

Syntax Analyzer — Parser

ALSU Textbook Chapter 4.1–4.7

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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.**
- **Deals with errors.**
 - Syntactic errors.
 - **Static semantic errors .**
 - ▷ *Example: a variable is not declared or declared twice in a language where a variable must be declared before its usage.*

Error handling

■ Goals:

- Report errors clearly and accurately.
- Recover from errors quickly enough to detect subsequent errors.
- Spend minimal overhead.

■ Strategies:

- Panic-mode recovery: skip until **synchronizing tokens** are found.
 - ▷ “;” marks the end of a C-sentence;
 - ▷ “}” closes a C-scope.
- Phrase-level recovery: perform local correction and then continue.
 - ▷ Assume a un-declared variable is declared with the default type “int.”
- Error productions: anticipating common errors using grammars.
 - ▷ Example: write a grammar rule for the case when “;” is missing between two var-declarations in C.
- Global correction: choose a minimal sequence of changes to obtain a globally least-cost correction.
 - ▷ A very difficult task!
 - ▷ May have more than one interpretations.
 - ▷ C example: In “ $y = *x;$ ”, whether an operand is missing in multiplication or the type of x should be pointer?

Context free grammar (CFG)

■ Definitions: $G = (T, N, P, S)$.

- ▷ T : a set of terminals;
- ▷ N : a set of nonterminals;
- ▷ P : productions of the form
 $A \rightarrow \alpha_1\alpha_2\cdots\alpha_m$, where $A \in N$ and $\alpha_i \in T \cup N$;
- ▷ S : the starting nonterminal where $S \in N$.

■ Notations:

- terminals : strings with lower-cased English letters and printable characters.
 - ▷ Examples: a, b, c, int and int_1 .
- nonterminals: strings started with an upper-cased English letter.
 - ▷ Examples: A, B, C and $Procedure$.
- $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \dots \in (T \cup N)^*$
 - ▷ α, β, γ and ϵ : alpha, beta, gamma and epsilon.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A \rightarrow \alpha_1 \\ A \rightarrow \alpha_2 \end{array} \right\} \equiv A \rightarrow \alpha_1 \mid \alpha_2$$

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:

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

E

$$\Longrightarrow E - E$$

$$\Longrightarrow 1 - E$$

$$\Longrightarrow 1 - E/E$$

$$\Longrightarrow 1 - E/2$$

$$\Longrightarrow 1 - 4/2$$

■ Details:

- The first step was done by choosing the second production.
- The second step was done by choosing the first production.
- ...

■ Conventions:

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

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 .

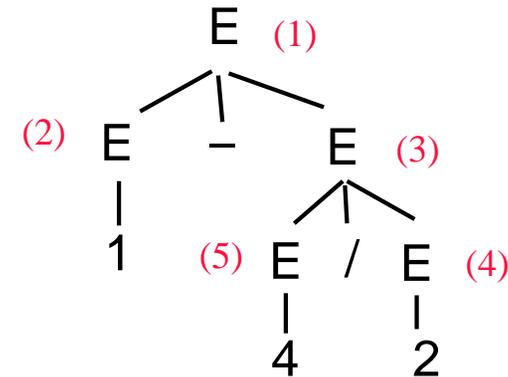
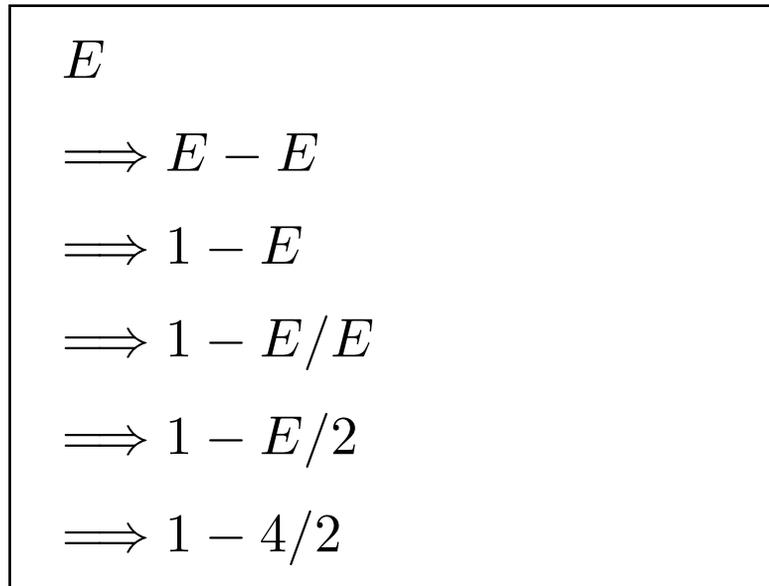
- An **element** in a language is ϵ or a sequence of terminals in the set defined by the language.
- More terminology:
 - $E \Longrightarrow \dots \Longrightarrow 1 - 4/2$ is a **derivation** of $1 - 4/2$ from E .
 - There are several kinds of derivations that are important:
 - ▷ *The derivation is a **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 way to describe derivations

- 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 the children of X*
 - Until no more leaf nonterminal left
- This is called **top-down** parsing or expanding of the parse tree.
 - Construct the parse tree starting from the root.
 - Other parsing methods, such as **bottom-up**, are known.

Top-down parsing

- Need to annotate the order of derivation on the nodes.



- It is better to keep a systematic order in parsing for the sake of performance or ease-to-understand.
 - leftmost
 - rightmost

Parse tree examples

■ Example:

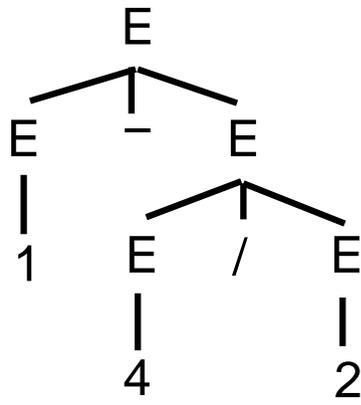
Grammar:

$E \rightarrow int$

$E \rightarrow E - E$

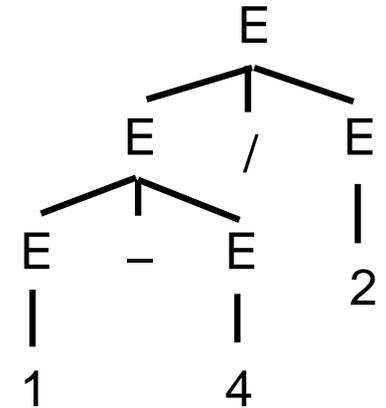
$E \rightarrow E / E$

$E \rightarrow (E)$



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, which gives $1 - 4/2$.
- 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 α , there are
 - more than one leftmost derivation for α , or
 - more than one rightmost derivation for α , or
 - more than one parse tree for α ,

then G is called **ambiguous**.

- Note: the above three conditions are equivalent in that if one is true, then all three are true.
- Q: How to prove this?
 - ▷ *Hint: Any un-annotated tree can be annotated with a leftmost numbering.*

- Problems with an ambiguous grammar:

- Ambiguity can make parsing difficult.
- Underlying structure is ill-defined.
 - ▷ *In the previous 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.*

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:
 - ▷ *Procedure* \rightarrow *TypeDef id OptParams OptDecl {OptStatements}*
 - ▷ *TypeDef* \rightarrow *integer | char | float | ...*
 - ▷ *OptParams* \rightarrow (*ListParams*)
 - ▷ *ListParams* \rightarrow ϵ | *NonEmptyParList*
 - ▷ *NonEmptyParList* \rightarrow *NonEmptyParList, id | 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.

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 expression \equiv FA.
 - Context-free grammar
 - Context-sensitive grammar
 - ...
- $\{waw \mid w \text{ is a string of } a \text{ and } b\text{'s}\}$ cannot be expressed by CFG.

Common grammar problems (CGP)

- A grammar may have some bad “styles” or ambiguity.
- Some common grammar problems (CGP’s) are:
 - Ambiguity;
 - Left factor;
 - Left recursion.
- Need to rewrite a grammar G_1 into another grammar G_2 so that G_2 has no CGP’s and the two grammars are **equivalent** and G_2 contains no CGP’s.
 - G_1 and G_2 must accept the same set of strings, that is, $L(G_1) = L(G_2)$.
 - The “semantic” of a given string α must stay the same using G_2 .
 - ▷ *The “main structure” of the parse tree may need to stay unchanged.*

CGP: ambiguity (1/2)

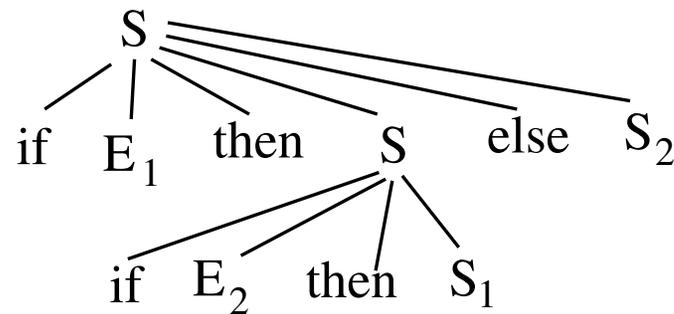
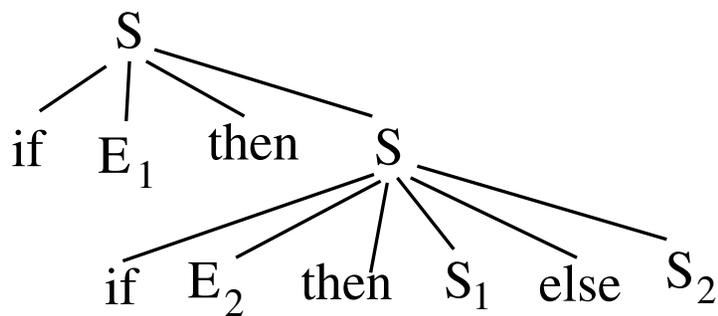
- Sometimes an ambiguous grammar can be rewritten to eliminate the ambiguity.

