

# Semantic Analysis

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# Lecture 3: Semantic Analysis

## 1. Overview & Purpose

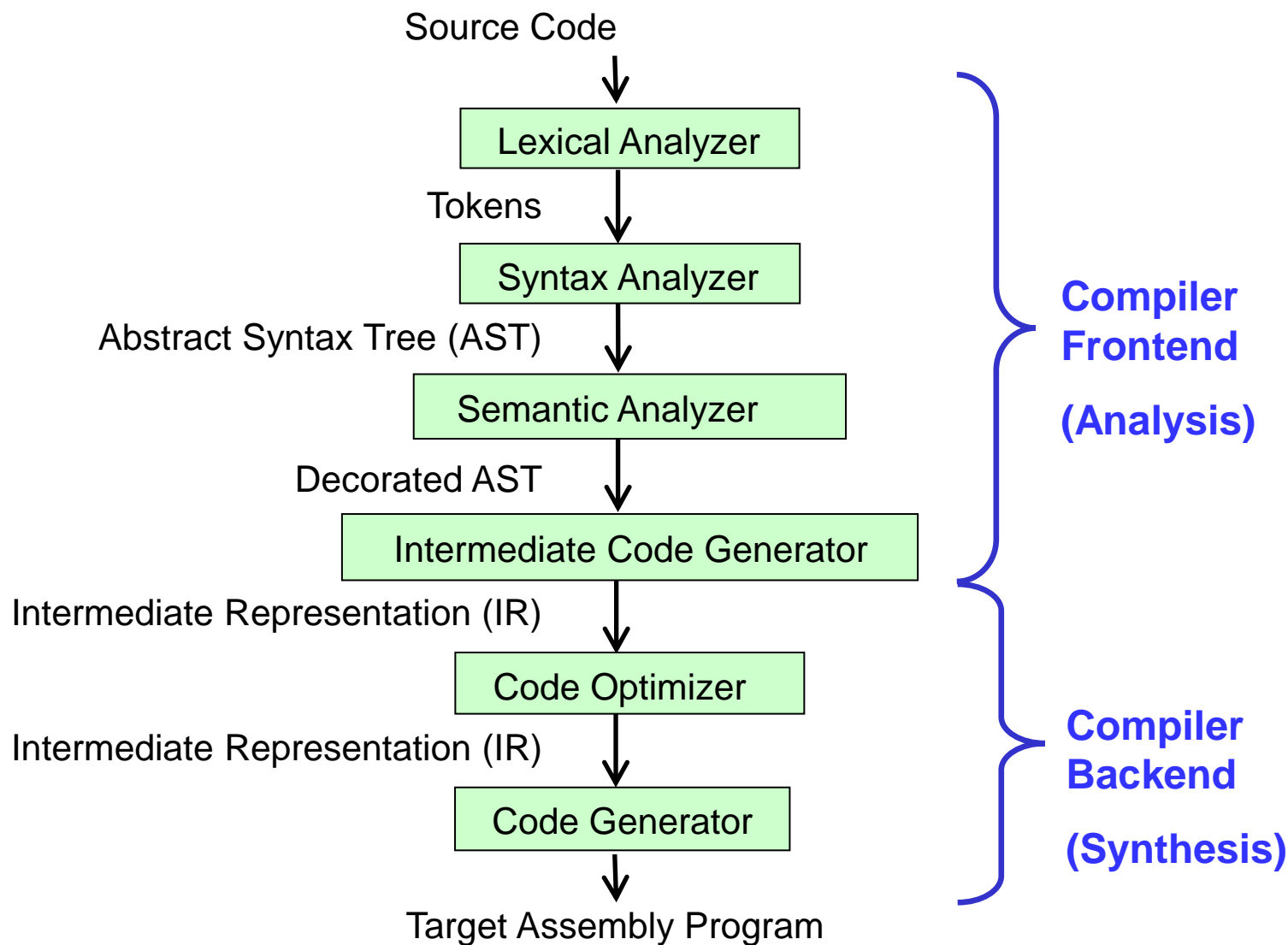
- a) Static semantics
- b) Dynamic semantics

## 2. Static semantics

- a) Two types of semantic constraints:
  - Scope rules
  - Type rules
- b) Two subphases in static semantic analysis
  - Identification (to enforce scope rules)
  - Type checking (to enforce type rules)
- c) Standard environments
- d) Assignment 2-(2)

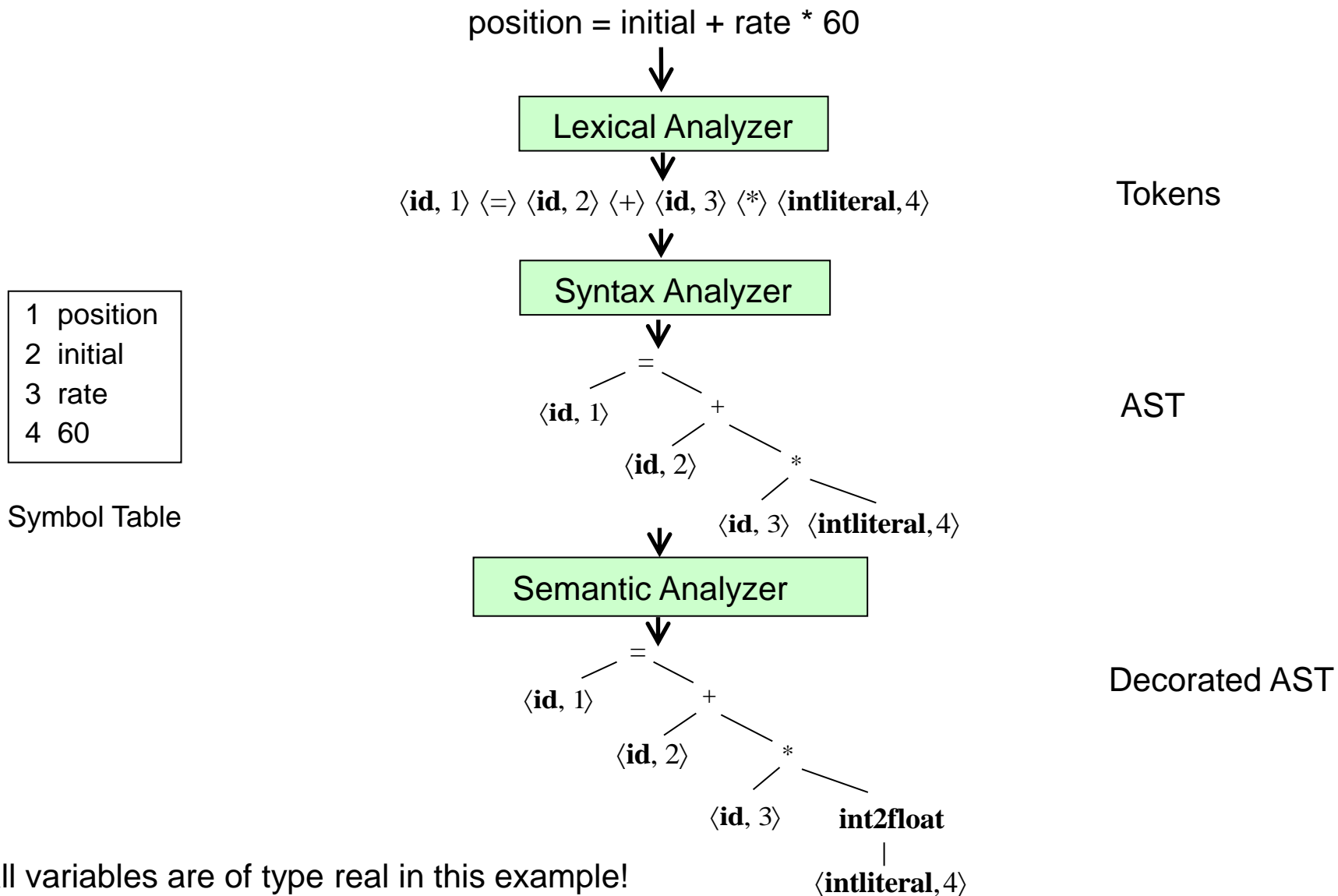
## 3. Attribute Grammars

# Recapitulate: the structure of a compiler...



...each phase transforms the program from one representation to the next...

# Recapitulate: the structure of a compiler...



# Syntax versus Semantics

- Syntax determines the **structure** or form of a valid program.

```
expr ::= ID | INT | "-" expr | "(" expr ")" | expr op expr  
op   ::= "+" | "-" | "*" | "/"
```

- 101 + 1 is a syntactically correct sentential form.
- But what is its meaning?
  - In binary:  $101 + 1 = 110$
  - In decimal:  $101 + 1 = 102$
  - As strings:  $"101" + "1" = "1011"$
- What is the meaning of the + operator?
  - Addition?
  - String concatenation?
  - ?
- Semantics of a programming language determines the **meaning** of sentences.

# Semantic Analysis

The compilation process is driven by the **syntactic structure** of the program as discovered by the parser.


Semantic routines:

- Interpret the meaning of the program based on its syntactic structure.
- Two purposes:
  - finish analysis by deriving **context-sensitive** information
  - begin synthesis by generating IR or target code.
- Semantic analysis is associated with the individual productions of a context-free grammar or subtrees of a syntax tree.
  - Called **syntax-directed translation**.

# Context-Sensitive Information

- Is **x** a variable, method, array, class or package?  
Example: **a** (17) in Ada
- Is **x** declared before it is used?
- To which declaration of **x** does a reference refer to (**identification**)?  
Example: 

```
int a;  
{  
    int a;  
    a = 5;}
```


- Is an expression type-consistent ?  
Example: **2 + "mystring"**
- Does the dimension of an array **access** match with the declaration?  
Example: **int a[255]; a[1][2][3] = 0;**
- Is an array reference within the bounds of the array?  
Example: **int a[255]; a[x] = 0;**

# Context-Sensitive Information (cont.)

- Is a method called with the right number and types of arguments?

Example: `int foo(int a, char b);`  
`foo(1.0, 'c', 2);`

- Is a break or continue statement enclosed in a loop construct?

All those context-sensitive requirements cannot be specified using CFGs!

Some are so difficult to check that the compiler cannot manage at **compile-time**.

→ need run-time checks

→ we distinguish between **static** and **dynamic** semantics

- static semantics are checked at **compile-time**
- dynamic semantics are checked at **run-time**



# Static Semantics

- Static semantic rules are enforced by the compiler at compile-time. They are part of the semantic analysis phase of the compiler.
- Examples:
  - Type checking
    - in **statically typed languages** (C, C++, Java, Ada, C#, ...)
  - Check of subroutine call arguments
  - Use of identifiers in appropriate contexts

# Dynamic Semantics

- Certain semantic rules too complex to be caught at compile-time . For these rules, the **compiler inserts code that performs the se checks at run-time**.
- Examples:
  - Array subscript values are within bounds
  - Arithmetic errors (division by zero, overflow/underflow, ...)
  - Dereferencing of pointers to invalid objects.
  - Use of a variable that has not been initialized.
- Some languages (Euclid, Eiffel, C) allow programmers to insert explicit semantic checks in the form of assertions, e.g.,  

```
assert (buffer_space_left > 0);
```
- If a check fails at run-time, a run-time error (exception) is raised.

# Dynamic Semantics (cont.)

- **Dynamically typed programming languages** conduct type-checking at **run-time**.

- Example: Python

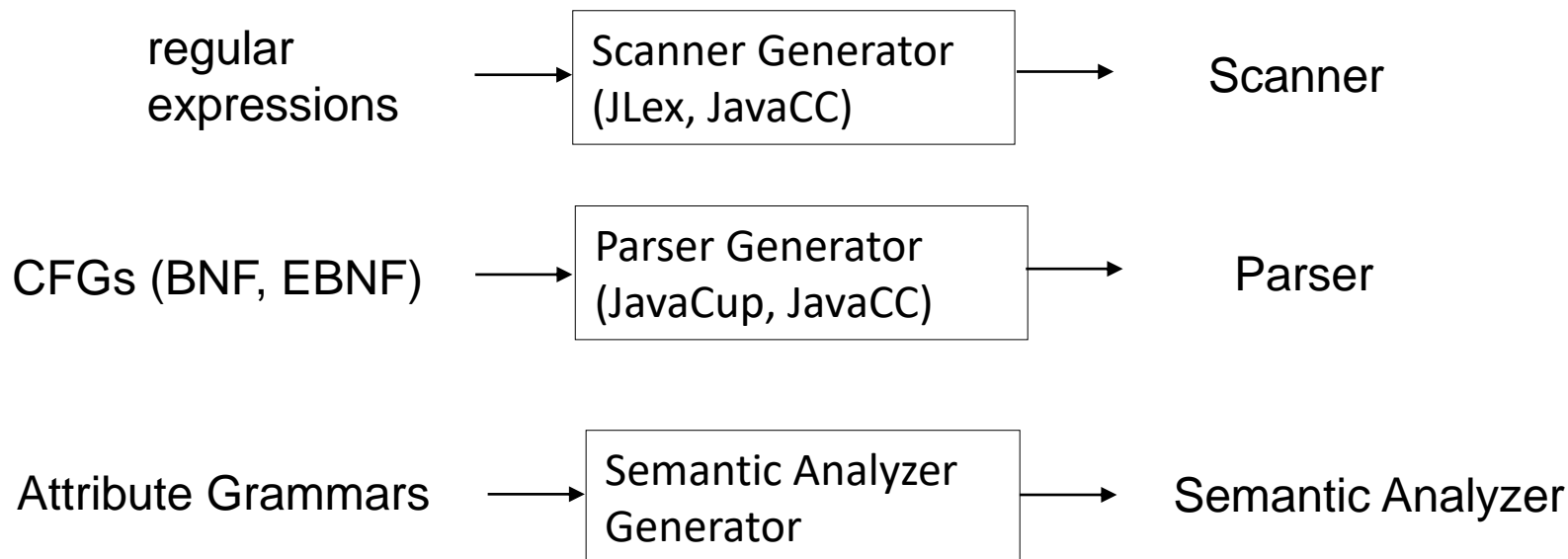
```
a = 5
b = 4.3
print(a + b)
```

- If an operation shall be applied to a value of an inappropriate type, an error (exception) will be raised.
  - The notion of "inappropriate" is checked at run-time.

# Context-Sensitive Analysis (for static semantics)

- **Ad-hoc** techniques
  - Symbol tables and code
  - ``Action routines" in parser generators (e.g., JavaCC)
- **Formal** methods
  - Attribute grammars
  - Type systems
- **Our approach for MiniC:**
  - Static semantics specified
    - in English (see the MiniC language spec and the Assignment 2-(2) spec), and
    - partly by an attribute grammar.
  - We'll build a semantic analyzer by hand.

