



Example

- Programming language grammars are often suitable for predictive parsing
- Typical example

stmt ::= id = exp; | return exp; | if (exp) stmt | while (exp) stmt

If the next part of the input begins with the tokens

IF LPAREN ID(x) ...

we should expand *stmt* to an if-statement

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LL(k) Property

- A grammar has the LL(1) property if, for all non-terminals A, if productions $A ::= \alpha$ and $A ::= \beta$ both appear in the grammar, then it is the case that FIRST(α) \cap FIRST(β) = \emptyset
- If a grammar has the LL(1) property, we can build a predictive parser for it that uses 1-symbol lookahead

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LL(k) Parsers

- An LL(k) parser
- Scans the input Left to right
 - Constructs a Leftmost derivation
 - Looking ahead at most k symbols
- 1-symbol lookahead is enough for many practical programming language grammars
 - LL(k) for k>1 is very rare in practice

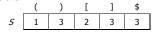
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Table-Driven LL(k) Parsers

- As with LR(k), a table-driven parser can be constructed from the grammar
- Example
 - 1. S := (S) S
 - 2. S := [S]S
 - 3. S::= ε
- Table



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LL vs LR (1)

- Table-driven parsers for both LL and LR can be automatically generated by tools
- LL(1) has to make a decision based on a single non-terminal and the next input symbol
- LR(1) can base the decision on the entire left context (i.e., contents of the stack) as well as the next input symbol

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LL vs LR (2)

- ∴ LR(1) is more powerful than LL(1)
 - Includes a larger set of grammars
- : (editorial opinion) If you're going to use a tool-generated parser, might as well use LR
 - But there are some very good LL parser tools out there (ANTLR, JavaCC, ...) that might win for non-LLvsLR reasons

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F-10



Recursive-Descent Parsers

- An advantage of top-down parsing is that it is easy to implement by hand
- Key idea: write a function (procedure, method) corresponding to each nonterminal in the grammar
 - Each of these functions is responsible for matching its non-terminal with the next part of the input

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```
Example: Statements

    Method for this grammar rule

  Grammar
stmt ::= id = exp;
                                 // parse stmt ::= id=exp; | ...
       return exp;
                                 void stmt() {
      if ( exp ) stmt
| while ( exp ) stmt
                                  switch(nextToken) {
                                   RETURN: returnStmt(); break;
                                   IF: ifStmt(); break;
                                   WHILE: whileStmt(); break;
                                   ID: assignStmt(); break;
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```



F-13

Invariant for Functions

- The parser functions need to agree on where they are in the input
- Useful invariant: When a parser function is called, the current token (next unprocessed piece of the input) is the token that begins the expanded non-terminal being parsed
 - Corollary: when a parser function is done, it must have completely consumed input correspond to that non-terminal

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Possible Problems

- Two common problems for recursivedescent (and LL(1)) parsers
 - Left recursion (e.g., $E := E + T \mid ...$)
 - Common prefixes on the right hand side of productions

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```
Left Recursion Problem

    Grammar rule

                             Code
                             // parse expr ::= ...
expr ::= expr + term
                             void expr() {
      | term
                               expr();
                                if (current token is
                                               PLUS) {
                                    getNextToken();
                                    term();
                               }
• And the bug is????
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                                                     F-18
```

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F-17



Left Recursion Problem

- If we code up a left-recursive rule as-is, we get an infinite recursion
- Non-solution: replace with a rightrecursive rule

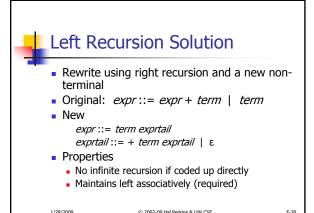
```
expr ::= term + expr \mid term
```

F-19

F-21

Why isn't this the right thing to do?

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Another Way to Look at This

Observe that

expr::= expr + term | term
generates the sequence

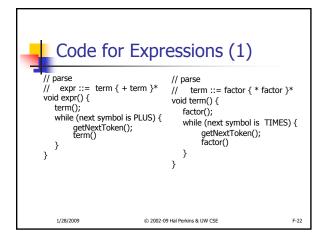
term + term + term + ... + term

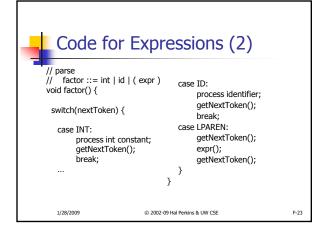
 We can sugar the original rule to reflect this

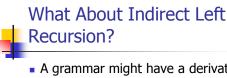
 $expr ::= term \{ + term \}^*$

This leads directly to parser code

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 A grammar might have a derivation that leads to a left recursion

$$A => \beta_1 => * \beta_n => A \gamma$$

- There are systematic ways to factor such grammars
 - See any good compiler book

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Left Factoring

- If two rules for a non-terminal have right hand sides that begin with the same symbol, we can't predict which one to use
- Solution: Factor the common prefix into a separate production

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Left Factoring Example

Original grammar

Factored grammar

```
ifStmt ::= if (expr) stmt ifTail
ifTail ::= else stmt | \epsilon
```

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Parsing if Statements

 But it's easiest to just code up the "else matches closest if" rule directly

```
// parse
// if (expr) stmt [ else stmt ]
void ifStmt() {
    getNextToken();
    getNextToken();
    expr();
    getNextToken();
    stmt();
    if (next symbol is ELSE) {
        getNextToken();
        stmt();
    }
}
```

F-25

F-27

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Another Lookahead Problem

- In languages like FORTRAN, parentheses are used for array subscripts
- A FORTRAN grammar includes something like
 factor ::= id(subscripts) | id(arguments) | ...
- When the parser sees "id (", how can it decide whether this begins an array element reference or a function call?

F-28

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Two Ways to Handle id(?)

- Use the type of id to decide
 - Requires declare-before-use restriction if we want to parse in 1 pass
- Use a covering grammar
 factor ::= id (commaSeparatedList) | ...
 and fix/check later when more
 information is available (e.g., types)

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Top-Down Parsing Concluded

- Works with a smaller set of grammars than bottom-up, but can be done for most sensible programming language constructs
- If you need to write a quick-n-dirty parser, recursive descent is often the method of choice

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Parsing Concluded

- That's it!
- On to the rest of the compiler
- Coming attractions
 - Intermediate representations (ASTs etc.)
 - Semantic analysis (including type checking)
 - Symbol tables
 - & more...

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F-31