

Syntax Analyzer — Parser

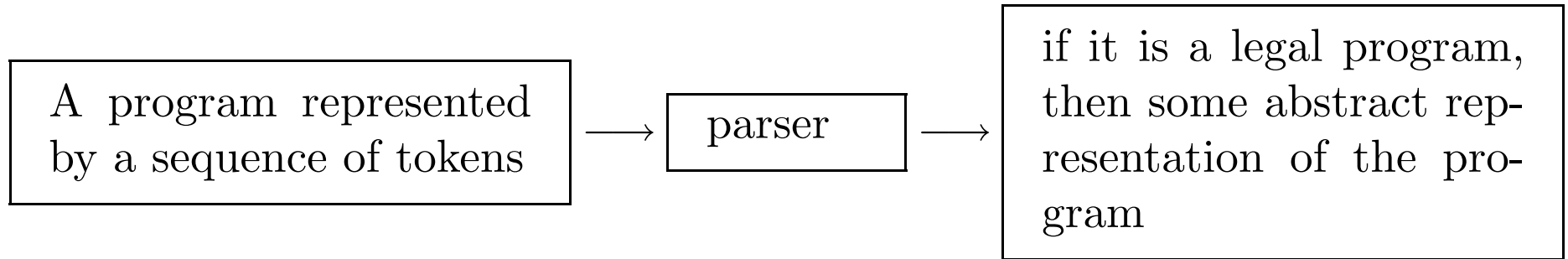
ASU Textbook Chapter 4.2–4.5, 4.7–4.9 (w/o error handling)

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main tasks



- **Abstract representations of the input program:**
 - abstract-syntax tree + symbol table
 - intermediate code
 - object code
- **Context free grammar (CFG) is used to specify the structure of legal programs.**

Context free grammar (CFG)

■ Definitions: $G = (T, N, P, S)$, where

- T : a set of **terminals** (in lower case letters);
- N : a set of **nonterminals** (in upper case letters);
- P : **productions** of the form
 $A \rightarrow X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m$, where $A \in N$ and $X_i \in T \cup N$;
- S : the starting nonterminal, $S \in N$.

■ Notations:

- **terminals** : lower case English strings, e.g., $a, b, c \dots$
- **nonterminals**: upper case English strings, e.g., $A, B, C \dots$
- $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in (T \cup N)^*$
 - ▷ α, β, γ : *alpha, beta and gamma.*
 - ▷ ϵ : *epsilon.*

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A \rightarrow X_1 \\ A \rightarrow X_2 \end{array} \right\} \equiv A \rightarrow X_1 \mid X_2$$

How does a CFG define a language?

- The language defined by the grammar is the set of strings (sequence of terminals) that can be “derived” from the starting nonterminal.
- How to “derive” something?
 - Start with:
“current sequence” = the starting nonterminal.
 - Repeat
 - ▷ *find a nonterminal X in the current sequence*
 - ▷ *find a production in the grammar with X on the left of the form $X \rightarrow \alpha$, where α is ϵ or a sequence of terminals and/or nonterminals.*
 - ▷ *create a new “current sequence” in which α replaces X*
 - Until “current sequence” contains no nonterminals.
- We derive either ϵ or a string of terminals. This is how we derive a string of the language.

Example

Grammar:

- $E \rightarrow int$
- $E \rightarrow E - E$
- $E \rightarrow E / E$
- $E \rightarrow (E)$

$$\begin{aligned} E & \\ \implies E - E & \\ \implies 1 - E & \\ \implies 1 - E/E & \\ \implies 1 - E/2 & \\ \implies 1 - 4/2 & \end{aligned}$$

■ Details:

- The first step was done by choosing the 2nd of the 4 productions.
- The second step was by choosing the first production.

■ Conventions:

- \implies : means “derives in one step”;
- $\overset{+}{\implies}$: means “derives in one or more steps”;
- $\overset{*}{\implies}$: means “derives in zero or more steps”;
- In the above example, we can write $E \overset{+}{\implies} 1 - 4/2$.

Language

- The **language** defined by a grammar G is

$$L(G) = \{w \mid S \xRightarrow{+} w\},$$

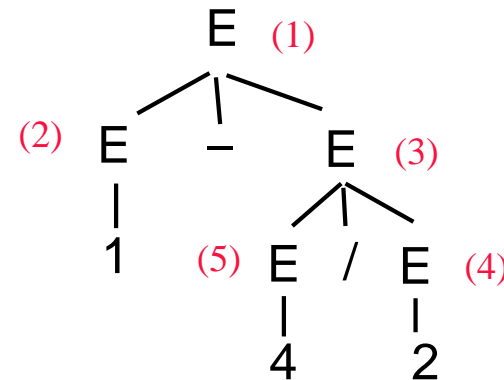
where S is the starting nonterminal and w is a sequence of terminals or ϵ .

- An **element** in a language is ϵ or a sequence of terminals in the set defined by the language.
- **More terminology:**
 - $E \Longrightarrow \dots \Longrightarrow 1 - 4/2$ is a **derivation** of $1 - 4/2$ from E .
 - There are several kinds of derivations that are important:
 - ▷ *The derivation is a **leftmost** one if the leftmost nonterminal always gets to be chosen (if we have a choice) to be replaced.*
 - ▷ *It is a **rightmost** one if the rightmost nonterminal is replaced all the times.*

A different way to derive

- Construct a **derivation** or **parse tree** as follows:
 - start with the starting nonterminal as a single-node tree
 - REPEAT
 - ▷ choose a leaf nonterminal X
 - ▷ choose a production $X \rightarrow \alpha$
 - ▷ symbols in α become children of X
 - UNTIL no more leaf nonterminal left
- Need to annotate the order of derivation on the nodes.

$$\begin{array}{l} E \\ \Rightarrow E - E \\ \Rightarrow 1 - E \\ \Rightarrow 1 - E/E \\ \Rightarrow 1 - E/2 \\ \Rightarrow 1 - 4/2 \end{array}$$



Parse tree examples

■ Example:

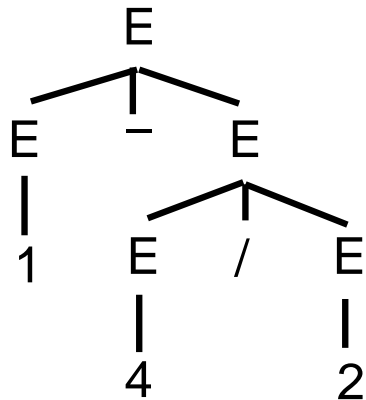
Grammar:

$E \rightarrow int$

$E \rightarrow E - E$

$E \rightarrow E / E$

$E \rightarrow (E)$

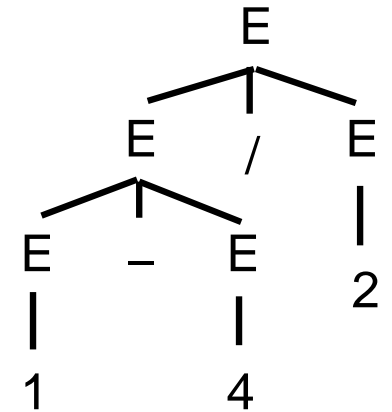


leftmost derivation

- Using $1 - 4/2$ as the input, the left parse tree is derived.

- A string is formed by reading the leaf nodes from left to right, given $1 - 4/2$.

- The string $1 - 4/2$ has another parse tree on the right.



rightmost derivation

■ Some standard notations:

- Given a parse tree and a fixed order (for example leftmost or rightmost) we can derive the order of derivation.
- For the “semantic” of the parse tree, we normally “interpret” the meaning in a bottom-up fashion. That is, the one that is derived last will be “serviced” first.

Ambiguous Grammar

- If for grammar G and string S , there are
 - more than one leftmost derivation for S , or
 - more than one rightmost derivation for S , or
 - more than one parse tree for S ,

then G is called **ambiguous**.

- Note: the above three conditions are equivalent in that if one is true, then all three are true.
- Problems with an ambiguous grammar:
 - Ambiguity can make parsing difficult.
 - Underlying structure is ill-defined: in the example, the precedence is not uniquely defined, e.g., the leftmost parse tree groups $4/2$ while the rightmost parse tree groups $1 - 4$, resulting in two different semantics.

Common grammar problems

- **Lists: that is, zero or more ID's separated by commas:**
 - Note it is easy to express one or more ID's:
 $\langle idlist \rangle \rightarrow \langle idlist \rangle, ID \mid ID$
 - For zero or more ID's,
 - ▷ $\langle idlist \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon \mid ID \mid \langle idlist \rangle, \langle idlist \rangle$
won't work due to ϵ ; it can generate: $ID, , ID$
 - ▷ $\langle idlist \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon \mid \langle idlist \rangle, ID \mid ID$
won't work either because it can generate: $, ID, ID$
 - We should separate out the empty list from the general list of one or more ID's.
 - ▷ $\langle opt-idlist \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon \mid \langle nonEmptyIdlist \rangle$
 - ▷ $\langle nonEmptyIdlist \rangle \rightarrow \langle nonEmptyIdlist \rangle, ID \mid ID$
- **Expressions: precedence and associativity as discussed next.**

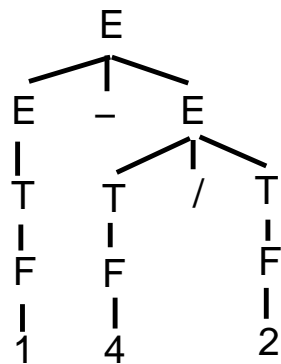
Grammar that expresses precedence correctly

- Use one nonterminal for each precedence level
- Start with lower precedence (in our example –)

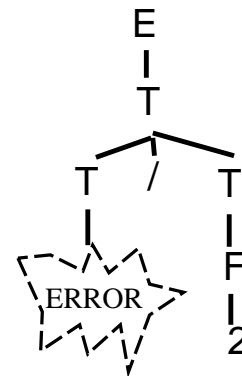
Original grammar:

$$E \rightarrow int$$
$$E \rightarrow E - E$$
$$E \rightarrow E / E$$
$$E \rightarrow (E)$$

Revised grammar:

$$E \rightarrow E - E \mid T$$
$$T \rightarrow T / T \mid F$$
$$F \rightarrow int \mid (E)$$


rightmost derivation



Grammar considering associative rules

Original grammar:

$$E \rightarrow int$$
$$E \rightarrow E - E$$
$$E \rightarrow E/E$$
$$E \rightarrow (E)$$

Revised grammar:

$$E \rightarrow E - E \mid T$$
$$T \rightarrow T/T \mid F$$
$$F \rightarrow int \mid (E)$$

Final grammar:

$$E \rightarrow E - T \mid T$$
$$T \rightarrow T/F \mid F$$
$$F \rightarrow int \mid (E)$$

■ Recursive productions:

- $E \rightarrow E - T$ is called a **left recursive** production.

▷ $A \xRightarrow{+} A\alpha$.

- $E \rightarrow T - E$ is called a **right recursive** production.

▷ $A \xRightarrow{+} \alpha A$.

- $E \rightarrow E - E$ is both left and right recursion.
- If one wants left associativity, use left recursion.
- If one wants right associativity, use right recursion.

