# Lexical Analysis

#### Outline of the Lecture

- What is lexical analysis?
- Why should LA be separated from syntax analysis?
- Tokens, patterns, and lexemes
- Difficulties in lexical analysis
- Recognition of tokens finite automata and transition diagrams
- Specification of tokens regular expressions and regular definitions
- LEX A Lexical Analyzer Generator

# What is Lexical Analysis?

- The input is a high level language program, such as a 'C' program in the form of a sequence of characters
- The output is a sequence of tokens that is sent to the parser for syntax analysis
- Strips off blanks, tabs, newlines, and comments from the source program
- Keeps track of line numbers and associates error messages from various parts of a compiler with line numbers

# Separation of Lexical Analysis from Syntax Analysis

- Simplification of design software engineering reason
- I/O issues are limited LA alone
- More compact and faster parser
  - Comments, blanks, etc., need not be handled by the parser
  - A parser is more complicated than a lexical analyzer and shrinking the grammar makes the parser faster
    - No rules for numbers, names, comments, etc., are needed in the parser
- LA based on finite automata are more efficient to implement than pushdown automata used for parsing (due to stack)

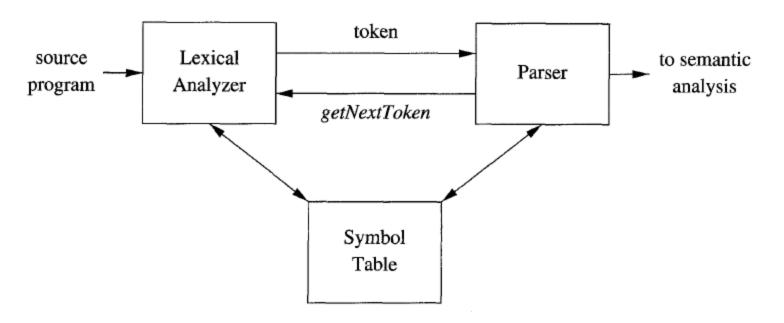


Figure 3.1: Interactions between the lexical analyzer and the parser

 When parser needs the next token it asks the LA to fetch the next token.

#### 3.1.2 Tokens, Patterns, and Lexemes

When discussing lexical analysis, we use three related but distinct terms:

- A token is a pair consisting of a token name and an optional attribute value. The token name is an abstract symbol representing a kind of lexical unit, e.g., a particular keyword, or a sequence of input characters denoting an identifier. The token names are the input symbols that the parser processes.
- A pattern is a description of the form that the lexemes of a token may take.
  - 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.

TOKEN	INFORMAL DESCRIPTION	SAMPLE LEXEMES
if	characters i, f	if
${f else}$	characters e, 1, s, e	else
${f comparison}$	<pre>&lt; or &gt; or &lt;= or &gt;= or !=</pre>	<=, !=
id	letter followed by letters and digits	pi, score, D2
$\mathbf{number}$	any numeric constant	3.14159, 0, 6.02e23
literal	anything but ", surrounded by "'s	"core dumped"

Figure 3.2: Examples of tokens

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

both printf and score are lexemes matching the pattern for token id,

"Total =  $%d\n$ " is a lexeme matching literal.

- 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.
- 4. One or more tokens representing constants, such as numbers and literal strings.
- Tokens for each punctuation symbol, such as left and right parentheses, comma, and semicolon.

TOKEN	INFORMAL DESCRIPTION	SAMPLE LEXEMES
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Figure 3.2: Examples of tokens

# What symbol table holds

- Info. about a token
- for identifier: its lexeme, its type, and the location (line number in source file) where it is first found. {err. message might require line no.}

# Difficulties in Lexical Analysis

- Certain languages do not have any reserved words, e.g.,
   while, do, if, else, etc., are reserved in 'C', but not in PL/1
- In FORTRAN, some keywords are context-dependent
  - In the statement, DO 10 I = 10.86, DO10I is an identifier, and DO is not a keyword
  - But in the statement,  $DO\ 10\ I = 10$ , 86, **DO** is a keyword
  - Such features require substantial look ahead for resolution
- Blanks are not significant in FORTRAN and can appear in the midst of identifiers, but not so in 'C'
- LA cannot catch any significant errors except for simple errors such as, illegal symbols, etc.

