#### Partie 3

# Syntax analysis

#### Outline

1. Introduction

2. Context-free grammar

3. Top-down parsing

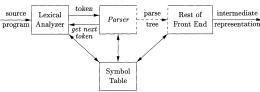
4. Bottom-up parsing

#### Structure of a compiler

character stream Lexical Analyzer token stream Syntax Analyzer syntax tree Semantic Analyzer syntax tree Intermediate Code Generator intermediate representation Machine-Independent Code Optimizer intermediate representation Code Generator target-machine code Machine-Dependent Code Optimizer target-machine code

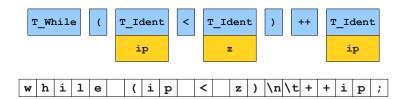
Symbol Table

#### Syntax analysis



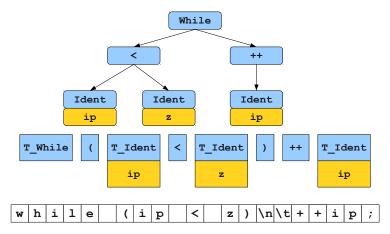
- Goals:
  - recombine the tokens provided by the lexical analysis into a structure (called a syntax tree)
  - Reject invalid texts by reporting syntax errors.
- Like lexical analysis, syntax analysis is based on
  - ▶ the definition of valid texts based on some formal languages,
  - the derivation of an algorithm to detect valid words from this language
- Formal language: context-free grammars
- Two main algorithm families: Top-down parsing and Bottom-up parsing

#### Example



 $(\mathsf{Keith}\ \mathsf{Schwarz})$ 

#### Example



(Keith Schwarz)

#### Reminder: grammar

- A grammar is a 4-tuple  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ , where:
  - ▶ *V* is an alphabet,
  - ▶  $\Sigma \subseteq$  is the set of terminal symbols ( $V \Sigma$  is the set of nonterminal symbols),
  - ▶  $R \subseteq (V^+ \times V^*)$  is a finite set of production rules
  - ▶  $S \in V \Sigma$  is the start symbol.
- Notations:
  - ▶ Nonterminal symbols are represented by uppercase letter: A,B,...
  - ▶ Terminal symbols are represented by lowercase letters: *a*,*b*,...
  - Start symbol written as S
  - **Empty** word:  $\epsilon$
  - ▶ A rule  $(\alpha, \beta) \in R : \alpha \to \beta$
  - Rule combination:  $A \rightarrow \alpha | \beta$
- Exemple:  $\Sigma = \{a, b, b\}$ ,  $V \Sigma = \{S, R\}$ , R =

$$S \rightarrow R$$

$$S \rightarrow aSc$$

$$R \rightarrow \epsilon$$

$$R \rightarrow RbR$$

## Reminder: derivation and language

#### Definitions:

- v can be *derived in one step* from u by G (noted  $v \Rightarrow u$ ) iff u = xu'y, v = xv'y, and  $u' \rightarrow v'$
- v can be *derived in several steps* from u by G (noted  $v \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u$ ) iff  $\exists k \geq 0$  and  $v_0 \dots v_k \in V^+$  such that  $u = v_0, \ v = v_k, \ v_i \Rightarrow v_{i+1}$  for 0 < i < k
- The *language generated by a grammar G* is the set of words that can be derived from the start symbol:

$$L = \{ w \in \Sigma^* | S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w \}$$

Example: derivation of aabcc from the previous grammar

$$\underline{T} \Rightarrow a\underline{T}c \Rightarrow aa\underline{T}cc \Rightarrow aa\underline{R}cc \Rightarrow aa\underline{R}bRcc \Rightarrow aab\underline{R}cc \Rightarrow aabcc$$

