Compiler

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May 6, 2019

Contents

1 Chap1 introduction

source code -> scanner -> [tokens] -> parser -> [syntax tree] -> semantic analyzer -> [annotated tree] -> source code optimizer -> [intermediate code] -> code generator -> [target code] -> target code optimizer -> [target code]

2 chap2 scanning

source code(**character stream**) -> **token stream**. Use regular expression. a R|S RS R* R+=R(R*) R?=(R|) [abce]=(a|b|c|e) [a-z] [^{az}]=anything but one of the listed chars

comment "*"([*/]|[*]""|""[^/])"*/"

finite automata

Thompson's construction

Minimizing the number of states in a DFA

1. it begins with the most optimistic assumptions possible: it create two sets
   - one consisting of all the accepting states
   - the other consisting of all the nonaccepting states
2. given this partition of the states of the original DFA, consider the transitions on **each character** a of the alphabet
   - if all accepting states have transitions on a to accepting states, defines an a-transition from the new accepting state to itself
   - if all accepting states have transitions on a to nonaccepting states ...
3. given this partition of the states of the original DFA, consider the transitions on each character a of the alphabet
   - if there are two accepting states s and t that have transitions on a that land in different sets, no a-transition can be defined for this grouping of the states. a distinguish the states s and t
   - if there are two accpeting states s and t s.t. s has an a-transition to another accepting state, while t has no a-transition at all. a distinguish s and t

3 Chap3 context-free grammars and parsing

3.1 context-free grammars

A context-free grammar involves recursion rules. 4-tuple $(V, \Sigma, S, \rightarrow)$. V nonterminal. terminal. S start symbol. $\rightarrow \subset V \times (V \cup \Sigma)*$

Left recursive: the nonterminal A appears as the first symbol on the right-hand side of the rule defining A

Right recusive:

-production: empty-> A grammar that generates a language containing the empty string must have at least one **-production**

3.2 Parse tree and abstract syntax trees

3.2.1 parse tree

A **parse tree** corresponding to a derivation is a labeled tree

- the interior nodes are labeled by **nonterminals**
- the leaf is **terminals**

left-most derivation

3.2.2 abstract symtax tree

```
  +
 / \
3   4
```

3.3 Ambiguity

3.3.1 ambiguity grammars

ambiguous grammar: a grammar that generates a string with two distinct parse trees

Two basic methods:

1. A rule: that specifies in each ambiguous case which of the parse trees is the correct one. **disambbiguating rule**
   - associativity
2. change the grammar

3.3.2 precedence and associativity

A *left recursive* rule makes its operators associate on the left

3.3.3 the dangling else problem

⟨*statement*⟩ ::= ⟨*if-stmt*⟩
 | ‘`other`’

⟨*if-stmt*⟩ ::= ‘`if`’ ‘`(`’ ⟨*exp*⟩ ‘`)`’ ⟨*statement*⟩
 | ‘`if`’ ‘`(`’ ⟨*exp*⟩ ‘`)`’ ⟨*statement*⟩ ‘`else`’ ⟨*statement*⟩

disambiguating rule is **most closely nested rule**. grammar is

⟨*statement*⟩ `->` ⟨*matched-stmt*⟩
 | ⟨*unmatched-stmt*⟩

⟨*matched-stmt*⟩ `->` ‘`if`’ ‘`(`’ ⟨*exp*⟩ ‘`)`’ ⟨*matched-stmt*⟩ ‘`else`’ ⟨*matched-stmt*⟩
 | ‘`other`’

⟨*unmatched-stmt*⟩ `->` ‘`if`’ ‘`(`’ ⟨*exp*⟩ ‘`)`’ ⟨*statement*⟩
 | ‘`if`’ ‘`(`’ ⟨*exp*⟩ ‘`)`’ ⟨*matched-stmt*⟩ ‘`else`’ ⟨*unmatched-stmt*⟩

⟨*exp*⟩ `->` ‘`0`’
 | ‘`1`’

3.3.4 inessential ambiguity

sometimes a grammar may be ambiguous and yet always produce unique *abstract syntax tree.*

inessential ambiguity: the associated semantics don’t depend on what disambiguating rule is used

3.3.5 extended notations: EBNF and syntax diagrams

$A \to A\ \alpha \mid \beta \Longrightarrow A \to \beta\ \{\alpha\}$. $A \to \alpha\ A \mid \beta \Longrightarrow A \to \{\alpha\}\ \beta$

