



# **3. VARIABLES, BINDINGS AND SCOPES**

**T: Chs. 5, 10.3**

**R2: 10.7, 10.8**



# Outline

- Introduction
- Names
- Variables
- Pointers and References
- The Concept of Binding
- Scope
- Referencing Environments
- Named Constants

# Introduction

- Imperative languages are abstractions of von Neumann architecture
  - Memory
  - Processor
  
- Identifiers: Used to name things as subprograms, variables, classes, constants, etc.
  - Defined as names that start by a letter or underscore, and followed by any sequence of zero or more letters, digits or underscores.

# Names

- Length
  - If too short, they cannot be connotative
  - Language examples:
    - C99: no limit but only the first 63 are significant; also, external names are limited to a maximum of 31
    - C# and Java: no limit, and all are significant
    - C++: no limit, but implementers often impose one
- Names in the C-based language are case sensitive. Other languages are not (e.g., Fortran, Ada, PHP).
- Special words
  - An aid to readability; used to delimit or separate statement clauses
  - A *reserved word* is a special word that cannot be used as a user-defined name.
  - A *keyword* is a word that is special only in certain contexts.

# Variables

- A variable is an abstraction of a memory cell.
- Variables can be characterized as a sextuple of attributes:
  - ☐ Name
  - ☐ Address
  - ☐ Value
  - ☐ Type
  - ☐ Lifetime
  - ☐ Scope

# Variables Attributes (continued)

- *Name: Not every variable has a name*
  - Dynamic variables do not have specified names by the programmer.
- *Address: the memory address with which it is associated*
  - If two variable names can be used to access the same memory location, they are called **aliases**.
  - Aliases are created via pointers, reference variables, and C and C++ union
  - L-value: The l-value of a variable is its address
    - use of a variable in the case where you care about it's address
    - Appears on the Left side of the assignment operator
    - Is an address that is used to store a value Ex: `x = ...`

# Variables Attributes (continued): Addresses

- Memory for a running program is divided into several regions or segments.
- The operating system may control permissions on memory.
  - The runtime system is responsible for managing memory.
- Possible Regions
  - Code
  - Data
  - Heap
  - Stack
- *Abstract memory cell* - the physical cell or collection of cells associated with a non-structured (scalar) type variable

# Memory Allocation to variables

- A variable needs enough memory to hold an instance of an object of that type (in other words, the type dictates how much memory is needed)
- `int x;`
  - declares that `x` is an integer; enough memory is allocated to hold an integer
- `Obj y;`
  - In C++ this means that `y` is an object of the class `Obj`; and enough memory is allocated to hold the `y`.
    - A constructor is called if one is provided to perform initialization of the object data members.
  - In Java this means that `y` is a reference to an object of the class `Obj`; and enough memory is allocated to hold a REFERENCE to that object.
    - By definition Java initializes the reference to null.
    - The reference is not the object!

