# Parsers

## What is a parser

• A parser has two jobs:

I) Determine whether a string (program) is *valid* (think: grammatically correct)

2) Determine the structure of a program (think: diagramming a sentence)

# Agenda

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

## Languages

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

## Languages

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

# Terminology

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

 $G = (\{a, b\}, \{S, A, B\}, \{S \rightarrow A B, A \rightarrow A a, A \rightarrow a, B \rightarrow B b, B \rightarrow b\},$ S)

## Simple grammar



**Backus Naur Form (BNF)** 

## Generating strings

- $S \rightarrow A B$
- $A \rightarrow A a$
- $A \rightarrow a$
- $B \rightarrow B b$

 $B \rightarrow b$ 

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

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

 $S \Rightarrow A B \Rightarrow A a B \Rightarrow a a B \Rightarrow a a B b \Rightarrow$ 

 $a a B b b \Rightarrow a a b b b$ 

# Terminology

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

# Why is this useful?

- statement  $\rightarrow$  statement ; statement
- statement → while\_loop ;
- statement  $\rightarrow$  id = lit;
- statement  $\rightarrow$  id = id + id ;

while\_loop -> while ( cond\_expr ) statment

 $cond\_expr \rightarrow id < lit$ 

# Programming language syntax

- Programming language syntax is defined with CFGs
- Constructs in language become non-terminals
  - May use auxiliary non-terminals to make it easier to define constructs

if\_stmt  $\rightarrow$  if ( cond\_expr ) then statement else\_part

else\_part  $\rightarrow$  else statement

else\_part  $\rightarrow \lambda$ 

• Tokens in language become terminals

## Parse trees

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



## Leftmost derivation

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

F(V + V)

using the following grammar:

E	$\rightarrow$	Prefix (E)
E	$\rightarrow$	V Tail
Prefix	$\rightarrow$	F
Prefix	$\rightarrow$	λ
Tail	$\rightarrow$	+ E
Tail	$\rightarrow$	λ

• What does the parse tree look like?

## **Rightmost derivation**

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

F(V + V)

E	$\rightarrow$	Prefix (E)
E	$\rightarrow$	V Tail
Prefix	$\rightarrow$	F
Prefix	$\rightarrow$	λ
Tail	$\rightarrow$	+ E
Tail	$\rightarrow$	λ

## Simple conversions



## Top-down vs. Bottom-up parsers

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

# What is parsing

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

# Top-down parsing

## Top-down parsing

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

# A simple example $S \rightarrow ABc$

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

## A simple example $S \rightarrow A B c$ $A \rightarrow x a A$ special "end of input" symbol $A \rightarrow y a A$ $A \rightarrow c$ $B \rightarrow b$ • A sentence in the grammar: xacc\$ $B \rightarrow \lambda$

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

#### Current derivation: S

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

#### Current derivation: A B c \$

Predict rule

A simple example					
	$S \rightarrow A B c S$	\$			
Choose based on <i>first set</i> of rules	$A \rightarrow x a A$				
	$A \rightarrow y a A$				
	$A \rightarrow c$				
	$B \rightarrow b$	•	A sentence in the grammar:		
	$B \rightarrow \lambda$		xacc\$		

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

Predict rule based on next token

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

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

Match token

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

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

Match token

A simple example					
	$S \rightarrow A B c S$	\$			
Choose based on <i>first set</i> of rules	$A \rightarrow x a A$				
	$A \rightarrow y a A$				
	$A \rightarrow c$				
	$B \rightarrow b$	•	A sentence in the grammar:		
	$B \rightarrow \lambda$		xacc\$		

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

Predict rule based on next token

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

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

Match token



## Current derivation: $x \ge \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} -$

Predict rule based on next token

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

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

Match token

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

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

Match token

## First and follow sets

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

 $A \rightarrow x a A$  $A \rightarrow y a A$ 

 $S \rightarrow A B$ 

- $\mathsf{A} \to \lambda$
- $B \rightarrow b$

## First and follow sets

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

S:	start symbol		
<mark>a:</mark>	a terminal symbol		
<mark>A:</mark>	a non-terminal symbol		
<mark>α,β:</mark>	a string composed of terminals and		
	non-terminals (typically, $\alpha$ is the RHS of a production $\Rightarrow$ :		
			derived in I step
		⇒*:	derived in 0 or more steps
		⇒+:	derived in 1 or more steps

# Computing first sets

- Terminal: First(a) = {a}
- Non-terminal: First(A)
  - Look at all productions for A

