Lexical Analysis

The *lexical analyzer* reads source text and produces *tokens*, which are the basic lexical units of the language. For example, the expression `*ptr = 56;` contains 10 characters or five tokens: `*`, `ptr`, `=`, `56`, and `;`. For each token, the lexical analyzer returns its *token code* and zero or more *associated values*. The token codes for single-character tokens, such as operators and separators, are the characters themselves. Defined constants (with values that do not collide with the numeric values of significant characters) are used for the codes of the tokens that can consist of one or more characters, such as identifiers and constants.

For example, the statement `*ptr = 56;` yields the token stream shown on the left below; the associated values, if there are any, are shown on the right.

```
'*'
ID   "ptr"  symbol-table entry for "ptr"
'= '
ICON "56"   symbol-table entry for 56
```

The token codes for the operators `*` and `=` are the operators themselves, i.e., the numeric values of `*` and `=`, respectively, and they do not have associated values. The token code for the identifier `ptr` is the value of the defined constant `ID`, and the associated values are the saved copy of the identifier string itself, i.e., the string returned by `stringn`, and a symbol-table entry for the identifier, if there is one. Likewise, the integer constant `56` returns `ICON`, and the associated values are the string "56" and a symbol-table entry for the integer constant `56`.

Keywords, such as “for,” are assigned their own token codes, which distinguish them from identifiers.

The lexical analyzer also tracks the *source coordinates* for each token. These coordinates, defined in Section 3.1, give the file name, line number, and character index within the line of the first character of the token. Coordinates are used to pinpoint the location of errors and to remember where symbols are defined.

The lexical analyzer is the only part of the compiler that looks at each character of the source text. It is not unusual for lexical analysis to account for half the execution time of a compiler. Hence, speed is important. The lexical analyzer’s main activity is moving characters, so minimizing the amount of character movement helps increase speed. This is done by dividing the lexical analyzer into two tightly coupled modules.
The input module, `input.c`, reads the input in large chunks into a buffer, and the recognition module, `lex.c`, examines the characters to recognize tokens.

### 6.1 Input

In most programming languages, input is organized in lines. Although in principle, there is rarely a limit on line length, in practice, line length is limited. In addition, tokens cannot span line boundaries in most languages, so making sure complete lines are in memory when they are being examined simplifies lexical analysis at little expense in capability. String literals are the one exception in C, but they can be handled as a special case.

The input module reads the source in large chunks, usually much larger than individual lines, and it helps arrange for complete tokens to be present in the input buffer when they are being examined, except identifiers and string literals. To minimize the overhead of accessing the input, the input module exports pointers that permit direct access to the input buffer:

```c
extern unsigned char *cp;
extern unsigned char *limit;
```

`cp` points to the current input character, so `*cp` is that character. `limit` points one character past the end of the characters in the input buffer, and `*limit` is always a newline character and acts as a sentinel. These pointers reference unsigned characters so that `*cp`, for example, won’t sign-extend a character whose value is greater than 127.

The important consequence of this design is that most of the input characters are accessed by `*cp`, and many characters are never moved. Only identifiers (excluding keywords) and string literals that appear in executable code are copied out of the buffer into permanent storage. Function calls are required only at line boundaries, which occur infrequently when compared to the number of characters in the input. Specifically, the lexical analyzer can use `*cp++` to read a character and increment `cp`. If `*cp++` is a newline character, however, it must call `nextline`, which might reset `cp` and `limit`. After calling `nextline`, if `cp` is equal to `limit`, the end of file has been reached.

Since `*limit` is always a newline, and `nextline` must be called after reading a newline, it is rarely necessary for the lexical analyzer to check if `cp` is less than `limit`. `nextline` calls `fillbuf` when the newline is the character pointed to by `limit`. The lexical analyzer can also call `fillbuf` explicitly if, for example, it wishes to ensure that an entire token is present in the input buffer. Most tokens are short, less than 32
characters, so the lexical analyzer might call `fillbuf` whenever `limit-cp` is less than 32.

This protocol is necessary in order for `fillbuf` to properly handle lines that span input buffers. In general, each input buffer ends with a partial line. To maintain the illusion of contiguous lines, and to reduce unnecessary searching, `fillbuf` moves the `limit-cp` characters of the partial line to the memory locations preceding the characters in the input buffer so that they will be concatenated with the characters in the trailing portion of the line when the input buffer is refilled. An example clarifies this process: Suppose the state of the input buffer is

```
fillbuf 106
limit 103
nextline 106
```

where shading depicts the characters that have yet to be consumed and \\
represents the newline. If `fillbuf` is called, it slides the unconsumed tail of the input buffer down and refills the buffer. The resulting state is

```
fillbuf 106
limit 103
nextline 106
```

where the darker shading differentiates the newly read characters from those moved by `fillbuf`. When a call to `fillbuf` reaches the end of the input, the buffer's state becomes

```
fillbuf 106
limit 103
nextline 106
```

Finally, when `nextline` is called for the last sentinel at *limit, `fillbuf` sets `cp` equal to `limit`, which indicates end of file (after the first call to `nextline`). This final state is

```
fillbuf 106
limit 103
nextline 106
```

The remaining global variables exported by `input.c` are:

```
extern int infd;
extern char *firstfile;
extern char *file;
extern char *line;
extern int lineno;
```
Input is read from the file descriptor given by `infd`; the default is zero, which is the standard input. `file` is the name of the current input file; `line` gives the location of the beginning of the current line, if it were to fit in the buffer; and `lineno` is the line number of the current line. The coordinates $f, x, y$ of the token that begins at `cp`, where $f$ is the file name, are thus given by `file`, `cp-line`, and `lineno`, where characters in the line are numbered beginning with zero. `line` is used only to compute the $x$ coordinate, which counts tabs as single characters. `firstfile` gives the name of the first source file encountered in the input; it's used in error messages.

