

# Semantic Analysis

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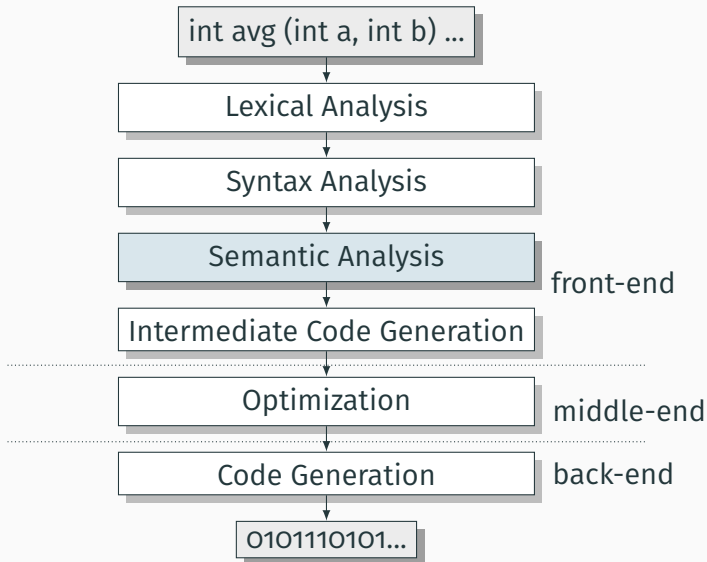
Spring 2019

Columbia University

\* Course website: <https://www.cs.columbia.edu/~rgu/courses/4115/spring2019>

\*\* These slides are borrowed from Prof. Edwards.

# Semantic Analysis



# Static Semantic Analysis

Lexical analysis: Each token is valid?

```
if i 3 "This"           /* valid Java tokens */  
#a1123                  /* not a token */
```

Syntactic analysis: Tokens appear in the correct order?

```
for ( i = 1 ; i < 5 ; i++ ) 3 + "foo"; /* valid Java syntax  
for break                             /* invalid syntax */
```

Semantic analysis: Names used correctly? Types consistent?

```
int v = 42 + 13;          /* valid in Java (if v is new) */  
return f + f(3);         /* invalid */
```

## What's Wrong With This?

$$a + f(b, c)$$

## What's Wrong With This?

$$a + f(b, c)$$

Is  $a$  defined?

Is  $f$  defined?

Are  $b$  and  $c$  defined?

Is  $f$  a function of two arguments?

Can you add whatever  $a$  is to whatever  $f$  returns?

Does  $f$  accept whatever  $b$  and  $c$  are?

Scope questions    Type questions

# What To Check

Examples from Java:

Verify names are defined (**scope**) and are of the right type (**type**).

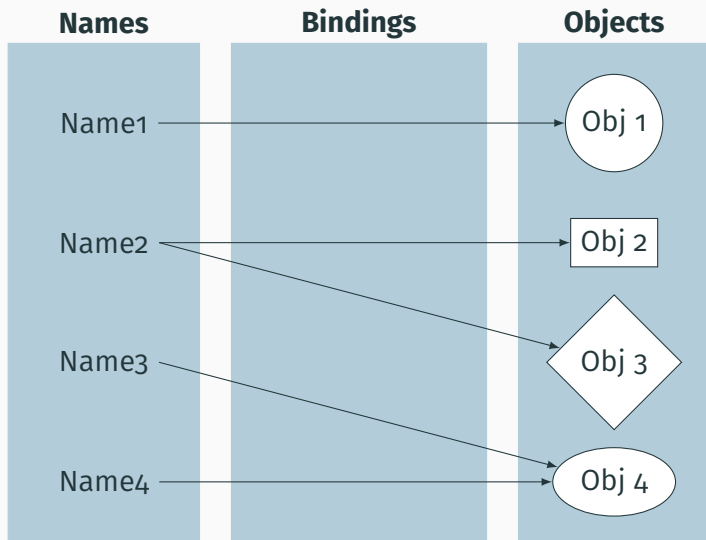
```
int i = 5;  
int a = z;      /* Error: cannot find symbol */  
int b = i[3];   /* Error: array required, but int found */
```

