

Syntax Analysis

- Syntax analysis checks the correctness of a program according to the grammar:
 - gets scanner generated stream of tokes as an input;
 - outputs a syntax-tree corresponding to the program;
 - in the presence of syntactic errors, locates them:
 - ... reports possible causes of the errors;
 - ... tries to recover and continue the analysis (in order to discover more errors).
- Syntax analysis is called parsing and the corresponding analyzer parser.

Grammars

- Syntax is usually described by context-free grammars.
- Grammar is a quadruple $G = \langle N, T, P, S \rangle$, where
 - -N is a finite alphabet of non-terminal symbols;
 - T is a finite alphabet of terminal symbols;
 - $-N\cap T=\emptyset$ and $V=N\cup T;$
 - $-P\subset \{lpha
 ightarrow eta\mid lpha\in V^+,\ eta\in V^*\}$ is a finite set of production rules;
 - $-S \in N$ is a start symbol.
- Grammar is context-free if production rules are in the form $A \to \alpha$, where $A \in N$ and $\alpha \in V^*$.

Grammars

- A sequence $w \in V^*$ is called a sentential form.
- The sentential form $v \in V^*$ is directly derivable from the sentential form $u \in V^*$ (notation $u \Longrightarrow v$), if there are $w_1, w_2, \alpha, \beta \in V^*$ such, that $u = w_1 \alpha w_2, v = w_1 \beta w_2$ and $\alpha \to \beta \in P$.
- Reflexive transitive closure of the relation ⇒ is called derivation (notation ⇒*).
- The grammar $G = \langle N, T, P, S \rangle$ generates a language

$$L(G) = \{w \in T^{\star} \mid S \Longrightarrow^{\star} w\}$$

• Grammars G_1 and G_2 are equivalent if $L(G_1) = L(G_2)$.

Grammars

Chomsky hierarchy:

	Productions	Languages	Automata
L_0	lpha ightarrow eta	Semi-Thue systems	Turing machines
L_1	$lpha Aeta ightarrow lpha \gamma eta$	Context-dependent	Bounded TM-s
L_2	A ightarrow lpha	Context-free	Push-down automata
L_3	A ightarrow w, A ightarrow wB	Regular	Finite automata
(L4)	A o w	Finite	FA without cycles

where $A, B \in N$, $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in V^*$ and $w \in T^*$.

Lemma: Chomsky hierarchy is strict; ie.:

$$(L_4) \subset L_3 \subset L_2 \subset L_1 \subset L_0$$

- From now on we consider only context-free grammars.
- Production rules of context-free grammars are usually described using Backus-Naur Form (BNF).
- Example: let $N = \{\text{Exp}\}\$ and $T = \{+, *, (,), id\}$, then

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \operatorname{Exp} & \to & \operatorname{Exp} + \operatorname{Exp} \\ & | & \operatorname{Exp} * \operatorname{Exp} \\ & | & (\operatorname{Exp}) \\ & | & id \end{array}$$

describes the set of production rules

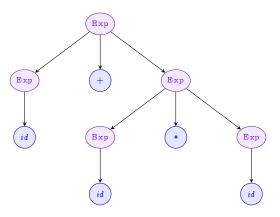
$$P = \{ \text{Exp} \rightarrow \text{Exp} + \text{Exp}, \text{Exp} \rightarrow (\text{Exp}), \\ \text{Exp} \rightarrow \text{Exp} * \text{Exp}, \text{Exp} \rightarrow id \}.$$

- Non-terminal A is productive if there exists $w \in T^*$ such that $A \Longrightarrow^* w$.
- Non-terminal A is reachable if there exist sentential forms $u, v \in V^*$ such that $S \Longrightarrow^* uAv$.
- CF-grammar $G = \langle N, T, P, S \rangle$ is reduced if every non-terminal is productive and reachable.
- Lemma: Every CF-grammar can be transformed into an equivalent reduced CF-grammar.

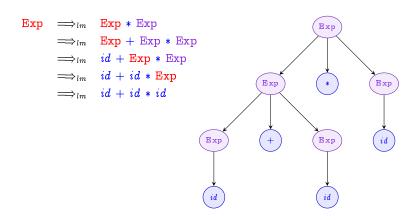
- A sentential form may have several derivations.
- Canonical derivations:
 - left-derivation on every derivation step the leftmost non-terminal is replaced;
 - right-derivation on every derivation step the rightmost non-terminal is replaced.
- Example:

- Every derivation determines a unique syntax-tree (or parse-tree) – a tree with ordered nodes, where:
 - the root is labelled by the start symbol S;
 - intermediate nodes are labelled by non-terminals;
 - leaves are labelled by terminals or the empty symbol ε ;
 - when intermediate node is labelled by the non-terminal A and roots of its subtrees (from left to right) t_1, \ldots, t_n are labelled by A_1, \ldots, A_n , then $A \to A_1 \ldots A_n \in P$.
- Labels of leaves (read from left to right) form the derived sentential form.
- Syntax-tree uniquely determines which production rules were used, but not the order of their application.

Example: previously given left- and right-derivations correspond to the same syntax-tree



NB! A sentence may have several syntax-trees!



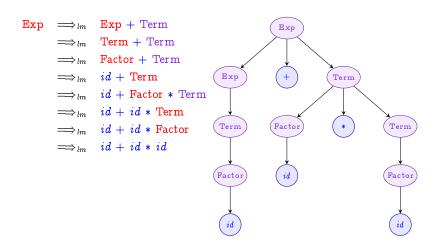
- CF-grammar is ambiguous if for the same sentence there are several syntax-trees.
- For every syntax-tree, there is exactly one left- and right-derivation; thus:
 - non-ambiguous sentence has exactly one left- and one right-derivation;
 - ambiguous sentence has at least two left- and right-derivations..
- Different syntax-trees of a sentence usually correspond to different semantic interpretations of the sentence.
- An ambiguous grammar can sometimes (but not always) be transformed to an equivalent non-ambiguous one.

