

Concepts Introduced in Chapter 4

- Grammars
 - Context-Free Grammars
 - Derivations and Parse Trees
 - Ambiguity, Precedence, and Associativity
- Top Down Parsing
 - Recursive Descent, LL
- Bottom Up Parsing
 - SLR, LR, LALR
- Yacc
- Error Handling



Grammars

$$G = (N, T, P, S)$$

- 1. N is a finite set of nonterminal symbols
- 2. T is a finite set of terminal symbols
- 3. P is a finite subset of

$$(N \cup T)^* N (N \cup T)^* \times (N \cup T)^*$$

An element $(\alpha, \beta) \in P$ is written as

$$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$$

and is called a production.

4. S is a distinguished symbol in N and is called the start symbol.



Example of a Grammar

```
expression \rightarrow expression + term
expression \rightarrow expression - term
expression \rightarrow term
       term → term * factor
       term \rightarrow term / factor
       term \rightarrow factor
    factor \rightarrow (expression)
    factor \rightarrow id
```



Advantages of Using Grammars

- Provides a precise, syntactic specification of a programming language.
- For some classes of grammars, tools exist that can automatically construct an efficient parser.
- These tools can also detect syntactic ambiguities and other problems automatically.
- A compiler based on a grammatical description of a language is more easily maintained and updated.



Role of a Parser in a Compiler

- Detects and reports any syntax errors.
- Produces a parse tree from which intermediate code can be generated.



Conventions for Specifying Grammars in the Text

terminals

- lower case letters early in the alphabet (a, b, c)
- punctuation and operator symbols [(,), ',', +, -]
- digits
- boldface words (if, then)

nonterminals

- uppercase letters early in the alphabet (A, B, C)
- S is the start symbol
- lower case words



Conventions for Specifying Grammars in the Text (cont.)

- grammar symbols (nonterminals or terminals)
 - upper case letters late in the alphabet (X, Y, Z)
- strings of terminals
 - lower case letters late in the alphabet (u, v, ..., z)
- sentential form (string of grammar symbols)
 - lower case Greek letters (α, β, γ)



Chomsky Hierarchy

A grammar is said to be

1. regular if it is

where each production in P has the form

a. right-linear

$$A \rightarrow wB$$
 or $A \rightarrow w$

b. <u>left-linear</u>

$$A \rightarrow Bw \text{ or } A \rightarrow w$$

where A, B \in N and w \in T*



Chomsky Hierarchy (cont)

- 2. <u>context-free</u>: each production in P is of the form $A \rightarrow \alpha$ where $A \in N$ and $\alpha \in (N \cup T)^*$
- 3. <u>context-sensitive</u>: each production in P is of the form
 - $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ where $|\alpha| \leq |\beta|$
- 4. <u>unrestricted</u> if each production in P is of the form $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ where $\alpha \neq \epsilon$



Derivation

Derivation

• a sequence of replacements from the start symbol in a grammar by applying productions

$$-E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid -E \mid id$$

Derive

 \cdot - (id + id) from the grammar

• thus E derives -(id + id)

or
$$E + \Rightarrow -(id + id)$$



Derivation (cont.)

- Leftmost derivation
 - each step replaces the leftmost nonterminal
 - derive id + id * id using leftmost derivation
 - E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow id + E \Rightarrow id + E * E \Rightarrow id + id * E \Rightarrow id + id * id
- L(G) language generated by the grammar G
- Sentence of G
 - if $S \rightarrow W$, where w is a string of terminals inL(G)
- Sentential form
 - if S * \Rightarrow α , where α may contain nonterminals