3.4 Formal properties of context-free language

A context-free grammar consists of the following

1. T terminals

2. N nonterminals

3. P grammar rules

4. S start symbol

sentential form a string a in $(T \cup N)*$

A grammar G is **ambiguous** if there exists a string $w \in L(G)$ s.t. w has two distinct parse trees

4 Chap4 top-down parsing

4.1 Top-down parsing by recursive-descent

not easy and use EBNF

$\langle$*if-stmt*$\rangle$ ::= '`if`' '`(`' $\langle$*exp*$\rangle$ '`)`' $\langle$*statement*$\rangle$
| '`if`' '`(`' $\langle$*exp*$\rangle$ '`)`' $\langle$*statement*$\rangle$ '`else`' $\langle$*statement*$\rangle$

to if-stmt -> if (exp) statement [else statement]

4.2 LL(1) parsing

use an explicit stack rather than recursive calls.

$\langle S\rangle$ ::= $\langle E\rangle$ '`+`' $\langle S\rangle$
| $\langle E\rangle$

$\langle E\rangle$ ::= '`num`'
| '`(`' $\langle S\rangle$ '`)`'

.

partly-derived string	lookahead	parsed part	unparsed part
S	(		(1+2+(3+4))+5
E+S	(		(1+2+(3+4))+5
(S)+S	1	(	1+2+(3+4))+5
(E+S)+S	1	(	1+2+(3+4))+5
(1+S)+S	2	(1+	2+(3+4))+5
(1+E+S)+S	2	(1+	2+(3+4))+5
(1+2+S)+S	(	(1+2+(	(3+4))+5

For $S \rightarrow (S)\ S \mid \epsilon$

step	parsing	input	action
1	$S	()$	S->(S)S
2	$S)S(	()$	match
3	$S)S	)$	S->e
4	$S)	)$	match
5	$S	$	S->e
6	$	$	match

Two actions:

1. generate
2. match: match a token on top of the stack with the next input token

This corresponds to the leftmost derivation. **characteristic of top-down parsing**

4.2.1 LL(1) parsing table

parsing table

M[N,T]	(	)	$
S	S->(S)S	S->e	S->e

M is the set of non-terminals. T is the set of terminals or tokens including $

Table-constructing rule:

1. if $A \to \alpha$ is a production choice and there is a derivation $\alpha \Rightarrow *a\beta$ where a is a token then add $A \to \alpha$ to M[A,a]
2. if $A \to \alpha$ and $\alpha \Rightarrow *\epsilon, S\$ \Rightarrow^* \beta A a \gamma$, where S is the start symbol and a is a token(or $), then add $A \to \alpha$ to M[A,a]

A grammar is LL(1) if LL(1) parsing table has at most one production in each entry

4.2.2 left recursion removal and left factoring

left recursion removal

- **immediate left recursion**: $exp \to exp\ +\ term|exp\ -\ term|term$
- **indirect left recursion**: $A \to Bb$ and $B \to Aa$

1. Simple immediate left recursion. $A \to A\alpha|\beta$ to $A \to \beta\ A'$ and $A' \to \alpha\ A'|\epsilon$
2. general immediate left recursion. $A \to A\alpha_1|\dots|A\alpha_n|\beta_1|\dots|\beta_m$ to $A \to \beta_1 A'|\dots|\beta_m A'$ and $A' \to \alpha_1 A'|\dots|\alpha_n A'|\epsilon$
3. general left recursion. grammars with no \$$\epsilon$\$-productions and no cycles

doesn't change language, but changes the grammar and parse tree
left factoring. $A \to \alpha\beta|\alpha\gamma$ to $A \to \alpha A'$ and $A' \to \beta \mid \gamma$

4.2.3 Syntax tree construction in LL(1) parsing

4.3 First and follow sets

X a grammar symbol(a terminal or non-terminal) or ϵ. Then First(X) is

1. if X is a terminal or ϵ, then First(X)={X}
2. if X is a non-terminal, for each $X \to X_1 X_2 \dots X_n$, First(X) contains First(X1) - {e}

A non-terminal A is **nullable** iff there exists $A \Rightarrow^* \epsilon$ iff First(A) contains ϵ

