

Lecture 7: General and Bottom-Up Parsing

Parsing So Far

- We have seen that recursive-descent parsing is a simple and straightforward way to convert a grammar to a program that parses source using that grammar.
- However, because one has to predict which production to take without having seen the source tokens to be produced, it needs workarounds, as we've seen.
- In particular, must eliminate *left-recursion* and perform *left factoring* to make sure that branches are unique.
- So let's see what happens when we put off the decision about what production to use until after we've examined the text to be produced.
- This entails processing the children of a node in the parse tree *before* deciding on the production for that node; we determine the parse tree *from the bottom up*.

A Little Notation

Here and in lectures to follow, we'll often have to refer to general productions or derivations. In these, we'll use various alphabets to mean various things:

- Capital roman letters are nonterminals (A, B, \dots).
- Lower-case roman letters are terminals (or tokens, characters, etc.)
- Lower-case greek letters are sequences of zero or more terminal and nonterminal symbols, such as appear in sentential forms or on the right sides of productions (α, β, \dots).
- Subscripts on lower-case greek letters indicate individual symbols within them, so $\alpha = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n$ and each α_i is a single terminal or nonterminal.

So $A ::= \alpha$ might describe the production $e ::= e '+' t$,

...and $B \Rightarrow \alpha A \gamma \Rightarrow \alpha \beta \gamma$ might describe the derivation steps

$$e \Rightarrow e '+' t \Rightarrow e '+' ID$$

(α is $e '+'$; A is t ; B is e ; and γ is empty.)

Fixing Recursive Descent

- First, let's define an impractical but simple implementation of a top-down parsing routine.
- For nonterminal A and string $S=c_1c_2 \dots c_n$, we'll define $\text{parse}(A, S)$ to return the length of a valid prefix of S derivable from A .
- That is, $\text{parse}(A, c_1c_2 \dots c_n) = k$, where

$$\underbrace{c_1c_2 \dots c_k}_{A \xRightarrow{*}} c_{k+1}c_{k+2} \dots c_n$$

Abstract body of parse(A, S)

- Can formulate top-down parsing analogously to NFAs.

```
parse (A, S):
```

```
    """Assuming A is a nonterminal and S = c1c2...cn is a string, return  
    integer k such that A can derive the prefix string c1...ck of S."""
```

```
    Choose production 'A: α1α2...αm' for A (nondeterministically)
```

```
    k = 0
```

```
    for x in α1, α2, ..., αm:
```

```
        if x is a terminal:
```

```
            if x == ck+1:
```

```
                k += 1
```

```
            else:
```

```
                GIVE UP
```

```
        else:
```

```
            k += parse (x, ck+1...cn)
```

```
    return k
```

- Let the start symbol be **p** with exactly one production: $p ::= \gamma \dagger$.
- We'll say that a call to parse returns a value if some set of choices for productions (the blue step) would not give up (just like NFA).
- Then if parse(p, S) returns a value, S must be in the language.

Example

Consider parsing $S = \text{"ID*ID}\dagger\text{"}$ with a grammar from last time:

```
p ::= e '†'  
e ::= t  
    | e '/' t  
    | e '*' t  
t ::= ID
```

Example

Consider parsing $S = \text{"ID*ID}\mid\text{"}$ with a grammar from last time:

```
p ::= e '⊥'  
e ::= t  
    | e '/' t  
    | e '*' t  
t ::= ID
```

A failing path through the program:

```
parse(p, S):  
  Choose p ::= e '⊥':  
    parse(e, S):  
      Choose e ::= t:  
        parse(t, S):  
          choose t ::= ID:  
            check S[1] == ID; OK, so  $k_3 += 1$ ;  
            return 1 (=  $k_3$ ; added to  $k_2$ )  
          return 1 (and add to  $k_1$ )  
        Check S[2] == S[ $k_1+1$ ] == '⊥': GIVE UP  
          (S[2] == '*')
```

k_i means "the variable k in the call to parse that is nested i deep." Outermost k is k_1 .

Example

Consider parsing $S = \text{"ID*ID}\mid\text{"}$ with a grammar from last time:

```
p ::= e '⊢'  
e ::= t  
    | e '/' t  
    | e '*' t  
t ::= ID
```

A successful path through the program:

```
parse(p, S):  
  Choose p ::= e '⊢':  
    parse(e, S):  
      Choose e ::= e '*' t:  
        parse(e, S):  
          choose e ::= t:  
            parse(t, S):  
              choose t ::= ID:  
                check S[1] == ID; OK, return 1  
              return 1 (so  $k_2 += 1$ )  
            check S[k2] == '*'; OK,  $k_2 += 1$   
          parse(t, S3): # S3 == "ID ⊢"  
            choose t ::= ID:  
              check S3[k3+1] == S3[1] == ID; OK  
               $k_3 += 1$ ; return 1 (so  $k_2 += 1$ )  
            return 3  
          Check S[k1+1] == S[4] == '⊢': OK  
           $k_1 += 1$ ; return 4
```

k_i means "the variable k in the call to parse that is nested i deep." Outermost k is k_1 . Likewise for S_i .

