symbol table entry for the lexeme found, and returns whatever token name the symbol table says this lexeme represents — either id or one of the keyword tokens that was initially installed in the table.

then THEN
then THEN
selse ELSE
...
sum ID
avg ID



#### Recognition of Reserved Words and Identifiers

- 2. Create separate transition diagrams for each keyword.
- An example for the keyword then is shown in Fig. 3.15.
- A transition diagram of Fig. 3.15 consists of states representing the situation after each successive letter of the keyword is seen, followed by a test for a "nonletter-or-digit," i.e., any character that cannot be the continuation of an keyword/identifier.
- It is necessary to check that the identifier has ended, or else we would return token then (as keyword) in situations where the correct token was id, with a lexeme like thennextvalue that has then as a proper prefix.

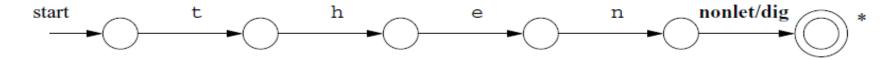


Figure 3 15 Hypothetical transition diagram for the keyword then

### Recognition of Reserved Words and Identifiers

2.

If we adopt this approach, then we must prioritize the tokens so that the reserved-word tokens are recognized in preference to id, when the lexeme matches both patterns. We do not use this approach in our example, which is why the states in Fig. 3.15 are unnumbered.

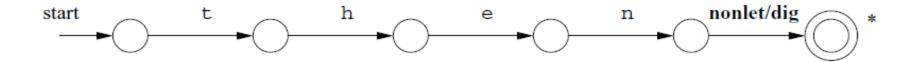
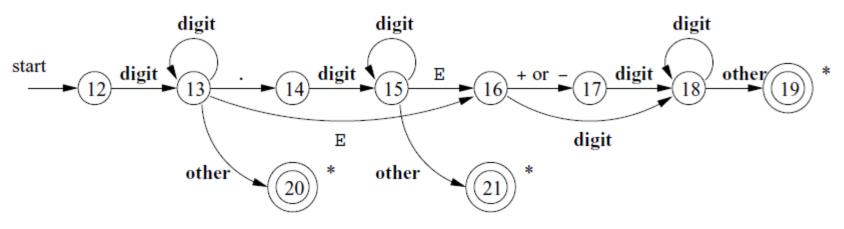


Figure 3 15 Hypothetical transition diagram for the keyword then

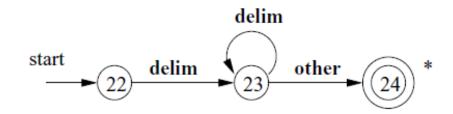
### **Transition Diagrams**

Figure 3.16: A transition diagram for unsigned numbers



Check for examples 15567, 55.99, 5.105E255, 6.22E-88

Figure 3.17: A transition diagram for whitespace



### Architecture of a Transition-Diagram-Based Lexical Analyzer

- There are several ways that a collection of transition diagrams can be used to build a lexical analyzer.
  - **Each state is represented by a piece of code**. (fig. 3.18)
  - We may imagine a variable state holding the number of the current state for a transition diagram.
  - A **switch based** on the value of **state** takes us to code for each of the possible states, where we find the action of that state.
    - Often, the code for a state is itself a switch statement or multiway branch that determines the next state by reading and examining the next input character.

```
TOKEN getRelop()
    TOKEN retToken = new(RELOP);
    while(1) { /* repeat character processing until a return
                                                                                                                             return ( relop, LE)
                  or failure occurs */
        switch(state) {
            case 0: c = nextChar();
                                                                                                                             return (relop, NE)
                    if ( c == '<' ) state = 1;
                    else if ( c == '=' ) state = 5;
                    else if ( c == '>' ) state = 6;
                                                                                                             other
                                                                                                                             return (relog LT)
                    else fail(); /* lexeme is not a relop */
                    break;
            case 1: ...
                                                                                                              return ( relop, EQ)
            case 8: retract();
                    rotTokon attributo - CT:
```

#### Architecture of a Transition-Diagram-Based Lexical Analyzer

```
TOKEN getRelop()
    TOKEN retToken = new(RELOP);
    while(1) { /* repeat character processing until a return
                  or failure occurs */
        switch(state) {
            case 0: c = nextChar();
                    if ( c == '<' ) state = 1;
                    else if (c == '=') state = 5;
                    else if ( c == '>' ) state = 6;
                    else fail(); /* lexeme is not a relop */
                    break;
            case 1: ...
            case 8: retract();
                    retToken.attribute = GT;
                    return(retToken);
```