- Example:

- G_1

- ▷ $S \rightarrow \text{if } E \text{ then } S$
- ▷ $S \rightarrow \text{if } E \text{ then } S \text{ else } S$
- ▷ $S \rightarrow \text{Others}$

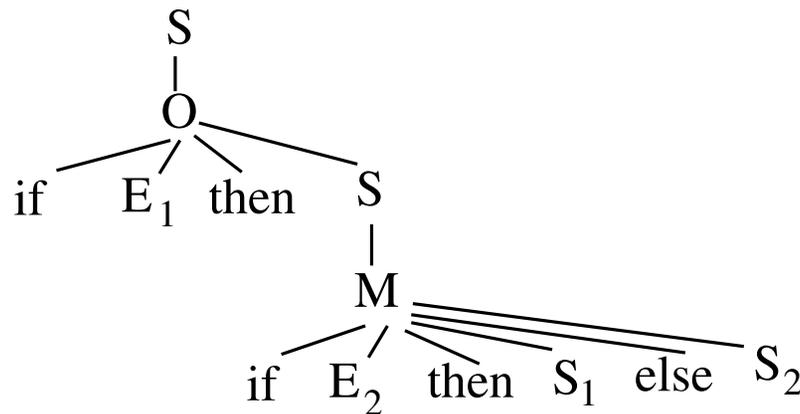
- Input: **if E_1 then if E_2 then S_1 else S_2**
- G_1 is ambiguous given the above input.
 - ▷ Have two parse trees.
 - ▷ **Dangling-else** ambiguity.



CGP: ambiguity (2/2)

■ Rewrite G_1 into the following:

- G_2
 - ▷ $S \rightarrow M \mid O$
 - ▷ $M \rightarrow \text{if } E \text{ then } M \text{ else } M \mid \text{Others}$
 - ▷ $O \rightarrow \text{if } E \text{ then } S$
 - ▷ $O \rightarrow \text{if } E \text{ then } M \text{ else } O$
- Only one parse tree for the input
if E_1 then if E_2 then S_1 else S_2
using grammar G_2 .
- Intuition: “else” is matched with the nearest “then.”



CGP: left factor

- **Left factor:** a grammar G has two productions whose right-hand-sides have a common prefix.
 - ▷ *Have left-factors.*
 - ▷ *Potentially difficult to parse.*
- **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 step until the grammar has no two productions with a common prefix;**
- **Example:**
 - $S \rightarrow aaWaa \mid aaaa \mid aaTcc \mid bb$
 - **Transform to**
 - ▷ $S \rightarrow aaS' \mid bb$
 - ▷ $S' \rightarrow Waa \mid aa \mid Tcc$

CGP: left recursion

■ Definitions:

- recursive grammar: a grammar is **recursive** if this grammar contains a nonterminal X such that

$$X \xRightarrow{+} \alpha X \beta.$$

- G is **left-recursive** if $X \xRightarrow{+} X \beta$.
- G is **immediately left-recursive** if $X \Rightarrow X \beta$.

■ Why left recursion is bad?

- Potentially difficult to parse if you read input from left to right.
- Difficult to know when recursion should be stopped.

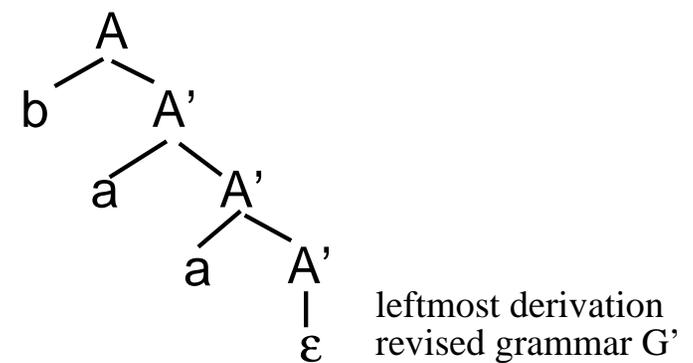
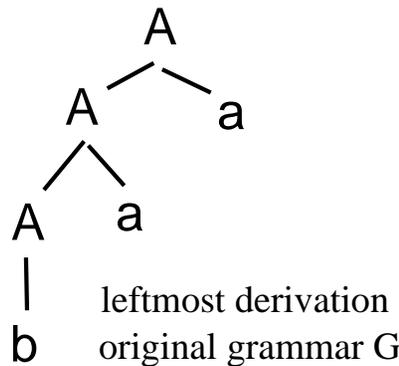
Example of removing immediate left-recursion

■ 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
$\beta \equiv b$
$\alpha \equiv a$



Rule for removing immediate left-recursion

- Both grammars 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 4.19

- **Algorithm 4.19** systematically eliminates left recursion and works only if the input grammar has no cycles or ϵ -productions.

- ▷ *Cycle: $A \xRightarrow{+} A$*
- ▷ *ϵ -production: $A \rightarrow \epsilon$*
- ▷ *Can remove cycles and all but one ϵ -production 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}*

Algorithm 4.19 — Discussions

■ Intuition:

- Consider only the productions where the leftmost item on the right hand side are nonterminals.
- If it is always the case that

▷ $A_i \xRightarrow{+} A_j \alpha$ implies $i < j$, then

it is not possible to have left-recursion.

■ Why cycles are not allowed?

- For the procedure of removing immediate left-recursion.

■ Why ϵ -productions are not allowed?

- Inside the loop, when $A_j \rightarrow \epsilon$, that is some $\delta_g = \epsilon$, and the prefix of γ is some A_k where $k < i$, it generates $A_i \rightarrow A_k$, $k < i$.

■ Time and space complexities:

- The size may be blowed up exponentially.
- Works well in real cases.

Trace an instance of Algorithm 4.19

- After each i -loop, only productions of the form $A_i \rightarrow A_k \gamma$, $i < k$ remain.
- $i = 1$
 - 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 $A_2 \rightarrow (A_{k_1} \alpha_1 \mid \cdots \mid A_{k_p} \alpha_p) \gamma$, where $A_1 \rightarrow (A_{k_1} \alpha_1 \mid \cdots \mid A_{k_p} \alpha_p)$ and $k_j > 1 \ \forall k_j$
 - remove immediate left-recursion for A_2
- $i = 3$
 - $j = 1$: replace $A_3 \rightarrow A_1 \gamma_1$
 - $j = 2$: replace $A_3 \rightarrow A_2 \gamma_2$
 - remove immediate left-recursion for A_3
- ...

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:

- ▷ $A \rightarrow bdA' \mid eA'$
- ▷ $A' \rightarrow cA' \mid adA' \mid \epsilon$

■ Resulting grammar:

- ▷ $S \rightarrow Aa \mid b$
- ▷ $A \rightarrow bdA' \mid eA'$
- ▷ $A' \rightarrow cA' \mid adA' \mid \epsilon$

Left-factoring and left-recursion removal

- **Original grammar:**

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

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

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

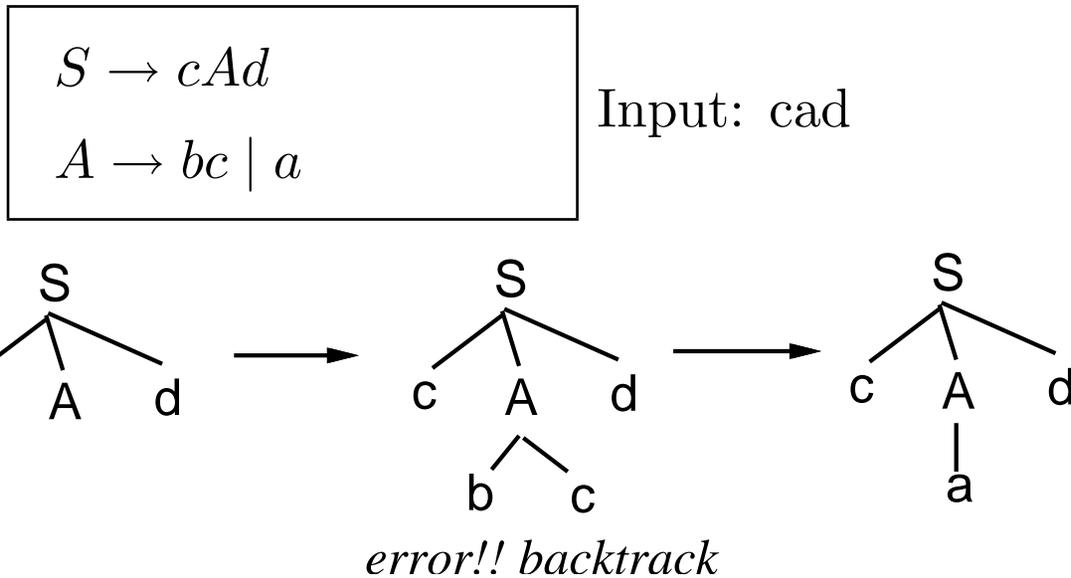
- **To do left-factoring, we have**

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

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.
 - Top-down parsing naturally corresponds to leftmost derivation.
 - 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!