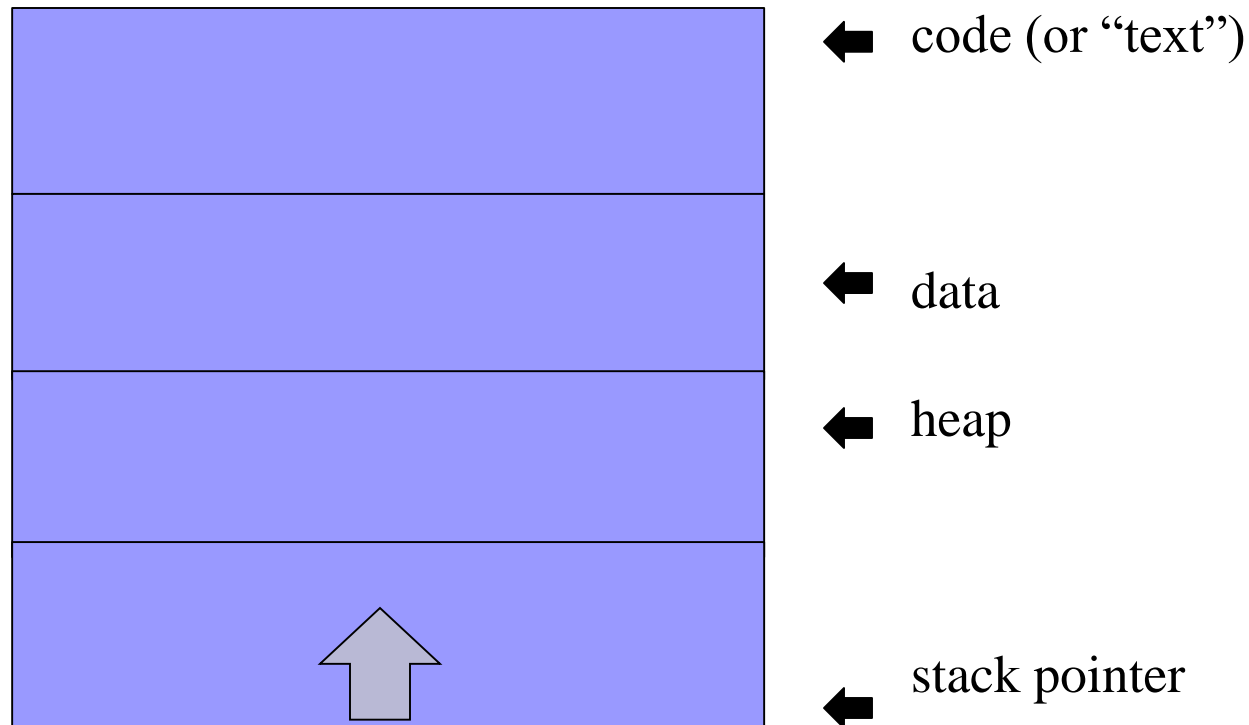


# The von Neumann Architecture

## ■ Memory Usage

- Programs use memory in several ways:
  - the actual executable machine instructions
  - global variables
  - constants (such as numeric numbers or strings)
  - memory that is used to support function calls
    - this is usually done in a “stack”, at runtime
- memory that is dynamically allocated and freed as needed
  - this is usually done in a “heap”, at runtime
  - the “new” operator is one way to dynamically allocate memory

# Memory Layout



# Memory Allocation to variables in C++

- Where, in memory, are the variables?
  - Variables declared inside of a function, and variables for function arguments, have memory that is allocated on the stack.
  - Global variables are placed in the data segment.
  - Dynamically allocated memory is on the heap, and is assigned using “new”
    - A *heap* is a region of storage in which subblocks can be allocated and deallocated. The memory management systems keeps a record of Used and Free blocks.

## Variables Attributes (continued)

- *Type* - determines the range of values of variables and the set of operations that are defined over values of that type; in the case of floating point, type also determines the precision

# Variables Attributes (continued):

- *Value* - the contents of the location with which the variable is associated
  - L-value/r-value of a variable refer to the meaning of a variable in the program depending on where it has been used.
  - R-value: The r-value of a variable is its value
    - use of a variable in the case where you care about the value stored in the variable
    - Appears on the Right side of the equals sign is the value stored in the variable
    - Ex: ... = ... x ...

# Pointers

- A pointer is a variable that contains a memory address.
- Pointers must be explicitly declared
  - In C/C++:
    - `int *ip; //declares ip as a pointer to an int`
    - `Obj *op; //declares op as a pointer to an Obj`
- Pointers need to be initialized: they must “point to” something:
  - Dereferencing (using the `*` operator on) a pointer that has not been initialized is an error.
  - For example,

```
int x;  
int *xp;  
*xp = 100; // what does xp point to??
```

# How is Memory used?

```
int outside; // external variable
              // put in a data segment by compiler/linker
              // exists for lifetime of the program

// the code for the function is in a code segment
void myFunction() {
    // these two variables are on the stack
    // and are put there at runtime by the
    // call to the function
    // exists for lifetime of the function call
    SomeClass x;
    SomeClass *p;

    // the memory returned by new comes from the heap
    // exists until cleaned up/freed (by user or by runtime
    // environment)
    p = new SomeClass();
}
```

# The Concept of Binding

- Definition: Binding is the association between an attribute and an entity.
  - Binding time is the time at which a binding takes place.
- Binding of Attributes to Variables
  - Static binding: starts and remains throughout the program execution.
  - Dynamic binding: occurs during run time and may change during program execution.



# The Concept of Binding

## ■ Type Bindings

### □ Static Type Binding

#### ■ **Explicit** type declarations in C/C++:

```
int val;
```

```
double num;
```

```
int x[10]; //an array of 10 integers are allocated to x
```

#### ■ **Implicit** type declarations using a default mechanism for specifying types of variables through default conventions, rather than declaration statements. Basic, Perl, Ruby, JavaScript, and PHP provide implicit declarations.

