# Syntax Analysis



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Based on slides and notes by S. Olivier, A. Block, N. Fisher, F. Hernandez-Campos, and D. Stotts.

Wednesday, April 14, 2010



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Scanner (lexical analysis)

Parser (syntax analysis)

Semantic analysis & intermediate code gen.

Machine-independent optimization (optional)

Target code generation.

Machine-specific optimization (optional)

### Symbol Table



### **Syntax Analysis: Discovery of Program Structure**

Turn the stream of individual input tokens into a complete, hierarchical representation of the program (or compilation unit).



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### 05: Syntax Analysis

# Syntax Specification and Parsing

### Syntax Specification

How can we **succinctly** describe the structure of legal programs?

### Context-free Grammars



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### Syntax Recognition

How can a compiler discover if a program **conforms** to the specification?

### LL and LR Parsers



## **Context-Free Grammars** regular grammar + recursion

### **Review:** grammar.

- Collection of productions.
- A production defines a non-terminal (on the left, the "head") in terms of a string terminal and non-terminal symbols.
- Terminal symbols are elements of the alphabet of the grammar.
- $\rightarrow$  A non-terminal can be the head of multiple productions.

# **Example: Natural Numbers** $digit \rightarrow 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9$ non\_zero\_digit $\rightarrow 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9$ natural\_number $\rightarrow$ non\_zero\_digit digit\*

## **Context-Free Grammars** regular grammar + recursion

### **Regular grammars.**

- ➡ Restriction: no unrestricted recursion.
- A non-terminal symbol cannot be defined in terms of itself. (except for special cases that equivalent to a Kleene Closure) Serious limitation: e.g., cannot express matching parenthesis.



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## **Context-Free Grammars** regular grammar + recursion

### **Context-free Grammars (CFGs) allow recursion.**





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### **Can express matching** parenthesis requirement.





### Key difference to lexical grammar: terminal symbols are tokens, not individual characters.





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# **Context-Free Grammars**

One of the non-terminals, usually the first one, is called the start symbol, and it defines the construct defined by the grammar.





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# on.



### **Backus-Naur-Form (BNF)** Originally developed for ALGOL 58/60 reports. Textual notation for context-free grammars.

expr → id | number | '-' expr | '(' expr ')' | expr op expr

is written as

::= id | number | - <expr> |( <expr> ) <expr> <expr> <op> <expr>



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expr → id | number | '-' expr | '(' expr ')' | expr op expr

is written as

::= id | number | - <expr> |( <expr> ) <expr> <expr> <op> <expr>

### Strictly speaking, it does not include the Kleene Star and similar "notational sugar."

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### **Extended Backus-Naur-Form (EBNF)** Many authors extend BNF to simplify grammars. One of the first to do so was Niklaus Wirth. There exists an ISO standard for EBNF (ISO/IEC 14977).

- But many dialects exist.





### Extended Backus-Naur-Form (EBNF) Many authors extend BNF to simplify grammars. One of the first to do so was Niklaus Wirth. There exists an ISO standard for EBNF (ISO/IEC 14977).

- But many dialects exist.

### **Features**

- Terminal symbols are quoted.
- $\rightarrow$  Use of '=' instead of ': :=' to denote  $\rightarrow$ .
- → Use of ',' for concatenation.
- $\Rightarrow$  [A] means A can occur optionally (zero or one time).
- ➡ {A} means A can occur repeatedly (Kleene Star).
- Parenthesis are allowed for grouping.
- → And then some...

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Extended Backus-Naur-Form (EBNF) Many authors extend BNF to simplify grammars.

We will use mostly BNF-like grammars with the addition of the Kleene Star,  $\varepsilon$ , and parenthesis.

 $\rightarrow$  Use of '=' instead of ': :=' to denote  $\rightarrow$ .

→ Use of ',' for concatenation.

 $\rightarrow$  [A] means A can occur optionally (zero or one time).

➡ {A} means A can occur repeatedly (Kleene Star).

Parenthesis are allowed for grouping.

→ And then some...