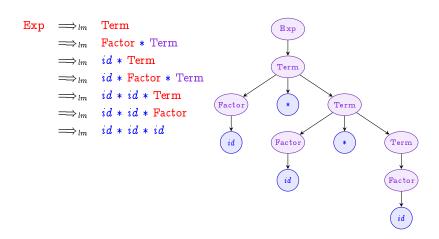
- Elimination of ambiguity binary operators:
 - every priority level introduces a new non-terminal;
 - left-associative operators use left-recursion;
 right-associative operators right-recursion;
 - rules corresponding to operators of higher priorities are placed "deeper".
- Example:

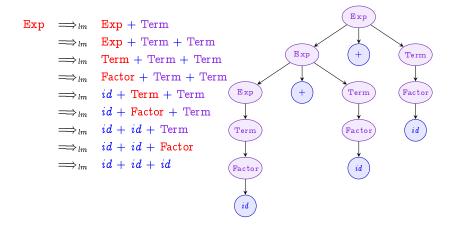
$$\begin{array}{cccc} \operatorname{Exp} & \to & \operatorname{Exp} + \operatorname{Term} \\ & | & \operatorname{Term} \end{array}$$

$$\operatorname{Term} & \to & \operatorname{Factor} * \operatorname{Term} \\ & | & \operatorname{Factor} \end{array}$$

$$\operatorname{Factor} & \to & (\operatorname{Exp}) \\ & | & id \end{array}$$



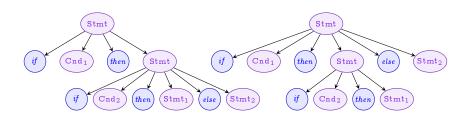




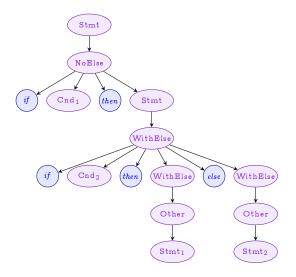
• Elimination of ambiguity – condition statements:

• The following sentence has two different syntax-trees:

if Cnd₁ then if Cnd₂ then Stmt₁ else Stmt₂



Usually, the first one is considered to be the correct one; ie. *else* belongs to the innermost conditional sentence:



Parsing Techniques

Top-down parsing:

- starts constructing the syntax-tree from the root downward towards leaves;
- on every step selects a production rule and tries to match it with the input string;
- if the rule doesn't match the process backtracks;
- results to the leftmost derivation.

Bottom-up parsing:

- starts constructing the syntax-tree from leaves working up toward the root;
- applies suitable rules from right to left until reaches the start symbol;
- results to the rightmost derivation.

General algorithm of top-down parsing:

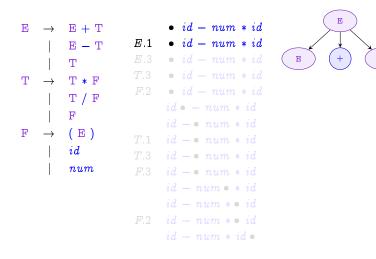
- construct a root node, label it with the start symbol, and continue construction of the tree towards leaves from left to right;
- if the node under consideration is a non-terminal A, then choose a rule in the form of $A \to \alpha$, construct nodes corresponding to its RHS, and continue with its leftmost subnode.
- if the node is a terminal which doesn't match with the input symbol, then backtrack to the choice of the production rule which introduced this terminal, and continue from there by choosing another production rule;
- if the node is terminal matching to the input symbol, then continue with the leftmost unexpanded node.

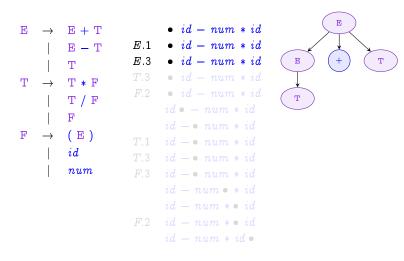
```
E + T
                  \bullet id - num * id
                E.1 \quad \bullet \quad id - num * id
E - T
                E.3 \quad \bullet \quad id - num * id
                T.3 \quad \bullet \quad id - num * id
T * F
                F.2 \quad \bullet \quad id - num * id
T / F
                       id \bullet - num * id
F
                       id - \bullet num * id
(E)
                       id - \bullet num * id
id
                       id - \bullet num * id
num
                       id - \bullet num * id
                       id - num \bullet * id
                       id - num * \bullet id
                F.2 \quad id - num * \bullet id
                       id - num * id \bullet
```

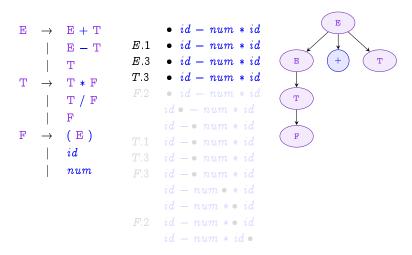
Example:

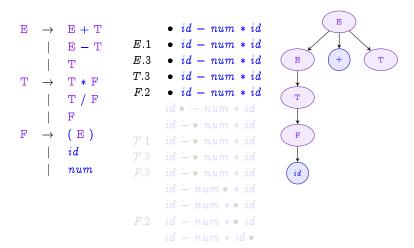
```
E + T
                        • id - num * id
                E.1 \quad \bullet \quad id - num * id
E - T
                E.3 \quad \bullet \quad id - num * id
                T.3 \quad \bullet \quad id - num * id
T * F
                F.2 \quad \bullet \quad id - num * id
T / F
                       id \bullet - num * id
F
                       id - \bullet num * id
(E)
                       id - \bullet num * id
id
                       id - \bullet num * id
num
                       id - \bullet num * id
                       id - num \bullet * id
                       id - num * \bullet id
                F.2 \quad id - num * \bullet id
                       id - num * id \bullet
```

