

# EEX6335 – Compiler Design

# EEX6363 – Compiler Construction

## Day School – 4

by

Gehan Anthony

Bachelor of Science Honours in Engineering  
Bachelor of Software Engineering Honours

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering  
Faculty of Engineering  
The Open University of Sri Lanka

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### Lexical analysis (scanner) :

Main target → creation of a stream of tokens

by performing:

removing white space, eliminating comments, recovering lexical errors (few number of), etc.

how design/organize → with

Lex specifications (valid tokens) → construct REs

State transition tables ← DFA ← NFA

Implemented (by table-driven, handwritten) -- lex/flex

TMA #1 and CAT #1

### Example:

- Lexical specification –

- Token list : <, <=, >, >=, ==, id, number, comment

- Definitions:

$\text{id} ::= \text{letter}(\text{letter}|\text{digit})^*$

$\text{number} ::= \text{digit}^*$

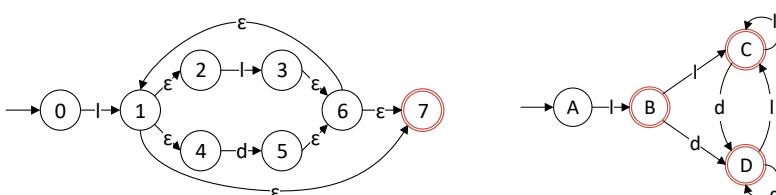
$\text{comment} ::= \% (\text{letter}|\text{digit})^* \%$

- Transform into a regular expression –

RE:  $(< | > | >= | <= | == | ( | (l | d)^* ) | d^* | \% (l | d)^* \%))$

E.g.,  $\text{id} \rightarrow \text{letter}(\text{letter}|\text{digit})^*$

For the readability, lets denote **letter**  $\equiv l$  and **digit**  $\equiv d$



A lexer defines how the contents of a file is broken into tokens.

A lexer is implemented as finite automata.

state	letter	digit	final
A	B		N
B	C	D	Y
C	C	D	Y
D	C	D	Y

## Syntax analysis (parser) :

Main target → creation of Abstract syntax trees

by performing:

Analyze the structure of the program & its component: *declarations, definitions, statements & expressions*; Check for, report, & recover from syntax errors, etc.

how design/organize → with



In: Token stream/list; LL(1) grammar, first and follow sets  
Out: Abstract syntax tree (via Syntax-Directed Translation)

Implemented -- top-down (LL) or bottom-up (LR):  
(by yacc/bison, ANTLR or JavaCC)

TMA #2 and CAT #2

Parser -- all designs are based on a stack mechanism.

Top-down:

predictive parsing, recursive descent, table-driven  
(requires removal of left recursions, ambiguities)

Bottom-up:

simple LR (SLR),  
canonical LR (CLR),  
lookahead LR (LALR) (item generation)

A parser takes a token stream (emitted by a lexical analyzer) as input and based on the rules declared in the grammar (which define the syntax structure of the source) produces a parse tree data structure.

### Table-driven predicting parsing method

$E \rightarrow TE'$
$E' \rightarrow \epsilon \mid +TE'$
$T \rightarrow FT'$
$T' \rightarrow \epsilon \mid *FT'$
$F \rightarrow (\ E ) \mid \theta \mid 1$



$FST(E) : \{ \theta, 1, ( \}$
$FST(E') : \{ \epsilon, + \}$
$FST(T) : \{ \theta, 1, ( \}$
$FST(T') : \{ \epsilon, * \}$
$FST(F) : \{ \theta, 1, ( \}$

$FLW(E) : \{ \$, \}$
$FLW(E') : \{ \$, \}$
$FLW(T) : \{ +, \$, \}$
$FLW(T') : \{ +, \$, \}$
$FLW(F) : \{ *, +, \$, \}$

1.  $\forall p : ( (p \in R) \wedge (p : A \rightarrow \alpha) )$   
do steps 2 and 3
2.  $\forall t : ( (t \in T) \wedge (t \in FIRST(\alpha)) )$   
add  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  to  $TT[A, t]$
3. if  $(\epsilon \in FIRST(\alpha))$   
 $\forall t : ( (t \in T) \wedge (t \in FOLLOW(A)) )$   
add  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  to  $TT[A, t]$
4.  $\forall e : ( (e \in TT) \wedge (e == \emptyset) )$   
add "error" to e

$r1: E \rightarrow TE'$
$r2: E' \rightarrow +TE'$
$r3: E' \rightarrow \epsilon$
$r4: T \rightarrow FT'$
$r5: T' \rightarrow *FT'$
$r6: T' \rightarrow \epsilon$
$r7: F \rightarrow \theta$
$r8: F \rightarrow 1$
$r9: F \rightarrow (E)$

LL(1) parsing table

	0	1	(	)	+	*	\$
E	r1	r1	r1				
E'					r3	r2	r3
T	r4	r4	r4				
T'					r6	r6	r6
F	r7	r8	r9				

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### How check the correctness?

E.g., Does the string  $1^*0$  accept or not?

$r1: E \rightarrow TE'$
$r2: E' \rightarrow +TE'$
$r3: E' \rightarrow \epsilon$
$r4: T \rightarrow FT'$
$r5: T' \rightarrow *FT'$
$r6: T' \rightarrow \epsilon$
$r7: F \rightarrow \theta$
$r8: F \rightarrow 1$
$r9: F \rightarrow (E)$

Derivation of  $1^*0$

$r1: E \rightarrow TE'$
$r4: \rightarrow FT'E'$
$r8: \rightarrow 1T'E'$
$r5: \rightarrow 1*FT'E'$
$r7: \rightarrow 1*0T'E'$
$r6: \rightarrow 1*0E'$
$r3: \rightarrow 1^*$

	0	1	(	)	+	*	\$
E	r1	r1	r1				
E'					r3	r2	r3
T	r4	r4	r4				
T'					r6	r6	r5
F	r7	r8	r9				

NOTE:

Empty cells are syntax errors.

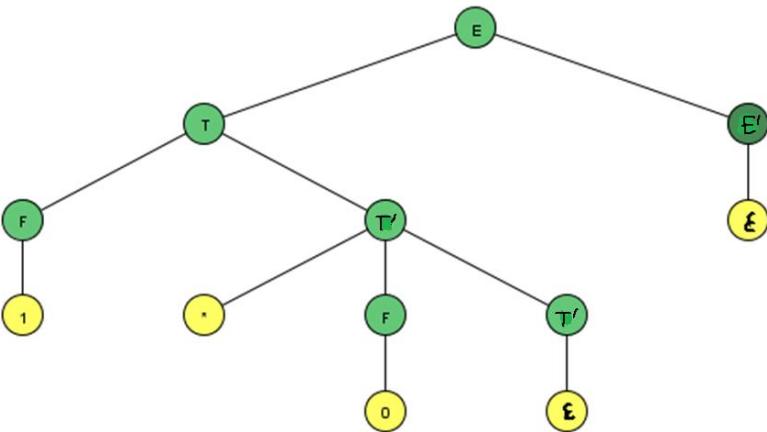
	Stack	Input	Production	Derivation
1	\$E	1*0\$		E
2	\$E	1*0\$	r1: E → TE'	$\Rightarrow TE'$
3	\$E'T	1*0\$	r4: T → FT'	$\Rightarrow FT'E'$
4	\$E'T'F	1*0\$	r8: F → 1	$\Rightarrow 1T'E'$
5	\$E'T'1	1*0\$		
6	\$E'T'	*0\$	r5: T' → *FT'	$\Rightarrow 1*FT'E'$
7	\$E'T'F*	*0\$		
8	\$E'T'F	0\$	r7: F → 0	$\Rightarrow 1*0T'E'$
9	\$E'T'0	0\$		
10	\$E'T'	\$	r6: T' → ε	$\Rightarrow 1*0E'$
11	\$E'	\$	r3: E' → ε	$\Rightarrow 1*0$
12	\$	\$		success

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Now the parse tree for the string  $1 * 0$  can be drawn as



### Semantic analysis:

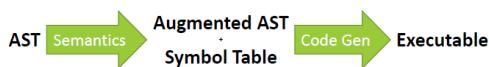
Main target → creation of the symbol table

by performing:

the storing of essential information about every symbol contained within the program.

how organize/design → with

- adds semantic information to the parse tree
- builds the symbol table.
- semantic actions and semantic records
- the depth-first search (DFS) traversal



