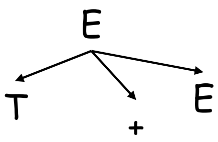
Introduction to Bottom-Up Parsing

Outline

- Review LL parsing
- Shift-reduce parsing
- The LR parsing algorithm
- Constructing LR parsing tables

Top-Down Parsing: Review

- Top-down parsing expands a parse tree from the start symbol to the leaves
  - Always expand the leftmost non-terminal



int * int + int

$E \to T + E \mid T$
$T \to (E) \mid int \mid int * T$

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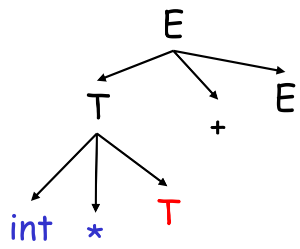

- The leaves at any point form a string $\beta A \gamma$
  - β contains only terminals
  - The input string is $\beta b \delta$
  - The prefix β matches
  - The next token is b

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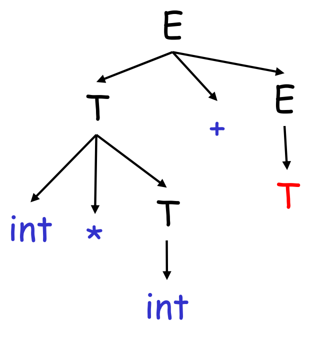

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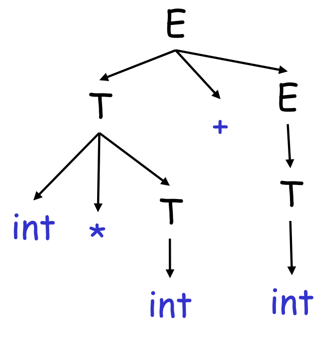

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  - The input string is $\beta b \delta$
  - The prefix β matches
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Predictive Parsing: Review

- A predictive parser is described by a table
  - For each non-terminal A and for each token b we specify a production $A \rightarrow \alpha$
  - When trying to expand A we use $A \rightarrow \alpha$ if b is the token that follows next

- Once we have the table
  - The parsing algorithm is simple and fast
  - No backtracking is necessary

Constructing Predictive Parsing Tables

Consider the state $S \rightarrow^* \beta A \gamma$

- With b the next token
- Trying to match $\beta b \delta$

There are two possibilities:

1. Token b belongs to an expansion of A
   - Any $A \rightarrow \alpha$ can be used if b can start a string derived from α
   - We say that $b \in First(\alpha)$

Or…

Constructing Predictive Parsing Tables (Cont.)

2. Token b does not belong to an expansion of A
   - The expansion of A is empty and b belongs to an expansion of γ
   - Means that b can appear after A in a derivation of the form $S \to^* \beta A b \omega$
   - We say that $b \in$ Follow(A) in this case

   - What productions can we use in this case?
     - Any $A \to \alpha$ can be used if α can expand to ε
     - We say that $\varepsilon \in$ First(A) in this case

Computing First Sets

<u>Definition</u>

$$\text{First}(X) = \{ b \mid X \to^* b\alpha \} \cup \{ \varepsilon \mid X \to^* \varepsilon \}$$

<u>Algorithm sketch</u>

1. First(b) = { b }
2. $\varepsilon \in$ First(X) if $X \to \varepsilon$ is a production
3. $\varepsilon \in$ First(X) if $X \to A_1 \ldots A_n$ and $\varepsilon \in \text{First}(A_i)$ for $1 \le i \le n$
4. $\text{First}(\alpha) \subseteq \text{First}(X)$ if $X \to A_1 \ldots A_n\, \alpha$ and $\varepsilon \in \text{First}(A_i)$ for $1 \le i \le n$

First Sets: Example

- Recall the grammar

$E \to T X$ $\quad$ $X \to + E \mid \varepsilon$

$T \to (E) \mid \text{int } Y$ $\quad$ $Y \to * T \mid \varepsilon$

- First sets

First(( ) = { (}	First(T) = { int, (}
First( )) = {) }	First(E) = { int, (}
First(int) = { int }	First(X) = { +, ε }
First(+) = { + }	First(Y) = { *, ε }
First(*) = { * }	

Computing Follow Sets

- <u>Definition</u>

$$\text{Follow}(X) = \{ b \mid S \to^* \beta\, X\, b\, \delta \}$$

- <u>Intuition</u>
  - If $X \to A\ B$ then $\text{First}(B) \subseteq \text{Follow}(A)$ and $\text{Follow}(X) \subseteq \text{Follow}(B)$
  - Also if $B \to^* \varepsilon$ then $\text{Follow}(X) \subseteq \text{Follow}(A)$
  - If S is the start symbol then $\$ \in \text{Follow}(S)$

Computing Follow Sets (Cont.)

Algorithm sketch

1. $ ∈ Follow(S)
2. First(β) - {ε} ⊆ Follow(X)
   - For each production A → α X β
3. Follow(A) ⊆ Follow(X)
   - For each production A → α X β where ε ∈ First(β)

Follow Sets: Example

First(T) = { int, (}
First(E) = { int, (}
First(X) = { +, ε }
First(Y) = { *, ε }

- Recall the grammar

E → T X   X → + E | ε
T → (E) | int Y   Y → * T | ε

- Follow sets

Follow(+) = { int, (}   Follow(*) = { int, (}
Follow(( ) = { int, (}   Follow(E) = {), $ }
Follow(X) = { $,) }   Follow(T) = { +,) , $ }
Follow( )) = { +,) , $ }   Follow(Y) = { +,) , $ }
Follow(int) = { *, +,) , $ }

Constructing LL(1) Parsing Tables

- Construct a parsing table T for CFG G

- For each production A → α in G do:
  - For each terminal b ∈ First(α) do
    T[A, b] = α
  - If ε ∈ First(α), for each b ∈ Follow(A) do
    T[A, b] = α
  - If ε ∈ First(α) and $ ∈ Follow(A) do
    T[A, $] = α

Constructing LL(1) Tables: Example

- Recall the grammar

E → T X   X → + E | ε
T → (E) | int Y   Y → * T | ε

- Where in the line of Y do we put Y →* T ?
  - In the lines of First(*T) = { * }

- Where in the line of Y do we put Y → ε ?
  - In the lines of Follow(Y) = { $, +,) }

Notes on LL(1) Parsing Tables

- If any entry is multiply defined then G is not LL(1)
  - If G is ambiguous
  - If G is left recursive
  - If G is not left-factored
  - <u>And in other cases as well</u>

- For some grammars there is a simple parsing strategy: *Predictive parsing*
- Most programming language grammars are not LL(1)
- Thus, we need more powerful parsing strategies

Bottom Up Parsing

Bottom-Up Parsing

- Bottom-up parsing is more general than top-down parsing
  - And just as efficient
  - Builds on ideas in top-down parsing
  - Preferred method in practice

- Also called LR parsing
  - L means that tokens are read left-to-right
  - R means that it constructs a rightmost derivation !

An Introductory Example

- LR parsers don't need left-factored grammars and can also handle left-recursive grammars

- Consider the following grammar:

$$E \rightarrow E + (E) \mid int$$

  - Why is this not LL(1)?

- Consider the string: int + (int) + (int)

The Idea

- LR parsing *reduces* a string to the start symbol by inverting productions:

str w input string of terminals

repeat

- Identify β in str such that $A \rightarrow \beta$ is a production (i.e., str = $\alpha\ \beta\ \gamma$)
- Replace β by A in str (i.e., str w = $\alpha\ A\ \gamma$)

until str = S (the start symbol)

OR all possibilities are exhausted

A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (1)

E → E + (E) | int

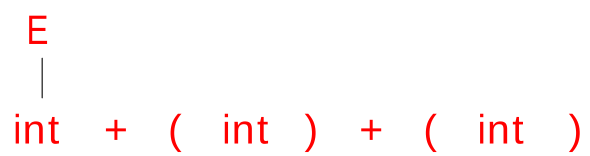
int + (int) + (int)

A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (2)

E → E + (E) | int

int + (int) + (int)

E + (int) + (int)



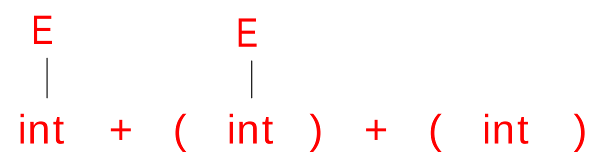
A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (3)

E → E + (E) | int

int + (int) + (int)

E + (int) + (int)

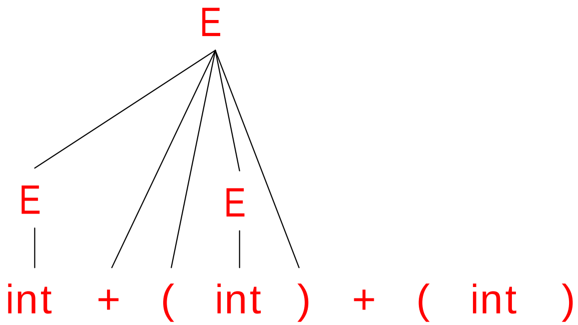
E + (E) + (int)



A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (4)

E → E + (E) | int

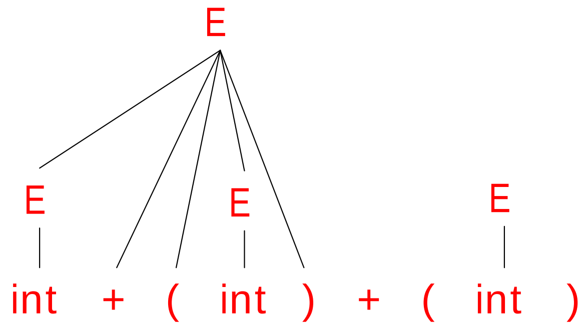
int + (int) + (int)
E + (int) + (int)
E + (E) + (int)
E + (int)



A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (5)

E → E + (E) | int

int + (int) + (int)
E + (int) + (int)
E + (E) + (int)
E + (int)
E + (E)

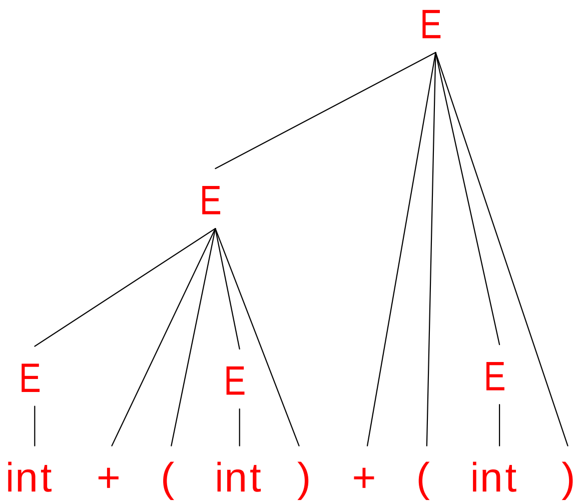


A Bottom-up Parse in Detail (6)

E → E + (E) | int

int + (int) + (int)
E + (int) + (int)
E + (E) + (int)
E + (int)
E + (E)
E

A rightmost derivation in reverse



Important Fact #1 about Bottom-up Parsing

An LR parser traces a rightmost derivation in reverse

Where Do Reductions Happen

Fact #1 has an interesting consequence:

- Let $\alpha\beta\gamma$ be a step of a bottom-up parse
- Assume the next reduction is by using $A \rightarrow \beta$
- Then γ is a string of terminals

Why?

Because $\alpha A\gamma \rightarrow \alpha\beta\gamma$ is a step in a right-most derivation

Notation

- Idea: Split string into two substrings
  - Right substring is as yet unexamined by parsing (a string of terminals)
  - Left substring has terminals and non-terminals
- The dividing point is marked by a I
  - The I is not part of the string
- Initially, all input is unexamined: $\mid x_1 x_2 \ldots x_n$

Shift-Reduce Parsing

Bottom-up parsing uses only two kinds of actions:

Shift

Reduce

Shift

Shift: Move I one place to the right

- Shifts a terminal to the left string

$$E + (\mid \text{int}\ ) \Rightarrow E + (\text{int} \mid)$$

In general:

$$ABC \mid xyz \Rightarrow ABCx \mid yz$$

Reduce

Reduce: Apply an inverse production at the right end of the left string

- If E → E + (E) is a production, then

E + (<u>E + (E)</u> |) ⇒ E + (<u>E</u> |)

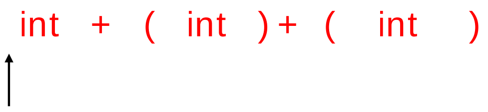
In general, given A → xy, then:

Cbxy | ijk ⇒ CbA | ijk

Shift-Reduce Example

E → E + (E) | int

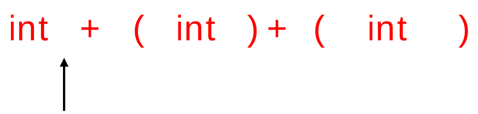
| int + (int) + (int)$	shift



Shift-Reduce Example

E → E + (E) | int

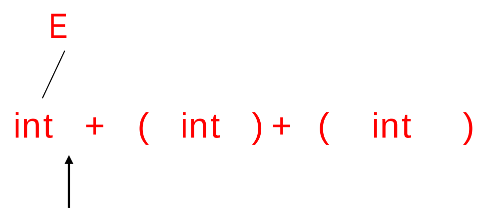
| int + (int) + (int)$	shift
int | + (int) + (int)$	reduce E → int



Shift-Reduce Example

E → E + (E) | int

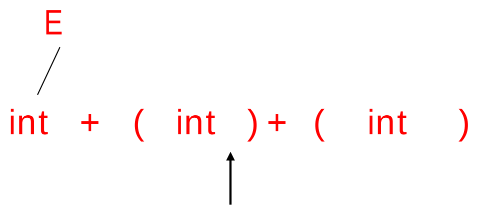
| int + (int) + (int)$	shift
int | + (int) + (int)$	reduce E → int
E | + (int) + (int)$	shift 3 times



Shift-Reduce Example

E → E + (E) | int

- | int + (int) + (int)$: shift
- int | + (int) + (int)$: reduce E → int
- E | + (int) + (int)$: shift 3 times
- E + (int |) + (int)$: reduce E → int



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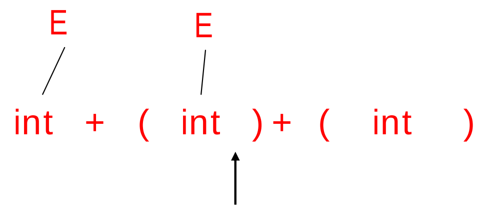
- E + (int |) + (int)$: reduce E → int
- E + (E |) + (int)$: shift



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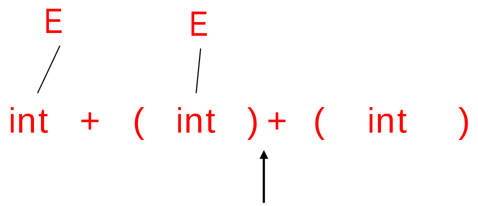
- E + (E |) + (int)$: shift
- E + (E) | + (int)$: reduce E → E + (E)



Shift-Reduce Example

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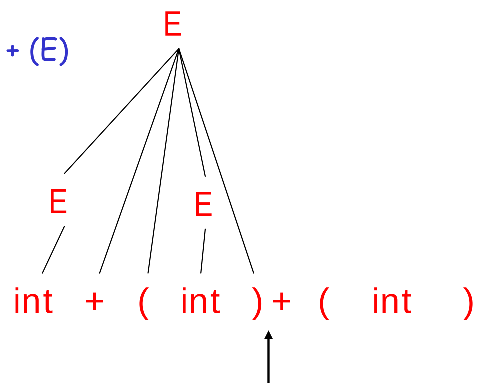
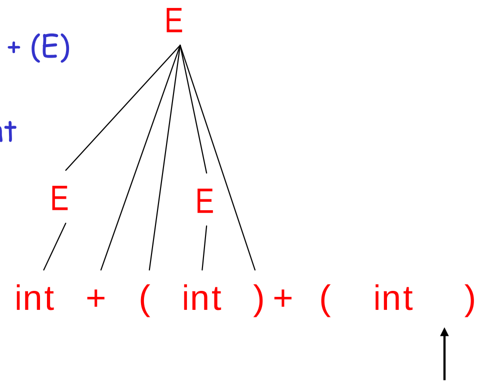
- E + (int |) + (int)$: reduce E → int
- E + (E |) + (int)$: shift
- E + (E) | + (int)$: reduce E → E + (E)
- E | + (int)$: shift 3 times



Shift-Reduce Example

E → E + (E) | int

```
| int + (int) + (int)$      shift
int | + (int) + (int)$      reduce E → int
E | + (int) + (int)$        shift 3 times
E + (int | ) + (int)$       reduce E → int
E + (E | ) + (int)$         shift
E + (E) | + (int)$          reduce E → E + (E)
E | + (int)$                shift 3 times
E + (int | )$               reduce E → int
```



Shift-Reduce Example

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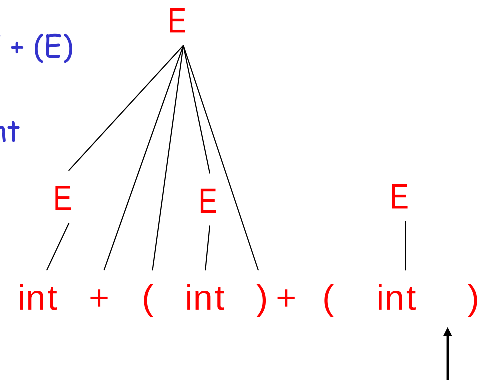
E + (E | ) + (int)$         shift
E + (E) | + (int)$          reduce E → E + (E)
E | + (int)$                shift 3 times
E + (int | )$               reduce E → int
E + (E | )$                 shift
```



Shift-Reduce Example

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E + (int | )$               reduce E → int
E + (E | )$                 shift
E + (E) | $                 reduce E → E + (E)
```

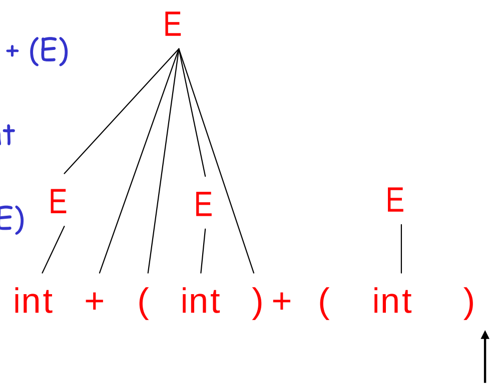

Shift-Reduce Example

```
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int | + (int) + (int)$      reduce E → int
E | + (int) + (int)$        shift 3 times
E + (int | ) + (int)$       reduce E → int
E + (E | ) + (int)$         shift
E + (E) | + (int)$          reduce E → E + (E)
E | + (int)$                shift 3 times
E + (int | )$               reduce E → int
E + (E | )$                 shift
E + (E) | $                 reduce E → E + (E)
E | $                       accept
```
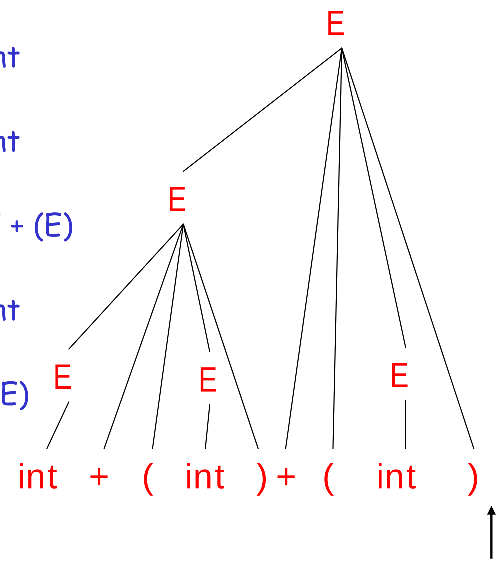



The Stack

- Left string can be implemented by a stack
  - Top of the stack is the |
- Shift pushes a terminal on the stack
- Reduce pops 0 or more symbols off of the stack (production RHS) and pushes a non-terminal on the stack (production LHS)

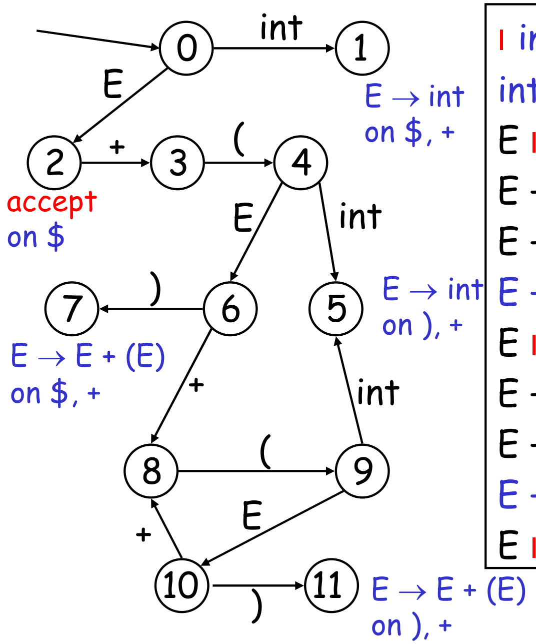
Key Question: To Shift or to Reduce?

<u>**Idea**</u>: use a finite automaton (DFA) to decide when to shift or reduce

- The input is the stack
- The language consists of terminals and non-terminals

- We run the DFA on the stack and examine the resulting state X and the token tok after |
  - If X has a transition labeled tok then <u>shift</u>
  - If X is labeled with "$A \rightarrow \beta$ on tok" then <u>reduce</u>

LR(1) Parsing: An Example



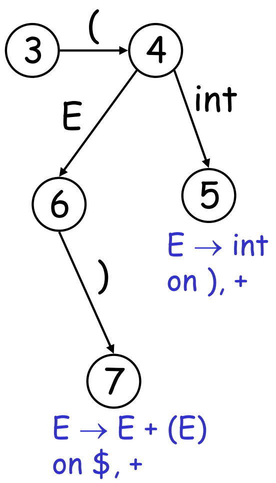
| int + (int) + (int)$	shift
int | + (int) + (int)$	E → int
E | + (int) + (int)$	shift(x3)
E + (int |) + (int)$	E → int
E + (E |) + (int)$	shift
E + (E) | + (int)$	E → E+(E)
E | + (int)$	shift (x3)
E + (int |)$	E → int
E + (E |)$	shift
E + (E) | $	E → E+(E)
E | $	accept

Representing the DFA

- Parsers represent the DFA as a 2D table
  (Recall table-driven lexical analysis)
- Lines correspond to DFA states
- Columns correspond to terminals and non-terminals
- Typically columns are split into:
  - Those for terminals: action table
    - action = shift or reduce
  - Those for non-terminals: goto table

Representing the DFA: Example

- The table for a fragment of our DFA:



	int	+	(	)	$	E
…						
3			s4			
4	s5					g6
5		$r_{E \to int}$		$r_{E \to int}$		
6		s8		s7		
7		$r_{E \to E+(E)}$			$r_{E \to E+(E)}$	
…						

The LR Parsing Algorithm

- After a shift or reduce action we rerun the DFA on the entire stack
  - This is wasteful, since most of the work is repeated
- Remember for each stack element on which state it brings the DFA
- LR parser maintains a stack

$$\langle sym_1, state_1 \rangle \ldots \langle sym_n, state_n \rangle$$

$state_k$ is the final state of the DFA on $sym_1 \ldots sym_k$

The LR Parsing Algorithm

```
let I = w$ be initial input
let j = 0
let DFA state 0 be the start state
let stack = ⟨ dummy, 0 ⟩
  repeat
    case action[top_state(stack), I[j]] of
      shift k: push ⟨ I[j++], k ⟩
      reduce X → A:
          pop |A| pairs,
          push ⟨X, Goto[top_state(stack),X]⟩
      accept: halt normally
      error: halt and report error
```


LR Parsers

- Can be used to parse more grammars than LL
- Most programming languages grammars are LR
- LR Parsers can be described as a simple table
- There are tools for building the table
- How is the table constructed?