

Semantic Analysis

Overview

- What is semantic analysis?
- Dynamic and static checks
- Attribute grammars
- Synthesized and inherited grammars
- Explicit AST construction

Introduction

- Syntax: refers to form, structure
- Semantics: meaning
- Relevance:
 - Allows to enforce rules
 - Provides information to produce equivalent programs
- Why we need it?
 - Example: $\text{args} \rightarrow \text{args} , \text{one_arg} \mid \text{one_arg}$
 - Rule provides structure of list
 - Cannot determine length of list by rule alone
 - Function definition and calling requires specific number of parameters

Introduction

- Rule of thumb:
 - Anything that needs counting
 - Accumulating
 - Nestedness
 - Putting together things that appear separated in time/space
- Semantic rules divided between:
 - Static rules: add code for checking, array bounds checking
 - Dynamic rules: a division by zero, accessing valid array positions
- Line between one and the other could be fuzzy (per language, per implementation)

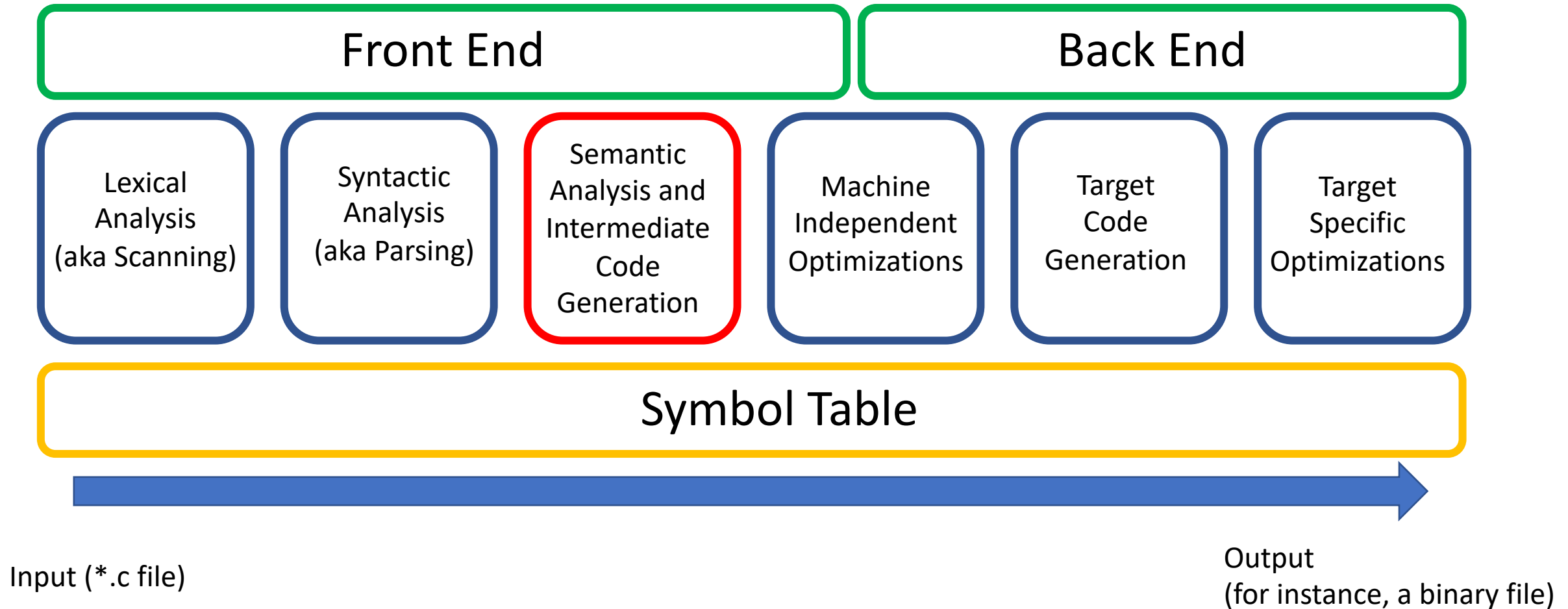
Introduction

- Semantic analysis and code generation can be described in terms of annotations / decorations of the parse / syntax tree
- Ability to:
 - Gather information during parsing
 - Structure information (as in a data structure)
 - Associate information (the data structure) to specific part of the parse tree and other compiler parts
- Bits of information: attributes
- Here we cover attribute grammars and mechanisms to enforce static rules
- Heavily rely on the structure of the CFG
- Use grammar to pass information along

Role of Semantic Analyzer

- Semantics vary a lot with language
- Lisp dialects: mixed-mode arithmetic, automatic promotion from integer to rational to floating point or “bignum”
- Ada: assigns specific type to numeric variable
- C: no checks at all 😊
- Java: checks a lot (out of bounds, integer overflow, proper variable initialization)
- Semantic Analyzer and Intermediate Code Generator mark the end of the front-end of a typical compiler

Compilation Overview



Dynamic Checks

- The compiler will generate code to perform some checks
- Checks vary a lot per language
- Languages may also provide mechanisms for users to implement their own checks, which then can be disabled prior to production:
 - C/C++ assertions: `assert (x > 0 && "This should not happen");`
- Need for dynamic checks could also vary a lot across languages:
 - `3 + "four"` → Concatenate or Add?
 - `3 + "4.5"` → Concatenate or Add? If adding, as integer or float?
- Invariants: Logic conditions that should be met at runtime (e.g. a loop condition such as `i < N`)

Static Analysis

- Compile-time algorithms that predict run-time behavior
- Example: pointer analysis attempts to find when are pointers safe, being used, not being used, initialized, etc
- Analysis is precise if it allows the compiler to determine when something follows the rule or not; eq. imprecise if there's a chance that the algorithm may fail
- Some languages (e.g. Ada, ML): will enforce variables are always appropriately used according to their type
- Lisp, Python, Ruby: type-safe, added dynamic overhead for various checks
- Example: definite assignments in Java and C# force variables to be initialized

Static Analysis

- Escape analysis: references limited to context? If so, can be allocated in the stack
- Other:
 - out of order optimizations: is it safe/correct to re-arrange the order of computations?
 - thread safety: can some instructions be executed in parallel?
- Unsafe optimizations: may lead to incorrect results
- Speculative: sort of no guarantees of the result when doing something; can also refer to something that can be undone (e.g. data prefetching)
- Conservative: analysis or optimization guaranteeing minimum requirement of results in terms of safety and/or effectiveness
- Optimistic: similar to conservative but with a “maybe” flavor

Attribute Grammars

1. $E \rightarrow E + T$
2. $E \rightarrow E - T$
3. $E \rightarrow T$
4. $T \rightarrow T * F$
5. $T \rightarrow T / F$
6. $T \rightarrow F$
7. $F \rightarrow - F$
8. $F \rightarrow (E)$
9. $F \rightarrow \text{const}$

- For every symbol S , we have some set of attributes: $S.\text{attr1}$, $S.\text{attr2}$...
- Attributes can vary depending on the symbol type
- Not all symbols need to have the same set of attributes
- Examples:
 - For a list we could associate a C++ `std::vector<sometype>`
 - For some arithmetic expressions we could have int or float field types

Attribute Grammars

1. $E_1 \rightarrow E_2 + T$
2. $E_1 \rightarrow E_2 - T$
3. $E \rightarrow T$
4. $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 * F$
5. $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 / F$
6. $T \rightarrow F$
7. $F_1 \rightarrow - F_2$
8. $F \rightarrow (E)$
9. $F \rightarrow \text{const}$



1. $\text{val}(E_1) := \text{val}(E_2) + \text{val}(T)$
2. $\text{val}(E_1) := \text{val}(E_2) - \text{val}(T)$
3. $\text{val}(E) := \text{val}(T)$
4. $\text{val}(T_1) := \text{val}(T_2) * \text{val}(F)$
5. $\text{val}(T_1) := \text{val}(T_2) / \text{val}(F)$
6. $\text{val}(T) := \text{val}(F)$
7. $\text{val}(F_1) := - \text{val}(F_2)$
8. $\text{val}(F) := \text{val}(E)$
9. $\text{val}(F) := \text{val}(\text{const})$