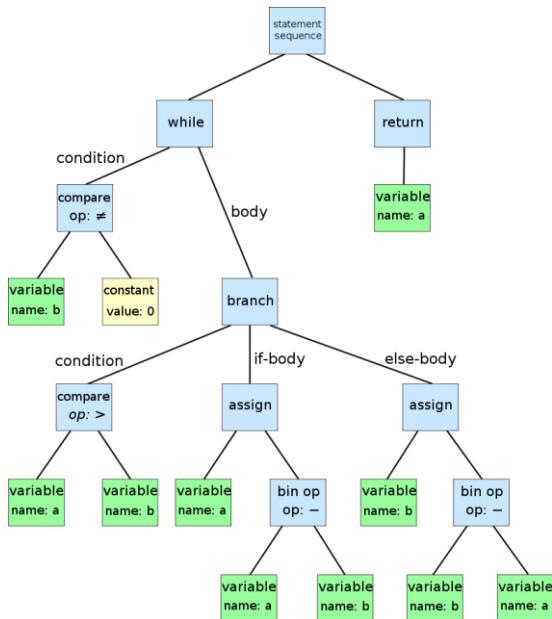
Implemented – via intermediate representations  
(e.g., parse tree, abstract syntax tree...)  
-- usually requires a complete parse tree,

## Example 2:

An abstract syntax tree  
for the code below:

```

while b ≠ 0
    if a > b
        a := a - b
    else
        b := b - a
return a
  
```



## Semantic rules and symbol table

Grammar Rule	Semantic Rules
Rule 1	Associated attribute equations
.	.
.	.
Rule n	Associated attribute equations

### Reference:

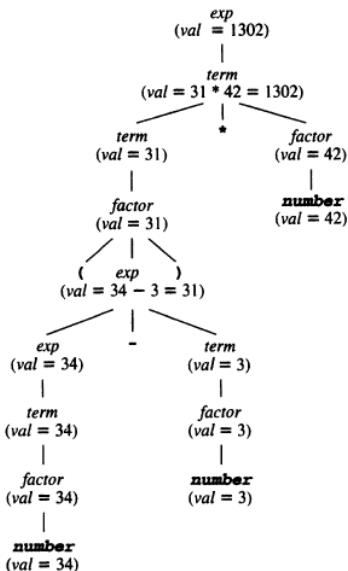
- Louden, Kenneth C. "Compiler construction." Cengage Learning (1997).

E.g., in chapter 6

$exp \rightarrow exp + term \mid exp - term \mid term$   
 $term \rightarrow term * factor \mid factor$   
 $factor \rightarrow ( exp ) \mid number$

Grammar Rule	Semantic Rules
$exp_1 \rightarrow exp_2 + term$	$exp_1.val = exp_2.val + term.val$
$exp_1 \rightarrow exp_2 - term$	$exp_1.val = exp_2.val - term.val$
$exp \rightarrow term$	$exp.val = term.val$
$term_1 \rightarrow term_2 * factor$	$term_1.val = term_2.val * factor.val$
$term \rightarrow factor$	$term.val = factor.val$
$factor \rightarrow ( exp )$	$factor.val = exp.val$
$factor \rightarrow number$	$factor.val = number.val$

- Parse tree for  $(34 - 3)^*42$



Grammar Rule	Semantic Rules
$exp_1 \rightarrow exp_2 + term$	$exp_1.val = exp_2.val + term.val$
$exp_1 \rightarrow exp_2 - term$	$exp_1.val = exp_2.val - term.val$
$exp \rightarrow term$	$exp.val = term.val$
$term_1 \rightarrow term_2 * factor$	$term_1.val = term_2.val * factor.val$
$term \rightarrow factor$	$term.val = factor.val$
$factor \rightarrow ( exp )$	$factor.val = exp.val$
$factor \rightarrow number$	$factor.val = number.val$

### The symbol table –

is used to store essential information about every symbol contained within the program. This includes:

- Keywords, • Data Types, • Operators,
- Functions, • Variable, \* Procedures,
- Constants, • Literals , ...

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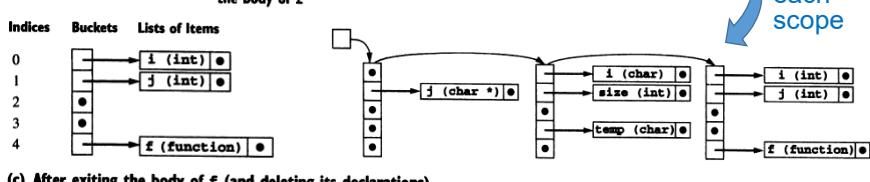
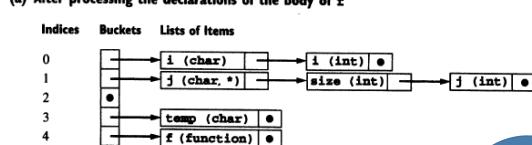
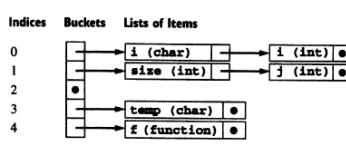
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- E.g.,

• Reference: Louden, Kenneth C. "Compiler construction." Cengage Learning (1997).

```

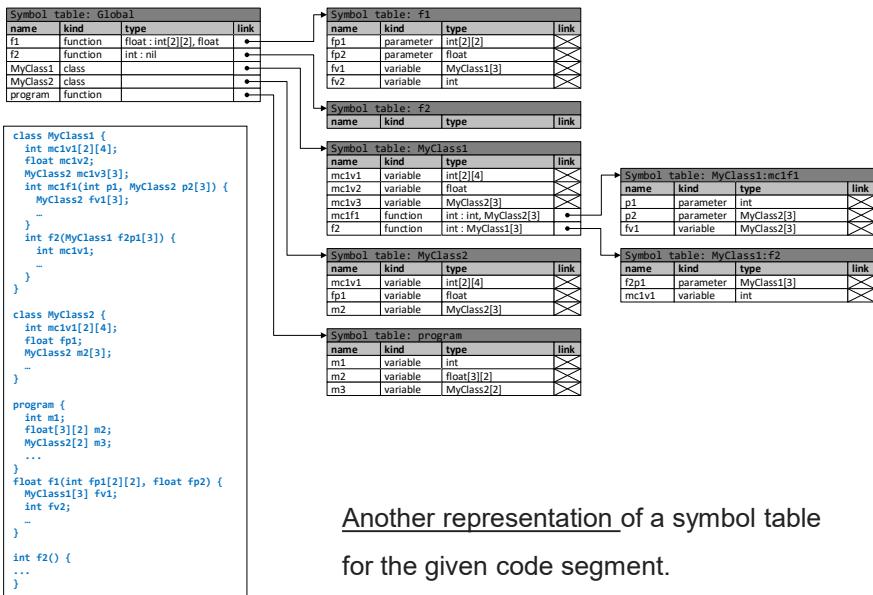
int i,j;
int f(int size);
{ char i, temp;
  ...
  { double j;
    ...
    { char * j;
      ...
    }
  }
}
    
```



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Another representation of a symbol table  
for the given code segment.

## Code generation:

Main target → creation of the object/target code

by performing:

the exact meaning of the source  
code and the efficient use of  
CPU and memory management.

how organize/design → with

- instruction selection and ordering, register allocation,
- identify the flow of values among the basic blocks by Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG) and represent by postfix
- 3AC (quadruples/ triples/ indirect triples)
- VM instructions (object/ stack-machine codes)

Implemented – via updating symbol table (adding an offset column)

- using tag-based or stack-based methods
- verifying the correctness with test cases.

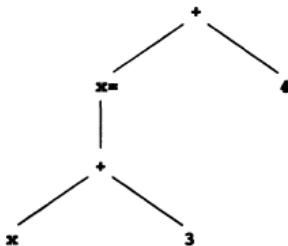
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Example 1:

Grammar Rule	Semantic Rules
$exp_1 \rightarrow id = exp_2$	$exp_1.name = exp_2.name$ $exp_1.tacode = exp_2.tacode ++$ $id.strval    "="    exp_2.name$
$exp \rightarrow aexp$	$exp.name = aexp.name$ $exp.tacode = aexp.tacode$
$aexp_1 \rightarrow aexp_2 + factor$	$aexp_1.name = newtemp()$ $aexp_1.tacode =$ $++ aexp_2.tacode ++ factor.tacode$ $++ aexp_1.name    "+"    aexp_2.name$ $   "+"    factor.name$
$aexp \rightarrow factor$	$aexp.name = factor.name$ $aexp.tacode = factor.tacode$
$factor \rightarrow ( exp )$	$factor.name = exp.name$ $factor.tacode = exp.tacode$
$factor \rightarrow num$	$factor.name = num.strval$ $factor.tacode = ""$
$factor \rightarrow id$	$factor.name = id.strval$ $factor.tacode = ""$

