Introduction to Algorithms and Data Structures Lecture 23: LL(1) predictive parsing

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Efficient parsing for artificial languages

Consider how we'd like to parse a program in the little programming language from Lecture 20.

We'd like to read the program from left to right, processing each token (i.e. terminal symbol occurrence) only once — hoping for O(n) runtime.

Predictive parsing: the idea

Start symbol is stmt.

Want to construct a leftmost derivation of our program starting from this (i.e. expanding the leftmost non-terminal at each step).

Let's suppose the first token in the program is **begin**.

From this alone, we can tell that the first two steps must be

```
\mathsf{stmt} \to \mathsf{begin} \cdot \mathsf{stmt}
\to \mathsf{begin} \cdot \mathsf{stmt} - \mathsf{list} \cdot \mathsf{end}
```

So we have to parse the complete program as begin stmt-list end.

Can now step over **begin**, and proceed to parse the remaining input as stmt-list **end**.

We think of this as the predicted form for the remaining input.

LL(1) predictive parsing: intuition

In each of these two steps, the correct production to apply has been determined from just two pieces of information:

- ▶ the current token (e.g. begin).
- ▶ the nonterminal to be expanded (e.g. stmt, begin-stmt).

If it's always possible to determine the next production from just this information, then the grammar is said to be LL(1). (Meaning: read input from Left; build Leftmost derivation; look just

1 token ahead.) In this case, parsing can be very efficient.

Unfortunately, our example grammar isn't quite LL(1), and the very next step illustrates this.

We now have to expand stmt-list. Suppose second input token is **if**. Which rule should we apply?

```
\mathsf{stmt}\text{-list} \to \mathsf{stmt} or \mathsf{stmt}\text{-list} \to \mathsf{stmt}; \mathsf{stmt}\text{-list} ?
```

No way to tell without further lookahead!

Fixing a grammar

In this case, we can recast the rules for stmt-list to fix the problem:

```
stmt-list \rightarrow stmt stmt-tail stmt-tail \rightarrow \epsilon | ; stmt stmt-tail
```

From the if, now see that the next two rules must be:

```
\mathsf{stmt}-list 	o \mathsf{stmt} stmt stmt-tail \mathsf{stmt} 	o \mathsf{if}-stmt if-stmt 	o \mathsf{if} bool-expr then stmt else stmt
```

The whole derivation so far:

- $\mathsf{stmt} \ \to \ \mathsf{begin}\text{-}\mathsf{stmt}$
 - → begin stmt-list end
 - → begin stmt stmt-tail end
 - → begin if-stmt stmt-tail end
 - → begin if bool-expr then stmt else stmt stmt-tail end

This accounts for the first two tokens, **begin if**. Predicted form for the rest is bool-expr **then** stmt **else** stmt stmt-tail **end**.

Parse tables

Consider the following grammar for bracket sequences, e.g. (()())()

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid TS \qquad T \rightarrow (S)$$

This is LL(1): can always tell from the 'current token' and 'current non-terminal' which rule to apply. Take on trust for now.

Idea: That means we can draw up a 2-dim parse table, telling us which rule to apply in any situation. In this case:

- ► Columns are labelled by terminals plus 'end-of-input' marker \$. Rows are labelled by non-terminals.
- ► Entry in column *a* and row *X* tells us the rule to apply if we have *a* in the input and *X* is predicted.
- Blank entries: situations that never arise for a legal input.

Parsing is now easy: at each step, just do what the table tells us!

Example of LL(1) parsing

Let's use this table to parse the input string (()). A stack keeps track of the predicted form for remaining input.

Operation	Remaining input	Stack state
	(())\$	5
Lookup (, S	(())\$	TS
Lookup (, T	(())\$	(5)5
Match (())\$	5)5
Lookup (, S	())\$	TS)S
Lookup (, T	())\$	(S)S)S
Match ())\$	5)5)5
Lookup), S))\$)5)5
Match))\$	S)S
Lookup), S)\$) <i>S</i>
Match)	\$	5
Lookup \$, S	\$	empty stack

(Also easy to build a syntax tree as we go along!)