Verify the type of each expression is consistent (**type**).

```
int j = i + 53;  
int k = 3 + "hello"; /* Error: incompatible types */  
int l = k(42);        /* Error: k is not a method */  
if ("Hello") return 5; /* Error: incompatible types */  
String s = "Hello";  
int m = s;            /* Error: incompatible types */
```

## **Scope - What names are visible?**

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# Scope

Scope: where/when a name is bound to an object

Useful for modularity: want to keep most things hidden

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<b>Scoping Policy</b>	<b>Visible Names Depend On</b>
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Static	Textual structure of program Names resolved by compile-time symbol tables Faster, more common, harder to break programs
Dynamic	Run-time behavior of program Names resolved by run-time symbol tables, e.g., walk the stack looking for names Slower, more dynamic

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## Basic Static Scope in C, C++, Java, etc.

A name begins life where it is declared and ends at the end of its block.

“The scope of an identifier declared at the head of a block begins at the end of its declarator, and persists to the end of the block.”

```
void foo()  
{  
    int x;  
      
      
      
}
```

## Hiding a Definition

Nested scopes can hide earlier definitions, giving a hole.

“If an identifier is explicitly declared at the head of a block, including the block constituting a function, any declaration of the identifier outside the block is suspended until the end of the block.”

```
void foo()  
{  
    int x;  
    while ( a < 10 ) {  
        int x;  
    }  
}
```

## Basic Static Scope in O'Caml

A name is bound after the “in” clause of a “let.” If the name is re-bound, the binding takes effect *after* the “in.”

```
let x = 8 in
```

```
let x = x + 1 in
```

Returns the pair (12, 8):

```
let x = 8 in
```

```
(let x = x + 2 in  
  x + 2),
```

```
x
```

# Let Rec in O'Caml

The “rec” keyword makes a name visible to its definition. This only makes sense for functions.

```
let rec fib i =  
  if i < 1 then 1 else  
    fib (i-1) + fib (i-2)  
in  
  fib 5
```

```
(* Nonsensical *)  
let rec x = x + 3 in
```

# Static vs. Dynamic Scope

C

```
int a = 0;

int foo() {
    return a;
}

int bar() {
    int a = 10;

    return foo();
}
```

OCaml

```
let a = 0 in
let foo x = a in
let bar =
    let a = 10 in
    foo 0
```

Bash

```
a=0

foo ()
{
    echo $a
}

bar ()
{
    local a=10
    foo
}

bar
echo $a
```

## Static vs. Dynamic Scope

Most modern languages use static scoping.

Easier to understand, harder to break programs.

Advantage of dynamic scoping: ability to change environment.

A way to surreptitiously pass additional parameters.

# Symbol Tables

- A symbol table is a data structure that tracks the current bindings of identifier
- Scopes are **nested**: keep tracks of the current/open/closed scopes.
- Implementation: one symbol table for each scope.



# Symbol Tables by Example: C-style

Implementing C-style scope (during walk over AST):

```
int x;  
int main() {  
    int a = 1;  
    int b = 1; {  
        float b = 2;  
        for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {  
            int b = i;  
            ...  
        }  
    }  
    b + x;  
}
```



# Symbol Tables by Example: C-style

Implementing C-style scope (during walk over AST):

- Reach a declaration: Add entry to current table

```
int x;  
int main() {  
    int a = 1;  
    int b = 1; {  
        float b = 2;  
        for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {  
            int b = i;  
            ...  
        }  
    }  
    b + x;  
}
```

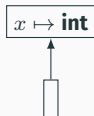
$x \mapsto \mathbf{int}$
--------------------------

# Symbol Tables by Example: C-style

Implementing C-style scope (during walk over AST):

- Reach a declaration: Add entry to current table
- Enter a “block”: New symbol table; point to previous

```
int x;  
int main() {  
    int a = 1;  
    int b = 1; {  
        float b = 2;  
        for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {  
            int b = i;  
            ...  
        }  
    }  
    b + x;  
}
```

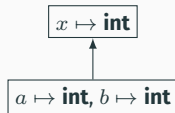


# Symbol Tables by Example: C-style

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    int b = 1; {  
        float b = 2;  
        for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {  
            int b = i;  
            ...  
        }  
    }  
    b + x;  
}
```

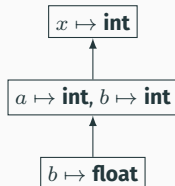


# Symbol Tables by Example: C-style

Implementing C-style scope (during walk over AST):

- Reach a declaration: Add entry to current table
- Enter a “block”: New symbol table; point to previous