The attribute of the target code for  $x = (x+3) + 4$  is

$$\begin{aligned} t1 &= x + 3 \\ x &= t1 \\ t2 &= t1 + 4 \end{aligned}$$

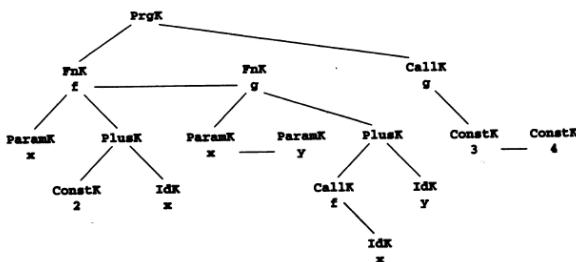
Example 2: Consider the grammar below on function definition and call

```

program → decl-list exp
decl-list → decl-list decl | ε
decl → fn id ( param-list ) = exp
param-list → param-list , id | id
exp → exp + exp | call | num | id
call → id ( arg-list )
arg-list → arg-list , exp | exp
  
```

```

fn f(x)=2+x
fn g(x,y)=f(x)+y
g(3,4)
  
```



```

ent f
ldc 2
lod x
adi
ret
ent g
mst
lod x
cup f
lod y
adi
ret
mst
ldc 3
ldc 4
cup g
  
```

## Offset example:

Code snippet:

```

1 class MyClass {
2     int x[3][8];
3     int addNum() {
4         int x;
5     };
6 };
7
8 program {
9     int x;
10    int y;
11    MyClass myClass[4][5];
12    MyClass myClassI;
13 };
14 
```

Symbol Tables:

Table Name: MyClass table, Parent Table Name: global table					
name	kind	type	offset	link	
addNum	Function	Int	96	alink table	
x	Variable	Int[3][8]	0	null	

Table Name: program table, Parent Table Name: global table					
name	kind	type	offset	link	
myClassI	Variable	MyClass	1928	MyClass	
x	Variable	Int	0	null	
myClass	Variable	MyClass[4][5]	8	null	
y	Variable	Int	4	null	

Memory Diagram:

Code snippet (from memory diagram):

```

1 int add(int a, int b) {
2     return a + b;
3 }
4
5 program {
6     int a;
7     int b;
8     int c;
9     a = 1;
10    b = 2;
11    c = add(a, b);
12    put c;
13 }
14 
```

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E.g.,  
A symbol table with sizes/offsets

```

int func1(int int235[2][3][5]; float float4[10]);{
    float float7;
    a1=a1+b1*c1;
}
float func2(float float102[102]; float float6;){
    int int421[4][2][1];
    float float11[11];
    x2=a2+b2*c2;
    a3=x3+z3*y3;
}
program{
    float float101[101];
    float float4;
    int int4;
    float float3;
    int int3;
    a4=a4+b4*c4;
    x5=a5+b5*c5;
    a6=x6+z6*y6;
}

```

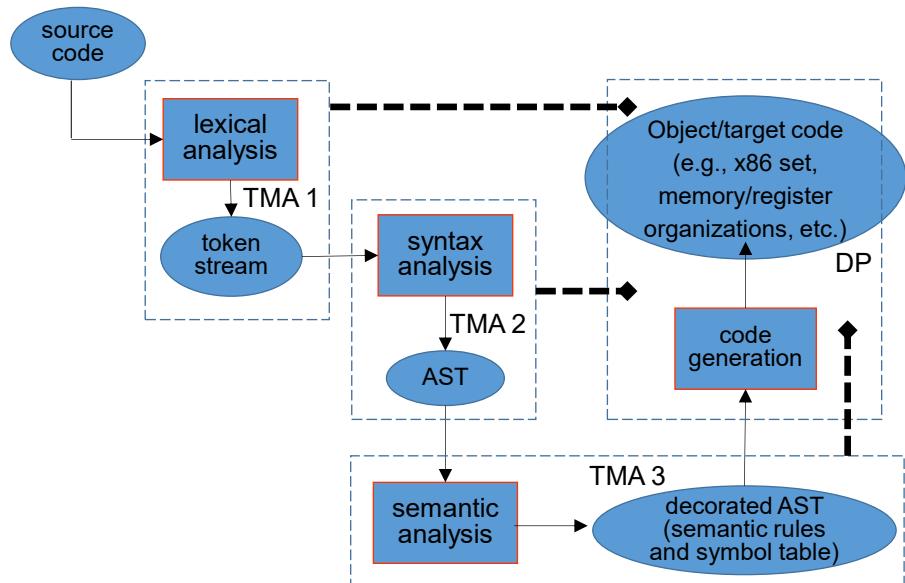
=====					
table: global		scope offset: 0			
func	func1	int			
		table: func1	scope offset: -224		
		var	int235	int	128 -128
		var	float4	float	80 -208
		var	float7	float	8 -216
		tempvar	t1	int	4 -220
		tempvar	t2	int	4 -224
func	func2	float			
		table: func2	scope offset: -964		
		var	float102	float	816 -828
		var	float6	float	8 -836
		var	int421	int	32 -868
		var	float11	float	88 -956
		tempvar	t3	int	4 -960
		tempvar	t4	int	4 -964
		tempvar	t5	typeerror	0 -964
		tempvar	t6	typeerror	0 -964
func	program	void			
		table: program	scope offset: -856		
		var	float101	float	808 -808
		var	float4	float	8 -816
		var	int4	int	4 -820
		var	float3	float	8 -828
		var	int3	int	4 -832
		tempvar	t7	int	4 -836
		tempvar	t8	int	4 -840
		tempvar	t9	int	4 -844
		tempvar	t10	int	4 -848
		tempvar	t11	int	4 -852
		tempvar	t12	int	4 -856

### Example

```
program{
    int a;
    int b;
    int c;
    a = 1;
    put(a);
    b = 2;
    put(b);
    c = 3;
    put(c);
    a = a + b - c;
    put(a + 6);
} // result = 13
```

table: global		scope size: 0				
func	program	void				
table: program		scope size: 40				
var	a	int	4	0		
var	b	int	4	4		
var	c	int	4	8		
litval	t1	int	4	12		
litval	t2	int	4	16		
litval	t3	int	4	20		
tempvar	t4	int	4	24		
tempvar	t5	int	4	28		
litval	t6	int	4	32		
tempvar	t7	int	4	36		

### Goals of the assessments:



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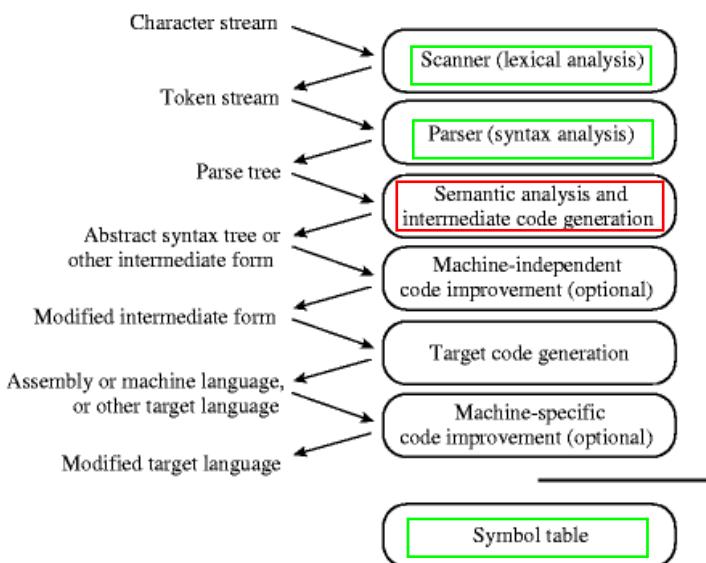
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by  
Gehan Anthony

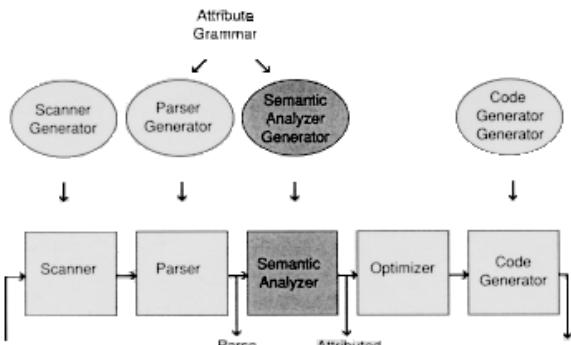
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Bachelor of Software Engineering Honours

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering  
Faculty of Engineering  
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### Phases of Compilation



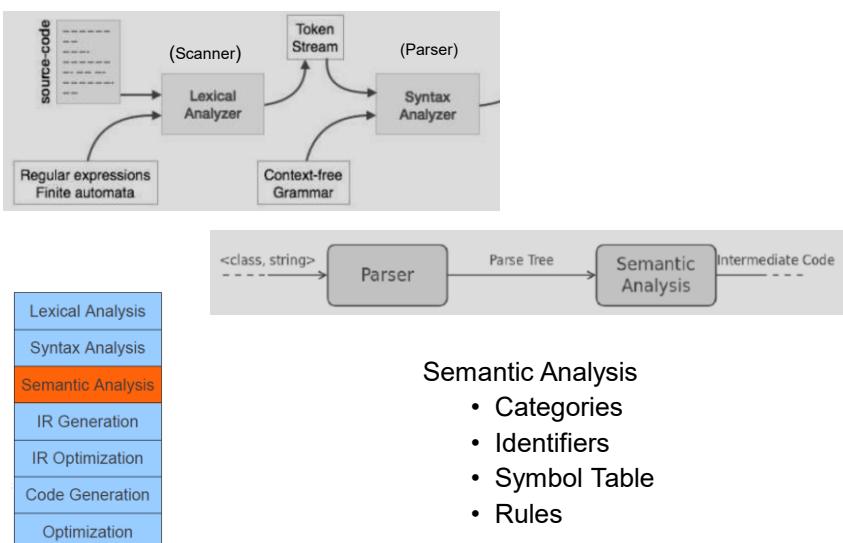
- Computer programs, like English sentences, have both a syntactic structure, illustrated by a parse tree, and a semantic structure which describes the meaning/actions.



