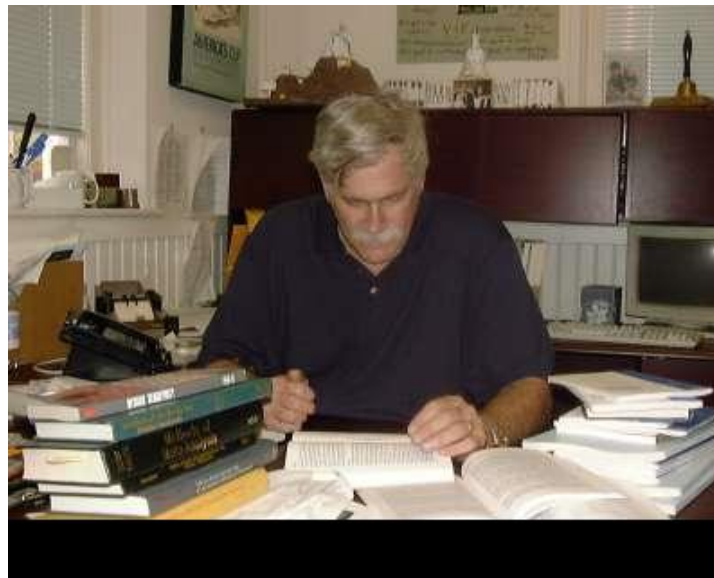


# Chapter 4: Lexical and Syntax Analysis

CMSC 124, 1<sup>st</sup> Semester, AY 2009-10



# Chapter 4: Lexical and Syntax Analysis

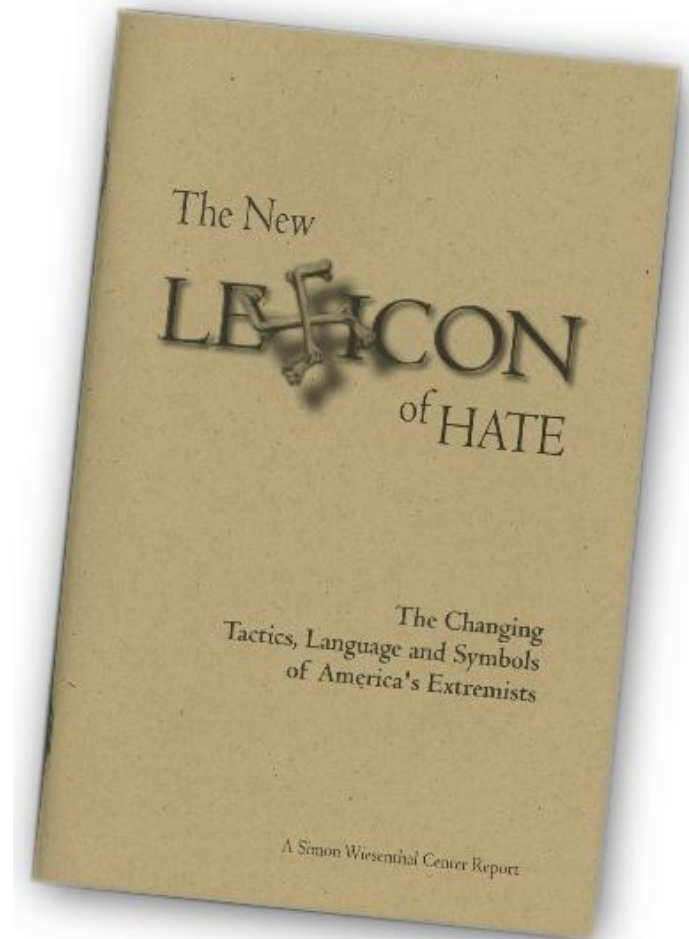
## Syntactic Elements of a Language

1. Character Set
2. Identifiers
3. Operator Symbols
4. Keywords and Reserved Words
5. Noise Words
6. Comments
7. Blanks (Spaces)
8. Delimiters and Brackets
9. Free-Field and Fixed-Field formats
10. Expressions
11. Statements

# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Review from Chapter 3 Slide

- AKA linear analysis/scanning.
- It collects characters into logical groupings and assign internal groupings according to their structure.
- Character groupings are called **lexemes**.
- Internal codes are called **tokens**.



# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## In-Depth: Lexical Analysis

### Primary Task

- Reading the input characters and producing as output: Sequence of tokens that the parser uses for syntax analysis.

### Secondary Tasks

- Stripping out comments and white spaces.
- Correlating error messages.

### Take Note!

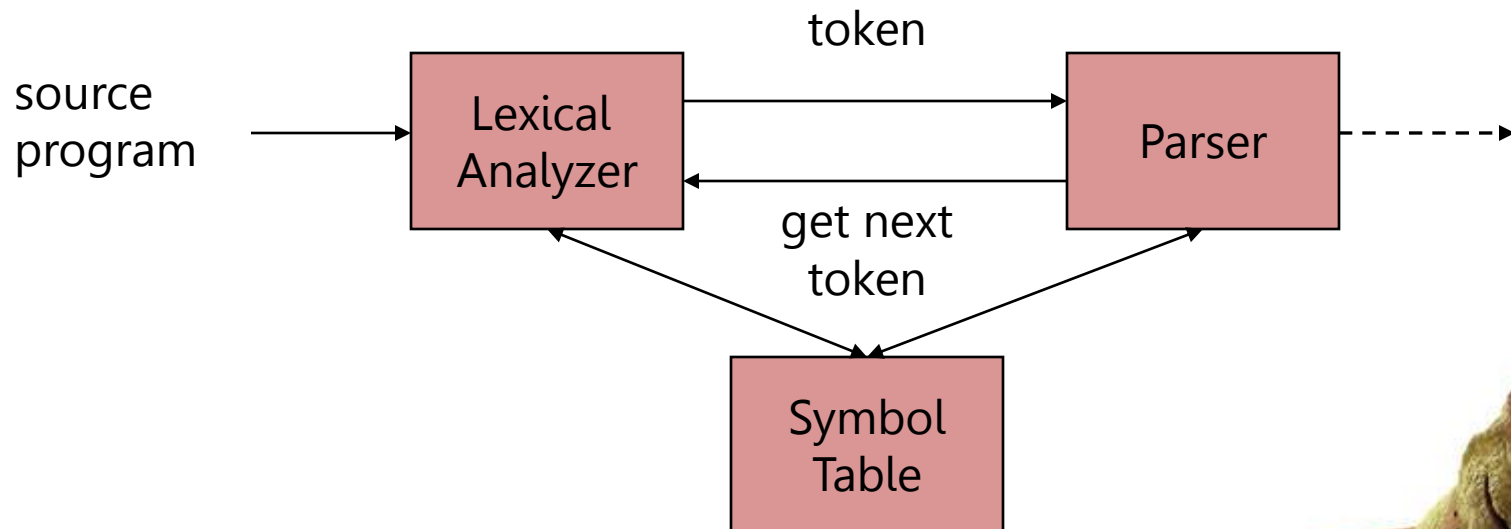
- Lexical analyzer reads the program character-by-character.
- There are times to look ahead several characters beyond the lexeme for a pattern before a match can be announced.



# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## In-Depth: Lexical Analysis

A **lexical analyzer** is commonly implemented as subroutine or a coroutine of the parser. It is called by the parser when it needs a new token.



# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Tokens, Patterns and Lexemes

### Tokens

- Terminal symbols in the grammar.
  - Keywords, operators, identifiers, constants, literal strings, punctuation symbols (parentheses, commas and semicolons)

### Lexemes

- Sequences of input characters that comprises a single token

### Patterns

- Rules to describe the set of lexemes that can represent a particular token in source programs

# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Tokens, Patterns and Lexemes

**Consider this:** if a > b mygrade = 0 \* 99

| TOKEN                               | LEXEME        | INFORMAL PATTERN DESC                    |
|-------------------------------------|---------------|--|
| IDENT<br>(identifier)               | a, b, mygrade | A letter followed by digits and letters. |
| REL_OP<br>(relational operator)     | >             | <   <=   <>   ==   >=   >                |
| IF<br>(if keyword)                  | if            | if                                       |
| MULT_OP<br>(multiplicat'n operator) | *             | *  |
| INT_LIT<br>(integer)                | 0, 99         | Combination of any numeric constants.    |
| ASSIGN_OP<br>(assignment operator)  | =             | =  |

# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Attribute for Tokens

- Tokens actually influence parsing decisions.
- Attributes influence the translation of tokens.
- Usually, a token has only one attribute – pointer to the symbol table entry (which contains info about the lexeme kept).





# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Attribute for Tokens: Sample Table

| Lexeme                 | Token   | Attribute-Value        |
|------------------------|---------|------------------------|
| if                     | IF      | -                      |
| then                   | THEN    | -                      |
| else                   | ELSE    | -                      |
| (any valid identifier) | IDENT   | pointer to table entry |
| (any integer)          | INT_LIT | value of the integer   |
| <                      | REL_OP  | LT                     |
| <=                     | REL_OP  | LE                     |
| =                      | REL_OP  | EQ                     |
| <>                     | REL_OP  | NE                     |
| >                      | REL_OP  | GT                     |
| >=                     | REL_OP  | GE                     |

# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Attribute for Tokens

**Consider this:** if a > b mygrade = 0 \* 99

The attributes are written as a sequence of pairs.

```

        < IF,      >
    < IDENT, pointer to symbol table entry for a >
        < REL_OP, GT >
    < IDENT, pointer to symbol table entry for b >
< IDENT, pointer to symbol table entry for mygrade >
        < ASSIGN_OP, >
    < INT_LIT, integer value 0 >
        < MULT_OP, >
    < INT_LIT, integer value 99 >
```

# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Recognition of Tokens

- An approach in building a lexical analyzer:
  - ✓ Design a state transition diagram that describe the token patterns of the language, and
  - ✓ Write a program that implements the diagram.
- A **state (transition) diagram** is a graph that describe valid token patterns of a certain language.



# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Recognition of Tokens

### Assumptions

- Keywords are reserved words.
- Integers dealt with are actually unsigned integers.
- Lexemes are separated by white spaces.
  - Blanks, tabs, newlines.
- The chars '==' is used to represent to compare equality.

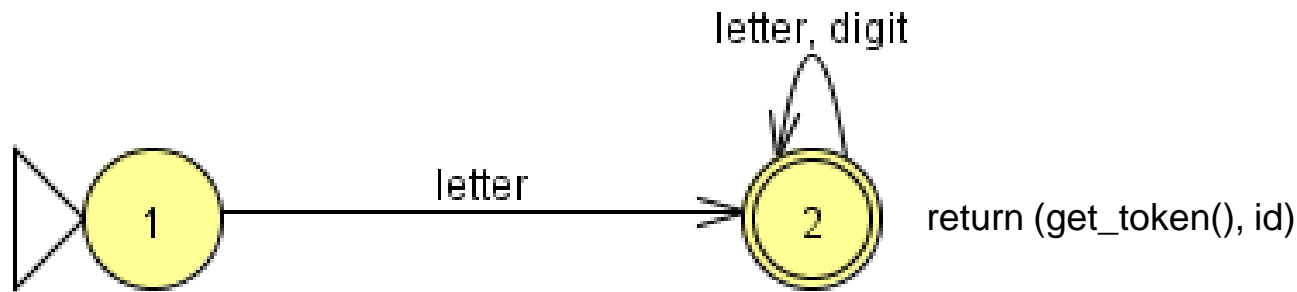


# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Transition Diagram for Identifiers and Keywords

Remember (from a certain slide before):

| TOKEN              | SAMPLE LEXEME | INFORMAL PATTERN DESC                    |
|--------------------|---------------|--|
| IDENT (identifier) | a, b, mygrade | A letter followed by digits and letters. |
| IF (if keyword)    | if            | if                                       |



The `get_token` function may either return **(IDENT, pointer to symbol table entry for that identifier)** or the corresponding token for the keywords.

