

CSc 453

Semantic Analysis

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Need for Semantic Analysis

- Not all program properties can be represented using context-free grammars.
E.g.: “*variables must be declared before use*” is not a context-free property.
- Parsing context-sensitive grammars is expensive.
- As a pragmatic measure, compilers combine context-free and context-sensitive checking:
 - Context-free parsing used to check “code shape;”
 - Additional rules used to check context-sensitive aspects.

Syntax-Directed Translation

- **Basic Idea:**
 - Associate information with grammar symbols using attributes.
An attribute can represent any reasonable aspect of a program, e.g., character string, numerical value, type, memory location, etc.
 - Use semantic rules associated with grammar productions to compute attribute values.
- A parse tree showing attribute values at each node is called an annotated parse tree.
- **Implementation:** Add code to parser to compute and propagate attribute values.

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3

Example: Attributes for an Identifier

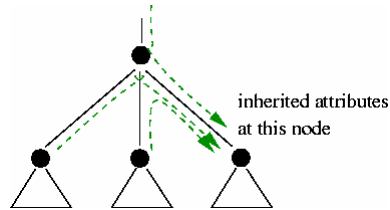
- *name*: character string (from scanner)
- *scope*: global, local, ...
 - if local: whether or not a formal parameter
- *type*:
 - integer
 - array:
 - no. of dimensions
 - upper and lower bound for each dimension
 - type of elements
 - struct:
 - name and type of each field
 - function:
 - number and type of arguments (in order)
 - type of returned value
 - entry point in memory
 - size of stack frame
- ...

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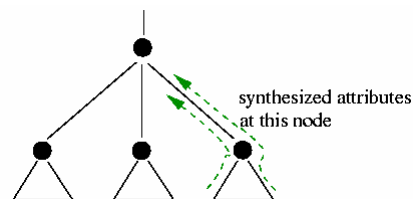
4

Types of Attributes

- ***Inherited attributes:*** An attribute is *inherited* at a parse tree node if its value is computed at a parent or sibling node.



- ***Synthesized attributes:*** An attribute is *synthesized* at a parse tree node if its value is computed at that node or one of its children.



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5

Example: A Simple Calculator

<u>Production</u>	<u>Semantic Rule</u>
$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$	$E.val = E_1.val \oplus E_2.val$
$E \rightarrow E_1 * E_2$	$E.val = E_1.val \otimes E_2.val$
$E \rightarrow (E_1)$	$E.val = E_1.val$
$E \rightarrow \text{intcon}$	$E.val = \text{intcon}.val$

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6

Symbol Tables

- Purpose: To hold information (i.e., attribute values) about identifiers that get computed at one point and used later.

E.g.: type information:

- computed during parsing;
 - used during type checking, code generation.
- Operations:
 - create, delete a symbol table;
 - insert, lookup an identifier
 - Typical implementations: linked list, hash table.

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7

Semantic Actions in Yacc

- Semantic actions are embedded in RHS of rules.

An action consists of one or more C statements, enclosed in braces { ... }.

- Examples:

```
ident_decl : ID { symtbl_install( id_name ); }
```

```
type_decl : type { tval = ... } id_list;
```

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8

Semantic Actions in Yacc: cont'd

Each nonterminal can return a value.

- The value returned by the i^{th} symbol on the RHS is denoted by `$i`.
- An action that occurs in the middle of a rule counts as a “symbol” for this.
- To set the value to be returned by a rule, assign to `$$`.
By default, the value returned by a rule is the value of the first RHS symbol, i.e., `$1`.

Yacc: Declaring Return Value Types

- Default return value for symbols is `int`.
- We may want other types of return values, e.g., symbol table pointers, syntax tree nodes.

Declare the various kinds of values that may be returned:

```
%union {
  symtab_ptr  st_ptr;
  idlist_ptr  idents;
  tree_node   tn_ptr;
  int         val;
}
```

Specify return type for each grammar symbol:

```
/* tokens: */
%token <val> INTCON;

/* nonterminals: */
%type <st_ptr> ident;
%type <tn_ptr> expr;
```

Semantic Actions in Yacc: Example 1

```
func : 1 type          2 { ret_type = $1; }
      3 ID            4 { this_fn = sytbl_install(id_name); }
      5 '('          6 { scope = LOCAL; }
      7 formals
      8 ')'
      9 '{'
     10 decls
     11 stmt          12 { this_fn→body = $11; }
     13 '}'          14 { scope = GLOBAL; }
```

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11

Semantic Actions in Yacc: Example 2

A simple calculator in Yacc:

```
E : E '+' E      { $$ = $1 + $3; }
E : E '*' E      { $$ = $1 * $3; }
E : '(' E ')'    { $$ = $2; }
E : intcon      { $$ = $1.val; }
```

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12

Managing Scope Information

- When looking up a name in a symbol table, we need to find the “appropriate” declaration.
The scope rules of the language determine what is “appropriate.”
- Often, we want the *most deeply nested* declaration for a name.
- Implementation: for each new scope: push a new symbol table on entry; pop on exit (*stack*).
 - implement symbol table stack as a linked list of symbol tables; *newly declared identifiers go into the topmost symbol table.*
 - lookup: search the symbol table stack from the top downwards.

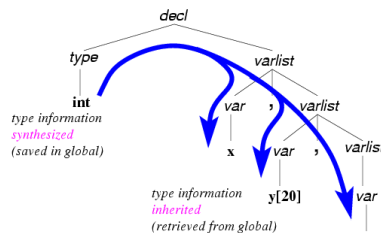
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13

Processing Declarations

<u>Production</u>	<u>Semantic Rule</u>
decl → type varlist ‘;’	varlist. <i>ival</i> = type. <i>tval</i> ;
varlist → var ‘,’ varlist ₁	var. <i>type</i> = varlist. <i>type</i> ; varlist ₁ . <i>type</i> = varlist. <i>type</i> ;

xxx : inherited
yyy : synthesized



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14

Processing Declarations: cont'd

decl : type { tval = \$1; } varlist ;

varlist : var varlist
| var ;

var : ID opt_subscript { symtbl_insert(\$1, \$2); } ;

Static Checking

Static checking aims to ensure, at compile time, that syntactic and semantic constraints of the source language are obeyed. E.g.:

- Type checks: operators and operands must have compatible types.
- Flow-of-control checks: control transfer statements must have legitimate targets (e.g., break/continue statements).
- Uniqueness checks: a language may dictate unique occurrences in some situations, e.g., variable declarations, case labels in switch statements.

These checks can often be integrated with parsing.

Data Types and Type Checking

- A data type is a set of values together with a set of operations that can be performed on them.
- Type checking aims to verify that operations in a program code are, in fact, permissible on their operand values.
- Reasoning about types:
 - The language provides a set of base types and a set of type constructors;
 - The compiler uses type expressions to represent types definable by the language.

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17

Type Constructors and Type Expressions

A type expression denotes (i.e., is a syntactic representation of) the type of a program entity:

- A base type is a type expression (e.g., boolean, char, int, float);
- A type name is a type expression;
- A type constructor applied to type expressions is a type expression, e.g.:
 - *arrays*: if T is a type expression then so is $\text{array}(T)$;
 - *records*: if T_1, \dots, T_n are type expressions and f_1, \dots, f_n is a list of (unique) identifiers, then $\text{record}(f_1:T_1, \dots, f_n:T_n)$ is a type expression;
 - *pointers*: if T is a type expression then so is $\text{ptr}(T)$;
 - *functions*: if T, T_1, \dots, T_n are type expressions, then so is $(T_1, \dots, T_n) \rightarrow T$.

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18

Why use Type Expressions?

```

char *X;          main()
char **f()       {
{                printf("%c\n", (*f())[2]);
  X = "GOTCHA!"; /* legal??? */
  return &X;    }
}

```

<u>Program Code</u>	<u>Type Expression</u>	<u>Rule</u>
f	$() \rightarrow \text{ptr}(\text{ptr}(\text{char}))$	symbol table lookup
f()	$\text{ptr}(\text{ptr}(\text{char}))$	if $e : T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ and $e_1 : T_1$ then $e(e_1) : T_2$
*f()	$\text{ptr}(\text{char})$	if $e : \text{ptr}(T)$ then $*e : T$
*f()	$\text{array}(\text{char})$	if $e : \text{ptr}(T)$ then $e : \text{array}(T)$
(*f())	$\text{array}(\text{char})$	if $e : T$ then $(e) : T$
2	int	base type
(*f())[2]	char	if $e_1 : \text{array}(T)$ and $e_2 : \text{int}$ then $e_1[e_2] : T$

What about:

```
qsort((void **)lptr,0,k,(int (*)(void*,void*))(num ? ncmp : strcmp));
```

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19

Notions of Type Equivalence

1. Name equivalence:

In some languages (e.g., Pascal), types can be given names.

Name equivalence views distinct type names as distinct types: two types are name equivalent if and only if they have the same type name.

2. Structural equivalence:

Two type expressions are structurally equivalent if they have the same structure, i.e., if both apply the same type constructor to structurally equivalent type expressions.

E.g.: in the Pascal fragment

```

type p = ↑node;
      q = ↑node;
var x : p;
     y : q;

```

x and y are structurally equivalent, but not name-equivalent.

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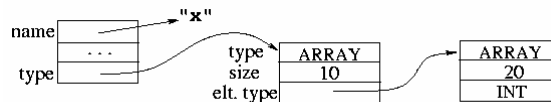
20

Representing Type Expressions

Type graphs: A graph-structured representation of type expressions:

- Basic types are given predefined “internal values”;
- Named types can be represented via pointers into a hash table.
- A composite type expression $f(T_1, \dots, T_n)$ is represented as a node identifying the constructor f and with pointers to the nodes for T_1, \dots, T_n .

E.g.: `int x[10][20]`:



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21

Type Checking Expressions

<u>Production</u>	<u>Semantic Rule</u>	<u>Yacc Code</u>
$E \rightarrow \text{id}$	$E.type = \text{id}.type$	{ \$\$ = symtab_lookup(id_name); }
$E \rightarrow \text{intcon}$	$E.type = \text{INTEGER}$	{ \$\$ = INTEGER; }
$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$	$E.type = \text{result_type}(E_1.type, E_2.type)$	{ \$\$ = result_type(\$1, \$3); }

/ arithmetic type conversions */*

Type result_type(Type t1, Type t2)

```
{
  if (t1 == error || t2 == error) return error;
  if (t1 == t2) return t1;
  if (t1 == double || t2 == double) return double;
  if (t1 == float || t2 == float) return float;
  ...
}
```

Return types:

- currently: the type of the expression
- down the road:
 - type
 - location
 - code to evaluate the expression

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22

Type Checking Expressions: cont'd

Arrays:

```
E → id[ E1 ] { t1 = id.type;  
                if (t1 == ARRAY ∧ E1.type == INTEGER)  
                    E.type = id.element_type;  
                else  
                    E.type = error;  
                }
```

Type Checking Expressions: cont'd

Function calls:

```
E → id (' expr_list '  
      { if (id.return_type == VOID)  
          E.type = error;  
        else if (chk_arg_types(id, expr_list) /* actuals match formals in number, type */  
          E.type = id.return_type;  
        else  
          E.type = error;  
      }
```

Type Checking Statements

Different kinds of statements have different type requirements. E.g.:

- **if, while** statements may require boolean conditiona;
- LHS of an assignment must be an “l-value”, i.e., something that can be assigned.
- LHS and RHS of an assignment must have “compatible” types. If they are of different types, conversion will be necessary.

Operator Overloading

- Overloading refers to the use of the same syntax to refer to different operations, depending on the operand types.
E.g.: in Java, ‘+’ can refer to integer addition, floating point addition, or string concatenation.
- The compiler uses operand type information to resolve the overloading, i.e., figure out which operation is actually referred to.
If there is insufficient information to resolve overloading, the compiler may give an error.