- Thus, the actions performed by the semantic analysis phase are a beginning of the process which will generate code.

- Two major actions: (1) it finishes the syntax analysis and also performs actions such as symbol table creation; (2) it translates the parse tree to an intermediate representation more appropriate for the later phases of optimization and code generation.

Let's consider detail analysis of semantic analyzer:



### Semantic Analysis

- Categories
- Identifiers
- Symbol Table
- Rules

## Semantic Analysis: the problem

### Where we are?

- So far, we were able to check:
  - the program includes correct “words”;
  - “words” are combined in correct “sentences”;

### Why Semantic Analysis?

- Lexically and syntactically correct programs may still contain other errors;
- Lexical and syntax analyses are not power enough to ensure the correct usage of variables, objects, functions, ...

## What's next?

We would like to:

- perform additional checks to increase guarantees of correctness;
- transform the program from the source language into the target one, and according to precisely defined semantic rules;

### Additional Checks:

There are many additional checks that can be performed to increase correctness of code:

- Coherent (clear idea) usage of variables
  - definition-usage;
  - type;
- Existence of unreachable code blocks, . . .

Here, it is mainly focused on the mechanisms for **type checking** and generation of **intermediate code**

## Semantic analysis:

- Ensure that the program satisfies a set of rules regarding the usage of programming constructs (variables, objects, expressions, statements & etc.,)
- The principal job of the semantic analyzer is to enforce static semantic rules.
- In general, anything that requires the compiler to compare things that are separate by a long distance or to count things ends up being a matter of *semantics*.
- The semantic analyzer also commonly constructs a syntax tree (usually first), and much of the information it gathers is needed by the code generator.

## Syntax Directed Definitions:

- Attributes are used to associate characteristics and store values associated to grammar symbols.
- A syntax directed definition (SDD) provides the semantic rules to permit the definition of the values for the attributes.

PRODUCTION  
 $E \rightarrow E_1 + T$

SEMANTIC RULE  
 $E.code = E_1.code \parallel T.code \parallel '+'$

- **attributes** are associated to grammar symbols and can be of any kind;
- **rules** are associated to productions.

An SDD can be defined using two different kinds of attributes:

- Synthesized attributes: a synthesized attribute at node N is defined only in terms of attribute values at the children of N and at N itself;

- can be evaluated during a single bottom-up traversal of parse tree;
- the production must have non-terminal as its head.
- can be contained by both the terminals or non-terminals.

$E.\text{val} \rightarrow F.\text{val}$



- Inherited attributes: an inherited attribute at node N is defined only in terms of attribute values at N's parent, N itself, and N's siblings;

- can be evaluated during a single top-down and sideways traversal of parse tree.
- the production must have non-terminal as a symbol in its body.
- can't be contained by both, it is only contained by non-terminals.

$E.\text{val} = F.\text{val}$



## Attribute Grammars

- Context-Free Grammars (CFGs) are used to specify the syntax of programming languages.  
*E.g. arithmetic expressions*

$$\begin{array}{l}
 E \longrightarrow E + T \\
 E \longrightarrow E - T \\
 E \longrightarrow T \\
 T \longrightarrow T * F \\
 T \longrightarrow T / F \\
 T \longrightarrow F \\
 F \longrightarrow - F \\
 F \longrightarrow ( E ) \\
 F \longrightarrow \text{const}
 \end{array}$$

### How do we tie these rules to mathematical concepts?

- **Attribute grammars** are annotated CFGs in which *annotations* are used to establish meaning relationships among symbols
  - Annotations are also known as decorations

- Each grammar symbol has a set of *attributes*  
E.g. the value of  $E_1$  is the attribute  $E_1.\text{val}$
- Each grammar rule has a set of rules over the symbol attributes  
-- *Copy rules, Semantic Function rules*  
E.g. sum, quotient

## Example

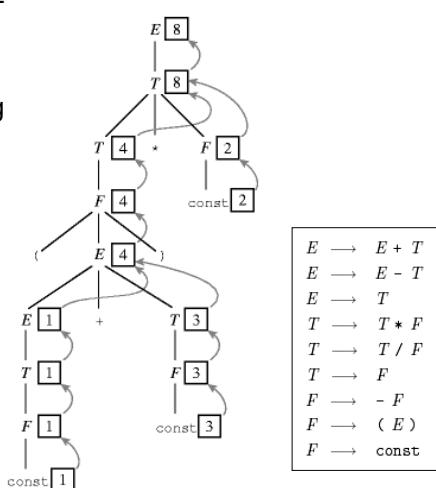
1:  $E_1 \rightarrow E_2 + T$   
     ▷  $E_1.\text{val} := \text{sum}(E_2.\text{val}, T.\text{val})$   
 2:  $E_1 \rightarrow E_2 - T$   
     ▷  $E_1.\text{val} := \text{difference}(E_2.\text{val}, T.\text{val})$   
 3:  $E \rightarrow T$   
     ▷  $E.\text{val} := T.\text{val}$   
 4:  $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 * F$   
     ▷  $T_1.\text{val} := \text{product}(T_2.\text{val}, F.\text{val})$

5: $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 / F$ ▷ $T_1.\text{val} := \text{quotient}(T_2.\text{val}, F.\text{val})$
6: $T \rightarrow F$ ▷ $T.\text{val} := F.\text{val}$
7: $F_1 \rightarrow - F_2$ ▷ $F_1.\text{val} := \text{additive\_inverse}(F_2.\text{val})$
8: $F \rightarrow ( E )$ ▷ $F.\text{val} := E.\text{val}$
9: $F \rightarrow \text{const}$ ▷ $F.\text{val} := \text{const}.val$

## Attribute Flow

- The figure shows the result of annotating the parse tree for  $(1+3)*2$
- Each symbol has at most one attribute shown in the corresponding box
  - Numerical value in this example
  - Operator symbols have no value
- Arrows represent *attribute flow*

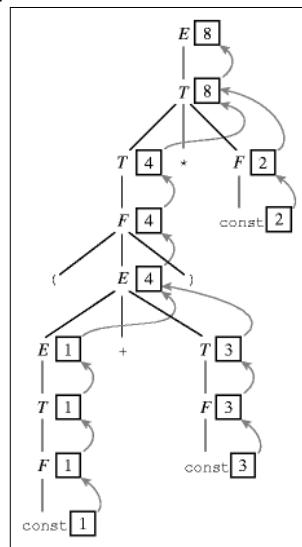
## Example



## Attribute Flow

- 1:  $E_1 \rightarrow E_2 + T$   
▷  $E_1.\text{val} := \text{sum}(E_2.\text{val}, T.\text{val})$
- 2:  $E_1 \rightarrow E_2 - T$   
▷  $E_1.\text{val} := \text{difference}(E_2.\text{val}, T.\text{val})$
- 3:  $E \rightarrow T$   
▷  $E.\text{val} := T.\text{val}$
- 4:  $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 * F$   
▷  $T_1.\text{val} := \text{product}(T_2.\text{val}, F.\text{val})$
- 5:  $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 / F$   
▷  $T_1.\text{val} := \text{quotient}(T_2.\text{val}, F.\text{val})$
- 6:  $T \rightarrow F$   
▷  $T.\text{val} := F.\text{val}$
- 7:  $F_1 \rightarrow -F_2$   
▷  $F_1.\text{val} := \text{additive\_inverse}(F_2.\text{val})$
- 8:  $F \rightarrow (E)$   
▷  $F.\text{val} := E.\text{val}$
- 9:  $F \rightarrow \text{const}$   
▷  $F.\text{val} := \text{const}.val$

## Example



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EEX6335/ EEX6363 -- Compiler Design/ Compiler Construction

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## Categories of Semantic Analysis

- Examples of semantic rules
  - Variables must be defined before being used
  - A variable should not be defined multiple times
  - In an assignment statement, the variable and the expression must have the same type
  - The test expression of an if statement must have Boolean type
- Two major categories
  - Semantic rules regarding **types**
  - Semantic rules regarding **scopes**

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## Type information and Type checking

- **Type Information:**

Describes **what kind of values** correspond to different constructs: variables, statements, expressions, functions, etc.

