

Semantic analysis

Final part of analysis half of compilation

- lexical analysis
- syntactic analysis
- **semantic analysis**

Afterwards comes synthesis half of compilation

Input: AST

Output: AST

Semantic analysis

Purpose of semantic analysis:

- perform final checking of legality of input program, not done by lexical and syntactic checking

Checks:

- type checking
- relate assignments to & references of particular variables with declarations
- uniqueness checks: e.g., labels, declarations
- same name at beginning and end of a module/procedure declaration
- flow of control checking: `break`

Type checking

Type of a construct is correct for its context

Examples of type checking:

- operands compatible with operator
- function call has correct number & type of arguments
- result of an operation is the correct type
- only index arrays
- only dereference pointers

What we'll cover

Symbol tables: creation & use

Types & type checking

Type equivalence & conversion

Compiling vs. interpreting

Symbol tables

Key data structure during semantic analysis, code generation

Stores information about names used in a program

- keywords can be hardcoded entries
- declarations: **add** entries to symbol table
- uses of name: **look up** symbol table entry

need an organization that grows dynamically

need an organization that reflects scope

Symbol table entries

var	"x"	integer	location (later)
var	"y"	array[20] of bool	location (later)
const	"pair"	integer	2
proc	"foo"	int, float:void	location (later)
formal	"a"	integer: by value	
label	"target"		location (later)
keyword	"if"		
var	"ptr"	pointer to integer	

Implementation strategies

Option 1: **linked list** of key/attribute pairs

- enter time: $O(1)$
(assumes no checking to see if already entered)
- lookup time: $O(n)$ (n entries in table)
- space cost: $O(n)$

Option 2: sorted **binary search tree**

- requires keys that can be ordered
- enter time: $O(\log n)$ expected, $O(n)$ worst case
- lookup time: $O(\log n)$ expected, $O(n)$ worst case
- space cost: $O(n)$

Implementation strategies, cont'd.

Option 3: **hash table**

- requires keys that can be hashed well
- requires good guess of size of table (k)
- enter time: $O(1)$ expected, $O(n)$ worst case
- lookup time: $O(1)$ expected, $O(n)$ worst case
- space cost: $O(k+n)$

Summary:

- use hash tables for big mappings,
binary tree or linked list for small mappings
- ideal: self-reorganizing data structure

Nested scopes

How to handle nested scopes?

```
procedure foo(x:int, q:int);
var z:bool;
const y:bool = true;
procedure bar(x:array[5] of bool);
var y:int;
begin
...
x[y] := z;
end bar;
begin
...
while z do
var z:int, y:int;
y := z * x;
end;
output := x + y;
end foo;
```

Nested scopes

Want references to use **closest textually-enclosing declaration**

- static/lexical scoping, block structure

Simple solution: keep stack (linked list) of scopes

- stack represents static nesting structure of program
- top of stack = most closely nested

Used in PL/0

- statically a tree of scopes
- each SymTabScope points to enclosing SymTabScope (_parent)
- maintains “down links,” too (_children)
- used like a stack during semantic analysis

Nested scope operations

When enter new scope during semantic analysis/type-checking:

- create a new, empty scope
- push it on top of scope stack

When encounter declaration:

- add entry to scope on top of stack
- check for duplicates in that scope only

When encounter use:

- search scopes for declaration, beginning with top of stack
- can find name in any scope

When exit scope:

- pop top scope off stack

Symbol table interface in PL/0

```
class SymTabScope {
public:
    SymTabScope(SymTabScope* enclosingScope) {...};

    // routines to add & lookup ST entries:
    void      enter(SymTabEntry* newSymbol);
    SymTabEntry* lookup(char* name);
    SymTabEntry* lookup(char* name,
                        SymTabScope*& retScope);

    // space allocation routines:
    void allocateSpace();
    int  allocateLocal(int size);
    int  allocateFormal(int size);

    ....
};
```

