

# Names, Scope, and Bindings

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# What's In a Name?

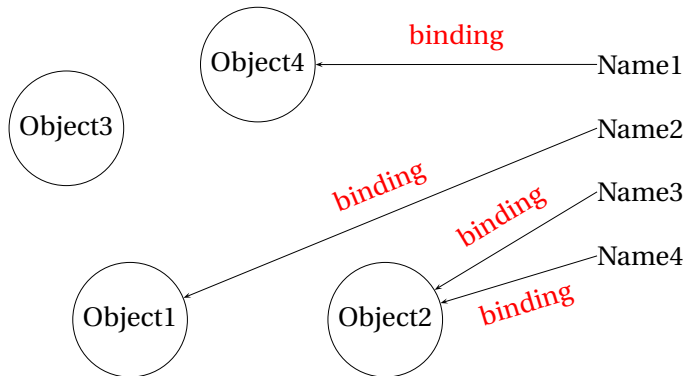
Name: way to refer to something else

variables, functions, namespaces, objects, types

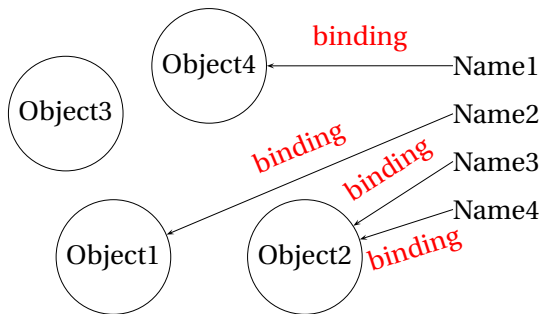
```
if ( a < 3 ) {  
    int bar = baz(a + 2);  
    int a = 10;  
}
```



# Names, Objects, and Bindings



# Names, Objects, and Bindings



When are objects created and destroyed?

When are names created and destroyed?

When are bindings created and destroyed?

# Part I

## Object Lifetimes



# Object Lifetimes

The objects considered here are regions in memory.

Three principal storage allocation mechanisms:

1. Static

Objects created when program is compiled, persists throughout run

2. Stack

Objects created/destroyed in last-in, first-out order. Usually associated with function calls.

3. Heap

Objects created/deleted in any order, possibly with automatic garbage collection.

# Static Objects

```
class Example {  
    public static final int a = 3;  
  
    public void hello() {  
        System.out.println("Hello");  
    }  
}
```

Static class variable

Code for hello method

String constant “hello”

Information about Example class.

# Static Objects

## Advantages:

- Zero-cost memory management

- Often faster access (address a constant)

- No out-of-memory danger

## Disadvantages:

- Size and number must be known beforehand

- Wasteful if sharing is possible



# Stack-Allocated Objects



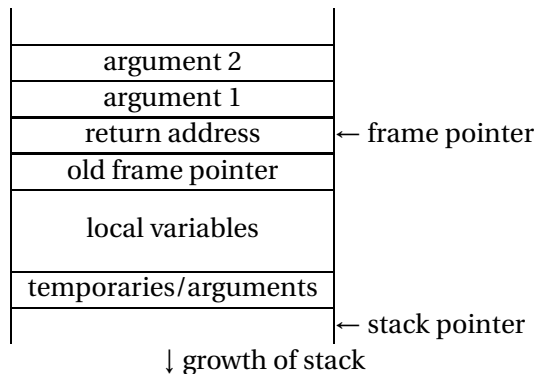
Natural for supporting recursion.

Idea: some objects persist from when a procedure is called to when it returns.

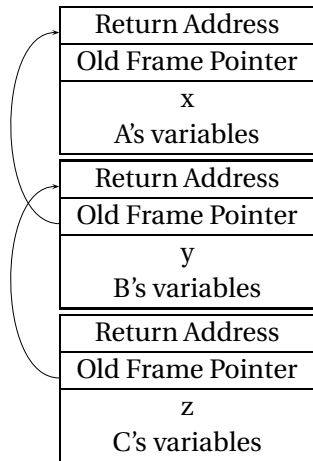
Naturally implemented with a stack: linear array of memory that grows and shrinks at only one boundary.

Each invocation of a procedure gets its own *frame* (*activation record*) where it stores its own local variables and bookkeeping information.