The input buffer itself is hidden inside the input module:

```c
⟨input.c exported macros⟩≡
#define MAXLINE 512
#define BUFSIZE 4096

⟨input.c data⟩≡
static int bsize;
static unsigned char buffer[MAXLINE+1 + BUFSIZE+1];
```

BUFSIZE is the size of the input buffer into which characters are read, and MAXLINE is the maximum number of characters allowed in an unconsumed tail of the input buffer. `fillbuf` must not be called if `limit-cp` is greater than MAXLINE. The standard specifies that compilers need not handle lines that exceed 509 characters; `lcc` handles lines of arbitrary length, but, except for identifiers and string literals, insists that tokens not exceed 512 characters.

The value of `bsize` encodes three different input states: If `bsize` is less than zero, no input has been read or a read error has occurred; if `bsize` is zero, the end of input has been reached; and `bsize` is greater than zero when `bsize` characters have just been read. This rather complicated encoding ensures that `lcc` is initialized properly and that it never tries to read past the end of the input.

`inputInit` initializes the input variables and fills the buffer:

```c
⟨input.c functions⟩≡
void inputInit() {
    limit = cp = &buffer[MAXLINE+1];
    bsize = -1;
    lineno = 0;
    file = NULL;
    (refill buffer 106)
    nextline();
}
```

`nextline` is called whenever `*cp++` reads a newline. If `cp` is greater than or equal to `limit`, the input buffer is empty.
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(input.c functions) ≡

```c
void nextline() {
  do {
    if (cp >= limit) {
      (refill buffer 106)
      if (cp == limit)
        return;
    } else
      lineno++;
      for (line = (char *)cp; *cp==' ' || *cp=='\t'; cp++)
        ;
    } while (*cp == '\n' && cp == limit);
    if (*cp == '#') {
      resynch();
      nextline();
    }
  }
}
```

If `cp` is still equal to `limit` after filling the buffer, the end of the file has been reached. The do-while loop advances `cp` to the first nonwhite-space character in the line, treating sentinel newlines as white space. The last four lines of `nextline` check for resynchronization directives emitted by the preprocessor; see Exercise 6.2. `inputInit` and `nextline` call `fillbuf` to refill the input buffer:

(refill buffer 106) ≡

```c
fillbuf();
  if (cp >= limit)
    cp = limit;
```

If the input is exhausted, `cp` will still be greater than or equal to `limit` when `fillbuf` returns, which leaves these variables set as shown in the last diagram on page 104. `fillbuf` does all of the buffer management and the actual input:

(input.c functions) ≡

```c
void fillbuf() {
  if (bsize == 0)
    return;
  if (cp >= limit)
    cp = &buffer[MAXLINE+1];
  else
    (move the tail portion 107)
  bsize = read(infd, &buffer[MAXLINE+1], BUFSIZE);
  if (bsize < 0) {
    error("read error\n");
    exit(1);
  }
```
\{ fillbuf \}

```c
limit = &buffer[MAXLINE+1+bsize];
*limit = '\n';
\}
```

fillbuf reads the BUFSIZE (or fewer) characters into the buffer beginning at position MAXLINE+1, resets limit, and stores the sentinel newline. If the input buffer is empty when fillbuf is called, cp is reset to point to the first new character. Otherwise, the tail \(\text{limit-cp}\) characters are moved so that the last character is in buffer[MAXLINE], and is thus adjacent to the newly read characters.

\(\text{move the tail portion}\equiv\)

```c
\{ int n = limit - cp;
   unsigned char \*s = &buffer[MAXLINE+1] - n;
   line = (char \*)s - ((char \*)cp - line);
   while (cp <= limit)
      \*s++ = \*cp++;
   cp = &buffer[MAXLINE+1] - n;
\}
```

Notice the computation of line: It accounts for the portion of the current line that has already been consumed, so that \(\text{cp-line}\) gives the correct index of the character \(*cp\).

### 6.2 Recognizing Tokens

There are two principal techniques for recognizing tokens: building a finite automaton or writing an ad hoc recognizer by hand. The lexical structure of most programming languages can be described by regular expressions, and such expressions can be used to construct a deterministic finite automaton that recognizes and returns tokens. The advantage of this approach is that it can be automated. For example, LEX is a program that takes a lexical specification, given as regular expressions, and generates an automaton and an appropriate interpreting program.

The lexical structure of most languages is simple enough that lexical analyzers can be constructed easily by hand. In addition, automatically generated analyzers, such as those produced by LEX, tend to be large and slower than analyzers built by hand. Tools like LEX are very useful, however, for one-shot programs and for applications with complex lexical structures.

For C, tokens fall into the six classes defined by the following EBNF grammar:
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Token:

- keyword
- identifier
- constant
- string-literal
- operator
- punctuator

Punctuator:

one of [ ] ( ) { } * , : = ; ...

White space — blanks, tabs, newlines, and comments — separates some tokens, such as adjacent identifiers, but is otherwise ignored except in string literals.