- a. Copy rules
b. Semantic functions

Attribute Grammars

- Usual type of rules:
 - Copy rules
 - Semantic rules
 - Small fragments of code to be executed in specific parts of the parsing process \rightarrow semantic actions

1. $L \rightarrow \mathbf{id} \ LT$

2. $LT \rightarrow , \ L$

3. $LT \rightarrow \varepsilon$



1. $c(L) := 1 + c(LT)$

2. $c(LT) := c(L)$

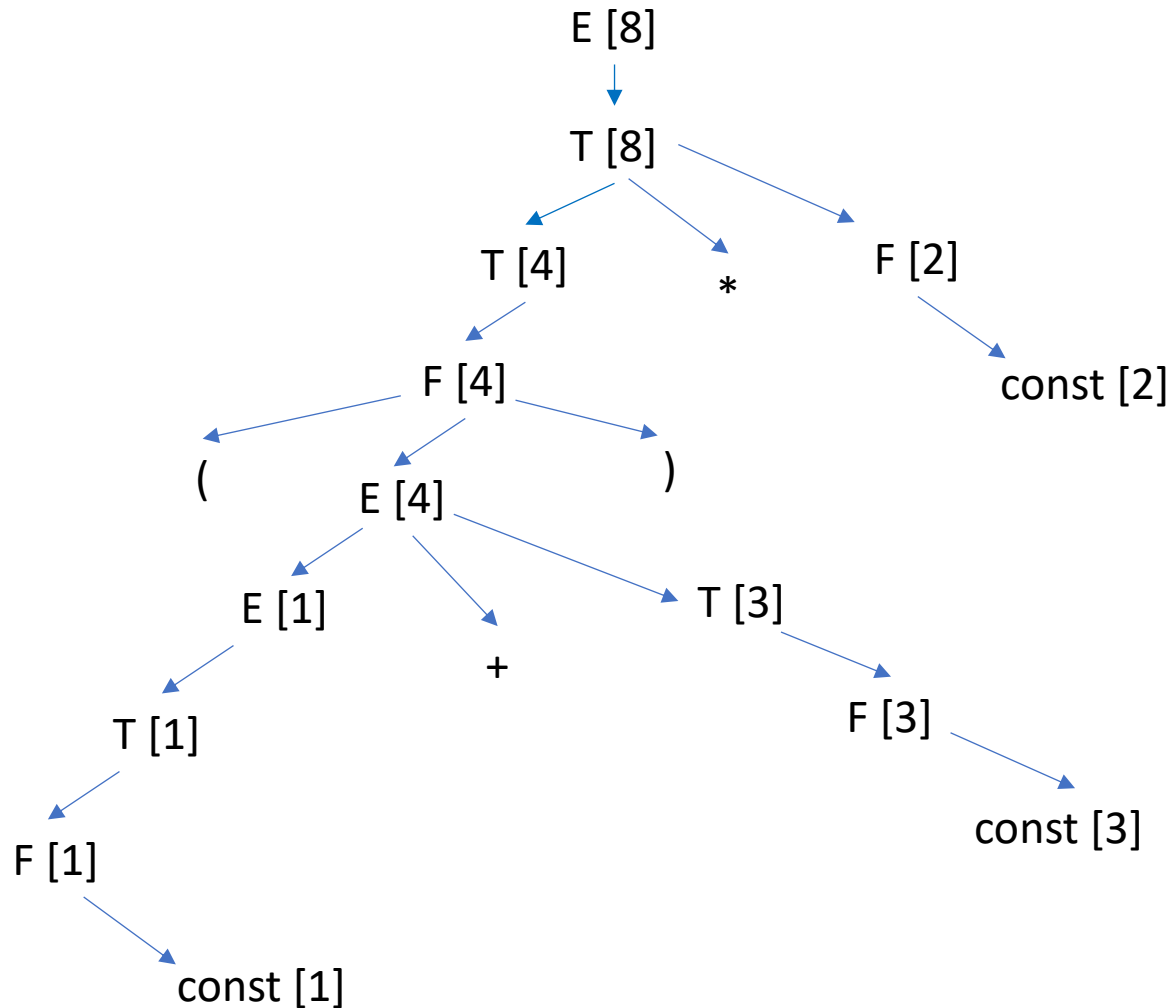
3. $c(LT) := 0$

Attribute Grammars

Attributes of tree nodes might include

- for an identifier: a reference to its symbol table entry (maybe)
- for an expression, it's type
- for a statement or expression, a reference to the code in the compiler's intermediate form
- for practically all constructs, information relating to filename, line, column, source code position
- internal code, list of semantic errors in the subtree below

Evaluating Attributes



Information flow with
attribute grammar
for string: (1 + 3) * 2

Attributes

- They come in two flavors:
 - Synthesized: compute somewhere in the tree, and push up to parent
 - Inherited: some node computes it, and then passes it to its children or younger sibling