#### Reminder: type of grammars

#### Chomski's grammar hierarchy:

- Type 0: free or unrestricted grammars
- Type 1: context sensitive grammars
  - ▶ productions of the form  $uXw \rightarrow uvw$ , where u, v, w are arbitrary strings of symbols in V, with v non-null, and X a single nonterminal
- Type 2: context-free grammars (CFG)
  - ▶ productions of the form  $X \rightarrow v$  where v is an arbitrary string of symbols in V, and X a single nonterminal.
- Type 3: regular grammars
  - ▶ Productions of the form  $X \to a$ ,  $X \to aY$  or  $X \to \epsilon$  where X and Y are nonterminals and a is a terminal (equivalent to regular expressions and finite state automata)

#### Context-free grammars

- Regular languages are too limited for representing programming languages.
- Examples of languages not representable by a regular expression:
  - $L = \{a^n b^n | n \ge 0\}$
  - Balanced parentheses

$$L = \{\epsilon, (), (()), ()(), ((())), (())() \dots \}$$

Scheme programs

$$L = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, (lambda(x)(+x1))\}$$

- Context-free grammars are typically used for describing programming language syntaxes.
  - ► They are sufficient for most language
  - ▶ They lead to efficient parsing algorithms

#### Context-free grammars for programming languages

- Nonterminals of the grammars are typically the token derived by the lexical analysis (in bold in rules)
- Divide the language into several syntactic categories (sub-languages)
- Common syntactic categories

 $Exp \rightarrow (Exp)$ 

- ► Expressions: calculation of values
- ▶ Statements: express actions that occur in a particular sequence
- Declarations: express properties of names used in other parts of the program

## Derivation for context-free grammar

- Like for a general grammar
- Because there is only one nonterminal in the LHS of each rule, their order of application does not matter
- Two particular derivations
  - left-most: always expand first the left-most nonterminal (important for parsing)
  - right-most: always expand first the right-most nonterminal (canonical derivation)
- Examples

```
Left-most derivation: S \Rightarrow aTb \Rightarrow acSSb \Rightarrow accSb \Rightarrow S \rightarrow aTb|c S \Rightarrow aCSBb \Rightarrow accacbb S \rightarrow aCSB|S Right-most derivation: S \Rightarrow aTb \Rightarrow acSSb \Rightarrow acSaTbb \Rightarrow acSaSbb \Rightarrow acSaCbb \Rightarrow acSaSbb \Rightarrow acSaCbb \Rightarrow acSaCbb \Rightarrow acSaCbb \Rightarrow acSaCbb \Rightarrow acCaCbb \Rightarrow acSaCbb \Rightarrow acCaCbb \Rightarrow acSaCbb \Rightarrow acCaCbb \Rightarrow acCaCb
```

#### Parse tree

- A parse tree abstracts the order of application of the rules
  - ► Each interior node represents the application of a production
  - ▶ For a rule  $A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 \dots X_k$ , the interior node is labeled by A and the children from left to right by  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k$ .
  - ► Leaves are labeled by nonterminals or terminals and read from left to right represent a string generated by the grammar
- A derivation encodes how to produce the input
- A parse tree encodes the structure of the input
- Syntax analysis = recovering the parse tree from the tokens

#### Parse trees

$$S \rightarrow aTb|c$$

$$T \rightarrow cSS|S$$

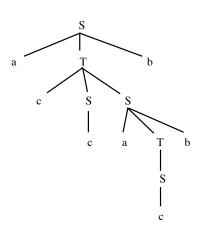
$$w = accacbb$$

Left-most derivation:

$$S \Rightarrow aTb \Rightarrow acSSb \Rightarrow accSb \Rightarrow$$
  
 $accaTbb \Rightarrow accaSbb \Rightarrow accacbb$ 

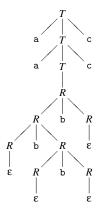
Right-most derivation:

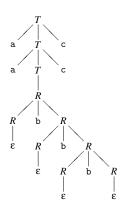
$$S \Rightarrow aTb \Rightarrow acSSb \Rightarrow acSaTbb \Rightarrow acSaSbb \Rightarrow acSacbb \Rightarrow accacbb$$