```
int x;  
int main() {  
    int a = 1;  
    int b = 1; {  
        float b = 2;  
        for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {  
            int b = i;  
            ...  
        }  
    }  
    b + x;  
}
```

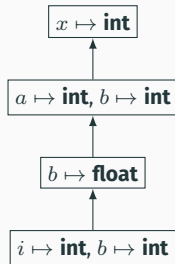


# Symbol Tables by Example: C-style

Implementing C-style scope (during walk over AST):

- Reach a declaration: Add entry to current table
- Enter a “block”: New symbol table; point to previous
- Reach an identifier: lookup in chain of tables

```
int x;  
int main() {  
    int a = 1;  
    int b = 1; {  
        float b = 2;  
        for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {  
            int b = i;  
            ...  
        }  
    }  
    b + x;  
}
```

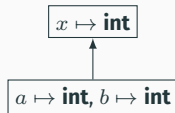


# Symbol Tables by Example: C-style

Implementing C-style scope (during walk over AST):

- Reach a declaration: Add entry to current table
- Enter a “block”: New symbol table; point to previous
- Reach an identifier: lookup in chain of tables
- Leave a block: Local symbol table disappears

```
int x;  
int main() {  
    int a = 1;  
    int b = 1; {  
        float b = 2;  
        for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {  
            int b = i;  
            ...  
        }  
    }  
    b + x;  
}
```



**Types - What operations are allowed?**

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# Types

*A restriction on the possible interpretations of a segment of memory or other program construct.*

Two uses:



**Safety:** avoids data being treated as something it isn't

**Optimization:** eliminates certain runtime decisions

## Safety - Why do we need types?

*Certain operations are legal for certain types.*

```
int a = 1, b = 2;  
return a + b;
```

```
int a[10], b[10];  
return a + b;
```

## Optimization - Why do we need types?

C was designed for efficiency: basic types are whatever is most efficient for the target processor.

On an (32-bit) ARM processor,

```
char c;           /* 8-bit binary */

short d;          /* 16-bit two's-complement binary */
unsigned short d; /* 16-bit binary */

int a;            /* 32-bit two's-complement binary */
unsigned int b;   /* 32-bit binary */

float f;          /* 32-bit IEEE 754 floating-point */
double g;         /* 64-bit IEEE 754 floating-point */
```

## Misbehaving Floating-Point Numbers

$$1e20 + 1e-20 = 1e20$$

$$1e-20 \ll 1e20$$

$$(1 + 9e-7) + 9e-7 \neq 1 + (9e-7 + 9e-7)$$

$9e-7 \ll 1$ , so it is discarded, however,  $1.8e-6$  is large enough

$$1.00001(1.000001 - 1) \neq 1.00001 \cdot 1.000001 - 1.00001 \cdot 1$$

$1.00001 \cdot 1.000001 = 1.00001100001$  requires too much intermediate precision.

# What's Going On?

Floating-point numbers are represented using an exponent/significand format:

$$\begin{array}{l} \underbrace{1}_{S} \quad \underbrace{10000001}_{\text{8-bit exponent } E} \quad \underbrace{011000000000000000000000}_{\text{23-bit significand } M} \\ = -1^S \times (1.0 + 0.M) \times 2^{E-\text{bias}} \\ = -1.011_2 \times 2^{129-127} = -1.375 \times 4 = -5.5. \end{array}$$

What to remember:

$$\underbrace{1363.4568}_{\text{represented}} \underbrace{46353963456293}_{\text{rounded}}$$

# What's Going On?

Results are often rounded:

$$\begin{array}{r} 1.00001000000 \\ \times 1.00000100000 \\ \hline 1.000011\underbrace{00001}_{\text{rounded}} \end{array}$$

When  $b \approx -c$ ,  $b + c$  is small, so  $ab + ac \neq a(b + c)$  because precision is lost when  $ab$  is calculated.

Moral: Be aware of floating-point number properties when writing complex expressions.

# Type Systems

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# Type Systems

- A language's type system specifies which operations are valid for which types.
- The goal of type checking is to ensure that operations are used with the correct types.
- Three kinds of languages
  - **Statically typed**: All or almost all checking of types is done as part of compilation (C, Java)
  - **Dynamically typed**: Almost all checking of types is done as part of program execution (Python)
  - **Untyped**: No type checking (machine code)



# Statically-Typed Languages

Statically-typed: compiler can determine types.

Dynamically-typed: types determined at run time.

Is Java statically-typed?

