

Names, Scope, and Types

Stephen A. Edwards

Columbia University

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Scope

Types

Types in C

Types of Type Systems

Overloading

Binding Time

Static Semantic Analysis

What's Wrong With This?

$$a + f(b, c)$$

What's Wrong With This?

$a + f(b, c)$

Is a defined?

Is f defined?

Are b and c defined?

Is f a function of two arguments?

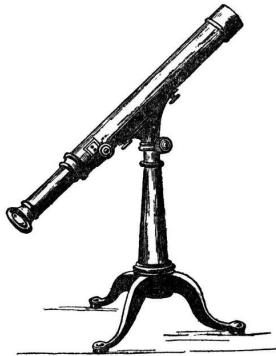
Can you add whatever a is to whatever f returns?

Does f accept whatever b and c are?

Scope questions Type questions

Scope

What names are visible?



Names

Bindings

Objects

Name1

Obj 1

Name2

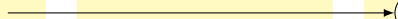
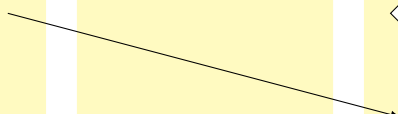
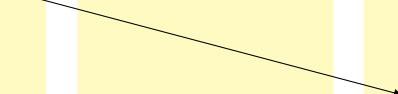
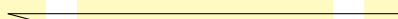
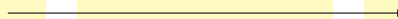
Obj 2

Name3

Obj 3

Name4

Obj 4



Scope

Scope: where/when a name is bound to an object

Useful for modularity: want to keep most things hidden

Scoping Policy	Visible Names Depend On
Static	Textual structure of program
Dynamic	Run-time behavior of program

Basic Static Scope in C, C++, Java, etc.

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

From the CLRM, “The scope of an identifier declared at the head of a block begins at the end of its declarator, and persists to the end of the block.”

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


Hiding a Definition

Nested scopes can hide earlier definitions, giving a hole.

From the CLRM, "If an identifier is explicitly declared at the head of a block, including the block constituting a function, any declaration of the identifier outside the block is suspended until the end of the block."

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

Static vs. Dynamic Scope

C

```
int a = 0;

int foo() {
    return a + 1;
}

int bar() {
    int a = 10;

    return foo();
}
```

OCaml

```
let a = 0 in
let foo x = a + 1 in
let bar =
    let a = 10 in
    foo 0
```

Bash

```
a=0

foo ()
{
    a='expr $a + 1'
}

bar ()
{
    local a=10
    foo
    echo $a
}

bar
```

Basic Static Scope in O'Caml

A name is bound after the "in" clause of a "let." If the name is re-bound, the binding takes effect *after* the "in."

```
let x = 8 in  
  
let x = x + 1 in
```

Returns the pair (12, 8):

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

Let Rec in O'Caml

The “rec” keyword makes a name visible to its definition. This only makes sense for functions.

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

```
(* Nonsensical *)  
let rec x = x + 3 in
```

Let...and in O'Caml

Let...and lets you bind multiple names at once. Definitions are not mutually visible unless marked "rec."

```
let x = 8
and y = 9 in
```

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

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.

Nesting Function Definitions

```
let articles words =  
  let report w =  
    let count = List.length  
      (List.filter ((=) w) words)  
    in w ^ ": " ^  
      string_of_int count  
  in String.concat ", "  
    (List.map report ["a"; "the"])  
in articles  
  ["the"; "plt"; "class"; "is";  
   "a"; "pain"; "in";  
   "the"; "butt"]
```

```
let count words w = List.length  
  (List.filter ((=) w) words) in  
let report words w = w ^ ": " ^  
  string_of_int (count words w) in  
let articles words =  
  String.concat ", "  
  (List.map (report words)  
   ["a"; "the"]) in  
articles  
  ["the"; "plt"; "class"; "is";  
   "a"; "pain"; "in";  
   "the"; "butt"]
```

Produces "a: 1, the: 2"

Dynamic Definitions in T_EX

```
% \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

Most modern languages 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
```

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;  
}
```

Types

What operations are allowed?



Types

A restriction on the possible interpretations of a segment of memory or other program construct.

Two uses:



Safety: avoids data being treated as something it isn't



Optimization: eliminates certain runtime decisions

Types in C

What types are processors best at?



Basic C Types

C was designed for efficiency: basic types are whatever is most efficient for the target processor.

On an (32-bit) ARM processor,