How to use CFG

■ Breaks down the problem into pieces:

● Think about a C program:

- ▷ *Declarations: typedef, struct, variables, ...*
- ▷ *Procedures: type-specifier, function name, parameters, function body.*
- ▷ *function body: various statements.*

● Example:

$\langle \text{procedure} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{type-def} \rangle \text{ ID } \langle \text{opt-params} \rangle \langle \text{opt-decl} \rangle \{ \langle \text{opt-statements} \rangle \}$

- ▷ $\langle \text{opt-params} \rangle \rightarrow (\langle \text{list-params} \rangle)$
- ▷ $\langle \text{list-params} \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon \mid \langle \text{nonEmptyParlist} \rangle$
- ▷ $\langle \text{nonEmptyParlist} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{nonEmptyIdlist} \rangle, \text{ ID } \mid \text{ ID}$

■ One of purposes to write a grammar for a language is for others to understand. It will be nice to break things up into different levels in a top-down easily understandable fashion.

Useless terms

- A non-terminal X is **useless** if either
 - a sequence includes X cannot be derived from the starting nonterminal, or
 - no string can be derived starting from X , where a string means ϵ or a sequence of terminals.
- **Example 1:**
 - $S \rightarrow A B$
 - $A \rightarrow + \mid - \mid \epsilon$
 - $B \rightarrow digit \mid B digit$
 - $C \rightarrow . B$
- **In Example 1:**
 - C is useless and so is the last production.
 - Any nonterminal not in the right-hand side of any production is useless!

More examples for useless terms

- **Example 2: Y is useless.**
 - $S \rightarrow X \mid Y$
 - $X \rightarrow ()$
 - $Y \rightarrow (Y Y)$
- **Y derives more and more nonterminals and is useless.**
- **Any recursively defined nonterminal without a production of deriving ϵ all terminals is useless!**
 - Direct useless.
 - Indirect useless: one can only derive direct useless terms.
- **From now on, we assume a grammar contains no useless nonterminals.**

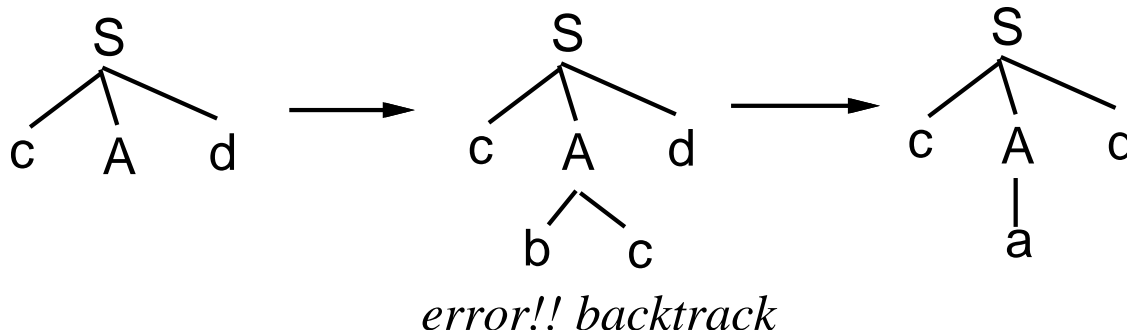
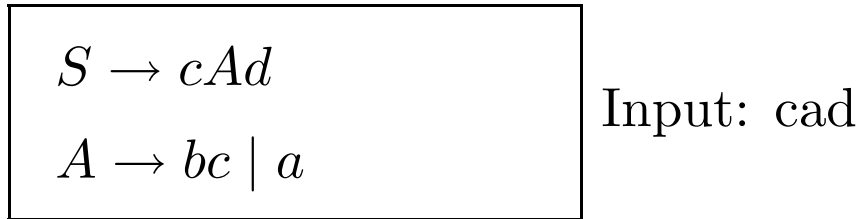
Non-context free grammars

- Some grammar is not CFG, that is, it may be context sensitive.
- Expressive power of grammars (in the order of small to large):
 - Regular expressions \equiv FA.
 - Context-free grammar
 - Context-sensitive
 - ...
- $\{waw \mid w \text{ is a string of } a \text{ and } b\text{'s}\}$ cannot be expressed by CFG.

Top-down parsing

- There are $O(n^3)$ -time algorithms to parse a language defined by CFG, where n is the number of input tokens.
- For practical purpose, we need faster algorithms. Here we make restrictions to CFG so that we can design $O(n)$ -time algorithms.
- **Recursive-descent parsing** : top-down parsing that allows backtracking.
 - Attempt to find a leftmost derivation for an input string.
 - Try out all possibilities, that is, do an exhaustive search to find a parse tree that parses the input.

Example for recursive-descent parsing



- **Problems with the above approach:**
 - still too slow!
 - want to select a derivation without ever causing backtracking!
 - trick: use lookahead symbols.
- **Solution: use $LL(1)$ grammars that can be parsed in $O(n)$ time.**
 - first L : scan the input from left-to-right
 - second L : find a leftmost derivation
 - (1): allow one lookahead token!

Predictive parser for $LL(1)$ grammars

■ How a predictive parser works:

- start by pushing the starting nonterminal into the **STACK** and calling the scanner to get the first token.

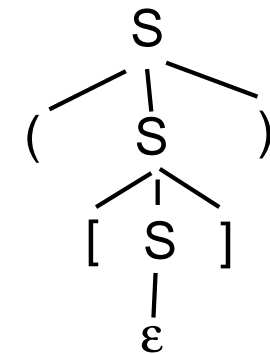
LOOP: if top-of-STACK is a nonterminal, then

- ▷ *use the current token and the PARSING TABLE to choose a production*
- ▷ *pop the nonterminal from the STACK and push the above production's right-hand-side*
- ▷ *GOTO LOOP.*
- if top-of-STACK is a terminal and matches the current token, then
 - ▷ *pop STACK and ask scanner to provide the next token*
 - ▷ *GOTO LOOP.*
- if **STACK** is empty and there is no more input, then **ACCEPT!**
- If none of the above succeed, then **FAIL!**
 - ▷ *STACK is empty and there is input left.*
 - ▷ *top-of-STACK is a terminal, but does not match the current token*
 - ▷ *top-of-STACK is a nonterminal, but the corresponding PARSING TABLE entry is ERROR!*

Example for parsing an $LL(1)$ grammar

- **grammar:** $S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid (S) \mid [S]$ **input:** $([])$

input	stack	action
(S	pop, push “(S)”
((S)	pop, match with input
([S)	pop, push “[S]”
([[S])	pop, match with input
([]	S])	pop, push ϵ
([])	pop, match with input
([]))	pop, match with input
([])		accept



leftmost derivation

- Use the current input token to decide which production to derive from the top-of-STACK nonterminal.

About $LL(1)$

- It is not always possible to build a predictive parser given a CFG; It works only if the CFG is $LL(1)$!
- For example, the following grammar is not $LL(1)$, but is $LL(2)$.
- Grammar: $S \rightarrow (S) \mid [S] \mid () \mid []$
Try to parse the input $()$.

input	stack	action
(S	pop, but use which production?

- In this example, we need 2-token look-ahead.
 - If the next token is $)$, push $()$.
 - If the next token is $($, push (S) .
- Two questions:
 - How to tell whether a grammar G is $LL(1)$?
 - How to build the PARSING TABLE?

Properties of non- $LL(1)$ grammars

- **Theorem 1: A CFG grammar is not $LL(1)$ if it is left-recursive.**
- **Definitions:**
 - **recursive grammar:** a grammar is recursive if the following is true for a nonterminal X in G :
 $X \xRightarrow{+} \alpha X \beta.$
 - G is **left-recursive** if $X \xRightarrow{+} X \beta.$
 - G is **immediately left-recursive** if $X \Rightarrow X \beta.$

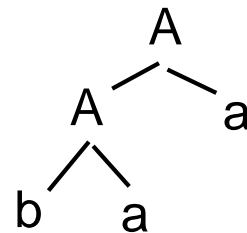
Example of removing immediate left-recursion

- Need to remove left-recursion to come out an $LL(1)$ grammar.
Example:

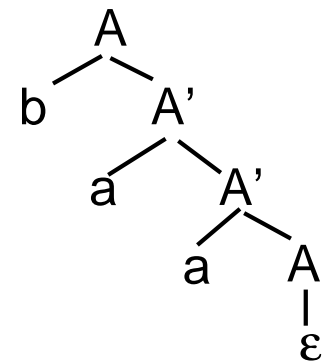
- Grammar $G: A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$, where β does not start with A
- Revised grammar G' :
 - $A \rightarrow \beta A'$
 - $A' \rightarrow \alpha A' \mid \epsilon$
- The above two grammars are equivalent. That is $L(G) \equiv L(G')$.

- Example:

input baa $\beta \equiv b$ $\alpha \equiv a$



leftmost derivation
original grammar G



leftmost derivation
revised grammar G'

Rule for removing immediate left-recursion

- Both grammar recognize the same string, but G' is not left-recursive.
- However, G is clear and intuitive.
- General rule for removing immediately left-recursion:
 - Replace $A \rightarrow A\alpha_1 \mid \cdots \mid A\alpha_m \mid \beta_1 \mid \cdots \mid \beta_n$
 - with
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow \beta_1A' \mid \cdots \mid \beta_nA'$
 - ▷ $A' \rightarrow \alpha_1A' \mid \cdots \mid \alpha_mA' \mid \epsilon$
- This rule does not work if $\alpha_i = \epsilon$ for some i .
 - This is called a *direct cycle* in a grammar.
- May need to worry about whether the semantics are equivalent between the original grammar and the transformed grammar.

Algorithm 4.1

- **Algorithm 4.1 systematically eliminates left recursion.**
 - **Algorithm 4.1 works only if the grammar has no cycles or ϵ -productions.**
 - ▷ *Cycle: $A \xRightarrow{+} A$*
 - ▷ *ϵ -production: $A \rightarrow \epsilon$*
 - **It is possible to remove cycles and ϵ -productions using other algorithms.**

- **Input: grammar G without cycles and ϵ -productions.**
- **Output: An equivalent grammar without left recursion.**
- **Number the nonterminals in some order A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n**
- **for $i = 1$ to n do**
 - **for $j = 1$ to $i - 1$ do**
 - ▷ *replace $A_i \rightarrow A_j\gamma$*
 - ▷ *with $A_i \rightarrow \delta_1\gamma \mid \dots \mid \delta_k\gamma$*
 - ▷ *where $A_j \rightarrow \delta_1 \mid \dots \mid \delta_k$ are all the current A_j -productions.*
 - **Eliminate immediate left-recursion for A_i**
 - ▷ *New nonterminals generated above are numbered A_{i+n}*

Intuition for Algorithm 4.1

- **Intuition:** if $A_{i_1} \xRightarrow{+} \alpha_2 A_{i_2} \beta_2 \xRightarrow{+} \alpha_3 A_{i_3} \beta_3 \xRightarrow{+} \dots$ and $i_1 < i_2 < i_3 < \dots$, then it is not possible to have recursion.
- **Trace Algorithm 4.1**
 - After each i -loop, only productions of the form $A_i \rightarrow A_k \gamma$, $i < k$ are left.
 - $i = 1$
 - ▷ allow $A_1 \rightarrow A_k \alpha$, $\forall k$ before removing immediate left-recursion
 - ▷ remove immediate left-recursion for A_1
 - $i = 2$
 - ▷ $j = 1$: replace $A_2 \rightarrow A_1 \gamma$ by $A_2 \rightarrow A_k \alpha \gamma$, where $A_1 \rightarrow A_k \alpha \gamma$ and $k > 1$
 - ▷ remove immediate left-recursion for A_2
 - $i = 3$
 - ▷ $j = 1$: replace $A_3 \rightarrow A_1 \delta_1$
 - ▷ $j = 2$: replace $A_3 \rightarrow A_2 \delta_2$
 - ▷ remove immediate left-recursion for A_3
 - \dots

Example

- **Original Grammar:**

- (1) $S \rightarrow Aa \mid b$
- (2) $A \rightarrow Ac \mid Sd \mid e$

- **Ordering of nonterminals:** $S \equiv A_1$ and $A \equiv A_2$.