▷ **Predictive parser** : a recursive-descent parser needing no backtracking.

Predictive parser — (1/2)

- **Goal:** Find a rich class of grammars that can be parsed using predictive parsers.
- **The class of $LL(1)$ grammars [Lewis & Stearns 1968] can be parsed by a predictive parser in $O(n)$ time.**
 - First “ L ”: scan the input from left-to-right.
 - Second “ L ”: find a leftmost derivation.
 - Last “(1)”: allow one lookahead token!
- **Based on the current lookahead symbol, pick a derivation when there are multiple choices.**
 - Using a STACK during implementation to avoid recursion.
 - Build a PARSING TABLE T , using the symbol X on the top of STACK and the lookahead symbol s as indexes, to decide the production to be used.
 - ▷ *If X is a terminal, then $X = s$. Input s is matched.*
 - ▷ *If X is a nonterminal, then $T(X, s)$ tells you the production to be used in the next derivation.*

Predictive parser — (2/2)

■ How a predictive parser works:

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

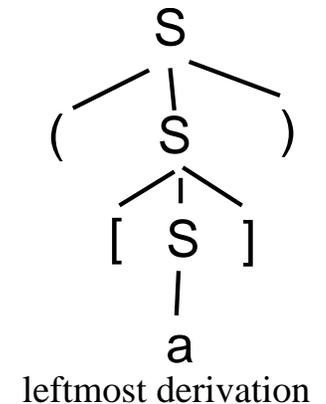
LOOP: if top-of-STACK is a nonterminal, then

- ▷ *use the current token and the PARSING TABLE to choose a production*
- ▷ *pop the nonterminal from the STACK*
- ▷ *push the above production's right-hand-side to the STACK from right to left*
- ▷ *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:** $S \rightarrow a \mid (S) \mid [S]$ **input:** $([a])$

STACK	INPUT	ACTION
S	$([a])$	pop, push “ (S) ”
) S ($([a])$	pop, match with input
) S	$[a]$	pop, push “ $[S]$ ”
)] S [$[a]$	pop, match with input
)] S	a	pop, push “ a ”
)] a	a	pop, match with input
)])	pop, match with input
))	pop, match with input
		accept



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

About $LL(1)$ — (1/2)

- It is not always possible to build a predictive parser given a CFG; It works only if the CFG is $LL(1)$!
 - $LL(1)$ is a proper subset of CFG.
- 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 $()$.

STACK	INPUT	ACTION
S	$()$	pop, but use which production?

- In this example, we need 2-token look-ahead.
 - If the next token is $)$, push “ $()$ ” from right to left.
 - If the next token is $($, push “ (S) ” from right to left.

About $LL(1)$ — (2/2)

- A grammar is not $LL(1)$ if it
 - is ambiguous,
 - is left-recursive, or
 - has left-factors.
- However, grammars that are not ambiguous, are not left-recursive and have no left-factors may still not be $LL(1)$.
 - Q: Any examples?
- Two questions:
 - How to tell whether a grammar G is $LL(1)$?
 - How to build the PARSING TABLE if it is $LL(1)$?

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 ;
 - ▷ $\epsilon \in FIRST(\alpha)$ if and only if α can derive ϵ .
- **$FIRST(\alpha) =$**
 $\{t \mid (t \text{ is a terminal and } \alpha \xRightarrow{*} t\beta) \text{ or } (t = \epsilon \text{ and } \alpha \xRightarrow{*} \epsilon)\}$

How to compute $FIRST(X)$? (1/2)

- X is a terminal:
 - $FIRST(X) = \{X\}$
- X is ϵ :
 - $FIRST(X) = \{\epsilon\}$
- X is a nonterminal: must check all productions with X on the left-hand side.
- That is, for all $X \rightarrow Y_1Y_2 \cdots Y_k$ perform the following steps:
 - $FIRST(X) = FIRST(Y_1) - \{\epsilon\}$;
 - if $\epsilon \in FIRST(Y_1)$, then
 - ▷ put $FIRST(Y_2) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $FIRST(X)$;
 - if $\epsilon \in FIRST(Y_1) \cap FIRST(Y_2)$, then
 - ▷ put $FIRST(Y_3) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $FIRST(X)$;
 - ...
 - if $\epsilon \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{k-1} FIRST(Y_i)$, then
 - ▷ put $FIRST(Y_k) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $FIRST(X)$;
 - if $\epsilon \in \bigcap_{i=1}^k FIRST(Y_i)$, then
 - ▷ put ϵ into $FIRST(X)$.

How to compute $FIRST(X)$? (2/2)

- **Algorithm to compute $FIRST$'s for all non-terminals.**
 - compute $FIRST$'s for ϵ and all terminals;
 - initialize $FIRST$'s for all non-terminals to \emptyset ;
 - Repeat
 - for all nonterminals X do
 - ▷ *apply the steps to compute $FIRST(X)$*
 - Until no items can be added to any $FIRST$ set;
- **What to do when recursive calls are encountered?**
 - Types of recursive calls: direct or indirect recursive calls.
 - Actions: do not go further.
 - ▷ *why?*
- **The time complexity of this algorithm.**
 - at least one item, terminal or ϵ , is added to some $FIRST$ set in an iteration;
 - ▷ *maximum number of items in all $FIRST$ sets are $(|T| + 1) \cdot |N|$, where T is the set of terminals and N is the set of nonterminals.*
 - Each iteration takes $O(|N| + |T|)$ time.
 - $O(|N| \cdot |T| \cdot (|N| + |T|))$.

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

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

Grammar

$$E \rightarrow E'T$$

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

$$T \rightarrow FT'$$

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

$$F \rightarrow \text{int} \mid (E)$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

How to compute $FIRST(\alpha)$?

- To build a parsing table, we need $FIRST(\alpha)$ for all α such that $X \rightarrow \alpha$ is a production in the grammar.
 - Need to compute $FIRST(X)$ for each nonterminal X first.
- Let $\alpha = X_1X_2 \cdots X_n$. Perform the following steps in sequence:
 - $FIRST(\alpha) = FIRST(X_1) - \{\epsilon\}$;
 - if $\epsilon \in FIRST(X_1)$, then
 - ▷ put $FIRST(X_2) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $FIRST(\alpha)$;
 - if $\epsilon \in FIRST(X_1) \cap FIRST(X_2)$, then
 - ▷ put $FIRST(X_3) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $FIRST(\alpha)$;
 - ...
 - if $\epsilon \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} FIRST(X_i)$, then
 - ▷ put $FIRST(X_n) - \{\epsilon\}$ into $FIRST(\alpha)$;
 - if $\epsilon \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n FIRST(X_i)$, then
 - ▷ put $\{\epsilon\}$ into $FIRST(\alpha)$.
- What to do when recursive calls are encountered?
- What are the time and space complexities?

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

Grammar

$E \rightarrow E'T$

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

$T \rightarrow FT'$

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

$F \rightarrow int \mid (E)$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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)?

■ Initialization:

- If X is the starting nonterminal, initial value of FOLLOW(X) is $\{\$ \}$.
- If X is not the starting nonterminal, initial value of FOLLOW(X) is \emptyset .

■ Repeat

for all nonterminals X do

- 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).

until nothing can be added to any FOLLOW set.

■ Questions:

- What to do when recursive calls are encountered?
- What are the time and space complexities?

Examples for FIRST's and FOLLOW's

■ 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:
 - ▷ $X \rightarrow \alpha_1$
 - ▷ \dots
 - ▷ $X \rightarrow \alpha_k$
 - If $a \in \text{FIRST}(\alpha_i)$ for exactly one i , then we use that derivation.
 - If $a \in \text{FIRST}(\alpha_i)$, $a \in \text{FIRST}(\alpha_j)$, and $i \neq j$, 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 there exists some i such that $\alpha_i \xRightarrow{*} \epsilon$ and $a \in \text{FOLLOW}(X)$, then we can use the derivation $X \rightarrow \alpha_i$.
 - $\alpha_i \xRightarrow{*} \epsilon$ if and only if $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(\alpha_i)$.

