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### First, WA2

- *Pick it up!* Even if you got a passing grade you'll want to see what we marked up.
- The midterm is *not* pass/fail.
- Derivations and parse trees are closely related, but if we ask you to draw a parse tree you must *draw the parse tree*.
- WA2#4 was *in the book* (Fig 2.34; you just had to substitute in  $k=3$ ):

$$S \rightarrow a^{k-1} b \mid a^k$$

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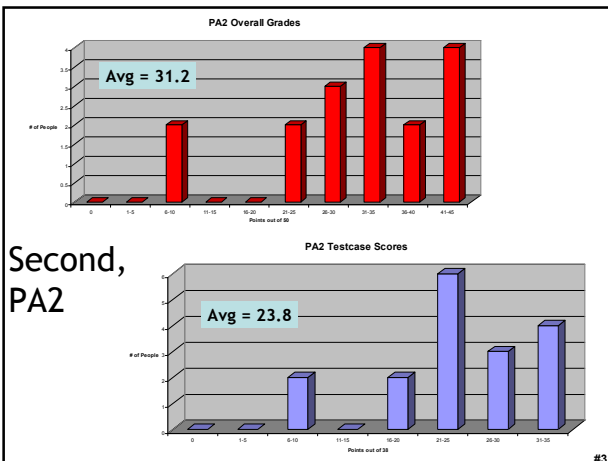
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## Next, Let's Talk About Midterm 1



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## Administration

- **Midterm 1**
  - Tuesday, February 27, in class
  - Be here on time (we start at 9:35, end at 10:40)
  - Everything up to parsing, no semantic analysis
  - We will *vote* (right now) for one of these:
    - Open note, open book
    - 1 cheat sheet, front and back, handwritten, by you!
  - In any event, no electronic devices or computers
- Midterm review session
  - You have until 1pm to list preferences in the midterm review session thread. Currently we won't be having one. Hint: do it *right after class*.
- Using the feedback form
- **Written Assignments:** now on a 0-5 scale

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## In One Slide

- **Scoping rules** match identifier *uses* with identifier *definitions*.
- A **type** is a set of *values* coupled with a set of *operations* on those values.
- A **type system** specifies which operations are *valid* for which types.
- **Type checking** can be done *statically* (at compile time) or *dynamically* (at run time).

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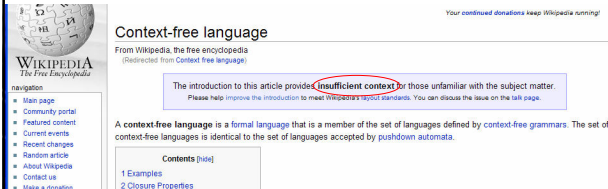
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## Outline

- The role of semantic analysis in a compiler
  - A laundry list of tasks
- Scope
- Types



The screenshot shows a Wikipedia article page for "Context-free language". The page title is "Context-free language" and it is noted as being redirected from "Context free language". A red box highlights a sentence in the introduction: "The introduction to this article provides **insufficient context** for those unfamiliar with the subject matter. Please help improve the introduction to meet Wikipedia's **neutral** standards. You can discuss the issue on the talk page." Below this, the article text begins: "A **context-free language** is a formal language that is a member of the set of languages defined by context-free grammars. The set of context-free languages is identical to the set of languages accepted by pushdown automata." A "Contents" table is visible at the bottom of the article snippet.

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## The Compiler So Far

- Lexical analysis
  - Detects inputs with illegal tokens
- Parsing
  - Detects inputs with ill-formed parse trees
- Semantic analysis
  - Last "front end" phase
  - Catches more errors

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## What's Wrong?

- Example 1
  - let y: Int in x + 3
- Example 2
  - let y: String ←
  - "abc" in y + 3



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## Why a Separate Semantic Analysis?

- Parsing cannot catch some errors
- Some language constructs are **not context-free**
  - Example: All used variables must have been **declared** (i.e. scoping)
  - Example: A method must be invoked with **arguments of proper type** (i.e. typing)

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## What Does Semantic Analysis Do?

- Many kinds of checks . . . **cool** checks:
  1. All identifiers are declared
  2. Static Types
  3. Inheritance relationships
  4. Classes defined only once
  5. Methods in a class defined only once
  6. Reserved identifiers are not misusedAnd others . . .
- The requirements **depend on the language**
  - Which of these are checked by Ruby? Python?