The lexical analyzer exports two functions and four variables:

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle \text{lex.c exported functions} \rangle \equiv & \quad \text{extern int getchr ARGS((void));} \\
& \quad \text{extern int gettok ARGS((void));}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle \text{lex.c exported data} \rangle \equiv & \quad \text{extern int t;}
& \quad \text{extern char *token;}
& \quad \text{extern Symbol tsym;}
& \quad \text{extern Coordinate src;}
\end{align*}
\]

gettok returns the next token. getchr returns, but does not consume, the next nonwhite-space character. The values returned by gettok are the characters themselves (for single-character tokens), enumeration constants (such as IF) for the keywords, and the following defined constants for the others:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ID</td>
<td>identifiers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCON</td>
<td>floating constants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICON</td>
<td>integer constants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCON</td>
<td>string constants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INCR</td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DECR</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEREF</td>
<td>-&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANDAND</td>
<td>&amp;&amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OROR</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEQ</td>
<td>&lt;=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EQL</td>
<td>==</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEQ</td>
<td>!=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEQ</td>
<td>&gt;=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSHIFT</td>
<td>&gt;&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSHIFT</td>
<td>&lt;&lt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELLIPSIS</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EOI</td>
<td>end of input</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These constants are defined by

```c
(lex.c exported types) ≡
   enum {
      #define xx(a,b,c,d,e,f,g) a=b,
      #define yy(a,b,c,d,e,f,g)
      #include "token.h"
          LAST
   };
```

where `token.h` is a file with 256 lines like

```c
(token.h) ≡
    yy(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)
xx(FLOAT, 1, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "float")
xx(DOUBLE, 2, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "double")
xx(CHAR, 3, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "char")
xx(SHORT, 4, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "short")
xx(INT, 5, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "int")
xx(UNSIGNED, 6, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "unsigned")
xx(POINTER, 7, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)
xx(VOID, 8, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "void")
xx(ENUM, 13, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "enum")
xx(LONG, 14, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "long")
xx(CONST, 15, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "const")
xx(VOLATILE, 16, 0, 0, 0, CHAR, "volatile")
```

`token.h` uses macros to collect everything about each token or symbolic constant into one place. Each line in `token.h` gives seven values of interest for the token as arguments to either `xx` or `yy`. The token codes are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Token</th>
<th>Value 1</th>
<th>Value 2</th>
<th>Value 3</th>
<th>Value 4</th>
<th>Value 5</th>
<th>Value 6</th>
<th>Value 7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MUL</td>
<td>42, 13</td>
<td>multree, ID</td>
<td>&quot;*&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD</td>
<td>43, 12</td>
<td>addtree, ID</td>
<td>&quot;+&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEREF</td>
<td>49, 0</td>
<td>subtreem, ID</td>
<td>&quot;-&gt;&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEREF</td>
<td>49, 0</td>
<td>subtreem, ID</td>
<td>&quot;-&gt;&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
given by the values in the second column. token.h is read to define symbols, build arrays indexed by token, and so forth, and using it guarantees that such definitions are synchronized with one another. This technique is common in assembler language programming.

Single-character tokens have yy lines and multicharacter tokens and other definitions have xx lines. The first column in xx is the enumeration identifier. The other columns give the identifier or character value, the precedence if the token is an operator (Section 8.3), the generic operator (Section 5.5), the tree-building function (Section 9.4), the token’s set (Section 7.6), and the string representation.

These columns are extracted for different purposes by defining the xx and yy macros and including token.h again. The enumeration definition above illustrates this technique; it defines xx so that each expansion defines one member of the enumeration. For example, the xx line for DECR expands to

```
DECR=48,
```

and thus defines DECR to an enumeration constant with the value 48. yy is defined to have no replacement, which effectively ignores the yy lines.

The global variable t is often used to hold the current token, so most calls to gettok use the idiom

```
t = gettok();
```

token, tsym, and src hold the values associated with the current token, if there are any. token is the source text for the token itself, and tsym is a Symbol for some tokens, such as identifiers and constants. src is the source coordinate for the current token.

gettok could return a structure containing the token code and the associated values, or a pointer to such a structure. Since most calls to gettok examine only the token code, this kind of encapsulation does not add significant capability. Also, gettok is the most frequently called function in the compiler; a simple interface makes the code easier to read.

gettok recognizes a token by switching on its first character, which classifies the token, and consuming subsequent characters that make up the token. For some tokens, these characters are given by one or more of the sets defined by map. map[c] is a mask that classifies character c as a member of one or more of six sets:

```
⟨lex.c types⟩≡
enum { BLANK=01, NEWLINE=02, LETTER=04,
      DIGIT=010, HEX=020, OTHER=040 }
;
```

```
⟨lex.c data⟩≡
static unsigned char map[256] = { ⟨map initializer⟩ };
```
map[c]&BLANK is nonzero if c is a white-space character other than a newline. Newlines are excluded because hitting one requires gettok to call nextline. The other values identify other subsets of characters: NEWLINE is the set consisting of just the newline character, LETTER is the set of upper- and lowercase letters, DIGIT is the set of digits 0–9, HEX is the set of digits 0–9, a–f, and A–F, and OTHER is the set that holds the rest of the ASCII characters that are in the source and execution character sets specified by the standard. If map[c] is zero, c is not guaranteed to be acceptable to all ANSI C compilers, which, somewhat surprisingly, is the case for $, @, and '.

gettok is a large function, but the switch statement that dispatches on the token's first character divides it into manageable pieces:

\[\text{lex.c macros}\equiv\]
\[
\text{#define MAXTOKEN 32}
\]

\[\text{lex.c functions}\equiv\]
\[
\text{int gettok() \{ for (;;) \{ register unsigned char *rcp = cp; (skip white space) if (limit - rcp < MAXTOKEN) \{ cp = rcp; fillbuf(); rcp = cp; \} src.file = file; src.x = (char *)rcp - line; src.y = lineno; cp = rcp + 1; switch (*rcp++) \{ (gettok cases) default: if ((map[cp[-1]]&BLANK) == 0) (illegal character) \} \}}\]

gettok begins by skipping over white space and then checking that there is at least one token in the input buffer. If there isn't, calling fillbuf ensures that there is. MAXTOKEN applies to all tokens except identifiers, string literals, and numeric constants; occurrences of these tokens that are longer than MAXTOKEN characters are handled explicitly in the code for those tokens. The standard permits compilers to limit string literals to 509 characters and identifiers to 31 characters. lcc increases these
limits to 4,096 (BUFSIZE) and 512 (MAXLINE) to accommodate programs that emit C programs, because these emitted programs may contain long identifiers.

