

Contextual Analysis

- Often called "Semantic analysis"
- Properties that cannot be formulated via CFG

 - Type checkingDeclare before use
 - Identifying the same word "w" re-appearing wbw
 - Initialization
- Properties that are hard to formulate via CFG
 - "break" only appears inside a loop
- Processing of the AST

Contextual Analysis

- Identification
 - Gather information about each named item in the program
 - e.g., what is the declaration for each usage
- Context checking
 - Type checking
 - e.g., the condition in an if-statement is a Boolean

Identification

```
month : integer RANGE [1..12];
month := 1;
while (month <= 12) {
 print(month_name[month]);
 month : = month + 1;
```

- Forward references?
- Languages that don't require declarations?

Symbol table

```
month : integer RANGE [1..12];
month := 1;
while (month <= 12) {
 print(month_name[month]);
 month : = month + 1;
```

name	pos	type	
month	1	RANGE[112]	
month_name			

- A table containing information about identifiers in the program
- Single entry for each named item

Not so fast...

```
struct one_int {
    int i;
} i;

main() {
    i.i = 42;
    int t = i.i;
    printf("%d",t);
}
Astruct field named i

Astruct variable named i

Assignment to the "i" field of struct "i"

Reading the "i" field of struct "i"

Reading the "i" field of struct "i"

**The struct field named i

Astruct field named i

Astruct field named i

Astruct field named i

**Reading the "i" field of struct "i"

**The struct field named i

**The struct
```

```
Not so fast...

struct one_int {
   int i;
} i;
   Astruct field named i

main() {
   i.i = 42;
   int t = i.i;
   printf("%d",t);
   Reading the "i" field of struct"i"
```

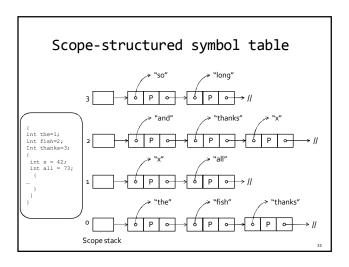
int variable named "i"

int i = 73;

printf("%d",i);

Scopes

- Typically stack structured scopes
- Scope entry
 - push new empty scope element
- Scope exit
 - pop scope element and discard its content
- Identifier declaration
 - identifier created inside top scope
- Identifier Lookup
 - Search for identifier top-down in scope stack



Scope and symbol table

- Scope x Identifier -> properties
 - Expensive lookup
- A better solution
 - hash table over identifiers

Hash-table based Symbol Table

Id.info

name
macro
decl

2 P o 1 P o | |

"thanks"

name
macro
decl

2 P o 0 P o | |

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Remember lexing/parsing?

How did we know to always map an identifier to the same token?

Semantic Checks

- Scope rules
 - Use symbol table to check that
 - Identifiers defined before used
 - No multiple definition of same identifier
 - Program conforms to scope rules
- Type checking
 - Check that types in the program are consistent
 - How?

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Types

- What is a type?
 - Simplest answer: a set of values
 - Integers, real numbers, booleans, ...
- Why do we care?
 - Safety
 - Guarantee that certain errors cannot occur at runtime
 - Abstraction
 - · Hide implementation details
 - Documentation
 - Optimization

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Type System (textbook definition)

"A type system is a tractable syntactic method for proving the absence of certain program behaviors by classifying phrases according to the kinds of values they compute"

> -- Types and Programming Languages / Benjamin C. Pierce

Type System

- A type system of a programming language is a way to define how "good" program behave
 - Good programs = well-typed programs
 - Bad programs = not well typed
- Type checking
 - Static typing most checking at compile time
 - Dynamic typing most checking at runtime
- Type inference
 - Automatically infer types for a program (or show that there is no valid typing)

Static typing vs. dynamic typing

- Static type checking is conservative
 - Any program that is determined to be well-typed is free from certain kinds of errors
 - May reject programs that cannot be statically determined as well typed
 - Why?
- Dynamic type checking
 - May accept more programs as valid (runtime info)
 - Errors not caught at compile time
 - Runtime cost

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Type Checking

- Type rules specify
 - which types can be combined with certain operator
 - Assignment of expression to variable
 - Formal and actual parameters of a method call
- Examples

string string
"drive" + "drink"
string
int string
42 + "the answer"
ERROR

Type Checking Rules

- Specify for each operator
 - Types of operands
 - Type of result
- Basic Types
 - Building blocks for the type system (type rules)
 - e.g., int, boolean, (sometimes) string
- Type Expressions
 - □ Array types
 - Function types
 - Record types / Classes

Typing Rules

If E1 has type int and E2 has type int, then E1 + E2 has type int

(Generally, also use a context A)

More Typing Rules (examples)

 $A \vdash true : boolean$ $A \vdash false : boolean$ $A \vdash int-literal : int$ $A \vdash string-literal : string$ $A \vdash E1 : int$ $A \vdash E2 : int$ $op \in \{+, -, /, *, \%\}$ $A \vdash E1 : int$ $A \vdash E2 : int$ $rop \in \{<+, -, /, *, \%\}$ $A \vdash E1 : int$ $A \vdash E2 : int$ $rop \in \{<-, <, >, >=\}$ $A \vdash E1 : T$ $A \vdash E2 : T$ $rop \in \{=-,!=\}$ $A \vdash E1 : T$ $A \vdash E2 : T$ $rop \in \{=-,!=\}$

And Even More Typing Rules $A \vdash E1 lop E2 : boolean$ $\mathsf{A} \vdash \mathsf{E1} : \mathsf{boolean}$ $\mathsf{A} \vdash \mathsf{E1} : \mathsf{int}$ A ⊢ - E1 : int A ⊢ ! E1 : boolean $\mathsf{A} \vdash \mathsf{E1} : \mathsf{T[]} \qquad \mathsf{A} \vdash \mathsf{E2} : \mathsf{int}$ A ⊢ E1 : int A ⊢ E1 : T[] A ⊢ E1.length : int A ⊢ E1[E2] : T A ⊢ new T[E1] : T[] $A \vdash T \setminus in \ C$ $id: T \in A$ $A \vdash \text{new T()} : T$ $\mathsf{A} \vdash \mathsf{id} : \mathsf{T}$

Type Checking

- Traverse AST and assign types for AST nodes
 - Use typing rules to compute node types
- Alternative: type-check during parsing
 - More complicated alternative
 - But naturally also more efficient

Example $A \vdash E1: boolean \quad A \vdash E2: boolean$ A ⊢ E1 lop E2 : boolean *lop* ∈ { &&,|| } A ⊢ E1 : boolean : boolean A ⊢ !E1 : boolean BinopExpr UnopExpi op=NEG : boolean $A \vdash E1: int \qquad A \vdash E2: int$ A ⊢ E1 rop E2 : boolean $rop \in \{ <=,<,>,>= \}$ A ⊢ false : boolean : boolean A ⊢ *int-literal* : int 45 > 32 && !false

Type Declarations

• So far, we ignored the fact that types can also be declared

TYPE Int_Array = ARRAY [Integer 1...42] OF Integer; (explicitly)

Var a : ARRAY [Integer 1..42] OF Real; (anonymously)

Type Declarations

Vara: ARRAY [Integer 1..42] OF Real;



TYPE #typeo1_in_line_73 = ARRAY [Integer 1..42] OF Real; Var a: #typeo1_in_line_73;

Forward References

TYPE Ptr_List_Entry = POINTER TO List_Entry; TYPE List_Entry = **RECORD** Element : Integer; Next : Ptr_List_Entry; END RECORD;

- Forward references must be resolved
 - A forward references added to the symbol table as forward reference, and later updated when type declaration is met
 - At the end of scope, must check that all forward references have been resolved
 Check must be added for circularity

Type Table

- All types in a compilation unit are collected in a type table
- For each type, its table entry contains:
 - Type constructor: basic, record, array, pointer,...
 - Size and alignment requirements
 - to be used later in code generation
 - Types of components (if applicable)
 - e.g., types of record fields

Type Equivalence: Name Equivalence

```
Type t1 = ARRAY[Integer] OF Integer;
Type t2 = ARRAY[Integer] OF Integer;
```

t1 not (name) equivalence to t2

Type t₃ = ARRAY[Integer] OF Integer; Type t₄ = t₃

t3 equivalent to t4

Type Equivalence: Structural Equivalence

```
Type t5 = RECORD c: Integer; p: POINTER TO t5; END RECORD;
Type t6 = RECORD c: Integer; p: POINTER TO t6; END RECORD;
Type t7 =
RECORD
c: Integer;
p: POINTER TO
RECORD
c: Integer;
p: POINTER to t5;
END RECORD;
END RECORD;
```

t5, t6, t7 are all (structurally) equivalent

In practice

- Almost all modern languages use name equivalence
- why?

Coercions

• If we expect a value of type T1 at some point in the program, and find a value of type T2, is that acceptable?

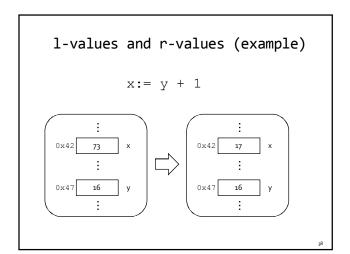
```
float x = 3.141;
int y = x;
```

1-values and r-values

dst := src

- What is dst? What is src?
 - dst is a memory location where the value should be stored
 - src is a value
- "location" on the left of the assignment called an I-value
- "value" on the right of the assignment is called an r-value

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1-values and r-values (example)

x := A[1]

x := A[A[1]]

1-values and r-values (examples)

expression construct	resulting kind
constant	rvalue
identifier (variable)	Ivalue
identifier (otherwise)	rvalue
&lvalue	rvalue
*rvalue	Ivalue
V[rvalue]	V
V.selector	V
rvalue+rvalue	rvalue
Ivalue := rvalue	rvalue

1-values and r-values

expected

ound

	lvalue	rvalue
lvalue	-	deref
rvalue	error	-

So far...

- Static correctness checking
 - Identification
 - Type checking
- Identification matches applied occurrences of identifier to its defining occurrence
- Type checking checks which type combinations are legal
- Each node in the AST of an expression represents either an I-value (location) or an r-value (value)

How does this magic happen?

- We probably need to go over the AST?
- how does this relate to the clean formalism of the parser?

Syntax Directed Translation

- Semantic attributes
 - Attributes attached to grammar symbols
- Semantic actions
 - (already mentioned when we did recursive descent)
 - How to update the attributes
- Attribute grammars

Attribute grammars

- Attributes
 - Every grammar symbol has attached attributes
 - Example: Expr.type
- Semantic actions
 - Every production rule can define how to assign values to attributes
 - Example:

 $Expr \rightarrow Expr + Term$

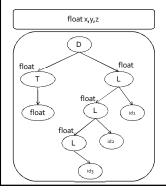
Expr.type = Expr1.type when (Expr1.type == Term.type)
Error otherwise

. -

Indexed symbols

- Add indexes to distinguish repeated grammar symbols
- Does not affect grammar
- Used in semantic actions
- Expr → Expr + Term Becomes
 Expr → Expr1 + Term

Example



Semantic Rule
L.in = T.type
T.type = integer
T.type = float
L1.in = L.in addType(id.entry,L.in)
addType(id.entry,L.in)

Dependencies

- A semantic equation a = b1,...,bm requires computation of b1,...,bm to determine the value of a
- The value of a depends on b1,...,bm
 - We write a ← bi

Attribute Evaluation

- Build the AST
- Fill attributes of terminals with values derived from their representation
- Execute evaluation rules of the nodes to assign values until no new values can be assigned
 - In the right order such that
 - No attribute value is used before its available
 - Each attribute will get a value only once

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Cycles

- Cycle in the dependence graph
- May not be able to compute attribute values





E.S = T.i T.i = E.s + 1

Dependence graph

Attribute Evaluation

- Build the AST
- Build dependency graph
- Compute evaluation order using topological ordering
- Execute evaluation rules based on topological ordering
- Works as long as there are no cycles

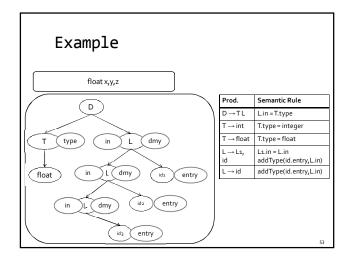
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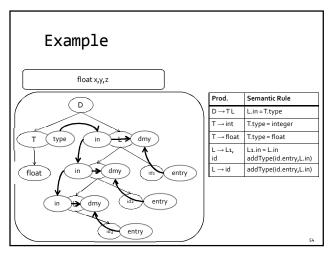
Building Dependency Graph

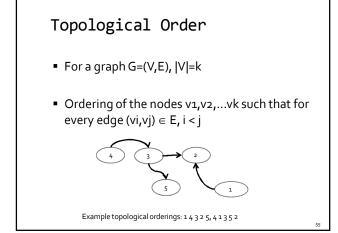
• All semantic equations take the form

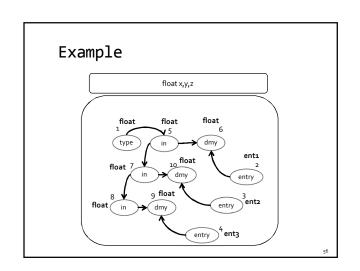
attr1 = func1(attr1.1, attr1.2,...) attr2 = func2(attr2.1, attr2.2,...)

- Actions with side effects use a dummy attribute
- Build a directed dependency graph G
 - For every attribute a of a node n in the AST create a node n a
 - For every node n in the AST and a semantic action of the form b = f(c1,c2,...ck) add edges of the form (ci,b)









But what about cycles?

- For a given attribute grammar hard to detect if it has cyclic dependencies
 - Exponential cost
- Special classes of attribute grammars
 - Our "usual trick"
 - sacrifice generality for predictable performance

Inherited vs. Synthesized Attributes

- Synthesized attributes
 - Computed from children of a node
- Inherited attributes
 - Computed from parents and siblings of a node
- Attributes of tokens are technically considered as synthesized attributes

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example float x,y,z Production | Semantic Rule $D \rightarrow TL$ L.in = T.type $T \rightarrow int$ T.type = integer $T \rightarrow float$ T.type = float L1.in = L.in $L \rightarrow L_1$, id addType(id.entry,L.in) float $L \rightarrow id$ addType(id.entry,L.in) inherited synthesized

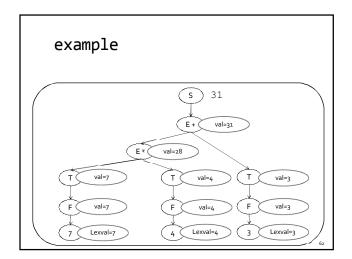
S-attributed Grammars

- Special class of attribute grammars
- Only uses synthesized attributes (S-attributed)
- No use of inherited attributes
- Can be computed by any bottom-up parser during parsing
- Attributes can be stored on the parsing stack
- Reduce operation computes the (synthesized) attribute from attributes of children

S-attributed Grammar: example

Production	Semantic Rule
$S \rightarrow E;$	print(E.val)
$E \to E_1 + T$	E.val = E1.val + T.val
$E \rightarrow T$	E.val = T.val
$T \rightarrow T_1 * F$	T.val = T1.val * F.val
$T \mathop{\rightarrow} F$	T.val = F.val
$F \rightarrow (E)$	F.val = E.val
$F \rightarrow digit$	F.val = digit.lexval

ε,



L-attributed grammars

- L-attributed attribute grammar when every attribute in a production A → X1...Xn is
 - A synthesized attribute, or
 - An inherited attribute of Xj, 1 <= j <=n that only depends on
 - Attributes of X1...Xj-1 to the left of Xj, or
 - Inherited attributes of A

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Summary

- Contextual analysis can move information between nodes in the AST
 - Even when they are not "local"
- Attribute grammars
 - Attach attributes and semantic actions to grammar
- Attribute evaluation
 - Build dependency graph, topological sort, evaluate
- Special classes with pre-determined evaluation order: S-attributed, L-attributed

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