Top-Down Parsing

- ❖ A parser is top-down if it discovers a parse tree top to bottom
 - * A top-down parse corresponds to a preorder traversal of the parse tree
 - * A leftmost derivation is applied at each derivation step
- ❖ Top-down parsers come in two forms
 - * Predictive Parsers
 - ♦ Predict the production rule to be applied using lookahead tokens
 - * Backtracking Parsers
 - ♦ Will try different productions, backing up when a parse fails
- ❖ Predictive parsers are much faster than backtracking ones
 - * Predictive parsers operate in linear time will be our focus
 - * Backtracking parsers operate in exponential time will not be considered
- * Two kinds of top-down parsing techniques will be studied
 - * Recursive-descent parsing
 - * LL parsing

Top-Down Parsing by Recursive-Descent

- \diamond We view a nonterminal A as a definition of a procedure A
 - * Procedure A will match the token sequence generated by nonterminal A
- \clubsuit The RHS of a production of A specifies the code for procedure A
 - * Terminals are matched against input tokens
 - * Nonterminals produce calls to corresponding procedures
- ❖ If multiple production rules exist for a nonterminal *A*
 - * One of them is predicted based on a lookahead token
 - ♦ The lookahead token is the next input token that should be matched
 - * The predicted rule is the only one that applies
 - ♦ Other rules will NOT be tried
 - ♦ This is a predictive parsing technique, not a backtracking one
- ❖ A syntax error is detected when
 - * Next token in the input sequence does NOT match the expected token

Example on Recursive-Descent Parsing

Consider the following grammar for expressions in EBNF notation

```
expr \rightarrow term \{ addop term \}
term \rightarrow factor \{ mulop factor \}
factor \rightarrow ('expr')' \mid id \mid num
```

- ❖ Since three nonterminals exist, we need three parsing procedures
 - * The curly brackets expressing repetition is translated into a while loop
 - * The vertical bar expressing alternation is translated into a case statement

```
procedure expr( )
                          procedure term( )
                                                      procedure factor( )
                                                      begin
begin
                          begin
                                                       case token of
                            factor();
 term();
                             while token = MULOP do '(':
 while token = ADDOP do
                                                              match('('); expr(); match(')');
  match(ADDOP);
                               match(MULOP);
                                                        ID:
                                                              match(ID);
                                                        NUM: match(NUM);
                               factor();
  term();
                             end while;
 end while;
                                                        else
                                                              syntax_error(token);
                                                       end case:
                          end term;
end expr;
                                                      end factor;
```

Lookahead Token and Match Procedure

- ❖ The recursive-descent procedures use a *token* variable
- ❖ The *token* variable is the **lookahead token**
 - * Keeps track of the next token in the input sequence
 - * Is initialized to the first token before parsing begins
 - * Is updated after every call to the match procedure
- ❖ The *match* procedure matches lookahead *token* with its parameter
 - * Is called to match an **expected token** on the RHS of a production
 - * Match succeeds if expected token = lookahead token and fails otherwise
 - * Match calls scanner function to update the lookahead token

```
procedure match (ExpectedToken)
begin
  if token = ExpectedToken then token := scan();
  else syntax_error(token, ExpectedToken);
  end if;
end match;
```

Syntax Tree Construction for Expressions

- * A recursive-descent parser can be used to construct a syntax tree SyntaxTree := expr(); Calling parser function for start symbol
- Parsing functions allocate and return pointers to syntax tree nodes
- ❖ Construction of a syntax tree for simple expressions is given below
 - * New node allocates a tree node and returns a pointer to it

```
function expr(): TreePtr
                                           function term(): TreePtr
begin
                                            begin
  left := term();
                                              left := factor();
                                              while token = MULOP do
  while token = ADDOP do
     op := ADDOP.op ; match(ADDOP);
                                                 op := MULOP.op; match(MULOP);
                                                right := factor();
     right := term();
     left := \mathbf{new} \ node(op, left, right);
                                                 left := \mathbf{new} \ node(op, left, right);
  end while:
                                              end while:
  return left;
                                              return left;
end expr;
                                            end term;
```

