

# Semantic Analysis

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*The compilation process is driven by the syntactic structure of the program as discovered by the parser*

Semantic routines perform *static analysis*:

- interpret meaning of the program based on its syntactic structure
- associated with individual productions of a context free grammar or subtrees of a syntax tree
- two purposes:
  - finish analysis by deriving context-sensitive information
  - begin synthesis by generating the IR or target code

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# Context-sensitive analysis

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What context-sensitive questions might the compiler ask?

1. Is  $x$  scalar, an array, or a function?
2. Is  $x$  declared before it is used?
3. Are any names declared but not used?
4. Which declaration of  $x$  does this reference?
5. Is an expression *type-consistent*?
6. Does the dimension of a reference match the declaration?
7. Where can  $x$  be stored? (heap, stack, ...)
8. Does  $*p$  reference the result of a `malloc()`?
9. Is  $x$  defined before it is used?
10. Is an array reference *in bounds*?
11. Does function `foo` produce a constant value?
12. Can  $p$  be implemented as a *memo-function*?

*These cannot be answered with a context-free grammar*

# Context-sensitive analysis

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Why is context-sensitive analysis hard?

- answers depend on values, not syntax
- questions and answers involve non-local information
- answers may involve computation

Several alternatives:

<i>abstract syntax tree</i> ( <i>attribute grammars</i> )	specify non-local computations automatic evaluators
<i>symbol tables</i>	central store for facts express checking code
<i>language design</i>	simplify language avoid problems

# Symbol tables

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For *compile-time* efficiency, compilers use a *symbol table*:

associates lexical *names* (symbols) with their *attributes*

What items should be entered?

- variable names
- defined constants
- procedure and function names
- literal constants and strings
- source text labels
- compiler-generated temporaries *(we'll get there)*

Separate table for structure layouts (types) *(field offsets and lengths)*

*A symbol table is a compile-time structure*

# Symbol table information

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What kind of information might the compiler need?

- textual name
- data type
- dimension information *(for aggregates)*
- declaring procedure
- lexical level of declaration
- storage class *(base address)*
- offset in storage
- if record, pointer to structure table
- if parameter, by-reference or by-value?
- can it be aliased? to what other names?
- number and type of arguments to functions

# Scope

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The *scope* of a definition of identifier  $x$  is the part of the program where a (non-defining) occurrence of  $x$  may refer to this definition.

⇒ semantic analysis must map each occurrence of an identifier to its intended definition.

Example: Scopes in Java

- public class: entire program
- class: classes in package
- public, (default), protected, private fields
- local variables: just in the enclosing block

# Visibility

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A definition of an identifier  $x$  may be in scope, but not *visible*.

A definition of  $x$  is *shadowed* at some program point if there is an intervening enclosing definition of  $x$ .

Some languages enable access to shadowed definitions

- using qualification  $C.D.x$
- using imports and scope management (perhaps even renaming and hiding definitions)

# Visibility example

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```
class Outer {
  int a, b;           // (1)
  static class P {
    int a, c;        // (2)
                    // def of a at (1) shadowed
                    // def of c at (3) shadowed
  }
  int c, d;          // (3)
  static class Q {
    int a, d;        // (4) shadows (1)a, (3)d
    static class R {
      int a, c;      // (5) shadows (4)a, (3)c
    }
  }
}
```



# Nested scopes: block-structured symbol tables

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Which information is needed?

- when asking about a name, want *most recent* declaration
- declaration may be from current scope or outer scope
- innermost scope overrides outer scope declarations

# Nested scopes

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Key point: new declarations (usually) occur only in current scope

Which operations do we need?

operation	comment	frequency
<code>void put (Symbol key, Object value)</code>	bind key to value	rare
<code>Object get(Symbol key)</code>	return value bound to key	frequent
<code>void beginScope()</code>	remember current state of table	very rare
<code>void endScope()</code>	close current scope and restore table to state at most recent open begin-Scope	very rare

Naive implementations

- List / stack of `beginScope` and `put`
- List / stack of search trees or hash tables

Drawback: `get` is not  $O(1)$

# Data structure for block-structured symbol table

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Idea:

- Each identifier points to a stack of entries pointing to the definitions in scope with the currently visible one at the head.
- These entries have a secondary list structure that connects all entries defined in the same scope.
- A stack of open scopes consisting of entries that contain the entry points of the secondary list structure.

# Operations

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- `beginScope()`  
push a new entry on the stack of open scopes
- `put (key, value)`  
push a new entry on the stack for `key`, insert entry into list of current scope
- `get (key)`  
obtain top entry from stack for `key`
- `endScope()`  
pop entry from stack of open scopes, following the list in this entry  
pop the top entry in each concerned stack

**[Intentionally left blank]**

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# Attribute information

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Attributes: internal representation of declarations

Symbol table associates names with attributes

Names may have different attributes depending on their meaning:

- variables: type, procedure level, frame offset
- types: type descriptor, data size/alignment
- constants: type, value
- procedures: formals (names/types), result type, block information (local decls.), frame size

# Type expressions

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Type expressions are a textual representation for types:

1. basic types: *boolean*, *char*, *int*, *float*, etc.
2. type names
3. constructed types (constructors applied to type expressions):
  - (a) *array*(*T*) denotes array of elements type *T*  
(potentially, there is also an index type *I*, e.g.,  
*array*(1 ... 10, *integer*))
  - (b) classes: fields have names and visibilities  
e.g., *class*(*a* : *int*, *b* : *float*)
  - (c)  $D \rightarrow R$  denotes type of method mapping domain *D* to range *R*  
e.g.,  $int \times int \rightarrow int$
4. type variables (e.g., Java generics)
5. type constraints (e.g., `implements Comparable<A>`)

# Type compatibility

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Type checking needs to determine type equivalence

Two approaches:

*Name equivalence*: each type name is a distinct type

*Structural equivalence*: two types are equivalent iff they have the same structure (after substituting type expressions for type names)

- $s \equiv t$  iff.  $s$  and  $t$  are the same basic types
- $array(s) \equiv array(t)$  iff.  $s \equiv t$
- $s_1 \times s_2 \equiv t_1 \times t_2$  iff.  $s_1 \equiv t_1$  and  $s_2 \equiv t_2$
- $s_1 \rightarrow s_2 \equiv t_1 \rightarrow t_2$  iff.  $s_1 \equiv t_1$  and  $s_2 \equiv t_2$

Java: name equivalence. How would structural equivalence work?



## Java inheritance: field shadowing

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- Fields declared in a subclass can *shadow* fields declared in superclasses
- Shadowing is redefining a name in a subsidiary scope
- Field shadowing is *resolved at compile time* according to the *static type* of the object
- Shadowed fields are still accessible
- (some languages disallow field shadowing)

## Java inheritance: field shadowing example

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```
class A { int j; }
class B extends A { int j; }

A a = new A();// let's call this object X
                // X has one field, named j, declared in A
a.j = 1;        // assigns 1 to the field j of X declared in A
B b = new B();// let's call this object Y
                // Y has two fields, both named j,
                // one declared in A, the other in B
a = b;         // change static type to A
a.j = 2;       // assigns 2 to the field j of Y declared in A

b.j = 3;       // assigns 3 to the field j of Y declared in B
```

