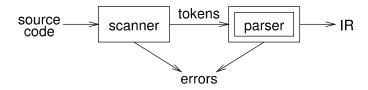
# CS3300 - Compiler Design Parsing

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### The role of the parser



#### A parser

- performs context-free syntax analysis
- guides context-sensitive analysis
- constructs an intermediate representation
- produces meaningful error messages
- attempts error correction

For the next several classes, we will look at parser construction



#### Acknowledgement

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### Syntax analysis by using a CFG

Context-free syntax is specified with a context-free grammar. Formally, a CFG G is a 4-tuple  $(V_t, V_n, S, P)$ , where:

- $V_t$  is the set of *terminal* symbols in the grammar. For our purposes,  $V_t$  is the set of tokens returned by the scanner.
- $V_n$ , the *nonterminals*, is a set of syntactic variables that denote sets of (sub)strings occurring in the language. These are used to impose a structure on the grammar.
- S is a distinguished nonterminal  $(S \in V_n)$  denoting the entire set of strings in L(G).
  - This is sometimes called a *goal symbol*.
- *P* is a finite set of *productions* specifying how terminals and non-terminals can be combined to form strings in the language.

Each production must have a single non-terminal on its left hand side.

The set  $V = V_t \cup V_n$  is called the *vocabulary* of G.

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### Notation and terminology

 $\bullet$   $a,b,c,\ldots \in V_t$ 

 $\bullet$   $A,B,C,\ldots \in V_n$ 

 $\bullet$   $U, V, W, \ldots \in V$ 

 $\bullet$   $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \ldots \in V*$ 

 $\bullet$   $u, v, w, \ldots \in V_t *$ 

If  $A \rightarrow \gamma$  then  $\alpha A \beta \Rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$  is a *single-step derivation* using  $A \rightarrow \gamma$ 

Similarly,  $\rightarrow^*$  and  $\Rightarrow^+$  denote derivations of  $\geq 0$  and  $\geq 1$  steps

If  $S \rightarrow^* \beta$  then  $\beta$  is said to be a *sentential form* of G

 $L(G) = \{ w \in V_t * \mid S \Rightarrow^+ w \}, w \in L(G) \text{ is called a } sentence \text{ of } G$ 

Note,  $L(G) = \{ \beta \in V * \mid S \rightarrow^* \beta \} \cap V_t *$ 



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#### **Derivations**

We can view the productions of a CFG as rewriting rules. Using our example CFG (for x + 2 \* y):

$$\begin{array}{lll} \langle goal \rangle & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \langle op \rangle \langle expr \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle id,x \rangle \langle op \rangle \langle expr \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle id,x \rangle + \langle expr \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle id,x \rangle + \langle expr \rangle \langle op \rangle \langle expr \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle id,x \rangle + \langle num,2 \rangle \langle op \rangle \langle expr \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle id,x \rangle + \langle num,2 \rangle * \langle expr \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle id,x \rangle + \langle num,2 \rangle * \langle id,y \rangle \end{array}$$

We have derived the sentence x + 2 \* y.

We denote this  $\langle goal \rangle \rightarrow^* id + num * id$ .

Such a sequence of rewrites is a *derivation* or a *parse*. The process of discovering a derivation is called *parsing*.



#### Syntax analysis

Grammars are often written in Backus-Naur form (BNF). Example:

This describes simple expressions over numbers and identifiers. In a BNF for a grammar, we represent

- non-terminals with angle brackets or capital letters
- 2 terminals with typewriter font or underline
- productions as in the example



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#### **Derivations**

At each step, we chose a non-terminal to replace.

This choice can lead to different derivations.

Two are of particular interest:

leftmost derivation

the leftmost non-terminal is replaced at each step

rightmost derivation

the rightmost non-terminal is replaced at each step

The previous example was a leftmost derivation.



### Rightmost derivation

For the string x + 2 \* y:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \langle goal \rangle & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \langle op \rangle \langle expr \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \langle op \rangle \langle id,y \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle * \langle id,y \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \langle op \rangle \langle expr \rangle * \langle id,y \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \langle op \rangle \langle num,2 \rangle * \langle id,y \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle + \langle num,2 \rangle * \langle id,y \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle id,x \rangle + \langle num,2 \rangle * \langle id,y \rangle \end{array}$$

Again,  $\langle goal \rangle \Rightarrow^* id + num * id$ .



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#### Precedence

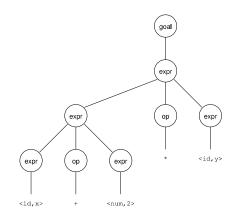
These two derivations point out a problem with the grammar. It has no notion of precedence, or implied order of evaluation. To add precedence takes additional machinery:

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This grammar enforces a precedence on the derivation:

- terms *must* be derived from expressions
- forces the "correct" tree

#### Precedence



Treewalk evaluation computes (x + 2) \* y

— the "wrong" answer!

Should be x + (2 \* y)



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#### Precedence

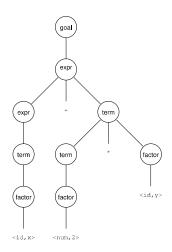
Now, for the string x + 2 \* y:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \langle goal \rangle & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle + \langle term \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle + \langle term \rangle * \langle factor \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle + \langle term \rangle * \langle id, y \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle + \langle factor \rangle * \langle id, y \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle expr \rangle + \langle num, 2 \rangle * \langle id, y \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle term \rangle + \langle num, 2 \rangle * \langle id, y \rangle \\ & \Rightarrow & \langle id, x \rangle + \langle num, 2 \rangle * \langle id, y \rangle \end{array}$$

Again,  $\langle goal \rangle \Rightarrow^* id + num * id$ , but this time, we build the desired tree.



#### Precedence



Treewalk evaluation computes x + (2 \* y)



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### **Ambiguity**

May be able to eliminate ambiguities by rearranging the grammar:

This generates the same language as the ambiguous grammar, but applies the common sense rule:

match each else with the closest unmatched then

This is most likely the language designer's intent.



#### **Ambiguity**

If a grammar has more than one derivation for a single sentential form, then it is *ambiguous* 

#### Example:

#### Consider deriving the sentential form:

if 
$$E_1$$
 then if  $E_2$  then  $S_1$  else  $S_2$ 

It has two derivations.

This ambiguity is purely grammatical.

It is a *context-free* ambiguity.



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### **Ambiguity**

Ambiguity is often due to confusion in the context-free specification. Context-sensitive confusions can arise from *overloading*. Example:

$$a = f(17)$$

In many Algol/Scala-like languages, f could be a function or subscripted variable. Disambiguating this statement requires context:

- need values of declarations
- not context-free
- really an issue of type

Rather than complicate parsing, we will handle this separately.



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#### Scanning vs. parsing

Where do we draw the line?

$$\begin{array}{lll} \textit{term} & ::= & [a-zA-z]([a-zA-z] \mid [0-9])^* \\ & | & 0 \mid [1-9][0-9]^* \\ op & ::= & + |-|*|/ \\ \textit{expr} & ::= & (\textit{term op})^*\textit{term} \\ \end{array}$$

Regular expressions are used to classify:

- identifiers, numbers, keywords
- REs are more concise and simpler for tokens than a grammar
- more efficient scanners can be built from REs (DFAs) than grammars

Context-free grammars are used to count:

- brackets: (), begin...end, if...then...else
- imparting structure: expressions

Syntactic analysis is complicated enough: grammar for C has around 200 productions. Factoring out lexical analysis as a separate phase makes compiler more manageable.