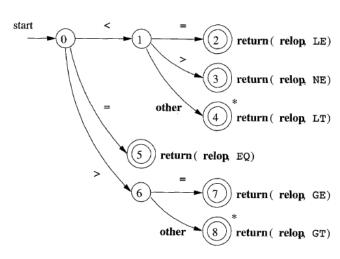


Figure 3.13: Transition diagram for relop

Figure 3.18: Sketch of implementation of **relop** transition diagram

**Example 3.10:** In Fig. 3.18 we see a sketch of getRelop(), a C++ function whose job is to simulate the transition diagram of Fig. 3.13 and return an object type TOKEN, that is, a pair consisting of the token name (which must be **relop** in this case) and an attribute value (the code for one of the six comparison operators in this case).

# **Lexical Analysis**

# The Lexical-Analyzer Generator Lex

### The Lexical-Analyzer Generator Lex

#### > Lex:

It is a tool, that allows one to specify a lexical analyzer by specifying regular expressions to describe patterns for tokens.

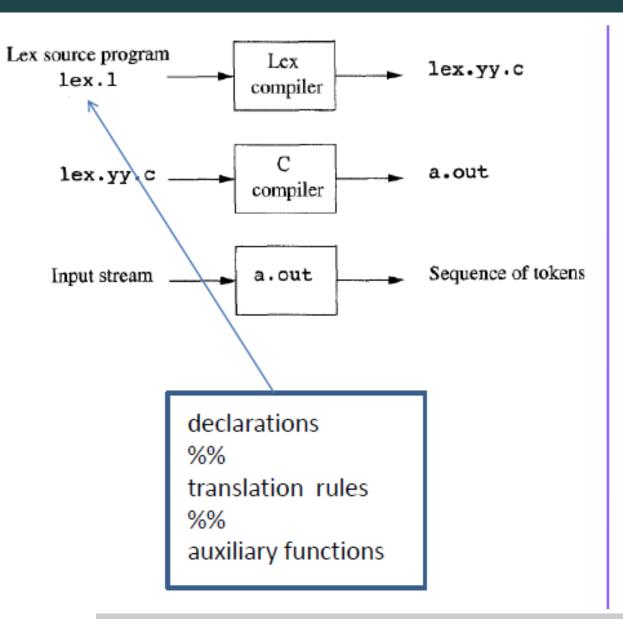
#### > Lex:

Lex reads a specification file containing regular expressions and generates a C routine that performs lexical analysis. Matches sequences that identify tokens.

#### > Lex:

Lex generates a lexical analyzer, which is called through a call to a function yylex.

### The Lexical-Analyzer Generator Lex



The input notation for the Lex tool is referred to as the Lex language and the tool itself is the Lex compiler.

Behind the scenes,
the Lex compiler
transforms the input
patterns into a transition
diagram and generates
code, in a file called
lex.yy.c, that simulates this
transition diagram.

> A Lex program has the following form:

declarations (C includes and definitions)

%%

translation rules

%%

auxiliary functions(user subroutines)

#### > The declarations section includes

- 1. declarations of variables,
- 2. manifest constants (identifiers declared to stand for a constant, e.g., the name of a token),
- 3. regular definitions, and
- 4. a pair of special brackets, **%{ and %}**. Anything within these brackets is copied directly to the file lex.yy.c, and is not treated as a regular definition.

#### Regular Definitions example

```
/* regular definitions */
delim [ \t\n]
ws {delim}+
letter [A-Za-z]
digit [0-9]
id {letter}({letter}|{digit})*
number {digit}+(\.{digit}+)?(E[+-]?{digit}+)?
```

 Regular definitions that are used in later definitions or in the patterns of the translation rules are surrounded by curly braces.

The translation rules have the form.

#### Pattern { Action }

- Each pattern is a regular expression, which may use the regular definitions of the declaration section.
- The actions are fragments of code, typically written in C.

> Translation rules: line oriented:

```
<pattern> <whitespace> <action>
```

- <pattern> : starts at beginning of line,
   continues upto first unescaped whitespace
- <action>: a single C statement(multiple statements: enclose in braces {} ).
- unmatched input characters: copied to stdout.