#### Parse tree

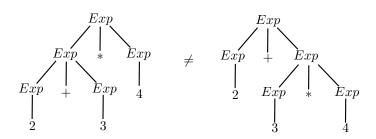
$$egin{array}{lll} T & 
ightarrow & R \ T & 
ightarrow & aTc \ R & 
ightarrow & \epsilon \ R & 
ightarrow & RbR \end{array}$$





## **Ambiguity**

- The order of derivation does not matter but the chosen production rules does
- **Definition:** A CFG is ambiguous if there is at least one string with two or more parse trees
- Ambiguity is not problematic when dealing with flat strings. It is when dealing with language semantics



# Detecting and solving Ambiguity

- There is no mechanical way to determine if a grammar is (un)ambiguous (this is an undecidable problem)
- In most practical cases however, it is easy to detect and prove ambiguity.
  - E.g., any grammar containting  $N \to N\alpha N$  is ambiguous (two parse trees for  $N\alpha N\alpha N$ ).
- How to deal with ambiguity?
  - Modify the grammar to make it unambiguous
  - Handle these ambiguity in the parsing algorithm
- Two common sources of ambiguity in programming languages
  - Expression syntax (operator precedences)
  - Dangling else

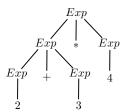
#### Operator precedence

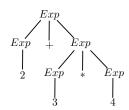
■ This expression grammar is ambiguous

$$\begin{array}{cccc} Exp & \rightarrow & Exp + Exp \\ Exp & \rightarrow & Exp - Exp \\ Exp & \rightarrow & Exp * Exp \\ Exp & \rightarrow & Exp/Exp \\ Exp & \rightarrow & num \\ Exp & \rightarrow & (Exp) \end{array}$$

(it contains  $N \to N\alpha N$ )

■ Parsing of 2 + 3 \* 4





## Operator associativity

- Types of operator associativity:
  - ▶ An operator  $\oplus$  is left-associative if  $a \oplus b \oplus c$  must be evaluated from left to right, i.e., as  $(a \oplus b) \oplus c$
  - ▶ An operator  $\oplus$  is right-associative if  $a \oplus b \oplus c$  must be evaluated from right to left, i.e., as  $a \oplus (b \oplus c)$
  - ▶ An operator  $\oplus$  is non-associative if expressions of the form  $a \oplus b \oplus c$  are not allowed

#### Examples:

- ▶ and / are typically left-associative
- + and \* are mathematically associative (left or right). By convention, we take them left-associative as well
- List construction in functional languages is right-associative
- Arrows operator in C is right-associative (a->b->c is equivalent to a->(b->c))
- ► In Pascal, comparison operators are non-associative (you can not write 2 < 3 < 4)

## Rewriting ambiguous expression grammars

Let's consider the following ambiguous grammar:

$$E \rightarrow E \oplus E$$
 $F \rightarrow \text{num}$ 

If  $\oplus$  is left-associative, we rewrite it as a left-recursive (a recursive reference only to the left). If  $\oplus$  is right-associative, we rewrite it as a right-recursive (a recursive reference only to the right).

 $\oplus$  left-associative  $\oplus$  right-associative  $E \rightarrow E \oplus E'$   $E \rightarrow E' \oplus E$   $E \rightarrow E'$   $E' \rightarrow \text{num}$ 

## Mixing operators of different precedence levels

Introduce a different nonterminal for each precedence level

#### Non-ambiguous

# Ambiguous $Exp \rightarrow Exp + Exp$ $Exp \rightarrow Exp - Exp$ $Exp \rightarrow Exp * Exp$ $Exp \rightarrow Exp/Exp$ $Exp \rightarrow num$ $Exp \rightarrow (Exp)$

$$Exp \rightarrow Exp + Exp2$$

$$Exp \rightarrow Exp - Exp2$$

$$Exp \rightarrow Exp2$$

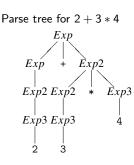
$$Exp2 \rightarrow Exp2 * Exp3$$

$$Exp2 \rightarrow Exp2/Exp3$$

$$Exp2 \rightarrow Exp3$$

$$Exp3 \rightarrow num$$

$$Exp3 \rightarrow (Exp)$$



## Dangling else

Else part of a condition is typically optional

```
Stat \rightarrow  if Exp then Stat Else Stat Stat \rightarrow  if Exp then Stat
```