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#### Different ways of parsing: Top-down Vs Bottom-up

Top-down parsers

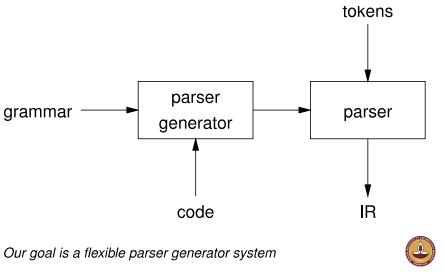
- start at the root of derivation tree and fill in
- picks a production and tries to match the input
- may require backtracking
- some grammars are backtrack-free (predictive)

Bottom-up parsers

- start at the leaves and fill in
- start in a state valid for legal first tokens
- as input is consumed, change state to encode possibilities (recognize valid prefixes)
- use a stack to store both state and sentential forms



#### Parsing: the big picture



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#### Top-down parsing

A top-down parser starts with the root of the parse tree, labelled with the start or goal symbol of the grammar.

To build a parse, it repeats the following steps until the fringe of the parse tree matches the input string

- At a node labelled A, select a production  $A \to \alpha$  and construct the appropriate child for each symbol of  $\alpha$
- When a terminal is added to the fringe that doesn't match the input string, backtrack
- **③** Find next node to be expanded (must have a label in  $V_n$ )

The key is selecting the right production in step 1.

If the parser makes a wrong step, the "derivation" process does not terminate.

Why is it bad?

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#### Left-recursion

Top-down parsers cannot handle left-recursion in a grammar Formally, a grammar is left-recursive if

 $\exists A \in V_n \text{ such that } A \Rightarrow^+ A \alpha \text{ for some string } \alpha$ 

Our simple expression grammar is left-recursive



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#### How much lookahead is needed?

We saw that top-down parsers may need to backtrack when they select the wrong production

Do we need arbitrary lookahead to parse CFGs?

- in general, yes
- use the Earley or Cocke-Younger, Kasami algorithms

#### Fortunately

- large subclasses of CFGs can be parsed with limited lookahead
- most programming language constructs can be expressed in a grammar that falls in these subclasses

Among the interesting subclasses are:

LL(1): left to right scan, left-most derivation, 1-token lookahead;

LR(1): left to right scan, reversed right-most derivation, 1-token

Iookahead

#### Eliminating left-recursion

To remove left-recursion, we can transform the grammar Consider the grammar fragment:

$$\langle \text{foo} \rangle ::= \langle \text{foo} \rangle \alpha$$
 $\mid \beta$ 

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  do not start with  $\langle foo \rangle$  We can rewrite this as:

$$\langle \text{foo} \rangle ::= \beta \langle \text{bar} \rangle$$
  
 $\langle \text{bar} \rangle ::= \alpha \langle \text{bar} \rangle$   
 $\mid \varepsilon$ 

where \langle bar \rangle is a new non-terminal

This fragment contains no left-recursion



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### Predictive parsing

#### Basic idea:

- For any two productions  $A \to \alpha \mid \beta$ , we would like a distinct way of choosing the correct production to expand.
- For some RHS  $\alpha \in G$ , define FIRST( $\alpha$ ) as the set of tokens that appear first in some string derived from  $\alpha$ .
- That is, for some  $w \in V_t^*$ ,  $w \in FIRST(\alpha)$  iff.  $\alpha \Rightarrow^* w\gamma$ .
- Key property: Whenever two productions  $A \to \alpha$  and  $A \to \beta$  both appear in the grammar, we would like
  - FIRST( $\alpha$ )  $\cap$  FIRST( $\beta$ ) =  $\phi$
- This would allow the parser to make a correct choice with a lookahead of only one symbol!



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### Left factoring

What if a grammar does not have this property? Sometimes, we can transform a grammar to have this property.

For each non-terminal A find the longest prefix  $\alpha$  common to two or more of its alternatives.

if  $\alpha \neq \varepsilon$  then replace all of the A productions  $A \to \alpha \beta_1 \mid \alpha \beta_2 \mid \cdots \mid \alpha \beta_n$  with

$$egin{aligned} A &
ightarrow lpha A' \ A' &
ightarrow eta_1 \mid eta_2 \mid \cdots \mid eta_n \end{aligned}$$

where A' is a new non-terminal.

Repeat until no two alternatives for a single non-terminal have a common prefix.



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#### Indirect Left-recursion elimination

Given a left-factored CFG, to eliminate left-recursion:

- 1 **Input**: Grammar G with no *cycles* and no  $\varepsilon$  productions.
- 2 Output: Equivalent grammat with no left-recursion. begin

Arrange the non terminals in some order  $A_1, A_2, \dots A_n$ ;

4 | foreach 
$$i = 1 \cdots n$$
 do

3

5

6

7

8

9

10

**foreach** 
$$j = 1 \cdots i - 1$$
 **do**
Say the  $i^{th}$  production is:  $A_i \rightarrow A_j \gamma$ ;

and  $A_i \rightarrow \delta_1 |\delta_2| \cdots |\delta_k$ ;

Replace, the  $i^{th}$  production by:

 $A_i \rightarrow \delta_1 \gamma |\delta_2 \gamma| \cdots \delta_n \gamma;$ 

Eliminate immediate left recursion in  $A_i$ ;



#### Example

There are two non-terminals to left factor:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \langle expr \rangle & ::= & \langle term \rangle + \langle expr \rangle \\ & | & \langle term \rangle - \langle expr \rangle \\ & | & \langle term \rangle \end{array}$$

$$\langle term \rangle & ::= & \langle factor \rangle * \langle term \rangle \\ & | & \langle factor \rangle / \langle term \rangle \\ & | & \langle factor \rangle \end{array}$$

Applying the transformation:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \langle expr \rangle & ::= & \langle term \rangle \langle expr' \rangle \\ \langle expr' \rangle & ::= & + \langle expr \rangle \\ & | & - \langle expr \rangle \\ & | & \varepsilon \\ \\ \langle term \rangle & ::= & \langle factor \rangle \langle term' \rangle \\ \langle term' \rangle & ::= & * \langle term \rangle \\ & | & / \langle term \rangle \\ & | & \varepsilon \end{array}$$



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#### Generality

#### Question:

By left factoring and eliminating left-recursion, can we transform an arbitrary context-free grammar to a form where it can be predictively parsed with a single token lookahead?

#### Answer:

Given a context-free grammar that doesn't meet our conditions, it is undecidable whether an equivalent grammar exists that does meet our conditions.

Many *context-free languages* do not have such a grammar:

$$\{a^n 0b^n \mid n \ge 1\} \cup \{a^n 1b^{2n} \mid n \ge 1\}$$

Must look past an arbitrary number of a's to discover the 0 or the 1 and so determine the derivation.



#### Recursive descent parsing

```
1 int A()
2 begin
      foreach production of the form A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 X_3 \cdots X_k do
          for i = 1 to k do
4
              if X<sub>i</sub> is a non-terminal then
5
                  if (X_i() \neq 0) then
                      backtrack; break; // Try the next
7
                          production
              else if X_i matches the current input symbol a then
8
                  advance the input to the next symbol;
9
              else
10
11
                  backtrack; break; // Try the next production
          if i EQ k + 1 then
12
13
              return 0; // Success
      return 1; // Failure
```

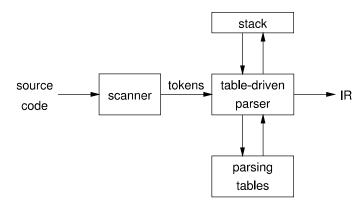
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#### Non-recursive predictive parsing

Now, a predictive parser looks like:



Rather than writing recursive code, we build tables. Why? *Building tables can be automated, easily.* 



#### Recursive descent parsing

- Backtracks in general in practise may not do much.
- How to backtrack?
- A left recursive grammar will lead to infinite loop.