Syntax Tree Construction – cont'd

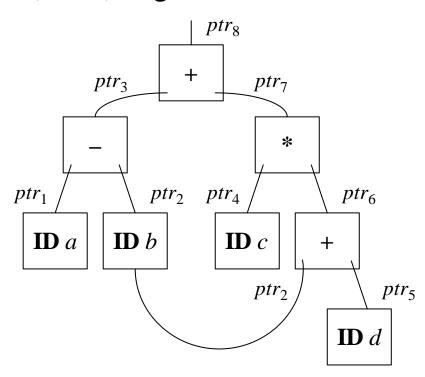
- ❖ For a *factor*, we have the following parsing function
 - * symtable.lookup(ID.name) searches a symbol table for a given name
 - * *lookup* function returns a pointer to an identifier symbol in *symtable*
 - * Identifiers are inserted into symbol table when parsing a declaration
 - * The NUM.ptr is a pointer to a literal symbol in the literal table
 - * Literal constants are inserted into the literal table when scanned

Node Structure for Expression Trees

- ❖ A syntax tree node for expressions should have at least:
 - * Node operaror: +, -, *, /, etc. Different for each operator
 - ♦ For symbol table entries, the node operator is **ID**
 - ♦ For literal table entries, the node operator is **NUM**
 - ♦ Other node operators can be added to statements and various types of literals
 - * Left Pointer: pointer to left child expression tree
 - ♦ Can point to a tree node, to a symbol node, or to a literal node
 - * Right Pointer: pointer to right child expression tree
 - ♦ Can point to a tree node, to a symbol node, or to a literal node
- ❖ The following fields are also important:
 - * Line, Pos: keeps track of line and position of each tree node
 - * Type: associates a type with each tree node
 - ♦ Type information is used to check the type of expressions

Tracing the Construction of a Syntax Tree

- ❖ Although recursive-descent is a top-down parsing technique ...
 - * The construction of the syntax tree for expressions is bottom up
 - * Tracing verifies the precedence and associativity of operators
- ❖ The tree construction of a b + c * (b + d) is given below
 - $*ptr_1 \leftarrow symtable.lookup(a)$
 - $*ptr_2 \leftarrow symtable.lookup(b)$
 - * $ptr_3 \leftarrow \mathbf{new} \ node(`-', ptr_1, ptr_2)$
 - $*ptr_4 \leftarrow symtable.lookup(c)$
 - $*ptr_2 \leftarrow symtable.lookup(b)$
 - * $ptr_5 \leftarrow symtable.lookup(d)$
 - * $ptr_6 \leftarrow \mathbf{new} \ node('+', ptr_2, ptr_5)$
 - * $ptr_7 \leftarrow \mathbf{new} \ node(`*, ptr_4, ptr_6)$
 - * $ptr_8 \leftarrow \mathbf{new} \ node('+', ptr_3, ptr_7)$



Syntax Tree Construction for if Statements

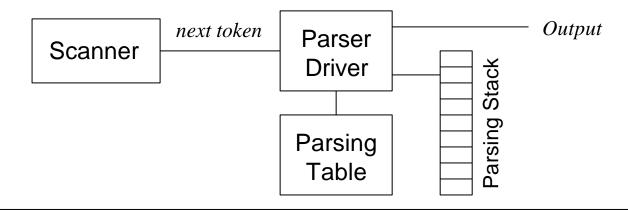
❖ An Extended BNF grammar for **if** statements with optional **else**:

```
if-stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt [ else stmt ]
```

- ❖ A parsing function can eliminate the ambiguity of **else**
 - * By matching an **else** token as soon as encountered
- ❖ Syntax tree of **if** stmt is constructed bottom-up

LL Parsing

- ❖ Uses an explicit stack rather than recursive calls to perform a parse
- \bigstar LL(k) parsing means that k tokens of lookahead are used
 - * The first L means that token sequence is read from left to right
 - * The second L means a leftmost derivation is applied at each step
- ❖ An LL parser consists of
 - * Parser stack that holds grammar symbols: non-terminals and tokens
 - * Parsing table that specifies the parser action
 - * Driver function that interacts with parser stack, parsing table and scanner



LL Parsing Actions

- ❖ The LL parsing actions are:
 - * Match: to match top of parser stack with next input token
 - * Predict: to predict a production and apply it in a derivation step
 - * Accept: to accept and terminate the parsing of a sequence of tokens
 - *** Error**: to report an error message when matching or prediction fails
- ❖ Consider the following grammar: $S \rightarrow (S)S \mid \varepsilon$

