

Semantic Analysis

CSE 307 – Principles of Programming Languages

Stony Brook University

<http://www.cs.stonybrook.edu/~cse307>

Role of Semantic Analysis

- Syntax vs. Semantics:
 - syntax concerns the form of a valid program (described conveniently by a context-free grammar CFG)
 - semantics concerns its meaning: rules that go beyond mere form
 - the number of arguments contained in a call to a subroutine matches the number of formal parameters in the subroutine definition – cannot be counted using CFG
 - type consistency
 - All branches of a subroutine end with a valid return

Role of Semantic Analysis

- Defines what the program means
- Detects if the program is correct
- Helps to translate it into another representation

Role of Semantic Analysis

- Following parsing, the next two phases of the "typical" compiler are:
 - semantic analysis
 - (intermediate) code generation
- Semantic rules are divided into:
 - *static* semantics enforced at compile time
 - *dynamic* semantics: the compiler generates code to enforce dynamic semantic rules at run time (or calls libraries to do it) (for errors like division by zero, out-of-bounds index in array)
- The principal job of the *semantic analyzer* is to enforce static semantic rules, plus:
 - constructs a syntax tree
 - gathers information needed by the code generator

Role of Semantic Analysis

- Parsing, semantic analysis, and intermediate code generation can be interleaved:
 - a common approach interleaves construction of a syntax tree during parsing with phases for semantic analysis and code generation
 - The semantic analysis and intermediate code generation **annotate** the parse tree with *attributes*
 - *Attribute grammars* provide a formal framework for the decoration of a syntax tree
 - The *attribute flow* constrains the order(s) in which nodes of a tree can be decorated.
 - Can replace the parse tree with a syntax tree that reflects the input program in a more straightforward way

Role of Semantic Analysis

- Dynamic checks: semantic rules enforced at run time
 - C requires no dynamic checks at all (it relies on the hardware to find division by zero, or attempted access to memory outside the bounds of the program).
 - Java checks as many rules as possible, so that an untrusted program cannot do anything to damage the memory or files of the machine on which it runs.
- Many compilers that generate code for dynamic checks provide the option of disabling them (enabled during program development and testing, but disabled for production use, to increase execution speed)
 - Hoare: *“like wearing a life jacket on land, and taking it off at sea”*

Role of Semantic Analysis

- **Assertions**: logical formulas written by the programmers regarding the values of program data used to reason about the correctness of their algorithms (the assertion is expected to be **true** when execution reaches a certain point in the code):
 - Java: `assert denominator != 0;`
 - An **AssertionError** exception will be thrown if the semantic check fails at run time.
 - C: `assert (denominator != 0) ;`
 - If the assertion fails, the program will terminate abruptly with a message: `a.c:10: failed assertion 'denominator != 0'`
 - Some languages also provide explicit support for *invariants*, **preconditions**, and **post-conditions**.
 - Like Dafny from Microsoft <https://github.com/Microsoft/dafny>

Automated Verification

- Languages for formally specifying an algorithm:
 - Dafny, ProVerif, TLA+
- Model Checking - systematic exploration of all the program states reachable by the specified algorithm. Each state checked for violations of claims in specification.
- Automated verification uses interactive theorem provers (Coq, Isabelle, etc.) or SMT solvers to verify that all claims made about the program state in the specification are true.

Java Assertions

- Java example:
 - An assertion in Java is a statement that enables us to assert an assumption about our program.
 - An assertion contains a Boolean expression that should be true during program execution.
 - Assertions can be used to assure program correctness and avoid logical errors.
 - An assertion is declared using the Java keyword **assert** in JDK 1.5 as follows:

assert assertion; //OR

assert assertion : detailMessage;

where **assertion** is a Boolean expression and **detailMessage** is a primitive-type or an **Object** value.

Java Assertion Example

```
public class AssertionDemo {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        int i;  
        int sum = 0;  
        for (i = 0; i < 10; i++) {  
            sum += i;  
        }  
        assert i==10;  
        assert sum>10 && sum<5*10 : "sum is " + sum;  
    }  
}
```

- When an assertion statement is executed, Java evaluates the assertion
 - If it is false, an **AssertionError** will be thrown

Java Assertion Example

- The **AssertionError** class has a no-arg constructor and seven overloaded single-argument constructors of type **int**, **long**, **float**, **double**, **boolean**, **char**, and **Object**
 - For the first assert statement in the example (with no detail message), the no-arg constructor of **AssertionError** is used.
 - For the second assert statement with a detail message, an appropriate **AssertionError** constructor is used to match the data type of the message.
 - Since **AssertionError** is a subclass of **Error**, when an assertion becomes false, the program displays a message on the console and exits

Running Programs with Assertions

- By default, the assertions are disabled at runtime
 - To enable it, use the switch **-enableassertions**, or **-ea** for short, as follows:

```
java -ea AssertionDemo  
    public class AssertionDemo {  
        public static void main(String[] args) {  
            int i; int sum = 0;  
            for (i = 0; i < 10; i++) {  
                sum += i;  
            }  
            assert i!=10;  
        }  
    }
```

Exception in thread "main" java.lang.AssertionError
at AssertionDemo.main([AssertionDemo.java:7](#))

Running Programs with Assertions

- Assertions can be selectively enabled or disabled at class level or package level
 - The disable switch is **-disableassertions** or **-da** for short.
 - For example, the following command enables assertions in package **package1** and disables assertions in class **Class1**:

```
java -ea:package1 -da:Class1 AssertionDemo
```

Using Exception Handling or Assertions?

