

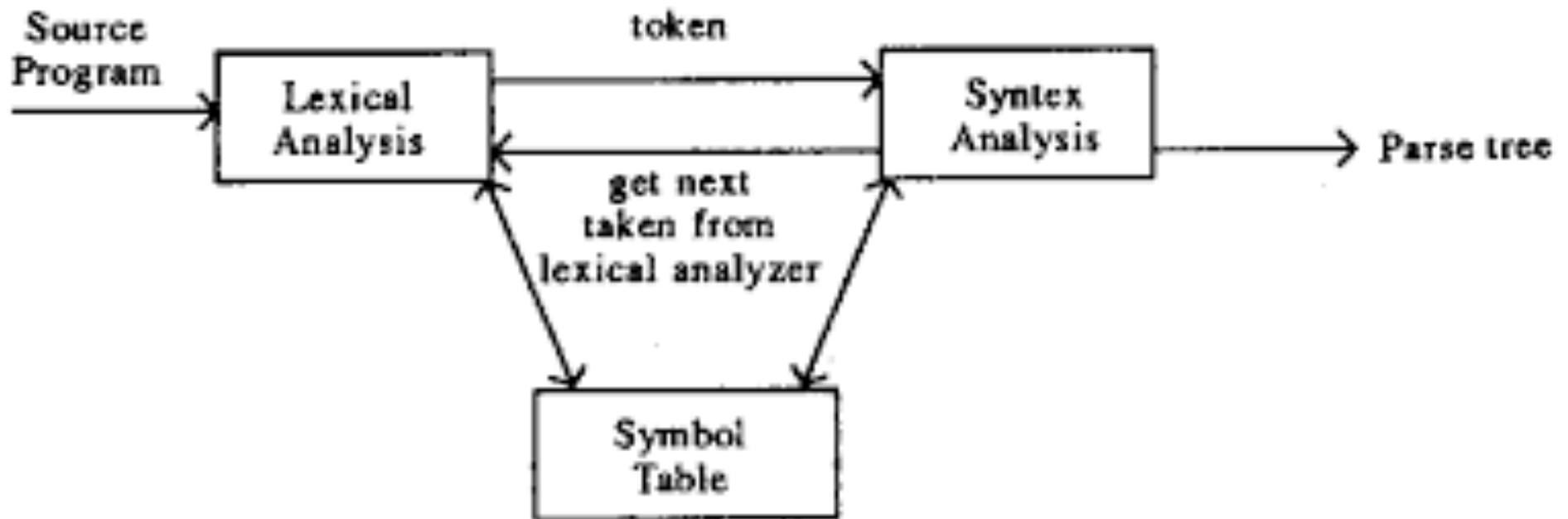
# Lexical and Syntax Analysis

In Text: Chapter 4

# Lexical and Syntactic Analysis

- Two steps to discover the syntactic structure of a program
  - Lexical analysis (Scanner): to read the input characters and output a sequence of tokens
  - Syntactic analysis (Parser): to read the tokens and output a parse tree and report syntax errors if any

# Interaction between lexical analysis and syntactic analysis



# Reasons to Separate Lexical and Syntactic Analysis

- *Simplicity* - less complex approaches can be used for lexical analysis; separating them simplifies the parser
- *Efficiency* - separation allows optimization of the lexical analyzer
- *Portability* - parts of the lexical analyzer may not be portable, but the parser is always portable

# Scanner

- Pattern matcher for character strings
  - If a character sequence matches a pattern, it is identified as a token
- Responsibilities
  - Tokenize source, report lexical errors if any, remove comments and whitespace, save text of interesting tokens, save source locations, (optional) expand macros and implement preprocessor functions

# Tokenizing Source

- Given a program, identify all lexemes and their categories (tokens)

# Lexeme, Token, & Pattern

- Lexeme
  - A sequence of characters in the source program with the lowest level of syntactic meanings
    - E.g., sum, +, -
- Token
  - A category of lexemes
  - A lexeme is an instance of token
  - The basic building blocks of programs

# Token Examples

Token	Informal Description	Sample Lexemes
keyword	All keywords defined in the language	if else
comparison	<, >, <=, >=, ==, !=	<=, !=
id	One letter followed by letters and digits	pi, score, D2
number	Any numeric constant	3.14159, 0, 6
literal	Anything surrounded by ""s, but exclude ""	"core dumped"



