Unit 10 Semantic Analysis



Summary

- Semantics of programming languages
- Type checking
 - □ Type system
 - □ Specifying a Type Checker
 - □ Type Conversion
- Symbol tables
 - Scope Rules and Symbol Tables
 - Translation Schemes for building Symbol Tables



Semantics

- Find errors after parsing
 - □ Type checking
 - □ Check the correspondence between the use of variables, functions . . . and their declarations
 - □ Scope of variables
- Parse trees are used in semantic analysis



Type checking

- A compiler must check that the program follows the *Type Rules* of the language.
- Information about Data Types is maintained and computed by the compiler.
- The Type Checker is a module of a compiler devoted to type checking tasks.



Examples of Tasks

- The operator mod is defined only if the operands are integers;
- Indexing is allowed only on an array and the index must be an integer;
- A function must have a precise number of arguments and the parameters must have a correct type;



Type checking

- Type Checking may be either static or dynamic.
- The one done at compile time is static.
- In languages like Pascal and C type checking is primarily static and is used to check the correctness of a program before its execution.
- Static type checking is also useful to determine the amount of memory needed to store variables.
- The design of a Type Checker depends on the syntactic structure of language constructs, the Type Expressions of the language, and the rules for assigning types to constructs.



Type Expressions

- A Type Expression denotes the type of a language construct.
- A type expression is either a Basic Type or is built applying Type Constructors to other types.
- A Basic Type is a type expression (int, real, boolean, char). The basic type void represents the empty set and allows statements to be checked;
- Type expressions can be associated with a name: Type Names are type expressions;
- A Type Constructor applied to type expressions is a type expression.



Type expresions (con'd)

- Array. If T is a type expression, then array(I,T) is a type expression denoting an array with elements of type T and index range in I (e.g.,array[1..10] of int == array(1..10,int))
- Cartesian Product If T₁ and T₂ are type expressions, then their Cartesian Product T1× T2 is a type expression;
- Record. Similar to Product but with names for different fields (used to access the components of a record).

```
Example of a C record type struct { double r; int i;
```



Type expressions (con'd)

- Pointer. If T is a type expression, then pointer(T) is the type expression "pointer to an object of type T"
- Function. If D is the domain and R the range of the function then wedenote its type by the type expression: D : R.
- Example

The Pascal function:

function f(a, b): integer

has type: char × char : int.



Type System

- Type System: Collection of rules for assigning type expressions to thevarious part of a program.
- Type Systems are specified using syntax directed definitions.
- A *type checker* implements a type system.
- A language is strongly typed if its compiler can guarantee that
- the program it accepts will execute without type errors.



Specification of a Type Checker

- We specify a type checker for a simple language where identifiers have an associated type.
- Attribute Grammar for Declarations and Expressions:P → D;E

```
D \rightarrow D;D \mid id : T
T \rightarrow char \mid int \mid array[num] of T \mid \uparrow T
E \rightarrow literal \mid num \mid id \mid E \mod E \mid E[E] \mid E\uparrow
```



Attributes

- Attribute grammar is a formal way to define attributes for the productions of a formal grammar, associating these attributes to values.
- Synthesized attribute: An attribute that gets its values from the attributes attached to the children of its nonterminal
- Inherited attribute: An attribute that gets its values from the attributes attached to the parent (or siblings) of its nonterminal.



Syntax Directed Definition

- Syntax Directed Definitions are a generalization of context-free grammarsin which:
 - Grammar symbols have an associated set of Attributes;
 - 2. Productions are associated with **Semantic Rules** for computing the values of attributes.
- Such formalism generates **Annotated Parse-Trees** where each node of the tree is a record with a field for each attribute (e.g., X.a indicates the attribute a of the grammar symbol X).



Forms of a syntax directed definition

- A grammar production Y --> X₁ ... X_n may have zero or more associated semantic rules. Each semantic rules has the form, b=f(c₁,...,c_k) are attributes of the grammar symbol in the production such that:
 - 1. b is a synthesized attribute and $c_1,...,c_k$ are the attributes of the grammar symbols on the rhs or
 - 2. b is an inherited attribute of one of the RHS grammar symbols and $c_1,...,c_k$ are any other attributes in the production.

