





COMPILER CONSTRUCTION

Grammars and Parsing













Chapter 4 Grammars and Parsing











Why Grammar?

- Grammar rules of natural languages, such as English or Chinese
 - Define proper sentence structure, e.g., defining phrases in terms of subjects, verbs, and objects; and phrases and conjunctions
 - Served as a tool for diagnosing malformed sentences (validity check)
- It is possible to construct sentences in a natural language
 - that are grammatically correct
 - but still make no sense









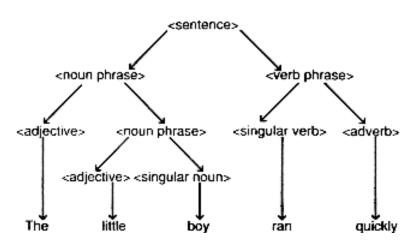




Why Grammar? (Cont'd)

- A structured sentence can be diagrammed
 - to show how its components conform to a language's grammar
 - Grammars can also explain what is absent or superfluous in a malformed sentence
- Ambiguity of a sentence
 - Can often be explained by providing multiple diagrams for the same sentence

``The little boy ran quickly" can be diagrammed as:















Grammars for Programming Languages

- Modern programming languages
 - contain a **grammar in their specification** as a guide to those who teach, study, or use the language

- A compiler front-end for the language
 - Scans for tokens in input stream based on the regular sets
 - Parses the structures formed by the tokens using the grammar that specifies a programming language's syntax











This Chapter is for CFGs

- We discuss the basics of **context-free grammars** (CFGs) in Ch. 2
- In Ch. 4 we
 - formalize the definition and notation for CFGs and
 - present algorithms that analyze such grammars in preparation for the parsing techniques covered in Ch. 5 and 6



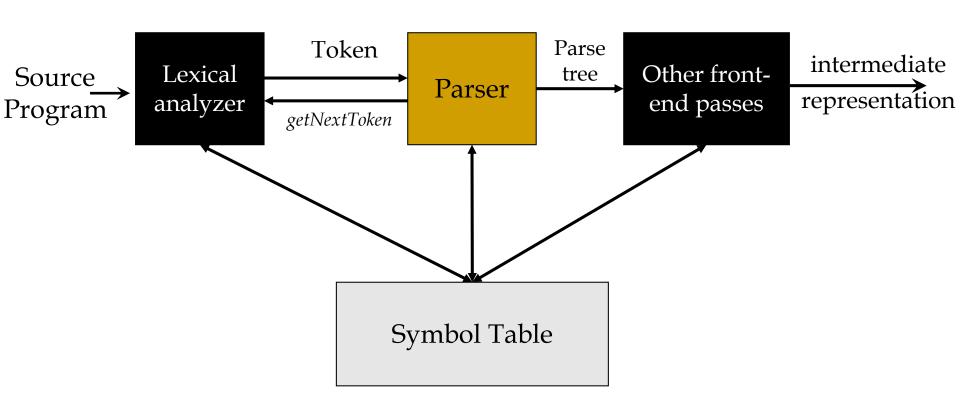








The Role of the Parser









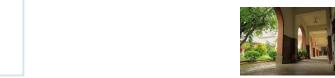


Context-Free Grammar

- Context-free grammar is a 4-tuple $G = \langle \Sigma, N, P, S \rangle$ where
 - Σ is a finite set of **terminal alphabet**, which is the set of tokens produced by the scanner
 - − *N* is a finite set of **nonterminal alphabet**
 - -P is a finite set of **productions** of the form $A \rightarrow \beta$ where $A \in N$ and $\beta \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*$
 - -S ∈ N is a designated **start symbol**, which initiates all derivations













Conventions

- Terminals
 - $a, b, c, \ldots \in \Sigma$
 - More example: 0, 1, +, *, id, if
- Nonterminals
 - A, B, C, ... ∈ N
 - More example: *expr*, *term*, *stmt*
- Grammar symbols
 - X, Y, $Z \in (N \cup \Sigma)$
- Strings of grammar symbols (sentential form)
 - $-\alpha$, β , $\gamma \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*$
- The head of the first production is often the start symbol





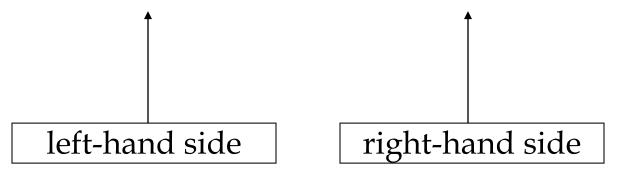






Production Rules

- A grammar consists of a set of production rules and a start symbol (left symbol of first rule)
- A **production rule** consists of two parts: a left-hand side and a right-hand side
 - ex: expression → expression '+' term











Production Rules (Cont.)

- The **left-hand side** (LHS) is the **name** of the syntactic construct
- The right-hand side (RHS) shows a possible form of the syntactic construct

• E.g., there are **two possible forms** (rules) derived by **the name** "expression":

```
expression → expression '+' term (rule 1) expression → expression '-' term (rule 2)
```











Production Rules (Cont.)

- LHS must be a single **non-terminal** symbol (or *non-terminal*)
- RHS of a production rule can contain zero or more terminals and non-terminals
- A **terminal symbol** (or *terminal*) is a grammar symbol
 - that cannot be rewritten
 - Is also an end point of the production process, also called **token**
 - Use lower-case letters such as a and b
- A **non-terminal symbol** (or *non-terminal*) is able to be rewritten
 - Use upper-case letters such as A, B, and S
- Non-terminal and terminal together are called grammar symbols (or vocabulary)





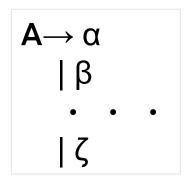




Different Forms of Production Rules

- There is often more than one way to rewrite a given nonterminal
- For example, when multiple productions share the same LHS symbol, it could be presented in one of the two forms

$$A \rightarrow \alpha$$
 $A \rightarrow \beta$
 $A \rightarrow \zeta$ (Zeta)















Derivations of Production Rules

Derivation

 The rewriting step replaces a nonterminal by the RHS of one of its production rules

Example:

- If $A \rightarrow \zeta$ is a production, then $\alpha A \beta \Rightarrow \alpha \zeta \beta$ denotes one step of a derivation using this production
- The one-step derivation can be denoted as $\alpha A\beta \Rightarrow \alpha \zeta\beta$
- The sequence of replacement a derivation of ζ from A













Notation for Derivations

- ⇒ derives in one step
- ⇒ derives in one or more steps
- ⇒ derives in zero or more steps
- \Rightarrow_{lm} refers to **leftmost derivation**, which expands nonterminals left to right
- \Rightarrow_{rm} refers to **right most derivation**, which expands nonterminals right to left
- Example:
 - $\alpha A\beta \Rightarrow \alpha \zeta \beta$
 - is leftmost derivation, if α does not contain a nonterminal
 - is rightmost derivation, if β does not contain a nonterminal













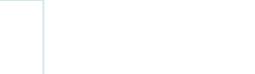
More about the Grammar

- We say that α is a **sentential form** of G
 - if $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha$, where S is the start symbol of a grammar G
 - Note that a sentential form may contain both terminals and nonterminals, and may be empty

- A sentence of G is a sentential form with no nonterminals
- The language generated by a grammar is its set of sentences
 - Hence, a string of terminals w is in L(G), the language generated by G, if and only if w is a sentence of G (or $S \Rightarrow^* w$)













Example of Rule Derivations

- Given the production rules:
 - $\exp r \rightarrow '('\exp r \circ p \cdot \exp r')'$
 - $expr \rightarrow '1'$