Instead of using cp as suggested in Section 6.1, gettok copies cp to the register variable rcp upon entry, and uses rcp in token recognition. gettok copies rcp back to cp before it returns, and before calls to nextline and fillbuf. Using rcp improves performance and makes scanning loops compact and fast. For example, white space is elided by

\[\text{〈skip white space 112}}\equiv\]

\[\text{while (map[*rcp] & BLANK)}\]

\[\text{rcp++;}\]

Using a register variable to index map generates efficient code where it counts. These kinds of scans examine every character in the input, and they examine characters by accessing the input buffer directly. Some optimizing compilers can make similar improvements locally, but not across potentially aliased assignments and calls to other, irrelevant functions.

Each of the sections below describes one of the cases in 〈gettok cases 112}. The cases omitted from this book are

\[\text{〈gettok cases 112}}+≡\]

\[\text{case '/': 〈comment or /}}\]

\[\text{case 'L': 〈wide-character constants}}\]

\[\text{〈cases for two-character operators}}\]

\[\text{〈cases for one-character operators and punctuation}}\]

gettok calls nextline when it trips over a newline or one of its synonyms:

\[\text{〈gettok cases 112}}+≡\]

\[\text{case 'n': case 'v': case 'r': case 'f':}\]

\[\text{nextline();}\]

\[\text{if (〈end of input 112}}\}\{
\text{tsym = NULL;}\]

\[\text{return EOI;}\]

\[\text{}\}

\[\text{continue;}\]

\[\text{〈end of input 112}}≡\]

\[\text{cp == limit}\]

When control reaches this case, cp points to the character that follows the newline; when nextline returns, cp still points to that character, and cp is less than limit. End of file is the exception: here, cp equals limit. Testing for this condition is rarely needed, because *cp will always be a newline, which terminates the scans for most tokens.
The sections below describe the remaining cases. Recognizing the tokens themselves is relatively straightforward; computing the associated values for some token is what complicates each case.

### 6.3 Recognizing Keywords

There are 28 keywords:

```plaintext
keyword: one of
    auto      double     int      struct
    break     else        long     switch
    char      extern      return    union
    const     float       short    unsigned
    continue  for         signed    void
    default   goto        sizeof    volatile
    do        if          static    while
```

Keywords could be recognized through a look-up in a table in which each keyword entry carries its token code and each built-in type entry carries its type. Instead, keywords are recognized by a hard-coded decision tree, which is faster than searching a table and nearly as simple. The cases for the lowercase letters that begin keywords make explicit tests for the keywords, which are possible because the entire token must appear in the input buffer. For example, the case for `i` is

```plaintext
\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{\langle gettok \ cases 112\rangle +=
    case 'i':
        if (rcp[0] == 'f'
            && !(map[rcp[1]]&(DIGIT|LETTER))) {
            cp = rcp + 1;
            return IF;
        }
        if (rcp[0] == 'n'
            && rcp[1] == 't'
            && !(map[rcp[2]]&(DIGIT|LETTER))) {
            cp = rcp + 2;
            tsym = inttype->u.sym;
            return INT;
        }
        goto id;
\end{verbatim}
```

`id` labels the code in the next section that scans identifiers. If the token is `if` or `int`, `cp` is updated and the appropriate token code is returned; otherwise, the token is an identifier. For `int`, `tsym` holds the symbol-table entry for the type `int`. The cases for the characters `abcdefglrsuvw` are similar, and were generated automatically by a short program.
The code generated for these fragments is short and fast. For example, on most machines, \texttt{int} is recognized by less than a dozen instructions, many fewer than are executed when a table is searched for keywords, even if perfect hashing is used.

### 6.4 Recognizing Identifiers

The syntax for identifiers is

\begin{verbatim}
identifier: nondigit { nondigit | digit }
digit: one of 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
nondigit: one of \texttt{\_} abcdefgihijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
          ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
\end{verbatim}

The code echoes this syntax, but must also cope with the possibility of identifiers that are longer than \texttt{MAXTOKEN} characters and thus might be split across input buffers.

```c
(unsigned int) gettok cases \{ case 'h': case 'j': case 'k': case 'm': case 'n': case 'o':
                        case 'p': case 'q': case 'x': case 'y': case 'z':
                        case 'A': case 'B': case 'C': case 'D': case 'E': case 'F':
                        case 'G': case 'H': case 'I': case 'J': case 'K':
                        case 'M': case 'N': case 'O': case 'P': case 'Q': case 'R':
                        case 'S': case 'T': case 'U': case 'V': case 'W': case 'X':
                        case 'Y': case 'Z': case '\_':
id:
  \{ ensure there are at least \texttt{MAXLINE} characters \}
  token = (char *) rcp - 1;
  while (map[*rcp]&(DIGIT|LETTER))
    rcp++;
  token = stringn(token, (char *) rcp - token);
  \{ tsym ← type named by token \}
  cp = rcp;
  return ID;
```

All identifiers are saved in the string table. At the entry to this and all cases, both \texttt{cp} and \texttt{rcp} have been incremented past the first character of the token. If the input buffer holds less than \texttt{MAXLINE} characters,
cp is backed up one character to point to the identifier's first character, fillbuf is called to replenish the input buffer, and cp and rcp are adjusted to point to the identifier's second character as before:

\[
\text{(ensure there are at least } \text{MAXLINE characters)} \equiv \text{if (limit - rcp < MAXLINE)} \{ \\
cp = rcp - 1; \\
\text{fillbuf();} \\
rcp = ++cp; \\
\}\n\]

