# 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: args 

     args , one\_arg | 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)

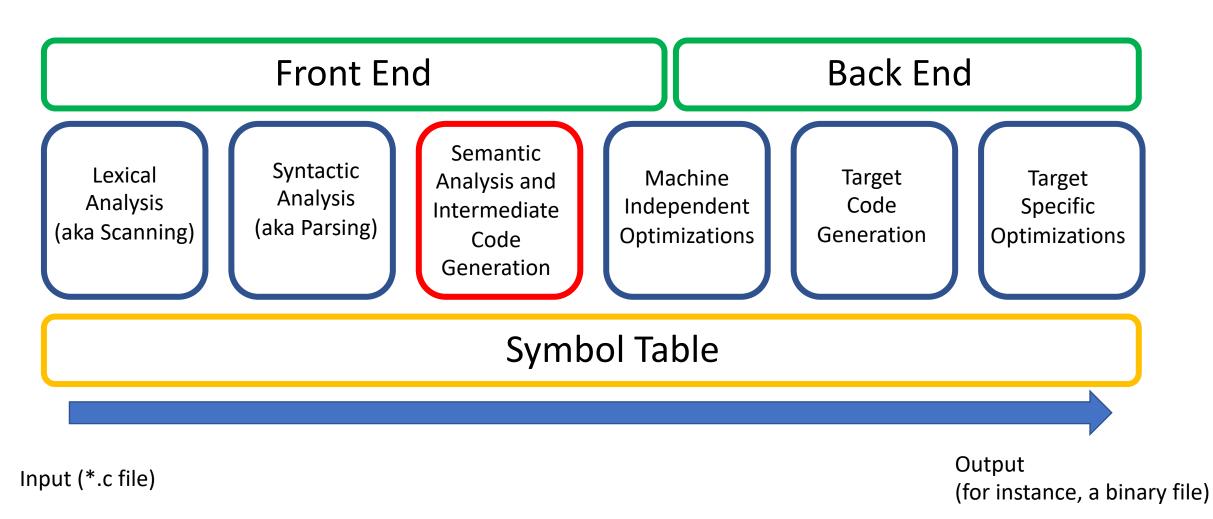
### Introduction

- Semantic analysis and code generation can be described in terms of <u>annotations</u> / <u>decorations</u> 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 <u>attribute grammars</u> 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)</li>

## 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: <u>definite assignments</u> 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?
  - <u>thread safety</u>: can some instructions be executed in parallel?
- *Unsafe optimizations*: may lead to incorrect results
- <u>Speculative</u>: performs work preemptively, possibly discarding part or all of it (machine has nothing better to do); can also refer to something that can be undone (e.g. data prefetching)
- <u>Conservative</u>: analysis or optimization guaranteeing minimum requirement of results in terms of safety and/on effectiveness
- Optimistic: similar to conservative but with a "maybe" flavor

- 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.  $F \rightarrow const$

- For every symbol S, we have some set of attributes: S.attr1, S.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

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.  $F \rightarrow const$



1. 
$$val(E_1) := val(E_2) + val(T)$$

- 2.  $val(E_1) := val(E_2) val(T)$
- 4.  $val(T_1) := val(T_2) * val(F)$
- 5.  $val(T_1) := val(T_2) / val(F)$
- 6. val(T) := val(F)
- 7.  $val(F_1) := -val(F_2)$
- 8. val(F) := val(E)
- 9. val(F) := val(const)

