LL(1) PARSING

A **top-down** parsing algorithm parses an input string of tokens by tracing out the steps in a leftmost derivation. Such algorithms are called top-down since the implied traversal of the parse tree occurs from the root to the leaves.

Top-down parsers come in two forms: bactracking parsers and predictive parsers.

A predictive parser attempts to predict the next construction using one or more lookahead tokens.

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Two well-known top-down parsing algorithms are called **recursive-descent parsing** and **LL(1) parsing**.

Recursive descent parsing is the most suitable method for a handwritten parser.

The first "L" in LL(1) refers to the fact that it processes the input from left to right.

The second "L" refers to the fact that it traces out a leftmost derivation for the input string.

The "1" in parentheses means that it uses only one symbol of input to predict the direction of the parse.

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We start by considering the following grammar that generates strings of balanced parenthesis:

$$S \rightarrow (S) S \mid \varepsilon$$

We will assume that \$ marks the bottom of the stack and the end of the input.

Parsing action of an LL(1) parser:

	Parsing Stack	Input	Action
1	\$ S	()\$	$S \rightarrow (S)S$
2	SS) S (()\$	match
3	SS)\$	$S \to \varepsilon$
4	\$ S))\$	match
5	\$S	\$	$S \to \varepsilon$
6	\$	\$	accept

LL(1) parsing table for the grammar

$$S \rightarrow (S) S \mid \varepsilon$$

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} M[N,T] & (&) & \$ \\ \hline S & S \to (S)S & S \to \varepsilon & S \to \varepsilon \end{array}$$

We denote the table by M[N,T] and N denotes nonterminals and T terminals.

We use this table to decide which decision should be made if a given nonterminal N is at the top of the parsing stack, based on the current input symbol T.

We add production choices to the LL(1) parsing table as follows:

- 1. If $A \to \alpha$ is a production choice, and there is a derivation $\alpha \Rightarrow^* a\beta$, where a is a token, then we add $A \to \alpha$ to the table entry M[A,a].
- 2. If $A \to \alpha$ is a production choice, and there are derivations $\alpha \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon$ and $S \Rightarrow^* \beta A a \gamma$, where S is the start symbol and a is a token (or \$), then we add $A \to \alpha$ to the table entry M[A,a].

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The idea behind these rules are as follows: In rule 1, given a token a in the input, we wish to select a rule $A \to \alpha$ if α can produce an a for matching.

In rule 2, if A derives the empty string (via $A \to \alpha$), and if a is a token that can legally come after A in a derivation, then we want to select $A \to \alpha$ to make A disappear.

These rules are difficult to implement directly, so we will develop algorithms involving **first** and **follow sets** (concepts that will be defined later) in order to implement these rules.

Definition

A grammar is an **LL(1)** grammar if the associated LL(1) parsing table has at most one production in each table entry.

First Sets

In this lecture we show how to use **First** and **Follow Sets** to construct the LL(1) parsing table M[N,T] for a CFG.

Before we give the precise definitions of First and Follow Sets, we show how to use it in the construction of LL(1) parsing tables.

The LL(1) parsing table M[N,T] is constructed as follows:

Repeat the following two steps for each non-terminal A and each production $A \rightarrow \alpha$:

- 1. For each token a in First(α), add $A \to \alpha$ to the entry M[A, a].
- 2. If ε is in First(α), for each element a of Follow(A) (where a is a token or a is \$), add $A \to \alpha$ to M[A,a].