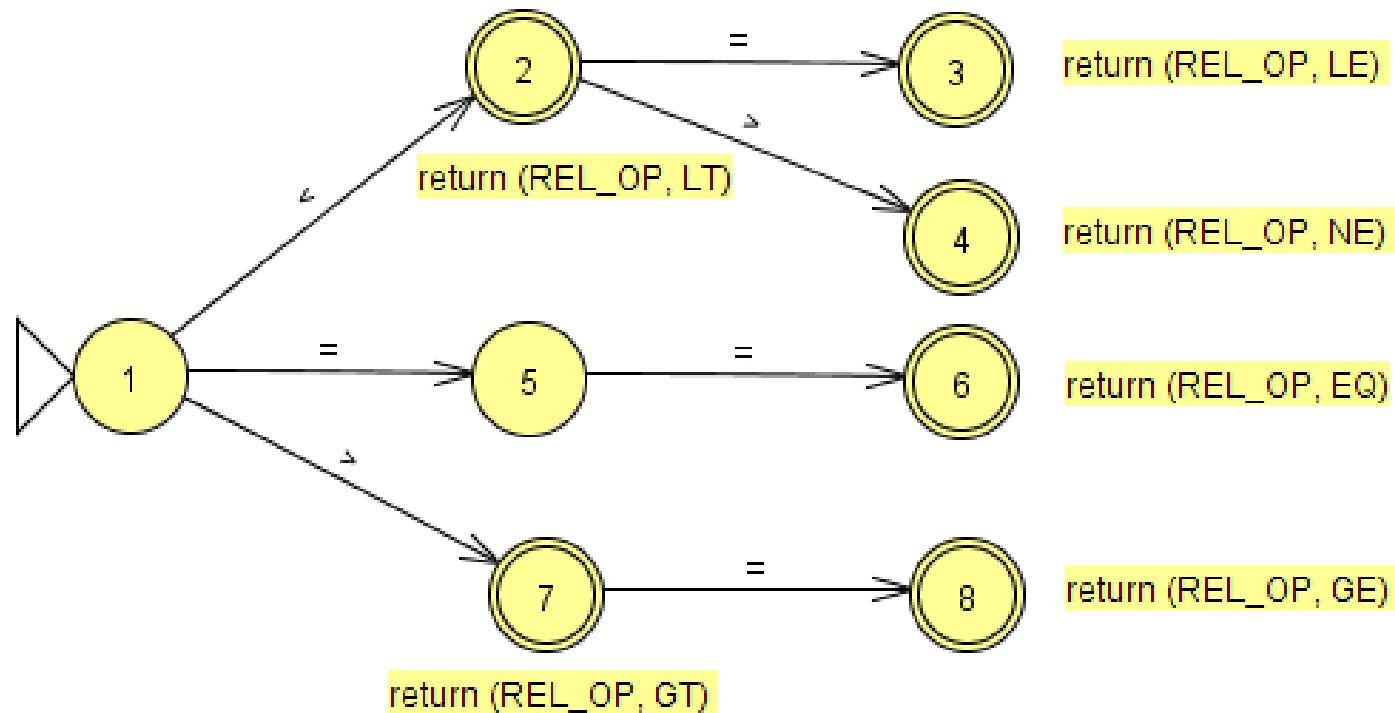
**By the way, what does the `get_token` function do?**

# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Transition Diagram for Relational Operators

**Remember:**

| TOKEN                           | SAMPLE LEXEME | INFORMAL PATTERN DESC     |
|---------------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|
| REL_OP<br>(relational operator) | >             | <   <=   <>   ==   >=   > |

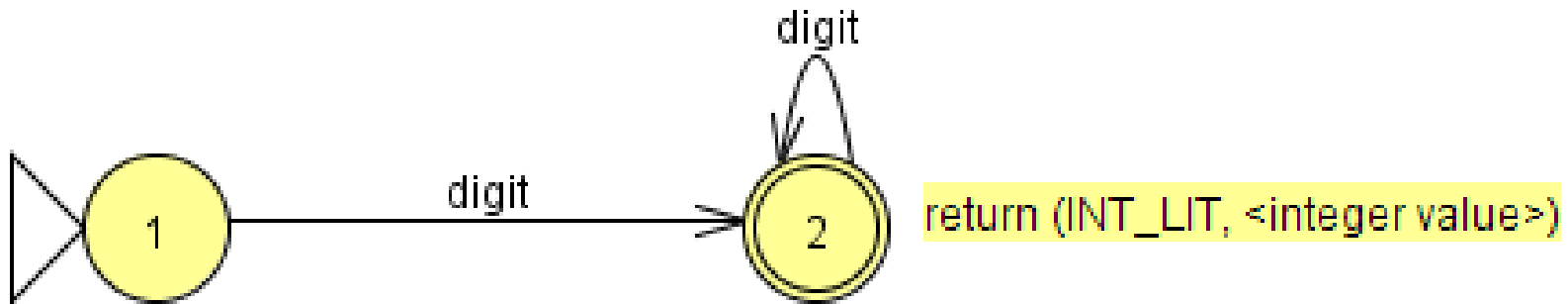


# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Transition Diagram for Integers

**Remember:**

| TOKEN                | SAMPLE LEXEME | INFORMAL PATTERN DESC                 |
|----------------------|---------------|---------------------------------------|
| INT_LIT<br>(integer) | 0, 99         | Combination of any numeric constants. |



# Chapter 4a: Lexical Analysis

## Detection: Possible Errors

- Illegal characters
- String forming name of identifier too long
- Numeric value too large or too small
- Comments not closed properly

```
A problem has been detected and windows has been shut down to prevent damage
to your computer.

DRIVER_IRQL_NOT_LESS_OR_EQUAL

If this is the first time you've seen this Stop error screen,
restart your computer. If this screen appears again, follow
these steps:

Check to make sure any new hardware or software is properly installed.
If this is a new installation, ask your hardware or software manufacturer
for any windows updates you might need.

If problems continue, disable or remove any newly installed hardware
or software. Disable BIOS memory options such as caching or shadowing.
If you need to use Safe Mode to remove or disable components, restart
your computer, press F8 to select Advanced Startup Options, and then
select Safe Mode.

Technical information:

*** STOP: 0x000000D1 (0x0000000C,0x00000002,0x00000000,0xF86B5A89)

***          gv3.sys - Address F86B5A89 base at F86B5000, DateStamp 3dd991eb

Beginning dump of physical memory
Physical memory dump complete.
Contact your system administrator or technical support group for further
assistance.
```



**Something to Ponder**

Can you design the transition diagram of  
comments (enclosed in `/* */`) ?