# Activation Records



# Activation Records



```
int A() {  
    int x;  
    B();  
}
```

```
int B() {  
    int y;  
    C();  
}
```

```
int C() {  
    int z;  
}
```

# Stack-Based Languages

The FORTH language is stack-based. Very easy to implement cheaply on small processors.

The PostScript language is also stack-based.

Programs are written in Reverse Polish Notation:

```
2 3 * 4 5 * + . ( . is print top-of-stack)  
26 OK
```

# FORTH

```
: CHANGE    0    ;
: QUARTERS 25 * + ;
: DIMES    10 * + ;
: NICKELS  5 * + ;
: PENNIES          + ;
: INTO 25 /MOD CR . ." QUARTERS"
      10 /MOD CR . ." DIMES"
      5  /MOD CR . ." NICKELS"
              CR . ." PENNIES" ;
CHANGE 3 QUARTERS 6 DIMES 10 NICKELS
112 PENNIES INTO
11 QUARTERS
2 DIMES
0 NICKELS
2 PENNIES
```

# FORTH

Definitions are stored on a stack. FORGET discards the given definition and all that came after.

```
: FOO ." Stephen" ;  
: BAR ." Nina" ;  
: FOO ." Edwards" ;  
FOO Edwards  
BAR Nina  
FORGET FOO    ( Forgets most-recent FOO)  
FOO Stephen  
BAR Nina  
FORGET FOO    ( Forgets FOO and BAR)  
FOO FOO ?  
BAR BAR ?
```

# Heap-Allocated Storage

Static works when you know everything beforehand and always need it.

Stack enables, but also requires, recursive behavior.

A *heap* is a region of memory where blocks can be allocated and deallocated in any order.

(These heaps are different than those in, e.g., heapsort)

# Dynamic Storage Allocation in C

```
struct point {
    int x, y;
};

int play_with_points(int n)
{
    int i;
    struct point *points;

    points = malloc(n * sizeof(struct point));

    for ( i = 0 ; i < n ; i++ ) {
        points[i].x = random();
        points[i].y = random();
    }

    /* do something with the array */

    free(points);
}
```



# Dynamic Storage Allocation



↓ free()



↓ malloc()



# Dynamic Storage Allocation

## Rules:

Each allocated block contiguous (no holes)

Blocks stay fixed once allocated

## `malloc()`

Find an area large enough for requested block

Mark memory as allocated

## `free()`

Mark the block as unallocated

# Simple Dynamic Storage Allocation

Maintaining information about free memory

Simplest: Linked list

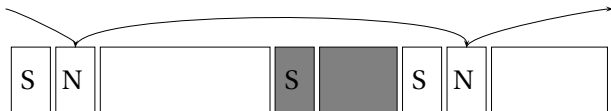
The algorithm for locating a suitable block

Simplest: First-fit

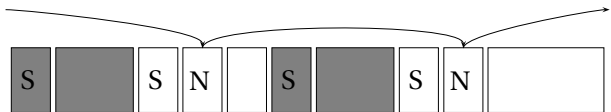
The algorithm for freeing an allocated block

Simplest: Coalesce adjacent free blocks

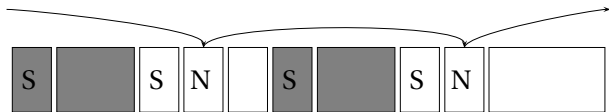
# Dynamic Storage Allocation



↓ malloc(  )



# Simple Dynamic Storage Allocation



↓ free()



# Dynamic Storage Allocation

Many, many other approaches.

Other “fit” algorithms

Segregation of objects by size

More clever data structures

# Heap Variants

Memory pools: Differently-managed heap areas

Stack-based pool: only free whole pool at once


- Nice for build-once data structures

Single-size-object pool:

- Fit, allocation, etc. much faster

- Good for object-oriented programs

# Fragmentation

malloc(  ) seven times give



free() four times gives



malloc(  ) ?

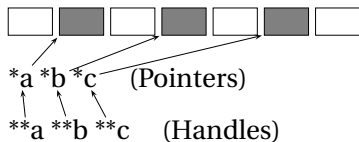
Need more memory; can't use fragmented memory.