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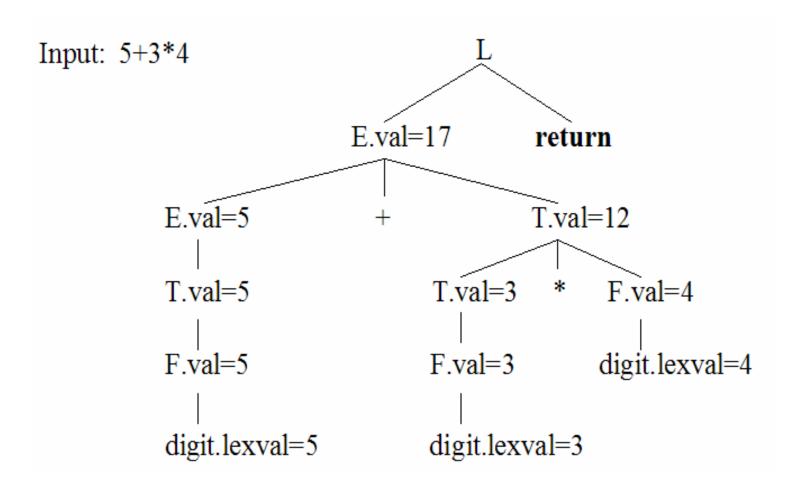
Example

Production	Semantic rules
L → E return	Print (E.val)
$E \rightarrow E1+T$	E.val = E1.val + T.val
$E \rightarrow T$	E.val = T.val
$T \rightarrow T1 * F$	T.val = T1.val * F.val
$T \rightarrow F$	T.val = F.val
$F \to (E)$	F.val = E.val
F → digit	F.val = digit.Lexval

Consider the Grammar for arithmetic expressions above. The **Syntax Directed Definition** associates to each non terminal a synthesized a attribute called val.

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Examlpe of annotated syntax tree





Type checker of identifiers

PRODUCTIONS	SEMANTIC RULES
D o id : T	addtype(id.entry,T.type)
T ightarrow char	T.type := char
$T \to int$	T.type := int
$T \rightarrow \uparrow T_1$	$T.type := pointer(T_1.type)$
$T ightarrow \operatorname{array}[\operatorname{num}] \ \operatorname{of} \ T_1$	$addtype(id.entry, T.type)$ $T.type := char$ $T.type := int$ $T.type := pointer(T_1.type)$ $T.type := array(1num.val, T_1.type)$

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Type checker of expressions

PRODUCTIONS	SEMANTIC RULES
E o literal	E.type := char
$E \to num$	E.type := int
$E o \operatorname{id}$	E.type := lookup(id.entry)
$E o E_1 \ mod \ E_2$	$E.type := if E_1.type = int and E_2.type = int$
	then int
	else <i>type_error</i>
$E \to E_1[E_2]$	$E.type := if E_2.type = int and E_1.type = array(s,t)$
	then t
	else <i>type_error</i>
$E \to E_1 \uparrow$	$E.type := if E_1.type = pointer(t) then t$
	else <i>type_error</i>

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Type checker of statements

PRODUCTIONS	SEMANTIC RULES
S o id := E	S.type := if id.type = E.type then void
	else <i>type_error</i>
$S \rightarrow if E \ then\ S_1$	$S.type := if E.type = boolean then S_1.type$
	else <i>type_error</i>
$S o while\ E \ do\ S_1$	$S.type := if E.type = boolean then S_1.type$
	else <i>type_error</i>
$S \to S_1; S_2$	$S.type := \text{if } S_1.type = void \text{ and } S_2.type = void$
	then <i>void</i>
	else <i>type_error</i>

Type checker of functions

PRODUCTIONS	SEMANTIC RULES
D o id : T	addtype(id.entry, T.type); D.type := T.type
$D \to D_1; D_2$	$D.type := D_1.type \times D_2.type$
$\mathit{Fun} \to fun \ id(D) : T; B$	addtype(id.entry,D.type:T.type)
$B \to \{S\}$	
$S \to id(EList)$	$E.type := if lookup(id.entry) = t_1 : t_2 and EList.type = t_1$
	then t_2
else type_error	
$EList \rightarrow E$	EList.type := E.type
$EList \rightarrow EList, E$	$EList.type := EList_1.type \times E.type$