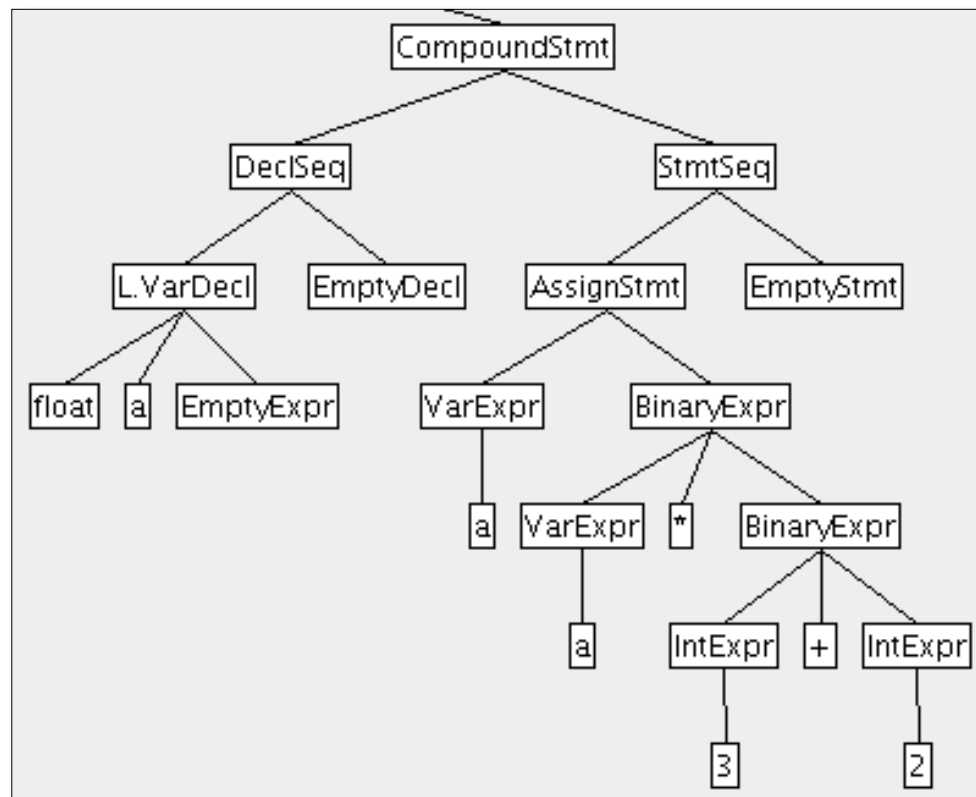
# Automatic Construction of the Front-End



There exist no widely accepted semantic analyzer generators.

# Example Information Flow in the AST

```
{  
    float a;  
    a = a * (3 + 2);  
}
```

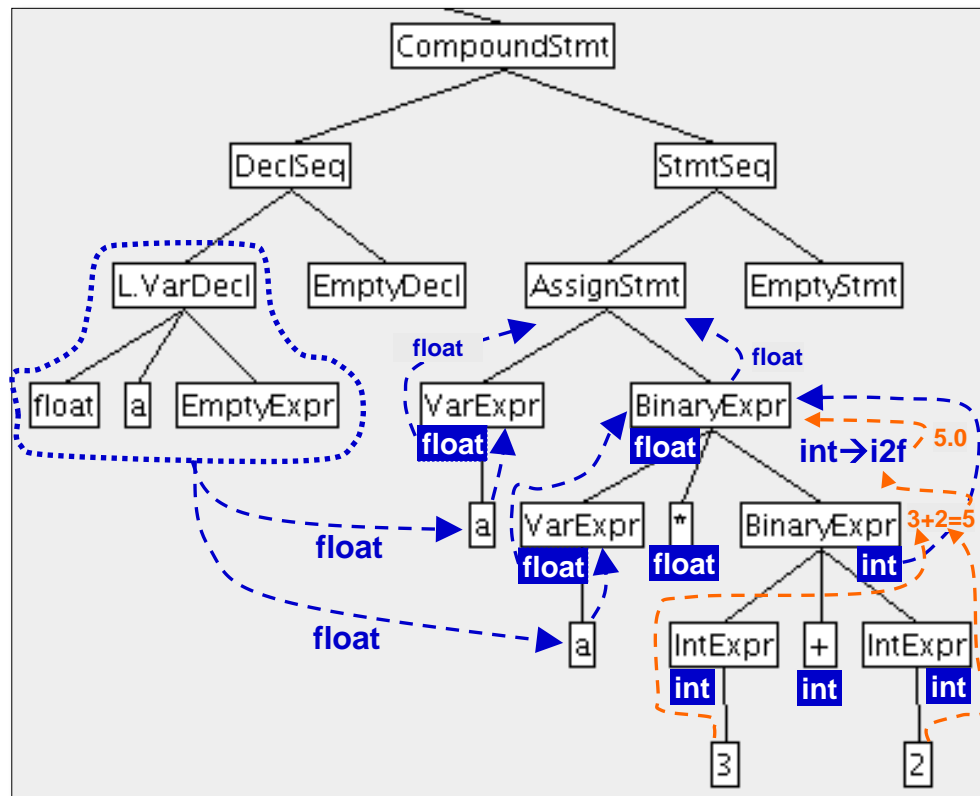


So far our AST contains only the **structure**, but **no meaning** of the input program.

- We will attach the ``meaning'' to AST nodes...
- See next slide.

# Example Information Flow in the AST (cont.)

```
{
  float a;
  a = a * (3 + 2);
}
```



So far our AST contains only the **structure**, but **no meaning** of the input program.

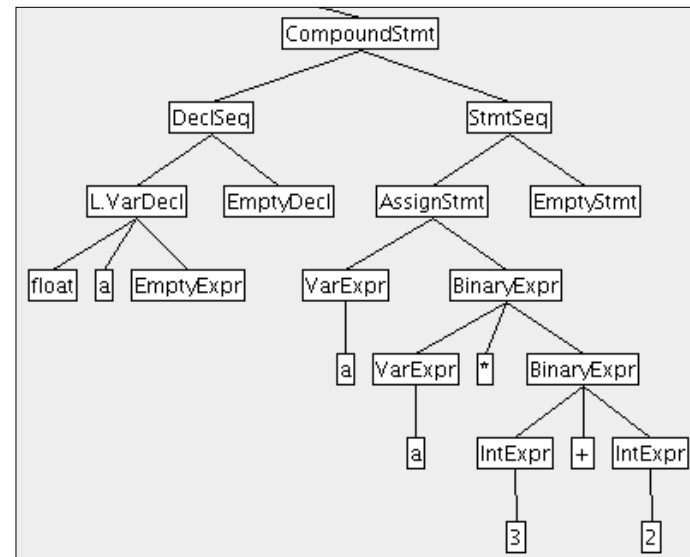
- We will **attach meaning** to nodes of the AST.  
→ ``decorating a syntax tree".
- We **propagate** this information to other places in the AST, to compute more ``meaning"  
→ ``tree traversals"

**Attribute grammars extend CFGs to allow decoration and traversal.**

# AST Traversals

Semantic analysis and code generation typically involve a **depth-first left-to-right traversal** of the AST:

```
void traverse (AST n){  
    visit (n); //pre-order  
    for each child m of n:  
        traverse (m);  
    visit (n); //post-order  
}
```



A node can be visited or processed

- **before** its children (pre-order traversal)
- **after** its children (post-order traversal)
- **in between** the visits to its children (in-order traversal)

Such traversals are used in all MiniC **tree** packages.

We will use them for semantic analysis and code generation.



# Lecture 3: Semantic Analysis

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  - a) Static semantics ✓
  - b) Dynamic semantics ✓
2. Static semantics
  - a) Two types of semantic constraints:
    - Scope rules
    - Type rules
  - b) Two subphases in static semantic analysis
    - Identification (to enforce scope rules)
    - Type checking (to enforce type rules)
  - c) Standard environments
  - d) Assignment 2-(2)
3. Attribute Grammars

# Blocks

- **Block**: a language construct that can contain declarations:
  - the compilation units (i.e., the files containing source code)
  - procedures, functions (or methods)
  - compound statements
- **Blocks in MiniC:**
  - The **entire file** is a block (i.e., the outermost block)
  - **Functions**
  - **Compound statements** { ... }
- Block structured languages
  - permit nesting of blocks (blocks within blocks)
  - Examples: Ada, Pascal, Modula-2
  - C: compound statements { ... }, but no nesting of functions within functions.

```
//MiniC:
int i;

int foo( int y )
{
    int j;
    {
        int i;
        i = 1;
    }
}

float l;
```

# Scope

- The **scope** of a declaration is the part of the program where the declaration is visible.
  - MiniC Example 1: `int i` is visible in the whole program.
  - MiniC Example 2: `int k` is only visible in the innermost block {...}.
- A declaration is **in scope** at a program point, if the scope of the declaration includes that program point.
- **Defining occurrence**: declaration of a variable or function.
  - MiniC Example: `int k;`
- **Applied occurrence**: reference to a declaration.
  - MiniC Example: "`k`" in `k = 1*i;`

```
//MiniC:
int i;

int main() {
    int j;

    {
        int k;
        k = 1*i;
    }
}

float l;
```

# Scope

The **scope rules** of a language tell us how

- to find the defining occurrence for an applied occurrence in the program.

That is: ``Given this reference, which is the corresponding declaration?"

```
//MiniC:  
int i;  
  
int main() {  
    int i,j;  
  
    {  
        int k;  
        j = 1;  
    }  
}  
  
float l;
```

# Scope Rules in MiniC

1. Scope of a **function declaration**: from the point of declaration to the end of the file.
  - Example: scope of function `foo` is the yellow area.
2. The scope of a **variable in a block**: from the point where it is declared to the end of the block.
  - Example: the scope of `k` is the area inside the dashed red rectangle.
3. The scope of a **formal parameter**: same as a local variable in the function body (from the point of declaration to the end of the function body).
  - Example: the scope of `a` is the area inside the dashed blue rectangle.
4. The scope of a **built-in function**: the entire program.
  - Example: `putInt()` in MiniC.

```
putInt();
```

```
int a;
```

```
void foo(int a) {
```

```
{
```

```
    int k;
```

```
}
```

```
}
```

```
int main() {
```

```
    foo();
```

```
}
```

# Scope Rules in MiniC (cont.)

5. No identifier can be declared more than once in a single block.

- Example: the second declaration of **int f**; in the global block is illegal.

6. **Most closely nested rule**: for every applied occurrence of a variable, there must be a corresponding declaration.

- Declarations are searched from the **innermost** enclosing block to the **outermost** enclosing block.
- The first declaration found (i.e., the one in the most "innermost" block) is taken.
- Example: to find the declaration for the applied occurrence of **g** in **g = 1**, we search the following blocks:
  1. The innermost enclosing braces { ... }  
→ no declaration of **g** found.
  2. The block of function foo  
→ no declaration of **g** found
  3. The global block (file-level).  
→ found! (so **int g** in line 3 is the corresponding declaration.

```
putInt() ;
```

```
int f;  
int f;  
int g;
```

```
void foo(int a) {  
  
    {  
        int k;  
        g = 1;  
    }  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    foo();  
}
```

# Scope Rules in MiniC (cont.)

7. Due to Rule 6, the scope of a declaration defined by Rule 1 .. 4 **excludes** the scope of a declaration in an inner block that uses the same name.

- Such a gap is known as a **scope hole**.
- The inner declaration **hides** the outer declaration.
- The outer declaration is **not visible** in the scope of the inner declaration.
- Example: the second declaration of **int g**; hides the declaration of **g** in the global block.

```
putInt();
```

```
int f;
```

```
int g;
```

```
void foo(int a) {
```

```
  g = 1;
```

```
  {
```

```
    int g;
```

```
    g = 2;
```

```
  }
```

```
}
```

```
int main() {
```

```
  foo();
```

```
  putInt(g); // 1;
```

```
}
```

# Implication of Scope Rule 1 in MiniC

- A *syntactically* legal MiniC program:

```
int f() {  
    g(); // not in scope  
}  
  
int g() {  
    f();  
}
```

Semantically, this  
MinC program is  
illegal.

- Disallowing the above program allows identification and type checking in one pass.
- ANSI C and C++ solve this scoping problem using function prototypes.