- Assertion should not be used to replace exception handling.
 - Exception handling deals with unusual circumstances during program execution.
 - Assertions are to assure the correctness of the program
 - Exception handling addresses *robustness* and assertion addresses *correctness*
 - Assertions are used for internal consistency and validity checks
 - Assertions are checked at runtime and can be turned on or off at startup time

Using Exception Handling or Assertions?

- Do not use assertions for argument checking in public methods:
 - Valid arguments that may be passed to a public method are considered to be part of the method's contract
 - The contract must always be obeyed whether assertions are enabled or disabled
 - For example, the following code in the **Circle** class should be rewritten using exception handling:

```
public void setRadius(double newRadius) {  
    assert newRadius >= 0;  
    radius = newRadius;  
}
```

Using Exception Handling or Assertions?

- Use assertions to reaffirm assumptions.
 - This gives you more confidence to assure correctness of the program.
 - A common use of assertions is to replace assumptions with assertions in the code.
 - A good use of assertions is place assertions in a switch statement without a default case. For example:

```
switch (month) {  
    case 1: ... ; break;  
    case 2: ... ; break;  
    ...  
    case 12: ... ; break;  
    default: assert false : "Invalid month: " + month;  
}
```


Correctness of Algorithms

- **Loop *Invariants*:** used to prove correctness of a loop with respect to pre- and post-conditions

[Pre-condition for the loop]

while (G)

[Statements in the body of the loop]

end while

[Post-condition for the loop]

A loop is correct with respect to its pre- and post-conditions if, and only if, whenever the algorithm variables satisfy the pre-condition for the loop and the loop terminates after a finite number of steps, the algorithm variables satisfy the post-condition for the loop

Loop Invariant

- A **loop invariant $I(n)$** is a predicate whose domain is the set of integers, such that for each iteration of the loop (**mathematical induction**), if the predicate is true before the iteration, then it is true after the iteration

If **the loop invariant $I(0)$ is true before the first iteration of the loop** AND

After a finite number of iterations of the loop, the guard G becomes false AND

The truth of **the loop invariant ensures the truth of the post-condition of the loop**

then the loop will be correct with respect to its pre- and post-conditions

Loop Invariant

- **Correctness of a Loop to Compute a Product:**

A loop to compute the product mx for a nonnegative integer m and a real number x , without using multiplication

Loop invariant $I(n)$: $i = n$ and $\text{product} = n * x$

Guard G : $i \neq m$

Multiplication Loop

[Pre-condition: m is a nonnegative integer,
 x is a real number,
 $i = 0$, and
 $\text{product} = 0$]

while ($i \neq m$)

$\text{product} := \text{product} + x$

$i := i + 1$

end while

[Post-condition: $\text{product} = mx$]

Loop invariant $I(n)$: $i = n$ and $\text{product} = n \cdot x$

Guard G : $i \neq m$

Base Property: $I(0)$ is " $i = 0$ and $\text{product} = 0 \cdot x = 0$ "

Inductive Property:

[If $G \wedge I(k)$ is true before a loop iteration
(where $k \geq 0$), then $I(k+1)$ is true after the loop
iteration.]

Let k be a nonnegative integer such that $G \wedge I(k)$ is true

Since $i \neq m$, the guard is passed

$$\text{product} = \text{product} + x = kx + x = (k + 1)x$$

$$i = i + 1 = k + 1$$

$I(k + 1)$: ($i = k + 1$ and $\text{product} = (k + 1)x$) is true

Eventual Falsity of Guard: [After a finite number of iterations of the loop, G becomes false]

After m iterations of the loop: $i = m$ and G becomes false

Correctness of the Post-Condition:

[If N is the least number of iterations after which G is false and $I(N)$ is true, then the value of the algorithm variables will be as specified in the post-condition of the loop.]

$I(N)$ is true at the end of the loop: $i = N$ and $product = Nx$

G becomes false after N iterations, $i = m$, so $m = i = N$

The post-condition: the value of $product$ after execution of the loop should be $m * x$ is true.

Static analysis

- Static analysis: compile-time algorithms that predict run-time behavior
- **Type checking**, for example, is static and precise in ML: the compiler ensures that no variable will ever be used at run time in a way that is inappropriate for its type
 - By contrast, languages like Lisp and Smalltalk accept the run-time overhead of dynamic type checks
- In Java, type checking is mostly static, but dynamically loaded classes and type casts require run-time checks

Static analysis

- Examples of static analysis:
 - *Alias analysis* determines when values can be safely cached in registers, computed “out of order,” or accessed by concurrent threads.
 - *Escape analysis* determines when all references to a value will be confined to a given context, allowing it to be allocated on the stack instead of the heap, or to be accessed without locks.
 - *Subtype analysis* determines when a variable in an object-oriented language is guaranteed to have a certain subtype, so that its methods can be called without dynamic dispatch.