 - $\begin{array}{ccc} & op \rightarrow & '+' \\ & op \rightarrow & '*' \end{array}$









Example of Rule Derivations (Cont'd)

- Derivation of the string (1*(1+1))
 - expr
 - '('expr op expr ')'
 - '(' '1' op expr ')'
 - '(' '1' '*' expr ')'
 - '(' '1' '*' '('expr op expr ')' ')'
 - '(' '1' '*' '(' '1' op expr ')' ')'
 - '(' '1' '*' '(' '1' '\frac{1}{4}' expr ')' ')'
 - '(' '1' '*' '(' '1' '+' '1' ')' ')'

- $expr \rightarrow '('expr op expr ')'$
- $expr \rightarrow '1'$
- $\mathsf{op} \to \mathsf{'+}$
- $op \rightarrow "$

- Each of the strings is a sentential form
- The *strings* refer to expr, '('expr op expr ')', '(' '1' op expr ')', '(' '1' '*' expr ')', etc.
- It forms a **leftmost derivation**, in which the leftmost nonterminal is always rewritten in each sentential form







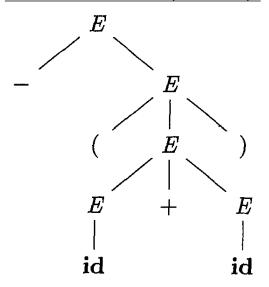


A CFG Example

•
$$G = \langle \Sigma, N, P, S \rangle$$

- $\Sigma = \{+, *, (,), -, id\}$
- $N = \{E\}$
- $P = E \rightarrow E + E$
 $E \rightarrow E * E$
 $E \rightarrow (E)$
 $E \rightarrow -E$
 $E \rightarrow id$
- $S = E$

Parse tree for -(id + id)



- Is the string –(id + id) a sentence of G?
 - Yes, there is a derivation of the given string

$$\rightarrow$$
 $E \Rightarrow_{lm} - E \Rightarrow_{lm} -(E) \Rightarrow_{lm} -(E+E) \Rightarrow_{lm} -(id + E) \Rightarrow_{lm} -(id + id)$

- The strings E, E, (E) , . . . , (id + id) are all sentential forms of this grammar
 - We write $E \Rightarrow^*$ (id + id) to indicate that (id + id) can be derived from E













You would ...

- Refer to Section 4.1 for more information
 - Examples of leftmost and right most derivations in Section 4.1.1 and 4.1.2
 - Parse Trees in Section 4.1.3

April 13, 2018 21













Properties of CFGs

- Some grammars have one or more of the following problems that preclude their use
 - (Reduced Grammar) The grammar may include useless symbols
 - (**Ambiguity**) The grammar may allow multiple, distinct derivations (parse trees) for some input string
 - (Faulty Language Definition) The grammar may include strings that do not belong in the language, or
 - the grammar may exclude strings that are in the language













We are ...

- going to know more about the ambiguity next
- You would ...
 - read Section 4.2.1 and 4.2.3 by yourself

April 13, 2018 2











Ambiguity

- A grammar that produces more than one parse tree for some sentence is said to be *ambiguous*
- Hence, an ambiguous grammar is one that produces
 - more than one leftmost derivation or
 - more than one rightmost derivation for the same sentence

April 13, 2018 24









Example of Ambiguous Grammar

- Given the sentence: id + id * id
- Production rules:

$$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$$

Two possible derviations:

$$E \rightarrow E + E$$

$$\rightarrow id + E$$

$$\rightarrow id + E * E$$

$$\rightarrow id + id * E$$

$$\rightarrow id + id * id$$

$$E \rightarrow E * E$$

$$\rightarrow E + E * E$$

$$\rightarrow id + E * E$$

$$\rightarrow id + id * E$$

$$\rightarrow id + id * id$$











Another Example

- Given the sentence: 9-5+2
- Production rules:

```
string → string + string

| string – string

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```

April 13, 2018 2



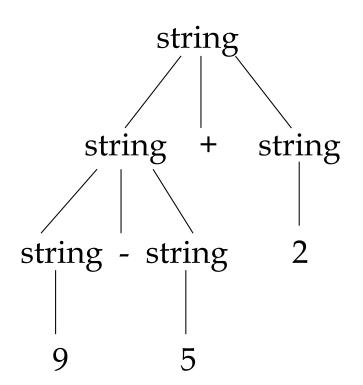


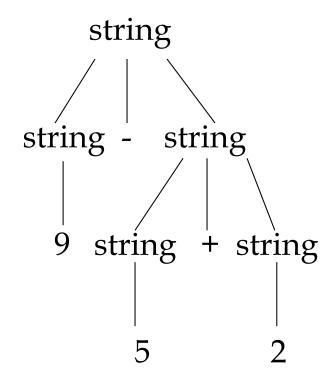






Another Example (Con'td)





April 13, 2018 27













To Deal with Ambiguity

 Disambiguating rules are used to throw away undesirable parse trees

- Two options to deal with ambiguity:
 - 1. Enforce precedence and associativity of the existing rules
 - 2. Rewrite the grammar (rules)









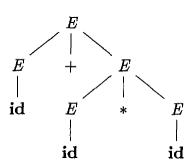


Precedence and Associativity to Resolve Conflicts

• The grammar G with the rules

$$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$$

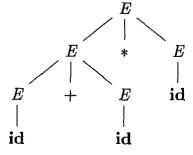
- G is **ambiguous** because
 - it does not specify the associativity or precedence of the operators + and *



• The following grammar G' with the rules

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

 $T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$
 $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$



- G' is **unambiguous** grammar that generates the same language
 - but gives + lower precedence than * (as the top figure), and makes both operators left associative
- There are parsers for both handling unambiguous and ambiguous grammars respectively









Precedence in the Grammar Rules

• The grammar G' with the rules

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

 $T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$
 $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$

- In G', it gives + lower precedence than *
 - The farther from the starting symbol is the production rule, the deeper its nodes will be nested in the derivation tree
 - Consequently, operators that are generated by production rules that are more distant from the starting symbol of the grammar tend to have higher precedence
 - This, of course, only applies if our evaluation algorithm starts by computing values from the leaves of the derivation tree towards its root

Curtesy of https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Introduction_to_Programming_Languages/Precedence_and_Associativity

April 13, 2018









31

Example

- Given the sentence: id+id*id
- The following grammar G' with the rules

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

 $T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$
 $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$

The corresponding derivations:

$$E \rightarrow E + T$$

$$\rightarrow T+T$$

$$\rightarrow F+T$$

$$\rightarrow id+T*F$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 id+ F * F

$$\rightarrow$$
 id+id* F

$$\rightarrow$$
 id+id*id









Left Associativity Grammar

 Consider the following grammar (productions) for numerical expressions constructed with the operation:

```
Exp \rightarrow Num \mid Exp - Exp

Term \rightarrow Term * Term \mid Num
```

- This grammar is ambiguous since it allows both the interpretations (5 3) 2 and 5 (3 2)
- If we want to impose the left-associativity (following the mathematical convention), it is sufficient to modify the productions in the following way:
 - $-Exp \rightarrow Num \mid Exp Num$



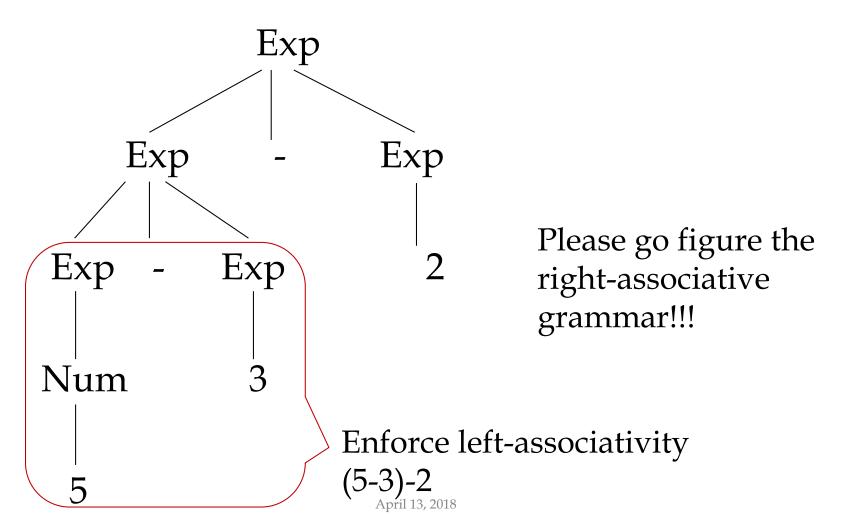






Parse Tree of Left-Associative Grammar

• Parse tree for **5-3-2**















Extended Grammars

- Backus-Naur Form (BNF)
 - is a **formal grammar** for expressing context-free grammars
- The single grammar rule format:
 - => Non-terminal → zero or more grammar symbols

 Actually, BNF extends the grammar notation defined above, with syntax for defining optional and repeated symbols









Optional Symbols

- Optional symbols are enclosed in square brackets
- In the production rule

$$A \rightarrow \alpha [X1...Xn] \beta$$

- the symbols $X1 \dots Xn$ are entirely present or absent between the symbols of α and β
- Refer to Fig. 4.4 for the algorithm to transform a BNF grammar into standard form









Repeated Symbols

- Repeated symbols are enclosed in braces
- In the production rule $B \rightarrow y \{ X1 ... Xm \} \delta$
 - the entire sequence of symbols X1 . . . Xm can be repeated zero or more times
 - Refer to Fig. 4.4 for the algorithm to transform a BNF grammar into standard form, which is accepted by parsers









Example of BNF

- The extensions are useful in representing many programming language constructs
- For example, in Java
 - Declarations can optionally include modifiers, such as final, static, and const, and
 - each declaration can include a *list* of identifiers
 - A production specifying a Java-like declaration could be as follows:
 Declaration→[final] [static] [const] Type identifier {, identifier}
 - Possible declarations:
 int a
 int a,b,c
 static int a
- This declaration insists that the modifiers be ordered as shown

April 13, 2018 37











Parsers and Recognizers

- Compilers are expected to
 - verify the syntactic validity of their inputs with respect to a grammar that
 - defines the programming language's syntax
- A recognizer is an algorithm determines if $x \in L(G)$, given a grammar G and an input string x
- A parser is a module that determines the string's validity and its *structure* (or *parse tree*)
 - The process of finding the structure (or building the parse tree) in the flat stream of tokens is called **parsing**













Two Parsing Approaches

- Top-down parsers
 - Left-scan, Leftmost derivation
 - Best-known parser in this category, called LL parsers
- Bottom-up parsers
 - Left-scan, Rightmost derivation in reverse
 - Best-known parser in this category, called LR parsers













Top-Down Parsers

- A parser is considered top-down
 - if it generates a parse tree by starting at the root of the tree (the start symbol),
 - expanding the tree by applying productions in a depth-first manner
 - It corresponds to a preorder traversal of the parse tree
- Top-down parsing techniques are predictive
 - because they always predict the production that is to be matched before matching actually begins







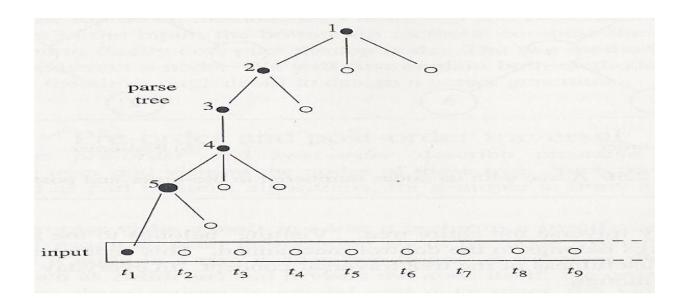




41

Illustration of Top-Down Parsing

 A top-down parser begins by constructing the top node of the parse tree, which is the start symbol















Bottom-Up Parsers

- The **bottom-up** parsers generate a parse tree by
 - starting at the tree's leaves and working toward its root
 - A node is inserted in the tree only after its children have been inserted
- A bottom-up parse corresponds to a postorder traversal of the parse tree







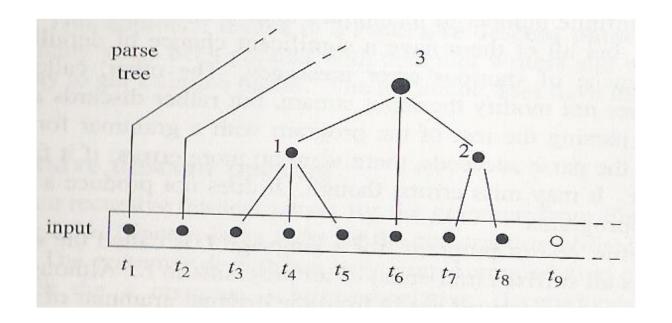




43

Illustration of Bottom-Up Parsing

• The bottom-up parsing method constructs the nodes in the parse tree in post-order





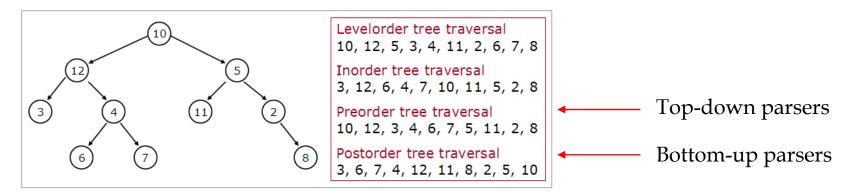






To Refresh Your (and My) Memory

Several ways for tree traversals



- When traversing a node N in pre-order
 - the process first visits the node \bar{N} and then traverses N's subtrees in left-to-right order
- When traversing a node N in post-order
 - the process first traverses N's subtrees in left-to-right order and then visits the node N

Quick note Preorder: Root, Left, Right Postorder: Left, Right, Root









Example of the Parsers

 An example grammar generates the skeletal block structure of a hypothetical programming language