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## Scope

- **Scoping rules** match identifier uses with identifier declarations
  - Important semantic analysis step in most languages
  - Including COOL!



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## Scope (Cont.)

- The **scope** of an identifier is the portion of a program in which that identifier is accessible
- The same identifier may refer to different things in different parts of the program
  - Different scopes for same name don't overlap
- An identifier may have restricted scope

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## Static vs. Dynamic Scope

- Most languages have **static** scope
  - Scope depends only on the program text, not run-time behavior
  - Cool has static scope
- A few languages are **dynamically** scoped
  - Lisp, SNOBOL, Tex
  - Lisp has changed to mostly static scoping
  - Scope depends on execution of the program

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## Static Scoping Example

```
let x: Int <- 0 in
{
  x;
  { let x: Int <- 1 in
    x; };
  x;
}
```

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## Static Scoping Example (Cont.)

```
let x Int <- 0 in  
{  
  x  
  { let x Int <- 1 in  
    x };  
}
```

Uses of **x** refer to closest enclosing definition

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## Scope in Cool

- Cool identifier bindings are **introduced** by
  - Class declarations (introduce class names)
  - Method definitions (introduce method names)
  - Let expressions (introduce object id's)
  - Formal parameters (introduce object id's)
  - Attribute definitions in a class (introduce object id's)
  - Case expressions (introduce object id's)

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## Implementing the Most-Closely Nested Rule

- Much of semantic analysis can be expressed as a **recursive descent** of an AST
  - Process an AST node  $n$
  - Process the children of  $n$
  - Finish processing the AST node  $n$

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## Implementing . . . (Cont.)

- Example: the scope of `let` bindings is one subtree

`let x: Int ← 0 in e`

- `x` can be used in subtree `e`

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## Symbol Tables

- Consider again: `let x: Int ← 0 in e`
- Idea:
  - Before processing `e`, add definition of `x` to current definitions, overriding any other definition of `x`
  - After processing `e`, remove definition of `x` and restore old definition of `x`
- A **symbol table** is a data structure that tracks the current bindings of identifiers
  - You'll need to make one for PA4
  - OCaml's `Hashtbl` is designed to be a symbol table, so if you saved OCaml ... no, wait ...

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## Scope in Cool (Cont.)

- Not all kinds of identifiers follow the most-closely nested rule
- For example, class definitions in Cool
  - Cannot be nested
  - Are **globally visible** throughout the program
- In other words, a class name can be **used before it is defined**

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## Example: Use Before Definition

```
Class Foo {  
  . . . let y: Bar in . . .  
};  
  
Class Bar {  
  . . .  
};
```

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## More Scope in Cool

Attribute names are **global** within the class in which they are defined

```
Class Foo {  
  f(): Int { a };  
  a: Int ← 0;  
}
```

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## More Scope (Cont.)

- Method and attribute names have complex rules
- A **method** need not be defined in the class in which it is used, but in **some parent class**
  - This is standard **inheritance**!
- Methods may also be redefined (overridden)

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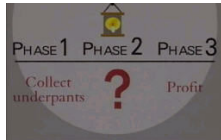
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## Class Definitions

- Class names can be used before being defined
- We can't check this property
  - using a symbol table
  - or even **in one pass** :-)
- Solution
  - Pass 1: Gather all class names
  - Pass 2: Do the checking
  - ?
  - Pass 4: Profit!
- Semantic analysis requires **multiple passes**
  - Probably more than two



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## Types

- What is a **type**?
  - The notion varies from language to language
- Consensus
  - A set of values
  - A set of operations on those values
- Classes are one instantiation of the modern notion of type

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## Why Do We Need Type Systems?

Consider the assembly language fragment

```
addi $r1, $r2, $r3
```

What are the types of  $\$r1$ ,  $\$r2$ ,  $\$r3$ ?

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## Types and Operations

- Certain operations are **legal** or **valid** for values of each type
  - It doesn't make sense to add a function pointer and an integer in C
  - It does make sense to add two integers
  - But both have the **same assembly language implementation!**

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## 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**
  - Enforces intended interpretation of values, because nothing else will!
    - Our last, best hope ... for victory!
- Type systems provide a concise formalization of the semantic checking rules

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## What Can Types do For Us?