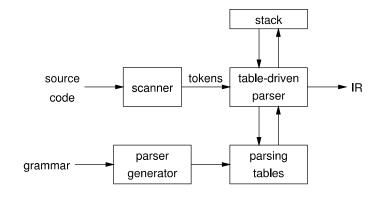
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### Table-driven parsers

A parser generator system often looks like:



- This is true for both top-down (LL) and bottom-up (LR) parsers
- This also uses a stack but mainly to remember part of the input string; no recursion.

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#### **FIRST**

For a string of grammar symbols  $\alpha$ , define FIRST( $\alpha$ ) as:

- the set of terminals that begin strings derived from  $\alpha$ :  $\{a \in V_t \mid \alpha \Rightarrow^* a\beta\}$
- If  $\alpha \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon$  then  $\varepsilon \in \mathsf{FIRST}(\alpha)$

 $FIRST(\alpha)$  contains the tokens valid in the initial position in  $\alpha$  To build FIRST(X):

- If  $X \in V_t$  then FIRST(X) is  $\{X\}$
- 2 If  $X \to \varepsilon$  then add  $\varepsilon$  to FIRST(X)
- - Put FIRST $(Y_1) \{\varepsilon\}$  in FIRST(X)
  - $\forall i: 1 < i \leq k, \text{ if } \varepsilon \in \mathsf{FIRST}(Y_1) \cap \cdots \cap \mathsf{FIRST}(Y_{i-1}) \\ \text{(i.e., } Y_1 \cdots Y_{i-1} \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon) \\ \text{then put } \mathsf{FIRST}(Y_i) \{\varepsilon\} \text{ in } \mathsf{FIRST}(X)$
  - **③** If  $\varepsilon \in \text{FIRST}(Y_1) \cap \cdots \cap \text{FIRST}(Y_k)$  then put  $\varepsilon$  in FIRST(X)

Repeat until no more additions can be made.



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#### LL(1) grammars

Previous definition

A grammar G is LL(1) iff. for all non-terminals A, each distinct pair of productions  $A \to \beta$  and  $A \to \gamma$  satisfy the condition  $\mathsf{FIRST}(\beta) \cap \mathsf{FIRST}(\gamma) = \phi$ .

What if  $A \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon$ ?

Revised definition

A grammar G is LL(1) iff. for each set of productions  $A \to \alpha_1 \mid \alpha_2 \mid \cdots \mid \alpha_n$ :

- FIRST( $\alpha_1$ ), FIRST( $\alpha_2$ ),..., FIRST( $\alpha_n$ ) are all pairwise disjoint
- 2 If  $\alpha_i \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon$  then FIRST $(\alpha_i) \cap \text{FOLLOW}(A) = \phi, \forall 1 \leq j \leq n, i \neq j$ .

If G is  $\varepsilon$ -free, condition 1 is sufficient.



#### **FOLLOW**

For a non-terminal A, define FOLLOW(A) as

the set of terminals that can appear immediately to the right of *A* in some sentential form

Thus, a non-terminal's FOLLOW set specifies the tokens that can legally appear after it.

A terminal symbol has no FOLLOW set.

To build FOLLOW(A):

- Put \$ in FOLLOW( $\langle goal \rangle$ )
- 2 If  $A \rightarrow \alpha B\beta$ :
  - **1** Put FIRST( $\beta$ ) { $\varepsilon$ } in FOLLOW(B)
  - ② If  $\beta = \varepsilon$  (i.e.,  $A \to \alpha B$ ) or  $\varepsilon \in \text{FIRST}(\beta)$  (i.e.,  $\beta \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon$ ) then put FOLLOW(A) in FOLLOW(B)

Repeat until no more additions can be made



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#### LL(1) grammars

Provable facts about LL(1) grammars:

- No left-recursive grammar is LL(1)
- No ambiguous grammar is LL(1)
- Some languages have no LL(1) grammar
- **4** A  $\varepsilon$ -free grammar where each alternative expansion for A begins with a distinct terminal is a *simple* LL(1) grammar.

#### Example

- $S \rightarrow aS \mid a$  is not LL(1) because FIRST(aS) = FIRST(a) = {a}
- $S \to aS'$   $S' \to aS' \mid \varepsilon$

accepts the same language and is LL(1)



### LL(1) parse table construction

Input: Grammar G
Output: Parsing table M

Method:

 $\bigcirc$   $\forall$  productions  $A \rightarrow \alpha$ :

 $\bullet$   $\forall a \in \mathsf{FIRST}(\alpha), \mathsf{add}\, A \to \alpha \mathsf{ to } M[A,a]$ 

② If  $\varepsilon \in \mathsf{FIRST}(\alpha)$ :

 $b \in \mathsf{FOLLOW}(A)$ , add  $A \to \alpha$  to M[A, b]

2 If  $\$ \in \mathsf{FOLLOW}(A)$  then  $\mathsf{add}\, A \to \alpha \mathsf{\ to\ } M[A,\$]$ 

Set each undefined entry of M to error

If  $\exists M[A,a]$  with multiple entries then grammar is not LL(1).

Note: recall  $a,b \in V_t$ , so  $a,b \neq \varepsilon$ 



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#### Table driven Predictive parsing

**Input:** A string w and a parsing table M for a grammar G

**Output:** If w is in L(G), a leftmost derivation of w; otherwise, indicate an error

1 push \$ onto the stack; push S onto the stack;

- 2 a points to the input tape;
- X = stack.top();
- 4 while  $X \neq \$$  do
- $5 \mid if X is a then$
- 6 | stack.pop(); inp++;
- 7 else if X is a terminal then
  - error();

else if M[X,a] is an error entry then

10 | error(

8

9

- else if  $M[X,a] = X \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 \cdots Y_k$  then
- output the production  $X \to Y_1 Y_2 \cdots Y_k$ ;
- stack.pop();
- push  $Y_k, Y_{k-1}, \dots Y_1$  in that order;
- X = stack.top();

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#### Example

Our long-suffering expression grammar:

1. 
$$S \rightarrow E$$
2.  $E \rightarrow TE'$ 
3.  $E' \rightarrow +E$ 
4.  $|-E|$ 
5.  $|\varepsilon|$ 
10.  $F \rightarrow \text{num}$ 

	FIRST	FOLLOW	id	num	+	_	*		\$
S	num,id	\$	1	1	_	_	_	_	_
E	num,id	\$	2	2	_	_		_	_
E'	$\epsilon,+,-$	\$	-	_	3	4	_	_	5
T	num,id	+, -, \$	6	6	_	_	_	_	_
T'	$\epsilon,*,/$	+, -, \$	_	_	9	9	7	8	9
$\lceil F \rceil$	num,id	+, -, *, /, \$	11	10	_	-	_	-	_
id	id	_							
num	num	_	1						
*	*	_	1						
	/	_							
+	+	_							
_	_	_							



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### A grammar that is not LL(1)



closest previous then.

#### Another example of painful left-factoring

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

```
stmt \rightarrow asginment | call | other assignment \rightarrow id := exp call \rightarrow id (exp-list)
```

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

```
statement \rightarrow id := exp | id( exp-list ) | other
```

We left factor:

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



See how the grammar obscures the language semantics.

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#### Some definitions

#### Recall

- For a grammar G, with start symbol S, any string  $\alpha$  such that  $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha$  is called a *sentential form*
- If  $\alpha \in V_t^*$ , then  $\alpha$  is called a *sentence* in L(G)
- Otherwise it is just a sentential form (not a sentence in L(G))

A *left-sentential form* is a sentential form that occurs in the leftmost derivation of some sentence.

A *right-sentential form* is a sentential form that occurs in the rightmost derivation of some sentence.

