Announcements

- You may optionally work with a partner on the project
 - Must work with the partner for the entire project
 - Let me know by next Thursday who you are working with (if anyone), and under which username you will be submitting
- I'm trying to get the lectures posted online at least a day before class (some days I'm more successful than others!)

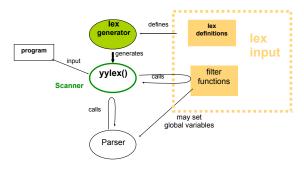
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From last time: Lex (Flex)

- Commonly used Unix scanner generator (superseded by Flex)
- Has character classes and regular expressions like ScanGen but some key differences:
 - After each token is matched, calls user-defined "filter" function, which processes identified token before returning it to parser
 - Hence, no "Toss" facility (why?)
 - No exception list
 - Instead, supports matching multiple regexps.
 - Matches longest token (i.e., doesn't think ifa is IF ID(a))
 - In case of tie, returns earliest-defined regexp
 - To treat if as a reserved word instead of an identifier, define token IF before defining identifiers.

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Lex operation



Example of Lex input on page 67 of textbook

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Parsers

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Agenda

- Terminology
- LL(I) Parsers
- Overview of LR Parsing

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:

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

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Terminology

- V is the vocabulary of a grammar, consisting of terminal (V_t) and non-terminal (V_n) symbols
- For our sample grammar
 - V_n = {S, A, B}
 - Non-terminals are symbols on the LHS of a production
 - Non-terminals are constructs in the language that are recognized during parsing
 - $V_t = \{a, b\}$
 - Terminals are the tokens recognized by the scanner
 - They correspond to symbols in the text of the program

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Terminology

- Productions (rewrite rules) tell us how to derive strings in the language
 - Apply productions to rewrite strings into other strings
- We will use the standard BNF form
- P = {
 - $S \rightarrow AB$ \$
 - $A \rightarrow A a$
 - $A \rightarrow a$
 - $B \rightarrow B b$
 - $B \rightarrow b$
 - }

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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

 By convention, first production applied has the start symbol on the left, and there is only one such production

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

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

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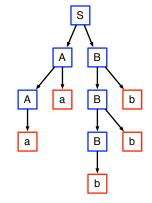
Terminology

- Strings are composed of symbols
 - AAaaBbbAais a string
 - We will use Greek letters to represent strings composed of both terminals and non-terminals
- ullet 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+\$
 - All regular expressions can be expressed as grammars for context-free languages, but not vice-versa
 - Consider: ai bi \$ (what is the grammar for this?)

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

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Top-down vs. Bottom-up parsers

- Top-down parsers use left-most derivation
- Bottom-up parsers use right-looking parse
- Notation:
 - LL(1): Leftmost derivation with 1 symbol lookahead
 - LL(k): Leftmost derivation with k symbols lookahead
 - LR(1): Right-looking derivation with 1 symbol lookahead

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Micro in standard BNF

- 1 Program 2 Statement-list Statement StatementTail 3 StatementTail Statement StatementTail 4 StatementTail 5 Statement ID := Expression ; READ (Id-list): 6 Statement 7 Statement WRITE (Expr-list); 8 Id-list ID IdTail 9 IdTail , ID IdTail 10 IdTail
- Expression ExprTail 11 Expr-list 12 ExprTail , Expression ExprTail 13 ExprTail
- Primary PrimaryTail 14 Expression 15 PrimaryTail Add-op Primary PrimaryTail
- 16 PrimaryTail 17 Primary (Expression) 18 Primary
- 19 Primary INTLITERAL 20 Add-op PLUSOP
- MINUSOP 21 Add-op 22 System-goal Program SCANEOF

Compare this to grammar in lecture 2

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Micro in standard BNF

- 1 Program 2 Statement-list Statement StatementTail 3 StatementTail Statement StatementTail 4 StatementTail 5 Statement ID := Expression ; READ (Id-list): 6 Statement 7 Statement WRITE (Expr-list); 8 Id-list ID IdTail 9 IdTail , ID IdTail 10 IdTail
- Expression ExprTail 11 Expr-list , Expression ExprTail 13 ExprTail Primary PrimaryTail
- 14 Expression 15 PrimaryTail Add-op Primary Primary Tail 16 PrimaryTail
- 17 Primary (Expression) 18 Primary INTLITERAL 19 Primary 20 Add-op PLUSOP
- MINUSOP 21 Add-op 22 System-goa Program SCANEOF

