### Programming Languages & Translators

# **PARSING**

Baishakhi Ray

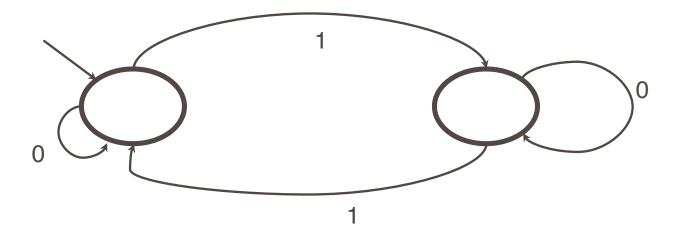
Fall 2019



## Languages and Automata

- Formal languages are very important in CS
  - Especially in programming languages
- Regular Languages
  - Weakest formal languages that are widely used
  - Many applications
- Many Languages are not regular

### Automata that accept odd numbers of 1



How many 1s it has accepted?

- Only solution is duplicate state

Automata do not have any memory

## Intro to Parsing

- Regular Languages
  - Weakest formal languages that are widely used
  - Many applications
- Consider the language  $\{(i)^i \mid i \ge 0\}$ 
  - **(**), (( )), ((( )))
  - ((1 + 2) \* 3)
- Nesting structures
  - if .. if.. else.. else..

Regular languages cannot handle well

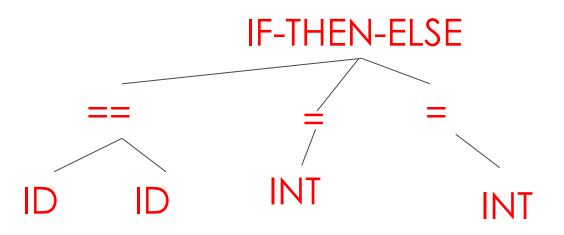
## Intro to Parsing

Input: if(x==y) 1 else 2;

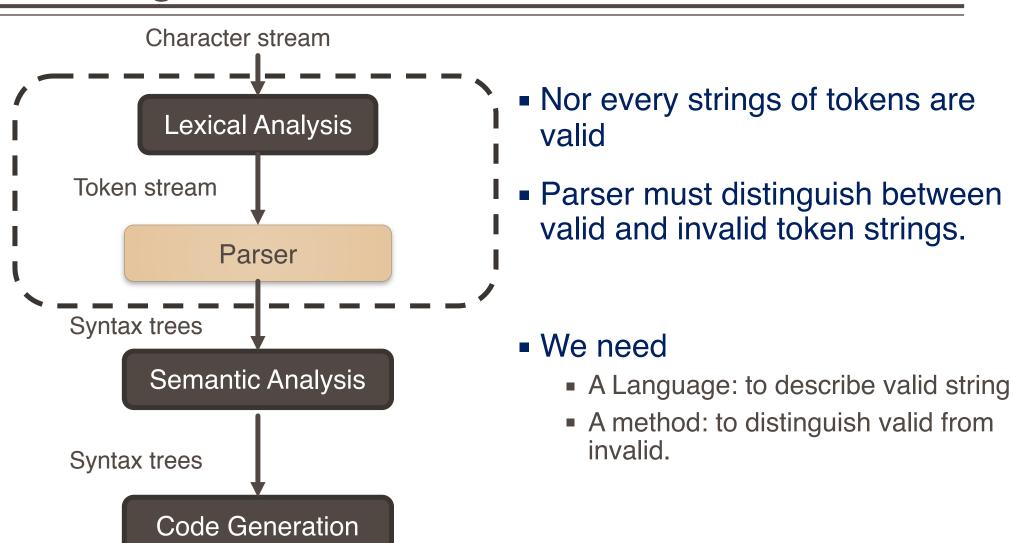
Parser Input (Lexical Input):

KEY(IF) '(' ID(x) OP('==') ')' INT(1) KEY(ELSE) INT(2) ';'

Parser Output



## Intro to Parsing



#### A CFG consists of

- A set of terminal T
- A set of non-terminal N
- A start symbol S (S  $\epsilon$  N)
- A set of production rules

$$X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_N$$

- $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{N}$
- $Y_i \in \{N, T, \varepsilon\}$
- Ex: S -> (S) |  $\varepsilon$ 
  - $N = \{S\}$
  - $T = \{ (,), \varepsilon \}$

- 1. Begin with a string with only the start symbol S
- 2. Replace a non-terminal X with in the string by the RHS of some production rule:

$$X -> Y_1 - ... Y_n$$

3. Repeat 2 again and again until there are no non-terminals

$$X_1, \dots, X_i \times X_{i+1}, \dots, X_n \rightarrow X_1, \dots, X_i \times Y_1, \dots, Y_k \times X_{i+1}, \dots, X_n$$

For the production rule  $X \rightarrow Y_1, \dots, Y_k$ 

$$\alpha_0 \to \alpha_1 \to \alpha_2 \to \alpha_3 \dots \to \alpha_n$$

$$\alpha_0 \stackrel{*}{\to} \alpha_n, n \ge 0$$

■ Let G be a CFG with start symbol S. Then the language L(G) of G is:

$$\{a_1 \dots a_i \dots a_n \mid \forall i a_i \in T \land S \xrightarrow{*} a_1 \dots a_i \dots a_n\}$$

- There are no rules to replace terminals.
- Once generated, terminals are permanent
- Terminals ought to be tokens of programming languages
- Context-free grammars are a natural notation for this recursive structure

## CFG: Simple Arithmetic expression

```
E → E + E

I E * E

I (E)

I id
```

Languages can be generated: id, (id), (id + id) \* id, ...

### CFG: Exercise

$$S \to aXa$$

$$X \to \varepsilon \mid bY$$

$$Y \to \varepsilon \mid cXc$$

Some Valid Strings are: aba, abcca, ...

### Derivation

- A derivation is a sequence of production
  - S -> ... -> ... ->
- A derivation can be drawn as a tree
  - Start symbol is tree's root
  - For a production  $X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$ , add children  $Y_1 \dots Y_n$  to node X

#### Grammar

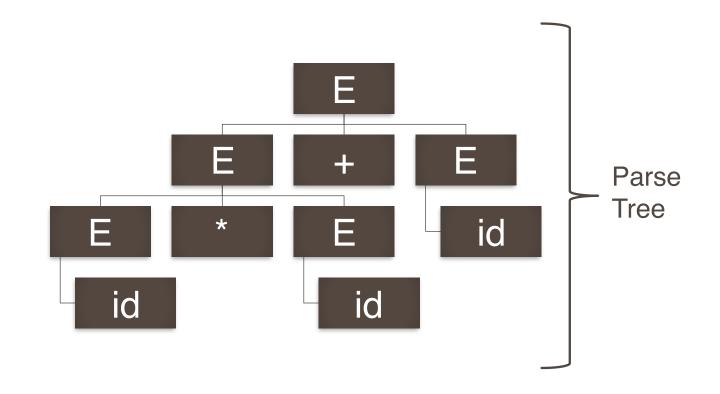
#### String

■ id \* id + id

#### Derivation

$$E \rightarrow E + E$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 id \* id + E



#### Parse Tree

- A parse tree has
  - Terminals at the leaves
  - Non-terminals at the interior nodes
- An in-order traversal of the leaves is the original input

■ The parse tree shows the association of operations, the input string does not

#### Parse Tree

- Left-most derivation
  - At each step, replace the left-most nonterminal

$$E \rightarrow E + E$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 id \* E + E

$$\rightarrow$$
 id \* id + E

- Right-most derivation
  - At each step, replace the right-most nonterminal

$$E \rightarrow E + E$$

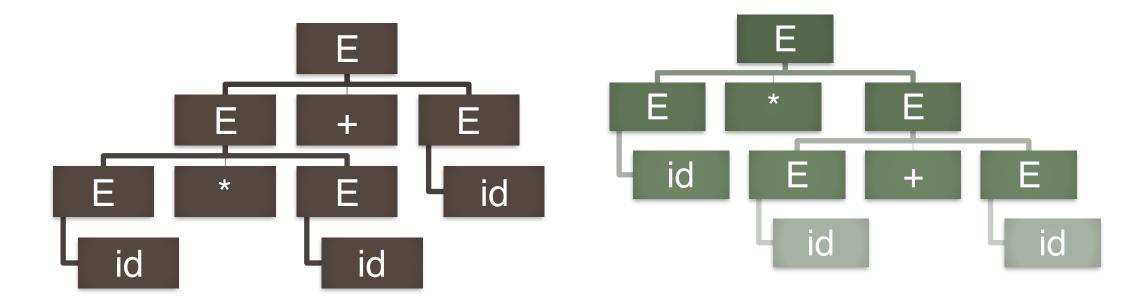
$$-> E + id$$

$$-> E * E + id$$

Note that, right-most and left-most derivations have the same parse tree

# Ambiguity

- Grammar
  - E -> E + E | E \* E | (E) | id
- String
  - id \* id + id



## Ambiguity

- A grammar is ambiguous if it has more than one parse tree for a string
  - There are more than one right-most or left-most derivation for some string
- Ambiguity is bad
  - Leaves meaning for some programs ill-defined

# Example of Ambiguous Grammar

■ S->SSlalb

## Resolving Ambiguity

Most direct way to rewrite the grammar unambiguously

$$id*id+id$$

$$E = E' + E | E'$$
 $E' = id * E' | id | (E) * E' | (E)$ 

## Resolving Ambiguity

Impossible to convert ambiguous to unambiguous grammar automatically

- Instead of rewriting
  - Use ambiguous grammar
  - Along with disambiguating rules
    - Eg, precedence and associativity rules
    - Enforces precedence of \* over +
    - associativity: %left +

## Abstract Syntax Trees

A parser traces the derivation of a sequence of tokens

 But the rest of the compiler needs a structural representation of the program

- Abstract Syntax Trees
  - Like parse trees but ignore some details
  - Abbreviated as AST

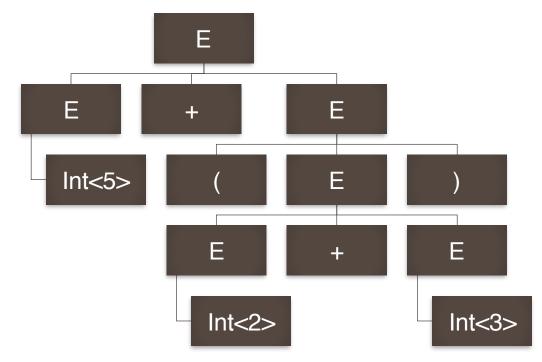
## **Abstract Syntax Trees**

- Grammar
  - E -> int I ( E ) I E + E
- String
  - -5 + (2 + 3)

- After lexical analysis
  - Int<5> '+' '(' Int<2> '+' Int<3> ')'

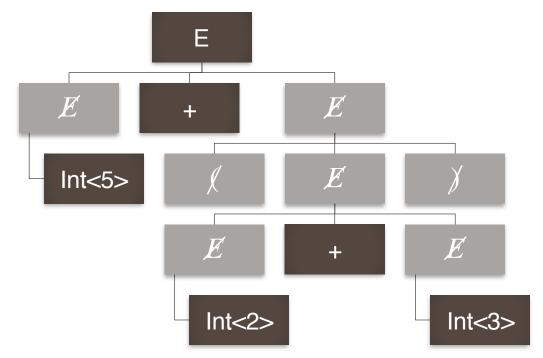
# Abstract Syntax Trees: 5 + (2 + 3)

#### Parse Trees



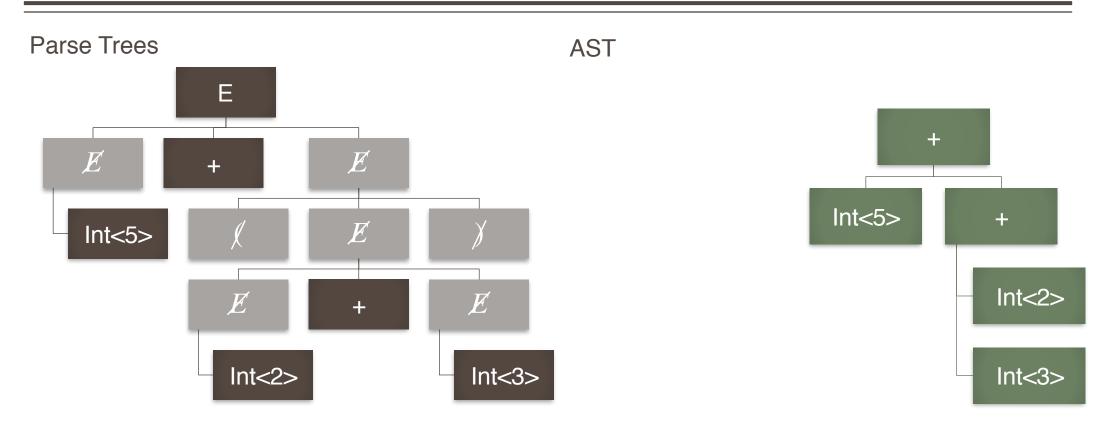
## Abstract Syntax Trees: 5 + (2 + 3)

#### Parse Trees



- Have too much information
  - Parentheses
  - Single-successor nodes

## Abstract Syntax Trees: 5 + (2 + 3)



- Have too much information
  - Parentheses
  - Single-successor nodes

- ASTs capture the nesting structure
- But abstracts from the concrete syntax
  - More compact and easier to use

## Error Handling

- Purpose of the compiler is
  - To detect non-valid programs
  - To translate the valid ones
- Many kinds of possible errors (e.g., in C)

Error Kind	Example	Detected by
Lexical	\$	Lexer
Syntax	X*%	Parser
Semantic	int x; $y = x(3)$ ;	Type Checker
Correctness	your program	tester/user

## Error Handling

#### Error Handler should

- Discover errors accurately and quickly
- Recover from an error quickly
- Not slow down compilation of valid code

#### Types of Error Handling

- Panic mode
- Error productions
- Automatic local or global correction

## Panic Mode Error Handling

Panic mode is simplest and most popular method

- When an error is detected
  - Discard tokens until one with a clear role is found
  - Continue from there
- Typically looks for "synchronizing" tokens
  - Typically the statement of expression terminators

## Panic Mode Error Handling

- Example:
  - (1 + + 2) + 3
- Panic-mode recovery:
  - Skip ahead to the next integer and then continue
- Bison: use the special terminal error to describe how much input to skip
  - E -> int I E + E I ( E ) I error int I ( error )



### **Error Productions**

Specify known common mistakes in the grammar

- Example:
  - Write 5x instead of 5 \* x
  - Add production rule E -> .. I E E
- Disadvantages
  - complicates the grammar

#### **Error Corrections**

- Idea: find a correct "nearby" program
  - Try token insertions and deletions (goal: minimize edit distance)
  - Exhaustive search

- Disadvantages
  - Hard to implement
  - Slows down parsing of correct programs
  - "Nearby" is not necessarily "the intended" program

#### **Error Corrections**

#### Past

- Slow recompilation cycle (even once a day)
- Find as many errors in once cycle as possible

### Disadvantages

- Quick recompilation cycle
- Users tend to correct one error/cycle
- Complex error recovery is less compelling

# Parsing algorithm: Recursive Descent Parsing

- The parse tree is constructed
  - From the top
  - From left to right

Terminals are seen in order of appearance in the token stream

# Parsing algorithm: Recursive Descent Parsing

- Grammar:
  - E -> T | T + E
  - T -> int I int \* T I ( E )
- Token Stream: (int<5>)

- Start with top level non-terminal E
  - Try the rules for E in order

## Recursive Descent Parsing Example

```
E -> T | T + E

T -> int | int * T | (E)

E

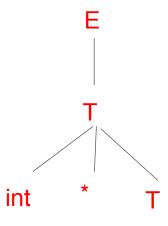
T

mismatch: int does not match arrowhead (backtrack
int
```

```
( int<5> ) ↑
```

$$E \rightarrow TIT + E$$

$$T \rightarrow int I int * TI(E)$$

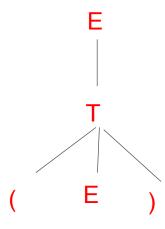


backtrack

```
( int<5> )
```

$$E \rightarrow TIT + E$$

$$T \rightarrow int I int * TI(E)$$



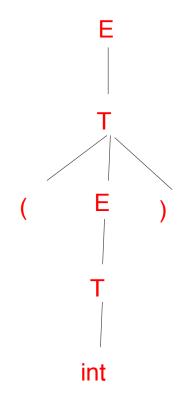
Match! Advance input

```
( int<5> ) ↑
```

$$E \rightarrow TIT + E$$

$$T \rightarrow int I int * TI(E)$$

(int<5>)

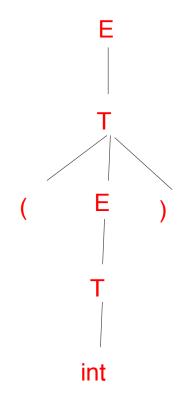


Match! Advance input

$$E \rightarrow TIT + E$$

$$T \rightarrow int I int * TI(E)$$

(int<5>)



Match! Advance input

### A Recursive Descent Parser. Preliminaries

- Let TOKEN be the type of tokens
  - Special tokens INT, OPEN, CLOSE, PLUS, TIMES •

Let the global next point to the next token

### A (Limited) Recursive Descent Parser

- Define boolean functions that check the token string for a match of
  - A given token terminal
    bool term (TOKEN tok) { return \*next++ == tok; }
  - The n<sup>th</sup> production of S: bool S<sub>n</sub>() { ... }
  - Try all productions of S: bool S() { ... }

### A (Limited) Recursive Descent Parser

```
■ For production E → T
 bool E<sub>1</sub>() { return T(); }
For production E → T + E
 bool E2() { return T() && term(PLUS) && E(); }

    For all productions of E (with backtracking)

 bool E() {
  TOKEN *save = next;
  return (next = save, E_1()) II (next = save, E_2());
```

### A (Limited) Recursive Descent Parser (4)

Functions for non-terminal T

```
bool T<sub>1</sub>() { return term(INT); }
bool T<sub>2</sub>() { return term(INT) && term(TIMES) && T(); }
bool T<sub>3</sub>() { return term(OPEN) && E() && term(CLOSE); }
bool T() {
        TOKEN *save = next;
        return (next = save, T_1())
     II (next = save, T_2())
           II (next = save, T_3());
```

## Recursive Descent Parsing

- To start the parser
  - Initialize next to point to first token
  - Invoke E() Notice how this simulates the example parse •

### Example

```
Grammar:
E \rightarrow TIT + E
T \rightarrow int I int * T I (E)
Input: (int)
Code:
bool term(TOKEN tok) { return *next++ == tok; }
bool E<sub>1</sub>() { return T(); }
bool E2() { return T() && term(PLUS) && E(); }
bool E() {TOKEN *save = next;
          return (next = save, E_1()) | (next = save, E_2()); }
bool T<sub>1</sub>() { return term(INT); }
bool T<sub>2</sub>() { return term(INT) && term(TIMES) && T(); }
bool T<sub>3</sub>() { return term(OPEN) && E() && term(CLOSE); }
bool T() { TOKEN *save = next;
     return (next = save, T_1())
           | | (next = save, T_2()) |
              (next = save, T_3()); }
                                                                                                      int
```

#### When Recursive Descent Does Not Work

```
Grammar:
E \rightarrow TIT + E
T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
Input: int * int
Code:
bool term(TOKEN tok) { return *next++ == tok; }
bool E<sub>1</sub>() { return T(); }
bool E2() { return T() && term(PLUS) && E(); }
bool E() {TOKEN *save = next;
          return (next = save, E_1()) | (next = save, E_2()); }
bool T<sub>1</sub>() { return term(INT); }
bool T<sub>2</sub>() { return term(INT) && term(TIMES) && T(); }
bool T<sub>3</sub>() { return term(OPEN) && E() && term(CLOSE); }
bool T() { TOKEN *save = next;
     return (next = save, T_1())
           | | (next = save, T_2()) |
              (next = save, T_3()); }
```

## Recursive Descent Parsing: Limitation

- If production for non-terminal X succeeds
  - Cannot backtrack to try different production for X later
- General recursive descent algorithms support such full backtracking
  - Can implement any grammar
- Presented RDA is not general
  - But easy to implement
- Sufficient for grammars where for any non-terminal at most one production can succeed
- The grammar can be rewritten to work with the presented algorithm
  - By left factoring

# Left Factoring

A -> 
$$\alpha\beta1$$
 |  $\alpha\beta2$ 

- The input begins with a nonempty string derived from  $\alpha$ , we do not know whether to expand A to  $\alpha\beta1$  or  $\alpha\beta2$ .
- We can defer the decision by expanding A to  $\alpha$ A'.
- Then, after seeing the input derived from  $\alpha$ , we expand A' to  $\beta 1$  or  $\beta 2$  (left-factored)
- The original productions become:

$$A \rightarrow \alpha A', A' \rightarrow \beta 1 \mid \beta 2$$

#### When Recursive Descent Does Not Work

- Consider a production S → S a bool S<sub>1</sub>() { return S() && term(a); } bool S() { return S<sub>1</sub>(); }
- S() goes into an infinite loop
- A left-recursive grammar has a non-terminal S

```
S \rightarrow + Sa for some a
```

Recursive descent does not work for left recursive grammar

### Elimination of Left Recursion

Consider the left-recursive grammar

$$S \rightarrow S \alpha I \beta$$

- S generates all strings starting with a  $\beta$  and followed by a number of  $\alpha$
- Can rewrite using right-recursion

$$S \rightarrow \beta S'$$

$$S' \rightarrow \alpha S' \mid \epsilon$$

### More Elimination of Left-Recursion

In general

$$S \rightarrow S \alpha_1 I \dots I S \alpha_n I \beta_1 I \dots I \beta_m$$

- All strings derived from S start with one of  $\beta_1,...,\beta_m$  and continue with several instances of  $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n$
- Rewrite as

$$S \rightarrow \beta_1 S' I \dots I \beta_m S'$$
  
 $S' \rightarrow \alpha_1 S' I \dots I \alpha_n S' I \epsilon$ 

### General Left Recursion

### The grammar

$$S \rightarrow A \alpha I \delta$$
  
 $A \rightarrow S \beta$   
is also left-recursive because  
 $S \rightarrow + S \beta \alpha$ 

This left-recursion can also be eliminated

## Summary of Recursive Descent

- Simple and general parsing strategy
  - Left-recursion must be eliminated first
  - ... but that can be done automatically
- Unpopular because of backtracking
  - Thought to be too inefficient
- In practice, backtracking is eliminated by restricting the grammar

#### **Predictive Parsers**

- Like recursive-descent but parser can "predict" which production to use
  - By looking at the next few tokens
  - No backtracking
- Predictive parsers accept LL(k) grammars
  - L means "left-to-right" scan of input
  - L means "leftmost derivation"
  - k means "predict based on k tokens of lookahead"
  - In practice, LL(1) is used

### LL(1) vs. Recursive Descent

- In recursive-descent
  - At each step, many choices of production to use
  - Backtracking used to undo bad choices
- In LL(1)
  - At each step, only one choice of production
  - That is
    - When a non-terminal A is leftmost in a derivation
    - The next input symbol is t
    - There is a unique production  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  to use
      - Or no production to use (an error state)
- LL(1) is a recursive descent variant without backtracking

# Predictive Parsing and Left Factoring

Recall the grammar

```
E \rightarrow T + E \mid T
T \rightarrow int \left| int * T \right| (E) •
```

- Hard to predict because
  - For T two productions start with int
  - For E it is not clear how to predict
- We need to left-factor the grammar

## Left-Factoring Example

#### Grammar

$$E \rightarrow T + E I T$$
  
T \rightarrow int I int \* T I (E)

Factor out common prefixes of productions

$$E \rightarrow T X$$
  
 $X \rightarrow + E I \epsilon$   
 $T \rightarrow (E) I int Y$   
 $Y \rightarrow * T I \epsilon$ 

## LL(1) Parsing Table Example

### Left-factored grammar

$$E \rightarrow T X$$
  
 $X \rightarrow + E \mid \epsilon$   
 $T \rightarrow (E) \mid int Y$   
 $Y \rightarrow * T \mid \epsilon$ 

### ■ The LL(1) parsing table:

		next input tokens							
Left-most		int	*	+	(	)	\$		
	Ε	TX			TX				
non- terminals	X			+E		3	3		
	Т	int Y			(E)				
	Υ		*T	3		3	3		

## LL(1) Parsing Table Example (Cont.)

- Consider the [E, int] entry
  - "When current non-terminal is E and next input is int, use production E → T X"
  - This can generate an int in the first position
- Consider the [Y,+] entry
  - "When current non-terminal is Y and current token is +, get rid of Y"
  - Y can be followed by + only if Y → ε

## LL(1) Parsing Tables. Errors

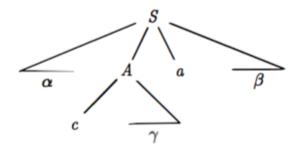
- Blank entries indicate error situations
- Consider the [E,\*] entry
  - "There is no way to derive a string starting with \* from non-terminal E"

## Using Parsing Tables

- Method similar to recursive descent, except
  - For the leftmost non-terminal S
  - We look at the next input token a
  - And choose the production shown at [S,a]
- A stack records frontier of parse tree
  - Non-terminals that have yet to be expanded
  - Terminals that have yet to match against the input
  - Top of stack = leftmost pending terminal or non-terminal
- Reject on reaching error state
- Accept on end of input & empty stack

### First & Follow

- During top down parsing, FIRST and FOLLOW allow us to choose which production to apply, based on the next input symbol.
- FIRST( $\alpha$ ),  $\alpha$  is any string of grammar symbols
  - A set of terminals that begin strings derived from  $\alpha$ .
  - If  $\alpha \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} \epsilon$ , then  $\epsilon$  is in FIRST( $\alpha$ ).
  - if  $\alpha \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} cY$ , the c is in FIRST( $\alpha$ ).



- FOLLOW(A), A is a nonterminal
  - the set of terminals that can appear immediately to the right of A.
  - A set of terminals "a" such that S  $\stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} \alpha A a \beta$  for some  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

## Constructing Parsing Tables: The Intuition

- Consider non-terminal A, production A  $\rightarrow \alpha$ , & token t
- $T[A,t] = \alpha$  in two cases:
- If  $\alpha \rightarrow^* t \beta$ 
  - α can derive a t in the first position
  - We say that t ∈ First(α)
- If A  $\rightarrow$  α and α  $\rightarrow$ \* ε and S  $\rightarrow$ \* β A t δ
  - Useful if stack has A, input is t, and A cannot derive t
  - In this case only option is to get rid of A (by deriving ε)
  - We say t ∈ Follow(A)

## Computing First Sets

#### Definition

First(X) = { t | X  $\to$ \* ta}  $\cup$  { $\epsilon$  | X  $\to$ \*  $\epsilon$ }, X can be single terminal, single non-terminal, or string including both

- Algorithm sketch:
- 1. First(t) =  $\{t\}$ , t is terminal
- 2.  $\epsilon \in First(X)$ 
  - if  $X \to \varepsilon$
  - if  $X \to A_1 \dots A_n$  and ε ∈ First( $A_i$ ) for  $1 \le i \le n$
- 3. First( $\alpha$ )  $\subseteq$  First(X) if X  $\rightarrow$  A<sub>1</sub> ... A<sub>n</sub>  $\alpha$ 
  - $\varepsilon \in First(A_i)$  for  $1 \le i \le n$

### First Sets. Example

#### grammar

$$E \rightarrow T X$$
  
 $X \rightarrow + E \mid \varepsilon$   
 $T \rightarrow (E) \mid \text{int } Y$   
 $Y \rightarrow * T \mid \varepsilon$ 

#### First sets

First( E ) 
$$\supseteq$$
 = First( T ) = {int, ( }  
First( X ) = {+,  $\varepsilon$  }  
First( Y ) = {\*,  $\varepsilon$  }

## Computing Follow Sets

Definition:

```
Follow(X) = { t | S \rightarrow* \beta X t \delta }
```

- Intuition:
  - If X → A B then First(B) ⊆ Follow(A) and Follow(X) ⊆ Follow(B)
  - If B  $\rightarrow$ \* ε then Follow(X) ⊆ Follow(A)
  - If S is the start symbol then \$ ∈ Follow(S)

# Computing Follow Sets (Cont.)

### Algorithm sketch:

- 1.  $\$ \in Follow(S)$
- 2. First( $\beta$ ) { $\epsilon$ }  $\subseteq$  Follow(X)
  - For each production  $A \rightarrow \alpha X \beta$
- 3.  $Follow(A) \subseteq Follow(X)$ 
  - For each production  $A \rightarrow \alpha X \beta$  where  $\epsilon \in First(\beta)$

### Follow Sets. Example

Recall the grammar

```
E \rightarrow TX X \rightarrow + E I \epsilon

T \rightarrow (E) I int Y Y \rightarrow * T I \epsilon
```

Follow sets

```
Follow( + ) = { int, ( }
Follow( ( ) = { int, ( }
Follow( * ) = { int, ( }
Follow( * ) = { int, ( }
Follow( T ) = {+, ) , $}
Follow( ) ) = {+, ) , $}
Follow( int) = {*, +, ) , $}.
Follow( X ) = {$, ) }
```

# Constructing LL(1) Parsing Tables

- Construct a parsing table T for CFG G
- For each production  $A \rightarrow a$  in G do:
  - For each terminal  $t \in First(\alpha)$  do
    - T[A, t] = a
  - If  $\varepsilon \in First(\alpha)$ , for each  $t \in Follow(A)$  do
    - $T[A, t] = \alpha$
  - If  $\varepsilon \in First(\alpha)$  and  $\$ \in Follow(A)$  do
    - $T[A, \$] = \alpha$

# LL(1) Parsing Table Example

#### Left-factored grammar

$$E \rightarrow T X$$
  
 $X \rightarrow + E \mid \epsilon$   
 $T \rightarrow (E) \mid \text{int } Y$   
 $Y \rightarrow * T \mid \epsilon$ 

#### ■ The LL(1) parsing table:

#### Rules:

For each production  $A \to \alpha$  in G do:
 For each terminal  $t \in First(\alpha)$  do
  $T[A, t] = \alpha$  If  $\epsilon \in First(\alpha)$ , for each  $t \in Follow(A)$  do
  $T[A, t] = \alpha$  If  $\epsilon \in First(\alpha)$  and  $\epsilon \in Follow(A)$  do
  $T[A, \epsilon] = \alpha$ 

		next input tokens							
Left-most		int	*	+	(	)	\$		
	Ε	TX			TX				
non- terminals	X			+E		3	3		
	Т	int Y			(E)				
	Υ		*T	3		3	3		

## Notes on LL(1) Parsing Tables

- If any entry is multiply defined then G is not LL(1) [Eg: S->Salb]
  - If G is ambiguous
  - If G is left recursive
  - If G is not left-factored
  - other: e.g., LL(2)
- Most programming language CFGs are not LL(1)
  - too weak
  - However they build on these basic ideas

# Bottom-Up Parsing

- Bottom-up parsing is more general than (deterministic) top-down parsing
  - just as efficient
  - Builds on ideas in top-down parsing
- Bottom-up parsers don't need left-factored grammars
- Revert to the "natural" grammar for our example:

```
E \rightarrow T + E \mid T
T \rightarrow int * T \rightarrow int | (E) •
```

Consider the string: int \* int + int

# Bottom-Up Parsing

• Revert to the "natural" grammar for our example:

```
E \rightarrow T + E \mid T

T \rightarrow int * T \mid int \mid (E) .
```

- Consider the string: int \* int + int
- Bottom-up parsing reduces a string to the start symbol by inverting productions:

```
int * int + int T \rightarrow int

int * T + int T \rightarrow int * T

T + int T \rightarrow int

T + T

T + T

E \rightarrow T

T + E
```

### Observation

 $\mathbf{E}$ 

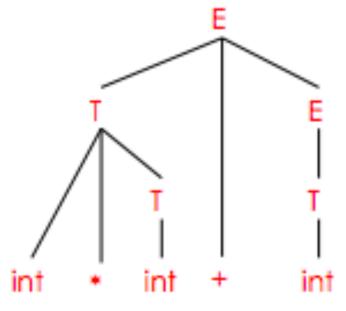
- Read the productions in reverse (from bottom to top)
- This is a rightmost derivation!

int * int + int	T → int
int * T + int	T → int * T
T + int	T → int
T + T	$E \rightarrow T$
T + E	$E \rightarrow T + E$

### Bottom-Up Parsing

A bottom-up parser traces a rightmost derivation in reverse

$$T \rightarrow int$$
 $T \rightarrow int * T$ 
 $T \rightarrow int$ 
 $E \rightarrow T$ 
 $E \rightarrow T + E$ 



# A trivial Bottom-Up Parsing Algorithm

```
Let I = input string repeat pick a non-empty substring \beta of I where X \rightarrow \beta is a production if no such \beta, backtrack replace one \beta by X in I until I = "S" (the start symbol) or all possibilities are exhausted
```

### Bottom-Up Parsing

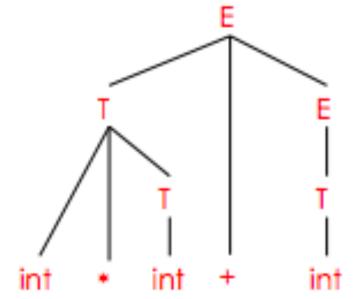
$$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$$
 $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T$ 

```
E
T + E
T + T
T + int
int * T + int
int * int + int
```

**Expand Here** 

Terminals Only

- Split string into two substrings
  - Right substring is not examined yet by parsing (a string of terminals)
  - Left substring has terminals and non-terminals
- The dividing point is marked by a l
  - The I is not part of the string
- Initially, all input is unexamined I x<sub>1</sub>x<sub>2</sub> . . . x<sub>n</sub>



### Where Do Reductions Happen?

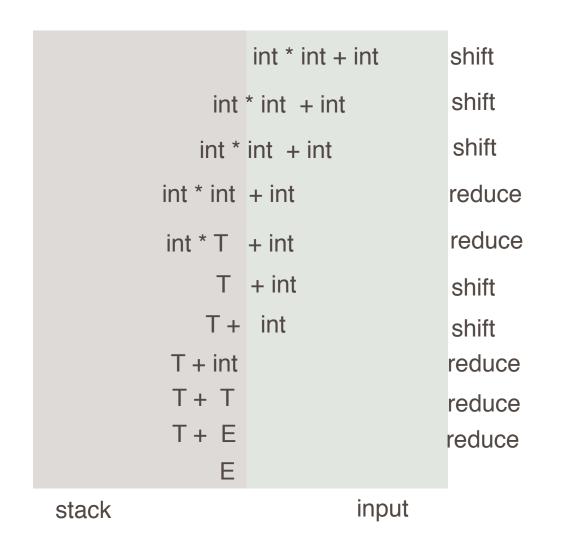
- Right-most derivation has an interesting consequence:
  - Let αβω be a step of a bottom-up parse
  - Assume the next reduction is by  $X \rightarrow \beta$
  - Then  $\omega$  is a string of terminals
- Why? Because  $\alpha X \omega \rightarrow \alpha \beta \omega$  is a step in a rightmost derivation

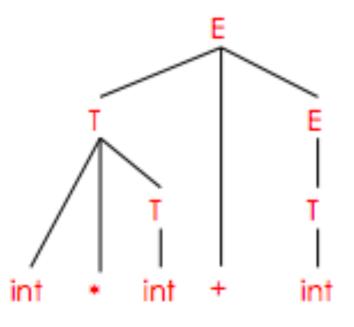
# Shift-Reduce Parsing

- Bottom-up parsing uses only two kinds of actions:
  - Shift
  - Reduce
- Shift: Move I one place to the right
  - Shifts a terminal to the left string ABClxyz ⇒ ABCxlyz
- Reduce: Apply an inverse production at the right end of the left string
  - If A → xy is a production, then Cbxylijk ⇒ CbAlijk

# The Example with Reductions Only

# An Example with Shift-Reduce Parsing





#### The Stack

- Left string can be implemented by a stack
  - Top of the stack is the I
- Shift pushes a terminal on the stack
- Reduce
  - pops 0 or more symbols off of the stack (production rhs)
  - pushes a nonterminal on the stack (production lhs)

#### **Conflicts**

- In a given state, more than one action (shift or reduce) may lead to a valid parse
- If it is legal to shift or reduce, there is a shift-reduce conflict
- If it is legal to reduce by two different productions, there is a reduce-reduce conflict.

### Key Issue

- How do we decide when to shift or reduce?
- Example grammar:

```
E \rightarrow T + E \mid T
T \rightarrow int * T \rightarrow int | (E)
```

- Consider step int I \* int + int
  - We could reduce by T → int giving T I \* int + int
  - A fatal mistake!
    - No way to reduce to the start symbol E

### Handles

- Intuition: Want to reduce only if the result can still be reduced to the start symbol.
- Assume a rightmost derivation

$$S \rightarrow^* \alpha X \omega \rightarrow \alpha \beta \omega$$

- Then  $X \rightarrow \beta$  in the position after α is a handle of  $\alpha\beta\omega$ 
  - αβ is a handle of αβω

#### Handles

- A handle is a string that can be reduced and also allows further reductions back to the start symbol (using a particular production at a specific spot)
- We only want to reduce at handles
- In shift-reduce parsing, handles appear only at the top of the stack, never inside
- Informal induction on # of reduce moves:
- True initially, stack is empty
- Immediately after reducing a handle
  - right-most non-terminal on top of the stack
  - next handle must be to right of right-most nonterminal, because this is a right-most derivation
  - Sequence of shift moves reaches next handle

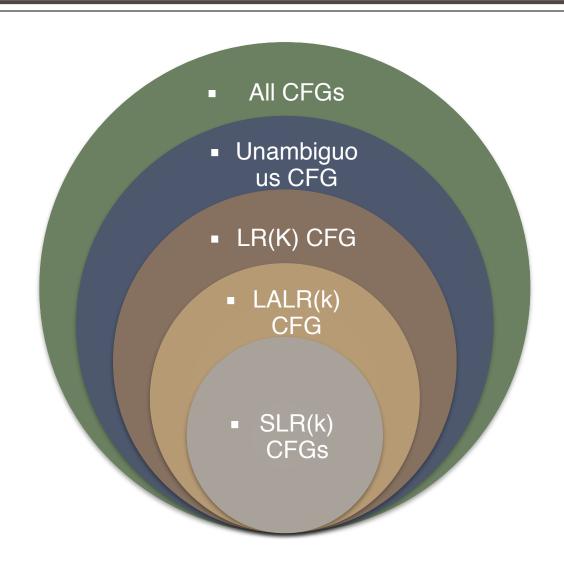
# Summary of Handles

- In shift-reduce parsing, handles always appear at the top of the stack
- Handles are never to the left of the rightmost non-terminal
  - Therefore, shift-reduce moves are sufficient; the I need never move left
- Bottom-up parsing algorithms are based on recognizing handles

# Recognizing Handles

- There are no known efficient algorithms to recognize handles
- Solution: use heuristics to guess which stacks are handles
- On some CFGs, the heuristics always guess correctly
  - For the heuristics we use here, these are the SLR grammars
  - Other heuristics work for other grammars

### Grammars

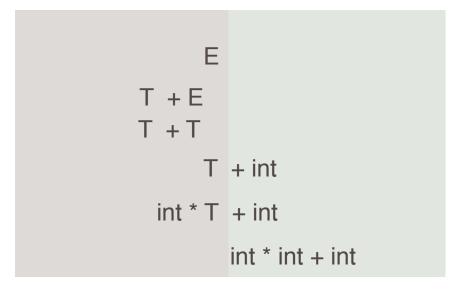


#### Viable Prefixes

- $\alpha$  is a viable prefix if there is an  $\omega$  such that  $\alpha I \omega$  is a state of a shift-reduce parser
  - α is stack
  - ω is rest of the inputs
- A viable prefix does not extend past the right end of the handle
- It's a viable prefix because it is a prefix of the handle
- As long as a parser has viable prefixes on the stack no parsing error has been detected
- For any grammar, the set of variable prefixes is a regular language
  - we can compute an automata that accepts variable prefixes

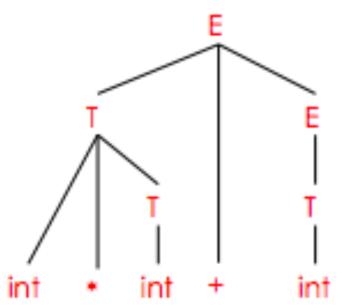
### Viable Prefixes

$$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$$
 $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T$ 



viable prefixes

**Terminals** 



#### **Items**

- An item is a production with a "." somewhere on the rhs
- The items for  $T \rightarrow (E)$  are

```
T \rightarrow .(E)
T \rightarrow (.E)
T \rightarrow (E.)
T \rightarrow (E)
```

- The only item for  $X \to \epsilon$  is  $X \to .$
- Items are often called "LR(0) items"

#### Intuition

- The problem of recognizing viable prefixes is that the stack has only bits and pieces of the rhs of productions
- If it had a complete rhs, we could reduce
- These bits and pieces are always prefixes of rhs of productions

### Example

- Consider the input (int)
  - Then (E) is a state of a shift-reduce parse
  - (E is a prefix of the rhs of T → (E)
    - Will be reduced after the next shift
  - Item T → (E.) says that so far we have seen (E of this production and hope to see )

#### Generalization

- The stack may have many prefixes of rhs's
  - Prefix<sub>1</sub> Prefix<sub>2</sub> . . . Prefix<sub>n-1</sub> Prefix<sub>n</sub>
- Let Prefix<sub>i</sub> be a prefix of rhs of  $X_i \rightarrow \alpha_i$ 
  - Prefix, will eventually reduce to X,
  - The missing part of α<sub>i-1</sub> starts with X<sub>i</sub>
  - i.e. there is a  $X_{i-1}$  → Prefix<sub>i-1</sub>  $X_i$  β for some β
- Recursively,  $Prefix_{k+1}$ ... $Prefix_n$  eventually reduces to the missing part of  $\alpha_k$

# An Example

- Consider the string (int \* int):
  - (int \*lint) is a state of a shift-reduce parse
  - "(" is a prefix of the rhs of  $T \rightarrow (E)$
  - " $\epsilon$ " is a prefix of the rhs of E  $\rightarrow$  T
  - "int \*" is a prefix of the rhs of T → int \* T
- The "stack of items"
  - T → (.E)
  - E → .T
  - T → int \* .T
- Says
  - We've seen "(" of  $T \rightarrow (E)$
  - We've seen  $\varepsilon$  of  $E \to T$
  - We've seen int \* of T → int \* T

# Recognizing Viable Prefixes

- Idea: To recognize viable prefixes, we must
  - Recognize a sequence of partial rhs's of productions, where
  - Each sequence can eventually reduce to part of the missing suffix of its predecessor

# An NFA Recognizing Viable Prefixes

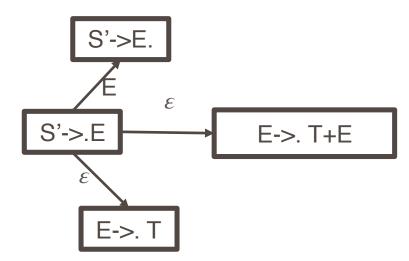
- 1. Add a dummy production  $S' \rightarrow S$  to G
- 2. The NFA states are the items of G
  - Including the extra production
  - NFA takes the stack as input
  - NFA(stack) -> acceptlreject
- 3. For item  $E \rightarrow \alpha.X\beta$  add transition  $E \rightarrow \alpha.X\beta \rightarrow X E \rightarrow \alpha X.\beta$
- 4. For item  $E \to \alpha.X\beta$  and production  $X \to \gamma$  add  $E \to \alpha.X\beta \to \epsilon X \to .\gamma$
- 5. Every state is an accepting state
- 6. Start state is  $S' \rightarrow .S$

# Recognizing VP

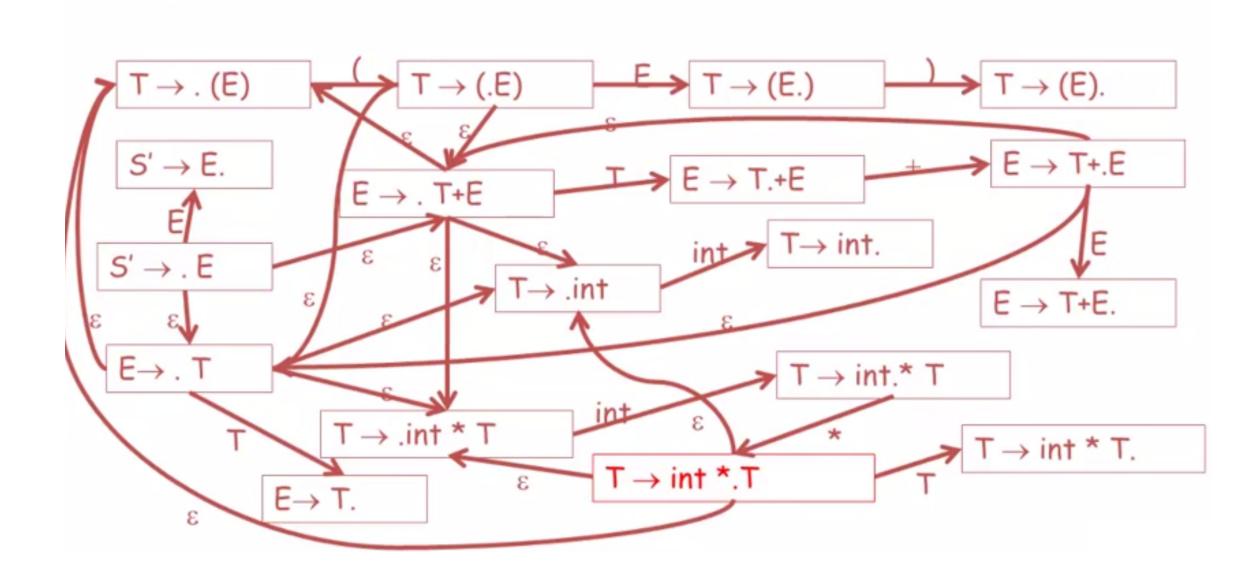
S'->E

E ->T+EIT

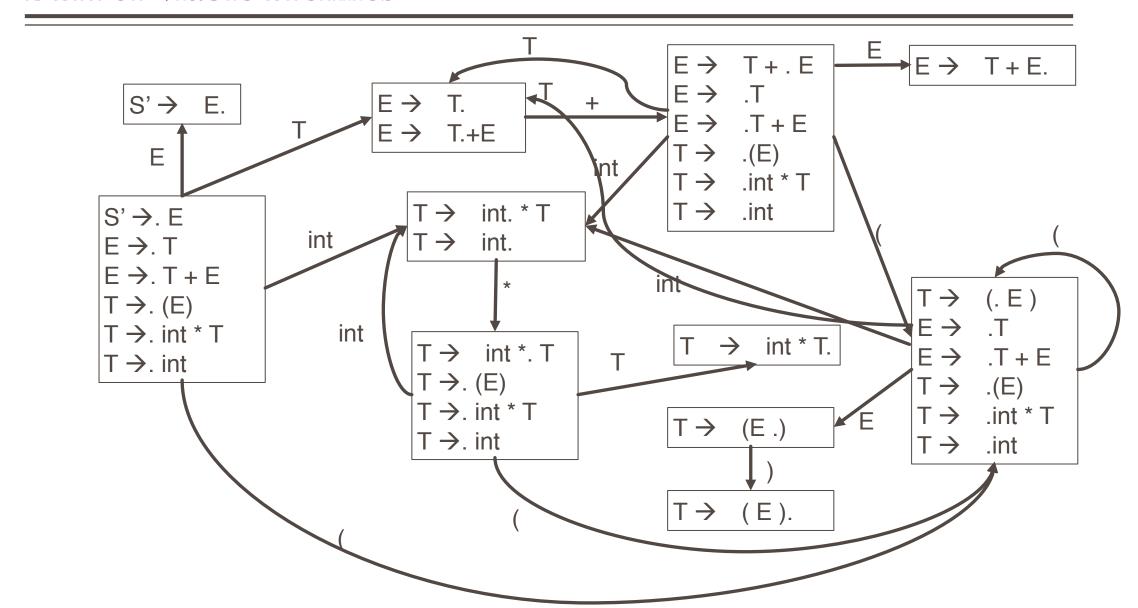
T->int\*Tlintl(E)



### NFA of Viable Prefixes



#### **DFA** of Viable Prefixes



### **DFA** of Viable Prefixes

#### The states of the DFA are

"canonical collections of items"

or

"canonical collections of LR(0) items"

#### Valid Items

- Item  $X \to \beta.\gamma$  is valid for a viable prefix  $\alpha\beta$  if
  - $S' \rightarrow^* \alpha X \omega \rightarrow \alpha \beta \gamma \omega$  by a right-most derivation
- After parsing αβ, the valid items are the possible tops of the stack of items
- An item I is valid for a viable prefix α if the DFA recognizing viable prefixes terminates on input α in a state s containing I
- The items in s describe what the top of the item stack might be after reading input α
- An item is often valid for many prefixes

# LR(o) Parsing

#### Assume

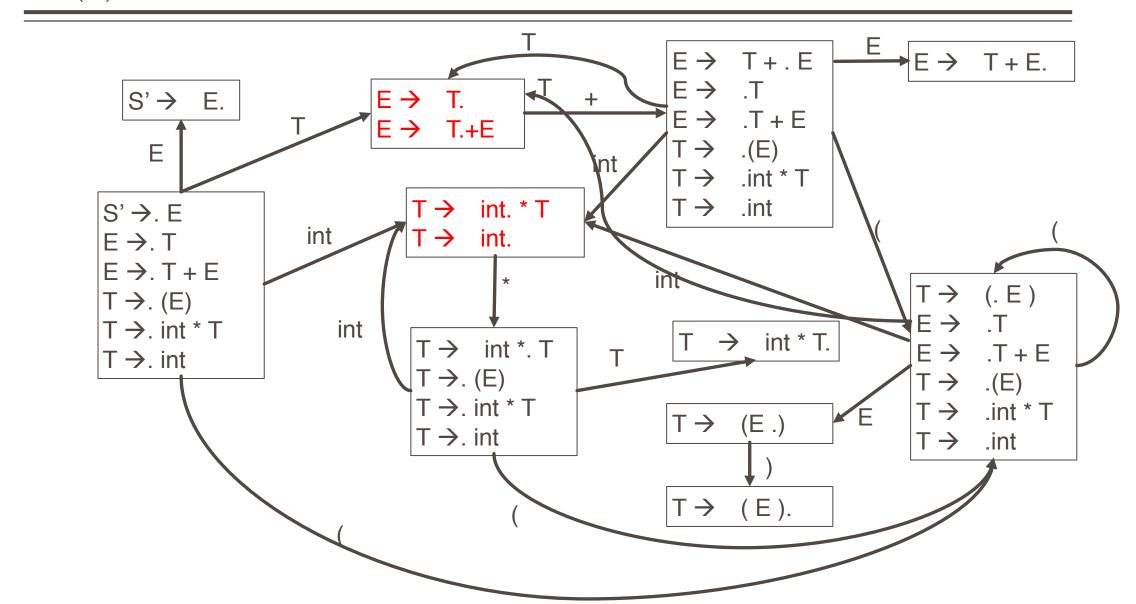
- stack contains a
- next input is t
- DFA on input α terminates in state s
- Reduce by  $X \rightarrow \beta$  if
  - s contains item  $X \rightarrow \beta$ .
- Shift if
  - s contains item  $X \rightarrow \beta.t\omega$
  - equivalent to saying s has a transition labeled t

### LR(o) Conflicts

- LR(0) has a reduce/reduce conflict if:
  - Any state has two reduce items:
  - $X \rightarrow \beta$ . and  $Y \rightarrow \omega$ .

- LR(0) has a shift/reduce conflict if:
  - Any state has a reduce item and a shift item:
  - $X \rightarrow \beta$ . and  $Y \rightarrow \omega.t\delta$

LR(o) Conflicts: Two shift-reduce conflicts



### SLR

- LR = "Left-to-right scan"
- SLR = "Simple LR"

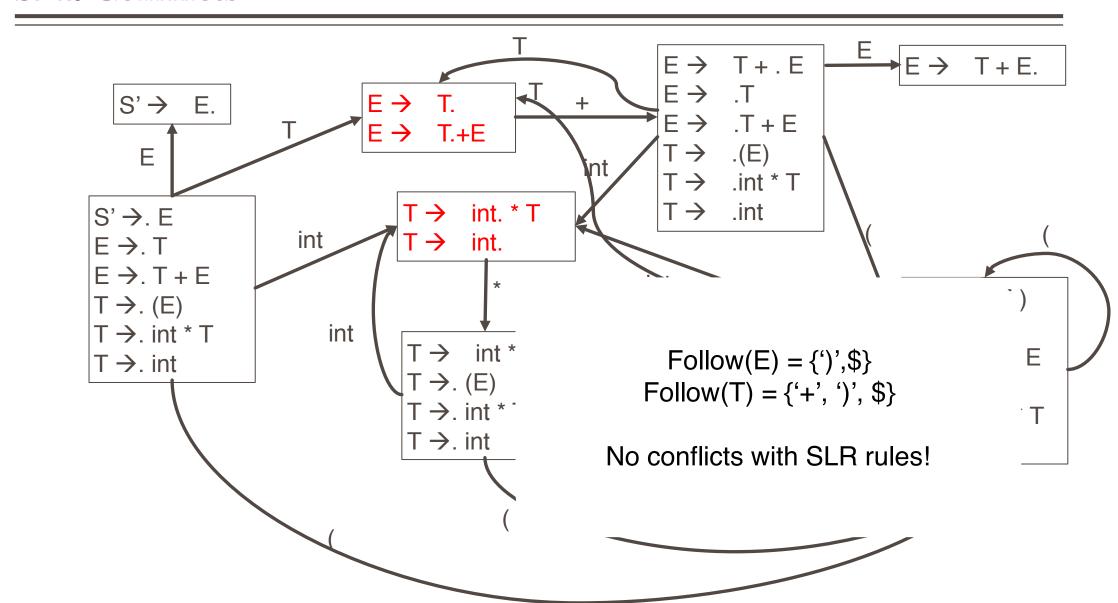
- SLR improves on LR(0) shift/reduce heuristics
  - Fewer states have conflicts

#### SLR Parsing

- Assume
  - stack contains a
  - next input is t
  - DFA on input α terminates in state s
- Reduce by  $X \rightarrow \beta$  if
  - s contains item  $X \rightarrow \beta$ .
  - t ∈ Follow(X)
- Shift if
  - s contains item  $X \rightarrow \beta.t\omega$

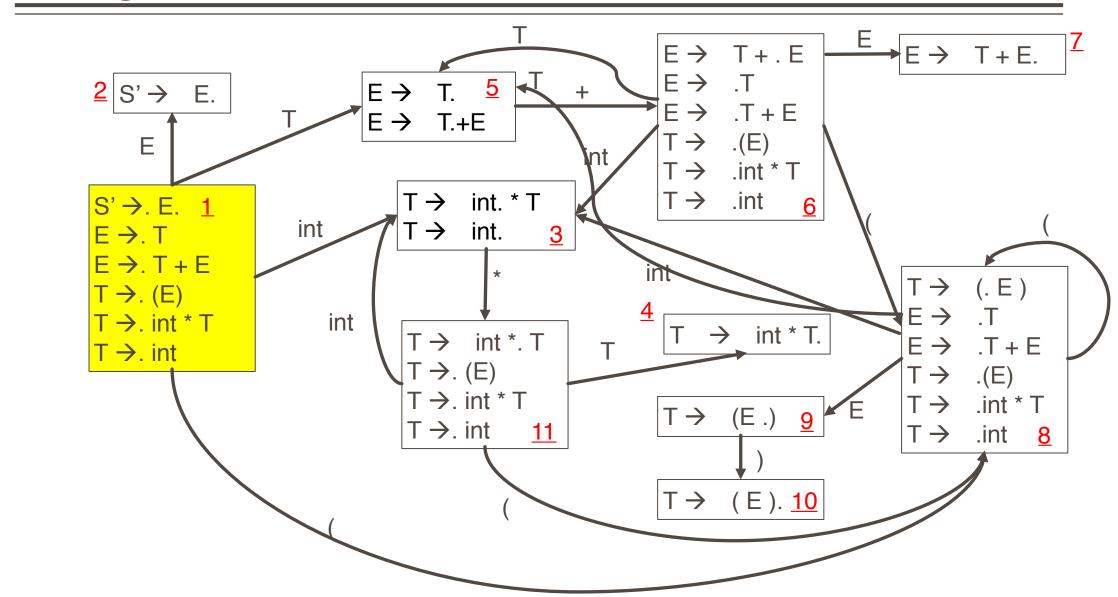
- If there are conflicts under these rules, the grammar is not SLR
- The rules amount to a heuristic for detecting handles
  - The SLR grammars are those where the heuristics detect exactly the handles

#### **SLR Conflicts**

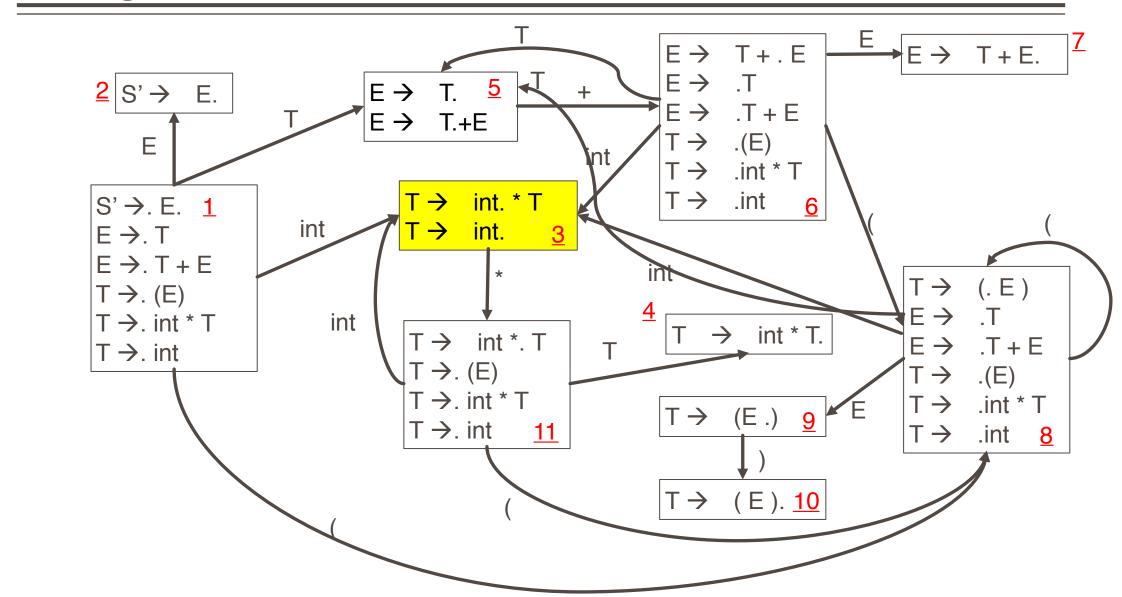


### Naïve SLR Parsing Algorithm

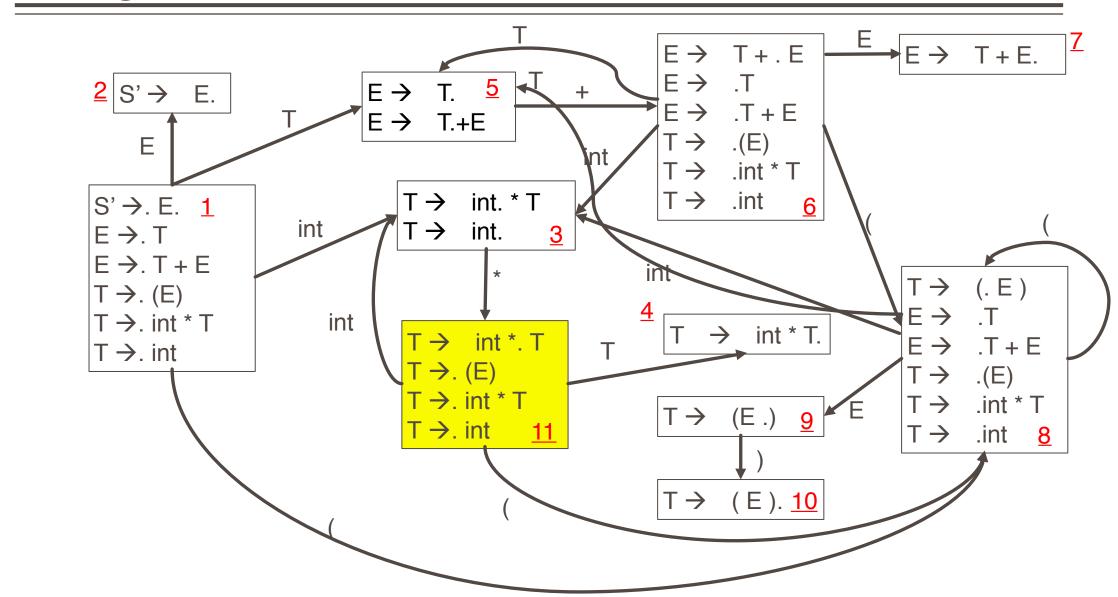
- 1. Let M be DFA for viable prefixes of G
- 2. Let  $lx_1...x_n$ \$ be initial configuration
- 3. Repeat until configuration is SI\$
  - Let αlω be current configuration
  - Run M on current stack α
  - If M rejects α, report parsing error
    - Stack α is not a viable prefix
  - If M accepts α with items I, let a be next input
    - Shift if  $X \to \beta$ . a  $\gamma \in I$
    - Reduce if  $X \to \beta$ . ∈ I and a ∈ Follow(X)
    - Report parsing error if neither applies



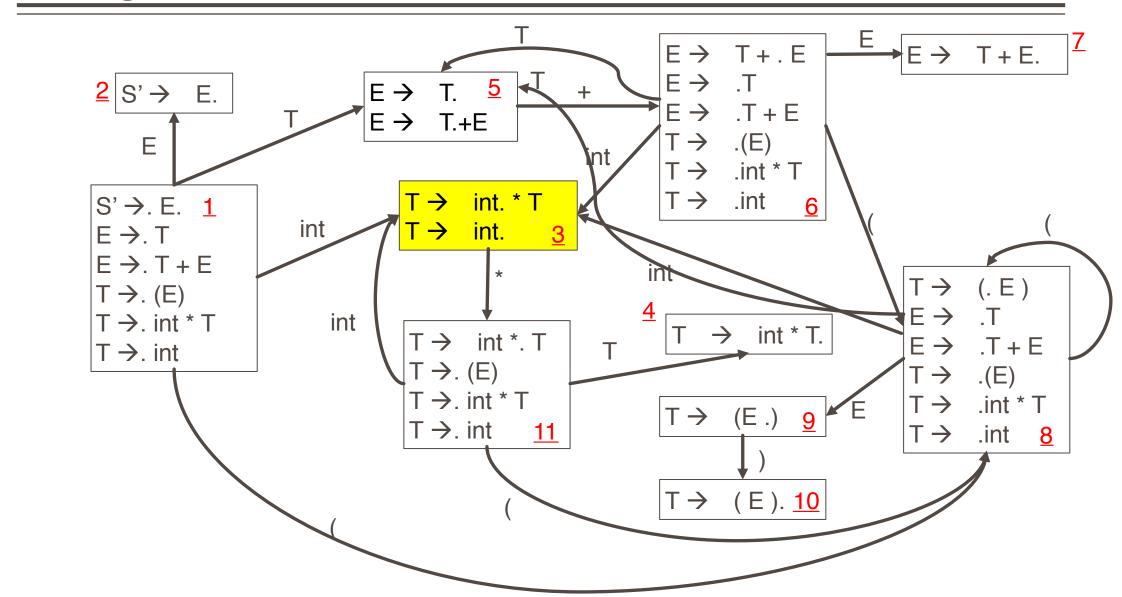
Configuration	DFA Halt State	Action
lint * int\$	1	shift
int I * int\$		



Configuration	DFA Halt State	Action
lint * int\$	1	shift
int I * int\$	3 ( * not in Follow(T))	shift
int * I int\$		

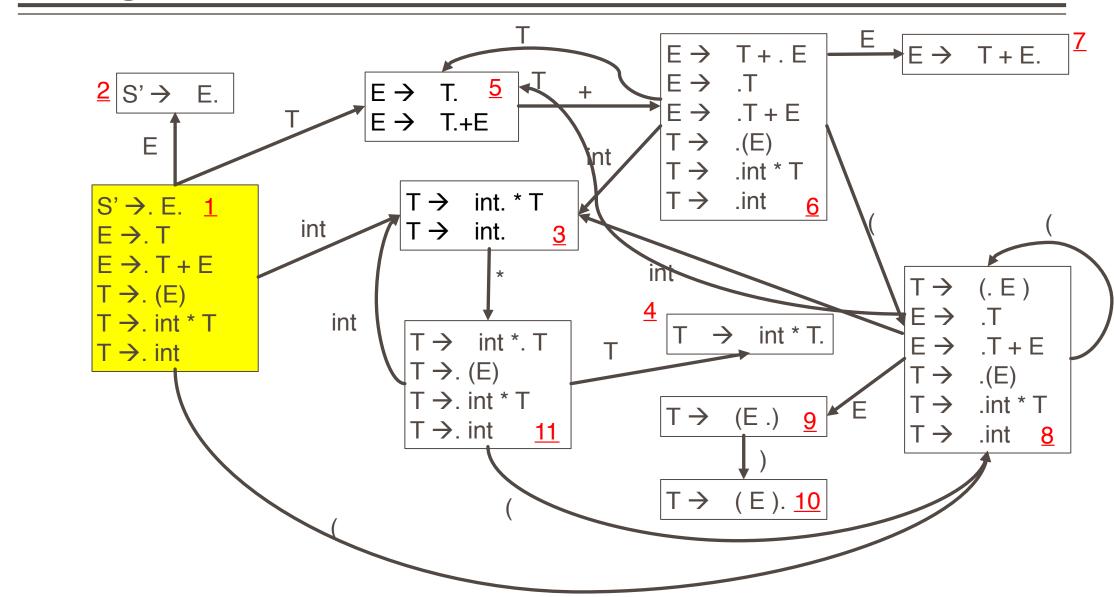


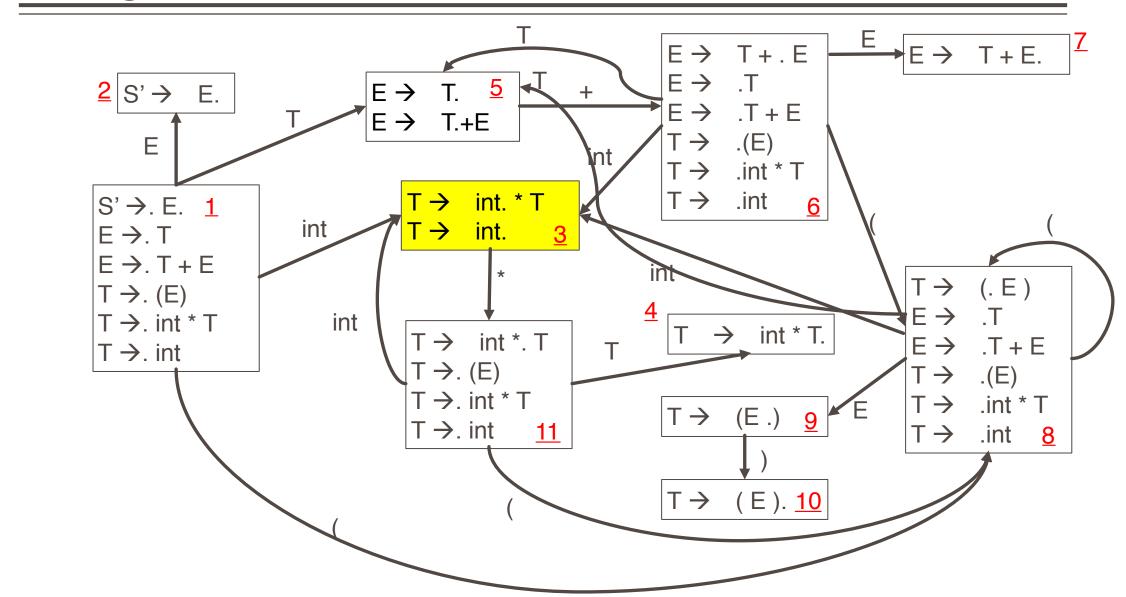
Configuration	DFA Halt State	Action
lint * int\$	1	shift
int I * int\$	3 ( * not in Follow(T))	shift
int * I int\$	11	shift
int * int I \$		

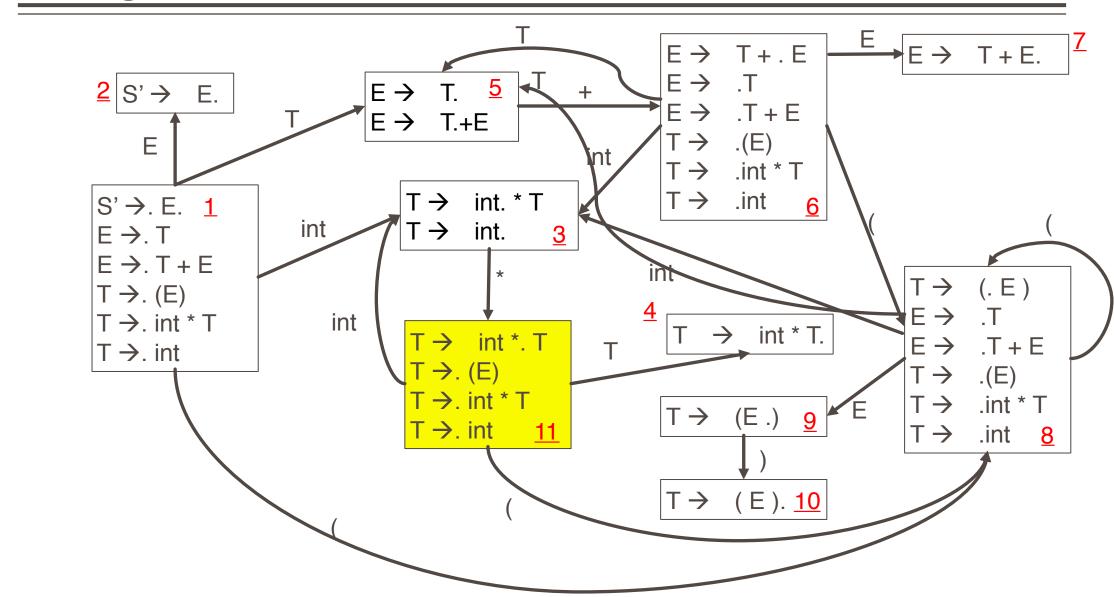


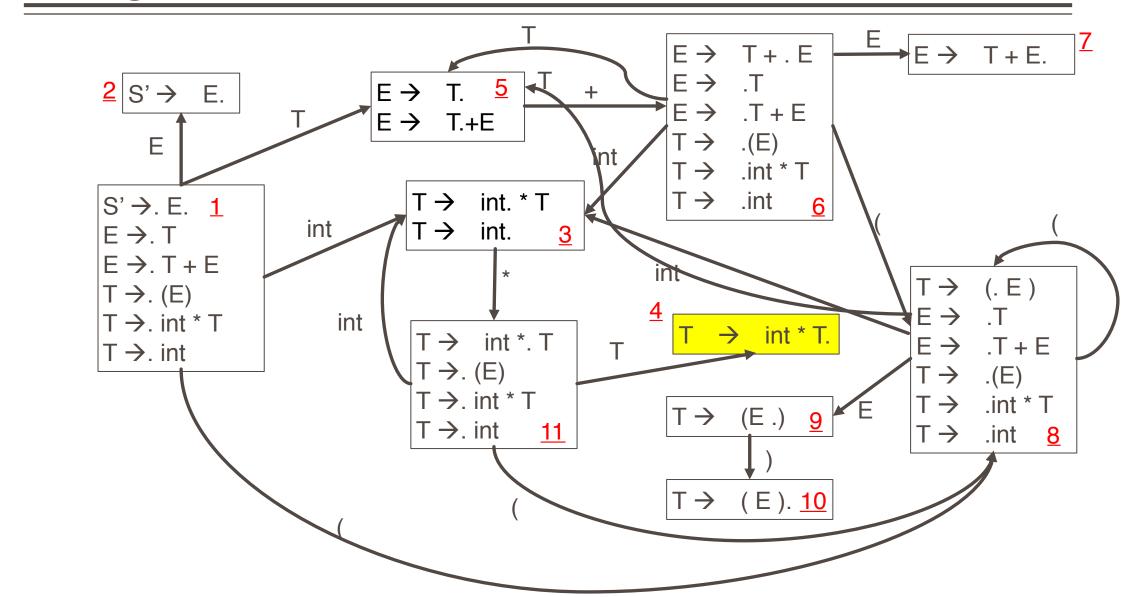
Configuration	DFA Halt State	Action
lint * int\$	1	shift
int I * int\$	3 ( * not in Follow(T))	shift
int * I int\$	11	shift
int * int I \$	3 (\$ Follow (T))	reduce T->int

Configuration	DFA Halt State	Action
lint * int\$	1	shift
int I * int\$	3 ( * not in Follow(T))	shift
int * I int\$	11	shift
int * int   \$	3 (\$ Follow (T))	reduce T->int
int * T I \$		



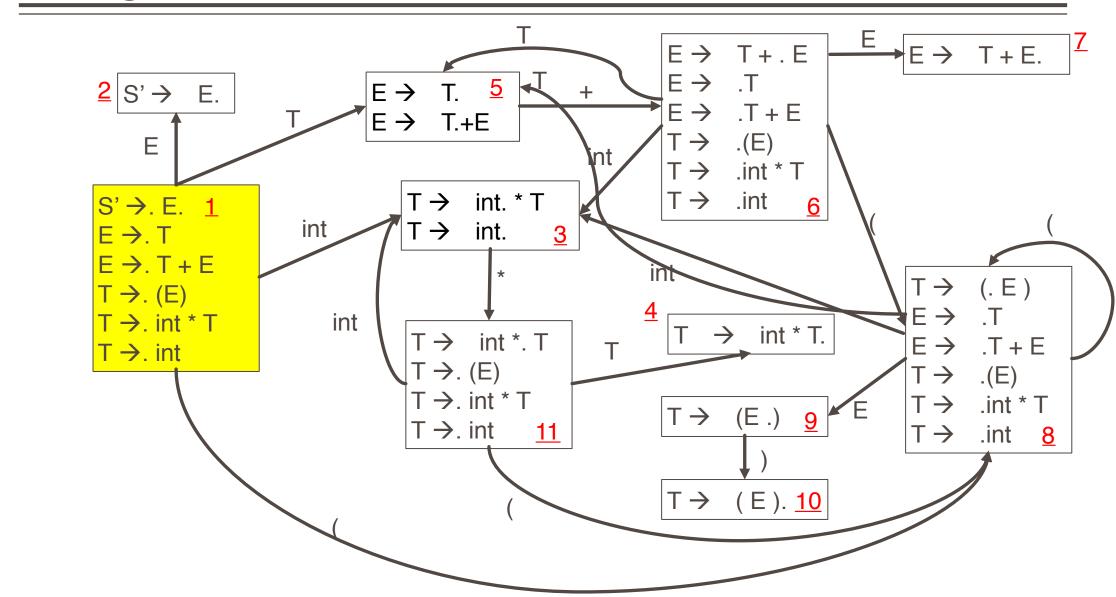


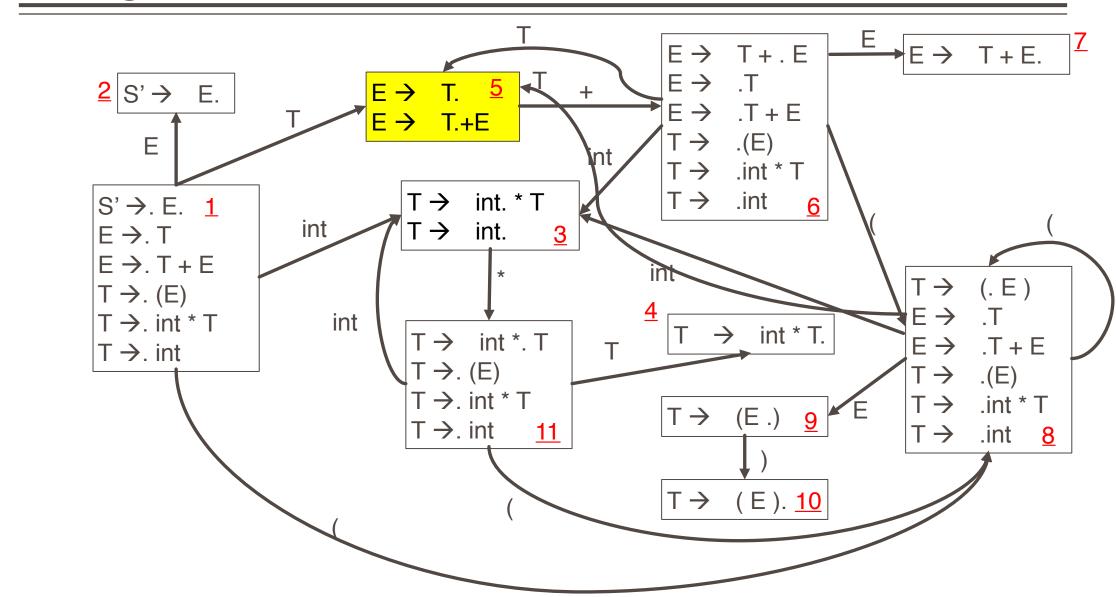




Configuration	DFA Halt State	Action
lint * int\$	1	shift
int I * int\$	3 ( * not in Follow(T))	shift
int * I int\$	11	shift
int * int I \$	3 (\$ Follow (T))	reduce T->int
int * T I \$	4 (\$ Follow (T))	reduce T-> int * T

Configuration	DFA Halt State	Action
lint * int\$	1	shift
int I * int\$	3 ( * not in Follow(T))	shift
int * I int\$	11	shift
int * int I \$	3 (\$ Follow (T))	reduce T->int
int * T I \$	4 (\$ Follow (T))	reduce T-> int * T
TI\$		





Configuration	DFA Halt State	Action
lint * int\$	1	shift
int I * int\$	3 ( * not in Follow(T))	shift
int * I int\$	11	shift
int * int I \$	3 (\$ Follow (T))	reduce T->int
int * T I \$	4 (\$ Follow (T))	reduce T-> int * T
TI\$	5 (\$ Follow (E))	reduce E-> T

Configuration	DFA Halt State	Action
lint * int\$	1	shift
int I * int\$	3 ( * not in Follow(T))	shift
int * I int\$	11	shift
int * int   \$	3 (\$ Follow (T))	reduce T->int
int * T I \$	4 (\$ Follow (T))	reduce T-> int * T
TI\$	5 (\$ Follow (E))	reduce E-> T
EI\$		accept

#### An Improvement

- Rerunning the automaton at each step is wasteful
  - Most of the work is repeated
- Change stack to contain pairs \langle Symbol, DFA State \rangle
  - DFA State is the state of the automaton on each prefix of the stack
- For a stack ⟨ sym<sub>1</sub>, state<sub>1</sub> ⟩ . . . ⟨ sym<sub>n</sub>, state<sub>n</sub> ⟩
  - state<sub>n</sub> is the final state of the DFA on sym<sub>1</sub> ... sym<sub>n</sub>
- The bottom of the stack is (any, start) where
  - any is any dummy symbol
  - start is the start state of the DFA

#### Goto Table

- Define goto[i,A] = j if state<sub>i</sub>  $\rightarrow$  A state<sub>j</sub>
- goto is the transition function of the DFA

#### Refined Parser Moves

- Shift x
  - Push 〈a, x〉 on the stack
  - a is current input
  - x is a DFA state
- Reduce  $X \rightarrow \alpha$ 
  - As before
- Accept
- Error

#### **Action Table**

- For each state s<sub>i</sub> and terminal a
  - If  $s_i$  has item  $X \to \alpha.a\beta$  and goto[i,a] = j then action[i,a] = shift j
  - If  $s_i$  has item  $X \to \alpha$ . and  $a \in Follow(X)$  and  $X \neq S'$  then action[i,a] = reduce  $X \to \alpha$
  - If  $s_i$  has item  $S' \rightarrow S$ . then action[i,\$] = accept
  - Otherwise, action[i,a] = error

#### SLR Parsing Algorithm

```
Let I = w$ be initial input
Let j = 0
Let DFA state 1 have item S' \rightarrow .S
Let stack = \langle dummy, 1 \rangle
         repeat
                   case action[top_state(stack),I[j]] of
                             shift k: push \langle I[j++], k \rangle
                             reduce X \rightarrow A:
                                       pop IAI pairs,
                                       push <X, goto[top_state(stack),X]>
                             accept: halt normally
                             error: halt and report error
```

#### Notes on SLR Parsing Algorithm

- Note that the algorithm uses only the DFA states and the input
  - The stack symbols are never used! •
  - However, we still need the symbols for semantic actions

#### L, R, and all that

- LR parser: "Bottom-up parser"
- L = Left-to-right scan, R = Rightmost derivation
- RR parser: R = Right-to-left scan (from end)
  - nobody uses these
- LL parser: "Top-down parser":
- L = Left-to-right scan: L = Leftmost derivation
- LR(1): LR parser that considers next token (lookahead of 1)
- LR(0): Only considers stack to decide shift/reduce
- SLR(1): Simple LR: lookahead from first/follow rules Derived from LR(0) automaton
- LALR(1): Lookahead LR(1): fancier lookahead analysis Uses same LR(0) automaton as SLR(1)