

CSc 453

Compilers and Systems Software

11 : Semantic Analysis III

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# Basic and Structured Types

# Basic Types

- Which basic types does the language have? In Pascal `boolean`, `real`, `integer`, `char` are basic types.
- Integers: may come in different sizes and signed/unsigned.
- Reals: may come in different sizes. Some languages allow programmer control over precision.
- Some languages have fix-point numbers, complex numbers, rational numbers, . . . .
- Does the language automatically convert from one type to another? Can I add a complex number and an integer?

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## Enumeration types

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```
TYPE E1 = (white,blue,yellow,green,red);
```

```
TYPE E2 = (apple=4,pear=9,kumquat=99);
```

- Pascal, Ada, Modula-2, C have some variant of enumeration types.

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## Subrange types

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```
TYPE S1 = [0..10];
```

```
TYPE S2 = ['a'..'z'];
```

```
TYPE S3 = [blue..green];
```

- Subranges can be used to force additional runtime checks. Some languages use them as array index types.

# Structured Types: Arrays

- Are they static or dynamic? I.e. do I create them at compile-time (C) or run-time (Java)?
- Do I check for out-of-bounds errors (Java) or not (C)?
- Are they 0-based (C) or 1-based (Icon)?
- Can the user define both the lower and upper bounds (Pascal)?
- Must the index type be integer (C,Java) or any enumerable type (Pascal)?

## Structured Types: Arrays...

```
TYPE A1 = ARRAY 100 OF CHAR;  
TYPE A2 = ARRAY [5..99] OF INTEGER;  
TYPE A3 = ARRAY CHAR OF INTEGER;  
TYPE A4 = ARRAY OF INTEGER;  
VAR a3 : A3;  
VAR a4 : A4;  
BEGIN  
    a3['X'] := 55;  
    a4 := NEW ARRAY 99 OF INTEGER;  
END
```

- Most languages lay out arrays in row-major order. FORTRAN uses column-major.

A[1,1]	A[1,2]
A[2,1]	A[2,2]
A[3,1]	A[3,2]
A[4,1]	A[4,2]

Matrix

0	A[1,1]
1	A[1,2]
2	A[2,1]
3	A[2,2]
4	A[3,1]
5	A[3,2]
6	A[4,1]
7	A[4,2]

Row Major

0	A[1,1]
1	A[2,1]
2	A[3,1]
3	A[4,1]
4	A[1,2]
5	A[2,2]
6	A[3,2]
7	A[4,2]

Column Major

# Array Indexing – 1 Dimensions

- How do we compute the address ( $L$ -value) of the  $n$ :th element of a 1-dimensional array?
- $A_{\text{elsz}}$  is  $A$ 's element-size,  $A_{\text{addr}}$  is its base address.

**VAR**  $A$  : **ARRAY** [1 ..  $h$ ] **OF**  $T$ ;

$$\begin{aligned}L\text{-VAL}(A[i]) &\equiv A_{\text{addr}} + (i - 1) * A_{\text{elsz}} \\ &\equiv A_{\text{addr}} + (1 * A_{\text{elsz}}) + i * A_{\text{elsz}} \\ C &\equiv A_{\text{addr}} + (1 * A_{\text{elsz}}) \\ L\text{-VAL}(A[i]) &\equiv C + i * A_{\text{elsz}}\end{aligned}$$

- Note that  $C$  can be computed at compile-time.



## Array Indexing – 2 Dimensions

**VAR** A :**ARRAY** [ $l_1..h_1$ ] [ $l_2..h_2$ ] **OF** T;

$$w_1 \equiv h_1 - l_1 + 1$$

$$w_2 \equiv h_2 - l_2 + 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{L-VAL}(A[i_1, i_2]) &\equiv A_{\text{addr}} + ((i_1 - l_1) * w_2 + i_2 + l_2) * A_{\text{elsz}} \\ &\equiv A_{\text{addr}} + (i_1 * w_2 + i_2) * A_{\text{elsz}} - \\ &\quad (l_1 * w_2 - l_2) * A_{\text{elsz}} \end{aligned}$$

$$C \equiv A_{\text{addr}} - (l_1 * w_2 - l_2) * A_{\text{elsz}}$$

$$\text{L-VAL}(A[i_1, i_2]) \equiv (i_1 * w_2 + i_2) * A_{\text{elsz}} + C$$

- C can be computed at compile-time.