# Difficulties in LA

PL/I keywords are not reserved

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

- C++ template → template <class T>
- C++ stream syntax → cin >> var;
- Nested template →
   template <template <class T>>
- Only way out is template <template <class T> > /\*insert a blank\*/

**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.

```
<id, pointer to symbol-table entry for E>
<assign_op>
<id, pointer to symbol-table entry for M>
<mult_op>
<id, pointer to symbol-table entry for C>
<exp_op>
<number, integer value 2>
```

## **Lexical Analysis**

For the code fragment below, choose the correct number of tokens in each class that appear in the code fragment

$$x = 0;\n\twhile (x < 10) {\n\tx++;\n}$$

- W = 9; K = 1; I = 3; N = 2; O = 9
- W = 11; K = 4; I = 0; N = 2; O = 9
- $\bigcirc$  W = 9; K = 4; I = 0; N = 3; O = 9
- W = 11; K = 1; I = 3; N = 3; O = 9

W: Whitespace K: Keyword

I: Identifier

N: Number

O: Other Tokens: { } ( ) < ++ ; =

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

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

- what if no pattern (regular expression) matches with the next sequence of characters?
- Can LA correct errors?
  - yes. Some errors can be corrected. In LaTeX you might have heard "inserted missing \$"

 Panic mode recovery: skip till valid lexeme is found.

Other possible error-recovery actions are:

- 1. Delete one character from the remaining input.
- 2. Insert a missing character into the remaining input.
- 3. Replace a character by another character.
- 4. Transpose two adjacent characters.

# 3.2 Input Buffering

- an implementation issue.
- read the book
   Reading Assignment

# Specification and Recognition of Tokens

- Regular definitions, a mechansm based on regular expressions are very popular for specification of tokens
  - Has been implemented in the lexical analyzer generator tool, LEX
  - We study regular expressions first, and then, token specification using LEX
- Transition diagrams, a variant of finite state automata, are used to implement regular definitions and to recognize tokens
  - Transition diagrams are usually used to model LA before translating them to programs by hand
  - LEX automatically generates optimized FSA from regular definitions

### Languages

- Symbol: An abstract entity, not defined
  - Examples: letters and digits
- String: A finite sequence of juxtaposed symbols
  - abcb, caba are strings over the symbols a,b, and c
  - |w| is the length of the string w, and is the #symbols in it
  - $\epsilon$  is the empty string and is of length 0
- Alphabet: A finite set of symbols
- Language: A set of strings of symbols from some alphabet
  - $\Phi$  and  $\{\epsilon\}$  are languages
  - The set of palindromes over {0,1} is an infinite language
  - The set of strings, {01, 10, 111} over {0,1} is a finite language
- If Σ is an alphabet, Σ\* is the set of all strings over Σ

#### 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.
- 4. The *proper* prefixes, suffixes, and substrings of a string s are those, prefixes, suffixes, and substrings, respectively, of s that are not  $\epsilon$  or not equal to 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.

## Language Representations

- Each subset of Σ\* is a language
- This set of languages over Σ\* is uncountably infinite
- Each language must have by a finite representation
  - A finite representation can be encoded by a finite string
  - Thus, each string of Σ\* can be thought of as representing some language over the alphabet Σ
  - Σ\* is countably infinite
  - Hence, there are more languages than language representations
- Regular expressions (type-3 or regular languages), context-free grammars (type-2 or context-free languages), context-sensitive grammars (type-1 or context-sensitive languages), and type-0 grammars are finite representations of respective languages
- RL << CFL << CSL << type-0 languages</li>

# Examples of Languages

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

- $L_1 = \{a^m b^n | m, n \ge 0\}$  is regular
- $L_2 = \{a^n b^n | n \ge 0\}$  is context-free but not regular
- $L_3 = \{a^nb^nc^n|n \ge 0\}$  is context-sensitive but neither regular nor context-free
- Showing a language that is type-0, but none of CSL, CFL, or RL is very intricate and is omitted