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# **Example: EBNF to BNF Conversion**



### is equivalent to



(Remember that non-terminals can be the head of multiple productions.)



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# Derivation

### A grammar allows programs to be derived. Productions are rewriting rules.

A program is syntactically correct if and only if it can be derived from the start symbol.

### **Derivation Process** Begin with string consisting only of start symbol.

while string contains a non-terminal symbol: Choose one non-terminal symbol  $\underline{X}$ . Choose production where  $\underline{X}$  is the head. Replace  $\underline{X}$  with right-hand side of production.



# Derivation

If we always choose the left-most non-terminal symbol, then it is called a left-most derivation.

**Derivation Process** Begin with string consisting only of start symbol.

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# Derivation

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→ A program is sy be derived from

**Derivation Proce** Begin with strip

e string contains a non-terminal symbol: Choose one non-terminal symbol  $\underline{X}$ . Choose production where  $\underline{X}$  is the head. Replace  $\underline{X}$  with right-hand side of production.



### If we always choose the right-most non-terminal symbol, then it is called a right-most or canonical derivation.

### **Arithmetic grammar**:

expr → id | number | '-' expr | ' (' expr ') ' | expr op expr *op* → '+' | '−' | '\*' | '/'

### **Program**

### slope \* x + intercept



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### **Arithmetic grammar**:

expr → id | number | '-' expr | '(' expr ')' | expr op expr *op* → '+' | '−' | '\*' | '/'

**Program** 

slope \* x + intercept

 $expr \Rightarrow expr op expr$ 

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### Arithmetic grammar:



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### ⇒ denotes "derived from"

Arithmetic grammar: → id number | '-' expr | '(' expr ')' | expr op expr → '+' '-' | '\*' | '/' expr ор



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### **Arithmetic grammar:**

$$\begin{array}{ll} expr & \rightarrow \text{id} | \text{number} | `-' expr | `\\ op & \rightarrow (+') '-' | `*' | `/' \end{array}$$



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### ('expr')' | expr op expr



### Arithmetic grammar:



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(' expr ') ' expr op expr

### $\Rightarrow$ expr op expr + id

### Arithmetic grammar:



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### '('expr')' | expr op expr

⇒ expr op **expr** + id

 $\Rightarrow exprop id + id$ 

### **Arithmetic grammar:**

expr 
$$\rightarrow$$
 id | number | '-' expr | '  
op  $\rightarrow$  '+' | '-' ('\*') '/'



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### '('expr')' | expr op expr

 $\Rightarrow$  expr op expr + id

⇒ expr op id + id

 $\Rightarrow expr * id + id$ 



### Arithmetic grammar:



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### '('expr')' | expr op expr

 $\Rightarrow$  expr op expr + id

 $\Rightarrow exprop id + id$ 

 $\Rightarrow expr * id + id$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  id \* id + id



### **Arithmetic grammar**:



### Substitute values of identifier tokens.

**Program** 

slope \* x + intercept

 $expr \Rightarrow expr op expr$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  expr op id

 $\Rightarrow expr + id$ 

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# A parse tree is a **hierarchical representation** of the derivation that does not show the derivation order.



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### A parse tree is a hierarchical representation of the derivation that does not show the derivation order.



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Each interior node is a non-terminal

Its children are the right-hand side of the production that it was replaced with. → Leaf nodes are terminal symbols

Many-to-one: many derivations can yield identical parse trees.

The parse tree defines the structure of the program.

### This parse tree represents the formula slope \* x + intercept.



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### Let's do a left-most derivation of slope \* x + intercept.

### **Arithmetic grammar:** expr → id | number | '-' expr | '(' expr ')' | expr op expr → '+' | '-' | '\*' | '/' ор



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### Let's do a left-most derivation of slope \* x + intercept.



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# Parse Tree (Ambiguous)

This parse tree represents the formula **slope** \* (x + **intercept**), which is not equal to slope \* x + intercept.



# Parse Tree (Ambiguous)

This parse tree represents the formula **slope** \* (x + **intercept**), which is not equal to slope \* x + intercept.