Anything between these LT, LE, EQ, NE, GT, GE, IF. THEN, ELSE, ID. NUMBER, RELOF \*/ 2 marks is copied as it is in lex.yy.c /\* regular definitions \*/ delim [ \t\n] braces means the pattern {delim}+ [A-Za-z] letter is defined somewhere digit [0-9] {letter} (letter) | (digit)) \* id {digit}+(\.{aigit}+)?(E[+-]?{digit}+)? number 7.7 (we) {/\* no action and no return \*/} Actions if {return(IF);} then {return(THEN):} else {return(ELSE):} pattern {id} {yylval = (int) installID(); return(ID);} (number) {yylval = (int) installNum(); return(NUMBER);} {yylval = LT; return(RELOP);} "<=" {yylval = LE; return(RELOP);} "=" {yylval = EQ; return(RELOP);} 1101 {yylval = NE; return(RELOP);} 11511 {yylval = GT; return(RELOP);} ">=" {yylval = GE; return(RELOP);} int installID() {/\* function to install the lexeme, whose first character is pointed to by yytext, and whose length is yyleng, into the symbol table and return a pointer thereto \*/ 7 int installNum() {/\* similar to installID, but puts numerical constants into a separate table \*/ }

The **final section** is the **user subroutines section**, which can consist of any legal C code. Lex copies it to the C file after the end of the lex generated code. We have included a main() program.

```
%%
main()
{
    yylex();
}
```

The lexer produced by lex is a C routine called yylex(), so we call it.

Unless the actions contain explicit return statements, yylex() won't return until it has processed the entire input.

- The lexical analyzer created by **Lex** behaves in concert with the parser as follows.
  - When called by the parser, the lexical analyzer begins reading its remaining input, one character at a time, until it finds the longest prefix of the input that matches one of the patterns  $P_i$ . It then executes the associated action  $A_i$ .
  - Typically, A<sub>i</sub> will return to the parser, but if it does not (e.g., because P<sub>i</sub> describes whitespace or comments), then the lexical analyzer proceeds to find additional lexemes, until one of the corresponding actions causes a return to the parser.
  - The lexical analyzer returns a single value, the token name, to the parser, but uses the shared, integer variable yylval to pass additional information about the lexeme found, if needed.

**Table 1: Special Characters** 

Pattern	Matches	
•	any character except newline	
١.	literal .	
\n	newline	
\t	tab	
^	beginning of line	
\$	end of line	

**Table 2: Operators** 

Pattern	Matches	
?	zero or one copy of the preceding expression	
*	zero or more copies of the preceding expression	
+	one or more copies of the preceding expression	
a b	a or b (alternating)	
(ab)+	one or more copies of <b>ab</b> (grouping)	
abc	abc	
abc*	ab abc abccc	
"abc*"	literal abc*	
abc+	abc abcc abccc	
a (bc) +	abc abcbc abcbcbc	
a (bc) ?	a abc	

**Table 3: Character Class** 

Pattern	Matches	
[abc]	one of: a b c	
[a-z]	any letter a through z	
[a\-z]	one of: a - z	
[-az]	one of: - a z	
[A-Za-z0-9]+ one or more alphanumeric charac		
[ \t\n]+	whitespace	
[^ab]	anything except: a b	
[a^b]	one of: a ^ b	
[a b]	one of: a   b	

> operators:

```
: match zero or more times, eg: ab*c -> ac, abc, abbc...
□ + : match one or more times, eg: ab+c → abc, abbc...

☐ ? : zero or one occurrence, eg: ab?c → abc, ac
□ () : grouping, eg: (ab)+ → ab, abab...
\square : alternatives, eg ab | cd \rightarrow ab, cd
\square {n,m}: repitition, eg a{1,3} \rightarrow a, aa, aaa
□ {defn}: substitute defn (from first section).
```

- > operators (cont):
  - brackets [] enclose a sequence of characters, termed a character class.
    - 1) [] matches any character in the sequence
    - 2) a '-' in a character class denotes an inclusive range,e.g: [0-9] matches any digit.
    - a at the beginning denotes negation:e.g: [^0-9] matches any character that is not a digit.

#### > Actions

- $\square$  ;  $\rightarrow$  Null action.
- ECHO; → printf("%s", yytext);
- {...} → Multi-statement action.
- □ return yytext; → send contents of yytext to the parser.
- yytext: C-String of matched characters (Make a copy if neccessary!)
- yyleng: Length of the matched characters.

#### Example:

Figure 3.23 is a Lex program that recognizes the tokens of Fig. 3.12 and returns the token found.