Other static analysis

- Static analysis is usually done for Optimizations:
 - optimizations can be *unsafe* if they may lead to incorrect code
 - *speculative* if they usually improve performance, but may degrade it in certain cases
 - *Non-binding prefetches* bring data into the cache before they are needed,
 - *Trace scheduling* rearranges code in hopes of improving the performance of the processor pipeline and the instruction cache.
- A compiler is *conservative* if it applies optimizations only when it can guarantee that they will be both safe and effective
- A compiler is *optimistic* if it uses speculative optimizations
 - it may also use unsafe optimizations by generating two versions of the code, with a dynamic check that chooses between them based on information not available at compile time
- Optimizations can lead to security risks if implemented incorrectly (see 2018 Spectre hardware vulnerability: microarchitecture-level optimizations to code execution [can] leak information)

Attribute Grammars

- Both semantic analysis and (intermediate) code generation can be described in terms of *annotation*, or "*decoration*" of a parse or syntax tree
 - attributes are properties/actions attached to the production rules of a grammar
 - ATTRIBUTE GRAMMARS provide a formal framework for decorating a parse tree
- The attributes are divided into two groups: *synthesized* attributes and *inherited* attributes
 - *Synthesized*: the value is computed from the values of attributes of the children
 - *S-attributed grammar* = synthesized attributes only

Attribute Grammars

- LR (bottom-up) grammar for arithmetic expressions made of constants, with precedence and associativity
- detects if a string follows the grammar
- but says nothing about what the program MEANS

$$E \longrightarrow E + T$$

$$E \longrightarrow E - T$$

$$E \longrightarrow T$$

$$T \longrightarrow T * F$$

$$T \longrightarrow T / F$$

$$T \longrightarrow F$$

$$F \longrightarrow - F$$

$$F \longrightarrow (E)$$

$$F \longrightarrow \text{const}$$

Attribute Grammars *semantic function*

- Attributed grammar:
 - defines the semantics of the input program
 - Associates expressions to mathematical concepts!!!
 - Attribute rules are definitions, not assignments: they are not necessarily meant to be evaluated at any particular time, or in any particular order

$E_1 \longrightarrow E_2 + T$ *(sum, etc.)*
 $\triangleright E_1.val := \text{sum}(E_2.val, T.val)$

$E_1 \longrightarrow E_2 - T$
 $\triangleright E_1.val := \text{difference}(E_2.val, T.val)$

$E \longrightarrow T$
 $\triangleright E.val := T.val$ *← copy rule*

$T_1 \longrightarrow T_2 * F$
 $\triangleright T_1.val := \text{product}(T_2.val, F.val)$

$T_1 \longrightarrow T_2 / F$
 $\triangleright T_1.val := \text{quotient}(T_2.val, F.val)$

$T \longrightarrow F$
 $\triangleright T.val := F.val$

$F_1 \longrightarrow - F_2$
 $\triangleright F_1.val := \text{additive_inverse}(F_2.val)$

$F \longrightarrow (E)$
 $\triangleright F.val := E.val$

$F \longrightarrow \text{const}$
 $\triangleright F.val := \text{const.val}$

Attribute Grammars

- Attributed grammar to count the elements of a list:

$$L \longrightarrow \text{id}$$
$$L_1 \longrightarrow L_2, \text{id}$$
$$\triangleright L_1.c := 1$$
$$\triangleright L_1.c := L_2.c + 1$$

Attribute Grammars Example with variables

Tokens: `int (attr val), var (attr name)`

S \rightarrow `var = E`

▷ `assign(var.name, E.val)`

E1 \rightarrow `E2 + T`

▷ `E1.val = add(E2.val, T.val)`

E1 \rightarrow `E2 - T`

▷ `E1.val = sub(E2.val, T.val)`

E \rightarrow `T`

▷ `E.val = T.val`

T \rightarrow `var`

▷ `T.val = lookup(var.name)`

T \rightarrow `int`

▷ `T.val = int.val`

Input:

“bar = 50

foo = 100 + 200 – bar”

Evaluating Attributes

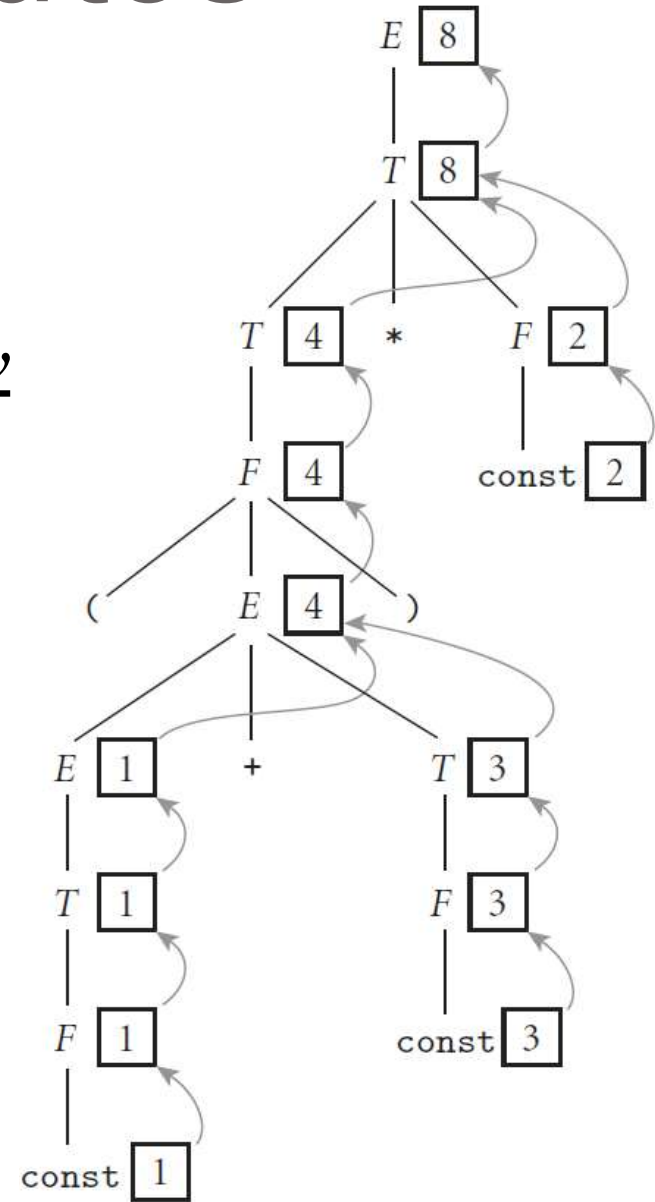
- The process of evaluating attributes is called *annotation*, or *DECORATION*, of the parse tree
 - When the parse tree under the previous example grammar is fully decorated, the value of the expression will be in the **val** attribute of the root
- The code fragments for the rules are called *SEMANTIC FUNCTIONS*
 - For example:
E1.val = sum(E2.val, T.val)
 - Semantic functions are not allowed to refer to any variables or attributes outside the current production
 - Action routines may do that (see later)