Now consider the grammar $S \to (S) S \mid \varepsilon$

In this case we have that $First((S)S) = \{ (\} \}$ $First(\varepsilon) = \{ \varepsilon \}$ $Follow(S) = \{ \}, \}$

Thus according to the above procedure we get the following LL(1) parsing table:

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} M[N,T] & (&) & \$ \\ \hline S & S \to (S)S & S \to \varepsilon & S \to \varepsilon \end{array}$$

First Sets

Definition:

Let X be a grammar symbol (a terminal or nonterminal) or ε . Then the set **First(**X**)** consisting of terminals, and possibly ε , is defined as follows:

- 1. If X is a terminal or ε , First $(X) = \{X\}$.
- 2. If X is a n nonterminal, then for each production choice $X \to X_1 X_2 ... X_n$, First(X) contains First $(X_1) \{\varepsilon\}$. If also for some i < n, all the sets First $(X_1), ..., \text{First}(X_i)$ contains ε , then First(X) contains First $(X_{i+1}) \{\varepsilon\}$. If all the sets First $(X_1), ..., \text{First}(X_n)$ contains ε , then First(X) also contains ε .

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We now define $First(\alpha)$ for any string $\alpha = X_1 X_2 ... X_n$ (a string of terminals and nonterminals) as follows:

First(α) contains First(X_1)-{ ε }.

For each i=2,...,n, if $\mathrm{First}(X_k)$ contains ε for all k=1,...,i-1, then $\mathrm{First}(\alpha)$ contains $\mathrm{First}(X_i)-\{\varepsilon\}$.

Finally, if for all i = 1,...,n, First (X_i) contains ε , then First (α) contains ε .

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Simplified algorithm for First Sets in the absence of $\varepsilon\text{-production}$

for all nonterminals A do $First(A):=\{\};$ while there are changes to any First(A) do for each production choice $A \to X_1...X_n$ do add $First(X_1)$ to First(A);

Algorithm for computing First(A) for all nonterminals A

for all nonterminals A do $First(A) := \{\};$ while there are changes to any First(A) do for each production choice $A \to X_1...X_n$ do

```
k := 1; Continue:=true;

while Continue = true and k <= n do

add First(X_k) - \{\varepsilon\} to First(A);

if \varepsilon not in First(X_k) then Continue:=false;

k := k + 1;

if Continue = true then add \varepsilon to First(A);
```

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Example

Consider the simple integer expression grammar:

```
exp \rightarrow exp \ addop \ term \mid term

addop \rightarrow + \mid -

term \rightarrow term \ mulop \ factor \mid factor

mulop \rightarrow *

factor \rightarrow (\ exp\ ) \mid number
```

Computation of First sets for nonterminals in the grammar:

Grammar rule	Pass 1	Pass 2	Pass 3
$exp \rightarrow exp$			
$addop\ term$			
$exp \rightarrow term$			First(exp) =
			$\{(, number\}$
$addop \rightarrow +$	First(addop)		
	$= \{+\}$		
$addop \rightarrow -$	First(addop)		
	$= \{+, -\}$		
$term \rightarrow term$			
$mulop\ factor$			
$term \rightarrow factor$		First(term) =	
		$\{(, number\}$	
$mulop \rightarrow *$	First(mulop)		
	$= \{*\}$		
$factor \rightarrow$	First(factor)		
(exp)	= { (}		
$factor \rightarrow$	First(factor)		
number	$=\{(number)\}$		

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Thus

$$First(exp) = \{(, number\} \}$$

$$First(term) = \{(, number\} \}$$

$$First(factor) = \{(, number\} \}$$

$$First(addop) = \{+, -\} \}$$

$$First(mulop) = \{*\}$$

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First Sets and Follow Sets

We begin with another example of calculating First Sets for Nonterminals of a CFG.

Example

 $\begin{array}{l} statement \rightarrow if\text{-}stmt \mid \textbf{other} \\ if\text{-}stmt \rightarrow \textbf{if} \ (\ exp \) \ statement \ else\text{-}part \\ else\text{-}part \rightarrow \textbf{else} \ statement \ | \ \varepsilon \\ exp \rightarrow 0 \ | \ 1 \end{array}$

Computation of First sets for nonterminals in the grammar:

Grammar rule	Pass 1	Pass 2
$statement \rightarrow if\text{-}stmt$		First(statement)=
		{if, other}
$statement o ext{other}$	First(statement) =	
	{other}	
$if\text{-}stmt \rightarrow if(\ exp\)$	First(if-stmt) =	
$statement\ else-part$	$= \{if\}$	
else-part o else	First(else-part) =	
statement	$= \{else\}$	
$else ext{-}part o arepsilon$	First(else-part) =	
	$= \{else, \varepsilon\}$	
exp o 0	$First(exp) = \{0\}$	
$exp \rightarrow 1$	$First(exp) = \{0, 1\}$	

Follow Sets

Given a nonterminal A, the follow set **Follow(**A**)**, consisting of terminals, and possibly \$, is defined as follows:

- 1. If A is a start symbol, then \$ is in Follow(A).
- 2. If there is a production $B \to \alpha A \gamma$, then First (γ) - $\{\varepsilon\}$ is in Follow(A).
- 3. If there is a production $B \to \alpha A \gamma$ such that ε is in First(γ), then Follow(A) contains Follow(B).

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Thus

```
\begin{aligned} & \mathsf{First}(statement) = \{\mathbf{if}, \mathbf{other}\} \\ & \mathsf{First}(if\text{-}stmt) = \{\mathbf{if}\} \\ & \mathsf{First}(else\text{-}part) = \{\mathsf{else}, \varepsilon\} \\ & \mathsf{First}(exp) = \{0, 1\} \end{aligned}
```

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Example

We consider again the grammar

```
exp \rightarrow exp \ addop \ term \mid term addop \rightarrow + \mid - term \rightarrow term \ mulop \ factor \mid factor mulop \rightarrow * factor \rightarrow (\ exp\ ) \mid number
```

Recall that

```
First(exp) = \{(, number\} \}
First(term) = \{(, number\} \}
First(factor) = \{(, number\} \}
First(addop) = \{+, -\}
First(mulop) = \{*\}
```

Algorithm for the computation of Follow Sets:

```
Follow(start-symbol):= {$}; 

for all nonterminals A \neq \text{start-symbol do Follow}(A) := {}; 

while there are changes to any Follow sets do 

for each production A \to X_1...X_n do 

for each X_i that is a nonterminal do 

add First(X_{i+1}...X_n) - \{\varepsilon\} to Follow(X_i) 

(* Note: if i = n, then X_{i+1}...X_n = \varepsilon *) 

if \varepsilon is in First(X_{i+1}...X_n) then 

add Follow(A) to Follow(X_i)
```

Computation of the Follow sets for the grammar:

We omit the four grammar rule choices that have no possibility of affecting the computation.

Grammar rule	Pass 1	Pass 2		
$exp \rightarrow exp$	Follow(exp) =	Follow(term) =		
$addop\ term$	$\{\$, +, -\}$	$\{\$,+,-,*,)\}$		
	Follow(addop) =			
	$\{(, number\}$			
	$Follow(term) = \{\$, +, -\}$			
$exp \rightarrow term$				
$term \rightarrow term$	Follow(term) =	Follow(factor) =		
$mulop\ factor$	$\{\$,+,-,*\}$	$\{\$, +, -, *,)\}$		
	Follow(mulop) =			
	$\{(, number\}$			
	Follow(factor) =			
	$\{\$,+,-,*\}$			
$term \rightarrow factor$				
$factor \rightarrow$	Follow(exp)			
(exp)	$= \{ \$, +, -,) \}$			

Thus

Follow(
$$exp$$
) = {\$,+,-,}}
Follow($term$) = {\$,+,-,*,}
Follow($factor$) = {\$,+,-,*,}
Follow($addop$) = {(, number}
Follow($mulop$) = {(, number}

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Example

 $statement \rightarrow if\text{-}stmt \mid \text{other}$ $if\text{-}stmt \rightarrow \text{if}$ (exp) statement else-part $else\text{-}part \rightarrow \text{else}$ $statement \mid \varepsilon$ $exp \rightarrow 0 \mid 1$