	Parser Stack	Input	Parser Action
	\overline{S}	(())\$	$Predict S \rightarrow (S) S$
	(S)S	(())\$	Match (
Parsing of (())	S) S	())\$	Predict $S \rightarrow (S) S$
	(S)S)S	())\$	Match (
Stack grows backward	S) S) S))\$	Predict $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$
from right to left) S) S))\$	Match)
	S) S)\$	Predict $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$
) S)\$	Match)
	S	\$	Predict $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$
	Empty	\$	Accept

Grammar Analysis: Nonterminals that Derive ε

- Grammar analysis is necessary to
 - * Determine whether a grammar can be used in LL parsing
 - * Construct the LL parsing table that defines the actions of an LL parser
- \diamond A common analysis is to determine which nonterminals derive ϵ
 - * Nonterminals that derive ε are called **nullable**
- \bullet To determine which nonterminals derive ε ...
 - * We use an iterative marking algorithm
 - * First, nonterminals that derive ε directly in one step are marked
 - * Nonterminals that derive ε in two, three, ... steps are found and marked
 - **★** Continue until no more nonterminals can be marked as deriving ε
- Consider the following grammar

$$A \rightarrow B C D$$

$$B \rightarrow \mathbf{b} \ C \mid \varepsilon$$

$$B$$
, C , and D derive ε directly

$$C \to \mathbf{c} D \mid \mathbf{\epsilon}$$
$$D \to \mathbf{d} \mid \mathbf{\epsilon}$$

A derives
$$\varepsilon$$
 indirectly: $A \Rightarrow B \ C \ D \Rightarrow C \ D \Rightarrow \varepsilon$

Grammar Analysis: The First Set

- ❖ Suppose we have the following grammar:
 - * The RHS of the productions of S do not begin with terminals
 - * Parser has no immediate guidance which production to apply to expand S
 - \star We may follow all possible derivations of S as shown below

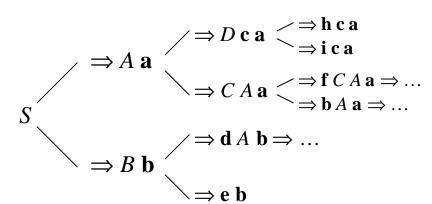
$$S \rightarrow A \mathbf{a} \mid B \mathbf{b}$$

$$A \rightarrow D \mathbf{c} \mid C A$$

$$B \rightarrow \mathbf{d} A \mid \mathbf{e}$$

$$C \rightarrow \mathbf{f} C \mid \mathbf{b}$$

$$D \rightarrow \mathbf{h} \mid \mathbf{i}$$



- \bullet We predict $S \to A$ a when
 - * First token is \mathbf{h} , \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{f} , or \mathbf{b} . First($A\mathbf{a}$) = { \mathbf{h} , \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{f} , \mathbf{b} }
- \bullet We predict $S \to B$ **b** when
 - * First token is **d** or **e**. First(B**b**) = {**d**, **e**}
- ❖ Otherwise, we have an error

Grammar Analysis: Determining the First Set

- Formally, $First(\alpha) = \{ \mathbf{a} \in T \mid \alpha \Rightarrow^* \mathbf{a}\beta \}$
 - * First(α) is the set of all terminals that can begin a sentential form of α
- ❖ If $\alpha \Rightarrow * \varepsilon$ then $\varepsilon \in First(\alpha)$
- \diamond To calculate First(α) we apply the following rules

* First(
$$\varepsilon$$
) = { ε }

$$\alpha = \epsilon$$

* First(
$$a\beta$$
) = { a }

$$\alpha = a\beta$$

* First(A) = First(
$$\beta_1$$
) \cup First(β_2) \cup ... $\alpha = A$ and $A \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \beta_2 \mid ...$

$$\alpha = A \text{ and } A \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \beta_2 \mid \dots$$

* First(
$$A\beta$$
) = First(A)

$$\alpha = A\beta$$
 and A is NOT nullable

* First(
$$A\beta$$
) = (First(A) – { ϵ }) \cup First(β) $\alpha = A\beta$ and $A \Rightarrow^+ \epsilon$

$$\alpha = A\beta$$
 and $A \Rightarrow^+ \varepsilon$

Consider the following grammar:

$$S \rightarrow A B C \mathbf{d} \quad \text{First}(A) = \{\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{\epsilon}\}\$$

$$A \rightarrow \mathbf{e} \mid \mathbf{f} \mid \mathbf{\epsilon} \quad \text{First}(B) = \{\mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{\epsilon}\}\$$