- $i = 1$

- do nothing as there is no immediate left-recursion for S

- $i = 2$

- replace $A \rightarrow Sd$ by $A \rightarrow Aad \mid bd$
- hence (2) becomes $A \rightarrow Ac \mid Aad \mid bd \mid e$
- after removing immediate left-recursion:
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow bdA' \mid eA'$
 - ▷ $A' \rightarrow cA' \mid adA' \mid \epsilon$

Second property for non- $LL(1)$ grammars

- **Theorem 2:** G is not $LL(1)$ if a nonterminal has two productions whose right-hand-sides have a common prefix.

▷ *Have left-factors* .

- **Example:**

- $S \rightarrow (S) \mid ()$

- In this example, the common prefix is “(” .

- This problem can be solved by using the **left-factoring** trick.

- $A \rightarrow \alpha\beta_1 \mid \alpha\beta_2$

- **Transform to:**

- ▷ $A \rightarrow \alpha A'$

- ▷ $A' \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \beta_2$

- **Example:**

- $S \rightarrow (S) \mid ()$

- **Transform to**

- ▷ $S \rightarrow (S'$

- ▷ $S' \rightarrow S) \mid)$

Algorithm for left-factoring

- Input: context free grammar G
- Output: equivalent **left-factored** context-free grammar G'
- for each nonterminal A do
 - find the longest non- ϵ prefix α that is common to right-hand sides of two or more productions
 - replace
 - $A \rightarrow \alpha\beta_1 \mid \cdots \mid \alpha\beta_n \mid \gamma_1 \mid \cdots \mid \gamma_m$
with
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow \alpha A' \mid \gamma_1 \mid \cdots \mid \gamma_m$
 - ▷ $A' \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \cdots \mid \beta_n$
 - repeat the above process until A has no two productions with a common prefix.

Left-factoring and left-recursion removal

- **Original grammar:**

$$S \rightarrow (S) \mid SS \mid ()$$

- **To remove immediate left-recursion, we have**

- $S \rightarrow (S)S' \mid ()S'$
- $S' \rightarrow SS' \mid \epsilon$

- **To do left-factoring, we have**

- $S \rightarrow (S''$
- $S'' \rightarrow S)S' \mid)S'$
- $S' \rightarrow SS' \mid \epsilon$

- **A grammar is not $LL(1)$ if it**

- is left recursive or
- has left-factors.

However, grammars that are not left recursive and are left-factored may still not be $LL(1)$.

Definition of $LL(1)$ grammars

- To see if a grammar is $LL(1)$, we need to compute its **FIRST** and **FOLLOW** sets, which are used to build its parsing table.
- **FIRST sets:**
 - **Definition:** let α be a sequence of terminals and/or nonterminals or ϵ
 - ▷ $FIRST(\alpha)$ is the set of terminals that begin the strings derivable from α
 - ▷ if α can derive ϵ , then $\epsilon \in FIRST(\alpha)$
 - $FIRST(\alpha) = \{t \mid (t \text{ is a terminal and } \alpha \xRightarrow{*} t\beta) \text{ or } (t = \epsilon \text{ and } \alpha \xRightarrow{*} \epsilon)\}$

How to compute $\text{FIRST}(X)$?

- X is a terminal:
 - $\text{FIRST}(X) = \{X\}$
- X is ϵ :
 - $\text{FIRST}(X) = \{\epsilon\}$
- X is a nonterminal: must check all productions with X on the left-hand side. That is,
$$X \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 \cdots Y_k$$

Perform the following step in sequence:

 - put $\text{FIRST}(Y_1) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $\text{FIRST}(X)$
 - if $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(Y_1)$, then put $\text{FIRST}(Y_2) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $\text{FIRST}(X)$
 - ...
 - if $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(Y_{k-1})$, then put $\text{FIRST}(Y_k) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $\text{FIRST}(X)$
 - if $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(Y_i)$ for each $1 \leq i \leq k$, then put ϵ into $\text{FIRST}(X)$
- Repeat the above process for all nonterminals until nothing can be added to any FIRST set.

Example for computing $\text{FIRST}(X)$

- Start with computing FIRST for the last production and walk your way up.

Grammar

$$E \rightarrow E'T$$

$$E' \rightarrow -TE' \mid \epsilon$$

$$T \rightarrow FT'$$

$$T' \rightarrow / FT' \mid \epsilon$$

$$F \rightarrow int \mid (E)$$

$$H \rightarrow E'T$$

$$\text{FIRST}(F) = \{int, (\}$$

$$\text{FIRST}(T') = \{/, \epsilon\}$$

$$\text{FIRST}(T) = \{int, (\},$$

since $\epsilon \notin \text{FIRST}(F)$, that's all.

$$\text{FIRST}(E') = \{-, \epsilon\}$$

$$\text{FIRST}(H) = \{-, int, (\}$$

$$\text{FIRST}(E) = \{-, int, (\},$$

since $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(E')$.

$$\text{FIRST}(\epsilon) = \{\epsilon\}$$

How to compute $\text{FIRST}(\alpha)$?

- Given $\text{FIRST}(X)$ for each terminal and nonterminal X , compute $\text{FIRST}(\alpha)$ for α being a sequence of terminals and/or nonterminals
- To build a parsing table, we need $\text{FIRST}(\alpha)$ for all α such that $X \rightarrow \alpha$ is a production in the grammar.
- Let $\alpha = X_1X_2 \cdots X_n$. Perform the following steps in sequence:
 - put $\text{FIRST}(X_1) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $\text{FIRST}(\alpha)$
 - if $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(X_1)$, then put $\text{FIRST}(X_2) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $\text{FIRST}(\alpha)$
 - ...
 - if $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(X_{n-1})$, then put $\text{FIRST}(X_n) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $\text{FIRST}(\alpha)$
 - if $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(X_i)$ for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, then put $\{\epsilon\}$ into $\text{FIRST}(\alpha)$.

Example for computing $\text{FIRST}(\alpha)$

Grammar

$E \rightarrow E'T$

$E' \rightarrow -TE' \mid \epsilon$

$T \rightarrow FT'$

$T' \rightarrow /FT' \mid \epsilon$

$F \rightarrow int \mid (E)$

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since $\epsilon \notin \text{FIRST}(F)$,
that's all.

$\text{FIRST}(E') = \{-, \epsilon\}$

$\text{FIRST}(E) = \{-, int, (\},$
since $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(E')$.

$\text{FIRST}(\epsilon) = \{\epsilon\}$

$\text{FIRST}(E'T) =$
 $\{-, int, (\}$

$\text{FIRST}(-TE') = \{-\}$

$\text{FIRST}(\epsilon) = \{\epsilon\}$

$\text{FIRST}(FT') =$
 $\{int,)\}$

$\text{FIRST}(/FT') = \{/ \}$

$\text{FIRST}(\epsilon) = \{\epsilon\}$

$\text{FIRST}(int) = \{int\}$

$\text{FIRST}((E)) = \{(\}$

- $\text{FIRST}(T'E') =$
 - ▷ $(\text{FIRST}(T') - \{\epsilon\}) \cup$
 - ▷ $(\text{FIRST}(E') - \{\epsilon\}) \cup$
 - ▷ $\{\epsilon\}$

Why do we need $\text{FIRST}(\alpha)$?

- During parsing, suppose top-of-stack is a nonterminal A and there are several choices
 - $A \rightarrow \alpha_1$
 - $A \rightarrow \alpha_2$
 - \dots
 - $A \rightarrow \alpha_k$
- for derivation, and the current lookahead token is a
- If $a \in \text{FIRST}(\alpha_i)$, then pick $A \rightarrow \alpha_i$ for derivation, pop, and then push α_i .
 - If a is in several $\text{FIRST}(\alpha_i)$'s, then the grammar is not $LL(1)$.
 - Question: if a is not in any $\text{FIRST}(\alpha_i)$, does this mean the input stream cannot be accepted?
 - Maybe not!
 - What happen if ϵ is in some $\text{FIRST}(\alpha_i)$?

FOLLOW sets

- Assume there is a special EOF symbol “\$” ends every input.
- Add a new terminal “\$”.
- Definition: for a nonterminal X , $\text{FOLLOW}(X)$ is the set of terminals that can appear immediately to the right of X in some partial derivation.

That is, $S \xRightarrow{+} \alpha_1 X t \alpha_2$, where t is a terminal.

- If X can be the rightmost symbol in a derivation, then \$ is in $\text{FOLLOW}(X)$.
- $\text{FOLLOW}(X) =$
 $\{t \mid (t \text{ is a terminal and } S \xRightarrow{+} \alpha_1 X t \alpha_2) \text{ or } (t \text{ is } \$ \text{ and } S \xRightarrow{+} \alpha X)\}$.

How to compute FOLLOW(X)

- If X is the starting nonterminal, put \$ into FOLLOW(X).
- Find the productions with X on the right-hand-side.
 - for each production of the form $Y \rightarrow \alpha X \beta$, put $\text{FIRST}(\beta) - \{\epsilon\}$ into FOLLOW(X).
 - if $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(\beta)$, then put FOLLOW(Y) into FOLLOW(X).
 - for each production of the form $Y \rightarrow \alpha X$, put FOLLOW(Y) into FOLLOW(X).
- Repeat the above process for all nonterminals until nothing can be added to any FOLLOW set.
- To see if a given grammar is $LL(1)$ and also to build its parsing table:
 - compute $\text{FIRST}(\alpha)$ for every production $X \rightarrow \alpha$
 - compute FOLLOW(X) for all nonterminals X
- Note that FIRST and FOLLOW sets are always sets of terminals, plus, perhaps, ϵ for some FIRST sets.

A complete example

■ Grammar

- $S \rightarrow Bc \mid DB$
- $B \rightarrow ab \mid cS$
- $D \rightarrow d \mid \epsilon$

α	FIRST (α)	FOLLOW (α)
D	$\{d, \epsilon\}$	$\{a, c\}$
B	$\{a, c\}$	$\{c, \$\}$
S	$\{a, c, d\}$	$\{c, \$\}$
Bc	$\{a, c\}$	
DB	$\{d, a, c\}$	
ab	$\{a\}$	
cS	$\{c\}$	
d	$\{d\}$	
ϵ	$\{\epsilon\}$	

Why do we need FOLLOW sets?

- Note $\text{FOLLOW}(S)$ always includes \$!
- Situation:
 - During parsing, the top-of-stack is a nonterminal X and the lookahead symbol is a .
 - Assume there are several choices for the next derivation:
 - ▷ $X \rightarrow \alpha_1$
 - ▷ ...
 - ▷ $X \rightarrow \alpha_k$
 - If $a \in \text{FIRST}(\alpha_{g_i})$ for only one g_i , then we use that derivation.
 - If $a \in \text{FIRST}(\alpha_i)$ for two i , then this grammar is not $LL(1)$.
 - If $a \notin \text{FIRST}(\alpha_i)$ for all i , then this grammar can still be $LL(1)$!
- If some $\alpha_{g_i} \xRightarrow{*} \epsilon$ and $a \in \text{FOLLOW}(X)$, then we can use the derivation $X \rightarrow \alpha_{g_i}$.