Short exercise

For each of the following two input strings:

(

what will go wrong when we try to apply our parsing algorithm?

- 1. Blank entry in table encountered
- 2. Input symbol (or end marker) doesn't match predicted symbol
- 3. Stack empties before end of string reached

Answer: For), we start by expanding S to ϵ . But this empties the stack, whereas we haven't consumed any input yet. So 3.

For (, we get to a point where we've reached the end marker \$ in the input, which doesn't match the predicted symbol ')' on the stack. So 2.

LL(1) parsing: the algorithm

```
LL1_Parse (table, S, input)
   pos = 0
   initialize stack with single entry S
   while stack not empty
       x = stack.peek()
       if x is non-terminal # Lookup case
           case table[x,input[pos]] of
              blank: error
              rule x \to \beta:
                  stack.pop()
                  push symbols of \beta onto stack
                      (backwards!)
       else
                               # Match case
           if x = input[pos]
              stack.pop()
              pos += 1
           else error
   if input[pos] = $
       return Success
   else error
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```

Parse table revisited

Remember: The parse table entry for X, a tells us which rule to apply if we're expecting an X and see an a.

- ► Often, the *a* will be simply the first symbol of the *X*-subphrase in question.
- But not always: maybe the X-subphrase in question is ϵ , and the a belongs to whatever follows the X.

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc} & & & & & & & \\ \hline S & S \to TS & S \to \epsilon & S \to \epsilon \\ T & T \to (S) & & & & \end{array}$$

In this simple case, not too hard to see by ad-hoc reasoning that the parse table is correct.

For a large grammar, this might be hard!

However, there's an **algorithm** that takes a grammar and constructs the parse table (or else detects the grammar isn't LL(1)). Involves First and Follow sets — but won't pursue this here.

Further remarks

- LL(1) is an example of a top-down parser: builds syntax trees from the root. Contrast with CYK which is bottom-up.
- For any 'naturally arising' LL(1) grammar, easy to see that our parser runs in time $\Theta(n)$ (with small hidden constants).
- ▶ Not every CF language has an LL(1) grammar. But if we're designing a language, we can try to ensure that it does!
- ► LL(1) is nice for simple 'command languages' and the 'lightweight' parsing algorithm is a plus.
- ► For large-scale languages, may want a bit more flexibility. Common choice is LR(1) parsing (more complex than LL(1)).
- ▶ In the real world, no one implements parsers for large languages by hand! We just write a CFG, then run a parser generator which creates one automatically — typically by constructing a parse table.

Putting it in context: The language processing pipeline

Think about the phases in which e.g. a Java program is processed:

The language processing pipeline (NL version)

Broadly similar pipeline e.g. for spoken English:

```
Raw soundwaves
                                         phonetics
       Phones (e.g. [p^h]-pot, [p]-spot)

↓ phonology

             Phonemes (e.g. /p/, /b/)

    ↓ segmentation, tagging

Words, morphemes, part-of-speech info
                                         parsing
                           Syntax tree
                                         agreement checking etc.
                 Annotated syntax tree

    ↓ semantics

             Logical form or 'meaning'
```

Though with ambiguity at all stages, and much 'feedback' from later stages to earlier ones.

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Reading

- ▶ Appel and Ginsburg, Modern Compiler Implementation in C, Sections 3.1 and 3.2. Online access via UoE library. More detail than we need: covers the algorithm for constructing the parse table. Equivalent books exist for ML and Java (but no online library access for the latter).
- ▶ Aho, Sethi and Ullman, *Compilers: Principles, Techniques, Tools*, Section 4.4. Close to our treatment, but may be hard to find online.

Today's music: Ludovico Einaudi, Nuvole Bianche