

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	... x *% ...	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.)

- 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
 $E \rightarrow \text{int} \mid E + E \mid (E) \mid \text{error int} \mid (\text{error})$

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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 $E \rightarrow \dots \mid EE$
- 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

- 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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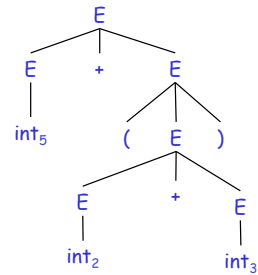
Abstract Syntax Tree. (Cont.)

- Consider the grammar
 $E \rightarrow \text{int} \mid (E) \mid E + E$
- And the string
 $5 + (2 + 3)$
- After lexical analysis (a list of tokens)
 $\text{int}_5 \text{ ' + ' ' (' int}_2 \text{ ' + ' int}_3 \text{ ') '}$
- During parsing we build a parse tree ...

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Example of Parse Tree

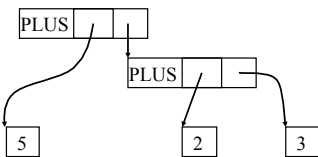


- Traces the operation of the parser
- Does capture the nesting structure
- But too much info
 - Parentheses
 - Single-successor nodes

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Example of Abstract Syntax Tree



- Also captures the nesting structure
- But abstracts from the concrete syntax
 \Rightarrow 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 attributes
 - For terminal symbols (lexical tokens) attributes can be calculated by the lexer
- Each production may have an action
 - Written as: $X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n \quad \{ \text{action} \}$
 - That can refer to or compute symbol attributes

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Semantic Actions: An Example

- Consider the grammar
 $E \rightarrow \text{int} \mid E + E \mid (E)$
- 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:

$E \rightarrow \text{int}$	$\{ E.val = \text{int}.val \}$
$\mid E_1 + E_2$	$\{ E.val = E_1.val + E_2.val \}$
$\mid (E_1)$	$\{ E.val = E_1.val \}$

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Semantic Actions: An Example (Cont.)

- String: $5 + (2 + 3)$
- Tokens: $\text{int}_5 \text{ ' + ' ' (' int}_2 \text{ ' + ' int}_3 \text{ ') '}$

Productions

$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$
 $E_1 \rightarrow \text{int}_5$
 $E_2 \rightarrow (E_3)$
 $E_3 \rightarrow E_4 + E_5$
 $E_4 \rightarrow \text{int}_2$
 $E_5 \rightarrow \text{int}_3$

Equations

$E.val = E_1.val + E_2.val$
 $E_1.val = \text{int}_5.val = 5$
 $E_2.val = E_3.val$
 $E_3.val = E_4.val + E_5.val$
 $E_4.val = \text{int}_2.val = 2$
 $E_5.val = \text{int}_3.val = 3$

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Semantic Actions: Notes

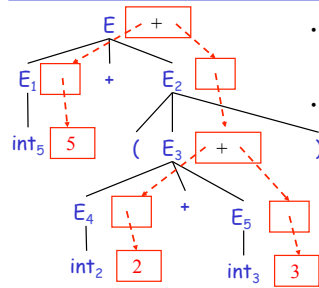
- Semantic actions specify a system of equations
 - Order of resolution is not specified
- Example:

$$E_3.val = E_4.val + E_5.val$$
 - 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 $E_5.val$
- The parser must find the order of evaluation

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Dependency Graph



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

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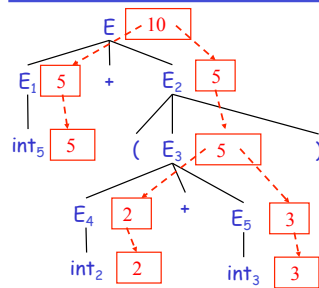
Evaluating Attributes

- 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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Dependency Graph



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Semantic Actions: Notes (Cont.)

