Syntax Analysis

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August 31, 2021

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1 Context Free Grammar

The following is the definition of a *context free grammar*:

Definition. A context free grammar (CFG for short) is a 4-tuple $\mathcal{G} = (\Sigma, V, R, S)$ where

- Σ is a finite alphabet.
- \bullet V is a set of variables.
- R is a set of rules, where each rule r is in the form $r: A \to w$, with $A \in V$ and $w \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$. We denote A as the *left-hand-side* (*LHS*) and w as the *right-hand-side* (*RHS*).
- $S \in V$: the starting variable.

A CFG also defines a language. First let's see the definition of a derivation:

Definition. Let $\mathcal{G} = (\Sigma, V, R, S)$ be a CFG, $u = u_1 A u_2$ where $u_1, u_2 \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$ and $A \in V$, and r be a rule $r : A \to w$ in R. A derivation on u is denoted as

$$u_1Au_2 \xrightarrow{r} u_1wu_2$$

which represents changing a variable in u to the RHS of rule r.

Then the definition of the language of a CFG follows:

Definition. Let $\mathcal{G} = (\Sigma, V, R, S)$ be a CFG and $L(\mathcal{G})$ denote the language that \mathcal{G} accepts, then

 $L(\mathcal{G}) = \{ w \in \Sigma^* : \exists \text{ a finite sequence of derivations from } S \text{ to } w \}$

2 Determinism and Ambiguity

Remark. This section is mainly to provide some context, so most of the content is not complete. Many interesting theoretical results are not included, as they are not the focus of this documentation.

Similar to regexes, CFGs also have a class of machines that accept the languages of CFGs, called the *push down* automaton (PDA for short). Similar to finite automata, PDAs also have non-deterministic and deterministic (denoted as DPDA) variants. Unfortunately, DPDAs are not as powerful as general PDAs, meaning there are CFGs that cannot be parsed by DPDAs but can be parsed by PDAs. Thus, the notion of deterministic CFGs come in:

Definition. A CFG \mathcal{G} is deterministic there is a corresponding DPDA that derives \mathcal{G} .

Deterministic CFGs (DCFG for short) are often preferred because the DPDAs that derive them yields better run-time performance (similar idea to DFA). Another property of CFG is its *ambiguity*. For any CFG $\mathcal{G} = (\Sigma, V, R, S)$, every $w \in L(\mathcal{G})$ can be obtained from a finite sequence of derivations on S. Even if we limit the sequence of derivations to derive the leftmost variable first, the language $L(\mathcal{G})$ is still unchanged. This kind of derivation is called a *leftmost-derivation*. The definition of the *ambiguity* of a CFG follows:

Definition. A CFG $\mathcal{G} = (\Sigma, V, R, S)$ is ambiguous if there is a $w \in L(\mathcal{G})$ that can obtained from two different finite sequences of leftmost derivations on S.

Ambiguous CFGs are also something we want to avoid, since it may result in a program that can be parsed in two different ways, and thus how the program should be executed becomes unclear. Fortunately, DCFGs are always unambiguous (however, the converse is not true), thus if we restrict the CFGs to be deterministic, we don't have to worry about ambiguity.

Therefore, we now focus solely on how to parse DCFGs. We introduce the LR(1) and LALR(1) parsing tables, which are driven by the parsing algorithm to produce parsers. The LR(1) parser comes from a family of LR(k) parsers, which are a set of DPDAs. Theoretical results show that the family of LR(k) parsers are actually **exactly** the set of DPDAs, and that all LR(k) parsers can be transformed into LR(1) parsers. In other words, LR(1) parsers can parse all DCFGs. LALR(1) is a method to reduce the number of states produced by LR(1) parsers.

3 LR(1) Parsers

Before getting into the definition of a LR(1) parser, we have to first look at a few definitions. The following definition all uses the DCFG $\mathcal{G} = (\Sigma, V, R, S)$.

Definition. An LR(1) item is a 3-tuple w' = (r, i, z) where

- r is a rule in R.
- $w \in (\Sigma \cup V \cup \{\cdot\})^*$ comes from the RHS of r with a · inserted at any position.
- $z \subseteq \Sigma$ is a set of lookahead symbols.

Definition. For any variable $A \in V$, A is called *nullable* if one of the following is satisfied:

- There is a rule $A \to \varepsilon$ in R.
- There is a rule $A \to A_1 A_2 \cdots A_n$ in R, and for every $i = 1, \dots, n, A_i \in V$ and A_i is nullable.