Function for checking equivalence of types

```
function sequiv(s, t): boolean;
begin
  if s và t là cùng kiểu dữ liệu chuẩn then
       return true;
  else if s = array(s1, s2) and t = array(t1, t2) then
       return sequiv(s1, t1) and sequiv(s2, t2)
  else if s = s1 \times s2 and t = t1 \times t2) then
       return sequiv(s1, t1) and sequiv(s2, t2)
  else if s = pointer(s1) and t = pointer(t1) then
       return sequiv(s1, t1)
  else if s = s1 \rightarrow s2 and t = t1 \rightarrow t2 then
       return sequiv(s1, t1) and sequiv(s2, t2)
  else
       return false;
end:
```



Type Conversion

- What's the type of "x + i" if:
 - 1. x is of type real;
 - 2. i is of type int;
 - 3. Different machine instructions are used for operations on reals and integers.
- Depending on the language, specific conversion rules must be adopted by the compiler to convert the type of one of the operand of +.
- The type checker in a compiler can insert these conversion operators into the intermediate code.
- Such an implicit type conversion is called Coercion.

Type coercion rules

PRODUCTIONS	SEMANTIC RULES	
E o num	E.type := int	
$E \to num.num$	E.type := real	
$E o \operatorname{id}$	E.type := lookup(id.entry)	
$E o E_1$ op E_2	$E.type := \text{if } E_1.type = int \text{ and } E_2.type = int$	
then int		
	else if $E_1.type = int$ and $E_2.type = real$	
	then real	
	else if $E_1.type = real$ and $E_2.type = int$	
	then real	
	else if $E_1.type = real$ and $E_2.type = real$	
	then real	
	else type_error	

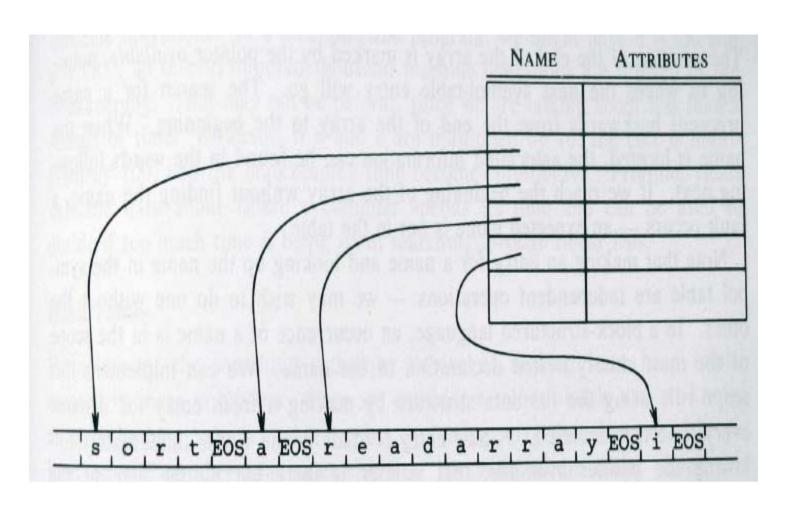


Symbol Table

- The Symbol Table is the major inherited attribute and the major data structure as well.
- Symbol Tables store information about the name, type, scope and allocation size.
- Symbol Table must maintain efficiency against insertion and lookup.
- Dynamic data structures must be used to implement a symbol table: Linear
- Lists and Hash Tables are the most used.
- Each entry has the form of a record with a field for each peace of information.

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Storing names





Symbol Tables and Scope Rules

- A Block in a programming language is any set of language constructs that can contain declarations.
- A language is Block Structured if
 - 1. Blocks can be *nested* inside other blocks, and
 - 2. The *Scope* of declarations in a block is limited to that block and the blocks contained in that block.
- Most Closely Nested Rule. Given several different declarations for the sameidentifier, the declaration that applies is the one in the most closely nested block.



