LR Parsing LALR Parser Generators

Outline

- · Review of bottom-up parsing
- Computing the parsing DFA
- Using parser generators

Bottom-up Parsing (Review)

- A bottom-up parser rewrites the input string to the start symbol
- The state of the parser is described as

- α is a stack of terminals and non-terminals
- γ is the string of terminals not yet examined
- Initially: $1 \times_1 \times_2 \dots \times_n$

The Shift and Reduce Actions (Review)

- Recall the CFG: $E \rightarrow int \mid E + (E)$
- A bottom-up parser uses two kinds of actions:
- Shift pushes a terminal from input on the stack

$$E + (int) \Rightarrow E + (int)$$

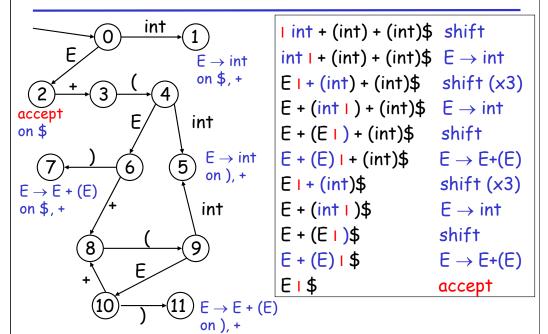
Reduce pops 0 or more symbols off of the stack (production RHS) and pushes a nonterminal on the stack (production LHS)

$$E + (\underline{E + (E)} \mid) \Rightarrow E + (\underline{E} \mid)$$

Key Issue: When to Shift or Reduce?

- Idea: use a deterministic finite automaton (DFA) to decide when to shift or reduce
 - The input is the stack
 - The language consists of terminals and non-terminals
- We run the DFA on the stack and we examine the resulting state X and the token tok after I
 - If X has a transition labeled tok then shift
 - If X is labeled with "A $\rightarrow \beta$ on tok" then <u>reduce</u>

LR(1) Parsing: An Example

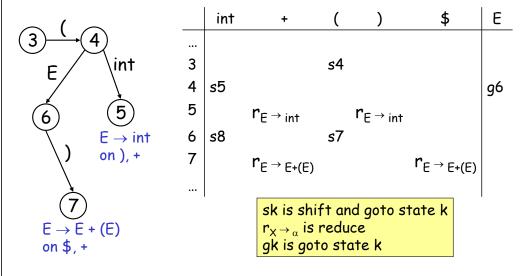


Representing the DFA

- Parsers represent the DFA as a 2D table
 - Recall table-driven lexical analysis
- Lines correspond to DFA states
- Columns correspond to terminals and nonterminals
- Typically columns are split into:
 - Those for terminals: the action table
 - Those for non-terminals: the 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
- Remember for each stack element on which state it brings the DFA
- LR parser maintains a stack

```
\langle sym_1, state_1 \rangle \dots \langle sym_n, state_n \rangle
state<sub>k</sub> is the final state of the DFA on sym_1 \dots sym_k
```

The LR Parsing Algorithm

```
let I = w$ be initial input let j = 0 let DFA state 0 be the start state let stack = \langle dummy, 0 \rangle repeat case action[top_state(stack), I[j]] of shift k: push \langle I[j++], k\rangle reduce X \rightarrow A: pop |A| pairs, push \langle X, goto[top_state(stack), X]\rangle accept: halt normally error: halt and report error
```

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Key Issue: How is the DFA Constructed?

- The stack describes the context of the parse
 - What non-terminal we are looking for
 - What production RHS we are looking for
 - What we have seen so far from the RHS
- Each DFA state describes several such contexts
 - E.g., when we are looking for non-terminal E, we might be looking either for an int or an E + (E) RHS

LR(0) Items

- An <u>LR(0)</u> item is a production with a "I" somewhere on the RHS
- The items for $T \rightarrow (E)$ are

```
T \rightarrow I (E)

T \rightarrow (IE)

T \rightarrow (EI)

T \rightarrow (E)I
```

• The only item for $X \to \epsilon$ is $X \to I$

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LR(0) Items: Intuition

- An item $[X \rightarrow \alpha I \beta]$ says that
 - the parser is looking for an X
 - it has an α on top of the stack
 - Expects to find a string derived from $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ next in the input
- · Notes:
 - [X $\rightarrow \alpha$ I $\alpha\beta$] means that a should follow. Then we can shift it and still have a viable prefix
 - $[X \rightarrow \alpha I]$ means that we could reduce X
 - · But this is not always a good idea!

