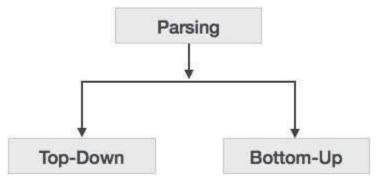
### **Compiler Design - Types of Parsing**

Syntax analyzers follow production rules defined by means of context-free grammar. The way the production rules are implemented (derivation) divides parsing into two types: top-down parsing and bottom-up parsing.



### Top-down Parsing

When the parser starts constructing the parse tree from the start symbol and then tries to transform the start symbol to the input, it is called top-down parsing.

- **Recursive descent parsing**: It is a common form of top-down parsing. It is called recursive as it uses recursive procedures to process the input. Recursive descent parsing suffers from backtracking.
- **Backtracking**: It means, if one derivation of a production fails, the syntax analyzer restarts the process using different rules of same production. This technique may process the input string more than once to determine the right production.

### Bottom-up Parsing

As the name suggests, bottom-up parsing starts with the input symbols and tries to construct the parse tree up to the start symbol.

#### **Example:**

Input string : a + b \* c

Production rules:

```
S \rightarrow E
E \rightarrow E + T
E \rightarrow E * T
E \rightarrow T
```

```
T → id
```

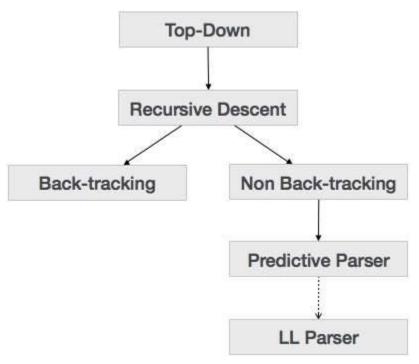
Let us start bottom-up parsing

```
a + b * c
```

Read the input and check if any production matches with the input:

```
a + b * c
T + b * c
E + b * c
E + T * c
E * T
E
```

We have learnt in the last chapter that the top-down parsing technique parses the input, and starts constructing a parse tree from the root node gradually moving down to the leaf nodes. The types of top-down parsing are depicted below:



#### Recursive Descent Parsing

Recursive descent is a top-down parsing technique that constructs the parse tree from the top and the input is read from left to right. It uses procedures for every terminal and non-terminal entity. This parsing technique recursively parses the input to make a parse tree, which may or may not require back-tracking. But the grammar associated with it (if not left factored) cannot avoid back-tracking. A form of recursive-descent parsing that does not require any back-tracking is known as **predictive parsing**.

This parsing technique is regarded recursive as it uses context-free grammar which is recursive in nature.

### Back-tracking

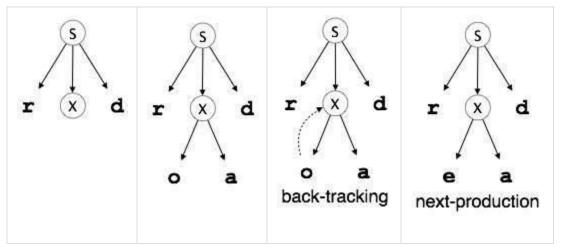
Top- down parsers start from the root node (start symbol) and match the input string against the production rules to replace them (if matched). To understand this, take the following example of CFG:

```
S \rightarrow rXd \mid rZd
X \rightarrow oa \mid ea
Z \rightarrow ai
```

For an input string: read, a top-down parser, will behave like this:

It will start with S from the production rules and will match its yield to the left-most letter of the input, i.e. 'r'. The very production of S (S  $\rightarrow$  rXd) matches with it. So the top-down parser advances to the next input letter (i.e. 'e'). The parser tries to expand non-terminal 'X' and checks its production from the left (X  $\rightarrow$  oa). It does not match with the next input symbol. So the top-down parser backtracks to obtain the next production rule of X, (X  $\rightarrow$  ea).

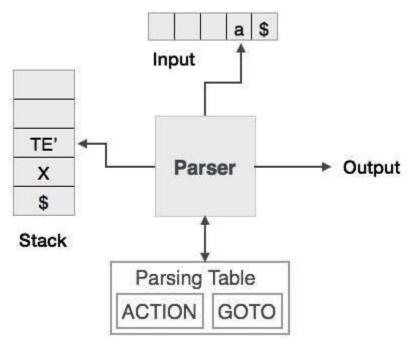
Now the parser matches all the input letters in an ordered manner. The string is accepted.