```
class Foo {  
    public void x() { ... }  
}  
  
class Bar extends Foo {  
    public void x() { ... }  
}  
  
void baz(Foo f) {  
    f.x();  
}
```

# Strongly-typed Languages

Strongly-typed: no run-time type clashes (detected or not).

C is definitely not strongly-typed:

```
float g;  
  
union { float f; int i } u;  
  
u.i = 3;  
  
g = u.f + 3.14159; /* u.f is meaningless */
```

Is Java strongly-typed?

# Type Checking and Type Inference

- Type Checking is the process of verifying fully typed programs.
- Type Inference is the process of filling in missing type information.
- Inference Rules: formalism for type checking and inference.

# Inference Rules

Inference rules have the form If **Hypotheses** are true, then **Conclusion** is true

$$\frac{\vdash \text{Hypothesis}_1 \quad \vdash \text{Hypothesis}_2}{\vdash \text{Conclusion}}$$

Typing rules for **int**:

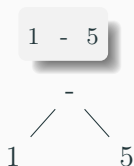
$$\overline{\vdash \text{NUMBER} : \text{int}}$$

$$\frac{\vdash \text{expr}_1 : \text{int} \quad \vdash \text{expr}_2 : \text{int}}{\vdash \text{expr}_1 \text{ OPERATOR } \text{expr}_2 : \text{int}}$$

Type checking computes via reasoning

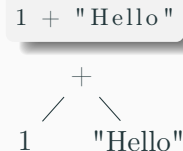
# How To Check Expressions: Depth-first AST Walk

check: environment  $\rightarrow$  node  $\rightarrow$  typedNode



check(`-`)

```
check(1) = 1 : int
check(5) = 5 : int
int - int = int
= 1 - 5 : int
```



check(`+`)

```
check(1) = 1 : int
check("Hello") = "Hello" : string
FAIL: Can't add int and string
```

## How To Check Symbols?

What is the type of a **variable reference**?

$$\frac{x \text{ is a symbol}}{\vdash x :?}$$

The local, structural rule does not carry enough information to give  $x$  a type.

## Solution: Type Environment

Put more information in the rules!

A type environment gives types for free variables .

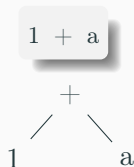
$$\overline{\mathcal{E} \vdash \text{NUMBER} : \mathbf{int}}$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{E}(x) = \mathbf{T}}{\mathcal{E} \vdash x : \mathbf{T}}$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{E} \vdash \text{expr}_1 : \mathbf{int} \quad \mathcal{E} \vdash \text{expr}_2 : \mathbf{int}}{\mathcal{E} \vdash \text{expr}_1 \text{ OPERATOR } \text{expr}_2 : \mathbf{int}}$$

## How To Check Symbols

check: environment  $\rightarrow$  node  $\rightarrow$  typedNode



check(+)

check(1) = 1 : int

check(a) = a : lookup(a) = a : int

int + int = int

= 1 + a : int

The environment provides a “symbol table” that holds information about each in-scope symbol.



# The Type of Types

Need an OCaml type to represent the type of something in your language.

For MicroC, it's simple (from ast.ml):

```
type typ = Int | Bool | Float | Void
```

For a language with integer, structures, arrays, and exceptions:

```
type ty = (* can't call it "type" since that's reserved *)  
  Void  
  | Int  
  | Array of ty * int (* type, size *)  
  | Exception of string  
  | Struct of string * ((string * ty) array) (* name, fields *)
```

# Implementing a Symbol Table and Lookup

```
module StringMap = Map.Make(String)

type symbol_table = {
  (* Variables bound in current block *)
  variables : ty StringMap.t
  (* Enclosing scope *)
  parent : symbol_table option;
}
```

```
let rec find_variable (scope : symbol_table) name =
  try
    (* Try to find binding in nearest block *)
    StringMap.find name scope.variables
  with Not_found -> (* Try looking in outer blocks *)
    match scope.parent with
    | Some(parent) -> find_variable parent name
    | _ -> raise Not_found
```