Making a Deterministic Algorithm

- If we had an infinite supply of processors, could just spawn new ones at each "Choose" line.
- Some would give up, some loop forever, but on correct programs, at least one processor would get through.
- To do this for real (say with one processor), need to keep track of all possibilities systematically.
- This is the idea behind Earley's algorithm:
 - Handles any context-free grammar.
 - Finds all parses of any string.
 - Can recognize or reject strings in $O(N^3)$ time for ambiguous grammars, $O(N^2)$ time for "nondeterministic grammars", or $O(N)$ time for deterministic grammars (such as accepted by Bison or CUP).

Earley's Algorithm: I

- First, reformulate to use recursion instead of looping. Assume the string $S = c_1 \cdots c_n$ is fixed.
- Redefine **parse**:

parse (A: $\alpha \bullet \beta$, s, k):

""Assumes A: $\alpha\beta$ is a production in the grammar,
 $0 \leq s \leq k \leq n$, and α can produce the string $c_{s+1} \cdots c_k$.
Returns integer j such that β can produce $c_{k+1} \cdots c_j$.""

- Or diagrammatically, **parse** returns an integer **j** such that:

$$c_1 \cdots c_s \underbrace{c_{s+1} \cdots c_k}_{\alpha \xRightarrow{*}} \underbrace{c_{k+1} \cdots c_j}_{\beta \xRightarrow{*}} c_{j+1} \cdots c_n$$

Earley's Algorithm: II

```
parse (A ::=  $\alpha \bullet \beta$ , s, k):  
    """Assumes  $A ::= \alpha\beta$  is a production in the grammar,  
    0 <= s <= k <= n, and  $\alpha$  can produce the string  $c_{s+1} \cdots c_k$ .  
    Returns integer j such that  $\beta$  can produce  $c_{k+1} \cdots c_j$ ."""  
    if  $\beta$  is empty:  
        return k  
    Assume  $\beta$  has the form  $x\delta$   
    if x is a terminal:  
        if  $x == c_{k+1}$ :  
            return parse(A ::=  $\alpha x \bullet \delta$ , s, k+1)  
        else:  
            GIVE UP  
    else:  
        Choose production ' $x ::= \kappa$ ' for x (nondeterministically)  
        j = parse(x ::=  $\bullet \kappa$ , k, k)  
        return parse (A ::=  $\alpha x \bullet \delta$ , s, j)
```

- Now do all possible choices that result in such a way as to avoid redundant work ("nondeterministic memoization").
- That is, if parse is called with the same three arguments as a previous call, just use the result(s) of the previous call.

Chart Parsing

- Idea is to build up a table (known as a *chart*) of all calls to parse that have been made.
- Only one entry in chart for each distinct triple of arguments $(A ::= \alpha \bullet \beta, s, k)$.
- We'll organize table in columns numbered by the k parameter, so that column k represents all calls that are looking at c_{k+1} in the input.
- Each column contains entries with the other two parameters: $[A ::= \alpha \bullet \beta, s]$, which are called *items*.
- The columns, therefore, are *item sets*.

Example

Grammar

$p ::= e \text{ '}' \text{ '}'$
 $e ::= s \ I \mid e \text{ '}' \text{ '+' } e$
 $s ::= \text{ '}' \text{ '-' } \mid$

Input String

$- \ I \ + \ I \ \text{ '}' \ \text{ '}'$

Chart. Headings are values of k and c_{k+1} (raised symbols). Item labels (a-f) trace the "ancestry" of each item. (Have shortened $::=$ to $:$ for compactness.)

0	-	1	I	2	+	3	I
a.p: ●e '}' '}', 0	d.s: '}'-'}●, 0	c.e: s I●, 0	b.e: e '}'+' ●e, 0				
b.e: ●e '}'+' e, 0	c.e: s●I, 0	b.e: e ●'+' e, 0	e.e: ●s I, 3				
c.e: ●s I, 0			f.s: ●, 3				
d.s: ●'-' , 0			e.e: s ●I, 3				
4	'}	5					
e.e: s I●, 3	a.p: e '}'+' ●, 0						
b.e: e '}'+' e●, 0							
a.p: e●'}'+' , 0							

Example, completed

- Last slide showed only those items that survive and get used. Algorithm actually computes dead ends as well (in red).