LR(1) Items

• An LR(1) item is a pair:

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

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

Note

- The symbol I was used before to separate the stack from the rest of input
 - α I γ , where α is the stack and γ is the remaining string of terminals
- In items I is used to mark a prefix of a production RHS:

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

- Here β might contain terminals as well
- In both case the stack is on the left of I

Convention

- We add to our grammar a fresh new start symbol S and a production $S \rightarrow E$
 - Where E is the old start symbol
- The initial parsing context contains:

$$S \rightarrow IE$$
,\$

- Trying to find an S as a string derived from E\$
- The stack is empty

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LR(1) Items (Cont.)

In context containing

$$E \rightarrow E + I(E)$$
,+

 If (follows then we can perform a shift to context containing

$$E \rightarrow E + (IE)$$
,+

In context containing

$$E \rightarrow E + (E)_{I}$$
,+

- We can perform a reduction with $E \rightarrow E + (E)$
- But only if a + follows

LR(1) Items (Cont.)

Consider the item

$$E \rightarrow E + (IE)$$
,+

- We expect a string derived from E) +
- There are two productions for E

$$E \rightarrow int$$
 and $E \rightarrow E + (E)$

 We describe this by extending the context with two more items:

$$E \rightarrow i \text{ int}$$
 ,)
 $E \rightarrow i E + (E)$,)

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The Closure Operation

 The operation of extending the context with items is called the closure operation

```
Closure(Items) = repeat for each [X \rightarrow \alpha | Y\beta, a] in Items for each production Y \rightarrow \gamma for each b in First(\betaa) add [Y \rightarrow | \gamma, b] to Items until Items is unchanged
```

Constructing the Parsing DFA (1)

Construct the start context:

$$E \rightarrow E + (E) \mid int$$

Closure($\{S \rightarrow I E, \$\}$) $S \rightarrow I E, \$$ $E \rightarrow I E+(E), \$$ $E \rightarrow I int, \$$ $E \rightarrow I E+(E), +$ $E \rightarrow I int, +$

We abbreviate as:

$$S \rightarrow IE$$
 , \$ $E \rightarrow IE+(E)$, \$/+ $E \rightarrow I$ int , \$/+

Constructing the Parsing DFA (2)

- A DFA state is a closed set of LR(1) items
- The start state contains $[S \rightarrow IE, \$]$
- A state that contains [X $\rightarrow \alpha$ I, b] is labelled with "reduce with X $\rightarrow \alpha$ on b"
- And now the transitions ...

The DFA Transitions

- A state "State" that contains $[X \to \alpha \mid y\beta, b]$ has a transition labeled y to a state that contains the items "Transition(State, y)"
 - y can be a terminal or a non-terminal

```
Transition(State, y)

Items = \emptyset

for each [X \rightarrow \alpha | y\beta, b] in State

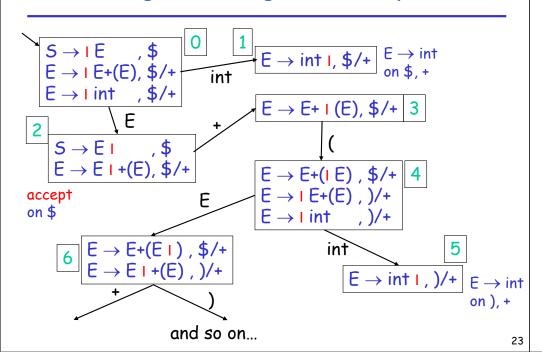
add [X \rightarrow \alphay | \beta, b] to Items

return Closure(Items)
```

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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

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

Shift/Reduce Conflicts

- Typically due to ambiguities in the grammar
- Classic example: the dangling else $S \rightarrow \text{if E then } S \mid \text{if E then } S \text{ else } S \mid \text{OTHER}$
- Will have DFA state containing

$$[S \rightarrow \text{if E then S I}, else]$$

 $[S \rightarrow \text{if E then S I else S}, x]$

- If else follows then we can shift or reduce
- Default (yacc, ML-yacc, etc.) is to shift
 - Default behavior is as needed in this case

More Shift/Reduce Conflicts

· Consider the ambiguous grammar

$$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid int$$

We will have the states containing

$$[E \rightarrow E * I E, +] \qquad [E \rightarrow E * E I, +]$$
$$[E \rightarrow I E + E, +] \Rightarrow^{E} [E \rightarrow E I + E, +]$$

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

More Shift/Reduce Conflicts

• In yacc declare precedence and associativity:

```
%left +
%left *
```

- Precedence of a rule = that of its last terminal
 See yacc manual for ways to override this default
- Resolve shift/reduce conflict with a <u>shift</u> if:
 - no precedence declared for either rule or terminal
 - input terminal has higher precedence than the rule
 - the precedences are the same and right associative

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Using Precedence to Solve S/R Conflicts

Back to our example:

```
[E \rightarrow E * IE, +] \qquad [E \rightarrow E * E I, +][E \rightarrow IE + E, +] \Rightarrow^{E} \qquad [E \rightarrow E I + E, +]...
```

