What is a parser

Parsers

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

- 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

• 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)

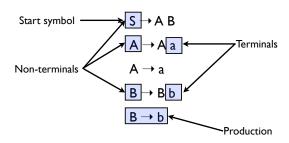
Languages

- 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?

Terminology

- Grammar $G = (V_t, V_n, S, P)$
 - V_t is the set of terminals
 - ullet 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)

Terminology

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

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
```

Why is this useful?

```
statement → statement; statement

statement → if_stmt;

statement → while_loop;

statement → id = lit;

statement → id = id + id;

if_stmt → if (cond_expr) then statement
```

while_loop → while (cond_expr) statment

cond expr \rightarrow id < lit

Programming language syntax

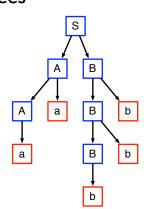
- Programming language syntax is defined with CFGs
- Constructs in language become non-terminals
 - May use auxiliary non-terminals to make it easier to define constructs

```
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)
Е	→	V Tail
Prefix	→	F
Prefix	→	λ
Tail	→	+ E
Tail	→	λ

• What does the parse tree look like?

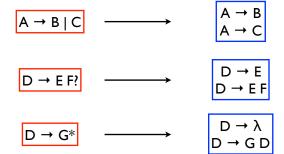
Rightmost derivation

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

$$F(V + V)$$

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

 $S \rightarrow A B c$ \$

 $A \rightarrow x a A$

 $A \rightarrow y a A$

 $A \rightarrow c$

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

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

A simple example

 $S \rightarrow A B c$

A → x a A special "end of input" symbol

 $A \rightarrow y a A$

 $A \rightarrow c$

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

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

A simple example

 $S \rightarrow A B c$ \$

 $A \rightarrow x a A$

 $A \rightarrow y a A$

 $A \rightarrow c$

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

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

Current derivation: 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:

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

A simple example

 $S \rightarrow A B c$ \$

Choose based on first set of rules



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

 $B \rightarrow \lambda$ xacc\$

Current derivation: A B c \$

Predict rule

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:

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

A simple example

 $S \rightarrow A B c$ \$

 $A \rightarrow x a A$

 $A \rightarrow y a A$

 $A \rightarrow c$

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

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

Current derivation: x a A B c \$

Match token

Current derivation: x a A B c \$

Match token

A simple example

 $S \rightarrow A B c$ \$

Choose based on first set of rules



 $B \rightarrow b$

• A sentence in the grammar:

 $B \rightarrow \lambda$ xacc\$

A simple example

S → 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 \$

Predict rule based on next token

Current derivation: x a c B c \$

Match token

A simple example

 $S \rightarrow A B c$ \$

 $A \rightarrow x a A$

Choose based on follow set

A → yaA

A → c

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

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: \times a c λ c \$

Predict rule based on next token

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) = $\{x, y, \lambda\}$

 $S \rightarrow A B$ \$

First(xaA) = {x}

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

• First (AB) = {x, y, b}

A → λ

 Follow(A): the set of terminals (and/ or \$, but no λs) that can appear immediately after A in some partial derivation

 $B \rightarrow b$

• Follow(A) = {b}

First and follow sets

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

start symbol

a: a terminal symbol

A: a non-terminal symbol

 α, β : a string composed of terminals and non-terminals (typically, α is the

RHS of a production

derived in 1 step

⇒*: derived in 0 or more steps

⇒⁺: derived in I or more steps

Computing first sets

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

$$A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 ... X_k$$

- First(A) \supseteq (First(X₁) λ)
- If $\lambda \in First(X_1)$, $First(A) \supseteq (First(X_2) \lambda)$
- If λ is in First(X_i) 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:
 - 1. $X \rightarrow \alpha A \beta$: Follow(A) \supseteq (First(β) λ)
 - 2. $X \rightarrow \alpha A \beta$: If $\lambda \in First(\beta)$, $Follow(A) \supseteq Follow(X)$
 - 3. $X \rightarrow \alpha A$: Follow(A) \supseteq Follow(X)
- Note: Follow(X) never has λ in it.

Exercise

• What are the follow sets for

 $S \rightarrow A B$ \$

 $A \rightarrow x a A$

 $A \rightarrow y a A$

 $A \rightarrow \lambda$

 $B \rightarrow b$

 $B \rightarrow A$

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:

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

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 $\mbox{\it I}$
- Note: always start with start state

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 → X₁X₂ ... X_m) applies

Predict(P) =

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \operatorname{First}(X_1 \dots X_m) & \text{if } \lambda \not \in \operatorname{First}(X_1 \dots X_m) \\ (\operatorname{First}(X_1 \dots X_m) - \lambda) \cup \operatorname{Follow}(A) & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

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

Building the parse table

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

foreach A:

foreach P with A on its Ihs:

foreach t in Predict(P):

T[A][t] = P

 $2.A \rightarrow x a A$

• Exercise: build parse table for our toy grammar

3. $A \rightarrow y a A$ 4. $A \rightarrow \lambda$

I.S \rightarrow A B \$

5.B → b

An example

S → A B \$
 A → x a A
 A → y a A

How would a stack-based parser parse:

xayab

4. A → λ
 5. B → b

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
y a A B \$	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

Non-LL(I) grammars

- Not all grammars are LL(1)!
- Consider

<stmt> → if <expr> then <stmt list> endif <stmt> → if <expr> then <stmt list> else <stmt list> endif

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

 $\langle \text{stmt} \rangle \rightarrow \text{if } \langle \text{expr} \rangle \text{ then } \langle \text{stmt list} \rangle \langle \text{if suffix} \rangle$ $\langle \text{if suffix} \rangle \rightarrow \text{endif}$ $\langle \text{if suffix} \rangle \rightarrow \text{else } \langle \text{stmt list} \rangle \in \text{endif}$

Removing left recursion



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

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?