#### Automata

- Automata are machines that accept languages
  - Finite State Automata accept RLs (corresponding to REs)
  - Pushdown Automata accept CFLs (corresponding to CFGs)
  - Linear Bounded Automata accept CSLs (corresponding to CSGs)
  - Turing Machines accept type-0 languages (corresponding to type-0 grammars)
- Applications of Automata
  - Switching circuit design
  - Lexical analyzer in a compiler
  - String processing (grep, awk), etc.
  - State charts used in object-oriented design
  - Modelling control applications, e.g., elevator operation
  - Parsers of all types
  - Compilers

#### Finite State Automaton

- An FSA is an acceptor or recognizer of regular languages
- An FSA is a 5-tuple,  $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ , where
  - Q is a finite set of states
  - Σ is the input alphabet
  - δ is the transition function, δ : Q × Σ → Q
     That is, δ(q, a) is a state for each state q and input symbol a
  - q<sub>0</sub> is the start state
  - F is the set of final or accepting states
- In one move from some state q, an FSA reads an input symbol, changes the state based on  $\delta$ , and gets ready to read the next input symbol
- An FSA **accepts** its input string, if starting from  $q_0$ , it consumes the entire input string, and reaches a final state
- If the last state reached is not a final state, then the input string is rejected

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

Figure 3.6: Definitions of operations on languages

#### 3.3.3 Regular Expressions

**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  $L(\mathbf{a}) = \{a\}$ , that is, the language with one string, of length one, with a in its one position. Note that by convention, we use italics for symbols, and boldface for their corresponding regular expression.<sup>1</sup>

**INDUCTION**: There are four parts to the induction whereby larger regular expressions are built from smaller ones. Suppose r and s are regular expressions denoting languages L(r) and L(s), respectively.

- 1. (r)|(s) is a regular expression denoting the language  $L(r) \cup L(s)$ .
- 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.

# Certain pairs of parentheses can be removed with the following precedence rules.

- 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.

for example, we may replace the regular expression  $(\mathbf{a})|((\mathbf{b})^*(\mathbf{c}))$  by  $\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b}^*\mathbf{c}$ .

Both expressions denote the set of strings that are either a single a or are zero or more b's followed by one c.

#### Example 3.4: Let $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ .

- 1. The regular expression  $\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b}$  denotes the language  $\{a,b\}$ .
- 2.  $(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b})(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b})$  denotes  $\{aa, ab, ba, bb\}$ , the language of all strings of length two over the alphabet  $\Sigma$ . Another regular expression for the same language is  $\mathbf{aa}|\mathbf{ab}|\mathbf{ba}|\mathbf{bb}$ .
- 3.  $\mathbf{a}^*$  denotes the language consisting of all strings of zero or more a's, that is,  $\{\epsilon, a, aa, aaa, \dots\}$ .
- 4.  $(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b})^*$  denotes the set of all strings consisting of zero or more instances of a or b, that is, all strings of a's and b's:  $\{\epsilon, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, aaa, ...\}$ . Another regular expression for the same language is  $(\mathbf{a}^*\mathbf{b}^*)^*$ .
- 5.  $\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{a}^*\mathbf{b}$  denotes the language  $\{a, b, ab, aab, aaab, \dots\}$ , that is, the string a and all strings consisting of zero or more a's and ending in b.

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

Figure 3.7: Algebraic laws for regular expressions

# a|b is same as b|a

#### 3.3.4 Regular Definitions

$$\begin{array}{cccc} d_1 & \rightarrow & r_1 \\ d_2 & \rightarrow & r_2 \\ & \cdots \\ d_n & \rightarrow & r_n \end{array}$$

where:

- 1. Each  $d_i$  is a new symbol, not in  $\Sigma$  and not the same as any other of the d's, and
- 2. Each  $r_i$  is a regular expression over the alphabet  $\Sigma \cup \{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_{i-1}\}$ .

**Example 3.5:** C identifiers are strings of letters, digits, and underscores. Here is a regular definition for the language of C identifiers. We shall conventionally use italics for the symbols defined in regular definitions.

#### 3.3.5 Extensions of Regular Expressions

1. One or more instances. The unary, postfix operator  $^+$  represents the positive closure of a regular expression and its language. That is, if 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  $r^+ = rr^* = r^*r$  relate the Kleene closure and positive closure.

$$digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid \cdots \mid 9$$
 $digits \rightarrow digit^{+}$ 

2. Zero or one instance. The unary postfix operator? means "zero or one occurrence." That is, r? is equivalent to  $r|\epsilon$ , or put another way,  $L(r?) = L(r) \cup \{\epsilon\}$ . The? operator has the same precedence and associativity as \* and +.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \textit{digits} & \rightarrow & \textit{digit}^+ \\ \textit{number} & \rightarrow & \textit{digits} \; (\; . \; \textit{digits})? \; (\; E \; (+ | -) \; ? \; \textit{digits} \;)? \end{array}$$

3. Character classes. A regular expression  $a_1|a_2|\cdots|a_n$ , where the  $a_i$ 's are each symbols of the alphabet, can be replaced by the shorthand  $[a_1a_2\cdots a_n]$ . More importantly, when  $a_1,a_2,\ldots,a_n$  form a logical sequence, e.g., consecutive uppercase letters, lowercase letters, or digits, we can replace them by  $a_1$ - $a_n$ , that is, just the first and last separated by a hyphen. Thus, [**abc**] is shorthand for  $\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b}|\mathbf{c}$ , and [**a-z**] is shorthand for  $\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b}|\cdots|\mathbf{z}$ .

```
\begin{array}{cccc} letter_{-} & \rightarrow & \texttt{[A-Za-z_{-}]} \\ digit & \rightarrow & \texttt{[0-9]} \\ id & \rightarrow & letter_{-} \; (\; letter \; | \; digit \;)^{*} \end{array}
```

in lex means something else. But, here it matches with character.

```
\begin{array}{cccc} \textit{digit} & \rightarrow & \texttt{[0-9]} \\ \textit{digits} & \rightarrow & \textit{digit}^+ \\ \textit{number} & \rightarrow & \textit{digits} \; (\; . \; \textit{digits})? \; (\; \texttt{E} \; \texttt{[+-]}? \; \textit{digits} \;)? \end{array}
```

- ! Exercise 3.3.2: Describe the languages denoted by the following regular expressions:
  - a)  $\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b})^*\mathbf{a}$ .
  - b)  $((\epsilon | \mathbf{a}) \mathbf{b}^*)^*$ .
  - c)  $(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b})^*\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b})(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b})$ .
  - d) a\*ba\*ba\*ba\*.

- Give example strings in each.
- Can you give NFA/DFA for each?

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

White space (ws) can be seen as a token in itself. As a rule, it is discarded without giving it to the syntax analysis.

Here, actually **blank, tab, newline** needs to be given regular definitions.

Reserved	1
words/keywords are	
preloaded into the	
symbol table (One way	
to overcome the	
problem of saying <i>if</i> as	
an identifier)	

Lexemes are searched in the
symbol table to identify a token's
presence or absence.

LEXEMES	TOKEN NAME	ATTRIBUTE VALUE
Any ws	_	_
if	if	
then	${f then}$	_
else	$_{ m else}$	
Any $id$	id	Pointer to table entry
Any number	$\mathbf{number}$	Pointer to table entry
<	relop	LT
<=	relop	ĹE
=	relop	EQ
<>	relop	NE
>	relop	GT
>=	relop	GE

Figure 3.12: Tokens, their patterns, and attribute values

#### **Exercise**: Write regular definitions for the following languages:

- a) All strings of lowercase letters that contain the five vowels in order.
- b) All strings of lowercase letters in which the letters are in ascending lexicographic order.
- c) Comments, consisting of a string surrounded by /\* and \*/, without an intervening \*/, unless it is inside double-quotes (").
- ==> d) All strings of digits with no repeated digits. *Hint*: Try this problem first with a few digits, such as {0, 1, 2}.
- ==> e) All strings of digits with at most one repeated digit.
- ==> f) All strings of a's and b's with an even number of a's and an odd number of b's.
  - g) The set of Chess moves, in the informal notation, such as p-k4 or kbp×qn.
- ==> h) All strings of a's and b's that do not contain the substring abb.
- ==> i) All strings of a's and b's that do not contain the subsequence abb.
- Assignment 1: Do problems  $a,b,c,g,h \rightarrow 25$  marks
- Deadline 22nd Jan (submit in class)

- LEX regular expressions are different from standard regular expressions.
- They have some extra power by giving context sensitive features

EXPRESSION	MATCHES	EXAMPLE
c	the one non-operator character $c$	a
$\setminus c$	character c literally	\*
"8"	string $s$ literally	"**!"
	any character but newline	a.*b
^	beginning of a line	^abc
\$	end of a line	abc\$
[s]	any one of the characters in string $s$	[abc]
[^s]	any one character not in string $s$	[^abc]
r*	zero or more strings matching $r$	a*
r+	one or more strings matching $r$	a+
r?	zero or one $r$	a?
$r\{m,n\}$	between $m$ and $n$ occurrences of $r$	a[1,5]
$r_1r_2$	an $r_1$ followed by an $r_2$	ab
$r_1 \mid r_2$	an $r_1$ or an $r_2$	alb
(r)	same as $r$	(a b)
$r_1/r_2$	$r_1$ when followed by $r_2$	abc/123

Figure 3.8: Lex regular expressions

### 3.4.1 Transition Diagrams

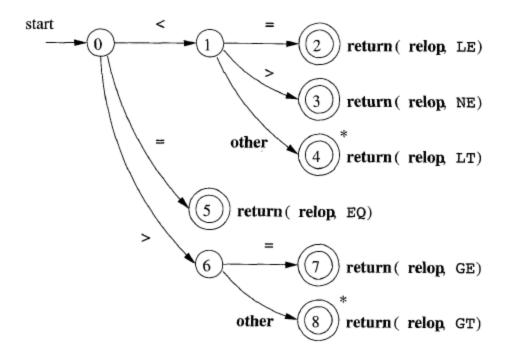


Figure 3.13: Transition diagram for **relop** 

\* on accepting state means retract the forward pointer by one position

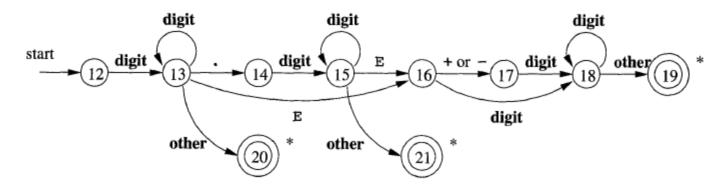


Figure 3.16: A transition diagram for unsigned numbers

# Keyword problem

- Keyword/reserved word matches identifier token
- Two ways to overcome this
  - Preload the symbol table with all keywords (Token-name is the keyword name itself)
    - Symbol Table is searched with a lexeme, and if found the corresponding token is returned.
  - Give keywords higher priority in recognition than identifiers (a rule is embedded in to LA)

# Prefix problem

- Prefix of == matches with =
- == itself matches
- Which one to choose?

- Choose the longer one.
  - Always this works.

### 3.5.2 Structure of Lex Programs

A Lex program has the following form:

declarations

%%

translation rules

%%

auxiliary functions

- The declarations section includes
  - Declaration of variables
  - Declaration of manifest constants (identifiers declared to stand for a constant)
  - Regular definitions

#### 3.5 The Lexical-Analyzer Generator Lex

### Lex /Flex

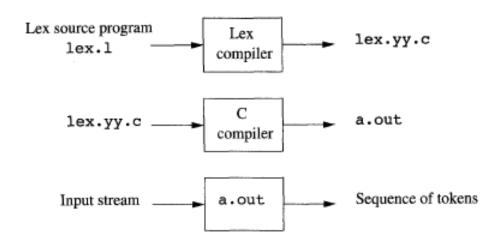


Figure 3.22: Creating a lexical analyzer with Lex

\$gcc lex.yy.c
To produce a.out, you need
to have main function in
auxiliary section.