Evaluating Attributes

Decoration of a parse tree for $(1 + 3) * 2$

needs to detect the order of attribute evaluation:

- Curving arrows show the *attribute flow*
 - Each box holds the output of a single semantic rule
 - The arrow is the input to the rule
- ***synthesized attributes***: their values are calculated (synthesized) only in productions in which their symbol appears on the left-hand side.
- A ***S-attributed grammar*** is a grammar where all attributes are synthesized.



Evaluating Attributes

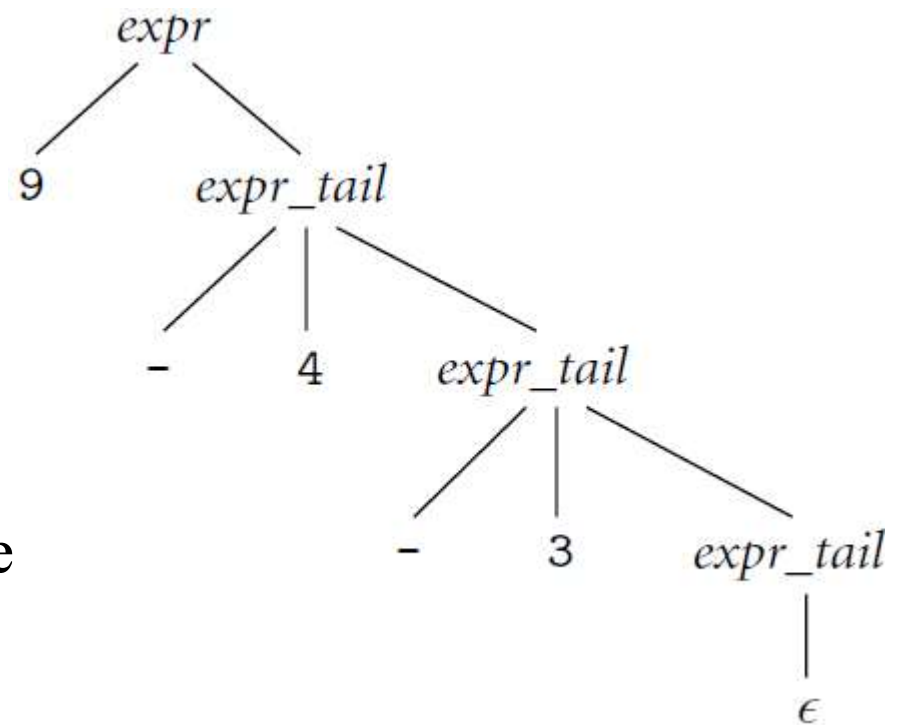
- Tokens have only synthesized attributes, initialized by the scanner (name of an identifier, value of a constant, etc.).
- **INHERITED attributes** may depend on things above or to the side of them in the parse tree, e.g., LL(1) grammar:

$expr \longrightarrow const\ expr_tail$

$expr_tail \longrightarrow -\ const\ expr_tail \mid \epsilon$

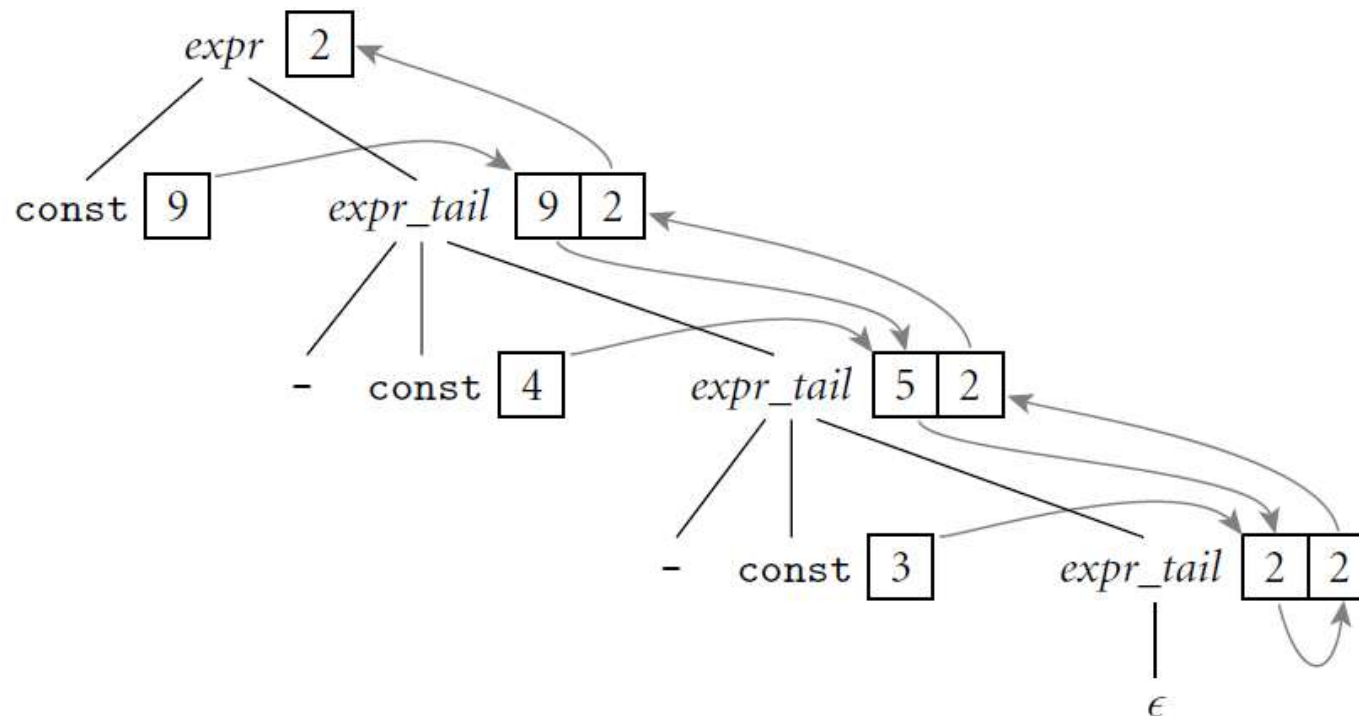
we cannot summarize the right subtree of the root with a single numeric value