# Lexeme, Token, & Pattern (cont'd)

- Pattern
  - A description of the form that the lexemes of a token may take
  - Specified with regular expressions

# Motivating Example

- Token set:
  - assign  $\rightarrow :=$
  - plus  $\rightarrow +$
  - minus  $\rightarrow -$
  - times  $\rightarrow *$
  - div  $\rightarrow /$
  - lparen  $\rightarrow ($
  - rparen  $\rightarrow )$
  - id  $\rightarrow \text{letter}(\text{letter}|\text{digit})^*$
  - number  $\rightarrow \text{digit digit}^* | \text{digit}^*(.\text{digit}|\text{digit.})\text{digit}^*$

# Motivating Example

- What are the lexemes in the string "var:=b\*3" ?
- What are the corresponding tokens ?
- How do you identify the tokens?

# Lexical Analysis

- Three approaches to build a lexical analyzer:
  - Write a formal description of the tokens and use a software tool that constructs a table-driven lexical analyzer from such a description
  - Design a state diagram that describes the tokens and write a program that implements the state diagram
  - Design a state diagram that describes the tokens and hand-construct a table-driven implementation of the state diagram

# State Diagram Design

- A naive state diagram would have a transition from every state on every character in the source language - such a diagram would be very large!

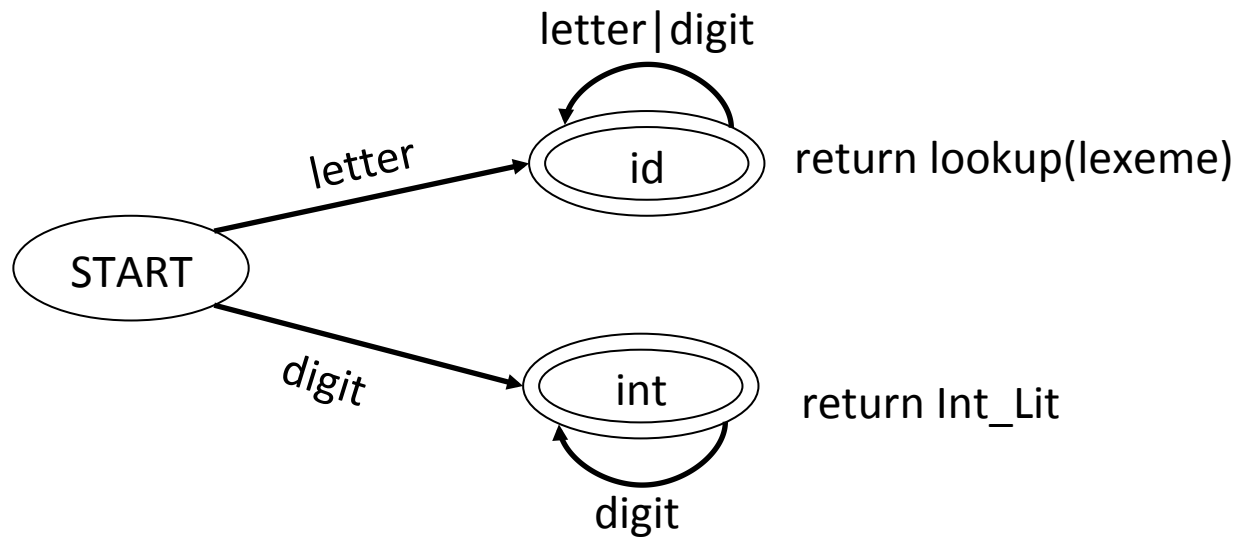
# Lexical Analysis (continued)

- In many cases, transitions can be combined to simplify the state diagram
  - When recognizing an identifier, all uppercase and lowercase letters are equivalent
    - Use a character class that includes all letters
  - When recognizing an integer literal, all digits are equivalent - use a digit class

# Lexical Analysis (continued)

- Reserved words and identifiers can be recognized together (rather than having a part of the diagram for each reserved word)
  - Use a table lookup to determine whether a possible identifier is in fact a reserved word