- Naming conventions: Use of \$ for scalars, and @ for arrays in Perl

- inferencing deduced from the value of its initializer

  - C# use of var

  - C++ use of auto

```
int val = 5;
```

```
auto aval = val; //aval is int holding a copy of val
```

# The Concept of Binding

## □ Dynamic Type Binding

- JavaScript, Python, Ruby, PHP, and C# (limited))
- Specified through an assignment statement, e.g., JavaScript

```
list = [2, 4.33, 6, 8];
```

```
list = 17.3;
```

- For example, a program that processes numeric data can be written as a generic program, dealing with data of any numeric type.
- Advantage: flexibility (generic program units)
- Disadvantages:
  - High cost (dynamic type checking and interpretation)
  - Type error detection by the compiler is difficult

# The Concept of Binding

## ■ Storage Bindings & Lifetime

- Allocation - getting a cell from some pool of available cells
- Deallocation - putting a cell back into the pool
- The lifetime of a variable is the time during which it is bound to a particular memory cell
- **Static**--bound to memory cells before execution begins and remains bound to the same memory cell throughout execution, as in C and C++ `static` variables in functions

```
static int xvar;
```

- **Stack-dynamic**--Storage bindings are created for variables when their declaration statements are *elaborated*.
  - A declaration is elaborated when the executable code associated with it is executed
  - Local variables and function parameters

# The Concept of Binding

- Advantage: allows recursion; conserves storage
- Disadvantages:
  - Overhead of allocation and deallocation
  - Subprograms cannot be history sensitive
- *Explicit heap-dynamic* -- Allocated and deallocated by explicit directives as in C++, specified by the programmer, which take effect during execution
  - Referenced only through pointers or references, e.g. dynamic objects in C++ (via **new** and **delete**), and all objects in Java.
  - Advantage: provides for dynamic storage management
  - Disadvantage: inefficient and unreliable

# The Concept of Binding

- Use case:

```
int *intptr ; //create a pointer variable
intptr = new int; //create a heap-dynamic variable.
. . .
delete intptr; //deallocate heap-dynamic variable to
                //which intptr points
```

- *Implicit-heap-dynamic* -- Bound to heap storage only when they are assigned values.

- Examples: JavaScript, and PHP, and all strings and arrays in Perl

- For example Javascript assignment

- high = {74, 84, 86, 90, 71};

- Advantage: high degree of flexibility (generic code)

- Disadvantages:

- Inefficient run-time overhead, because all attributes are dynamic.