Synthesized Attributes

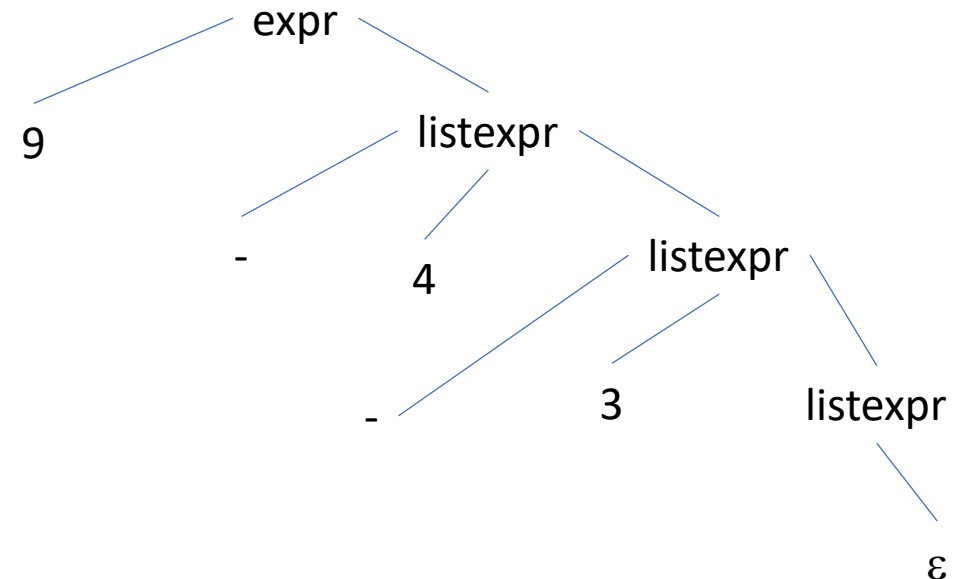
- Values are calculated along the way
- Only in productions when the symbol appears on the left-hand side
- Attribute flow: information boiling up, from leaves to root
- Attribute grammars where all attributes are synthesized are S-attributed
- In S-attributed grammars:
 - Arguments to semantic functions can only be from the right-hand side (We'll come back to this)
 - Result always goes to attribute on left-hand side symbol
- Attributes of tokens can only be initialized by information coming from scanner

Inherited Attributes

- *Inherited attributes* are attributes whose values are calculated when their symbol appears on the right-hand side of the current production
- Key difference: Information flows from parent to child or among siblings; synthesized attributes flow from children to parents
- In some compilers, symbol table information passed via inherited attributes

LL(1) grammar:

- $\text{expr} \rightarrow \text{const listexpr}$
- $\text{listexpr} \rightarrow - \text{const listexpr} \mid \varepsilon$

