# 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

- $\alpha$  is a stack of terminals and non-terminals
- $\gamma$  is the string of terminals not yet examined
- Initially:  $|x_1x_2...x_n|$

#### 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

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

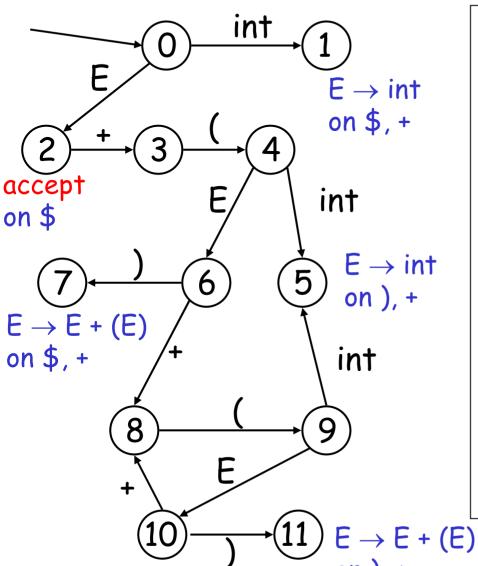
 Reduce pops 0 or more symbols off of the stack (production RHS) and pushes a nonterminal on the stack (production LHS)

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

#### 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 reduce

# LR(1) Parsing: An Example



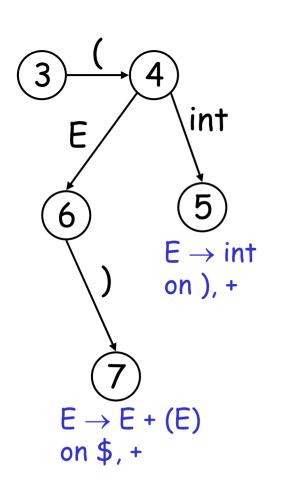
```
I int + (int) + (int)$
int I + (int) + (int) \Rightarrow E \rightarrow int
E_{I} + (int) + (int)$ shift (x3)
E + (int I) + (int)$ E \rightarrow int
E + (E \mid ) + (int)$
                          shift
E + (E) I + (int)$
                          E \rightarrow E+(E)
E_1 + (int)$
                          shift (x3)
E + (int I)$
                          E \rightarrow int
E + (E | )$
                          shift
E+(E) | $
                          E \rightarrow E+(E)
EI$
                          accept
```

## 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:



	int	+	(	)	\$	E
•••						
3			s <b>4</b>			
4	<i>s</i> 5					<i>g</i> 6
5		$\mathbf{r}_{E}  o int$		$r_{\text{E}}  ightarrow int$		
6	<b>s</b> 8		s7			
7		$r_{\text{E}} \rightarrow \text{E+(E)}$			$r_{\text{E}} \rightarrow \text{E+(E)}$	
•••						
	sk is shift and goto state k					
	$r_{X} \rightarrow_{\alpha}$ is reduce gk is goto state k					
	gk is goto state k					

# 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 \text{sym}_1, \text{state}_1 \rangle \dots \langle \text{sym}_n, \text{state}_n \rangle
state<sub>k</sub> is the final state of the DFA on \text{sym}_1 \dots \text{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[i]] of
               shift k: push ( I[j++], k )
               reduce X \rightarrow A:
                    pop | A | pairs,
                    push ( X, goto[top_state(stack), X] )
               accept: halt normally
               error: halt and report error
```

#### 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 LR(0) 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  $X \to \varepsilon$  is  $X \to I$ 

#### LR(0) Items: Intuition

- An item  $[X \rightarrow \alpha \mid \beta]$  says that
  - the parser is looking for an X
  - it has an  $\alpha$  on top of the stack
  - Expects to find a string derived from  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  next in the input

#### Notes:

- $[X \rightarrow \alpha \ l \ a\beta]$  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  $\rightarrow \alpha$  |  $\beta$ , a] describes a context of the parser
  - We are trying to find an X followed by an a, and
  - We have (at least)  $\alpha$  already on top of the stack
  - Thus we need to see next a prefix derived from  $\beta a$

#### Note

- The symbol I was used before to separate the stack from the rest of input
  - $\alpha$  I  $\gamma$ , where  $\alpha$  is the stack and  $\gamma$  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  $\beta$  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 5 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 5 as a string derived from E\$
- The stack is empty

## 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:

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

## 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:

Closure( $\{S \rightarrow IE, \$\}$ )

he start context: 
$$E \rightarrow E + (E) \mid int$$

```
S \rightarrow IE, $
E \rightarrow I E+(E), $
E \rightarrow I int , $
E \rightarrow I E+(E), +
E \rightarrow I \text{ 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  $[X \rightarrow \alpha \mid y\beta, b]$  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)