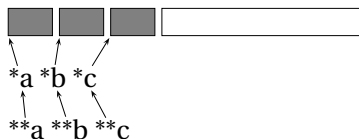
# Fragmentation and Handles

Standard CS solution: Add another layer of indirection.

Always reference memory through “handles.”



↓ compact



The original Macintosh did this to save memory.

# Automatic Garbage Collection

Remove the need for explicit deallocation.

System periodically identifies reachable memory and frees unreachable memory.

Reference counting one approach.

Mark-and-sweep another: cures fragmentation.

Used in Java, O'Caml, other functional languages, etc.



# Automatic Garbage Collection

Challenges:

How do you identify all reachable memory?

(Start from program variables, walk all data structures.)

Circular structures defy reference counting:



Neither is reachable, yet both have non-zero reference counts.

Garbage collectors often conservative: don't try to collect everything, just that which is definitely garbage.



# Scope

The scope of a name is the textual region in the program in which the binding is active.

Static scoping: active names only a function of program text.

Dynamic scoping: active names a function of run-time behavior.

## Scope: Why Bother?

Scope is not necessary. Languages such as assembly have exactly one scope: the whole program.

Reason: Information hiding and modularity.

Goal of any language is to make the programmer's job simpler.






One way: keep things isolated.

Make each thing only affect a limited area.

Make it hard to break something far away.

## Basic Static Scope

Usually, a name begins life where it is declared and ends at the end of its block.

```
void foo()  
{  
  
    int k;   
  
  
  
  
}
```

## Hiding a Definition

Nested scopes can hide earlier definitions, giving a hole.

```
void foo()  
{  
    int x; [REDACTED]  
    [REDACTED]  
    while ( a < 10 ) {  
        int x;  
  
        [REDACTED]  
    }  
    [REDACTED]  
    [REDACTED]  
}
```



# Static Scoping in Java

```
public void example() {  
    // x, y, z not visible  
  
    int x;  
    // x visible  
  
    for ( int y = 1 ; y < 10 ; y++ ) {  
        // x, y visible  
  
        int z;  
        // x, y, z visible  
    }  
  
    // x visible  
}
```

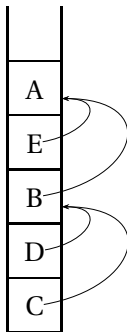
# Nested Subroutines in Pascal

```
procedure mergesort;  
var N : integer;  
  
    procedure split;  
    var I : integer;  
    begin  
        ...  
    end  
  
    procedure merge;  
    var J : integer;  
    begin  
        ...  
    end  
  
begin  
    ...  
end
```



# Nested Subroutines in Pascal

```
procedure A;  
  procedure B;  
    procedure C;  
    begin  
      ...  
    end  
  
  procedure D;  
  begin  
    C  
  end  
  
begin  
  D  
end  
  
procedure E;  
begin  
  B  
end  
  
begin  
  E  
end
```



## Scope in O'Caml

The `let` construct defines scopes:

```
let x = 8 in [redacted]  
[redacted]  
[redacted]  
[redacted];;
```

`let rec` extends the scope of the name into its definition, which is useful for recursive functions:

```
let rec fib i = [redacted]  
  if i < 1 then 1 else  
    fib (i - 1) + fib (i - 2)  
in [redacted]  
  fib 5;;
```

## Scope in O'Caml

Scopes can nest to produce holes

```
let x = 8 in  
  (let x = x + 2 in  
    x + 2),  
x
```

This returns the pair (12, 8).

## Scope in O'Caml

Mutual recursion requires the use of the `and` keyword:

```
let rec fac n =  
    if n < 2 then  
        1  
    else  
        n * fac1 n  
and fac1 n = fac (n - 1)  
in  
fac 5;;
```

# Nested Functions in O'Caml

Static (lexical) scope like Pascal

```
let a = 3 in  
let f1 x = a + x in  
let a = 4 in  
let f2 x = f1 x in  
f2 3
```

# Dynamic Definitions in TeX

```
% \x, \y undefined
{
  % \x, \y undefined
  \def \x 1
  % \x defined, \y undefined

  \ifnum \a < 5
    \def \y 2
  \fi

  % \x defined, \y may be undefined
}
% \x, \y undefined
```



# Static vs. Dynamic Scope

```
program example;  
var a : integer; (* Outer a *)  
  
  procedure seta;  
  begin  
    a := 1  (* Which a does this change? *)  
  end  
  
  procedure locala;  
  var a : integer; (* Inner a *)  
  begin  
    seta  
  end  
  
begin  
  a := 2;  
  if (readln() = 'b')  
    locala  
  else  
    seta;  
  writeln(a)  
end
```

# Static vs. Dynamic Scope

Most languages now use static scoping.

