
Quiz solutions

Compiler Construction, Fall 2012

Wednesday, December 19, 2012

Last Name : _____

First Name : _____

Exercise	Points	Achieved Points
1	10	
2	10	
3	20	
4	25	
5	15	
6	20	
Total	100	

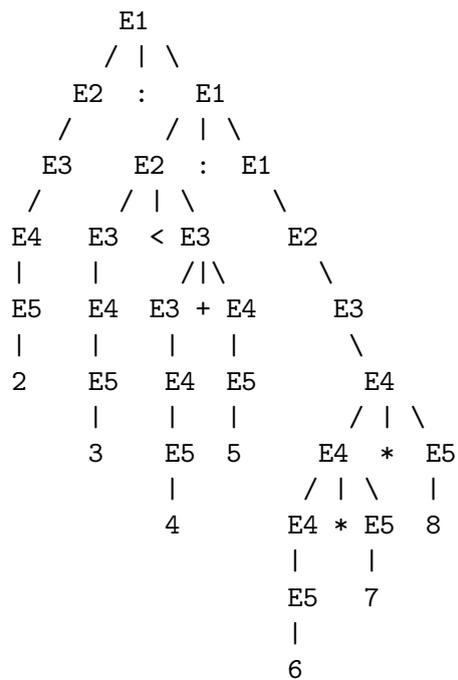
Problem 2: Grammars (10 points)

a) [8 pts]

$E_1 \rightarrow E_2 : E_1 \mid E_2$
 $E_2 \rightarrow E_3 < E_3 \mid E_3$
 $E_3 \rightarrow E_3 + E_4 \mid E_4$
 $E_4 \rightarrow E_4 * E_5 \mid E_5$
 $E_5 \rightarrow (E_1) \mid \text{num}$

b) [2 pts]

2: ((3 < (4+5)) : ((6*7)*8))



$E \rightarrow EE^*$ or $E \rightarrow EE-$. The suffix is then the entire string and since the final character determines the applied rule uniquely, the parse tree is unique.)

inductive case: Let $n \geq 0$. Assume that the inductive hypothesis holds for all strings of length i for $i \leq n$ and we prove it for $n + 1$.

There are two possibilities: either the string ends with a number, or with an operator. If the string ends with a number then the unique suffix is simply this number, which has only one parse tree.

If the last token is an operator, the suffix is the string that can be parsed by applying one of the first three rules. Which one is determined (uniquely) by the operator. Consider the string of length n that we obtain from taking our string without the last character.

By inductive hypothesis, the string has a unique suffix of length m , which determines the second E in the grammar rule. That is, the split of the strings into the first E and the second E is uniquely determined. Also, the string up to position $n - m$ also has a unique suffix, which determines the first E of the grammar rule. Hence, either the string cannot be parsed at all, or the suffix is unique and has a unique parse tree.

(If the entire string can be parsed, then the suffix is the entire string, and thus the parse tree is unique.)

Problem 4: Type checking (25 points)

Let us be somewhat generous with grading this question. There are different ways of formalizing type checking rules and, as long as the rules used make some sense and the key steps of derivations are given, we can accept them.

a) [10 pts]

The environments are the following:

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma &= \{(Phone, void \rightarrow Phone), (AntiquePhone, Int \rightarrow AntiquePhone), \\ &\quad (MobilePhone, void \rightarrow MobilePhone)\} \\ \Gamma_P &= \{(getNumber, void \rightarrow Int), (call, Int \rightarrow void)\} \oplus \Gamma \\ \Gamma_{MP} &= \Gamma \\ \Gamma_{AP} &= \Gamma\end{aligned}$$

and we have the following subtyping relations:

$AntiquePhone <: Phone$ and $MobilePhone <: Phone$

We now give the type derivation tree for the overall code:

$$\frac{\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash a = \text{new AP}(1981): \text{void} \quad \Gamma_1 \vdash b = \text{new MP}: \text{void} \quad \Gamma_1 \vdash a.\text{call}(b.\text{getNumber}): \text{void}}{\Gamma_1 = \Gamma \oplus \{(a, P), (b, MP)\} \vdash (a = \text{new AP}(1981); b = \text{new MP}; a.\text{call}(b.\text{getNumber}): \text{void})}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{val } a: P; \text{val } b: MP; a = \text{new AP}(1981); b = \text{new MP}; a.\text{call}(b.\text{getNumber}): \text{void}}$$

and develop the subparts separately:

$$\frac{(a, P) \in \Gamma_1 \quad \frac{\frac{(AP, Int \rightarrow AP) \in \Gamma_1 \quad \Gamma_1 \vdash 1981: Int}{\Gamma_1 \vdash \text{new AP}(1981): AP} \quad AP <: P}{\Gamma_1 \vdash \text{new AP}(1981): P}}{\Gamma_1 \vdash a = \text{new AP}(1981): \text{void}}$$

$$\frac{(b, MP) \in \Gamma_1 \quad \frac{(MP, void \rightarrow MP) \in \Gamma_1}{\Gamma_1 \vdash \text{new MP}: MP}}{\Gamma_1 \vdash b = \text{new MP}: \text{void}}$$

$$\frac{(a, P) \in \Gamma_1 \quad \frac{\frac{(b, MP) \in \Gamma_1}{\Gamma_1 \vdash b: MP} \quad MP <: P}{\Gamma_1 \vdash b: Phone} \quad \frac{(getNumber, void \rightarrow Int) \in \Gamma_P}{\Gamma_1 \vdash b.\text{getNumber}: Int}}{\Gamma_1 \vdash a: P} \quad (call, Int \rightarrow void) \in \Gamma_P}{\Gamma_1 \vdash a.\text{call}(b.\text{getNumber}): \text{void}}$$

b) [8 pts]

We will denote T^* to be either T^- or T^+ (but not both in the same type rule). We will use the type variables R, S, T .

