Error Handling Syntax-Directed Translation Recursive Descent Parsing

Lecture 6

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Slides based on slides designed by Prof. Alex Aiken

Announcements

- PA1 & WA1
 - Due today at midnight

- PA2 & WA2
 - Assigned today

Outline

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

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

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

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

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

Syntax Error Recovery: Panic Mode (Cont.)

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)
```

Syntax Error Recovery: Error Productions

- Idea: specify in the grammar known common mistakes
- Essentially promotes common errors to alternative syntax
- Example:
 - Write 5 x instead of 5 * x
 - Add the production $E \rightarrow ... \mid E \mid E$
- Disadvantage
 - Complicates the grammar

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

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

Abstract Syntax Trees

- 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

Abstract Syntax Tree (Cont.)

Consider the grammar

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

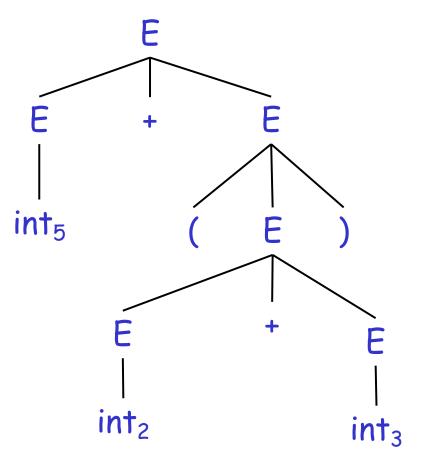
And the string

$$5 + (2 + 3)$$

After lexical analysis (a list of tokens)

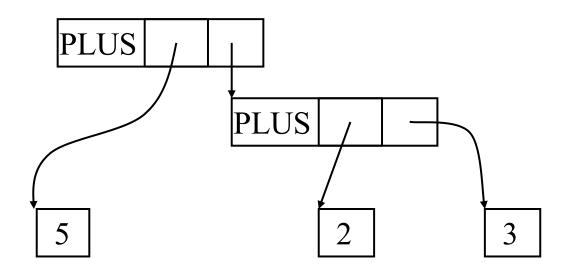
During parsing we build a parse tree ...

Example of Parse Tree



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

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

Semantic Actions

- This is what we'll use to construct ASTs
- · Each grammar symbol may have attributes
 - 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

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:

```
E \rightarrow int { E.val = int.val }

|E_1 + E_2| { E.val = E_1.val + E_2.val }

|(E_1)| { E.val = E_1.val }
```

Semantic Actions: An Example (Cont.)

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

Productions

$$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$$

$$E_1 \rightarrow int_5$$

$$E_2 \rightarrow (E_3)$$

$$E_3 \rightarrow E_4 + E_5$$

$$E_4 \rightarrow int_2$$

$$E_5 \rightarrow int_3$$

Equations

E.val =
$$E_1$$
.val + E_2 .val
 E_1 .val = int_5 .val = 5
 E_2 .val = E_3 .val
 E_3 .val = E_4 .val + E_5 .val
 E_4 .val = int_2 .val = 2
 E_5 .val = int_3 .val = 3

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

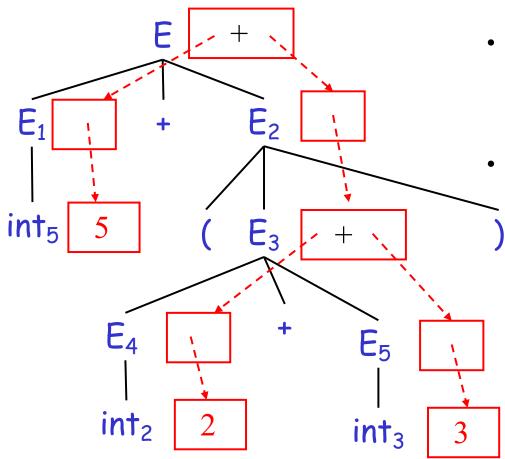
Semantic Actions: Notes

- 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 E_4 .val and E_5 .val before E_3 .val
- We say that E_3 .val depends on E_4 .val and E_5 .val

Dependency Graph

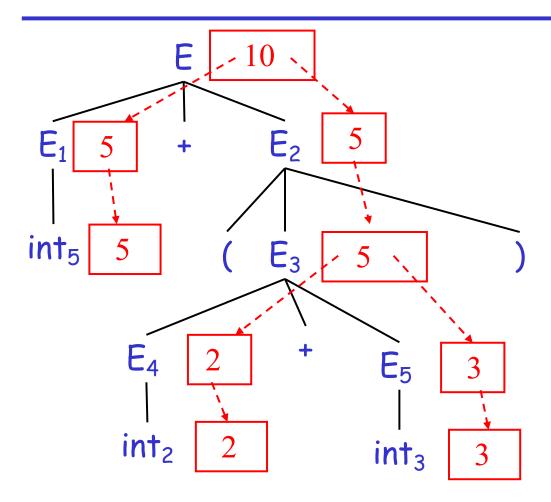


- Each node labeled E
 has one slot for the val
 attribute
- Note the dependencies

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

Dependency Graph



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

Inherited Attributes

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

A Line Calculator

Each line contains an expression

$$E \rightarrow int \mid E + E$$

Each line is terminated with the = sign

$$L \rightarrow E = | + E =$$

- In second form the value of previous line is used as starting value
- A program is a sequence of lines

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

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

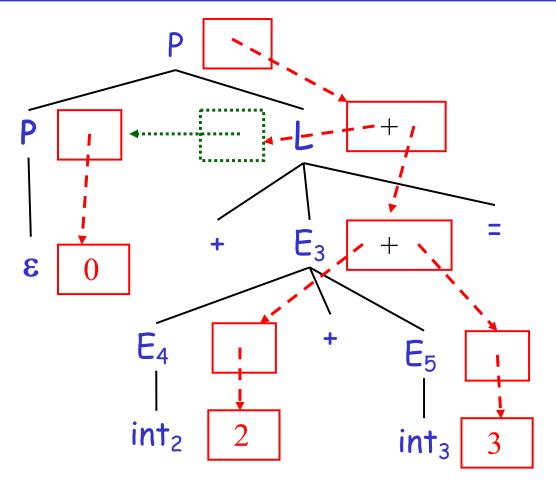
Attributes for the Line Calculator (Cont.)

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