Easier to understand, harder to break programs.

Advantage of dynamic scoping: ability to change environment.

A way to surreptitiously pass additional parameters.

# Application of Dynamic Scoping

```
program messages;  
var message : string;  
  
  procedure complain;  
  begin  
    writeln(message);  
  end  
  
  procedure problem1;  
  var message : string;  
  begin  
    message := 'Out of memory';  
    complain  
  end  
  
  procedure problem2;  
  var message : string;  
  begin  
    message := 'Out of time';  
    complain  
  end
```

# Forward Declarations

Languages such as C, C++, and Pascal require *forward declarations* for mutually-recursive references.

```
int foo(void);  
int bar() { ... foo(); ... }  
int foo() { ... bar(); ... }
```

Partial side-effect of compiler implementations. Allows single-pass compilation.

# Open vs. Closed Scopes

An *open scope* begins life including the symbols in its outer scope.

Example: blocks in Java

```
{  
  int x;  
  for (;;) {  
    /* x visible here */  
  }  
}
```

A *closed scope* begins life devoid of symbols.

Example: structures in C.

```
struct foo {  
  int x;  
  float y;  
}
```

## Part III

# Overloading

What if there is more than one object for a name?



# Overloading versus Aliases

Overloading: two objects, one name

Alias: one object, two names

In C++,

```
int foo(int x) { ... }  
int foo(float x) { ... } // foo overloaded  
  
void bar()  
{  
    int x, *y;  
    y = &x; // Two names for x: x and *y  
}
```

# Examples of Overloading

Most languages overload arithmetic operators:

```
1 + 2          // Integer operation  
3.1415 + 3e-4 // Floating-point operation
```

Resolved by checking the *type* of the operands.

Context must provide enough hints to resolve the ambiguity.



# Function Name Overloading

C++ and Java allow functions/methods to be overloaded.

```
int   foo();  
int   foo(int a); // OK: different # of args  
float foo(); // Error: only return type  
int   foo(float a); // OK: different arg types
```

Useful when doing the same thing many different ways:

```
int   add(int a, int b);  
float add(float a, float b);  
  
void print(int a);  
void print(float a);  
void print(char *s);
```

# Function Overloading in C++

Complex rules because of *promotions*:

```
int i;  
long int l;  
l + i
```

Integer promoted to long integer to do addition.

3.14159 + 2

Integer is promoted to double; addition is done as double.

# Function Overloading in C++

1. Match trying trivial conversions  
`int a[]` to `int *a`, `T` to `const T`, etc.
2. Match trying promotions  
`bool` to `int`, `float` to `double`, etc.
3. Match using standard conversions  
`int` to `double`, `double` to `int`
4. Match using user-defined conversions  
`operator int() const { return v; }`
5. Match using the elipsis . . .

Two matches at the same (lowest) level is ambiguous.

## Part IV

# Symbol Tables

How does a compiler implement scope rules?

# Symbol Tables

Basic mechanism for relating symbols to their definitions in a compiler.

Eventually need to know many things about a symbol:

- ▶ Whether it is defined in the current scope. “Undefined symbol”
- ▶ Whether its defined type matches its use. `1 + "hello"`
- ▶ Where its object is stored (statically allocated, on stack).

# Symbol Tables

Implemented as a collection of dictionaries in which each symbol is placed.

Two operations: insert adds a binding to a table and lookup locates the binding for a name.

Symbol tables are created and filled, but never destroyed.

# Symbol Tables

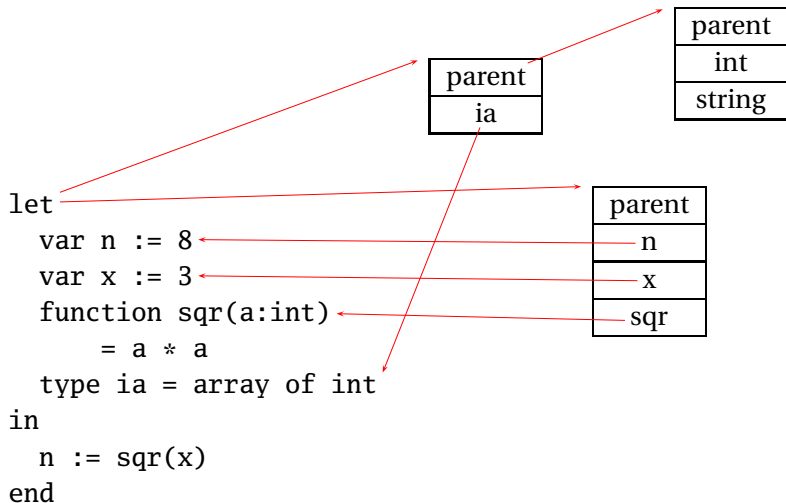
There are three namespaces in the Tiger functional language:

- ▶ functions and variables
- ▶ types
- ▶ record names

How many namespaces are there in Java?

How many namespaces are there in your language?

## Symbol Tables in Tiger





# Implementing Symbol Tables

Many different ways:

- ▶ linked-list
- ▶ hash table
- ▶ binary tree

Hash tables are faster, but linked lists are good enough for simple compilers.

# Symbol Table Lookup

Basic operation is to find the entry for a given symbol.

In many implementation, each symbol table is a scope.

Each symbol table has a pointer to its parent scope.

Lookup: if symbol in current table, return it, otherwise look in parent.

# Static Semantic Checking

Main application of symbol tables.

A taste of things to come:

Enter each declaration into its symbol table.

Check that each symbol used is actually defined in the symbol table.

Check its type... (next time)

## Part V

### Binding Time

When are bindings created and destroyed?

# Binding Time

When a name is connected to an object.

## **Bound when**

language designed

language implemented

Program written

compiled

linked

loaded

run

## **Examples**

if else

data widths

foo bar

static addresses, code

relative addresses

shared objects

heap-allocated objects

# Binding Time and Efficiency

Earlier binding time  $\Rightarrow$  more efficiency, less flexibility

Compiled code more efficient than interpreted because most decisions about what to execute made beforehand.

```
switch (statement) {
```

```
case add:
```

```
    r = a + b;  
    break;
```

```
case sub:
```

```
    r = a - b;  
    break;
```

```
    /* ... */
```

```
}
```

```
add %o1, %o2, %o3
```

# Binding Time and Efficiency

Dynamic method dispatch in OO languages:

```
class Box : Shape {  
    public void draw() { ... }  
}
```

```
class Circle : Shape {  
    public void draw() { ... }  
}
```

```
Shape s;  
s.draw(); /* Bound at run time */
```

# Binding Time and Efficiency

Interpreters better if language has the ability to create new programs on-the-fly.

Example: Ousterhout's Tcl language.

Scripting language originally interpreted, later byte-compiled.

Everything's a string.

```
set a 1  
set b 2  
puts "$a + $b = [expr $a + $b]"
```



## Binding Time and Efficiency

Tcl's `eval` runs its argument as a command.

Can be used to build new control structures.

```
proc ifforall {list pred ifstmt} {  
  foreach i $list {  
    if [expr $pred] { eval $ifstmt }  
  }  
}
```

```
ifforall {0 1 2} {$i % 2 == 0} {  
  puts "$i even"  
}
```

```
0 even  
2 even
```

## Part VI

# Binding Reference Environments

What happens when you take a snapshot of a subroutine?

## References to Subroutines

In many languages, you can create a reference to a subroutine and call it later. E.g., in C,

```
int foo(int x, int y) { /* ... */ }
```

```
void bar()  
{  
    int (*f)(int, int) = foo;  
  
    (*f)(2, 3); /* invoke foo */  
}
```

Where does its environment come from?

## References to Subroutines

C is simple: no function nesting; only environment is the omnipresent global one. But what if there were?

```
typedef int (*ifunc)();

ifunc foo() {
    int a = 1;

    int bar() { return a; } /* this is not C */

    return bar;
}

int main() {
    ifunc f = foo(); /* returns bar */
    return (*f)(); /* call bar. a? */
}
```