Error Handling Syntax-Directed Translation Recursive Descent Parsing

Lecture 6

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Announcements

- PA1 & WA1
 - Due today at midnight
- PA2 & WA2
 - Assigned today

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Outline

- Extensions of CFG for parsing
 - Precedence declarations
 - Error handling
 - Semantic actions
- · Constructing a parse tree
- · Recursive descent

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Error Handling

- Purpose of the compiler is
 - To detect non-valid programs
 - To translate the valid ones
- Many kinds of possible errors (e.g. in C)

Error kind	Example	Detected by
Lexical	\$	Lexer
Syntax	× *%	Parser
Semantic	int x; y = x(3);	Type checker
Correctness	your favorite program	Tester/User
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Syntax Error Handling

- Error handler should
 - Report errors accurately and clearly
 - Recover from an error quickly
 - Not slow down compilation of valid code
- · Good error handling is not easy to achieve

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Approaches to Syntax Error Recovery

- From simple to complex
 - Panic mode
 - Error productions
 - Automatic local or global correction
- Not all are supported by all parser generators

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Error Recovery: Panic Mode

- · Simplest, most popular method
- · When an error is detected:
 - Discard tokens until one with a clear role is found
 - Continue from there
- Such tokens are called synchronizing tokens
 - Typically the statement or expression terminators

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Syntax Error Recovery: Panic Mode (Cont.)

 $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ Consider the erroneous expression

$$(1 + + 2) + 3$$

- Panic-mode recovery:
 - Skip ahead to next integer and then continue
- Bison: use the special terminal error to describe how much input to skip

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

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Syntax Error Recovery: Error Productions

- · Idea: specify in the grammar known common mistakes
- · Essentially promotes common errors to alternative
- Example:

 - Write 5 x instead of 5 * x
 Add the production E → ... | E E
- · Disadvantage
 - Complicates the grammar

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Error Recovery: Local and Global Correction

- · Idea: find a correct "nearby" program
 - Try token insertions and deletions
 - Exhaustive search
- Disadvantages:
 - Hard to implement
 - Slows down parsing of correct programs
 - "Nearby" is not necessarily "the intended" program
 - Not all tools support it

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Syntax Error Recovery: Past and Present

- Past
 - Slow recompilation cycle (even once a day)
 - Find as many errors in one cycle as possible
 - Researchers could not let go of the topic
- · Present
 - Quick recompilation cycle
 - Users tend to correct one error/cycle
 - Complex error recovery is less compelling
 - Panic-mode seems enough

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Abstract Syntax Trees

- \cdot So far a parser traces the derivation of a sequence of tokens
- The rest of the compiler needs a structural representation of the program
- Abstract syntax trees
 - Like parse trees but ignore some details
 - Abbreviated as AST

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Abstract Syntax Tree (Cont.)

Consider the grammar

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

· And the string

$$5 + (2 + 3)$$

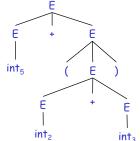
After lexical analysis (a list of tokens)

· During parsing we build a parse tree ...

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Example of Parse Tree

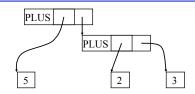


- Traces the operation of the parser
- Does capture the nesting structure
 - But too much info
 - Parentheses
 - Single-successor nodes

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Example of Abstract Syntax Tree



- · Also captures the nesting structure
- But <u>abstracts</u> from the concrete syntax => more compact and easier to use
- · An important data structure in a compiler

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Semantic Actions

- · This is what we'll use to construct ASTs
- Each grammar symbol may have <u>attributes</u>
 - For terminal symbols (lexical tokens) attributes can be calculated by the lexer
- · Each production may have an action
 - Written as: $X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$ { action }
 - That can refer to or compute symbol attributes

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Semantic Actions: An Example