$$B \rightarrow \mathbf{g} \mid \mathbf{h} \mid \varepsilon \quad \text{First}(C) = \{\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}\}\$$

$$C \rightarrow \mathbf{p} \mid \mathbf{q}$$
 First(S) = First(ABCd) = (First(A)-{\varepsilon}) \cup (First(B)-{\varepsilon}) \cup First(Cd)
= {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon} \cup {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon} \varepsilon \varepsilon {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon, \varepsilon} \varepsilon {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon, \varepsilon} \varepsilon \varepsilon {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon, \varepsilon, \varepsilon, \varepsilon {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon, \varepsilon, \varepsilon, \varepsilon, \varepsilon {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon {\varepsilon}, \varepsilon, \vareps

Grammar Analysis: The Follow Set

- Suppose we have the following grammar
 - * We follow derivations of S as shown below ...

$$S \rightarrow A \mathbf{c} B$$

$$A \rightarrow \mathbf{a} A$$

$$A \rightarrow \mathbf{c} B$$

$$B \rightarrow \mathbf{b} B S$$

$$B \rightarrow \mathbf{c} B$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{c} \mathbf{b} B S \Rightarrow \mathbf{c} \mathbf{b} B A \mathbf{c} B$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{c} \mathbf{b} B \mathbf{c} B \Rightarrow \dots$$

- \bullet We predict $A \rightarrow \mathbf{a} A$ when
 - * Next token is a because $First(aA) = \{a\}$
- **❖** We predict A → ε when
 - * Next token is \mathbf{c} because Follow(A) = { \mathbf{c} }
- Similarly, we predict $B \rightarrow \mathbf{b} B S$ when
 - * Next token is **b** because First(**b** B S) = {**b**}
- **❖** We predict B → ε when
 - * Next token is \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{c} , or \$ (end-of-file token) because Follow(B) = { \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{c} , \$}

Grammar Analysis: Determining the Follow Set

- ❖ Formally, Follow(A) = { $\mathbf{a} \in T \mid S \Rightarrow^+ \alpha A \mathbf{a} \beta$ }
 - * Follow(A) is the set of terminals that may follow A in any sentential form
- ❖ If $S \Rightarrow^+ \alpha A$ then \$ ∈ Follow(A)
 - * If A is not followed by any terminal then it is followed by the end of file
 - * The \$ represents the end-of-file token
- \bullet We compute Follow(A) using the following rules:
 - * If A is the start symbol then $\$ \in \text{Follow}(A)$
 - * Inspect RHS of productions for all occurrences of *A* Let a typical production be $B \to \alpha A \beta$
 - \Leftrightarrow If β is NOT nullable then add First(β) to Follow(A)
 - Any token that can begin a sentential form of β can follow A
 - \Leftrightarrow If β is ε or derives ε then add (First(β) {ε}) \cup Follow(*B*) to Follow(*A*)
 - If β vanishes in a given derivation then what follows A is what follows B
 - ... $\Rightarrow \delta B \gamma \Rightarrow \delta \alpha A \beta \gamma \Rightarrow \delta \alpha A \gamma \Rightarrow ...$ what follows A is what follows B is First(γ)

Examples on the First and Follow Sets

```
Nonterminals that derive \varepsilon are A and B
Example 1:
                                            First(S) = First(AcB) = (First(A) - \{\epsilon\}) \cup First(cB) = \{a, c\}
S \rightarrow A \mathbf{c} B
                                            First(A) = First(aA) \cup First(\varepsilon) = \{a, \varepsilon\}
                                            First(B) = First(\mathbf{b}BS) \cup First(\varepsilon) = \{ \mathbf{b}, \varepsilon \}
A \rightarrow \mathbf{a} A
A \rightarrow \varepsilon
                                            Follow(S) = \{\$\} \cup Follow(B)
                                            Follow(A) = \{c\}
B \rightarrow \mathbf{b} B S
                                            Follow(B) = Follow(S) \cup First(S) = \{\$, a, c\}
B \rightarrow \varepsilon
                                            Follow(S) = \{\$, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}\}\
Example 2:
                                            Nonterminals that derive \varepsilon are Q and R
                                            First(E) = First(TQ) = First(T) = First(FR) = First(F) = \{(, id)\}
E \rightarrow TQ
                                            First(Q) = \{+, -, \epsilon\}
Q \rightarrow + TQ \mid -TQ \mid \varepsilon
                                            First(R) = \{ *, /, \epsilon \}
T \rightarrow FR
                                            Follow(E) = \{\$, \}
R \rightarrow *FR \mid /FR \mid \varepsilon \text{ Follow}(Q) = \text{Follow}(E) = \{\$, \}
                                            Follow(T) = (First(Q) - \{\epsilon\}) \cup Follow(E) \cup Follow(Q) = \{+, -, \$, \}
F \rightarrow (E) \mid id
                                            Follow(R) = Follow(T) = \{+, -, \$, \}
```

