


Formal  
Methods  
& Tools



University of Twente  
The Netherlands


# Contextual Analysis

Vertalerbouw **HC3**

**VB HC3**

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## What have you seen last time?

- More tombstones
- Compiler phases and passes
  - Syntax analysis: Scanning and parsing
  - Contextual analysis
  - Code generation
- Parsing
  - Top-down parsing: LL(k)
  - Recursive descent for LL(1)
  - Bottom-up parsing: LR(k), PDA's
- Scanning (lexical analysis)
  - Requires only regular expressions

VB HC 2 2




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## Overview of Lecture 3

- Mededelingen
- Ch 4 – Syntactic Analysis
  - 4.1-3 ...
  - 4.4 Abstract Syntax Trees
  - 4.5-6 ...
- Ch 5 – Contextual Analysis
  - 5.1 Identification
  - 5.2 Type Checking
  - 5.3 Contextual Analysis algorithm
  - 5.4 Case study: Contextual Analysis for Triangle

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## Mededelingen

- Opgavenserie 1 komt vandaag beschikbaar op Blackboard
  - deadline: maandag 21 mei 2012 om 18.00 uur
  - wees precies: slordigheden zijn meestal fout

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## Ch 4 – Syntactic Analysis

- 4.1 Subphrases of syntactic analysis
- 4.2 Grammars revisited
- 4.3 Parsing
- 4.4 Abstract Syntax Trees
- 4.5 Scanning
- 4.6 Case study: Triangle compiler

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HC2

## Again: Recursive-Descent Parsing

Systematic development of a recursive-descent parser:

1. Express the grammar in EBNF.
2. Grammar transformations:
  - eliminate left recursion
  - left-factorization
3. Create a Java Parser class with
  - protected variable `currentToken`
  - methods to call the scanner: `accept` and `acceptIt`
  - public method `parse` which
    - gets the first token from the scanner, and
    - calls the parse method of the root non-terminal of the grammar
4. Implement protected parsing methods
  - add protected methods `parseN` for each non-terminal `N`

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## Again: Recursive-Descent Parsing (2)

```

public class MicroEnglishParser {
  (protected) Token currentToken;

  public void parse() {
    currentToken = first token;
    parseSentence();
    check that no token follows the sentence
  }

  protected void accept(Token expected) { ... }
  protected void parseSentence() { ... }
  protected void parseSubject() { ... }
  protected void parseObject() { ... }
  protected void parseNoun() { ... }
  protected void parseVerb() { ... }
  ...
}

```

connection to the scanner which provides the tokens

Allows customization of the parser through inheritance.

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## Abstract Syntax Trees (1)

- A recursive-descent parser builds the syntax tree implicitly by the call graph of the parse methods.
  - In a one-pass compiler this is OK.
  - In a multi-pass compiler we need an explicit representation of the (abstract) syntax tree.
- Remember that each nonterminal `XYZ` is converted to a parse method `parseXYZ`:

```
protected void parseXYZ( ) { ... }
```

Instead of returning nothing, the method could return something interesting. What about an AST node?

Furthermore, other parse methods that call this method could pass useful information using parameters.

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## Abstract Syntax Trees (2)

Program	::=	Command	Program
Command	::=	Command ; Command	SequentialCmd
		V-name := Expression	AssignCmd
		Identifier ( Expression )	CallCmd
		if Expression	IfCmd
		then Command	
		else Command	
		while Expression do Command	WhileCmd
		let Declaration in Command	LetCmd
Expression	::=	Integer-Literal	IntegerExpr
		V-name	VnameExpr
		Operator Expression	UnaryExpr
		Expression Operator Expression	BinaryExpr
V-name	::=	Identifier	SimpleVname
Declaration	::=	Declaration ; Declaration	SeqDecl
		const Identifier ~ Expression	ConstDecl
		var Identifier : Type-denoter	VarDecl
Type-denoter	::=	Identifier	SimpleTypeDen

Grammar for Mini-Triangle's abstract syntax.