LEXEMES	TOKEN NAME	ATTRIBUTE VALUE
Any ws	-	-
if	if	-
then	then	_
else	else	_
Any id	id	Pointer to table entry
Any mumber	number	Pointer to table entry
<	relop	LT
<=	relop	LE
=	relop	EQ
$\Diamond$	relop	NE
>	relop	GT
>=	relop	

Figure 3.12: Tokens, their patterns, and attribute values

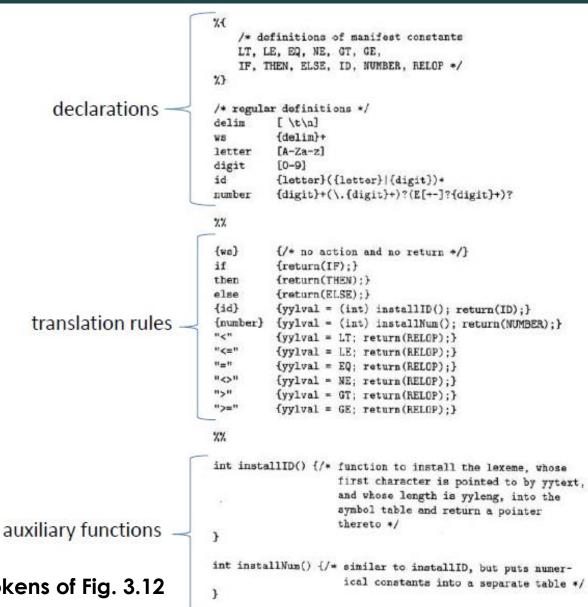


Figure 3.23: Lex program for the tokens of Fig. 3.12

Anything between these LT, LE, EQ, NE, GT, GE, IF. THEN, ELSE, ID. NUMBER, RELOF \*/ 2 marks is copied as it is in lex.yy.c /\* regular definitions \*/ delim [ \t\n] braces means the pattern {delim}+ [A-Za-z] letter is defined somewhere digit [0-9] {letter} (letter) | (digit)) \* id {digit}+(\.{aigit}+)?(E[+-]?{digit}+)? number 7.7 (we) {/\* no action and no return \*/} Actions if {return(IF);} then {return(THEN):} else {return(ELSE):} pattern {id} {yylval = (int) installID(); return(ID);} (number) {yylval = (int) installNum(); return(NUMBER);} {yylval = LT; return(RELOP);} "<=" {yylval = LE; return(RELOP);} "=" {yylval = EQ; return(RELOP);} 1101 {yylval = NE; return(RELOP);} 11511 {yylval = GT; return(RELOP);} ">=" {yylval = GE; return(RELOP);} int installID() {/\* function to install the lexeme, whose first character is pointed to by yytext, and whose length is yyleng, into the symbol table and return a pointer thereto \*/ 7 int installNum() {/\* similar to installID, but puts numerical constants into a separate table \*/ }

- The action taken when id is matched is threefold:
  - Function installID() is called to place the lexeme found into the symbol table.
  - 2. This function returns a pointer to the symbol table, which is placed in global variable yylval, where it can be used by the parser or a later component of the compiler. Note that installID() has available to it two variables that are set automatically by the lexical analyzer that Lex generates:
    - a) yytext is a pointer to the beginning of the lexeme, analogous to lexemeBegin.
    - b) yyleng is the length of the lexeme found.
  - 3. The token name ID is returned to the parser.
- The action taken when a lexeme matching the pattern number is similar, using the auxiliary function installNum().

> Choosing between different possible matches:

When more than one pattern can match the input, lex chooses as follows:

- 1. The longest match is preferred.
- 2. Among rules that match the same number of characters, the rule that occurs earliest in the list is preferred.

#### Transition Rules (cont'd)

■ Four special options for actions:

```
|, ECHO;, BEGIN, and REJECT;
```

indicates that the action for this rule is from the action for the next rule

```
[ \t\n] ;
"\t" |
"\t" ;
```

The unmatched token is using a default action that ECHO from the input to the output

#### Lex Predefined Variables

- yytext -- a string containing the lexeme
- yyleng -- the length of the lexeme
- yyin -- the input stream pointer
  - the default input of default main() is stdin
- yyout -- the output stream pointer
  - the default output of default main() is stdout.
- □ %./a.out < inputfile > outfile
- ☐ E.g.
  - □ [a-z]+ printf("%s", yytext);
  - $\Box$  [a-z]+ ECHO;
  - $\square$  [a-zA-Z]+ {words++; chars += yyleng;}

#### Lex Library Routines

- □ yylex()
  - The default main() contains a call of yylex()
- □ yymore()
  - □ return the next token
- yyless(n)
  - retain the first n characters in yytext
- □ yywarp()
  - is called by lex, when input is exhausted.
  - The default yywarp() always returns 1

Write a lex specification to echo all strings of capital letters, followed by a space tab (\t)or newline (\n) dot (\.) or comma (\,) to stdout, and all other characters will be ignored.