### Ambiguity

- The parse tree defines the structure of the program.
- A program should have only one valid interpretation!
- → Two solutions:
  - Make grammar unambiguous, i.e., ensure that all derivations yield identical parse trees.
  - Provide disambiguating rules.



# Disambiguating the Grammar

- The problem with our original grammar is that it does not fully express the grammatical structure (i.e., associativity and precedence).
- To create an unambiguous grammar, we need to fully specify the grammar and differentiate between terms and factors.





# Disambiguating the Grammar

- The problem with our original grammar is that it does not fully express the grammatical structure (i.e., associativity and precedence).
- To create an unambiguous grammar, we need to fully specify the grammar and differentiate between terms and factors.

$$expr \rightarrow term | expr add_op$$

$$term \rightarrow factor | term mult_o$$

$$factor \rightarrow id | number | - factor$$

$$add_op \rightarrow + | -$$

$$mult_op \rightarrow * | /$$

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# Disambiguating the Grammar

- The problem with our original grammar is that it does not fully express the grammatical structure (i.e., associativity and preced
- To creat

This gives precedence to multiply.

grammar and differentiate between term/ and /actors.

term | expr add\_op term expr

term  $\rightarrow$  factor | term mult\_op factor

factor → id | number | - factor | (expr)

$$mult_op \rightarrow * | /$$

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- cify the



# Example Parse Tree



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# Another Example

Lets try deriving "3\*4+5\*6+7".

$$expr \rightarrow term | expr add_op$$

$$term \rightarrow factor | term mult_$$

$$factor \rightarrow id | number | - factor$$

$$add_op \rightarrow + | -$$

$$mult_op \rightarrow * | /$$















### Parser

### The purpose of the parser is to construct the parse tree that corresponds to the input token stream.

### (If such a tree exists, i.e., for correct input.)

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## Parser

The purpose of the parser is to construct the parse tree that corresponds to the input token stream.

(If such a tree exists, i.e., for correct input.)

### This is a **non-trivial problem**: for example, consider "3 \* 4" and "3 + 4".

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# **Complexity of Parsing**

### Arbitrary CFGs can be parsed in O(n<sup>3</sup>) time.

- $\rightarrow$  n is length of the program (in tokens).
- Earley's algorithm.
- Cocke-Younger-Kasami (CYK) algorithm.
- This is too inefficient for most purposes.

### Efficient parsing is possible.

- There are (restricted) types of grammars that can be parsed in **linear time**, i.e., **O(n)**.
- Two important classes:
  - LL: "Left-to-right, Left-most derivation"
  - LR: "Left-to-right, Right-most derivation"
- These are sufficient to express most programming languages.

# **Complexity of Parsing**

The class of all grammars for which a left-most derivation always yields a parse tree.

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Efficient parsing is poss ble.

- There are (restricted) types of grammars that can be parsed in **linear time**, i.e., **O(n)**.
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# **Complexity of Parsing**

### Arbitrary CFGs can be parsed in O(n<sup>3</sup>) time. $\rightarrow$ n is length of the program (in tokens).

The class of all grammars for which a right-most derivation always yields a parse tree.

> Efficient parsing is possible.  $\rightarrow$  There are (restricted) types of grammars that can be parsed in **linear** (me, i.e., **O(n)**.

- Two important classes:
  - LL: "Left-to-right. Leftnust der
  - LR: "Left-to-right, Right-most derivation"

These are sufficient to express most programming languages.

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# LL-Parsers vs. LR-Parsers

### **LL-Parsers**

- Find left-most derivation.
- Create parse-tree in top-down order, beginning at the root.
- Can be either constructed manually or automatically generated with tools.
- Easy to understand.
- LL grammars sometimes appear "unnatural."
- Also called predictive parsers.

Both are used in practice. We focus on LL.

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### **LR-Parsers**

→ Find **right-most** derivation.

Create parse-tree in bottom-up order, beginning at leaves.

- → Are usually generated by tools.
- Operating is less intuitive.
- ➡ LR grammars are often "natural."
- Also called shift-reduce parsers.