An unambiguous grammar will have a unique leftmost/rightmost derivation.



#### Error recovery in Predictive Parsing

• An error is detected when the terminal on top of the stack does not match the next input symbol or M[A,a] = error.

#### Panic mode error recovery

• Skip input symbols till a "synchronizing" token appears.

Q: How to identify a synchronizing token?

Some heuristics:

- All symbols in FOLLOW(A) in the synchronizing set for the non-terminal A.
- Semicolon after a Stmt production: assgignmentStmt; assignmentStmt;
- If a terminal on top of the stack cannot be matched?
  - pop the terminal.
  - issue a message that the terminal was inserted.

Q: How about error messages?



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### Bottom-up parsing

#### Goal:

Given an input string w and a grammar G, construct a parse tree by starting at the leaves and working to the root.



#### Reductions Vs Derivations

#### Reduction:

 At each reduction step, a specific substring matching the body of a production is replaced by the non-terminal at the head of the production.

#### **Key decisions**

- When to reduce?
- What production rule to apply?

#### **Reduction Vs Derivations**

- Recall: In derivation: a non-terminal in a sentential form is replaced by the body of one of its productions.
- A reduction is reverse of a step in derivation.
- Bottom-up parsing is the process of "reducing" a string w to the start symbol.
- Goal of bottum-up parsing: build derivation tree in reverse.

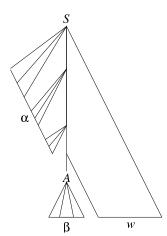


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### Handles



The handle  $A \to \beta$  in the parse tree for  $\alpha \beta w$ 

Informally, a "handle" is

- a substring that matches the body of a production (not necessarily the first one),
- and reducing this handle, represents one step of reduction (or reverse rightmost derivation).



#### Example

Consider the grammar

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} 1 & S & \to & \mathsf{a}AB\mathtt{e} \\ 2 & A & \to & A\mathtt{bc} \\ 3 & & & \mathtt{b} \\ 4 & B & \to & \mathtt{d} \end{array}$$

and the input string abbode

Prod'n.	Sentential Form
3	a b bcde
2	a $\overline{A}$ bc $\overline{d}$ e
4	$a\overline{A}$ d e
1	aABe
_	$\overline{S}$

The trick appears to be scanning the input and finding valid sentential forms.

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#### Handles

Theorem:

If *G* is unambiguous then every right-sentential form has a unique handle.

Proof: (by definition)

- $\bigcirc$  *G* is unambiguous  $\Rightarrow$  rightmost derivation is unique
- **2**  $\Rightarrow$  a unique production  $A \rightarrow \beta$  applied to take  $\gamma_{i-1}$  to  $\gamma_i$
- **3** ⇒ a unique position k at which  $A \rightarrow \beta$  is applied
- $\bullet \Rightarrow$  a unique handle  $A \rightarrow \beta$



#### Example

The left-recursive expression grammar (*original form*)

•	110 1011 1	Codioive expressio
1	⟨goal⟩	$::=\langle expr \rangle$
2	⟨expr⟩	$::= \langle expr \rangle + \langle term \rangle$
3		$ \langle \exp r \rangle - \langle term \rangle$
4		\langle term \rangle
5	(term)	$::= \langle term \rangle * \langle factor \rangle$
6		$ \langle term \rangle / \langle factor \rangle$
7		\langle factor \rangle
8	(factor)	::= num
9		id

٠.	(Originic	21 101111)
	Prod'n.	Sentential Form
	_	⟨goal⟩
	1	⟨expr⟩
	3	$\overline{\langle \text{expr} \rangle} - \langle \text{term} \rangle$
	5	$\overline{\langle \expr \rangle - \langle term \rangle} * \langle factor \rangle$
	9	$\langle \exp r \rangle - \overline{\langle \operatorname{term} \rangle * \underline{\operatorname{id}}}$
	7	$\langle \exp r \rangle - \langle factor \rangle * id$
	8	$\langle \exp r \rangle - \overline{\underline{\text{num} * id}}$
	4	$\langle \text{term} \rangle - \text{num} * \text{id}$
	7	$\overline{\langle factor \rangle}$ - num * id
	9	$\frac{1}{\text{id}} - \text{num} * \text{id}$



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### Handle-pruning

The process to construct a bottom-up parse is called *handle-pruning*. To construct a rightmost derivation

$$S = \gamma_0 \Rightarrow \gamma_1 \Rightarrow \gamma_2 \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow \gamma_{n-1} \Rightarrow \gamma_n = w$$

we set i to n and apply the following simple algorithm

for i = n downto 1

lacktriangledown find the handle  $A_i 
ightarrow eta_i$  in  $\gamma_i$ 

 $oxed{2}$  replace  $eta_i$  with  $A_i$  to generate  $\gamma_{i-1}$ 

This takes 2n steps, where n is the length of the derivation



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### Stack implementation

One scheme to implement a handle-pruning, bottom-up parser is called a *shift-reduce* parser.

Shift-reduce parsers use a stack and an input buffer

- initialize stack with \$
- Repeat until the top of the stack is the goal symbol and the input token is \$
  - a) find the handle
     if we don't have a handle on top of the stack, shift an input symbol onto the stack
  - b) prune the handle

if we have a handle  $A \rightarrow \beta$  on the stack, *reduce* 

- i) pop  $|\beta|$  symbols off the stack
- ii) push A onto the stack



## Example: back to x - 2 \* y

_		_
2	$E \rightarrow$	E + 7
3		E-7
4		T
5	$T \rightarrow$	T * F
6		T/F
7		$\boldsymbol{F}$
8	F $ ightarrow$	num
9		id

 $1|S \rightarrow E$ 

$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Stack	Input	Action
\$\langle goal \rangle   A	$\begin{array}{l} \$\langle term \rangle \\ \$\langle expr \rangle \\ \$\langle expr \rangle - \\ \$\langle expr \rangle - \underline{num} \\ \$\langle expr \rangle - \underline{\langle factor \rangle} \\ \$\langle expr \rangle - \overline{\langle term \rangle} \\ \$\langle expr \rangle - \overline{\langle term \rangle} \\ *\langle expr \rangle - \overline{\langle term \rangle} \\ \end{array}$	id - num * id - num * id - num * id - num * id - num * id num * id * id * id * id	S R9 R7 R4 S S R8 R7 S S R9 R5 R3



#### Shift-reduce parsing

Shift-reduce parsers are simple to understand

A shift-reduce parser has just four canonical actions:

- shift next input symbol is shifted onto the top of the stack
- reduce right end of handle is on top of stack; locate left end of handle within the stack; pop handle off stack and push appropriate non-terminal LHS
- accept terminate parsing and signal success
- error call an error recovery routine

Key insight: recognize handles with a DFA:

- DFA transitions shift states instead of symbols
- accepting states trigger reductions

May have Shift-Reduce Conflicts.



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### Example tables

state	P	۱C	ΓΙΟ	N	G	O	ТО
	id	+	*	\$	E	T	F
0	s4	_	_	_	1	2	3
1	_	_	_	acc	-	_	_
2	_	s5	_	r3	_	_	_
3	_	r5	s6	r5	_	_	_
4	_	r6	r6	r6	_	_	_
5	s4	_	_	_	7	2	3
6	s4	_	_	_	<b> </b> —	8	3
7	_	_	_	r2	_	_	_
8	_	r4	_	r4	-	_	-

 $6|F \rightarrow id$ 

*Note:* This is a simple little right-recursive grammar. It is *not* the same grammar as in previous lectures.