```
1 Program \rightarrow begin Stmts end $
2 Stmts \rightarrow Stmt; Stmts
3 \mid \lambda
4 Stmt \rightarrow simplestmt
5 \mid begin Stmts end
```

• The Fig. 4.5 and 4.6 illustrate a top-down and bottomup parse of the given string:

begin simplestmt; simplestmt; end \$



Top-Down Parsing Example

Legend:

- 1.Each box shows one step of the parse, with the particular rule denoted by bold lines between a parent (the rule's LHS) and its children (the rule's RHS)
- 2.Solid, non-bold lines indicate rules that have already been applied
- 3.Dashed lines indicate rules that have not yet been applied

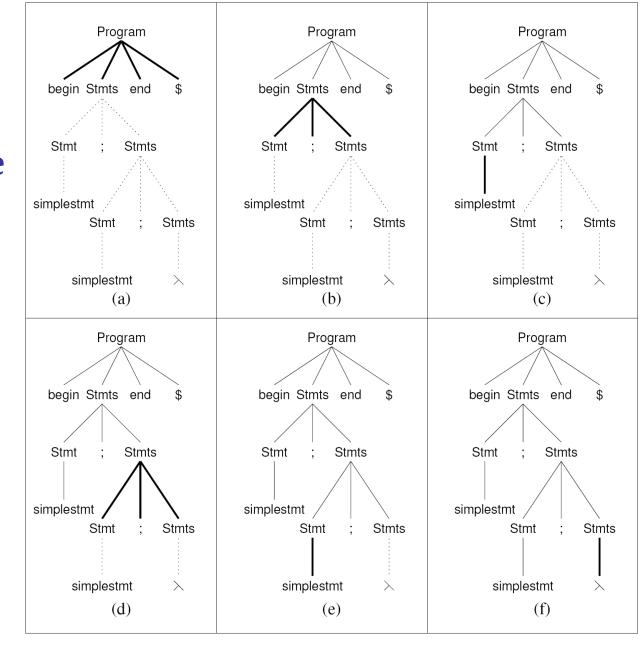


Figure 4.5: Parse of "begin simplestmt; simplestmt; end \$" using the top-down technique. Legend explained on page 126.



Top-Down Parsing Example'

- Fig. 4.5(a) shows the rule
 Program→begin
 Stmts end \$ applied as the first step of a top-down parse
- The red line indicates the next left-most nonterminal

Legend:

- Each box shows one step of the parse, with the particular rule denoted by bold lines between a parent (the rule's LHS) and its children (the rule's RHS)
- 2. Solid, non-bold lines indicate rules that have already been applied
- 3. Dashed lines indicate rules that have not yet been applied

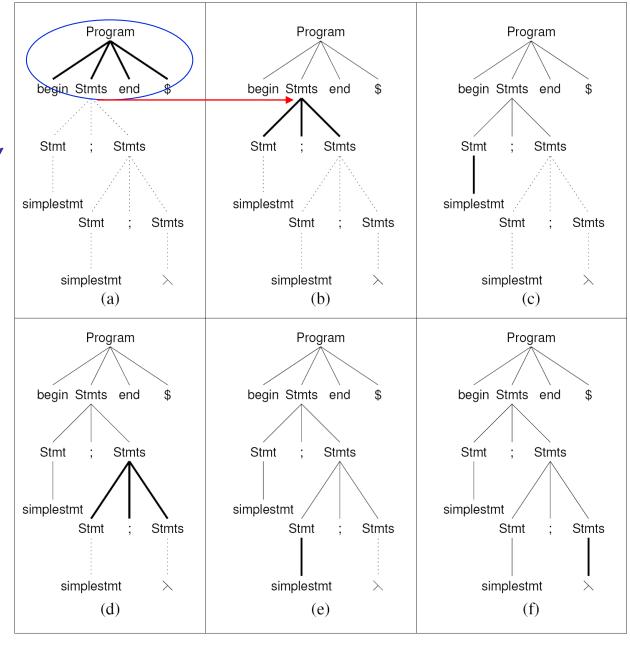


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Top-Down Parsing Example'

1 Program→ begin Stmts end \$

2 Stmts \rightarrow Stmt; Stmts

3 | λ

4 Stmt → simplestmt

5 | begin Stmts end

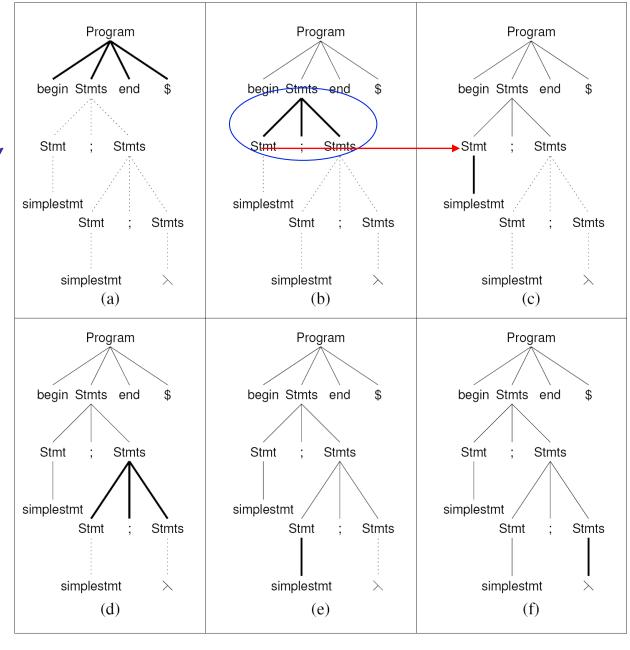
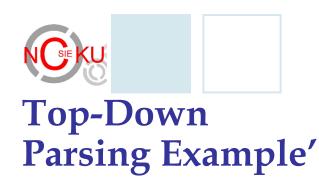


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April 13, 2018



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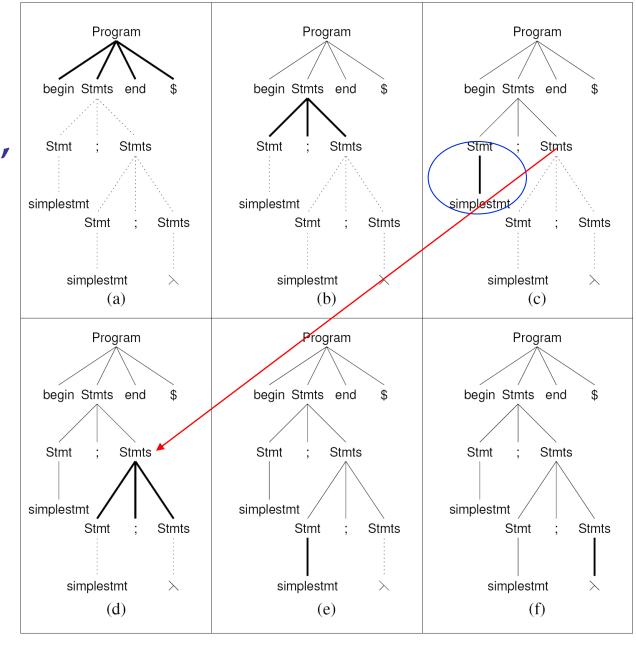


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Top-Down Parsing Example'

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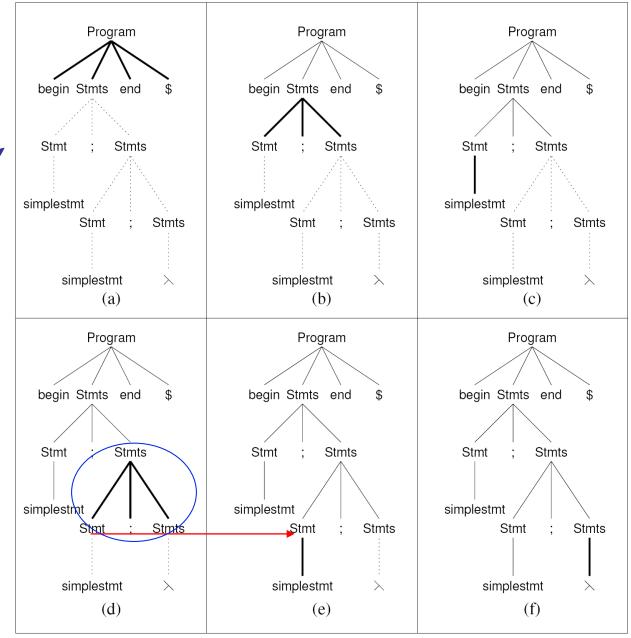
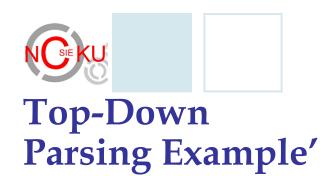


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1 Program→ begin Stmts end \$ 2 Stmts \rightarrow Stmt ; Stmts 4 Stmt \rightarrow simplestmt | begin Stmts end

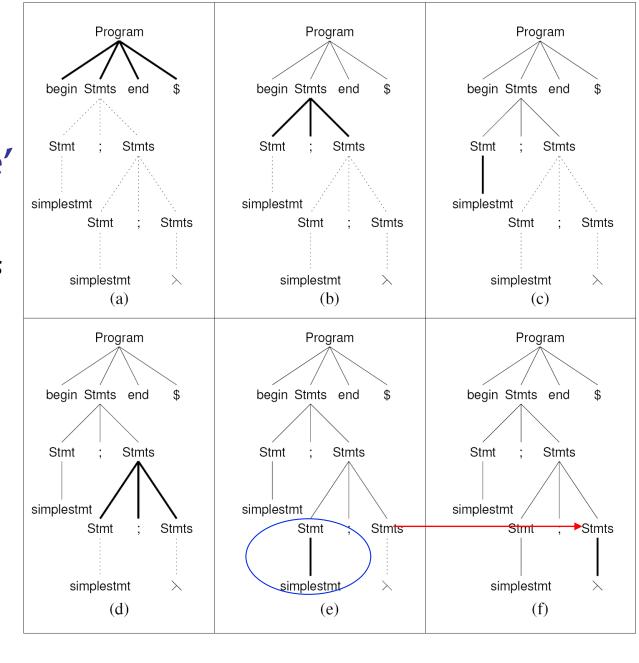
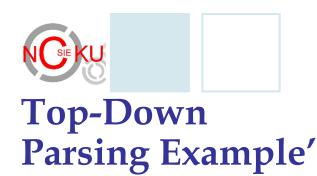


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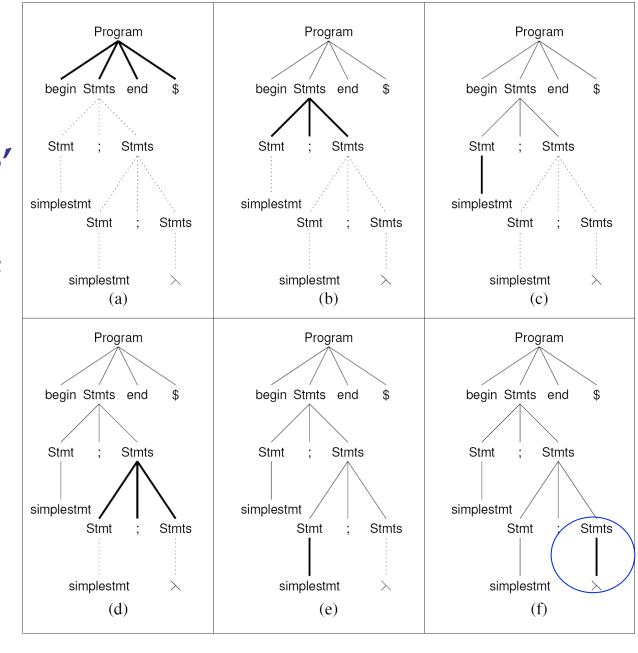


Figure 4.5: Parse of "begin simplestmt; simplestmt; end \$" using the top-down technique. Legend explained on page 126.

April 13, 2018













You would ...

- Practice the bottom-up parsing in Fig. 4.6
- If you get stuck
 - I assume you forget to read Section 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 ◎
 - Please carefully read the sections first and try it again











LL and LR Parsers

- LL and LR reflect
 - how the input is processed and which kind of parse is produced
 - The first character (L) states that the token sequence is processed from left to right
 - The second letter (L or R) indicates whether a leftmost or rightmost parse is produced