**Something to Ponder**

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## The Parser, the 'Syntax Analyzer'



### Goals of a Parser

- **Find** all syntax errors - for each error, produce an appropriate diagnostic message, and recover quickly.
- **Produce** the parse tree, or at least a trace of the parse tree, for the program .

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Two Categories of Parsers

### 1. Top-Down

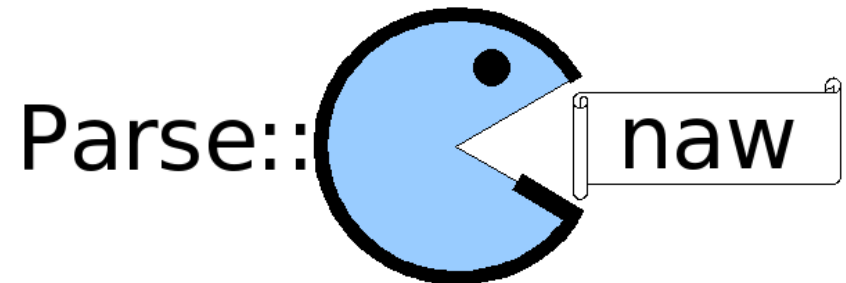
- Produce the parse tree, beginning at the root.
- Order is that of a **leftmost derivation**.

### 2. Bottom-Up

- Produce the parse tree, beginning at the leaves.
- Order is that of the **reverse of a rightmost derivation**.

### Note

Parsers look only one token ahead in the input.



# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Notational Conventions

- **Terminal Symbols**

Lowercase letters at the beginning of the alphabet (a, b, c...).

- **Nonterminal Symbols**

Uppercase letters at the beginning of the alphabet (A, B, C...).

- **Terminals or Nonterminals**

Uppercase letters at the end of the alphabet (W, X, Y, Z).

- **Strings of Terminals**

Lowercase letters at the end of the alphabet (w, x, y, z).

- **Mixed Strings (Terminals and/or Nonterminals)**

Lowercase Greek letters ( $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\gamma$ ).

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Top-Down Parsers

Given a sentential form,  **$x\mathbf{A}a$** , choose the correct A-rule to get the next sentential form in the leftmost derivation, using only the first token produced by A .

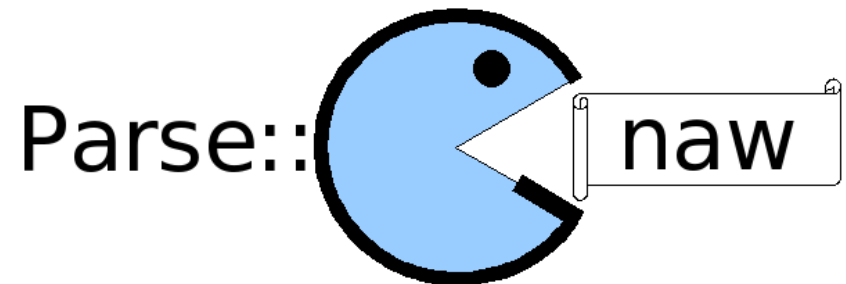
### Example

A-rules:  $A \rightarrow bB$ ,  $A \rightarrow cBb$ , and  $A \rightarrow a$

**Which one should be chosen?**

**Possible next sentential forms:**

- ✓  $xbBa$
- ✓  $xcBba$
- ✓  $xaa$



# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Top-Down Parsers: Most Common TD Parsing Algorithms

- **Recursive Descent**  
A coded implementation.
- **LL Parsers**  
A table-driven implementation.

### Note

Both are called LL algorithms, with equal power.

- **First L** – left-to-right scan of inputs.
- **Second L** – leftmost derivation.



# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

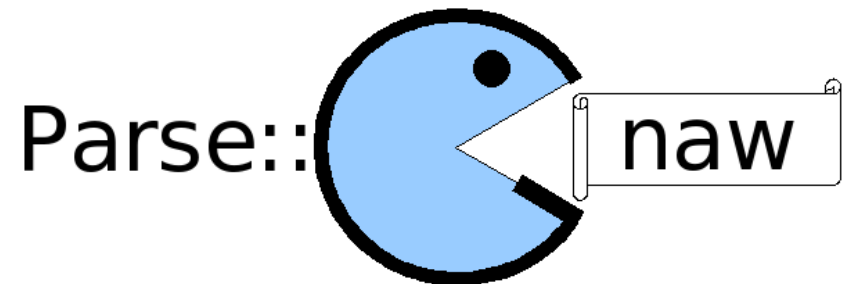
## Bottom-Up Parsers

Given a right sentential form, **a**, what substring of a is the right-hand side of the rule in the grammar that must be reduced to produce the previous sentential form in the right derivation.

### Note

The most common BU parsing algorithms are in the LR family.

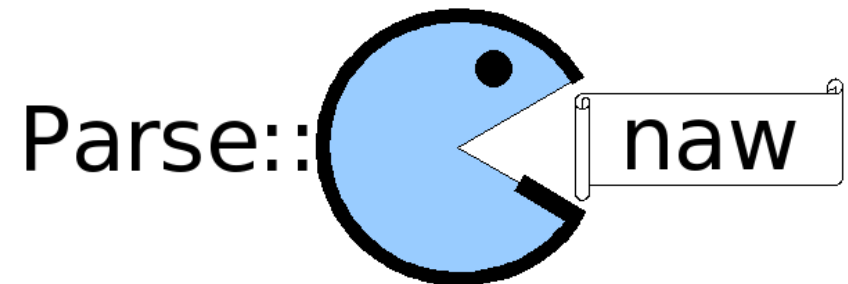
- L – left-to-right scan of inputs.
- R – rightmost derivation.



# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Complexity of Parsing

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





# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Top-Down: Recursive-Descent Parsing

### The Process

- There is a subprogram for each nonterminal in the grammar, which can parse sentences that can be generated by that nonterminal.
- Extended BNF (EBNF) is ideally suited for being the basis for a recursive-descent parser since it minimizes the number of nonterminals.

### Extended BNF

- It uses braces and brackets.
- Braces indicate that anything enclosed by them can be omitted or repeated.
- Brackets indicate option.