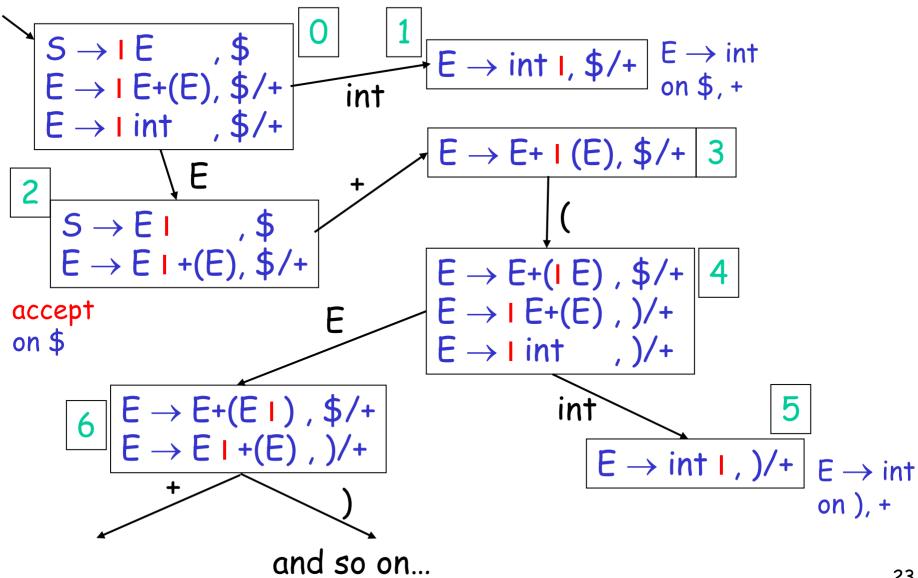
Items = \emptyset

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

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

return Closure(Items)
```

## 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  $[Y \rightarrow \gamma \mid, \alpha]$ 

- · Then on input "a" we could either
  - Shift into state [ $X \rightarrow \alpha a \mid \beta, b$ ], 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}, \text{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 * IE, +] \qquad [E \rightarrow E * E I, +]
[E \rightarrow IE + 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 shift 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

## Using Precedence to Solve S/R Conflicts

Back to our example:

```
[E \rightarrow E * I E, +] \qquad [E \rightarrow E * E I, +]
[E \rightarrow I E + 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

## Using Precedence to Solve S/R Conflicts

Back to our dangling else example

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

[S \rightarrow \text{if E then S I 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' 	o I S, $] [S 	o id I S, $] [S 	o I id I S, $] [S 	o I id, $] [S 	o I id, $] [S 	o I id, $] [S 	o I id S, $]
```

 $[S \rightarrow id I, $1]$ 

Reduce/reduce conflict on input \$

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

• Better rewrite the grammar as:  $5 \rightarrow \epsilon$  | id 5

# 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

# 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
- · We obtain

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\hline
1' \\
E \rightarrow \text{int I, $/+/)} & E \rightarrow \text{int on $, +, )}
\end{array}$$

#### 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

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

#### 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:

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

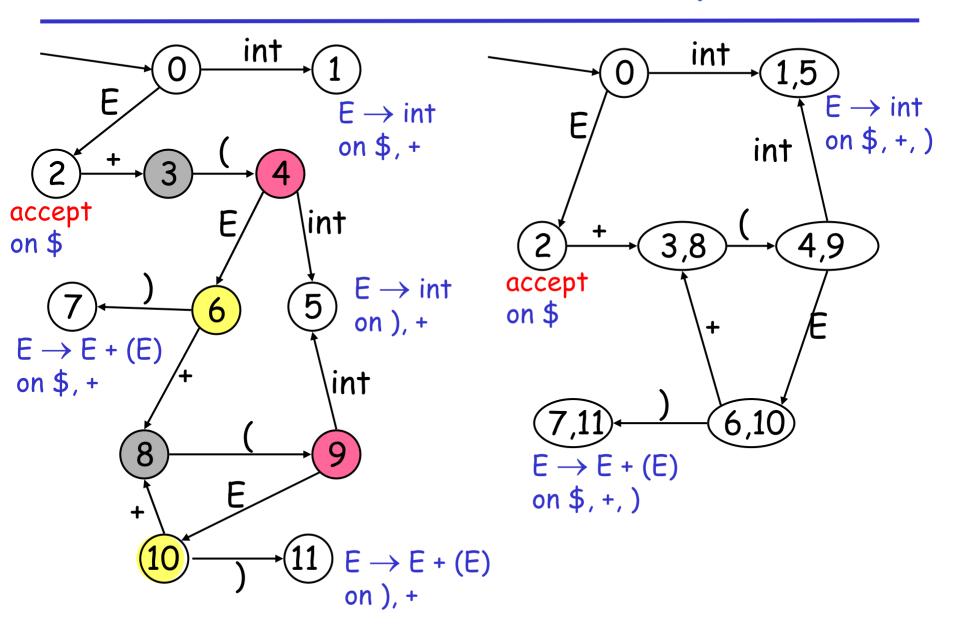
- These are called LALR(1) states
  - Stands for Look Ahead LR
  - Typically 10 times fewer LALR(1) states than LR(1)

#### 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



# 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

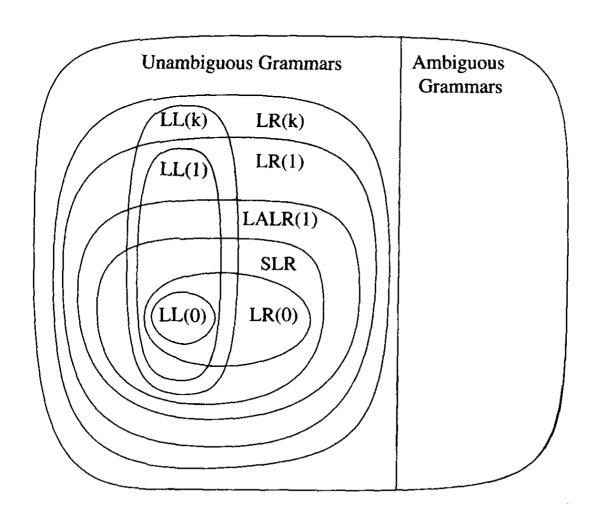
$$\{[X \rightarrow \alpha I, a/b], [Y \rightarrow \beta I, a/b]\}$$

- · Has a <u>new</u> 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"

#### 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  $X \to \alpha$ 
  - pop attributes for  $\alpha$
  - compute attribute for X
  - and push it on the stack

### Performing Semantic Actions: Example

### Recall the example