- The parsing technique can be further characterized by the number of lookahead symbols
 - i.e., symbols beyond the current token that the parser may consult to make
 - parsing choices
 - LL(1) and LR(1) parsers are the most common, requiring only one symbol of lookahead













Summary

- There is a many-to-one relationship between derivations and parse trees
 - A parse tree ignores variations in the order in which symbols in sentential forms are replaced
- While the parsing sequences of top-down and bottom-up parsing are different, two parsing techniques construct the same parse tree, as shown in Fig. 4.5 and 4.6













Why FIRST and FOLLOW?

- FIRST and FOLLOW
 - are the two important functions for the construction of top-down and bottom-up parsers
- FIRST and FOLLOW allow the parsers to choose which production to apply
- During panic-mode error recovery, sets of tokens produced by FOLLOW can be used as synchronizing tokens













FIRST

- FIRST(a)
 - refers to the set of terminals that begin strings derived from a
 - where α is any string of grammar symbols

Example:

- If $A \Rightarrow^* cy$, then *c* is in FIRST(A)
- If $\alpha \Rightarrow^* \lambda$, then then λ is also in FIRST (α)
- Given $A \Rightarrow a \mid b$
 - FIRST(A) is the union of FIRST (a) and FIRST(b),
 - where FIRST (a) and FIRST(b) are disjoint sets









FIRST (Cont'd)

- *Compute FIRST(X)
 - X is grammar symbol
 - We apply the following rules until no more terminals or λ can be added to it
 - 1. If X is a terminal (i.e., $X \in \Sigma$), then FIRST(X)={X}
 - 2. If $X \Rightarrow \lambda$ is a production (i.e., $X \in N$ and $X \Rightarrow \lambda$), then add λ to FIRST(X)
 - 3. If X is a non-terminal (i.e., $X \in N$) and $X \Rightarrow Y_1Y_2...Y_k$ is a production for some $k \ge 1$, then place α in FIRST(X) if for some i, α is in FIRST(Y_i), and λ is in all of FIRST(Y_1),...,FIRST(Y_{i-1})

If λ is in FIRST(Y_i) for all j=1,2,...,k, then add λ to FIRST(X)









FIRST (Cont'd)

- More about the Rule 3 in the previous page
- 3. If X is a non-terminal (i.e., $X \in N$) and $X \Rightarrow Y_1Y_2...Y_k$ is a production for some $k \ge 1$, then place α in FIRST(X) if for some i, α is in FIRST(Y_i), and λ is in all of FIRST(Y₁),...,FIRST(Y_{i-1})

• Examples:

- Everything in FIRST(Y_1) is surely in FIRST(X) Hence, in normal case, we have: FIRST(X) = FIRST(Y_1)
- If Y_1 does not derive λ , then we add nothing more to FIRST(X)
- If $Y_1 \Rightarrow^* \lambda$, then we add FIRST(Y_2) into FIRST(X), and so on









FIRST(a) Function

- SymbolDerivesEmpty(A
) indicates whether or not the nonterminal A can derive λ
- VisitedFirst(X) is to indicate that the productions of X is already participate in the computation of FIRST(α)
- The argument in InternalFirst(Xβ) could be grammar symbol(s) in the LHS or RHS of a production rule
 - Given $A \Rightarrow B$, $X\beta$ could be either A or B