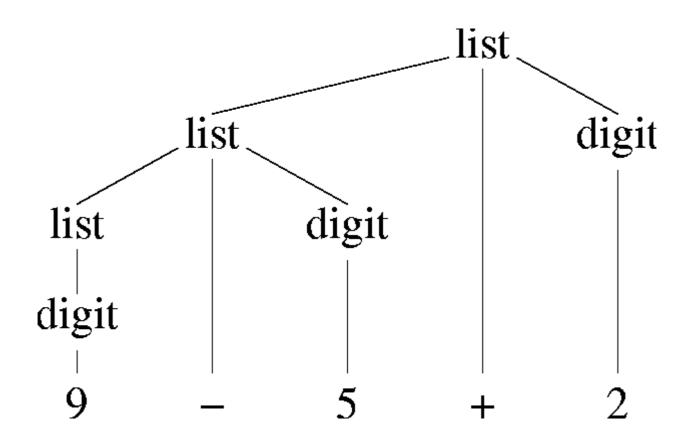


Parse Tree

- Parse tree pictorially shows how the start symbol of a grammar derives a specific string in the language.
- Given a context-free grammar, a parse tree has the properties:
 - The root is labeled by the start symbol.
 - Each leaf is labeled by a token or ε.
 - Each interior node is labeled by a nonterminal.
 - If A is a nonterminal labeling some interior node and $X_1, X_2, X_3, ..., X_n$ are the labels of the children of that node from left to right, then
 - $A \rightarrow X_1, X_2, X_3, ... X_n$ is a production of the grammar.



Example of a Parse Tree



list → list + digit | list – digit | digit



Parse Tree (cont.)

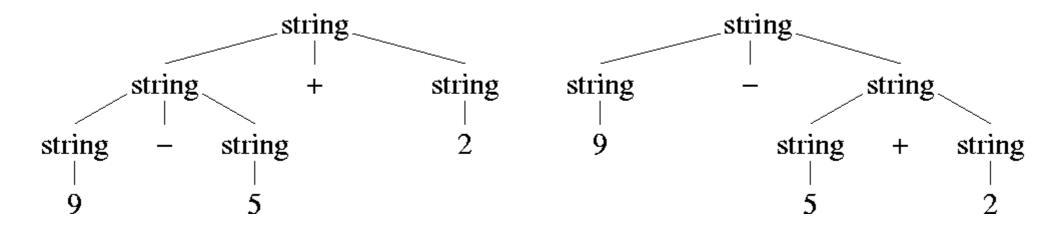
Yield

- the leaves of the parse tree read from left to right, or
- the string derived from the nonterminal at the root of the parse tree
- An ambiguous grammar is one that can generate two or more parse trees that yield the same string.



Example of an Ambiguous Grammar

```
string \rightarrow string + string
string → string - string
string \rightarrow 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```



a. string \rightarrow string + string \rightarrow string - string + string \rightarrow 9 - string + string \rightarrow 9 - 5 + string \rightarrow 9 - 5 + 2 b. string \rightarrow string - string \rightarrow 9 - string \rightarrow 9 - string + string \rightarrow 9 - 5 + string \rightarrow 9 - 5 + 2

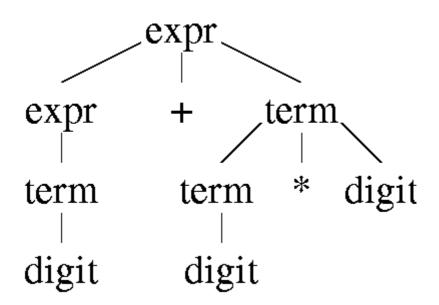


Precedence

By convention

$$9 + 5 * 2$$

* has higher precedence than + because it takes its operands before +





Precedence (cont.)

• If different operators have the same precedence then they are defined as alternative productions of the same nonterminal.