Strictly more expressive: every LL grammar is also an LR grammar, but the converse is not true.

# LL vs. LR Example

## A simple grammar for a list of identifiers.

*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail* 

*id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail* 

 $id_{list_tail} \rightarrow ;$ 

Input

A, B, C;

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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_tail} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C;

current token







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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_{tail}} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C;

current token







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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_{tail}} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C;

current token





Substitute the *id\_list\_tail*, **predicting** the first production again. This matches a comma and C.

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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_{tail}} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C; current token





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### LL Parse Tree



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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_tail} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C;



### LL Parse Tree



### Notice that the input tokens are placed in the tree from the left to right.

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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_tail} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C;





### forest (a stack)

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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_tail} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C;





forest (a stack)



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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_{tail}} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C;





forest (a stack)



*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_tail} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C; current token



### Step 2

Determine that no right-hand side of any production matches the top of the forest. Shift next token into forest.



forest (a stack)



*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_tail} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C; current token



### <u>Steps 3-6</u>

No right hand side matches top of forest. **Repeatedly shift** next token into forest.



forest (a stack)

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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_{tail}} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C;

current token



### Step 7

### **Detect** that **last production matches** the top of the forest. **Reduce** top token to partial tree.



forest (a stack)



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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_{tail}} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C;

### current token



### Step 8

### Detect that second production matches. Reduce top of forest.



### forest (a stack)



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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail→*,id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_{tail}} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C; current token id\_list\_tail



### Step 9

Detect that second production matches. Reduce top of forest.



### forest (a stack)



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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_tail} \rightarrow ;$ A, B, C; current token id\_list\_tail




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# An Equivalent Grammar better suited to LR parsing



id\_list\_prefix → id\_list\_prefix, id

*id\_list\_prefix* → id

## This grammar limits the number of "suspended" non-terminals.



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# An Equivalent Grammar better suited to LR parsing



# However, this creates a problem for the LL parser. When the parser discovers an "id" it cannot predict the

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number of *id\_list\_prefix* productions that it needs to match.

# Two Approaches to LL Parser Construction

### **Recursive Descent.**

- A mutually recursive set of subroutines.
- One subroutine per non-terminal.
- Case statements based on current token to predict subsequent productions.

### **Table-Driven.**

- Not recursive; instead has an explicit stack of expected symbols.
- $\rightarrow$  A loop that processes the top of the stack.
- Terminal symbols on stack are simply matched.
- Non-terminal symbols are replaced with productions.
- Choice of production is driven by table.



# **Recursive Descent Example** *"recursive descent"*

"climb from root to leaves, calling a subroutine for every level"

### Identifier List Grammar.

Recall our LL-compatible original version.

*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail* 

*id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail* 

 $id_{list_{tail}} \rightarrow ;$ 

**Recursive Descent Approach.** → We need one subroutine for each non-terminal. Each subroutine adds tokens into the growing parse tree and/or calls further subroutines to resolve non-terminals.

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# **Recursive Descent Example** "recursive descent"

"climb from root to leaves, calling a subroutine for every level"

### Identifier List Grammar.

Recall our LL-compatible original version.



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Helper routine "match".

- Used to consume expected terminals/ tokens.
- Given an expected token type (e.g., id, or ','), checks if next token is of correct type
- Raises error otherwise.



	<i>id_list</i> → id <i>id_list_tail</i>
" . "	<i>id_list_tail→</i> ,id <i>id_list_tail</i>
, , , Эе.	$id\_list\_tail \rightarrow ;$

![](_page_80_Figure_2.jpeg)

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### Parsing *id\_list*.

- → **Trivial**, there is only one production.
- Simply match an id, and then delegate parsing of the tail to the subroutine for id list tail.

# subroutine parse id list(): match(ID TOKEN) parse\_id\_list\_tail()

![](_page_81_Picture_6.jpeg)

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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_tail} \rightarrow ;$ 

![](_page_81_Picture_11.jpeg)

![](_page_81_Picture_12.jpeg)

### Parsing *id\_list*.

→ Trivial, there is only one production.

→ Sim This delegation is the "descent" par part in recursive descent parsing. id

![](_page_82_Picture_5.jpeg)

![](_page_82_Picture_6.jpeg)

![](_page_82_Figure_10.jpeg)

![](_page_82_Picture_11.jpeg)

### Parsing *id\_list\_tail*.

- There are two productions to choose from.
- This require predicting which one is the correct one.
- This requires looking ahead and examining the **next token** (without consuming it).

![](_page_83_Picture_6.jpeg)

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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail*  $id_{list_{tail}} \rightarrow ;$ 

### Parsing *id\_list\_tail*.

- There are two productions to choose from.
- This require predicting wh the correct one.

This requires looking ahea examining the **next token** consuming it).

subroutine parse\_id\_list\_tail(): type = peek at next token type() case type of **COMMA TOKEN:** match(COMMA\_TOKEN); match(ID\_TOKEN(; parse\_id\_list\_tail() **SEMICOLON TOKEN:** match(SEMICOLON\_TOKEN);

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*id\_list* → id *id\_list\_tail* 

*id\_list\_tail*→, id *id\_list\_tail* 

### This delegation is the "recursive" part in recursive descent parsing.

![](_page_84_Picture_14.jpeg)

# Recur

### Parsing *id\_list\_tail*.

- ➡ There are two prodet from.
- This require predict the correct one.

This requires lookin examining the next t consuming it).

## We need one token "lookahead."

# Parsers that require k tokens lookahead are called LL(k) (or LR(k)) parsers.

## Thus, this is a LL(1) parser.

sub\_outine parse\_id\_list\_tail(): type = peek\_at\_next\_token\_type() care\_type of COMMA\_TOKEN: match(COMMA\_TOKEN); match(ID\_TOKEN); parse\_id\_list\_tail() SEMICOLON\_TOKEN: match(SEMICOLON\_TOKEN);

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# LL(k) Parsers

### **Recall our non-LL compatible grammar.** Better for LR-parsing, but problematic for predictive parsing.

 $id\_list \rightarrow id\_list\_prefix;$ 

*id\_list\_prefix* → *id\_list\_prefix*, id

*id\_list\_prefix* → id

Cannot be parsed by LL(1) parser. Cannot predict which id\_list\_production to choose if next token is of type id. However, a LL(2) parser can parse this grammar. Just look at the second token ahead and disambiguate based on ',' vs. ';'.

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![](_page_86_Figure_10.jpeg)

# LL(k) Parsers

### **Recall our non-LL compatible grammar.**

## **Bottom-line:**

can enlarge class of supported grammars by using k > 1 lookahead, but at the expense of reduced performance / backtracking.

Most production LL parsers use k = 1.

Car

Cannot predict which id\_list\_production to choose if next token is of type id. However, a LL(2) parser can parse this grammar. Just look at

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# the second token ahead and disambiguate based on ',' vs. ';'.

SING

# **Predict Sets**

![](_page_88_Picture_2.jpeg)

# The question is how do we label the case statements in general, i.e., for arbitrary LL grammars?

![](_page_88_Picture_4.jpeg)

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### TOKEN); match(ID TOKEN); parse id list tail()

![](_page_88_Picture_9.jpeg)

# First, Follow, and Predict sets of terminal symbols

### FIRST(A):

- The terminals that can be the first token of a valid derivation starting with symbol A.
- Trivially, for each terminal T, FIRST(T) =  $\{T\}$ .

### FOLLOW(A):

The terminals that can follow the symbol A in any valid derivation. (A is usually a non-terminal.)

### **PREDICT**( $A \rightarrow \alpha$ ):

The terminals that can be the first tokens as a result of the production  $A \rightarrow \alpha$ . ( $\alpha$  is a string of symbols) The terminals in this set form the label in the case statements to predict  $A \rightarrow \alpha$ .

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# First, Follow, and Predict sets of terminal symbols

- **Note:** For a non-terminal A, the set FIRST(A) is the union of the predict sets of all productions with A as the head:
- if there exist three productions  $A \rightarrow \alpha$ ,  $A \rightarrow \beta$ , and  $A \rightarrow \lambda$ , then

FIRST(A) =

PREDICT( $A \rightarrow \alpha$ )  $\cup$  PREDICT( $A \rightarrow \beta$ )  $\cup$  PREDICT( $A \rightarrow \lambda$ )

### **PREDICT**( $A \rightarrow \alpha$ ):

The terminals that can be the first tokens as a result of the production  $A \rightarrow \alpha$ . ( $\alpha$  is a string of symbols) The terminals in this set form the label in the case statements to predict  $A \rightarrow \alpha$ .

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# $\mathsf{PREDICT}(\mathsf{A} \to \alpha)$

# If $\alpha$ is $\varepsilon$ , i.e., if A is derived to "nothing":

## $\mathsf{PREDICT}(A \to \varepsilon) = \mathsf{FOLLOW}(A)$

## Otherwise, if $\alpha$ is a string of symbols that starts with X:

## $\mathsf{PREDICT}(A \to X...) = \mathsf{FIRST}(X)$

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![](_page_91_Picture_10.jpeg)

![](_page_91_Picture_11.jpeg)

# Inductive Definition of FIRST(A)

# If A is a **terminal** symbol, then:

# $FIRST(A) = \{A\}$

# If A is a non-terminal symbol and there exists a production $A \rightarrow X_{...}$ , then

## $FIRST(X) \subseteq FIRST(A)$

(X can be terminal or non-terminal)

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![](_page_92_Picture_11.jpeg)

![](_page_92_Figure_12.jpeg)

![](_page_92_Picture_13.jpeg)

# **Notation:** X is the first symbol of the production body.

## If A is a **terminal** symbol, then:

# $FIRST(A) = \{A\}$

# If A is a non-terminal symbol and there exists a production $A \leftrightarrow X..., then$

## $FIRST(X) \subseteq FIRST(A)$

(X can be terminal or non-terminal)

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![](_page_93_Picture_10.jpeg)

![](_page_93_Picture_11.jpeg)

# Inductive Definition of FOLLOW(A)

## If the substring AX exists anywhere in the grammar, then

## $FIRST(X) \subseteq FOLLOW(A)$

## If there exists a production $X \rightarrow \dots A$ , then

# $FOLLOW(X) \subseteq FOLLOW(A)$

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![](_page_94_Picture_10.jpeg)

## **Notation**: **A** is the last symbol of the production body.

## If the substring AX exists anywhere in the gram nar, then

# $FIRST(X) \subseteq FOLLOW(A)$

## If there exists a production $X \mapsto \dots A$ ,

# $FOLLOW(X) \subseteq FOLLOW(A)$

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![](_page_95_Picture_9.jpeg)

![](_page_95_Picture_10.jpeg)

# Computing First, Follow, and Predict

### Inductive Definition.

- FIRST, FOLLOW, and PREDICT are defined in terms of each other. Exception: FIRST for terminals.
- This the base case for the induction.

### **Iterative Computation.**

- → Start with FIRST for terminals and set all other sets to be empty.
- Repeatedly apply all definitions (i.e., include known subsets).
- Terminate when sets do not change anymore.

![](_page_96_Picture_9.jpeg)

![](_page_96_Picture_14.jpeg)

# Predict Set Example

$$[1] \quad id\_list\_prefix \rightarrow id\_list\_prefix;$$

$$[2] \quad id\_list\_prefix \rightarrow id$$

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![](_page_97_Figure_6.jpeg)

![](_page_97_Picture_7.jpeg)

# Predict Set Example

$$[1] \quad id\_list\_prefix \rightarrow id\_list\_prefix;$$

$$[2] \quad id\_list\_prefix \rightarrow id$$

### Base case: $FIRST(id) = \{id\}$

Induction for [2]: FIRST(id) ⊂ FIRST(*id\_list\_prefix*) = {id}

Induction for [1]: FIRST(*id\_list\_prefix*)  $\subset$  FIRST(*id\_list\_prefix*)

# **Predict sets** for (2) and (1) are identical: not LL(1)!

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![](_page_98_Figure_9.jpeg)

# Left Recursion

## Leftmost symbol is a recursive non-terminal symbol. ➡This causes a grammar not to be LL(1). Recursive descent would enter **infinite recursion**. It is desirable for LR grammars.

 $id_{list} \rightarrow id_{list_prefix};$ 

*id\_list\_prefix* → *id\_list\_prefix,* id

*id\_list\_*prefix → id

![](_page_99_Picture_6.jpeg)

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![](_page_99_Picture_10.jpeg)

![](_page_99_Picture_11.jpeg)

# "To parse an *id\_list\_prefix*, call the Leftm parser for *id\_list\_prefix*, which calls the ➡ This parser for *id\_list\_prefix*, which..." ⇒Recι →It is $id_{list} \rightarrow i c_{list_prefix};$ *id\_list\_prefix* → *id\_list\_prefix,* id *id\_list\_prefix* → id

![](_page_100_Picture_2.jpeg)

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![](_page_100_Picture_6.jpeg)

![](_page_100_Picture_7.jpeg)

![](_page_100_Picture_8.jpeg)

# Left-Factoring

## Introducing "tail" symbols to avoid left recursion. Split a recursive production in an unambiguous prefix and an optional tail.

![](_page_101_Figure_3.jpeg)

![](_page_101_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_101_Figure_5.jpeg)

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![](_page_101_Picture_14.jpeg)

# Another Predict Set Example

[1] [2]

 $cond \rightarrow if expr then statement$ 

 $cond \rightarrow if expr then statement else statement$ 

![](_page_102_Picture_5.jpeg)

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![](_page_102_Picture_9.jpeg)

# Another Predict Set Example

![](_page_103_Figure_2.jpeg)

### $\mathsf{PREDICT}([1]) = \{ \mathtt{if} \}$

### If the next token is an *if*, which production is the right one?

![](_page_103_Picture_5.jpeg)

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### $\mathsf{PREDICT}([2]) = \{ \mathtt{if} \}$

![](_page_103_Picture_12.jpeg)

# **Common Prefix Problem**

# Non-disjoint predict sets.

In order to predict which production will be applied, all predict sets for a given non-terminal need to be disjoint!

> If there exist two productions  $A \rightarrow \alpha$ ,  $A \rightarrow \beta$ such that there exists a terminal  $\mathbf{x}$  for which

### $x \in \text{PREDICT}(A \rightarrow \alpha) \cap \text{PREDICT}(A \rightarrow \beta),$

then an LL(1) parser cannot properly predict which production must be chosen.

Can also be addressed with left-factoring...

![](_page_104_Picture_8.jpeg)

![](_page_104_Picture_9.jpeg)

# Dangling else

## Even if left recursion and common prefixes have been removed, a language may not be LL(1). In many languages an else statement in if-then-else

- statements is optional.
- Ambiguous grammar: which if to match else to?

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![](_page_105_Picture_11.jpeg)

# Dangling else

![](_page_106_Picture_2.jpeg)

- Can be handled with a tricky LR grammar.
- There exists no LL(1) parser that can parse such statements.
- Even though a proper LR(1) parser can handle this, it may not handle it in a method the programmer desires.
- Good language design avoids such constructs.

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![](_page_106_Picture_10.jpeg)

# Dangling else

 To write this code correctly (based on indention) "begin" and "end" statements must be added. This is LL compatible.

![](_page_107_Picture_3.jpeg)

![](_page_107_Picture_4.jpeg)

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![](_page_107_Picture_10.jpeg)

![](_page_107_Picture_11.jpeg)
## Dangling else

statement → ... | cond | ...

 $cond \rightarrow if expr then block_statement$ 

 $cond \rightarrow if expr then block_statement else block_statement$ 

block\_statement → begin statement\* end

A grammar that avoids the "dangling else" problem.



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