- How to match if p then if q then s1 else s2?
- Convention: else matches the closest not previously matched if.
- Unambiguous grammar:

```
Stat \rightarrow Stat | Unmatched
Matched \rightarrow \textbf{if } Exp \textbf{ then } Matched \textbf{ else } Matched
Matched \rightarrow \text{"Any other statement"}
```

Unmatched → if Exp then Stat

Unmatched → **if** Exp **then** Matched **else** Unmatched

#### End-of-file marker

- lacktriangle Parsers must read not only terminal symbols such as +,-, **num**, but also the end-of-file
- We typically use \$ to represent end of file
- If S is the start symbol of the grammar, then a new start symbol S' is added with the following rules S' o S\$.

#### Non-context free languages

- Some syntactic constructs from typical programming languages cannot be specified with CFG
- Example 1: ensuring that a variable is declared before its use
  - $L_1 = \{wcw|w \text{ is in } (a|b)^*\}$  is not context-free
  - ▶ In C and Java, there is one token for all identifiers
- Example 2: checking that a function is called with the right number of arguments
  - ▶  $L_2 = \{a^n b^m c^n d^m | n \ge 1 \text{ and } m \ge 1\}$  is not context-free
  - ▶ In C, the grammar does not count the number of function arguments

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \textit{stmt} & \rightarrow & \textbf{id} \; (\textit{expr\_list}) \\ \textit{expr\_list} & \rightarrow & \textit{expr\_list}, \textit{expr} \\ & | & \textit{expr} \end{array}$$

■ These constructs are typically dealt with during semantic analysis

#### Backus-Naur Form

- A text format for describing context-free languages
- We ask you to provide the source grammar for your project in this format
- Exemple:

More information:

```
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Backus-Naur_form
http://www.montefiore.ulg.ac.be/~botta/info0085-1/
```

#### Outline

1. Introduction

2. Context-free grammar

3. Top-down parsing

4. Bottom-up parsing

## Syntax analysis

#### Goals:

- Checking that a program is accepted by the context-free grammar
- Building the parse tree
- Reporting syntax errors

#### ■ Two ways:

- ▶ Top-down: from the start symbol to the word
- Bottom-up: from the word to the start symbol

#### Top-down and bottom-up: example

#### Grammar:

$$S \rightarrow AB$$

$$A \rightarrow aA|\epsilon$$

$$B \rightarrow b|bB$$

Top-down parsing of aaab S AB  $S \rightarrow AB$  AAB  $A \rightarrow aA$  AAB  $A \rightarrow aA$  ABB  $A \rightarrow aA$  ABB  $A \rightarrow aB$  ABB  $A \rightarrow aB$ 

Bottom-up parsing of aaab aaab aaaeb (insert  $\epsilon$ ) aaaAb  $A \rightarrow \epsilon$  aaAb  $A \rightarrow aA$  aAb  $A \rightarrow aA$  Ab  $A \rightarrow aA$  AB  $B \rightarrow b$   $S \rightarrow AB$ 

#### A naive top-down parser

- A very naive parsing algorithm:
  - Generate all possible parse trees until you get one that matches your input
  - ▶ To generate all parse trees:
    - Start with the root of the parse tree (the start symbol of the grammar)
    - 2. Choose a non-terminal A at one leaf of the current parse tree
    - 3. Choose a production having that non-terminal as LHS, eg.,  $A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 \dots X_k$
    - 4. Expand the tree by making  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k$ , the children of A.
    - 5. Repeat at step 2 until all leaves are terminals
    - Repeat the whole procedure by changing the productions chosen at step 3

( Note: the choice of the non-terminal in Step 2 is irrevelant for a context-free grammar)

■ This algorithm is very inefficient, does not always terminate, etc.

