# Lexical analysis

How to implement lexical analysis (without programming).

# LEXICAL ANALYSIS

### Specifying lexical analysis

Lexical analyser must recognize and process tokens in input:

- 1. Grammar:
  - Describes form of all valid tokens
  - Declarative
- 2. Recognizer:
  - Algorithm for recognizing specified tokens
- 3. Translation rules:
  - What to do when each token is found

### **Describing tokens**

Lexical analysis views program as sequence of tokens.

Each token is sequence of characters.

Define program using grammar:

In practice, omit first two rules and distinguish "token" nonterminal symbols from others:

Now **some** nonterminal symbols are tokens. **All** terminal symbols are characters.

# Types of grammar for lexical analysis

#### Regular grammar:

- Good for lexical analysis (only)
- Used by most lexical analyser generators

#### LL(*k*) grammar:

- More powerful than regular grammar
- Can also be used for syntax analysis
- Used by ANTLR lexical analyser generator

### Regular expressions

### **Regular expressions** over alphabet *S*:

```
(empty string)
3
                                       (single string)
              where a in S
\boldsymbol{a}
X1 X2
                                       (X1 \text{ followed by } X2)
X1 \mid X2
                                       (X1 \text{ or } X2)
X1*
                                       (zero or more repetitions of XI)
X +
                          XX^*
                                       (1 or more repetitions of X)
           means
X?
                                       (0 \text{ or } 1 \text{ repetitions of } X)
                          X|\epsilon
           means
```

where X1 and X2 are regular expressions over S.

# Regular expressions in lexical analysis

Tokens can be described by regular expressions over an alphabet of characters.

#### **Examples:**

```
'>=' operator: ' > ' ' = '
```

```
An integer: ('0'|'1'|'2'|'3'|'4'|'5'|'6'|'7'|'8'|'9')+
```

# Regular grammars for lexical analysis

Use regular grammar over alphabet of characters (terminal symbols are characters).

Each token is a nonterminal symbol.

May be other nonterminal symbols.

# Example regular grammar for lexical analysis

```
<letter> ::= 'A'|'B'|...|'Z'|'a'|'b'|...|'z'
<digit> ::= '0'|'1'|...|'9'
<identifier> ::=
   <letter> (<letter> | <digit>)*
<integer> ::= <digit>+
<real> ::= <integer> '.' <integer> <exponent>?
          <integer> <exponent>
<exponent> ::= 'E' '-'? <integer>
<less> ::= '<'
<lesseq> ::= '<' '='
<qrtreq> ::= '>' '='
<equal> ::= '=' '='
<noteq> ::= '!' '='
<while> ::= 'w' 'h' 'i' 'l' 'e'
```

# **Building lexical analysers**

#### **Stages:**

- 1. Convert regular grammar to *finite(-state) automaton*. See COMS11700.
  - FA is a recognizer (algorithm) for the specified language

    Decides whether input string is a valid token of the language.
- 2. If automaton is nondeterministic, convert to deterministic one (more efficient). See COMS11700.

 $\underline{https://www.khanacademy.org/computer-programming/deterministic-finite-automata-constructor/4851098534805504}$ 

- 3. Convert automaton to an executable program (e.g., C or Java).
- 4. Add translation rules.

### Token types and values

When token is recognized, return token type and token value:

• Operators, keywords, etc. have no value.

```
E.g.: (less), (while)
```

- Numbers, identifiers, etc. have value:
  - text string: "23", "3.142", "count", or
  - numerical value, pointer to symbol table, etc.

How to distinguish keywords from identifiers?

special productions to handle each keyword before checking for identifier

```
E.g.: < while> \rightarrow 'w' 'h' 'i' 'l' 'e'
```

- or look up alphanumeric strings in symbol table
- or look up recognized tokens in special table

Lexical analysis Lex/Flex

### Lex/Flex

Parser generator that converts regular grammar to a C function:

yylex(): returns next token read from standard input.

### Lex/Flex program structure

```
% { C declarations % }
regular grammar definitions
%%
translation rules
%%
auxiliary C procedures
```

Lexical analysis Lex/Flex

### Lex translation rules

```
p_1 \{action_1\}
p_2 \{action_2\}
```

- Each  $p_i$  is a regular expression
- Each *action*<sub>i</sub> is C code

#### Examples:

```
{ws} {}
{while} {return(WHILE);}
{identifier} {return(IDENTIFIER);}
{integer} {return(INTEGER);}
```

Lexical analysis Lex/Flex

#### The yylex() function repeatedly:

- Reads longest sequence of characters from standard input that matches one of the  $p_i$
- If more than one matching  $p_i$ , use the *first* one
- Execute *action*<sub>i</sub> (might return)
- Returns token type as function value
- Returns token value in global variable yylval

### LL(k) lexical analysis

LL(*k*) grammars can also be used for lexical analysis. Again, terminal symbols are characters. E.g.:

```
<integer> ::= <diqit><int1>
<int1> ::= <int1> <diqit>
<int1> ::=
<real> ::= <integer> '.' <integer>
<real> ::= <integer> '.' <integer> <exponent>
<real> ::= <integer> <exponent>
<identifier> ::= ...
<less> ::= '<'
<lesseq> ::= '<' '='
<digit> ::= '0'
<digit> ::= '9'
<exponent> ::= 'E' <integer>
<exponent> ::= 'E' '-' <integer>
```

Productions may be abbreviated using |, \*, +, ? as usual.

# LL(k) grammars

A grammar is LL(k) if the next k terminal symbols *predict* a unique production.