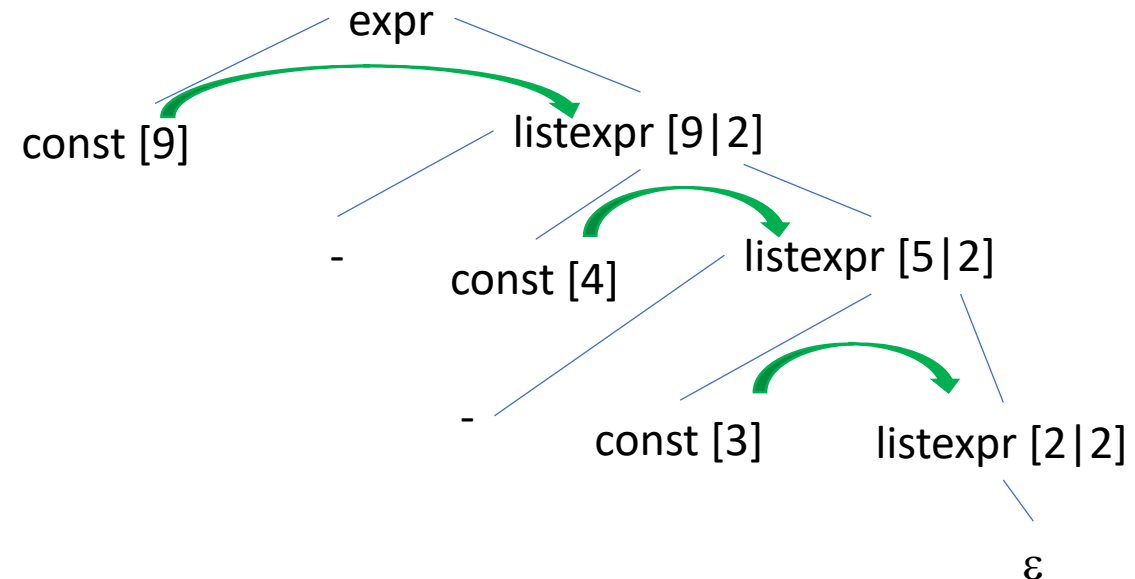


Inherited Attributes

- An LL(1) grammar (top-down, left-left) is natural for inherited attributes
- Synthesized attributes do not match the order in which the tree is discovered
- To support an s-attribute grammar, we would need the ability to store an explicit representation of listexpr (a right-hand subtree) \rightarrow defeats the purpose

LL(1) grammar:

- $\text{expr} \rightarrow \text{const listexpr}$
- $\text{listexpr} \rightarrow - \text{const listexpr} \mid \varepsilon$



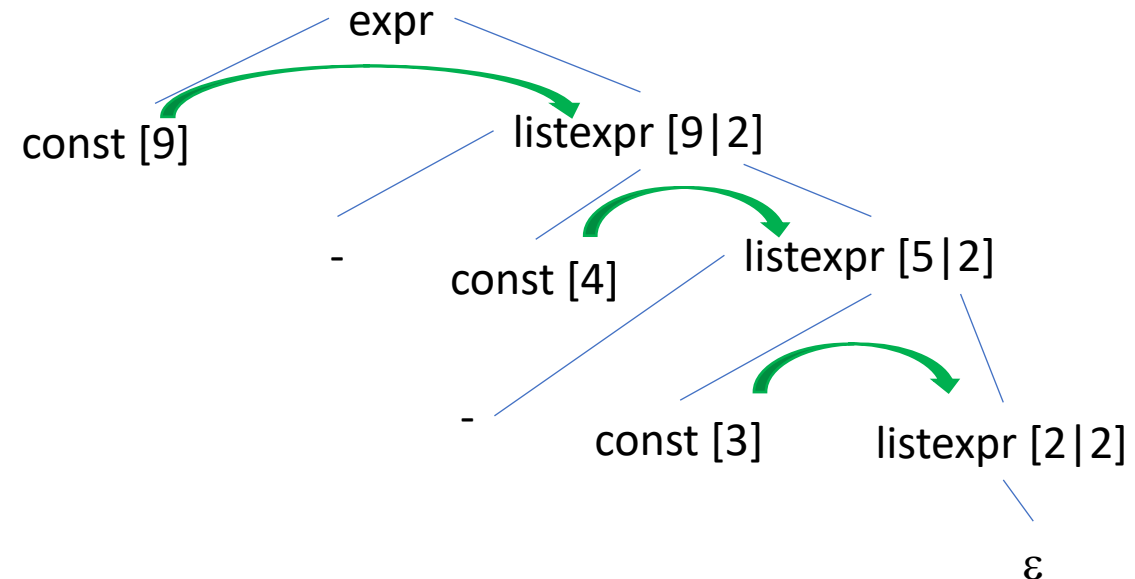
Inherited Attributes

Attribute rules:

- $\text{expr} \rightarrow \text{const listexpr}$
 - $\text{subtot}(\text{listexpr}) := \text{val}(\text{expr})$
 - $\text{val}(\text{expr}) := \text{val}(\text{listexpr})$
- $\text{listexpr} \rightarrow - \text{const listexpr}$
 - $\text{subtot}(\text{listexpr}_1) := \text{subtot}(\text{listexpr}_2) - \text{val}(\text{const})$
 - $\text{val}(\text{listexpr}_1) := \text{val}(\text{listexpr}_2)$
- $\text{listexpr} \rightarrow \varepsilon$
 - $\text{val}(\text{listexpr}) := \text{subtot}(\text{listexpr})$

LL(1) grammar:

- $\text{expr} \rightarrow \text{const listexpr}$
- $\text{listexpr} \rightarrow - \text{const listexpr} \mid \varepsilon$



Inherited Attributes

LL(1) grammar
with inherit
attributes:

Main source of
problem: left
associative
operators

Left and right
operands
appear in
separate
productions

```
1. E → T TT
• st(TT) := val(TT)
• val(E) := val(TT)
2. TT1 → + T TT2
• st(TT2) := st(TT1) + val(T)
• val(TT1) := val(TT2)
3. TT1 → - T TT2
• st(TT2) := st(TT1) - val(T)
• val(TT1) := val(TT2)
4. TT → ε
• val(TT) := st(TT)
5. T → F FT
• st(FT) := val(F)
• val(T) := val(FT)
6. FT1 → * F FT2
• st(FT2) := st(FT1) * val(F)
• val(FT1) := val(FT2)
```

```
7. FT1 → / F FT2
• st(FT2) := st(FT1) /
  val(F)
• val(FT1) := val(FT2)
8. FT → ε
• val(FT) := st(FT)
9. F1 → - F2
• val(F1) := - val(F2)
10. F → ( E )
• val(F) := val(E)
11. F → const
• val(F) := val(const)
```

Attribute Flow

- Attribute grammars do not specify the order in which attribute rules are or should be invoked
- Annotations are declarative: define set of trees, but not how to annotate them
- S-attribute grammars:
 - Strictly bottom-up
 - Evaluation of attributes follows visiting order of parse tree (of an LR-parser)
 - Attributes can be evaluated on the fly, interleaving semantic and syntactic analysis (and lexical analysis)

Attribute Flow

L-attribute (Left—tttributed) grammars (formally):

- a. Synthesized attributes of left-hand side (lhs) symbols depend only on: i) symbol's own inherited attributes or ii) on attributes (synthesized or inherited) of symbols on the right-hand side (rhs) of the production
- b. Inherited attributes of rhs symbols depend only on inherited attributes of the lhs or on attributes (any kind) of symbols to its left in the rhs of the production

$$\begin{aligned} \text{syn}(\text{sym}_{\text{lhs}}) &:= f_{\text{inh}}(\text{sym}_{\text{lhs}}) \\ \text{syn}(\text{sym}_{\text{lhs}}) &:= f_{\text{syn}}(\text{sym}_{\text{lhs}}) \\ \text{syn}(\text{sym}_{\text{lhs}}) &:= f(\{\text{inh}(\text{rhs}_1, \text{rhs}_2, \dots, \text{rhs}_M), \\ &\quad \text{syn}(\text{inh}(\text{rhs}_1, \text{rhs}_2, \dots, \text{rhs}_M))\}) \end{aligned}$$
$$\begin{aligned} \text{inh}(\text{rhs}_i) &:= f(\{\text{inh}(\text{sym}_{\text{lhs}}), \\ &\quad \text{syn}(\text{rhs}_{j < i}), \text{inh}(\text{rhs}_{j < i})\}) \end{aligned}$$