# Top-down parsing with backtracking

- Modifications of the previous algorithm:
  - 1. Depth-first development of the parse tree (corresponding to a left-most derivation)
  - 2. Process the terminals in the RHS during the development of the tree, checking that they match the input
  - 3. If they don't at some step, stop expansion and restart at the previous terminal with another productions rules (backtracking)
- Depth-first can be implemented by storing the unprocessed symbols on a stack
- Because of the left-most derivation, the inputs can be processed from left to right

# Backtracking example

	Stack	Inputs	Action
	5	bcd	Try $S \rightarrow bab$
	bab	bcd	match $b$
$\mathcal{S} \  o \ \mathit{bab}$	ab	cd	dead-end, backtrack
$S \rightarrow bA$	S	bcd	Try $S \rightarrow bA$
$A \rightarrow d$	bA	bcd	match <i>b</i>
	Α	cd	Try $A \rightarrow d$
$A \rightarrow cA$	d	cd	dead-end, backtrack
	Α	cd	Try $A \rightarrow cA$
	сA	cd	match <i>c</i>
w = bcd	Α	d	Try $A  o d$
W — bca	d	d	$match\ d$
			Success!

#### Top-down parsing with backtracking

General algorithm (to match a word w):

```
Create a stack with the start symbol
X = POP()
a = GETNEXTTOKEN()
while (True)
    if (X is a nonterminal)
         Pick next rule to expand X \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_k
         Push Y_k, Y_{k-1}, \dots, Y_1 on the stack
         X = POP()
    elseif (X == \$  and a == \$)
         Accept the input
    elseif (X == a)
         a = GETNEXTTOKEN()
         X = POP()
    else
         Backtrack
```

- Ok for small grammars but still untractable and very slow for large grammars
- Worst-case exponential time in case of syntax error

# Another example

	Stack	Inputs	Action
C CLT	S	accbbadbc	Try $S \rightarrow aSbT$
$S \rightarrow aSbT$	aSbT	accbbadbc	match <i>a</i>
$S \rightarrow cT$	SbT	accbbadbc	Try $S  o aSbT$
$S \rightarrow d$	aSbTbT	accbbadbc	match <i>a</i>
3	SbTbT	ccbbadbc	Try $S \rightarrow cT$
$T \rightarrow aT$	cTbTbT	ccbbadbc	match c
$T \rightarrow bS$	TbTbT	cbbadbc	Try $T  o c$
$T \rightarrow c$	cbTbT	cbbadbc	match <i>cb</i>
$I \rightarrow C$	TbT	badbc	Try $T \rightarrow bS$
	bSbT	badbc	match $b$
	SbT	adbc	Try $S \rightarrow aSbT$
	aSbT	adbc	match a
	С	С	match $c$
w = accbbadbc			Success!

#### Predictive parsing

- Predictive parser:
  - ▶ In the previous example, the production rule to apply can be predicted based solely on the next input symbol and the current nonterminal
  - Much faster than backtracking but this trick works only for some specific grammars
- Grammars for which top-down predictive parsing is possible by looking at the next symbol are called LL(1) grammars:
  - L: left-to-right scan of the tokens
  - L: leftmost derivation
  - ▶ (1): One token of lookahead
- Predicted rules are stored in a parsing table *M*:
  - ► M[X, a] stores the rule to apply when the nonterminal X is on the stack and the next input terminal is a

#### Example: parse table

$$S \rightarrow E\$$$
  
 $E \rightarrow int$   
 $E \rightarrow (E Op E)$   
 $Op \rightarrow +$   
 $Op \rightarrow *$ 

	int	(	)	+	*	\$
S	E\$	E\$				
Е	int	(E Op E)				
Ор				+	*	

(Keith Schwarz)