Grammars that are not $LL(1)$

- A grammar is not $LL(1)$ if there exists productions

$$A \rightarrow \alpha \mid \beta$$

and any one of the followings is true:

- $FIRST(\alpha) \cap FIRST(\beta) \neq \emptyset$.
 - $\epsilon \in FIRST(\alpha)$ and $FIRST(\beta) \cap FOLLOW(A) \neq \emptyset$.
 - $\epsilon \in FIRST(\alpha)$ and $\epsilon \in FIRST(\beta)$.
- If a grammar is not $LL(1)$, then
 - you cannot write a linear-time predictive parser as described above;
 - we do not know to use the production $A \rightarrow \alpha$ or the production $A \rightarrow \beta$ when the lookahead symbol is a and, respectively,
 - ▷ $a \in FIRST(\alpha) \cap FIRST(\beta)$;
 - ▷ $a \in FIRST(\beta) \cap FOLLOW(A)$;
 - ▷ $a \in FOLLOW(A)$.

A complete example (1/2)

■ Grammar:

- $\langle \text{prog_head} \rangle \rightarrow \text{PROG ID } \langle \text{file_list} \rangle \text{ SEMICOLON}$
- $\langle \text{file_list} \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon \mid \text{L_PAREN } \langle \text{file_list} \rangle \text{ SEMICOLON}$

■ FIRST and FOLLOW sets:

α	FIRST(α)	FOLLOW(α)
ϵ	{ ϵ }	
$\langle \text{prog_head} \rangle$	{PROG}	{ $\$$ }
$\langle \text{file_list} \rangle$	{ ϵ , L_PAREN}	{SEMICOLON}
PROG ID $\langle \text{file_list} \rangle$ SEMICOLON	{PROG}	
L_PAREN $\langle \text{file_list} \rangle$ SEMICOLON	{LPAREN}	

A complete example (2/2)

Input: PROG ID SEMICOLON

Input	stack	action
	$\langle \text{prog_head} \rangle \$$	
PROG	$\langle \text{prog_head} \rangle \$$	pop, push
PROG	PROG ID $\langle \text{file_list} \rangle$ SEMICOLON $\$$	match input
ID	ID $\langle \text{file_list} \rangle$ SEMICOLON $\$$	match input
SEMICOLON	$\langle \text{file_list} \rangle$ SEMICOLON $\$$	WHAT TO DO?

■ Last actions:

- Two choices:

▷ $\langle \text{file_list} \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon \mid L_PAREN \langle \text{file_list} \rangle SEMICOLON$

- $SEMICOLON \notin FIRST(\epsilon)$ and $SEMICOLON \notin FIRST(L_PAREN \langle \text{file_list} \rangle SEMICOLON)$
- $\langle \text{file_list} \rangle \xRightarrow{*} \epsilon$
- $SEMICOLON \in FOLLOW(\langle \text{file_list} \rangle)$
- Hence we use the derivation $\langle \text{file_list} \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon$

$LL(1)$ Parsing table (1/2)

Grammar:

- $S \rightarrow XC$
- $X \rightarrow a \mid \epsilon$
- $C \rightarrow a \mid \epsilon$

α	$FIRST(\alpha)$	$FOLLOW(\alpha)$
S	$\{a, \epsilon\}$	$\{\$ \}$
X	$\{a, \epsilon\}$	$\{a, \$ \}$
C	$\{a, \epsilon\}$	$\{\$ \}$
ϵ	$\{\epsilon\}$	
a	$\{a\}$	
XC	$\{a, \epsilon\}$	

- Check for possible conflicts in $X \rightarrow a \mid \epsilon$.
 - $FIRST(a) \cap FIRST(\epsilon) = \emptyset$
 - $\epsilon \in FOLLOW(X)$ and $FOLLOW(X) \cap FIRST(a) = \{a\}$
Conflict!!
 - $\epsilon \notin FIRST(a)$
- Check for possible conflicts in $C \rightarrow a \mid \epsilon$.
 - $FIRST(a) \cap FIRST(\epsilon) = \emptyset$
 - $\epsilon \in FOLLOW(C)$ and $FOLLOW(C) \cap FIRST(a) = \emptyset$
 - $\epsilon \notin FIRST(a)$

$LL(1)$ Parsing table (2/2)

■ Parsing table:

	a	$\$$
S	$S \rightarrow XC$	$S \rightarrow XC$
X	conflict!	$X \rightarrow \epsilon$
C	$C \rightarrow a$	$C \rightarrow \epsilon$

Bottom-up parsing (Shift-reduce parsers)

- **Intuition:** construct the parse tree from leaves to the root.

Grammar:

$$S \rightarrow AB$$

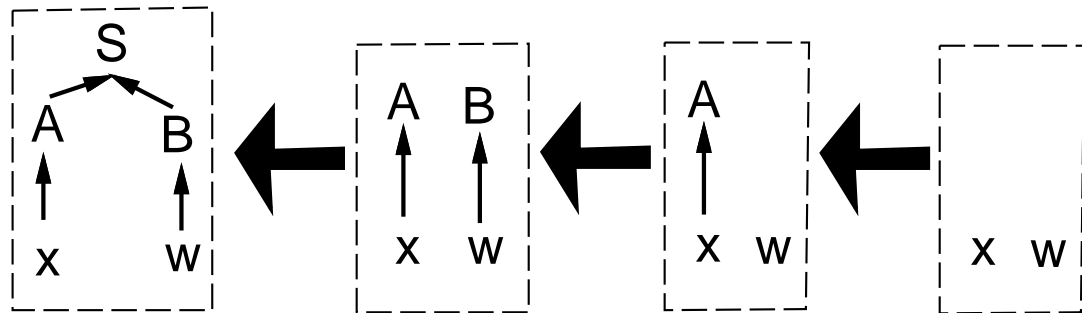
$$A \rightarrow x \mid Y$$

$$B \rightarrow w \mid Z$$

$$Y \rightarrow xb$$

$$Z \rightarrow wp$$

- **Example:**



- **Input** xw .

$$S \xRightarrow{rm} AB \xRightarrow{rm} Aw \xRightarrow{rm} xw.$$

- **This grammar is not $LL(1)$.**

Definitions (1/2)

■ Rightmost derivation:

- $S \xrightarrow{rm} \alpha$: the rightmost nonterminal is replaced.
- $S \xrightarrow{rm^+} \alpha$: α is derived from S using one or more rightmost derivations.
 - ▷ α is called a **right-sentential form**.

■ Define similarly leftmost derivations.

- **handle**: a handle for a right-sentential form γ is the combining of the following two information:
 - a production rule $A \rightarrow \beta$ and
 - a position in γ where β can be found.

Definitions (2/2)

- **Example:**

$$S \rightarrow aABe$$
$$A \rightarrow Abc \mid b$$
$$B \rightarrow d$$

input: abcde

$\gamma \equiv aAbcde$ is a **right-sentential form**

$A \rightarrow Abc$ and **position 2** in γ is a **handle** for γ

- **reduce** : replace a handle in a right-sentential form with its left-hand-side. In the above example, replace Abc in γ with A .
- A right-most derivation in reverse can be obtained by handle reducing.

STACK implementation

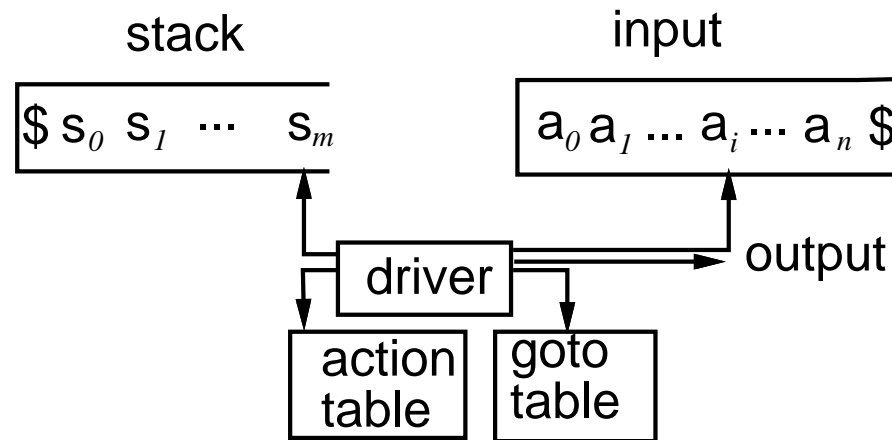
- Four possible actions:

- shift: shift the input to STACK.
- reduce: perform a reversed rightmost derivation.
- accept
- error

STACK	INPUT	ACTION
\$	xw\$	shift
\$x	w\$	reduce by $A \rightarrow x$
\$A	w\$	shift
\$Aw	\$	reduce by $B \rightarrow w$
\$AB	\$	reduce by $S \rightarrow AB$
\$S	\$	accept

- viable prefix : the set of prefixes of right sentential forms that can appear on the stack.

Model of a shift-reduce parser



- **Push-down automata!**
- **Current state S_m encodes the symbols that has been shifted and the handles that are currently being matched.**
- **$\$S_0S_1 \dots S_m a_i a_{i+1} \dots a_n \$$ represents a right sentential form.**
- **GOTO table:**
 - when a “reduce” action is taken, which handle to replace;
- **Action table:**
 - when a “shift” action is taken, which state currently in, that is, how to group symbols into handles.
- **The power of context free grammars is equivalent to nondeterministic push down automata.**

LR(0) parsing

- Construct a FSA to recognize all possible viable prefixes.
- An **LR(0) item** (**item** for short) is a production, with a dot at some position in the RHS (right-hand side). For example:
 - $A \rightarrow XYZ$
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow \cdot XYZ$
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow X \cdot YZ$
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow XY \cdot Z$
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow XYZ \cdot$
 - $A \rightarrow \epsilon$
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow \cdot$

The dot indicates the place of a handle.

- Assume G is a grammar with the starting symbol S . **Augmented grammar** G' is to add a new starting symbol S' and a new production $S' \rightarrow S$ to G . We assume working on the augmented grammar from now on.

Closure

- The closure operation $\text{closure}(I)$, where I is a set of items is defined by the following algorithm:
 - If $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot B\beta$ is in $\text{closure}(I)$, then
 - ▷ at some point in parsing, we might see a substring derivable from $B\beta$ as input;
 - ▷ if $B \rightarrow \gamma$ is a production, we also see a substring derivable from γ at this point.
 - ▷ Thus $B \rightarrow \cdot\gamma$ should also be in $\text{closure}(I)$.
- What does $\text{closure}(I)$ means informally:
 - when $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot B\beta$ is encountered during parsing, then this means we have seen α so far, and expect to see $B\beta$ later before reducing to A .
 - at this point if $B \rightarrow \gamma$ is a production, then we may also want to see $B \rightarrow \cdot\gamma$ in order to reduce to B , and then advance to $A \rightarrow \alpha B \cdot \beta$.
- Using $\text{closure}(I)$ to record all possible things that we have seen in the past and expect to see in the future.