 $Follow(F) = (First(R) - \{\epsilon\}) \cup Follow(T) \cup Follow(R) = \{*, /, +, -, \$, \}$

Grammar Analysis: Determining the Predict Set

- The predict set of a production $A \to \alpha$ is defined as follows:
 - * If α is **NOT nullable** then Predict $(A \rightarrow \alpha) = \text{First}(\alpha)$
 - * If α is Nullable then $\operatorname{Predict}(A \to \alpha) = (\operatorname{First}(\alpha) \{\epsilon\}) \cup \operatorname{Follow}(A)$
 - * This is the set of lookahead tokens that will cause the selection of $A \rightarrow \alpha$
- * Example on determining the predict set:

```
E \rightarrow TQ
                              Predict E \to TQ = First(TQ) = First(T) = \{(, id)\}
Q \rightarrow + T Q
                              Predict Q \rightarrow + TQ = First(+TQ) = \{ + \}
Q \rightarrow -TQ
                              Predict Q \rightarrow -TQ = First(-TQ) = \{-\}
                              Predict Q \to \varepsilon = Follow(Q) = {$, }}
O \rightarrow \varepsilon
T \rightarrow FR
                              Predict T \rightarrow FR = First(FR) = First(F) = {(, id)}
R \rightarrow *FR
                              Predict R \rightarrow *FR = First(*FR) = \{ * \}
                              Predict R \rightarrow / FR = First(/FR) = \{ / \}
R \rightarrow / FR
                              Predict R \to \varepsilon = Follow(R) = {+, -, $, }}
R \rightarrow \varepsilon
F \rightarrow (E)
                              Predict F \rightarrow (E) = \{(\}
                              Predict F \rightarrow id = \{ id \}
F \rightarrow id
```

LL(1) Grammars

- ❖ Not all context-free grammars are suitable for LL parsing
- ❖ CFGs suitable for LL(1) parsing are called **LL(1)** Grammars

$$A \rightarrow \alpha_1 \mid \alpha_2 \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n$$

 $\operatorname{Predict}(A \to \alpha_i) \cap \operatorname{Predict}(A \to \alpha_j) = \emptyset \text{ for all } i \neq j$

The predict sets of productions with same LHS are pairwise disjoint

❖ The following grammar is LL(1)

$$S oup A cdot B$$
 $A oup a A$ Predict $(A oup a A) = \{a\}$
 $A oup \epsilon$ Predict $(A oup \epsilon) = Follow(A) = \{c\}$
 $B oup b B S$ Predict $(B oup b B S) = \{b\}$
 $B oup \epsilon$ Predict $(B oup \epsilon) = Follow(B) = Follow(S) oup First(S) = Disjoint = $\{\$\} oup Follow(B) oup \{a, c\} = \{\$, a, c\}$$

Constructing the LL(1) Parsing Table

- ❖ The predict sets can be represented in an LL(1) parse table
 - * The rows are indexed by the nonterminals
 - * The columns are indexed by the tokens
- ❖ If A is a nonterminal and **tok** is the lookahead token then
 - * *Table*[A][tok] indicates which production to predict
 - * If no production can be used *Table*[A][tok] gives an error value
- * $Table[A][tok] = A \rightarrow \alpha \text{ iff } tok \in predict(A \rightarrow \alpha)$
- * Example on constructing the LL(1) parsing table:

1:
$$S \rightarrow A \mathbf{c} B$$
 Predict(1) = { \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c} }
2: $A \rightarrow \mathbf{a} A$ Predict(2) = { \mathbf{a} }
3: $A \rightarrow \varepsilon$ Predict(3) = { \mathbf{c} }
4: $B \rightarrow \mathbf{b} B S$ Predict(4) = { \mathbf{b} }
5: $B \rightarrow \varepsilon$ Predict(5) = { $\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}$ }

	a	b	C	\$
S	1		1	
\overline{A}	2		3	
B	5	4	5	5

Empty slots indicate error conditions

Constructing the LL(1) Parsing Table – cont'd

❖ Here is a second example on constructing the parsing table

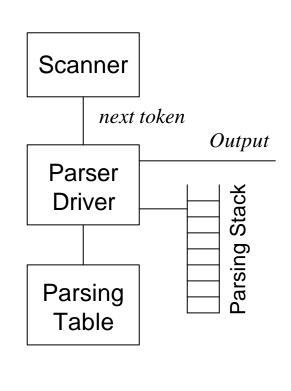
```
1: E \rightarrow TQ Predict(1) = { (, id)}
 2: Q \rightarrow + TQ Predict(2) = { + }
                                                                                       id
 3: Q \rightarrow -TQ Predict(3) = { - }
 4: Q \rightarrow \varepsilon Predict(4) = { $ , ) }
5: T \rightarrow FR Predict(5) = { (, id)}
6: R \rightarrow *FR Predict(6) = { * }
                                                                                    4
                                                                                             4
                                                                                        5
 7: R \rightarrow / FR Predict(7) = { / }
                                                       R
                                                                      6
 8: R \rightarrow \varepsilon Predict(8) = {+, -, $, }
 9: F \rightarrow (E) Predict(9) = { ( }
                                                                                        10
                                                                               9
10: F \rightarrow \mathbf{id} Predict(10) = { \mathbf{id} }
```

- ❖ Because the above grammar is LL(1)
 - * A unique production number is stored in a table entry
- **❖** Blank entries correspond to error conditions
 - * In practice, special error numbers are used to indicate error situations

LL(1) Parser Driver Algorithm

❖ The LL(1) parser driver algorithm can be described as follows:

```
Token := scan()
Stack.push(StartSymbol)
while not Stack.empty() do
  X := Stack.pop()
  if terminal(X)
     if X = Token then Token := scan()
     else process a syntax error at Token end if
  else (* X is a nonterminal *)
     Rule := Table[X][Token]
     if Rule = X \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_n then
        for i from n downto 1 do Stack.push(Y_i) end for
     else process a syntax error at Token end if
  end if
end while
if Token = $ then accept parsing
else report a syntax error at Token end if
```



Tracing an LL(1) Parser Parser Stack

Stack grows backwards from right to left

Input Parser Action

Consider the parsing of id * (id + id)\$

1:
$$E \rightarrow TQ$$
 6: $R \rightarrow *FR$

2:
$$Q \rightarrow + TQ$$
 7: $R \rightarrow / FR$

3:
$$O \rightarrow -TO$$
 8: $R \rightarrow \varepsilon$

3:
$$Q \rightarrow -TQ$$
 8: $R \rightarrow \varepsilon$
4: $Q \rightarrow \varepsilon$ 9: $F \rightarrow (E)$

5:
$$T \rightarrow FR$$
 10: $F \rightarrow id$

	+	_	*	/	()	id	\$
E					1		1	
Q	2	3				4		4
T					5		5	
\overline{R}	8	8	6	7		8		8
\overline{F}					9		10	

E	id*(id+id)\$	Predict $E \rightarrow TQ$
TQ	id*(id+id)\$	Predict $T \rightarrow FR$
FRQ	id*(id+id)\$	Predict $F \rightarrow id$
id R Q	id*(id+id)\$	Match id
RQ	*(id+id)\$	Predict $R \to *FR$
* F R Q	` , .	Match *
FRQ	(id + id)\$	Predict $F \rightarrow (E)$
(E)RQ	(id+id) \$	Match (
E)RQ	id+id)\$	Predict $E \rightarrow TQ$
TQ)RQ	id+id)\$	Predict $T \rightarrow FR$
FRQ)RQ	id+id)\$	Predict $F \rightarrow id$
id R Q)R Q	id+id)\$	Match id
RQ)RQ	+id)\$	Predict $R \rightarrow \varepsilon$
Q)RQ	+id)\$	Predict $Q \rightarrow + T Q$
+ TQ)RQ	+ id)\$	Match +
TQ)RQ	id)\$	Predict $T \rightarrow FR$
FRQ)RQ	id)\$	Predict $F \rightarrow id$
id R Q)R Q	id)\$	Match id
RQ)RQ)\$	Predict $R \rightarrow \varepsilon$
Q)RQ)\$	Predict $Q \rightarrow \varepsilon$
) R Q)\$	Match)
RQ	\$	Predict $R \rightarrow \varepsilon$
Q	\$	Predict $Q \rightarrow \varepsilon$
Empty	\$	Accept