```
char c;           /* 8-bit binary */  
  
short d;         /* 16-bit two's-complement binary */  
unsigned short d; /* 16-bit binary */  
  
int a;          /* 32-bit two's-complement binary */  
unsigned int b; /* 32-bit binary */  
  
float f;        /* 32-bit IEEE 754 floating-point */  
double g;      /* 64-bit IEEE 754 floating-point */
```

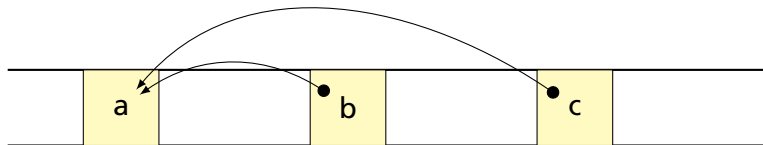
Pointers and Arrays

A pointer contains a memory address.

Arrays in C are implemented with arithmetic on pointers.

A pointer can create an *alias* to a variable:

```
int a;  
int *b = &a; /* "pointer to integer b is the address of a" */  
int *c = &a; /* c also points to a */  
  
*b = 5;      /* sets a to 5 */  
*c = 42;     /* sets a to 42 */  
  
printf("%d %d %d\n", a, *b, *c); /* prints 42 42 42 */
```



Pointers Enable Pass-by-Reference

```
void swap(int x, int y)
{
    int temp;
    temp = x;
    x = y;
    y = temp;
}
```

Does this work?

Pointers Enable Pass-by-Reference

```
void swap(int x, int y)
{
    int temp;
    temp = x;
    x = y;
    y = temp;
}
```

Does this work?

Nope.

```
void swap(int *px, int *py)
{
    int temp;

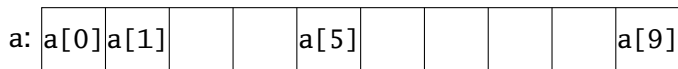
    temp = *px; /* get data at px */
    *px = *py; /* get data at py */
    *py = temp; /* write data at py */
}

void main()
{
    int a = 1, b = 2;

    /* Pass addresses of a and b */
    swap(&a, &b);

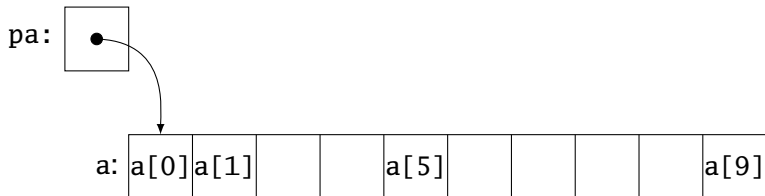
    /* a = 2 and b = 1 */
}
```

Arrays and Pointers



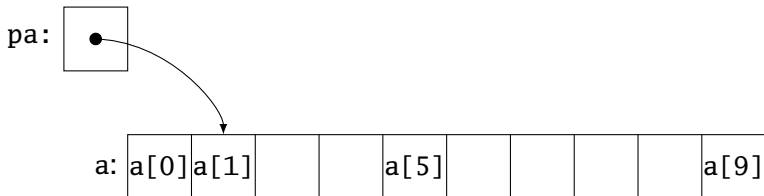
```
int a[10];
```

Arrays and Pointers



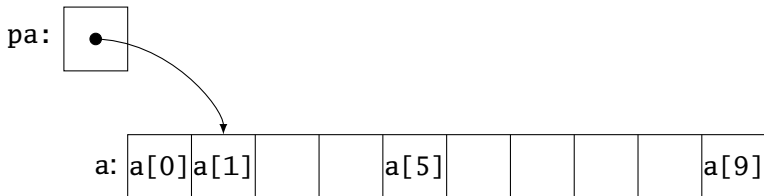
```
int a[10];  
int *pa = &a[0];
```

Arrays and Pointers



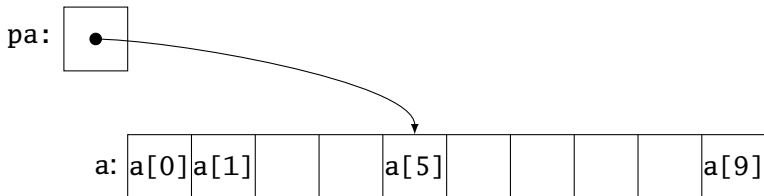
```
int a[10];  
int *pa = &a[0];  
pa = pa + 1;
```

Arrays and Pointers



```
int a[10];  
int *pa = &a[0];  
pa = pa + 1;  
pa = &a[1];
```

Arrays and Pointers



```
int a[10];  
int *pa = &a[0];  
pa = pa + 1;  
pa = &a[1];  
pa = a + 5;
```

`a[i]` is equivalent to `*(a + i)`

Multi-Dimensional Arrays

```
int monthdays[2][12] = {  
    { 31, 28, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31 },  
    { 31, 29, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31 } };
```

`monthdays[i][j]` is at address `monthdays + 12 * i + j`

Structures

Structures: each field has own storage

```
struct box {  
    int x, y, h, w;  
    char *name;  
};
```

Unions: fields share same memory

```
union token {  
    int i;  
    double d;  
    char *s;  
};
```



Structs

Structs can be used like the objects of C++, Java, et al.

Group and restrict what can be stored in an object, but not what operations they permit.

```
struct poly { ... };  
  
struct poly *poly_create();  
void      poly_destroy(struct poly *p);  
void      poly_draw(struct poly *p);  
void      poly_move(struct poly *p, int x, int y);  
int      poly_area(struct poly *p);
```

Unions: Variant Records

A struct holds all of its fields at once. A union holds only one of its fields at any time (the last written).

```
union token {
    int i;
    float f;
    char *string;
};

union token t;
t.i = 10;
t.f = 3.14159;    /* overwrite t.i */
char *s = t.string; /* return gibberish */
```

Kind of like a bathroom on an airplane

Applications of Variant Records

A primitive form of polymorphism:

```
struct poly {
    int type;
    int x, y;
    union { int radius;
           int size;
           float angle; } d;
};

void draw(struct poly *shape)
{
    switch (shape->type) {
        case CIRCLE: /* use shape->d.radius */

        case SQUARE: /* use shape->d.size */

        case LINE: /* use shape->d.angle */

    }
}
```

Name vs. Structural Equivalence

```
struct f {  
    int x, y;  
} foo = { 0, 1 };  
  
struct b {  
    int x, y;  
} bar;  
  
bar = foo;
```

Is this legal in C? Should it be?

C's Declarations and Declarators

Declaration: list of specifiers followed by a comma-separated list of declarators.

basic type
`static unsigned int (*f[10])(int, char*);`
specifiers declarator

Declarator's notation matches that of an expression: use it to return the basic type.

Largely regarded as the worst syntactic aspect of C: both pre- (pointers) and post-fix operators (arrays, functions).

Types of Type Systems

What kinds of type systems do languages have?



Strongly-typed Languages

Strongly-typed: no run-time type clashes (detected or not).

C is definitely not strongly-typed:

```
float g;  
  
union { float f; int i } u;  
  
u.i = 3;  
  
g = u.f + 3.14159; /* u.f is meaningless */
```

Is Java strongly-typed?

Statically-Typed Languages

Statically-typed: compiler can determine types.

Dynamically-typed: types determined at run time.

Is Java statically-typed?

```
class Foo {  
    public void x() { ... }  
}  
  
class Bar extends Foo {  
    public void x() { ... }  
}  
  
void baz(Foo f) {  
    f.x();  
}
```

Polymorphism

Say you write a sort routine:

```
void sort(int a[], int n)
{
    int i, j;
    for ( i = 0 ; i < n-1 ; i++ )
        for ( j = i + 1 ; j < n ; j++ )
            if (a[j] < a[i]) {
                int tmp = a[i];
                a[i] = a[j];
                a[j] = tmp;
            }
}
```



Polymorphism

To sort doubles, only need to change two types:

```
void sort(double a[], int n)
{
    int i, j;
    for ( i = 0 ; i < n-1 ; i++ )
        for ( j = i + 1 ; j < n ; j++ )
            if ( a[j] < a[i] ) {
                double tmp = a[i];
                a[i] = a[j];
                a[j] = tmp;
            }
}
```



C++ Templates

```
template <class T> void sort(T a[], int n)
{
    int i, j;
    for ( i = 0 ; i < n-1 ; i++ )
        for ( j = i + 1 ; j < n ; j++ )
            if ( a[j] < a[i] ) {
                T tmp = a[i];
                a[i] = a[j];
                a[j] = tmp;
            }
}

int a[10];

sort<int>(a, 10);
```

C++ Templates

C++ templates are essentially language-aware macros. Each instance generates a different refinement of the same code.