subtraction is left associative:
requires us to embed the entire tree into the attributes of a single node



Evaluating Attributes

- Decoration with *left-to-right attribute flow*: pass attribute values not only **bottom-up** but **also left-to-right** in the tree
 - 9 can be combined in left-associative fashion with the 4 and
 - 5 can then be passed into the middle *expr_tail* node, combined with the 3 to make 2, and then passed upward to the root



Evaluating Attributes

$expr \longrightarrow \text{const } expr_tail$

▷ $expr_tail.st := \text{const.val}$ (1)

▷ $expr.val := expr_tail.val$ (2)

$expr_tail_1 \longrightarrow - \text{const } expr_tail_2$

▷ $expr_tail_2.st := expr_tail_1.st - \text{const.val}$

▷ $expr_tail_1.val := expr_tail_2.val$

$expr_tail \longrightarrow \epsilon$

▷ $expr_tail.val := expr_tail.st$

(1) serves to copy the left context (value of the expression so far) into a “subtotal” (st) attribute.

Root rule (2) copies the final value from the right-most leaf back up to the root.

Evaluating Attributes

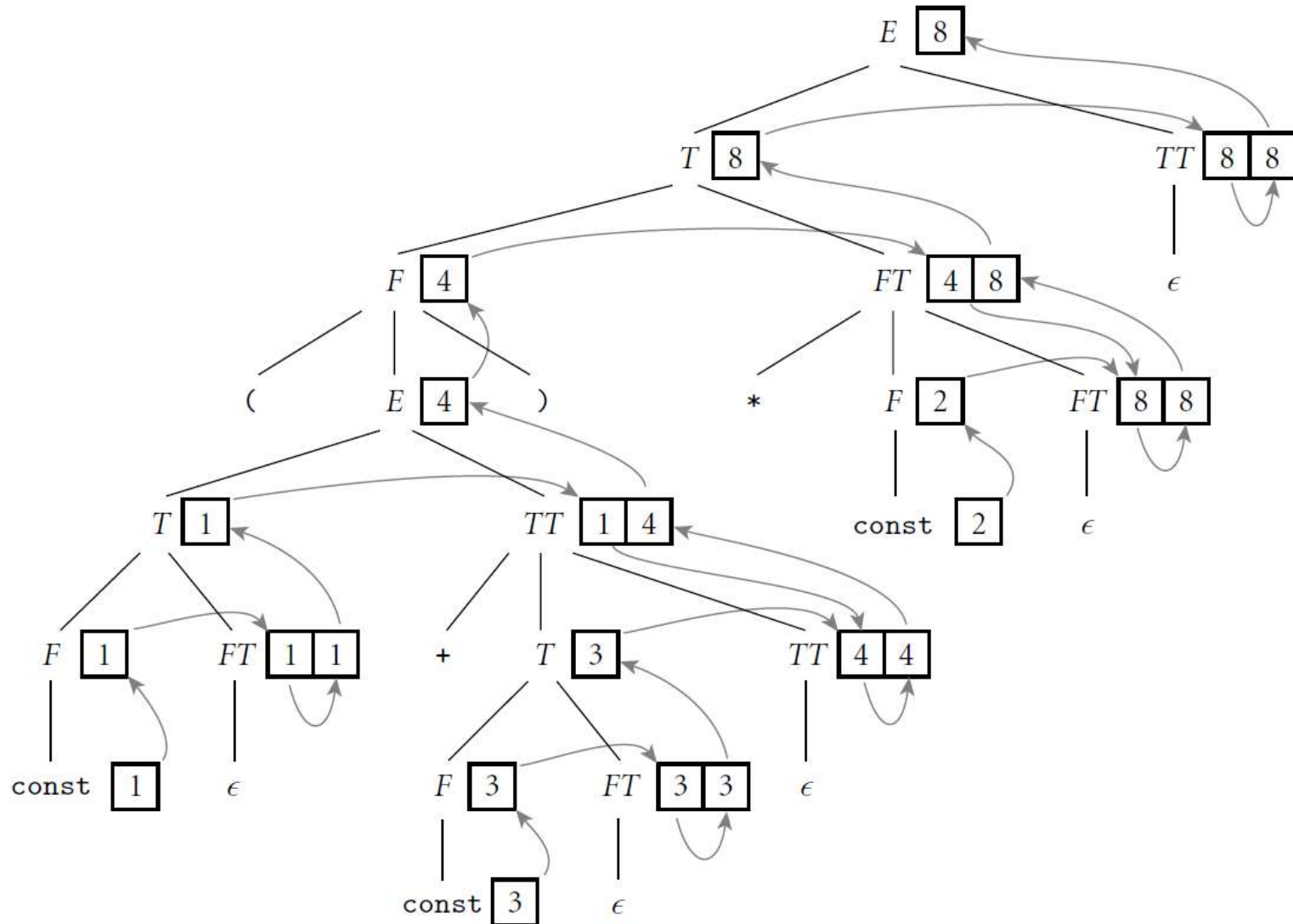
An attribute grammar for constant expressions based on an LL(1) CFG

- An attribute grammar is *well defined* if its rules determine a unique set of values for the attributes of every possible parse tree.
- An attribute grammar is *noncircular* if it never leads to a parse tree in which there are cycles in the attribute flow graph.

1. $E \rightarrow T TT$
▷ $TT.st := T.val$ ▷ $E.val := TT.val$
2. $TT_1 \rightarrow + T TT_2$
▷ $TT_2.st := TT_1.st + T.val$ ▷ $TT_1.val := TT_2.val$
3. $TT_1 \rightarrow - T TT_2$
▷ $TT_2.st := TT_1.st - T.val$ ▷ $TT_1.val := TT_2.val$
4. $TT \rightarrow \epsilon$
▷ $TT.val := TT.st$
5. $T \rightarrow F FT$
▷ $FT.st := F.val$ ▷ $T.val := FT.val$
6. $FT_1 \rightarrow * F FT_2$
▷ $FT_2.st := FT_1.st \times F.val$ ▷ $FT_1.val := FT_2.val$
7. $FT_1 \rightarrow / F FT_2$
▷ $FT_2.st := FT_1.st \div F.val$ ▷ $FT_1.val := FT_2.val$
8. $FT \rightarrow \epsilon$
▷ $FT.val := FT.st$
9. $F_1 \rightarrow - F_2$
▷ $F_1.val := - F_2.val$
10. $F \rightarrow (E)$
▷ $F.val := E.val$
11. $F \rightarrow \text{const}$
▷ $F.val := \text{const.val}$

Evaluating Attributes

Top-down parse tree for $(1 + 3) * 2$ with *left-to-right attribute flow*



Evaluating Attributes

- *Synthesized Attributes (S-attributed grammars):*
 - Data flows bottom-up
 - Can be parsed by LR grammars
- *Inherited Attributes:*
 - Data flows top-down and bottom-up
 - Can be parsed with LL grammars

Evaluating Attributes

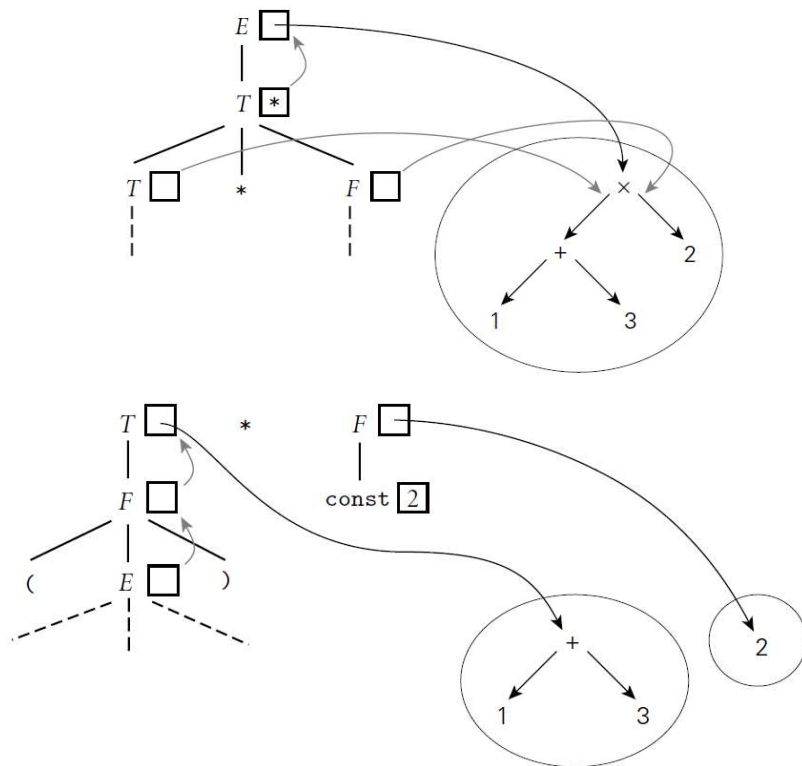
- A *translation scheme* is an algorithm that decorates parse trees by invoking the rules of an attribute grammar in an order consistent with the tree's attribute flow
 - An *oblivious* scheme makes repeated passes over a tree, invoking any semantic function whose arguments have all been defined, and stopping when it completes a pass in which no values change.
 - A *dynamic* scheme tailors the evaluation order to the structure of the given parse tree, e.g., by constructing a topological sort of the attribute flow graph and then invoking rules in an order consistent with the sort.
- An attribute grammar is *L-attributed* if its attributes can be evaluated by visiting the nodes of the parse tree in a single left-to-right, depth-first traversal (same order with a top-down parse)

Syntax trees

- A *one-pass compiler* is a compiler that interleaves semantic analysis and code generation with parsing
- *Syntax trees*: if the parsing and code generation are **not interleaved**, then attribute rules must be added to create the syntax tree:
 - The attributes in these grammars point to nodes of the syntax tree (containing unary or binary operators, pointers to the supplied operand(s), etc.)
 - The attributes hold neither numeric values nor target code fragments