```
expr → expr + term | expr - term | term
term → term * factor | term / factor | factor
factor → digit | (expr)
```



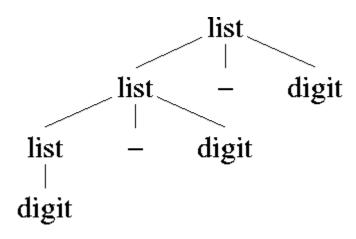
Associativity

By convention

9-5-2 left (operand with – on both sides is taken by the operator to its left)

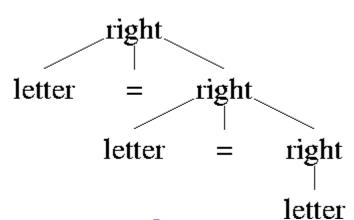
$$a = b = c$$
 right

list -> list - digit list -> digit



grows to the left

right -> letter = right right -> letter



grows to the right



Eliminating Ambiguity

- Sometimes ambiguity can be eliminated by rewriting a grammar.
- stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt
 - if expr then stmt else stmt
 - other
- How do we parse:
 - if E1 then if E2 then S1 else S2



Eliminating Ambiguity (cont.)

- stmt → matched_stmt
 unmatched_stmt
 matched_stmt → if expr then matched_stmt else matched_stmt
 other
- unmatched_stmt → if expr then stmt

if expr then matched_stmt else unmatched_stmt



Parsing

- Universal
- Top-down
 - recursive descent
 - LL
- Bottom-up
 - LR
 - SLR
 - canonical LR
 - LALR



Top-Down vs Bottom-Up Parsing

top-down

- Have to eliminate left recursion in the grammar.
- Have to left factor the grammar.
- Resulting grammars are harder to read and understand.

bottom-up

– Difficult to implement by hand, so a tool is needed.



Top-Down Parsing

Starts at the root and proceeds towards the leaves.

Recursive-Descent Parsing - a recursive procedure is associated with each nonterminal in the grammar.

Example

- type \rightarrow simple | $\uparrow id$ | array [simple] of type
- simple → <u>integer</u> | <u>char</u> | <u>num</u> <u>dotdot</u> <u>num</u>



Example of Recursive Descent Parsing

```
void type() {
      if ( lookahead == INTEGER || lookahead == CHAR ||
            lookahead == NUM)
            simple();
      else if (lookahead == '^') {
            match('^');
            match(ID);
      else if (lookahead == ARRAY) {
            match(ARRAY);
            match('[');
            simple();
            match(']');
            match(OF);
            type();
      else
            error();
                      EECS 665 – Compiler Construction
```



Example of Recursive Descent Parsing (cont.)

```
void simple() {
                                      void match(token t)
     if (lookahead == INTEGER)
          match(INTEGER);
                                            if (lookahead == t)
     else if (lookahead == CHAR)
                                                 lookahead = nexttoken();
          match(CHAR);
                                            else
     else if (lookahead== NUM) {
                                                 error();
          match(NUM);
          match(DOTDOT);
          match(NUM);
     else
          error();
```



Top-Down Parsing (cont.)

- Predictive parsing needs to know what first symbols can be generated by the right side of a production.
- FIRST(α) the set of tokens that appear as the first symbols of one or more strings generated from α . If α is ε or can generate, then ε is also in FIRST(α).
- Given a production

$$A \rightarrow \alpha \mid \beta$$

predictive parsing requires FIRST(α) and FIRST(β) to be disjoint.



Eliminating Left Recursion

- Recursive descent parsing loops forever on left recursion.
- Immediate Left Recursion

Replace
$$A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$$
 with $A \rightarrow \beta A'$

$$A' \rightarrow \alpha A' \mid \epsilon$$

Example:

$$\underline{A} \qquad \underline{\alpha} \qquad \underline{\beta}$$

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T \qquad E \qquad +T \qquad T$$

$$T \rightarrow T * F \mid F \qquad T \qquad *F \qquad F$$

$$F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$$

becomes

$$E \longrightarrow TE'$$
 $E' \longrightarrow +TE' \mid \mathcal{E}$
 $T \longrightarrow FT'$



Eliminating Left Recursion (cont.)

```
In general, to eliminate left recursion given A_1, A_2, ..., A_n
for i = 1 to n do {
      for j = 1 to i-1 do {
            replace each A_i \rightarrow A_i \gamma with A_i \rightarrow \delta_1 \gamma | ... | \delta_k \gamma
            where A_i \rightarrow \delta_1 | \delta_2 | ... | \delta_k are the current A_i
                  productions
      eliminate immediate left recursion in A<sub>i</sub> productions
      eliminate ε transitions in the A<sub>i</sub> productions
```

This fails only if cycles $(A + \Rightarrow A)$ or $A \rightarrow \varepsilon$ for some A.



Example of Eliminating Left Recursion

- 1. $X \rightarrow YZ \mid a$
- 2. $Y \rightarrow ZX \mid Xb$
- 3. $Z \rightarrow XY | ZZ | a$

$$A1 = X$$
 $A2 = Y$ $A3 = Z$

i = 1 (eliminate immediate left recursion)nothing to do



Example of Eliminating Left Recursion (cont.)

$$\begin{array}{l} i=2,\,j=1 \\ Y \rightarrow Xb \Rightarrow Y \rightarrow ZX \mid YZb \mid ab \\ \text{now eliminate immediate left recursion} \\ Y \rightarrow ZXY' \mid ab \ Y' \\ Y' \rightarrow ZbY' \mid \epsilon \\ \text{now eliminate} \ \Box \ transitions \\ Y \rightarrow ZXY' \mid ab Y' \mid ZX \mid ab \\ Y' \rightarrow ZbY' \mid Zb \end{array}$$

$$i = 3, j = 1$$

 $Z \rightarrow XY \Rightarrow Z \rightarrow YZY \mid aY \mid ZZ \mid a$



Example of Eliminating Left Recursion (cont.)

$$\begin{array}{l} i=3,j=2\\ Z\rightarrow YZY\Rightarrow Z\rightarrow ZXY'ZY\mid ZXZY\mid abY'ZY\\ \mid abZY\mid aY\mid ZZ\mid a\\ now eliminate immediate left recursion\\ Z\rightarrow abY'ZYZ'\mid abZYZ'\mid aYZ'\mid aZ'\\ Z'\rightarrow XY'ZYZ'\mid XZYZ'\mid ZZ'\mid \epsilon\\ eliminate \epsilon \ transitions\\ Z\rightarrow abY'ZYZ'\mid abY'ZY\mid abZYZ'\mid abZY\mid aY\\ \mid aYZ'\mid aZ'\mid a\\ Z'\rightarrow XY'ZYZ'\mid XY'ZY\mid XZYZ'\mid XZYZ'\mid ZZ'\mid Z\\ \end{array}$$



Left-Factoring

$$A \rightarrow \alpha \beta | \alpha \gamma \implies A \rightarrow \alpha A'$$
 $A' \rightarrow \beta | \gamma$

Example:

Left factor

 $stmt \rightarrow \underline{if} cond \underline{then} stmt \underline{else} stmt$
 $| \underline{if} cond \underline{then} stmt$

becomes

 $stmt \rightarrow \underline{if} cond \underline{then} stmt E$
 $E \rightarrow else stmt | \epsilon$

Useful for predictive parsing since we will know which production to choose.



Nonrecursive Predictive Parsing

- Instead of recursive descent, it is table-driven and uses an explicit stack. It uses
 - 1. a stack of grammar symbols (\$ on bottom)
 - 2. a string of input tokens (\$ on end)
 - 3. a parsing table [NT, T] of productions



Algorithm for Nonrecursive Predictive Parsing