# **Predictive Parser**

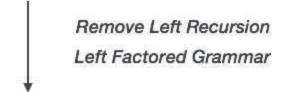
Predictive parser is a recursive descent parser, which has the capability to predict which production is to be used to replace the input string. The predictive parser does not suffer from backtracking.

To accomplish its tasks, the predictive parser uses a look-ahead pointer, which points to the next input symbols. To make the parser back-tracking free, the predictive parser puts some constraints on the grammar and accepts only a class of grammar known as LL(k) grammar.

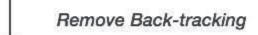


Predictive parsing uses a stack and a parsing table to parse the input and generate a parse tree. Both the stack and the input contains an end symbol \$ to denote that the stack is empty and the input is consumed. The parser refers to the parsing table to take any decision on the input and stack element combination.

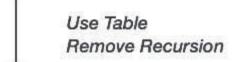
#### Top-Bottom Parser



#### Recursive Descent



#### Predictive Parser



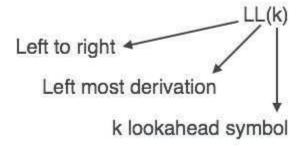
#### Non-recursive Predictive Parser

In recursive descent parsing, the parser may have more than one production to choose from for a single instance of input, whereas in predictive parser, each step has at most one production to choose. There might be instances where there is no production matching the input string, making the parsing procedure to fail.

#### LL Parser

An LL Parser accepts LL grammar. LL grammar is a subset of context-free grammar but with some restrictions to get the simplified version, in order to achieve easy implementation. LL grammar can be implemented by means of both algorithms namely, recursive-descent or table-driven.

LL parser is denoted as LL(k). The first L in LL(k) is parsing the input from left to right, the second L in LL(k) stands for left-most derivation and k itself represents the number of look aheads. Generally k = 1, so LL(k) may also be written as LL(1).



### LL Parsing Algorithm

We may stick to deterministic LL(1) for parser explanation, as the size of table grows exponentially with the value of k. Secondly, if a given grammar is not LL(1), then usually, it is not LL(k), for any given k.

Given below is an algorithm for LL(1) Parsing:

```
Input:

string w

parsing table M for grammar G

Output:

If w is in L(G) then left-most derivation of w,

error otherwise.
```

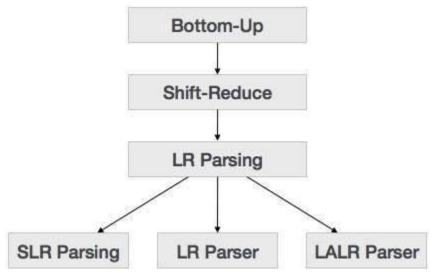
```
Initial State : $S on stack (with S being start symbol)
   \omega$ in the input buffer
SET ip to point the first symbol of \omega$.
repeat
   let X be the top stack symbol and a the symbol pointed by ip.
   if X \in V_t or $
      if X = a
         POP X and advance ip.
      else
         error()
      endif
   else /* X is non-terminal */
      if M[X,a] = X \rightarrow Y1, Y2,... Yk
         POP X
         PUSH Yk, Yk-1,... Y1 /* Y1 on top */
         Output the production X \rightarrow Y1, Y2,... Yk
      else
         error()
      endif
   endif
until X = $ /* empty stack */
```

A grammar G is LL(1) if A  $\rightarrow$  a |  $\beta$  are two distinct productions of G:

- for no terminal, both a and  $\beta$  derive strings beginning with a.
- at most one of a and  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  can derive empty string.

• if  $\beta \to t$ , then a does not derive any string beginning with a terminal in FOLLOW(A).

Bottom-up parsing starts from the leaf nodes of a tree and works in upward direction till it reaches the root node. Here, we start from a sentence and then apply production rules in reverse manner in order to reach the start symbol. The image given below depicts the bottom-up parsers available.



### Shift-Reduce Parsing

Shift-reduce parsing uses two unique steps for bottom-up parsing. These steps are known as shift-step and reduce-step.

- **Shift step**: The shift step refers to the advancement of the input pointer to the next input symbol, which is called the shifted symbol. This symbol is pushed onto the stack. The shifted symbol is treated as a single node of the parse tree.
- **Reduce step**: When the parser finds a complete grammar rule (RHS) and replaces it to (LHS), it is known as reduce-step. This occurs when the top of the stack contains a handle. To reduce, a POP function is performed on the stack which pops off the handle and replaces it with LHS non-terminal symbol.

