Semantic Analysis

- Parser verifies that a program is syntactically correct and constructs a syntax tree (or other intermediate representation).
- Semantic analyzer checks that the program satisfies all other static language requirements (is "meaningful") and collects and computes information needed for code generation.

Semantic Analysis Tasks

- Have variables been declared before use?
- Have variables been declared twice in the same scope?
- Has every declared variable been used?
- Are the variable and expression in an assignment type-compatible?
- Do the operands of (arithmetic) operators have compatible types?
- Do the arguments in a function call match the parameters of the function definition in number and type?
- Are arguments passed by reference variables?

Important Semantic Information

- Symbol table: collects declaration and scope information to satisfy "declaration before use" rule, and to establish data type and other properties of names in a program.
- Data types and type checking: compute data types for all typed language entities and check that language rules on types are satisfied.

How to build the symbol table and check types:

- Analyze the scope rules for the language and determine an appropriate table structure for maintaining this information.
- Analyze the type requirements and translate them into rules that can be applied recursively on a syntax tree.

Theoretical framework for semantic analysis

- Focus on attributes: computable properties of language constructs that are needed to satisfy language requirements and/or generate code
- Describe the computation of attributes using equations or algorithms.
- Associate these equations to grammar rules and/or kinds of nodes in a syntax tree.

 Analyze the structure of the equations to determine an order in which the attributes can be computed. (Tree traversals of syntax tree - preorder, postorder, inorder, or some combination of them.)

- Such a set of equations, functions and conditions is called an **attribute grammar**.
- Formally describing the evaluation of attributes and the conditions that attributes must satisfy using an attribute grammar helps significantly, even if attribute grammar tools are not used for semantic analysis.
- Tools such as GAG and Eli generate semantic analysers from attribute grammar specifications.
- Tools such as Yacc implicitly use attribute grammars in their semantic actions.

Example of an attribute grammar

Grammar:

 $exp \rightarrow exp + term | exp - term | term$ $term \rightarrow term * factor | factor$ $factor \rightarrow (exp) | number$

Attribute Grammar:

GRAMMAR RULE	SEMANTIC RULES
$exp_1 \rightarrow exp_2 + term$	$exp_1.val = exp_2.val + term.val$
$exp_1 \rightarrow exp_2$ - term	$exp_1.val = exp_2.val - term.val$
$exp \rightarrow term$	exp.val = term.val
$term_1 \rightarrow term_2 * factor$	$term_1.val = term_2.val * factor.val$
$term \rightarrow factor$	term.val = factor.val
factor ightarrow (exp)	factor.val = exp.val
factor ightarrow number	factor.val = number.val

Notes:

- Different instances of same nonterminal must be subscripted to distinguish them.
- Some attributes must have been precomputed (by scanner or parser), e.g. *number*.val.
- These particular attribute equations look a lot like a yacc specification, because they represent a *bottom-up* attribute computation.

A Second Example

Grammar:

 $decl \rightarrow type \ var-list$ $type \rightarrow int | float$ $var-list \rightarrow id$, var-list | id

Attribute Grammar:

GRAMMAR RULE	SEMANTIC RULES
$decl \rightarrow type \ var-list$	var-list.dtype = type.dtype
$type \rightarrow \texttt{int}$	<i>type.dtype</i> = <i>integer</i>
$type \rightarrow \texttt{float}$	<i>type.dtype = real</i>
$\mathit{var-list}_1 ightarrow \mathit{id}$, $\mathit{var-list}_2$	id .dtype = var-list ₁ .dtype
	$var-list_2.dtype = var-list_1.dtype$
var-list ightarrow id	id .dtype = var-list.dtype

Notes

- Data type typically propagates down a syntax tree via declarations.
- No longer something yacc can handle directly.
- Such an attribute is called *inherited*, while bottom-up calculation is called synthesized.
- Syntax tree is a standard synthesized attribute computable by yacc; other attributes computed on the tree.

Dependency graph

- Indicates order in which attributes must be computed.
- Synthesized attributes always flow from children to parents, and can always be computed by a postorder traversal.
- Inherited attributes can flow any other way.
- *L-attributed*: a left-to-right traversal suffices to compute attributes. However, this may involve a combination of preorder, inorder, and postorder traversal.

Data type dependencies (by grammar rule):



L-attributed dependencies have three basic mechanisms:





(a) Inheritance from parent to siblings

(b) Inheritance from sibling to sibling via the parent



(c) Sibling inheritance via sibling pointers

Sample tree structure:

typedef enum {decl,type,id} nodekind; typedef enum {integer,real} typekind; typedef struct treeNode { nodekind kind; struct treeNode * lchild, * rchild, * sibling; typekind dtype; /* for type and id nodes */ char * name; /* for id nodes only */ * SyntaxTree;



Traversal code:

```
void evalType (SyntaxTree t)
{ switch (t->kind)
  { case decl:
      t->rchild->dtype = t->lchild->dtype;
      evalType(t->rchild);
      break;
    case id:
      if (t->sibling != NULL)
      { t->sibling->dtype = t->dtype;
        evalType(t->sibling);
      break;
  } /* end switch */
} /* end evalType */
```

Attributes need not be kept in the syntax tree:



New traversal code:

```
typekind dtype; /* global */
 void evalType (SyntaxTree t)
 { switch (t->kind)
   { case decl:
       dtype = t->lchild->dtype;
       evalType(t->rchild);
       break;
     case id:
        insert(t->name,dtype);
        if (t->sibling != NULL)
          evalType(t->sibling);
       break:
   } /* end switch */
 } /* end evalType */
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```

Even better, use a parameter instead of a global variable:

```
void evalDecl(SyntaxTree t)
{ evalType(t->rchild, t->lchild->dtype);
}
void evalType(SyntaxTree t, typekind dtype)
{ insert(t->name,dtype);
    if (t->sibling != NULL)
        evalType(t->sibling,dtype);
}
```

Note: inherited attributes can often be turned into parameters to recursive traversal functions, while synthesized attributes can be turned into returned values.

Alternative to a difficult inherited situation (not recommended):

Theorem (Knuth [1968]). Given an attribute grammar, all inherited attributes can be changed into synthesized attributes by suitable modification of the grammar, without changing the language of the grammar.

Example:

New grammar for types: $decl \rightarrow var$ -list id var-list $\rightarrow var$ -list id , | type $type \rightarrow int | float$



Our approach:

- Compute inherited stuff first (symbol table) in a separate pass
- Then type inference and type checking turns into a purely synthesized attribute computation, since all uses of names have their types already computed.
- Next:
 - Symbol table structure
 - Synthesized type rules