Symbol table entries

```
class SymTabEntry {
public:
    char* name();
    Type* type();

    virtual bool isConstant();
    virtual bool isVariable();
    virtual bool isFormal();
    virtual bool isProcedure();

    // space allocation routine:
    virtual void allocateSpace(SymTabScope* s);

    // constants only:
    virtual int value();
    // variables only:
    virtual int offset(SymTabScope* s);
    ...
};

class VarSTE : public SymTabEntry { ... };
class FormalSTE: public VarSTE { ... };
class ConstSTE : public SymTabEntry { ... };
class ProcSTE : public SymTabEntry { ... };
```

Creating symbol table entries

```
void VarDeclItem::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {
    ...
    VarSTE* varSTE = new VarSTE(_name, t);
    s->enter(varSTE);
}

void ConstDeclItem::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {
    ...
    ConstSTE* constSTE = new ConstSTE
        (_name, t, constant_value);
    s->enter(constSTE);
}
```

Types

Types are abstractions of values that share common properties

Type checking uses types to compute whether operations on values will be legal

Taxonomy of types

Basic types:

- int, bool, char, real, string, ...
- void
- user-defined types: SymTabScope, ...

Type constructors:

- ptr (*type*)
- array (*index-range, element-type*)
- record (*name₁:type₁, ..., name_n:type_n*)
- union (*type₁, ..., type_n*)
- function (*arg-types, result-type*)

Representing types in PL/0

```
class Type {
    virtual bool same(Type* t);
    bool different(Type* t) { return !same(t); }
    ...
};

class IntegerType : public Type {...};
class BooleanType : public Type {...};
class ProcedureType : public Type {
    ...
    TArray* _formalTypes;
};

IntegerType* integerType;
BooleanType* booleanType;
```

Type checking terminology

Static vs. dynamic typing

- **static**: checking done at compile time
- **dynamic**: checking done during execution

Strong vs. weak typing

- **strong**: guarantees no illegal operations performed
- **weak**: can't make guarantees

	static	dynamic
strong	Ada	Lisp Smalltalk
weak	C Fortran	

Caveats:

- hybrids are common
- mistaken usages are common
 - strong for static
 - “untyped,” “typeless” could mean “dynamic” or “weak”

Bottom-up type checking

Traverse AST graph from leaves up

At each node:

- recursively type check subnodes (if any)
- check legality of current node, given types of subnodes
- compute & return result type of current node (if any)

Needs info from enclosing context, too

- need to know types of variables referenced
⇒ pass down symbol table during traversal
- legality of e.g., `break`, `return` statements
⇒ pass down whether in loop, result type of function

Type checking expressions

```
Type* IntegerLiteral::typecheck(SymTabScope* s)
{
    // return result type
    return integerType;
}

Type* VarRef::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {
    SymTabEntry* ste = s->lookup(_ident);

    // check for errors
    if (ste == NULL) {
        Plzero->typeError("undeclared var");
    }

    if (! ste->isConstant() &&
        ! ste->isVariable()) {
        Plzero->typeError("not a var or const");
    }

    // return result type
    return ste->type();
}
```

Type checking expressions

```
Type* BinOp::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {
    // check & compute types of subexpressions
    Type* left = _left->typecheck(s);
    Type* right = _right->typecheck(s);

    // check the types of the operands
    switch(_op) {
        case PLUS: case MINUS: ... case LEQ: ...
            if ( left->different(integerType) ||
                right->different(integerType) ) {
                Plzero->typeError("args not ints");
            }
            break;
        case EQL: case NEQ:
            if (left->different(right)) {
                Plzero->typeError("args not same type");
            }
            break;
    }
    // return result type
    switch (_op) {
        case PLUS: case MINUS: case MUL: case DIVIDE:
            return integerType;
        case EQL: case NEQ: ...
            return booleanType;
    }
}
```

Type checking statements

```
void AssignStmt::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {
    // check & compute types of subexpressions
    Type* lhs = _lvalue->typecheck_lvalue(s);
    Type* rhs = _expr->typecheck(s);

    // check legality of subexpression types
    if (lhs->different(rhs)) {
        Plzero->typeError("lhs & rhs types differ");
    }
}
```

Type checking statements

```
void IfStmt::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {  
    // check & compute types of subexpressions  
    Type* test = _test->typecheck(s);  
  
    // check legality of subexpression types  
    if (test->different(booleantype)) {  
        Plzero->typeError("test not a boolean");  
    }  
  
    // check nested statements  
    for (int i = 0; i < _then_stmts->length();  
        i++) {  
        _then_stmts->fetch(i)->typecheck(s);  
    }  
}
```

Type checking statements

```
void CallStmt::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {  
  
    // type check arguments, accumulate list of  
    // argument types  
    TypeArray* argTypes = new TypeArray;  
    for (int i = 0; i < _args->length(); i++) {  
        Type* argType = _args->fetch(i)->  
            typecheck(s);  
        argTypes->add(argType);  
    }  
  
    ProcType* procType = new ProcType(argTypes);  
  
    // check callee procedure  
    SymTabEntry* ste = s->lookup(_ident);  
    if (ste == NULL) { ...  
        Plzero->typeError("undeclared procedure");  
        ...  
    }  
  
    Type* procType2 = ste->type();  
    // check compatibility of actuals & formals  
    if (procType2->different(procType)) {  
        Plzero->typeError("wrong arg types"); ...  
    }  
}
```

Type checking declarations

```
void VarDecl::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < _items->length(); i++) {  
        _items->fetch(i)->typecheck(s);  
    }  
}  
  
void VarDeclItem::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {  
    Type* t = _type->typecheck(s);  
    VarSTE* entry = new VarSTE(_name, t);  
    s->enter(entry);  
}
```

Type checking declarations

```
void ConstDecl::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < _items->length(); i++) {  
        _items->fetch(i)->typecheck(s);  
    }  
}  
  
void ConstDeclItem::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {  
    Type* t = _type->typecheck(s);  
    // type check initializer  
    Type* exprType = _expr->typecheck(s);  
    // make sure initializer is constant expr  
    int value = _expr->resolve_constant(s);  
    // make sure rhs matches declared type  
    if (t->different(exprType)) {  
        Plzero->TypeError("init of wrong type");  
    }  
    ConstSTE* entry =  
        new ConstSTE(_name, t, value);  
    s->enter(entry);  
}
```

Type checking declarations

```
void ProcDecl::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {
    // create scope for body of procedure
    SymTabScope* body_scope = new
        SymTabScope(s);
    // enter formal into nested scope
    TypeArray* formalTypes = new TypeArray;
    for (int i = 0; i < _formals->length(); i++) {
        FormalDecl* formal = _formals->fetch(i);
        Type* t = formal->typecheck(s, body_scope);
        formalTypes->add(t);
    }
    // construct procedure's type
    ProcType* procType =
        new ProcType(formalTypes);
    // add entry for procedure in enclosing scope
    ProcSTE* entry = new ProcSTE(_name, procType);
    s->enter(procSTE);
    // type check procedure body
    _block->typecheck(body_scope);
}
```

Starting out

```
int TPlzero::main2(int argc, char** argv) {
    ...
    typecheckPhase(); ...
}

void TPlzero::typecheckPhase() {
    module->typecheck(NULL); ...
    // no enclosing symbol table
}

void ModuleDecl::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {
    // create new scope for body of module
    SymTabScope* body_scope =
        new SymTabScope(s);
    // type check body of module
    _block->typecheck(body_scope);
}

void Block::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {
    for (int i = 0; i < _decls->length(); i++) {
        _decls->fetch(i)->typecheck(_scope);
    }
    for ( i = 0; i < _stmts->length(); i++) {
        _stmts->fetch(i)->typecheck(_scope);
    }
}
```

Extensions

- 1) adding `else` to `if`
- 2) adding `for` statements
- 3) adding `break` statements
- 4) adding constant expressions
- 5) adding arrays
- 6) adding call-by-reference
- 7) adding `return` statements

Consult the project description!

Type checking records.

For the type 'record':

- represent record type & fields of record
- represent public vs. private nature of fields

```
type R = record begin
  public x:int;
  public a:array[10] of bool;
  private m:char;
end record;
```

Need to be able to:

- give names to user-defined record types
- access fields of record values

```
var r:R;
... r.x ...
```

An implementation

Represent record type using a symbol table for fields

```
class RecordType: public Type {
...
    SymTabScope* _fields;
};
```

Add RecordSTE symbol table entries for user-defined types (**R**)

Add FieldSTE symbol table entries for fields (**r.x**)

For public vs. private, add boolean flag to SymTabEntry

```
class FieldSTE : public SymTabEntry {
public:
    FieldSTE(char* name, Type* t, bool p) :
        SymTabEntry(name, t, p) {}
};
```

An implementation

To type check **r.x**:

- type check **r**
- check it's a record
- lookup **x** in **r**'s symbol table
- check that it's public,
or that current scope is nested in record (private)
- extract & return type of **x**

var	"r"	record	pointer to ST for fields
-----	-----	--------	--------------------------

field	"x"	integer	public	location (later)
field	"a"	array[10] of bool	public	location (later)
field	"m"	char	private	location (later)

Type equivalence

Type checking often involves knowing when two types are equal

- implemented in PL/0 with `Type :: same` function

When is one type equal to another?

“Obvious” for basic types like `int`, `char`, `string`

What about type constructors like arrays? (p10)

```
var a1 :array[10] of int;  
var a2,a3 :array[10] of int;  
var a4 :array[20] of int;  
var a5 :array[10] of bool;
```

Structural vs. name equivalence

Structural equivalence:

two types are equal if they have same structure

- basic types
- type constructors:
 - same constructor
 - structurally equivalent arguments to constructor, recursively

- example (Pascal)

```
type ar1 = array [1..10] of integer;  
type ar2 = array [1..10] of integer;  
var myArray : ar1;  
var yourArray : ar2;  
myArray := yourArray;
```

- implement with recursive implementation of `same`

Structural vs. name equivalence

Name equivalence:

two types are equal if they came from the same **textual** occurrence of a type constructor

- example (Ada)

```
type LIST_10 is array (1..10) of integer;
```

```
C, D : LIST_10
```

```
E : LIST_10
```

- requires that all types have a name

- defined names

```
type celsius is FLOAT;
```

```
type fahrenheit is FLOAT;
```

- anonymous types

```
A: array (Integer range 1..10) of integer;
```

```
(type Anonymous1 is array
```

```
  (Integer range 1..10) of Integer;)
```

- each declaration has a different name

```
B: array (Integer range 1..10) of integer;
```

```
A: array (Integer range 1..10) of integer;
```

Structural vs. name equivalence

```
type count is int;
type index is int;
sheep, toTen : count;
blessings : count;
a : index;
b : index;
```

Structural vs. name equivalence

```
TYPE t1 = ARRAY [1..10] OF INTEGER,  
      t2 = t1;  
TYPE t3 = ARRAY [1..10] OF INTEGER;  
  
VAR x: t1;  
    y: t2;  
    z: t3;  
    w: ARRAY [1..10] OF INTEGER;
```

Type conversions and coercions

Why needed:

- types have different representations
- different machine instructions used for different types

Type conversions and coercions

Implicit conversion (coercion)

- type system does the conversion automatically
- system must insert unary conversion operators as part of type checking
- done where code does not “make sense” for type checking or code generation

- example (C)

```
i = j + 2.1416
```

j converted to real; real truncated to int

+ programmer not have to code it

- only coerce if no loss in precision: “widening”

- e.g., an object of type `int` to one of type `float`

Type conversions and coercions

Explicit conversion

- conversion stated in the code
- using unary operators (“casting”) or built-in functions + provides more flexibility in kinds of conversions
- programmer has to do it

- example of functions (Modula-2)

```
i := TRUNC (FLOAT (j) + 2.1416)
```

j converted to real; real truncated to int

- example of functions (Fortran)

```
INT(r): real, double, complex to integer
```

```
REAL(i): integer to real
```

```
DBLE(i): integer to double
```

```
CMPLX(i): integer to complex
```

- example of casting (C)

```
float pi;
```

```
int pentium;
```

```
... (int)pi / pentium;
```

Overloading

Symbol has different meaning depending on the context

- e.g., same operation on different types
 - + for integer add
 - + for floating point add
- Different implementations for each type

Why do it? to avoid proliferation of names

Overloading is resolved when a unique type is determined

- **semantic** rules (e.g., look at types of operands for +)
- **context** determines the type
- example that uses both (Ada)

```
function "*" (i,j:integer) return integer;  
function "*" (i,j:integer) return complex;  
function "*" (x,y:complex) return complex;
```

means that (3*5)*complexValue is complex

means that (3*5)*integerValue is integer

- bottom-up type checking
- choose a unique operation top-down

Polymorphic functions

Non-polymorphic function: arguments have fixed type

Polymorphic functions: arguments can have different types

- why do it? support for ADTs
- one implementation
- binding between code & type done dynamically
- example (C): pointer operator &
- example (ML)

```
fun first(x,y) = x  
... first (2,3)...  
... first (2.0,3.0)...  
... first ([1,2], [3,4])...
```

Example (C++)

`typecheck` is **overloaded**
(different implementation depending on the context)
If you consider the receiver an argument, then `typecheck` is a **polymorphic function**
(its argument has different types)

```
virtual Type* typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {  
    Plzero->fatal("need to implement");  
    return NULL; }  
  
Type* VarRef::typecheck(SymTabScope* s) {  
    SymTabEntry* ste = s->lookup(_ident);  
    if (ste == NULL) {  
        Plzero->typeError("undeclared var"); }  
    if (! ste->isConstant() &&  
        ! ste->isVariable()) {  
        Plzero->typeError("not a var or const"); }  
    return ste->type(); }  
}
```

Implementing a language

Given type-checked AST program representation:

- can generate target program that is then run separately
(**compiler**)
- can interpret AST directly, carry out operations given data
input (**interpreter**)

Interpreters

Simulate the program:

Create data structures to represent run-time program state

- activation record for each called procedure
- environment to store local variable bindings
- pointer to calling activation record (**dynamic link**) for procedure return
- pointer to lexically-enclosing activation record/environment (**static link**) for variable lookups

Interpretation loop that evaluates the AST and executes code to carry out the operations

Pros and cons of interpretation

- + simple conceptually, easy to implement
- + good programming environment for program development & debugging
- + some machine independence
- slow to execute
 - evaluation overhead vs. direct machine instructions
 - no optimizations across AST nodes
 - program text is reexamined & analyzed
 - variable lookup vs. registers or direct access
 - data structures for values vs. machine registers & stack

Compilation

Divide interpreter run-time into two parts:

- compile-time
- run-time

Compile-time does preprocessing

- perform analysis of source code & synthesis of target code at compile-time once
- produce an equivalent but more efficient program in machine language that gets run many times

Only advantage over interpreters: faster running programs

Compile-time processing

Decide representation of run-time data values

Decide where data will be stored

- format of in-memory data structures (e.g. records, arrays)
- registers
- format of stack frames
- global memory

Do optimizations across instructions

Generate machine code to do basic operations

- just like interpreting expression, except generate code that will evaluate it later