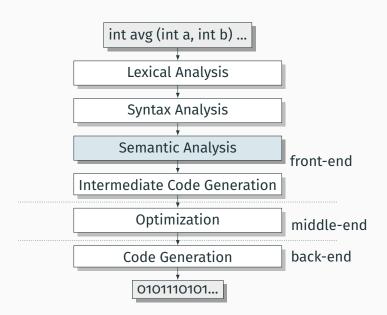
# **Semantic Analysis**

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<sup>\*</sup> Course website: https://verigu.github.io/4115Spring2024/

#### **Semantic Analysis**



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#### **Static Semantic Analysis**

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#### Syntactic analysis: Tokens appear in the correct order?

```
for break /* invalid syntax */
return 3 + "f"; /* valid Java syntax */
```

#### Semantic analysis: Names used correctly? Types consistent?

# What's Wrong With This?

$$a + f(b, c)$$

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Scope questions:

Is a defined?

Is f defined?

Are b and c defined?

Type questions:

Is f a function of two arguments?

Can you add whatever a is to whatever f returns?

Does f accept whatever b and c are?

#### **What To Check**

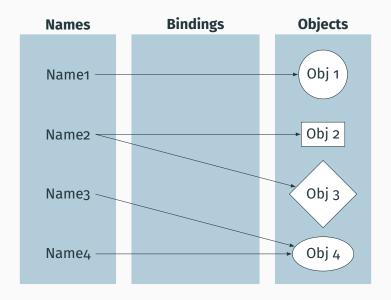
#### Examples from Java:

Verify names are defined (scope) and are of the right type (type).

```
int i = 5;
int a = z;    /* Error: cannot find symbol */
int b = i[3];    /* Error: array required, but int found */
```

Verify the type of each expression is consistent (type).

Scope - What names are visible?



#### Scope

Scope: where/when a name is bound to an object

Useful for modularity: want to keep most things hidden

Scoping Policy	Visible Names Depend On
Static	Textual structure of program  Names resolved by compile-time symbol tables Faster, more common, harder to break programs
Dynamic	Run-time behavior of program  Names resolved by run-time symbol tables, e.g., walk the stack looking for names Slower, more dynamic

# Basic Static Scope in C, C++, Java, etc.

A name begins life where it is declared and ends at the end of its block.

"The scope of an identifier declared at the head of a block begins at the end of its declarator, and persists to the end of the block."

```
void foo()
{
  int x;
}
```

#### **Hiding a Definition**

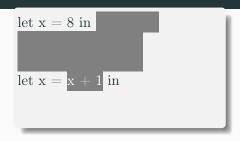
Nested scopes can hide earlier definitions, giving a hole.

"If an identifier is explicitly declared at the head of a block, including the block constituting a function, any declaration of the identifier outside the block is suspended until the end of the block."

```
void foo()
 int x;
 while ( a < 10 ) {
   int x;
```

# **Basic Static Scope in O'Caml**

A name is bound after the "in" clause of a "let." If the name is re-bound, the binding takes effect after the "in."



#### Returns the pair (12, 8):

$$egin{aligned} \operatorname{let} & = 8 & \operatorname{in} \\ & (\operatorname{let} & = x + 2 & \operatorname{in} \\ & & x + 2), \end{aligned}$$

#### Let Rec in O'Caml

The "rec" keyword makes a name visible to its definition. This only makes sense for functions.

```
let rec fib i =

if i < 1 then 1 else

fib (i-1) + fib (i-2)

in

fib 5
```

```
(* Nonsensical *) let rec x = x + 3 in
```

# Static vs. Dynamic Scope

C

int a = 0;
int foo() {
 return a;
}
int bar() {
 int a = 10;
 return foo();
}

#### **OCaml**

 $\begin{array}{lll} \text{let } a = 0 & \text{in} \\ \text{let foo } x = a & \text{in} \\ \text{let bar} = \\ \text{let } a = 10 & \text{in} \\ \text{foo } 0 \end{array}$ 

#### Bash

```
a=0

foo ()
{
   echo $a
}

bar ()
{
   local a=10
   foo
}

bar
echo $a
```

#### Static vs. Dynamic Scope

- Most modern languages use static scoping.
- Easier to understand, harder to break programs.
- Advantage of dynamic scoping: ability to change environment.
- A way to surreptitiously pass additional parameters.