- variables: int a; integer
- expressions: (a+1) == 2 boolean
- statements: a = 1.0; floating-point
- functions: int pow(int n, int m) int = int, int

- **Type Checking:**

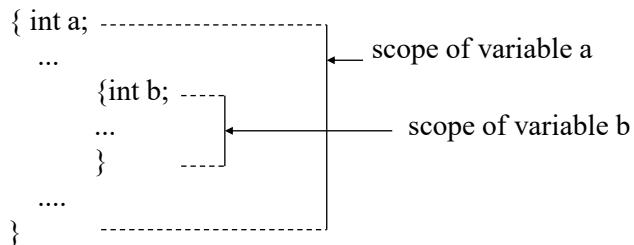
Set of rules which ensures the **type consistency of different constructs** in the program

## Scope Information

- Characterizes the **declaration of identifiers** and the **portions of the program** where it is allowed to use each identifier  
E.g., identifiers: variables, functions, objects, labels
- Lexical scope: **textual region** in the program  
E.g.,
  - Statement block, formal argument list, object body, function or method body, source file, whole program
- Scope of an identifier:  
The lexical scope its **declaration refers to**.

## Variable Scope

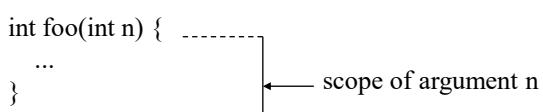
- Scope of variables in statement blocks:



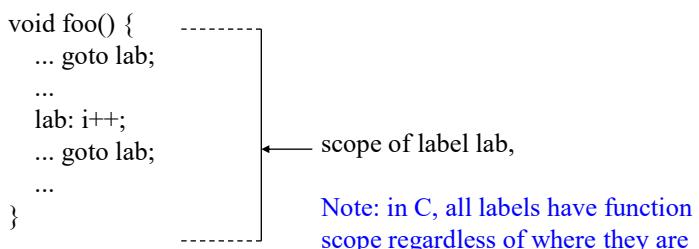
- Scope of global variables: [current file](#)
- Scope of external variables: [whole program](#)

## Function Parameter and Label Scope

- Scope of formal arguments of functions:



- Scope of labels:



## Scope in Class declaration

- Scope of object fields and methods:

```
class A {  
    public:  
        void f() {x=1;}  
        ...  
    private:  
        int x;  
        ...  
}
```



## Semantic Rules for Scopes

Main rules regarding scopes:

- Rule 1: Use each identifier only within its scope
- Rule 2: Do not declare identifier of the same kind with identical names more than once in the same lexical scope

```
class X {  
    int X;  
    void X(int X) {  
        X: ...  
        goto X;  
    }  
}
```

```
int X(int X) {  
    int X;  
    goto X;  
}  
  
{  
    int X;  
    X: X = 1;  
}  
}
```

Both are legal but **NOT** recommended!

## Symbol Tables

- Semantic **checks refer to properties of identifiers** in the program – their scope or type
- Need an **environment to store** the information about identifiers = **symbol table**
- Each entry in the symbol table **contains**:
  - Name of an identifier
  - Additional info about identifier: kind, type, constant?

NAME	KIND	TYPE	ATTRIBUTES
foo	func	int,int → int	extern
m	arg	int	
n	arg	int	const
tmp	var	char	const

## Scope Information

- How to **capture the scope information** in the symbol table?
- Idea:
  - There is a hierarchy of scopes in the program
  - Use similar hierarchy of symbol tables
  - One symbol table for each scope
  - Each symbol table contains the symbols declared in that lexical scope

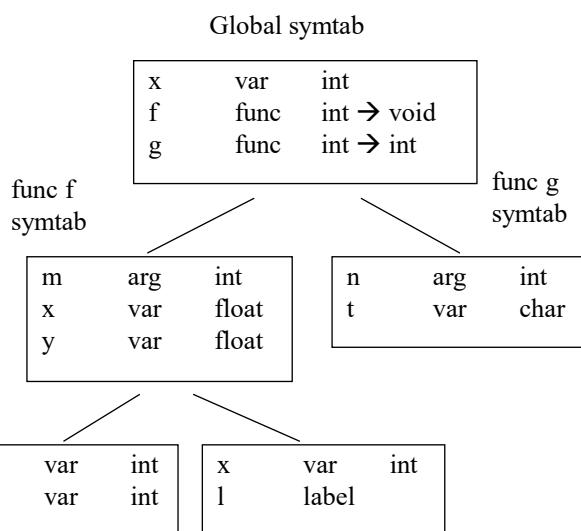
## Example

```

int x;

void f(int m) {
    float x, y;
    ...
    {int i, j; ...;}
    {int x; l: ...;}
}

int g(int n) {
    char t;
    ...
}
  
```



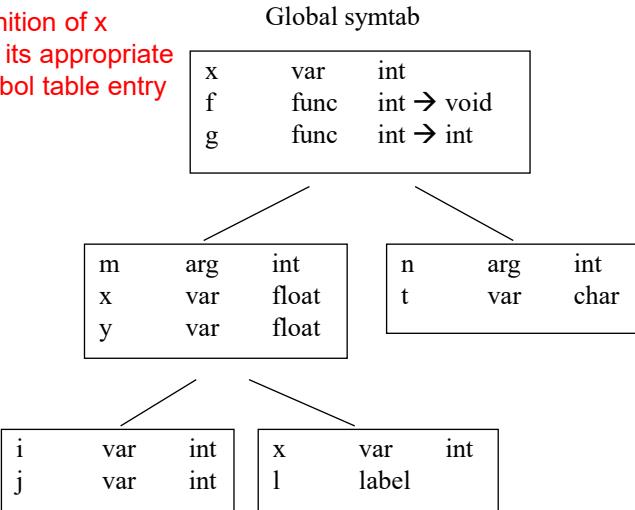
## Problem

Associate each definition of x with its appropriate symbol table entry

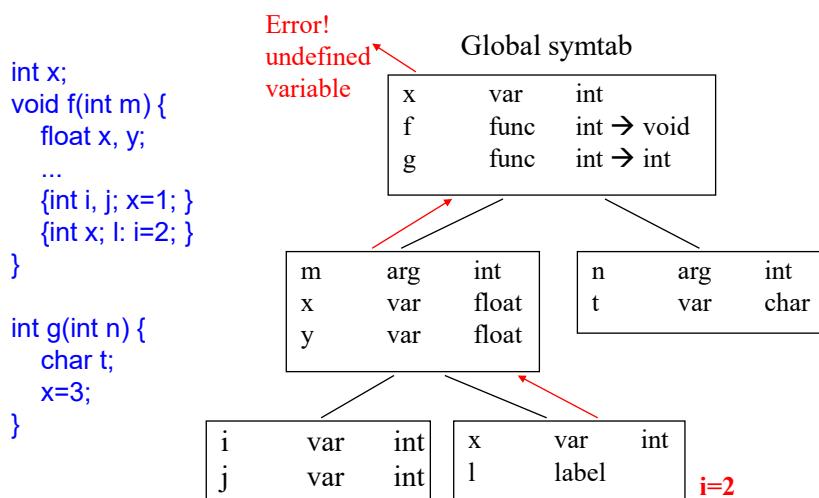
```

int x;
void f(int m) {
    float x, y;
    ...
    {int i, j; x=1; }
    {int x; l: x=2; }
}

int g(int n) {
    char t;
    x=3;
}
  
```



## Catching Semantic Errors

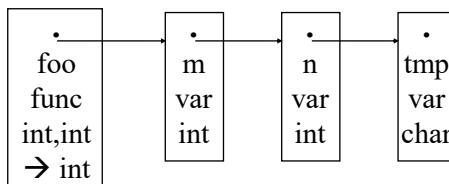


## Symbol Table Operations

- Two operations:
  - To build symbol tables, we need to insert new identifiers in the table
  - In the subsequent stages of the compiler, we need to access the information from the table: use lookup function
- Cannot build symbol tables** during lexical analysis
  - Hierarchy of scopes encoded in syntax
- Build the symbol tables:**
  - While parsing, using the semantic actions
  - After the AST is constructed