# Example: Scope Rules

```
putInt();
```

```
int x;  
  
void foo() {  
    int i;  
    int j;  
    i = 2;  
    j = 3;  
    putInt(i); // 2  
    putInt(j); // 3  
    {  
        int i;  
        i = 4;  
        putInt(i); // 4  
        putInt(j); // 3  
    }  
    putInt(i); // 2  
    putInt(j); // 3  
}
```

x

i  
(outermost)

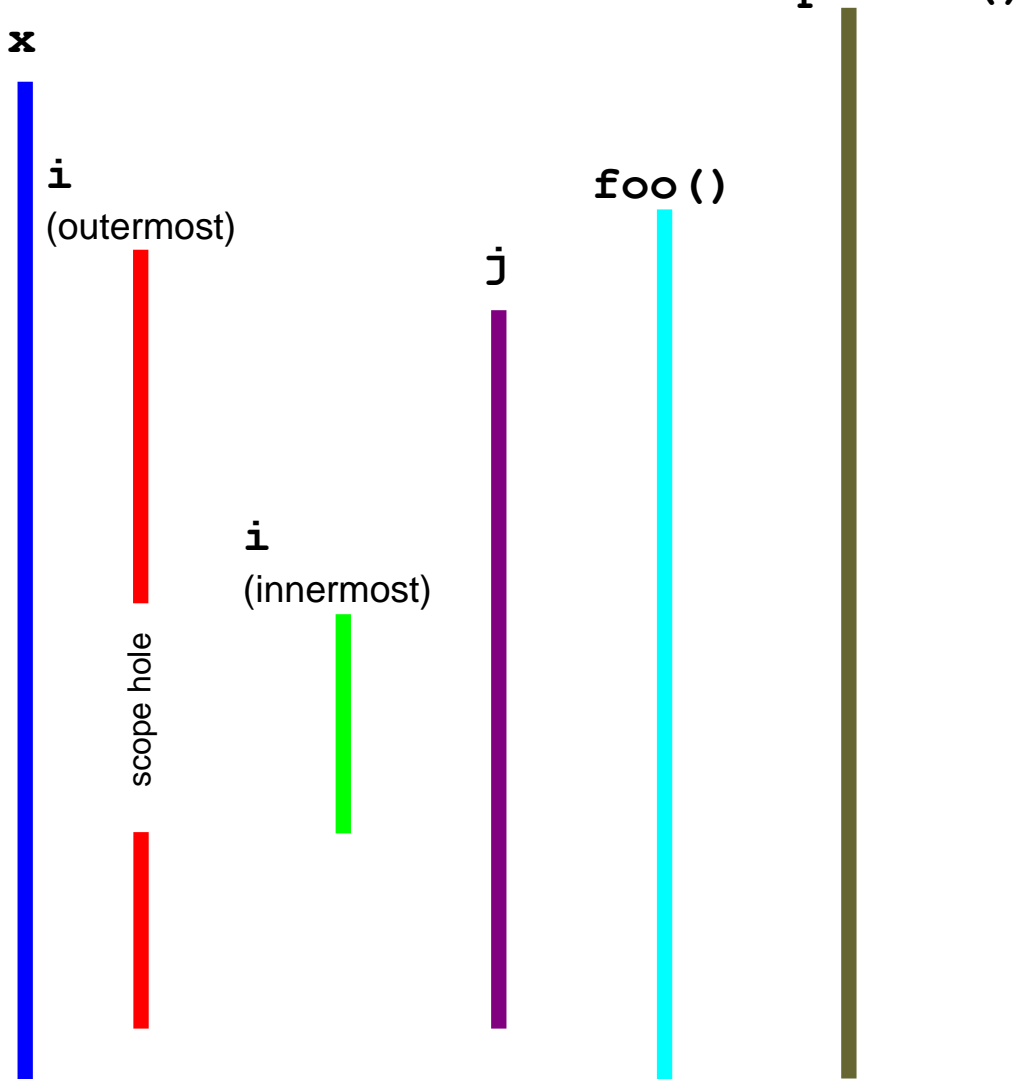
scope hole

i  
(innermost)

j

foo()

builtin putInt()



# Scope Levels in Block-Structured Languages

**Scope levels** correspond to the **scope nesting-depth** of a declaration.

- Scope levels in general:
  1. The declarations in the outermost block are on level 1.
  2. Increment the level every time when we move from an enclosing to an enclosed block.
  3. The built-in functions and constants of a language are on level 0 or 1.
- Scope levels in MiniC:
  - All function- and global variable declarations are on level 1.
  - Rule 2 as above.
  - All built-in functions are on level 1.

Consequence: built-in functions cannot be re-declared as user-functions or global variables (MiniC Scope Rule 5).

# Example: Scope Levels

level 1:

```
putInt();
```

```
int x;
```

```
void foo() { // level 2:
```

```
    int i;
```

```
    int j;
```

```
    i = 2;
```

```
    j = 3;
```

```
    putInt(i);
```

```
    putInt(j);
```

```
    { // level 3:
```

```
        int i;
```

```
        i = 4;
```

```
        putInt(i);
```

```
        putInt(j);
```

```
    }
```

```
    putInt(i);
```

```
    putInt(j);
```

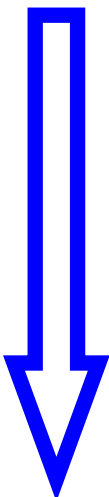
```
}
```

lookup i

## Scope Stack

Identifier	Scope Level
putInt()	1
x	1
foo	1
i	2
j	2
i	3

bottom



top

Scope stack lookups are from top to bottom...

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- a) Two types of semantic constraints:

- Scope rules ✓
- Type rules

- b) Two subphases in static semantic analysis

- Identification (to enforce scope rules)
- Type checking (to enforce type rules)

- c) Standard environments

- d) Assignment 2-(2)

3. Attribute Grammars



coming next

# Identification

- **Identification:**
  - Find the declaration for each applied occurrence.
  - Applied occurrences are **identifiers** in MiniC!
  - Report an error if no declaration exists.
- The **attributes** of an identifier:
  - for a variable: the type of the variable
  - for a function: the functions return type and the types of the formal parameters ("signature" of the function).
- In our MiniC compiler: for each identifier we store a pointer to its declaration (Assignment 2-(2) & see next slide).

# The Inherited Attribute **declAST** from MiniC.AstGen.ID.java for Decorating ASTs during Identification

```
package MiniC.AstGen;

import MiniC.Scanner.SourcePos;

public class ID extends Terminal {

    public AST declAST;

    public ID (String Lexeme, SourcePos pos) {
        super (pos);
        this.Lexeme = Lexeme;
        declAST = null;
    }

    public void accept(Visitor v) {
        v.visit(this);
    }

}
```

Here the word ``inherited'' is not an OOP-term, but a term belonging to attribute grammars (coming soon..).

# Two Tasks with Identification

## 1. Processing declarations:

- Call `ScopeStack.openScope()` at the start of a block
- Call `ScopeStack.closeScope()` at the end of block
- Call `ScopeStack.enter()` to push the ID of a declaration together with a pointer to its declaration on the scope stack.

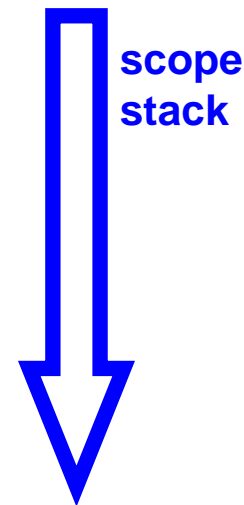
## 2. Processing applied occurrences—decorating ID AST nodes

- Call `ScopeStack.retrieve(ID)` to fetch a pointer to the innermost declaration for ID from the scope stack.
- This pointer is stored in the `declAST` field of the AST node for ID.
- `declAST` is set to null if no matching declaration is found on the scope stack.  
→ used to report errors.

# The MiniC Standard Environment

- Most languages contain a set of predefined types, functions, variables and constants.
  - Java: `java.lang`
  - MiniC: 9 built-in functions and several primitive types (`int`, `void`,...).
- At the start of identification, the ScopeStack is pre-loaded with the 9 built-in functions of MiniC:

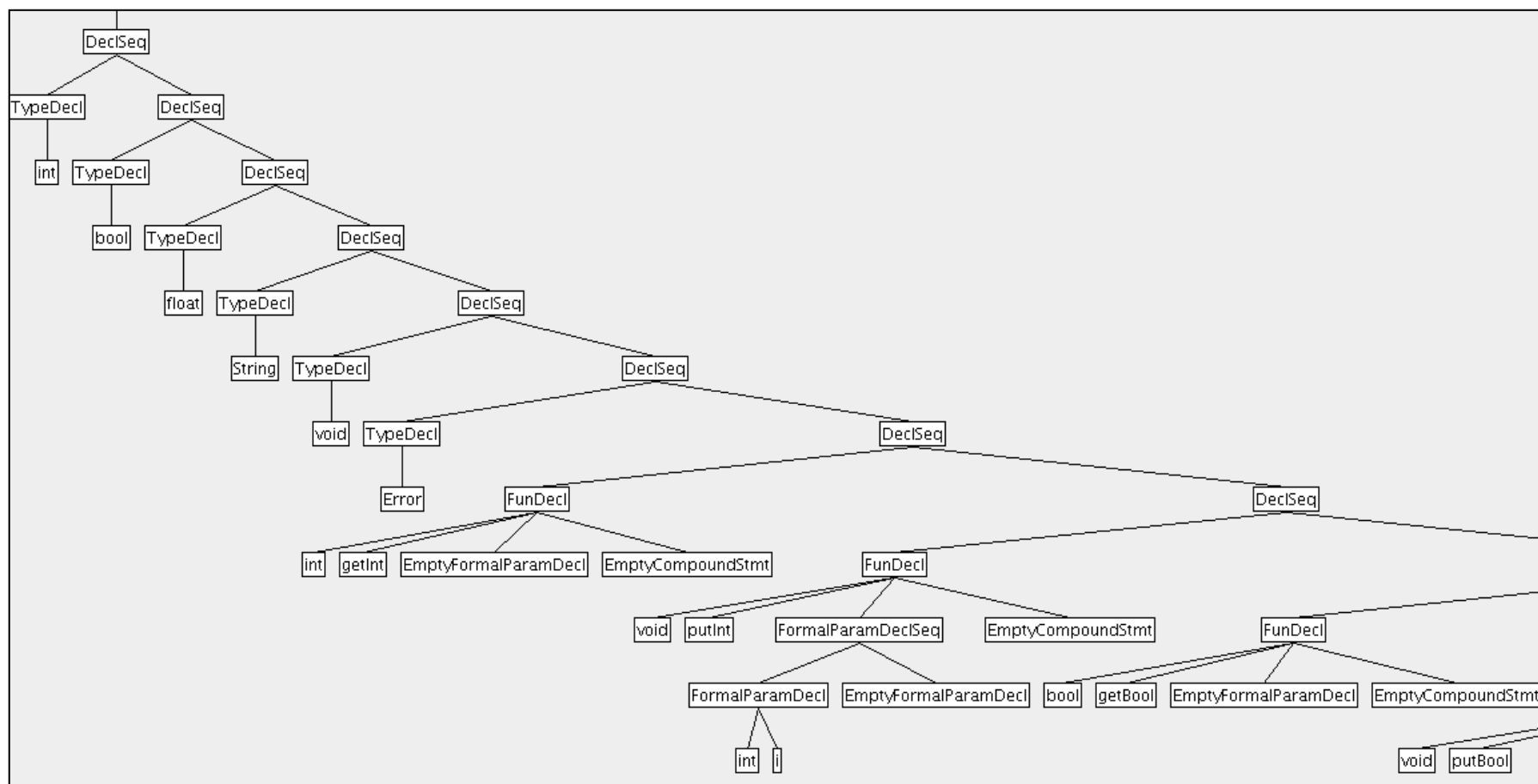
Identifier	Scope Level	Attribute
<code>putInt()</code>	1	ptr to the putInt AST
<code>getInt()</code>	1	ptr to getInt AST
<code>putFloat()</code>	1	ptr to putFloat AST
<code>getFloat()</code>	1	ptr to getFloat AST
<i>entries for the other 4 built-in functions</i>		
<code>putLn()</code>	1	ptr to putLn AST





# The MiniC Standard Environment (cont.)

- You can print the ASTs for the MiniC Standard Environment
  - option `-envast`

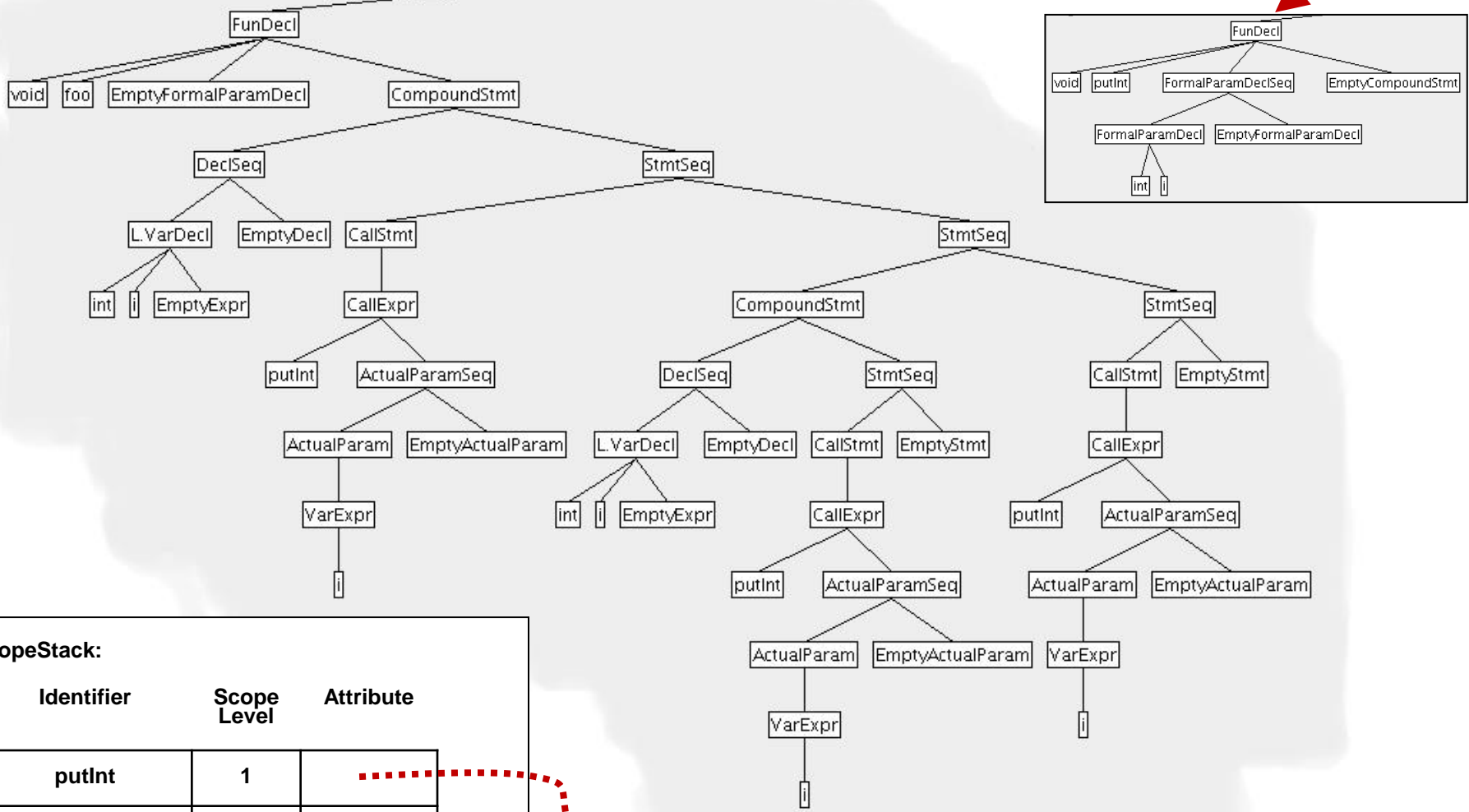


# Example

```
void foo() {  
    int i;  
    putInt(i);  
    {  
        int i;  
        putInt(i);  
    }  
    putInt(i);  
}
```

The next slides shows the AST for foo's compound statements, the traversal of the AST, the calls to the scope stack, the scope stack and the decorated AST...