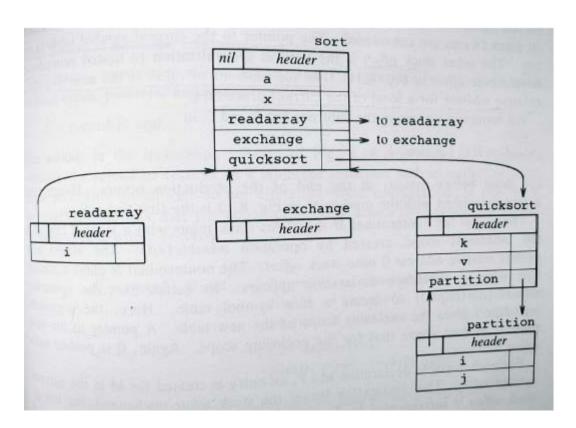
Symbol Tables and Scope Rules (con'd)

- To implement symbol tables complying with nested scopes
 - 1. The *insert* operation into the symbol table must not overwrite previous declarations;
 - 2. The *lookup* operation into the symbol table must always refer to the most close block rule;
 - 3. The *delete* operation must delete only the most recent declarations.
- The symbol table behaves in a stack-like manner.

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Maintain separate symbol tables for each scope

Tables must be linked both from inner to outer scope, and from outer to inner



Lexical- Vs. Syntactic-Time Construction

- Information is first entered into a symbol table by the lexical analyzer only if the programming language does not allow for different declarations for the same identifier (scope).
- If scoping is allowed, the lexical analyzer will only return the name of the identifier together with the token
- The identifier is inserted into the symbol table when the syntactic role played by the identifier is discovered.



Relative Address

Relative Address. Is a storage allocation information consisting of an offset from a base (usually zero) address: The Loader will be responsible for the run-time storage.

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Computes relative address

Use a global variable called offset.

```
P \rightarrow \{ \mathbf{offset} := \mathbf{0} \} D
D \rightarrow D; D
D \rightarrow \mathsf{id} : T
                                        {enter(id.name, T.type, offset);
                                          offset := offset + T.width}
T 	o \mathsf{int}
                                        \{T.type := int; T.width := 4\}
T \rightarrow \mathsf{real}
                                        \{T.type := real; T.width := 8\}
T \rightarrow \operatorname{array}[\operatorname{num}] \text{ of } T_1 \quad \{T.type := \operatorname{array}(\operatorname{num}.val, T_1.type);
                                          T.width := num.val * T_1.width
T \rightarrow \uparrow T_1
                                        \{T.type := pointer(T_1.type); T.width := 4\}
```



Computes relative address

- The global variable offset keeps track of the next available address.
- Before the first declaration, offset is set to
- As each new identifier is seen it is entered in the symbol table and offset is incremented.
- type and width are synthesized attributes for non-terminal T.



Keeping Track of Scope Information

- Consider Nested Procedures: When a nested procedure is seen processing of declarations in the enclosing procedure is suspended.
- To keep track of nesting a stack is maintained.
- We associate a new symbol table for each procedure:
- When we need to enter a new identifier into a symbol table we need to specify which symbol table to use.

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Processing declarations in nested procedures

```
P \to \mathbf{M} D
                               { addwidth(top(tblptr),top(offset));
                                pop(tblptr); pop(offset)}
                               \{t:=mktable(nil);
\mathbf{M} 	o \epsilon
                                push(t,tblptr); push(0,offset)}
D \rightarrow D: D
D \to \text{proc id}; \mathbf{N} D_1; S \quad \{t := top(tblptr); addwidth(t, top(offset)); \}
                                pop(tblptr); pop(offset);
                                enterproc(top(tblptr),id.name,t)}
D \to \mathsf{id} : T
                               {enter(top(tblptr),id.name, T.type, top(offset));
                                top(offset) := top(offset) + T.width
                               {t:=mktable(top(tblptr));}
N \rightarrow \epsilon
                                push(t,tblptr); push(0,offset)}
```



Keeping Track of Scope Information

- The semantic rules make use of the following procedures and stack variables:
 - 1. *mktable(previous)* creates a new symbol table and returns its pointer. The argument *previous* is the pointer to the enclosing procedure.
 - 2. The stack *tblptr* holds pointers to symbol tables of the enclosing procedures.
 - 3. The stack *offset* keeps track of the relative address w.r.t. a given nesting level.
 - 4. enter(table,name,type,offset) creates a new entry for the identifier name in the symbol table pointed to by table, specifying its type and offset.
 - 5. addwidth(table, width) records the cumulative width of all the entries in table in the header of the symbol table.
 - 6. enterproc(table,name,newtable) creates a new entry for procedure name inthe symbol table pointed to by table. The argument newtable points to the symbol table for this procedure name.