```
sort<int>(a, 10);
```

```
sort<double>(b, 30);
```

```
sort<char *>(c, 20);
```

Fast code, but lots of it.

Faking Polymorphism with Objects

```
class Sortable {
    bool lessthan(Sortable s) = 0;
}

void sort(Sortable a[], int n) {
    int i, j;
    for ( i = 0 ; i < n-1 ; i++ )
        for ( j = i + 1 ; j < n ; j++ )
            if ( a[j].lessthan(a[i]) ) {
                Sortable tmp = a[i];
                a[i] = a[j];
                a[j] = tmp;
            }
}
```

Faking Polymorphism with Objects

This sort works with any array of objects derived from Sortable.

Same code is used for every type of object.

Types resolved at run-time (dynamic method dispatch).

Does not run as quickly as the C++ template version.

Parametric Polymorphism

In C++,

```
template <typename T>
T max(T x, T y)
{
    return x > y ? x : y;
}

struct foo {int a;} f1, f2, f3;

int main()
{
    int a = max<int>(3, 4); /* OK */
    f3 = max<struct foo>(f1, f2); /* No match for operator */
}
```

The `max` function only operates with types for which the `>` operator is defined.

Parametric Polymorphism

In OCaml,

```
let max x y = if x - y > 0 then x else y  
max : int -> int -> int
```

Only `int` arguments are allowed because in OCaml, `-` only operates on integers.

However,

```
let rec map f = function [] -> [] | x::xs -> f x :: map f xs  
map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list
```

Here, `'a` and `'b` may each be *any type*.

OCaml uses parametric polymorphism: type variables may be of any type.

C++'s template-based polymorphism is ad hoc: there are implicit constraints on type parameters.

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.

Binding Time

When are bindings created and destroyed?



Binding Time

When a name is connected to an object.

Bound when	Examples
language designed	if else
language implemented	data widths
Program written	foo bar
compiled	static addresses, code
linked	relative addresses
loaded	shared objects
run	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 }  
  }  
}
```

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

0 *even*

2 *even*

Static Semantic Analysis

How do we validate names, scope, and types?



Static Semantic Analysis

Lexical analysis: Each token is valid?

```
if i 3 "This"           /* valid Java tokens */  
#a1123                 /* not a token */
```

Syntactic analysis: Tokens appear in the correct order?

```
for ( i = 1 ; i < 5 ; i++ ) 3 + "foo"; /* valid Java syntax */  
for break                          /* invalid syntax */
```

Semantic analysis: Names used correctly? Types consistent?

```
int v = 42 + 13;          /* valid in Java (if v is new) */  
return f + f(3);        /* invalid */
```

What To Check

Examples from Java:

Verify names are defined and are of the right type.

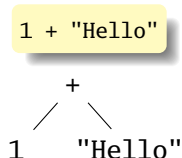
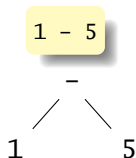
```
int i = 5;  
int a = z;      /* Error: cannot find symbol */  
int b = i[3];  /* Error: array required, but int found */
```

Verify the type of each expression is consistent.

```
int j = i + 53;  
int k = 3 + "hello"; /* Error: incompatible types */  
int l = k(42);      /* Error: k is not a method */  
if ("Hello") return 5; /* Error: incompatible types */  
String s = "Hello";  
int m = s;          /* Error: incompatible types */
```


How To Check Expressions: Depth-first AST Walk

Checking function: environment \rightarrow node \rightarrow type



check(-)

check(1) = int

check(5) = int

Success: int - int = int

check(+)

check(1) = int

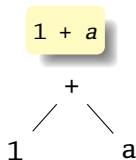
check("Hello") = string

FAIL: Can't add int and string

Ask yourself: at each kind of node, what must be true about the nodes below it? What is the type of the node?

How To Check: Symbols

Checking function: environment \rightarrow node \rightarrow type



check(+)

check(1) = int

check(a) = int

Success: int + int = int

The key operation: determining the type of a symbol when it is encountered.

The environment provides a "symbol table" that holds information about each in-scope symbol.

A Static Semantic Checking Function

A big function: "check: ast \rightarrow sast"

Converts a raw AST to a "semantically checked AST"

Names and types resolved

AST:

```
type expression =  
  IntConst of int  
  | Id of string  
  | Call of string * expression list  
  | ...
```



SAST:

```
type expr_detail =  
  IntConst of int  
  | Id of variable_decl  
  | Call of function_decl * expression list  
  | ...  
  
type expression = expr_detail * Type.t
```

The Type of Types

Need an OCaml type to represent the type of something in your language.

An example for a language with integer, structures, arrays, and exceptions:

```
type t = (* can't call it "type" since that's reserved *)  
  Void  
  | Int  
  | Struct of string * ((string * t) array) (* name, fields *)  
  | Array of t * int (* type, size *)  
  | Exception of string
```

Translation Environments

Whether an expression/statement/function is correct depends on its context. Represent this as an object with named fields since you will invariably have to extend it.