#### **Symbol Tables**

- A symbol table is a data structure that tracks the current bindings of identifier
- Scopes are nested: keep tracks of the current/open/closed scopes.
- Implementation: one symbol table for each scope.

```
int x;
int main() {
 int a = 1;
 int b = 1; {
   float b = 2;
    for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {
     int b = i;
```

Implementing C-style scope (during walk over AST):

· Reach a declaration: Add entry to current table

```
int x;
int main() {
  int a = 1;
 int b = 1; {
    float b = 2;
    for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {
     int b = i;
```

 $x\mapsto \mathsf{int}$ 

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int main() {
                                                              x\mapsto \mathsf{int}
   int a = 1;
   int b = 1; {
      float b = 2;
                                                          a\mapsto \mathrm{int},\,b\mapsto \mathrm{int}
      for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {
         int b = i;
                                                             b\mapsto \mathbf{float}
```

- · Reach a declaration: Add entry to current table
- Enter a "block": New symbol table; point to previous
- · Reach an identifier: lookup in chain of tables

```
int x;
int main() {
  int a = 1;
  int b = 1; {
    float b = 2;
    for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {
      int b = i;
```

```
\begin{array}{c} x\mapsto \mathsf{int} \\ \\ \hline a\mapsto \mathsf{int}, b\mapsto \mathsf{int} \\ \\ b\mapsto \mathsf{float} \\ \\ \hline i\mapsto \mathsf{int} \\ \hline \end{array}
```

- · Reach a declaration: Add entry to current table
- Enter a "block": New symbol table; point to previous
- · Reach an identifier: lookup in chain of tables
- Leave a block: Local symbol table disappears

```
int x;
int main() {
  int a = 1;
  int b = 1; {
    float b = 2;
    for (int i = 0; i < b; i++) {
      int b = i;
```

```
 \begin{bmatrix} x \mapsto \mathsf{int} \\ & & \\ & & \\ \hline a \mapsto \mathsf{int}, \, b \mapsto \mathsf{int} \end{bmatrix}
```

**Types - What operations are** 

allowed?

# **Types**

A restriction on the possible interpretations of a segment of memory or other program construct.

#### Two uses:



**Safety:** avoids data being treated as something it isn't

**Optimization:** eliminates certain runtime decisions

# Safety - Why do we need types?

Certain operations are legal for certain types.

```
int a = 1, b = 2;
return a + b;

int a[10], b[10];
```

#### Optimization - Why do we need types?

C was designed for efficiency: basic types are whatever is most efficient for the target processor.

#### On an (32-bit) ARM processor,

# **Misbehaving Floating-Point Numbers**

$$1e20 + 1e-20 = 1e20$$

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$$(1 + 9e-7) + 9e-7 \neq 1 + (9e-7 + 9e-7)$$

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 $1.00001(1.000001 - 1) \neq 1.00001 \cdot 1.000001 - 1.00001 \cdot 1$ 

 $1.00001 \cdot 1.000001 = 1.00001100001$  requires too much intermediate precision.

#### What's Going On?

Floating-point numbers are represented using an exponent/significand format:

$$\begin{array}{ll} & \underbrace{1000001} & \underbrace{0110000000000000000000000} \\ S & \text{8-bit exponent } E & \text{23-bit significand } M \\ &= & -1^S \times (1.0 + 0.M) \times 2^{E-bias} \\ &= & -1.011_2 \times 2^{129-127} = -1.375 \times 4 = -5.5. \end{array}$$

#### What to remember:

**1363**.456846353963456293

represented rounded

#### What's Going On?

#### Results are often rounded:

$$\begin{array}{c} 1.00001000000 \\ \times 1.00000100000 \\ \hline 1.000011 \underbrace{00001}_{\text{rounded}} \end{array}$$

When  $b \approx -c$ , b+c is small, so  $ab+ac \neq a(b+c)$  because precision is lost when ab is calculated.

Moral: Be aware of floating-point number properties when writing complex expressions.

# Type Systems

#### **Type Systems**

- A language's type system specifies which operations are valid for which types.
- The goal of type checking is to ensure that operations are used with the correct types.
- Three kinds of languages:

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- A language's type system specifies which operations are valid for which types.
- The goal of type checking is to ensure that operations are used with the correct types.
- Three kinds of languages:
  - Statically typed: All or almost all checking of types is done as part of compilation (C, Java)
  - Dynamically typed: Almost all checking of types is done as part of program execution (Python)
  - Untyped: No type checking (machine code)

## Statically-Typed Languages

Statically-typed: compiler can determine types. Variables have a type.

Dynamically-typed: types determined at run time. Runtime objects have a type.

Is Java statically-typed?

```
class Foo {
   public void x() { ... }
}
class Bar extends Foo {
   public void x() { ... }
}
void baz(Foo f) {
   f.x();
}
```

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float g;
union { float f; int i } u;
u.i = 3;
g = u.f + 3.14159; /* u.f is meaningless */
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Is Java strongly-typed?

What about Python?

## Type Checking and Type Inference

- Type Checking is the process of verifying fully typed programs.
- Type Inference is the process of filling in missing type information.
- Inference Rules: formalism for type checking and inference.

#### **Inference Rules**

Inference rules have the form If Hypotheses are true, then Conclusion is true

$$\frac{\vdash \mathsf{Hypothesis}_1 \qquad \vdash \mathsf{Hypothesis}_2}{\vdash \mathsf{Conclusion}}$$

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Typing rules for int:

$$\frac{\vdash \mathsf{expr}_1 : \mathsf{int} \qquad \vdash \mathsf{expr}_2 : \mathsf{int}}{\vdash \mathsf{expr}_1 \ + \ \mathsf{expr}_2 : \mathsf{int}}$$

Type checking computes via reasoning

# How To Check Expressions: Depth-first AST Walk

#### check: node → typedNode





```
check(+)
  check(1) = 1 : int
  check(5) = 5 : int
  int + int = int
  = 1 + 5 : int
```

# How To Check Expressions: Depth-first AST Walk

#### check: node → typedNode



check(+)
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 = 1 + 5 : int



```
check(+)
  check(1) = 1 : int
  check("Hello") = "Hello" : string
  FAIL: Can't add int and string
```

# **How To Check Symbols?**

What is the type of a variable reference?

$$\frac{x \text{ is a symbol}}{\vdash x :?}$$

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The local, structural rule does not carry enough information to give  $\boldsymbol{x}$  a type.

# **Solution: Type Environment**

Put more information in the rules!

A type environment gives types for free variables .

$$\overline{\mathcal{E}} \vdash \mathsf{NUMBER} : \mathbf{int}$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{E}(x) = \mathbf{T}}{\mathcal{E} \vdash x: \ \mathbf{T}}$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{E} \vdash \mathsf{expr}_1 : \ \mathbf{int} \qquad \mathcal{E} \vdash \mathsf{expr}_2 : \ \mathbf{int}}{\mathcal{E} \vdash \mathsf{expr}_1 + \mathsf{expr}_2 : \ \mathbf{int}}$$

## **How To Check Symbols**

check: environment  $\rightarrow$  node  $\rightarrow$  typedNode



```
check(+, E)
  check(1, E) = 1 : int
  check(a, E) = a : E.lookup(a) = a : int
  int + int = int
  = 1 + a : int
```

The environment provides a "symbol table" that holds information about each in-scope symbol.

## The Type of Types

Need an OCaml type to represent the type of something in your language.

For NanoC, it's simple (from ast.ml):

```
{\tt type \ typ \ = Int \ | \ Bool \ | \ Float \ | \ Void}
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```
type typ = Int | Bool | Float | Void
```

For a language with integer, structures, arrays, and exceptions:

## Implementing a Symbol Table and Lookup

```
module StringMap = Map.Make(String)

type symbol_table = {
    (* Variables bound in current block *)
    variables : ty StringMap.t
    (* Enclosing scope *)
    parent : symbol_table option;
}
```

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}
```

```
let rec find_variable (scope : symbol_table) name =
  try
     (* Try to find binding in nearest block *)
     StringMap.find name scope.variables
with Not_found -> (* Try looking in outer blocks *)
    match scope.parent with
     Some(parent) -> find_variable parent name
     | _ -> raise Not_found
```

check: ast  $\rightarrow$  sast

Converts a raw AST to a "semantically checked AST"

Names and types resolved

```
type expr =
   Literal of int
| Id of string
| Call of string * expr list
| ...
```

 $\downarrow \downarrow$ 

AST:

