Front End: Syntax Analysis

The Role of the Parser

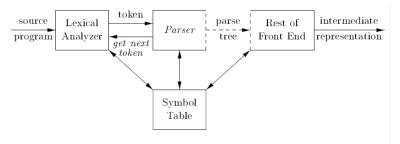


Figure 4.1: Position of parser in compiler model

The Role of the Parser

- Construct a parse tree
- Report and recover from errors
- Collect information into symbol tables

Types of Parsers

- There are three general types of parsers for grammars:
 - Universal
 - ► Top-down
 - Bottom-up
- In compilers, the methods commonly used are either top-down or bottom-up.
- One input symbol at a time, from left to right.
- Efficiency is achieved by restricting to particular grammars:
 LL (manually) or LR (automated tools).

Grammars for expressions

• Universal methods are suitable for general grammars, e.g.

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

(no associativity, no precedence captured)

• Bottom-up methods: LR grammars, e.g.

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

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

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

(associativity and precedence captured)

• Top-down methods: LL grammars, e.g.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E & \rightarrow & TE' \\ E' & \rightarrow & +TE' \mid \varepsilon \\ T & \rightarrow & FT' \\ T' & \rightarrow & *FT' \mid \varepsilon \\ F & \rightarrow & (E) \mid \mathbf{id} \end{array}$$

Context-free Grammars

A *Context-free grammar* (or *grammar*) systematically describes the syntax of programming language constructs.

```
\begin{array}{cccc} expression & \rightarrow & expression + term \\ expression & \rightarrow & expression - term \\ expression & \rightarrow & term \\ term & \rightarrow & term * factor \\ term & \rightarrow & term / factor \\ term & \rightarrow & factor \\ factor & \rightarrow & (expression) \\ factor & \rightarrow & \mathbf{id} \end{array}
```

Figure 4.2: Grammar for simple arithmetic expressions

Terminal symbols: id + - */() Non-terminal: expression, term, factor. Start symbol: expression

CFG: Formal Definition

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

- T is a finite set of terminals
- N is a finite set of non-terminals
- P is a finite subset of production rules of the form

▶
$$A \rightarrow \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_k$$
 with $A \in N$, $\alpha_i \in T \cup N$

- S is the start symbol
 - S ∈ N

Derivations

Using notational conventions the grammar in Fig.4.2 becomes

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

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

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

A derivation of a string of terminals in this grammar is a proof that the string is an expression.

Leftmost derivation: always choose the leftmost nonterminal

$$E \Rightarrow^{lm} E + T \Rightarrow^{lm} id + T \Rightarrow^{lm} id + F \Rightarrow^{lm} id + id$$

Rightmost derivation: always choose the righttmost nonterminal

$$E\Rightarrow^{rm}E+T\Rightarrow^{rm}E+F\Rightarrow^{rm}E+\mathbf{id}\Rightarrow^{rm}T+\mathbf{id}\Rightarrow^{rm}F+\mathbf{id}\Rightarrow^{rm}\mathbf{id}+\mathbf{id}$$

Parse Trees

A parse tree is a graphical representation of a derivation: an interior node represents the head of a production; its children are labelled by the symbols in the body.

Figure 4.3: Parse tree for $-(\mathbf{id} + \mathbf{id})$

Example

Figure 4.4: Sequence of parse trees for derivation (4.8)

id

id

Ambiguity

A grammar that produces more than one parse tree for some sentence is called ambiguous.

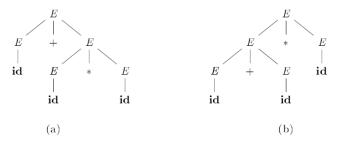


Figure 4.5: Two parse trees for id+id*id

Problems: (1) Ambiguity can make parsing difficult; (2) Underlying structure is ill-defined.

Language Generated by a Grammar

A grammar G generates a language L if we can show that:

- Every string generated by G is in L, and
- Every string in *L* can be generated by *G*.

Example: Show that the grammar

$$S \rightarrow (S)S \mid \varepsilon$$

generates all strings of balanced parentheses and only such strings.

Grammars vs Regular Expressions

Every regular language is a context-free language but non vice-versa.

Example: The language generated by the regular expression

$$(a|b)^*abb$$

is equivalent to the grammar

$$\begin{array}{cccc} A_0 & \rightarrow & aA_0 \mid bA_0 \mid aA_1 \\ A_1 & \rightarrow & bA_2 \\ A_2 & \rightarrow & bA_3 \\ A_3 & \rightarrow & \varepsilon \end{array}$$

NFA-based Construction

From the NFA for the regular expression,

- For each state i of the NFA, create a nonterminal A_i
- Add production $A_i \rightarrow aA_j$ for each transition from i to j on a
- If *i* is accepting then add $A_i \rightarrow \varepsilon$
- If i is the starting state, make A_i the start symbol of the grammar.

Grammar with no Corresponding Regular Expression

The language

$$L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 1\}$$

can be described by a grammar but not by a regular expression. Why?

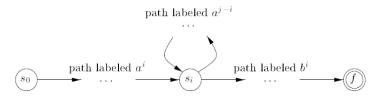


Figure 4.6: DFA D accepting both a^ib^i and a^jb^i .

Non-Context-Free Grammars

Grammars alone can be not sufficient to specify some programming language construct.

This happens for constructs that are context-dependent.

The language

$$L_1 = \{wcw \mid w \text{ in } (\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b})^*\}$$

is non-context-free. L_1 abstracts the requirements that identifiers are defined before their use (as in C and Java).

$$L_2 = \{a^n b^m c^n d^m \mid n \ge 0, m \ge 0\}$$

is non-context-free. L_2 abstracts the requirements that the number of formal parameters in a function declaration is the same as the number of actual parameters in a use of the function.

Common Grammars Problems (CGP)

A grammar may have some 'bad' styles or ambiguity. Some CGP are:

- Ambiguity
- Left-recursion
- Left factors

We need to transform a grammar G_1 into a grammar G_2 with no CGP and such that G_1 and G_2 are equivalent, i.e. they define the same language.

Eliminating Ambiguity

Consider the grammar:

```
stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt
| if expr then stmt else stmt
| other
```

The sentence

if E1 then if E2 then S1 else S2

is ambiguous (cf. Figure 4.9).

Figure 4.10: Unambiguous grammar for if-then-else statements

Example

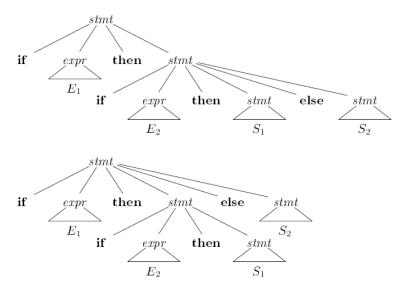


Figure 4.9: Two parse trees for an ambiguous sentence

CGP: Left Recursion

Definition

A grammar G is recursive if it contains a nonterminal X such that $X \Rightarrow^+ \alpha X \beta$.

G is left-recursive if $X \Rightarrow^+ X\beta$.

G is immediately left-recursive if $X \Rightarrow X\beta$.

Top-down parsing cannot handle left-recursive grammars.

We need to eliminate left recursion.

Eliminating Left Recursion

Consider a grammar G with a production

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

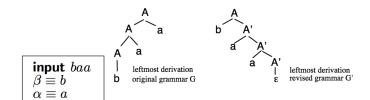
where β does not start with A.

Transform G in G' by replacing it by

$$A \rightarrow \beta A'$$

$$A' \rightarrow \alpha A' \mid \varepsilon.$$

G and G' are equivalent: L(G) = L(G').



The Grammar Expression Example

The non-left-recursive expression grammar

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E & \rightarrow & TE' \\ E' & \rightarrow & +TE' \mid \varepsilon \\ T & \rightarrow & FT' \\ T' & \rightarrow & *FT' \mid \varepsilon \\ F & \rightarrow & (E) \mid \mathbf{id} \end{array}$$

is obtained by eliminating immediate left recursion from the expression grammar

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

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

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

by applying the above transformation.

Algorithm for Eliminating Left Recursion

Input: A grammar G with no cycles and no ε -productions. **Output**: An equivalent grammar with no left recursion..

```
1) arrange the nonterminals in some order A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n.

2) for ( each i from 1 to n) {
3)    for ( each j from 1 to i-1) {
4)        replace each production of the form A_i \to A_j \gamma by the productions A_i \to \delta_1 \gamma \mid \delta_2 \gamma \mid \cdots \mid \delta_k \gamma, where A_j \to \delta_1 \mid \delta_2 \mid \cdots \mid \delta_k are all current A_j-productions
5)    } eliminate the immediate left recursion among the A_i-productions
7) }
```

Figure 4.11: Algorithm to eliminate left recursion from a grammar

Applying the Algorithm

```
for i = 1 to n do
     • for j = 1 to i - 1 do
             ▶ replace A_i \to A_j \gamma
with A_i \to \delta_1 \gamma \mid \cdots \mid \delta_k \gamma
                where A_i \to \delta_1 \mid \cdots \mid \delta_k are all the current A_i-productions.

    Eliminate immediate left-recursion for A<sub>i</sub>

              \triangleright New nonterminals generated above are numbered A_{i+n}
                        Original Grammar:
                        • Ordering of nonterminals: S \equiv A_1 and A \equiv A_2.
                        i = 1

    do nothing as there is no immediate left-recursion for S

                        i = 2
                                • replace A \to Sd by A \to Aad \mid bd
                                • hence (2) becomes A \rightarrow Ac \mid Aad \mid bd \mid e

    after removing immediate left-recursion:

                                        \triangleright A \rightarrow bdA' \mid eA'
                                        A' \rightarrow cA' \mid adA' \mid \epsilon
                        Resulting grammar:
                                \triangleright S \rightarrow Aa \mid b
                                \triangleright A \rightarrow bdA' \mid eA'
                                A' \rightarrow cA' \mid adA' \mid \epsilon
```

CGP: Left Factor

The *left factor* problem occurs when for some nonterminal *A* there are *A*- productions whose bodies have a common prefix.

Example

```
stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt else stmt
| if expr then stmt
```

On input **if**, we have no way to decide which production to choose.

Idea: Expand with the full common factor!

Eliminating Left Factors

The algorithm below produces on input G an equivalent left-factored G'.

Input: context free grammar G

- find the longest non- ϵ prefix α that is common to right-hand sides of two or more productions;
- replace

$$\triangleright A \to \alpha\beta_1 \mid \cdots \mid \alpha\beta_n \mid \gamma_1 \mid \cdots \mid \gamma_m$$

with

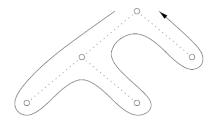
- $ightharpoonup A
 ightharpoonup \alpha A' \mid \gamma_1 \mid \cdots \mid \gamma_m$
- $\triangleright A' \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \cdots \mid \beta_n$
- repeat the above step until the grammar has no two productions with a common prefix;

Top-down Parsing

Constructing a parse tree for the input string starting from the root in a depth-first manner (leftmost derivation).

```
 \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{procedure} \ visit(\mathrm{node} \ N) \ \{ \\ \mathbf{for} \ ( \ \mathrm{each} \ \mathrm{child} \ C \ \mathrm{of} \ N, \ \mathrm{from} \ \mathrm{left} \ \mathrm{to} \ \mathrm{right} \ ) \ \{ \\ visit(C); \\ \\ \} \\ \mathrm{evaluate} \ \mathrm{semantic} \ \mathrm{rules} \ \mathrm{at} \ \mathrm{node} \ N; \\ \} \\ \end{array}
```

Figure 2.11: A depth-first traversal of a tree



Example

Given the grammar

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E & \rightarrow & TE' \\ E' & \rightarrow & +TE' \mid \varepsilon \\ T & \rightarrow & FT' \\ T' & \rightarrow & *FT' \mid \varepsilon \\ F & \rightarrow & (E) \mid \mathbf{id} \end{array}$$

the sequence of trees given in the next slide corresponds to a leftmost derivation of the input string id + id * id.

Example (ctdn.)

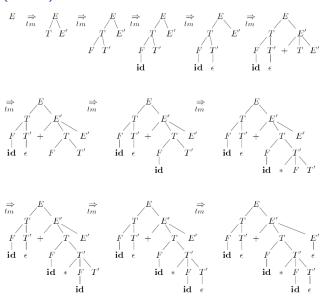


Figure 4.12: Top-down parse for id + id * id

Recursive-descent Parsing

A recursive-descent parsing program is a set of procedures, one for each nonterminal, of the form:

```
void A() {

Choose an A-production, A \to X_1 X_2 \cdots X_k;

for (i = 1 \text{ to } k) {

if (X_i \text{ is a nonterminal})

call procedure X_i();

else if (X_i \text{ equals the current input symbol } a)

d)

advance the input to the next symbol;

else /* an error has occurred */;

}

}
```

Figure 4.13: A typical procedure for a nonterminal in a top-down parser

Backtracking

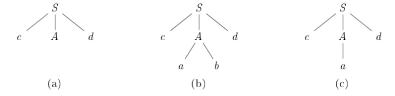
Top-down parsing may require repeated scans over the input: if an *A*-production leads to a failure, we must *backtrack* and try with another one.

Example

$$S \rightarrow cAd$$

 $A \rightarrow ab \mid a$

On input w = cad we apply recursive-descent parsing. Since the choice of the first production leads to failure, we backtrack and try the second.



Predictive Parsing

The previous approach may be very inefficient due to backtracking. A predictive parser is a recursive-descent parser needing no backtracking.

A predictive parser can choose one of the available productions for a nonterminal A by looking at the next input symbol(s).

The class of **LL(1)** grammars [Lewis&Stearns 1968] can be parsed by a predictive parsers in O(n) time.

We first need to introduce two important functions: FIRST and FOLLOW.

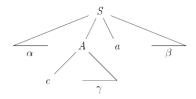


Figure 4.15: Terminal c is in FIRST(A) and a is in FOLLOW(A)

FIRST

Definition

Let G be a grammar and let α be a string on $T \cup N$.

 $FIRST(\alpha)$ is the set of terminal symbols that may occur at the beginning of a string derived from α :

 $a \in T$, $a \in \text{First}(\alpha)$ if and only if $\alpha \Rightarrow^* a\beta$ for some $\beta \in (T \cup N)^*$.

If $\alpha \Rightarrow^* \epsilon$, then $\epsilon \in \text{First}(\alpha)$.

FOLLOW

Definition

Let G be a grammar and let A be a non-terminal of G.

Follow(A) is the set of terminal symbols that may occur on the right hand side immediately after A in a sentential form:

 $a \in T$, $a \in \text{FOLLOW}(A)$ if and only if $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha A a \beta$ for some $\alpha, \beta \in (T \cup N)^*$.

If $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha A$, then $S \in Follow(A)$.

Computing FIRST

To compute FIRST(X) for any symbol X, apply the rules:

- 1. If X is a terminal, then $FIRST(X) = \{X\}$.
- 2. if $X \to \varepsilon$ is a production then place ε in FIRST(X)
- 3. If X is a nonterminal and $X \to Y_1 Y_2 ... Y_k$ is a production for some $k \ge 1$, then place a in FIRST(X) if for some i, a is in FIRST(Y_i), and ε is in all of FIRST(Y_i), ..., FIRST(Y_{i-1}); that is, $Y_1 ... Y_{i-1} \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon$. If ε is in FIRST(Y_i) for all j = 1
- 1,2, ...,k, then add ε to FIRST(X).

Computing FIRST (ctd.)

To compute $FIRST(\alpha)$ for any string of symbol α , apply the rules:

```
Let \alpha = X_1 X_2 \cdots X_n. Perform the following steps in sequence:

• FIRST(\alpha) \Leftarrow \text{FIRST}(X_1) - \{\epsilon\};
• if \epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(X_1), then

• put FIRST(X_2) - \{\epsilon\} into FIRST(\alpha);
• if \epsilon \in \text{FIRST}(X_1) \cap \text{FIRST}(X_2), then

• put FIRST(X_3) - \{\epsilon\} into FIRST(\alpha);
• ...
• if \epsilon \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} \text{FIRST}(X_i), then

• put FIRST(X_i) - \{\epsilon\} into FIRST(\alpha);
• if \epsilon \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} \text{FIRST}(X_i), then

• put \{\epsilon\} into FIRST(\alpha).
```

Computing FIRST: Example

Example for computing FIRST (α)

$\begin{array}{l} \text{Grammar} \\ E \rightarrow E'T \\ E' \rightarrow -TE' \mid \epsilon \\ T \rightarrow FT' \\ T' \rightarrow /FT' \mid \epsilon \\ F \rightarrow int \mid (E) \end{array}$

```
\begin{split} & \textit{FIRST}(F) = \{int, (\}\\ & \textit{FIRST}(T') = \{/, \epsilon\}\\ & \textit{FIRST}(T) = \{int, (\}\\ & \textit{FIRST}(E') = \{-, \epsilon\}\\ & \textit{FIRST}(E) = \{-, int, (\}\\ \end{split}
```

```
\begin{aligned} & \textbf{FIRST}(E'T) = \{-, int, (\} \\ & \textbf{FIRST}(-TE') = \{-\} \\ & \textbf{FIRST}(\epsilon) = \{\epsilon\} \\ & \textbf{FIRST}(FT') = \{int, (\} \\ & \textbf{FIRST}(/FT') = \{/\} \\ & \textbf{FIRST}(\epsilon) = \{\epsilon\} \\ & \textbf{FIRST}(int) = \{int\} \\ & \textbf{FIRST}((E)) = \{(\} \end{aligned}
```

Computing FOLLOW

To compute Follow(X) for all nonterminals X, apply the following rules until nothing can be added to any FOLLOW set.

- 1. Place \$ in FOLLOW(S), (S start symbol, \$ the input right endmarker).
- 2. If there is a production A $\rightarrow \alpha$ B or a production A $\rightarrow \alpha$ B β where FIRST(β) contains ϵ then everything in FOLLOW(A) is in FOLLOW(B).
- 3. If there is a production $A \rightarrow \alpha B\beta$ then everything in in FIRST(β) except ϵ is in FOLLOW(B).

FIRST and FOLLOW Example

```
\begin{split} E &\rightarrow T \ E' \\ E' &\rightarrow + T \ E' \ \mid \ \epsilon \\ T &\rightarrow F \ T' \\ T' &\rightarrow * F \ T' \ \mid \ \epsilon \\ F &\rightarrow ( \ E \ ) \ \mid \ \textbf{id} \end{split}
```

- 1. If X is a terminal, then $FIRST(X) = \{X\}$.
- 2. If X is a nonterminal and $X\Rightarrow Y_1Y_2\dots Y_k$ is a production for some k>1, then place a in FIRST(X) if for some i, a is in FIRST(Y_i), and ϵ is in all of FIRST(Y_i), ..., FIRST(Y_{i-1}); that is, $Y_1\dots Y_{i-1}\Rightarrow \epsilon$. If ϵ is in FIRST(Y_j) for all $j=1,2,\dots,k$, then add ϵ to FIRST(X).

Computing FOLLOW(A)

- Place \$ into FOLLOW(S)
- Repeat until nothing changes:
 - if A $\rightarrow \alpha B\beta$ then add FIRST(β)\{ ϵ } to FOLLOW(B)
 - if $A \to \alpha B$ then add FOLLOW(A) to FOLLOW(B)
 - if A → αBβ and ε is in FIRST(β) then add FOLLOW(A) to FOLLOW(B)
- FIRST(F) = FIRST(T) = FIRST(E) = {(, id }
- FIRST(E') = {+, ε}
- FIRST(T') = {*, ε}
- FOLLOW(E) = FOLLOW(E') = {), \$}
- FOLLOW(T) = FOLLOW(T') = {+,),\$}
- FOLLOW(F) = {+, *,), \$}

Another FIRST and FOLLOW Example

Consider the grammar:

$$E \rightarrow TE'$$

$$E' \rightarrow \epsilon \mid +E \mid -E$$

$$T \rightarrow AT'$$

$$T' \rightarrow \epsilon \mid *T$$

$$A \rightarrow \mathbf{a} \mid \mathbf{b} \mid (E)$$

Computing FIRST(X) and FOLLOW(X) for all X in the grammar gives the following result:

	First()	Follow()
Ε	a , b , (\$,)
E'	$\epsilon, +, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, ($ $\epsilon, *$	\$,)
T	a , b , (\$,),+,-
T'	$\epsilon, *$	\$,),+,-
Α	a, b, (\$,),+,-,*

How Predictive Parsers Work

Consider a predictive parser implemented as a *non-recursive* procedure that explicitly operates on a stack.

INIT: parser pushes the start symbol on the stack and call the scanner to get the first token.

LOOP:

- if TOP is $X \in N$, then
 - Choose a production $X \to \beta$ (looking at the current token)
 - ▶ Pop X and push β (from right to left).
 - Goto LOOP.
- If TOP is $a \in T$ and a matches the current token
 - ▶ Pop a and ask scanner for the next token
 - Goto LOOP.
- If STACK is empty and there are no more tokens, ACCEPT!
- If none of the above hold, FAIL!

Why computing FIRST?

Suppose that during parsing

TOP is a non-terminal X and

$$X \to \alpha_1, \ldots, X \to \alpha_k$$

are all productions in the string grammar.

- The current lookahead token is a
- $a \in FIRST(\alpha_i)$ for more than one i.

Then the parser cannot choose deterministically and may need to backtrack.

Why computing FOLLOW?

Suppose that during parsing

TOP is a non-terminal X and

$$X \to \alpha_1, \ldots, X \to \alpha_k$$

are all productions in the string grammar.

- The current lookahead token is a.
- $a \notin \text{First}(\alpha_i)$ for all i's.

Then the parser can still select a production to expand X: If $\alpha_i \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon$, for some i, and $a \in \text{Follow}(X)$, the production $X \to \alpha_i$ is a suitable one.

Note that $\alpha_i \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon$ iff $\varepsilon \in \text{First}(\alpha_i)$.

LL(1) Grammars

Left to right parsers producing a Leftmost derivation *looking* ahead by at most 1 input symbol.

Definition

A grammar G is **LL(1)** if and only if whenever $A \to \alpha \mid \beta$ are two distinct productions in G, then

- FIRST(α) and FIRST(β) are disjoint sets
- If ε is in FIRST(β) then FIRST(α) and FOLLOW(A) are disjoint sets
- If ε is in FIRST(α) then FIRST(β) and FOLLOW(A) are disjoint sets.

Most programming language constructs are $\mathsf{LL}(1)$ but careful grammar writing is required.

If a grammar is **LL(1)** then it does not have CGP, but the vice-versa does not hold.

(Non) Example

Is the following grammar LL(1)?

$$\begin{array}{lll} G & \rightarrow & aAb \mid aBbb \\ A & \rightarrow & aAb \mid 0 \\ B & \rightarrow & aBbb \mid 1 \end{array}$$

No: it is not factored.

$$G
ightarrow aG'$$

 $G'
ightarrow Ab \mid Bbb$
 $A
ightarrow aAb \mid 0$
 $B
ightarrow aBbb \mid 1$

This factored version is still not **LL(1)**. Why?

LL (Predictive) Parsing Table

A Predictive Parsing Table is a bidimensional matrix M where

- Rows represent non-terminals
- Columns represent terminals (including \$), and
- M[A, a] contains the productions chosen for expanding A with a as the current input.

Predictive Parsing Table

To construct a parsing table M for a grammar G, for each production $A \to \alpha$ in G:

- If a is in FIRST(α), add $A \rightarrow \alpha$ in M[A, a].
- If ε is in FIRST(α), add $A \to \alpha$ in M[A, b] for each b in FOLLOW(A).
- If ε is in FIRST(α) and \$ is in FOLLOW(A), add $A \to \alpha$ in M[A, \$].

An empty entry in M corresponds to an error.

Definition

A grammar is **LL(1)** if and only if every entry of the parsing table contains at most una production.

Example I

For the expression grammar the algorithm produces the following table.

NON -	INPUT SYMBOL					
TERMINAL	id	+	*	()	\$
E	$E \to TE'$			$E \to TE'$		
E'		$E' \to + TE'$			$E' \to \epsilon$	$E' \to \epsilon$
T	$T \rightarrow FT'$			$T \to FT'$		
T'		$T' \to \epsilon$	$T' \to *FT'$		$T' \to \epsilon$	$T' \to \epsilon$
F	$F o \mathbf{id}$			$F \to (E)$		

Figure 4.17: Parsing table M for Example 4.32

Example II

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \rightarrow & iEtSS' \mid a \\ S' & \rightarrow & eS \mid \varepsilon \\ E & \rightarrow & b \end{array}$$

Non -	INPUT SYMBOL					
${\tt TERMINAL}$	a	b	e	i	t	\$
S	$S \rightarrow a$			$S \rightarrow iEtSS'$		
S'			$S' \to \epsilon$ $S' \to eS$			$S' \to \epsilon$
E		$E \rightarrow b$				

Figure 4.18: Parsing table M for Example 4.33

Table-driven Predictive Parser

```
a | + | b | $
   Input
               Predictive
                               Output
Stack
                Parsing
                Program
                               Stack=
                Parsing
                               I= | w | $ |;
                 Table
                 M
                               k=1:
                               X = top();
                               while(X <> $){ //stack non empty
                                  if (X == I[k]) \{pop(); k++;\}
                                  else if (X is a terminal)
                                                           error();
                                  else if (M[X,I[k]] == error)
                                                           error();
                                  else if (M[X,I[k]] == X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n)
                                    output production (X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n);
                                    pop();
                                    push(Y_n); ...; push(Y_1);
                                  X=top();
```

Example

Матснер	Stack	Input	ACTION
	E\$	id + id * id\$	
	TE'\$	$\mathbf{id} + \mathbf{id} * \mathbf{id} \$$	output $E \to TE'$
	FT'E'\$	$\mathbf{id} + \mathbf{id} * \mathbf{id} \$$	output $T \to FT'$
	id $T'E'$ \$	id + id * id\$	output $F \to id$
id	T'E'\$	$+\operatorname{id}*\operatorname{id}\$$	match id
id	E'\$	$+\operatorname{id}*\operatorname{id}\$$	output $T' \to \epsilon$
id	+ TE'\$	$+\operatorname{id}*\operatorname{id}\$$	output $E' \to + TE'$
id +	TE'\$	$\mathbf{id} * \mathbf{id} \$$	match +
id +	FT'E'\$	$\mathbf{id} * \mathbf{id} \$$	output $T \to FT'$
id +	id $T'E'$ \$	$\mathbf{id} * \mathbf{id} \$$	output $F \to \mathbf{id}$
id + id	T'E'\$	*id\$	$\operatorname{match} \operatorname{\mathbf{id}}$
id + id	*FT'E'\$	*id\$	output $T' \to *FT'$
$\mathbf{id} + \mathbf{id} *$	FT'E'\$	id\$	$\mathrm{match} \ *$
$\mathbf{id} + \mathbf{id} \ *$	id $T'E'$ \$	$\mathbf{id}\$$	output $F \to \mathbf{id}$
$\mathbf{id} + \mathbf{id} * \mathbf{id}$	T'E'\$	\$	$\mathrm{match}\ \mathbf{id}$
$\mathbf{id} + \mathbf{id} * \mathbf{id}$	E'\$	\$	output $T' \to \epsilon$
$\mathbf{id} + \mathbf{id} * \mathbf{id}$	\$	\$	output $E' \to \epsilon$

Figure 4.21: Moves made by a predictive parser on input id + id * id

More Examples

			First()	Follow()
$S \rightarrow$	aAB	S	а	\$
$A \rightarrow$	$C \mid D$	Α	c, d, ϵ	Ь
$B \rightarrow$	Ь	В	Ь	\$
$C \rightarrow$	$c \mid \epsilon$	С	c, ϵ	Ь
$D \rightarrow$	d	D	a c, d, ϵ b c, ϵ d	Ь

	a	Ь	c	d	\$
5	$S \rightarrow aAB$				
Α		$A \rightarrow C$	$A \rightarrow C$	$A \rightarrow D$	
В		$B \rightarrow b$			
С		$C o \epsilon$	$C \rightarrow c$		
D				$D \rightarrow d$	

Output	Pila	Input	Output	Pila	Input
Start	<i>S</i> \$	adb\$	Start	<i>S</i> \$	abb\$
$\mathcal{S} ightarrow aAB$	aAB\$	adb\$	extstyle S ightarrow extstyle aAB	aAB\$	abb\$
	AB\$	db\$		AB\$	<i>bb</i> \$
$A \rightarrow D$	DB\$	db\$	A o C	CB\$	<i>bb</i> \$
D o d	dB\$	db\$	$ extstyle C ightarrow \epsilon$	B\$	<i>bb</i> \$
	B\$	<i>b</i> \$	B o b	<i>b</i> \$	<i>bb</i> \$
B o b	<i>b</i> \$	<i>b</i> \$		\$	<i>b</i> \$
	\$	\$	Errore!		
OK!					