Example for the closure function

■ Example:

- $E' \rightarrow E$
- $E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$
- $T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$
- $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$

$closure(\{E' \rightarrow \cdot E\}) =$

- $\{E' \rightarrow \cdot E,$
- $E \rightarrow \cdot E + T,$
- $E \rightarrow \cdot T,$
- $T \rightarrow \cdot T * F,$
- $T \rightarrow \cdot F,$
- $F \rightarrow \cdot (E),$
- $F \rightarrow \cdot id\}$

GOTO table

- **$GOTO(I, X)$, where I is a set of items and X is a legal symbol is defined as**
 - If $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot X\beta$ is in I , then
 - $closure(\{A \rightarrow \alpha X \cdot \beta\}) \subseteq GOTO(I, X)$
- **Informal meanings:**
 - currently we have seen $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot X\beta$
 - expect to see X
 - if we see X ,
 - then we should be in the state $closure(\{A \rightarrow \alpha X \cdot \beta\})$.
- **Use the GOTO table to denote the state to go to once we are in I and have seen X .**

Sets-of-items construction

- **Canonical $LR(0)$ items** : the set of all possible DFA states, where each state is a group of $LR(0)$ items.
- **Algorithm for constructing $LR(0)$ parsing table.**
 - $C \leftarrow \{closure(\{S' \rightarrow \cdot S\})\}$
 - repeat
 - ▷ for each set of items I in C and each grammar symbol X such that $GOTO(I, X) \neq \emptyset$ and not in C do
 - ▷ add $GOTO(I, X)$ to C
 - until no more sets can be added to C
- **Kernel** of a state: items
 - not of the form $X \rightarrow \cdot \beta$ or
 - of the form $S' \rightarrow \cdot S$
- **Given the kernel of a state, all items in the state can be derived.**

Example of sets of $LR(0)$ items

■ Grammar:

$$E' \rightarrow E$$

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$$

$$F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$$

$$I_0 = \text{closure}(\{E' \rightarrow \cdot E\}) =$$
$$\{E' \rightarrow \cdot E,$$

$$E \rightarrow \cdot E + T,$$

$$E \rightarrow \cdot T,$$

$$T \rightarrow \cdot T * F,$$

$$T \rightarrow \cdot F,$$

$$F \rightarrow \cdot (E),$$

$$F \rightarrow \cdot id\}$$

■ Canonical $LR(0)$ items:

- $I_1 = GOTO(I_0, E) =$

- ▷ $\{E' \rightarrow E \cdot,$

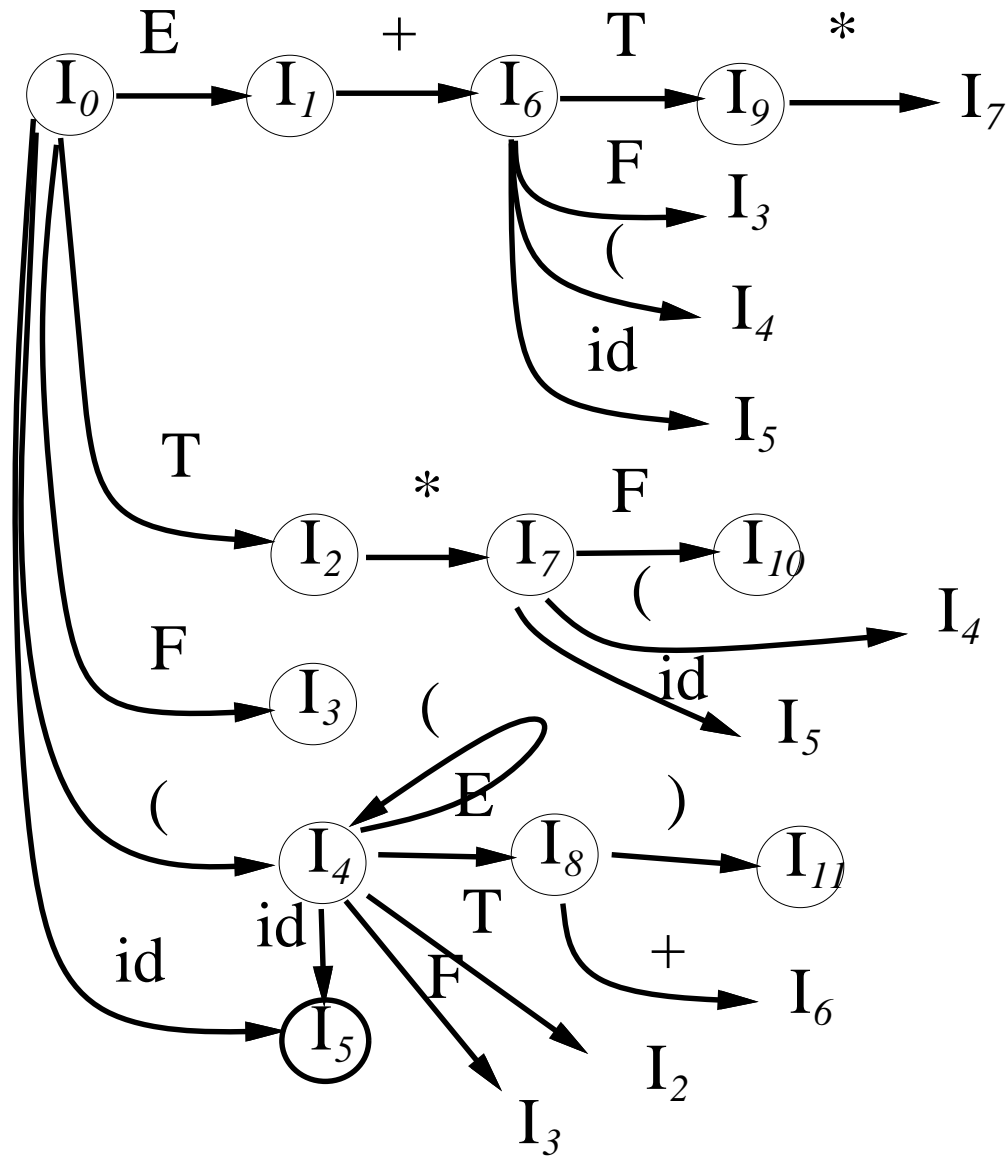
- ▷ $E \rightarrow E \cdot + T\}$

- $I_2 = GOTO(I_0, T) =$

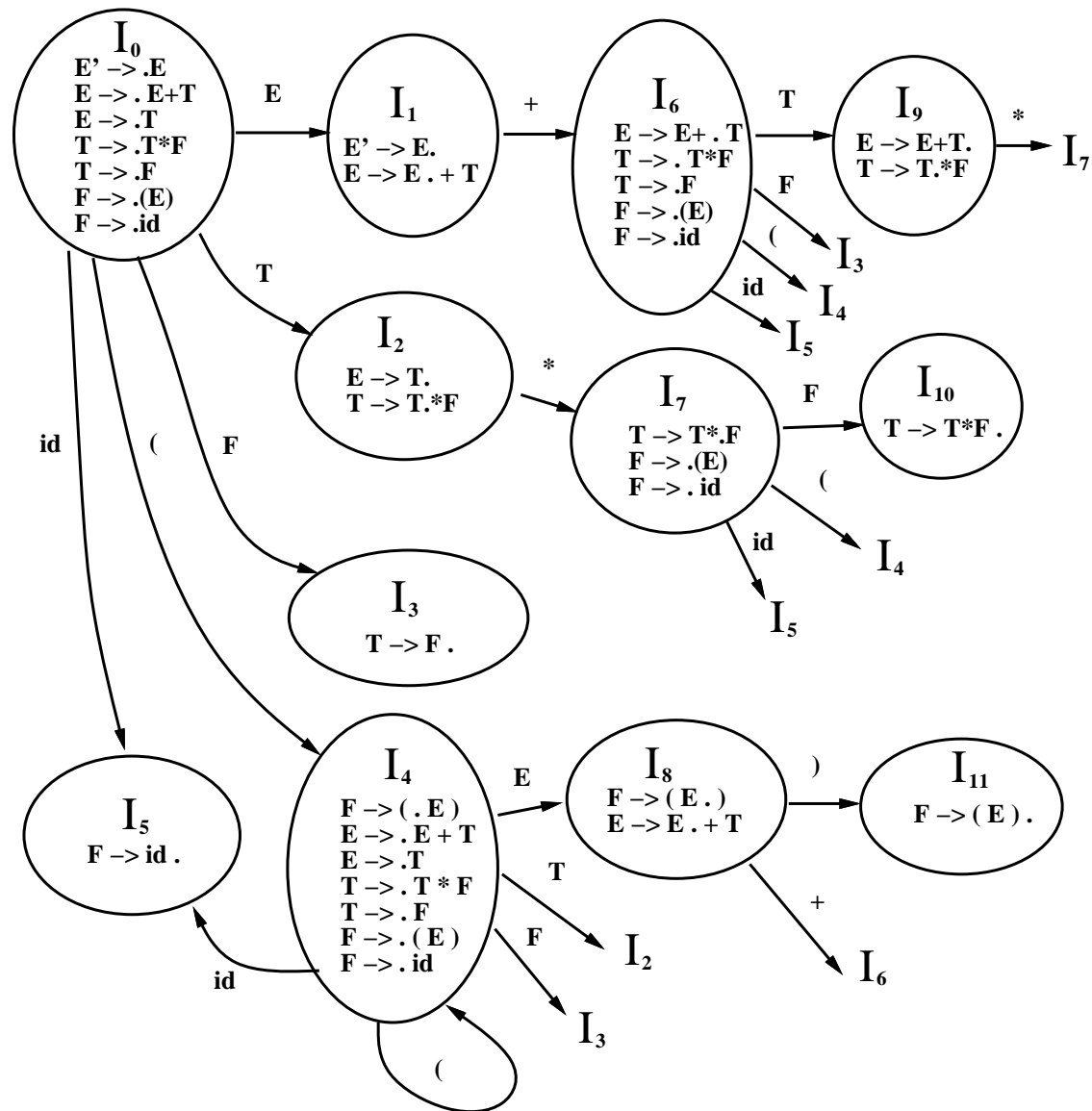
- ▷ $\{E \rightarrow T \cdot,$

- ▷ $T \rightarrow T \cdot * F\}$

Transition diagram (1/2)



Transition diagram (2/2)



Meaning of $LR(0)$ transition diagram

- $E + T^*$ is a viable prefix that can happen on the top of the stack while doing parsing.
- after seeing $E + T^*$, we are in state I_7 . $I_7 =$
 - $\{T \rightarrow T * \cdot F,$
 - $F \rightarrow \cdot (E),$
 - $F \rightarrow \cdot id\}$
- We expect to follow one of the following three possible derivations:

$$\begin{array}{l}
 E' \xRightarrow{rm} E \\
 \xRightarrow{rm} E + T \\
 \xRightarrow{rm} E + T * F \\
 \xRightarrow{rm} E + T * id \\
 \xRightarrow{rm} \underline{E + T * F} * id \\
 \dots
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 E' \xRightarrow{rm} E \\
 \xRightarrow{rm} E + T \\
 \xRightarrow{rm} E + T * F \\
 \xRightarrow{rm} \underline{E + T * (E)} \\
 \dots
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 E' \xRightarrow{rm} E \\
 \xRightarrow{rm} E + T \\
 \xRightarrow{rm} E + T * F \\
 \xRightarrow{rm} \underline{E + T * id} \\
 \dots
 \end{array}$$

Definition of $\text{closure}(I)$ and $\text{GOTO}(I, X)$

- $\text{closure}(I)$: a state/configuration during parsing recording all possible things that we are expecting.
- If $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot B\beta \in I$, then it means
 - in the middle of parsing, α is on the top of the stack;
 - at this point, we are expecting to see $B\beta$;
 - after we saw $B\beta$, we will reduce $\alpha B\beta$ to A and make A top of stack.
- To achieve the goal of seeing $B\beta$, we expect to perform some operations below:
 - We expect to see B on the top of the stack first.
 - If $B \rightarrow \gamma$ is a production, then it might be the case that we shall see γ on the top of the stack.
 - If it does, we reduce γ to B .
 - Hence we need to include $B \rightarrow \cdot \gamma$ into $\text{closure}(I)$.
- $\text{GOTO}(I, X)$: when we are in the state described by I , and then a new symbol X is pushed into the stack, if $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot X\beta$ is in I , then $\text{closure}(\{A \rightarrow \alpha X \cdot \beta\}) \subseteq \text{GOTO}(I, X)$.