Recall that

 $\begin{aligned} & \mathsf{First}(statement) = \{\mathsf{if}, \mathsf{other}\} \\ & \mathsf{First}(if\text{-}stmt) = \{\mathsf{if}\} \\ & \mathsf{First}(else\text{-}part) = \{\mathsf{else}, \varepsilon\} \\ & \mathsf{First}(exp) = \{0, 1\} \end{aligned}$

A calculation as in the previous example shows that

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 $\begin{aligned} & \text{Follow}(statement) = \{\$, \text{else}\} \\ & \text{Follow}(if\text{-}stmt) = \{\$, \text{else}\} \\ & \text{Follow}(else\text{-}part) = \{\$, \text{else}\} \\ & \text{Follow}(exp) = \{\ \}\ \end{aligned}$

Recall that the LL(1) parsing table M[N,T] is constructed as follows:

Repeat the following two steps for each non-terminal A and each production $A \rightarrow \alpha$:

- 1. For each token a in First(α), add $A \rightarrow \alpha$ to the entry M[A,a].
- 2. If ε is in First(α), for each element a of Follow(A) (where a is a token or a is \$), add $A \to \alpha$ to M[A,a].

Using the procedure on the previous slide, we obtain the following table.

M[N,T]	if	other	else	0	1	\$
statement	statement	statement				,
	$\rightarrow if$ -stmt	\rightarrow other				
if- $stmt$	$if\text{-}stmt \rightarrow$,
	if (exp)					
	statement					
	$else ext{-}part$					
$else ext{-}part$			else-part			else-part
			$ ightarrow \mathbf{else}$			$\rightarrow \varepsilon$
			statement			
			$else ext{-}part$			
			$\rightarrow \varepsilon$			
exp				exp	exp	
				$\rightarrow 0$	$\rightarrow 1$	

We notice, that as expected, this grammar is not LL(1), since the entry M[else-part,else] contains two entries, corresponding to the dangling else ambiguity.

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We could apply the disambiguating rule that would always prefer the rule that generates the current lookahead token over any other (this corresponds to the most closely nested disambiguating rule), and thus the production

 $else-part \rightarrow else \ statement$

We now show the LL(1) parsing actions for the string

if (0) if (1) other else other

We use the following abbreviations:

$$statement = S$$

$$if$$
- $stmt = I$

$$else$$
- $part = L$

$$exp = E$$

$$if = i$$

$$else = e$$

other = o

Parsing stack	Input	Action
\$S	i (0) i (1) o e o\$	$S \rightarrow I$
I	i (0) i (1) o e o\$	
LSE(i	i (0) i (1) o e o\$	match
LSE	(0) i (1) o e o\$	match
LSE	0) i (1) o e o\$	$E \rightarrow 0$
LS0	0) i (1) o e o\$	match
LS) i (1) o e o\$	match
LS	i (1) o e o\$	$S \to I$
LI	i (1) o e o\$	$I \rightarrow \mathbf{i} (E) S L$
LLSE(i	i (1) o e o\$	match
LLS) E ((1) o e o\$	match
LLS	1) o e o\$	$E \rightarrow 1$
LLS1	1) o e o\$	match
LLS) o e o\$	match
LLS	o e o\$	$S \rightarrow \mathbf{o}$
LLo	o e o\$	match
LL	e o\$	$L \to \mathbf{e} S$
LSe	e o\$	match
LS	o\$	$S \rightarrow \mathbf{o}$
Lo	o\$	match
L	\$	$L \to \varepsilon$
\$	\$	accept

Left Recursion Removal and Left Factoring

In this lecture we discuss techniques (that sometimes work) to convert a grammar that is not LL(1) into an equivalent grammar that is LL(1).

Consider the following grammar:

$$exp \rightarrow exp \ addop \ term \mid term$$

 $addop \rightarrow + \mid -$
 $term \rightarrow term \ mulop \ factor \mid factor$
 $mulop \rightarrow *$
 $factor \rightarrow (\ exp\) \mid$ number

This grammar is not LL(1) since number is in First(exp) and in First(term).