### Example

- `<if_stmt> -> if  
          <logic_expr> <stmt>  
          [else <stmt>]`
- `<ident_list> -> ident {, ident}`

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Top-Down: Recursive-Descent Parsing

- Given a grammar for simple expressions:  
     $\langle \text{expr} \rangle ::= \langle \text{term} \rangle \{ ( + \mid - ) \langle \text{term} \rangle \}$   
     $\langle \text{term} \rangle ::= \langle \text{factor} \rangle \{ ( * \mid / ) \langle \text{factor} \rangle \}$   
     $\langle \text{factor} \rangle ::= \text{id} \mid ( \langle \text{expr} \rangle )$
- Assume we have a lexical analyzer named `lex`, which puts the next token code in **nextToken** (which is a global variable).

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Recursive-Descent Parsing: The Process for One RHS

- For each **terminal** symbol in the RHS,
  - Compare it with the next input token.
  - If they match, continue; otherwise, error.
- For each **nonterminal** symbol in the RHS,
  - Call its associated parsing subprogram.

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Recursive-Descent Parsing: The Process for One RHS

```
/* Function expr parses strings in the language
generated by the rule: <expr> ::= <term> { (+ | -)
<term> */

void expr() {
    /* Parse the first term */
    term();
    /* As long as the next token is + or -, call lex to
    get the next token, and parse the next term */
    while (nextToken == PLUS_CODE ||
           nextToken == MINUS_CODE) {
        lex();
        term();
    }
}
```

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Top-Down Recursive-Descent Parsing

- The previous routine does not detect errors.
- **Convention**
  - ✓ Every parsing routine leaves the next token in **nextToken**.
  - ✓ So, whenever a parsing function begins, it is assured that nextToken has the leftmost token of the input not yet used in the parsing process.

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Recursive-Descent Parsing: The Process for Multiple RHS

- A nonterminal that has more than one RHS requires an initial process to determine which RHS it is to parse.
  - ✓ The correct RHS is chosen on the basis of the next token of input (the lookahead).
  - ✓ The next token is compared with the first token that can be generated by each RHS until a match is found.
  - ✓ If no match is found, syntax error.

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Recursive-Descent Parsing: The Process for Multiple RHS

```
/* Function factor parses strings in the language generated by the
rule: <factor> -> id | (<expr>) */
void factor() {
    /* Determine which RHS */
    if (nextToken) == ID_CODE)
    /* For the RHS id, just call lex */
        lex();
    /* If the RHS is (<expr>) - call lex to pass
       over the left parenthesis, call expr, and
       check for the right parenthesis */
    else if (nextToken == LEFT_PAREN_CODE) {
        lex();
        expr();
        if (nextToken == RIGHT_PAREN_CODE)
            lex();
        else
            error();
    } /* End of else if (nextToken == ... */
    else error(); /* Neither RHS matches */
}
```

**Something to Ponder**

One thing, it is not left recursive.

A recursive-descent parser can be easily written if an appropriate grammar is available.  
The key now is what defines an "appropriate grammar" for recursive-descent parsing.

So, what defines an "appropriate grammar"?

Another thing, it has pairwise disjointness.

**Something to Ponder**



# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## The LL Grammar Class

### 1. The Left Recursion Problem

- If a grammar has left recursion, either direct or indirect, it cannot be the basis for a top-down parser.

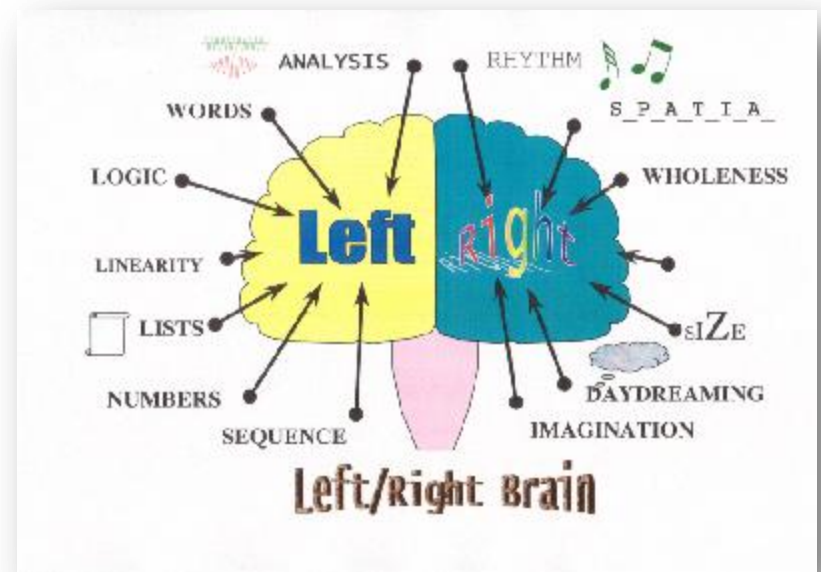
- **Solution:** There is an algorithm to modify a grammar, removing both direct and indirect left recursion.

- **Example**

- $A \rightarrow A + B$
- $A \rightarrow BaA, B \rightarrow Ab$



**Why is this a left recursion problem?**



# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## The LL Grammar Class

### 2. Pairwise Disjointness

- The disjointness can be failed – in the inability to determine the correct RHS on the basis of one token of lookahead.

- **Pairwise Disjointness Test**

For each nonterminal,  $A$ , in the grammar that has more than one RHS, for each pair of rules,


$A \rightarrow a_i$  and  $A \rightarrow a_j$


it must be true that

$$\text{FIRST}(a_i) \cap \text{FIRST}(a_j) = \Phi$$

- In other words, if a nonterminal  $A$  has more than one RHS, the first terminal symbol that can be generated in a derivation for each of them must be unique to that RHS

- **Example**

$A \rightarrow a \mid bB \mid cAb$   **PASSED**

$A \rightarrow a \mid aB$   **FAILED**

**Something to Ponder**

How do we pass the pairwise  
disjointness test?

**Something to Ponder**

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Passing the Pairwise Disjointness Test

- The “failures” can be modified to pass the test.
- Consider the following rules:  
    **<variable> -> identifier | identifier [<expression>]**
- Clearly, the above rules are “5.0 ” in the test.