# Array Indexing – $n$ Dimensions

**VAR** A : **ARRAY** [ $l_1..h_1$ ] ... [ $l_n..h_n$ ] **OF** T;

$$w_k \equiv h_k - l_k + 1$$

$C \equiv$

$$A_{\text{addr}} - ((\dots (l_1 * w_2 + l_2) * w_3 + l_3) \dots) * w_n + l_n) * A_{\text{elsz}}$$

L-VAL( $A[i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n]$ )  $\equiv$

$$((\dots (i_1 * w_2 + i_2) * w_3 + i_3) \dots) * w_n + i_n) * A_{\text{elsz}} + C$$

# Record Types

- Pascal, C, Modula-2, Ada and other languages have **variant records** (C's **union** type):

```
TYPE R1 = RECORD tag : (red,blue,green);
              CASE tag OF
                red : r : REAL; |
                blue : i : INTEGER; |
                ELSE c : CHAR;
              END;
            END;
```

Depending on the tag value R1 has a real, integer, or char field.

- The size of a variant part is the max of the sizes of its constituent fields.

- Oberon has **extensible** record types:

```
TYPE R3 = RECORD
    a : INTEGER;
END;
TYPE R4 = (R3) RECORD
    b : REAL;
END;
```

R4 has both the a and the b field.

- Extensible records are similar to classes in other languages.

# Pointer Types

- In order to build recursive structures, most languages allow some way of declaring **recursive types**. These are necessary in order to construct linked structures such as lists and trees:

```
TYPE P = POINTER TO R;  
TYPE R = RECORD  
    data : INTEGER;  
    next : P;  
END;
```

- Note that P is declared before its use. Languages such as Pascal and C don't allow forward declarations, but make an exception for pointers.

# Procedure Types

- C, Modula-2, and other languages support **procedure types**.  
You can treat the address of a procedure like any other object:

```
TYPE P = PROCEDURE(x:INTEGER; VAR Y:CHAR):REAL;
VAR z : P; VAR c : CHAR; VAR r : REAL;
PROCEDURE M (x:INTEGER; VAR Y:CHAR):REAL; BEGIN...END;
BEGIN
    z := M; /* z holds the address of M. */
    r := z(44,c);
END.
```

- Languages differ in whether they allow procedures whose address is taken to be nested or not. (Why?)

# Class Types

- Java's classes are just record types. Some languages (Object Pascal, Oberon, MODULA-3) define classes just like records:

```
TYPE C1 = CLASS
    x : INTEGER;
    void M() { ... };
    void N() { ... };
END;
TYPE C2 = CLASS EXTENDS C1
    r : REAL; // Add another field.
    void M() { ... }; // Overrides C1.M
    void Q() { ... }; // Add another method.
END;
```

# Type Constructors



# Type Expressions (TE)

- To reason about types we build up an algebra of TEs:

```
TE = int, string, real, ..., type_error, void
    = subrange(from, to)
    = array(idx, eltype)
    = record((f1 × t1) × ... × (fn × tn))
    = pointer(type)
    = d1 × ... × dn → r
```

- The  $f_i$ :s are field names and  $t_i$ :s are field types (TEs).
- $d_1 \times \dots \times d_n$  is the **domain** and  $r$  is the **range** of a function type.  $d_i$  and  $r$  are TEs.

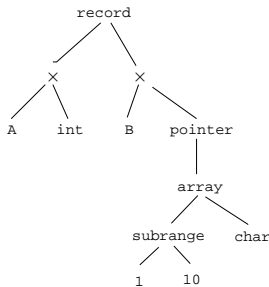
**TYPE T = RECORD**

**A : INTEGER;**

**B : POINTER TO ARRAY [1..10] OF CHAR;**

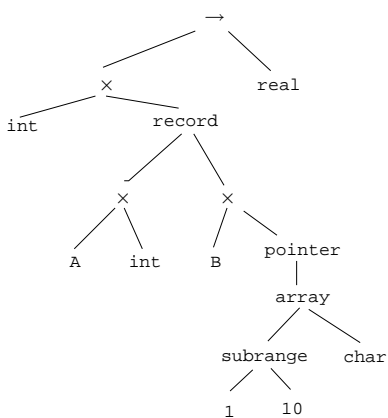
**END**

```
record(  
  A × int,  
  B × pointer(  
    array(subrange(1,10),char)))  
  Type Expression
```