Write a lex specification to echo all strings of capital letters, followed by a space or tab (\t)or newline (\n) dot (\.) or comma (\,) to stdout, and all other characters will be ignored.

```
/* echo-upcase-words.l */
%option main

%%

[A-Z]+[ \t\n\.\,] printf("%s",yytext);
. ; /* no action specified */
```

#### **Conflict Resolution in Lex**

- We have alluded to the two rules that Lex uses to decide on the proper lexeme to select, when several prefixes of the input match one or more patterns:
  - 1. Always prefer a longer prefix to a shorter prefix.
  - 2. If the longest possible prefix matches two or more patterns, prefer the pattern listed first in the Lex program.

#### Example:

Figure 3.23 is a Lex program that recognizes the tokens of Fig. 3.12 and returns the token found.

LEXEMES	TOKEN NAME	ATTRIBUTE VALUE
Any ws	-	-
if	if	-
then	then	_
else	else	_
Any id	id	Pointer to table entry
Any mumber	number	Pointer to table entry
<	relop	LT
<=	relop	LE
=	relop	EQ
$\Diamond$	relop	NE
>	relop	GT
>=	relop	

Figure 3.12: Tokens, their patterns, and attribute values

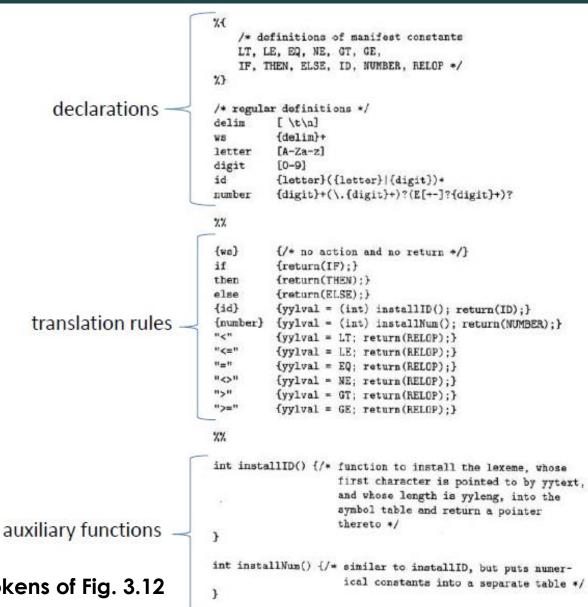


Figure 3.23: Lex program for the tokens of Fig. 3.12

#### Conflict Resolution in Lex

#### Example 3.12:

- 1. Always prefer a longer prefix to a shorter prefix.
- If the longest possible prefix matches two or more patterns, prefer the pattern listed first in the Lex program.
- The first rule tells us to continue reading letters and digits to find the longest prefix of these characters to group as an identifier. It also tells us to treat <= as a single lexeme, rather than selecting < as one lexeme and = as the next lexeme.
- The second rule makes keywords reserved, if **we list the keywords before id in the program**. For instance, if **then** is determined to be the longest prefix of the input that matches any pattern, and the pattern **then** precedes { id }, as it does in Fig. 3.23, then the token THEN is returned, rather than ID.

Consider the following lexical specification:

```
%%

a*b { printf(" 1 "); }

ca { printf(" 2 "); }

a*ca* { printf(" 3 "); }
```

Given the following input string

#### abcaa cacaaabbaaabcaaca

What does the lexer print? Clearly indicate all the tokens.

Consider the following lexical specification:

```
%%

aa { printf(" 1 "); }

a { printf(" 2 "); }

ab { printf(" 3 "); }
```

- Given the following input string: aab
- What does the lexer print? Clearly indicate all the tokens.

Consider the following lex script:

```
%%

a*b { printf(" 1 "); }

(a|b)*b { printf(" 2 "); }

c* { printf(" 3 "); }
```

- Give an example of an input to this scanner that will produce 132 as an output, or explain why one does not exist.
- Explain how lex would tokenize the following input string and the output produced.
  - (i) cbbbbac (ii) cbabc

Consider the following lex script:

```
%%

(01 | 10) { printf(" course "); }

0(01)*1 { printf(" compiler "); }

(1010*1 | 0101*0) { printf(" design "); }
```

Give an input to this scanner such that the output string is:

```
(compiler<sup>11</sup> design<sup>2</sup>)<sup>4</sup> course<sup>3</sup>
```

Where, A<sup>i</sup> denotes A repeated i times. (And, of course, the parentheses are not part of the output.) You may use similar shorthand notation in your answer.