#### LR parsing

#### The skeleton parser:

```
push s_0 token \leftarrow next_token() repeat forever s \leftarrow top of stack if action[s,token] = "shift s_i" then push s_i token \leftarrow next_token() else if action[s,token] = "reduce A \rightarrow \beta" then pop |\beta| states s' \leftarrow top of stack push goto[s',A] else if action[s, token] = "accept" then return else error()
```

"How many ops?":k shifts, l reduces, and 1 accept, where k is length of input string and l is length of reverse rightmost derivation

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#### Example using the tables

Stack	Input	Action
\$ 0	id*id+id <b>\$</b>	s4
\$04	*id+id <b>\$</b>	r6
\$03	* id+ id <b>\$</b>	s6
\$036	id+id\$	s4
\$0364	+ id <b>\$</b>	r6
\$0363	+ id\$	r5
\$0368	+ id\$	r4
\$02	+ id\$	s5
\$025	id\$	s4
\$0254	\$	r6
\$0253	\$	r5
\$0252	\$	r3
\$0257	\$	r2
\$01	\$	acc



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#### LR(k) grammars

Informally, we say that a grammar G is LR(k) if, given a rightmost derivation

$$S = \gamma_0 \Rightarrow \gamma_1 \Rightarrow \gamma_2 \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow \gamma_n = w,$$

we can, for each right-sentential form in the derivation:

- o isolate the handle of each right-sentential form, and
- determine the production by which to reduce

by scanning  $\gamma_i$  from left to right, going at most k symbols beyond the right end of the handle of  $\gamma_i$ .



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## Why study LR grammars?

LR(1) grammars are often used to construct parsers.

We call these parsers LR(1) parsers.

- virtually all context-free programming language constructs can be expressed in an LR(1) form
- LR grammars are the most general grammars parsable by a deterministic, bottom-up parser
- efficient parsers can be implemented for LR(1) grammars
- LR parsers detect an error as soon as possible in a left-to-right scan of the input
- LR grammars describe a proper superset of the languages recognized by predictive (i.e., LL) parsers
  - LL(k): recognize use of a production  $A \rightarrow \beta$  seeing first k symbols derived from  $\beta$
  - LR(k): recognize the handle  $\dot{\beta}$  after seeing everything derived from  $\beta$  plus k lookahead symbols



### LR(k) grammars

Formally, a grammar G is LR(k) iff.:

- $\bullet$   $S \Rightarrow_{\rm rm}^* \alpha Aw \Rightarrow_{\rm rm} \alpha \beta w$ , and
- $S \Rightarrow_{\rm rm}^* \gamma Bx \Rightarrow_{\rm rm} \alpha \beta y$ , and

$$\Rightarrow \alpha Ay = \gamma Bx$$

i.e., Assume sentential forms  $\alpha\beta w$  and  $\alpha\beta y$ , with common prefix  $\alpha\beta$  and common k-symbol lookahead  $FIRST_k(y) = FIRST_k(w)$ , such that  $\alpha\beta w$  reduces to  $\alpha Aw$  and  $\alpha\beta y$  reduces to  $\gamma Bx$ .

But, the common prefix means  $\alpha\beta y$  also reduces to  $\alpha Ay$ , for the same result.

Thus  $\alpha Ay = \gamma Bx$ .



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#### LR parsing

Three common algorithms to build tables for an "LR" parser:

- SLR(1)
  - smallest class of grammars
  - smallest tables (number of states)
  - simple, fast construction
- 2 LR(1)
  - full set of LR(1) grammars
  - largest tables (number of states)
  - slow, large construction
- **3** LALR(1)
  - intermediate sized set of grammars
  - same number of states as SLR(1)
  - canonical construction is slow and large
  - better construction techniques exist



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#### SLR vs. LR/LALR

An LR(1) parser for either Algol or Pascal has several thousand states, while an SLR(1) or LALR(1) parser for the same language may have several hundred states.



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# Example

The • indicates how much of an item we have seen at a given state in the parse:

 $[A \rightarrow \bullet XYZ]$  indicates that the parser is looking for a string that can be derived from XYZ

 $[A o XY \bullet Z]$  indicates that the parser has seen a string derived from XY and is looking for one derivable from Z

LR(0) items: (no lookahead)

 $A \rightarrow XYZ$  generates 4 LR(0) items:



### LR(k) items

The table construction algorithms use sets of LR(k) *items* or *configurations* to represent the possible states in a parse.

An LR(k) item is a pair [ $\alpha$ , $\beta$ ], where

- lpha is a production from G with a ullet at some position in the RHS, marking how much of the RHS of a production has already been seen
- $\beta$  is a lookahead string containing k symbols (terminals or \$)

Two cases of interest are k = 0 and k = 1:

- LR(0) items play a key role in the SLR(1) table construction algorithm.
- LR(1) items play a key role in the LR(1) and LALR(1) table construction algorithms.



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#### The characteristic finite state machine (CFSM)

The CFSM for a grammar is a DFA which recognizes *viable prefixes* of right-sentential forms:

A viable prefix is any prefix that does not extend beyond the handle.

It accepts when a handle has been discovered and needs to be reduced.

To construct the CFSM we need two functions:

- CLOSURE(I) to build its states
- GOTO(I,X) to determine its transitions



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#### **CLOSURE**

Given an item  $[A \to \alpha \bullet B\beta]$ , its closure contains the item and any other items that can generate legal substrings to follow  $\alpha$ .

Thus, if the parser has viable prefix  $\alpha$  on its stack, the input should reduce to  $B\beta$  (or  $\gamma$  for some other item  $[B \to \bullet \gamma]$  in the closure).

```
function CLOSURE (I) repeat  \text{if } [A \to \alpha \bullet B\beta] \in I \\  \text{add } [B \to \bullet \gamma] \text{ to } I \\  \text{until no more items can be added to } I \\  \text{return } I
```



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### **GOTO**

Let I be a set of LR(0) items and X be a grammar symbol.

Then, GOTO(I,X) is the closure of the set of all items

$$[A \rightarrow \alpha X \bullet \beta]$$
 such that  $[A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet X \beta] \in I$ 

If I is the set of valid items for some viable prefix  $\gamma$ , then GOTO(I,X) is the set of valid items for the viable prefix  $\gamma X$ .

GOTO(I,X) represents state after recognizing X in state I.

```
function GOTO (I,X)
let J be the set of items [A \to \alpha X \bullet \beta]
such that [A \to \alpha \bullet X\beta] \in I
return CLOSURE (J)
```



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#### Building the LR(0) item sets

We start the construction with the item  $[S' \rightarrow \bullet S\$]$ , where

S' is the start symbol of the augmented grammar G' S is the start symbol of G

\$ represents EOF

To compute the collection of sets of LR(0) items

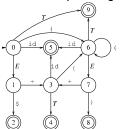
```
function items (G') s_0 \leftarrow \texttt{CLOSURE}(\{[S' \rightarrow \bullet S\$]\}) C \leftarrow \{s_0\} repeat for each set of items s \in C for each grammar symbol X if \texttt{GOTO}(s,X) \neq \phi and \texttt{GOTO}(s,X) \not\in C add \texttt{GOTO}(s,X) to C until no more item sets can be added to C return C
```



#### LR(0) example

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc}
1 & S & \rightarrow & E\$ \\
2 & E & \rightarrow & E+T \\
3 & & & T \\
4 & T & \rightarrow & \text{id} \\
5 & & & & (E)
\end{array}$$

The corresponding CFSM:



$$I_{0}: S \rightarrow \bullet E \$ \qquad I_{4}: E \rightarrow E + T \bullet E \rightarrow \bullet E + T \qquad I_{5}: T \rightarrow \text{id} \bullet E \rightarrow \bullet E + T \qquad I_{6}: T \rightarrow (\bullet E) \qquad E \rightarrow \bullet E + T \qquad E \rightarrow \bullet E + T \qquad E \rightarrow E \bullet T \qquad T \rightarrow \bullet \text{id} \qquad T \rightarrow \bullet (E) \qquad T \rightarrow \bullet (E) \qquad I_{7}: T \rightarrow (E \bullet) \qquad I_{8}: T \rightarrow (E) \bullet T \rightarrow \bullet (E) \qquad I_{9}: E \rightarrow T \bullet$$



### Constructing the LR(0) parsing table

- lacktriangle construct the collection of sets of LR(0) items for G'
- **3** state i of the CFSM is constructed from  $I_i$ 

  - ②  $[A \to \alpha \bullet] \in I_i, A \neq S'$ ⇒ ACTION[i, a] ← "reduce  $A \to \alpha$ ",  $\forall a$
  - ③  $[S' \to S \$ \bullet] \in I_i$ ⇒ ACTION $[i,a] \leftarrow$  "accept",  $\forall a$
- set undefined entries in ACTION and GOTO to "error"
- $lackbox{0}$  initial state of parser  $s_0$  is <code>CLOSURE([S' 
  ightarrow lacksymbol{\circ}S\\$])</code>



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#### Conflicts in the ACTION table

If the LR(0) parsing table contains any multiply-defined ACTION entries then G is not LR(0)

Two conflicts arise:

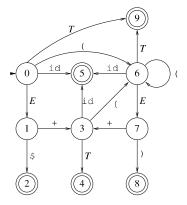
shift-reduce: both shift and reduce possible in same item set reduce-reduce: more than one distinct reduce action possible in same item set

Conflicts can be resolved through *lookahead* in ACTION. Consider:

- $A \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid a\alpha$  $\Rightarrow$  shift-reduce conflict
- a:=b+c\*drequires lookahead to avoid shift-reduce conflict after shifting c (need to see \* to give precedence over +)



#### LR(0) example



state		AC	CTIC	N		GO	TO
	id	(	)	+	\$	SE	T
0	s5	s6	-	_	_	<b>–</b> 1	9
1	-	-	-	s3	s2		-
2	acc	acc	acc	acc	acc		_
3	s5	s6	_	_	_		4
4	r2	r2	r2	r2	r2		_
5	r4	r4	r4	r4	r4		_
6	s5	s6	-	_	_	<b>-</b> 7	9
7	—	_	s8	s3	_		_
8	r5	r5	r5	r5	r5		_
9	r3	r3	r3	r3	r3		_



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#### SLR(1): simple lookahead LR

Add lookaheads after building LR(0) item sets Constructing the SLR(1) parsing table:

- onstruct the collection of sets of LR(0) items for *G'*
- state i of the CFSM is constructed from  $I_i$ 

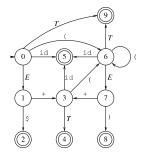
  - ②  $[A \to \alpha \bullet] \in I_i, A \neq S'$ ⇒ ACTION $[i, a] \leftarrow$  "reduce  $A \to \alpha$ ",  $\forall a \in \text{FOLLOW}(A)$
  - $\underbrace{ [S' \to S \bullet \$] \in I_i }_{\Rightarrow \mathsf{ACTION}[i, \underline{\$}] \leftarrow \texttt{``accept''}$
- set undefined entries in ACTION and GOTO to "error"
- **5** initial state of parser  $s_0$  is CLOSURE( $[S' \rightarrow \bullet S\$]$ )



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#### From previous example

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} 1 & S & \rightarrow & E\$ \\ 2 & E & \rightarrow & E+T \\ 3 & & | & T \\ 4 & T & \rightarrow & \text{id} \\ 5 & & | & (E) \end{array}$$



FOLLOW(E) = FOL	LOW(T)	$= \{\$, +, \}$	
-----------------	--------	-----------------	--

state		AC	ITC	ΟN	l	G	0	TO	
	id	(	)	+	\$	S	Е	T	
0	s5	s6	_	_	_	_	1	9	
1	_	_	-	s3	acc	-	_	_	
2 3	—	_	_	_	_	-	_	_	
3	s5	s6	_	_	_	_	_	4	
4	—	_	r2	r2	r2	_	_	_	
5	—	_	r4	r4	r4	-	_	_	
6	s5	s6	_	_	_	_	7	9	
7	—	_	s8	s3	_	_	_	_	
8	—	_	r5	r5	r5	_	_	_	
9	—	_	r3	r3	r3	_	_	_	



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#### Example: A grammar that is not LR(0)

	FOLLOW
E	$\{+,),\$\}$
T	$\{+,*,),\$\}$
$\overline{F}$	$\{+,*,),\$\}$

$$I_0: S \to \bullet E \$ \qquad I_6: F \to (\bullet E)$$

$$E \to \bullet E + T$$

$$E \to \bullet T$$

$$T \to \bullet T * F$$

$$T \to \bullet F$$

$$F \to \bullet \text{id}$$

$$F \to \bullet (E)$$

$$I_1: S \to E \bullet \$$$

$$E \to E \bullet + T$$

$$I_2: S \to E \$ \bullet$$

$$I_3: E \to E + \bullet T$$

$$T \to \bullet T * F$$

$$T \to \bullet T * F$$

$$T \to \bullet T * F$$

$$T \to \bullet G E$$

$$I_1: F \to \bullet \text{id}$$

$$I_2: F \to \bullet \text{id}$$

$$I_3: F \to \bullet \text{id}$$

$$I_4: T \to F \bullet$$

$$I_5: F \to \text{id} \bullet$$

$$I_6: F \to (\bullet E)$$

$$F \to \bullet E \to T$$

$$T \to T * F$$

$$I_7 \to \bullet F \to \bullet \text{id}$$

$$F \to \bullet (E)$$

$$I_{10}: F \to (E) \bullet$$

$$I_{10}: F \to (E) \bullet$$

$$I_{11}: E \to E + T \bullet$$

$$I_{12}: F \to (\bullet E)$$

$$I_{12}: F \to (\bullet E)$$

$$I_{12}: F \to (\bullet E)$$

$$E \to E \bullet + T$$



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### Example: But it is SLR(1)

state	ACTION					GOTO				
	+	*	id	(	)	\$	S	E	T	F
0	_	_	s5	s6	-	_	_	1	7	4
1	s3	_	_	_	_	acc	-	_	_	-
2	_	_	_	_	_	_	-	_	_	-
3	<b> </b>	_	s5	s6	_	_	<b> </b>	_	11	4
4	r5	r5	_	_	r5	r5	<b>-</b>	_	_	-
5	r6	r6	_	_	r6	r6	—	_	_	-
6	_	_	s5	s6	_	_	-	12	7	4
7	r3	s8	_	_	r3	r3	<b> </b>	_	_	-
8	_	_	s5	s6	_	_	<b>-</b>	_	_	9
9	r4	r4	_	_	r4	r4	_	_	_	-
10	r7	r7	_	_	r7	r7	-	_	_	-
11	r2	s8	_	_	r2	r2	-	_	_	-
12	s3	_	_	_	s10	_	_	_	_	



### Example: A grammar that is not SLR(1)

Consider:

nsider: Its LR(0) item sets: 
$$I_0: S' \to \bullet S$$
\$

$$S \rightarrow L = R$$

$$\mid R$$

$$L \rightarrow *R$$

$$\mid id$$

$$R \rightarrow L$$

$$I_0: S' \to \bullet S \$$$

$$S \to \bullet L = R$$

$$S \to \bullet R$$

$$L \to \bullet * R$$

$$L \to \bullet id$$

$$R \to \bullet L$$

$$I_1: S' \to S \bullet \$$$

$$I_2: S \to L \bullet = R$$

$$R \to L \bullet$$

$$I_3: S \to R \bullet$$

$$I_4: L \to id \bullet$$

$$I_5: L \to * \bullet R$$

$$L \to \bullet * R$$

$$R \to L$$

$$R \to L$$

Now consider  $I_2$ :  $= \in FOLLOW(R)$   $(S \Rightarrow L = R \Rightarrow *R = R)$ 



#### LR(1) items

Recall: An LR(k) item is a pair [ $\alpha$ , $\beta$ ], where

- $\alpha$  is a production from G with a  $\bullet$  at some position in the RHS, marking how much of the RHS of a production has been seen
- $\beta$  is a lookahead string containing k symbols (terminals or \$)

What about LR(1) items?

- All the lookahead strings are constrained to have length 1
- Look something like  $[A \rightarrow X \bullet YZ, a]$



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#### closure1(I)

Given an item  $[A \to \alpha \bullet B\beta, a]$ , its closure contains the item and any other items that can generate legal substrings to follow  $\alpha$ . Thus, if the parser has viable prefix  $\alpha$  on its stack, the input should reduce to  $B\beta$  (or  $\gamma$  for some other item  $[B \to \bullet \gamma, b]$  in the closure).

```
function closure1 (I) repeat if [A \to \alpha \bullet B\beta, a] \in I add [B \to \bullet \gamma, b] to I, where b \in \texttt{FIRST}(\beta a) until no more items can be added to I return I
```



### LR(1) items

What's the point of the lookahead symbols?

- carry along to choose correct reduction when there is a choice
- lookaheads are bookkeeping, unless item has at right end:
  - in  $[A \rightarrow X \bullet YZ, a]$ , a has no direct use
  - in  $[A \rightarrow XYZ \bullet, a]$ , a is useful
- allows use of grammars that are not uniquely invertible<sup>†</sup>

**The point**: For  $[A \to \alpha \bullet, a]$  and  $[B \to \alpha \bullet, b]$ , we can decide between reducing to A or B by looking at limited right context

<sup>†</sup>No two productions have the same RHS



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#### goto1(I)

Let I be a set of LR(1) items and X be a grammar symbol.

Then, GOTO(I,X) is the closure of the set of all items

$$[A \rightarrow \alpha X \bullet \beta, a]$$
 such that  $[A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet X\beta, a] \in I$ 

If I is the set of valid items for some viable prefix  $\gamma$ , then GOTO(I,X) is the set of valid items for the viable prefix  $\gamma X$ .

goto(I,X) represents state after recognizing X in state I.

```
function gotol (I,X)
let J be the set of items [A \to \alpha X \bullet \beta, a]
such that [A \to \alpha \bullet X \beta, a] \in I
return closurel (J)
```



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#### Building the LR(1) item sets for grammar G

We start the construction with the item  $[S' \to \bullet S,\$]$ , where S' is the start symbol of the augmented grammar G' S is the start symbol of G \$ represents EOF

To compute the collection of sets of LR(1) items

```
function items (G')
s_0 \leftarrow \text{closurel}(\{[S' \rightarrow \bullet S, \$]\})
C \leftarrow \{s_0\}
repeat
for each set of items s \in C
for each grammar symbol X
if \text{gotol}(s, X) \neq \phi and \text{gotol}(s, X) \not\in C
add \text{gotol}(s, X) to C
until no more item sets can be added to C return C
```



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# Constructing the LR(1) parsing table

Build lookahead into the DFA to begin with

- lacktriangle construct the collection of sets of LR(1) items for G'
- 2 state i of the LR(1) machine is constructed from  $I_i$ 
  - $[A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet a\beta, b] \in I_i$  and goto1 $(I_i, a) = I_j$ ⇒ ACTION $[i, a] \leftarrow$  "shift j"
  - $[A \to \alpha \bullet, \underline{a}] \in I_i, A \neq S'$   $\Rightarrow \mathsf{ACTION}[i, \underline{a}] \leftarrow \text{"reduce } A \to \alpha \text{"}$
  - $[S' \to S \bullet, \$] \in I_i$   $\Rightarrow \mathsf{ACTION}[i, \$] \leftarrow "accept"$
- 3 goto1 $(I_i,A) = I_j$  $\Rightarrow$  GOTO $[i,A] \leftarrow j$
- set undefined entries in ACTION and GOTO to "error"
- initial state of parser  $s_0$  is closure1( $[S' \rightarrow \bullet S, \$]$ )



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#### Back to previous example $(\not\in SLR(1))$

 $I_2$  no longer has shift-reduce conflict: reduce on \$, shift on =



### Example: back to SLR(1) expression grammar

In general, LR(1) has many more states than LR(0)/SLR(1):

LR(1) item sets:

$$I_0: \qquad I_0': \text{shifting (} \\ S \rightarrow \bullet E, \quad \$ \\ E \rightarrow \bullet E + T, + \$ \\ E \rightarrow \bullet T, \quad + \$ \\ T \rightarrow \bullet T * F, \; * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet \text{id}, \quad * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E), \quad * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E), \quad * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E), \quad * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E), \quad * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E), \quad * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E), \quad * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E), \quad * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E), \quad * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E), \quad * + \$ \\ I'_0: \text{shifting (} \\ F \rightarrow (\bullet E), \quad * + \$ \\ E \rightarrow \bullet E + T, +) \\ E \rightarrow \bullet E + T, +) \\ E \rightarrow \bullet E + T, +) \\ E \rightarrow \bullet T * F, * +) \\ T \rightarrow \bullet T * F, * +) \\ T \rightarrow \bullet T * F, * +) \\ T \rightarrow \bullet F, * +) \\ F \rightarrow \bullet \text{id}, * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet \text{id}, * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet \text{id}, * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E), * + \$ \\ F \rightarrow \bullet (E),$$



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#### Another example

#### Consider:

0	S'	$\rightarrow$	S
1	S	$\rightarrow$	CC
2	C	$\rightarrow$	cC
3	S'   S   C		d

9			и			
state				GOTO		
	c	d	\$	S	C	
0	s3	s4	_	1	2	
1	_	_	acc	-	_	
2 3	s6	s7	_	_	5	
	s3	s4	_	-	8	
4 5	r3	r3	_	-	_	
	_	_	r1	-	_	
6	s6	s7	_	_	9	
7	_	_	r3	-	_	
8	r2	r2	_	-	_	
9	_	_	r2	_	_	

#### LR(1) item sets:

$$I_0: S' \to \bullet S, \quad \$$$
  
 $S \to \bullet CC, \quad \$$   
 $C \to \bullet cC, \quad cd$ 

$$S \to \bullet CC, \$$$

$$C \to \bullet cC, cd$$

$$C \to \bullet d, cd$$

$$I_4: C \to d \bullet, \quad cd$$

$$I_5: S \to CC \bullet, \$$$

$$I_6: C \to c \bullet C, \$$$

$$C \to \bullet cC, \$$$

$$C \to \bullet d, \$$$

 $I_7:C\to d\bullet$ , \$

 $I_8: C \rightarrow cC \bullet, cd$ 

 $I_9:C\to cC\bullet$ , \$

$$I_1: S' \to S \bullet$$
, \$
 $I_2: S \to C \bullet C$ ,\$

$$C \rightarrow \bullet cC$$
, \$  $C \rightarrow \bullet d$ , \$

$$I_3: C \to c \bullet C, cd$$

$$C \to \bullet cC, cd$$

$$C \to \bullet cC$$
,  $cd$   
 $C \to \bullet d$ ,  $cd$ 

### LALR(1) parsing

Define the *core* of a set of LR(1) items to be the set of LR(0) items derived by ignoring the lookahead symbols.

Thus, the two sets

$$ullet$$
  $\{[A 
ightarrow lpha ullet eta, a], [A 
ightarrow lpha ullet eta, b]\}$ , and

$$\bullet \ \{[A \to \alpha \bullet \beta, c], [A \to \alpha \bullet \beta, d]\}$$

have the same core.

Key idea:

If two sets of LR(1) items,  $I_i$  and  $I_j$ , have the same core, we can merge the states that represent them in the ACTION and GOTO tables.



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### LALR(1) table construction

To construct LALR(1) parsing tables, we can insert a single step into the LR(1) algorithm

(1.5) For each core present among the set of LR(1) items, find all sets having that core and replace these sets by their union.

The goto function must be updated to reflect the replacement sets.

The resulting algorithm has large space requirements, as we still are required to build the full set of LR(1) items.



### LALR(1) table construction

The revised (and renumbered) algorithm

- $\odot$  construct the collection of sets of LR(1) items for G'
- of for each core present among the set of LR(1) items, find all sets having that core and replace these sets by their union (update the gotol function incrementally)
- 3 state i of the LALR(1) machine is constructed from  $I_i$ .
  - **1** [ $A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet a\beta, b$ ] ∈  $I_i$  and goto1( $I_i, a$ ) =  $I_j$  ⇒ ACTION[i, a] ← "shift i"
  - $[A \to \alpha \bullet, a] \in I_i, A \neq S'$   $\Rightarrow \mathsf{ACTION}[i, a] \leftarrow \text{"reduce } A \to \alpha \text{"}$
  - $[S' \to S \bullet, \$] \in I_i \Rightarrow \mathsf{ACTION}[i, \$] \leftarrow "accept"$
- $\bigcirc$  goto1 $(I_i,A) = I_j \Rightarrow \text{GOTO}[i,A] \leftarrow j$
- set undefined entries in ACTION and GOTO to "error"
- **1** initial state of parser  $s_0$  is closure1( $[S' \rightarrow \bullet S, \$]$ )



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### Example

#### Reconsider:

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc}
0 & S' & \to & S \\
1 & S & \to & CC \\
2 & C & \to & cC \\
3 & & & d
\end{array}$$

$$I_0: S' \to \bullet S, \quad \$$$
  
 $S \to \bullet CC, \quad \$$   
 $C \to \bullet cC, \quad cd$ 

$$I_3: C \to c \bullet C,$$

$$C \to \bullet cC,$$

$$C \to \bullet d$$

$$I_3: C \to c \bullet C, cd$$
  $I_6: C \to c \bullet C, \$$   
 $C \to \bullet cC, cd$   $C \to \bullet cC, \$$ 

$$C \to \bullet cC, \ cd$$
  
 $C \to \bullet d, \ cd$ 

$$C \rightarrow \bullet cC, \$$$
 $C \rightarrow \bullet d, \$$ 

$$C \to \bullet d$$
,  $cd$   $I_4$   
 $I_1: S' \to S \bullet$ , \$  $I_5$ 

$$C \rightarrow \bullet cC$$
,  $ca$   $C \rightarrow \bullet a$ ,  $ca$   $C \rightarrow \bullet a$ ,  $\$$   $C \rightarrow \bullet d$ ,  $cd$   $I_4: C \rightarrow d \bullet$ ,  $cd$   $I_7: C \rightarrow d \bullet$ ,  $\$$   $S' \rightarrow S \bullet$ ,  $\$$   $I_5: S \rightarrow CC \bullet$ ,  $\$$   $I_8: C \rightarrow cC \bullet$ ,  $cd$ 

$$I_2: S \to C \bullet C, \$$$
 $C \to \bullet cC, \$$ 
 $C \to \bullet d, \$$ 

$$I_8: C \rightarrow cC \bullet$$
,  $cC \bullet$ 

#### Merged states:

$$I_{36}: C \to c \bullet C, cd\$$$

$$C \to \bullet cC, cd\$$$

$$C \to \bullet d, cd\$$$

$$I_{47}: C \to d\bullet, cd\$$$

$$I_{89}: C \to cC\bullet, cd\$$$

r2 r2 r2 - -



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### The role of precedence

Precedence and associativity can be used to resolve shift/reduce conflicts in ambiguous grammars.

- lookahead with higher precedence ⇒ shift
- same precedence, left associative ⇒ reduce

#### Advantages:

- more concise, albeit ambiguous, grammars
- shallower parse trees ⇒ fewer reductions

Classic application: expression grammars

# More efficient LALR(1) construction

Observe that we can:

- represent  $I_i$  by its *basis* or *kernel*: items that are either  $[S' \rightarrow \bullet S, \$]$ or do not have • at the left of the RHS
- compute *shift*, *reduce* and *goto* actions for state derived from *I*<sub>i</sub> directly from its kernel

This leads to a method that avoids building the complete canonical collection of sets of LR(1) items

Self reading: Section 4.7.5 Dragon book



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### The role of precedence

With precedence and associativity, we can use:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} E & \rightarrow & E*E \\ & \mid & E/E \\ & \mid & E+E \\ & \mid & E-E \\ & \mid & (E) \\ & \mid & -E \\ & \mid & \text{id} \\ & \mid & \text{num} \end{array}$$

This eliminates useless reductions (single productions)





#### Error recovery in shift-reduce parsers

#### The problem

- encounter an invalid token
- bad pieces of tree hanging from stack
- incorrect entries in symbol table

We want to parse the rest of the file

Restarting the parser

- find a restartable state on the stack
- move to a consistent place in the input
- print an informative message to stderr

(line number)



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#### Example

#### Using error

stmt\_list stmt

stmt\_list ; stmt

can be augmented with error

stmt\_list

stmt\_list ; stmt

#### This should

- throw out the erroneous statement
- synchronize at ";" or "end"
- invoke yyerror("syntax error")

#### Other "natural" places for errors

- all the "lists": FieldList, CaseList
- missing parentheses or brackets
- extra operator or missing operator

(yychar)



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#### Error recovery in yacc/bison/Java CUP

#### The error mechanism

- designated token error
- valid in any production
- error shows synchronization points

#### When an error is discovered

- pops the stack until error is legal
- skips input tokens until it successfully shifts 3 (some default value)
- error productions can have actions

This mechanism is fairly general

Read the section on Error Recovery of the on-line CUP manual



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#### Left versus right recursion

#### Right Recursion:

- needed for termination in predictive parsers
- requires more stack space
- right associative operators

#### Left Recursion:

- works fine in bottom-up
- İimits required stack space
- left associative operators

#### Rule of thumb:

- right recursion for top-down
- left recursion for bottom-up parsers

#### Left recursive grammar:

$$E \rightarrow E + T|E$$

$$T \rightarrow T * F | F$$

$$F \rightarrow (E) + Int$$

#### After left recursion removal

$$E \rightarrow TE'$$

$$E' \rightarrow +TE'|\varepsilon$$

$$T \rightarrow FT'$$

$$T' \rightarrow *FT' | \varepsilon$$

$$F \rightarrow (E) + Int$$

Parse the string 3 + 4 + 5



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### Parsing review

Recursive descent

A hand coded recursive descent parser directly encodes a grammar (typically an LL(1) grammar) into a series of mutually recursive procedures. It has most of the linguistic limitations of LL(1).

• LL(*k*)

An LL(k) parser must be able to recognize the use of a production after seeing only the first k symbols of its right hand side.

• LR(k)

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An LR(k) parser must be able to recognize the occurrence of the right hand side of a production after having seen all that is derived from that right hand side with k symbols of lookahead.



Grammar hierarchy

• 
$$LR(k) > LR(1) > LALR(1) > SLR(1) > LR(0)$$

• 
$$LL(k) > LL(1) > LL(0)$$



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