```
P \rightarrow \epsilon { 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 ...

Example of Inherited Attributes



val synthesized

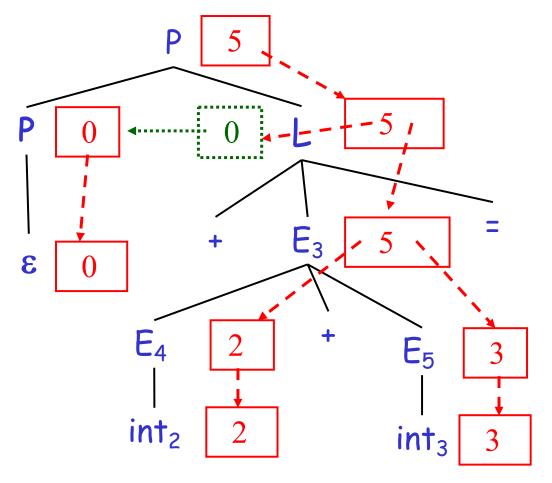


prev inherited

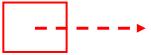


 All can be computed in depth-first order

Example of Inherited Attributes



val synthesized



prev inherited



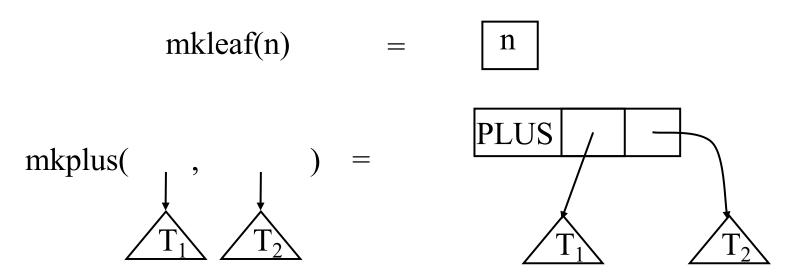
 All can be computed in depth-first order

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

Constructing an AST

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



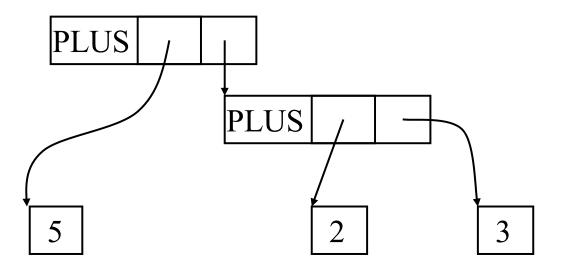
Constructing an AST

- · 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

Parse Tree Example

- Consider the string int₅ '+' '(' int₂ '+' int₃ ')'
- A bottom-up evaluation of the ast attribute:

E.ast = mkplus(mkleaf(5), mkplus(mkleaf(2), mkleaf(3))

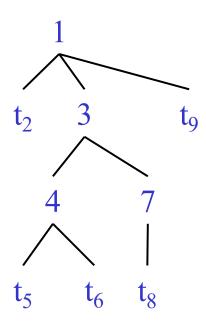


Summary

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

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:



Consider the grammar

```
E \rightarrow T \mid T + E

T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
```

- Token stream is: (int₅)
- Start with top-level non-terminal E
 - Try the rules for E in order

```
E \rightarrow T \mid T + E

T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
```

E

```
(int<sub>5</sub>)
↑
```

```
E \rightarrow T \mid T + E

T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
```

E | |

```
(int<sub>5</sub>)
↑
```

```
E \rightarrow T \mid T + E

T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
```

```
E
|
T
|
Mismatch: int is not (!
int Backtrack ...
```

```
E \rightarrow T \mid T + E

T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
```

E | T

```
(int<sub>5</sub>)
↑
```

```
E \rightarrow T \mid T + E

T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
```



```
(int<sub>5</sub>)
↑
```

```
E \rightarrow T \mid T + E

T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
```