```
1. If top == input == $ then accept
2. If top == input then
     pop top off the stack
     advance to next input symbol
     goto 1
3. If top is nonterminal
     fetch M[top, input]
     If a production
       replace top with rhs of production
     Else
       parse fails
     goto 1
4. Parse fails
```



First

FIRST(α) = the set of terminals that begin strings derived from α . If α is ε or generates ε , then ε is also in FIRST(α).

- 1. If X is a terminal then $FIRST(X) = \{X\}$
- 2. If $X \to a\alpha$, add a to FIRST(X)
- 3. If $X \to \varepsilon$, add ε to FIRST(X)
- 4. If $X \to Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_k$ and $Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_{i-1} * \Rightarrow \varepsilon$ where $i \le k$

Add every non ε in FIRST(Y_i) to FIRST(X) If Y₁, Y₂, ..., Y_k * \Rightarrow ε , add ε to FIRST(X)



FOLLOW

FOLLOW(A) = the set of terminals that can immediately follow A in a sentential form.

- 1. If S is the start symbol, add \$ to FOLLOW(S)
- 2. If A $\rightarrow \alpha B\beta$, add FIRST(β) { ϵ } to FOLLOW(B)
- 3. If $A \rightarrow \alpha B$ or $A \rightarrow \alpha B\beta$ and $\beta^* \Rightarrow \epsilon$, add FOLLOW(A) to FOLLOW(B)



Example of Calculating FIRST and FOLLOW

Pro	duction	FIRST		
E	\rightarrow TE'	{ (, id }		
E'	\rightarrow +TE' ϵ	{ +, ε }		
T	\rightarrow FT'	{ (, id }		
T	$\rightarrow *FT' \mid \epsilon$	{*, ε}		
F	\rightarrow (E) id	{ (, id }		

```
FOLLOW
{ ), $ }
{ ), $ }
{ +, ), $ }
{ +, ), $ }
{*, +, ), $ }
```



Another Example of Calculating FIRST and FOLLOW

Production	FIRST		FOLLOW		
$X \rightarrow Ya$	{	}	{	}	
$Y \rightarrow ZW$	{	}	{	}	
$W \rightarrow c \mid \epsilon$	{	}	{	}	
$Z \rightarrow a \mid bZ$	{	}	{	}	



Constructing Predictive Parsing Tables

For each $A \rightarrow \alpha$ do

- 1. Add $A \rightarrow \alpha$ to M[A, a] for each a in FIRST(α)
- 2. If ε is in FIRST(α)
 - a. Add $A \rightarrow \alpha$ to M[A, b] for each b in FOLLOW(A)
 - b. If \$ is in FOLLOW(A) add $A \rightarrow \alpha$ to M[A, \$]
- 3. Make each undefined entry of M an error.



LL(1)

First "L" - scans input from left to right

Second "L" - produces a leftmost derivation

- uses one input symbol of lookahead at each step to make a parsing decision

A grammar whose predictive parsing table has no multiply-defined entries is LL(1).

No ambiguous or left-recursive grammar can be LL(1).



When Is a Grammar LL(1)?

A grammar is LL(1) iff for each set of productions where $A \rightarrow \alpha_1 \mid \alpha_2 \mid ... \mid \alpha_n$, the following conditions hold.

- 1. FIRST(α_i) intersect FIRST(α_j) = \emptyset where $1 \le i \le n$ and $1 \le j \le n$ and $i \ne j$
- 2. If $\alpha_i *\Rightarrow \epsilon$ then
 - a. $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_{i-1}, \alpha_{i+1}, ..., \alpha_n$ does not $*\Rightarrow \varepsilon$
 - b. FIRST(α_j) intersect FOLLOW(A) = \emptyset where $j \neq i$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$



Checking If a Grammar is LL(1)

Production $S \rightarrow iEtSS' \mid a$ $S' \rightarrow eS \mid \epsilon$ $E \rightarrow b$	FIRST { i, a } { e, ε } { b }		FOLLOW { e, \$ } { e, \$ } { t }			
Nonterminal	a	b	e	i	t	\$
S	S→a			S→iEtS	S'	•
S'			S'→eS S'→ε			S′→ε
E		$E \rightarrow b$				

So this grammar is not LL(1).

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Bottom-Up Parsing

- Bottom-up parsing
 - attempts to construct a parse tree for an input string beginning at the leaves and working up towards the root
 - is the process of *reducing* the string w to the start symbol of the grammar
 - at each step, we need to decide
 - when to reduce
 - what production to apply
 - actually, constructs a right-most derivation in reverse



Shift-Reduce Parsing

- Shift-reduce parsing is bottom-up.
- A *handle* is a substring that matches the rhs of a production.
- A *shift* moves the next input symbol on a stack.
- A *reduce* replaces the rhs of a production that is found on the stack with the nonterminal on the left of that production.
- A *viable prefix* is the set of prefixes of right sentential forms that can appear on the stack of a shift-reduce parser



Model of an LR Parser

- Each S_i is a state.
- Each X_i is a grammar symbol (when implemented these items do not appear in the stack).
- Each a_i is an input symbol.
- All LR parsers can use the same algorithm (code).
- The action and goto tables are different for each LR parser.



LR(k) Parsing

"L" - scans input from left to right

"R" - constructs a rightmost derivation in reverse

"k" - uses k symbols of lookahead at each step to make a parsing decision

Uses a stack of alternating states and grammar symbols. The grammar symbols are optional. Uses a string of input symbols (\$ on end). Parsing table has an action part and a goto part.



LR (k) Parsing (cont.)