Follow(A) is

1. if A is start symbol, \$ is in Follow(A)
2. if $B \to \alpha A\gamma$, then $\text{First}(\gamma) - \{\epsilon\} \subseteq \text{Follow}(A)$
3. if $B \to \alpha A\gamma, \epsilon \in \text{First}(\gamma)$, then Follow(A) contains Follow(B)

4.4 Error recovery in top-down parsers

5 Chap5 Bottom-up parsing

5.1 Overview of bottom-up parsing

- A bottom-up parser uses an **explicit stack** to perform a parse
- The parsing stack will contain both tokens and nonterminals

\$	inputstring \$
...	...
\$StartSymbol	\$accept

- **right-most** derivation – backward start with the tokens; end with the start symbol

  (1+2+(3+4))+5
  (E+2+(3+4))+5
  (S+2+(3+4))+5
  (S+E+(3+4))+5
  (S+(3+4))+5
  (S+(E+4))+5
  (S+(S+4))+5
  (S+(S+E))+5
  (S+(S))+5
  (S+E)+5
  (S)+5
  E+5
  S+5
  S+E
  S

- **parsing actions**: a sequence of **shift** and **reduce** operations **parser state**: a stack of terminals and non-terminals **current derivation step** = always stack + input

derivation	step stack	unconsumed input
(1+2+(3+4))+5		(1+2+(3+4))+5
	(	1+2+(3+4))+5
(E+2+(3+4))+5	(E	+2+(3+4))+5
(S+2+(3+4))+5	(S	+2+(3+4))+5
	(S+	2+(3+4))+5
	(S+2	+(3+4))+5
(S+E+(3+4))+5	(S+E	+(3+4))+5

- 1. **shift**: shift a terminal from the front of the input to the top of the stack

  1. **reduce**: reduce a string at the top of the stack to a nonterminal A, given the BNF choice A

  A bottom-up parser: **shift-reduce parser**

- One further feature of bottom-up parsers grammars are always augmented with a **new start symbol**. if S is the start symbol, a new start symbol S' is added to the grammar : S' S

- example

  S'->S

  S ->(S)S|e

  S'=>S=>(S)S=>(S)=>()

	Parsing stack	Input	Action
1	$	( ) $	Shift
2	$ (	) $	Reduce S ->
3	$ (S	) $	Shift
4	$ (S)	$	Reduce S ->
5	$ (S) S	$	Reduce S –> (S) S
6	$S	$	Reduce S'–> S
7	$S'	$	Accept

- example

  E'->E

  E->E+n|n

  E'=>E=>E+n=>n+n

	Parsing stack	Input	Action
1	$	n+n$	Shift
2	$n	+n$	Reduce E->n
3	$E	+n$	Shift
4	$E+	n$	Shift
5	$E+n	$	Reduce E->E+n
6	$E	$	Reduce E'->E
7	$E'	$	Accept

Right sentential form

- A **sentential** form is any string derivable from the start symbol. Note that this includes the forms with non-terminals at intermediate steps as well.
- A **right-sentential form** is a sentential form that occurs in a step of rightmost derivation (RMD). Each of the intermediate strings of terminals and nonterminals in such a derivation is called a right sentential form Each such sentential form is split between the parsing stack and the input during a shift-reduce parse
- A **sentence** is a sentential form consisting only of terminals

E,E+,E+n are **viable prefixes** of the right sentential form E+n. The sequence of symbols on the parsing stack is called **viable prefix** of the right sentential form

- **handle** This string, together with the **position** in the right sentential form where it occurs, and the production used to reduced it, is called the **handle** of the right sentential form

  determining the next handle in a parse is the main task of a shift-reduce parser

5.2 Finite automata of LR(0) items and LR(0) parsing

- An **LR(0) item** of a context-free grammar: a production choice with a distinguished position in its right-hand side
- If **A ->** , = , then **A -> ů** is an LR(0) item
- Example

S' -> S
S -> (S)S \ e
S' -> ůS
S' -> Sů
S -> ů(S)S
S -> (ůS)S
S -> (Sů)S
S -> (S)ůS
S -> (S)Sů
S -> ů

5.2.1 Finite automata of items

- The LR(0) items: as the state of a finite automata
- construct the DFA of sets of LR(0) using the subset construction from NFA
- If X is a token or a nonterminal

$$A \to \alpha \cdot X\eta \xrightarrow{\quad\text{X}\quad} A \to \alpha X \cdot \eta$$

- If X is a token, then this transition corresponds to a shift of X from the input to the top of the stack during a parse
- if X is a nonterminal, X will never appear as an input symbol

$$A \to \alpha \cdot X\eta \xrightarrow{\qquad\quad \epsilon \qquad\quad} X \to \cdot\beta$$

- The **start state** of the NFA the **initial state** of the parser: the stack is empty
- the solution is to augment the grammar by a single production S' -> S
- **S'->ůS** the **start state** of the NFA

5.2.2 The LR(0) parsing algorithm

- the parsing stack to store: **symbols** and **state numbers**
- pushing the new **state number** onto the parsing stack after each push of **a symbol**
- Let s be the current state. Then actions are
  1. if state s contains any item of the form **A -> ůX** (X is a terminal). Then the action is to shift the current input token onto the stack
  2. If state s contains any **complete item** (an item of the form **A->ů**), then the action is to reduce by the rule **A->ů**
     - A **reduction** by the rule **S'->S** where S' is the start state
     - **acceptance** if the input is empty
     - **Error** if the input is not empty
- A grammar is **LR(0)** grammar if the above rules are unambiguous
- A grammar is **LR(0)** iff
  - Each state is a shift state
  - A reduce state containing a single complete item
- table

state	action	rule	input	input	input	goto
			(	a	)	A
0	shift		3	2		1
1	reduce	A'->A				
2	reduce	A->(A)				
3	shift		3	2		4
4	shift				5	
5	reduce	A->a				

5.3 SLR(1) Parsing (simple LR(1))

- **definition**

  1. if state s contains any item of form $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot X\beta$, then the action is to shift the current input token onto the stack, and the new state to be pushed on the stack is the state containing the item $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot X\beta$
  2. if state s contains the complete item $A \rightarrow \gamma\cdot$, and the next token in the input string is in Follow(A), then the action is to reduce by the rule $A \rightarrow \gamma$
     - A reduction by the rule **S'->S** where S' is the start state, this will happen only if the next input token is $
     - remove the string and all of its corresponding states from the parsing stack
     - back up in the DFA to the state from which the construction of begin
     - this state must contain an item of the form $B \rightarrow \alpha \cdot A\beta$. Push A to the stack, and push the state containing the item $B \rightarrow \alpha \cdot A\beta$
  3. if the next input token is s.t. neither of the above two cases applies, an error is declared

- A grammar is **SLR(1)** iff for any state s

  1. for any item $A \rightarrow \alpha \cdot X\beta$ in s with X a terminal, there is no complete item $B \rightarrow \gamma\cdot$ in s with X Follow(B)
  2. For any two complete item $A \rightarrow \alpha\cdot$ and $B \rightarrow \beta\cdot$ in s, Follow$(A) \cap$ Follow(B) $= \varnothing$

- right recursion can cause stack overflow

5.3.1 disambiguating rules for parsing conflicts

- two kinds of parsing conflicts in SLR(1) parsing **shift-reduce** conflicts **reduce-reduce** conflicts
- in the case of shift-reduce conflicts, there is a natural **disambiguaiting rule**: <u>always prefer shift over the reduce</u>
-

5.3.2 limits of SLR(1) parsing power

5.4 General LR(1) and LALR(1) parsing

- the difficulty with the SLR(1) method: applies lookaheads after the construction of the DFA of LR(0) items
- An **LR(1)** item is a pair consisting of an **LR(0)** item and a **lookahead** token
- **LR(1)** item as [**A->ů, a**] A->ů is LR(0) item, a is a token
- **definition of LR(1) transitions** main difference of LR(0) and LR(1) [**A->ůX, a**], X is any symbol, there is a transition on X to [**A->Xů,a**] [**A->ůB,a**], B nonterminal, there are -transitions to items [**B->ů,b**] for every **B->** and for every token b in **First(a)**

5.4.1 Finite automata of LR(1) items

- **start** state S'->S
- start item

  [**S'->ůS, $**]

5.4.2 The LR(1) parsing algorithm

- the general LR(1) parsing algorithm Let s be the current state.

  1. s:[A->ůX,a], X terminal, X is the next token in the input string **shift**
  2. s: [A->ů,a], the next token in the input string is a **reduce**
  3. otherwise error

- A grammar is **LR(1)** iff for any state s
  1. for any item [**A->ů,a**] in s with X a terminal, there is no item in s of the form [**B->ů,X**] (otherwise there is a shift-reduce conflict
  2. there are no two item in s of the form [**A->ů,a**] and [**B->ů,a**]

5.5 LALR(1) parsing

- the size of the DFA of sets of LR(1) items is too large
- first principle of LAIR(1) parsing the core of a state of DFA of LR(1) is a state of the DFA of LR(0) items
- second principle of LAIR(1) parsing s,s of DFA of LR(1) that have the same core, suppose there is a transition on the symbol X from s to a state t, then there is also a transition on X from state s to a state t, and the states t and t have the same core
- if a grammar is LR(1) then the LALR(1) parsing table cannot have any shift-reduce conflicts, there may be reduce-reduce conflicts
- if a grammar is SLR(1), then it's LALR(1)
- compute the DFA of LALR(1) items directly from the DFA of LR(0) items through a process of **propagating lookaheads**

5.6 Error recovery in Bottom-up parsers

A bottom-up parser will detect an error when a blank entry is detected

6 chap6 semantics analysis

6.1 Attributes and attribute grammars

attribute: any property of a programming language constructs. May be fixed prior to the compilation process or be only determinable during program execution

binding of the attribute: the process of computing an attribute and associating its computed value with the language construct in question

binding time: the time during the compilation/execution process when the binding of an attribute occurs

static attributes/dynamic attributes: based on the difference of the binding time

type checker: an analyzer. computes the data type attribute of all language entities for which data types are defined. And verifies that these types conform to the type rules of the language

type checking: set of rules that ensure the type consistency of different constructs in the program. e.g. operands types and so on

6.1.1 attribute grammars

- $X.a$: the value of a associated to X

  X is a grammar symbol and a is an attribute associated to X

- **syntax-directed semantics**: attributes are associated directly with the grammar symbols of the language

- given attributes $a_1, a_2, ..., a_k$ for each grammar rule $X_0 \to X_1 \dots X_n$, the values of the attributes $X_i.a_j$ of each grammar symbol X_i are related to the values of the attributes of the other symbols in the rule

- an **attribute grammar**

  $X_i.a_j = f_{ij}(X_0.a_1, \dots, X_0.a_k, \dots, X_n.a_1, \dots, X_n.a_k)$

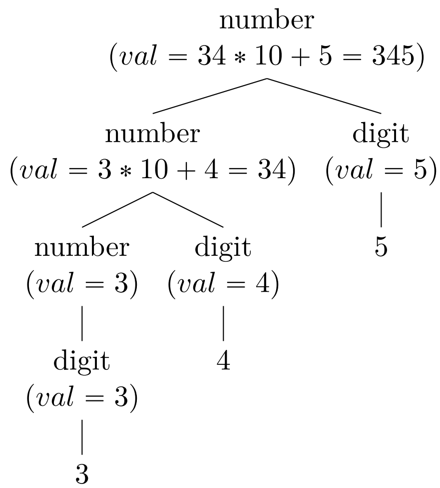
- example

  For

  $\langle number \rangle$ ::= $\langle number \rangle$ $\langle digit \rangle$
  | $\langle digit \rangle$

  $\langle digit \rangle$ ::= '`[0123456789]`'

grammar rule	semantic rules
$number1 \to number2\ digit$	$number1.val = number2.val \times 10 + digit.val$
$number \to digit$	$number.val = digit.val$
$digit \to 0$	$digit.val = 0$



6.1.2 simplifications and extensions to attribute grammars

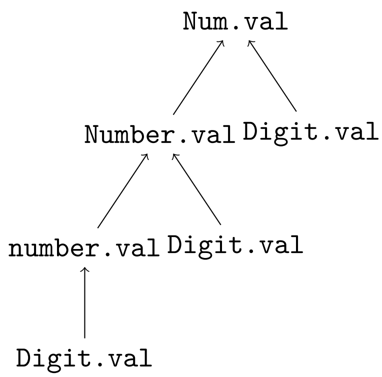
- **metalanguage** for the attribute grammar: the collection of expressions allowable in an attribute equation
- **functions** can be added to the metalanguage whose definitions may be given elsewhere
- **simplifications**
  1. using ambiguous grammar
  2. using abstract syntax tree instead of parse tree

6.2 Algorithms for attribute computation

- an edge from X.a to X.a expressing the dependency of X.a on X.a

6.2.1 dependency graphs and evaluation order

- each grammar rule choice has an **associated dependency graph**
- $X_i.a_j = f_{ij}(\ldots, X_m.a_k, \ldots)$
  an edge from each $X_m.a_k$ to $X_i.a_j$



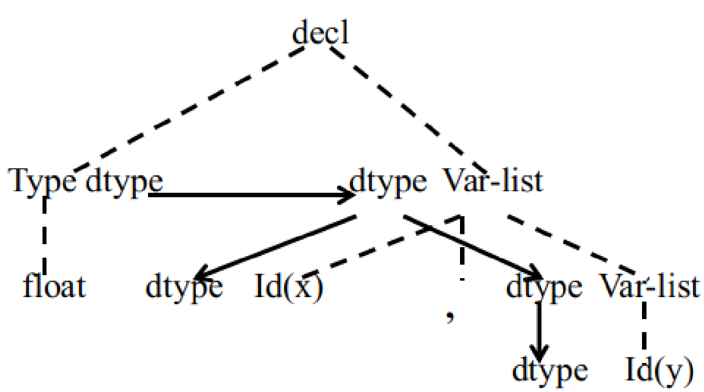
- another example

  ⟨*decl*⟩ ::= ⟨*type*⟩ ⟨*var-list*⟩

  ⟨*type*⟩ ::= '`int`'
  | '`float`'

  ⟨*var-list*⟩ ::= '`id`' '`,`' ⟨*var-list*⟩
  | '`id`'

grammar Rule	semantic Rules
$decl \rightarrow type\ var - list$	$var - list.dtype = type.dtype$
$type \rightarrow int$	$type.dtype = integer$
$type \rightarrow float$	$type.dtype = real$
$var - list1 \rightarrow id,\ var - list2$	$id.dtype = var - list1.dtype$
	$var - list2.dtype = var - list1.dtype$
$var - list \rightarrow id$	$id.dtype = var - list.dtype$



- **directed acyclic graphs** DAG topological sort

How attribute values are found at the roots of the graph

- **Parse tree method**: construction of the dependency graph is based on the specific parse tree at compile time, add complexity and need circularity detective

- **Rule based method**: fix an order for attribute evaluation at compiler construction time. It depends on an analysis of the attribute equations, or semantic rules

6.2.2 synthesized and inherited attributes

- **synthesized attributes**
  - an attribute is synthesized if all its dependencies point from child to parent in the parse tree
  - **S-attributed grammar**

    an attribute grammar where all the attributes are synthesized

- **inherited attributes**

  inheritance from parent to siblings, from siblings to siblings.

6.2.3 attributes as parameters and returned values

6.2.4 The use of external data structures to store attributes values

- Applicability
  - Not suitable to the method of **parameters** and **returned values**
  - particularly when the attribute values have significant structure and may be needed at arbitrary points during translation
  - Not reasonable to be stored in the syntax tree nodes

- Ways:
  - external data structures: table, graphs and other data structures. One of the prime examples is the symbol table
  - replace attribute equations by calls to procedures representing operations on the appropriate data structure used to maintain the attribute values

6.2.5 The computation of attributes during parsing

- **L-attributed**
  - An attribute grammar of $a_1, \ldots, a_k$ is **L-attributed** if for each inherited attribute a_j and each grammar rule $X_0 \rightarrow X_1 \ldots X_n$ the associated equations for $\mathrm{a_j}$ are
    $X_i.a_j = f_{ij}(X_0.a_1, \ldots, X_0.a_k, X_1.a_1, \ldots, X_1.a_k, \ldots, X_{i-1}.a_1, \ldots, X_{i-1}.a_k)$
- **S-attributed grammar** is L-attributed
- given an *L-attributed* grammar where the *inherited* attributes don't depend on the *synthesized* attributes
  1. **Top-down parser**: a recursive-descent parser can evaluate all the attributes by turning the inherited attributes into parameters and synthesized attributes into returned values.
  2. **Bottom-up parser**: LR parsers are suited to handling primarily synthesized attributes, but are difficult for inherited attributes
- $A \rightarrow B\ C \quad C.i = f(B.s)$ s is a *synthesized* attribute

Grammar Rule	Semantic Rules
$A \rightarrow BDC$	
$B \rightarrow \ldots$	compute $B.s$
$D \rightarrow \epsilon$	$saved_i = f(valstack[top])$
$C \rightarrow \ldots$	$saved_i$ is available