Type Graph

**TYPE P = PROCEDURE (A:INTEGER; B:T) : REAL;**



`int × T → real`

# Typechecking

# Static/Dynamic Typechecking

- Semantic checking can be done both at compile-time (**static checking**) and run-time (**dynamic checking**).
- Some translators also do some checking at **link-time** and **load-time**. Java, for example, verifies the correctness of class-files at class load time.
- A language has a **Sound Type System** if no dynamic typechecking necessary.
- In a **Strongly Typed Language** there are no type errors at run time.

## Static/Dynamic Typechecking...

```
VAR V : REAL;  
VAR S = [1 .. 10];  
BEGIN  
    V := V + 3.14; // Static check  
    S := READ; // Dynamic check  
END
```

# Type Equivalence

# Equivalence Types

- Equivalence types are used to create **type aliases**:

```
TYPE Flag = (red,white,blue);  
TYPE Q = Flag;  
VAR x : Flag;  
VAR y : Q;  
BEGIN  
  x := y; /* Legal? */ END;
```

- But, when are two types equivalent? I.e. when can we compare two variables of “different” types?
- Some languages use **structural type equivalence**, others **name equivalence**, others a mixture of the two.



# Structural Equivalence

```
PROCEDURE Equiv( $s, t$ ) : BOOLEAN  
  IF basic( $s$ ) & basic( $t$ ) &  $s = t$  THEN  
    RETURN TRUE  
  ELSIF  $s = \text{array}(i_1, t_1)$  &  $t = \text{array}(i_2, t_2)$  THEN  
    RETURN Equiv( $i_1, i_2$ ) & Equiv( $t_1, t_2$ )  
  ELSIF  $s = l_1 \times r_1$  &  $t = l_2 \times r_2$  THEN  
    RETURN Equiv( $l_1, l_2$ ) & Equiv( $r_1, r_2$ )  
  ELSIF  $s = \text{pointer}(p_1)$  &  $t = \text{pointer}(p_2)$  THEN  
    RETURN Equiv( $p_1, p_2$ )  
  ELSIF  $s = d_1 \rightarrow r_1$  &  $t = d_2 \rightarrow r_2$  THEN  
    RETURN Equiv( $d_1, d_2$ ) & Equiv( $r_1, r_2$ )  
  ELSE RETURN FALSE  
END
```

## Structural Equivalence...

```
class Square {void move(){...}; void draw(){...};}  
class Cowboy {void move(){...}; void draw(){...};}  
void main(){Square s=new Square(); Cowboy c=s;} // Legal?
```

- Structural type equivalence will sometimes get us in trouble.
- Structural type equivalence make sense in distributed systems — what type does an object have after I have packed it into a bit-string and sent it over the net to another process?
- In MODULA-3 (which uses structural type equivalence) you can tag a type with a unique string to make sure it's not equivalent to other types by chance.

## Modula-2 Type Equivalence

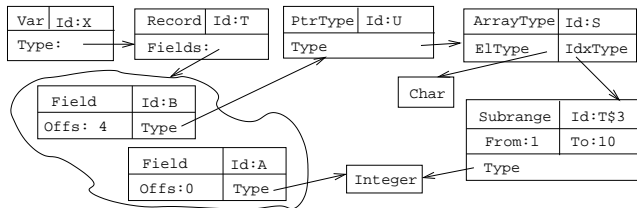
```
PROCEDURE Equiv(s, t) : BOOLEAN  
  IF s = t THEN  
    RETURN TRUE  
  ELSIF s = subrange(t1, l1, h1) &  
        t = subrange(t2, l2, h2) THEN  
    RETURN Equiv(t1, t2)  
  ELSIF s = l1 × r1 & t = l2 × r2 THEN  
    RETURN Equiv(l1, l2) & Equiv(r1, r2)  
  ELSIF s = d1 → r1 & t = d2 → r2 THEN  
    RETURN Equiv(d1, d2) & Equiv(r1, r2)  
  ELSE  
    RETURN FALSE  
END
```