Whether a grammar is $LL(1)$? (1/2)

- To see whether a given grammar is $LL(1)$, or to build its parsing table:
 - Compute $FIRST(\alpha)$ for every α such that $X \rightarrow \alpha$ is a production;
 - ▷ *Need to first compute $FIRST(X)$ for every nonterminal X .*
 - Compute $FOLLOW(X)$ for all nonterminals X ;
 - ▷ *Need to compute $FIRST(\alpha)$ for every α such that $Y \rightarrow \beta X \alpha$ is a production.*
- Note that $FIRST$ and $FOLLOW$ sets are always sets of terminals, plus, perhaps, ϵ for some $FIRST$ sets.
- A grammar is not $LL(1)$ if there exists productions

$$X \rightarrow \alpha \mid \beta$$

and any one of the followings is true:

- $FIRST(\alpha) \cap FIRST(\beta) \neq \emptyset$.
 - ▷ *It may be the case that $\epsilon \in FIRST(\alpha)$ and $\epsilon \in FIRST(\beta)$.*
- $\epsilon \in FIRST(\alpha)$, and $FIRST(\beta) \cap FOLLOW(X) \neq \emptyset$.

Whether a grammar is $LL(1)$? (2/2)

- If a grammar is not $LL(1)$, then
 - you cannot write a linear-time predictive parser as described previously.
- If a grammar is not $LL(1)$, then we do not know to use the production $X \rightarrow \alpha$ or the production $X \rightarrow \beta$ when the lookahead symbol is a in any of the following cases:
 - $a \in \mathbf{FIRST}(\alpha) \cap \mathbf{FIRST}(\beta)$;
 - $\epsilon \in \mathbf{FIRST}(\alpha)$ and $\epsilon \in \mathbf{FIRST}(\beta)$;
 - $\epsilon \in \mathbf{FIRST}(\alpha)$, and $a \in \mathbf{FIRST}(\beta) \cap \mathbf{FOLLOW}(X)$.

A complete example (1/2)

■ Grammar:

- **ProgHead** \rightarrow *prog id Parameter semicolon*
- **Parameter** \rightarrow ϵ | *id* | *l_paren Parameter r_paren*

■ FIRST and FOLLOW sets:

α	FIRST(α)	FOLLOW(α)
ProgHead	{ <i>prog</i> }	{ $\$$ }
Parameter	{ ϵ , <i>id</i> , <i>l_paren</i> }	{ <i>semicolon</i> , <i>r_paren</i> }
<i>prog id Parameter semicolon</i>	{ <i>prog</i> }	
<i>l_paren Parameter r_paren</i>	{ <i>l_paren</i> }	

A complete example (2/2)

Input: prog id semicolon

STACK	INPUT	ACTION
\$ ProgHead	<i>prog id semicolon</i> \$	pop, push
\$ <i>semicolon</i> Parameter <i>id prog</i>	<i>prog id semicolon</i> \$	match with input
\$ <i>semicolon</i> Parameter <i>id</i>	<i>id semicolon</i> \$	match with input
\$ <i>semicolon</i> Parameter	<i>semicolon</i> \$	WHAT TO DO?

■ Last actions:

- Three choices:

- ▷ $Parameter \rightarrow \epsilon \mid id \mid l_paren \text{ Parameter } r_paren$

- $semicolon \notin \mathbf{FIRST}(\epsilon)$ and

- $semicolon \notin \mathbf{FIRST}(id)$ and

- $semicolon \notin \mathbf{FIRST}(l_paren \text{ Parameter } r_paren)$

- $Parameter \xRightarrow{*} \epsilon$ and $semicolon \in \mathbf{FOLLOW}(Parameter)$

- Hence we use the derivation

- $Parameter \rightarrow \epsilon$

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

Grammar:

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

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

■ Check for possible conflicts in $X \rightarrow a \mid \epsilon$.

- $\text{FIRST}(a) \cap \text{FIRST}(\epsilon) = \emptyset$
- $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(\epsilon)$ and $\text{FOLLOW}(X) \cap \text{FIRST}(a) = \{a\}$
- **Conflict!!**
- $\epsilon \notin \text{FIRST}(a)$

■ Check for possible conflicts in $C \rightarrow a \mid \epsilon$.

- $\text{FIRST}(a) \cap \text{FIRST}(\epsilon) = \emptyset$
- $\epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(\epsilon)$ and $\text{FOLLOW}(C) \cap \text{FIRST}(a) = \emptyset$
- $\epsilon \notin \text{FIRST}(a)$

$LL(1)$ 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 the leaves to the root.

Grammar:

$S \rightarrow AB$

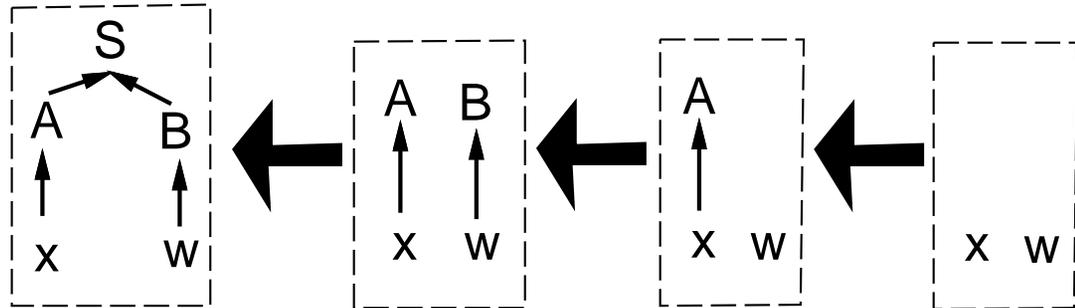
$A \rightarrow x \mid Y$

$B \rightarrow w \mid Z$

$Y \rightarrow xb$

$Z \rightarrow wp$

- **Example:**



- **Input** xw .
- **This grammar is not $LL(1)$.**
 - Why?
 - It can be written into an $LL(1)$ grammar.

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**.

- In the previous example:

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

■ Define similarly for leftmost derivation and left-sentential form.

■ **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 w in γ where β can be found.

- Let γ' be obtained by replacing β at the position w with A in γ .

▷ $\gamma = \alpha\beta\eta$ and is a right-sentential form.

▷ $\gamma' = \alpha A \eta$ and is also a right-sentential form.

▷ $\gamma' \xRightarrow{rm} \gamma$ and thus η contains no nonterminals.

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 starting at position 2 in γ with A .
- A right-most derivation in reverse can be obtained by handle reducing.
- **Problems**:
 - How to find handles?
 - What to do when there are two possible handles?
 - ▷ *Have a common prefix or suffix.*
 - ▷ *Have overlaps.*

STACK implementation

- Four possible actions:

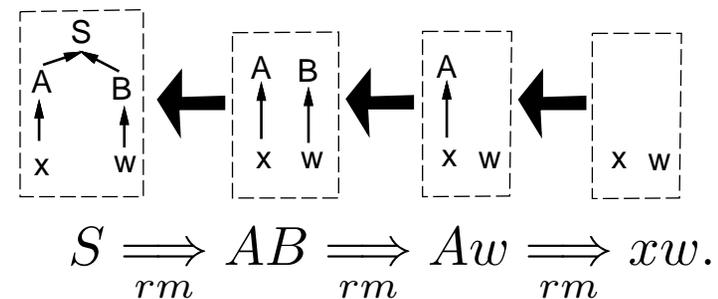
- shift: shift the input to STACK.
- reduce: perform a reversed rightmost derivation.

▷ *The first item popped is the rightmost item in the right hand side of the reduced production.*

- accept
- error

- Make sure handles are always on the top of STACK.

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



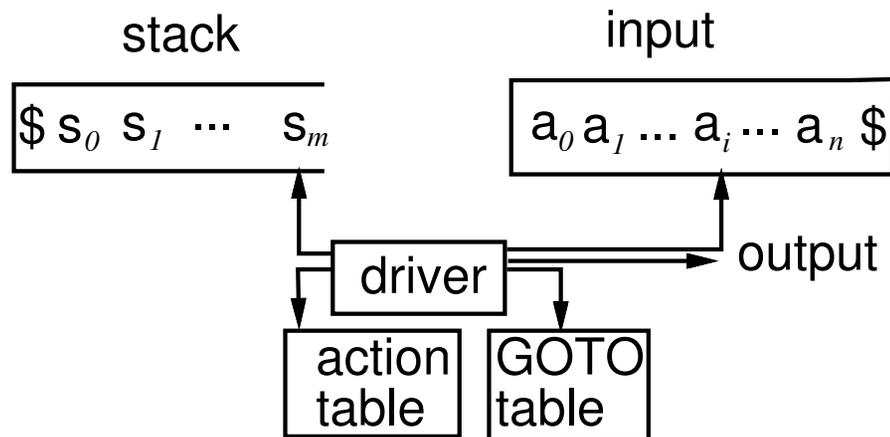
Viable prefix (1/2)

- **Definition:** the set of prefixes of right-sentential forms that can appear on the top of the stack.
 - Some suffix of a viable prefix is a prefix of a handle.
 - Some suffix of a viable prefix may be a handle.
- Some prefix of a right-sentential form cannot appear on the top of the stack during parsing.
 - **Grammar:**
 - ▷ $S \rightarrow AB$
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow x \mid Y$
 - ▷ $B \rightarrow w \mid Z$
 - ▷ $Y \rightarrow xb$
 - ▷ $Z \rightarrow wp$
 - **Input:** xw
 - ▷ xw is a right-sentential form.
 - ▷ The prefix xw is not a viable prefix.
 - ▷ You cannot have the situation that some suffix of xw is a handle.