• 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

$$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid int$$

· We will also have the states

$$[E \rightarrow E + I E, +] \qquad [E \rightarrow E + E I, +]$$
$$[E \rightarrow I E + E, +] \Rightarrow^{E} [E \rightarrow E I + E, +]$$

- 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

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Using Precedence to Solve S/R Conflicts

· Back to our dangling else example

```
[S \rightarrow if E \text{ then } S I, else]

[S \rightarrow if E \text{ then } S I \text{ else } S, x]
```

- Can eliminate conflict by declaring else having higher precedence than then
- But this starts to look like "hacking the tables"
- Best to avoid overuse of precedence declarations or we will end with unexpected parse trees

Precedence Declarations Revisited

The term "precedence declaration" is misleading!

These declarations do not define precedence: they define conflict resolutions

I.e., they instruct shift-reduce parsers to resolve conflicts in certain ways

The two are not quite the same thing!

Reduce/Reduce Conflicts

· If a DFA state contains both

$$[X \rightarrow \alpha I, a]$$
 and $[Y \rightarrow \beta I, a]$

- Then on input "a" we don't know which production to reduce
- This is called a reduce/reduce conflict

Reduce/Reduce Conflicts

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

$$S \rightarrow \varepsilon$$
 | id | id S

· There are two parse trees for the string id

$$S \rightarrow id$$

 $S \rightarrow id$ $S \rightarrow id$

How does this confuse the parser?

More on Reduce/Reduce Conflicts

• Consider the states $[S \rightarrow id I, $]$

Reduce/reduce conflict on input \$

$$S' \rightarrow S \rightarrow id$$

 $S' \rightarrow S \rightarrow id S \rightarrow id$

• Better rewrite the grammar as: $S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid id S$

Using Parser Generators

- Parser generators automatically construct the parsing DFA given a CFG
 - Use precedence declarations and default conventions to resolve conflicts
 - The parser algorithm is the same for all grammars (and is provided as a library function)
- But most parser generators do not construct the DFA as described before
 - Because the LR(1) parsing DFA has 1000s of states even for a simple language

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LR(1) Parsing Tables are Big

But many states are similar, e.g.

- <u>Idea</u>: merge the DFA states whose items differ only in the lookahead tokens
 - We say that such states have the same core

The Core of a Set of LR Items

<u>Definition</u>: The core of a set of LR items is the set of first components

- Without the lookahead terminals
- Example: the core of

$$\{[X \rightarrow \alpha \mid \beta, b], [Y \rightarrow \gamma \mid \delta, d]\}$$

is

$$\{X \rightarrow \alpha I \beta, Y \rightarrow \gamma I \delta\}$$

LALR States

· Consider for example the LR(1) states

{[X
$$\rightarrow \alpha$$
 I, a], [Y $\rightarrow \beta$ I, c]}
{[X $\rightarrow \alpha$ I, b], [Y $\rightarrow \beta$ I, d]}

- They have the same core and can be merged
- And the merged state contains:

$$\{[X \rightarrow \alpha I, \alpha/b], [Y \rightarrow \beta I, c/d]\}$$

- These are called LALR(1) states
 - Stands for LookAhead LR
 - Typically 10 times fewer LALR(1) states than LR(1)

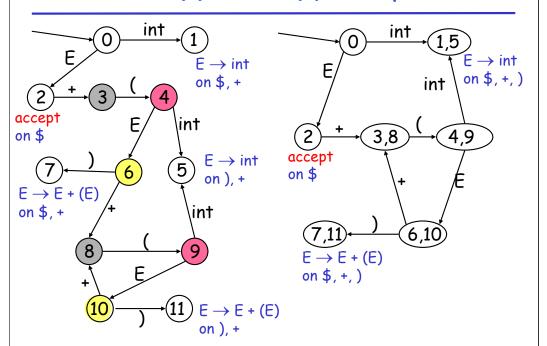
A LALR(1) DFA

- Repeat until all states have distinct core
 - Choose two distinct states with same core
 - Merge the states by creating a new one with the union of all the items
 - Point edges from predecessors to new state
 - New state points to all the previous successors



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Conversion LR(1) to LALR(1): Example.