- Can detect certain kinds of errors
- Memory errors:
  - Reading from an invalid pointer, etc.
- Violation of **abstraction** boundaries:

```
class FileSystem {
  open(x : String) : File {
    ...
  }
  ...
}

class Client {
  f(fs : FileSystem) {
    File fdesc <- fs.open("foo")
    ...
  } -- f cannot see inside fdesc !
}
```

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## Type Checking Overview

- Three kinds of languages:
  - **Statically typed**: All or almost all checking of types is done as part of compilation (C, Java, Cool)
  - **Dynamically typed**: Almost all checking of types is done as part of program execution (Scheme, Ruby, Python, ...)
  - **Untyped**: No type checking (machine code)

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## The Type Wars

- Competing views on static vs. dynamic typing
- Static typing proponents say:
  - Static checking **catches many programming errors at compile time**
  - Avoids overhead of runtime type checks
- Dynamic typing proponents say:
  - Static type systems **are restrictive**
  - Rapid prototyping easier in a dynamic type system

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## The Type Wars (Cont.)

- In practice, most code is written in statically typed languages with an “escape” mechanism
  - Unsafe casts in C, native methods in Java, unsafe modules in Modula-3
- Dynamic typing (sometimes called “duck typing”) is big in the scripting / glue world



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## Cool Types

- The **types** are:
  - Class names
  - `SELF_TYPE`
  - There are *no* unboxed base types (`int` in Java)
- The user declares types for all identifiers
- The compiler **infers** types for expressions
  - Infers a type for *every* expression

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## 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
- The two are different, but are often used interchangeably

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## Rules of Inference

- We have seen two examples of **formal notation** specifying parts of a compiler
  - Regular expressions (for the lexer)
  - Context-free grammars (for the parser)
- The appropriate formalism for type checking is **logical rules of inference**

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## Why Rules of Inference?

- **Inference rules** have the form  
*If Hypothesis is true, then Conclusion is true*
- Type checking computes via reasoning  
*If  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  have certain types,  
then  $E_3$  has a certain type*
- **Rules of inference** are a compact notation  
for “If-Then” statements

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## From English to an Inference Rule

- The notation is easy to read (with practice)
- Start with a simplified system and gradually  
add features
- Building blocks
  - Symbol  $\wedge$  is “and”
  - Symbol  $\Rightarrow$  is “if-then”
  - $x:T$  is “x has type T”

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## From English to an Inference Rule (2)

If  $e_1$  has type  $\text{Int}$  and  $e_2$  has type  $\text{Int}$ ,  
then  $e_1 + e_2$  has type  $\text{Int}$

$(e_1 \text{ has type } \text{Int} \wedge e_2 \text{ has type } \text{Int}) \Rightarrow$   
 $e_1 + e_2 \text{ has type } \text{Int}$

$(e_1 : \text{Int} \wedge e_2 : \text{Int}) \Rightarrow e_1 + e_2 : \text{Int}$

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## From English to an Inference Rule (3)

The statement

$$(e_1 : \text{Int} \wedge e_2 : \text{Int}) \Rightarrow e_1 + e_2 : \text{Int}$$

is a special case of

$$\frac{(\text{Hypothesis}_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \text{Hypothesis}_n)}{\text{Conclusion}}$$

This is an **inference rule**

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## Notation for Inference Rules

- By tradition inference rules are written

$$\frac{\vdash \text{Hypothesis}_1 \quad \dots \quad \vdash \text{Hypothesis}_n}{\vdash \text{Conclusion}}$$

- Cool type rules have hypotheses and conclusions of the form:

$$\vdash e : T$$

- $\vdash$  means “we can prove that . . .”

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## Two Rules

$$\frac{}{\vdash i : \text{Int}} \quad [\text{Int}] \quad (i \text{ is an integer})$$

$$\frac{\vdash e_1 : \text{Int} \quad \vdash e_2 : \text{Int}}{\vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{Int}} \quad [\text{Add}]$$

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## Two Rules (Cont.)

- These rules give templates describing how to type integers and + expressions
- By filling in the templates, we can produce complete typings for expressions
- We can fill the template with ANY expression!

$$\frac{\frac{}{\vdash \text{true} : \text{Int}} \quad \frac{}{\vdash \text{false} : \text{Int}}}{\vdash \text{true} + \text{false} : \text{Int}}$$

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## Example: 1 + 2

$$\frac{\frac{}{\vdash 1 : \text{Int}} \quad \frac{}{\vdash 2 : \text{Int}}}{\vdash 1 + 2 : \text{Int}}$$

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## Homework

- Thursday: Reading!
- Thursday: WA3 due
- Friday: PA3 due
  - Parsing!
- **Tuesday Feb 27 - Midterm 1 in Class**

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