

## Administrivia

- Test I during class on 10 March.
- Notes updated (at last)


## An Introductory Example

- LR parsers don't need left-factored grammars and can also handle left-recursive grammars
- Consider the following grammar:

$$
E \rightarrow E+(E) \mid \text { int }
$$

- Why is this not $\operatorname{LL}(1)$ ?
- Consider the string: int + (int ) + (int )

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$$

## A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (1)

```
```

int + (int) + (int)

```
```

```
```

int + (int) + (int)

```
```

```
        int + ( int ) + ( int )
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```

    symbol by inverting productions:
    sent \(\leftarrow\) input string of terminals
    while sent \(\neq\) S:
        - Identify first \(\beta\) in sent such that \(A \rightarrow \beta\) is a
        production and \(S \rightarrow^{*} \alpha A \gamma \rightarrow \alpha \beta \gamma=\) sent
    - Replace \(\beta\) by \(A\) in sent (so \(\alpha A \gamma\) becomes new sent)
    - Such $\alpha \beta^{\prime}$ s are called handles
LR parsing reduces a string to the start


## A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (2)

```
int + (int) + (int)
E + (int) + (int)
(handles in red)
```

    E
    int \(+(\operatorname{int})+(\operatorname{int})\)
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## A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (4)

```
int + (int) + (int)
E + (int) + (int)
E + (E) + (int)
E + (int)
```

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    \({ }^{9}\)
    
## A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (6)

$\uparrow \begin{aligned} & \text { int + (int) }+(\text { int }) \\ & E+(i n t)+(i n t) \\ & E+(E)+(i n t) \\ & E+(i n t) \\ & E+(E) \\ & E\end{aligned}$
A reverse rightmost derivation


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A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (3)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { int + (int) + (int) } \\
& E+\text { (int) + (int) } \\
& E+(E)+\text { (int) }
\end{aligned}
$$



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## A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (5)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { int + (int) + (int) } \\
& \text { E + (int) + (int) } \\
& \text { E + (E) + (int) } \\
& \text { E + (int) } \\
& \text { E + (E) }
\end{aligned}
$$



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## Where Do Reductions Happen

Because an LR parser produces a reverse rightmost derivation:

- If $\alpha \beta \gamma$ is step of a bottom-up parse with handle $\alpha \beta$
- And the next reduction is by $A \rightarrow \beta$
- Then $\gamma$ is a string of terminals!
... Because $\alpha A \gamma \rightarrow \alpha \beta \gamma$ is a step in a right-most $\dagger$ derivation
Intuition: We make decisions about what reduction to use after seeing all symbols in handle, rather than before (as for LL(1))


## Notation

- Idea: Split the string into two substrings
- Right substring (a string of terminals) is as yet unexamined by parser
- Left substring has terminals and non-terminals
- The dividing point is marked by a 1
- The । is not part of the string
- Marks end of next potential handle
- Initially, all input is unexamined: $\mid x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{n}$

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| Shift-Reduce Example |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| int + (int) + (int)\$ shift |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

## Shift-Reduce Example

I int + (int) + (int)\$ shift
int I + (int) + (int)\$ red. $E \rightarrow$ int

## Shift-Reduce Example

| int + (int) + (int)\$ shift
int I + (int) + (int)\$ red. E $\rightarrow$ int
EI + (int) + (int)\$ shift 3 times
$E+$ (int I) + (int) $\$$ red. $E \rightarrow$ int


## Shift-Reduce Example

| int + (int) + (int)\$ shift
$\mathrm{int} \mathrm{I}+$ (int) + (int) $\$$ red. $E \rightarrow \mathrm{int}$
EI + (int) + (int)\$ shift 3 times
$E+($ int I $)+($ int $) \$ \quad$ red. $E \rightarrow$ int
$E+(E I)+($ int $) \$$ shift
$E+(E) I+($ int $) \$ \quad$ red. $E \rightarrow E+(E)$


## Shift-Reduce Example