E | T

```
(int<sub>5</sub>)
↑
```

$$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$$

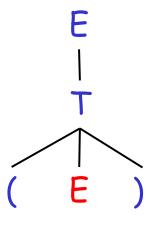
 $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)$



(int₅)
↑

$$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$$

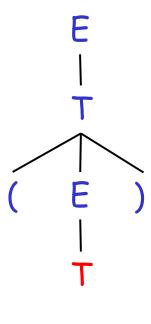
 $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)$





$$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$$

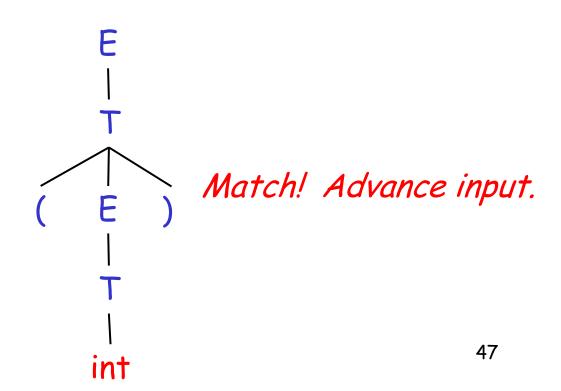
 $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)$



(int₅)
↑

$$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$$

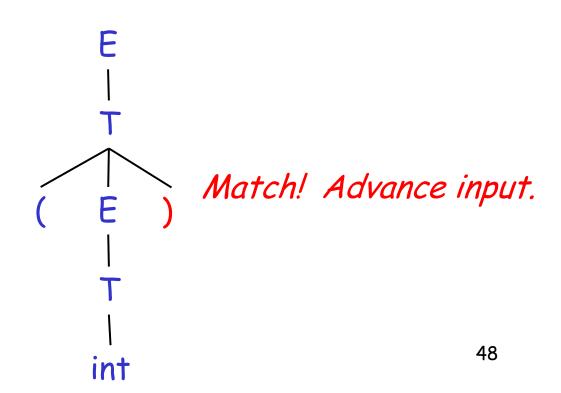
 $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)$

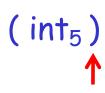




$$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$$

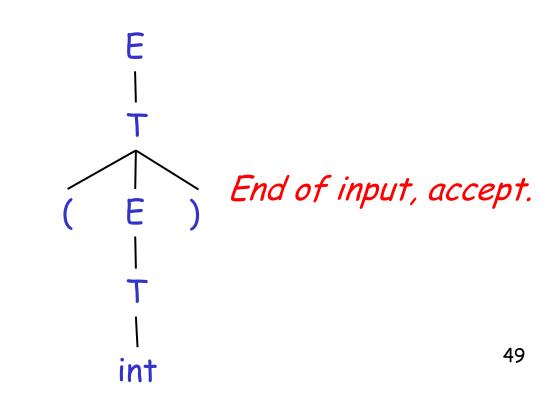
 $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)$

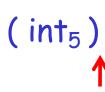




$$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$$

 $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)$





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

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<sub>n</sub>() { ... }
```

- Try all productions of S:

```
bool S() { ... }
```

A (Limited) Recursive Descent Parser (3)

- For production $E \rightarrow T$ bool $E_1()$ { return T(); }
- For production $E \rightarrow T + E$ 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()); }
```

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, T_1())

|| (next = save, T_2())

|| (next = save, T_3()); }
```

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

Example

```
E \rightarrow T \mid T + E
                                                                                 (int)
     T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)
bool term(TOKEN tok) { return *next++ == tok; }
bool E_1() { return T(); }
bool E_2() { return T() && term(PLUS) && E(); }
bool E() {TOKEN *save = next; return (next = save, E_1())
                                        || (next = save, E_2()); }
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, T_1())
                                        || (next = save, T_2())
                                        || (next = save, T_3()); }
```

When Recursive Descent Does Not Work

• Consider a production $S \rightarrow S$ a bool $S_1()$ { return S() && term(a); } bool S() { return $S_1()$; }

- 5() goes into an infinite loop
- A <u>left-recursive grammar</u> has a non-terminal $S \rightarrow S \rightarrow S \alpha$ for some α
- Recursive descent does not work in such cases

Elimination of Left Recursion

Consider the left-recursive grammar

$$S \rightarrow S \alpha \mid \beta$$

- 5 generates all strings starting with a β and followed by a number of α
- Can rewrite using right-recursion

$$S \rightarrow \beta S'$$

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

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 5 start with one of $\beta_1,...,\beta_m$ and continue with several instances of $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n$
- Rewrite as

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

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

General Left Recursion

The grammar

$$S \rightarrow A \alpha \mid \delta$$

 $A \rightarrow S \beta$
is also left-recursive because
 $S \rightarrow^+ S \beta \alpha$

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

Summary of Recursive Descent

- Simple and general parsing strategy
 - Left-recursion must be eliminated first
 - ... but that can be done automatically
- Historically unpopular because of backtracking
 - Thought to be too inefficient
 - Fast and simple on modern machines
- In practice, backtracking is eliminated by restricting the grammar