## List Implementation

- Simple implementation using a list
  - One cell per entry in the table
  - Can grow dynamically during compilation



- Disadvantage: **inefficient** for large tables
  - Need to scan half the list on average

## Hash table implementation

- Efficient implementation using hash table
  - Array of lists (buckets)
  - Use a hash on symbol name to map to corresponding bucket
    - Hash func: identifier name (string) → int
    - Note: include identifier type in match function

## Forward References

- Use of an identifier within the scope of its declaration, but **before it is declared**
- Any compiler phase that uses the information from the symbol table must be performed **after** the table is constructed
- Cannot type-check and build symbol table at the **same time**

E.g.,

```
class A {  
    int m() {return n();}  
    int n() {return 1;}  
}
```

## Type Checking

- Semantic checks to enforce the type safety of the program
- Examples
  - Unary and binary operators (e.g. +, ==, [ ]) must receive operands of the proper type
  - Functions must be invoked with the right number and type of arguments
  - Return statements must agree with the return type
  - In assignments, assigned value must be compatible with type of variable on LHS
  - Class members accessed appropriately

## 4 Concepts related to Types/Languages

1. **Static vs dynamic checking** -- When to check types
2. **Static vs dynamic typing** -- When to define types
3. **Strong vs weak typing** -- How many type errors
4. **Sound type systems** -- Statically catch all type errors

### Static vs Dynamic Checking

- Static type checking
  - Perform at compile time
- Dynamic type checking
  - Perform at run time (as the program executes)
- Examples of dynamic checking
  - Array bounds checking
  - Null pointer dereferences

## Static vs Dynamic Typing

Static and dynamic typing refer to type definitions

(i.e., bindings of types to variables, expressions, etc.)

- **Static typed language**

- Types defined at compile-time and do not change during the execution of the program
  - C, C++, Java, Pascal

- **Dynamically typed language**

- Types defined at run-time, as program executes
  - Lisp, Smalltalk

## Strong vs Weak Typing

- Refer to how much type consistency is enforced
- **Strongly typed languages** -- Guarantee accepted programs are type-safe
- **Weakly typed languages** -- Allow programs which contain type errors
- These concepts refer to run-time -- Can achieve strong typing using either static or dynamic typing

## Soundness

- **Sound type systems:** can statically ensure that the program is type-safe
- Soundness implies **strong typing**
- Static type safety requires a conservative approximation of the values that may occur during all possible executions
  - May reject type-safe programs
  - Need to be expressive: reject as few type-safe programs as possible

## Type Systems

- Type is predicate on a value
- **Type expressions:** Describe the possible types in the program
  - E.g., int, char\*, array[], object, etc.
- **Type system:** Defines types for language constructs
  - E.g., expressions, statements

## Type Expressions

- Language type systems have basic types (aka: primitive types or ground types) -- E.g., int, char\*, double
- Build type expressions using basic types:
  - **Type constructors**
    - Array types; Structure types; Pointer types
  - **Type aliases**
  - **Function types**

## Type Expressions: Arrays

- Various kinds of array types in different programming languages
- $\text{Array}(T)$ : arrays without bounds
  - C, Java:  $T[ ]$
- $\text{Array}(T,S)$ : array with size
  - C:  $T[S]$ , may be indexed 0 .. S-1
- $\text{Array}(T,L,U)$ : array with upper/lower bounds
  - Pascal:  $\text{array}[L .. U] \text{ of } T$
- $\text{Array}(T, S_1, \dots, S_n)$ : multi-dimensional arrays
  - Fortran:  $T(L_1, \dots, L_n)$

## Type Expressions: Structures / Functions

- Structures
  - Has form {id1: T1, ..., idn: Tn} for some identifiers id<sub>i</sub> and types T<sub>i</sub>
  - Is essentially cartesian product: (id<sub>1</sub> x T<sub>1</sub>) x ... x (id<sub>n</sub> x T<sub>n</sub>)
  - Supports access operations on each field, with corresponding type
  - Objects: extension of structure types
- Functions
  - Type: T<sub>1</sub> x T<sub>2</sub> x ... x T<sub>n</sub> → T<sub>r</sub>
  - Function value can be invoked with some argument expressions with types T<sub>i</sub>, returns type T<sub>r</sub>

## Type Expressions: Aliases / Pointers

- Type aliases
  - C: `typedef int int_array[ ];`
  - **Aliases are not type constructors**
    - `Int_array` is the same type as `int [ ]`
  - Problem: Different type expressions may denote the same type
- Pointers
  - Pointer types characterize values that are addresses of variables of other types
  - C pointers: T\*     e.g., `int *x;`

## Implementation

- Use a separate class hierarchy for types:
  - `class BaseType extends Type {String name;}`
  - `class IntType extends BaseType { ... }`
  - `class FloatType extends BaseType { ... }`
  - `class ArrayType extends BaseType { ... }`
  - `class FunctionType extends BaseType { ... }`
- Semantic analysis translates all type expressions to type objects
- Symbol table binds name to type object

## Creating Type Objects

- Build types while parsing – use a syntax-directed definition
  - non terminal Type type
  - type : INTEGER
    - `{ $$ = new IntType(id); }`
  - | ARRAY LBRACKET type RBRACKET
    - `{ $$ = new ArrayType($3); } ;`
- Type objects are the abstract syntax tree (AST) nodes for type expressions

## Type Checking

- Type checking is verify typing rules
  - E.g., “Operands of + must be integer expressions; the result is an integer expression”

**Option 1:** Implement using syntax-directed definitions (type-check during the parsing)

```
expr: expr PLUS expr {  
    if ($1 == IntType && $3 == IntType)  
        $$ = IntType  
    else  
        TypeCheckError("+");  
}
```

**Option 2:** First build the AST, then implement type checking by recursive traversal of the AST nodes:

```
class Add extends Expr {  
    Type typeCheck() {  
        Type t1 = e1.typeCheck(), t2 = e2.typeCheck();  
        if (t1 == Int && t2 == Int) return Int  
        else TypeCheckError("+");  
    }  
}
```

## Type Checking Identifiers

- Identifier expressions: Lookup the type in the symbol table

```
class IdExpr extends Expr {  
    Identifier id;  
    Type typeCheck() {return id.lookupType();}  
}
```

## Type judgments for statements

- Statements may be expressions (i.e., represent values)
- Use type judgments for statements:
  - $\text{if } (b) \ 2 \ \text{else} \ 3 : \text{int}$
  - $x == 10 : \text{bool}$
  - $b = \text{true}, y = 2 : \text{int}$
- For statements which are not expressions: use a special unit type (void or empty type)
  - $S : \text{unit}$  means “S is a well-typed statement with no result type”

### • Deriving a Judgment

- Consider the judgment
  - $\text{if } (b) \ 2 \ \text{else} \ 3 : \text{int}$
- What do we need to decide that this is a well-typed expression of type int?
  - b must be a bool ( $b : \text{bool}$ );      2 must be an int ( $2 : \text{int}$ );
  - 3 must be an int ( $3 : \text{int}$ )

## Static Semantics and Type Judgments

- Static semantics is the formal notation which describes type judgments:
  - $E : T$
  - means “E is a well-typed expression of type T”
- Type judgment examples:
  - $2 : \text{int}$
  - $\text{true} : \text{bool}$
  - $2 * (3 + 4) : \text{int}$
  - “Hello” : string
- Type judgment notation:  $A \vdash^\bullet E : T$ 
  - Means “In the context A, the expression E is a well-typed expression with type T”

Type context is a set of type bindings:  $\text{id} : T$

(i.e. type context = symbol table)

$$\begin{array}{l} b: \text{bool}, x: \text{int} \quad \vdash b: \text{bool} \\ b: \text{bool}, x: \text{int} \quad \vdash \bullet \text{ if } (b) 2 \text{ else } x : \text{int} \\ \quad \vdash \bullet \quad 2 + 2 : \text{int} \end{array}$$

## Deriving a Judgment

- To show

$$b: \text{bool}, x: \text{int} \quad \vdash \bullet \text{ if } (b) 2 \text{ else } x : \text{int}$$

- Need to show

$$\begin{array}{l} b: \text{bool}, x: \text{int} \quad \vdash b : \text{bool} \\ b: \text{bool}, x: \text{int} \quad \vdash 2 : \text{int} \\ b: \text{bool}, x: \text{int} \quad \vdash \bullet \quad x : \text{int} \end{array}$$

## Assignment Statements

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{id} : T \in A \\ A \vdash E : T \end{array}}{A \vdash \text{id} = E : T} \quad (\text{variable-assign})$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} A \vdash E3 : T \\ A \vdash E2 : \text{int} \\ A \vdash E1 : \text{array}[T] \end{array}}{A \vdash E1[E2] = E3 : T} \quad (\text{array-assign})$$