```
E \rightarrow T + E_1 { E.val = T.val + E_1.val }

| T { E.val = T.val }

T \rightarrow \text{int * } T_1 { T.val = int.val * T_1.val }

| int { T.val = int.val }
```

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

### Performing Semantic Actions: Example

```
l int * int + int
                                           shift
int₄ | * int + int
                                          shift
int₄ * | int + int
                                          shift
int<sub>4</sub> * int<sub>9</sub> | + int
                                           reduce T \rightarrow int
                                           reduce T \rightarrow int * T
int_4 * T_9 + int
T_{36} + int
                                           shift
T_{36} + | int
                                           shift
T_{36} + int<sub>6</sub>
                                           reduce T \rightarrow int
T_{36} + T_{6}
                                           reduce E \rightarrow T
T_{36} + E_6
                                           reduce E \rightarrow T + E
E<sub>42</sub>
                                          accept
```

#### 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

### 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)

## 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

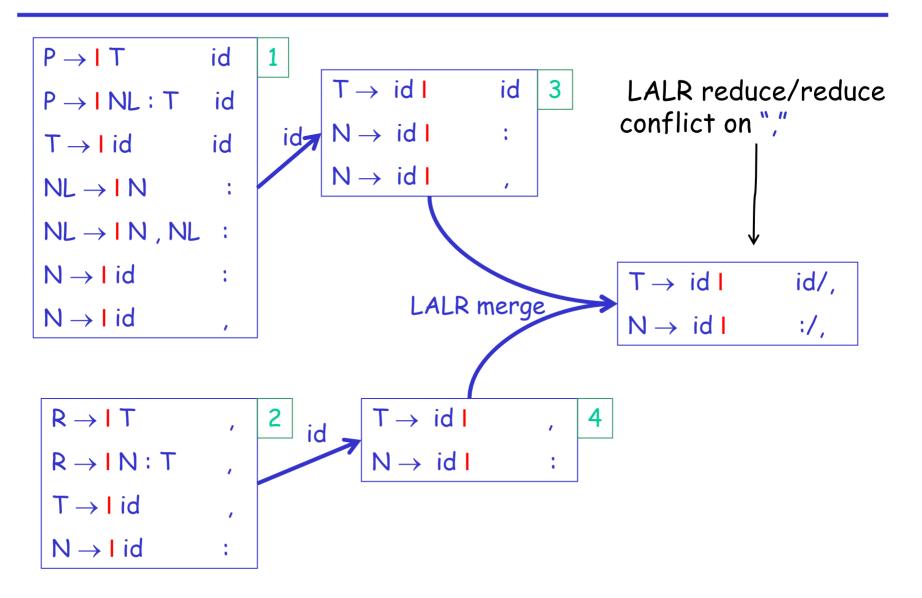
N \rightarrow id T \rightarrow id
```

- P parameters specification
- · R result specification
- N a parameter or result name
- 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