A typedef makes an identifier a synonym for a type, and these names are installed in the identifiers table. gettok thus sets tsym to the symbol-table entry for token, if there is one:

\[
\text{(tsym ← type named by token)} \equiv \\
tsym = \text{lookup(token, identifiers);}
\]

If token names a type, tsym is set to the symbol-table entry for that type, and tsym->sclass will be equal to TYPEDEF. Otherwise, tsym is null or the identifier isn't a type name. The macro

\[
\text{(lex.c exported macros)} \equiv \\
#define istypename(t,tsym) \text{(kind[t] == CHAR } \text{|| t == ID && tsym && tsym->sclass == TYPEDEF)}
\]

encapsulates testing if the current token is a type name: A type name is either one of the keywords that names a type, such as int, or an identifier that is a typedef for a type. The global variables t and tsym are the only valid arguments to istypename.

### 6.5 Recognizing Numbers

There are four kinds of numeric constants in ANSI C:

- constant:
  - floating-constant
  - integer-constant
  - enumeration-constant
  - character-constant

- enumeration-constant:
  - identifier

The code for identifiers shown in the previous section handles enumeration constants, and the code in Section 6.6 handles character constants. The lexical analyzer returns the token code ID and sets tsym to the symbol-table entry for the enumeration constant. The caller checks for
an enumeration constant and uses the appropriate integer in its place; the code in Section 8.8 is an instance of this convention.

There are three kinds of integer constants:

\[
\text{integer-constant:}
\]
\[
\text{decimal-constant \[ integer-suffix \]}
\]
\[
\text{octal-constant \[ integer-suffix \]}
\]
\[
\text{hexadecimal-constant \[ integer-suffix \]}
\]

\[
\text{integer-suffix:}
\]
\[
\text{unsigned-suffix \[ long-suffix \]}
\]
\[
\text{long-suffix \[ unsigned-suffix \]}
\]

\[
\text{unsigned-suffix:} \quad u \mid U
\]
\[
\text{long-suffix:} \quad l \mid L
\]

The first few characters of the integer constant help identify its kind.

\[
\langle \text{gettok cases} \rangle \mathbin{+\equiv} \langle \text{ensure there are at least MAXLINE characters} \rangle
\]

\[
\text{case '0': case '1': case '2': case '3': case '4':}
\]
\[
\text{case '5': case '6': case '7': case '8': case '9':} \{
\]
\[
\text{unsigned int n = 0;}
\]
\[
\langle \text{decimal constant} \rangle
\]
\[
\text{token = (char *)rcp - 1;}
\]
\[
\text{if (*token == '0' \&\& (*rcp == 'x' || *rcp == 'X'))} \{
\]
\[
\langle \text{hexadecimal constant} \rangle
\]
\[
\} \text{ else if (*token == '0')} \{
\]
\[
\langle \text{octal constant} \rangle
\]
\[
\} \text{ else} \{
\]
\[
\langle \text{decimal constant} \rangle
\]
\[
\}
\]
\[
\text{return ICON;}
\]

As for identifiers, this case begins by insuring that the input buffer holds at least MAXLINE characters, which permits the code to look ahead, as the test for hexadecimal constants illustrates.

The fragments for the three kinds of integer constant set \( n \) to the value of the constant. They must not only recognize the constant, but also ensure that the constant is within the range of representable integers.

Recognizing decimal constants illustrates this processing. The syntax for decimal constants is:

\[
\text{decimal-constant:}
\]
\[
\text{nonzero-digit \{ digit \}}
\]

\[
\text{nonzero-digit:}
\]
\[
\text{one of 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9}
\]

The code accumulates the decimal value in \( n \) by repeated multiplications:
\textit{(decimal constant 117)}≡

\begin{verbatim}
       int overflow = 0;
       for (n = *token - '0'; map[*rcp]&DIGIT; ) {
           int d = *rcp++ - '0';
           if (n > ((unsigned)UINT_MAX - d)/10)
               overflow = 1;
           else
               n = 10*n + d;
       }
\end{verbatim}

\textit{(check for floating constant 117)}

\texttt{cp = rcp;}
\texttt{tsym = icon(n, overflow, 10);}

At each step, overflow will occur if \(10 \cdot n + d > \text{UINT\_MAX}\), where \text{UINT\_MAX} is the value of the largest representable unsigned number. Rearranging this equation gives the test shown above, which looks before it leaps into computing the new value of \(n\). \texttt{overflow} is set to one if the constant overflows. \texttt{icon} handles the optional suffixes.

A decimal constant is the prefix of a floating constant if the next character is a period or an exponent indicator:

\textit{(check for floating constant 117)}≡

\begin{verbatim}
       if (*rcp == '.' || *rcp == 'e' || *rcp == 'E') {
           cp = rcp;
           tsym = fcon();
           return FCON;
       }
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{fcon} is similar to \texttt{icon}; it recognizes the suffix of a floating constant. \texttt{overflow} will be one when a floating constant has a whole part that exceeds \text{UINT\_MAX}, but neither \(n\) nor \texttt{overflow} is passed to \texttt{fcon}, which reexamines \texttt{token} to check for floating overflow.

\texttt{icon} recognizes the optional U and L suffixes (in either case), warns about values that overflow, initializes a symbol to the appropriate type and value, and returns a pointer to the symbol

\textit{(lex.c data)}+≡

\begin{verbatim}
static struct symbol tval;
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{tval} serves only to provide the type and value of a constant to \texttt{gettok}'s caller. The caller must lift the relevant data before the next call to \texttt{gettok}.

