

# **FROWN**

## **An LALR( $k$ ) Parser Generator**

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(Pick the slides at `.../~ralf/talks.html#T30`.)

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# Outline

- ✘ Usage
- ✘ Recap: LR parsing
- ✘ Implementation
- ✘ Features
- ✘ Facts and figures

# Running example: well-formed parentheses

```
data Tree      = Node [Tree]
empty          = Node []
join t (Node us) = Node (t : us)
%{
Terminal      = '( ' | ')';
Nonterminal   = Expr{ Tree };
Expr{ join t u } : '( ', Expr{ t }, ') ', Expr{ u };
                | ;
}%
frown ts      = fail "syntax error"
```

# Usage

`frown :- (` is invoked as follows:

```
frown Paren.g
```

This generates a Haskell source file (*Paren.hs*) that contains (among other things) the desired parser:

```
expr :: (Monad m) => [Char] -> m Tree
```

Here, *Char* is the type of terminals and *Tree* is the type of semantic values associated with *Expr*.

# The standard example: arithmetic expressions

```
type Op           = Int → Int → Int
%{
Terminal          = Nat{ Int } | Add{ Op } | Mul{ Op } | L | R;
Nonterminal       = Expr{ Int } | Term{ Int } | Factor{ Int };
Expr{ v1 'op' v2 } : Expr{ v1 }, Add{ op }, Term{ v2 };
    { e }          | Term{ e };
Term{ v1 'op' v2 } : Term{ v1 }, Mul{ op }, Factor{ v2 };
    { e }          | Factor{ e };
Factor{ e }        : L, Expr{ e }, R;
    { n }          | Nat{ n };
}%
frown ts          = fail ("syntax error: " ++ show ts)
```

```

data Terminal = Nat Int | Add Op | Mul Op | L | R
lexer         :: String → [Terminal]
lexer []      = []
lexer ('+' : cs) = Add (+) : lexer cs
lexer ('-' : cs) = Add (-) : lexer cs
lexer ('*' : cs) = Mul (*) : lexer cs
lexer ('/' : cs) = Mul div : lexer cs
lexer ('(' : cs) = L : lexer cs
lexer (')' : cs) = R : lexer cs
lexer (c : cs)
  | isDigit c = let (n, cs') = span isDigit cs
                in Nat (read (c : n)) : lexer cs'
  | otherwise = lexer cs

```

# Things to note

- The terminal symbols are arbitrary Haskell patterns (of the same *Terminal* type).
- Both terminal and nonterminal symbols may carry multiple semantic values (or no value).
- The parser generated for start symbol  $Start\{ T_1 \} \dots \{ T_n \}$  has type

$$start \quad :: \quad (Monad \ m) \Rightarrow [Terminal] \rightarrow m (T_1, \dots, T_n)$$

A grammar may have several start symbols.

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# Shift-reduce parsing

The parsers that are generated by Frown :-() are so-called LALR( $k$ ) parsers ('LA'  $\cong$  lookahead, 'L'  $\cong$  left-to-right scanning of input, 'R'  $\cong$  constructing a rightmost derivation in reverse).

LR parsing is a general method of shift-reduce parsing.

*General idea:* reduce the input string to the start symbol of the grammar. Either *shift* a terminal symbol onto the stack or *reduce* the RHS of a production on top of the stack to the LHS.

*History:* LR parsers were first introduced by Knuth in 1965. When DeRemer devised the LALR method in 1969, the LR technique became the method of choice for parser generators.

# Running example

The grammar is first augmented by an EOF symbol (here ‘ $\$$ ’) and a new start symbol (here ‘ $Start$ ’).

```
%{  
Terminal           = ' ( ' | ' ) ' | ' $ ' ;  
Nonterminal       = Start { Tree } | Expr { Tree } ;  
[0] Start { t }    : Expr { t }, ' $ ' ;  
[1] Expr { join t u } : ' ( ' , Expr { t }, ' ) ' , Expr { u } ;  
[2] Expr { empty } : ;  
}%
```

# A non-deterministic parser

```
data Stack = Stack > Symbol
```

```
parse :: (Monad m) => Stack -> [Terminal] -> m Tree  
parse = shift | reduce0 | reduce1 | reduce2
```

```
shift st (t : tr) = parse (st > t) tr  
reduce0 (st > Expr { t } > '$') = return t  
reduce1 (st > '(' > Expr { t } > ')') > Expr { u })  
= parse (st > Expr { join t u })  
reduce2 st = parse (st > Expr { empty })
```

# A sample parse

		( ) ( ) \$
<i>shift</i>	(	) ( ) \$
<i>reduce</i> <sub>2</sub>	( <i>E</i>	) ( ) \$
<i>shift</i>	( <i>E</i> )	( ) \$
<i>shift</i>	( <i>E</i> ) (	) \$
<i>reduce</i> <sub>2</sub>	( <i>E</i> ) ( <i>E</i>	) \$
<i>shift</i>	( <i>E</i> ) ( <i>E</i> )	\$
<i>reduce</i> <sub>2</sub>	( <i>E</i> ) ( <i>E</i> ) <i>E</i>	\$
<i>reduce</i> <sub>1</sub>	( <i>E</i> ) <i>E</i>	\$
<i>reduce</i> <sub>1</sub>	( <i>E</i> ) <i>E</i>	\$
<i>reduce</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>E</i>	\$
<i>shift</i>	<i>E</i> \$	
<i>reduce</i> <sub>0</sub>	<i>S</i>	

# Recognition of handles

*Problem:* How can we decide which action to take? In particular, how can we efficiently determine which RHS resides on top of the stack?

☞ This is another language recognition problem!

A *handle* is the RHS of a production preceded by a left context.


$$S \Longrightarrow_r^* \alpha N \omega \Longrightarrow_r \alpha \beta \omega \Longrightarrow_r^* \omega'$$

Here,  $\alpha\beta$  is a handle of the *right-sentential form*  $\alpha\beta\omega$  ( $\omega$  and  $\omega'$  contain only terminals).

# Grammar of handles and left contexts

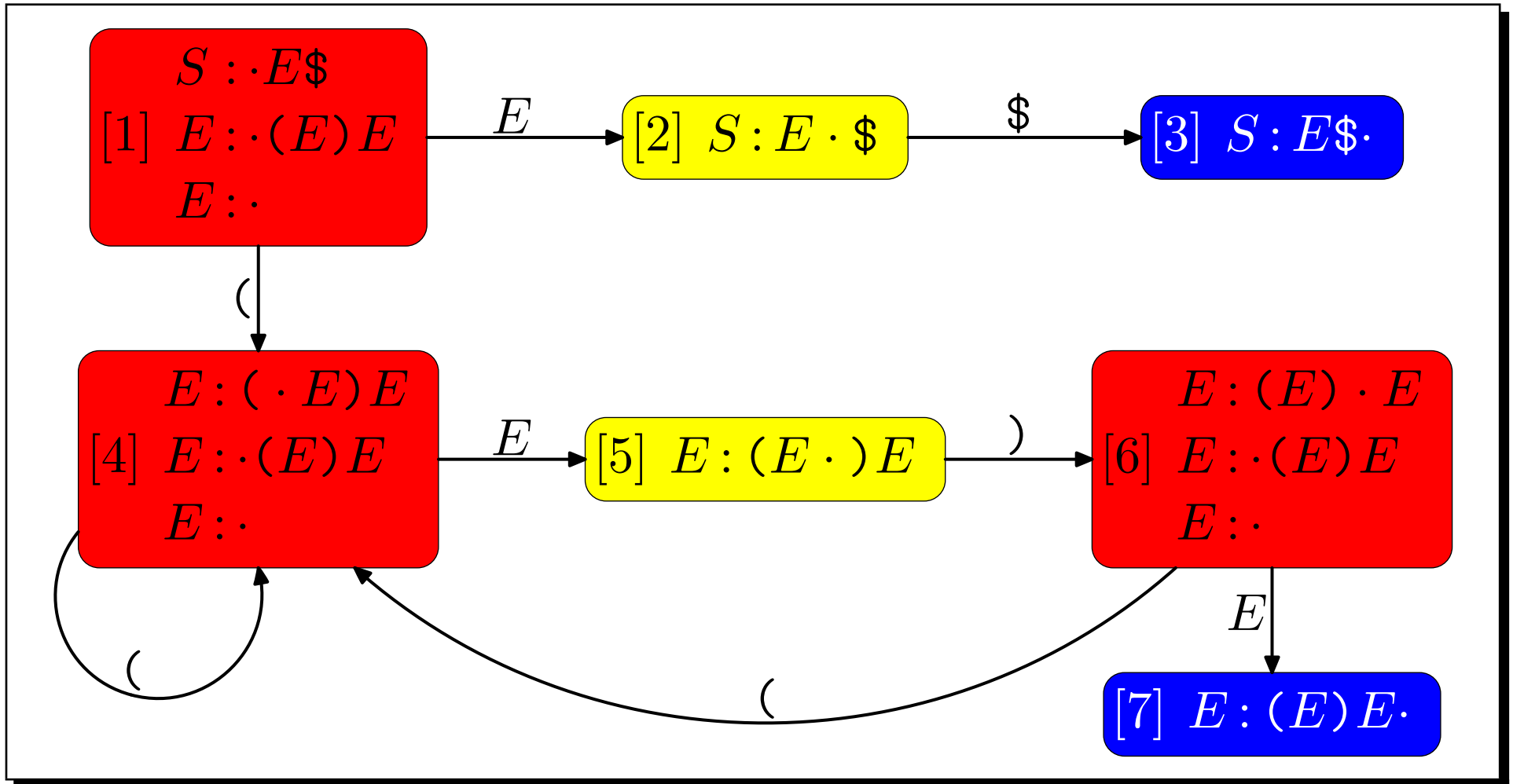
$\mathcal{H}(p)$  is the language of handles for production  $p$ ;  $\mathcal{L}(N)$  is the language of left contexts of  $N$ .

$\mathcal{H}(0)$	:	$\mathcal{L}(Start), Expr, '\$'$ ;
$\mathcal{H}(1)$	:	$\mathcal{L}(Expr), '( , Expr, ')'$ , $Expr$ ;
$\mathcal{H}(2)$	:	$\mathcal{L}(Expr)$ ;
$\mathcal{L}(Start)$	:	;
$\mathcal{L}(Expr)$	:	$\mathcal{L}(Start)$ ;
		$\mathcal{L}(Expr), '( '$ ;
		$\mathcal{L}(Expr), '( , Expr, ')'$ ;

 By construction, this grammar is left-recursive. Thus,  $\mathcal{H}(p)$  and  $\mathcal{L}(N)$  generate regular languages!

# LR(0) automaton

Regular languages can be recognized by *deterministic finite state machines* (set of states construction;  $N : \alpha \cdot \beta$  is called an *item*).



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# Towards Haskell

The LR(0) automaton can be directly encoded as a functional program.

The stack records the transitions of the LR(0) automaton.

```
data GStack  =  VStack → State  
data VStack =  GStack > Symbol
```

**NB.**  $s > t \rightarrow s'$  is meant to resemble the transition  $s \xrightarrow{t} s'$ .

# Shift and reduce states

State 2 is a *shift state*.

$$\text{parse}_2 \text{ st } ( '\$' : \text{tr} ) = \text{parse}_3 ( \text{st} \succ '\$' \rightarrow 3 ) \text{ tr}$$

State 7 is a *reduce state*.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{parse}_7 ( \text{st} \rightarrow 1 \succ '(' \rightarrow 4 \succ E\{t\} \rightarrow 5 \succ ')', \rightarrow 6 \succ E\{u\} \rightarrow 7 ) \\ & = \text{parse}_2 ( \text{st} \succ 1 \rightarrow E\{\text{join } t \text{ } u\} \rightarrow 2 ) \\ & \text{parse}_7 ( \text{st} \rightarrow 4 \succ '(' \rightarrow 4 \succ E\{t\} \rightarrow 5 \succ ')', \rightarrow 6 \succ E\{u\} \rightarrow 7 ) \\ & = \text{parse}_5 ( \text{st} \succ 4 \rightarrow E\{\text{join } t \text{ } u\} \rightarrow 5 ) \\ & \text{parse}_7 ( \text{st} \rightarrow 6 \succ '(' \rightarrow 4 \succ E\{t\} \rightarrow 5 \succ ')', \rightarrow 6 \succ E\{u\} \rightarrow 7 ) \\ & = \text{parse}_7 ( \text{st} \succ 6 \rightarrow E\{\text{join } t \text{ } u\} \rightarrow 7 ) \end{aligned}$$

# Conflicts

We have a *shift/reduce conflict* if a state contains both a shift and a reduce action (states 1, 4, and 6 in our running example).

☞ A shift/reduce conflict can possibly be resolved using *one* token of lookahead.

We have a *reduce/reduce conflict* if a state contains several reduce actions.

☞ A reduce/reduce conflict can possibly be resolved using *k* tokens of lookahead.

# Computation of lookahead information

*Idea:* partially execute the LR(0) machine at compile time to determine the shifts that might follow a reduce action.

[1]	$E : 1 \cdot$	$\{\$ \}$
[3]	$S : 1 E 2 \$ 3 \cdot$	$\{ \}$
[4]	$E : 4 \cdot$	$\{ ) \}$
[6]	$E : 6 \cdot$	$\{ \$, ) \}$
[7]	$E : 1 ( 4 E 5 ) 6 E 7 \cdot$	$\{\$ \}$
	$E : 4 ( 4 E 5 ) 6 E 7 \cdot$	$\{ ) \}$
	$E : 6 ( 4 E 5 ) 6 E 7 \cdot$	$\{ \$, ) \}$

**NB.** LALR( $k$ ) parsers merge the lookahead information for each production. In other words, the parsers generated by Frown :- ( are slightly more general than LALR.

# In Haskell: representation of the stack

For each transition we introduce a constructor.

```
data Stack = Empty
           | St_1_4 Stack
           | St_1_2 Stack (Tree)
           | St_2_3 Stack
           | St_4_4 Stack
           | St_4_5 Stack (Tree)
           | St_5_6 Stack
           | St_6_4 Stack
           | St_6_7 Stack (Tree)
```

# In Haskell: LR(0) machine

```
expr tr = parse_1 tr Empty  
parse_1 ts@[ ] st = parse_2 ts (St_1_2 st (empty))  
parse_1 (' (' : tr) st = parse_4 tr (St_1_4 st)  
parse_1 ts st = frown ts  
parse_2 tr@[ ] st = parse_3 tr (St_2_3 st)  
parse_2 ts st = frown ts  
parse_3 ts (St_2_3 (St_1_2 st (v0)))  
= return (v0)  
parse_4 (' (' : tr) st = parse_4 tr (St_4_4 st)  
parse_4 ts@(')' : tr) st = parse_5 ts (St_4_5 st (empty))  
parse_4 ts st = frown ts
```

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{parse\_5 } (')' : \text{tr} \text{ st} &= \text{parse\_6 tr } (\text{St\_5\_6 st}) \\
\text{parse\_5 ts st} &= \text{frown ts} \\
\text{parse\_6 } (')' : \text{tr} \text{ st} &= \text{parse\_4 tr } (\text{St\_6\_4 st}) \\
\text{parse\_6 ts st} &= \text{parse\_7 ts } (\text{St\_6\_7 st } (\text{empty})) \\
\text{parse\_7 ts } (\text{St\_6\_7 } (\text{St\_5\_6 } (\text{St\_4\_5 } (\text{St\_1\_4 st} \text{ (t)})) \text{ (u)})) & \\
&= \text{parse\_2 ts } (\text{St\_1\_2 st } (\text{join t u})) \\
\text{parse\_7 ts } (\text{St\_6\_7 } (\text{St\_5\_6 } (\text{St\_4\_5 } (\text{St\_4\_4 st} \text{ (t)})) \text{ (u)})) & \\
&= \text{parse\_5 ts } (\text{St\_4\_5 st } (\text{join t u})) \\
\text{parse\_7 ts } (\text{St\_6\_7 } (\text{St\_5\_6 } (\text{St\_4\_5 } (\text{St\_6\_4 st} \text{ (t)})) \text{ (u)})) & \\
&= \text{parse\_7 ts } (\text{St\_6\_7 st } (\text{join t u}))
\end{aligned}$$

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# Features

- Multiple entry points (start symbols).
- Multiple attribute values.
- Precedences to resolve conflicts.
- `--lookahead= $k$` : Use additional lookahead to resolve reduce/reduce conflicts (only used where needed).
- `--backtrack`: Produce a backtracking parser.

$$start \quad :: \quad (MonadPlus \ m) \Rightarrow [Terminal] \rightarrow m (T_1, \dots, T_n)$$

- `--monadic`: Monadic semantic actions.

- `--lexer`: Use monadic lexer instead of list of terminal symbols:

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{get} &:: (\textit{Monad } m) \Rightarrow m \textit{ Terminal} \\ \textit{start} &:: (\textit{Monad } m) \Rightarrow m (T_1, \dots, T_n) \end{aligned}$$

- `--expected`: In case of error pass the set of expected tokens to the error routine.

$$\textit{frown} :: (\textit{Monad } m) \Rightarrow [\textit{Terminal}] \rightarrow [\textit{Terminal}] \rightarrow m a$$

- Four different parser schemes (standard, LALR-like, stackless, combinator-based).

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## Facts and figures: expression parser

The expression grammar has 5 terminals, 4 nonterminals, and 7 productions. The LR automaton has 13 states and 23 transitions.

Running time (*expr* ("a+b" ++ *concat* (*replicate* *n* "\*c+d"))).

	1.000	10.000	100.000
happy	0.01	0.29	5.20
happy -a	0.02	0.40	5.92
happy -c -g	0.01	0.25	4.44
happy -a -c -g	0.01	0.23	3.85
frown	0.01	0.10	1.98
frown -oc	0.01	0.11	2.01
frown -s	0.01	0.10	2.03

## Facts and figures: Haskell parser

The Haskell grammar has 61 terminals, 121 nonterminals, and 277 productions. The LR automaton has 490 states and 2961 transitions.

Compilation time.

	time	.hs	space	
happy		210K	150M	-fno-cpr
happy -c -g	4.5	246K	180M	-fno-cpr
happy -a -c -g	4.5	164K	100M	
frown -oc	4.8	300K	160M	
	.o	a.out	stripped	
happy	1.511K	2.536K	1.246K	
happy -c -g	1.093K	2.202K	1.134K	
happy -a -c -g	346K	1.711K	894K	
frown -oc	1.489K	2.547K	1.362K	

Running time.

	18K	300K	1653K
lex only	0.01	0.55	4.8
happy	0.23	2.68	12.1
happy -c -g	0.14	2.23	11.6
happy -a -c -g	0.07	1.83	10.6
frown -oc	0.14	1.95	8.5

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# Conclusion

- Encoding the LR(0) automaton as a set of mutually recursive functions rather than as a huge table gives more flexibility (use lookahead only where it is needed).
- Frown :- ( generates good code (huge but fast). The output is fairly readable.
- With some additional work the generated parsers can produce good error messages (monadic lexer that keeps track of line numbers).