 $A \to X_1 X_2 \dots X_k$ 

- First(A)  $\supseteq$  (First(X<sub>1</sub>)  $\lambda$ )
- If  $\lambda \in \text{First}(X_1)$ ,  $\text{First}(A) \supseteq (\text{First}(X_2) \lambda)$
- If  $\lambda$  is in First(X<sub>i</sub>) for all i, then  $\lambda \in First(A)$
- Computing First(α): similar procedure to computing First(A)

## Exercise

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

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

# Computing follow sets

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

• What are the follow sets for

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

### Towards parser generators

- Key problem: as we read the source program, we need to decide what productions to use
- Step I: find the tokens that can tell which production P (of the form  $A \rightarrow X_1X_2 \dots X_m$ ) applies

 $\operatorname{Predict}(P) =$ 

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

If next token is in Predict(P), then we should choose this production

#### Parse tables

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

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

# Building the parse table

 Start:T[A][t] = //initialize all fields to "error" foreach A:

foreach P with A on its lhs:

foreach t in Predict(P):

#### $\mathsf{T}[\mathsf{A}][\mathsf{t}] = \mathsf{P}$

• Exercise: build parse table for our toy grammar

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

# Stack-based parser for LL(I)

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

## An example

- 1.  $S \rightarrow A B$ 2.  $A \rightarrow x a A$ 3.  $A \rightarrow y a A$ 4.  $A \rightarrow \lambda$ 5.  $B \rightarrow b$
- How would a stack-based parser parse:

#### xayab

Parse stack	Remaining input	Parser action
S	xayab\$	predict I
A B \$	xayab\$	predict 2
x a A B \$	xayab\$	match(x)
a A B \$	ayab\$	match(a)
A B \$	yab\$	predict 3
yaAB\$	yab\$	match(y)
a A B \$	a b \$	match(a)
A B \$	b \$	predict 4
В\$	b \$	predict 5
b \$	b \$	match(b)
\$	\$	Done!

## Dealing with semantic actions

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

## Dealing with semantic actions

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

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

# Non-LL(1) grammars

- Not all grammars are LL(I)!
- Consider

```
<stmt> \rightarrow if <expr> then <stmt list> endif
```

```
<stmt> \rightarrow if <expr> then <stmt list> else <stmt list> endif
```

- This is not LL(1) (why?)
- We can turn this in to

<stmt $> \rightarrow$  if <expr> then <stmt list> <if suffix>

 $\langle if suffix \rangle \rightarrow endif$ 

 $\langle if suffix \rangle \rightarrow else \langle stmt list \rangle endif$ 

#### Left recursion

- Left recursion is a problem for LL(I) parsers
  - LHS is also the first symbol of the RHS
- Consider:

 $E \rightarrow E + T$ 

• What would happen with the stack-based algorithm?

## Removing left recursion



# LL(k) parsers

- Can look ahead more than one symbol at a time
  - k-symbol lookahead requires extending first and follow sets
  - 2-symbol lookahead can distinguish between more rules:

 $A \rightarrow ax \mid ay$ 

- More lookahead leads to more powerful parsers
- What are the downsides?

# Are all grammars LL(k)?

• No! Consider the following grammar:

$$S \rightarrow E$$
  

$$E \rightarrow (E + E)$$
  

$$E \rightarrow (E - E)$$
  

$$E \rightarrow x$$

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

# In real languages?

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

S → [SC  
S → 
$$\lambda$$
 [[] can be parsed: SS $\lambda$ C or SSC $\lambda$   
C → ] (it's ambiguous!)  
C →  $\lambda$ 

# Solving the if-then-else problem

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

$$S \rightarrow [S]$$
  

$$S \rightarrow SI$$
  

$$SI \rightarrow [SI]$$
  

$$SI \rightarrow \lambda$$

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

## Two possible fixes

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

$$S \rightarrow [S C \\ S \rightarrow \lambda \\ C \rightarrow ] \\ C \rightarrow \lambda$$

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

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

## Parsing if-then-else

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

## LR Parsers

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

#### LR Parsers

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

#### Data structures

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

## Simple example

- I.  $P \rightarrow S$
- 2.  $S \rightarrow x$ ; S
- 3.  $S \rightarrow e$

		Symbol					
		x	• •	е	Р	S	Action
	0	I		3		5	Shift
			2				Shift
State	2	I		3		4	Shift
State	3						Reduce 3
	4						Reduce 2
	5						Accept

# Parsing using an LR(0) parser

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

## Example

• Parse "x ; x ; e"

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

# LR(k) parsers

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

# Terminology for LR parsers

• Configuration: a production augmented with a "•"

 $\mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{X}_1 \ ... \ \mathsf{X}_i \bullet \mathsf{X}_{i^+1} \ ... \ \mathsf{X}_j$ 