# Categories of Variables by Lifetimes

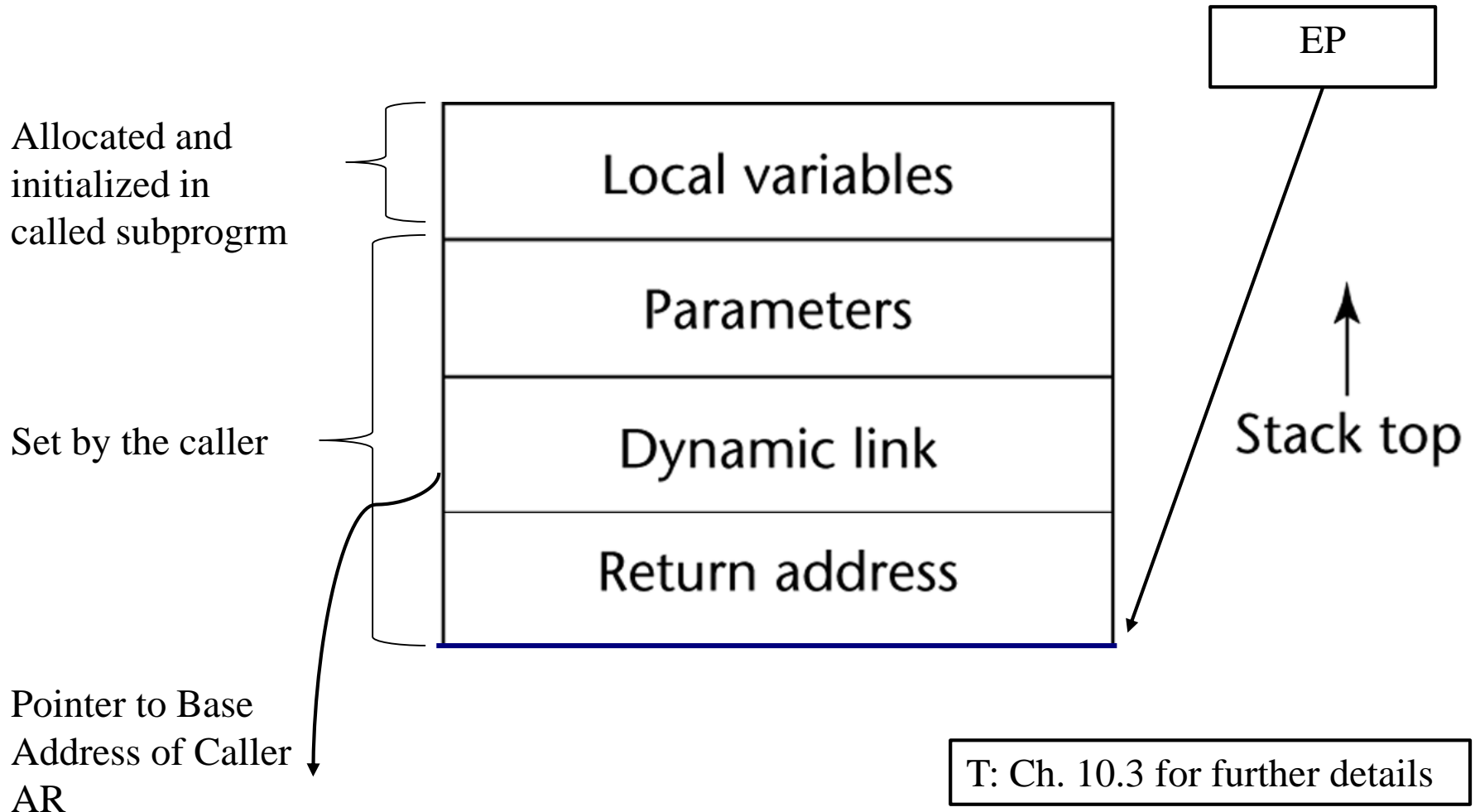
```
int outside; // external variable
              // exists for lifetime of the program

void myFunction(int var, int &refVar, int *ptr) {
    //var parameter is passed by-value
    //refVar is a reference variable.
    //Ptr pointer parameter passed by ref
    static int counter=0; //exists for the lifetime of the program
    // exists for lifetime of the function call
    int val; //stack-dynamic
    SomeClass x;
    SomeClass *p;

    Val = var + refVar + *ptr;

    // the memory returned by new comes from the heap
    // exists until cleaned up/freed (by user or by runtime
    // environment)
    p = new SomeClass(); //heap-dynamic
}
```

# Typical Activation Record for a Language with Stack-Dynamic Local Variables



# An Example: C++ Function

```
void sub(float total, int part)
```

```
{
```

```
    int list[5];
```

```
    float sum;
```

```
    ...
```

```
    return;
```

```
}
```

```
//call from main() function
```

```
Sub(256.5, 1234);
```

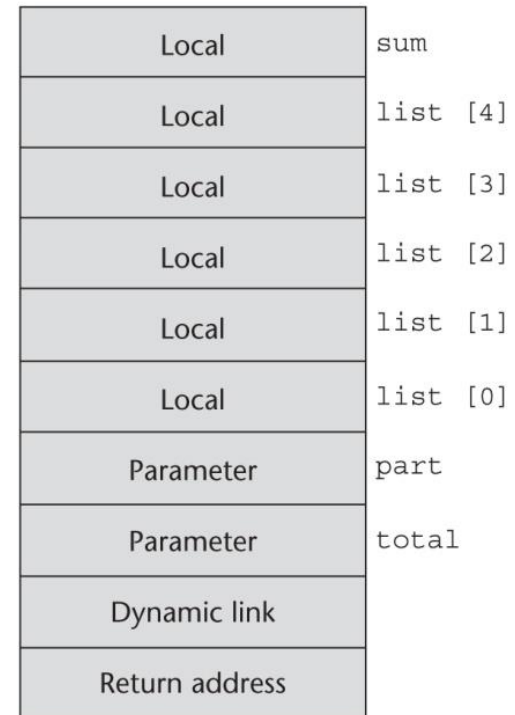
```
//assume address of next inst. is 100
```

```
Return address = 100
```

```
Offset address of total parameter = 2
```

```
Actual address of total = EP + 2
```

```
EP is the base address of the AR in  
the run-time stack
```



EP



# Variable Attributes: Scope

- The *scope* of a variable is the range of statements over which it is visible.
  - A variable is visible in a statement if it can be referenced or assigned in that statement.
  - The *local variables* of a program unit are those that are declared in that unit.
  - The *nonlocal variables* of a program unit are those that are visible in the unit but not declared there.
  - *Global variables* are a special category of nonlocal variables.
  - The scope rules of a language determine how references to names are associated with variables.