#### LR Parser

The LR parser is a non-recursive, shift-reduce, bottom-up parser. It uses a wide class of context-free grammar which makes it the most efficient syntax analysis technique. LR parsers are also known as LR(k) parsers, where L stands for left-to-right scanning of the input stream; R stands for the construction of right-most derivation in reverse, and k denotes the number of lookahead symbols to make decisions.

There are three widely used algorithms available for constructing an LR parser:

- SLR(1) Simple LR Parser:
  - o Works on smallest class of grammar
  - o Few number of states, hence very small table
  - o Simple and fast construction
- LR(1) LR Parser:
  - o Works on complete set of LR(1) Grammar
  - o Generates large table and large number of states
  - Slow construction
- LALR(1) Look-Ahead LR Parser:
  - o Works on intermediate size of grammar
  - Number of states are same as in SLR(1)

### LR Parsing Algorithm

Here we describe a skeleton algorithm of an LR parser:

```
token = next_token()

repeat forever

s = top of stack

if action[s, token] = "shift si" then

PUSH token

PUSH si

token = next_token()

else if action[s, token] = "reduce A::= β" then

POP 2 * |β| symbols

s = top of stack

PUSH A

PUSH goto[s,A]
```

```
else if action[s, token] = "accept" then
    return

else
    error()
```

# LL vs. LR

LL	LR
Does a leftmost derivation.	Does a rightmost derivation in reverse.
Starts with the root nonterminal on the stack.	Ends with the root nonterminal on the stack.
Ends when the stack is empty.	Starts with an empty stack.
Uses the stack for designating what is still to be expected.	Uses the stack for designating what is already seen.
Builds the parse tree top-down.	Builds the parse tree bottom-up.
Continuously pops a nonterminal off the stack, and pushes the corresponding right hand side.	Tries to recognize a right hand side on the stack, pops it, and pushes the corresponding nonterminal.
Expands the non-terminals.	Reduces the non-terminals.
Reads the terminals when it pops one off the stack.	Reads the terminals while it pushes them on the stack.
Pre-order traversal of the parse tree.	Post-order traversal of the parse tree.

A parser should be able to detect and report any error in the program. It is expected that when an error is encountered, the parser should be able to handle it and carry on parsing the rest of the input. Mostly it is expected from the parser to check for errors but errors may be encountered at various stages of the compilation process. A program may have the following kinds of errors at various stages:

• Lexical : name of some identifier typed incorrectly

• **Syntactical**: missing semicolon or unbalanced parenthesis

• **Semantical**: incompatible value assignment

• Logical: code not reachable, infinite loop

There are four common error-recovery strategies that can be implemented in the parser to deal with errors in the code.

#### Panic mode

When a parser encounters an error anywhere in the statement, it ignores the rest of the statement by not processing input from erroneous input to delimiter, such as semi-colon. This is the easiest way of error-recovery and also, it prevents the parser from developing infinite loops.

#### Statement mode

When a parser encounters an error, it tries to take corrective measures so that the rest of inputs of statement allow the parser to parse ahead. For example, inserting a missing semicolon, replacing comma with a semicolon etc. Parser designers have to be careful here because one wrong correction may lead to an infinite loop.

#### Error productions

Some common errors are known to the compiler designers that may occur in the code. In addition, the designers can create augmented grammar to be used, as productions that generate erroneous constructs when these errors are encountered.

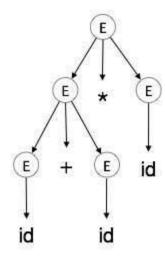
#### Global correction

The parser considers the program in hand as a whole and tries to figure out what the program is intended to do and tries to find out a closest match for it, which is error-free. When an erroneous input (statement) X is fed, it creates a

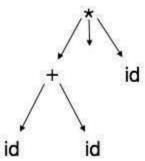
parse tree for some closest error-free statement Y. This may allow the parser to make minimal changes in the source code, but due to the complexity (time and space) of this strategy, it has not been implemented in practice yet.

# **Abstract Syntax Trees**

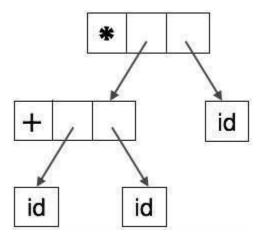
Parse tree representations are not easy to be parsed by the compiler, as they contain more details than actually needed. Take the following parse tree as an example:



If watched closely, we find most of the leaf nodes are single child to their parent nodes. This information can be eliminated before feeding it to the next phase. By hiding extra information, we can obtain a tree as shown below:



Abstract tree can be represented as:



ASTs are important data structures in a compiler with least unnecessary information. ASTs are more compact than a parse tree and can be easily used by a compiler.