Parsing example

- Input: $id * id + id$

STACK	input	action
$\$ I_0$	$id*id+id\$$	
$\$ I_0 id I_5$	$* id + id\$$	shift 5
$\$ I_0 F$	$* id + id\$$	reduce by $F \rightarrow id$
$\$ I_0 F I_3$	$* id + id\$$	in I_0 , saw F , goto I_3
$\$ I_0 T I_2$	$* id + id\$$	reduce by $T \rightarrow F$
$\$ I_0 T I_2 * I_7$	$id + id\$$	shift 7
$\$ I_0 T I_2 * I_7 id I_5$	$+ id\$$	shift 5
$\$ I_0 T I_2 * I_7 F I_{10}$	$+ id\$$	reduce by $F \rightarrow id$
$\$ I_0 T I_2$	$+ id\$$	reduce by $T \rightarrow F$
$\$ I_0 E I_1$	$+ id\$$	reduce by $T \rightarrow T * F$
$\$ I_0 E I_1 + I_6$	$id\$$	shift 6
$\$ I_0 E I_1 + I_6 id I_5$	$id\$$	shift 5
$\$ I_0 E I_1 + I_6 F I_3$	$id\$$	reduce by $F \rightarrow id$
...

LR(0) parsing

- LR parsing without lookahead symbols.
- Constructed from DFA for recognizing viable prefixes.
- In state I_i
 - if $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot a\beta$ is in I_i then perform “shift” while seeing the terminal a in the input, and then go to the state $\text{closure}(\{A \rightarrow \alpha a \cdot \beta\})$
 - if $A \rightarrow \beta \cdot$ is in I_i , then perform “reduce by $A \rightarrow \beta$ ” and then goto the state $\text{GOTO}(I, A)$ where I is the state on the top of the stack after removing β
- Conflicts:
 - shift/reduce conflict
 - reduce/reduce conflict
- Very few grammars are LR(0). For example:
 - in I_2 , you can either perform a reduce or a shift when seeing “*” in the input
 - However, it is not possible to have E followed by “*”. Thus we should not perform “reduce”.
- Use $\text{FOLLOW}(E)$ as look ahead information to resolve some conflicts.

$SLR(1)$ parsing algorithm

- Using FOLLOW sets to resolve conflicts in constructing $SLR(1)$ parsing table, where the first “S” stands for “simple”.
 - Input: an augmented grammar G'
 - Output: The $SLR(1)$ parsing table.
- Construct $C = \{I_0, I_1, \dots, I_n\}$ the collection of sets of $LR(0)$ items for G' .
- The parsing table for state I_i is determined as follows:
 - if $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot a\beta$ is in I_i and $GOTO(I_i, a) = I_j$, then $action(I_i, a)$ is “shift j ” for a being a terminal.
 - If $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot$ is in I_i , then $action(I_i, a)$ is “reduce by $A \rightarrow \alpha$ ” for all terminal $a \in FOLLOW(A)$; here $A \neq S'$
 - if $S' \rightarrow S \cdot$ is in I_i , then $action(I_i, \$)$ is “accept”.
- If any conflicts are generated by the above algorithm, we say the grammar is not $SLR(1)$.

SLR(1) parsing table

state	action					GOTO		
	id	+	*	()	\$	E	T	F
0	s5			s4		1	2	3
1		s6			accept			
2		r2	s7	r2	r2			
3		r4	r4	r4	r4			
4	s5			s4		8	2	3
5		r6	r6	r6	r6			
6	s5			s4			9	3
7	s5			s4				10
8		s6		s11				
9		r1	s7	r1	r1			
10		r3	r3	r3	r3			
11		r5	r5	r5	r5			

- r_i means reduce by production numbered i .
- s_i means shift and then go to state I_i .
- Use FOLLOW(A) to resolve some conflicts.

Discussion (1/3)

- Every $SLR(1)$ grammar is unambiguous, but there are many unambiguous grammars that are not $SLR(1)$.

- **Example:**

- $S \rightarrow L = R \mid R$
- $L \rightarrow *R \mid id$
- $R \rightarrow L$

- **States:**

- I_0 :

- ▷ $S' \rightarrow \cdot S$
- ▷ $S \rightarrow \cdot L = R$
- ▷ $S \rightarrow \cdot R$
- ▷ $L \rightarrow \cdot * R$
- ▷ $L \rightarrow \cdot id$
- ▷ $R \rightarrow \cdot L$

- I_1 : $S' \rightarrow S \cdot$

- I_2 :

- ▷ $S \rightarrow L \cdot = R$
- ▷ $R \rightarrow L \cdot$

Discussion (2/3)

$I_3: S \rightarrow R \cdot$

$I_4:$

- ▷ $L \rightarrow * \cdot R$
- ▷ $R \rightarrow \cdot L$
- ▷ $L \rightarrow \cdot * R$
- ▷ $L \rightarrow \cdot id$

$I_5: L \rightarrow id \cdot$

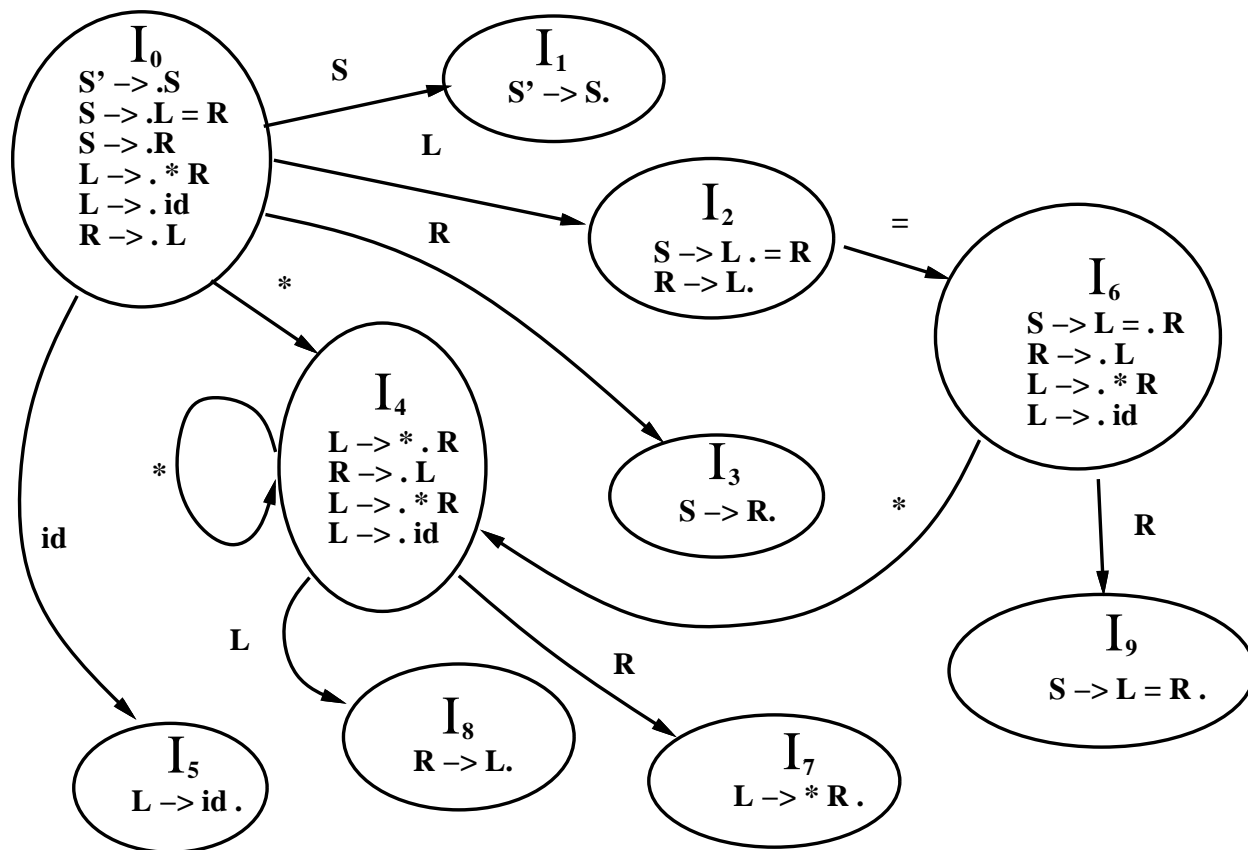
$I_6:$

- ▷ $S \rightarrow L = \cdot R$
- ▷ $R \rightarrow \cdot L$
- ▷ $L \rightarrow \cdot * R$
- ▷ $L \rightarrow \cdot id$

$I_7: L \rightarrow * R \cdot$

$I_8: R \rightarrow L \cdot$

$I_9: S \rightarrow L = R \cdot$



Discussion (3/3)

- Suppose the stack has $\$I_0LI_2$ and the input is “=”. We can either
 - shift ϵ , or
 - reduce by $R \rightarrow L$, since $= \in \text{FOLLOW}(R)$.
- This grammar is ambiguous for $SLR(1)$ parsing.
- However, we should not perform a $R \rightarrow L$ reduction.
 - after performing the reduction, the viable prefix is $\$R$;
 - $= \notin \text{FOLLOW}(\$R)$
 - $= \in \text{FOLLOW}(*R)$
 - That is to say, we cannot find a right sentential form with the prefix $R = \dots$.
 - We can find a right sentential form with $\dots * R = \dots$

Canonical LR — $LR(1)$

- In $SLR(1)$ parsing, if $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot$ is in state I_i , and $a \in \mathbf{FOLLOW}(A)$, then we perform the reduction $A \rightarrow \alpha$.
- However, it is possible that when state I_i is on the top of the stack, the viable prefix $\beta\alpha$ on the stack is such that βA cannot be followed by a .
- We can solve the problem by knowing more left context using the technique of **lookahead propagation**.

$LR(1)$ items

- An $LR(1)$ item is in the form of $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot \beta, a]$, where the first field is an $LR(0)$ item and the second field a is a terminal belonging to a subset of $\text{FOLLOW}(A)$.
- **Intuition:** perform a reduction based on an $LR(1)$ item $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot, a]$ only when the next symbol is a .
- **Formally:** $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot \beta, a]$ is valid (or reachable) for a viable prefix γ if there exists a derivation

$$S \xrightarrow[rm]{*} \delta A \omega \xrightarrow[rm]{} \delta \alpha \beta \omega,$$

where

- $\gamma = \delta \alpha$
- either $a \in \text{FIRST}(\omega)$ or
- $\omega = \epsilon$ and $a = \$$.

$LR(1)$ parsing example

■ Grammar:

- $S \rightarrow BB$
- $B \rightarrow aB \mid b$

$$S \xrightarrow[rm]{*} aaBab \xrightarrow[rm]{} aaaBab$$

viable prefix aaa can reach $[B \rightarrow a \cdot B, a]$

$$S \xrightarrow[rm]{*} BaB \xrightarrow[rm]{} BaaB$$

viable prefix Baa can reach $[B \rightarrow a \cdot B, \$]$

Finding all $LR(1)$ items

■ Ideas: redefine the closure function.