## Sequence Statements

- Rule: A sequence of statements is well-typed if the first statement is well-typed, and the remaining are well-typed as well:

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} A \vdash S1 : T1 \\ A \vdash (S2; \dots; Sn) : Tn \end{array}}{A \vdash (S1; S2; \dots; Sn) : Tn} \quad (\text{sequence})$$

## If Statements

- If statement as an expression: its value is the value of the clause that is executed

$$\frac{A \vdash E : \text{bool} \quad A \vdash S_1 : T \quad A \vdash S_2 : T}{A \vdash \text{if}(E) S_1 \text{ else } S_2 : T} \quad (\text{if-then-else})$$

- If with no else clause, no value, why??

$$\frac{A \vdash E : \text{bool} \quad A \vdash S : T}{A \vdash \text{if}(E) S : \text{unit}} \quad (\text{if-then})$$

## Declarations

$$\frac{A \stackrel{\bullet}{\vdash} id : T [= E] : T_1 \quad A, id : T \stackrel{\bullet}{\vdash} (S_2; \dots; S_n) : T_n}{A \stackrel{\bullet}{\vdash} (id : T [= E]; S_2; \dots; S_n) : T_n} \quad \begin{array}{l} \bullet = \text{unit if no } E \\ \bullet(\text{declaration}) \end{array}$$

Declarations add entries to the environment (e.g., the symbol table)

## Function Calls

- If expression E is a function value, it has a type  $T_1 \times T_2 \times \dots \times T_n \rightarrow T_r$
- $T_i$  are argument types, where  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ; and  $T_r$  is the return type
- How to type-check a function call?  $E(E_1, \dots, E_n)$

$$\frac{A \vdash E : T_1 \times T_2 \times \dots \times T_n \rightarrow T_r \quad A \vdash E_i : T_i \quad (i \in 1 \dots n)}{A \vdash E(E_1, \dots, E_n) : T_r} \quad (\text{function-call})$$

## Function Declarations

- Consider a function declaration of the form:
  - $\text{Tr fun } (T_1 a_1, \dots, T_n a_n) = E$
  - Equivalent to:  
 $\text{Tr fun } (T_1 a_1, \dots, T_n a_n) \{\text{return } E;\}$
- Type of function body  $S$  must match declared return type of function, i.e.,  $E : \text{Tr}$
- **But, in what type context?**

## Add arguments to environment

- Let  $A$  be the context surrounding the function declaration.
  - The function declaration:  $\text{Tr fun } (T_1 a_1, \dots, T_n a_n) = E$
  - Is well-formed if  
$$A, a_1 : T_1, \dots, a_n : T_n \quad E : \text{Tr}$$
- What about recursion?
  - Need:  $\text{fun: } T_1 \times T_2 \times \dots \times T_n \rightarrow \text{Tr} \in A$

## Mutual Recursion

- Example
  - $\text{int } f(\text{int } x) = g(x) + 1;$
  - $\text{int } g(\text{int } x) = f(x) - 1;$
- Need environment containing at least
  - $f: \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}, g: \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$
  - when checking both  $f$  and  $g$
- **Two-pass approach:**
  - Scan top level of AST picking up all function signatures and creating an environment binding all global identifiers
  - Type-check each function individually using this global environment

## How to check return?

- A return statement produces no value for its containing context to use
- Does not return control to containing context
- Suppose we use type unit ...
  - Then how to make sure the return type of the current function is T?

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \bullet A \vdash E : T \\ \bullet A \vdash \text{return } E : \text{unit} \end{array}}{\bullet (\text{return})}$$

• Put return in the Symbol table:

- Add a special entry {return\_fun : T} when we start checking the function “fun”, look up this entry when we hit a return statement
- To check  $\text{Tr fun (T1 a1, ..., Tn an) \{ S \}}$  in environment A, need to check:

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \bullet A, a1 : T1, \dots, an : Tn, \text{return\_fun : Tr} \vdash A : \text{Tr} \\ \bullet A \vdash E : T \quad \text{return\_fun : T} \in A \end{array}}{\bullet A \vdash \text{return } E : \text{unit}}$$

•(return)

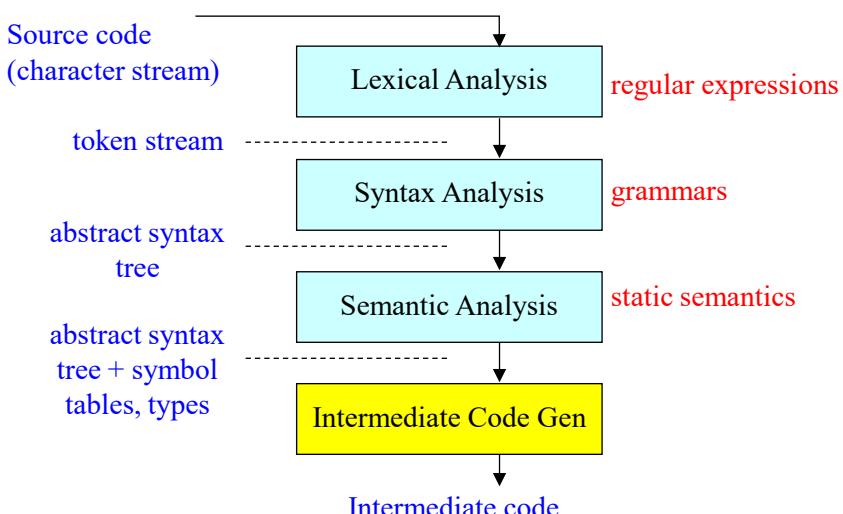
## Static Semantics Summary

- Static semantics = formal specification of type-checking rules
- Concise form of static semantics: typing rules expressed as inference rules
- Expression and statements are well-formed (or well-typed) if a typing derivation (proof tree) can be constructed using the inference rules

## Review of Semantic Analysis

- Check errors not detected by lexical or syntax analysis
- Scope errors
  - Variables not defined
  - Multiple declarations
- Type errors
  - Assignment of values of different types
  - Invocation of functions with different number of parameters or parameters of incorrect type
  - Incorrect use of return statements
- The most common way of *specifying* the semantics of a language is plain English
- There is a lack of formal rigor in the semantic specification of programming languages -- guess why

## Where we are...



## The code generator

- The code generator typically enters and uses detailed information about the storage assigned to identifiers.
- The following issues arise during the code generation phase :
  1. Input to code generator
  2. Target program
  3. Memory management
  4. Instruction selection
  5. Register allocation
  6. Evaluation order
- Each phase in a compiler can encounter errors.
- However, after detecting an error, a phase must somehow deal with that error, so that compilation can proceed, allowing further errors in the source program to be detected.

## Error detection and Reporting:

- A compiler that stops when it finds the first error is not as helpful as it could be.
- The syntax and semantic analysis phases usually handle a large fraction of the errors detectable by the compiler.
- Errors where the token stream violates the structure rules (syntax) of the language are determined by the syntax analysis phase.
- The lexical phase can detect errors where the characters remaining in the input do not form any token of the language.
- After Syntax and semantic analysis, some compilers generate an explicit intermediate representation of the source program.
- We can think of this intermediate representation as a program for an abstract machine.

## Intermediate form – Three-address code

- We consider an intermediate form called “three-address code” (TAC or 3AC), which every memory location can act like a register.
- The 3AC is an intermediate language that maps directly to “assembly pseudo-code”, i.e. architecture-independent assembly code.
- It breaks the program into short uniform statements requiring no more than three variables (hence its name) and no more than one operator.
- As it is an intermediate (abstract) language, its “addresses” represent symbolic addresses (i.e. variables), as opposed to either registers or memory addresses that would be used by the target machine code.
- These characteristics allows 3AC to:
  - be more abstract than assembly language, enabling optimizations at the higher abstract level.
  - have high resemblance to assembly language, enabling easy **translation to assembly language**.

## Three-address code

source	3AC
$x = a+b*c$	$t := b*c$ $x := a+t$
$x = (-b+\sqrt{b^2-4*a*c})/(2*a)$	$t1 := b * b$ $t2 := 4 * a$ $t3 := t2 * c$ $t4 := t1 - t3$ $t5 := \sqrt{t4}$ $t6 := \theta - b$ $t7 := t5 + t6$ $t8 := 2 * a$ $t9 := t7 / t8$ $x := t9$
<pre>for (i = 0; i &lt; 10; ++i) {     b[i] = i*i; } ...</pre>	L1: $t0 := 0$ $t1 = t1 >= 10$ $if t1 goto L2$ $t2 := t0 * t0$ $t3 := t0 * 4$ $t4 := b + t3$ $*t4 := t2$ $t0 := t0 + 1$ $goto L1$ L2: ...