Compare this to grammar in lecture 2

A ::= B | C

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Micro in standard BNF

1 Program 2 Statement-list 3 StatementTail 4 StatementTail 5 Statement

7 Statement

22 System-goal

BEGIN Statement-list END Statement StatementTail Statement StatementTail

Program SCANEOF

- ID := Expression ; 6 Statement READ (ld-list); WRITE (Expr-list);
- 8 Id-list 9 IdTail , ID IdTail 10 IdTail 11 Expr-list Expression ExprTail 12 ExprTail , Expression ExprTail
- 13 ExprTail 14 Expression Primary PrimaryTail Add-op Primary PrimaryTail 15 PrimaryTail 16 PrimaryTail
- 17 Primary (Expression) 18 Primary 19 Primary INTI ITERAL 20 Add-op PLUSOP 21 Add-op MINUSOP
- A ::= B | C
 - A ::= B {C} tail ::= C tail tail ::= λ

Compare this to grammar in lecture 2

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
 - 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

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Another simple grammar

PROGRAM → begin STMTLIST \$ STMTLIST → STMT; STMTLIST STMTLIST → end STMT → id $STMT \rightarrow if (id) STMTLIST$

• A sentence in the grammar:

begin if (id) if (id) id; end; end; end; \$

What are the terminals and non-terminals of this grammar?

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Parsing this grammar

PROGRAM → begin STMTLIST \$ STMTLIST → STMT; STMTLIST $STMTLIST \rightarrow end$ $STMT \rightarrow id$ STMT \rightarrow if (id) STMTLIST

- Note
 - To parse STMT in STMTLIST → STMT; STMTLIST, it is necessary to parse either STMT → id or STMT → if ...
 - Choose the production to parse by finding out if next token is if or id
 - i.e., which production the next input token matches
 - This is the first set of the production

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Another example

 $S \rightarrow A B$ \$ $A \rightarrow x a A$ A → yaA $A \rightarrow \lambda$ $B \rightarrow b$

- Consider S \Rightarrow A B \$ \Rightarrow x a A B \$ \Rightarrow x a B \$ \Rightarrow x a b \$
- When parsing \times a b \$ we know from the goal production we need to match an A.The next token is x, so we apply $A \rightarrow x a A$
- The parser matches x, matches a and now needs to parse A again
- How do we know which A to use? We need to use A $\rightarrow \lambda$
 - When matching the right hand side of $A \to \lambda$, the next token comes from a non-terminal that follows A (i.e., it must be b)
 - Tokens that can follow A are called the follow set of A

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First and follow sets

First(α): the set of terminals that begin all strings that can be derived from α

First(A) = {x, y}

First(xaA) = {x}

• First (AB) = {x, y, b}

• Follow(A): the set of terminals that can appear immediately after A in some partial derivation

 $S \rightarrow AB$ \$

 $A \rightarrow x a A$

 $A \rightarrow yaA$

 $A \rightarrow \lambda$

 $B \rightarrow b$

Follow(A) = {b}

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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 terminal symbol 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 1 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(X_I) 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)

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Exercise

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

$$S \rightarrow AB$$
\$

 $A \rightarrow x a A$

 $A \rightarrow y a A$

 $A \rightarrow \lambda$

 $B \rightarrow b$

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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.

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Exercise

• What are the follow sets for

 $S \rightarrow A B$ \$

 $A \rightarrow x a A$

 $A \rightarrow y a A$

 $A \rightarrow \lambda$

 $B \rightarrow b$

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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

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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):

 $1.S \rightarrow A B \$$ $2.A \rightarrow \times a A$

T[A][t] = P

 $3.A \rightarrow yaA$

• Exercise: build parse table for our toy grammar

 $4.A \rightarrow \lambda$

5.B → b

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Recursive-descent parsers

- Given the parse table, we can create a program which generates recursive descent parsers
 - Remember the recursive descent parser we saw for **MICRO**
 - If the choice of production is not unique, the parse table tells us which one to take
- However, there is an easier method!