Thus in the entry M[exp, number] in the LL(1) parsing table we will have the entries $exp \rightarrow exp \ addop \ term$ and $exp \rightarrow term$

The problem is the presence of the left recursive rule $exp \rightarrow exp \ addop \ term \mid term.$

Thus in order to try to convert this grammar into an LL(1) grammar, we will remove the left recursion from this grammar.

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Left Recursion and Right Recursion

Before we look at the technique of removing left recursion from a grammar, we first discuss left recursion in general.

Grammar rules in BNF provide for concatenation and choice but no specific operation equivalent to the * of regular expressions are provided.

We can obtain repetition by using for example rules of the form

$$A \rightarrow Aa \mid a$$
 or $A \rightarrow aA \mid a$

Both these grammars generate $\{a^n|n > 1\}$.

We call the rule $A \rightarrow Aa \mid a$ left recursive and $A \rightarrow aA \mid a$ right recursive.

In general, rules of the form $A\to A\alpha\mid\beta$ are called left recursive and rules of the form

 $A \rightarrow \alpha A \mid \beta$ right recursive.

Grammars equivalent to the regular expression a^{\ast} are given by

$$A \rightarrow Aa \mid \varepsilon$$
 or $A \rightarrow aA \mid \varepsilon$

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Notice that a left recursive rules make expressions associate on the left.

The parse tree for the expression 34 - 3 - 42 in the grammar

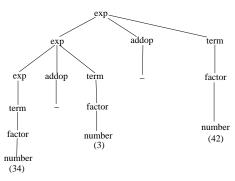
 $exp \rightarrow exp \ addop \ term \mid term$ $addop \rightarrow + \mid -$

 $term \rightarrow term \ mulop \ factor \ | \ factor$

 $mulop \to *$

 $factor \rightarrow (exp) \mid number$

is for example given by



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In EBNF, the left recursive rule

 $exp \rightarrow exp \ addop \ term$

is written as

 $exp \rightarrow term \{ addop term \}.$

In EBNF, in right recursive form, this rule is written as

 $exp \rightarrow term [addop exp]$

thus the $addop\ term$ part is considered as an optional construct.

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Left Recursion Removal and Left Factoring

In the rule

$$exp \rightarrow exp + term \mid exp - term \mid term$$

we have immediate left recursion and in

$$A \rightarrow B \ a \mid A \ a \mid c$$
$$B \rightarrow B \ b \mid A \ b \mid d$$

we have indirect left recursion.

We only consider how to remove immediate left recusion.

Consider again the rule $exp \rightarrow exp \ addop \ term \ | \ term$ We rewrite this rule as $exp \rightarrow term \ exp^{'} \ exp^{'} \rightarrow addop \ term \ exp^{'} \ | \ \varepsilon$ to remove the left recursion.

In general if we have productions of the form

$$A \rightarrow A \alpha_1 \mid \dots \mid A \alpha_n \mid \beta_1 \mid \dots \mid \beta_m$$

we rewrite this as $A \to \beta_1 \ A^{'} \mid \ldots \mid \beta_m A^{'} \\ A^{'} \to \alpha_1 \ A^{'} \mid \ldots \mid \alpha_n \ A^{'} \mid \varepsilon$ in order to remove the left recursion.

Example

If we remove the left recursion from the rule $exp \rightarrow exp + term \mid exp - term \mid term$ we obtain $exp \rightarrow term \ exp^{'} \ exp^{'} \rightarrow + term \ exp^{'} \mid - \ term \ exp^{'} \mid \varepsilon$

Example

If we remove left recursion from the grammar $exp \rightarrow exp \ addop \ term \mid term$ $addop \rightarrow + \mid term \rightarrow term \ mulop \ factor \mid factor$ $mulop \rightarrow *$ $factor \rightarrow (\ exp\) \mid \mathbf{number}$