The Problem of Left Recursion

- \clubsuit Left recursive grammars fail to be LL(1) or even LL(k)
 - * A left recursive production puts an LL parser into infinite loop
 - * If a left recursive production is predicted then
 - ♦ Nonterminal on LHS is replaced with RHS of production
 - ♦ The same nonterminal will appear again on top of parser stack
 - ♦ The same production is predicted again
 - ♦ Iteration goes forever
- ❖ Left recursion is commonly used to
 - * Make an operation left associative
 - $\Leftrightarrow Expr \rightarrow Expr \ \mathbf{addop} \ Term \mid Term$
 - * Specify a list of identifiers, statements, etc.
 - *♦ StmtList* → *StmtList* ; *Statement* | *Statement*
- ❖ We need to eliminate left recursion to make a grammar LL(1)

Eliminating Immediate Left Recursion

- ❖ The simplest case of left recursion is **immediate left recursion**
 - * General Form: $A \rightarrow A \alpha \mid \beta$
 - * The above productions of A generate strings of the form $\beta \alpha^n$, $n \ge 0$
 - * We introduce a new nonterminal and use right recursion as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \rightarrow & \beta \, Atail \\ Atail & \rightarrow & \alpha \, Atail \mid \epsilon \end{array}$$

- ❖ In general, if many immediate left recursive productions exist
 - * General Form: $A \rightarrow A \alpha_1 | A \alpha_2 | \dots | A \alpha_n | \beta_1 | \beta_2 | \dots | \beta_m$
 - * We introduce a new nonterminal and use right recursion

$$A \rightarrow \beta_1 A tail \mid \beta_2 A tail \mid \dots \mid \beta_m A tail$$

$$A tail \rightarrow \alpha_1 A tail \mid \alpha_2 A tail \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n A tail \mid \varepsilon$$

❖ For example: $Expr \rightarrow Expr + Term \mid Expr - Term \mid Term$ becomes:

```
 \begin{array}{lll} \textit{Expr} & \rightarrow \textit{Term} & \textit{Exprtail} \\ \textit{Exprtail} & \rightarrow +\textit{Term} & \textit{Exprtail} \mid -\textit{Term} & \textit{Exprtail} \mid \epsilon \\ \end{array}
```

Eliminating Indirect Left Recursion

❖ In some cases, **left recursion may be indirect**

For example: $A \rightarrow B \beta \mid \dots$ and $B \rightarrow A \alpha \mid \dots$

- ❖ We can do substitutions to make left recursion immediate
- Consider the following grammar:

$$A \rightarrow B \mathbf{a} \mid A \mathbf{a} \mid \mathbf{c}$$

 $B \rightarrow B \mathbf{b} \mid A \mathbf{b} \mid \mathbf{d}$

 \clubsuit First, we remove the immediate left recursion of A

 $A \rightarrow B$ **a** Atail | **c** Atail Atail \rightarrow **a** Atail | ϵ

- ❖ Second, we eliminate the indirect left recursion of $B \to A$ **b** $B \to B$ **b** |B| **a** Atail **b** | **c** Atail **b** | **d**
- \clubsuit Finally, we remove the immediate left recursion of B

 $B \longrightarrow \mathbf{c} Atail \ \mathbf{b} Btail \ | \ \mathbf{d} Btail \$ $Btail \longrightarrow \mathbf{b} Btail \ | \ \mathbf{a} Atail \ \mathbf{b} Btail \ | \ \mathbf{\epsilon}$

Left Factoring of Common Prefixes

- ❖ Another problem to LL parsers is to have a **common prefix**
- ❖ An **if** statement may have 2 production with a common prefix:

```
If Stmt \rightarrow if Expr then StmtList end if;
If Stmt \rightarrow if Expr then StmtList else StmtList end if;
```

- ❖ An LL(1) parser cannot predict which production to apply
- ❖ The solution is use left factoring of the common prefix
 - * General Form: $A \rightarrow \alpha \beta \mid \alpha \gamma \mid ... \mid \alpha \zeta$
 - * Left Factoring solution:

```
\begin{array}{ccc} A & \rightarrow \alpha A tail \\ A tail & \rightarrow \beta \mid \gamma \mid \dots \mid \zeta \end{array}
```

❖ The left factoring of the two **if** statement productions: