



UNIVERSITÀ
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Dipartimento
di **INFORMATICA**

Compilers: Interpretation

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1 Intuition: Working with Abstract Syntax Trees and Symbol Tables

- Example of an Abstract Syntax Tree
- Simple Interpretation
- Symbol Tables
- Interpretation with Symbol Tables
- Type Errors
- Interpreting Function Calls

Simple Arithmetic Expressions - grammar

Let us consider a simple language of arithmetic expressions:

Exp ::= **numeric constant** (e.g 1, 42, 1337)

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$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Exp} & ::= & \text{numeric constant (e.g 1, 42, 1337)} \\ & | & \text{Exp} + \text{Exp} \end{array}$$

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Let us consider a simple language of arithmetic expressions:

Exp ::= **numeric constant** (e.g 1, 42, 1337)
 | Exp + Exp
 | Exp - Exp
 | Exp * Exp
 | Exp / Exp

Simple Arithmetic Expressions - grammar

Let us consider a simple language of arithmetic expressions:

Exp ::= **numeric constant** (e.g 1, 42, 1337)
 | Exp + Exp
 | Exp - Exp
 | Exp * Exp
 | Exp / Exp
 | (Exp)

- Grouping (parentheses) are used to override usual operator priority - just as in ordinary mathematics.
- ...but they have no real *meaning* apart from their notation convenience.

Simple Arithmetic Expressions - AST

In the Abstract Syntax Tree (AST), we cover only the *essentials*.

$$2 \sim 2$$

$$2 + 3 \sim \begin{array}{c} + \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 2 \quad 3 \end{array}$$

$$(2 + 3) \sim \begin{array}{c} + \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 2 \quad 3 \end{array}$$

$$2 + 3 + 4 \sim \begin{array}{c} + \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ + \quad 4 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 2 \quad 3 \end{array}$$

$$(2 + 3) + 4 \sim \begin{array}{c} + \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ + \quad 4 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 2 \quad 3 \end{array}$$

$$2 + (3 + 4) \sim \begin{array}{c} + \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 2 \quad + \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 3 \quad 4 \end{array}$$

$$2 + 3 * 4 \sim \begin{array}{c} + \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 2 \quad * \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 3 \quad 4 \end{array}$$

Simple Arithmetic Expressions - AST in SML

If we want to work with these expressions, we will need to store them as a data structure in some other language. Often, we call the language we are manipulating the *object language*, and the language we are using the *implementation language* (or *meta language*). The ML in SML was originally for *Meta Language*!

Simple Arithmetic Expressions - AST in SML

If we want to work with these expressions, we will need to store them as a data structure in some other language. Often, we call the language we are manipulating the *object language*, and the language we are using the *implementation language* (or *meta language*). The ML in SML was originally for *Meta Language*!

We can define an AST type for our expression language like this:

```
datatype Exp = Constant of int
             | Plus of Exp * Exp
             | Minus of Exp * Exp
             | Times of Exp * Exp
             | Divide of Exp * Exp
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```

We can now manually type in some SML values corresponding to arithmetic expressions:

2	~	Constant 2
2 + 3	~	Plus(Constant 2, Constant 3)
(2 + 3)	~	Plus(Constant 2, Constant 3)
2 + 3 + 4	~	Plus(Plus(Constant 2, Constant 3), Constant 4)
(2 + 3) + 4	~	Plus(Plus(Constant 2, Constant 2), Constant 2)
2 + (3 + 4)	~	Plus(Constant 2, Plus(Constant 3, Constant 4))
2 + 3 * 4	~	Plus(Constant 2, Times(Constant 3, Constant 4))

Parsing allows us to go from text to ASTs but, for now, we will type them in manually.

Simple Arithmetic Expressions - interpretation

We will define (in SML) an evaluation function for our language of simple arithmetic expressions:

$$\text{eval} : \text{Exp} \rightarrow \text{int}$$

The AST type definition is recursive. Hence, the function is also written as a recursive function over the input tree.

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The AST type definition is recursive. Hence, the function is also written as a recursive function over the input tree.

```
fun eval (Constant x)          = x
  | eval (Plus (e1, e2))       = eval e1 + eval e2
  | eval (Minus (e1, e2))      = eval e1 - eval e2
  | eval (Times (e1, e2))      = eval e1 * eval e2
  | eval (Divide (e1, e2))     = eval e1 div eval e2
```

And that is all it takes.

Jazzing up the language - variable bindings

We add another syntactic construct, namely `let`-expressions:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Exp} & ::= & \dots \\ & | & \text{let } v = \text{Exp in Exp} \\ & | & v \end{array}$$

So we can now write

```
let x = 2*3 in x + x
```

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```
Exp ::= ...  
      | let v = Exp in Exp  
      | v
```

So we can now write

```
let x = 2*3 in x + x
```

Or we would if we had a parser. The SML type now looks like this:

```
datatype Exp = Constant of int  
              | Plus of Exp * Exp  
              | Minus of Exp * Exp  
              | Times of Exp * Exp  
              | Divide of Exp * Exp  
              | Let of (string * Exp * Exp)  
              | Var of string
```

Jazzing up the language - interpreting variable bindings

We try to extend the evaluation function, but run into trouble:

```
...  
| eval (Var v)           = lookup value of v?  
| eval (Let (v, e1, e2)) = bind v to result of e1?
```

Jazzing up the language - interpreting variable bindings

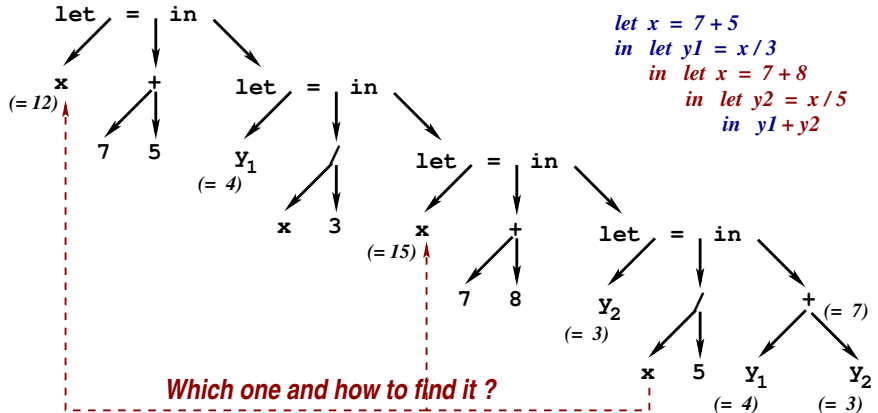
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```
...  
| eval (Var v)           = lookup value of v?  
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```

We need some data structure for keeping track of in-scope variables and their values.

Enter: symbol tables!

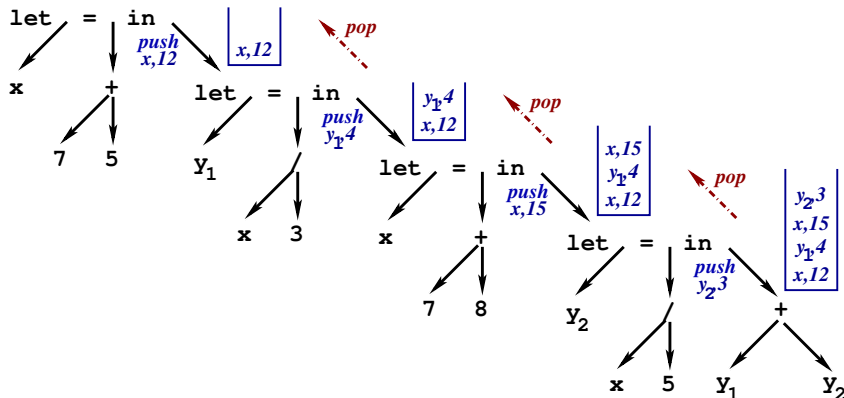
Symbol Tables in Theory



Semantics: The use of x refers to which of the two variables named x ?

Symbol Table: How to keep track of the values of various variables?

Symbol Tables in Theory



Semantics: The use of `x` refers to the “closest”-outer scope that provides a definition for `x`.

Symbol Table: the implementation uses a stack, which is scanned top down and returns the first encountered binding of `x`.

Symbol Tables in Practice

Symbol Table: binds names to associated information.

Operations:

- *empty*: empty table, i.e., no name is defined.
- *bind*: records a new (name, info) association. If name already in the table, the new binding takes precedence.
- *look-up*: finds the information associated to a name. The result must indicate also whether the name was present in the table.
- *enters* a new scope: semantically adds new bindings.
- *exits* a scope: restores the table to what it has been before entering the current scope.

For Interpretation: what is the info associated with a named variable?

Symbol Tables For Our Interpreter

We associate variable names with their integer value.

```
type SymTab = (string * int) list
```

- *empty*:

```
fun empty () = []
```

- *bind*:

```
fun bind k v vtable = (k,v) :: vtable
```

- *look-up*:

```
fun lookup k0 ((k1,v) :: vtable) =  
    if k0 = k1 then SOME v else lookup k0 vtable  
  | lookup _ _ = NONE
```

- *enters* a new scope: call bind and recurse with new symbol table
- *exits* a scope: implicit when recursion ends.

Interpretation with Variable Bindings

We modify our evaluation function to have a new type:

$$\text{eval} : \text{SymTab} \rightarrow \text{Exp} \rightarrow \text{int}$$

The previous cases now have to pass along a symbol table.

```
fun eval vtable (Constant x)      =  
  x  
| eval vtable (Plus (e1, e2))    =  
  eval vtable e1 + eval vtable e2  
| eval vtable (Minus (e1, e2))   =  
  eval vtable e1 - eval vtable e2  
| eval vtable (Times (e1, e2))   =  
  eval vtable e1 * eval vtable e2  
| eval vtable (Divide (e1, e2))  =  
  eval vtable e1 div eval vtable e2
```

Interpretation with Variable Bindings

Only the new cases actually use the symbol table:

```
| eval vtable (Var v) =  
  (case lookup v vtable of  
    NONE => raise Fail ("Unknown variable " ^ v)  
    | SOME x => x)  
| eval vtable (Let (v, e1, e2)) =  
  let val x = eval vtable e1  
      val vtable' = bind v x vtable  
  in eval vtable' e2 end
```

Jazzing up the language - more values!

We add another syntactic construct, namely if-then-else-expressions, the concept of a *boolean value*, and some new operators.:

```
Exp ::= ...  
      | if Exp then Exp else Exp  
      | boolean constant (i.e. true or false)  
      | Exp < Exp  
      | Exp = Exp  
      | Exp and Exp  
      | Exp or Exp
```

So we can now write

```
if 2 < 1 or 2 < 3 then 42 else 3
```

Modifying the AST with new value types

We can no longer assume that all variables are bound to integers - hence, we introduce a new type for *values*:

```
datatype Value = IntVal of int  
               | BoolVal of bool
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We also have to modify the Exp constructor Constant:

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datatype Exp = Constant of Value  
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We also have to modify the Exp constructor Constant:

```
datatype Exp = Constant of Value  
            | ...
```

And the SymTab definition:

```
type SymTab = (string * Value) list
```

Type Error at Runtime

What if we are asked to evaluate `true + 2`? What should that result in? We are writing the interpreter, so we have to decide!

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What if we are asked to evaluate `true + 2`? What should that result in? We are writing the interpreter, so we have to decide!

We can modify all the arithmetic cases as follows:

```
| eval vtable (Plus (e1, e2))    =  
  (case (eval vtable e1, eval vtable e2) of  
    (IntVal x, IntVal y) => IntVal (x + y)  
    | _ => raise Fail "Operands to + are not integers")
```

I chose to consider boolean operands to arithmetic operators as an error, but as a language implementer, you can make a different choice. This requires taste and a sense of responsibility, and easily goes wrong.

Comparisons

Implementing comparisons is just like implementing arithmetic operators.

```
| eval vtable (Equal (e1, e2)) =  
  (case (eval vtable e1, eval vtable e2) of  
    (IntVal x, IntVal y) => BoolVal (x = y)  
    | (BoolVal x, BoolVal y) => BoolVal (x = y)  
    | _ => raise Fail "Operands to = are not of the same"  
| eval vtable (Less (e1, e2)) =  
  (case (eval vtable e1, eval vtable e2) of  
    (IntVal x, IntVal y) => BoolVal (x < y)  
    | _ => raise Fail "Operands to < are not integers")
```

Note that I chose to permit comparisons of both booleans and integers - but the operands have to be of the same type! The result is always a boolean. Admittance to < is only for integers.

Branches

Branching is also quite straightforward. Is this correct?

```
| eval vtable (If (cond, truebranch, falsebranch)) =  
  let val cond_res = eval vtable cond  
      val truebranch_res = eval vtable truebranch  
      val falsebranch_res = eval vtable falsebranch  
  in (case cond_res of  
      BoolVal true  => truebranch_res  
    | BoolVal false => falsebranch_res  
    | _ => raise Fail  
      "Condition in if is not a boolean")  
  end
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    | _ => raise Fail  
      "Condition in if is not a boolean")  
  end
```

No!

Consider `if true then 2 else 2/0`. We definitely don't want to evaluate `2/0` unless we have to!

Branches

Better: we are careful not to evaluate the branches unless we have to:

```
| eval vtable (If (cond, truebranch, falsebranch)) =  
  (case eval vtable cond of  
    BoolVal true  => eval vtable truebranch  
    | BoolVal false => eval vtable falsebranch  
    | _ => raise Fail  
      "Condition in if is not a boolean")
```

Same thing goes for and and or if we want them to be short-circuiting.

Short-circuiting and/or

```
| eval vtable (And (e1, e2)) =  
  (case eval vtable e1 of  
    BoolVal true   => eval vtable e2  
    | BoolVal false => BoolVal false  
    | _ => raise Fail "Operand to and is not a boolean")  
| eval vtable (Or (e1, e2)) =  
  (case eval vtable e1 of  
    BoolVal true   => BoolVal true  
    | BoolVal false => eval vtable e2  
    | _ => raise Fail "Operand to or is not a boolean")
```

Testing the interpreter

```
- eval (empty ()) (Plus (Constant (IntVal 2),  
                          Constant (IntVal 3)));  
> val it = IntVal 5 : Value
```

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```
- eval (empty ()) (Plus (Constant (IntVal 2),  
                          Constant (IntVal 3)));  
> val it = IntVal 5 : Value  
  
- eval (empty ()) (If (Constant (BoolVal true),  
                       Constant (IntVal 2),  
                       Divide (Constant (IntVal 2),  
                               Constant (IntVal 0))));  
> val it = IntVal 2 : Value
```

Seems to work...

Interpreting Larger Languages

We have been interpreting a very simple language. In particular, it has no functions. In larger languages, including the one (Fasto) you will be working on for the group project, we need another symbol table: the *function table*.

The function table binds function names to their definitions (when interpreting).

Interpreting Larger Languages

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The function table binds function names to their definitions (when interpreting).

Let us add functions to our language of arithmetic expressions:

```
datatype Type = Int | Bool
type Param = Type * string
```

```
datatype FunDec =
  FunDec of Type * string * Param list * Exp
```

A function declaration consists of a return type, name, list of parameters, and a body. A parameter consists of a type and a name.

Generalising the Symbol Table

We need two symbol tables: a *variable table*, and a *function table*. Both map strings to information, so we parametrise on the type of information:

```
type 'info SymTab = (string * 'info) list
type VarTab = Value SymTab
type FunTab = FunDec SymTab
```

We do not have to modify the symbol table functions.

Function-Call Interpretation

We add another constructor to Exp:

```
datatype Exp = ...  
             | Call of string * Exp list
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datatype Exp = ...  
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```

And we add another parameter, `ftable`, to the `eval` function. It is passed down recursively just like the `vtable`, so we will need to modify every case:

```
fun eval vtable ftable (Constant x)          = x  
  | eval vtable ftable (Plus (e1, e2))      =  
    (case (eval vtable ftable e1, eval vtable ftable e2) of  
      (IntVal x, IntVal y) => IntVal (x + y)  
    | _ => raise Fail "Operands to + are not integers")  
  | ...
```

You get the picture.

Function-Call Interpretation

The interesting case is the new one for Call:

```
| eval vtable ftable (Call (fname, args)) =  
  let val vals =  
    map (fn arg => eval vtable ftable arg) args  
  in case lookup fname ftable of  
    NONE => raise Fail ("Unknown function " ^ fname)  
    | SOME fundec => callFun ftable fundec vals  
  end
```

The callFun function is going to take care of the actual function-evaluation part.

Evaluating a Function

First, a technical aside: the `callFun` and `eval` functions are going to be *mutually recursive* - they will call each other. In SML, this means we have to connect them in a special way, by defining `callFun` just after `eval` and using `and` instead of `fun`.

Evaluating a Function

First, a technical aside: the `callFun` and `eval` functions are going to be *mutually recursive* - they will call each other. In SML, this means we have to connect them in a special way, by defining `callFun` just after `eval` and using `and` instead of `fun`.

```
and callFun ftable fundec args =  
  case fundec of  
    FunDec (rettype, fname, params, body) =>  
      let val vtable = bindParams params args  
          val result = eval vtable ftable body  
      in case (result, rettype) of  
          (IntVal x, Int) => IntVal x  
        | (BoolVal x, Bool) => BoolVal x  
        | _ => raise Fail "Return value mismatch"  
      end
```

Note that a function is evaluated with a brand new variable table.

Binding Function Parameters

The `bindParams` function is conceptually simple, and is mostly error detection.

```
fun bindParams [] [] = empty ()
  | bindParams ((param_type, param_name) :: params) (v::vs)
    let val vtable = bindParams params vs
    in case (param_type, v) of
        (Int, IntVal x)    =>
            bind param_name (IntVal x) vtable
        | (Bool, BoolVal x) =>
            bind param_name (BoolVal x) vtable
        | _ => raise Fail "Parameter type mismatch"
    end
  | bindParams _ _ =
    raise Fail "Argument count mismatch"
```

Interpreting an Entire Program

How do we start evaluation now? A program is no longer just a single expression, but a list of function declarations.

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How do we start evaluation now? A program is no longer just a single expression, but a list of function declarations. Decision: a program is interpreted by calling a function named `main` with zero parameters! First, we define a function for getting a function table from a list of `FunDecs`:

```
fun makeFunTable [] = empty ()  
  | makeFunTable (fundec::funs) =  
    let val vtable = makeFunTable funs  
    in case fundec of  
        FunDec (rettype, fname, params, body) =>  
          insert fname fundec vtable  
    end
```

Missing error checking: multiple functions with the same name;
multiple parameters of a single function with the same name.

Interpreting an Entire Program

Now we can put all the pieces together into quite a simple `evalProg` function:

```
fun evalProg prog =  
  let val ftable = makeFunTable prog  
  in case lookup "main" ftable of  
      NONE => raise Fail "No main function defined"  
    | SOME fundec => callFun ftable fundec []  
  end
```


And It Works!

```
val fact_10_prog =  
  [FunDec (Int, "main", [],  
    Call ("fact", [Constant (IntVal 10)])),  
  FunDec (Int, "fact", [(Int, "n")],  
    If (Equal (Var "n", Constant (IntVal 0)),  
      Constant (IntVal 1),  
      Times (Var "n",  
        Call ("fact",  
          [Minus (Var "n",  
            Constant (IntVal 1))]))))  
  ]  
  
- evalProg fact_10_prog;  
> val it = IntVal 3628800 : Value
```