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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 I
- Algorithm on page 121
- Note: always start with start state

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An example

2. $A \rightarrow x a A$ 3. $A \rightarrow y a A$ 4. A → λ

I. $S \rightarrow AB$ \$

How would a stack-based parser parse:

xayab

5. B → b

Parse stack	Remaining input	Parser action
S	xayab\$	predict I

An example

I. $S \rightarrow AB$ \$ 2. $A \rightarrow x a A$ 3. A → y a A 4. A → λ

• How would a stack-based parser parse:

xayab

5. B → b

Parse stack	Remaining input	Parser action
S	xayab\$	predict I
A B \$	xayab\$	predict 2

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An example

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

How would a stack-based parser parse:

xayab

Parse stack	Remaining input	Parser action
S	xayab\$	predict I
A B \$	xayab\$	predict 2
× a A B \$	xayab\$	match(x)

An example

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

• How would a stack-based parser parse:

xayab

Parse stack	Remaining input	Parser action
S	xayab\$	predict I
AB\$	xayab\$	predict 2
xaAB\$	xayab\$	match(x)
a A B \$	ayab\$	match(a)

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An example

I. $S \rightarrow AB$ \$ 2. A → x a A

• How would a stack-based parser parse:

3. A → y a A 4. A → λ

xayab

5. B → b

Parse stack	Remaining input	Parser action
S	xayab\$	predict I
A B \$	xayab\$	predict 2
×aAB\$	xayab\$	match(x)
a A B \$	ayab\$	match(a)
A B \$	yab\$	predict 3

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An example

I. $S \rightarrow AB$ \$ 2. A → x a A 3. A → y a A

• How would a stack-based parser parse:

4. A → λ 5. B → b

xayab

Parse stack	Remaining input	Parser action
S	xayab\$	predict I
A B \$	xayab\$	predict 2
xaAB\$	xayab\$	match(x)
a A B \$	ayab\$	match(a)
A B \$	yab\$	predict 3
уаАВ\$	yab\$	match(y)

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An example

I. $S \rightarrow AB$ \$ 2. A → x a A 3. $A \rightarrow y a A$

• How would a stack-based parser parse:

4. A → λ

xayab

5. B → b

Parse stack	Remaining input	Parser action
S	xayab\$	predict I
A B \$	xayab\$	predict 2
xaAB\$	xayab\$	match(x)
a A B \$	ayab\$	match(a)
AB\$	yab\$	predict 3
y a A B \$	yab\$	match(y)
a A B \$	ab\$	match(a)

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An example

I. $S \rightarrow AB$ \$ 2. A → x a A 3. A → y a A

• How would a stack-based parser parse:

4. A → λ 5. B → b

xayab

Parser action	
predict I	
predict 2	
match(x)	
match(a)	
prodict 3	

Remaining input	Parser action
xayab\$	predict I
xayab\$	predict 2
xayab\$	match(x)
ayab\$	match(a)
yab\$	predict 3
yab\$	match(y)
ab\$	match(a)
b\$	predict 4
	xayab\$ xayab\$ xayab\$ ayab\$ ayab\$ yab\$ yab\$

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An example

2. A → x a A 3. A → y a A 4. A → λ

I. $S \rightarrow A B$ \$

• How would a stack-based parser parse:

xayab

5. B → b

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

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An example

I. $S \rightarrow AB$ \$ 2. A → x a A 3. 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
AB\$	xayab\$	predict 2
x a A B \$	xayab\$	match(x)
a A B \$	ayab\$	match(a)
AB\$	y a b \$	predict 3
уа АВ\$	y a b \$	match(y)
a A B \$	a b \$	match(a)
A B \$	b \$	predict 4
В\$	b \$	predict 5
b \$	b \$	match(b)

An example

1. $S \rightarrow A B \$$ 2. $A \rightarrow x a A$ 3. $A \rightarrow y a A$ 4. $A \rightarrow \lambda$

• How would a stack-based parser parse:

xayab

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

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LL(k) parsers

- Can use similar techniques for LL(k) parsers
- Use more than one symbol of look-ahead to distinguish productions
- Why might this be bad?

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Dealing with semantic actions

- Recall: 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

Non-LL(I) 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(I) (why?)
- We can turn this in to

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

<if suffix> → endif

<if suffix $> \rightarrow$ else <stmt list> endif

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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



Algorithm on page 125

Are all grammars LL(I)?

- No! 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}{ll} \begin{subarray}{ll} [\ [\]\ can\ be\ parsed:\ SS\lambda C\ or\ SSC\lambda \\ (it's\ ambiguous!) \\ \end{subarray}$$

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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!)