```
function First(\alpha) returns Set
    foreach A \in NonTerminals() do VisitedFirst(A) \leftarrow false
   ans \leftarrow InternalFirst(\alpha)
   return (ans)
function InternalFirst(X\beta) returns Set
   if X\beta = \bot

    Rule 2

    then return (\emptyset)
    if X \in \Sigma ——
                                             Rule 1
    then return (\{X\})
   /\star X is a nonterminal.——
                                             Rule 3
                                                                               (12)
   ans \leftarrow \emptyset
   if not VisitedFirst(X)
   then
        VisitedFirst(X) \leftarrow true
        foreach rhs \in ProductionsFor(X) do
           ans \leftarrow ans \cup InternalFirst(rhs)
   if SymbolDerivesEmpty(X)
    then ans \leftarrow ans \cup InternalFirst(\beta)
```

Figure 4.8: Algorithm for computing First(α).

return (ans)

end

(16)









Handling Endless Recursion

```
A \Rightarrow B
B \Rightarrow C
C \Rightarrow A
```

```
function First(α) returns Set
    foreach A \in NonTerminals() do VisitedFirst(A) \leftarrow false
    ans \leftarrow InternalFirst(\alpha)
    return (ans)
function InternalFirst(X\beta) returns Set
    if X\beta = \bot
    then return (0)
    if X \in \Sigma
    then return (\{X\})
    /\star X is a nonterminal.
   ans \leftarrow \emptyset
   if not VisitedFirst(X)
    then
        VisitedFirst(X) \leftarrow true
        foreach rhs \in ProductionsFor(X) do
           ans \leftarrow ans \cup InternalFirst(rhs)
    if SymbolDerivesEmpty(X)
    then ans \leftarrow ans \cup InternalFirst(\beta)
    return (ans)
```

- Termination of FIRST(A) must be handled properly in grammars
 - where the computation of FIRST(A) appears to depend on FIRST(A)
- **VisitedFirst**(X) is to indicate that the productions of X is already participate in the computation of FIRST(α)









Example

Given the grammar,

- $E \Rightarrow TE'$
- E' ⇒ +TE' | λ
- $T \Rightarrow FT'$
- $T' \Rightarrow *FT' \mid \lambda$
- $F \Rightarrow (E) \mid id$

where E is for expression, T is for term, and F is for factor. Please find the FIRST set of each symbol

- FIRST sets for E, T, F, E', and T':
 - $FIRST(E) = FIRST(T) = FIRST(F) = \{(, id \}$
 - FIRST(E') = $\{+, \lambda\}$
 - FIRST(T') = $\{*, \lambda\}$



Given the grammar,

- $E \Rightarrow TE'$
- $E' \Rightarrow +TE' \mid \lambda$
- $T \Rightarrow FT'$
- $T' \Rightarrow *FT' \mid \lambda$
- $F \Rightarrow (E) \mid id$

Compute FIRST(X)

- X is grammar symbol
- We apply the following rules until no more terminals or λ can be added to it
- 1. If X is a terminal (i.e., $X \in \Sigma$), then FIRST(X)={X}
- 2. If $X \Rightarrow \lambda$ is a production (i.e., $X \in N$ and $X \Rightarrow \lambda$), then add λ to FIRST(X)
- 3. If X is a non-terminal (i.e., $X \in N$) and $X \Rightarrow Y_1Y_2...Y_k$ is a production for some $k \ge 1$, then place α in FIRST(X) if for some i, α is in FIRST(Y_i), and λ is in all of FIRST(Y_1),...,FIRST(Y_{i-1})

If λ is in FIRST(Y_j) for all j=1,2,...,k, then add λ to FIRST(X)

where E is for expression, T is for term, and F is for factor. Please find the FIRST set of each symbol

- FIRST sets for E, T, F, E', and T':
 - FIRST(E) = FIRST(T) = FIRST(F) = $\frac{3}{5}$ $\frac{1}{5}$ $\frac{1}{5}$
 - FIRST(E') = $\{+, \lambda\}$
 - FIRST(T') = $\{*, \lambda\}$

Given: $F \Rightarrow (E) \mid id$ $\begin{array}{c}
\text{FIRST}(F) \stackrel{3}{=} \text{FIRST}(I) \cup \text{FIRST}(I) \\
\text{FIRST}(I) = \{I\} \\
\text{FIRST}(Id) \stackrel{1}{=} \{Id\}
\end{array}$



Given the grammar,

- $E \Rightarrow TE'$
- $E' \Rightarrow +TE' \mid \lambda$
- $T \Rightarrow FT'$
- $T' \Rightarrow *FT' \mid \lambda$
- $F \Rightarrow (E) \mid id$

Compute FIRST(X)

- X is grammar symbol
- We apply the following rules until no more terminals or λ can be added to it
- 1. If X is a terminal (i.e., $X \in \Sigma$), then FIRST(X)={X}
- 2. If $X \Rightarrow \lambda$ is a production (i.e., $X \in N$ and $X \Rightarrow \lambda$), then add λ to FIRST(X)
- 3. If X is a non-terminal (i.e., $X \in N$) and $X \Rightarrow Y_1Y_2...Y_k$ is a production for some $k \ge 1$, then place α in FIRST(X) if for some i, α is in FIRST(Y_i), and λ is in all of FIRST(Y_1),...,FIRST(Y_{i-1})

If λ is in FIRST(Y_j) for all j=1,2,...,k, then add λ to FIRST(X)

where E is for expression, T is for term, and F is for factor.

Please find the FIRST set of each symbol

- FIRST sets for E, T, F, E', and T':
 - $FIRST(E) = FIRST(T) = FIRST(F) = \{(id)\}$
 - FIRST(E') = $\{+, \lambda\}$
 - FIRST(T') = $\{*, \lambda\}$

Given: $E' \Rightarrow +TE' \mid \lambda$ $FIRST(E') = FIRST (+TE') \cup FIRST (\lambda)$ $FIRST(+TE') = \{+\}$ $FIRST(\lambda) = \{\lambda\}$









Another Example for FIRST

Given the grammar,

- $input \Rightarrow expression$
- expression \Rightarrow term rest_expression
- $term \Rightarrow ID \mid parenthesized_expression$
- parenthesized_expression ⇒ '(' expression ')'
- $rest_expression \Rightarrow '+' expression \mid \lambda$

FIRST sets for input, expression, term, parenthesized_expression, and rest_expression:

- FIRST (input) = FIRST(expression) =FIRST (term) ={ ID, (}
- FIRST (parenthesized_expression) = { (}
- FIRST (rest_expression) = $\{+, \lambda\}$







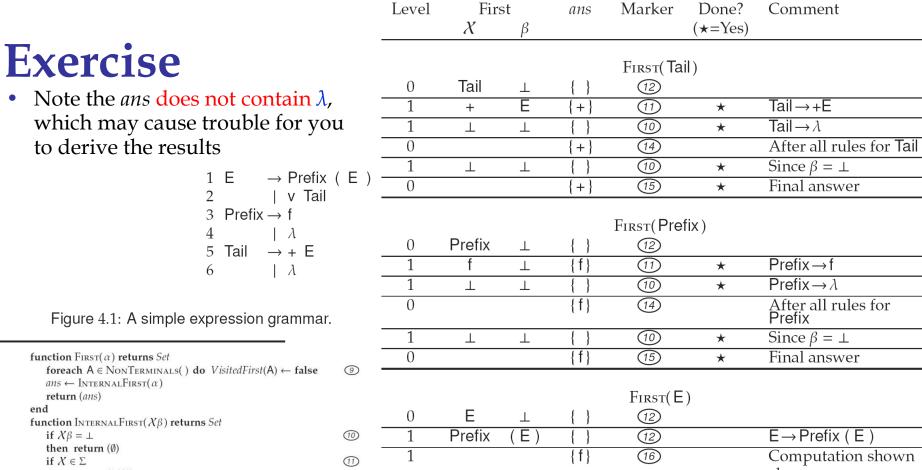






You Should ...

• Refer to Section 4.5.3 to do the exercise in Fig. 4.9 and 4.10



above then return $(\{X\})$ /★ X is a nonterminal. */ (12) E) Since Prefix $\Rightarrow^* \lambda$ {() (11) * $ans \leftarrow \emptyset$ { f,((15) Results due to **if not** *VisitedFirst*(*X*) $E \rightarrow Prefix (E)$ then $VisitedFirst(X) \leftarrow true$ (13) Tail (11) E→v Tail { V } V * foreach $rhs \in ProductionsFor(X)$ do (10) Since $\beta = \bot$ \perp \perp $ans \leftarrow ans \cup InternalFirst(rhs)$ 14) if SymbolDerivesEmpty(X) (15) { f,(,v (15) Final answer * then $ans \leftarrow ans \cup InternalFirst(\beta)$ (16) return (ans)

end

Figure 4.8: Algorithm for computing First(α).

Figure 4.9: First sets for the nonterminals of Figure 4.1.











FOLLOW

- FOLLOW(β)
 - refers to the set of terminals a that can appear immediately to the right of non-terminal β in some sentential form

Example:

- If $S \Rightarrow \alpha Aa\beta$, then a is in the set of FOLLOW(A)









FOLLOW (Cont'd)

- *FOLLOW(B)
 - where B is non-terminal,
 - *S* is the start symbol for the grammar, and
 - \$ is the input right end-marker
 - We apply the following rules for all nonterminals B until nothing can be added
 - 1. Place \$ in FOLLOW(S)
 - 2. If there is a production $A \Rightarrow \alpha B\beta$, then everything in **FIRST**(β) except λ is added to FOLLOW(B)
 - 3. If there is a production
 - (a) $A \Rightarrow \alpha B$, or
 - (b) $\overline{A} \Rightarrow \alpha \overline{B}\beta$, where FIRST(β) contains λ , then everything in **FOLLOW(A)** is added to FOLLOW(B)









FOLLOW (A) Function I