## Example: successfull parsing

- 1.  $S \rightarrow E\$$
- 2.  $E \rightarrow int$ 3.  $E \rightarrow (E Op E)$
- 4. Op  $\rightarrow$  +
- 5. Op  $\rightarrow$  -

	int	(	)	+	*	\$
S	1	1				
Ε	2	3				
Ор				4	5	

S	(int + (int * int))\$
E\$	(int + (int * int))\$
(E Op E)\$	(int + (int * int))\$
E Op E) \$	int + (int * int))\$
int Op E)\$	int + (int * int))\$
Op E) \$	+ (int * int))\$
+ E) \$	+ (int * int))\$
E) \$	(int * int))\$
(E Op E))\$	(int * int))\$
E Op E))\$	int * int))\$
int Op E))\$	int * int))\$
Op E))\$	* int))\$
* E) ) \$	* int))\$
E))\$	int))\$
int))\$	int))\$
))\$	))\$
)\$	)\$
\$	\$

(Keith Schwarz)

## Example: erroneous parsing

1.  $S \rightarrow E$ \$

2.  $E \rightarrow \mathtt{int}$ 

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

4. Op  $\rightarrow$  +

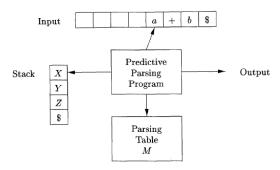
5. Op → **-**

		int	(	)	+	*	\$
	S	1	1				
	Е	2	3				
	Op				4	5	

(int (int))\$
(int (int))\$
(int (int))\$
int (int))\$
int (int))\$
(int))\$

(Keith Schwarz)

#### Table-driven predictive parser



(Dragonbook)

#### Table-driven predictive parser

```
Create a stack with the start symbol
X = POP()
a = GETNEXTTOKEN()
while (True)
    if (X is a nonterminal)
         if (M[X, a] == NULL)
              Frror
         elseif (M[X, a] == X \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_k)
              Push Y_k, Y_{k-1}, \dots, Y_1 on the stack
              X = POP()
    elseif (X == \$  and a == \$)
         Accept the input
    elseif (X == a)
         a = GETNEXTTOKEN()
         X = POP()
    else
         Frror
```

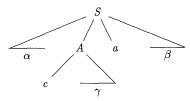
# LL(1) grammars and parsing

Three questions we need to address:

- How to build the table for a given grammars?
- How to know if a grammar is LL(1)?
- How to change a grammar to make it LL(1)?

#### Building the table

- It is useful to define three functions (with A a nonterminal and  $\alpha$  any sequence of grammar symbols):
  - *Nullable*( $\alpha$ ) is true if  $\alpha \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \epsilon$
  - ► First( $\alpha$ ) returns the set of terminals c such that  $\alpha \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} c\gamma$  for some (possibly empty) sequence  $\gamma$  of grammar symbols
  - ▶ Follow(A) returns the set of terminals a such that  $S \Rightarrow \alpha Aa\beta$ , where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are (possibly empty) sequences of grammar symbols



 $(c \in First(A) \text{ and } a \in Follow(A))$ 

#### Building the table from First, Follow, and Nullable

#### To construct the table:

- Start with the empty table
- For each production  $A \rightarrow \alpha$ :
  - ▶ add  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  to M[A, a] for each terminal a in  $First(\alpha)$
  - ▶ If  $Nullable(\alpha)$ , add  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  to M[A, a] for each a in Follow(A)

First rule is obvious. Illustration of the second rule:

$$S \rightarrow Ab$$
  $Nullable(A) = True$   $A \rightarrow c$   $First(A) = \{c\}$   $M[A,b] = A \rightarrow \epsilon$   $A \rightarrow \epsilon$   $Follow(A) = \{b\}$ 