The LALR Parser Can Have Conflicts

Consider for example the LR(1) states

{[X
$$\rightarrow \alpha$$
 I, a], [Y $\rightarrow \beta$ I, b]}
{[X $\rightarrow \alpha$ I, b], [Y $\rightarrow \beta$ I, a]}

And the merged LALR(1) state

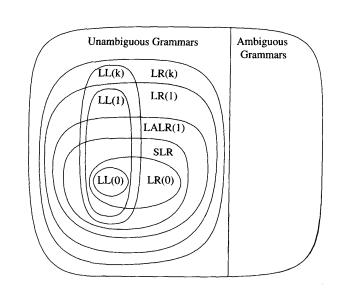
$$\{[X \rightarrow \alpha I, a/b], [Y \rightarrow \beta I, a/b]\}$$

- · Has a new reduce/reduce conflict
- In practice such cases are rare

LALR vs. LR Parsing: Things to keep in mind

- · LALR languages are not natural
 - They are an efficiency hack on LR languages
- Any reasonable programming language has a LALR(1) grammar
- LALR(1) parsing has become a standard for programming languages and for parser generators

A Hierarchy of Grammar Classes



From Andrew Appel, "Modern Compiler Implementation in ML" 42

Semantic Actions in LR Parsing

- We can now illustrate how semantic actions are implemented for LR parsing
- Keep attributes on the stack
- On shifting a, push attribute for a on stack
- On reduce $X \rightarrow \alpha$
 - pop attributes for α
 - compute attribute for X
 - and push it on the stack

Performing Semantic Actions: Example

Recall the example

```
\begin{array}{ll} E \rightarrow T + E_1 & \{ \text{ E.val} = \text{ T.val} + E_1.\text{val} \} \\ & | T & \{ \text{ E.val} = \text{ T.val} \} \\ & T \rightarrow \text{ int * } T_1 & \{ \text{ T.val} = \text{ int.val * } T_1.\text{val} \} \\ & | \text{ int } & \{ \text{ T.val} = \text{ int.val} \} \end{array}
```

Consider the parsing of the string: 4 * 9 + 6

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Performing Semantic Actions: Example

```
| int * int + int

int<sub>4</sub> | * int + int

int<sub>4</sub> * | int + int

int<sub>4</sub> * int<sub>9</sub> | + int

int<sub>4</sub> * T<sub>9</sub> | + int

T<sub>36</sub> | + int

T<sub>36</sub> + | int

T<sub>36</sub> + int<sub>6</sub> |

T<sub>36</sub> + T<sub>6</sub> |

T<sub>36</sub> + E<sub>6</sub> |

E<sub>42</sub> |
```

```
\begin{array}{c} 4 & * & 9 & + & 6 \\ \text{shift} \\ \text{shift} \\ \text{reduce } T \rightarrow \text{int} \\ \text{reduce } T \rightarrow \text{int} * T \\ \text{shift} \\ \text{shift} \\ \text{reduce } T \rightarrow \text{int} \\ \text{reduce } E \rightarrow T \\ \text{reduce } E \rightarrow T + E \\ \text{accept} \end{array}
```

Notes

- The previous example shows how synthesized attributes are computed by LR parsers
- It is also possible to compute inherited attributes in an LR parser

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Notes on Parsing

- · Parsing
 - A solid foundation: context-free grammars
 - A simple parser: LL(1)
 - A more powerful parser: LR(1)
 - An efficiency hack: LALR(1)
 - LALR(1) parser generators
- Next time we move on to semantic analysis

Supplement to LR Parsing

Strange Reduce/Reduce Conflicts
due to LALR Conversion
(and how to handle them)

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Strange Reduce/Reduce Conflicts

Consider the grammar

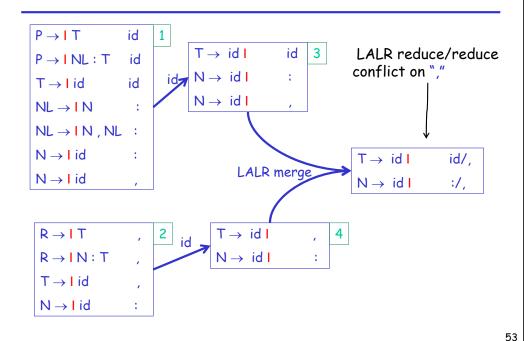
$$S \rightarrow PR$$
, $NL \rightarrow N \mid N$, NL
 $P \rightarrow T \mid NL : T$ $R \rightarrow T \mid N : T$
 $N \rightarrow id$ $T \rightarrow id$

- P parameters specification
- R result specification
- N a parameter or result name
- \cdot T a type name
- · NL a list of names

Strange Reduce/Reduce Conflicts

- In P an id is a
 - N when followed by , or :
 - T when followed by id
- In R an id is a
 - N when followed by:
 - T when followed by,
- This is an LR(1) grammar
- But it is not LALR(1). Why?
 - For obscure reasons

A Few LR(1) States



What Happened?

- Two distinct states were confused because they have the same core
- Fix: add dummy productions to distinguish the two confused states
- E.g., add

$$R \rightarrow id bogus$$

- bogus is a terminal not used by the lexer
- This production will never be used during parsing
- But it distinguishes R from P

A Few LR(1) States After Fix