- The C function, yylex() returns an integer which is a code for one of the possible token names.
- A global variable yylval is used to place the attribute value.
- yylval is shared between LA and parser

### Translation rules

Each will be of the form

```
Pattern { Action }
```

- Each pattern is a regular expression (which may use regular definitions of the declaration section).
- Actions are fragments of C code.
- If action uses a function call. That function can be written in *auxiliary functions* section.
  - Can be written in a separate C file also.

- Lex works along with parser.
- When parser calls yylex(), the LA begins reading its remaining input, till it finds a lexeme.
  - Longest lexeme is preferred in conflict
  - First occurring definition is used in conflict
- It does the associated action which returns token number to the parser.
  - For white spaces, action is nothing; then it goes to the next lexeme which will return something.
- Attribute value is kept in the global variable yylval

## Line count and character count

```
%{
int charcount=0, linecount=0;
%}
%%
                                                  I do not know
   {charcount++;}
                                                whether there are
\n {linecount++; charcount++;}
                                              any mistakes in this. If
                                               there are mistakes,
 %%
                                                correct it. See Lex
                                                tutorials/manuals.
main() {
    while(yylex());
    printf("lines %d", linecount);
    printf("characters %d", charcount);
```

```
%{
    /* definitions of manifest constants
    LT, LE, EQ, NE, GT, GE,
    IF, THEN, ELSE, ID, NUMBER, RELOP */
%}
/* regular definitions */
delim
           [ \t\n]
           {delim}+
ws
           [A-Za-z]
letter
digit
           [0-9]
          {letter}({letter}|{digit})*
id
          {digit}+(\.{digit}+)?(E[+-]?{digit}+)?
number
%%
{ws}
          {/* no action and no return */}
if
          {return(IF);}
          {return(THEN);}
then
          {return(ELSE);}
else
{id}
          {yylval = (int) installID(); return(ID);}
{number}
          {yylval = (int) installNum(); return(NUMBER);}
"<"
          {yylval = LT; return(RELOP);}
"<="
          {yylval = LE; return(RELOP);}
11-11
          {yylval = EQ; return(RELOP);}
          {yylval = NE; return(RELOP);}
"<>"
">"
          {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 */
}
int installNum() {/* similar to installID, but puts numer-
                     ical constants into a separate table */
}
```

Any thing between %{ and %} is directly copied to the **lex.yy.c**. C declaration can go here. Not regular definitions. #define can be used to give int codes for operators.

To use a regular definition, use { } around it.

In the auxiliary-function section, we see two such functions, installID() and installNum(). Like the portion of the declaration section that appears between %{...%}, everything in the auxiliary section is copied directly to file lex.yy.c, but may be used in the actions.

The action taken when *id* is matched is threefold:

- Function installID() is called to place the lexeme found in 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 in Fig. 3.3.
  - (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().

Whatever text is seen the same is outputted.

```
text [a-zA-Z]

%%

Some actions like ECHO needs to be understood. ECHO outputs the lexeme.

lexeme.

%%

...
```

#### 3.5.3 Conflict Resolution in Lex

- 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.

## Programming assignment -- Individual

- In a given input C program, eliminate unnecessary white spaces, comments.
- Do proper indentation using appropriate number of tabs. So that the outputted C program is more readable.
- Give the output C program.

- Deadline 27<sup>th</sup> Jan (Saturday) 5 pm. Submit your Lex code through email attachment. Subject line "CD Assignment 2"
- Submit to <u>viswanath.p@iiits.in</u>

# Reading Assignments from ToC

- Conversion of NFA to DFA
- Minimizing a DFA
- Converting a regular expression to a NFA/DFA

- These topics are covered in the dragon book.
- Some questions may appear in quiz/exam