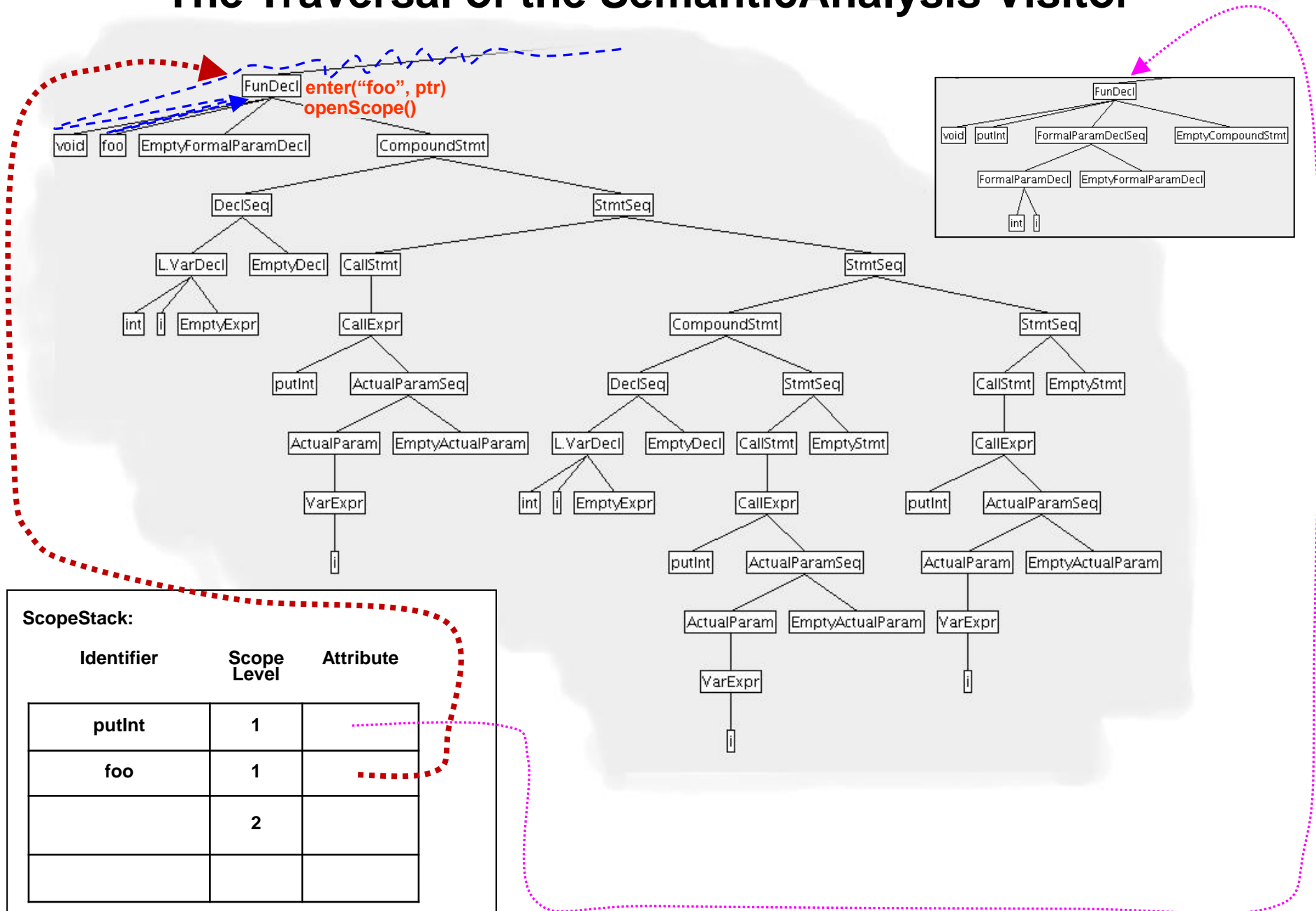
# The Traversal of the SemanticAnalysis Visitor



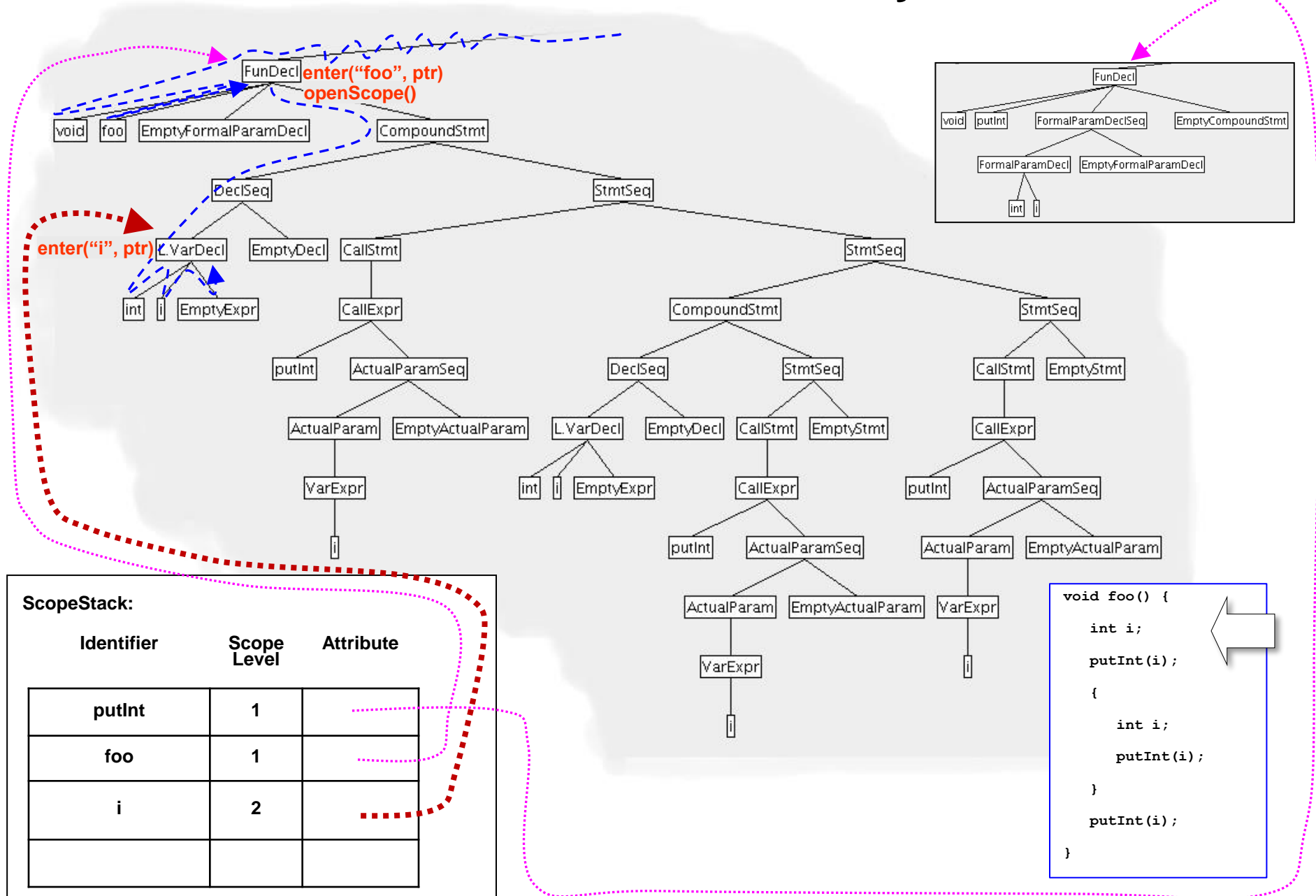
ScopeStack:

Identifier	Scope Level	Attribute
putInt	1	

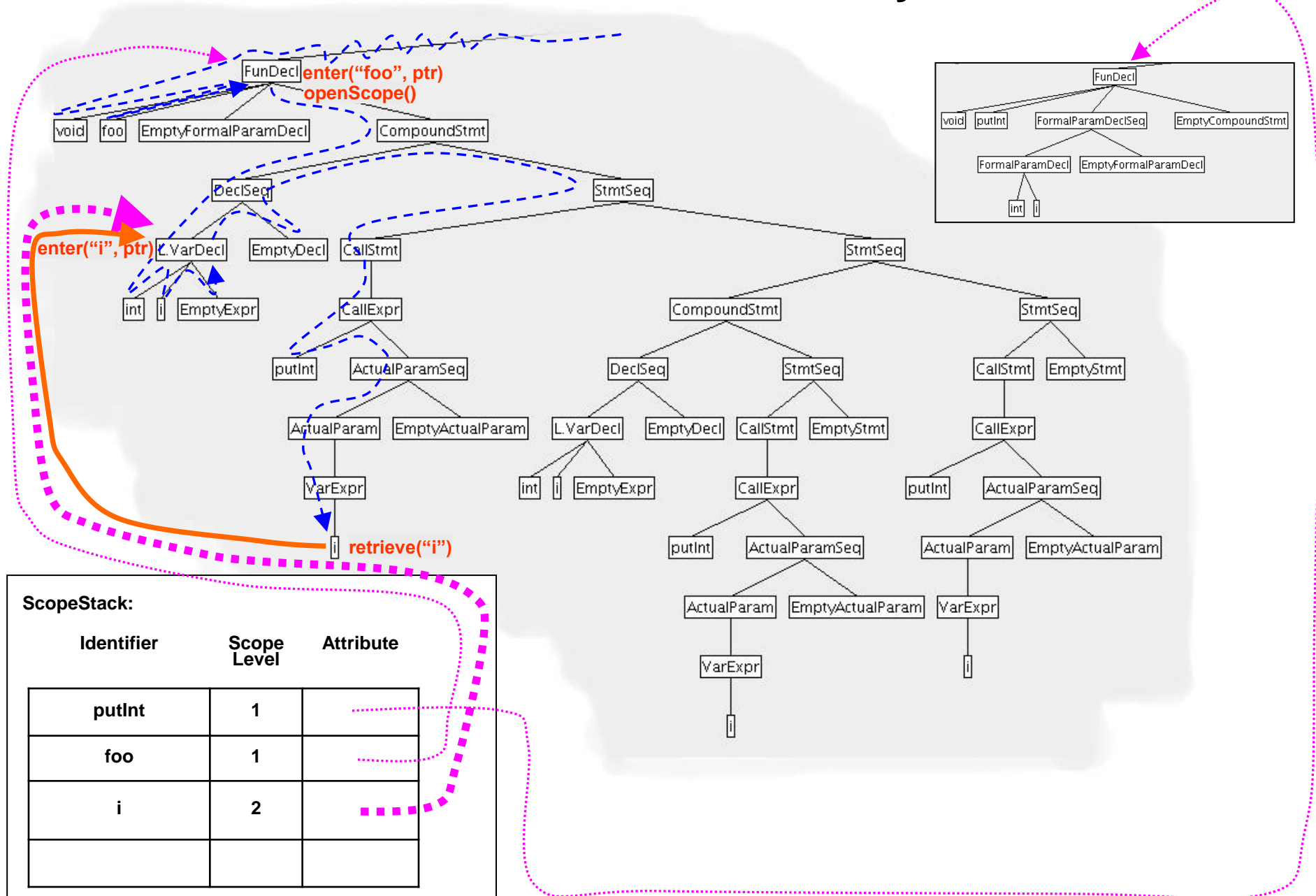
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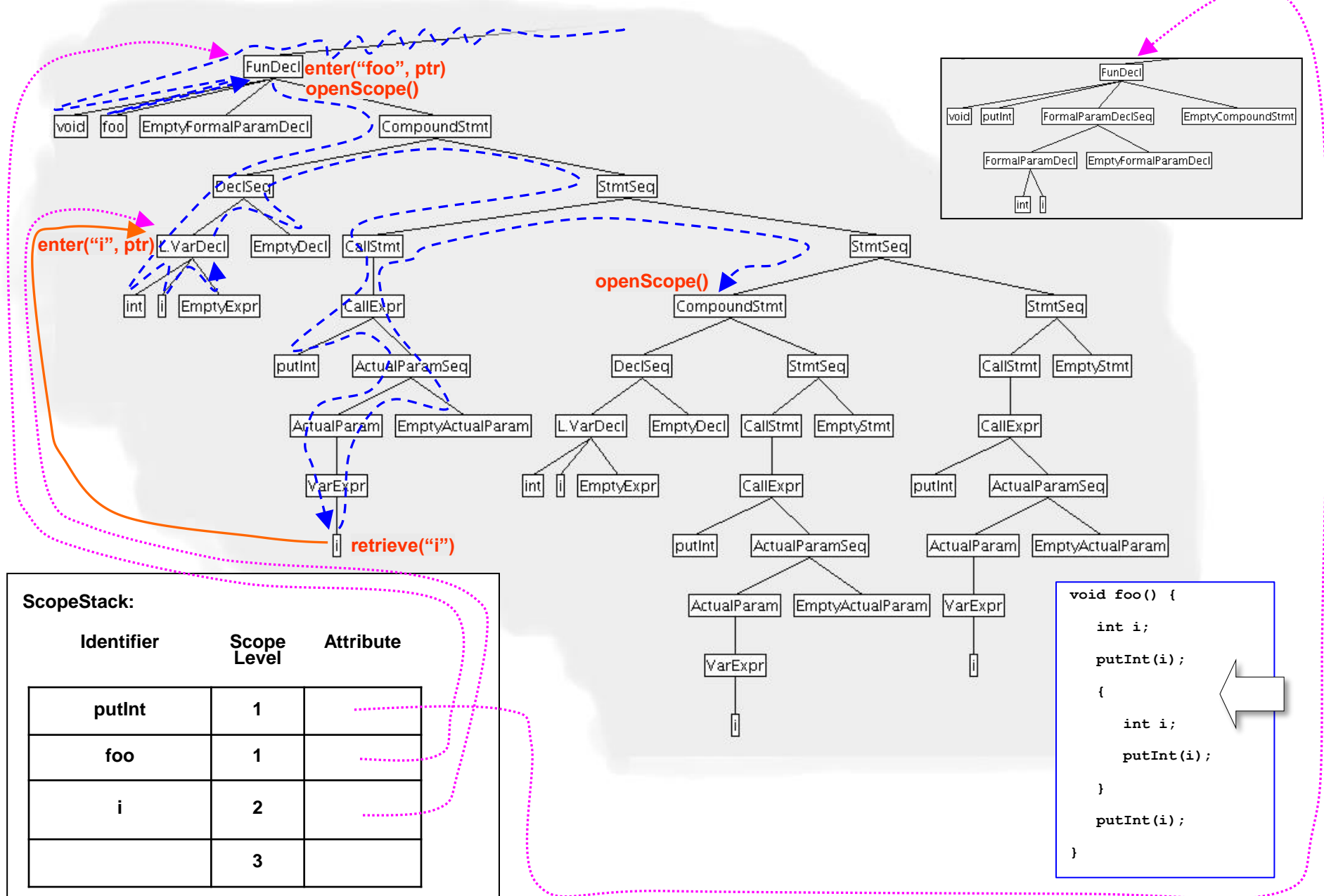
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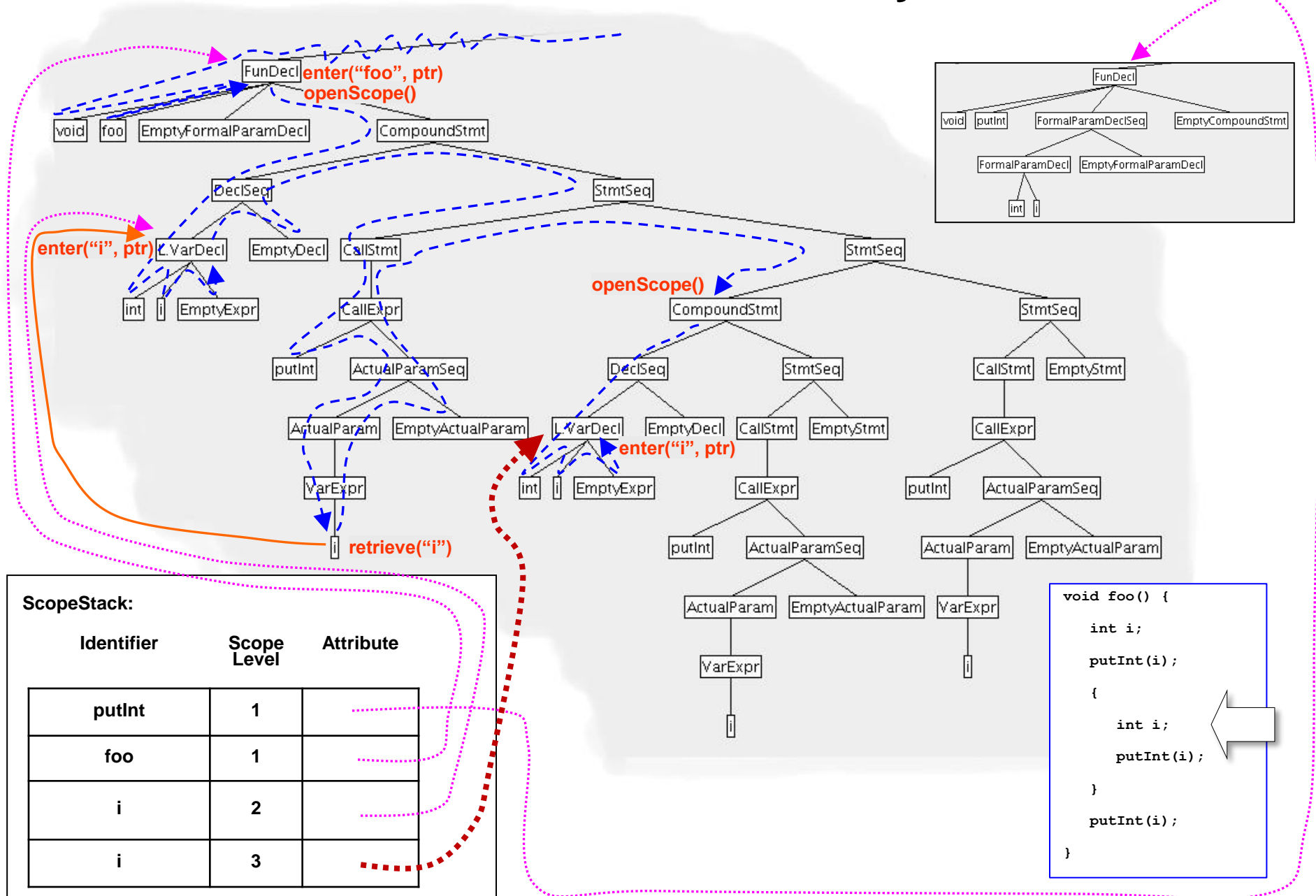
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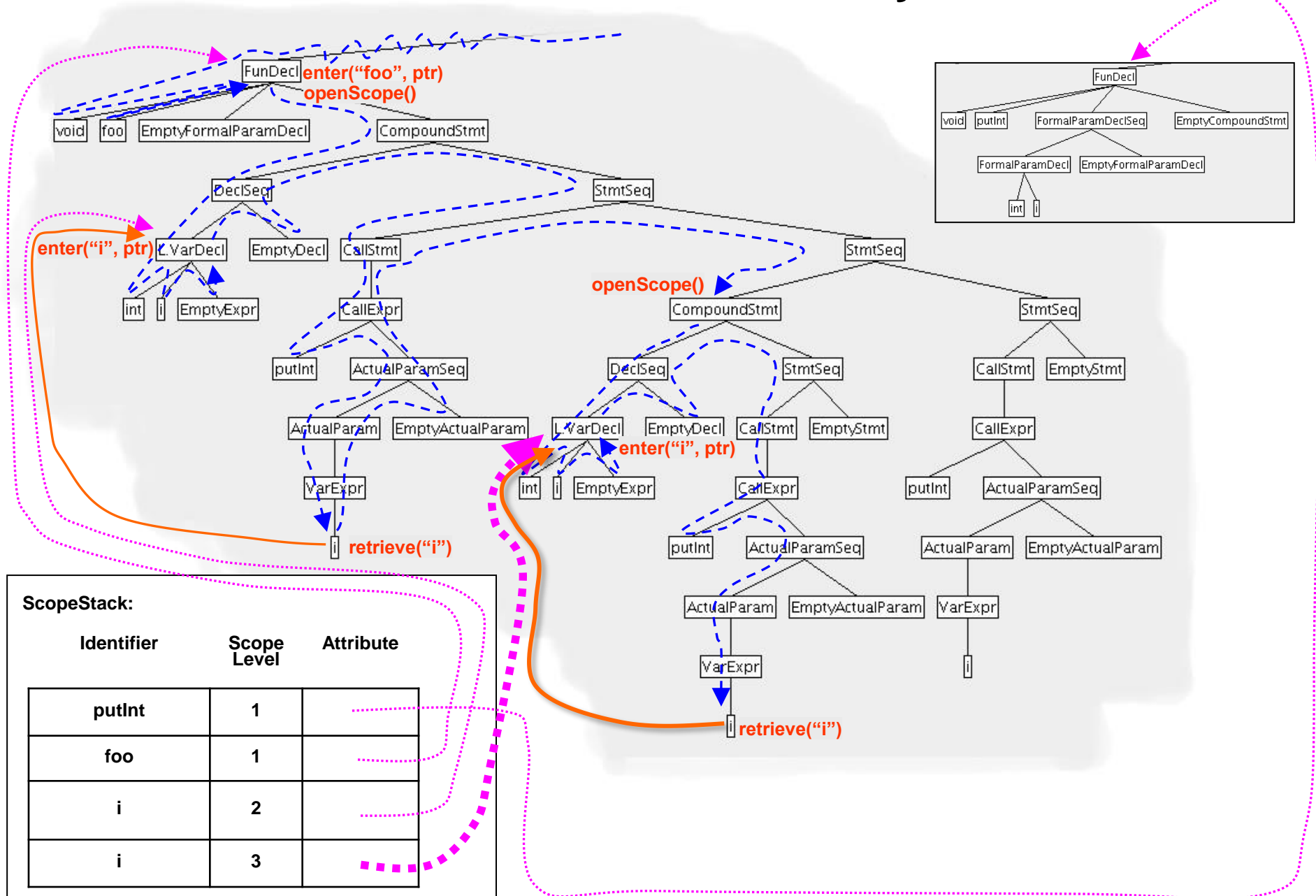


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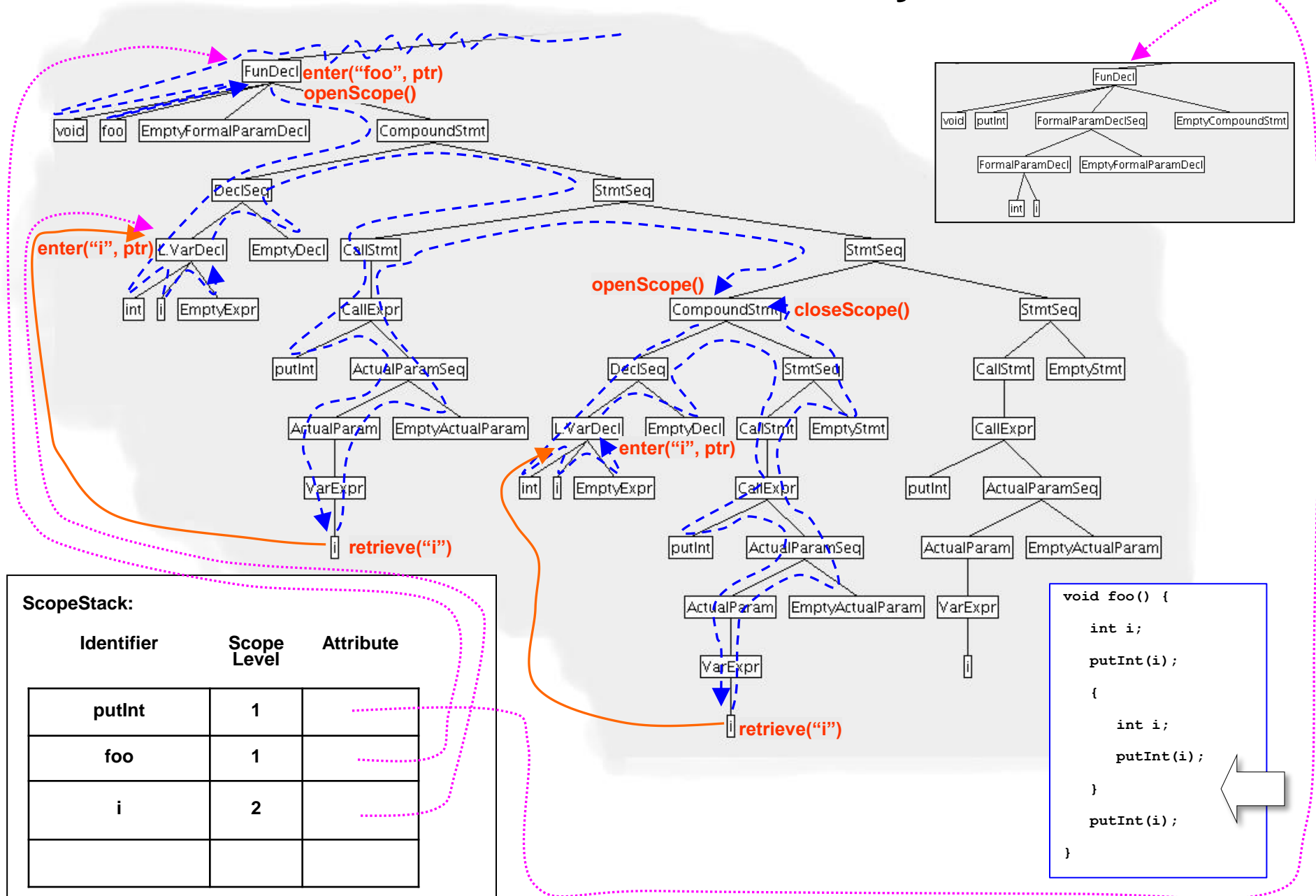