- Synthesized attributes
 - Calculated from attributes of descendants 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 S-attributed 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
 $E \rightarrow \text{int} \mid E + E$
- Each line is terminated with the = sign
 $L \rightarrow E = \mid + E =$
- In second form the value of previous line is used as starting value
- A program is a sequence of lines
 $P \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid P L$

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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
 - $L \rightarrow E = \{ L.val = E.val \}$
 - $\mid + E = \{ L.val = E.val + L.prev \}$
- We need the value of the previous line
- We use an inherited attribute $L.prev$

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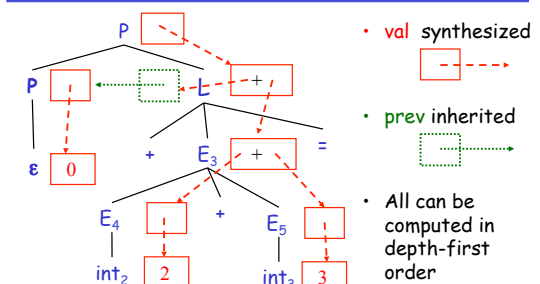
Attributes for the Line Calculator (Cont.)

- Each P has a synthesized attribute val
 - The value of its last line
 - $P \rightarrow \varepsilon \{ P.val = 0 \}$
 - $\mid P_1 L \{ P.val = L.val; L.prev = P_1.val \}$
- Each L has an inherited attribute $prev$
 - $L.prev$ is inherited from sibling $P_1.val$
- Example ...

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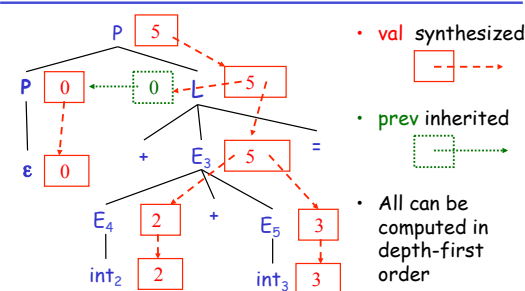
Example of Inherited Attributes



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Example of Inherited Attributes



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Semantic Actions: Notes (Cont.)

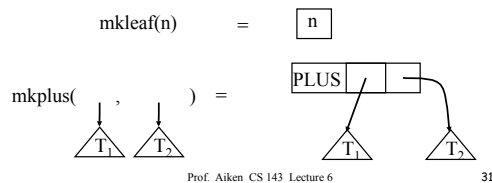
- Semantic actions can be used to build ASTs
- And many other things as well
 - Also used for type checking, code generation, ...
- Process is called syntax-directed translation
 - Substantial generalization over CFGs

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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

$E \rightarrow \text{int} \quad E.\text{ast} = \text{mkleaf}(\text{int.lexval})$
 $E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2 \quad E.\text{ast} = \text{mkplus}(E_1.\text{ast}, E_2.\text{ast})$
 $E \rightarrow (E_1) \quad E.\text{ast} = E_1.\text{ast}$

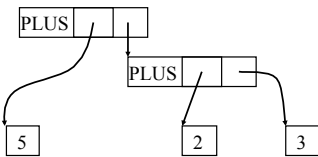
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Parse Tree Example

- Consider the string $\text{int}_5 \text{ '+' } (\text{int}_2 \text{ '+' } \text{int}_3 \text{ '}'$
- A bottom-up evaluation of the **ast** attribute:

$E.\text{ast} = \text{mkplus}(\text{mkleaf}(5),$
 $\quad \text{mkplus}(\text{mkleaf}(2), \text{mkleaf}(3)))$



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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

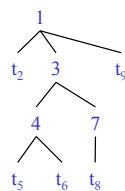
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Intro to Top-Down Parsing: The Idea

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

$t_2 \ t_5 \ t_6 \ t_8 \ t_9$



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Recursive Descent Parsing

- Consider the grammar

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

$$T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$$
- Token stream is: (int_5)
- Start with top-level non-terminal **E**
 - Try the rules for **E** in order

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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

E

(int₅)
↑

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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

E
|
T

(int₅)
↑

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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

E
|
T
|
int

*Mismatch: int is not (!
Backtrack ...*

(int₅)
↑

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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

E
|
T

(int₅)
↑

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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

E
|
T
/ | \
int * T

*Mismatch: int is not (!
Backtrack ...*

(int₅)
↑

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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