```
function Follow(A) returns Set
   foreach A \in NonTerminals() do
       VisitedFollow(A) \leftarrow \mathbf{false}
   ans \leftarrow InternalFollow(A)
   return (ans)
end
function Internal Follow (A) returns Set
   ans \leftarrow \emptyset
   if not VisitedFolow(A)
                                                                          (18)
   then
       VisitedFollow(A) \leftarrow true
       foreach a \in Occurrences(A) do
           ans \leftarrow ans \cup First(Tail(a))
           if AllDeriveEmpty(Tail(a))
           then
               targ \leftarrow LHS(Production(a))
                                                                                  Rule 3
              ans \leftarrow ans \cup InternalFollow(targ)
   return (ans)
end
function AllDeriveEmpty(\gamma) returns Boolean
   foreach X \in \gamma do
       if not SymbolDerivesEmpty(X) or X \in \Sigma
       then return (false)
   return (true)
                                                                                  Rule 3
                                         (when argument \gamma is empty set (3a) or the
end
                                         following non-terminals in \nu all contain \lambda (3b))
Figure 4.11: Algorithm for computing Follow(A).
```

- SymbolDerivesEmpty(A) indicates whether or not the nonterminal A can derive λ
- VisitedFollow(X) is to indicate that the productions of X is already participate in the computation of FOLLOW(A)
- Rule 2 Occurrences(A) finds and lists all the appearances of A in the production rules of the given Grammar (Marker 21)
 - What happens to `\$'? It is fine. Rule 1 is not defined in the primary textbook



FOLLOW (A) Function II

```
function Follow(A) returns Set
   foreach A \in NonTerminals() do
       VisitedFollow(A) \leftarrow \mathbf{false}
                                                                         (17)
   ans \leftarrow InternalFollow(A)
   return (ans)
end
function Internal Follow (A) returns Set
   ans \leftarrow \emptyset
   if not VisitedFolow(A)
                                                                         (18)
   then
       VisitedFollow(A) \leftarrow true
       foreach a \in Occurrences(A) do
                                                                         ⊕→ Rule 2
           ans \leftarrow ans \cup First(Tail(a))
           if AllDeriveEmpty(Tail(a))
           then
               targ \leftarrow LHS(Production(a))
                                                                         ⇔ Rule 3
              ans \leftarrow ans \cup InternalFollow(targ)
   return (ans)
end
function AllDeriveEmpty(\gamma) returns Boolean
   foreach X \in \gamma do
       if not SymbolDerivesEmpty(X) or X \in \Sigma
       then return (false)
   return (true)
                                                                             Rule 3 •
                                        (when argument \gamma is empty set (3a) or the
end
                                        following non-terminals in \nu all contain \lambda (3b))
Figure 4.11: Algorithm for computing Follow(A).
```

- (Marker 21) Tail(a) is the list of symbols immediately following the occurrence of A
 - $S \Rightarrow ABC$
 - Tail(a) is BC
- (Marker 22) detects if all of the symbols in Tail(a) could derive λ
 - This is different from the FOLLOW definition of Dragon Book, which considers $S \Rightarrow \alpha A\beta$ with one symbol at A's tail
 - Fig. 4.11 considers a long tail: more than one symbols after A, e.g., S ⇒ ABC
 - Done by AllDeriveEmpty(γ),
 where γ==Tail(a)==BC
- (**Marker 23**) if **Tail(a)** could be λ, we include FOLLOW of **LHS(CurrentOccurrence(A))**
 - If S ⇒ **A**BC and Tail(a) could be λ ,
 - we add FOLLOW(S) to FOLLOW(A)

SymbolDerivesEmpty(A) indicates whether or not the nonterminal A can derive λ









Example

Given the grammar,

- $E \Rightarrow TE'$
- $-E' \Rightarrow +TE' \mid \lambda$
- $T \Rightarrow FT'$
- $T' \Rightarrow *FT' \mid \lambda$
- $F \Rightarrow (E) \mid id$

where E is for expression, T is for term, and F is for factor

Please find the FOLLOW set of each symbol



Given the grammar,

- $E \Rightarrow TE'$
- $E' \Rightarrow +TE' \mid \lambda$
- $T \Rightarrow FT'$
- $T' \Rightarrow *FT' \mid \lambda$
- $F \Rightarrow (E) \mid id$

E is start symbol

- FIRST sets for E, T, F, E', and T':
 - $FIRST(E) = FIRST(T) = FIRST(F) = \{(, id \}$
 - FIRST(E') = $\{+, \lambda\}$
 - FIRST(T') = $\{*, \lambda\}$
- FOLLOW sets for E, T, F, E', and T':
 - $FOLLOW(E) = \{\$, \}$
 - $FOLLOW(E') = FOLLOW(E) = \{\$, \}$
 - $FOLLOW(T) = FIRST(E') + FOLLOW(E') = \{+, \$, \}$
 - $FOLLOW(T') = FOLLOW(T) = \{+, \$, \}$
 - FOLLOW(F) = $FIRST(T')+FOLLOW(T)+FOLLOW(T')=\{*,+,\$,)\}$

FOLLOW(B)

- 1. Place \$ in FOLLOW(S)
- 2. If there is a production $A \Rightarrow \alpha B\beta$, then everything in FIRST(β) except λ is added to FOLLOW(B)
- 3. If there is a production $A \Rightarrow \alpha B$, or $A \Rightarrow \alpha B\beta$, where FIRST(β) contains λ , then everything in FOLLOW(A) is added to FOLLOW(B)



Given the grammar,

- $E \Rightarrow TE'$
- $E' \Rightarrow +TE' \mid \lambda$
- $T \Rightarrow FT'$
- $T' \Rightarrow *FT' \mid \lambda$
- $F \Rightarrow (E) \mid id$

E is start symbol

- FIRST sets for E, T, F, E', and T':
 - $FIRST(E) = FIRST(T) = FIRST(F) = \{(, id \} | (id \})\}$
 - FIRST(E') = $\{+, \lambda\}$
 - FIRST(T') = $\{*, \lambda\}$
- FOLLOW sets for E, T, F, E', and T':
 - $FOLLOW(E) = \{\$, \}$
 - $FOLLOW(E') = FOLLOW(E) = \{\$, \}$
 - $FOLLOW(T) = FIRST(E') + FOLLOW(E') = \{+, \$, \}$
 - $FOLLOW(T') = FOLLOW(T) = \{+, \$, \}$
 - $FOLLOW(F) = FIRST(T')+FOLLOW(T) + FOLLOW(T')= \{*, +, \$, \}$

FOLLOW(B)

- 1. Place \$ in FOLLOW(S)
- 2. If there is a production $A \Rightarrow \alpha B\beta$, then everything in FIRST(β) except λ is added to FOLLOW(B)
- 3. If there is a production $A \Rightarrow \alpha B$, or $A \Rightarrow \alpha B\beta$, where FIRST(β) contains λ , then everything in FOLLOW(A) is added to FOLLOW(B)

Given: $E \Rightarrow TE'$ and E is start symbol FOLLOW(E) $\stackrel{1}{=} \{\$\}$

Given: $F \Rightarrow (E) \mid id$ FOLLOW(E) = FIRST()) = {)} FOLLOW(E) = {\$} \cup {)}

Given: $E \Rightarrow TE'$ $FOLLOW(E') \stackrel{3a}{=} FOLLOW(E)$

April 13, 2018



Given the grammar,

- $E \Rightarrow TE'$
- $E' \Rightarrow +TE' \mid \lambda$
- $T \Rightarrow FT'$
- $T' \Rightarrow *FT' \mid \lambda$
- $F \Rightarrow (E) \mid id$

E is start symbol

- FIRST sets for E, T, F, E', and T':
 - $FIRST(E) = FIRST(T) = FIRST(F) = \{(i, id)\}$
 - FIRST(E') = $\{+, \lambda\}$
 - FIRST(T') = $\{*, \lambda\}$

FOLLOW(B)

- 1. Place \$ in FOLLOW(S)
- 2. If there is a production $A \Rightarrow \alpha B\beta$, then everything in FIRST(β) except λ is added to FOLLOW(B)
- 3. If there is a production $A \Rightarrow \alpha B$, or $A \Rightarrow \alpha B\beta$, where FIRST(β) contains λ , then everything in FOLLOW(A) is added to FOLLOW(B)

Given:

$$E \Rightarrow TE'$$

$$E' \Rightarrow +TE' \mid \lambda$$

FOLLOW(T)
$$\stackrel{2}{=}$$
 FIRST(E') = {+}
FOLLOW(T) $\stackrel{3b}{=}$ FOLLOW(E') = {\$,)}
 \rightarrow FOLLOW(T) = {+} \cup {\$,)}

- FOLLOW sets for E, T, F, E', and T':
 - FOLLOW(\mathbf{E}) = {\$, }}
 - $FOLLOW(E') = FOLLOW(E) = \{\$, \}$
 - $FOLLOW(T) = FIRST(E') + FOLLOW(E') = \{+, \$, \}$
 - $FOLLOW(T') = FOLLOW(T) = \{+, \$, \}$
 - $FOLLOW(F) = FIRST(T')+FOLLOW(T) + FOLLOW(T')= \{*, +, \$, \}$

April 13, 2018









Another Example for FOLLOW

Given the grammar,

- input \Rightarrow expression
- expression \Rightarrow term rest_expression
- $term \Rightarrow ID \mid parenthesized_expression$
- parenthesized_expression ⇒ '(' expression ')'
- $rest_expression \Rightarrow '+' expression \mid \lambda$

FOLLOW(B)

- 1. Place \$ in FOLLOW(S)
- 2. If there is a production $A \Rightarrow \alpha B\beta$, then everything in FIRST(β) except λ is added to FOLLOW(B)
- 3. If there is a production (a) $A \Rightarrow \alpha B$, or (b) $A \Rightarrow \alpha B\beta$, where FIRST(β) contains λ , then everything in FOLLOW(A) is added to FOLLOW(B)

FOLLOW sets for input, expression, term, parenthesized_expression, and rest_expression