- a. Copy rules
  - b. Semantic functions

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

1. 
$$L \rightarrow id LT$$

2. LT  $\rightarrow$  , L

3. LT  $\rightarrow \varepsilon$ 



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

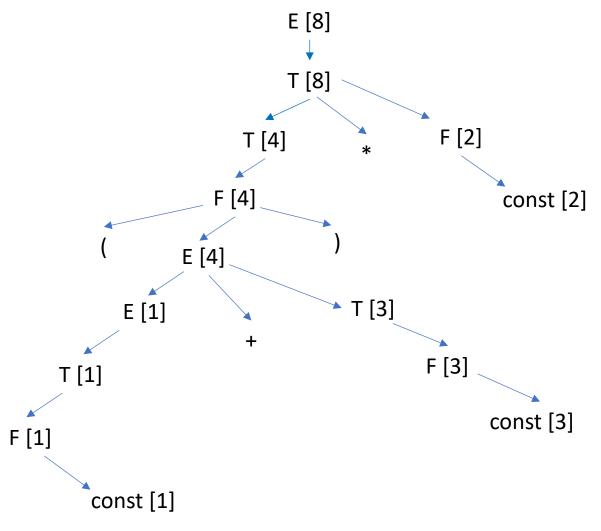
2. 
$$c(LT) := c(L)$$

3. 
$$c(LT) := 0$$

#### 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
  - <u>Inherited</u>: some node computes it, and then passes it to its children or younger sibling

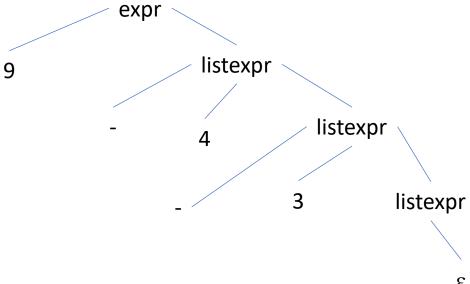
## Synthesized Attributes

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

#### LL(1) grammar:

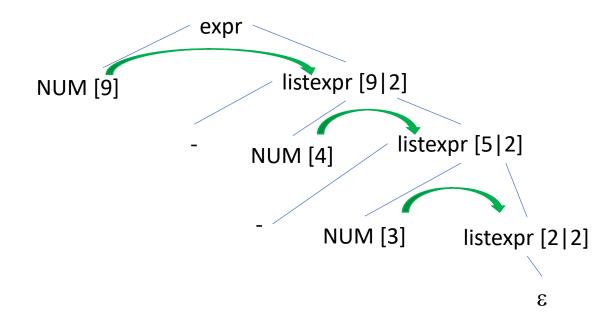
- expr → **NUM** listexpr
- listexpr  $\rightarrow$  **NUM** listexpr |  $\epsilon$



- An LL(1) grammar (top-down, leftleft) 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) → defeats the purpose

#### LL(1) grammar:

- expr → NUM listexpr
- listexpr  $\rightarrow$  NUM listexpr |  $\epsilon$

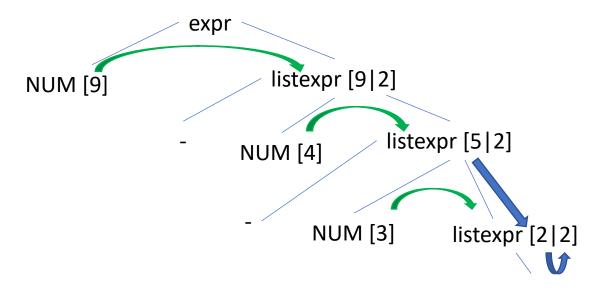


#### Attribute rules:

- expr → NUM listexpr
  - ➤ subtot(listexpr) := val(NUM)
  - ➤ val(expr) := val(listexpr)
- listexpr<sub>1</sub> → NUM listexpr<sub>2</sub>
  - $\triangleright$  subtot(listexpr<sub>2</sub>) := subtot(listexpr<sub>1</sub>) val(NUM)
  - ➤ val(listexpr<sub>1</sub>) := val(listexpr<sub>2</sub>)
- listexpr  $\rightarrow \epsilon$ 
  - val(listexpr) := subtot(listexpr)

#### LL(1) grammar:

- expr → NUM listexpr
- listexpr  $\rightarrow$  NUM listexpr |  $\epsilon$



LL(1) grammar with inherit attributes:

Main source of problem: left associative operators

Left and right operands appear in separate productions

```
1. E \rightarrow T TT
• st(TT) := val(TT)
val(E) := val(TT)
2. TT_1 \rightarrow TT_2
• st(TT_2) := st(TT_1) + val(T)
• val(TT_1) := val(TT_2)
3. TT_1 \rightarrow - T TT_2
• st(TT_2) := st(TT_1) - val(T)
• val(TT<sub>1</sub>) := val(TT<sub>2</sub>)
4. TT \rightarrow \epsilon
• 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) := st(FT_1) * val(F)
• val(FT<sub>1</sub>) := val(FT<sub>2</sub>)
```

```
7. FT_1 \rightarrow / F FT_2
• st(FT<sub>2</sub>) := st(FT<sub>1</sub>) /
   val(F)
• val(FT_1) := val(FT_2)
8 \text{ FT} \rightarrow \epsilon
• val(FT) := st(FT)
9. F_1 \rightarrow -F_2
• val(F_1) := - val(F_2)
10. F \rightarrow ( E )
• val(F) := val(E)
11. F \rightarrow 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—attributed) 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{array}{l} syn(sym_{lhs}) := f_{inh}(sym_{lhs}) \\ \hline syn(sym_{lhs}) := fsyn(sym_{lhs}) \\ syn(sym_{lhs}) := f(\{inh(rhs_{1}, rhs_{2}, ...rhs_{M})\}) \\ \\ syn(inh(rhs_{1}, rhs_{2}, ...rhs_{M})\}) \\ \\ inh(rhs_{i}) := f(\{inh(sym_{lhs}), \\ \\ syn(rhs_{j < i}), inh(_{rhsj < i})\}) \end{array}
```

- 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 representati on 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. 
$$T_1 \rightarrow T_2 * F$$

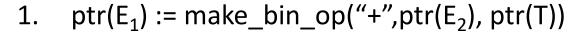
5. 
$$T_1 \rightarrow T_2/F$$

6. 
$$T \rightarrow F$$

7. 
$$F_1 \rightarrow -F_2$$

8. 
$$F \rightarrow (E)$$

9. 
$$F \rightarrow const$$



2. 
$$ptr(E_1) := make\_bin\_op("-",ptr(E_2), ptr(T))$$

3. 
$$ptr(E) := ptr(T)$$

4. 
$$ptr(T_1) := make\_bin\_op("*",ptr(T_2), ptr(F))$$

5. 
$$ptr(T_1) := make\_bin\_op("/",ptr(T_2), ptr(F))$$

6. 
$$ptr(T) := ptr(F)$$

7. 
$$ptr(F_1) := make\_un\_op(ptr(F_2))$$

8. 
$$ptr(F) := ptr(E)$$



```
1. E \rightarrow T TT
• st(TT) := ptr(T)
• ptr(E) := ptr(TT)
2. TT_1 \rightarrow TT_2
• st(TT<sub>2</sub>) := make_bin_op("+", st(TT<sub>1</sub>), ptr(T)
• ptr(TT<sub>1</sub>) := ptr (TT<sub>2</sub>)
3. TT_1 \rightarrow - T TT_2
• st(TT_2) := make bin op("-", st(TT_1), ptr(T))
• ptr(TT<sub>1</sub>) := ptr (TT<sub>2</sub>)
4. TT \rightarrow \epsilon
• 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<sub>2</sub>) := make_bin_op("*", st(FT<sub>1</sub>), ptr(F))
• ptr(FT<sub>1</sub>) := ptr (FT<sub>2</sub>)
```

```
7. FT_1 \rightarrow / F FT_2
• st(FT<sub>2</sub>) := make_bin_op("/",
   st(FT_1), ptr(F))

    ptr(FT<sub>1</sub>) := ptr (FT<sub>2</sub>)

  ptr(FT) := st(FT)
• ptr(F_1) := make un op("-
• 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