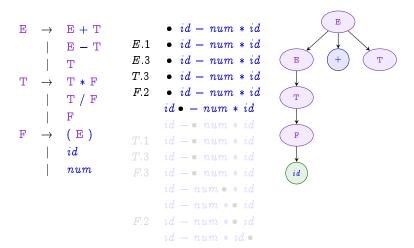
E

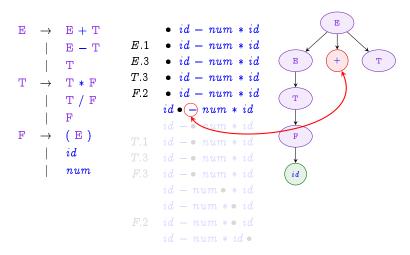








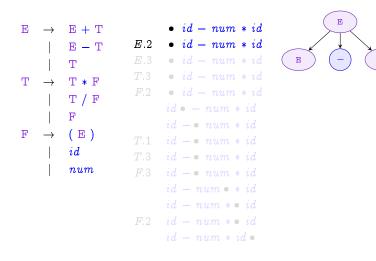


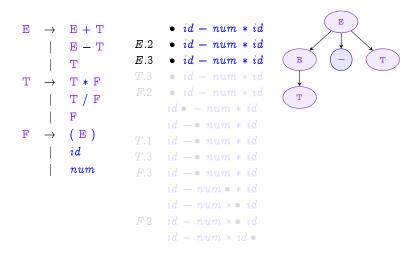


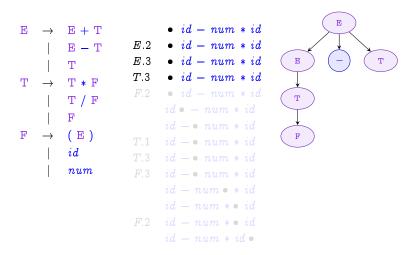
Example:

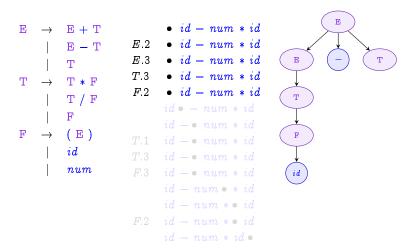
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T * F
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T / F
                       id \bullet - num * id
F
                       id - \bullet num * id
(E)
                       id - \bullet num * id
id
                       id - \bullet num * id
num
                       id - \bullet num * id
                       id - num \bullet * id
                       id - num * \bullet id
                F.2 \quad id - num * \bullet id
                       id - num * id \bullet
```

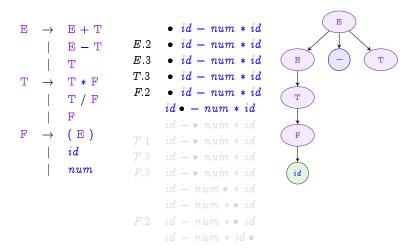
E

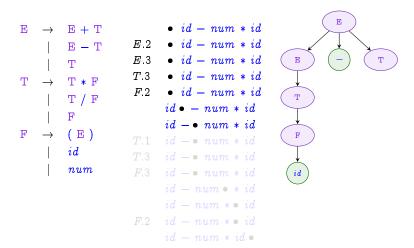


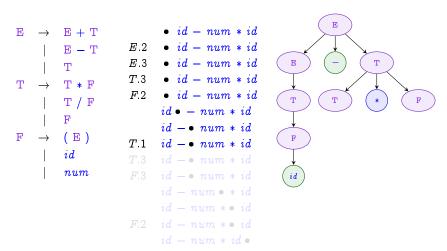


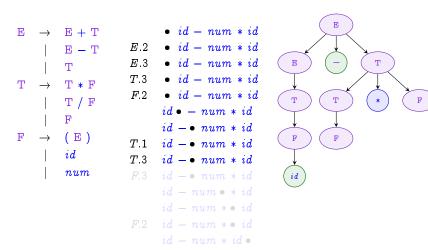


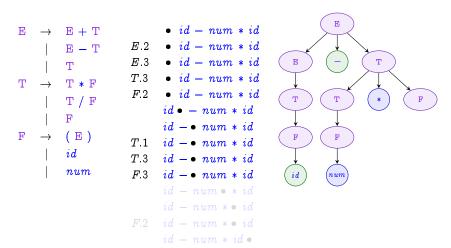


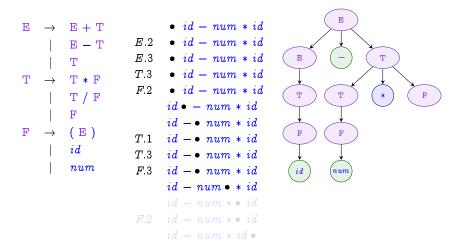


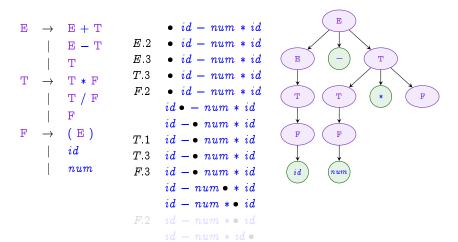


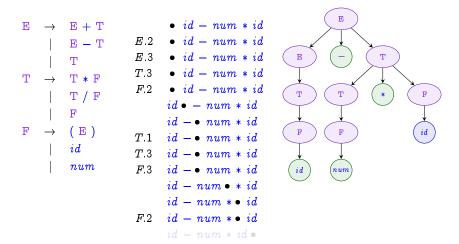


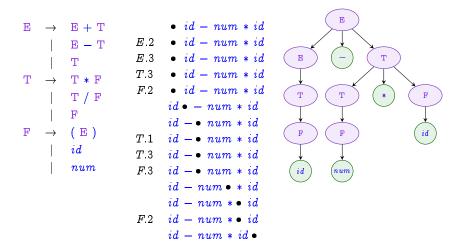








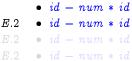




- Efficiency of parsing strongly depends from the choice of a production rule.
- Choosing a wrong rule causes a later backtracking.
- In the case of the grammar has left-recursive rules, the top-down parsing may be non-terminating.

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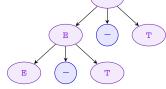
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$$\bullet \quad id - num * id$$

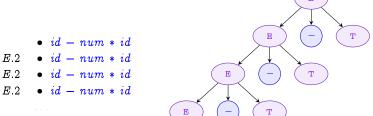
$$E.2 \quad \bullet \quad id - num * id$$

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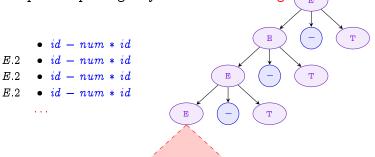
 $E.2 \quad \bullet \quad id \quad - \quad num \quad * \quad id$



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Left-recursion

• A grammar is left-recursive, if there is a non-terminal $A \in N$ such that

$$A \Longrightarrow^+ A \alpha$$

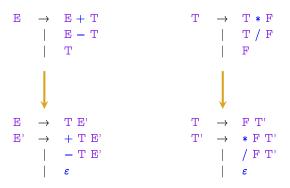
where $\alpha \in V^*$.

- Left-recursion is direct, if there is a rule in the form $A \to A \alpha$.
- Otherwise, the left-recursion is indirect.

Elimination of the direct left-recursion:

• Introduce a new non-terminal and replace the left-recursion with the right-recursion

• In general



- The new grammar generates the same language, but is less intuitive.
- In both grammars the operators are left associative.

Elimination of the indirect left-recursion:

• Example:

- Transform the indirect left-recursion to the direct one.
- In the right-hand sides of A₂ production rules, replace all occurrences of A₁ with its definition:

Eliminate the immediate left-recursion:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A_1 & \rightarrow & A_2 \ \alpha \mid \beta \\ A_2 & \rightarrow & \beta \ \gamma \ A_2' \\ A_2' & \rightarrow & \alpha \ \gamma \ A_2' \mid \delta \ A_2' \mid \varepsilon \end{array}$$

General algorithm for left-recursion elimination:

Assign some order to non-terminals A_1, \ldots, A_n

for $i \leftarrow 1$ to n

for $j \leftarrow 1$ to i-1

Replace productions in the form $A_i \to A_j \alpha$ with productions $A_i \to \beta_1 \alpha \mid \beta_2 \alpha \mid \ldots \mid \beta_k \alpha$, where $A_j \to \beta_1 \mid \beta_2 \mid \ldots \mid \beta_k$ are all A_j productions

Eliminate the immediate left-recursion from productions of the non-terminal A_i

NB! Assumes that the original grammar doesn't have neither ε -productions nor cycles (ie. $A_i \Longrightarrow^+ A_i$).

- Choosing a wrong rule causes a later backtracking.
- The "rightness" of the rule can often be decided by lookahead of some number of input symbols.
- In general case, one needs unbounded lookahead.
 - Ex.: parsing algorithms by Cocke-Younger-Kasam or Earley.
- Predictive parsing is a top-down parsing where it is always possible to choose a correct rule without backtracking.
 - A grammar must be such, that the next input symbol (or some fixed number of symbols) determines uniquely the correct rule.

• For every sentential form $\alpha \in (N \cup T)^*$ define a set:

$$first(lpha) = \{a \in T \mid lpha \Longrightarrow^{\star} a \ eta\} \ \cup \{\varepsilon \mid lpha \Longrightarrow^{\star} \varepsilon\}$$

where $\beta \in (N \cup T)^*$.

• For every non-terminal $A \in N$ define a set:

$$follow(A) = \{a \in T \mid S \Longrightarrow^{\star} \alpha A a \beta\} \ \cup \{\$ \mid S \Longrightarrow^{\star} \alpha A\}$$

where $\alpha, \beta \in (N \cup T)^*$ and \$ is a special end of input marker.