For any constructor of a class T , $(T, void \rightarrow T^-) \in \Gamma$.

$$1 : \frac{(T, void \rightarrow T^-) \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \text{new } T : T^-} \quad 2 : \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{null} : T^+} \text{ (for any } T)$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
3: \frac{(x, R^-) \in \Gamma \quad (p, S^+) \in \Gamma \quad (fnc, S^+ \rightarrow T^+) \in \Gamma_R}{\Gamma \vdash x.fnc(p) : T^+} \\
4: \frac{\Gamma \oplus (x, T^*) \quad \Gamma \vdash e : T^*}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{val } x: T = e): \text{void}} \quad 5: \frac{(x, T^*) \in \Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash e : T^*}{\Gamma \vdash (x = e): \text{void}}
\end{array}$$

c) [7 pts]

In order to prevent dereferencing a null value, we have to enforce the following condition: each variable only holds the values that its type permits it to hold. In particular, we have to make sure that whenever we have a variable of type T^- , null cannot be assigned to it.

For the below argument, we assume that the code type checks according to our type rules.

Objects or `null` values are the most basic elements in our language. By the rules 1 and 2 we see that we enforce correct types: newly created objects have type T^- and `null` will always get a type T^+ .

From this, we can create more complex expressions by using method calls (rule 3). The return type of a method is always T^+ , so that we cannot assign a `null` value a non-nullable type.

Thus, we have shown that the type rules for expressions are sound.

Finally, these expressions can be assigned to a variable. If the variable is declared at the same time (rule 4), it gets the same null-annotated type as the expression, hence we will not store a `null` value in a non-nullable type by the correctness of typing of our expressions.

If we have an assignment without declaration (rule 5), the variable must have the same null-annotated type as the expression, so by the same reasoning no `null` value can be stored in a non-nullable type.

Note that our rules allow assigning $e : T^-$ to $x : T^+$ by subtyping, but not the other way around.

Hence, we have shown for all statements in our language that if they type check according to our rules, a variable with type T^- will never store a `null` value. Then, given our type rule for method calls (rule 3), this prevents null-dereferencing a null value as method calls are only allowed on non-nullable variables.

Problem 5: Code generation (15 points)

a) [5 pts]

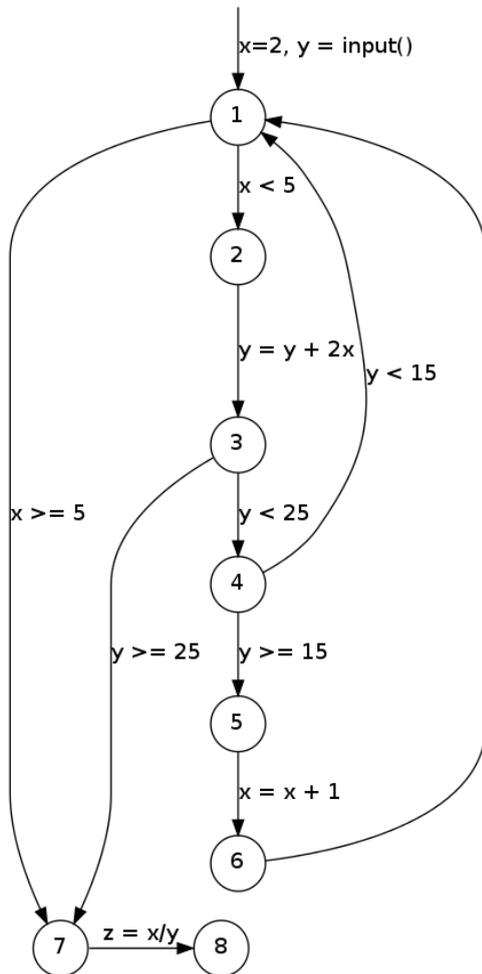
```
nStart:    [[do { body } until (c)] =  
           [[ body ]  
           [c]  
           if_eq nStart  
nAfter:
```

b) [10 pts]

```
nStart:    [[ initializations ]  
           [[ swapped ]  
           if_eq nAfter  
           [[ swapped = false; j += 1; var i = 0; ]]  
fStart:    [[ i < arr.length - j ]  
           if_eq fAfter  
           [[ arr(i) > arr(i+1) ]]  
           if_eq iAfter  
           [[ swap(...); swapped = true; ]]  
iAfter:    [[ i = i + 1; ]  
           goto fStart  
fAfter:    goto nStart  
nAfter:
```

Problem 6: Data flow analysis (20 points)

a) [5 pts]



b) [13 pts]

Running interval analysis until convergence leads to the following ranges at each CFG node:

node in CFG	x	y	z
1	[2, 5]	[-5, 24]	\perp
2	[2, 4]	[-5, 24]	\perp
3	[2, 4]	[-1, 32]	\perp
4	[2, 4]	[-1, 24]	\perp
5	[2, 4]	[15, 24]	\perp
6	[3, 5]	[15, 24]	\perp
7	[2, 5]	[-5, 32]	\perp
8	[2, 5]	[-5, 32]	T

c) [2 pts]

At line 15, according to the analysis, x can have values $[2, 5]$ and y can have values $[-5, 32]$. Thus, the analysis would conclude that a divide-by-zero is possible at line 15.