# State Diagram





# Lexical Analysis (continued)

- Convenient utility subprograms:
  - `getChar` - gets the next character of input, puts it in `nextChar`, determines its class and puts the class in `charClass`
  - `addChar` - puts the character from `nextChar` into the place the lexeme is being accumulated
  - `lookup` - determines whether the string in `lexeme` is a reserved word (returns a code)

# Implementation Pseudo-code

```
static char lexeme[100];  
static char nextChar;  
static TOKEN nextToken;  
static CHAR_CLASS charClass;  
  
int lex() {  
    switch (charClass) {  
        case LETTER:  
            // add nextChar to lexeme  
            addChar();  
            // get the next character and determine its class  
            getChar();  
            while (charClass == LETTER || charClass == DIGIT)  
            {  
                addChar();  
                getChar();  
            }  
            nextToken = ID;  
            break;
```

```

case DIGIT:
    addChar();
    getChar();
    while (charClass == DIGIT) {
        addChar();
        getChar();
    }
    nextToken = INT_LIT;
    break;
...
case EOF:
    nextToken = EOF;
    lexeme[0] = 'E';
    lexeme[1] = 'O';
    lexeme[2] = 'F';
    lexeme[3] = 0;
}
printf ("Next token is: %d, Next lexeme is %s\n",
        nextToken, lexeme);
return nextToken;
} /* End of function lex */

```

# Lexical Analyzer

## Implementation:

→ `front.c` (pp. 166–170)

– Following is the output of the lexical analyzer of `front.c` when used on `(sum + 47) / total`

```
Next token is: 25 Next lexeme is (  
Next token is: 11 Next lexeme is sum  
Next token is: 21 Next lexeme is +  
Next token is: 10 Next lexeme is 47  
Next token is: 26 Next lexeme is )  
Next token is: 24 Next lexeme is /  
Next token is: 11 Next lexeme is total  
Next token is: -1 Next lexeme is EOF
```

# The Parsing Problem

- Given an input program, the goals of the parser:
  - Find all syntax errors; for each, produce an appropriate diagnostic message and recover quickly
  - Produce the parse tree, or at least a trace of the parse tree, for the program

# The Parsing Problem (continued)

- The Complexity of Parsing
  - Parsers that work for any unambiguous grammar are complex and inefficient (  $O(n^3)$ , where  $n$  is the length of the input )
  - Compilers use parsers that only work for a subset of all unambiguous grammars, but do it in linear time (  $O(n)$ , where  $n$  is the length of the input )

# Two Classes of Grammars

- Left-to-right, Leftmost derivation (LL)
- Left-to-right, Rightmost derivation (LR)
- We can build parsers for these grammars that run in linear time

# Grammar Comparison

LL	LR
$E \rightarrow TE'$	$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$
$E' \rightarrow + TE' \mid \varepsilon$	$T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$
$T \rightarrow FT'$	$F \rightarrow id$
$T' \rightarrow * FT' \mid \varepsilon$	
$F \rightarrow id$	



# Two Categories of Parsers

- LL(1) Parsers
  - L: scanning the input from left to right
  - L: producing a leftmost derivation
  - 1: using one input symbol of lookahead at each step to make parsing action decisions
- LR(1) Parsers
  - L: scanning the input from left to right
  - R: producing a rightmost derivation **in reverse**
  - 1: the same as above

# Two Categories of Parsers

- LL(1) parsers (predicative parsers)
  - Top down
    - Build the parse tree from the root
    - Find a leftmost derivation for an input string
- LR(1) parsers (shift-reduce parsers)
  - Bottom up
    - Build the parse tree from leaves
    - Reducing a string to the start symbol of a grammar

# Top-down Parsers

- Given a sentential form,  $xA\alpha$ , the parser must choose the correct  $A$ -rule to get the next sentential form in the leftmost derivation, using only the first token produced by  $A$
- The most common top-down parsing algorithms:
  - Recursive descent - a coded implementation
  - LL parsers - table driven implementation

# Bottom-up parsers

- Given a right sentential form,  $\alpha$ , determine what substring of  $\alpha$  is the right-hand side of the rule in the grammar that must be reduced to produce the previous sentential form in the right derivation
- The most common bottom-up parsing algorithms are in the LR family