```
- FOLLOW (input) = {$ } Rule 1
```

- FOLLOW (expression) = {\$, }} Rule 3(a) got \$; Rule 2 got }
- FOLLOW (term) = FOLLOW (parenthesized_expression) Rule3(a)
 = {+, \$,) } Rule 2 got +; Rule 3(b) got \$)
- FOLLOW (rest_expression) = { \$,)} Rule 3(a)













You Should ...

• Refer to Section 4.5.4 to do the exercise in Fig. 4.12 and 4.13









Just Another Example for FOLLOW

- Fig. 4.10 grammar
- Can you derive the FOLLOW sets for A, B?
- Because of different definition used in the book, S does not contain \$

$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		Level	Rule	Marker	Result	Comment
	(17) (18) (19)	0 0	S→A <u>B</u> c		LOW(B) FOLLOW({c}	В)
		0		24)	{ c }	Returns
		0 0	$S \rightarrow \underline{A} B c$	21)	LOW(A) FOLLOW({b,c}	,
foreach $a \in O_{CCURRENCES}(A)$ do	20			24)	{ b,c }	Returns
$ans \leftarrow ans \cup First(Tail(a))$ if $AllDeriveEmpty(Tail(a))$ then $targ \leftarrow LHS(Production(a))$ $ans \leftarrow ans \cup InternalFollow(targ)$ return (ans)	@ @ @ @ @	0 0	Follow(S) Follow(S) (24) { } Returns			
end function AllDeriveEmpty(γ) returns Boolean						

Figure 4.12: Follow sets for the grammar in Figure 4.10. Note that $Follow(S) = \{ \}$ because S does not appear on the RHS of any production.

Figure 4.11: Algorithm for computing Follow(A).

if not SymbolDerivesEmpty(X) or $X \in \Sigma$

foreach $X \in \gamma$ do

return (true)

end

then return (false)













By default, we use the rules defined in FIRST(X) and FOLLOW(B) in our examinations.

QUESTIONS?











Functions Definitions

- Grammar(S)
 - Creates a new grammar with start symbol S
 - The grammar does not yet contain any productions
- Production(A, rhs)
 - Creates a newproduction for nonterminal A and returns a descriptor for the production
 - The iterator rhs supplies the symbols for the production's RHS
- Productions()
 - Returns an iterator that visits each of the grammar's productions in no particular order
- Nonterminal(A)
 - Adds A to the set of nonterminals. An error occurs if A is already a terminal symbol
 - The function returns a descriptor for the nonterminal
- Terminal(x)
 - Adds x to the set of terminals
 - An error occurs if x is already a nonterminal symbol. The function returns a descriptor for the terminal
- NonTerminals()
 - Returns an iterator for the set of nonterminals









82

Functions Definitions (Cont'd)

- Terminals()
 - Returns an iterator for the set of terminal symbols
- IsTerminal(X)
 - Returns true if X is a terminal; otherwise, returns false
- RHS(p)
 - Returns an iterator for the symbols on the RHS of production p
- LHS(p)
 - Returns the nonterminal defined by production p
- ProductionsFor(A)
 - Returns an iterator that visits each production for nonterminal A
- Occurrences(X)
 - Returns an iterator that visits each occurrence of X in the RHS of all rules
- Production(y)
 - Returns a descriptor for the production $A \rightarrow \alpha$ where α contains the occurrence y of some vocabulary symbol
- Tail(y)
 - Accesses the symbols appearing after an occurrence
 - Given a symbol occurrence y in the rule $A \rightarrow \alpha$ y β , Tail(y) returns an iterator for the symbols in β