#### The Lookahead Operator

- Lex reads one character ahead of the last character that forms the selected lexeme, and then retracts the input so only the lexeme itself is consumed from the input.
- Sometimes, we need a certain pattern to be matched to the input only when it is followed by a certain other characters. (e.g. ab/cd)
  - If so, we may use the slash (/) in a pattern to indicate the end of the part of the pattern that matches the lexeme.
  - What follows / is additional pattern that must be matched before we can decide that the token in question was seen, but what matches this second pattern is not part of the lexeme.

#### The Lookahead Operator

■ The regular expression

ab/cd

matches the string ab, but only if followed by cd.

#### The Lookahead Operator

Example 3.13: In Fortran and some other languages, keywords are not reserved.
That situation creates problems, such as a statement

$$IF(I,J) = 3$$

where IF is the name of an array, not a keyword. This statement contrasts with statements of the form

#### IF( condition ) THEN ...

where IF is a keyword. we can be sure that the keyword IF is always followed by a left parenthesis, some text — the condition — that may contain parentheses, a right parenthesis and a letter. Thus, we could write a Lex rule for the keyword IF like:

This rule says that the pattern the lexeme matches is just the two letters **IF.** The slash says that additional pattern follows but does not match the lexeme.

#### The Lookahead Operator

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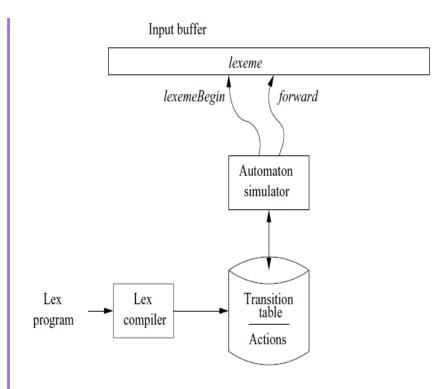
This rule says that the pattern the lexeme matches is just the two letters **IF.** The slash says that additional pattern follows but does not match the lexeme.

# **Lexical Analysis**

Design of a Lexical-Analyzer Generator

#### Design of a Lexical-Analyzer Generator

- > The Structure of the Generated Analyzer
- Figure 3.49 Overviews the architecture of a lexical analyzer generated by Lex.
- The program that serves as the lexical analyzer includes a fixed program that simulates an automaton.
- The rest of the lexical analyzer consists of components that are created from the Lex program by Lex itself.



**Figure 3.49:** A Lex program is turned into a transition table and actions, which are used by a finite-automaton simulator

#### Design of a Lexical-Analyzer Generator

- To construct the automaton, we begin by taking each regular-expression pattern in the Lex program and converting it, using Algorithm to convert a RE to an NFA.
- We need a single automaton that will recognize lexemes matching any of the patterns in the program,
  - so we combine all the NFA's into one by introducing a new start state with  $\epsilon$ -transitions to each of the start states of the NFA's  $N_i$  for pattern  $p_i$

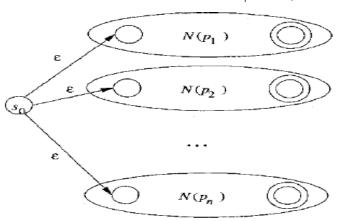


Figure 3.50: An NFA constructed from a **Lex** program

■ **Example 3.26:** We shall illustrate the ideas of this section with the following simple, abstract example:

```
a { action A1 for pattern p1 }
abb { action A2 for pattern p2 }
a*b+ { action A3 for pattern p3 }
```

- Input string: abb
- Input string: aabbb...

```
a { action A1 for pattern p1 }
abb { action A2 for pattern p2 }
a*b+ { action A3 for pattern p3 }
```