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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

 $S \rightarrow if S E$ $S \rightarrow other$ $E \rightarrow else S endif$ $E \rightarrow endif$

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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!

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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)

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

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Example

• Consider the simple grammar:

oprogram> → begin <stmts> end \$

<stmts> → SimpleStmt; <stmts>

<stmts> → begin <stmts> end ; <stmts>

 $\langle stmts \rangle \rightarrow \lambda$

• Shift-reduce driver algorithm on page 142

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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						
I	S / 4	R4		S / 5			S / 2
2		S / 3					
3					Α		
4	S / 4	R4		S / 5			S / 7
5			S / 6				
6	S / 4	R4		S / 5			\$ / 10
7		\$/8					
8			S / 9				
9	S / 4	R4		S / 6			\$/11
10		R2					
-11		R3			, and the second		·

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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 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

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Announcements

- I will be out of town on Tuesday (9/15)
- Class will be covered by Professor Midkiff

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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.

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

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Terminology for LR parsers

• Configuration: a production augmented with a "•"

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

- The "•" marks the point to which the production has been recognized. In this case, we have recognized X₁ ... 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 can possibly be matched

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Configuration closure set

 Include all the configurations necessary to recognize the next symbol after the •

closure0(configuration_set) defined on page 146

• Example:





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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 \boldsymbol{X}

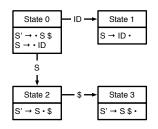
- X can be either a terminal (the next token from the scanner) or a non-terminal (the result of applying a reduction)
- Determining the successor s' = go to0(s, X):
 - For each configuration in s of the form A \rightarrow B X γ add A \rightarrow B X γ to t
 - s' = closure0(t)

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CFSM

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





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Building the goto table

• We can just read this off from the CFSM

		Symbol		
		ID	\$	S
State	0	I		2
	- 1			
	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

 $A \, \rightarrow \, \alpha \, \bullet \, a \, \, \beta \in {\color{red} s} \, \, \text{and} \, \, a \in V_t , \, \text{else error}$

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

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

- Extra actions:
 - shift if goto table transitions between states on a nonterminal
 - accept if we are about to shift \$

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Action table

		Symbol		
		ID	\$	S
.	0	S		S
	I	R2	R2	R2
State	2		Α	
	3			

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Alternate representation

- Some books represent goto and action tables differently
 - Action table only has columns for terminals, and consists of two kinds of actions:
 - shift + state: shift and move to a state
 - reduce + rule: reduce according to rule
 - Goto table only has columns for non-terminals
 - Specifies which state to go to after reducing

State	Action		Goto
	D	\$	S
0	SI		I
ı	R2	R2	
2		Α	
3			

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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

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Shift/reduce example

• Consider the following grammar:

$$S \rightarrow Ay$$

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

• This leads to the following initial configuration set:

$$S \rightarrow \bullet A y$$

$$A \rightarrow \lambda$$

• Can shift or reduce here

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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)
- Note that it is possible to create an LR(0) grammar for any LR(k) grammar (as long as we can determine the end of a program), but it may be very complex!

LR(I) parsing

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

$$A \rightarrow X_1 ... X_i \bullet X_{i+1} ... X_j \ , \textit{I} \ (\text{where} \ \textit{I} \in V_t \cup \lambda)$$

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

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

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Building configuration sets

• To close a configuration

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

- Add all configurations of the form A \rightarrow γ , u where $u \in First(\beta I)$
- Intuition: 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

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Example

closure I ($\{S \rightarrow \bullet E \$, \{\lambda\}\}\) =$



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Example

closure I ($\{S \to \bullet E \$, \{\lambda\}\}\) =$ $S \to \bullet E \$, \{\lambda\}$



Example

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

 $S \rightarrow E \$$ $E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$ $T \rightarrow ID \mid (E)$

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Example



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

Example



$\operatorname{losure} \{(S \to \bullet E \$, \{\lambda\})\}$	}) =
	$S \rightarrow \bullet E \$, \{\lambda\}$
	E → • E + T, {\$}
	E → • T, {\$}
	T → • ID, {\$}

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Example



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

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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, {+}

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Example



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

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Example



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

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Example



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

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

• shift when • is before x

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

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

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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

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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 → α. use Follow(A)
 - LALR: merge LR states in certain cases (we won't discuss this)