- suppose $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot B\beta, a]$ is valid for a viable prefix $\gamma \equiv \delta\alpha$
- in other words

$$S \xrightarrow[rm]{*} \delta A a \omega \xrightarrow[rm]{*} \delta \alpha B \beta a \omega$$

- Then for each production $B \rightarrow \eta$ assume $\beta a \omega$ derives the sequence of terminals bc .

$$S \xrightarrow[rm]{*} \delta \alpha B \boxed{\beta a \omega} \xrightarrow[rm]{*} \delta \alpha B \boxed{bc} \xrightarrow[rm]{*} \delta \alpha \boxed{\eta} bc$$

Thus $[B \rightarrow \cdot \eta, b]$ is also valid for γ for each $b \in \mathbf{FIRST}(\beta a)$.
Note a is a terminal. So $\mathbf{FIRST}(\beta a) = \mathbf{FIRST}(\beta a \omega)$.

■ Lookahead propagation .

Algorithm for $LR(1)$ parsing functions

- $closure(I)$
 - **repeat**
 - ▷ for each item $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot B\beta, a]$ in I do
 - ▷ if $B \rightarrow \cdot \eta$ is in G'
 - ▷ then add $[B \rightarrow \cdot \eta, b]$ to I for each $b \in FIRST(\beta a)$
 - **until no more items can be added to I**
 - **return i**
- $GOTO(I, X)$
 - **let $J = \{[A \rightarrow \alpha X \cdot \beta, a] \mid [A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot X\beta, a] \in I\}$.**
 - **return $closure(J)$**
- $items(G')$
 - $C \leftarrow \{closure(\{[S' \rightarrow \cdot S, \$]\})\}$
 - **repeat**
 - ▷ for each set of items $I \in C$ and each grammar symbol X such that $GOTO(I, X) \neq \emptyset$ and $GOTO(I, X) \notin C$ do
 - ▷ add $GOTO(I, X)$ to C
 - **until no more sets of items can be added to C**

Example for constructing $LR(1)$ closures

■ Grammar:

- $S' \rightarrow S$
- $S \rightarrow CC$
- $C \rightarrow cC \mid d$

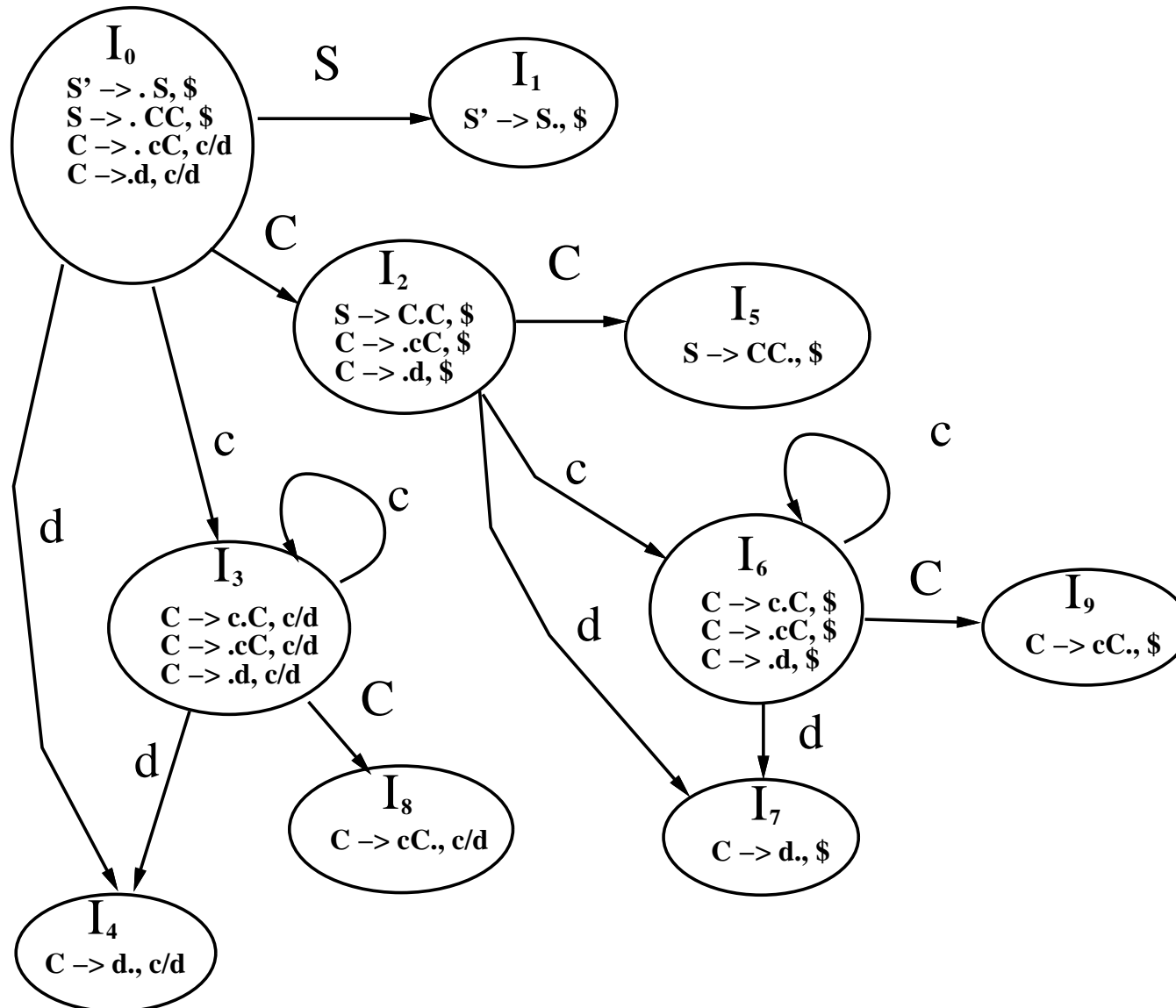
■ $\text{closure}(\{[S' \rightarrow \cdot S, \$]\}) =$

- $\{[S' \rightarrow \cdot S, \$],$
- $[S \rightarrow \cdot CC, \$],$
- $[C \rightarrow \cdot cC, c/d],$
- $[C \rightarrow \cdot d, c/d]\}$

■ Note:

- $\text{FIRST}(\epsilon\$) = \{\$\}$
- $\text{FIRST}(C\$) = \{c, d\}$
- $[C \rightarrow \cdot cC, c/d]$ means
 - ▷ $[C \rightarrow \cdot cC, c]$ and
 - ▷ $[C \rightarrow \cdot cC, d]$.

LR(1) Transition diagram



LR(1) parsing example

■ Input *cdccd*

STACK	INPUT	ACTION
\$ I_0	cdccd\$	
\$ I_0 c I_3	dccd\$	shift 3
\$ I_0 c I_3 d I_4	ccd\$	shift 4
\$ I_0 c I_3 C I_8	ccd\$	reduce by $C \rightarrow d$
\$ I_0 C I_2	ccd\$	reduce by $C \rightarrow cC$
\$ I_0 C I_2 c I_6	cd\$	shift 6
\$ I_0 C I_2 c I_6 c I_6	d\$	shift 6
\$ I_0 C I_2 c I_6 c I_6	d\$	shift 6
\$ I_0 C I_2 c I_6 c I_6 d I_7	\$	shift 7
\$ I_0 C I_2 c I_6 c I_6 C I_9	\$	reduce by $C \rightarrow cC$
\$ I_0 C I_2 c I_6 C I_9	\$	reduce by $C \rightarrow cC$
\$ I_0 C I_2 C I_5	\$	reduce by $S \rightarrow CC$
\$ I_0 S I_1	\$	reduce by $S' \rightarrow S$
\$ I_0 S'	\$	accept

Algorithm for $LR(1)$ parsing table

- **Construction of canonical $LR(1)$ parsing tables.**
 - **Input:** an augmented grammar G'
 - **Output:** The canonical $LR(1)$ parsing table, i.e., the ACTION table.
- **Construct $C = \{I_0, I_1, \dots, I_n\}$ the collection of sets of $LR(1)$ items from G' .**
- **Action table is constructed as follows:**
 - **if $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot a\beta, b] \in I_i$ and $GOTO(I_i, a) = I_j$, then $action[I_i, a] = \text{“shift } j\text{”}$ for a is a terminal.**
 - **if $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot, a] \in I_i$ and $A \neq S'$, then $action[I_i, a] = \text{“reduce by } A \rightarrow \alpha\text{”}$**
 - **if $[S' \rightarrow S \cdot, \$] \in I_i$, then $action[I_i, \$] = \text{“accept.”}$**
- **If conflicts result from the above rules, then the grammar is not $LR(1)$.**
- **The initial state of the parser is the one constructed from the set containing the item $[S' \rightarrow \cdot S, \$]$.**

An example of an $LR(1)$ parsing table

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

■ Canonical $LR(1)$ parser

- too many states and thus occupy too much space
- most powerful

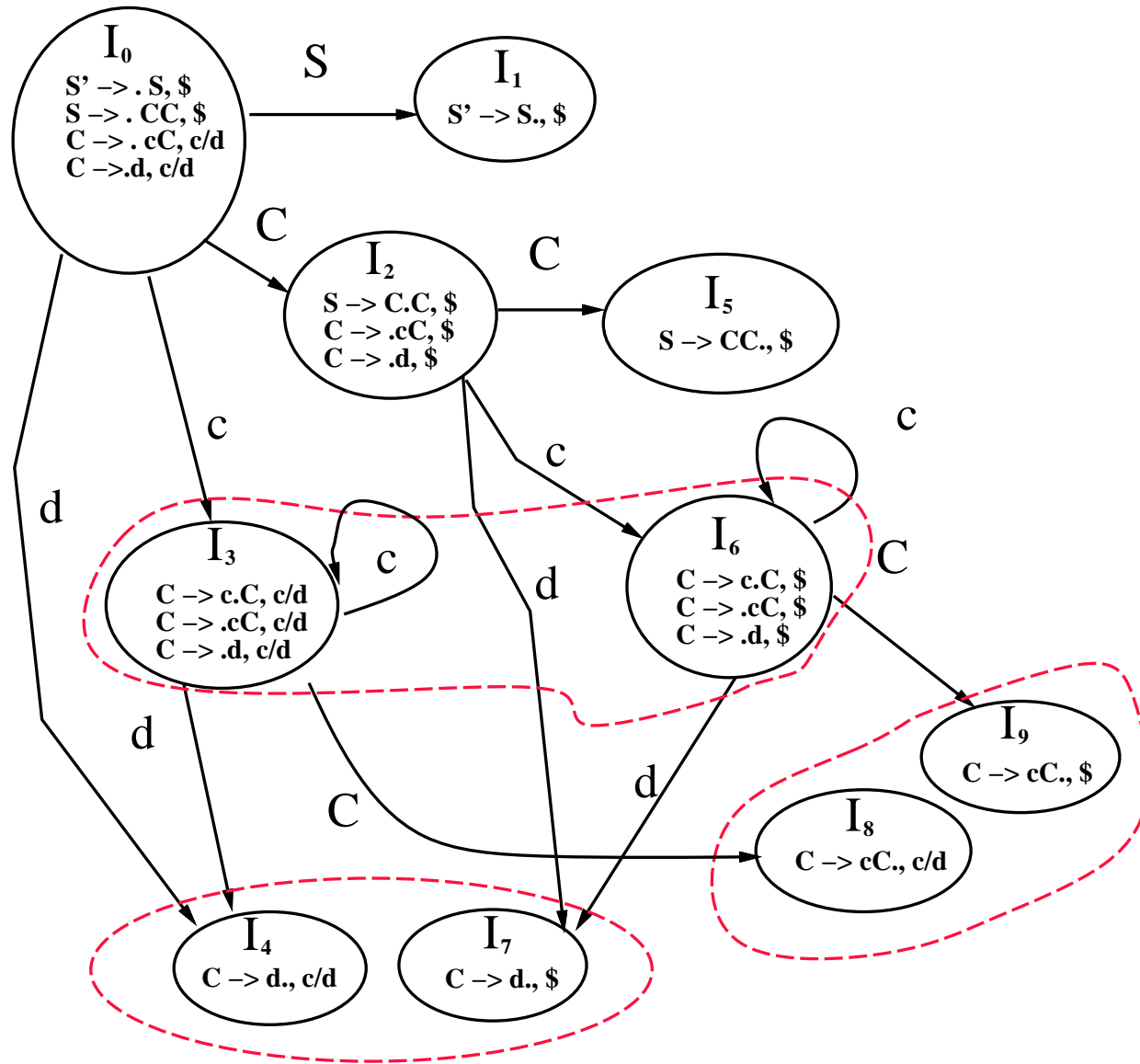
LALR(1) parser — Lookahead LR

- The method that is often used in practice.
- Most common syntactic constructs of programming languages can be expressed conveniently by an *LALR*(1) grammar.
- *SLR*(1) and *LALR*(1) always have the same number of states.
- Number of states is about 1/10 of that of *LR*(1).
- Simple observation:
an *LR*(1) item is in the form of $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot \beta, c]$
- We call $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot \beta$ the **first component**.
- Definition: in an *LR*(1) state, set of first components is called its **core**.