3AC	ASM
t := b*c	L 3,b M 3,c ST 3,t
x := a+t	L 3,a A 3,t ST 3,x

- The temporary variables are generated at compile time and **may be added to the symbol table**.
- In the generated code, the variables will refer **to actual memory cells**. Their address (or alias) may also be stored in the symbol table.
- 3AC can also be represented as **quadruples**, which are even **more related to assembly languages**.

3AC	Quadruples
t := b*c	MULT t,b,c
x := a+t	ADD x,a,t

### Intermediate languages:

- In this case, we generate code in a language for which we already have a compiler or interpreter.
- Such languages are generally low-level and dedicated to the compiler construction task.
- It provides the compiler writer with a "virtual machine".
- Various compilers can be built using the same intermediate language and virtual machine.
- The virtual machine compiler can be compiled on different machines to provide a translator to various architectures.
- Many contemporary languages, such as *Java, Perl, PHP, Python* and *Ruby* use a similar execution architecture.
- For the project, you can use any processor's architecture, which provides a virtual assembly language and a compiler/interpreter for that language.

## More examples:

```
1 entry % =====program entry=====  
2 align % following instruction align  
3 addi R1, R0, topaddr % initialize the stack pointer  
4 addi R2, R0, topaddr % initialize the frame pointer  
5 subi R1, R1, 12 % set the stack pointer to the top position of the stack  
6 addi R14, R0, 2 %  
7 sw -12(R2), R14 %  
8 addi R8, R0, 34 %  
9 sw -8(R2), R8 %  
10 lw R6, -12(R2) %  
11 lw R9, -8(R2) %  
12 lw R11, -12(R2) %  
13 mul R9, R9, R11 %  
14 add R6, R6, R9 %  
15 sw -4(R2), R6 %  
16 lw R10, -4(R2) %  
17 putc R10 %  
18 hlt % =====end of program=====
```

```
1 program {  
2     int x;  
3     int y;  
4     int z;  
5     x = 2;  
6     y = 34;  
7     z = x + y * x;  
8     put (z);  
9 }
```

```
1 entry % =====program entry=====  
2 align % following instruction align  
3 addi R1, R0, topaddr % initialize the stack pointer  
4 addi R2, R0, topaddr % initialize the frame pointer  
5 subi R1, R1, 4 % set the stack pointer to the top position of the stack  
6 addi R14, R0, 65 %  
7 sw -4(R2), R14 %  
8 lw R8, -4(R2) %  
9 ceqi R8, R8, 1 %  
10 bz R8, else_1 % if statement  
11 addi R6, R0, 65 %  
12 sw -4(R2), R6 %  
13 j endif_1 % jump out of the else block  
14 else_1 addi R9, R0, 66 %  
15 sw -4(R2), R9 %  
16 endif_1 nop % end of the if statement  
17 lw R11, -4(R2) %  
18 putc R11 %  
19 hlt % =====end of program=====
```

```
1 program {  
2     int x;  
3     x = 65;  
4     if (x == 1) then {  
5         x = 65;  
6     } else {  
7         x = 66;  
8     };  
9     put (x);  
10 }
```

## Variable declarations and value access/assignment:

- Integer variable declaration:    `int x;`

`x res 4`

where `x` is an alias to the fixed address of the memory cell containing the value of variable `x`. Such aliases are (unique) labels generated during the parse and stored in the symbol table.

*Note that the labelling method of referring to values has great limitations, as it assumes that every variable in the program is unique and permanently and statically allocated.*

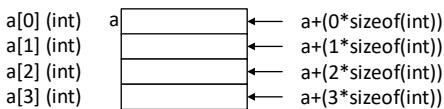
- To load or change the content of an integer variable:    `lw r1,x(r0)`  
`sw x(r0),r1`

where `x` is the label of variable `x`, `r1` is the register containing the value of variable `x` and `r0` is assumed to contain 0 (offset).

- Array of integers variable declaration:

`int a[4];`

`a res 16`



- *Element address = base address of the array + (offset number \*number of bytes)*

- Accessing elements of an array of integers requires the use of offsets:

`x = a[2];`

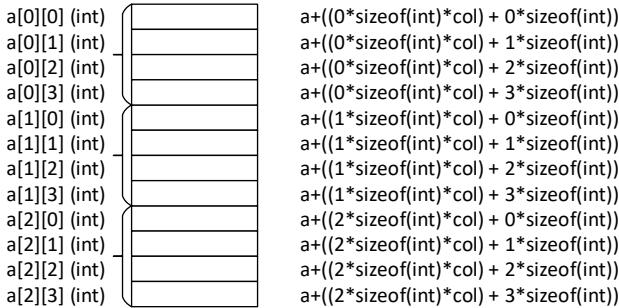
`addi r1,r0,8`  
`lw r2,a(r1)`  
`sw x(r0),r2`

% add immediate  
% load word  
% store word

- Multidimensional arrays of integers:

```
int a[3][4];
```

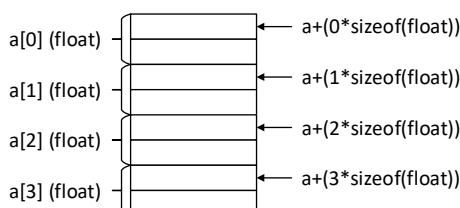
a	res 48
---	--------



- To access specific elements, a more elaborated offset calculation needs to be implemented.

- For arrays of elements of aggregate type, or arrays where each element takes more than one memory cell:
  - The offset calculation needs to take into account the size of each element.

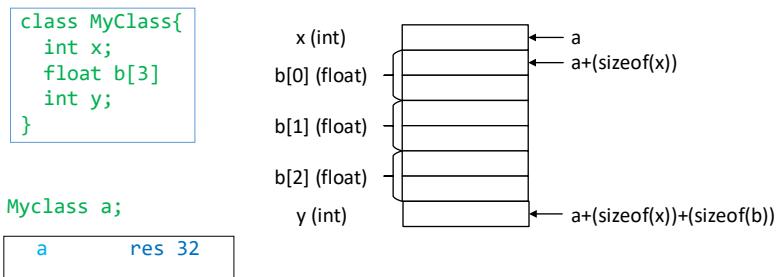
For example, assuming a float takes 8 bytes (2 words):



```
float f[4];
```

f	res 32
---	--------

- For an object variable declaration, each data member is stored contiguously in the order in which it is declared.



- The offsets are calculated according to the total size of the data members preceding the member to access.

```

x = a.b[2]...
x = a + (sizeof(x)) + sizeof(float)*2

```

```

addi r1,r0,4
addi r1,r1,16
lw r2,a(r1)
sw x(r0),r2

```

- Offsets can be pre-calculated in a previous phase and stored in the symbol table.
- This will eventually make code generation easier, and the generated code to be more concise.

=====				
class		MyClass		
		=====		
table: MyClass		scope size: 32		
=====		=====		
var	x	int	4	0
var	b	float	24	4
var	y	int	4	28
=====				

- Arithmetic operators

a+b

```
lw r1,a(r0)
lw r2,b(r0)
add r3,r1,r2
t1 res 4
sw t1(r0),r3
```

a+8

```
lw r1,a(r0)
addi r2,r1,8
t2 res 4
sw t2(r0),r2
```

a\*b

```
lw r1,a(r0)
lw r2,b(r0)
mul r3,r1,r2
t3 res 4
sw t3(r0),r3
```

a\*8

```
lw r1,a(r0)
muli r2,r1,8
t4 res 4
sw t4(r0),r2
```

- Relational operators

a==b

```
lw r1,a(r0)
lw r2,b(r0)
ceq r3,r1,r2
t5 res 4
sw t5(r0),r3
```

a==8

```
lw r1,a(r0)
ceqi r2,r1,8
t6 res 4
sw t6(r0),r2
```

### Code generation: suggested sequence

- Suggested sequence:
  - variable declarations (integers first)
  - expressions (one operator at a time)
  - assignment statement
  - read and write statements
  - conditional statement
  - loop statement
  
- Tricky parts:
  - function calls
  - expressions involving arrays and classes (offset calculation)
  - floating point numbers
  - function call stack
  - expressions involving access to object members (offset calculations)
  - calls to member functions (access to object's data members)

### Code generation:

Main target → creation of the object/target code

by performing:

the exact meaning of the source  
code and the efficient use of  
CPU and memory management.

how organize/design → with

- instruction selection and ordering, register allocation,
- identify the flow of values among the basic blocks by Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG) and represent by postfix
- 3AC (quadruples/ triples/ indirect triples)
- VM instructions (object/ stack-machine codes)

Implemented – via updating symbol table (adding an offset column)

- using tag-based or stack-based methods
- verifying the correctness with test cases.

DP

# Thank You

*END.*