# Scope

## ■ What constitutes a scope?

### ☐ Global

- C and C++ have global functions and data
- In Java everything has to be in a class; there's no global functions or global data

### ☐ File (compilation unit)

### ☐ Certain subdivisions of the code (e.g., class)

## ■ Possible Scopes

### ☐ C++ Namespaces

### ☐ Java Packages

### ☐ Classes (which may be nested in other classes)

### ☐ Functions

### ☐ Blocks

### ☐ For loops

# Scope

## ■ Static Scope

- There are two categories of static-scoped languages:
  - Subprograms that can be *nested*
    - A reference to a name is *non local* if it occurs in a nested scope of the defining scope; otherwise, it is *local*.
    - *Examples: Javascript, Python, and Scheme*
  - Subprograms that cannot be nested (i.e., disjoint).
    - In disjoint scopes, same name can be bound to different entities without interference.
    - *Nested scopes are created only by nested class definitions and blocks*
    - *Examples: C-based languages (C++, Java)*

# Scope (continued)

- In nested subprogram definitions, variables can be hidden from a unit by having a "closer" variable with the same name

- JavaScript example of nested functions:

```
function big() {  
    function sub1() {  
        var x= 7;  
        sub2();  
    }  
    function sub2() {  
        var y = x;  
    }  
    var x = 3;  
    sub1();  
}
```

- Some languages allow nested subprogram definitions, which create nested static scopes (e.g., Pascal, Ada, JavaScript, Common Lisp, Scheme, Fortran 2003+, F#, and Python)

# Static Scope

- In languages with nested subprogram definitions, when an expression refers to an identifier,
  - The compiler first checks the local declarations
  - If the identifier is not local, the compiler works outward through each level of nesting until it finds an identifier with same name having a declaration, where it stops.
  - Any identifier with the same name declared at a level further out is never reached
  - If compiler reaches global declarations and still cannot find the identifier, an error message results

# Blocks

- A method of creating static scopes inside program units--from ALGOL 60

- Example in C++:

```
void sub() {  
    int count; //count scope is sub function  
    while (...) {  
        int count; //scope of a new variable named count  
        // in while-loop body. Hides count  
        count++;  
        ...  
    }  
    . . .  
}
```

- Note: The reuse of names in nested blocks is legal in C and C++, but it is not in Java and C# - too error-prone

# Declaration Order

- C++ allows variable declarations to appear anywhere a statement can appear.
  - In C++ and Java, the scope of all local variables is from the declaration to the end of the block.
- In C++, variables can be declared in `for` statements.
  - The scope of such variables is restricted to the `for` construct.

# Scope (continued)

```
1 void sort (float a[ ], int size) {
2
3   for (int i= 0; i < size; i++)    // i local; size not
4     for (int j = i+ 1; j < size; j++)
5         // j local; i, and size not
6         if (a[j] < a[i]) { // j local; a, i, nonlocal
7             float t;
8             t = a[i]; // t local; a, and i nonlocal
9             a[i] = a[j]; // a, i, j nonlocal
10            a[j] = t; // t local; a, j nonlocal
11        }
12    } //end of function
```



# Scope (continued)

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {  
    cout << i << endl;  
}
```

```
if(i == 10) {  
    // this is an invalid use  
    // of the i from the for loop:  
    // i only exists in the for loop, so  
    // i is not in scope here  
}
```

# Global Scope

- C, C++, Python, and Javascript support a program structure that consists of a sequence of function definitions in a file
  - These languages allow variable declarations to appear outside function definitions.
  - C and C++ have both declarations (just attributes no storage) and definitions (attributes and storage)
  - A declaration outside a function definition specifies that the variable is defined global in another file and storage should not be reserved for it here.

`extern int var; //declaration statement`

- A global variable that is defined after a function can be made visible in the function by declaring it to be external.
- The idea of declarations and definitions carries over to functions as well in C and C++.

# Global Scope

- A global variable that is hidden by a local variable with the same name can be accessed using the scope operator (::)

