

# Chapter 8

## Introduction to *LR*-Parsing

### 8.1 *LR*(0)-Characteristic Automata

The purpose of *LR-parsing*, invented by D. Knuth in the mid sixties, is the following: Given a context-free grammar  $G$ , for any terminal string  $w \in \Sigma^*$ , find out whether  $w$  belongs to the language  $L(G)$  generated by  $G$ , and if so, construct a rightmost derivation of  $w$ , in a deterministic fashion.

Of course, this is not possible for all context-free grammars, but only for those that correspond to languages that can be recognized by a *deterministic* PDA (DPDA).

Knuth's major discovery was that for a certain type of grammars, the *LR*( $k$ )-grammars, a certain kind of DPDA could be constructed from the grammar (*shift/reduce parsers*).

The  $k$  in  $LR(k)$  refers to the amount of *lookahead* that is necessary in order to proceed deterministically.

It turns out that  $k = 1$  is sufficient, but even in this case, Knuth construction produces very large DPDA's, and his original  $LR(1)$  method is not practical.

Fortunately, around 1969, Frank DeRemer, in his MIT Ph.D. thesis, investigated a practical restriction of Knuth's method, known as  $SLR(k)$ , and soon after, the  $LALR(k)$  method was discovered.

The  $SLR(k)$  and the  $LALR(k)$  methods are both based on the construction of the  *$LR(0)$ -characteristic automaton* from a grammar  $G$ , and we begin by explaining this construction.

The additional ingredient needed to obtain an  $SLR(k)$  or an  $LALR(k)$  parser from an  $LR(0)$  parser is the computation of lookahead sets.

In the *SLR* case, the FOLLOW sets are needed, and in the *LALR* case, a more sophisticated version of the FOLLOW sets is needed.

For simplicity of exposition, we first assume that grammars have no  $\epsilon$ -rules.

**Definition 8.1.** Given a reduced context-free grammar  $G = (V, \Sigma, P, S')$  augmented with a start production  $S' \rightarrow S$ , where  $S'$  does not appear in any other productions, the set  $C_G$  of *characteristic strings of  $G$*  is the following subset of  $V^*$  (watch out, not  $\Sigma^*$ ):

$$C_G = \{ \alpha\beta \in V^* \mid S' \xrightarrow[rm]{*} \alpha Bv \xrightarrow[rm]{} \alpha\beta v, \\ \alpha, \beta \in V^*, v \in \Sigma^*, B \rightarrow \beta \in P \}.$$

In words,  $C_G$  is a certain set of prefixes of sentential forms obtained in rightmost derivations: those obtained by truncating the part of the sentential form immediately following the rightmost symbol in the righthand side of the production applied at the last step.

**Example 8.1.** Consider the grammar  $G_1$  given by

$$\begin{aligned} S &\longrightarrow E \\ E &\longrightarrow aEb \\ E &\longrightarrow ab, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ . The rightmost derivations are of the form

$$\begin{aligned} S &\xrightarrow[rm]{1} E \\ S &\xrightarrow[rm]{*} a^n Eb^n \xrightarrow[rm]{1} a^n abb^n \\ S &\xrightarrow[rm]{*} a^n Eb^n \xrightarrow[rm]{1} a^n aEbb^n, \end{aligned}$$

with  $n \geq 0$ , so

$$C_{G_1} = \{E, a^{n+1}b, a^{n+1}Eb \mid n \geq 0\}.$$

Observe that this is a regular. This is actually the crucial property of  $C_G$ .

The fundamental property of LR-parsing, due to D. Knuth, is that  $C_G$  is a *regular language*. Furthermore, a DFA,  $DCG$ , accepting  $C_G$ , can be constructed from  $G$ .

Conceptually, it is simpler to construct the DFA accepting  $C_G$  in two steps:

- (1) First, construct a nondeterministic automaton with  $\epsilon$ -rules,  $NCG$ , accepting  $C_G$ .
- (2) Apply the subset construction (Rabin and Scott's method) to  $NCG$  to obtain the DFA  $DCG$ .

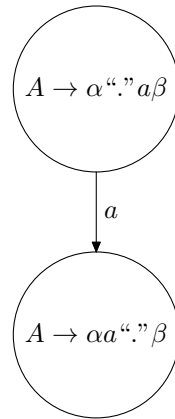
In fact, careful inspection of the two steps of this construction reveals that it is possible to construct  $DCG$  directly in a single step, and this is the construction usually found in most textbooks on parsing.

The nondeterministic automaton  $N_{C_G}$  accepting  $C_G$  is defined as follows:

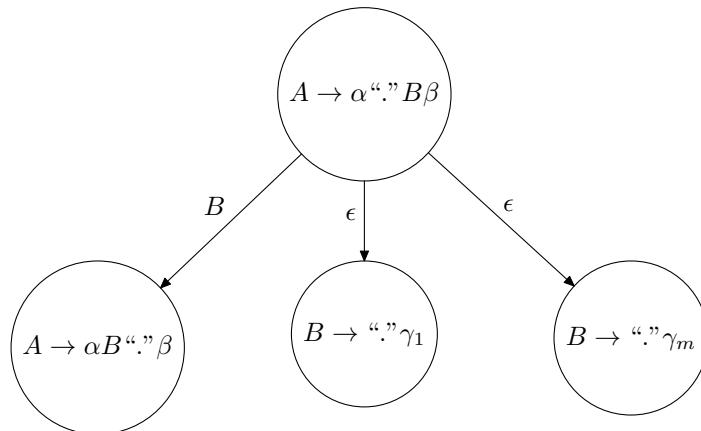
The states of  $N_{C_G}$  are “**marked productions**”, where a marked production is a string of the form  $A \rightarrow \alpha \text{“.”} \beta$ , where  $A \rightarrow \alpha\beta$  is a production, and “.” is a symbol not in  $V$  called the “**dot**” and which can appear anywhere within  $\alpha\beta$ .

The start state is  $S' \rightarrow \text{“.”} S$ , and the transitions are defined as follows:

- (a) For every terminal  $a \in \Sigma$ , if  $A \rightarrow \alpha \text{“.”} a\beta$  is a marked production, with  $\alpha, \beta \in V^*$ , then there is a transition on input  $a$  from state  $A \rightarrow \alpha \text{“.”} a\beta$  to state  $A \rightarrow \alpha a \text{“.”} \beta$  obtained by “**shifting the dot.**” Such a transition is shown in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8.1: Transition on terminal input  $a$ 

- (b) For every nonterminal  $B \in N$ , if  $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot B \beta$  is a marked production, with  $\alpha, \beta \in V^*$ , then there is a transition on input  $B$  from state  $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot B \beta$  to state  $A \rightarrow \alpha B \cdot \beta$  (obtained by “[shifting the dot](#)”), and transitions on input  $\epsilon$  (the empty string) to all states  $B \rightarrow \cdot \gamma_i$ , for all productions  $B \rightarrow \gamma_i$  with left-hand side  $B$ . Such transitions are shown in Figure 8.2.
- (c) A state is *final* if and only if it is of the form  $A \rightarrow \beta \cdot$  (that is, the dot is in the rightmost position).

Figure 8.2: Transitions from a state  $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot B \beta$ 

The above construction is illustrated by the following example:

**Example 8.2.** Consider the grammar  $G_1$  given by:

$$\begin{aligned} S &\longrightarrow E \\ E &\longrightarrow aEb \\ E &\longrightarrow ab \end{aligned}$$

The NFA for  $C_{G_1}$  is shown in Figure 8.3.

The result of making the NFA for  $C_{G_1}$  deterministic is shown in Figure 8.4 (where transitions to the “[dead state](#)” have been omitted). The internal structure of the states  $1, \dots, 6$  is shown below:



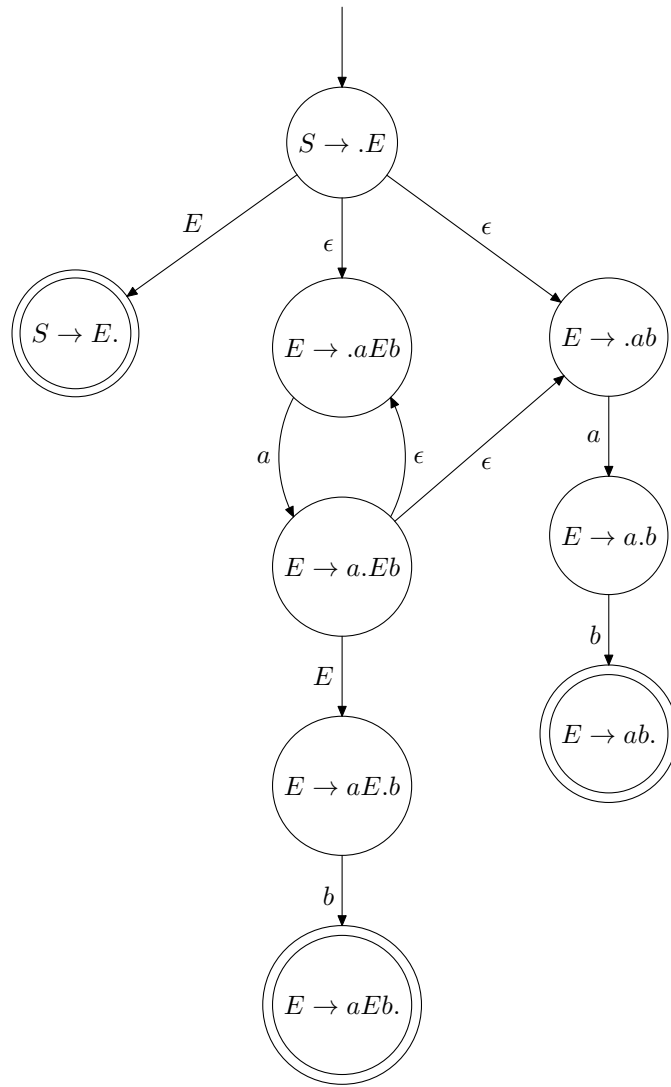
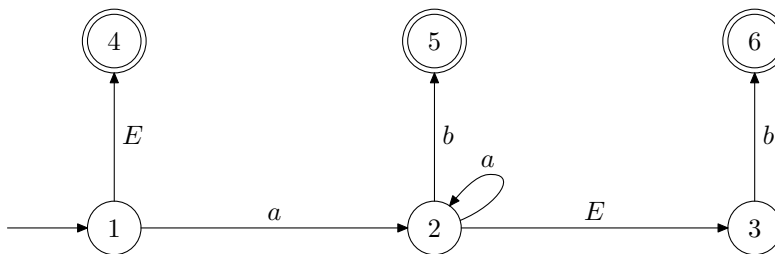


Figure 8.3: NFA for  $C_{G_1}$

Figure 8.4: DFA for  $C_{G_1}$ 

$$1 : S \longrightarrow .E$$

$$E \longrightarrow .aEb$$

$$E \longrightarrow .ab$$

$$2 : E \longrightarrow a.Eb$$

$$E \longrightarrow a.b$$

$$E \longrightarrow .aEb$$

$$E \longrightarrow .ab$$

$$3 : E \longrightarrow aE.b$$

$$4 : S \longrightarrow E.$$

$$5 : E \longrightarrow ab.$$

$$6 : E \longrightarrow aEb.$$

The next example is slightly more complicated.

**Example 8.3.** Consider the grammar  $G_2$  given by:

$$S \longrightarrow E$$

$$E \longrightarrow E + T$$

$$E \longrightarrow T$$

$$T \longrightarrow T * a$$

$$T \longrightarrow a$$

The result of making the NFA for  $C_{G_2}$  deterministic is shown in Figure 8.5 (where transitions to the “dead state” have been omitted).

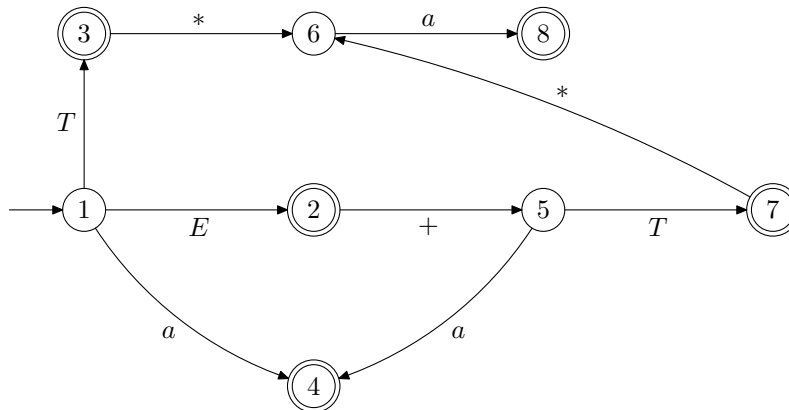


Figure 8.5: DFA for  $C_{G_2}$

The internal structure of the states  $1, \dots, 8$  is shown below:

$$\begin{aligned}
1 : S &\longrightarrow .E \\
&E \longrightarrow .E + T \\
&E \longrightarrow .T \\
&T \longrightarrow .T * a \\
&T \longrightarrow .a \\
2 : E &\longrightarrow E. + T \\
&S \longrightarrow E. \\
3 : E &\longrightarrow T. \\
&T \longrightarrow T. * a \\
4 : T &\longrightarrow a. \\
5 : E &\longrightarrow E + .T \\
&T \longrightarrow .T * a \\
&T \longrightarrow .a \\
6 : T &\longrightarrow T * .a \\
7 : E &\longrightarrow E + T. \\
&T \longrightarrow T. * a \\
8 : T &\longrightarrow T * a.
\end{aligned}$$

Note that some of the marked productions are more important than others.

For example, in state 5, the marked production  $E \longrightarrow E + .T$  determines the state.

The other two items  $T \longrightarrow .T * a$  and  $T \longrightarrow .a$  are obtained by  $\epsilon$ -closure.

**Definition 8.2.** We call a marked production of the form  $A \longrightarrow \alpha.\beta$ , where  $\beta \neq \epsilon$ , a *core item*. A marked production of the form  $A \longrightarrow \beta$  is called a *reduce item*. Reduce items only appear in final states.

If we also call  $S' \longrightarrow .S$  a core item, we observe that every state is completely determined by its subset of core items.

The other items in the state are obtained via  $\epsilon$ -closure.

We can take advantage of this fact to write a more efficient algorithm to construct in a single pass the *LR(0)*-automaton.

Also observe the so-called *spelling property*: All the transitions entering any given state have the same label.

**Definition 8.3.** Given a state  $s$ , if  $s$  contains both a reduce item  $A \longrightarrow \gamma$ . and a shift item  $B \longrightarrow \alpha.a\beta$ , where  $a \in \Sigma$ , we say that there is a *shift/reduce conflict* in state  $s$  on input  $a$ . If  $s$  contains two (distinct) reduce items  $A_1 \longrightarrow \gamma_1$ . and  $A_2 \longrightarrow \gamma_2$ ., we say that there is a *reduce/reduce conflict* in state  $s$ .

A grammar is said to be  $LR(0)$  if the DFA  $DCG$  has no conflicts.

The grammar  $G_1$  is  $LR(0)$ ..

However, it should be emphasized that this is extremely rare in practice. The grammar  $G_1$  is just very nice and a toy example.

In fact,  $G_2$  is not  $LR(0)$ .

To eliminate conflicts, one can either compute  $SLR(1)$ -lookahead sets, using FOLLOW sets, or sharper lookahead sets, the  $LALR(1)$  sets.

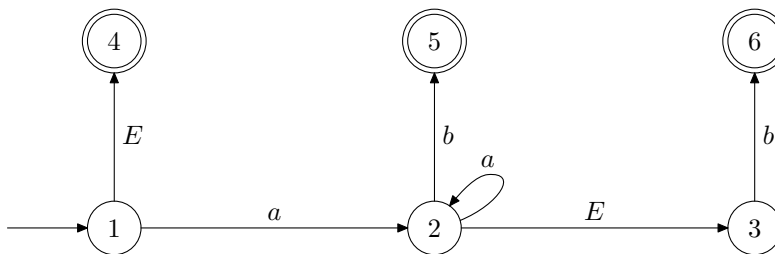
For example, the computation of  $SLR(1)$ -lookahead sets for  $G_2$  will eliminate the conflicts.

**Example 8.4.** In order to motivate the construction of a shift/reduce parser from the DFA accepting  $C_G$ , let us consider a rightmost derivation for  $w = aaabbb$  in reverse order for the grammar

$$0: S \longrightarrow E$$

$$1: E \longrightarrow aEb$$

$$2: E \longrightarrow ab$$

Figure 8.6: DFA for  $C_G$ 
 $aaabbb \quad \alpha_1\beta_1v_1$ 
 $aaEbb \quad \alpha_1B_1v_1$ 
 $E \longrightarrow ab$ 
 $aaEbb \quad \alpha_2\beta_2v_2$ 
 $aEb \quad \alpha_2B_2v_2$ 
 $E \longrightarrow aEb$ 
 $aEb \quad \alpha_3\beta_3v_3 \quad \alpha_3 = v_3 = \epsilon$ 
 $E \quad \alpha_3B_3v_3 \quad \alpha_3 = v_3 = \epsilon$ 
 $E \longrightarrow aEb$ 
 $E \quad \alpha_4\beta_4v_4 \quad \alpha_4 = v_4 = \epsilon$ 
 $S \quad \alpha_4B_4v_4 \quad \alpha_4 = v_4 = \epsilon$ 
 $S \longrightarrow E$



Observe that the strings  $\alpha_i\beta_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$  are all accepted by the DFA for  $C_G$  shown in Figure 8.6.

Also, every step from  $\alpha_i\beta_iv_i$  to  $\alpha_iB_iv_i$  is the inverse of the derivation step using the production  $B_i \longrightarrow \beta_i$ , and the marked production  $B_i \longrightarrow \beta_i \text{“} \cdot \text{”}$  is one of the reduce items in the final state reached after processing  $\alpha_i\beta_i$  with the DFA for  $C_G$ .

This suggests that we can parse  $w = aaabbb$  by recursively running the DFA for  $C_G$ .

The first time (which correspond to step 1) we run the DFA for  $C_G$  on  $w$ , some string  $\alpha_1\beta_1$  is accepted and the remaining input is  $v_1$ .

Then, we “reduce”  $\beta_1$  to  $B_1$  using a production  $B_1 \longrightarrow \beta_1$  corresponding to some reduce item  $B_1 \longrightarrow \beta_1$  “.” in the final state  $s_1$  reached on input  $\alpha_1\beta_1$ .

We now run the DFA for  $C_G$  on input  $\alpha_1 B_1 v_1$ . The string  $\alpha_2\beta_2$  is accepted, and we have

$$\alpha_1 B_1 v_1 = \alpha_2 \beta_2 v_2.$$

We reduce  $\beta_2$  to  $B_2$  using a production  $B_2 \longrightarrow \beta_2$  corresponding to some reduce item  $B_2 \longrightarrow \beta_2$  “.” in the final state  $s_2$  reached on input  $\alpha_2\beta_2$ .

We now run the DFA for  $C_G$  on input  $\alpha_2 B_2 v_2$ , and so on.

At the  $(i + 1)$ th step ( $i \geq 1$ ), we run the DFA for  $C_G$  on input  $\alpha_i B_i v_i$ . The string  $\alpha_{i+1} \beta_{i+1}$  is accepted, and we have

$$\alpha_i B_i v_i = \alpha_{i+1} \beta_{i+1} v_{i+1}.$$

We reduce  $\beta_{i+1}$  to  $B_{i+1}$  using a production  $B_{i+1} \longrightarrow \beta_{i+1}$  corresponding to some reduce item  $B_{i+1} \longrightarrow \beta_{i+1}$  “.” in the final state  $s_{i+1}$  reached on input  $\alpha_{i+1} \beta_{i+1}$ .

The string  $\beta_{i+1}$  in  $\alpha_{i+1} \beta_{i+1} v_{i+1}$  is often called a *handle*.

Then we run again the DFA for  $C_G$  on input  $\alpha_{i+1} B_{i+1} v_{i+1}$ .

Now, because the DFA for  $C_G$  is *deterministic* there is no need to rerun it on the entire string  $\alpha_{i+1} B_{i+1} v_{i+1}$ , because *on input*  $\alpha_{i+1}$  it will take us to *the same state*, say  $p_{i+1}$ , that it reached on input  $\alpha_{i+1} \beta_{i+1} v_{i+1}$ !

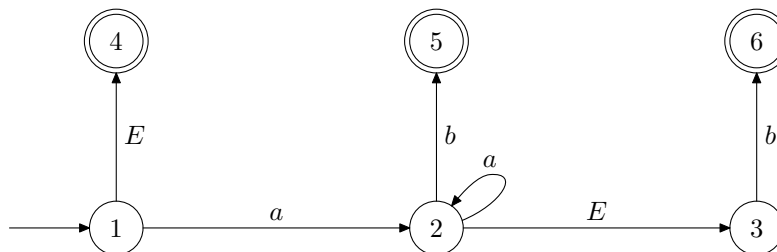
The trick is that we can use a *stack* to keep track of the sequence of states used to process  $\alpha_{i+1} \beta_{i+1}$ .

Then, to perform the reduction of  $\alpha_{i+1}\beta_{i+1}$  to  $\alpha_{i+1}B_{i+1}$ , we simply *pop* a number of states equal to  $|\beta_{i+1}|$ , uncovering a new state  $p_{i+1}$  on top of the stack, and from state  $p_{i+1}$  we perform the transition on input  $B_{i+1}$  to a state  $q_{i+1}$  (in the DFA for  $C_G$ ), so we *push* state  $q_{i+1}$  on the stack which now contains the sequence of states on input  $\alpha_{i+1}B_{i+1}$  that takes us to  $q_{i+1}$ .

Then we resume scanning  $v_{i+1}$  using the DGA for  $C_G$ , *pushing* each state being traversed on the stack until we hit a final state.

At this point we find the new string  $\alpha_{i+2}\beta_{i+2}$  that leads to a final state and we continue as before.

The process stops when the remaining input  $v_{i+1}$  becomes empty and when the reduce item  $S' \longrightarrow S$ . (here  $S \longrightarrow E$ .) belongs to the final state  $s_{i+1}$ .

Figure 8.7: DFA for  $C_G$ 

**Example 8.5.** For example, on input  $\alpha_2\beta_2 = aaEbb$ , we have the sequence of states:

1 2 2 3 6

State 6 contains the marked production  $E \rightarrow aEb$ “.”, so we pop the three topmost states 2 3 6 obtaining the stack

1 2

and then we make the transition from state 2 on input  $E$ , which takes us to state 3, so we push 3 on top of the stack, obtaining

1 2 3

We continue from state 3 on input  $b$ .

Basically, the recursive calls to the DFA for  $C_G$  are implemented using a stack.

What is not clear is, during step  $i + 1$ , when reaching a final state  $s_{i+1}$ , how do we know which production  $B_{i+1} \longrightarrow \beta_{i+1}$  to use in the reduction step?

Indeed, state  $s_{i+1}$  could contain several reduce items  $B_{i+1} \longrightarrow \beta_{i+1} \text{“.”}$ .

This is where we assume that we were able to compute some *lookahead information*, that is, for every final state  $s$  and every input  $a$ , we know which unique production  $n: B_{i+1} \longrightarrow \beta_{i+1}$  applies. This is recorded in a table name “action,” such that  $\text{action}(s, a) = rn$ , where “r” stands for reduce.

Typically we compute SLR(1) or LALR(1) lookahead sets.

Otherwise, we could pick some reducing production non-deterministically and use backtracking. This works but the running time may be exponential.

The DFA for  $C_G$  and the action table giving us the reductions can be combined to form a bigger action table which specifies completely how the parser using a stack works.

This kind of parser called a *shift-reduce parser* is discussed in the next section.

In order to make it easier to compute the reduce entries in the parsing table, we assume that the end of the input  $w$  is signalled by a special endmarker traditionally denoted by \$.

## 8.2 Shift/Reduce Parsers

A shift/reduce parser is a modified kind of DPDA.

Firstly, push moves, called *shift moves*, are restricted so that exactly one symbol is pushed on top of the stack.

Secondly, more powerful kinds of pop moves, called *reduce moves*, are allowed. During a reduce move, a finite number of stack symbols may be popped off the stack, and the last step of a reduce move, called a *goto move*, consists of pushing one symbol on top of new topmost symbol in the stack.

Shift/reduce parsers use *parsing tables* constructed from the  $LR(0)$ -characteristic automaton  $DCG$  associated with the grammar.



The shift and goto moves come directly from the transition table of  $DCG$ , but the determination of the reduce moves requires the computation of *lookahead sets*.

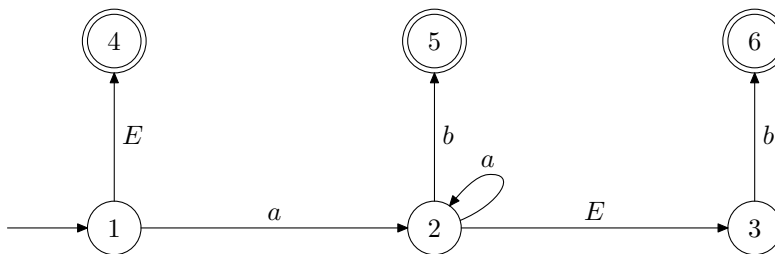
The  $SLR(1)$  lookahead sets are obtained from some sets called the FOLLOW sets, and the  $LALR(1)$  lookahead sets  $LA(s, A \longrightarrow \gamma)$  require fancier FOLLOW sets.

The construction of shift/reduce parsers is made simpler by assuming that the end of input strings  $w \in \Sigma^*$  is indicated by the presence of an *endmarker*, usually denoted  $\$$ , and assumed not to belong to  $\Sigma$ .

**Example 8.6.** Consider the grammar  $G_1$  of Example 8.1, where we have numbered the productions 0, 1, 2:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 : S &\longrightarrow E \\ 1 : E &\longrightarrow aEb \\ 2 : E &\longrightarrow ab. \end{aligned}$$

The parsing tables associated with the grammar  $G_1$  are shown below:

Figure 8.8: DFA for  $C_G$ 

	$a$	$b$	$\$$	$E$
1	$s2$			4
2	$s2$	$s5$		3
3		$s6$		
4			acc	
5	$r2$	$r2$	$r2$	
6	$r1$	$r1$	$r1$	

Entries of the form  $si$  are *shift actions*, where  $i$  denotes one of the states, and entries of the form  $rn$  are *reduce actions*, where  $n$  denotes a production number (*not* a state).

The special action `acc` means accept, and signals the successful completion of the parse.

Entries of the form  $i$ , in the rightmost column, are *goto actions*.

All blank entries are **error** entries, and mean that the parse should be aborted.

We will use the notation  $\text{action}(s, a)$  for the entry corresponding to state  $s$  and terminal  $a \in \Sigma \cup \{\$\}$ , and  $\text{goto}(s, A)$  for the entry corresponding to state  $s$  and non-terminal  $A \in N - \{S'\}$ .

Assuming that the input is  $w\$,$  we now describe in more detail how a shift/reduce parser proceeds.

The parser uses a stack in which states are pushed and popped. Initially, the stack contains state 1 and the cursor pointing to the input is positioned on the leftmost symbol.

There are four possibilities:

- (1) If  $\text{action}(s, a) = sj,$  then push state  $j$  on top of the stack, and advance to the next input symbol in  $w\$.$  This is a *shift move*.

- (2) If  $\text{action}(s, a) = rn$ , then do the following: First, determine the length  $k = |\gamma|$  of the righthand side of the production  $n: A \longrightarrow \gamma$ . Then, pop the topmost  $k$  symbols off the stack (if  $k = 0$ , no symbols are popped). If  $p$  is the new top state on the stack (after the  $k$  pop moves), push the state  $\text{goto}(p, A)$  on top of the stack, where  $A$  is the lefthand side of the “**reducing production**”  $A \longrightarrow \gamma$ . Do not advance the cursor in the current input. This is a *reduce move*.
- (3) If  $\text{action}(s, \$) = \text{acc}$ , then accept. The input string  $w$  belongs to  $L(G)$ .
- (4) In all other cases, **error**, abort the parse. The input string  $w$  does not belong to  $L(G)$ .

Observe that no explicit state control is needed. The current state is always the current topmost state in the stack.

We illustrate below a parse of the input  $aaabbb\$$ .

**Example 8.7.**

stack	remaining input	action
1	$aaabbb\$$	$s2$
12	$aabbb\$$	$s2$
122	$abbb\$$	$s2$
1222	$bbb\$$	$s5$
12225	$bb\$$	$r2$
1223	$bb\$$	$s6$
12236	$b\$$	$r1$
123	$b\$$	$s6$
1236	$\$$	$r1$
14	$\$$	acc

Observe that the sequence of reductions read from bottom-up yields a rightmost derivation of  $aaabbb$  from  $E$  (or from  $S$ , if we view the action acc as the reduction by the production  $S \rightarrow E$ ).

This is a general property of  $LR$ -parsers.

**Example 8.8.** The shift and goto entries of the parsing tables for the grammar

$$0: S \longrightarrow E$$

$$1: E \longrightarrow E + T$$

$$2: E \longrightarrow T$$

$$3: T \longrightarrow T * a$$

$$4: T \longrightarrow a$$

of Example 8.3 are obtained directly from the characteristic automaton shown in Figure 8.5.

We obtain the following table

	$a$	$+$	$*$	$\$$	$E$	$T$
1	$s4$				2	3
2		$s5$				
3			$s6$			
4						
5	$s4$					7
6	$s8$					
7			$s6$			
8						

Recall that the internal structure of the states  $1, \dots, 8$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 : S &\longrightarrow .E \\
 &E \longrightarrow .E + T \\
 &E \longrightarrow .T \\
 &T \longrightarrow .T * a \\
 &T \longrightarrow .a \\
 2 : E &\longrightarrow E. + T \\
 &S \longrightarrow E. \\
 3 : E &\longrightarrow T. \\
 &T \longrightarrow T. * a \\
 4 : T &\longrightarrow a. \\
 \\
 5 : E &\longrightarrow E + .T \\
 &T \longrightarrow .T * a \\
 &T \longrightarrow .a \\
 6 : T &\longrightarrow T * .a \\
 7 : E &\longrightarrow E + T. \\
 &T \longrightarrow T. * a \\
 8 : T &\longrightarrow T * a.
 \end{aligned}$$



Observe that there is a shift/reduce conflicts in state 2 on input +, in state 3 on input \*, and from state 7 on \*. These conflicts can be resolved by computing the  $SLR(1)$  lookahead sets using the FOLLOW sets. This method is explained in Section 3.1,

It can be shown that

$$\text{FOLLOW}(T) = \{+.*, \$\}, \text{FOLLOW}(E) = \{+, \$\}.$$

The  $SLR(1)$  reduce entries in the parsing tables are determined as follows: for every state  $s$  containing a reduce item  $B \rightarrow \gamma.$ , if  $B \rightarrow \gamma$  is the production number  $n$ , enter the action  $rn$  for state  $s$  and every terminal  $a \in \text{FOLLOW}(B)$ .

If the resulting shift/reduce parser has no conflicts, we say that the grammar is  $SLR(1)$ . If  $s$  is the state containing the reduce item  $S' \rightarrow S.$ , the action from state  $s$  on input  $\$$  is accept (acc).

The following  $SLR(1)$ -parsing table is obtained from the table of Example 8.8.

	$a$	$+$	$*$	$\$$	$E$	$T$
1	$s4$				2	3
2		$s5$		acc		
3		$r2$	$s6$	$r2$		
4		$r4$	$r4$	$r4$		
5	$s4$					7
6	$s8$					
7		$r1$	$s6$	$r1$		
8		$r3$	$r3$	$r3$		