Syntax trees

- Bottom-up (S-attributed) attribute grammar to construct a syntax tree



$$E_1 \longrightarrow E_2 + T$$

▷ $E_1.ptr := \text{make_bin_op}("+", E_2.ptr, T.ptr)$

$$E_1 \longrightarrow E_2 - T$$

▷ $E_1.ptr := \text{make_bin_op}("-", E_2.ptr, T.ptr)$

$$E \longrightarrow T$$

▷ $E.ptr := T.ptr$

$$T_1 \longrightarrow T_2 * F$$

▷ $T_1.ptr := \text{make_bin_op}("x", T_2.ptr, F.ptr)$

$$T_1 \longrightarrow T_2 / F$$

▷ $T_1.ptr := \text{make_bin_op}("/", T_2.ptr, F.ptr)$

$$T \longrightarrow F$$

▷ $T.ptr := F.ptr$

$$F_1 \longrightarrow - F_2$$

▷ $F_1.ptr := \text{make_un_op}("+/-", F_2.ptr)$

$$F \longrightarrow (E)$$

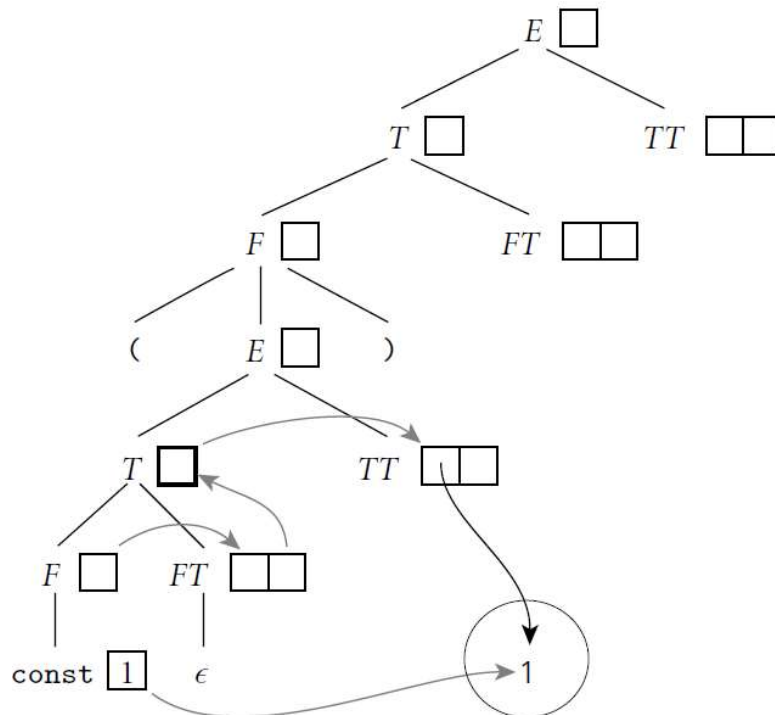
▷ $F.ptr := E.ptr$

$$F \longrightarrow \text{const}$$

▷ $F.ptr := \text{make_leaf}(\text{const.val})$

Syntax trees

- Top-down (L-attributed) attribute grammar to construct a syntax tree:



$$E \longrightarrow T TT$$

- $\triangleright TT.st := T.ptr$
- $\triangleright E.ptr := TT.ptr$

$$TT_1 \longrightarrow + T TT_2$$

- $\triangleright TT_2.st := \text{make_bin_op}("+", TT_1.st, T.ptr)$
- $\triangleright TT_1.ptr := TT_2.ptr$

$$TT_1 \longrightarrow - T TT_2$$

- $\triangleright TT_2.st := \text{make_bin_op}("-", TT_1.st, T.ptr)$
- $\triangleright TT_1.ptr := TT_2.ptr$

$$TT \longrightarrow \epsilon$$

- $\triangleright TT.ptr := TT.st$

$$T \longrightarrow F FT$$

- $\triangleright FT.st := F.ptr$
- $\triangleright T.ptr := FT.ptr$

$$FT_1 \longrightarrow * F FT_2$$

- $\triangleright FT_2.st := \text{make_bin_op}("x", FT_1.st, F.ptr)$
- $\triangleright FT_1.ptr := FT_2.ptr$

$$FT_1 \longrightarrow / F FT_2$$

- $\triangleright FT_2.st := \text{make_bin_op}("/\div", FT_1.st, F.ptr)$
- $\triangleright FT_1.ptr := FT_2.ptr$

$$FT \longrightarrow \epsilon$$

- $\triangleright FT.ptr := FT.st$

$$F_1 \longrightarrow - F_2$$

- $\triangleright F_1.ptr := \text{make_un_op}("+/-", F_2.ptr)$

$$F \longrightarrow (E)$$

- $\triangleright F.ptr := E.ptr$

$$F \longrightarrow \text{const}$$

- $\triangleright F.ptr := \text{make_leaf}(\text{const.val})$

Action Routines

- While it is possible to construct automatic tools to analyze attribute flow and decorate parse trees, most compilers rely on *action routines*, which the compiler writer embeds in the right-hand sides of productions to evaluate attribute rules at specific points in a parse
- An *action routine* is like a "semantic function" that we tell the compiler to execute at a particular point in the parse
 - In an LL-family parser, action routines can be embedded at arbitrary points in a production's right-hand side
 - They will be executed left to right during parsing