# Typechecking Designators

# Semantic analysis of Structured Types

- Declarations of structured types (arrays, records, pointers) become a **type graph** of type dependencies in the symbol table:

```
TYPE   S = ARRAY [1..10] OF CHAR;  
        U = POINTER TO S;  
        T = RECORD A:INTEGER B:U; END
```



# Typechecking Designators

- A designator is any part of an expression that references a memory location.
  - 1 Simplest case:  $X$ .
  - 2 Structured types complicate things:  $X^{^}.V[5] [7]^{^}.P$ .
- Designators are typechecked using the symbol table type graph.
- An attribute  $\Downarrow$ Type:**TypeT**.TypeIn stores the type of partially processed designator.
- A synthesized attribute TypeOut returns the type of the complete designator.

# Typechecking Designators...

```
TYPE    S = ARRAY [1..10] OF CHAR;  
TYPE    U = POINTER TO S;  
TYPE    T = RECORD A:INTEGER B:U; END
```

```
PROCEDURE P (VAR X : T); ...
```

```
VAR X : T; C : CHAR;
```

```
BEGIN
```

```
    P(X.B^[5]);    (* L-Value *)
```

```
    X.B^[5] := "x"; (* L-Value *)
```

```
    C := X.B^[5]; (* R-Value *)
```

```
END
```

```

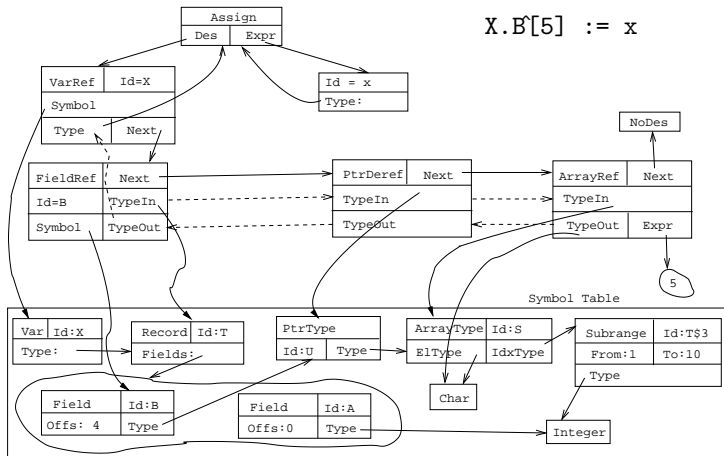
PROCEDURE Des (n : Node);
  IF n.Kind = VarRef THEN
    Symbol := Lookup(n.Id,n.Env);
    n.Next.TypeIn := GetType(Symbol);
    Des(n.Next); n.Type:=n.Next.TypeOut;
  ELSIF n.Kind = FieldRef THEN
    IF TypeKind(n.TypeIn) ≠ Record THEN
      PRINT "Record Type Expected"
    ENDIF;
    Symbol := FindField(n.Id,n.TypeIn);
    n.Next.TypeOut := FieldType(Symbol);
    Des(n.Next);
    n.TypeOut:=n.Next.TypeOut;
    . . . . .
  
```



```
ELSIF n.Kind = ArrayRef THEN
  IF TypeKind(n.TypeIn)  $\neq$  Array THEN
    PRINT "Array Type Expected"
  ENDIF;
  Expr(n.Expr);
  IdxType := ArrayIndexType(n.TypeIn);
  IF n.Expr.Type  $\neq$  IdxType THEN
    PRINT "Wrong Index Type"
  ENDIF;
  n.Next.TypeIn:=ArrayType(n.TypeIn);
  Des(n.Next);
  n.TypeOut:=n.Next.TypeOut;
  . . . . .
```

```
ELSIF n.Kind = PointerRef THEN
  IF TypeKind(n.TypeIn)  $\neq$  Pointer THEN
    PRINT "Pointer Type Expected"
  ENDIF;
  n.Next.TypeIn := PtrType(n.TypeIn);
  Des(n.Next);
  n.TypeOut:=n.Next.TypeOut;
ELSIF n.Kind = NoDes THEN
  n.TypeOut := n.TypeIn;
END;
```