```
l int + (int) + (int)$ shift
int I + (int) + (int)$ red. E }->\mathrm{ int
E I + (int) + (int)$ shift 3 times
E + (int l ) + (int)$ red. E }->\mathrm{ int
E + (EI) + (int)$ shift
E+(E)I + (int)$ red.E }->E+(E
EI+ (int)$ shift 3 times
```





## The Stack

- Left string can be implemented as a stack
- Top of the stack is the ।
- Shift pushes a terminal on the stack
- Reduce pops 0 or more symbols from the stack (production rhs) and pushes a non-terminal on the stack (production Ihs)



## Representing the DFA

- Parsers represent the DFA as a 2D table
- As for table-driven lexical analysis
- Lines correspond to DFA states
- Columns correspond to terminals and nonterminals
- In classical treatments, columns are split into:
- Those for terminals: action table
- Those for non-terminals: goto table


## Representing the DFA. Example

- The table for a fragment of our DFA:



## The LR Parsing Algorithm

- After a shift or reduce action we rerun the DFA on the entire stack
- This is wasteful, since most of the work is repeated
- So record, for each stack element, state of the DFA after that state
- LR parser maintains a stack
$\left\langle\right.$ sym $_{1}$, state $\left._{1}\right\rangle \ldots\left\langle\right.$ sym $_{n}$, state $\left._{n}\right\rangle$ state ${ }_{k}$ is the final state of the DFA on sym $_{1} \ldots$ sym $_{k}$ 2/12/09

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## The LR Parsing Algorithm

```
Let I = w. w w ...wn
Let j = 1
Let DFA state 0 be the start state
Let stack = \ dummy, 0\rangle
    repeat
        case table[top_state(stack), I[j]] of
            shift k: push <I[j],k\rangle;j+=1
            reduce }X->
                pop |\alpha| pairs,
                    push \langleX, table[top_state(stack), X]\rangle
            accept: halt normally
            error: halt and report error
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```


## LR(1) Items

- An $L R(1)$ item is a pair:

$$
X \rightarrow \alpha \cdot \beta, a
$$

$-X \rightarrow \alpha \beta$ is a production

- a is a terminal (the lookahead terminal)
- LR(1) means 1 lookahead terminal
- [X $\rightarrow \alpha \cdot \beta, a]$ describes a context of the parser
- We are trying to find an $X$ followed by an $a$, and
- We have $\alpha$ already on top of the stack
- Thus we need to see next a prefix derived from $\beta$ a

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Constructing the Parsing DFA. Example.


## LR Parsing Tables. Notes

- Parsing tables (i.e. the DFA) can be constructed automatically for a CFG
- But we still need to understand the construction to work with parser generators
- E.g., they report errors in terms of sets of items
- What kind of errors can we expect?


## Shift/Reduce Conflicts

- Typically due to ambiguities in the grammar
- Classic example: the dangling else

$$
S \rightarrow \text { if } E \text { then } S \text { | if } E \text { then } S \text { else } S \text { | OTHER }
$$

- Will have DFA state containing

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
{[S \rightarrow \text { if } E \text { then } S \bullet,} & \text { else }] \\
{[S \rightarrow \text { if } E \text { then } S \bullet \text { else } S,} & \$]
\end{array}
$$

- If else follows then we can shift or reduce


## More Shift/Reduce Conflicts

- In bison declare precedence and associativity of terminal symbols:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { \%left + } \\
& \text { eloft }
\end{aligned}
$$

- Precedence of a rule $=$ that of its last terminal
- See bison manual for ways to override this default
- Resolve shift/reduce conflict with a shift if:
- input terminal has higher precedence than the rule
- the precedences are the same and right associative


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## Shift/Reduce Conflicts

- If a DFA state contains both

$$
[X \rightarrow \alpha \cdot a \beta, b] \text { and }\left[Y \rightarrow \gamma^{\bullet}, a\right]
$$