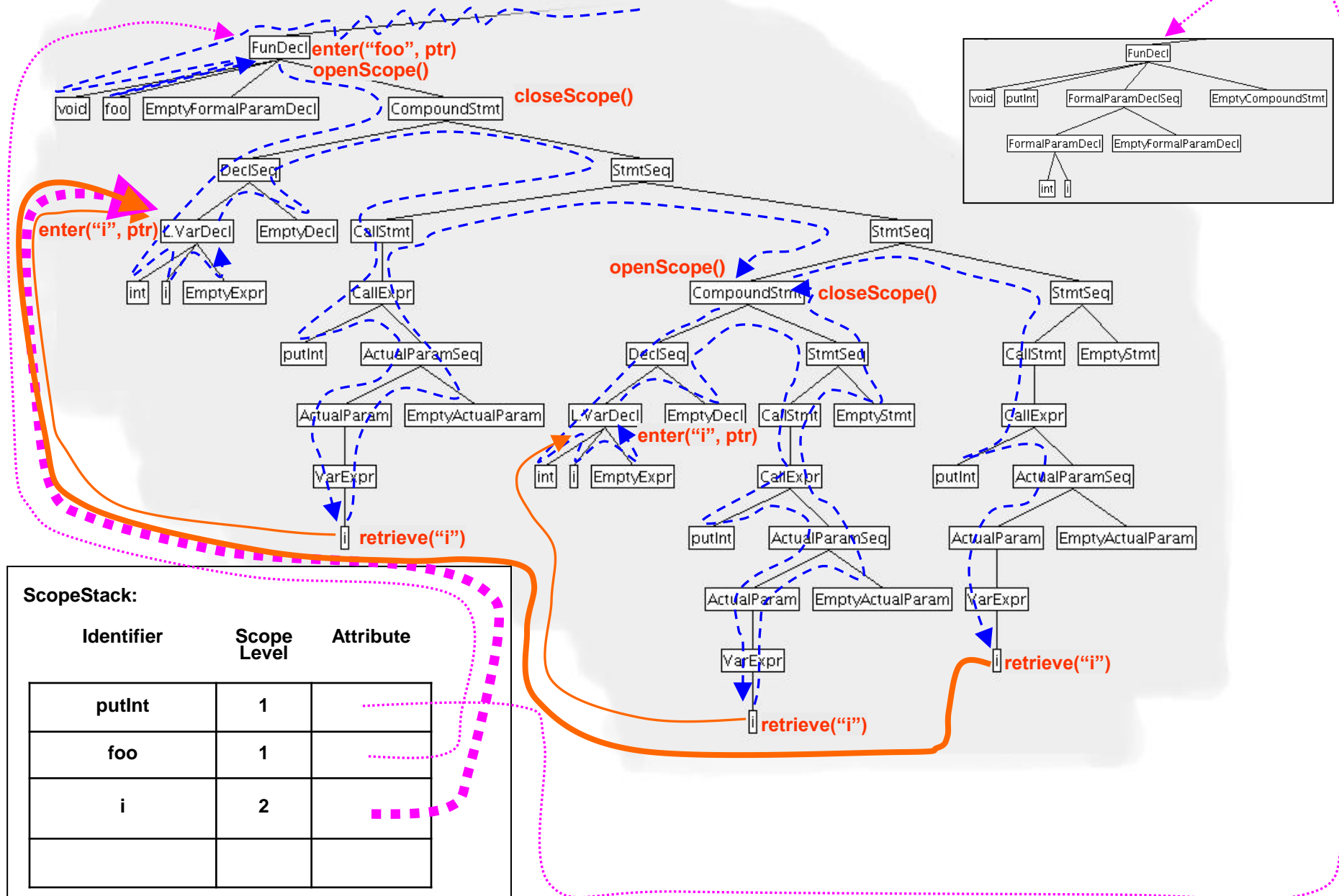
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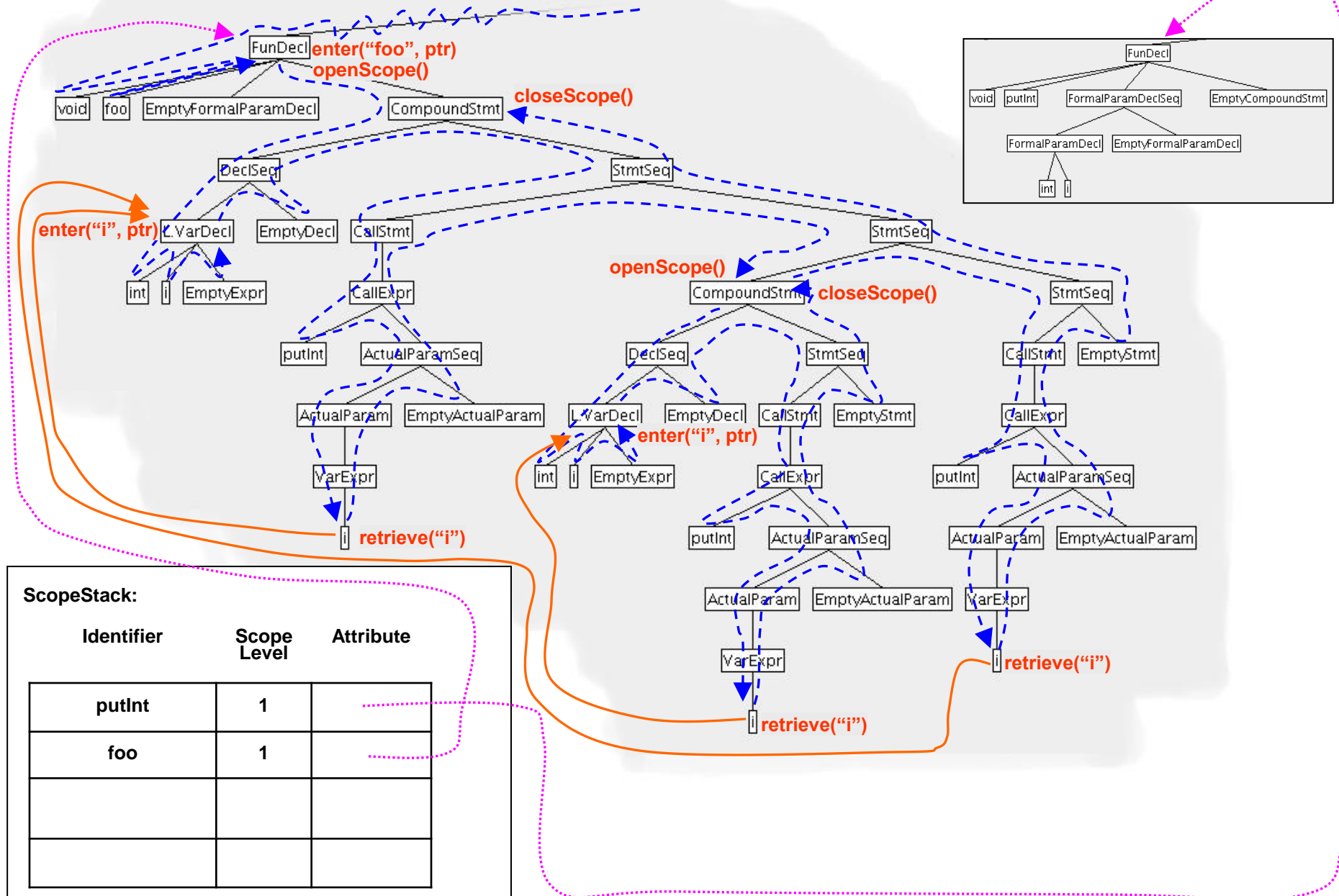
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## The Traversal of the SemanticAnalysis Visitor



## The Traversal of the SemanticAnalysis Visitor



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## 2. Static semantics

### a) Two types of semantic constraints:

- Scope rules ✓
- **Type rules**

### b) Two subphases in static semantic analysis

- Identification (to enforce scope rules) ✓
- **Type checking (to enforce type rules)**

### c) Standard environments ✓

### d) Assignment 2-(2)

## 3. Attribute Grammars



# Type Checking

**Data type:** a set of values plus a set of operations on those values.

Example: MiniC int: values range from  $-2^{31}$  to  $2^{31} - 1$

Operations  $+, -, *, / : int \times int \rightarrow int$   
 $+, - : int \rightarrow int$

Further operations on int, returning bool:

$<, <=, >, >=, !=, == : int \times int \rightarrow bool$

MiniC is **statically type-checked**:

- types of all entities are determined at compile-time.

**Type-rules:** the rules to determine the type of each language construct and decide whether the type is valid.

MiniC Example: `int a = 2; // right-hand side must be assignment-  
hand side! // compatible to left-`

**Type Checking:** applying the language's type-rules.

# The Synthesized Attribute **type** in Expr.java

The abstract class Expr.java:

```
package MiniC.AstGen;

import MiniC.Scanner.SourcePos;

public abstract class Expr extends AST {

    public Type type;

    public Expr (SourcePos pos) {
        super (pos);
    }

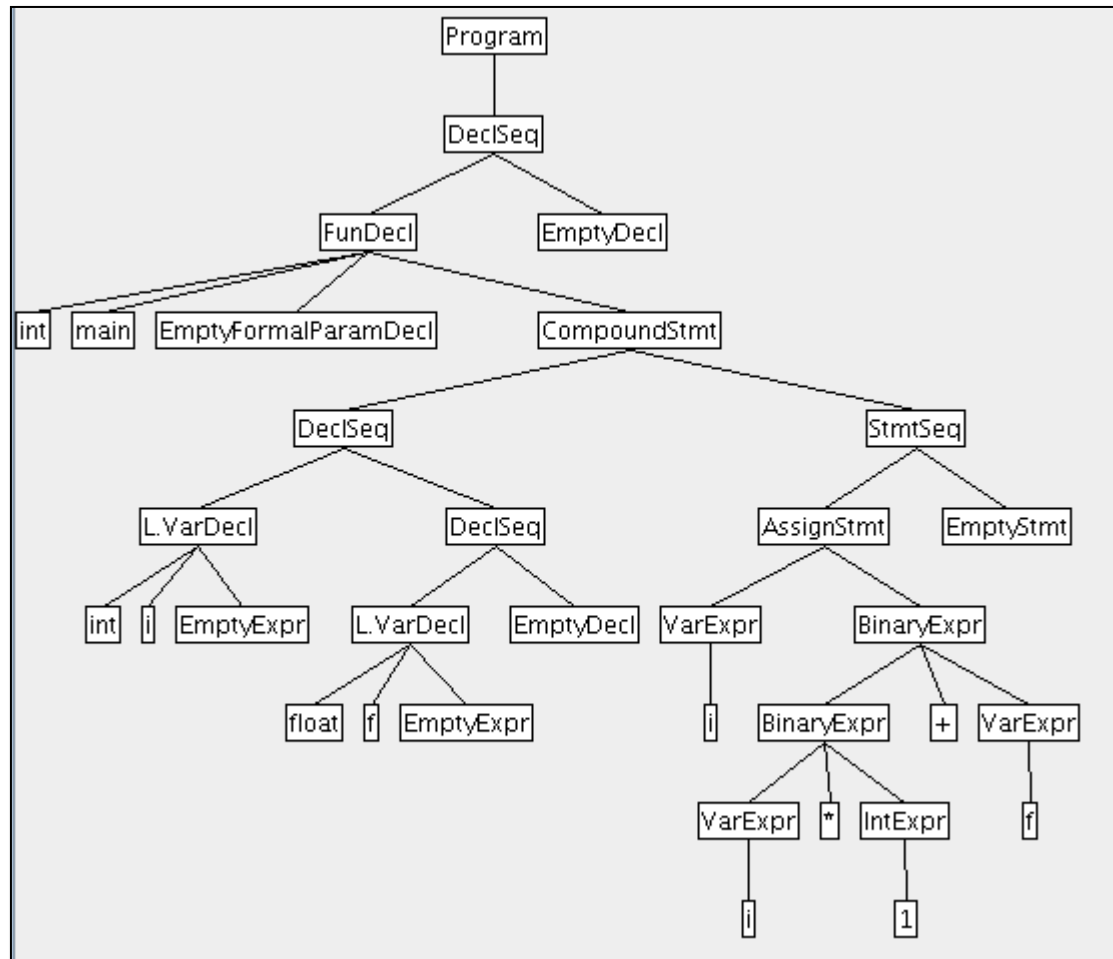
}
```

All concrete Expr classes inherit the **type** instance variable.

The word ``synthesized" refer to attribute grammars (coming soon..). Synthesized information is passed bottom-up in the AST.

# Type-Checking Expressions

```
int main() {  
  int i;  
  float f;  
  i = i * 1 + f;  
}
```

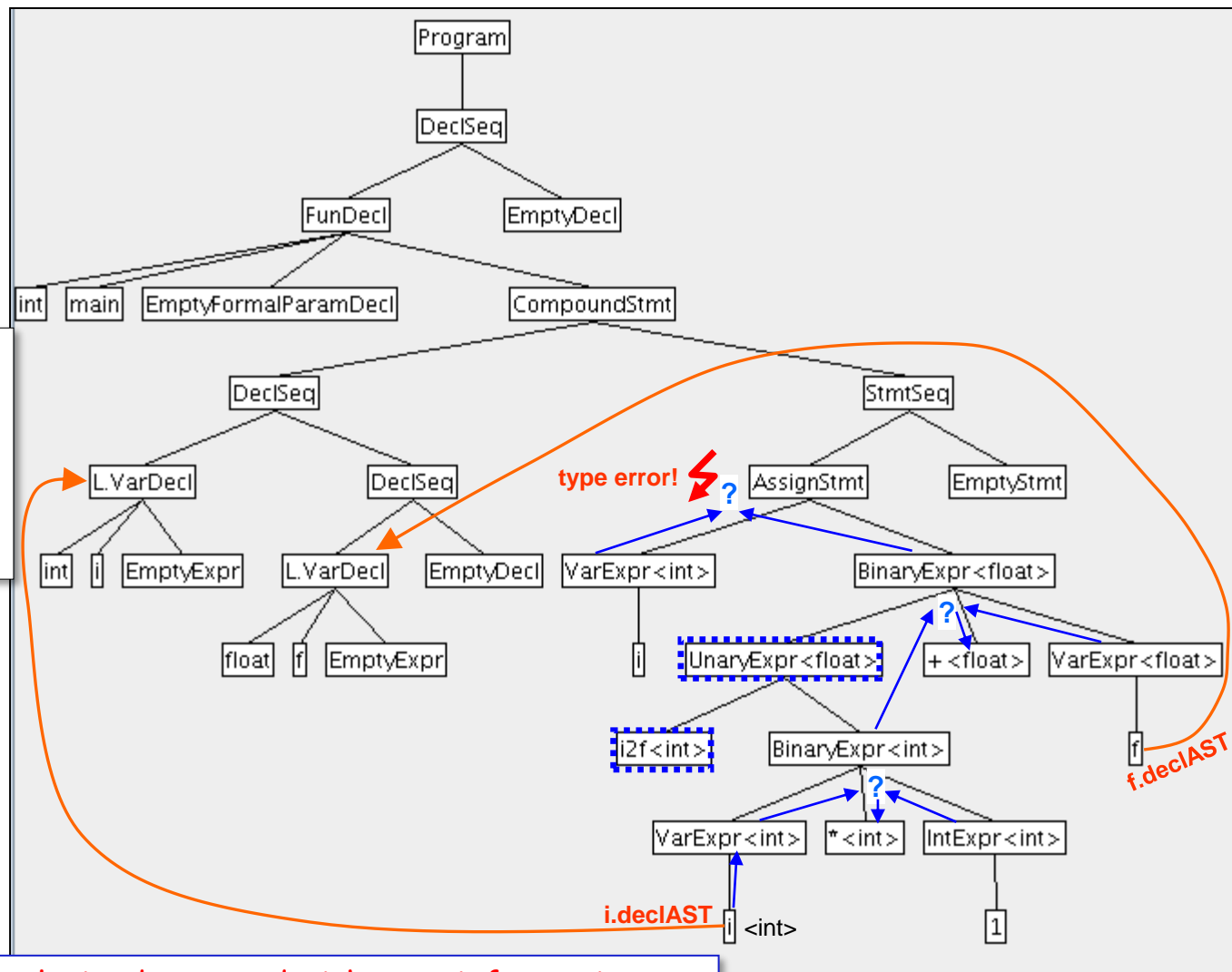


The undecorated AST before semantic analysis.



# Type-Checking Expressions

```
int main() {
  int i;
  float f;
  i = i * 1 + f;
}
```



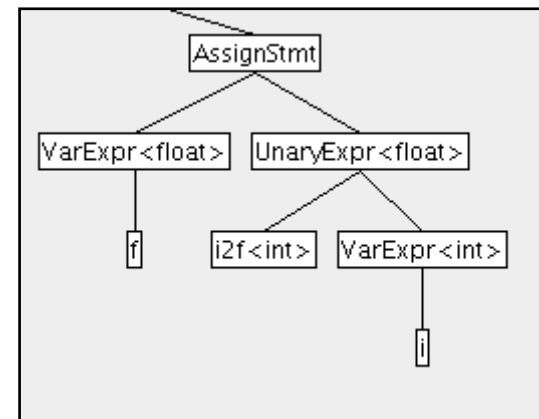
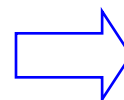
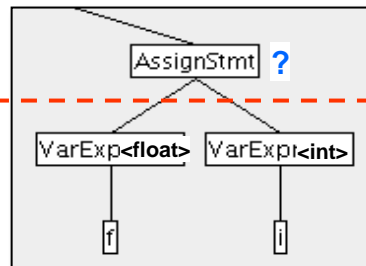
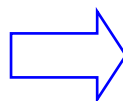
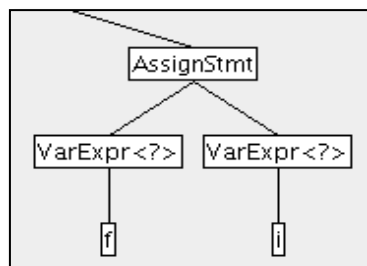
The AST after semantic analysis, decorated with type information. Nodes marked   have been inserted for type coercion (see next slides). Blue arrows show the flow of the type attribute, **<...>**.