- Consider the grammar
 - $E \rightarrow int \mid E + E \mid (E)$
- For each symbol X define an attribute X.val
 - For terminals, val is the associated lexeme
 - For non-terminals, val is the expression's value (and is computed from values of subexpressions)
- · We annotate the grammar with actions:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \mathsf{E} \rightarrow \mathsf{int} & \{ \ \ \mathsf{E}.\mathsf{val} = \mathsf{int}.\mathsf{val} \, \} \\ | \ \mathsf{E}_1 + \mathsf{E}_2 & \{ \ \mathsf{E}.\mathsf{val} = \mathsf{E}_1.\mathsf{val} + \mathsf{E}_2.\mathsf{val} \, \} \\ | \ \mathsf{E}_1 & \{ \ \mathsf{E}.\mathsf{val} = \mathsf{E}_1.\mathsf{val} \, \} \end{array}
```

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Semantic Actions: An Example (Cont.)

- String: 5 + (2 + 3)
- Tokens: int₅ '+' '(' int₂ '+' int₃ ')'

$\begin{array}{lll} \text{Productions} & \text{Equations} \\ E \to E_1 + E_2 & \text{E.val} = E_1.\text{val} + E_2.\text{val} \\ E_1 \to \text{int}_5 & \text{E_1.val} = \text{int}_5.\text{val} = 5 \\ E_2 \to (E_3) & \text{E_2.val} = E_3.\text{val} \\ E_3 \to E_4 + E_5 & \text{E_3.val} = E_4.\text{val} + E_5.\text{val} \\ E_4 \to \text{int}_2 & \text{E_4.val} = \text{int}_2.\text{val} = 2 \\ E_5 \to \text{int}_3 & \text{E_5.val} = \text{int}_3.\text{val} = 3 \end{array}$

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Semantic Actions: Notes

- Semantic actions specify a system of equations
- · Declarative Style
 - Order of resolution is not specified
 - The parser figures it out
- Imperative Style
 - The order of evaluation is fixed
 - Important if the actions manipulate global state

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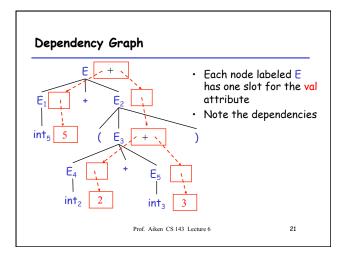
Semantic Actions: Notes

- We'll explore actions as pure equations
 - Style 1
 - But note bison has a fixed order of evaluation for actions
- Example:

$$E_3$$
.val = E_4 .val + E_5 .val

- Must compute E₄.val and E₅.val before E₃.val
- We say that E_3 .val depends on E_4 .val and E_5 .val

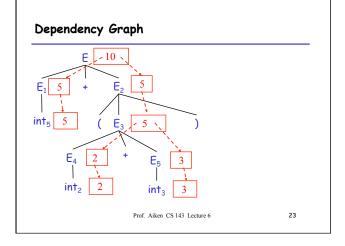
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Evaluating Attributes

- An attribute must be computed after all its successors in the dependency graph have been computed
 - In previous example attributes can be computed bottom-up
- · Such an order exists when there are no cycles
 - Cyclically defined attributes are not legal

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Semantic Actions: Notes (Cont.)

- Synthesized attributes
 - Calculated from attributes of descendents in the parse tree
 - E.val is a synthesized attribute
 - Can always be calculated in a bottom-up order
- Grammars with only synthesized attributes are called <u>S-attributed</u> grammars
 - Most common case

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Inherited Attributes

- · Another kind of attribute
- Calculated from attributes of parent and/or siblings in the parse tree
- · Example: a line calculator

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A Line Calculator

- · Each line contains an expression
 - $E \rightarrow int \mid E + E$
- Each line is terminated with the = sign
 - L → E = | + E =
- In second form the value of previous line is used as starting value
- A program is a sequence of lines

 $P \rightarrow \epsilon \mid P \mid L$

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Attributes for the Line Calculator

- Each E has a synthesized attribute val
 Calculated as before
- Each L has an attribute val

```
L \rightarrow E = \{L.val = E.val\}
 | + E = \{L.val = E.val + L.prev\}
```

- · We need the value of the previous line
- · We use an inherited attribute L.prev

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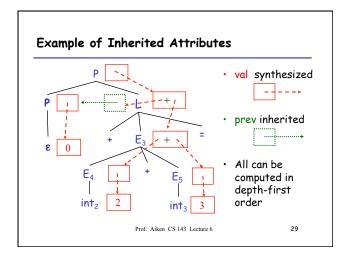
Attributes for the Line Calculator (Cont.)

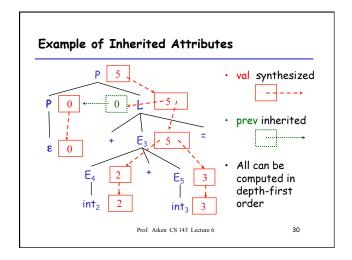
- Each P has a synthesized attribute val
 - The value of its last line

```
P \rightarrow \varepsilon { P.val = 0 }
 | P<sub>1</sub> L { P.val = L.val;
 | L.prev = P<sub>1</sub>.val }
```

- Each L has an inherited attribute prev
- L.prev is inherited from sibling P₁.val
- Example ...

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Semantic Actions: Notes (Cont.)

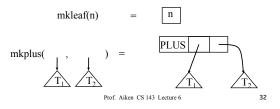
- · Semantic actions can be used to build ASTs
- · And many other things as well
 - Also used for type checking, code generation, ...
- · Process is called syntax-directed translation
 - Substantial generalization over CFGs

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Constructing An AST

- · We first define the AST data type
 - Supplied by us for the project
- Consider an abstract tree type with two constructors:



Constructing a Parse Tree

- · We define a synthesized attribute ast
 - Values of ast values are ASTs
 - We assume that int.lexval is the value of the integer lexeme
 - Computed using semantic actions