An environment type for a C-like language:

```
type translation_environment = {  
  scope : symbol_table; (* symbol table for vars *)  
  
  return_type : Types.t; (* Function's return type *)  
  in_switch : bool; (* if we are in a switch stmt *)  
  case_labels : Big_int.big_int list ref; (* known case labels *)  
  break_label : label option; (* when break makes sense *)  
  continue_label : label option; (* when continue makes sense *)  
  exception_scope : exception_scope; (* sym tab for exceptions *)  
  labels : label list ref; (* labels on statements *)  
  forward_gotos : label list ref; (* forward goto destinations *)  
}
```

A Symbol Table

Basic operation is string \rightarrow type. Map or hash could do this, but a list is fine.

```
type symbol_table = {  
  parent : symbol_table option;  
  variables : variable_decl list  
}  
  
let rec find_variable (scope : symbol_table) name =  
  try  
    List.find (fun (s, _, _, _) -> s = name) scope.variables  
with Not_found ->  
  match scope.parent with  
    Some(parent) -> find_variable parent name  
  | _ -> raise Not_found
```

Checking Expressions: Literals and Identifiers

```
(* Information about where we are *)
type translation_environment = {
  scope : symbol_table;
}

let rec expr env = function

  (* An integer constant: convert and return Int type *)
  Ast.IntConst(v) -> Sast.IntConst(v), Types.Int

  (* An identifier: verify it is in scope and return its type *)
| Ast.Id(vname) ->
  let vdecl = try
    find_variable env.scope vname (* locate a variable by name *)
  with Not_found ->
    raise (Error("undeclared identifier " ^ vname))
  in
  let (_, typ) = vdecl in (* get the variable's type *)
  Sast.Id(vdecl), typ

| ...
```

Checking Expressions: Binary Operators

```
(* let rec expr env = function *)

| A.BinOp(e1, op, e2) ->
  let e1 = expr env e1      (* Check left and right children *)
  and e2 = expr env e2 in

  let _, t1 = e1            (* Get the type of each child *)
  and _, t2 = e2 in

  if op <> Ast.Equal && op <> Ast.NotEqual then
    (* Most operators require both left and right to be integer *)
    (require_integer e1 "Left operand must be integer";
     require_integer e2 "Right operand must be integer")
  else
    if not (weak_eq_type t1 t2) then
      (* Equality operators just require types to be "close" *)
      error ("Type mismatch in comparison: left is " ^
             Printer.string_of_sast_type t1 ^ "\" right is \"" ^
             Printer.string_of_sast_type t2 ^ "\"")
    ) loc;

  Sast.BinOp(e1, op, e2), Types.Int  (* Success: result is int *)
```


Checking Statements: Expressions, If

```
let rec stmt env = function
```

```
  (* Expression statement: just check the expression *)
```

```
  Ast.Expression(e) -> Sast.Expression(expr env e)
```

```
  (* If statement: verify the predicate is integer *)
```

```
| Ast.If(e, s1, s2) ->
```

```
  let e = check_expr env e in (* Check the predicate *)
```

```
  require_integer e "Predicate of if must be integer";
```

```
  Sast.If(e, stmt env s1, stmt env s2) (* Check then, else *)
```

Checking Statements: Declarations

```
(* let rec stmt env = function *)  
  
| A.Local(vdecl) ->  
  let decl, (init, _) = check_local vdecl (* already declared? *)  
  in  
  
  (* side-effect: add variable to the environment *)  
  env.scope.S.variables <- decl :: env.scope.S.variables;  
  
  init (* initialization statements, if any *)
```

Checking Statements: Blocks

```
(* let rec stmt env = function *)
```

```
| A.Block(sl) ->
```

```
(* New scopes: parent is the existing scope, start out empty *)
```

```
let scope' = { S.parent = Some(env.scope); S.variables = [] }  
and exceptions' =  
  { excep_parent = Some(env.exception_scope); exceptions = [] }  
in
```

```
(* New environment: same, but with new symbol tables *)
```

```
let env' = { env with scope = scope';  
            exception_scope = exceptions' } in
```

```
(* Check all the statements in the block *)
```

```
let sl = List.map (fun s -> stmt env' s) sl in  
scope'.S.variables <-  
  List.rev scope'.S.variables; (* side-effect *)
```

```
Sast.Block(scope', sl) (* Success: return block with symbols *)
```