# Type Coercions

- MiniC: Two types of operations for symbol "+":  
" + ":  $int \times int \rightarrow int$ , " + ":  $float \times float \rightarrow float$ 
  - " + " is **overloaded** with two operations
- Overload resolution: based on argument types, choose " + " operation:
  - integer addition when both operands are of type integer
  - floating point addition when both operands are floats
  - Example: `1 + 2` // " + ":  $int \times int \rightarrow int$   
`2.0 + 1.0` // " + ":  $float \times float \rightarrow float$
- **Type coercion**: programming languages tend to **relax** type rules a bit: if type T is expected in a given situation, then there might be other types T' that are accepted as well.  
Example: `int i; float f; f = i;`
- Float f can only be assigned an expression of type float.
  - However, MiniC allows **int type** instead (to be nice to the programmer).
  - This only works if the compiler converts the int to a float.
  - Such a type conversion is called **implicit type conversion** or **type coercion**.

# Type Coercion Example

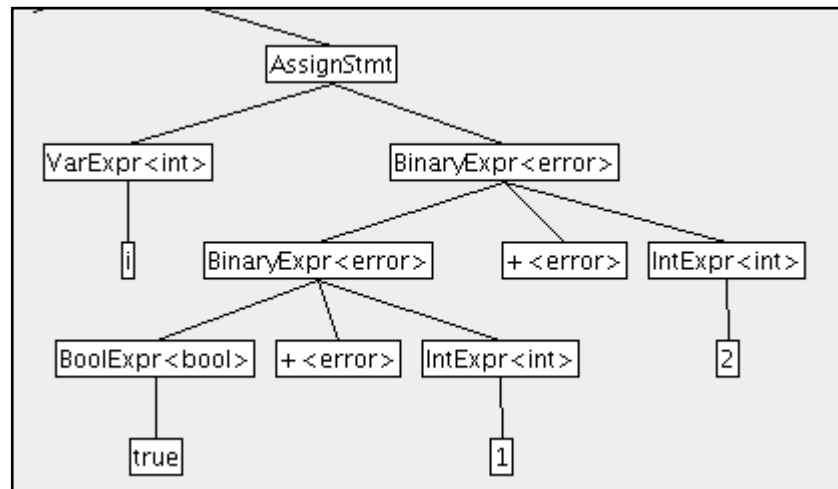
```
int i;  
float f;  
f = i;
```



- The AST subtrees below the red dashed line have already been semantically analyzed. The next step is to type-check the assignment statement.
- To assign the right-hand side (int) to the left-hand side (float), it must be **coerced** to float.
  - the **UnaryExpr** node with operator **i2f** is inserted.
- The effect of coercion, described in MiniC:

```
int i;  
float f;  
f = i2f(i);
```

# Error Detection, Reporting and Recovery



- **Error detection:** based on type rules
- **Reporting:** prints meaningful error messages
- **Recovery:** continue type checking in the presence of type errors.
- An ill-typed expression is given type `StdEnvironment.errorType` (shown as `<error>` in the AST images).
- To avoid **cascaded error messages**, compilers do not report an error if one operand of an expression is already of type `StdEnvironment.errorType`.

# Assignment 2-(2)

We implement a one-pass semantic analyzer using the visitor design pattern.

❑ Identification

❑ Type checking

- ensure MiniC type rules (see the Assignment 2-(2) spec)
- add i2f where needed
- perform overload resolution

❑ Decorated ASTs:

- the synthesized `type` attribute in Expr nodes.
- the inherited `astDecl` attribute in ID nodes.

# Lecture 3: Semantic Analysis

1. Overview & Purpose ✓
  - a) Static semantics ✓
  - b) Dynamic semantics ✓
2. Static semantics
  - a) Two types of semantic constraints:
    - Scope rules ✓
    - Type rules ✓
  - b) Two subphases in static semantic analysis
    - Identification (to enforce scope rules) ✓
    - Type checking (to enforce type rules) ✓
  - c) Standard environments ✓
  - d) Assignment 2-(2) ✓
3. Attribute Grammars

# Attribute Grammars

- Invented by Donald E. Knuth in 1968
- Attributes (**synthesized** and **inherited**)
  - S-attributed grammars
  - L-attributed grammars
- Semantic rules (also called semantic functions)
- Computation of Attributes
  - The Visitor Design Pattern

# Attribute Grammars and the Compiler Frontend

- Context-**sensitive** static semantics of a language cannot be specified with context-**free** grammars.
- Attribute grammars **extend CFGs** to complete the specification of what legal programs should look like.

After scanning and parsing:

- Semantic analysis enforces the **static semantics** of a language:
  - Identification (using a symbol table or the AST)
  - Type checking
- The compiler inserts run-time checks to enforce the **dynamic semantics** of a language.  
→ this completes the semantic checks!



# Attribute Grammars

- An attribute grammar connects syntax and semantics.
- Each grammar production has a **semantic rule** with **actions** to modify values of **attributes**.
  - Each terminal/nonterminal may have any number of attributes
  - Attributes hold information related to the terminal/nonterminal.

- General form:

**production**

$A ::= B C$

**semantic rule**

$A.x := \dots; B.x := \dots; C.x := \dots;$

- Semantic rules are used by a compiler to enforce static semantics.

# Attribute Grammar Example 1

- The **val** attribute holds the subtotal value of the subexpression.
- Nonterminals are indexed in the attribute grammar to distinguish multiple occurrences of the nonterminal in a production.

## productions

$\text{nested}_1 ::= ( \text{nested}_2 )$

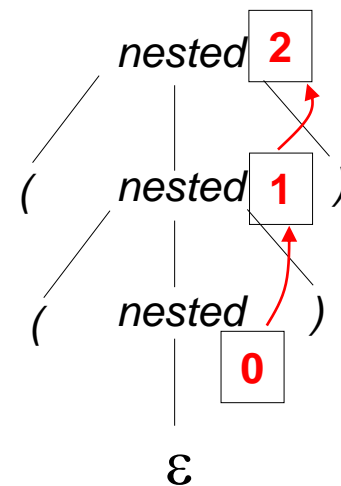
$\text{nested} ::= \epsilon$

## semantic rules

$\text{nested}_1.\text{val} := \text{nested}_2.\text{val} + 1$

$\text{nested}.\text{val} := 0$

What does this  
attribute grammar  
compute?



## Attribute Grammar Example 2

- The **val** attribute holds the subtotal value of the subexpression.
- Nonterminals are indexed in the attribute grammar to distinguish multiple occurrences of the nonterminal in a production.

### productions

$S ::= E$

$E_1 ::= E_2 + E_3$

$E_1 ::= E_2 * E_3$

$E ::= \text{INTLIT}$

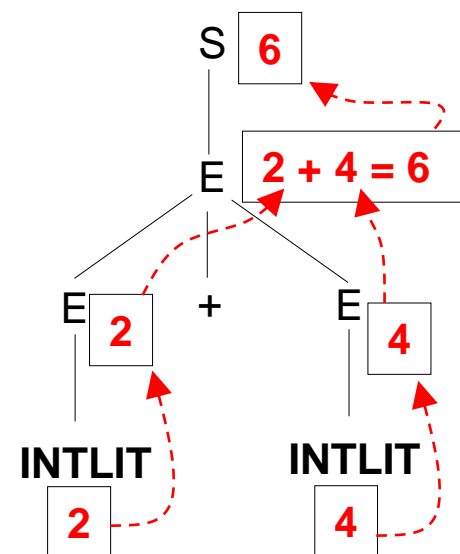
### semantic rules

$S.\text{val} := E.\text{val}$

$E_1.\text{val} := E_2.\text{val} + E_3.\text{val}$

$E_1.\text{val} := E_2.\text{val} * E_3.\text{val}$

$E.\text{val} := \text{INTLIT}.\text{val}$



Decorated tree for the sentence ``2 + 4''.

# Attribute Flow

- **Synthesized attributes:** flow from the bottom of the parse tree to the top (see the previous 2 examples).  
→ computed from the children in the AST
- **Inherited attributes:** attributes can also flow into symbols from above or from the side (see the next example).  
→ computed from the parent and from siblings
- An attribute flow algorithm propagates attribute values through the parse tree. Attributes must be set before they can be used.
- Attributes can be used to construct an AST from a parse tree!

# Attributes Associated with a Grammar Symbol

- An attribute can represent anything we choose:
  - a string
  - a number
  - a type
  - a memory location
  - a piece of source code
  - an AST
  - aso.
- Each attribute has a **name** and a **type**.

# We can use attribute grammars to determine the types and values of variables and expressions

The type of an expression is important

- To enforce type rules of a programming language

**Example:** a floating-point number cannot be used as an array index.

```
int x[3];    // 3 ints @ x[0], x[1], x[2]
float y;

x[1.2] = 0;  // wrong!
x[y] = 0;    // wrong!
```

- For code generation in the backend of the compiler.

**Example (JVM):** **fadd** vs. **iadd**

- Values of expressions can be used for compiler optimizations.

# Attribute Grammar Example 3

- A simplified expression grammar for integer and float division:

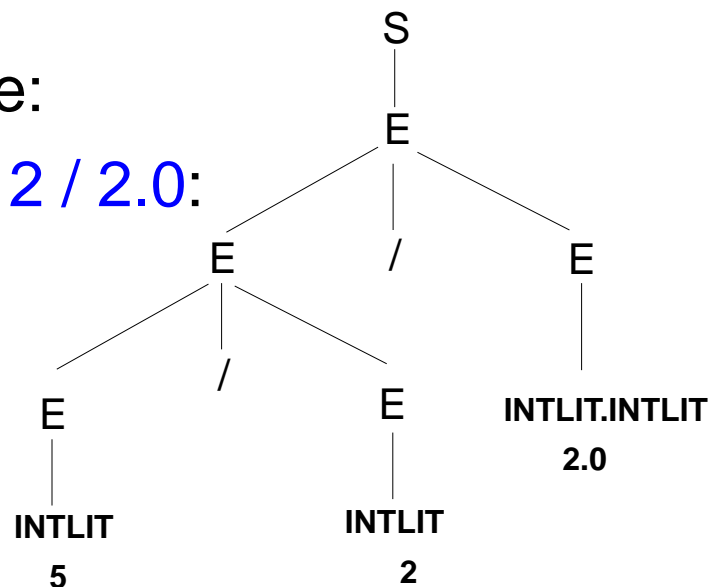
$S ::= E$
$E ::= E / E$
$E ::= \text{INTLIT}$
$E ::= \text{INTLIT} . \text{INTLIT}$

- Grammar is ambiguous
  - but we can use it to specify the static semantics if the AST has been built using an unambiguous grammar (see Lecture on Syntax Analysis).
- Assume that
  - “/” is left-associative, and
  - mixed expressions are promoted to floating point
  - Example:  $5 / 2 / 2.0$  evaluated to  $1.25$ , not  $1.00$
- On the next slides, we study expression evaluation using an attribute grammar.

Left associative: $a / b / c$ is interpreted as $(a / b) / c$ .
---

# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)

Running Example:  
parse tree for **5 / 2 / 2.0**:



- The “/” operator is assumed to be left-associative.
- The tree for right-associative “/” is not considered.



# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)

Productions	Semantic rules
$S ::= E$	$E.type = \text{if } E.isFloat \text{ then float else int}$ $S.val = E.val$
$E_1 ::= E_2 / E_3$	$E_1.isFloat = E_2.isFloat \text{ or } E_3.isFloat$ $E2.type = E1.type$ $E3.type = E1.type$ $E1.val = \text{if } (E1.type == \text{int})$ then $E_2.val \text{ DIV}_{INT} E_3.val$ else $E_2.val \text{ DIV}_{FLOAT} E_3.val$
$E ::= INTLIT$	$E.isFloat = \text{false}$ $E.val = \text{if } (E.type == \text{int})$ then $INTLIT.val$ else $\text{Float}(INTLIT.val)$
$E ::= INTLIT . INTLIT$	$E.isFloat = \text{true}$ $E.val = INTLIT.INTLIT.val$

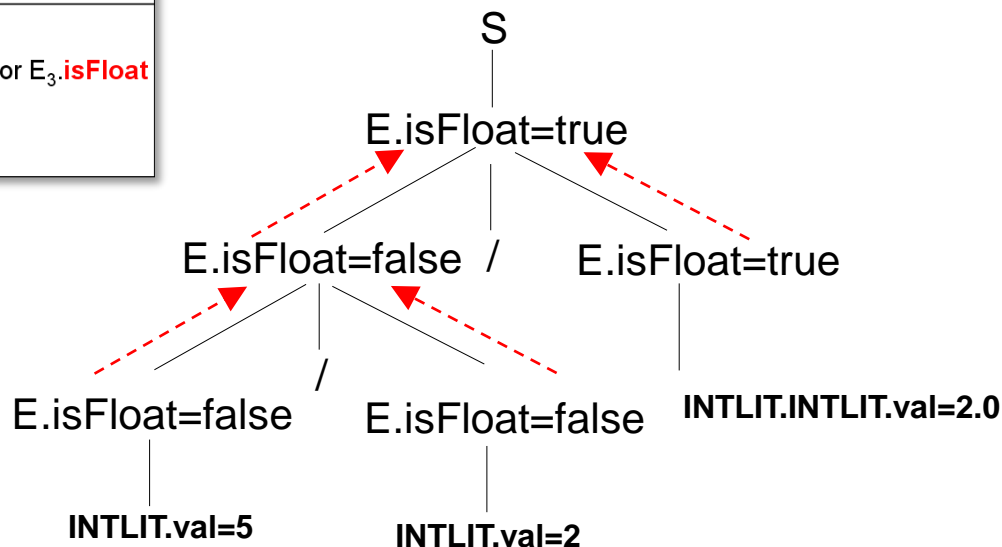
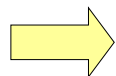
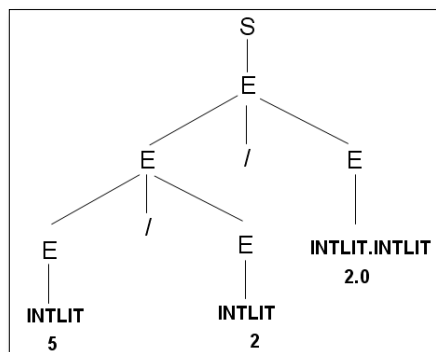
# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)

Productions	Semantic rules
$S ::= E$	
$E_1 ::= E_2 / E_3$	$E_1.\text{isFloat} = E_2.\text{isFloat} \text{ or } E_3.\text{isFloat}$
$E ::= \text{INTLIT}$	$E.\text{isFloat} = \text{false}$
$E ::= \text{INTLIT} . \text{INTLIT}$	$E.\text{isFloat} = \text{true}$

First pass: bottom-up computation of the isFloat attribute.

# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)

nr	Productions	Semantic rules
1	$S ::= E$	
2	$E_1 ::= E_2 / E_3$	$E_1.\text{isFloat} = E_2.\text{isFloat} \text{ or } E_3.\text{isFloat}$
3	$E ::= \text{INTLIT}$	$E.\text{isFloat} = \text{false}$
4	$E ::= \text{INTLIT} . \text{INTLIT}$	$E.\text{isFloat} = \text{true}$



The flow of synthesized attribute **isFloat**.

- Synthesized attributes flow bottom-up.

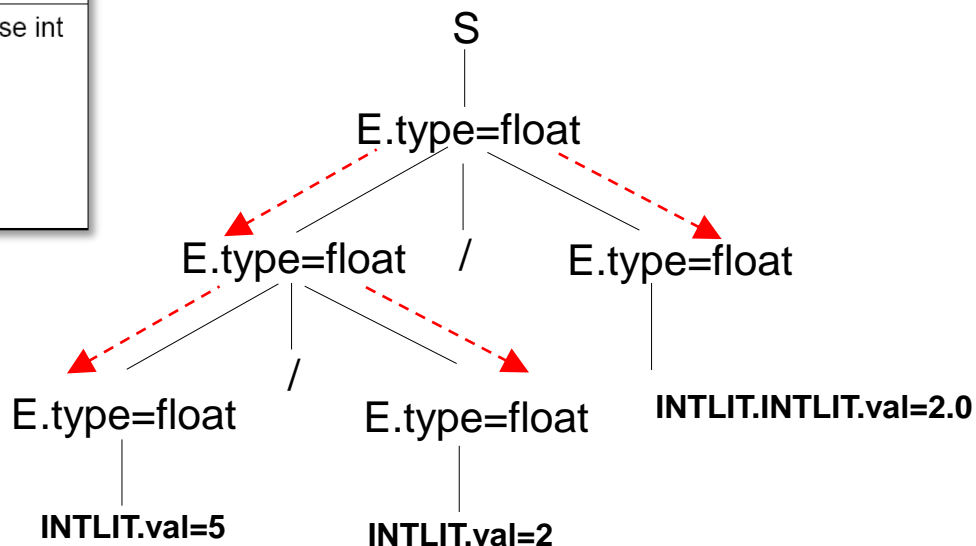
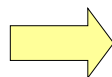
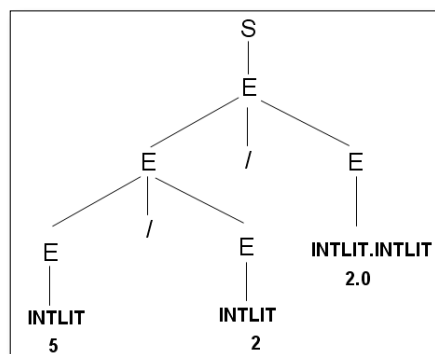
# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)

Productions	Semantic rules
$S ::= E$	$E.type = \text{if } E.isFloat \text{ then float else int}$
$E_1 ::= E_2 / E_3$	$E2.type = E1.type$ $E3.type = E1.type$
$E ::= INTLIT$	
$E ::= INTLIT . INTLIT$	

Second pass: top-down computation of the type attribute.

# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)

nr	Productions	Semantic rules
1	$S ::= E$	$E.type = \text{if } E.isFloat \text{ then float else int}$
2	$E_1 ::= E_2 / E_3$	$E2.type = E1.type$ $E3.type = E1.type$
3	$E ::= INTLIT$	
4	$E ::= INTLIT . INTLIT$	



The flow of inherited attribute **type**.

- Inherited attributes flow top-down (or left-to-right).

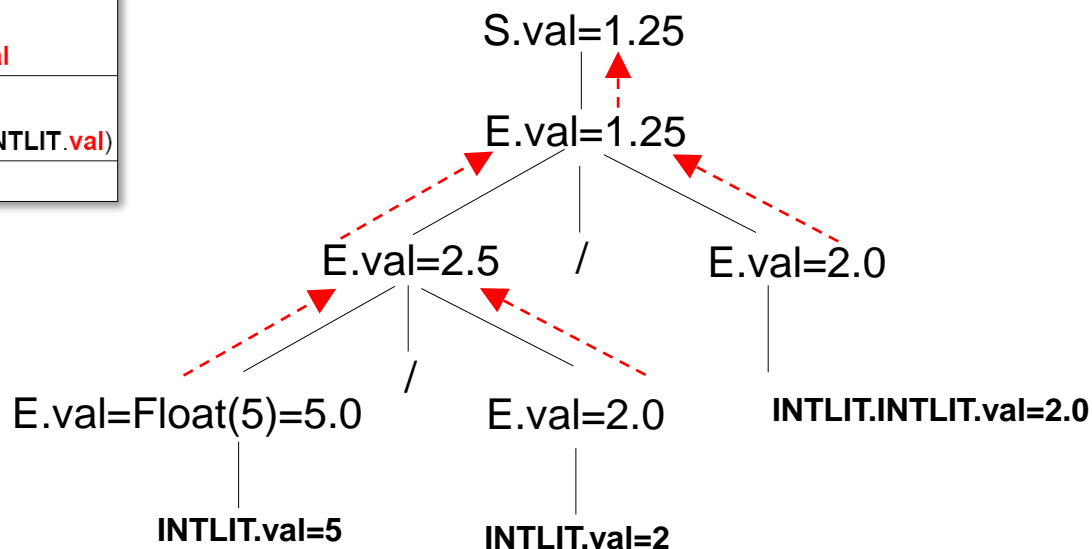
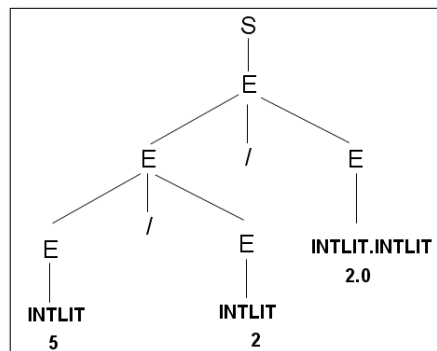
# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)

Productions	Semantic rules
$S ::= E$	$S.val = E.val$
$E_1 ::= E_2 / E_3$	$E1.val = \text{if } (E1.type == \text{int})$ then $E_2.val \text{ DIV}_{INT} E_3.val$ else $E_2.val \text{ DIV}_{FLOAT} E_3.val$
$E ::= INTLIT$	$E.val = \text{if } (E.type == \text{int})$ then $INTLIT.val$ else $\text{Float}(INTLIT.val)$
$E ::= INTLIT . INTLIT$	$E.val = INTLIT.INTLIT.val$

Third pass: bottom-up computation of the val attribute.

# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)

nr	Productions	Semantic rules
1	$S ::= E$	$S.val = E.val$
2	$E_1 ::= E_2 / E_3$	$E_1.val = \text{if } (E_1.type == \text{int})$ then $E_2.val \text{ DIV}_{\text{INT}} E_3.val$ else $E_2.val \text{ DIV}_{\text{FLOAT}} E_3.val$
3	$E ::= \text{INTLIT}$	$E.val = \text{if } (E.type == \text{int})$ then $\text{INTLIT}.val$ else $\text{Float}(\text{INTLIT}.val)$
4	$E ::= \text{INTLIT} . \text{INTLIT}$	$E.val = \text{INTLIT}.val$



The flow of synthesized attribute **val**.

- Synthesized attributes flow bottom-up.

# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)

- $DIV_{INT}$  denotes integer division
- $DIV_{FLOAT}$  denotes floating-point division
- $Float()$ : converts an integer to a floating-point value
- $INTLIT.val$ ,  $INTLIT.INTLIT.val$ :
  - computed by the scanner (before semantic analysis)
  - called an intrinsic synthesized attribute



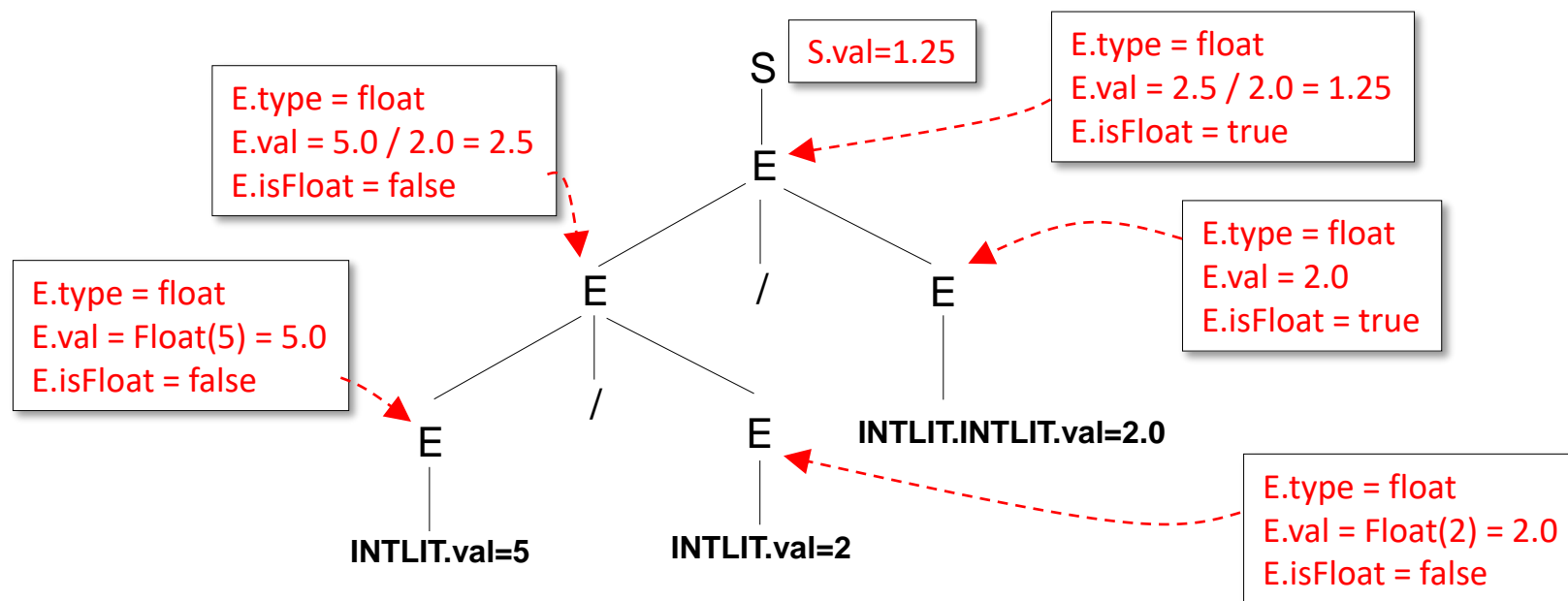
# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)

- **Synthesized** attribute *isFloat* over {true, false}
  - indicates if any part of a subexpression has a floating-point value
- **Inherited** attribute *type* over {int, float}
  - indicates the type of a subexpression
- **Synthesized** attribute *val*
  - gives the value of a subexpression
- Dependences between attributes:

*isFloat* → *type* → *val*

I.e., *val* depends on *type*, which depends on *isFloat*.

# Attribute Grammar Example 3 (cont.)



Fully decorated parse tree for expression 5 / 2 / 2.0

- All attribute values according to the attribute grammar for Example 3.

# A more "formal" Definition of Synthesized and Inherited Attributes

## Synthesized Attributes

- computed from attributes of **children**

Propagated bottom up in the tree.

## Inherited Attributes

- computed from attributes of **parent** or **siblings**

Propagated top-down and on same level of the tree.

Example: production  $X ::= A B C$

- $X.a$  is a **synthesized** attribute, if
$$X.a = f(\text{attributes of } A, B, \text{ and/or } C)$$
- $B.a$  is an **inherited** attribute, if
$$B.a = f(\text{attributes of } A, C, \text{ and/or } X)$$

$f$  is a semantic function.

An inherited attribute  $B.a$  may also depend on other attributes from  $B$  itself!

# Attribute Evaluators

**Tree Walkers**: traverse the parse tree in one or more passes at compile time.

- Capable of evaluating any **non-circular** attribute grammar
- An attribute grammar is **circular** if an attribute depends on itself.
- Circularity can be decided (in exponential time).
- Too complex to be used in practice.

**Rule-based methods**: the compiler writer analyses the grammar and fixes an evaluation order at **compiler-construction time**.

- Still possible to use trees.
- Works for practically all grammars.
- Used with practically all compilers.
- Visitor design pattern.

# A Non-Circular Grammar Evaluator

```
1 while ( attributes remain to be evaluated ) {  
2   visitNode (S)    // S is the start symbol of the grammar  
3 }  
  
3 void visitNode (AST X) {  
4   if ( X is a non-terminal ) {    //  $X ::= X_1 X_2, \dots, X_m$   
5     for ( i=1 ; i <= m; i++) {  
6       if ( $X_i$  is a non-terminal) {  
7         evaluate all possible inherited attributes of  $X_i$   
8         visitNode ( $X_i$ )  
9       }  
10    }  
11  }  
12  Evaluate all possible synthesized attributes of X  
13 }
```

- **Preorder** part (line 7): propagate inherited attributes downwards in the tree.
- **Postorder** part (line 12): propagate synthesized attributes upwards.

# Rule-Based Methods

- See Lecture Slides on the Visitor design pattern.

# Lecture 3: Semantic Analysis

1. Overview & Purpose ✓
  - a) Static semantics ✓
  - b) Dynamic semantics ✓
2. Static semantics
  - a) Two types of semantic constraints:
    - Scope rules ✓
    - Type rules ✓
  - b) Two subphases in static semantic analysis
    - Identification (to enforce scope rules) ✓
    - Type checking (to enforce type rules) ✓
  - c) Standard environments ✓
  - d) Assignment 2-(2) ✓
3. Attribute Grammars ✓