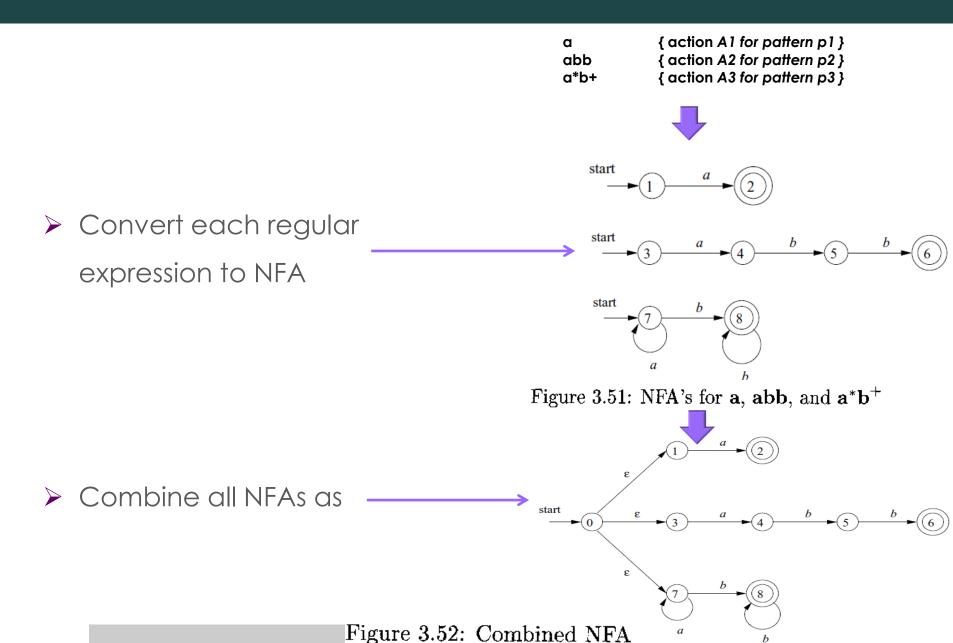
- In particular, string **abb** matches both the second and third patterns, but we shall consider it a lexeme for pattern p2, since that pattern is listed first in the above Lex program.
- Input strings such as **aabbb...** have many prefixes that match the third pattern. The Lex rule is to take the longest, so we continue reading b's, until another a is met, whereupon we report the lexeme to be the initial a's followed by as many b's as there are.

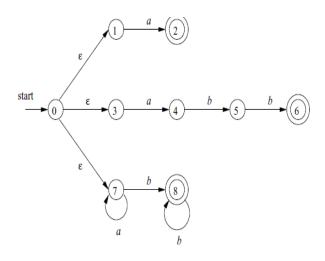
a { action A1 for pattern p1 }
abb { action A2 for pattern p2 }
a\*b+ { action A3 for pattern p3 }

Convert each regular expression to NFA

Figure 3.51: NFA's for  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{abb}$ , and  $\mathbf{a}^*\mathbf{b}^+$ 

Combine all NFAs as







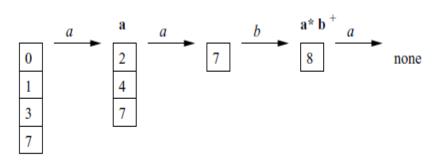
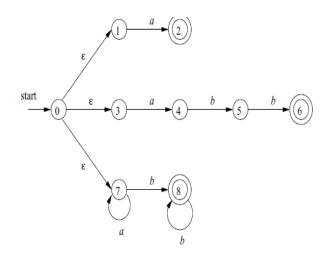


Figure 3 53 Sequence of sets of states entered when processing input aaba

- Example 3.27: Suppose the input begins aaba.
  - Figure 3.53 shows the sets of states of the NFA of Fig. 3.52 that we enter, starting with ε closure of the initial state 0, which is {0,1,3,7}, and proceeding from there.
  - After reading the fourth input symbol, we are in an empty set of states, since in Fig.
     3.52, there are no transitions out of state 8 on input a.
  - Thus, we need to back up, looking for a set of states that includes an accepting state.



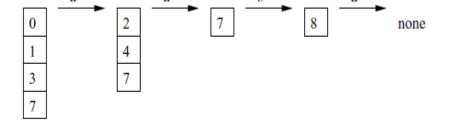


Figure 3 53 Sequence of sets of states entered when processing input aaba

- Figure 3 52 Combined NFA
- Notice that, as indicated in Fig. 3.53, after reading **a** we are in a set that includes state 2 and therefore indicates that the pattern **a** has been matched.
- However, after reading aab, we are in state 8, which indicates that a\*b+ has been matched; prefix aab is the longest prefix that gets us to an accepting state.
- We therefore select aab as the lexeme, and execute action A3, which should include a return to the parser indicating that the token whose pattern is  $p_3 = a*b+$  has been found.

Using the following patterns explain the design of a lexical analyzer. Show the working of your lexical analyzer that simulates an NFA on the input string: abaab

```
ab {// some action ....}

aab {// some action ....}

aba {// some action ....}
```

#### **DFA's for Lexical Analyzers**

- Figure 3.54 shows a transition diagram based on the DFA that is constructed by the subset construction from the NFA in Fig. 3.52.
- The accepting states are labelled by the pattern that is identified by that state.

  For instance, the state {6,8} has two accepting states, corresponding to patterns **abb** and **a\*b+**. Since the former is listed first, that is the pattern associated with state {6,8}.

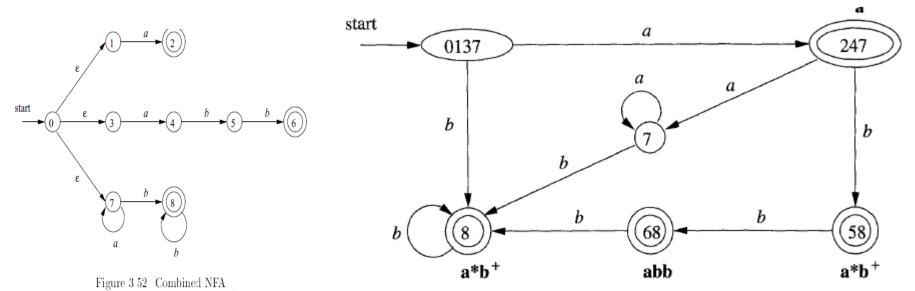


Figure 3.54: Transition graph for DFA handling the patterns a, abb, and a\*b\*

#### Implementing the Lookahead Operator

When converting the pattern  $r_1/r_2$  to an NFA, we treat the / as if it were  $\epsilon$ , so we do not actually look for a / on the input.

However, if the NFA recognizes a prefix **xy** of the input buffer as matching this regular expression, the **end of the lexeme is not where the NFA entered its accepting state**. Rather the end occurs when the NFA enters a state s such that

- 1. s has an ε-transition on the (imaginary) /,
- 2. There is a path from the start state of the NFA to state s that spells out  $\mathbf{x}$
- 3. There is a path from state s to the accepting state that spells out **y**.
- 4. **x** is as long as possible for any **xy** satisfying conditions 1-3.

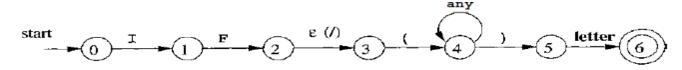


Figure 3.55: NFA recognizing the keyword IF

#### Implementing the Lookahead Operator

- An NFA for the pattern for the Fortran IF (branching statement) with lookahead is shown in Fig. 3.55.
  - Notice that the ε-transition from state 2 to state 3 represents the lookahead operator.
  - > State 6 indicates the presence of the keyword IF.
  - However, we find the lexeme IF by scanning backwards to the last occurrence of state 2, whenever state 6 is entered.

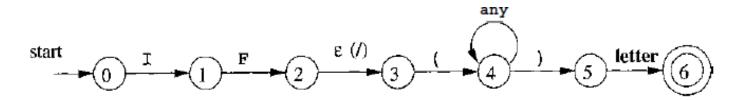


Figure 3.55: NFA recognizing the keyword IF

# Lexical-Analyzer - Regex

- Macros, Quantifiers, characters, Character Classes, Anchors and Boundaries.
- Mastering Quantifiers
  - Greedy: As Many As Possible (longest match)
  - Docile: Give Back When Needed
  - Lazy: As Few As Possible (shortest match)
  - Helpful: Expand When Needed
  - Possessive: Don't Give Up Characters
- > The Longest Match and Shortest Match Traps
  - What does "longest match" mean?
  - What does "shortest match" mean?

# References

- Compilers–Principles, Techniques and Tools, Alfred V. Aho, Monica S. Lam, Ravi Sethi, Jeffery D. Ullman, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition
- https://docs.python.org/3/reference/lexical\_analysis.html
- https://www.epaperpress.com/lexandyacc/prl.html

# Thank You

## The Lexical-Analyzer Generator Lex

> Figure: Lex program structure

```
/* C includes */
/* Definitions */
/* Rules */
/* user subroutines */
```

# The Lexical-Analyzer Generator Lex

Name	Function
int yylex(void)	call to invoke lexer, returns token
char *yytext	pointer to matched string
yyleng	length of matched string
yylval	value associated with token
int yywrap(void)	wrapup, return 1 if done, 0 if not done
FILE *yyout	output file
FILE *yyin	input file
INITIAL	initial start condition
BEGIN	condition switch start condition
ECHO	write matched string

Table 3: Lex Predefined Variables