Viable prefix (2/2)

- **Note:** when doing bottom-up parsing, that is reversed rightmost derivation,
 - it cannot be the case a handle on the right is reduced before a handle on the left in a right-sentential form;
 - the handle of the first reduction consists of all terminals and can be found on the top of the stack;
 - ▷ *That is, some substring of the input is the first handle.*
- **Strategy:**
 - Try to recognize all possible viable prefixes.
 - ▷ *Can recognize them incrementally.*
 - Shift is allowed if after shifting, the top of STACK is still a viable prefix.
 - Reduce is allowed if after a handle is found on the top of STACK and after reducing, the top of STACK is still a viable prefix.
 - Questions:
 - ▷ *How to recognize a viable prefix efficiently?*
 - ▷ *What to do when multiple actions are allowed?*

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.

- ▷ *Not equal to deterministic push down automata.*

LR parsers

- By Don Knuth at 1965.
- $LR(k)$: see all of what can be derived from the right side with k input tokens lookahead.
 - First L : scan the input from left to right.
 - Second R : reverse rightmost derivation.
 - Last (k): with k lookahead tokens.
- Be able to decide the whereabouts of a handle after seeing all of what have been derived so far plus k input tokens lookahead.

$X_1, X_2, \dots, \boxed{X_i, X_{i+1}, \dots, X_{i+j}}, \boxed{X_{i+j+1}, \dots, X_{i+j+k}}, \dots$

a handle lookahead tokens

- Top-down parsing for $LL(k)$ grammars: be able to choose a production by seeing only the first k symbols that will be derived from that production.

Recognizing viable prefixes

- Use an $LR(0)$ item (item for short) to record all possible extensions of the current viable prefix.
 - It is a production, with a dot at some position in the RHS (right-hand side).
 - ▷ *The production is the handle.*
 - ▷ *The dot indicates the prefix of the handle that has seen so far.*
- Example:
 - $A \rightarrow XY$
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow \cdot XY$
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow X \cdot Y$
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow XY \cdot$
 - $A \rightarrow \epsilon$
 - ▷ $A \rightarrow \cdot$
- Augmented grammar G' is to add a new starting symbol S' and a new production $S' \rightarrow S$ to a grammar G with the original starting symbol S .
 - ▷ *We assume working on the augmented grammar from now on.*

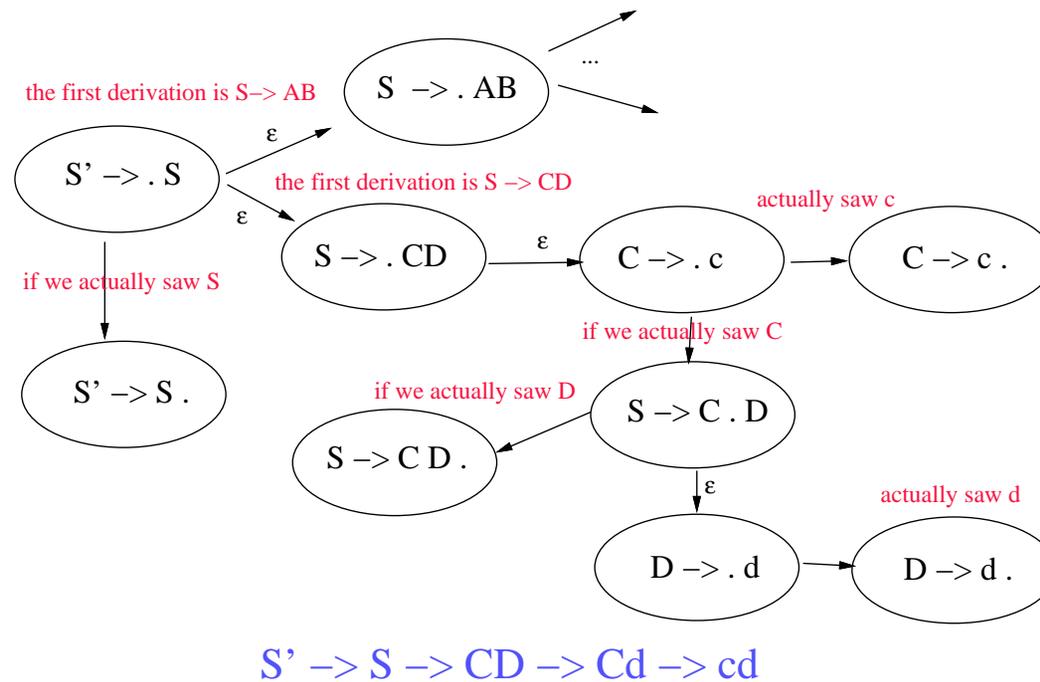
High-level ideas for $LR(0)$ parsing

■ Grammar:

- $S' \rightarrow S$
- $S \rightarrow AB \mid CD$
- $A \rightarrow a$
- $B \rightarrow b$
- $C \rightarrow c$
- $D \rightarrow d$

■ Approach:

- ▷ Use a *STACK* to record the current viable prefix.
- ▷ Use *NFA* to record information about the next possible handle.
- ▷ push down automata = *FA* + stack.
- ▷ Need to use *DFA* for simplicity.



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 $\text{closure}(I)$ mean 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 about the next handle that we have seen in the past and expect to see in the future.

Example for the closure function

- **Example:** E' is the new starting symbol, and E is the original starting symbol.
 - $E' \rightarrow E$
 - $E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$
 - $T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$
 - $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$
- $closure(\{E' \rightarrow \cdot E\}) =$
 - $\{E' \rightarrow \cdot E,$
 - $E \rightarrow \cdot E + T,$
 - $E \rightarrow \cdot T,$
 - $T \rightarrow \cdot T * F,$
 - $T \rightarrow \cdot F,$
 - $F \rightarrow \cdot (E),$
 - $F \rightarrow \cdot id\}$

GOTO table

- $GOTO(I, X)$, where I is a set of items and X is a legal symbol, means
 - 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 set 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:
 - **Definitions:** 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 this 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:

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

- ▷ $\{E' \rightarrow E \cdot,$

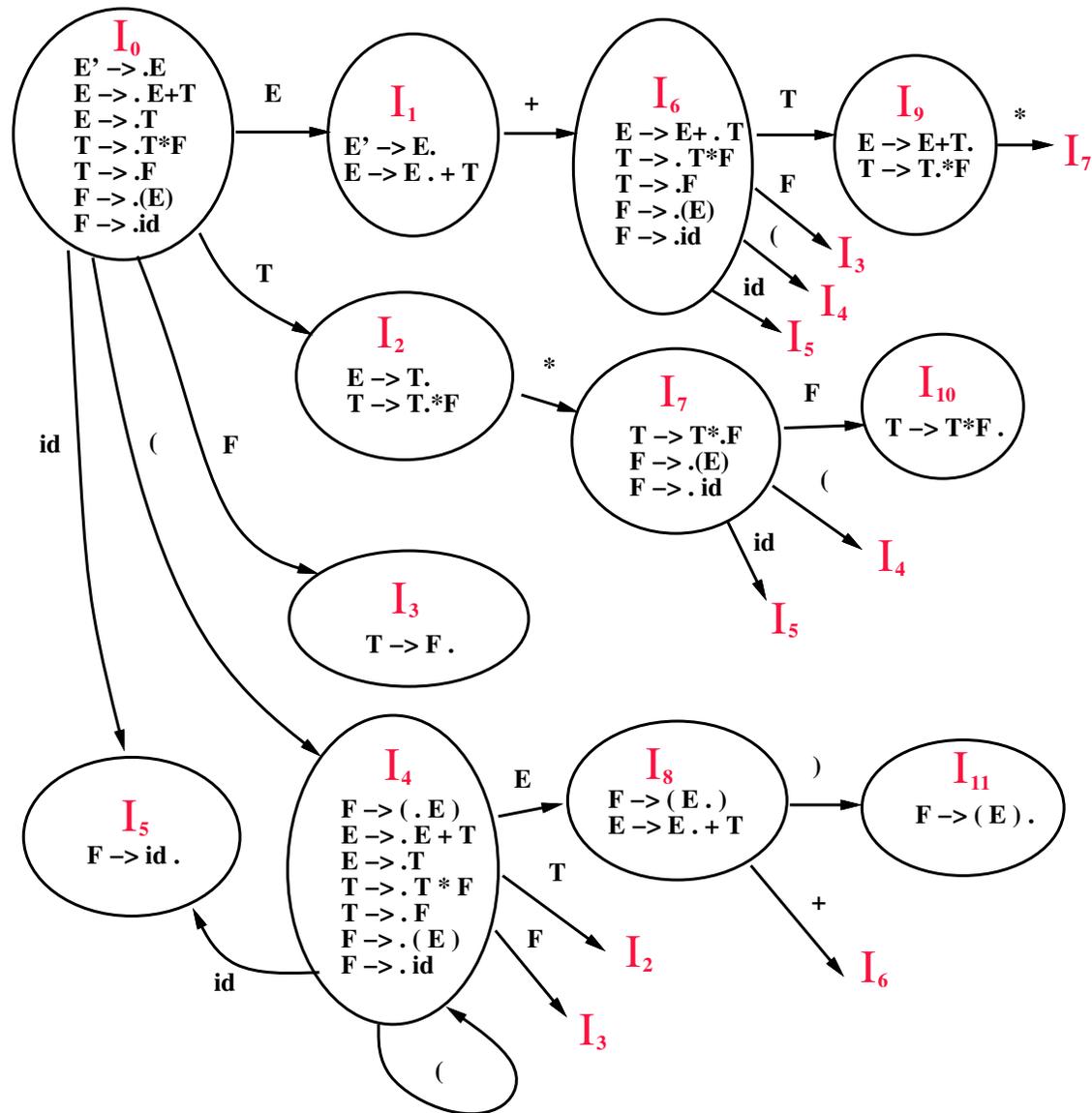
- ▷ $E \rightarrow E \cdot + T\}$

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

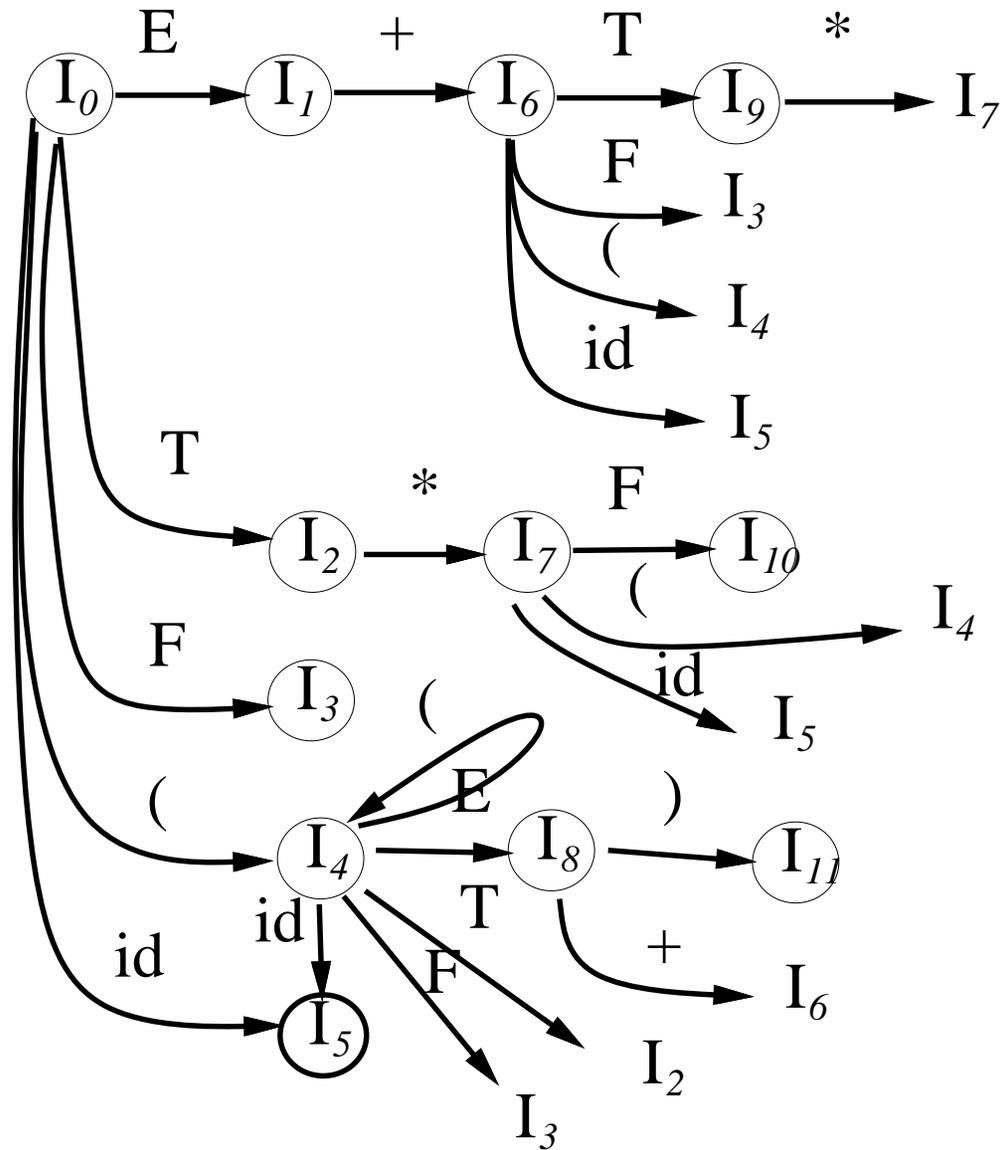
- ▷ $\{E \rightarrow T \cdot,$

- ▷ $T \rightarrow T \cdot * F\}$

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:

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

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

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

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

- $\text{closure}(I)$: a state/configuration during parsing recording all possible information about the next handle.
 - 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 $\text{closure}(\{A \rightarrow \alpha X \cdot \beta\}) \subseteq \text{GOTO}(I, X)$.

LR(0) parsing

- *LR* parsing without lookahead symbols.
- Initially,
 - Push I_0 into the stack.
 - Begin to scan the input from left to right.
- In state I_i
 - if $\{A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot a\beta\} \subseteq I_i$ then perform “shift i ” while seeing the terminal a in the input, and then go to the state $I_j = \text{closure}(\{A \rightarrow \alpha a \cdot \beta\})$.
 - ▷ Push a into the STACK first.
 - ▷ Then push I_j into the STACK.
 - if $\{A \rightarrow \beta \cdot\} \subseteq I_i$, then perform “reduce by $A \rightarrow \beta$ ” and then go to the state $I_j = \text{GOTO}(I, A)$ where I is the state on the top of the stack after removing β
 - ▷ Pop β and all intermediate states from the STACK.
 - ▷ Push A into the STACK.
 - ▷ Then push I_j into the STACK.
 - Reject if none of the above can be done.
 - Report “conflicts” if more than one can be done.
- Accept an input if EOF is seen at I_0 .

Parsing example

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

Problems of $LR(0)$ parsing

- **Conflicts:** handles have overlaps, thus multiple actions are allowed at the same time.
 - shift/reduce conflict
 - reduce/reduce conflict
- **Very few grammars are $LR(0)$. For example:**
 - In I_2 of our example, 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.”
- **Idea:** use $FOLLOW(E)$ as look ahead information to resolve some conflicts.

$SLR(1)$ parsing algorithm

- Using FOLLOW sets to resolve conflicts in constructing $SLR(1)$ [DeRemer 1971] 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
(1) $E' \rightarrow E$	0	s5			s4		1	2	3
(2) $E \rightarrow E + T$	1		s6			accept			
(3) $E \rightarrow T$	2		r2	s7		r2			
(4) $T \rightarrow T * F$	3		r5	r5		r5			
(5) $T \rightarrow F$	4	s5			s4		8	2	3
(6) $F \rightarrow (E)$	5		r7	r7		r7			
(7) $F \rightarrow id$	6	s5			s4			9	3
	7	s5			s4				10
	8		s6			s11			
	9		r2	s7		r2			
	10		r4	r4		r4			
	11		r6	r6		r6			

- ri means reduce by the i th production.
- si means shift and then go to state I_i .
- Use FOLLOW sets to resolve some conflicts.

Discussion (1/3)

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

- **Grammar:**

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

- **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 :

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

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 :

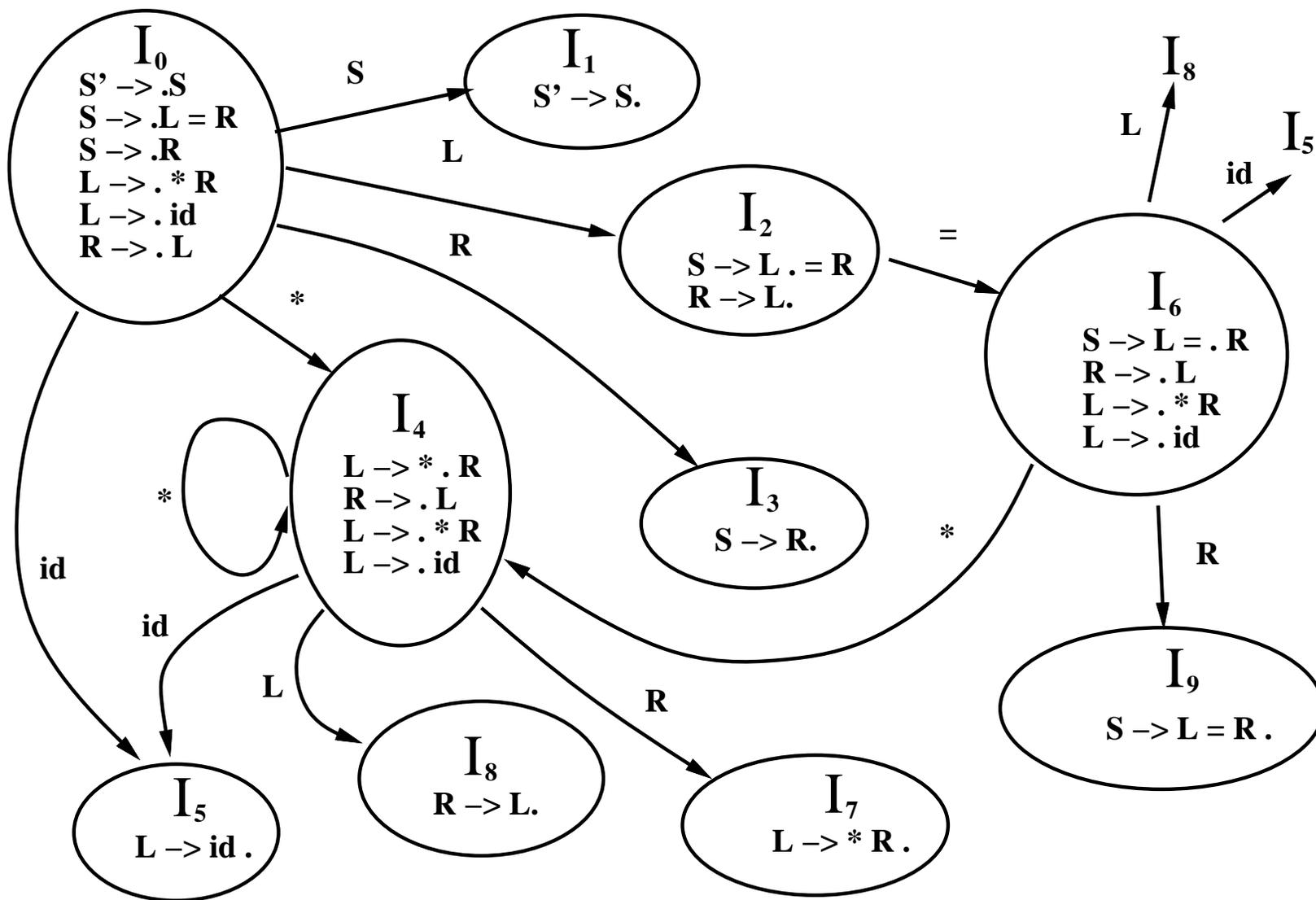
- ▷ $S \rightarrow L = \cdot R$
- ▷ $R \rightarrow \cdot L$
- ▷ $L \rightarrow \cdot * R$
- ▷ $L \rightarrow \cdot id$

I_7 : $L \rightarrow *R \cdot$

I_8 : $R \rightarrow L \cdot$

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

Discussion (2/3)



Discussion (3/3)

- Suppose the STACK has “\$ I_0 L I_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 $a \in \text{FOLLOW}(A)$, then we perform the reduction $A \rightarrow \alpha$.
- However, it is possible that when state I_i is on the top of the stack, we have the viable prefix $\beta\alpha$ on the top of the stack, and βA cannot be followed by a .
 - In this case, we cannot perform the reduction $A \rightarrow \alpha$.
- It looks difficult to find the **FOLLOW** sets for every viable prefix.
- We can solve the problem by knowing more left context using the technique of **lookahead propagation**.
 - Construct $\text{FOLLOW}(\omega)$ on the fly.
 - Assume $\omega = \omega'X$ and $\text{FOLLOW}(\omega')$ is known.
 - Can $\text{FOLLOW}(\omega'X)$ be computed efficiently?

$LR(1)$ 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 $FOLLOW(A)$.
- Intuition: perform a reduction based on an $LR(1)$ item $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot, a]$ only when the next symbol is a .
 - Instead of maintaining $FOLLOW$ sets of viable prefixes, we maintain $FIRST$ sets of possible future extensions of the current viable prefix.
- Formally: $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot \beta, a]$ is valid (or reachable) for a viable prefix γ if there exists a derivation

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

where

- either $a \in FIRST(\omega)$ or
- $\omega = \epsilon$ and $a = \$$.

Examples of $LR(1)$ items

■ 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,

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

▷ ω is ϵ or a sequence of terminals.

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

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

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

■ Lookahead propagation .

Algorithm for $LR(1)$ parsers

- $closure_1(I)$
 - **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**
- $GOTO_1(I, X)$
 - **let $J = \{[A \rightarrow \alpha X \cdot \beta, a] \mid [A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot X\beta, a] \in I\}$;**
 - **return $closure_1(J)$**
- $items(G')$
 - $C \leftarrow \{closure_1(\{[S' \rightarrow \cdot S, \$]\})\}$
 - **Repeat**
 - ▷ for each set of items $I \in C$ and each grammar symbol X such that $GOTO_1(I, X) \neq \emptyset$ and $GOTO_1(I, X) \notin C$ do
 - ▷ add $GOTO_1(I, X)$ to C
 - **Until no more sets of items can be added to C**

Example for constructing $LR(1)$ closures

■ Grammar:

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

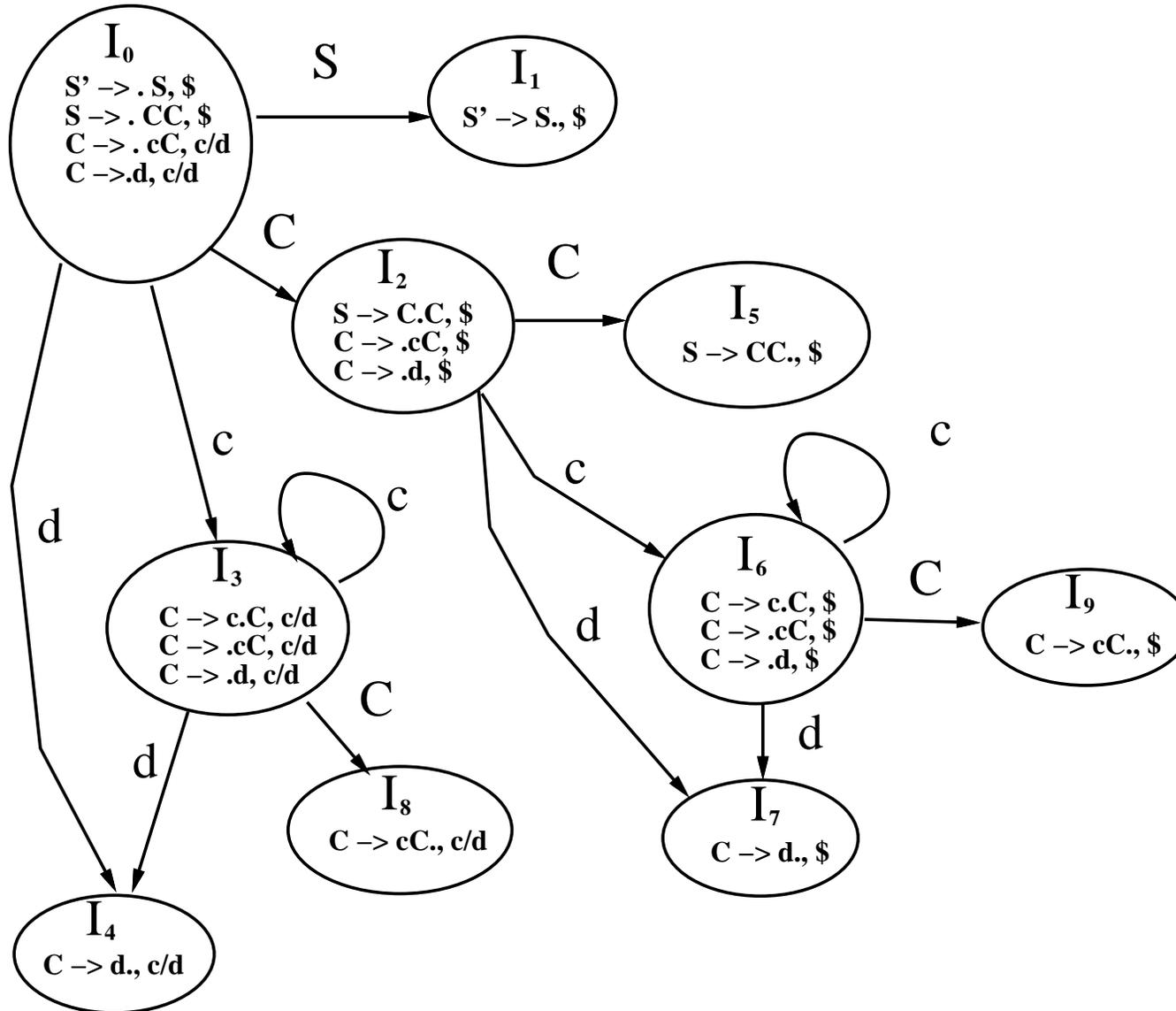
■ $closure_1(\{[S' \rightarrow \cdot S, \$]\}) =$

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

■ Note:

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

Generating $LR(1)$ parsing table

- **Construction of canonical $LR(1)$ parsing tables.**
 - **Input:** an augmented grammar G'
 - **Output:** the canonical $LR(1)$ parsing table, i.e., the $ACTION_1$ 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 $GOTO_1(I_i, a) = I_j$, then $action_1[I_i, a] = \text{“shift } j\text{”}$ for a is a terminal.**
 - **if $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot, a] \in I_i$ and $A \neq S'$, then $action_1[I_i, a] = \text{“reduce by } A \rightarrow \alpha\text{”}$**
 - **if $[S' \rightarrow S \cdot, \$] \in I_i$, then $action_1[I_i, \$] = \text{“accept.”}$**
- **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 $[S' \rightarrow \cdot S, \$]$.**

Example of an $LR(1)$ parsing table

state	action ₁			GOTO ₁	
	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:**

- Most powerful!
- Has too many states and thus occupies too much space.

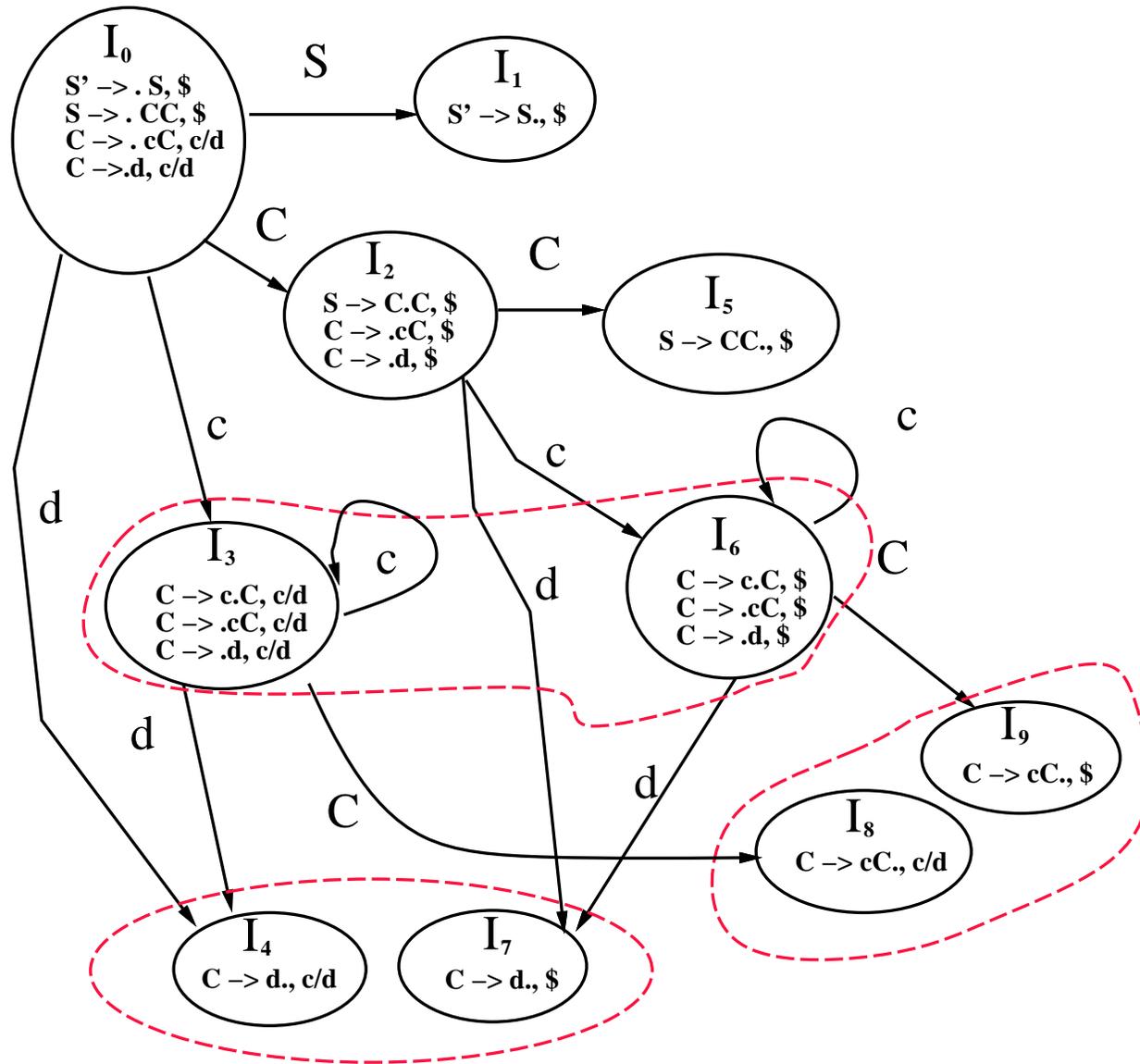
LALR(1) parser — Lookahead *LR*

- The method that is often used in practice.
- Most common syntactic constructs of programming languages can be expressed conveniently by an *LALR*(1) grammar [DeRemer 1969].
- *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 of the form $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot \beta, c]$
- 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 an $LR(1)$ parser, it is a common thing that several states only differ in lookahead symbols, 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 $GOTO_1$ table accordingly.
- Merging of states can never produce a shift-reduce conflict that was not present in one of the original states.
 - $I_1 = \{[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot, a], \dots\}$
 - ▷ For I_1 , one of the actions is to perform a reduce when the lookahead symbol is “a”.
 - $I_2 = \{[B \rightarrow \beta \cdot a \gamma, b], \dots\}$
 - ▷ For I_2 , one of the actions is to perform a shift on input “a”.
 - Merging I_1 and I_2 , the new state $I_{1,2}$ has shift-reduce conflicts.
 - However, we merge I_1 and I_2 because they have the same core.
 - ▷ That is, $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot, c] \in I_2$ and $[B \rightarrow \beta \cdot a \gamma, d] \in I_1$.
 - ▷ The shift-reduce conflict already occurs in I_1 and I_2 .
- Merging of states can produce a new reduce-reduce conflict.

LALR(1) transition diagram



Possible new conflicts from $LALR(1)$

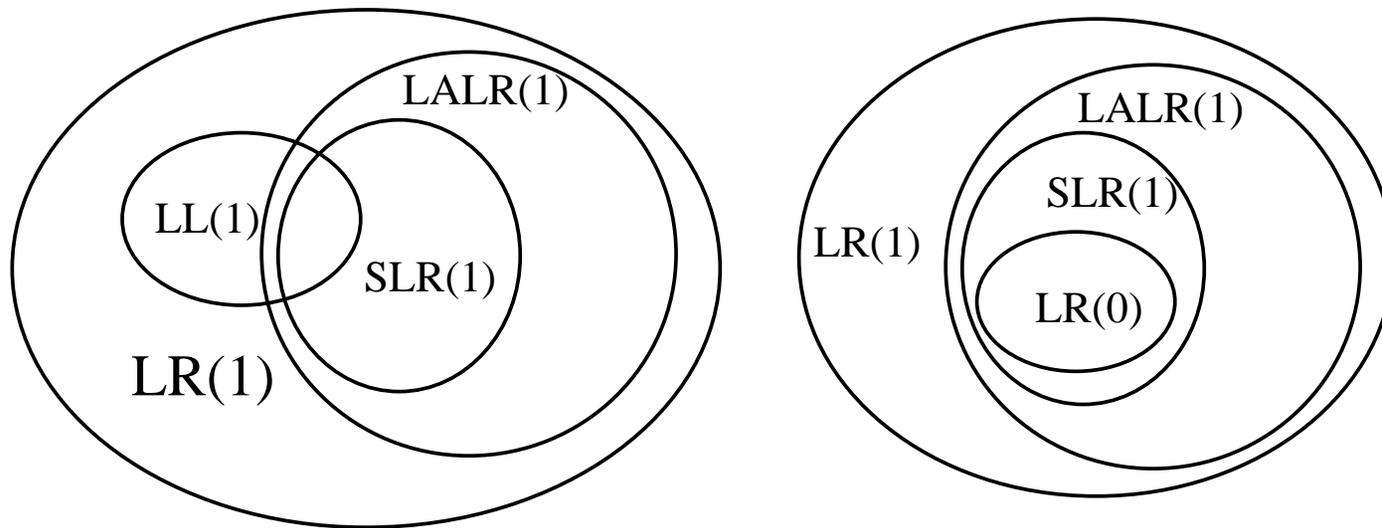
- May produce a new reduce-reduce conflict.
- For example (textbook page 267, Example 4.58), grammar:
 - $S' \rightarrow S$
 - $S \rightarrow aAd \mid bBf \mid aBe \mid bAe$
 - $A \rightarrow c$
 - $B \rightarrow c$
- The language recognized by this grammar is $\{acd, ace, bcd, bce\}$.
- You may check 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 and/or time efficient methods to construct an $LALR(1)$ parsing table are known.**
 - Constructing and merging on the fly.
 - ...

Summary



- **$LR(1)$ and $LALR(1)$ can almost express all important programming languages issues, but $LALR(1)$ is easier to write and uses much less space.**
- **$LL(1)$ is easier to understand and uses much less space, but cannot express some important common-language features.**
 - May try to use it first for your own applications.
 - If it does not succeed, then use more powerful ones.