E
|
T

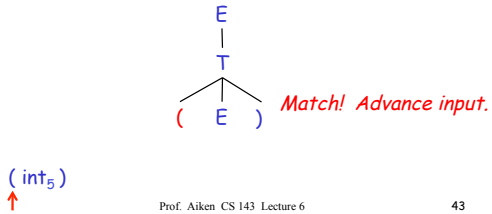
(int₅)
↑

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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

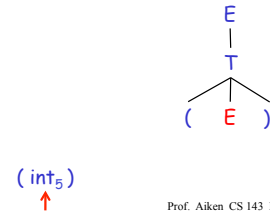


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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

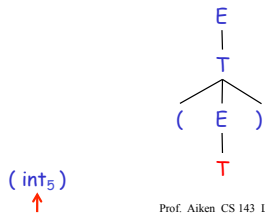


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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

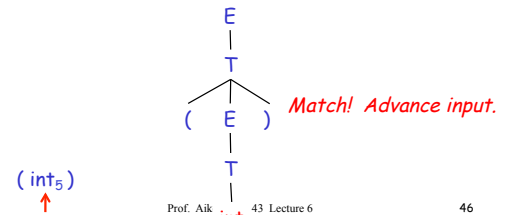


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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

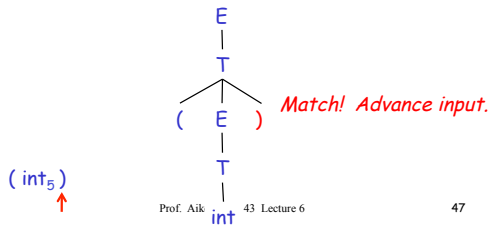


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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

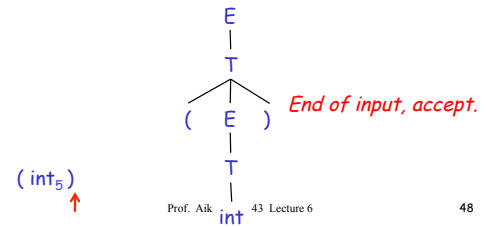


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Recursive Descent Parsing

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$



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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 Sn() { ... }`
 - Try all productions of S:
`bool S() { ... }`

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A (Limited) Recursive Descent Parser (3)

- For production $E \rightarrow T$
`bool E1() { return T(); }`
- For production $E \rightarrow T + E$
`bool E2() { return T() && term(PLUS) && E(); }`
- For all productions of E (with backtracking)
`bool E() {
 TOKEN *save = next;
 return (next = save, E1())
 || (next = save, E2()); }`

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A (Limited) Recursive Descent Parser (4)

- Functions for non-terminal T
`bool T1() { return term(INT); }`
`bool T2() { return term(INT) && term(TIMES) && T(); }`
`bool T3() { return term(OPEN) && E() && term(CLOSE); }`

`bool T() {
 TOKEN *save = next;
 return (next = save, T1())
 || (next = save, T2())
 || (next = save, T3()); }`

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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

$E \rightarrow T \mid T + E$ (int)
 $T \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{int} * T \mid (E)$

```
bool term(TOKEN tok) { return *next++ == tok; }

bool E1() { return T(); }
bool E2() { return T() && term(PLUS) && E(); }

bool E() { TOKEN *save = next; return (next = save, E1())
    || (next = save, E2()); }

bool T1() { return term(INT); }
bool T2() { return term(INT) && term(TIMES) && T(); }
bool T3() { return term(OPEN) && E() && term(CLOSE); }

bool T() { TOKEN *save = next; return (next = save, T1())
    || (next = save, T2())
    || (next = save, T3()); }
```

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When Recursive Descent Does Not Work

- Consider a production $S \rightarrow S a$

```
bool S1() { return S() && term(a); }  
bool S() { return S1(); }
```
- $S()$ goes into an infinite loop
- A left-recursive grammar 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
 $S \rightarrow S \alpha \mid \beta$
- 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
 $S \rightarrow S \alpha_1 \mid \dots \mid S \alpha_n \mid \beta_1 \mid \dots \mid \beta_m$
- All strings derived from S start with one of β_1, \dots, β_m and continue with several instances of $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$
- Rewrite as
 $S \rightarrow \beta_1 S' \mid \dots \mid \beta_m S'$
 $S' \rightarrow \alpha_1 S' \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n S' \mid \epsilon$

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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

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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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