Lecture 10: Static Semantics Overview

- Lexical analysis
  - Produces tokens
  - Detects & eliminates illegal tokens

- Parsing
  - Produces trees
  - Detects & eliminates ill-formed parse trees

- Static semantic analysis
  - Produces decorated tree with additional information attached
  - Detects & eliminates remaining static errors

Static vs. Dynamic

- We use the term *static* to describe properties that the compiler can
determine without considering any particular execution.
  - E.g., in
    ```
    def f(x) : x + 1
    Both uses of x refer to same variable
    ```

- Dynamic properties are those that depend on particular executions
  in general.
  - E.g., will `x = x/y` cause an arithmetic exception?

- Actually, distinction is not that simple. E.g., after
  ```
  x = 3
  y = x + 2
  ```
  compiler *could* deduce that `x` and `y` are integers.

- But languages often designed to require that we treat variables only
  according to explicitly declared types, because deductions are
difficult or impossible in general.

Typical Tasks of the Semantic Analyzer

- Find the declaration that defines each identifier instance
- Determine the static types of expressions
- Perform re-organizations of the AST that were inconvenient in parser,
or required semantic information
- Detect errors and fix to allow further processing

Typical Semantic Errors: Java, C++

- Multiple declarations: a variable should be declared (in the same
  region) at most once
- Undeclared variable: a variable should not be used without being
  declared.
- Type mismatch: e.g., type of the left-hand side of an assignment
  should match the type of the right-hand side.
- Wrong arguments: methods should be called with the right number
  and types of arguments.
- Definite-assignment check (Java): conservative check that simple
  variables assigned to before use.
Output from Static Semantic Analysis

Input is AST; output is an annotated tree: identifiers decorated with declarations, other expressions with type information.

```
x = 3
def f(x):
    return x+y
y = 2
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Id</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Nesting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#1</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#2</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#3</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#4</td>
<td>y</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Output from Static Semantic Analysis (II)

- Analysis has added objects we'll call symbol entries to hold information about instances of identifiers.
- In this example, #1: x, Any, 0 denotes an entry for something named 'x' occurring at the outer lexical level (level 0) and having static type Any.
- For other expressions, we annotate with static type information.

```
stmt_list =
def f():
    id_list return y:
```

Scope Rules: Binding Names to Symbol Entries

- **Scope of a declaration**: section of text or program execution in which declaration applies
- **Declarative region**: section of text or program execution that bounds scopes of declarations (we'll say "region" for short).
- If scope of a declaration defined entirely according to its position in source text of a program, we say language is **statically scoped**.
- If scope of a declaration depends on what statements get executed during a particular run of the program, we say language has **dynamically scoped**.

```
class A(object):
    def f(self): return self.x
a1 = A(); a2 = A()  # Create two As
a1.x = 3; print a1.x # OK
print a2.x           # Error; there is no x
so can't say much about attributes (fields) of A.
```

- In Java, C, C++ (statically typed), analogous program is illegal, even without second print (the class definition itself is illegal).
- So in statically typed languages, symbol entries for classes would contain dictionaries mapping attribute names to types.
Scope Rules: Name⇒Declaration is Many-to-One

- In most languages, can declare the same name multiple times, if its declarations
  - occur in different declarative regions, or
  - involve different kinds of names.
- Examples from Java?, C++?

Scope Rules: Nesting

- Most statically scoped languages (including C, C++, Java) use:
  - Algol scope rule: Where multiple declarations might apply, choose the one defined in the innermost (most deeply nested) declarative region.
- Often expressed as "inner declarations hide outer ones."
- Variations on this: Java disallows attempts to hide local variables and parameters.

Scope Rules: Declarative Regions

- Languages differ in their definitions of declarative regions.
- In Java, variable declaration's effect stops at the closing '}', that is, each function body is a declarative region.
- What others?
- In Python, function header and body make up a declarative region, as does a lambda expression. But nothing smaller. Just one x in this program:

```python
def f(x):
    x = 3
    L = [x for x in xrange(0,10)]
```

Scope Rules: Use Before Definition

- Languages have taken various decisions on where scopes start.
- In Java, C++, scope of a member (field or method) includes the entire class (textual uses may precede declaration).
- But scope of a local variable starts at its declaration.
- As for non-member and class declarations in C++: must write

```plaintext
extern int f(int); // Forward declarations
class C;
int x = f(3)     // Would be illegal w/o forward decls.
void g(C* x) {
    ...
}
int f (int x) { ... } // Full definitions
class C { ... }
```
Scope Rules: Overloading

- In Java or C++ (not Python or C), can use the same name for more than one method, as long as the number or types of parameters are unique.
  
  ```
  int add(int a, int b); float add(float a, float b);
  ```

- The declaration applies to the signature—name + argument types—not just name.

- But return type not part of signature, so this won’t work:
  
  ```
  int add (int a, int b); float add (int a, int b)
  ```

- In Ada, it will, because the return type is part of signature.

Dynamic Scoping

- Original Lisp, APL, Snobol use dynamic scoping, rather than static: Use of a variable refers to most recently executed, and still active, declaration of that variable.

- Makes static determination of declaration generally impossible.

- Example:
  
  ```
  void main() { f1(); f2(); }
  void f1() { int x = 10; g(); }
  void f2() { String x = "hello"; f3(); g(); }
  void f3() { double x = 30.5; }
  void g() { print(x); }
  ```

  - With static scoping, illegal.
  - With dynamic scoping, prints “10” and “hello”

Explicit vs. Implicit Declaration

- Java, C++ require explicit declarations of things.

- C is lenient: if you write `foo(3)` with no declaration of `foo` in scope, C will supply one.

- Python implicitly declares variables you assign to in a function to be local variables.

- Fortran implicitly declares any variables you use, and gives them a type depending on their first letter.

- But in all these cases, there is a declaration as far as the compiler is concerned.

So How Do We Annotate with Declarations?

- Idea is to recursively navigate the AST,— in effect executing the program in simplified fashion,— extracting information that isn’t data dependent.

- You saw it in CS61A (sort of).
Environment Diagrams and Symbol Entries

• In Scheme, executing

```scheme
(set! x 7)
(define (f x) (let ((y (+ x 39)) (+ x y)))
(f 3)
```

would eventually give this environment at (+ x y):

![Environment Diagram]

• Now abstract away values in favor of static type info:

```
#1. x: Any
#2. f: Any→Any
#3. x: Any
#4. y: Any
```

• and voilà! A data structure for mapping names to current declarations: a **block-structured symbol table.**