Definition. The first-set of a string $w \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$, denoted by first(w), is a set $z \subseteq \Sigma$ constructed as follows:

- If $w = aw_1$ where $a \in \Sigma$ and $w_1 \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$, then $a \in z$.
- If $w = Aw_1$ where $A \in V$ and $w_1 \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$, then for every rule $r : A \to x$, we have first $(x) \subseteq z$.
- If $w = Aw_1$ where $A \in V$ and $w_1 \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$ and A is nullable, then first $(w_1) \subseteq z$.
- If $w = \varepsilon$, then $z = \emptyset$.

Definition. Given $w \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$ and $z \subseteq \Sigma$, the follow-set of w and z, denoted by follow (w, z), is defined as

$$\operatorname{follow}(w,z) = \begin{cases} z & \text{if } w = \varepsilon \\ \operatorname{first}(w) \cup z & \text{if } w = Aw_1 \text{ where } A \in V \text{ and } A \text{ is nullable} \\ \operatorname{first}(w) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Definition. A closure of an LR(1) item w', denoted by closure(w'), is a set q' of LR(1) items where a set q is first constructed as follows:

- $w' \in q$.
- If $(r, w_1 \cdot Bw_2, z) \in q$, where $w_1, w_2 \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$ and $B \in V$, then for every rule $(s : B \to x) \in R$, we have

$$(s, \cdot x, \text{follow}(w_2, z)) \in q$$

Then, the final set q' is constructed from q with the following:

$$q' = \left\{ (r, w, z) : (r, w, z_1), \dots, (r, w, z_n) \in q \text{ and } z = \bigcup_{i=1}^n z_i \right\}$$

With these definitions, we can construct the LR(1) state transition graph using the following algorithm:

Algorithm 1 LR(1)-STATE-TRANSITON-GRAPH

- 1: **function** LR(1)-STATE-TRANSITION-GRAPH
- $\Sigma \leftarrow \Sigma \cup \{\$\}$
- $V \leftarrow V \cup \{S'\}$ 3:
- $r \leftarrow (S' \rightarrow S)$
- $R \leftarrow R \cup \{r\}$ 5:
- $q_0 \leftarrow \text{closure}((r, \cdot S, \$))$
- $Q \leftarrow \{q_0\}$ 7:
- $\delta \leftarrow \varnothing$ 8:
- for $p \in Q$ do 9:

▶ \$ represents the end-of-string symbol

 \triangleright The initial state q_0 represents the state where it is expecting to derive S, followed by lookahead symbol \$

```
for x \in \Sigma \cup V do
10:
                    q \leftarrow \varnothing
11:
                    for (r, w_1 \cdot w_2, z) \in p do
12:
                          if w_2 = xw_3 then
13:
                               q \leftarrow \text{closure}((r, w_1x \cdot w_3, z))
14:
                          end if
15:
                     end for
16:
                     Q \leftarrow Q \cup \{q\}
17:
18:
                     \delta \leftarrow \delta \cup \{((p, x), q)\}
               end for
19:
20:
          end for
          return (Q, q_0, \delta)
21:
22: end function
```

After constructing the state-transition graph, we can use it to construct the LR(1) state table using the following algorithm:

Algorithm 2 LR(1)-STATE-TABLE

```
1: function LR(1)-STATE-TABLE(Q, q_0, \delta)
        T \leftarrow a two-dimensional array, all initialized to error
        for ((p, x), q) \in \delta do
 3:
            if x \in \Sigma then
 4:
                T[p][x] \leftarrow \text{shift}(q)
                                                                         \triangleright Represents a shift action
 5:
 6:
            else
                 T[p][x] \leftarrow goto(q)
 7:
                                                                         ▶ Represents a goto action
            end if
 8:
        end for
 9:
        for p \in Q do
10:
            for (r, w_1 \cdot w_2, z) \in p do
11:
                if w_2 = \varepsilon then
12:
                     for a \in z do
13:
                         if T[p][a] \neq \text{error} and T[p][a] \neq \text{reduce}(r) then
14:
                             if T[p][a] is a shift action then
15:
                                 print("shift-reduce conflict on state p")
16:
                             else if T[p][a] is a reduce action then
17:
                                 print("reduce-reduce conflict on state p")
18:
                             end if
19:
                             return null
20:
                         else
21:
                             T[p][a] \leftarrow \text{reduce}(r)
                                                                         ▶ Represents a reduce action
22:
                         end if
23:
                     end for
24:
                end if
25:
26:
            end for
        end for
27:
28:
        return (q_0, T)
29: end function
```

Note that we introduced the concept of conflicts — states where different actions can be taken. If conflicts exist, then it is not possible to build an LR(1) parser using the above algorithm.