6.2.6 The dependence of attributes computation on the syntax

Theorem. Given an attribute grammar , <u>all inherited attributes can be changed into synthesized attributes</u> by suitable modification of the grammar, without changing the language of the grammar. (Knuth[1968])

6.3 The Symbol Table

semantic checks refer to properties of identifiers in the program - their scope or type

NAME	KIND	TYPE	ATTRIBUTES
foo	fun	int * int -> bool	extern

6.3.1 The structure of the symbol table

1. Linear list
2. Various search tree structures

   AVL, B tree
3. hash tables

   best choice

   Collision resolution

   (a) open addressing
   (b) separate chaining

   The process of the hash function $f : \Sigma^* \to \mathbb{N}/(size-1)\mathbb{N}$

   Good solution: repeatedly use a constant α as multiplying factor

   $h_{i+1} = \alpha h_i + c_i, \quad h_0 = 0$

   Final hash value $h = h_n \mod size$. Typically α is a power of 2

6.3.2 Declarations

- constant declarations
- type declarations
- variable declarations
- procedure/function declarations

6.3.3 Scope rules and block structure

two rules

- Declaration before use
- the most closely nested rule for block structure

6.3.4 interaction of same-level declarations

6.3.5 an extended example of an attribute grammar using a symbol table

$\langle S \rangle$ ::= $\langle exp \rangle$

$\langle exp \rangle$ ::= ‘`(`’ $\langle exp \rangle$ ‘`)`’
  | $\langle exp \rangle$ ‘`+`’ $\langle exp \rangle$
  | ‘`id`’
  | ‘`num`’
  | ‘`let`’ $\langle \textit{dec-list} \rangle$ ‘`in`’ $\langle exp \rangle$

$\langle \textit{dec-list} \rangle$ ::= $\langle \textit{dec-list} \rangle$ ‘`,`’ $\langle decl \rangle$
  | $\langle decl \rangle$

$\langle decl \rangle$ ::= ‘`id`’ ‘`=`’ $\langle exp \rangle$

Three attributes

- `err`: synthesize attribute. represent error
- `symbol`: inherited attribute. represent the symbol table
- `nestlevel`: inherited attribute, nonnegtive integer. represent the current nesting level of the let blocks

Grammar Rule	Semantic Rules

S → exp	`exp.symtab = emptytable`
	`exp.nestlevel = 0`
	`S.err = exp.err`

exp1 → exp2+exp3	`exp2.symtab=exp1.symtab`
	`exp3.symtab=exp1.symtab`
	`exp2.nestlevel=exp1.nestlevel`
	`exp3.nestlevel=exp1.nestlevel`
	`exp1.err = exp2.err or exp3.err`

exp1 → (exp2)	`exp2.symtab =exp1.symtab`
	`exp2.nestlevel =exp1.nestlevel`
	`exp1.err = exp2.err`

exp → id	`exp.err = not isin(exp.symtab, id.name)`
exp → num	`exp.err = false`

exp1 → let dec-list in exp2	`dec-list.intab=exp1.symtab`
	`dec-list.nestlevel=exp1.nestlevel+1`
	`exp2.symtab=dec-list.outtab`
	`exp2.nestlevel=dec-list.nestlevel`
	`exp1.err = (dec-list.outtab=errtab) or exp2.err`

dec-list1 → dec-list2,decl	`dec-list2.intab= dec-list1.intab`
	`dec-list2.nestlevel=dec-list1.nestlevel`
	`decl.intab=dec-list2.outtab`
	`decl.nestlevel=dec-list2.nestlevel`
	`decl-list1.outtab=decl.outtab`

dec-list → decl	`decl.intab = dec-list.intab`
	`decl.nestlevel=dec-list.nestlevel`
	`dec-list.outtab=decl.outtab`

decl → id = exp	`exp.symtab = decl.intab`
	`exp.nestlevel=decl.nestlevel`
	`decl.outtab =`
	`if(decl.intab = errtab)or exp.err`
	`then errtab`
	`else`
	`if (lookup(decl.intab, id.name)= decl.nestlevel)`
	`then errtab`
	`else`
	`insert(decl.intab,id.name,decl.nestlevel)`

6.4 Data types and type checking

Type inference. Type checking

6.4.1 type names, type declarations and recursive type

6.4.2 type equivalence

two type expression represent the same type

structural equivalence: two types are the same if and only if they have the same structure