```
\begin{split} \mathsf{E} &\to \mathsf{int} & \mathsf{E.ast} = \mathsf{mkleaf}(\mathsf{int.lexval}) \\ &\mid \mathsf{E}_1 + \mathsf{E}_2 & \mathsf{E.ast} = \mathsf{mkplus}(\mathsf{E}_1.\mathsf{ast}, \, \mathsf{E}_2.\mathsf{ast}) \\ &\mid (\, \mathsf{E}_1\,) & \mathsf{E.ast} = \mathsf{E}_1.\mathsf{ast} \end{split}
```

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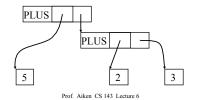
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Parse Tree Example

- Consider the string int_5 '+' '(' int_2 '+' int_3 ')'
- A bottom-up evaluation of the ast attribute:
 E.ast = mkplus(mkleaf(5),

mkplus(mkleaf(2), mkleaf(3))



Summary

- We can specify language syntax using CFG
- A parser will answer whether $s \in L(G)$
 - ... and will build a parse tree
 - \dots which we convert to an AST
 - ... and pass on to the rest of the compiler

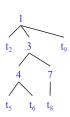
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Intro to Top-Down Parsing: The Idea

- The parse tree is constructed
 - From the top
 - From left to right
- Terminals are seen in order of appearance in the token stream:

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Recursive Descent Parsing

```
    Consider the grammar
```

```
\mathsf{E}\to\mathsf{T}\,|\,\mathsf{T}+\mathsf{E}
T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
```

- Token stream is: (int₅)
- Start with top-level non-terminal E
 - Try the rules for $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{E}}$ in order

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```
Recursive Descent Parsing
\mathsf{E}\to\mathsf{T}\,\mathsf{|T+E}
T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
                                        Ε
     (int<sub>5</sub>)
```

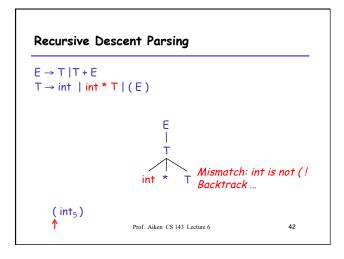
Recursive Descent Parsing

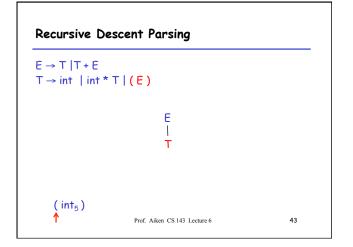
```
E \rightarrow T \mid T + E
T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
      (int<sub>5</sub>)
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                                                                                           39
```

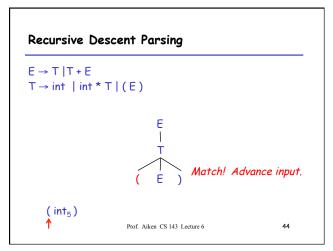
Recursive Descent Parsing $E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$ $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)$ Mismatch: int is not (! Backtrack ... (int₅)

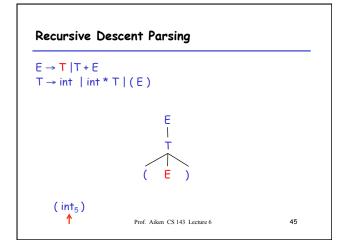
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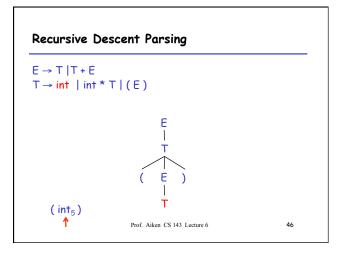
Recursive Descent Parsing $E \to T \mid T + E \\ T \to \text{int } \mid \text{int * T | (E)}$ $E \\ \mid T$ (int_5) Prof. Aiken CS 143 Lecture 6 41

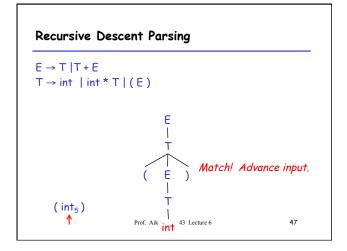


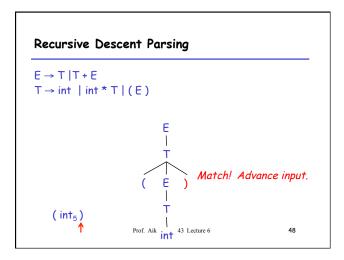












Recursive Descent Parsing

A Recursive Descent Parser. Preliminaries

- Let TOKEN be the type of tokens
 Special tokens INT, OPEN, CLOSE, PLUS, TIMES
- · Let the global next point to the next token