## LL(1) grammars

- Three situations:
  - ▶ M[A, a] is empty: no production is appropriate. We can not parse the sentence and have to report a syntax error
  - ► *M*[*A*, *a*] contains one entry: perfect !
  - ► *M*[*A*, *a*] contains two entries: the grammar is not appropriate for predictive parsing (with one token lookahead)
- **Definition:** A grammar is LL(1) if its parsing table contains at most one entry in each cell or, equivalently, if for all production pairs  $A \to \alpha | \beta$ 
  - $First(\alpha) \cap First(\beta) = \emptyset$ ,
  - $Nullable(\alpha)$  and  $Nullable(\beta)$  are not both true,
  - if  $Nullable(\beta)$ , then  $First(\alpha) \cap Follow(A) = \emptyset$
- **Example** of a non LL(1) grammar:

$$S \rightarrow A$$
 $A \rightarrow b$ 
 $A \rightarrow \epsilon$ 

### Computing Nullable

Algorithm to compute Nullable for all grammar symbols

```
Initialize Nullable to False. 

repeat for each production X \to Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_k if Y_1 \dots Y_k are all nullable (or if k=0) Nullable(X) = True until Nullable did not change in this iteration.
```

Algorithm to compute *Nullable* for any string  $\alpha = X_1 X_2 \dots X_k$ :

```
if (X_1 ... X_k are all nullable)

Nullable(\alpha) = True

else

Nullable(\alpha) = False
```

## Computing *First*

Algorithm to compute *First* for all grammar symbols

```
Initialize First to empty sets. for each terminal Z
     First(Z) = \{Z\}
repeat
     for each production X \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_k
           for i = 1 to k
                if Y_1 \dots Y_{i-1} are all nullable (or i=1)
                      First(X) = First(X) \cup First(Y_i)
until First did not change in this iteration.
```

Algorithm to compute First for any string  $\alpha = X_1 X_2 \dots X_k$ :

```
Initialize First(\alpha) = \emptyset
for i = 1 to k
      if Y_1 \dots Y_{i-1} are all nullable (or i=1)
             First(\alpha) = First(\alpha) \cup First(X_i)
```

### Computing Follow

To compute Follow for all nonterminal symbols

```
Initialize Follow to empty sets. 

repeat for each production X \to Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_k for i=1 to k, for j=i+1 to k if Y_{i+1} \dots Y_k are all nullable (or i=k) Follow(Y_i) = Follow(Y_i) \cup Follow(X) if Y_{i+1} \dots Y_{j-1} are all nullable (or i+1=j) Follow(Y_i) = Follow(Y_i) \cup First(Y_j) until Follow did not change in this iteration.
```

Suntan analysis

#### Example

Compute the parsing table for the following grammar:

$$S \rightarrow E\$$$

$$E \rightarrow TE'$$

$$E' \rightarrow +TE'$$

$$E' \rightarrow \epsilon$$

$$T \rightarrow FT'$$

$$T' \rightarrow *FT'$$

$$T' \rightarrow \epsilon$$

$$F \rightarrow id$$

$$F \rightarrow num$$

$$F \rightarrow (E)$$

#### Example

Nonterminals	Nullable	First	Follow
S	False	{(, id , num }	Ø
E	False	$\{(, id, num \}$	$\{), \$\}$
E'	True	$\{+, -\}$	$\{), \$\}$
T	False	$\{(, id, num \}$	$\{), +, -, \$\}$
T'	True	$\{*,/\}$	$\{),+,-,\$\}$
F	False	$\{(, id, num \}$	$\{),*,/,+,-,\$\}$

# LL(1) parsing summary so far

#### Construction of a LL(1) parser from a CFG grammar

- Eliminate ambiguity
- Add an extra start production  $S' \rightarrow S$ \$ to the grammar
- Calculate First for every production and Follow for every nonterminal
- Calculate the parsing table
- Check that the grammar is LL(1)

#### Next course:

- Transformations of a grammar to make it LL(1)
- Recursive implementation of the predictive parser

Bottom-up parsing techniques