0	-	1	I	2	+	3	I
a.p: ●e '−', 0		d.s: '−'●, 0		c.e: s I●, 0		b.e: e '+' ●e, 0	
b.e: ●e '+' e, 0		c.e: s●I, 0		b.e: e ● '+' e, 0		e.e: ●s I, 3	
c.e: ●s I, 0				a.p: e ● '−', 0		f.s: ●, 3	
d.s: ●'−', 0						e.e: s ●I, 3	
g.s: ●, 0						i.s: ●'−', 3	
h.e: s ● I, 0						j.e: ● e '+' e, 3	
4	−	5					
e.e: s I●, 3		a.p: e '−' ●, 0					
b.e: e '+' e●, 0							
a.p: e●'−', 0							
j.e: e ● '+' e, 3							

Ambiguous Example

Grammar

$p ::= e \text{ '}' \neg \text{'}$
 $e ::= I \mid e \text{ '}' + \text{' } e$

Input String

$I + I + I \neg$

Chart. Only useful items shown.

0	I	1	+	2	I	3	+
$a.p: \bullet e \text{ '}' \neg \text{'}, 0$ $b.e: \bullet e \text{ '}' + \text{' } e, 0$ $c.e: \bullet I, 0$	$c.e: I \bullet, 0$ $b.e: e \bullet \text{ '}' + \text{' } e, 0$			$b.e: e \text{ '}' + \text{' } \bullet e, 0$ $d.e: \bullet I, 2$ $e.e: \bullet e \text{ '}' + \text{' } e, 2$		$d.e: I \bullet, 2$ $b.e: e \text{ '}' + \text{' } e \bullet, 0$ $e.e: e \bullet \text{ '}' + \text{' } e, 2$ $b.e: e \bullet \text{ '}' + \text{' } e, 0$	
4	I	5	+	6			
$b.e: e \text{ '}' + \text{' } \bullet e, 0$ $e.e: e \text{ '}' + \text{' } \bullet e, 2$ $f.p: \bullet I, 4$		$f.e: I \bullet, 4$ $b.e: e \text{ '}' + \text{' } e \bullet, 0$ $e.e: e \text{ '}' + \text{' } e \bullet, 2$ $a.p: e \bullet \neg, 0$		$a.p: e \neg \bullet, 0$			

Adding Semantic Actions

- Using syntax-directed translation to get semantic values is pretty much like recursive descent.
- The call $\text{parse}(A: \alpha \bullet \beta, s, k)$ can return, in addition to j , the semantic value of the A that matches symbols $c_{s+1} \cdots c_j$.
- The value is computed during calls of the form $\text{parse}(A: \alpha' \bullet, s, k)$ (i.e., where the β part is empty). For terminal symbols, value is provided by the lexer.

Adding Semantic Actions (II)

- On a chart, when we see an item $A: \alpha \bullet, s$ in column k , it tells us to
 - Perform the semantic action corresponding to the production $A ::= \alpha$, getting a semantic value v for the left-hand side A .
 - For each item $B: \beta \bullet A \gamma, t$ in column s of the chart, when adding the item $B: \beta A \bullet \gamma, t$ to column k , also attach value v to that instance of A in the new item.
 - For all items derived from $B: \beta \bullet A \gamma, t$ as its dot is shifted, also attach v to the same instance of A .

This step is what provides the values of nonterminals needed to compute v values (in Bison notation: $\$1, \2 , etc.; in CUP notation, labels such as $e1$ and $e2$ in the rule $e ::= e : e1 ' + ' e : e2$).

Example with Semantic Values

	Grammar	Input String (I's are numerals).
p : e:a '−'	{: RESULT = a; :}	1 + 3 * 2 −
e : t:b	{: RESULT = b; :}	
e : e:a '+' t:b	{: RESULT = a + b; :}	
t : I:a	{: RESULT = a; :}	
t : t:a '*' I:b	{: RESULT = a * b; :}	

Chart. Only useful items shown. Semantic values are subscripts; red items show where they are computed.

0	I ₁	1	+	2	I ₃	3	*
a. p: ●e '−', 0	d. t ₁ : I ₁ ●, 0			b. e: e ₁ '+'●t, 0		e. t ₃ : I ₃ ●, 2	
b. e: ●e '+' t, 0	c. e ₁ : t ₁ ●, 0			e. t: ●I, 2		f. t: t ₃ ● '*' I, 2	
c. e: ●t, 0	b. e: e ₁ ● '+' t, 0			f. t: ●t '*' I, 2			
d. t: ●I, 0							
4	I ₂	5	−	6			
f. t: t ₃ '*' ●I, 2	f. t ₆ : t ₃ '*' I ₂ ●, 2			a. p ₇ : e ₇ −●, 0			
	b. e ₇ : e ₁ '+' t ₆ ●, 0						
	a. p: e ₇ ● −, 0						

Handling Ambiguity in Semantics (Sketch)

- Ambiguity really only important here when computing semantic actions.
- Rather than being satisfied with a single path through the chart, we look at *all* paths.
- The call `parse(A: $\alpha \bullet \beta$, s, k)` can return a *set* of semantic values.
- Accordingly, we attach sets of semantic values to nonterminals.