So for lexical analysis:

the right side of each production defining a nonterminal must begin with a different sequence of k characters.

### Lookahead

Example grammar is not LL(1) because:

- Two productions for <exponent> begin with 'E'
- Two productions for <token> begin with '<'

(Partial) solution: increase lookahead to 2.

### Left recursion

Example grammar is not LL(k) for any k because definition of <int1> uses left recursion

```
\langle int1 \rangle \rightarrow \langle int1 \rangle \langle digit \rangle
\langle int1 \rangle \rightarrow
```

Solution: replace left recursion by right recursion:

```
<int1> \rightarrow <digit> <int1> <int1> \rightarrow
```

### Left factoring

Example grammar is still not LL(k) for any k because four productions for <token> begin with a digit:

```
<integer> → <digit> <int1>
<real> → <integer> '.' <integer>
<real> → <integer> '.' <integer> <exponent>
<real> → <integer> <exponent>
```

### Solution: left factoring.

```
<number> \rightarrow <digit> <int1> <number1> 
<number1> \rightarrow '.' <digit> <int1> <number2> <number1> \rightarrow <exponent> 
<number2> \rightarrow <number2> \rightarrow <number2> \rightarrow <exponent> <int1> \rightarrow <digit> <int1> \rightarrow <digit> <int1> \rightarrow
```

### **ANTLR** grammar definition

Uses usual EBNF syntax except:

- Colon ':' in productions
- Nonterminals in upper case
- Terminals (characters) in quotes: 'for characters and strings
- Tokens distinguished from other nonterminal symbols: others are marked "fragment"

Lexical analysis ANTLR

### Example: extract from ANTLR version of grammar:

```
LESS : '<';
LESSEQ : '<=';
GRTR : '>';
GRTREQ : '>=';
NUMBER : INT ( ( '.' INT ( EXPONENT )? | EXPONENT ) )?;
fragment
EXPONENT : 'e' ('-')? INT;
fragment
INT : ('0'..'9')+;
```

### **ANTLR** translation rules

- Semantic actions and semantic predicates
- Enclosed in {braces}
- Embedded in ANTLR grammar at appropriate places

# Syntax analysis

Simple method of syntax analysis: top-down parsing by recursive descent.

# Top-down and bottom-up parsing

#### **Top-down (LL) parsers:**

- Produce leftmost derivation.
- Work from top (root) of parse tree downwards.
- Decide early (by first k symbols) which production to use.

#### **Bottom-up (LR) parsers:**

- Produce rightmost derivation.
- Work from bottom (leaves) of parse tree upwards.
- Decide late which production to use by keeping track of all.

# **Top-down parsing**

#### Basic idea:

- Try to expand start symbol using some production that matches input string.
- Try to expand each nonterminal symbol in right side of production, etc.
- In general, requires backtracking.

E.g., input = "
$$(x) + y$$
"

$$E \to M$$

$$E \to E + M$$

$$M \to F$$

$$M \to M * F$$

$$F \to x$$

$$F \to y$$

$$F \to (E)$$

$$\underline{E} \Rightarrow_1 \underline{M} \Rightarrow_1 \underline{F} \Rightarrow_3 (\underline{E}) \Rightarrow_1 (\underline{M}) \Rightarrow_1 (\underline{F}) \Rightarrow_1 (\mathbf{x})$$

Backtrack!

$$\underline{E} \Rightarrow_2 \underline{E} + M \Rightarrow_1 \underline{M} + M \Rightarrow_1 \underline{F} + M \Rightarrow_3 (\underline{E}) + M \Rightarrow_1 (\underline{M}) + M \Rightarrow_1 (\underline{F}) + M \Rightarrow_1 (\underline{x}) + \underline{M} \Rightarrow_1 (\underline{x}) + \underline{F} \Rightarrow_2 (\underline{x}) + \underline{Y}$$

To avoid backtracking, we need *predictive* parsing: predict which production to use by looking at the next terminal symbol(s) from the input. This is possible if we use LL(k) grammars.

Example: translate previous grammar to LL(k) form:

$$E \to M$$

$$E \to E + M$$

$$M \to F$$

$$M \to M * F$$

$$F \to x$$

$$F \to y$$

$$F \to (E)$$

$$\Longrightarrow$$

$$E \rightarrow M E'$$

$$E' \rightarrow + E$$

$$E' \rightarrow$$

$$M \rightarrow F M'$$

$$M' \rightarrow * M$$

$$M' \rightarrow$$

$$F \rightarrow x$$

$$F \rightarrow y$$

$$F \rightarrow (E)$$

# Recursive descent top-down parsing

LL(1) parser can be written simply as a set of recursive functions:

```
void E() { M(); E1(); }
void E1() {
  if (next == '+')
    { skip('+'); E(); }
void M() { F(); M1(); }
void M1() {
  if (next == '*')
    { skip('*'); M(); }
void F() {
  if (next == 'x') { skip('x'); }
  else if (next == 'y') \{ skip('y'); \}
  else if (next == '(')
    { skip('('); E(); skip(')'); }
```

```
E \rightarrow M E'
E' \rightarrow + E
E' \rightarrow
M \rightarrow F M'
M' \rightarrow * M
M' \rightarrow
F \rightarrow x
F \rightarrow y
F \rightarrow (E)
```

```
void skip(int ch) {
  if (next == ch)
    { next = in.read(); }
  else { error(); }
}
```

### How does it work?

- Use current terminal symbol(s) to choose production
- Then skip matching terminal symbols and recursively parse nonterminal symbols in production
- How to use terminal symbol to decide which production to use?