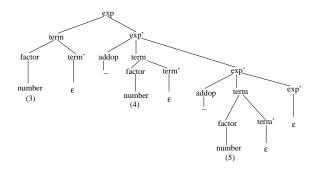
we obtain the grammar

$$exp \rightarrow term \ exp'$$
 $exp' \rightarrow addop \ term \ exp' \mid \varepsilon$
 $addop \rightarrow + \mid term \rightarrow factor \ term'$
 $term' \rightarrow mulop \ factor \ term' \mid \varepsilon$
 $mulop \rightarrow *$
 $factor \rightarrow (\ exp \) \mid$ number

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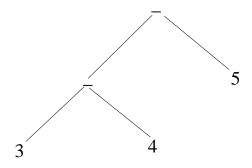
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Now consider the parse tree for 3 - 4 - 5



This tree no longer expresses the left associativity of subtraction.

Nevertheless, a parser should still construct the appropriate left associative syntax tree. We obtain the syntax tree by removing all the unneccessary information from the parse tree. A parser will usually construct a syntax tree and not a parse tree.



Left Factoring

Left factoring is required when two or more grammar rule choices share a common prefix string, as in the rule

$$A \to \alpha \beta \mid \alpha \gamma$$

Obviously, an LL(1) parser cannot distinguish between the production choices in such a situation.

In the following example we have exactly this problem:

$$if\text{-}stmt \rightarrow \mathbf{if}$$
 (exp) $statement$ | \mathbf{if} (exp) $statement$ else $statement$

Algorithm for left factoring a grammar:

while there are changes to the grammar do

for each nonterminal \boldsymbol{A} do

 $\mbox{let } \alpha \mbox{ be a prefix of maximal length that is shared} \\ \mbox{by two or more production choices for } A$

if $\alpha \neq \varepsilon$ then

let $A \to \alpha_1 \mid \ldots \mid \alpha_n$ be all the production choices for A and suppose that α_1,\ldots,α_k share α , so that $A \to \alpha\beta_1 \mid \ldots \mid \alpha\beta_k \mid \alpha_{k+1} \mid \ldots \mid \alpha_n$, the β_j 's share no common prefix, and $\alpha_{k+1},\ldots,\alpha_n$ do not share α .

replace the rule $A \to \alpha_1 \ | \ ... \ | \ \alpha_n$ by the rules:

$$A \to \alpha A' \mid \alpha_{k+1} \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n$$
$$A' \to \beta_1 \mid \dots \mid \beta_k$$

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Example

Consider the following grammar of if-statements:

```
if\text{-}stmt \rightarrow \mathbf{if} ( exp ) statement | \mathbf{if} ( exp ) statement else statement
```

The left factored form of this grammar is

```
if\text{-}stmt \rightarrow if \ (\ exp\ )\ statement\ else\text{-}part\ else\text{-}part\ \rightarrow else\ statement\ |\ \varepsilon
```

Example

Here is a typical example where a programming language fails to be LL(1):

```
statement \rightarrow assign\text{-}stmt \mid call\text{-}stmt \mid other
assign\text{-}stmt \rightarrow identifier := exp
call\text{-}stmt \rightarrow identifier (exp-list)
```

This grammar is not in a form that can be left factored. We must first replace assign-stmt and call-stmt by the right-hand sides of their defining productions:

$$statement \rightarrow identifier := exp$$

| $identifier (exp-list)$
| $other$

Then we left factor to obtain:

$$statement \rightarrow identifier statement'$$

| other
 $statement' \rightarrow := exp \mid (exp-list)$

Note how this obscures the semantics of call and assignment by separating the identifier from the actual call or assign action.

General Remarks

There are of course many more top-down parsing methods than just recursive-descent and LL(1).

Examples of top-down parser generators:

- Antlr generates a recursive-descent parser from an EBNF description. It is part of the Purdue Compiler Construction Tool Set.
- LLGen is a parser generotor for LL(1) grammars.

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