```
\begin{array}{lll} \mathit{first}(C) &=& \{c,d\} & \mathit{follow}(C) &=& \{\$\} \\ \mathit{first}(B) &=& \{b,\varepsilon\} & \mathit{follow}(B) &=& \mathit{first}(C) \\ \mathit{first}(A) &=& \{a,\varepsilon\} & &=& \{c,d\} \\ \mathit{first}(S) &=& \mathit{first}(A\,B\,C) & =& \{\mathit{first}(B)\setminus\{\varepsilon\}\} \\ &=& (\mathit{first}(A)\setminus\{\varepsilon\}) & &\cup \mathit{first}(C) \\ &&\cup \mathit{first}(C) & =& \{b,c,d\} \\ &&\cup \mathit{first}(C) & =& \{a,b,c,d\} \end{array}
```

- If production rules $A \to \alpha$ and $A \to \beta$ are such that $first(\alpha) \cap first(\beta) = \emptyset$, then lookahead of one input symbol is enough to decide which rule to choose.
- NB! Holds only when $\varepsilon \not\in \{first(\alpha) \cup first(\beta)\}$.
- Otherwise, the set follow(A) should also be inspected.
- For each rule $A \rightarrow \alpha$ define a set:

$$\mathit{first}^+(lpha) = \left\{egin{array}{ll} (\mathit{first}(lpha) \setminus \{arepsilon\}) \cup \mathit{follow}(A), & ext{kui } arepsilon \in \mathit{first}(lpha) \ \mathit{first}(lpha), & ext{kui } arepsilon
ot \in \mathit{first}(lpha) \end{array}
ight.$$

• A CF-grammar is LL(1), if for all (pairwise different) production rules $A \to \alpha$ and $A \to \beta$

$$first^+(\alpha) \cap first^+(\beta) = \emptyset$$

- NB! LL(1) grammar cannot be neither left-recursive nor ambiguous!
- Example:

$$S \rightarrow S a \mid \beta$$

- If $\beta \neq \varepsilon$
 - Then $first(\beta) \subseteq first(S) = first(Sa)$
 - Thus $\mathit{first}^+(S\,a)\cap \mathit{first}^+(\beta) \neq \emptyset$
- If $\beta = \varepsilon$
 - Then $a \in first(S a)$ and $a \in follow(S) = \{a, \$\}$
 - Thus $first^+(Sa) \cap first^+(\beta) \neq \emptyset$

- Often, a grammar can be transformed to LL(1) using:
 - left-recursion elimination;
 - left-factoring;
 - in worst case, one can generalize the grammar a bit (and check for removed restrictions after parsing).
- Left-factoring replaces rules with a common prefix with new ones, where the prefix is only in one RHS.
- Example:

Left-factoring algorithm:

- For every non-terminal $A \in N$ find a longest prefix α which appears in two or more right-hand sides of A production rules.
- 2 If $\alpha \neq \varepsilon$, then replace all productions of A

$$egin{array}{lll} A &
ightarrow & lpha eta_1 & lpha eta_2 & \ldots & lpha eta_n & \gamma \end{array}$$

with productions

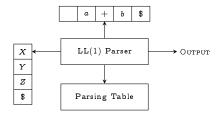
$$egin{array}{lll} A &
ightarrow & lpha \, Z \mid \gamma \ Z &
ightarrow & eta_1 \mid eta_2 \mid \ldots \mid eta_n \end{array}$$

where $Z \in N$ is a new non-terminal.

Sepeat the process until none of right-hand sides have common prefix.

- Recursive descent parsing is a top-down parsing method where:
 - parser consists of a set of (mutually recursive)
 procedures, one for each non-terminal, recognizing
 sentential forms derivable from the corresponding
 non-terminal;
 - depending from the input, each procedure chooses a production rule and calls one after another procedures corresponding to non-terminals in the right-hand side of the production rule.
- Recursive descent parsing is commonly used for hand-written parsers.

- Automatically generated LL(1) parsers are usually table driven:
 - construct a table M where rows and columns are indexed by non-terminals and terminals respectively;
 - cells of the table contain production rules to be chosen for the given non-terminal and input symbol.
- Structure of a table driven LL(1) parser:



```
LL(1) parsing algorithm:
push(\$); push(S);
token := nextWord();
while stack \neq empty do {
  A := pop();
  if A \in N then {
    if M[A, token] = B_1 \dots B_n then {
      push(B_n); \ldots; push(B_1);
    } else error();
  \} else if A = token then \{
    token := nextWord();
  } else error();
```

Shift-reduce Parsing

Shift-reduce parsing is a general method for a bottom-up syntax analysis:

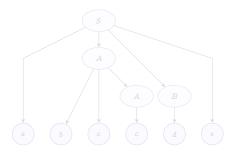
- constructing a tree starts from leaves working up toward the root with a goal of "reducing" the input string to the start symbol.
- during parsing there is a forest of trees, which correspond to the different, already recognized, substrings;
- two basic actions:
 - shift reads a new input symbol and pushes it to the stack;
 - reduce applies production rules in reverse to the top of the stack; ie. it replaces a sequence of symbols in the top of the stack, forming a right-hand side of a rule, with the left-hand symbol of that rule;
- construction corresponds to the right derivation.

Example:

$$egin{array}{lll} S &
ightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \ A &
ightarrow & b \ c \ A \ \mid \ c \ B &
ightarrow & d \end{array}$$

shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$ shift reduce $S \rightarrow a A B e$

Input String: • abccde



$$egin{array}{lll} S & \Longrightarrow_{rm} & a\,A\,B\,e & \Longrightarrow_{rm} & a\,A\,d\,e \ & \Longrightarrow_{rm} & a\,b\,c\,A\,d\,e & \Longrightarrow_{rm} & a\,b\,c\,c\,d\,e \end{array}$$

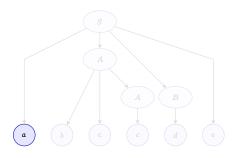
Example:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} S & \rightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \\ A & \rightarrow & b \ c \ A \ \mid \ c \\ B & \rightarrow & d \end{array}$$

shift

shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$

Input String: $a \cdot b c c d e$



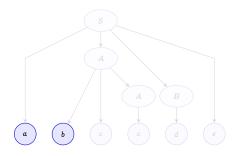
$$egin{array}{lll} S & \Longrightarrow_{rm} & a\,A\,B\,e & \Longrightarrow_{rm} & a\,A\,d\,e \ & \Longrightarrow_{rm} & a\,b\,c\,A\,d\,e & \Longrightarrow_{rm} & a\,b\,c\,c\,d\,e \end{array}$$

Example:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} S & \rightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \\ A & \rightarrow & b \ c \ A \ \mid \ c \\ B & \rightarrow & d \end{array}$$

shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$

Input String: $ab \cdot ccde$



$$S \Longrightarrow_{rm} aABe \Longrightarrow_{rm} aAde$$

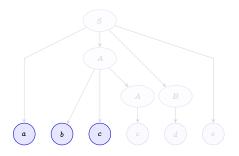
 $\Longrightarrow_{rm} abcAde \Longrightarrow_{rm} abccde$

Example:

$$egin{array}{lll} S &
ightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \ A &
ightarrow & b \ c \ A \ | \ c \ B &
ightarrow & d \end{array}$$

shift shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$ shift reduce $S \rightarrow a A B$

Input String: $abc \bullet cde$

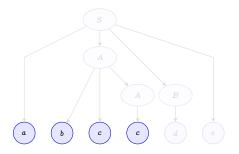


Example:

$$egin{array}{lll} S &
ightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \ A &
ightarrow & b \ c \ A & | \ c \ B &
ightarrow & d \end{array}$$

shift shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$ shift

Input String: $abcc \bullet de$



$$S \Longrightarrow_{rm} aABe \Longrightarrow_{rm} aAde$$

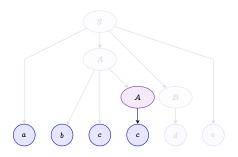
 $\Longrightarrow_{rm} abcAde \Longrightarrow_{rm} abccde$

Example:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \rightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \\ A & \rightarrow & b \ c \ A \ \mid \ c \\ B & \rightarrow & d \end{array}$$

shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$ shift

Input String: $abcc \bullet de$

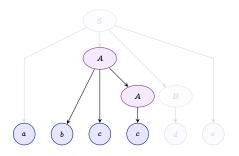


Example:

$$egin{array}{lll} S &
ightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \ A &
ightarrow & b \ c \ A \ | \ c \ B &
ightarrow & d \end{array}$$

shift shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$ shift

Input String: $abcc \bullet de$

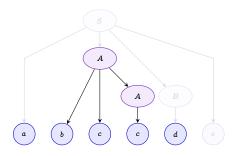


Example:

$$egin{array}{lll} S &
ightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \ A &
ightarrow & b \ c \ A \ | \ c \ B &
ightarrow & d \end{array}$$

shift shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$ shift reduce $S \rightarrow a A B c$

Input String: $abccd \bullet e$

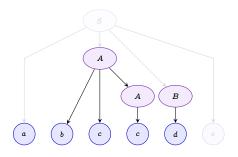


Example:

$$egin{array}{lll} S &
ightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \ A &
ightarrow & b \ c \ A & | \ c \ B &
ightarrow & d \end{array}$$

shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$ shift reduce $S \rightarrow a A B e$

Input String: $abccd \bullet e$

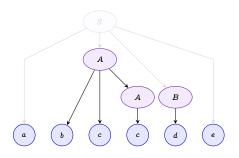


Example:

$$egin{array}{lll} S &
ightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \ A &
ightarrow & b \ c \ A \ | \ c \ B &
ightarrow & d \end{array}$$

shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$ shift

Input String: abccde •

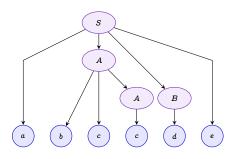


Example:

$egin{array}{lll} S & ightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \ A & ightarrow & b \ c \ A & | \ c \ B & ightarrow & d \end{array}$

shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$ shift reduce $S \rightarrow a A B e$

Input String: abccde •

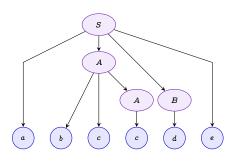


Example:

$egin{array}{lll} S & ightarrow & a \ A \ B \ e \ A & ightarrow & b \ c \ A & | \ c \ B & ightarrow & d \end{array}$

shift shift shift reduce $A \rightarrow c$ reduce $A \rightarrow b c A$ shift reduce $B \rightarrow d$ shift reduce $S \rightarrow a A B e$

Input String:



$$S \Longrightarrow_{rm} aABe \Longrightarrow_{rm} aAde \Longrightarrow_{rm} abcAde \Longrightarrow_{rm} abccde$$

- Sentential form is called right-sentential form, if it occurs in the rightmost derivation of some sentence.
- A handle of a right-sentential form γ is a production rule $A \to \beta$ and a position of γ where the string β may be found and replaced by A to produce the previous right-sentential form in a rightmost derivation of γ .
- Equivalently, a handle is a substring β , such that it matches RHS of some production and $S \Longrightarrow_{rm}^{\star} \delta Aw \Longrightarrow_{rm} \delta \beta w = \gamma$, where $\beta, \gamma, \delta \in V^{\star}$ and $w \in T^{\star}$.
- The process of discovering a handle and reducing it to the appropriate LHS is called "handle pruning".
- NB! In the case of an unambiguous grammar, rightmost derivations, and hence handles, are unique.

Example: given the grammar

$$egin{array}{lll} S &
ightarrow & a \ A \ B &
ightarrow & b \ c \ A & | \ c \ B &
ightarrow & d \end{array}$$

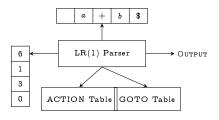
and the rightmost derivation

$$S \Longrightarrow_{rm} a A B e \Longrightarrow_{rm} a A d e \Longrightarrow_{rm} a b c A d e$$

The handle of the right-sentential form abcAde is bcA.

- In a stack based implementation of shift-reduce parser, the handle will always eventually appear on top of the stack.
- A viable prefix of a right-sentential form γ is any prefix of γ ending no farther right than the right end of the handle of γ .
- Viable prefixes are possible stacks of the shift-reduce parser!
- NB! The "language of viable prefixes" is regular!
- Hence, there is a finite automaton accepting viable prefixes.
- This automaton is an essential ingredient of all LR parsing techniques.

Structure of LR parser:



```
Skeleton of LR(1) parser:
push(Invalid); push(s_0); found := false;
token := nextWord();
while found \neq true do \{
  s := top();
  if ACTION[s, token] = \mathbf{reduce}(A \rightarrow \beta) then
    pop(2 * |\beta|);
  s := top(); push(A); push(GOTO[s, A]);
  else if ACTION[s, token] = shift(s_i) then
    push(token); push(s_i);
    token := nextWord();
  else if ACTION[s, token] = accept & token = $ then
    found := true;
  else report error;
report success;
```

- LR(0)-item (or simply item) is a production rule with a dot in the RHS.
- An item $[A \to \alpha \cdot \beta]$ is valid for a viable prefix φ if there is a rightmost derivation $S \Longrightarrow_{rm}^{\star} \delta Aw \Longrightarrow_{rm} \delta \alpha \beta w$ and $\delta \alpha = \varphi$.
- Item in the form $[A \to \cdot \alpha]$ is an initial item and in the form $[A \to \alpha \cdot]$ is a complete item.

• Example: given a grammar

Its LR(0)-items are:

$$\begin{array}{ll} [S \rightarrow \cdot \ a \ A \ c] & [A \rightarrow \cdot \ A \ b] \\ [S \rightarrow a \cdot A \ c] & [A \rightarrow A \cdot b] \\ [S \rightarrow a \ A \cdot c] & [A \rightarrow A \ b \cdot] \\ [S \rightarrow a \ A \ c \cdot] & [A \rightarrow \cdot] \end{array}$$

• NB! For each CF-grammar the set of LR(0)-items is finite.

- A valid item $[A \to \beta \gamma]$ means that the input seen so far is consistent with the use of $A \to \beta \gamma$ immediately after the symbol on top of the stack.
- A valid item $[A \to \beta \cdot \gamma]$ means that the input seen so far is consistent with the use of $A \to \beta \gamma$ at this point of the parse, and that the parser has already recognized β .
- A complete valid item $[A \to \beta \gamma]$ means that the parser has seen $\beta \gamma$, and that this is consistent with reducing to A.

- If $[A \to \alpha \cdot]$ is a complete valid item for a viable prefix γ , then $A \to \alpha$ might have been used to derive γw from δAw .
- However, in general, it might be also that this was not a case.
 - $[A \to \alpha \cdot]$ may be valid because of a different rightmost derivation $S \Longrightarrow_{rm}^{\star} \delta A w' \Longrightarrow_{rm} \gamma w'$.
 - There could be several complete valid items for γ .
 - There could be a handle of γw that includes some symbols of w.
- A context-free grammar for which knowing a complete valid item is enough to determine the previous right-sentential form is called LR(0).

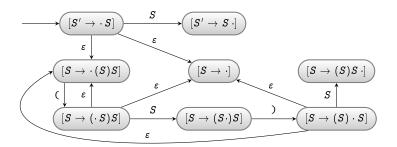
- A nondeterministic LR(0)-automaton is a NFA, where states are items and there are two kinds of transitions:
 - for every pair of items $[A \to \alpha \cdot X\beta]$ and $[A \to \alpha X \cdot \beta]$, a transition labelled by a (terminal or nonterminal) symbol X.

$$\underbrace{\left[\left[A \to \alpha \cdot X\beta \right] \right]} X \longrightarrow \underbrace{\left[\left[A \to \alpha X \cdot \beta \right] \right]}$$

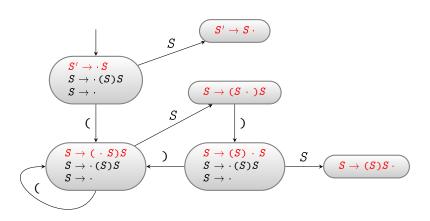
- for every pair of items $[A \to \alpha \cdot X\beta]$ and $[X \to \gamma]$, a transition labelled by the empty symbol ε .

$$\overbrace{ [A \to \alpha \cdot X \beta] }^{\varepsilon} \longrightarrow \overbrace{ [X \to \cdot \gamma] }^{\varepsilon}$$

- The grammar is augmented with a new start symbol S' and a single rule $S' \to S$.
- A state containing the item $[S' \to S]$ is the starting state of the automaton.



- DFA can be constructed from NFA by subset construction.
- DFA has sets of items as its states.
- Items in sets are called kernel items if they originate as targets of non- ε -transitions.
- Items added to the state during the ε -closure step are called closure items.
- Kernel items uniquely determine the state.



LR(0) parsing algorithm:

```
while true do {
   state := top():
   if \exists [A \to \alpha \cdot X\beta] \in state \land X \in T then
      Y := aetToken():
      if \exists [A \to \alpha \cdot Y\beta] \in state then
          \mathbf{shift}(Y); push([A \to \alpha Y \cdot \beta]);
      else error:
   else if \exists [A \rightarrow \gamma \cdot] \in state then
          if A = S' \wedge \gamma = S then accept;
          else pop(2 * |\gamma|);
                 state := top();
                 if \exists [B \to \alpha \cdot A\beta] \in state then
                    push(A); push([B \rightarrow \alpha A \cdot \beta]);
                 else error:
```

- A grammar is LR(0) grammar iff any complete item $[A \to \alpha \cdot] \in state$ is the only item of the state.
 - Shift-reduce conflict: if $\exists [B \rightarrow \alpha \cdot \beta] \in state$;
 - Reduce-reduce conflict: if $\exists [B \to \beta \cdot] \in state$.
- Reduce states: states containing a complete item.
- Shift states: all other states.

- SLR(1) = Simple LR(1) parsing.
- Uses the DFA of sets of LR(0) items.
- Uses the next lookahead token in the input string to direct its actions.
- Similar to LR(0) parsing, except that decision on which token to use is delayed until the last possible moment.
 - Consults the input token before a shift to make sure that an appropriate DFA transition exists.
 - Uses the Follow set of a nonterminal to decide if a reduction should be performed.
- Effective extension to LR(0) parsing that is powerful enough to handle many practical languages.

SLR(1) parsing algorithm:

```
while true do {
   state := top(); X := qetToken();
   if \exists [A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot X\beta] \in state then
      \mathbf{shift}(X); push([A \to \alpha X \cdot \beta]);
   else if \exists [A \to \gamma \cdot] \in state \land X \in follow(A) then
      if A = S' \wedge \gamma = S \wedge X = $ then accept;
      else pop(2 * |\gamma|);
             state := top();
             if \exists [B \to \alpha \cdot A\beta] \in state then
                 push(A); push([B \rightarrow \alpha A \cdot \beta]);
             else error;
   else error:
```

- A grammar is SLR(1) iff it does not have the following two conflicts: for all states
 - Shift-reduce conflict:

$$egin{array}{l} orall [A
ightarrow lpha \cdot Xeta] \in \mathit{state} \land X \in T \ \Rightarrow \ \ \neg (\exists [B
ightarrow \gamma \cdot] \land X \in \mathit{follow}(B)) \end{array}$$

- Reduce-reduce conflict:

$$orall [A
ightarrow lpha \cdot] \wedge [B
ightarrow eta \cdot] \Rightarrow follow(A) \cap follow(B) = \emptyset$$

- LR(k)-item is a pair $[A \to \alpha \cdot \beta, \ w]$, where $A \to \alpha \beta$ is a production rule and $w \in T^*$ is a word of length $|w| \leq k$.
- $[A \to \cdot \beta \gamma, \ w]$ means that the input seen so far is consistent with the use of $A \to \beta \gamma$ immediately after the symbol on top of the stack.
- $[A \to \beta \cdot \gamma, w]$ means that the input seen so far is consistent with the use of $A \to \beta \gamma$ at this point of the parse, and that the parser has already recognized β .
- $[A \to \beta \gamma \cdot, w]$ means that the parser has seen $\beta \gamma$, and that lookahead symbol of w is consistent with reducing to A.

• Example: given a grammar

Its LR(k)-items for lookahead string w are:

• NB! For each CF-grammar the set of LR(k)-items is finite.

Finding a closure of LR(1)-items

- Closure(S) adds all the items implied by items already in the set of items S.
 - An item $[A \to \beta \cdot B\delta, \ a]$ implies $[B \to \cdot \tau, \ x]$ for each production $B \to \tau$ and symbol $x \in first(\delta a)$.
- Algorithm:

```
Closure(\mathcal{S}) \ \{ \ 	ext{while} \ (\mathcal{S} \ 	ext{is still changing}) \ 	ext{do} \ \{ \ 	ext{} \ \forall [A 
ightarrow eta \cdot B \delta, \ a] \in \mathcal{S} \ 	ext{} \ \forall B 
ightarrow 	au \in P \ 	ext{} \ \forall b \in first(\delta a) \ 	ext{} \ 	ext{if} \ [B 
ightarrow \cdot 	au, \ b] 
ot \ \mathcal{S} := \mathcal{S} \cup \{[B 
ightarrow \cdot 	au, \ b]\} \ \} \ \}
```

• The algorithm terminates, as the set of items is finite.

• Goto(s, X) computes the state that the parser would reach if it recognized $X \in V$ while in state s:

```
Goto(s,X) = Closure(\,\{[A 
ightarrow eta X \cdot \delta, \; a] \mid [A 
ightarrow eta \cdot X \delta, \; a] \in s\}\,)
```

• Building the Canonical Collection:

Example:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} S & \rightarrow & E \\ E & \rightarrow & T-E \mid T \\ T & \rightarrow & F*T \mid F \\ F & \rightarrow & n \end{array}$$

Symbol	first
S	{n}
E	$\{n\}$
T	$\{n\}$
F	$\{n\}$
_	{-}
*	{*}
n	$\{n\}$

Start state:

$$\begin{array}{lll} s_0 & = & Closure(\{[S \to \cdot E, \, \$]\}) \\ & = & \{ & [S \to \cdot E, \, \$], \, [E \to \cdot T - E, \, \$], \, [E \to \cdot T, \, \$], \\ & & [T \to \cdot F * T, \, \$], \, [T \to \cdot F * T, \, -], \, [T \to \cdot F, \, \$], \\ & & [T \to \cdot F, \, -], \, [F \to \cdot n, \, \$], [F \to \cdot n, \, -], \, [F \to \cdot n, \, *] & \} \end{array}$$

1st iteration:

```
\begin{array}{lll} s_1 & = & Goto(s_0,E) \\ & = & \{ & [S \to E \cdot, \, \$] & \\ s_2 & = & Goto(s_0,T) \\ & = & \{ & [E \to T \cdot -E, \, \$], \, [E \to T \cdot, \, \$] & \} \\ s_3 & = & Goto(s_0,F) \\ & = & \{ & [T \to F \cdot *T, \, \$], \, [T \to F \cdot *T, \, -], \\ & & [T \to F \cdot, \, \$], \, [T \to F \cdot, \, -] & \} \\ s_4 & = & Goto(s_0,n) \\ & = & \{ & [F \to n \cdot, \, \$], \, [F \to n \cdot, \, -], \, [F \to n \cdot, \, *] & \} \end{array}
```

2nd iteration:

$$\begin{array}{lll} s_5 & = & Goto(s_2, -) \\ & = & \{ & [E \to T - \cdot E, \; \$], \; [E \to \cdot T - E, \; \$], \; [E \to \cdot T, \; \$], \\ & & [T \to \cdot F * T, \; -], \; [T \to \cdot F, \; -], \\ & & [T \to \cdot F * T, \; \$], \; [T \to \cdot F, \; \$], \\ & & [F \to \cdot n, \; *], \; [F \to \cdot n, \; -], \; [F \to \cdot n, \; \$] \end{array} \right. \\ s_6 & = & Goto(s_3, *) \\ & = & \{ & [T \to F * \cdot T, \; \$], \; [T \to F * \cdot T, \; -], \\ & & [T \to \cdot F * T, \; \$], \; [T \to \cdot F, \; T, \; -], \\ & & [T \to \cdot F, \; \$], \; [T \to \cdot F, \; -], \\ & & [F \to \cdot n, \; \$], \; [F \to \cdot n, \; -], \; [F \to \cdot n, \; *] \end{array} \right. \end{array}$$

3rd iteration:

$$\begin{array}{lll} s_{7} & = & Goto(s_{5}, E) \\ & = & \left\{ & \left[E \to T - E \cdot, \right. \right] \right. \\ s_{8} & = & Goto(s_{6}, T) \\ & = & \left\{ & \left[T \to F * T \cdot, \right. \right], \left[T \to F * T \cdot, \right. - \right] \right. \right\} \end{array}$$

Transition relation Δ

State	E	T	F	_	*	n
0	1	2	3			4
1						
2				5		
3					6	
4						
5	7	2	3			4
6		8	3			4
7						
8						

Generation of LR(1)-tables:

```
\begin{array}{l} \forall s_x \in \mathcal{S} \\ \forall i \in s_x \\ \text{if } i = [A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot a\beta, \ b], \Delta(s_x, a) = s_k, \ a \in T \ \text{then} \\ ACTION[x, a] := \text{shift}(k); \\ \text{else if } i = [S' \rightarrow S \cdot, \ \$] \ \text{then} \\ ACTION[x, a] := \text{accept}; \\ \text{else if } i = [A \rightarrow \beta \cdot, \ a] \ \text{then} \\ ACTION[x, a] := \text{reduce}(A \rightarrow \beta); \\ \forall A \in N \\ \text{if } \Delta(s_x, A) = s_k \ \text{then} \\ GOTO[x, A] := k; \end{array}
```

LR(1)-tables for the example grammar:

	ACTION				GOTO		
	n	_	*	\$	E	T	F
0	$\mathbf{shift}(4)$				1	2	3
1				accept			
2		$\mathbf{shift}(5)$		reduce(3)			
3		reduce(5)	shift(6)	reduce(5)			
4		reduce(6)	reduce(6)	reduce(6)			
5	$\mathbf{shift}(4)$				7	2	3
6	$\mathbf{shift}(4)$					8	3
7				reduce(2)			
8		reduce(4)		reduce(4)			