```
1 int count;  
2 int function() {  
3     int count;  
4     count = 0; // the local count on line 3  
5     ::count = 1; // the global count on line 1  
6 }
```

# Global Scope

## □ Python

- A global variable can be referenced in functions, but can be assigned in a function only if it has been declared to be `global` in the function. Example:

```
day = "Monday"
def tester():
    global day
    print "The global day is : ", day
    day = "Tuesday"
    print "The new value of day is: ", day
```

```
tester()
```

- The output of this script:

```
The global day is: Monday
```

```
The new value of day is: Tuesday
```

# Evaluation of Static Scoping

- It provides a method for nonlocal access that works well in many situations.
- Problems:
  - In most cases, it allows too much access to variables and subprograms than is necessary.
    - Too crude method to concisely specifying such restrictions.
  - Effect of software continuous evolution:
    - Changes often result in restructuring.
    - Designers are encouraged to use global variables than is necessary.
    - As a program evolves, the initial structure is destroyed and local variables often become global; subprograms also gravitate toward become global, rather than nested.

# Dynamic Scope

- Based on calling sequences of program units, not their textual layout (temporal versus spatial)
  - Examples: Perl, Common Lisp, and SNOBOL4
  - References to variables are connected to declarations by searching back through the chain of subprogram calls that forced execution to this point.

```
function big() {  
    function sub1() {  
        var x= 7;  
        //sub2();  
    }  
    function sub2() {  
        var y = x;  
    }  
    var x = 3;  
    //sub1();  
}
```

# Dynamic Scope

```
function big() {  
    function sub1() {  
        var x = 7;  
        . . .  
        sub2();  
    }  
    function sub2() {  
        var y = x;  
        . . .  
    }  
    var x = 3;  
    . . .  
    sub1();  
}
```

big calls sub1  
sub1 calls sub2  
sub2 uses x

- Static scoping
  - Reference to x in sub2 is to big's x
- Dynamic scoping
  - Reference to x in sub2 is to sub1's x

# Dynamic Scope

## ■ Evaluation of Dynamic Scoping:

- Advantage: convenience

- *Disadvantages:*

1. While a subprogram is executing, its variables are visible to all subprograms it calls
2. Impossible to statically type check
3. Poor readability- it is not possible to statically determine the type of a variable



# Referencing Environments

- The *referencing environment* of a statement is the collection of all names that are visible in the statement.
- In a static-scoped language, it is the local variables plus all of the visible variables in all of the enclosing scopes.
- A subprogram is active if its execution has begun but has not yet terminated.
- In a dynamic-scoped language, the referencing environment is the local variables plus all visible variables in all active subprograms.

# Namespaces

- It is a mechanism by which the programmer can create a named scope.

- For example, the standard header file **cstdlib** contains function prototypes for several library functions (e.g., abs function).

```
//in header file cstdlib:
```

```
namespace std{  
    . . . .  
    int abs(int);  
    . . . .  
}
```

- Access to namespace identifiers is through one of the following methods:

- Using a qualified name (e.g., `x = std::abs(val);`)

- Using a declaration, such as:

```
using std::abs;  
alpha = abs(beta);
```

- Using directive locally or globally: `using namespace std;`

# Referencing Environments

- The *referencing environment* of a statement is the collection of all names that are visible in the statement.
- In a static-scoped language, it is the local variables plus all of the visible variables in all of the enclosing scopes.

```
public class Student {  
    private String name;  
    public Student (String name, ...) {  
        this.name = name;  
        // this.name required; String name  
        // in constructor argument hides  
        // String name in class definition  
        ...  
    }  
}
```

# Named Constants

- A *named constant* is a variable that is bound to a value only once.
  - Advantages: readability and modifiability
  - Used to parameterize programs
  - The binding of values to named constants can be either static (called *manifest constants*) or dynamic
  - Languages:
    - C++ and Java: expressions of any kind, dynamically bound
    - C# has two kinds, **readonly** and **const**
      - the values of **const** named constants are bound at compile time
      - The values of **readonly** named constants are dynamically bound

# Summary

- Case sensitivity and the relationship of names to special words represent design issues of names
- Variables are characterized by the sextuples: name, address, value, type, lifetime, scope
- Binding is the association of attributes with program entities
- Scalar variables are categorized as: static, stack dynamic, explicit heap dynamic, implicit heap dynamic
- Strong typing means detecting all type errors