More on Grammars

Recap: LR(0) parsing

- We have seen the LR(0) parsing automaton
 - is a bottom-up automaton
 - no lookahead!
 - is deterministic if grammar is LR(0)
 - provides the (reversed) rightmost analysis of the input
- Non-LR(0) grammars will cause conflicts that are visible in the states (item sets) of the goto automaton:
 - reduce/reduce conflict if an item set contains two items $[A \to \alpha \cdot]$ and $[B \to \beta \cdot]$
 - shift/reduce conflict if an item sets contains two items $[A \to \alpha_1 \cdot a\alpha_2]$ and $[B \to \beta \cdot]$

Removing conflicts

Let's look again at the shift-reduce conflict:

$$I = \{ [A \to \alpha_1 \cdot a\alpha_2], [B \to \beta \cdot] \}$$

- If the parser is in the state (aw, ... I, ...) it is quite clear that we should **shift** because the next input symbol is a
 - Of course, this only works if $a \notin follow_1(B)$
 - For example, if the grammar contains a rule like $C \rightarrow Ba$, then the conflict cannot be avoided
- Same for the reduce-reduce conflict:

$$I = \{ [A \to \alpha \cdot], [B \to \beta \cdot] \}$$

- If the parser is in the state (aw, ... I, ...) we can decide whether to reduce to A or to B by checking whether $a \in follow_1(A)$ or $a \in follow_1(B)$
 - Again, this will not work if $a \in follow_1(A) \cap follow_1(B)$

SLR(1) parsing

- An SLR(1) ("Simple LR(1)") parser automaton is doing what we have seen on the previous slide
- Using a *lookahead* of one input symbol, we extend the LR(0) automaton to an SLR(1) automaton:
 - Shift $(aw, \alpha I, z) \to (w, \alpha IJ, z)$ if $[A \to \alpha_1 \cdot a\alpha_2] \in I$ and $I \xrightarrow[goto]{a} J$
 - Reduce $(aw, \alpha II_1 \dots I_n, z) \to (aw, \alpha IJ, zi)$ with rule $i \neq 0$ $A \to Y_1 \dots Y_n$ if $[A \to Y_1 \dots Y_n \cdot] \in I_n$ and $I \underset{goto}{\to} J$ and $a \in follow_1(A)$
 - Accepting state $(\varepsilon, I_0 I, z) \to (\varepsilon, \varepsilon, z0)$ if $[S' \to S \cdot] \in I$
 - **Error** otherwise
- A CFG is an SLR(1) grammar if there is no conflict with the above actions

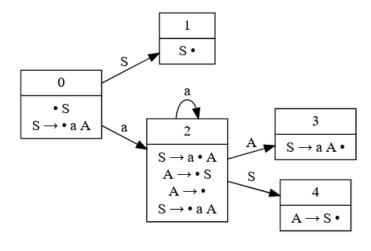
Action table of SLR(1) automaton

• Grammar with Shift-Reduce conflict in LR(0) parser:

$$S' \to S \qquad (0)$$

$$S \to aA \qquad (1)$$

$$A \rightarrow S \mid \varepsilon$$
 (2,3)



• Action table of LR(0) parser

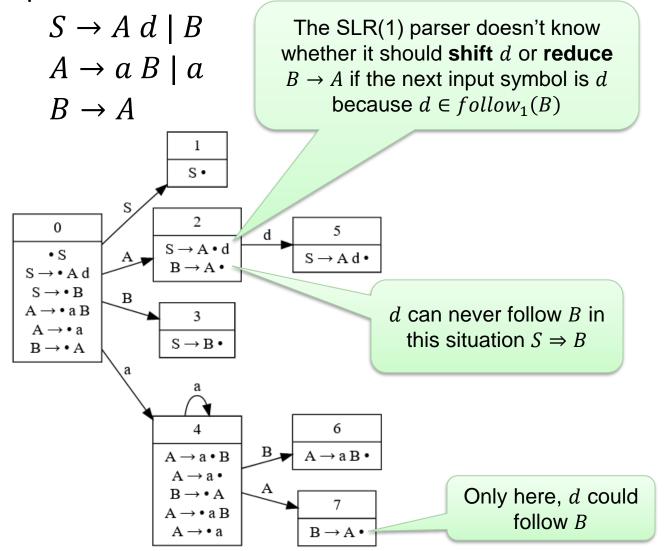
Item set	action
I_0	shift
I_1	accept
I_2	shift - reduce 3
I_3	reduce 1
I_4	reduce 2

Action table of SLR(1) parser

Item set	action with lookahead		
	а	\$ (end of input)	
I_0	shift		
I_1		accept	
I_2	shift	reduce 3	
I_3		reduce 1	
I_4		reduce 2	

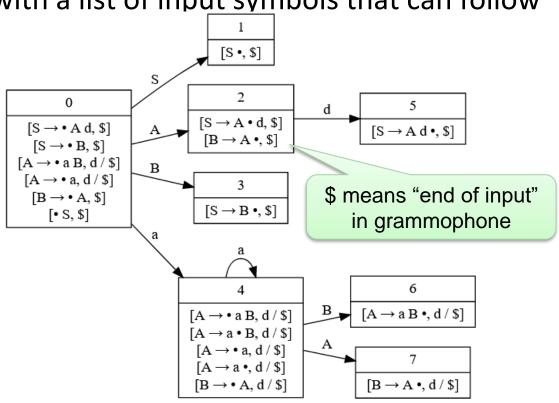
Limitation of SLR(1): Example

■ Here is a grammar that has a shift/reduce conflict with an SLR(1) parser:



LR(1) parsing

- SLR(1) only checks the follow set of a non-terminal symbol N, it doesn't check whether the next input symbol can follow N for that specific occurrence of N
 - That's why SLR(1) is called "Simple LR(1)". It doesn't take full advantage of the lookahead (but it's easy to implement)
- For a full LR(1) parser, we extend each item in the the goto automaton with a list of input symbols that can follow



More parsers...

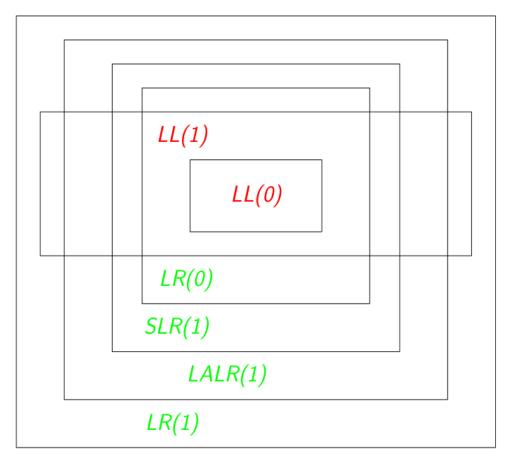
- LR(k) parsers can parse any context free language that can be parsed with a deterministic push-down automaton
 - Complexity O(n)
 - But can result in large automata with many table entries
- LALR(1) reduces the table size by merging similar states, i.e., two LR(1) item sets $I_x = \{[A \rightarrow B \cdot, a]\}$ and $I_y = \{[A \rightarrow B \cdot, b]\}$ could be merged to a single state $I_{xy} = \{[A \rightarrow B \cdot, a/b]\}$
 - A compromise between LR(1) and SLR(1)
 - Less powerful than LR(1)
 - More powerful than SLR(1)
 - Very popular in parser generator tools, used in the yacc/bison parser

Parsers for general CFG

- \blacksquare GLR(0)
 - non-deterministic push-down automaton, tries all possibilities in parallel, but uses clever data structures to reduce memory consumption
 - $O(n^3)$ for general CFG, O(n) if grammar is deterministic
- GLL
 - like GLR but with top-down automaton
 - $O(n^3)$
- Earley
 - $O(n^3)$
- ANTLR
 - LL(k) + backtracking + caching for better performance
 - $O(n^4)$

Comparison of grammars

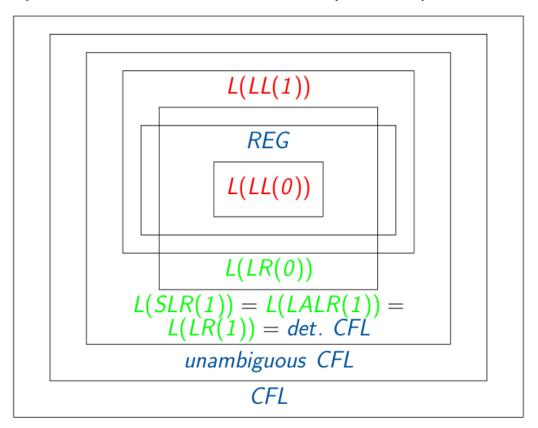
- $LR(0) \subset SLR(1) \subset LALR(1) \subset LR(1) \subset LR(2) \subset \cdots$
- $LL(0) \subset LL(1) \subset LL(2) \subset \cdots$
- $LL(k) \subset LR(k) \subset CFG$



Source: RWTH Aachen

Expressiveness of grammars

- L(C) := All languages generated by the grammars of class C
- $L(LR(1)) = L(SLR(1)) = L(LALR(1)) = L(LR(k)) \subset CFL$
- $L(LL(0)) \subset L(RE) \subset L(LL(1)) \subset \cdots \subset L(LL(k)) \subset L(LR(1))$
- Note that L(RE) is not completely in L(LR(0))



Source: RWTH Aachen

Chomsky Hierarchy of Grammars

- Type 3: Regular Grammars (Regular Expressions)
 - Parsed with DFA
- Type 2: Context-Free Grammars
 - Allows recursion, e.g. $A \rightarrow (A) \mid \varepsilon$
 - Parsed with Nondeterministic Pushdown Automaton
- Type 1: Context-Sensitive Grammars
 - Allows rules like $xAy \rightarrow aBCb$, i.e., the parser must consider the context $x \dots y$ around A when selecting a rule to expand A
 - Parsed with Finite-tape Turing Machine
- Type 0: Everything allowed that you can program in the parser ©
- Type 0 and type 1 grammars are mostly useless in practice
- Most compilers use a hand-written or generated LL(1) or xLR(1) parser plus extra code to resolve ambiguities
 - Example C: (x) *y Multiplication or Pointer-dereferencing with cast?