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A (Limited) Recursive Descent Parser (2)

- Define boolean functions that check the token string for a match of
 - A given token terminal
 bool term(TOKEN tok) { return *next++ == tok; }
 - The nth production of S:
 - bool S_n() { ... }
 - Try all productions of S: bool S() { ... }

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A (Limited) Recursive Descent Parser (3)

- For production E → T
 bool E₁() { return T(); }
- For production $E \to T + E$ bool $E_2()$ { return T() && term(PLUS) && E(); }
- For all productions of E (with backtracking)

```
bool E() {
    TOKEN *save = next;
    return (next = save, E_1())
    || (next = save, E_2()); }
```

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A (Limited) Recursive Descent Parser (4)

```
• Functions for non-terminal T bool T_1() { return term(INT); } bool T_2() { return term(INT) && term(TIMES) && T(); } bool T_3() { return term(OPEN) && E() && term(CLOSE); }  bool T() \{ \\ TOKEN *save = next; \\ return & (next = save, <math>T_1())  || (next = save, T_2()) \\ || (next = save, T_3()); \}  Prof. Aiken CS 143 Lecture 6 53
```

Recursive Descent Parsing. Notes.

- · To start the parser
 - Initialize next to point to first token
 - Invoke E()
- · Notice how this simulates the example parse
- · Easy to implement by hand
 - But not completely general
 - Cannot backtrack once a production is successful
 - Works for grammars where at most one production can succeed for a non-terminal

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Example

```
E \rightarrow T \mid T + E \qquad \qquad \text{(int)}
T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)
bool \ \text{term}(TOKEN \ \text{tok}) \{ \text{return} * \text{next} \leftrightarrow == \text{tok} : \}
bool \ E_1() \{ \text{return} \ T() : \}
bool \ E_2() \{ \text{return} \ T() \ \text{dd} \ \text{term}(PLUS) \ \text{dd} \ E() : \}
bool \ E_2() \{ \text{return} \ \text{term}(T) \ \text{dd} \ \text{term}(TLMES) \ \text{dd} \ T() : \}
bool \ T_3() \{ \text{return} \ \text{term}(TNT) : \}
bool \ T_3() \{ \text{return} \ \text{term}(TNT) \ \text{dd} \ \text{term}(TLMES) \ \text{dd} \ T() : \}
bool \ T_3() \{ \text{return} \ \text{term}(OPEN) \ \text{dd} \ E() \ \text{dd} \ \text{term}(CLOSE) : \}
bool \ T() \{ \text{TOKEN} * \text{save} = \text{next} : \text{return} \quad (\text{next} = \text{save}, \ T_3()) : \\ | \{ \text{next} = \text{save}, \ T_3() : \}
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When Recursive Descent Does Not Work

- Consider a production $S \rightarrow S$ a bool $S_1()$ { return S() && term(a); } bool S() { return $S_1()$; }
- S() goes into an infinite loop
- A <u>left-recursive grammar</u> has a non-terminal S $S \rightarrow^* S\alpha$ for some α
- · Recursive descent does not work in such cases

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Elimination of Left Recursion

- Consider the left-recursive grammar $S \to S \; \alpha \; | \; \beta$
- S generates all strings starting with a β and followed by a number of α
- · Can rewrite using right-recursion

$$S \rightarrow \beta S'$$

 $S' \rightarrow \alpha S' \mid \epsilon$

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More Elimination of Left-Recursion

· In general

$$S \rightarrow S \alpha_1 \mid ... \mid S \alpha_n \mid \beta_1 \mid ... \mid \beta_m$$

- All strings derived from S start with one of $\beta_1,...,\beta_m$ and continue with several instances of $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n$
- · Rewrite as

$$S \rightarrow \beta_1 S' \mid ... \mid \beta_m S'$$

 $S' \rightarrow \alpha_1 S' \mid ... \mid \alpha_n S' \mid \epsilon$

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General Left Recursion

The grammar

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{S} \to \mathsf{A} \; \alpha \mid \delta \\ \mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{S} \; \beta \\ \\ \mathsf{is} \; \mathsf{also} \; \mathsf{left-recursive} \; \mathsf{because} \\ \\ \mathsf{S} \to^+ \mathsf{S} \; \beta \; \alpha \end{array}$$

- · This left-recursion can also be eliminated
- See Dragon Book for general algorithm
 Section 4.3

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Summary of Recursive Descent

- Simple and general parsing strategy
 - Left-recursion must be eliminated first
 - ... but that can be done automatically
- · Unpopular because of backtracking
 - Thought to be too inefficient
- In practice, backtracking is eliminated by restricting the grammar

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