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 37
 - Potentially unbounded number of characters before the distinguishing '+' or '-' is found
 - No amount of lookahead will help!

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?

$$S \rightarrow [S \\ S \rightarrow SI \\ SI \rightarrow [SI]$$

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

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!

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": $[i]^j$ ($i \ge j$)

$$\begin{array}{lll} S & \rightarrow [\,S\,C \\ S & \rightarrow \lambda \\ C & \rightarrow \,] \\ C & \rightarrow \lambda \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} [\,[\,] \text{ can be parsed: SS}\lambda C \text{ or SSC}\lambda \\ \text{(it's ambiguous!)} \end{array}$$

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"

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \rightarrow [SC] \\ S & \rightarrow \lambda \\ C & \rightarrow] \\ C & \rightarrow \lambda \end{array}$$

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

$$S \rightarrow \text{if } S E$$
 $S \rightarrow \text{other}$
 $E \rightarrow \text{else } S \text{ endif}$
 $E \rightarrow \text{endif}$

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.

Simple example

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

				ymbo	l		
		x	;	e	Р	S	Action
	0	_		3		5	Shift
	I		2				Shift
State	2	- 1		3		4	Shift
State	3	3				Reduce 3	
	4						Reduce 2
	5						Accept

Example

• Parse "x;x;e"

Step	Parse Stack	Remaining Input	Parser Action
1	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	e	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

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

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

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 "•"

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

- The "•" marks the point to which the production has been recognized. In this case, we have recognized $X_1 \dots X_i$
- Configuration set: all the configurations that can apply at a given point during the parse:

$$A \rightarrow B \cdot CD$$

$$A \rightarrow B \cdot GH$$

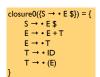
$$T \rightarrow B \cdot Z$$

 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 $\to \alpha$, add configuration X $\to *\alpha$





Successor configuration set

• Starting with the initial configuration set

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

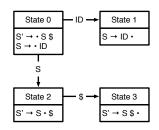
an LR(0) parser will find the successor given the next symbol \mathbf{x}

- 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 \to β X γ add A \to β X γ 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

		Symbol		
		ID	\$	S
	0	- 1		2
C	I			
State	2		3	
	3			

Building the action table

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

 $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot a \beta \in s$ and $a \in V_t$, else error

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

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

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

Action table

	0	Shift
Cara	-	Reduce 2
State	2	Shift
	3	Accept

Shift/reduce conflict

• Consider the following grammar:

$$S \rightarrow A y$$

$$A \rightarrow x \mid xx$$

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

$$A \rightarrow x \cdot x$$

$$A \rightarrow x \bullet$$

• 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(I) parsers by looking ahead one token)

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 example (2)

• Consider the following grammar:

$$S \rightarrow A y$$

$$A \rightarrow \lambda \mid x$$

• This leads to the following initial configuration set:

$$S \rightarrow \bullet A y$$

$$A \rightarrow \cdot x$$

$$A \rightarrow \lambda$$

• Can shift or reduce here

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(I) 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(I) parsers

LR(I) parsing

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

$$A \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_i \cdot X_{i+1} \dots X_j$$
, I (where $I \in V_t \cup \lambda$)

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

$$\mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{X}_1 \dots \mathsf{X}_i \bullet \mathsf{X}_{i+1} \dots \mathsf{X}_j \ , \{I_1 \dots I_m\}$$

Building configuration sets

• To close a configuration

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

- Add all configurations of the form A → γ, u where u ∈ First(βI)
- 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 → • T, {\$}			
	T → • ID, {\$}			
	T → • (E), {\$}			
	E → • E + T, {+}			
	E → • T, {+}			
	T → • ID, {+}			
	T → • (E), {+}			

Building goto and action tables

- The function goto I (configuration-set, symbol) is analogous to goto O(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 ∈ lookahead set of configuration

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

• shift when • is before x

$$A \, \to \, \beta \, \bullet \, x \, \gamma \in s$$

Example

• Consider the simple grammar:

<stmts> → begin <stmts> end ; <stmts>

 $\langle stmts \rangle \rightarrow \lambda$

Action and goto tables

	begin	end	;	SimpleStmt	\$	<pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre>	<stmts></stmts>
0	S / I						
- 1	S / 4	R4		S / 5			S / 2
2		S / 3					
3					Α		
4	S / 4	R4		S / 5			\$ / 7
5			\$ / 6				
6	S / 4	R4		S / 5			\$ / 10
7		S / 8					
8			\$ / 9				
9	S / 4	R4		S / 6	·		\$/11
10		R2			·		·
П		R3					

<pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre>	→ begin <stmts> end \$</stmts>	
<stmts></stmts>	→ SimpleStmt ; <stmts></stmts>	
<stmts></stmts>	→ begin <stmts> end ; <stmts></stmts></stmts>	Example
)	•

• Parse: begin SimpleStmt; SimpleStmt; end \$

Step	Parse Stack	Remaining Input	Parser Action
I	0	begin S;S;end\$	Shift I
2	0 1	S;S;end\$	Shift 5
3	0 1 5	; S ; end \$	Shift 6
4	0 1 5 6	S ; end \$	Shift 5
5	0 1 5 6 5	; end \$	Shift 6
6	015656	end \$	Reduce 4 (goto 10)
7	0 1 5 6 5 6 10	end \$	Reduce 2 (goto 10)
8	0 5 6 10	end \$	Reduce 2 (goto 2)
9	0 2	end \$	Shift 3
10	0 1 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