- Then on input " $a$ " we could either
- Shift into state $[X \rightarrow \alpha a \bullet \beta$, $b$ ], or
- Reduce with $Y \rightarrow \gamma$
- This is called a shift-reduce conflict


## More Shift/Reduce Conflicts

- Consider the ambiguous grammar

$$
E \rightarrow E+E|E * E| \text { int }
$$

- We will have the states containing

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[E \rightarrow E^{*} \cdot E_{1}+\right]} \\
& {\left[E \rightarrow \cdot E+E_{1}+\right]}
\end{aligned} \Rightarrow E \begin{aligned}
& {\left[E \rightarrow E^{*} E_{\bullet},+\right]} \\
& {\left[E \rightarrow E_{\bullet}+E_{1}+\right]}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Again we have a shift/reduce on input +
- We need to reduce (* binds more tightly than +)
- Solution: declare the precedence of * and +

Using Precedence to Solve S/R Conflicts

- Back to our example:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
{\left[E \rightarrow E^{*} \cdot E_{,}+\right]} & {\left[E \rightarrow E^{*} E_{\bullet},+\right]} \\
{[E \rightarrow \cdot E+E,+] \Rightarrow E} & {\left[E \rightarrow E \cdot+E_{1}+\right]}
\end{array}
$$

- Will choose reduce because precedence of rule $E \rightarrow E$ * $E$ is higher than of terminal +


## Using Precedence to Solve S/R Conflicts

- Same grammar as before

$$
E \rightarrow E+E|E * E| \mathrm{int}
$$

- We will also have the states

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[E \rightarrow E+\cdot E,+]} \\
& {[E \rightarrow \cdot E+E,+] \Rightarrow E \quad[E \rightarrow E+E \cdot,+]} \\
& {[E \rightarrow E \cdot+E,+]}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Now we also have a shift/reduce on input +
- We choose reduce because $E \rightarrow E+E$ and + have the same precedence and + is left-associative


## Reduce/Reduce Conflicts

- If a DFA state contains both
$\left[X \rightarrow \alpha^{\bullet}, a\right]$ and $\left[Y \rightarrow \beta^{\bullet}, a\right]$
- Then on input " $a$ " we don't know which production to reduce
- This is called a reduce/reduce conflict

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## More on Reduce/Reduce Conflicts

Reduce/reduce conflict on input \$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S^{\prime} \rightarrow S \rightarrow i d \\
& S^{\prime} \rightarrow S \rightarrow i d S \rightarrow i d
\end{aligned}
$$

Better rewrite the grammar: $S \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid$ id $S$

## Using Precedence to Solve S/R Conflicts

- Back to our dangling else example

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
{[S \rightarrow \text { if } E \text { then } S \bullet,} & \text { else }] \\
{[S \rightarrow \text { if } E \text { then } S \cdot \text { else } S,} & x]
\end{array}
$$

- Can eliminate conflict by declaring else with higher precedence than then
- However, best to avoid overuse of precedence declarations or you'll end with unexpected parse trees


## Reduce/Reduce Conflicts

- Usually due to gross ambiguity in the grammar
- Example: a sequence of identifiers

$$
S \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid \text { id } \mid \text { id } S
$$

- There are two parse trees for the string id

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S \rightarrow \text { id } \\
& S \rightarrow \text { id } S \rightarrow \text { id }
\end{aligned}
$$

- How does this confuse the parser?

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## Relation to Bison

- Bison builds this kind of machine.
- However, for efficiency concerns, collapses many of the states together.
- Causes some additional conflicts, but not many.
- The machines discussed here are LR(1) engines. Bison's optimized versions are LALR(1) engines.



## Notes on Parsing

## - Parsing

- A simple parser: LL(1), recursive descent
- A more powerful parser: LR(1)
- An efficiency hack: LALR(1)
- We use LALR(1) parser generators
- Earley's algorithm provides a complete algorithm for parsing context-free languages.