Action Routines

- If semantic analysis and code generation are interleaved with parsing, then action routines can be used to perform semantic checks and generate code
 - Later compilation phases can then consist of ad-hoc tree traversal(s), or can use an automatic tool to generate a translation scheme
- If semantic analysis and code generation are broken out as separate phases, then action routines can be used to build a syntax tree

Action Routines

- Entries in the attributes stack are pushed and popped automatically
- The *syntax tree* is produced

program \rightarrow *item*

int_decl : *item* \rightarrow *id item*

read : *item* \rightarrow *id item*

real_decl : *item* \rightarrow *id item*

write : *item* \rightarrow *expr item*

null : *item* \rightarrow ϵ

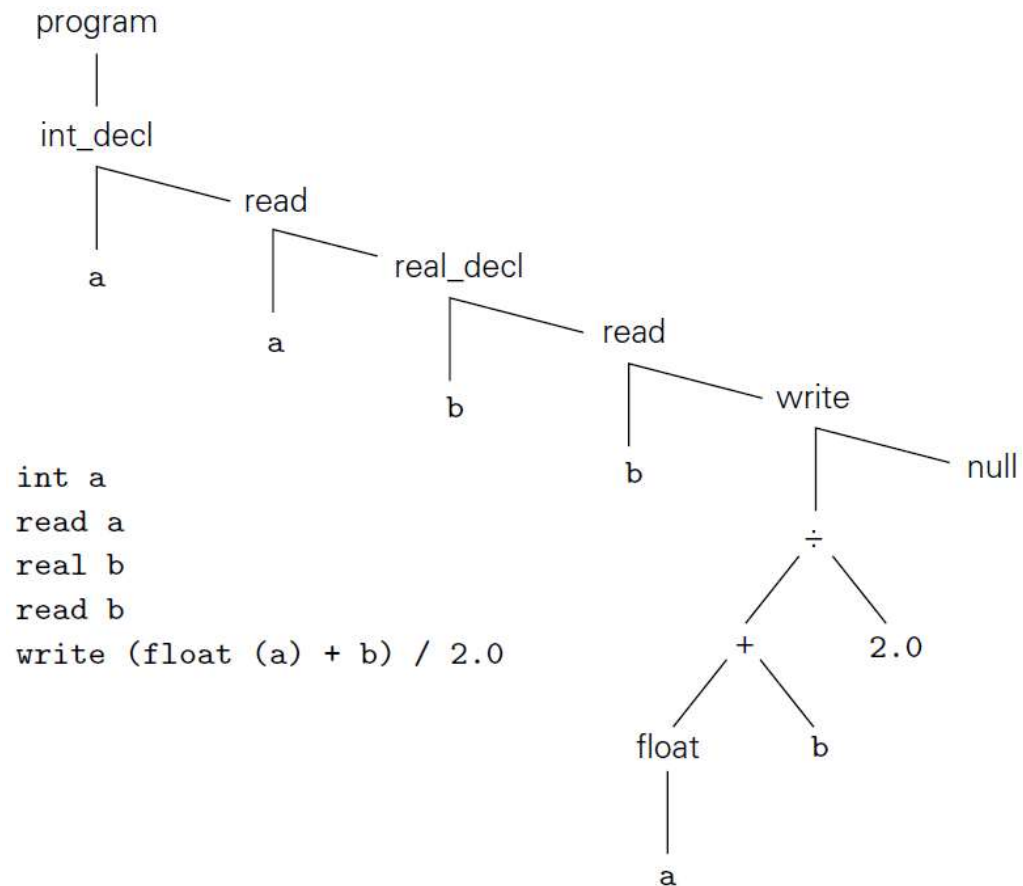
\div : *expr* \rightarrow *expr expr*

$+$: *expr* \rightarrow *expr expr*

float : *expr* \rightarrow *expr*

id : *expr* \rightarrow ϵ

real_const : *expr* \rightarrow ϵ



Decorating a Syntax Tree

- Sample of complete tree grammar representing structure of the syntax tree

```
id : expr  $\rightarrow$   $\epsilon$ 
  ▷ if (id.name, A)  $\in$  expr.symtab      -- for some type A
    expr.errors := null
    expr.type := A
  else
    expr.errors := [id.name "undefined at" id.location]
    expr.type := error

int_const : expr  $\rightarrow$   $\epsilon$ 
  ▷ expr.type := int

real_const : expr  $\rightarrow$   $\epsilon$ 
  ▷ expr.type := real

'+' : expr1  $\rightarrow$  expr2 expr3
  ▷ expr2.symtab := expr1.symtab
  ▷ expr3.symtab := expr1.symtab
  ▷ check_types(expr1, expr2, expr3)

'-' : expr1  $\rightarrow$  expr2 expr3
  ▷ expr2.symtab := expr1.symtab
  ▷ expr3.symtab := expr1.symtab
  ▷ check_types(expr1, expr2, expr3)

'×' : expr1  $\rightarrow$  expr2 expr3
  ▷ expr2.symtab := expr1.symtab
  ▷ expr3.symtab := expr1.symtab
  ▷ check_types(expr1, expr2, expr3)

'÷' : expr1  $\rightarrow$  expr2 expr3
  ▷ expr2.symtab := expr1.symtab
  ▷ expr3.symtab := expr1.symtab
  ▷ check_types(expr1, expr2, expr3)

float : expr1  $\rightarrow$  expr2
  ▷ expr2.symtab := expr1.symtab
  ▷ convert_type(expr2, expr1, int, real, "float of non-int")

trunc : expr1  $\rightarrow$  expr2
  ▷ expr2.symtab := expr1.symtab
  ▷ convert_type(expr2, expr1, real, int, "trunc of non-real")
```