\textit{(lex.c functions)}+≡

\begin{verbatim}
static Symbol icon(n, overflow, base)
unsigned n; int overflow, base; {
    if ((*cp=='u'||*cp=='U') && (cp[1]=='l'||cp[1]=='L')
     || (*cp=='l'||*cp=='L') && (cp[1]=='u'||cp[1]=='U')) {
        tval.type = unsignedlong;
    } else {
        if (map[*rcp]&DIGIT; ) {
            int d = *rcp++ - '0';
            if (n > ((unsigned)UINT_MAX - d)/10)
            overflow = 1;
            else
            n = 10*n + d;
        }
    }
}
\end{verbatim}
chap 6
Lexical Analysis

\[ cp += 2; \]
\[ } \]
\[ \] else if (*cp == 'u' || *cp == 'U') {
}\[ tval.type = unsignedtype; \]
\[ cp += 1; \]
\[ } \]
\[ \] else if (*cp == 'l' || *cp == 'L') {
}\[ if (n > (unsigned)LONG_MAX)
\]
\[ tval.type = unsignedlong; \]
\[ } \]
\[ else \]
\[ \]
\[ tval.type = longtype; \]
\[ cp += 1; \]
\[ } \]
\[ \] else if (base == 10 && n > (unsigned)LONG_MAX)
\[ tval.type = unsignedlong; \]
\[ } \]
\[ else if (n > (unsigned)INT_MAX)
\]
\[ tval.type = unsignedtype; \]
\[ } \]
\[ else \]
\[ \]
\[ tval.type = inttype; \]
\[ if (overflow) { \}
\]
\[ warning("overflow in constant 'S\"\n", token,
\]
\[ (char*)cp - token); \]
\[ n = LONG_MAX; \]
\[ } \]
\[ \]<tval's value 118>
\[ ppnumber("integer"); \]
\[ return \&tval; \]
\[ } \]

If both U and L appear, n is an unsigned long, and if only U appears, n is an unsigned. If only L appears, n is a long unless it’s too big, in which case it’s an unsigned long. n is also an unsigned long if it’s an unsuffixed decimal constant and it’s too big to be a long. Unsuffixed octal and hexadecimal constants are ints unless they’re too big, in which case they’re unsigneds. The format code %S prints a string like printf’s %s, but consumes an additional argument that specifies the length of the string. It can thus print strings that aren’t terminated by a null character.

The types int, long, and unsigned are different types, but lcc insists that they all have the same size. This constraint simplifies the tests shown above and the code that sets tval’s value:

\[ (set tval's value 118) \equiv \]
\[ \text{if (isunsigned(tval.type))} \]
\[ tval.u.c.v.u = n; \]
\[ else \]
\[ tval.u.c.v.i = n; \]

Relaxing this constraint would complicate this code and the tests above. For example, the standard specifies that the type of an unsuffixed decimal constant is int, long, or unsigned long, depending on its value. In
1cc, ints and longs can accommodate the same range of integers, so an unsuffixed decimal constant is either int or unsigned.

A numeric constant is formed from a preprocessing number, which is the numeric constant recognized by the C preprocessor. Unfortunately, the standard specifies preprocessing numbers that are a superset of the integer and floating constants; that is, a valid preprocessing number may not be a valid numeric constant. 123.4.5 is an example. The preprocessor deals with such numbers too, but it may pass them on to the compiler, which must treat them as single tokens and thus must catch preprocessing numbers that aren’t valid constants.

The syntax of a preprocessing number is

\[
\text{pp-number:} \\
\left[ . \right] \text{digit} \left\{ \text{digit} \mid . \mid \text{nondigit} \mid \text{E sign} \mid \text{e sign} \right\}
\]

\[
\text{sign:} - \mid +
\]

Valid numeric constants are prefixes of preprocessing numbers, so the processing in icon and fcon might conclude successfully without consuming the complete preprocessing number, which is an error. ppnumber is called from icon, and fcon and checks for this case.

\[
\langle \text{lex.c functions} \rangle +\equiv
\]

static void ppnumber(which) char *which; {
unsigned char *rcp = cp--;

for (; (map[*cp]&(DIGIT|LETTER)) || *cp == '.'; cp++)
    if ((cp[0] == 'E' || cp[0] == 'e')
        cp++;
    if (cp > rcp)
        error("'%S' is a preprocessing number but an _
        invalid %s constant\n", token,
        (char*)cp-token, which);
}

ppnumber backs up one character and skips over the characters that may comprise a preprocessing number; if it scans past the end of the numeric token, there’s an error.

fcon recognizes the suffix of floating constants and is called in two places. One of the calls is shown above in \langle check for floating constant \rangle. The other call is from the gettok case for ‘.’:

\[
\langle \text{gettok cases} \rangle +\equiv
\]

case '.':
    if (rcp[0] == '.' && rcp[1] == '.') {
        cp += 2;
        return ELLIPSIS;
    }
if ((map[*rcp] & DIGIT) == 0)  
    return ' .';
(ensure there are at least MAXLINE characters)

cp = rcp - 1;
token = (char *) cp;
tsym = fcon();
return FCON;

The syntax for floating constants is

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{floating-constant:} & \quad \text{fractional-constant} \ [ \text{exponent-part} ] \ [ \text{floating-suffix} ] \\
& \quad \text{digit-sequence} \ \text{exponent-part} \ [ \text{floating-suffix} ]
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{fractional-constant:} & \quad [ \ \text{digit-sequence} ] \ . \ \text{digit-sequence} \\
& \quad \text{digit-sequence} \\
\text{exponent-part:} & \quad e [ \ \text{sign} ] \ \text{digit-sequence} \\
& \quad E [ \ \text{sign} ] \ \text{digit-sequence}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\text{digit-sequence:} \\
\quad \text{digit} \ \{ \ \text{digit} \}
\]

\[
\text{floating-suffix:} \\
\quad \text{one of F L F L}
\]

fcon recognizes a floating-constant, converts the token to a double value, and determines tval’s type and value:

(lex.c functions) \+ \equiv

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{static Symbol fcon() \{} & \quad \text{(scan past a floating constant)} \quad \text{121)} \\
& \quad \text{errno = 0;} \\
& \quad \text{tval.}\text{u.c.v.d} = \text{strtod(token, NULL);} \\
& \quad \text{if (errno == ERANGE)} \\
& \quad \quad \text{(warn about overflow)} \quad \text{120)} \\
& \quad \quad \text{(set tval’s type and value)} \quad \text{121)} \\
& \quad \quad \text{ppnumber("floating");} \\
& \quad \quad \text{return &tval;}
\end{align*}
\]

(warn about overflow) \equiv

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{warning("overflow in floating constant '%S'\n", token,} \\
& \quad (\text{char}* ) \ \text{cp - token)};
\end{align*}
\]

strtod is a C library function that interprets its first string argument as a floating constant and returns the corresponding double value. If the
constant is out of range, *strtol* sets the global variable *errno* to ERANGE as stipulated by the ANSI C specification for the C library.

A floating constant follows the syntax shown above, and is recognized by:

$$\langle\text{scan past a floating constant}\rangle \equiv$$

```c
if (*cp == '.')
\langle\text{scan past a run of digits}\rangle
if (*cp == 'e' || *cp == 'E') {
  if (*++cp == '-' || *cp == '+')
    cp++;
  if (map[*cp]&DIGIT)
    \langle\text{scan past a run of digits}\rangle
  else
    error("invalid floating constant 'X'\n", token,
          (char*)cp - token);
}
```

$$\langle\text{scan past a run of digits}\rangle \equiv$$

```c
do
  cp++;
while (map[*cp]&DIGIT);
```

As dictated by the syntax, an exponent indicator must be followed by at least one digit.

A floating constant may have an F or L suffix (but not both); these specify the types float and long double, respectively.

$$\langle\text{set tval's type and value}\rangle \equiv$$

```c
if (*cp == 'f' || *cp == 'F') {
  ++cp;
  if (tval.u.c.v.d > FLT_MAX)
    \langle\text{warn about overflow}\rangle
  tval.type = floattype;
  tval.u.c.v.f = tval.u.c.v.d;
} else if (*cp == 'l' || *cp == 'L') {
  cp++;
  tval.type = longdouble;
} else
  tval.type = doubletype;
```

## 6.6 Recognizing Character Constants and Strings

Recognizing character constants and string literals is complicated by escape sequences like \n, \034, \xFF, and \", and by wide-character constants. lcc implements so-called wide characters as normal ASCII char-
acters, and thus uses unsigned char for the type wchar_t. The syntax is

\[ \text{character-constant:} \]
\[ [ L ] 'c-char \{ c-char \}' \]
\[ c-char: \]
\[ \text{any character except '}, \text{\}, or newline} \]
\[ escape-sequence \]
\[ escape-sequence: \]
\[ \text{one of '}, 'a', 'b', 'f', 'n', 'r', 't', 'v} \]
\[ \text{octal-digit [ octal-digit [ octal-digit ]]} \]
\[ \text{hexadecimal-digit [ hexadecimal-digit ]} \]
\[ \text{string-literal:} \]
\[ [ L ] "\{ s-char \}" \]
\[ s-char: \]
\[ \text{any character except '}, \text{\}, or newline} \]
\[ escape-sequence \]

String literals can span more than one line if a backslash immediately precedes the newline. Adjacent string literals are automatically concatenated together to form a single literal. In a proper ANSI C implementation, this line splicing and string literal concatenation is done by the preprocessor, and the compiler sees only single, uninterrupted string literals. 1cc implements line splicing and concatenation for string literals anyway, so that it can be used with pre-ANSI preprocessors.

Implementing these features means that string literals can be longer than MAXLINE characters, so \{\text{ensure there are at least \text{MAXLINE characters}}\} cannot be used to ensure that a sequence of adjacent entire string literals appears in the input buffer. Instead, the code must detect the newline at limit and call nextline explicitly, and it must copy the literal into a private buffer.

\{\text{gettok cases 112}\} \begin{align*} \text{scon:} & \\
\text{case '}'': \text{ case '':} & \\
\text{static char cbuf[BUFSIZE+1];} & \\
\text{char *s = cbuf;} & \\
\text{int nbad = 0;} & \\
\text{*s++ = *--cp;} & \\
\text{do} & \\
\text{cp++;} & \\
\text{scan one string literal 123} & \\
\text{if (*cp == cbuf[0])} & \\
\text{cp++;} & \\
\text{else} & \end{align*} Pvt 119 111
RECOGNIZING CHARACTER CONSTANTS AND STRINGS

The outer do-while loop gathers up adjacent string literals, which are identified by their leading double quote character, into `cbuf`, and reports those that are too long. The leading character also determines the type of the associated value and `gettok`'s return value:

```c
(set tval and return ICON or SCON 123) ≡
```

```c
token = cbuf;
tsym = &tval;
if (cbuf[0] == '"') {
    tval.type = array(chartype, s - cbuf - 1, 0);
    tval.u.c.v.p = cbuf + 1;
    return SCON;
} else {
    if (s - cbuf > 3)
        warning("excess characters in multibyte character _
        literal '%S' ignored\n", token, (char*)cp-token);
    else if (s - cbuf <= 2)
        error("missing '\n'\n");
    tval.type = inttype;
    tval.u.c.v.i = cbuf[1];
    return ICON;
}
```

String literals can contain null characters as the result of the escape sequence \0, so the length of the literal is given by its type: An \( n \)-character literal has the type `(ARRAY \( n \) (CHAR))` (\( n \) does not include the double quotes). `gettok`'s callers, such as `primary`, call `stringn` when they want to save the string literal referenced by `tval`.