## Java inheritance: method overriding

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- Methods declared in subclasses can *override* methods declared in superclasses
- Overriding is *resolved at run time* according to the *run-time type* of the object
- Overridden methods are only accessible from the overriding method through `super` calls

## Java inheritance: method overriding example

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```
class A          { int ja; void set_j(int i) { this.ja = i; }}
class B extends A { int jb; void set_j(int i) { this.jb = i; }}
```

```
A a = new A();// let's call this object X
a.set_j(1);    // assigns 1 to the field ja of X declared in A
               // i.e., invokes A.set_j method
B b = new B();// let's call this object Y
a = b;
a.set_j(2);    // assigns 2 to the field jb of Y declared in B
               // i.e., invokes B.set_j method

b.set_j(3);    // assigns 3 to the field jb of Y declared in B
               // i.e. invokes B.set_j method
```

# Java method overloading

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- Java also supports method overloading, which binds the same name to multiple “things” in the same scope
- Overloading is *resolved at compile time* according to the *context*: for a method, the context consists of the (static) argument types (and the result type)
- Overloading has *nothing* to do with inheritance
- Don’t confuse method overloading with method overriding
- Arithmetic operators are often overloaded
- Method `set` is overloaded in this example:

```
class A {  
    int j;  
    boolean b;  
    void set(int i) { this.j = i; }  
    void set(boolean b) { this.j = b; }  
}
```

# Resolution of overloading

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Complicated in Java because of interaction with subtyping

```
class A {}  
class B extends A {}  
class C {}  
class D extends C {}
```

```
static void m (B b, C c) {...} // (1)  
static void m (A a, D d) {...} // (2)
```

```
// Java chooses the best matching declaration for the  
// static argument types  
m(new B(), new D()); // ??? matches (1) and (2) -> error
```

```
// adding this declaration resolves the error  
static void m (B b, D d) {...}
```

## Resolution of overloading *without* subtyping

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Consider expression trees generated by  $E \rightarrow OpE^*$ , where  $Op$  encompasses operators, functions, and constants.

For each node of the tree with operator  $op$  collect the following information

- *nrChildren*, a property of the expression tree
- *child(i)*, access the *i*th child
- *vis*, the set of visible definitions of  $op$ ; computed before overloading resolution
- *ops\_in*, set of candidate definitions
- *ops\_bu*, first improvement of that set
- *ops\_td*, second improvement of that set
- *valid*, overloading resolved: expression is unambiguous

## Resolution of overloading, continued

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For each definition  $d$  of an overloaded operator

- $rank(d)$ , the arity of this operator definition
- $res\_type(d)$ , the result type
- $par\_type(d, i)$ , the type of the  $i$ th parameter

That is, if  $m = rank(d)$ , then

$$op(d) : par\_type(d, 1) \times \dots \times par\_type(d, m) \rightarrow res\_type(d)$$



# Resolution of overloading, algorithm

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1. For each node  $n$ , compute

$$ops\_in(n) = \{d \in vis(n) \mid rank(d) = nrChildren(n)\}$$

2. During a bottom-up traversal, compute for each node  $n$

$$ops\_bu(n) = \{d \in ops\_in(n) \mid \forall 1 \leq i \leq rank(d). \\ \exists d_i \in ops\_bu(child(n, i)). \\ par\_type(d, i) = res\_type(d_i)\}$$

3. During a top-down traversal, compute at each node  $n$ , for each child  $i$

$$ops\_td(child(n, i)) = \{d_i \in ops\_bu(child(n, i)) \mid \forall d \in ops\_td(n). \\ res\_type(d_i) = par\_type(d, i)\}$$

4. During a bottom-up traversal, compute at each node  $n$

$$valid(n) = \|ops\_td\| = 1$$

## Resolution of overloading, example

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Consider the following definitions

$$f : A \times C \rightarrow C$$

$$f : A \times B \rightarrow C$$

$$f : B \times A \rightarrow D$$

$$g : A \times C \rightarrow C$$

$$g : C \rightarrow C$$

$$g : D \rightarrow D$$

$$x : A$$

$$x : B$$

$$h : C \rightarrow R$$

and apply the algorithm to resolve overloading in

$$h(g(f(x,x)))$$