### Solution 1: Left Factoring

**<variable> -> identifier <new>**

**<new> ->  $\epsilon$  | [<expression>]**



### Solution 2: EBNF Extension

**<variable> -> identifier**

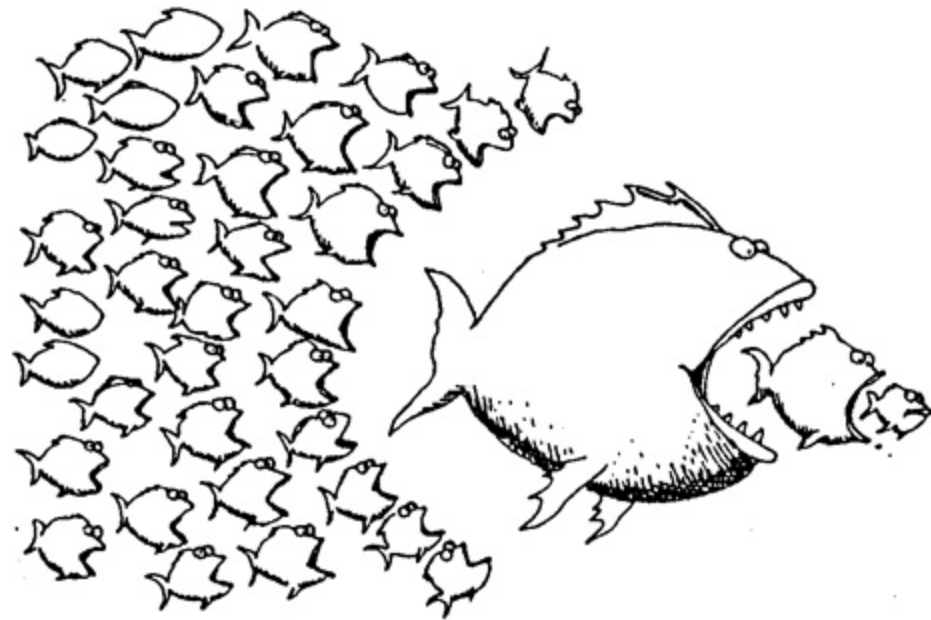


- **Reminder:** Left factoring cannot solve all pairwise disjointness of grammars. There are cases that rules must be rewritten to eliminate the problem.

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Bottom-Up Parsing

- Left-recursive grammars can be parsed by bottom-up parsers.
- Bottom-up parsers are usually implemented as table driven state machines.



*Larson*

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Parsing Problem for Bottom-Up Parsers

Given the ff. grammar:

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$
$$T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$$
$$F \rightarrow ( E ) \mid id$$
$$\begin{aligned} E &\Rightarrow E + \underline{T} \\ &\Rightarrow E + T * \underline{F} \\ &\Rightarrow E + T * \underline{id} \\ &\Rightarrow E + \underline{F} * id \\ &\Rightarrow E + \underline{id} * id \\ &\Rightarrow \underline{T} + id * id \\ &\Rightarrow \underline{F} + id * id \\ &\Rightarrow \underline{id} + id * id \end{aligned}$$

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Parsing Problem for Bottom-Up Parsers

- The underlined part of each sentential form in the derivation is the **RHS** that is rewritten as its **corresponding LHS**.
- The process of bottom-up parsing produces the **reverse** of a rightmost derivation.
- (Based on the derivation)  
A bottom-up parser starts with the **last sentential form** (the input sentence) and produces the sequence of sentential forms until all that remains is the start symbol.

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Parsing Problem for Bottom-Up Parsers

### The Task of a Bottom-Up Parser

Find specific RHS in the sentential form that must be rewritten to get next (previous) sentential form.

- **Example:** Given the grammar

$$\begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E + T \mid T \\ T &\rightarrow T * F \mid F \\ F &\rightarrow ( E ) \mid id \end{aligned}$$

**Parse**  $E + T * id$

There are 3 possible RHS's:  **$E+T$** ,  **$T$** , and  **$id$**

But if we select  **$E+T$** , the resulting sentential form would be  **$E * id$**  which is illegal!



# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Parsing Problem for Bottom-Up Parsers

- The correct RHS in a given right sentential form is called the **handle**.

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Shift-Reduce Algorithms

- Bottom-up parsers are often called shift-reduce algorithms.



- **Why Shift-Reduce?**

- ✓ It uses a stack to remember where it has been.
- ✓ The table contains, for each state and next token:
  - The next state
  - Action to be taken
- ✓ Actions:
  - Shift – Pushes the token and state onto the stack
  - Reduce – Pops tokens and states from the stack and produces a phrase.

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## LR Parser

- Parses the source from left to right and constructs a rightmost derivation of the sentence. It is a state machine.

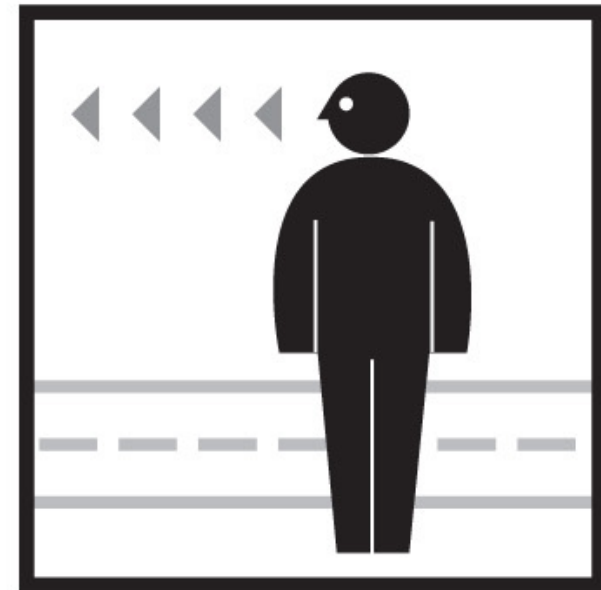
### Components

#### 1. Input String

- Stream of tokens (terminals) representing the whole program.

#### 2. Stack

- Contains a list of states it has been in.



# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## LR Parser

- Parses the source from left to right and constructs a rightmost derivation of the sentence.

### Components

#### 3. ACTION Table

- Specifies the action of the parser, given the parser state and next token.