Intuition for $LALR(1)$ grammars

- In $LR(1)$ parser, it is a common thing that several states only differ in lookahead symbol, but have the same core.
- To reduce the number of states, we might want to merge states with the same core.
 - If I_4 and I_7 are merged, then the new state is called $I_{4,7}$
- After merging the states, revise the GOTO table accordingly.
- merging of states can never produce a shift-reduce conflict that was not present in one of the original states.
 - $I_1 = \{[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot, a], \dots\}$
 - $I_2 = \{[B \rightarrow \beta \cdot a \gamma, b], \dots\}$
 - For I_1 , we perform a reduce on a .
 - For I_2 , we perform a shift on a .
 - Merging I_1 and I_2 , the new state $I_{1,2}$ has shift-reduce conflicts.
 - This is impossible, in the original table since I_1 and I_2 have the same core.
 - So $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot, c] \in I_2$ and $[B \rightarrow \beta \cdot a \gamma, d] \in I_1$.
 - The shift-reduce conflict already occurs in I_1 and I_2 .

LALR(1) Transition diagram



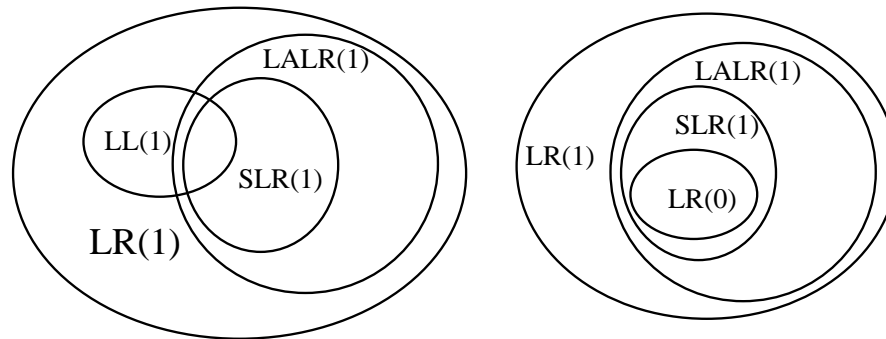
Possible new conflicts from $LALR(1)$

- May produce a new reduce-reduce conflict.
- For example (textbook page 238), grammar:
 - $S' \rightarrow S$
 - $S \rightarrow aAd \mid bBf \mid aBe \mid bAe$
 - $A \rightarrow c$
 - $B \rightarrow c$
- The language recognized by this grammar is $\{acd, ace, bcd, bce\}$.
- You may check that this grammar is $LR(1)$ by constructing the sets of items.
- You will find the set of items $\{[A \rightarrow c\cdot, d], [B \rightarrow c\cdot, e]\}$ is valid for the viable prefix ac , and $\{[A \rightarrow c\cdot, e], [B \rightarrow c\cdot, d]\}$ is valid for the viable prefix bc .
- Neither of these sets generates a conflict, and their cores are the same. However, their union, which is
 - $\{[A \rightarrow c\cdot, d/e],$
 - $[B \rightarrow c\cdot, d/e]\}$

generates a reduce-reduce conflict, since reductions by both $A \rightarrow c$ and $B \rightarrow c$ are called for on inputs d and e .

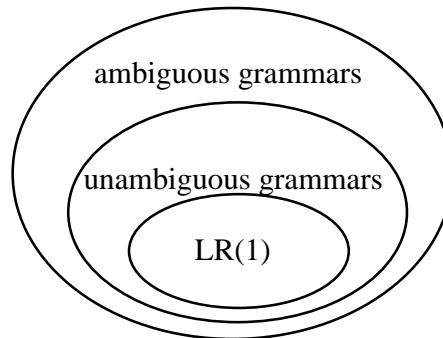
How to construct $LALR(1)$ parsing table

- **Naive approach:**
 - Construct $LR(1)$ parsing table, which takes lots of intermediate spaces.
 - Merging states.
- **Space efficient methods to construct an $LALR(1)$ parsing table are known.**
 - Construction and merging on the fly.



- **Summary:**
- $LR(1)$ and $LALR(1)$ can almost handle all programming languages, but $LALR(1)$ is easier to write.
- $LL(1)$ is easier to understand.

Using ambiguous grammars



- **Ambiguous grammars provides a shorter, more natural specification than any equivalent unambiguous grammars.**
- **Sometimes need ambiguous grammars to specify important language constructs.**
- **For example: declare a variable before its usage.**

```
var xyz : integer
begin
    ...
    xyz := 3;
    ...
```

Ambiguity from precedence and associativity

- Use precedence and associativity to resolve conflicts.
- Example:
 - G_1 :
 - ▷ $E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$
 - ▷ *ambiguous, but easy to understand!*
 - G_2 :
 - ▷ $E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$
 - ▷ $E \rightarrow T * F \mid F$
 - ▷ $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$
 - ▷ *unambiguous, but it is difficult to change the precedence;*
 - ▷ *parse tree is much larger for G_2 , and thus takes more time to parse.*
- When parsing the following input for G_1 : $id + id * id$.
 - Assume the input parsed so far is $id + id$.
 - We now see “*”.
 - We can either shift or perform “reduce by $E \rightarrow E + E$ ”.
 - When there is a conflict, say in $SLR(1)$ parsing, we use precedence and associativity information to resolve conflicts.

Dangling-else ambiguity

■ Grammar:

- $S \rightarrow a \mid \begin{array}{l} \textit{if} \langle \textbf{condition} \rangle \textit{ then} \langle \textbf{statement} \rangle \\ \textit{if} \langle \textbf{condition} \rangle \textit{ then} \langle \textbf{statement} \rangle \textit{ else} \langle \textbf{statement} \rangle \end{array}$

■ When seeing

if c then S else S

- shift or reduce conflict;
- always favor a shift.
- Intuition: favor a longer match.

Special cases

- **Ambiguity from special-case productions:**
 - Sometime a very rare happened special case causes ambiguity.
 - It's too costly to revise the grammar. We can resolve the conflicts by using special rules.
 - **Example:**
 - ▷ $E \rightarrow E \text{ sub } E \text{ sup } E$
 - ▷ $E \rightarrow E \text{ sub } E$
 - ▷ $E \rightarrow E \text{ sup } E$
 - ▷ $E \rightarrow \{E\} \mid \text{character}$
 - **Meanings:**
 - ▷ $W \text{ sub } U: W_U.$
 - ▷ $W \text{ sup } U: W^U.$
 - ▷ $W \text{ sub } U \text{ sup } V \text{ is } W_U^V, \text{ not } W_U^V$
 - **Resolve by semantic and special rules.**
 - **Pick the right one when there is a reduce/reduce conflict.**
 - ▷ *Reduce the production listed earlier.*

YACC (1/2)

■ Yet Another Compiler Compiler:

- A UNIX utility for generating *LALR*(1) parsing tables.
- Convert your YACC code into C programs.

● file.y → `yacc file.y` → y.tab.c

● y.tab.c → `cc -ly -ll y.tab.c` → a.out

■ Format:

- declarations
- %%
- translation rules
 - ▷ *<left side>*: *<production>*
 - ▷ { *semantic rules* }
- %%
- supporting C-routines.

YACC (2/2)

- Assume the Lexical analyzer routine is *yylex()*.
- When there are ambiguities:
 - reduce/reduce conflict: favor the one listed first.
 - shift/reduce conflict: favor shift. (longer match!)
- Error handling:
 - Use special error handling productions.
 - Example:
lines: error '\n' {...}
 - when there is an error, skip until newline.
 - *error*: special token.
 - *yyerror(string)*: pre-defined routine for printing error messages.
 - *yyerrok()*: reset error flags.

YACC code example (1/2)

```
%{  
#include <stdio.h>  
#include <ctype.h>  
#include <math.h>  
#define YYSTYPE int /* integer type for YACC stack */  
  
%}  
  
%token NUMBER  
%left '+' '-'  
%left '*' '/'  
%left UMINUS  
  
%%
```

YACC code example (2/2)

```
lines    : lines expr '\n'          {printf("%d\n", $2);}
| lines '\n'
| /* empty, i.e., epsilon */
| lines error '\n' { yyerror("Please reenter:"); yyerrok; }
;

expr     : expr '+' expr          { $$ = $1 + $3; }
| expr '-' expr                  { $$ = $1 - $3; }
| expr '*' expr                  { $$ = $1 * $3; }
| expr '/' expr                  { $$ = $1 / $3; }
| '(' expr ')'                   { $$ = $2; }
| '-' expr %prec UMINUS          { $$ = - $2; }
| NUMBER                          { $$ = atoi(yttext); }
;
```

%%

```
#include "lex.yy.c"
```

Included Lex program

```
%{
%}
Digit      [0-9]
IntLit     {Digit}+
%%
[ \t] { /* skip white spaces */}
[\n] {return('\n');}
{IntLit}      {return(NUMBER);}
"+"          {return('+');}
"_"         {return('-');}
"*"         {return('*');}
"/"         {return('/');}
.           {printf("error token <%s>\n",yytext); return(ERROR);}
%%
```

YACC rules

- Can assign associativity and precedence.
 - in increasing precedence
 - left/right or non-associativity
 - ▷ *Dot products of vectors has no associativity.*
- Semantic rules: every item in the production is associated with a value.
 - YYSTYPE: the type for return values.
 - \$\$: the return value if the production is reduced.
 - \$*i*: the return value of the *i*th item in the production.
- Actions can be inserted in the middle of a production, each such action is treated as a nonterminal.
 - Example:
expr : expr { \$\$ = 32; } '+' expr { \$\$ = \$1 + \$2 + \$4; } ;

is equivalent to

expr : expr \$ACT '+' expr { \$\$ = \$1 + \$2 + \$4; } ;
\$ACT : { \$\$ = 32; } ;

YACC programming styles

- **Avoid in-production actions.**
 - Replace them by markers.
- **Keep the right hand side of a production short.**
 - Better to be less than 4 symbols.
- **Avoid using C-language reserved words.**
 - Watch out C-language rules.
- **Try to find some unique symbols for each production.**
 - `array` → `ID [elist]`
 - - ▷ `array` → `alist]`
 - ▷ `alist` → `alist, ID | ahead`
 - ▷ `ahead` → `ID [ID`