AST nodes of Mini-Triangle

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## Abstract Syntax Trees (3)

Command	::=	Command ; Command	SequentialCmd
		V-name := Expression	AssignCmd
		Identifier ( Expression )	CallCmd
		if Expression then single-Command	IfCmd
		else single-Command	
		while Expression do single-Command	WhileCmd
		let Declaration in single-Command	LetCmd

SequentialCmd

```

graph TD
    SC[SequentialCmd] --- C1[C1]
    SC --- C2[C2]
        
```

AssignCmd

```

graph TD
    AC[AssignCmd] --- V[V]
    AC --- E[E]
        
```

CallCmd

```

graph TD
    CC[CallCmd] --- Ident[Ident]
    CC --- E[E]
        
```

IfCmd

```

graph TD
    IC[IfCmd] --- E[E]
    IC --- C1[C1]
    IC --- C2[C2]
        
```

WhileCmd

```

graph TD
    WC[WhileCmd] --- E[E]
    WC --- C[C]
        
```

LetCmd

```

graph TD
    LC[LetCmd] --- D[D]
    LC --- C[C]
        
```

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## Abstract Syntax Trees (4)

- We need to define **Java classes** to capture the **structure** of Mini-Triangle ASTs. We introduce the **abstract class AST**.

```
public abstract class AST { ... }
```

- Every node in the AST will be an object of a **subclass** of AST. Each **subclass** has **instance variables** for the **children nodes**.

```
public class Program extends AST {
    public Command C;
    ...
}
```

Command is the abstract base class for all Command AST nodes.

```
public abstract class Command extends AST { ... }
```

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## ASTs (5)

```

abstract class Command extends AST { ... }

public class SequentialCmd extends Command {
    public Command C1, C2;
    ...
}

public class AssignCmd extends Command {
    public Vname V;
    public Expression E;
    ...
}

public class CallCmd extends Command {
    public Identifier I;
    public Expression E;
    ...
}

public class IfCmd extends Command {
    public Expression E;
    public Command C1, C2;
    ...
}
etc.
    
```

```

graph TD
    SC[SequentialCmd] --- C1[C1]
    SC --- C2[C2]
    AC[AssignCmd] --- V[V]
    AC --- E[E]
    CC[CallCmd] --- Ident[Ident]
    CC --- E[E]
    IC[IfCmd] --- E[E]
    IC --- C1[C1]
    IC --- C2[C2]
    
```

The AST subclasses should have **constructors** to build an object of these classes.

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## Abstract Syntax Trees (6)

- It is straightforward to make a recursive-descent parser construct an AST to represent the phrase structure:
  - Make each method `parseN` (as well as parsing a N-phrase), return the N-phrase's AST.
  - Let the body of a method `parseN` construct the N-phrase AST by combining the ASTs of any subphrases.
- Thus, for production rule  $N ::= X$

```
protected ASTN parseN() {
    ASTN itsAST;
    parse X, at the same time constructing itsAST
    return itsAST;
}
```

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## Abstract Syntax Trees: Example

EBNF `Command ::= SingleCommand (; SingleCommand)*`

```
protected Command parseCommand() {
    Command c1AST = parseSingleCmd();
    while (currentToken.kind == Token.SEMICOLON) {
        acceptIt();
        Command c2AST = parseSingleCmd();
        c1AST = new SequentialCmd(c1AST, c2AST);
    }
    return c1AST;
}
```

AST `Command ::= Command ; Command SequentialCmd`

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## Ch 5 – Contextual Analysis

- Identification
- Type checking
- Contextual Analysis algorithm
- Case study: Triangle compiler

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## Compiler Phases

Source Program

Syntax Analysis Ch. 4

AST

Contextual Analysis Ch. 5

Decorated AST

Code Generation Ch. 7

Object Code

Ch. 8: Interpreter

(Abstract) Machine Ch. 6: Run-Time Organization

Checking the language's contextual constraints.

sometimes referred to as "semantic analysis".

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## Context Constraints – scope rules

HC1

- Scope rule - examples

```
let
  const m ~ 2;
  var n: Integer
in begin
  ...
  n := m*2;
  ...
end
```

declaration of n:  
binding occurrence

use of n: applied occurrence

??

```
let
  var n: Integer;
in begin
  ...
  n := m*2;
  ...
end
```

If there is no enclosing scope (i.e. LetCmd) where **m** is declared, the binding occurrence of **m** is missing: **scope error!**

applied occurrence

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## Context Constraints – type rules

HC1

- Type rule - example

```
let
  var n: Integer
in begin
  ...
  while n > 0 do
    n := n-1;
  ...
end
```

Type rule for  $E_1 > E_2$  (GreaterOp):  
If  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are both of type **int**, then the result is of type **bool**.

Type rule for **while** E do C (WhileCmd):  
E must be a **boolean**.

Type rule for  $V := E$  (AssignCmd):  
The types of V and E must be **equivalent**.

Type rule for  $E_1 - E_2$  (SubOp):  
If  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are both of type **int**, then the result is of type **int**.

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## Contextual Analysis

HC2

Two sub-phases:

- Scope rules are checked in the **identification phase**
- Type rules are checked in the **type checking phase**

Program  
LetCmd

Abstract Syntax Tree

Context Analysis → Errors

Decorated Abstract Syntax Tree

```

graph TD
    Program --> LetCmd
    LetCmd --> SequentialCmd
    SequentialCmd --> AssignCmd1[AssignCmd]
    SequentialCmd --> AssignCmd2[AssignCmd]
    AssignCmd1 --> CharExpr[CharExpr :char]
    AssignCmd2 --> BinaryExpr[BinaryExpr :int]
    CharExpr --> SimpleVar1[SimpleVar :char]
    SimpleVar1 --> Ident1[Ident]
    Ident1 --> n[n]
    CharExpr --> CharLit[Char-Lit]
    CharLit --> amp[']&']
    BinaryExpr --> VnameExpr[VnameExpr :int]
    VnameExpr --> SimpleVar2[SimpleVar :int]
    SimpleVar2 --> Ident2[Ident]
    Ident2 --> n2[n]
    BinaryExpr --> SimpleVar3[SimpleVar :int]
    SimpleVar3 --> Ident3[Ident]
    Ident3 --> n3[n]
    BinaryExpr --> Op[Op]
    Op --> plus[+]
    BinaryExpr --> IntLit[Int-Lit]
    IntLit --> one[1]
    SequentialCmd --> SequentialDecl[SequentialDecl]
    SequentialDecl --> VarDecl1[VarDecl]
    VarDecl1 --> SimpleT1[SimpleT]
    SimpleT1 --> Ident4[Ident]
    Ident4 --> Integer[Integer]
    SequentialDecl --> VarDecl2[VarDecl]
    VarDecl2 --> SimpleT2[SimpleT]
    SimpleT2 --> Ident5[Ident]
    Ident5 --> c[c]
    SequentialDecl --> VarDecl3[VarDecl]
    VarDecl3 --> SimpleT3[SimpleT]
    SimpleT3 --> Ident6[Ident]
    Ident6 --> c2[c]
    SequentialDecl --> VarDecl4[VarDecl]
    VarDecl4 --> SimpleT4[SimpleT]
    SimpleT4 --> Ident7[Ident]
    Ident7 --> Char[Char]
  
```

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## Things to check

- An applied occurrence of an identifier must have a matching defining occurrence.  
*A pointer to the defining occurrence can be added to the AST.*
- In an assignment, the identifier on the left-hand side should refer to a variable.
- Function calls must refer to defined functions.
- The expression of an **if** or **while** should be **boolean**.
- When calling procedures, the number and types of the actual parameters (arguments) should match the number and types of the formal parameters.
- etc.

All follow from the context constraints defined for the (programming) language.

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## Symbol Table (1)

See exercise 1.3 of the laboratory session of week 1.

- **Symbol table** (called **identification table** in W&B)
  - Dictionary-style data structure in which identifiers are stored together with their attributes.
  - Typical attributes
    - **type**: int, char, boolean, record, array, pointer, etc.
    - **kind**: constant, variable, procedure, function, value-parameter, reference-parameter, etc.
    - **visibility**: public, private, protected
  - Typical operations
    - **enter** an identifier and its attributes into symbol table
    - **retrieve** the attributes for an identifier
  - other operations depend on the block structure of the language.

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## Block

- **Scope** of a declaration: area of the program over which the declaration takes effect.
- **Block**: area of program text that delimits the scope of declarations within it.
  - **Triangle's** block commands
 

```
let Declarations in Commands
proc P(formal-parameters) ~ Commands
```
  - In **Java**:
 

*A block is a sequence of statements, local class declarations and local variable declaration statements within braces.*

```
for (int i=0; i<a.length; i++) {
    String s = a[i];
    System.out.println(s);
}
```

Both **i** and **s** cannot be used outside the **for**-loop.

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## Monolithic block structure

```

program
  Declarations
  sequence of declarations
  sequence of commands
  begin
  Commands
  end
  
```

- **Characteristics**
  - Only one block: entire program
  - All declarations are global in scope.
- **Scope rules**
  - No identifier may be declared more than once.
  - No identifier may be used before declared.
- **Symbol table**
  - For every identifier there is a single entry in the symbol table.
  - Retrieval should be fast (e.g. binary search tree or hash table).

BASIC, COBOL, ...

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## Flat block structure

```

program
  D
  procedure P
    D
    begin
    C
    end
  procedure Q
    D
    begin
    C
    end
  begin
  C
  end
  
```

- **Characteristics**
  - program has several disjoint blocks
  - two scope levels: global and local
- **Scope rules**
  - No globally declared identifier may be redeclared globally.
  - No locally declared identifier may be redeclared in the same block.
  - No identifier may be used before declared (globally or locally)
- **Symbol table**
  - Both global and local declarations.
  - After analysis of a block has completed, its local declarations can be discarded.

Fortran, C

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## Nested block structure (1)

```

program
  D
  procedure P
    D
    procedure PP
      D
      proc PPP
        begin C end
      end
    end
  end
  procedure Q
    D
    begin
      C
    end
  end
begin
  C
end
        
```

- Characteristics**
  - blocks can be nested within each other
  - many scope levels
- Scope rules**
  - No identifier may be declared more than once in the same block.
  - No identifier may be used unless declared (in local or enclosed blocks).
- Symbol table**
  - Several entries for each identifier.
  - But, at most one entry for each scope level+identifier combination.
  - Highest-level entry of an identifier should be retrieved (fast).

Pascal, Modula, Ada, Java, etc.

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## Nested block structure (2)

```

let !level 1
  var a, b, c;
in begin
  let !level 2
    var a, b;
  in begin
    let !level 3
      var a, c;
    in begin
      a := b + c;
    end;
    a := b + c;
  end;
  a := b + c;
end
        
```

**Scope and visibility**

a and b of level 1 get redefined and are not visible on level 2

a of level 2 and c of level 1 get redefined and are not visible on level 3

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## Scope structure

- For a statically scoped language with nested block structure, the structure of the scopes can be seen as a tree.

Global

P

P1

P2

P3

Q

Global

P

P1

P2

P3

Q

Lookup path for an applied occurrence within P3

At any time (when analysing the program), only a single path in the tree is visible.

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## Symbol Table (2)

Example

```

let !level 1
(1) var a: Integer;
(2) var b: Boolean
in begin
  ...
  let !level 2
(3) var b: Integer;
(4) var c: Boolean
in begin
  let !level 3
(5) const x ~ 3
  in ...
  end
  let !level 2
(6) var d: Boolean;
(7) var e: Integer
in begin
  ...
end
        
```

level	id	Attr.
1	a	(1)

level	id	Attr.
1	a	(1)
1	b	(2)
2	b	(3)

level	id	Attr.
1	a	(1)
1	b	(2)
2	b	(3)
2	c	(4)
2	e	(7)

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## Symbol Table Operations

- Symbol table – additional operations
  - open a new scope level
  - close the highest scope level

**Attribute:** holds all important information on a defined occurrence (type, kind, level, visibility, etc.)

```

public class SymbolTable {
    /** Open a new scope. */
    public void openScope()

    /** Close the highest (current) scope. */
    public void closeScope()

    /** Enters an id together with its Attribute. */
    public void enter(String id, Attribute attr);

    /** Returns the Attribute of id, defined on the
     * highest level. Return null if not in table. */
    public Attribute retrieve(String id)

    /** Returns the current scope level. */
    public int currentLevel()
}

```

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## Symbol Table Implementation

- Possible implementation:
 

```

public class SymbolTable {
    private Map<String, Stack<Attribute>> symtab;
    private Stack<List<String>> scopeStack;
    ...
}

```

Only used to optimize the closing of a scope.

The **symtab** is a Map from Strings to Stacks of Attributes.

- Keys:** the String-representations (names) of the identifiers.
- Values:** Stack of Attributes; the Attributes of the identifier declared on the highest scope level is always on top.

The **scopeStack** is a Stack of Lists of Strings.

- openScope:** An empty List is pushed on the **scopeStack**; the String-representation of each identifier found in the newly opened scope will be added to this list.
- closeScope:** The identifiers of this "old" scope (which are all in the top List of **scopeStack**) are removed from **symtab**. The List of the old scope is popped from **scopeStack**.

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## Symbol Table (5)

Previous example using a map of **<String, Stack<Attribute>>**.

```

let !level 1
(1) var a: Integer;
(2) var b: Boolean
in begin
...
let !level 2
(3) var b: Integer;
(4) var c: Boolean;
in begin
let !level 3
(5) const x ~ 3
in ...
end
let !level 2
(6) var d: Boolean
(7) var e: Integer
in begin
end
end

```

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## Attributes

- Attributes** should (at least) contain information for
  - checking the **scope rules**

Successful retrieval of an applied occurrence in the symbol table is enough: it means that there is a binding occurrence.
  - checking the **type rules**

The type of an identifier has to be stored.
  - (code generation)

address of the variable
- Possible approaches
  - Store the attribute completely into the symbol table.
  - Alternative: store a pointer to the AST node of the binding occurrence

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## Explicit Attributes: Imperative

- Imperative approach for storing attributes explicitly.

```

public class Attribute {
    public static enum Kind {
        CONST,
        VAR,
        PROC,
        ... ;
    }
    public static enum Type {
        BOOL,
        CHAR,
        INT,
        ARRAY,
        ... ;
    }

    public Kind kind;
    public Type type;
}
    
```

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## Explicit Attributes: OO-approach

- OO approach for storing attributes explicitly.

```

public class Attribute {
    public Kind kind;
    public Type type;
}
    
```

```

graph BT
    ConstKind --> Kind
    VarKind --> Kind
    ProcKind --> Kind
    FuncKind --> Kind
    BoolType --> Type
    CharType --> Type
    IntType --> Type
    ArrayType --> Type
    
```

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## Attributes in AST

Using references to the AST.

```

let var x: Integer;
    var y: Char
in begin
    ...
    let var z: Boolean
    in ...
end
    
```

level	id	Attr.
1	x	
1	y	
2	z	

Here Kind and Type should be stored in AST node.

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## Types

- What is a type?
  - Low-level view: "A restriction on the possible interpretations of a segment of memory or other program construct".
  - High-level view: A set of allowed values.
- Why use types?
  - Error avoidance:** prevent programmer from making type errors (e.g. round peg in square hole).
  - Runtime optimization:** earlier binding leads to fewer runtime decisions (e.g. C).
- Are types really needed?
  - No, many languages can operate (fine) without them
    - assembly languages, script languages (e.g. Python, Tcl)

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## Type Checking (1)

- In a statically typed language every expression  $E$  is either (i) ill-typed, or (ii) has a static type that can be computed without actually evaluating  $E$ .
 

*When an expression  $E$  has static type  $T$  this means that when  $E$  is evaluated then the returned value will always have type  $T$ .*
- Most modern languages have a large emphasis on static typechecking.
 

*But object-oriented programming languages (e.g. Java) require some runtime type checking.*

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## Type Checking (2)

- Type checking involves
  - calculating or inferring the types of expressions (by using information about the types of their components)
  - checking that these types are what they should be (e.g. the condition of `if`-statement must have type Boolean).
- Bottom-up type checking algorithm:
  - Types for expression AST leaves are known:
    - literals: denotation (true/false, 2, 3, 'a')
    - variables: retrieve from symbol table
    - constants: retrieve from symbol table
  - Types for internal nodes are inferred from the type of the children and the type rule for that kind of expression.

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## Type Checking (3)

Type rule for binary expression  $E_1 \text{ op } E_2$ :

- If  $\text{op}$  is operation of type  $T_1 \times T_2 \rightarrow R$
- and  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  have types compatible with  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  respectively.
- then  $E_1 \text{ op } E_2$  is of type  $R$

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## AST Hierarchy for Expressions

Expression ::= Integer-Literal	IntegerExpr
V-name	VnameExpr
Operator Expression	UnaryExpr
Expression Operator Expression	BinaryExpr

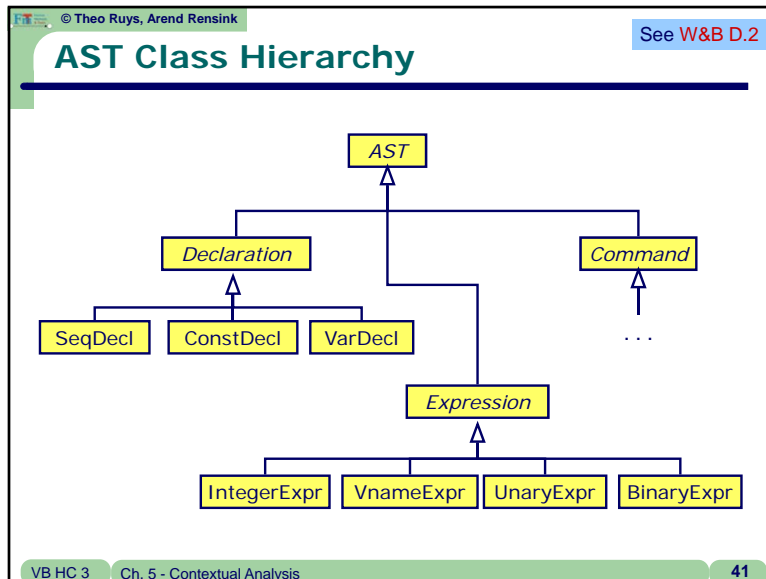
```

public class BinaryExpr extends Expression {
    public Expression E1, E2;
    public Operator O;
}

public class UnaryExpr extends Expression {
    public Expression E;
    public Operator O;
}

...
  
```

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## Decoration

- Decoration is done by adding some instance variables to some of the AST classes.

```

public abstract class Expression extends AST {
    // Every expression has a type
    public Type type;
    ...
}

public class Identifier extends Token {
    // Binding occurrence of this identifier
    public Declaration decl;
    ...
}
  
```

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## AST Traversal (1)

- Add to each AST class methods for type checking (or code-generation, pretty printing, etc.). In each AST node class, the methods traverse their children.

```

public abstract AST() {
    public abstract Return1 check(Arg1 arg);
    public abstract Return2 encode(Arg2 arg);
    public abstract Return3 prettyPrint(Arg3 arg);
    ...
}
Program program;
program.check(null);
  
```

Return value can be used to pass information up the AST tree.

Extra arg can be used to pass information down the AST tree.

- **Advantage:** OO-idea is easy to understand and implement
- **Disadvantage:** Methods are spread over all AST classes: not very modular

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## AST Traversal (2)

Example

```

public abstract class Expression extends AST {
    public Type type;
    ...
}

public class BinaryExpr extends Expression {
    public Expression e1, e2;
    public Operator o;

    public Type check(Object arg) {
        Type t1 = e1.check(null);
        Type t2 = e2.check(null);
        Type result = o.compatible(t1, t2);
        if (result == null)
            report type error;
        return result;
    }
    ...
}
  
```

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## Visitor pattern (1)

- The **Visitor pattern** – from the famous “Design Patterns” book by Gamma et. al. (1994) – lets you define a new operation on the elements of an object (e.g. the nodes in an AST) without changing the classes of the elements on which it operates.
  - Useful if many distinct and unrelated operations need to be performed on objects in an object structure, and you want to avoid “polluting” their classes with these operations.
- Some characteristics:
  - Good: Visitors makes adding new operations easy.
  - Good: A visitor gathers related operations and separates unrelated ones.
  - Bad: Visitor pattern breaks encapsulation.

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In literature on software patterns the method **visit** is usually named **accept**.

## Using a Visitor (1)

- Idea: use an **extra level of indirection**
  - define a special **visitor** class to **visit** the nodes in the tree.
  - add (only-one) **visit** method to the AST classes, which lets the visitor actually visit the AST node.

```

public abstract class AST {
    public abstract Object visit(Visitor v, Object arg);
}
public class AssignCmd extends Command {
    public Object visit(Visitor v, Object arg) {
        return v.visitAssignCmd(this, arg);
    }
}
public class XYZ extends ... {
    public Object visit(Visitor v, Object arg) {
        return v.visitXYZ(this, arg);
    }
}
  
```

So instead of several methods like `check`, `encode`, etc., only a single `visit` method.

(an implementation of) this method will do the type-checking (or code generation, printing, etc.).

General template for all AST node classes.

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## Using a Visitor (2)

```

public class XYZ extends ... {
    Object visit(Visitor v, Object arg) {
        return v.visitXYZ(this, arg);
    }
}
  
```

```

public interface Visitor {
    public Object visitProgram
        (Program prog, Object arg);
    ...
    public Object visitAssignCmd
        (AssignCmd cmd, Object arg);
    public Object visitSequentialCmd
        (SequentialCmd cmd, Object arg);
    ...
    public Object visitVnameExpression
        (VnameExpression e, Object arg);
    public Object visitBinaryExpression
        (BinaryExpression e, Object arg);
    ...
}
  
```

The Visitor interface defines **visitXYZ** methods for all AST classes!

```

public Object visitXYZ
    (XYZ x, Object arg);
  
```

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## Checker as a Visitor (1)

- Any implementation of **visitor** can traverse the AST.

```

public class Checker implements Visitor {
    private SymbolTable symtab;
    public void check(Program prog) {
        symtab = new SymbolTable();
        prog.visit(this, null);
    }
    ... + implementations of all methods of Visitor
}
  
```

Root node of the AST.

All methods for a specific pass over the AST end up in the same class, i.e. the same file!

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## Checker as a Visitor (2)

```

public class XYZ extends ... {
    Object visit(Visitor v,
                Object arg) {
        return v.visitXYZ(this, arg);
    }
}

```

```

public Object visitAssignCmd
    (AssignCmd com, Object arg) {
    Type vType = (Type) com.V.visit(this, null);
    Type eType = (Type) com.E.visit(this, null);
    if (! com.V.isVariable())
        error: left side is not a variable
    if (! eType.equals(vType))
        error: types are not equivalent
    return null;
}

```

```

public Object visitLetCmd
    (LetCmd com, Object arg) {
    symtab.openScope();
    com.D.visit(this, null);
    com.C.visit(this, null);
    symtab.closeScope();
    return null;
}

```

**AssignCmd**

```

graph TD
    AssignCmd --> V
    AssignCmd --> E

```

**LetCmd**

```

graph TD
    LetCmd --> D
    LetCmd --> C

```

Note that the letCmd opens (and closes) the scope of the Symbol Table.

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## Checker as a Visitor (3)

```

public class XYZ extends ... {
    Object visit(Visitor v,
                Object arg) {
        return v.visitXYZ(this, arg);
    }
}

```

```

public Object visitIfCmd
    (IfCmd com, Object arg) {
    Type eType = (Type) com.E.visit(this, null);
    if (! eType.equals(Type.bool))
        error: condition is not a boolean
    com.C1.visit(this, null);
    com.C2.visit(this, null);
    return null;
}

```

```

public Object visitIntegerExpr
    (IntegerExpr expr, Object arg) {
    expr.type = Type.int;
    return expr.type;
}

```

**IfCmd**

```

graph TD
    IfCmd --> E
    IfCmd --> C1
    IfCmd --> C2

```

**IntegerExpr**

```

graph TD
    IntegerExpr --> IL

```

decorating the IntegerExpr node in the AST

no need to visit the Terminal leaf

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## Checker as a Visitor (4)

```

public Object visitBinaryExpr
    (BinaryExpr expr, Object arg) {
    Type e1Type = (Type) expr.E1.visit(this, null);
    Type e2Type = (Type) expr.E2.visit(this, null);
    OperatorDecl opdecl =
        (OperatorDecl) expr.O.visit(this, null);
    if (opdecl == null) {
        error: no such operator
        expr.type = Type.error;
    } else if (opdecl instanceof BinaryOperatorDecl) {
        BinaryOperatorDecl bopdecl =
            (BinaryOperatorDecl) opdecl;
        if (! e1Type.equals(bopdecl.operand1Type))
            error: left operand has the wrong type
        if (! e2Type.equals(bopdecl.operand2Type))
            error: right operand has the wrong type
        expr.type = bopdecl.resultType;
    } else {
        error: operator is not a binary operator
        expr.type = Type.error;
    }
    return expr.type;
}

```

**BinaryExpr**

```

graph TD
    BinaryExpr --> E1
    BinaryExpr --> O
    BinaryExpr --> E2

```

See W&B for the other visitor methods.

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## Visiting scoping + type checking

Table 5.1

Program	visitProgram	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>return null</li> </ul>	All compound ASTs also check for well-formedness.
Command	visit..Cmd	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>return null</li> </ul>	
Expression	visit..Expr	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>decorate it with its type</li> <li>return that type</li> </ul>	
Vname	visitSimpleVname	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>decorate it with its type</li> <li>set a flag indicating if it is variable</li> <li>return the type.</li> </ul>	
Declaration	visit..Decl	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>enter all declared identifiers into symbol table</li> <li>return null</li> </ul>	
TypeDenoter	visit..TypeDenoter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>decorate it with its type</li> <li>return that type</li> </ul>	
Identifier	visitIdentifier	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>check that the identifier is declared</li> <li>set a reference to its binding declaration</li> <li>return that declaration</li> </ul>	
Operator	visitOperator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>check that the operator is declared</li> <li>set a reference to its binding declaration</li> <li>return that declaration</li> </ul>	

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## Visitor pattern: Drawbacks

- Visitor pattern requires (substantial) preparation:
  - **Visitor** interface with method for each AST node
  - Each AST class **x** needs a corresponding **visitX** method
- Visitor pattern should be there from the start
- Visit methods in the AST classes look obscure
  - Methods are meant for visiting, not for checking.

## Type-Generic Visitors

- Visitor interface generic in parameter and return types:

```
public interface Visitor<P,R> {
    public R visitXYZ(XYZ object, P arg);
    ...
}

public class TypeChecker implements Visitor<Type,Type> {
    public Type visitXYZ(XYZ object, Type arg) { ... }
}
```

- Visited classes need to cope with this:

```
public abstract class VisitedClass {
    public abstract <P,R> visit(Visitor<P,R>, P arg);
}

public class XYZ extends VisitedClass {
    public <P,R> visit(Visitor<P,R> visitor, P arg) {
        visitor.visitXYZ(this, arg);
    }
}
```

## What have you seen today?

- AST implementation
  - Construction during parsing
- Scoping
  - Blocks
  - Symbol tables
- Type checking
  - Type rules
  - Visitor pattern