

Parsers

Monday, September 8, 14

What is a parser

- A parser has two jobs:
 - 1) Determine whether a string (program) is *valid* (think: grammatically correct)
 - 2) Determine the structure of a program (think: diagramming a sentence)

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Agenda

- How do we define a language?
 - How do we define the set of strings that are grammatically correct
 - Context free grammars
- How do we recognize strings in the language?
 - How can we tell (easily) whether a program is a valid string in the language
 - How can we determine the structure of a program?
 - LL parsers and LR parsers

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Languages

- A *language* is a (possibly infinite) set of strings
- Regular expressions describe *regular languages*
 - Fundamental drawback: can only use finite state to recognize whether a string is in the language
 - Consider this valid piece of C code:
 - `{ { { int x; } } }`
 - Need to make sure that there are the same number of '{' as '}'
 - How would you write a regular expression to capture that?

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Languages

- Key problem: programming language syntax is *recursive*
 - If statements can be nested inside while loops which can themselves be nested inside if statements which can be nested inside for loops which can be nested inside switch statements ...
- Nesting can be arbitrarily deep
- New formalism for specifying these kinds of recursive languages: **Context-free Grammars**

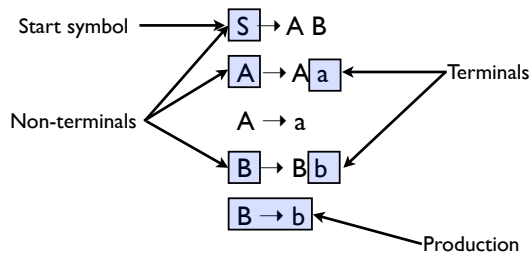
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Terminology

- Grammar $G = (V_t, V_n, S, P)$
 - V_t is the set of **terminals**
 - V_n is the set of **non-terminals**
 - S is the **start symbol**
 - P is the set of **productions**
 - Each production takes the form: $V_n \rightarrow \lambda \mid (V_n \mid V_t)^+$
 - Grammar is **context-free** (why?)
- A simple grammar:
 $G = (\{a, b\}, \{S, A, B\}, \{S \rightarrow A B, A \rightarrow A a, A \rightarrow a, B \rightarrow B b, B \rightarrow b\}, S)$

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Simple grammar



Backus Naur Form (BNF)

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Generating strings

$S \rightarrow AB$

$A \rightarrow Aa$

$A \rightarrow a$

$B \rightarrow Bb$

$B \rightarrow b$

- Given a start rule, productions tell us how to rewrite a non-terminal into a different set of symbols
- Some productions may rewrite to λ . That just removes the non-terminal

To derive the string "a a b b b" we can do the following rewrites:

$S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow AaB \Rightarrow aaB \Rightarrow aaBb \Rightarrow aabbb$

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Terminology

- Strings are composed of symbols
 - $AAaABbBAa$ is a string
- We will use Greek letters to represent strings composed of both terminals and non-terminals
- $L(G)$ is the language produced by the grammar G
 - All strings consisting of only terminals that can be produced by G
 - In our example, $L(G) = a^+b^+$
 - The language of a context-free grammar is a **context-free language**
 - All regular languages are context-free, but not vice versa

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Why is this useful?

statement \rightarrow **statement** ; **statement**

statement \rightarrow **if_stmt** ;

statement \rightarrow **while_loop** ;

statement \rightarrow **id** = **lit** ;

statement \rightarrow **id** = **id** + **id** ;

if_stmt \rightarrow **if** (**cond_expr**) **then** **statement**

while_loop \rightarrow **while** (**cond_expr**) **statement**

cond_expr \rightarrow **id** < **lit**

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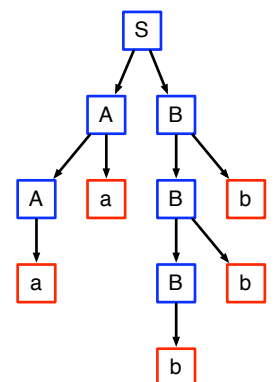
Programming language syntax

- Programming language syntax is defined with CFGs
- Constructs in language become non-terminals
 - May use auxiliary non-terminals to make it easier to define constructs
- if_stmt** \rightarrow **if** (**cond_expr**) **then** **statement** **else_part**
- else_part** \rightarrow **else** **statement**
- else_part** $\rightarrow \lambda$
- Tokens in language become terminals

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Parse trees

- Tree which shows how a string was produced by a language
- Interior nodes of tree: non-terminals
 - Children: the terminals and non-terminals generated by applying a production rule
- Leaf nodes: terminals



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Leftmost derivation

- Rewriting of a given string starts with the leftmost symbol
- Exercise: do a leftmost derivation of the input program

$F(V + V)$

using the following grammar:

E	→	Prefix (E)
E	→	V Tail
Prefix	→	F
Prefix	→	λ
Tail	→	+ E
Tail	→	λ

- What does the parse tree look like?

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Rightmost derivation

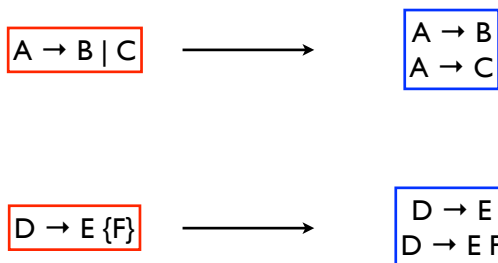
- Rewrite using the rightmost non-terminal, instead of the left
- What is the rightmost derivation of this string?

$F(V + V)$

E	→	Prefix (E)
E	→	V Tail
Prefix	→	F
Prefix	→	λ
Tail	→	+ E
Tail	→	λ

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Simple conversions



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Top-down vs. Bottom-up parsers

- Top-down parsers expand the parse tree in *pre-order*
 - Identify parent nodes before the children
- Bottom-up parsers expand the parse tree in *post-order*
 - Identify children before the parents
- Notation:
 - LL(1): Top-down derivation with 1 symbol lookahead
 - LL(k): Top-down derivation with k symbols lookahead
 - LR(1): Bottom-up derivation with 1 symbol lookahead

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What is parsing

- Parsing is recognizing members in a language specified/defined/generated by a grammar
- When a construct (corresponding to a production in a grammar) is recognized, a typical parser will take some action
 - In a compiler, this action generates an intermediate representation of the program construct
 - In an interpreter, this action might be to perform the action specified by the construct. Thus, if $a+b$ is recognized, the value of a and b would be added and placed in a temporary variable

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Top-down parsing

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Top-down parsing

- Idea: we know sentence has to start with initial symbol
- Build up partial derivations by *predicting* what rules are used to expand non-terminals
 - Often called *predictive parsers*
- If partial derivation has terminal characters, *match* them from the input stream

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

$B \rightarrow b$

$B \rightarrow \lambda$

- A sentence in the grammar:

$x a c c \$$

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

$B \rightarrow b$

$B \rightarrow \lambda$

special "end of input" symbol

- A sentence in the grammar:

$x a c c \$$

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

$B \rightarrow b$

$B \rightarrow \lambda$

- A sentence in the grammar:

$x a c c \$$

Current derivation: S

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

$B \rightarrow b$

$B \rightarrow \lambda$

- A sentence in the grammar:

$x a c c \$$

Current derivation: $A B c \$$

Predict rule

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

Choose based on
first set of rules

$B \rightarrow b$

$B \rightarrow \lambda$

- A sentence in the grammar:

$x a c c \$$

Current derivation: $x a A B c \$$

Predict rule based on next token

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

$B \rightarrow b$ • A sentence in the grammar:

$B \rightarrow \lambda$ $x a c c \$$

Current derivation: $x a A B c \$$

Match token

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

$B \rightarrow b$ • A sentence in the grammar:

$B \rightarrow \lambda$ $x a c c \$$

Current derivation: $x a A B c \$$

Match token

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

Choose based on
first set of rules

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

$B \rightarrow b$ • A sentence in the grammar:

$B \rightarrow \lambda$ $x a c c \$$

Current derivation: $x a c B c \$$

Predict rule based on next token

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

$B \rightarrow b$ • A sentence in the grammar:

$B \rightarrow \lambda$ $x a c c \$$

Current derivation: $x a c B c \$$

Match token

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

Choose based on
follow set

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

$B \rightarrow b$ • A sentence in the grammar:

$B \rightarrow \lambda$ $x a c c \$$

Current derivation: $x a c \lambda c \$$

Predict rule based on next token

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$

$A \rightarrow x a A$

$A \rightarrow y a A$

$A \rightarrow c$

$B \rightarrow b$ • A sentence in the grammar:

$B \rightarrow \lambda$ $x a c c \$$

Current derivation: $x a c c \$$

Match token

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A simple example

$S \rightarrow A B c \$$
 $A \rightarrow x a A$
 $A \rightarrow y a A$
 $A \rightarrow c$
 $B \rightarrow b$ • A sentence in the grammar:
 $B \rightarrow \lambda$ $x a c c \$$

Current derivation: **x a c c \$**

Match token

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First and follow sets

- $\text{First}(\alpha)$: the set of terminals (and/or λ) that begin all strings that can be derived from α
 - $\text{First}(A) = \{x, y, \lambda\}$
 - $\text{First}(xaA) = \{x\}$
 - $\text{First}(AB) = \{x, y, b\}$
- $\text{Follow}(A)$: the set of terminals (and/or $\$,$ but no λ s) that can appear immediately after A in some partial derivation
 - $\text{Follow}(A) = \{b\}$

$S \rightarrow A B \$$
 $A \rightarrow x a A$
 $A \rightarrow y a A$
 $A \rightarrow \lambda$
 $B \rightarrow b$

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First and follow sets

- $\text{First}(\alpha) = \{a \in V_t \mid \alpha \Rightarrow^* a\beta\} \cup \{\lambda \mid \text{if } \alpha \Rightarrow^* \lambda\}$
- $\text{Follow}(A) = \{a \in V_t \mid S \Rightarrow^+ \dots Aa \dots\} \cup \{\$ \mid \text{if } S \Rightarrow^+ \dots A \$\}$

S: start symbol
 a: a terminal symbol
 A: a non-terminal symbol
 α, β : a string composed of terminals and non-terminals (typically, α is the RHS of a production)

\Rightarrow : derived in 1 step
 \Rightarrow^* : derived in 0 or more steps
 \Rightarrow^+ : derived in 1 or more steps

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Computing first sets

- Terminal: $\text{First}(a) = \{a\}$
- Non-terminal: $\text{First}(A)$
 - Look at all productions for A
 $A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 \dots X_k$
 - $\text{First}(A) \supseteq (\text{First}(X_1) - \lambda)$
 - If $\lambda \in \text{First}(X_1)$, $\text{First}(A) \supseteq (\text{First}(X_2) - \lambda)$
 - If λ is in $\text{First}(X_i)$ for all i, then $\lambda \in \text{First}(A)$
- Computing $\text{First}(\alpha)$: similar procedure to computing $\text{First}(A)$

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Exercise

- What are the first sets for all the non-terminals in following grammar:

$S \rightarrow A B \$$
 $A \rightarrow x a A$
 $A \rightarrow y a A$
 $A \rightarrow \lambda$
 $B \rightarrow b$
 $B \rightarrow A$

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Computing follow sets

- $\text{Follow}(S) = \{\}$
- To compute $\text{Follow}(A)$:
 - Find productions which have A on rhs. Three rules:
 1. $X \rightarrow \alpha A \beta$: $\text{Follow}(A) \supseteq (\text{First}(\beta) - \lambda)$
 2. $X \rightarrow \alpha A \beta$: If $\lambda \in \text{First}(\beta)$, $\text{Follow}(A) \supseteq \text{Follow}(X)$
 3. $X \rightarrow \alpha A$: $\text{Follow}(A) \supseteq \text{Follow}(X)$
 - Note: $\text{Follow}(X)$ never has λ in it.

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Exercise

- What are the follow sets for

$$S \rightarrow A B \$$$

$$A \rightarrow x a A$$

$$A \rightarrow y a A$$

$$A \rightarrow \lambda$$

$$B \rightarrow b$$

$$B \rightarrow A$$

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Towards parser generators

- Key problem: as we read the source program, we need to decide what productions to use
- Step 1: find the tokens that can tell which production P (of the form $A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 \dots X_m$) applies

$\text{Predict}(P) =$

$$\begin{cases} \text{First}(X_1 \dots X_m) & \text{if } \lambda \notin \text{First}(X_1 \dots X_m) \\ (\text{First}(X_1 \dots X_m) - \lambda) \cup \text{Follow}(A) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- If next token is in $\text{Predict}(P)$, then we should choose this production

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Parse tables

- Step 2: build a parse table
- Given some non-terminal V_n (the non-terminal we are currently processing) and a terminal V_t (the lookahead symbol), the parse table tells us which production P to use (or that we have an error)
- More formally:

$$T: V_n \times V_t \rightarrow P \cup \{\text{Error}\}$$

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Building the parse table

- Start: $T[A][t] = \text{"error"}$
- foreach A:
 - foreach P with A on its lhs:
 - foreach t in $\text{Predict}(P)$:

$$T[A][t] = P$$
- Exercise: build parse table for our toy grammar

1. $S \rightarrow A B \$$
 2. $A \rightarrow x a A$
 3. $A \rightarrow y a A$
 4. $A \rightarrow \lambda$
 5. $B \rightarrow b$

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Stack-based parser for LL(1)

- Given the parse table, a stack-based algorithm is much simpler to generate than a recursive descent parser
- Basic algorithm:
 - Push the RHS of a production onto the stack
 - Pop a symbol, if it is a terminal, match it
 - If it is a non-terminal, take its production according to the parse table and go to 1
- Note: always start with start state

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An example

- How would a stack-based parser parse:

$x a y a b$

1. $S \rightarrow A B \$$
 2. $A \rightarrow x a A$
 3. $A \rightarrow y a A$
 4. $A \rightarrow \lambda$
 5. $B \rightarrow b$

Parse stack	Remaining input	Parser action
S	x a y a b \$	predict 1
A B \$	x a y a b \$	predict 2
x a A B \$	x a y a b \$	match(x)
a A B \$	a y a b \$	match(a)
A B \$	y a b \$	predict 3
y a A B \$	y a b \$	match(y)
a A B \$	a b \$	match(a)
A B \$	b \$	predict 4
B \$	b \$	predict 5
b \$	b \$	match(b)
\$	\$	Done!

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Dealing with semantic actions

- When a construct (corresponding to a production in a grammar) is recognized, a typical parser will invoke a **semantic action**
- In a compiler, this action generates an intermediate representation of the program construct
- In an interpreter, this action might be to perform the action specified by the construct. Thus, if $a+b$ is recognized, the value of a and b would be added and placed in a temporary variable

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Dealing with semantic actions

- We can annotate a grammar with *action symbols*
 - Tell the parser to invoke a semantic action routine
- Can simply push action symbols onto stack as well
- When popped, the semantic action routine is called
 - Routine manipulates *semantic records* on a stack
 - Can generate new records (e.g., to store variable info)
 - Can generate code using existing records
- Example: semantic actions for $x = a + 3$

```
statement ::= ID = expr #assign
expr ::= term + term #addop
term ::= ID | LITERAL
```

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Non-LL(1) grammars

- Not all grammars are LL(1)!
- Consider
 - $\langle \text{stmt} \rangle \rightarrow \text{if } \langle \text{expr} \rangle \text{ then } \langle \text{stmt list} \rangle \text{ endif}$
 - $\langle \text{stmt} \rangle \rightarrow \text{if } \langle \text{expr} \rangle \text{ then } \langle \text{stmt list} \rangle \text{ else } \langle \text{stmt list} \rangle \text{ endif}$
- This is not LL(1) (why?)
- We can turn this in to
 - $\langle \text{stmt} \rangle \rightarrow \text{if } \langle \text{expr} \rangle \text{ then } \langle \text{stmt list} \rangle \langle \text{if suffix} \rangle$
 - $\langle \text{if suffix} \rangle \rightarrow \text{endif}$
 - $\langle \text{if suffix} \rangle \rightarrow \text{else } \langle \text{stmt list} \rangle \text{ endif}$

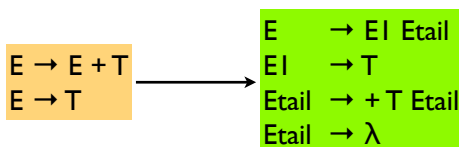
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Left recursion

- Left recursion** is a problem for LL(1) parsers
 - LHS is also the first symbol of the RHS
- Consider:
$$E \rightarrow E + T$$
- What would happen with the stack-based algorithm?

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Removing left recursion



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LL(k) parsers

- Can look ahead more than one symbol at a time
 - k -symbol lookahead requires extending first and follow sets
 - 2-symbol lookahead can distinguish between more rules:
$$A \rightarrow ax \mid ay$$
- More lookahead leads to more powerful parsers
- What are the downsides?

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Are all grammars LL(k)?

- No! Consider the following grammar:

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow E \\ E &\rightarrow (E + E) \\ E &\rightarrow (E - E) \\ E &\rightarrow x \end{aligned}$$

- When parsing E, how do we know whether to use rule 2 or 3?
 - Potentially unbounded number of characters before the distinguishing '+' or '-' is found
 - No amount of lookahead will help!

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In real languages?

- Consider the if-then-else problem
- if x then y else z
- Problem: else is optional
- if a then if b then c else d
 - Which if does the else belong to?
- This is analogous to a "bracket language": $[^i]^j$ ($i \geq j$)

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow [S C \\ S &\rightarrow \lambda \\ C &\rightarrow] \\ C &\rightarrow \lambda \end{aligned} \quad \begin{array}{l} [] \text{ can be parsed: } S S \lambda C \text{ or } S S C \lambda \\ \text{(it's ambiguous!)} \end{array}$$

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Solving the if-then-else problem

- The ambiguity exists at the language level. To fix, we need to define the semantics properly
 - "]" matches nearest unmatched "["
 - This is the rule C uses for if-then-else
 - What if we try this?

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow [S \\ S &\rightarrow S I \\ S I &\rightarrow [S I] \\ S I &\rightarrow \lambda \end{aligned}$$

This grammar is still not LL(1)
(or LL(k) for any k!)

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Two possible fixes

- If there is an ambiguity, prioritize one production over another
 - e.g., if C is on the stack, always match "]" before matching "\lambda"

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow [S C \\ S &\rightarrow \lambda \\ C &\rightarrow] \\ C &\rightarrow \lambda \end{aligned}$$

- Another option: change the language!
 - e.g., all if-statements need to be closed with an endif

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow \text{if } S E \\ S &\rightarrow \text{other} \\ E &\rightarrow \text{else } S \text{ endif} \\ E &\rightarrow \text{endif} \end{aligned}$$

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Parsing if-then-else

- What if we don't want to change the language?
 - C does not require { } to delimit single-statement blocks
- To parse if-then-else, we need to be able to look ahead at the entire rhs of a production before deciding which production to use
 - In other words, we need to determine how many "]" to match before we start matching "["'s
- LR parsers can do this!

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LR Parsers

- Parser which does a Left-to-right, Right-most derivation
 - Rather than parse top-down, like LL parsers do, parse bottom-up, starting from leaves
- Basic idea: put tokens on a stack until an entire production is found
- Issues:
 - Recognizing the endpoint of a production
 - Finding the length of a production (RHS)
 - Finding the corresponding nonterminal (the LHS of the production)

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LR Parsers

- Basic idea:
 - **shift** tokens onto the stack. At any step, keep the set of productions that could generate the read-in tokens
 - **reduce** the RHS of recognized productions to the corresponding non-terminal on the LHS of the production. Replace the RHS tokens on the stack with the LHS non-terminal.

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Data structures

- At each state, given the next token,
 - A **goto table** defines the successor state
 - An **action table** defines whether to
 - **shift** – put the next state and token on the stack
 - **reduce** – an RHS is found; process the production
 - **terminate** – parsing is complete

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Simple example

1. $P \rightarrow S$
2. $S \rightarrow x ; S$
3. $S \rightarrow e$

		Symbol					Action
		x	;	e	P	S	
State	0	1		3		5	Shift
	1		2				Shift
	2	1		3		4	Shift
	3						Reduce 3
	4						Reduce 2
	5						Accept

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Parsing using an LR(0) parser

- Basic idea: parser keeps track, simultaneously, of all possible productions that *could be matched* given what it's seen so far. When it sees a full production, match it.
- Maintain a **parse stack** that tells you what state you're in
 - Start in state 0
- In each state, look up in action table whether to:
 - **shift**: consume a token off the input; look for next state in goto table; push next state onto stack
 - **reduce**: match a production; pop off as many symbols from state stack as seen in production; look up where to go according to non-terminal we just matched; push next state onto stack
 - **accept**: terminate parse

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Example

- Parse "x ; x ; e"

Step	Parse Stack	Remaining Input	Parser Action
1	0	x ; x ; e	Shift 1
2	0 1	; x ; e	Shift 2
3	0 1 2	x ; e	Shift 1
4	0 1 2 1	; e	Shift 2
5	0 1 2 1 2	e	Shift 3
6	0 1 2 1 2 3		Reduce 3 (goto 4)
7	0 1 2 1 2 4		Reduce 2 (goto 4)
8	0 1 2 4		Reduce 2 (goto 5)
9	0 5		Accept

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LR(k) parsers

- LR(0) parsers
 - No lookahead
- Predict which action to take by looking only at the symbols currently on the stack
- LR(k) parsers
 - Can look ahead k symbols
 - Most powerful class of deterministic bottom-up parsers
 - LR(1) and variants are the most common parsers

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Terminology for LR parsers

- Configuration: a production augmented with a “•”
 $A \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_i \bullet X_{i+1} \dots X_j$
- The “•” marks the point to which the production has been recognized. In this case, we have recognized $X_1 \dots X_i$
- Configuration set: all the configurations that can apply at a given point during the parse:
 $A \rightarrow B \bullet CD$
 $A \rightarrow B \bullet GH$
 $T \rightarrow B \bullet Z$
- Idea: every configuration in a configuration set is a production that we could be in the process of matching

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Configuration closure set

- Include all the configurations necessary to recognize the next symbol after the •
- For each configuration in set:
 - If next symbol is terminal, no new configuration added
 - If next symbol is non-terminal X, for each production of the form $X \rightarrow \alpha$, add configuration $X \rightarrow \bullet \alpha$

$S \rightarrow E \$$
 $E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$
 $T \rightarrow ID \mid (E)$

$\text{closure0}(\{S \rightarrow \bullet E \$\}) = \{$
 $S \rightarrow \bullet E \$$
 $E \rightarrow \bullet E + T$
 $E \rightarrow \bullet T$
 $T \rightarrow \bullet ID$
 $T \rightarrow \bullet (E)$
 $\}$

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Successor configuration set

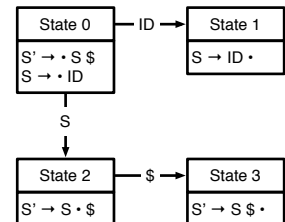
- Starting with the initial configuration set
 $s_0 = \text{closure0}(\{S \rightarrow \bullet \alpha \$\})$
 an LR(0) parser will find the successor given the next symbol X
- X can be either a terminal (the next token from the scanner) or a non-terminal (the result of applying a reduction)
- Determining the successor $s' = \text{go_to0}(s, X)$:
 - For each configuration in s of the form $A \rightarrow \beta \bullet X \gamma$ add $A \rightarrow \beta X \bullet \gamma$ to t
 - $s' = \text{closure0}(t)$

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CFSM

- CFSM = Characteristic Finite State Machine
- Nodes are configuration sets (starting from s_0)
- Arcs are go_to relationships

$S' \rightarrow S \$$
 $S \rightarrow ID$



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Building the goto table

- We can just read this off from the CFSM

		Symbol		
		ID	\$	S
State	0	1		2
	1			
	2		3	
	3			

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Building the action table

- Given the configuration set s:
 - We **shift** if the next token matches a terminal after the • in some configuration
 $A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet a \beta$ and $a \in V_t$, else error
 - We **reduce** production P if the • is at the end of a production
 $B \rightarrow \alpha \bullet$ where production P is $B \rightarrow \alpha$
- Extra actions:
 - shift** if goto table transitions between states on a non-terminal
 - accept** if we have matched the goal production

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Action table

State	0	Shift
	1	Reduce 2
	2	Shift
	3	Accept

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Conflicts in action table

- For LR(0) grammars, the action table entries are unique: from each state, can only shift or reduce
- But other grammars may have conflicts
 - Reduce/reduce conflicts: multiple reductions possible from the given configuration
 - Shift/reduce conflicts: we can either shift or reduce from the given configuration

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Shift/reduce conflict

- Consider the following grammar:
 $S \rightarrow A y$
 $A \rightarrow x \mid xx$
- This leads to the following configuration set (after shifting one "x":
 $A \rightarrow x \cdot x$
 $A \rightarrow x \cdot$
- Can shift or reduce here

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Shift/reduce example (2)

- Consider the following grammar:
 $S \rightarrow A y$
 $A \rightarrow \lambda \mid x$
- This leads to the following initial configuration set:
 $S \rightarrow \cdot A y$
 $A \rightarrow \cdot x$
 $A \rightarrow \lambda \cdot$
- Can shift or reduce here

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Lookahead

- Can resolve reduce/reduce conflicts and shift/reduce conflicts by employing *lookahead*
- Looking ahead one (or more) tokens allows us to determine whether to shift or reduce
- (cf how we resolved ambiguity in LL(1) parsers by looking ahead one token)

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Semantic actions

- Recall: in LL parsers, we could integrate the semantic actions with the parser
 - Why? Because the parser was *predictive*
- Why doesn't that work for LR parsers?
 - Don't know which production is matched until parser reduces
- For LR parsers, we put semantic actions at the end of productions
 - May have to rewrite grammar to support all necessary semantic actions

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Parsers with lookahead

- Adding lookahead creates an **LR(1) parser**
- Built using similar techniques as LR(0) parsers, but uses lookahead to distinguish states
- LR(1) machines can be much larger than LR(0) machines, but resolve many shift/reduce and reduce/reduce conflicts
- Other types of LR parsers are SLR(1) and LALR(1)
 - Differ in how they resolve ambiguities
 - yacc and bison produce LALR(1) parsers

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LR(1) parsing

- Configurations in LR(1) look similar to LR(0), but they are extended to include a lookahead symbol

$$A \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_i \bullet X_{i+1} \dots X_j, l \text{ (where } l \in V_t \cup \lambda \text{)}$$
- If two configurations differ only in their lookahead component, we combine them

$$A \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_i \bullet X_{i+1} \dots X_j, \{l_1 \dots l_m\}$$

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Building configuration sets

- To close a configuration

$$B \rightarrow \alpha \bullet A \beta, l$$
- Add all configurations of the form $A \rightarrow \bullet \gamma, u$ where $u \in \text{First}(\beta l)$
- Intuition: the lookahead symbol for any configuration is the terminal we expect to see *after the configuration has been matched*
- The parse could apply the production for A, and the lookahead after we apply the production should match the next token that would be produced by B

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Example

S → E \$
E → E + T | T
T → ID | (E)

closure1({S → • E \$, {λ}}) =
S → • E \$, {λ}
E → • E + T, {\$}
E → • T, {\$}
T → • ID, {\$}
T → • (E), {\$}
E → • E + T, {+}
E → • T, {+}
T → • ID, {+}
T → • (E), {+}

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Building goto and action tables

- The function **goto1**(configuration-set, symbol) is analogous to **goto0**(configuration-set, symbol) for LR(0)
- Build goto table in the same way as for LR(0)
- Key difference: the action table.

$$\text{action}[s][x] =$$
 - reduce** when • is at end of configuration *and* $x \in \text{lookahead set of configuration}$

$$A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet, \{x_1 \dots x_n\} \in s$$
 - shift** when • is before x

$$A \rightarrow \beta \bullet x \gamma \in s$$

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Example

- Consider the simple grammar:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \text{program} \rangle &\rightarrow \text{begin } \langle \text{stmts} \rangle \text{ end } \$ \\ \langle \text{stmts} \rangle &\rightarrow \text{SimpleStmt} ; \langle \text{stmts} \rangle \\ \langle \text{stmts} \rangle &\rightarrow \text{begin } \langle \text{stmts} \rangle \text{ end } ; \langle \text{stmts} \rangle \\ \langle \text{stmts} \rangle &\rightarrow \lambda \end{aligned}$$

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Action and goto tables

	begin	end	;	SimpleStmt	\$	<program>	<stmts>
0	S / 1						
1	S / 4	R4		S / 5			S / 2
2		S / 3					
3					A		
4	S / 4	R4		S / 5			S / 7
5			S / 6				
6	S / 4	R4		S / 5			S / 10
7		S / 8					
8			S / 9				
9	S / 4	R4		S / 6			S / 11
10		R2					
11		R3					

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<program> → begin <stmts> end \$

<stmts> → SimpleStmt ; <stmts>

<stmts> → begin <stmts> end ; <stmts>

<stmts> → λ

Example

- Parse: begin SimpleStmt ; SimpleStmt ; end \$

Step	Parse Stack	Remaining Input	Parser Action
1	0	begin S ; S ; end \$	Shift 1
2	0 1	S ; S ; end \$	Shift 5
3	0 1 5	; S ; end \$	Shift 6
4	0 1 5 6	S ; end \$	Shift 5
5	0 1 5 6 5	; end \$	Shift 6
6	0 1 5 6 5 6	end \$	Reduce 4 (goto 10)
7	0 1 5 6 5 6 10	end \$	Reduce 2 (goto 10)
8	0 1 5 6 10	end \$	Reduce 2 (goto 2)
9	0 1 2	end \$	Shift 3
10	0 1 2 3	\$	Accept

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Problems with LR(1) parsers

- LR(1) parsers are very powerful ...
 - But the table size is much larger than LR(0) — as much as a factor of $|V_t|$ (why?)
 - Example: Algol 60 (a simple language) includes several thousand states!
- Storage efficient representations of tables are an important issue

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Solutions to the size problem

- Different parser schemes
 - SLR (simple LR): build an CFSM for a language, then add lookahead wherever necessary (i.e., add lookahead to resolve shift/reduce conflicts)
 - What should the lookahead symbol be?
 - To decide whether to reduce using production $A \rightarrow \alpha$, use Follow(A)
 - LALR: merge LR states when they only differ by lookahead symbols

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