X.B[5] := x

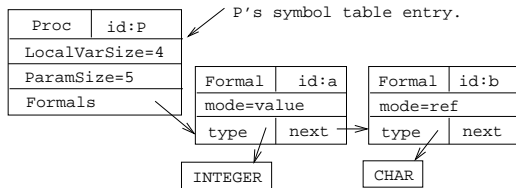


# Typechecking Procedure Calls

# Typechecking Procedure Calls

- To typecheck procedure calls we first have to build an appropriate symbol table structure.
- This is simply a linked list of the procedure's formal parameters. For each parameter we give its **name**, **type** and **mode** (value or reference (VAR in Pascal)).

```
PROCEDURE P (a:INTEGER; VAR b:CHAR);  
VAR c:INTEGER; BEGIN ... END P;
```



## Procedure Calls. . .

- Checking a procedure call becomes very simple: just traverse the list of actual parameters and the list of formal parameters in parallel, checking one type at a time.
- Obviously, we have to check that the lists are of the same length.
- We give each Actual-node an inherited attribute  
↓Formal:**FormalIT** that points to the current formal parameter in the symbol table.

\_\_\_\_\_ Example Procedure Call: \_\_\_\_\_

```
VAR x : INTEGER;  
VAR y : INTEGER;  
BEGIN P(5+x, y) END
```

- 1 Look up the name of the procedure in the current environment.
- 2 Get a pointer to the first formal node in the symbol table. Start checking the actuals.

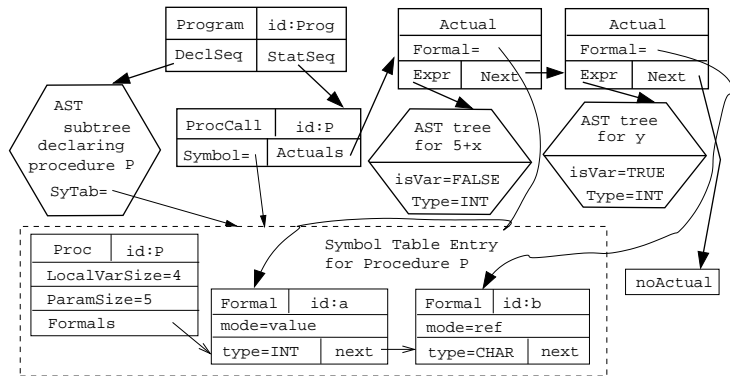
```
PROCEDURE Statement (n:Node);  
  IF n.Kind = ProcCall THEN  
    IF Member(n.Name, n.Env) THEN  
      Symbol := Lookup(n.Name, n.Env);  
      n.Actuals.Formal := GetFormals(Symbol);  
      n.Actuals.Env := n.Env;  
      CheckCall(n.Actuals);  
    ELSE  
      PRINT "Procedure not declared" ENDIF;
```

- The attribute  $\uparrow E$ .IsVar:**BOOL** is TRUE if expression  $E$  is an L-Value.

```
PROCEDURE CheckCall(n:Node);
  IF n.Kind = Actual THEN
    n.Expr.Env := n.Env; Expr(n.Expr);
    IF n.Expr.Type  $\neq$  n.Formal.type THEN
      PRINT "Wrong Parameter Type"
    ENDIF;
    IF n.Formal.mode = ref AND n.Expr.IsVar = FALSE THEN
      PRINT "Variable expected"
    ENDIF;
    n.Next.Formal := GetNextFormal(n.Formal);
    n.Next.Env := n.Env;
    CheckCall(n.Next);
```



# Procedure Calls...



# Homework

# Homework I

- Build an AST for the program below. Show – in detail – how the assignment statements are checked for type correctness.

```
PROGRAM M;  
  TYPE A = RECORD  
    X : ARRAY [1..10] OF INTEGER;  
  END;  
  B = POINTER TO A;  
  C = ARRAY [1..2] OF B;  
  VAR V : C;  
BEGIN  
  V[1]^X[4] := "C";  
  V[2].X[4] := 5;  
END.
```

# Summary

# Readings and References

- Read Louden: pp. 313–331.
- Or, read the Dragon book: 343–360.