```
If config == (s_0 X_1 s_1 X_2 s_2 ... X_m s_m, a_i a_{i+1} ... a_n \$)
1. if action [s_m, a_i] == shift s then
       new config is (s_0 X_1 s_1 X_2 s_2 ... X_m s_m a_i s, a_{i+1} ... a_n \$)
2. if action [s_m, a_i] == \text{reduce } A \rightarrow \beta and
     goto [s_{m-r}, A] == s (where r is the length of \beta) then
       new config is (s_0 X_1 s_1 X_2 s_2...X_{m-r} s_{m-r} As, a_i a_{i+1}...a_n \$)
3. if action [s_m, a_i] == ACCEPT then stop
4. if action [s_m, a_i] == ERROR then attempt recovery
Can resolve some shift-reduce conflicts with lookahead.
  ex: LR(1)
Can resolve others in favor of a shift.
  ex: S \rightarrow iCtS \mid iCtSeS
```



Advantages of LR Parsing

- LR parsers can recognize almost all programming language constructs expressed in context -free grammars.
- Efficient and requires no backtracking.
- Is a superset of the grammars that can be handled with predictive parsers.
- Can detect a syntactic error as soon as possible on a left-to-right scan of the input.



LR Parsing Example

1.
$$E \rightarrow E + T$$

2.
$$E \rightarrow T$$

$$3. T \rightarrow T * F$$

$$4. T \rightarrow F$$

$$5. F \rightarrow (E)$$

6.
$$F \rightarrow id$$



LR Parsing Example

•It produces rightmost derivation in reverse:

$$E \rightarrow E + T \rightarrow E + F \rightarrow E + id$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 T + id \rightarrow T * F + id

$$\rightarrow$$
 T * id + id \rightarrow F * id + id

$$\rightarrow$$
 id * id + id



Calculating the Sets of LR(0) Items

LR(0) item - production with a dot at some position in the right side

Example:

A
$$\rightarrow$$
BC has 3 possible LR(0) items
A \rightarrow ·BC
A \rightarrow B·C
A \rightarrow BC·
A \rightarrow ε has 1 possible item
A \rightarrow ·

3 operations required to construct the sets of LR(0) items: (1) closure, (2) goto, and (3) augment



Example of Computing the Closure of a Set of LR(0) Items

<u>Closure</u> (I_0) for $I_0 = \{E' \rightarrow \cdot E\}$ Grammar $E' \rightarrow E$ $E' \rightarrow E$ $E \longrightarrow E + T \mid T$ $E \longrightarrow E + T$ $T \longrightarrow T * F \mid F$ $E \longrightarrow T$ $T \longrightarrow T * F$ $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$ $T \longrightarrow F$ $F \longrightarrow (E)$

 $F \rightarrow id$



Calculating Goto of a Set of LR(0) Items

Calculate goto (I,X) where I is a set of items and X is a grammar symbol.

Take the closure (the set of items of the form $A \rightarrow \alpha X \cdot \beta$) where $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot X\beta$ is in I.

Grammar $E' \rightarrow E$ $E \longrightarrow E + T \mid T$ $T \longrightarrow T * F | F$ $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$

$$\frac{\text{Goto }(I_1,+) \text{ for } I_1 = \{E' \rightarrow E \cdot , E \rightarrow E \cdot + T\}}{E \rightarrow E + \cdot T}$$

$$T \rightarrow \cdot T * F$$

$$T \rightarrow \cdot F$$

$$F \rightarrow \cdot (E)$$

$$F \rightarrow \cdot \text{id}$$

$$\frac{\text{Goto }(I_2,^*) \text{ for } I_2 = \{E \rightarrow T \cdot, T \rightarrow T \cdot ^*F\}}{T \rightarrow T \cdot ^*F}$$

$$F \rightarrow \cdot (E)$$

$$F \rightarrow \cdot \text{id}$$



Augmenting the Grammar

• Given grammar G with start symbol S, then an augmented grammar G' is G with a new start symbol S' and new production S' \rightarrow S.



Analogy of Calculating the Set of LR(0) Items with Converting an NFA to a DFA

- Constructing the set of items is similar to converting an NFA to a DFA
 - each state in the NFA is an individual item
 - the closure (I) for a set of items is the same as the
 ε-closure of a set of NFA states
 - each set of items is now a DFA state and goto
 (I,X) gives the transition from I on symbol X



Sets of LR(0) Items Example

$$S \rightarrow L = R \mid R$$

$$L \rightarrow R \mid id$$

$$R \rightarrow L$$



Constructing SLR Parsing Tables

- Let $C = \{I_0, I_1, ..., I_n\}$ be the parser states.
- 1. If $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot a\beta]$ is in I_i and goto $(I_i, a) = I_j$ then set action [i, a] to 'shift j'.
- 2. If $[A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot]$ is in I_i , then set action [i, a] to 'reduce $A \rightarrow \alpha$ ' for all a in the FOLLOW(A). A may not be S'.
- 3. If $[S' \rightarrow S \cdot]$ is in I_i , then set action [i, \$] to 'accept'.
- 4. If goto $(I_i, A)=I_j$, then set goto[i, A] to j.
- 5. Set all other table entries to 'error'.
- 6. The initial state is the one holding $[S' \rightarrow \cdot S]$.



Using Ambiguous Grammars

instead of

1.
$$E \rightarrow E + E$$

2.
$$E \rightarrow E * E$$

$$3. E \rightarrow (E)$$

4.
$$E \rightarrow id$$

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$$

$$F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$$

See Figure 4.48.

Advantages:

Grammar is easier to read.

Parser is more efficient.



Using Ambiguous Grammars (cont.)

Can use precedence and associativity to solve the problem.

See Fig 4.49.

```
shift / reduce conflict in state action[7,+]=(s4,r1)
s4 = shift 4 or E \rightarrow E \cdot + E
r1 = reduce 1 \text{ or } E \rightarrow E + E
```

```
action[7,*]=(s5,r1)
action[8,+]=(s4,r2)
                          action[8,*]=(s5,r2)
```



Another Ambiguous Grammar

$$0. S' \rightarrow S$$

1.
$$S \rightarrow iSeS$$

2.
$$S \rightarrow iS$$

$$3. S \rightarrow a$$

See Figure 4.50.

$$action[4,e]=(s5,r2)$$



Ambiguities from Special-Case Productions

```
E \rightarrow E \text{ sub } E \text{ sup } E
E \rightarrow E \text{ sub } E
E \rightarrow E \text{ sup } E
```



Ambiguities from Special-Case Productions (cont)

```
    1. E → E sub E sup E
    2. E → E sub E
    3. E → E sup E
    4. E → { E }
    5. E → c
    FIRST(E) = { '{', c}}
    FOLLOW(E) = {sub,sup,'}',$}
    sub, sup have equal precedence and are right associative
```



Ambiguities from Special-Case Productions (cont)

```
action[7,sub]=(s4,r2)
action[8,sub]=(s4,r3)
action[11,sub]=(s5,r1,r3)
action[11,}]=(r1,r3)
```

followed by Fig. C

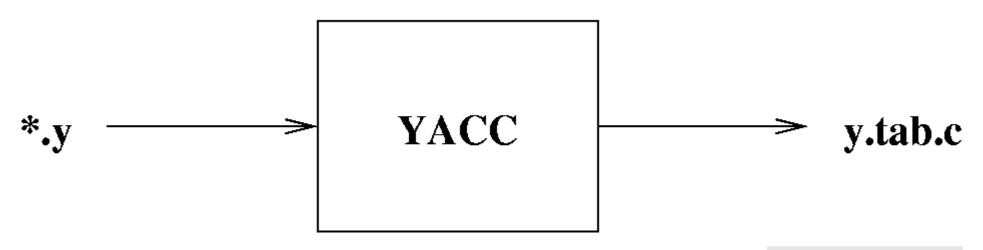


YACC

Yacc source program

declaration
%%
translation rules
%%

supporting C-routines



followed by Fig. 4.57



YACC Declarations

- In declarations:
 - Can put ordinary C declarations in

```
% {
...
% }
```

- Can declare tokens using
 - %token
 - %left
 - %right
- Precedence is established by the order the operators are listed (low to high).



YACC Translation Rules

• Form

A: Body;

where A is a nonterminal and Body is a list of nonterminals and terminals.

- Semantic actions can be enclosed before or after each grammar symbol in the body.
- Yacc chooses to shift in a shift/reduce conflict.
- Yacc chooses the first production in a reduce/reduce conflict.



Yacc Translation Rules (cont.)

• When there is more than one rule with the same left hand side, a '|' can be used.

```
A : BCD;
A : EF;
A : G;
=>
A : BCD
      EF
```



Example of a Yacc Specification

```
/* defines multicharacter tokens */
%token IF ELSE NAME
%right '='
                                /* low precedence, a=b=c shifts */
                                /* mid precedence, a-b-c reduces */
%left '+' '-'
%left '*' '/'
                                /* high precedence, a/b/c reduces */
%%
stmt : expr ';'
             | IF '(' expr ')' stmt
             | IF '(' expr ')' stmt ELSE stmt
                   /* prefers shift to reduce in shift/reduce conflict */
      : NAME '=' expr /* assignment */
expr
             expr '+' expr
             expr'-' expr
             expr '*' expr
             expr '/' expr
             '-' expr %prec '*'/* can override precedence */
             NAME
%% /* definitions of yylex, etc. can follow */
```



Yacc Actions

- Actions are C code segments enclosed in { } and may be placed before or after any grammar symbol in the right hand side of a rule.
- To return a value associated with a rule, the action can set \$\$.
- To access a value associated with a grammar symbol on the right hand side, use \$i, where i is the position of that grammar symbol.
- The default action for a rule is



Syntax Error Handling

- Errors can occur at many levels
 - lexical unknown operator
 - syntactic unbalanced parentheses
 - semantic variable never declared
 - logical dereference a null pointer
- Goals of error handling in a parser
 - detect and report the presence of errors
 - recover from each error to be able to detect subsequent errors
 - should not slow down the processing of correct programs



Syntax Error Handling (cont.)

• Viable—prefix property - detect an error as soon as see a prefix of the input that is not a prefix of any string in the language.



Error-Recovery Strategies

• Panic- mode

 skip until one of a synchronizing set of tokens is found (e.g. ';', "end"). Is very simple to implement but may miss detection of some error (when more than one error in a single statement)

Phase- level

 replace prefix of remaining input by a string that allows the parser to continue. Hard for the compiler writer to anticipate all error situations



Error-Recovery Strategies (cont...)

• Error productions

 augment the grammar of the source language to include productions for common errors. When production is used, an appropriate error diagnostic would be issued.
 Feasible to only handle a limited number of errors.

Global correction

 choose minimal sequence of changes to allow a leastcost correction. Too costly to actually be implemented in a parser. Also the closest correct program may not be what the programmer intended.