- Every S-attribute grammar is also an L-attribute grammar
- Compiler that interleaves semantic analysis and code generation is a one-pass compiler (not too common nowadays)
- Avoids the need for explicit construction and representation of the parse tree

Explicit Syntax Tree Construction

- Often, we want to construct an explicit representation of the syntax tree
- Useful in multi-pass compilers
- Example of bottom-up parsing →

1. $E_1 \rightarrow E_2 + T$
2. $E_1 \rightarrow E_2 - T$
3. $E \rightarrow T$
4. $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 * F$
5. $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 / F$
6. $T \rightarrow F$
7. $F_1 \rightarrow - F_2$
8. $F \rightarrow (E)$
9. $F \rightarrow \text{const}$



1. $\text{ptr}(E_1) := \text{make_bin_op}("+", \text{ptr}(E_2), \text{ptr}(T))$
2. $\text{ptr}(E_1) := \text{make_bin_op}("-", \text{ptr}(E_2), \text{ptr}(T))$
3. $\text{ptr}(E) := \text{ptr}(T)$
4. $\text{ptr}(T_1) := \text{make_bin_op}("*", \text{ptr}(T_2), \text{ptr}(F))$
5. $\text{ptr}(T_1) := \text{make_bin_op}("/", \text{ptr}(T_2), \text{ptr}(F))$
6. $\text{ptr}(T) := \text{ptr}(F)$
7. $\text{ptr}(F_1) := \text{make_un_op}(\text{ptr}(F_2))$
8. $\text{ptr}(F) := \text{ptr}(E)$
9. $\text{ptr}(F) := \text{make_leaf}(\text{val}(\text{const}))$

Inherited Attributes

```
1.  $E \rightarrow T TT$ 
•  $st(TT) := ptr(T)$ 
•  $ptr(E) := ptr(TT)$ 
2.  $TT_1 \rightarrow + T TT_2$ 
•  $st(TT_2) := make\_bin\_op("+", st(TT_1), ptr(T))$ 
•  $ptr(TT_1) := ptr(TT_2)$ 
3.  $TT_1 \rightarrow - T TT_2$ 
•  $st(TT_2) := make\_bin\_op("-", st(TT_1), ptr(T))$ 
•  $ptr(TT_1) := ptr(TT_2)$ 
4.  $TT \rightarrow \varepsilon$ 
•  $val(TT) := st(TT)$ 
5.  $T \rightarrow F FT$ 
•  $st(FT) := val(F)$ 
•  $val(T) := val(FT)$ 
6.  $FT_1 \rightarrow * F FT_2$ 
•  $st(FT_2) := make\_bin\_op("*", st(FT_1), ptr(F))$ 
•  $ptr(FT_1) := ptr(FT_2)$ 
```

```
7.  $FT_1 \rightarrow / F FT_2$ 
•  $st(FT_2) := make\_bin\_op("/", st(FT_1), ptr(F))$ 
•  $ptr(FT_1) := ptr(FT_2)$ 
8.  $FT \rightarrow \varepsilon$ 
•  $ptr(FT) := st(FT)$ 
9.  $F_1 \rightarrow - F_2$ 
•  $ptr(F_1) := make\_un\_op("-", ptr(F_2))$ 
10.  $F \rightarrow ( E )$ 
•  $ptr(F) := ptr(E)$ 
11.  $F \rightarrow const$ 
•  $ptr(F) := make\_leaf(val(const))$ 
```

Action Routines

- Commonly used in parsing-driven translation
- An action is a semantic function invoked during specific points of the parsing process
- Compiler designer decided what to call when, for instance, adding new variables to the symbol table
- We will normally have several semantic actions in each production
- During the compiler design and implementation process, we might notice that we want to change the structure of the productions / grammar