With the LR(1) state table constructed, we can finally run the parsing algorithm on any word $s \in \Sigma^*$:

Algorithm 3 Parsing Algorithm

```
1: function Parsing-Algorithm(q_0, T, s)

2: s \leftarrow s$

3: Z \leftarrow an empty stack

4: Z.\text{push}(q_0)

5: p \leftarrow q_0
```

```
for each character a of s in order do
 6:
             action \leftarrow T[p][a]
 7:
             if action = error then
 8:
                  print("Syntax error")
 9:
                  return false
10:
             else if action = shift(q) for some q \in Q then
11:
                  Z.\operatorname{push}(a)
12:
                  Z.\operatorname{push}(q)
13:
14:
                  p \leftarrow q
             else if action = reduce(r) for some r \in R then
15:
                  n \leftarrow the length of the RHS of r
16:
                  for 2n times do
17:
                       Z.pop()
18:
                  end for
19:
20:
                  p \leftarrow Z.top()
                  A \leftarrow \text{LHS of } r
21:
                  q \leftarrow T[p][A]
22:
                  Z.\operatorname{push}(a)
23:
                  Z.\operatorname{push}(q)
24:
25:
                  p \leftarrow q
             end if
26:
         end for
27:
         return true
28:
    end function
```

4 LALR(1) Parsers

LALR(1) parsers are exactly the same as LR(1) parsers except for the construction of the state table. The following algorithm shows how to construct an LALR(1) state table from an LR(1) state table:

Algorithm 4 LALR(1) STATE TABLE

```
1: function LALR(1)-STATE-TABLE(q_0, T)
         newItems \leftarrow an empty dictionary
 2:
 3:
         for q \in Q do
             W \leftarrow \varnothing
 4:
             for (w, z) \in q do
 5:
                  W \leftarrow W \cup \{w\}
 6:
             end for
 7:
 8:
             if q = q_0 then
                  W_0 \leftarrow W
 9:
10:
             end if
             if newItems[W] exists then
11:
                  \text{newItems}[W] \leftarrow \text{newItems}[W] \cup \{q\}
12:
             else
13:
                  \text{newItems}[W] \leftarrow \{q\}
14:
             end if
15:
16:
         Find q'_0 such that q_0 \in \text{newItems}[q'_0]
17:
         T' \leftarrow a two-dimensional array, all initialized to error
18:
         for p' \in \text{newItems.values do}
19:
             for p \in p' do
20:
                  for x \in \Sigma \cup V do
21:
                      action_{new} \leftarrow T[p][x]
22:
                      if action_{new} = shift(q) for some q \in Q then
23:
                           Find q' such that q \in \text{newItems}[q']
24:
                           action_{new} \leftarrow shift(q')
25:
```

```
else if action_{new} = goto(q) for some q \in Q then
26:
                          Find q' such that q \in \text{newItems}[q']
27:
28:
                          action_{new} \leftarrow goto(q')
                      end if
29:
                      if T'[p'][x] \neq \text{error and action}_{\text{new}} \neq \text{error and } T'[p'][x] \neq \text{action}_{\text{new}} then
30:
                          if action<sub>new</sub> is a shift action then
31:
                               print("shift-reduce conflict on state p'")
32:
                          else if action_{new} is a reduce action then
33:
                               print("reduce-reduce conflict on state p'")
34:
                          end if
35:
36:
                          return null
                      end if
37:
                      T'[p'][x] \leftarrow \operatorname{action}_{\text{new}}
38:
                  end for
39:
40:
             end for
         end for
41:
         return (q'_0, T')
42:
43: end function
```

Note that the construction of the LALR(1) parsing table may introduce new conflicts, which means that even if a CFG can be used to construct an LR(1) parser, the same CFG may not necessarily be able to be used to construct an LALR(1) parser.

5 Empty Productions

The algorithms above only work when all rules in the CFG are not empty productions; in other words, all $r: A \to x$ in R satisfies $x \neq \varepsilon$. However, having empty productions (i.e. $r: A \to \varepsilon$) can be very helpful in constructing the CFG for various programming language constructs. Therefore, here we show how to remove empty productions from a given CFG:

Algorithm 5 Empty Production Removal

```
1: function Empty-Production-Removal(\mathcal{G} = (\Sigma, V, R, S))
        changed \leftarrow \mathbf{true}
 2:
        while changed do
 3:
            changed \leftarrow false
 4:
            for (r: A \to x) \in R do
 5:
                 if x = \varepsilon then
 6:
                     for (s: B \to y) \in R do
 7:
 8:
                         n \leftarrow the number of occurrences of A in y
                         if n > 0 then
 9:
                             for m = 0, 1, \dots, 2^n - 1 do
10:
                                 y' \leftarrow y with the i-th occurrence of A removed if the i-th bit of m is 1
11:
                                 R \leftarrow R \cup \{B \rightarrow y'\}
12:
13:
                                 changed \leftarrow true
                             end for
14:
                         end if
15:
                     end for
16:
                 end if
17:
18:
             end for
19:
        end while
20: end function
```