The code below, which scans a string literal or character constant, copes with four situations: newlines at `limit`, escape sequences, non-ANSI characters, and literals that exceed the size of `cbuf`.

```c
(scan one string literal 123) ≡
```

```c
while (*cp != cbuf[0]) {
    int c;
    if (map[*cp]&NEWLINE) {
        if (cp < limit)
break;
cp++;
nextline();
if (end of input)
    break;
continue;
}
c = *cp++;
if (c == '\') {
    if (map[*cp] & NEWLINE) {
        if (cp < limit)
            break;
        cp++;
        nextline();
    }
    if (limit - cp < MAXTOKEN)
        fillbuf();
    c = backslash(cbuf[0]);
} else if (map[c] == 0)
nbad++;
if (s < &cbuf[ sizeof cbuf] - 2)
    *s++ = c;
}

If *limit is a newline, it serves only to terminate the buffer, and is thus ignored unless there's no more input. Other newlines (those for which cp is less than limit) and the one at the end of file terminate the while loop without advancing cp. backslash interprets the escape sequences described above; see Exercise 6.10. nbad counts the number of non-ANSI characters that appear in the literal; lcc's -A option causes warnings about literals that contain such characters or that are longer than ANSI's 509-character guarantee.

**Further Reading**

The input module is based on the design described by Waite (1986). The difference is that Waite's algorithm moves one partial line instead of potentially several partial lines or tokens, and does so after scanning the first newline in the buffer. But this operation overwrites storage before the buffer when a partial line is longer than a fixed maximum. The algorithm above avoids this problem, but at the per-token cost of comparing limit-cp with MAXTOKEN.

Lexical analyzers can be generated from a regular-expression specification of the lexical structure of the language. LEX (Lesk 1975), which is available on UNIX, is perhaps the best known example. Schreiner and
Friedman (1985) use LEX in their sample compilers, and Holub (1990) details an implementation of a similar tool. More recent generators, such as flex, re2c (Bumbulis and Cowan 1993), and ELI's scanner generator (Gray et al. 1992; Heuring 1986), produce lexical analyzers that are much faster and smaller than those produced by LEX. On some computers, ELI and re2c produce lexical analyzers that are faster than lcc's. ELI originated some of the techniques used in lcc's gettok.

A “perfect” hash function is one that maps each word from a known set into a different hash number (Cichelli 1980; Jaeschke and Osterburg 1980; Sager 1985). Some compilers use perfect hashing for keywords, but the hashing itself usually takes more instructions than lcc uses to recognize keywords.

lcc relies on the library function strtod to convert the string representation of a floating constant to its corresponding double value. Doing this conversion as accurately as possible is complicated; Clinger (1990) shows that it may require arithmetic of arbitrary precision in some cases. Many implementations of strtod are based on Clinger’s algorithm. The opposite problem — converting a double to its string representation — is just as laborious. Steele and White (1990) give the gory details.

### Exercises

6.1 What happens if a line longer than BUFSIZE characters appears in the input? Are zero-length lines handled properly?

6.2 The C preprocessor emits lines of the form

```c
# n "file"
#line n "file"
#line n
```

These lines are used to reset the current line number and file name to n and file, respectively, so that error messages refer to the correct file. In the third form, the current file name remains unchanged. resynch, called by nextline, recognizes these lines and resets file and lineno accordingly. Implement resynch.

6.3 In many implementations of C, the preprocessor runs as a separate program with its output passed along as the input to the compiler. Implement the preprocessor as an integral part of input.c, and measure the resulting improvement. Be warned: Writing a preprocessor is a big job with many pitfalls. The only definitive specification for the preprocessor is the ANSI standard.

6.4 Implement the fragments omitted from gettok.
6.5 What happens when lcc reads an identifier longer than MAXLINE characters?

6.6 Implement int getchr(void).

6.7 Try perfect hashing for the keywords. Does it beat the current implementation?

6.8 The syntax for octal constants is

\[
\text{octal-constant:}
\]
\[
\phantom{0} \{ \text{octal-digit} \}
\]
\[
\text{octal-digit:}
\]
\[
\phantom{0} \text{one of 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7}
\]

Write \textit{octal constant}. Be careful; an octal constant is a valid prefix of a floating constant, and octal constants can overflow.

6.9 The syntax for hexadecimal constants is

\[
\text{hexadecimal-constant:}
\]
\[
(0x | 0X) \text{hexadecimal-digit} \{ \text{hexadecimal-digit} \}
\]
\[
\text{hexadecimal-digit:}
\]
\[
\phantom{0} \text{one of 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 a b c d e f A B C D E F}
\]

Write \textit{hexadecimal constant}. Don't forget to handle overflow.

6.10 Implement

\textit{lex.c prototypes} ≡

\[
\text{static int backslash ARGS((int q));}
\]

which interprets a single escape sequence beginning at \texttt{cp}. \texttt{q} is either a single or double quote, and thus distinguishes between character constants and string literals.

6.11 Implement the code for \textit{wide-character constants}. Remember that \texttt{wchar_t} is unsigned char, so the value of the constant \texttt{L'\377'} is 255, not \texttt{−1}.

6.12 Reimplement the lexical analyzer using LEX or an equivalent program generator, and compare the two implementations. Which is faster? Smaller? Which is easier to understand? Modify?

6.13 How many instructions is \textit{skip white space} on your machine? How many would it be if it used \texttt{cp} instead of \texttt{rcp}?

6.14 Write a program to generate the \textit{gettok cases} for the C keywords.

6.15 lcc assumes that int and long (signed and unsigned) have the same size. Revise \texttt{icon} to remove this regrettable assumption.