- The "•" marks the point to which the production has been recognized. In this case, we have recognized X<sub>1</sub> ... X<sub>i</sub>
- Configuration set: all the configurations that can apply at a given point during the parse:
  - $A \rightarrow B \cdot CD$  $A \rightarrow B \cdot GH$  $T \rightarrow B \cdot Z$
- Idea: every configuration in a configuration set is a production that we could be in the process of matching

## Configuration closure set

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

$$S \rightarrow E \$$$
  

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

$$T \rightarrow ID | (E)$$

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

## Successor configuration set

• Starting with the initial configuration set

 $s0 = closure0({S \rightarrow \cdot \alpha })$ 

an LR(0) parser will find the successor given the next symbol  $\boldsymbol{X}$ 

- X can be either a terminal (the next token from the scanner) or a non-terminal (the result of applying a reduction)
- Determining the successor s' = go\_to0(s, X):
  - For each configuration in s of the form  $A \rightarrow \beta \cdot X \gamma$  add  $A \rightarrow \beta X \cdot \gamma$  to t
  - s' = closure0(t)

#### CFSM

- CFSM = Characteristic Finite State Machine
- Nodes are configuration sets (starting from s0)
- Arcs are go\_to relationships





# Building the goto table

• We can just read this off from the CFSM



## Building the action table

- Given the configuration set s:
  - We shift if the next token matches a terminal after the in some configuration

 $A \twoheadrightarrow \alpha \bullet a \ \beta \in {\color{black}{\textbf{s}}} \text{ and } a \in V_t \text{, else error}$ 

• We reduce production P if the • is at the end of a production

 $B \rightarrow \alpha \bullet \in s$  where production P is  $B \rightarrow \alpha$ 

- Extra actions:
  - shift if goto table transitions between states on a nonterminal
  - accept if we have matched the goal production

#### Action table

State	0	Shift	
	I	Reduce 2	
	2	Shift	
	3	Accept	

### Conflicts in action table

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

## Shift/reduce conflict

• Consider the following grammar:

$$S \rightarrow A y$$

 $\mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{x} \mid \mathsf{x}\mathsf{x}$ 

• This leads to the following configuration set (after shifting one "x":

 $A \rightarrow x \cdot x$ 

 $\mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{x} \bullet$ 

• Can shift or reduce here

# Shift/reduce example (2)

• Consider the following grammar:

$$S \rightarrow A y$$
  
 $A \rightarrow \lambda \mid x$ 

• This leads to the following initial configuration set:

$$S \rightarrow \bullet A y$$

$$A \rightarrow \cdot x$$

$$\mathsf{A} \to \lambda \bullet$$

• Can shift or reduce here

#### Lookahead

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

### Semantic actions

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

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

# LR(I) parsing

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

 $A \rightarrow X_{1} \dots X_{i} \bullet X_{i+1} \dots X_{j}, I \text{ (where } I \in V_{t} \cup \lambda)$ 

• If two configurations differ only in their lookahead component, we combine them

 $A \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_i \bullet X_{i+1} \dots X_j, \{I_1 \dots I_m\}$ 

# Building configuration sets

• To close a configuration

 $B \rightarrow \alpha \cdot A \beta, I$ 

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

## Example

closure I ({S $\rightarrow \bullet E $ , { $\lambda$ }) =				
	$S \rightarrow \bullet E \$, \{\lambda\}$			
E	→ • E + T, {\$}			
	$E \rightarrow \bullet T, \{\$\}$			
	$T \rightarrow \bullet ID, \{\$\}$			
	$T \rightarrow \bullet (E), \{\$\}$			
E	→ • E + T, {+}			
	$E \rightarrow \bullet T, \{+\}$			
	$T \rightarrow \bullet ID, \{+\}$			
	$T \rightarrow \bullet (E), \{+\}$			



# Building goto and action tables

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

action[s][x] =

• reduce when • is at end of configuration and  $x \in$  lookahead set of configuration

 $A \twoheadrightarrow \alpha \bullet, \{... \times ...\} \in s$ 

• shift when • is before x

$$\mathsf{A} \to \beta \bullet \mathsf{x} \, \mathsf{Y} \in \mathsf{s}$$

### Example

- Consider the simple grammar:
  - <program> → begin <stmts> end \$
  - <stmts> → SimpleStmt ; <stmts>
  - <stmts> → begin <stmts> end ; <stmts>
  - $\langle stmts \rangle \rightarrow \lambda$

## Action and goto tables

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

<program> → begin <stmts> end \$

<stmts> → SimpleStmt ; <stmts>

<stmts>  $\rightarrow$  begin <stmts> end ; <stmts>

#### Example

 $\langle stmts \rangle \rightarrow \lambda$ 

• Parse: begin SimpleStmt ; SimpleStmt ; end \$

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

### Problems with LR(I) parsers

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

### Solutions to the size problem

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