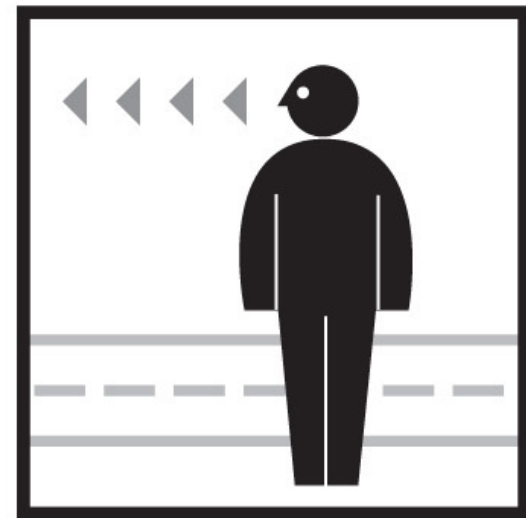
#### 4. GOTO Table

- Specifies which state to put on top of the parse stack after a reduction is done.

### Take Note!

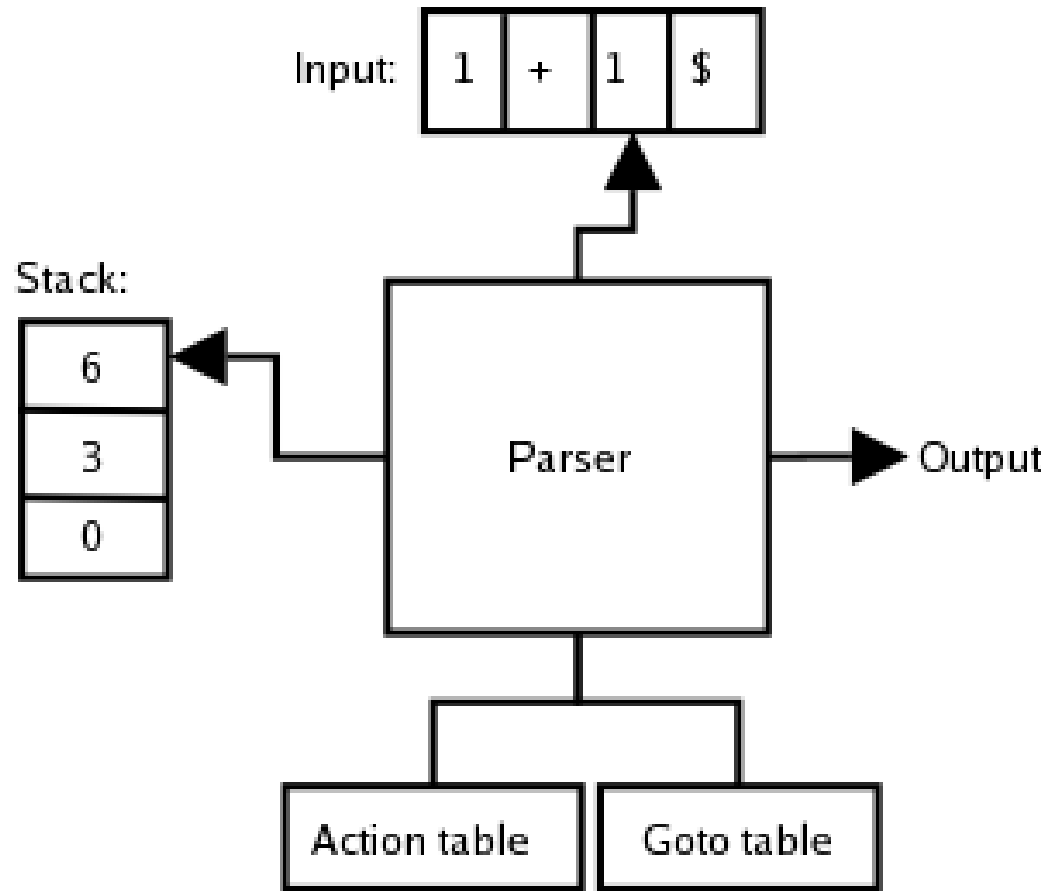
Rows are state names.

Columns are nonterminals.



# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## LR Parser: Architecture

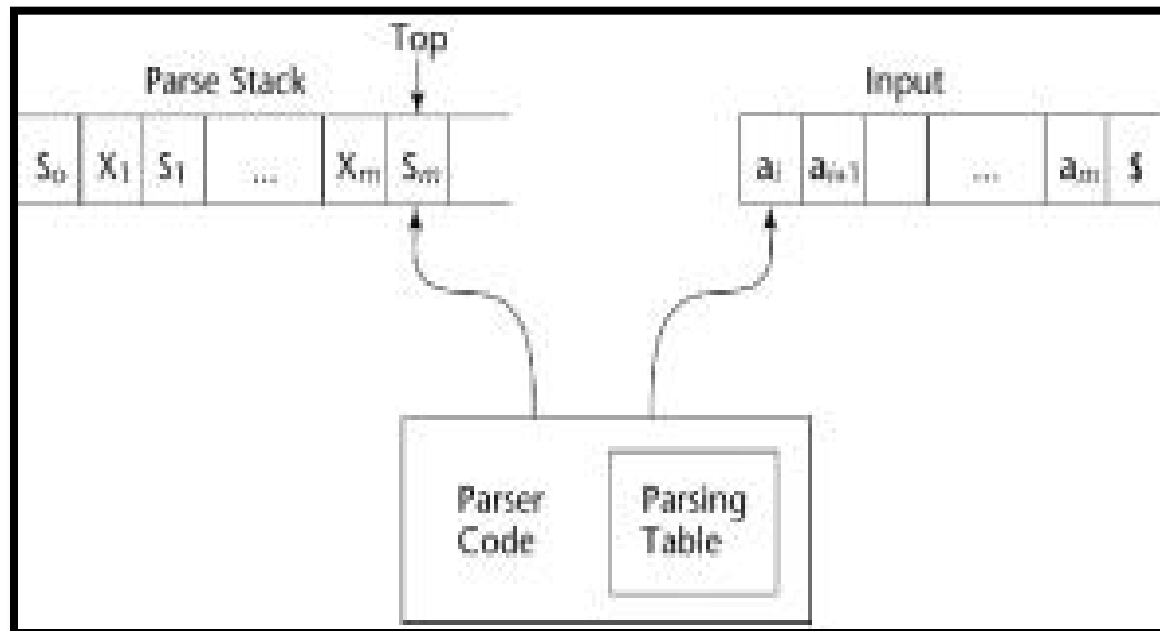


# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## LR Parsing Algorithm

The LR parsing algorithm works as follows:

**Step 1.** The stack is initialized with  $[0]$ . The current state will always be the state that is at the top of the stack.



# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## LR Parsing Algorithm

**Step 2.** Given the current state and the current terminal on the input stream an action is looked up in the action table. There are four cases:

✓ **a shift  $sn$**

- the current terminal is removed from the input stream
- the state  $n$  is pushed onto the stack and becomes the current state

✓ **a reduce  $rm$**

- the number  $m$  is written to the output stream
- for every symbol in the right-hand side of rule  $m$  a state is removed from the stack
- given the state that is then on top of the stack and the left-hand side of rule  $m$  a new state is looked up in the goto table and made the new current state by pushing it onto the stack

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## LR Parsing Algorithm

**Step 2.** Given the current state and the current terminal on the input stream an action is looked up in the action table. There are four cases: (cont.)

- ✓ **an accept** the string is accepted
- ✓ **no action** a syntax error is reported

**Step 3.** Step 2 is repeated until either the string is accepted or a syntax error is reported.





# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## LR Parsing Algorithm: Concrete Example

| state | action |    |    |    |     | goto |   |
|-------|--------|----|----|----|-----|------|---|
|       | *      | +  | 0  | 1  | \$  | E    | B |
| 0     |        |    | s1 | s2 |     | 3    | 4 |
| 1     | r4     | r4 | r4 | r4 | r4  |      |   |
| 2     | r5     | r5 | r5 | r5 | r5  |      |   |
| 3     | s5     | s6 |    |    | acc |      |   |
| 4     | r3     | r3 | r3 | r3 | r3  |      |   |
| 5     |        |    | s1 | s2 |     |      | 7 |
| 6     |        |    | s1 | s2 |     |      | 8 |
| 7     | r1     | r1 | r1 | r1 | r1  |      |   |
| 8     | r2     | r2 | r2 | r2 | r2  |      |   |

### ACTION Table

Indexed by a state of the parser and a terminal (including a special terminal \$ that indicates the end of the input stream) and contains three types of actions:

- **shift**, which is written as ' $s_n$ ' and indicates that the next state is  $n$
- **reduce**, which is written as ' $r_m$ ' and indicates that a reduction with grammar rule  $m$  should be performed
- **accept**, which is written as 'acc' and indicates that the parser accepts the string in the input stream.

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## LR Parsing Algorithm: Concrete Example

| <i>state</i> | <i>action</i> |    |    |    |     | <i>goto</i> |   |
|--------------|---------------|----|----|----|-----|-------------|---|
|              | *             | +  | 0  | 1  | \$  | E           | B |
| 0            |               |    | s1 | s2 |     | 3           | 4 |
| 1            | r4            | r4 | r4 | r4 | r4  |             |   |
| 2            | r5            | r5 | r5 | r5 | r5  |             |   |
| 3            | s5            | s6 |    |    | acc |             |   |
| 4            | r3            | r3 | r3 | r3 | r3  |             |   |
| 5            |               |    | s1 | s2 |     |             | 7 |
| 6            |               |    | s1 | s2 |     |             | 8 |
| 7            | r1            | r1 | r1 | r1 | r1  |             |   |
| 8            | r2            | r2 | r2 | r2 | r2  |             |   |

### GOTO Table

Indexed by a state of the parser and a nonterminal and simply indicates what the next state of the parser will be if it has recognized a certain nonterminal.

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## LR Parsing Algorithm: Concrete Example

| state | action |    |    |    |     | goto |   |
|-------|--------|----|----|----|-----|------|---|
|       | *      | +  | 0  | 1  | \$  | E    | B |
| 0     |        |    | s1 | s2 |     | 3    | 4 |
| 1     | r4     | r4 | r4 | r4 | r4  |      |   |
| 2     | r5     | r5 | r5 | r5 | r5  |      |   |
| 3     | s5     | s6 |    |    | acc |      |   |
| 4     | r3     | r3 | r3 | r3 | r3  |      |   |
| 5     |        |    | s1 | s2 |     |      | 7 |
| 6     |        |    | s1 | s2 |     |      | 8 |
| 7     | r1     | r1 | r1 | r1 | r1  |      |   |
| 8     | r2     | r2 | r2 | r2 | r2  |      |   |

To explain its workings we will use the following small grammar whose start symbol is E:

(1)  $E \rightarrow E * B$

(2)  $E \rightarrow E + B$

(3)  $E \rightarrow B$

(4)  $B \rightarrow 0$

(5)  $B \rightarrow 1$

Parse the following input:

**1 + 1**

**Quiz:: PARSE 1**

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Concrete Example

### Parsing Procedure for 1+1

| State | Input | Output  | Stack     | Next Action            |
|-------|-------|---------|-----------|------------------------|
| 0     | 1+1\$ |         | [0]       | Shift 2                |
| 2     | +1\$  |         | [0,2]     | Reduce 5<br>GOTO[0, B] |
| 4     | +1\$  | 5       | [0,4]     | Reduce 3<br>GOTO[0, E] |
| 3     | +1\$  | 5,3     | [0,3]     | Shift 6                |
| 6     | 1\$   | 5,3     | [0,3,6]   | Shift 2                |
| 2     | \$    | 5,3     | [0,3,6,2] | Reduce 5<br>GOTO[6, B] |
| 8     | \$    | 5,3,5   | [0,3,6,8] | Reduce 2<br>GOTO[0, E] |
| 3     | \$    | 5,3,5,2 | [0,3]     | Accept                 |

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Advantages of LR Parsers

- They will work for nearly all grammars that describe programming languages.
- They work on a larger class of grammars than other bottom-up algorithms, but are as efficient as any other bottom-up parser.
- They can detect syntax errors as soon as it is possible.
- The LR class of grammars is a superset of the class parsable by LL parsers.

# Chapter 4b: Syntax Analysis

## Notes on LR Parsers

- Algorithms to generate LR parsing tables from given grammars are described in Aho et al (1986).
- A parser table can be generated from a given grammar with a tool, e.g., yacc.