

Names, Bindings and Scopes

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Introduction

- ‘High level’ programming languages
 - Machine independence
- Design of modern languages
 - Machine independence remains important
 - Ease of programming
- We will address the core issues in language design.

Names

- A *name* is a mnemonic character string used to represent something else.
 - Most names are identifiers (alphanumeric tokens)
 - Other symbols (like '+') can also be names
 - Names allow us to refer to variables, constants, operations, types, and so on using symbolic identifiers.
- Design issues for names:
 - Case sensitivity
 - Special words – keywords, reserved words

Names

- **Case sensitivity**
 - Names in the C-based languages are case sensitive
 - Ex: rose, ROSE, and Rose are distinct in C++
 - There are programming languages where names are not case sensitive
 - Ex: Ada, Fortran
 - Disadvantage (for some people): readability (names that look alike are different)
 - Ex: Rose and rose look similar, there is no connection between them.

Names

- **Case sensitivity (cont.)**
 - Not everyone agrees that case sensitivity is bad for names.
 - In C, the problems of case sensitivity are avoided by the convention that variable names do not include uppercase letters.
 - In Java and C#, predefined names include both uppercase and lowercase letters.
 - Ex: `IndexOutOfBoundsException`
 - This is a problem of writability rather than readability.
 - Because the need to remember specific case usage makes it more difficult to write correct programs.

Names

- **Special words**

- An aid to readability; used to delimit or separate statement clauses.
- A *keyword* is a word that is special only in certain contexts.
 - Ex: in Fortran
 - `Real VarName` (Real is a data type followed with a name, therefore Real is a keyword)
 - `Real = 3.4` (Real is a variable)
 - Allowed but not readable:
 - `INTEGER REAL`
`REAL INTEGER`

Names

- **Special words**

- A *reserved word* is a special word that cannot be used as a user-defined name.
 - Can't define `for` or `while` as function or variable names.
 - Good design choice
- Potential problem: If there are too many, many collisions occur
 - Ex: COBOL has 300 reserved words!

Names

- **Length**
 - If too short, they cannot be connotative
 - Language examples:
 - Earliest languages : single character
 - FORTRAN 95: maximum of 31 characters
 - 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
 - C++: no limit, but implementers often impose one

Variables

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

Variables Attributes

- **Name**
 - Most variables have names
- **Address** - the memory address with which it is associated
 - A variable may have different addresses at different times during execution.
 - For a variable declared in a recursive procedure, in different steps of recursion it refers to different locations.
 - A variable may have different addresses at different places in a program.
 - A program can have two subprograms `sub1` and `sub2` each of defines a local variable that use the same name, e.g. `sum`.

Variables Attributes

- **Address** (cont.)
 - If two variable names can be used to access the same memory location, they are called *aliases*.
 - Aliases are created via pointers, reference variables, C and C++ unions.
 - Aliases are harmful to readability (program readers must remember all of them).

Variables Attributes

- **Type**

- determines the range of values of variables
- determines the set of operations that are defined for values of that type
- in the case of floating point, type also determines the precision
- Ex: The int type in Java specifies a value range of -2147483648 to 2147483647 and arithmetic operations for addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and modulus.

Variables Attributes

- **Value** - the contents of the location with which the variable is associated
- **Lifetime**
- **Scope**

The Concept of Binding

- A *binding* is an association between two things, such as a name and the thing it names.
- A *binding* is an association between an *entity* and an *attribute*, such as between
 - a *variable* and its *type* or *value*, or
 - an *operation* and a *symbol*
- *Binding time* is the time at which a binding takes place.
- *Binding* and *binding times* are prominent concepts in the semantics of programming languages.

Possible Binding Times

- **Language design time**
- **Language implementation time**
- **Compile time**
- **Load time**
- **Runtime**

Possible Binding Times

- **Language design time**
 - bind operator symbols to operations
 - * is bound to the multiplication operation
 - pi=3.14159 in most PL's
- **Language implementation time**
 - bind floating point type to a representation
 - `int` in C is bound to a range of possible values

Possible Binding Times (Cont.)

- **Compile time**
 - bind a variable to a type in C or Java
- **Load time**
 - a variable is bound to a specific memory location
 - bind a C or C++ static variable to a memory cell
- **Runtime**
 - bind a nonstatic local variable to a memory cell
 - a variable is bound to a value through an assignment statement

Binding Time

- The terms STATIC and DYNAMIC are generally used to refer to things bound before run time and at run time, respectively.
- A binding is *static* if it first occurs before run time and remains unchanged throughout program execution.
- A binding is *dynamic* if it first occurs during execution or can change during execution of the program.
- In general, early binding times are associated with greater efficiency.
- Later binding times are associated with greater flexibility.

Binding Time

- Compiled languages tend to have early binding times.
 - Ex: A compiler analyzes the syntax and semantics of global variable declarations once, before the program ever runs.
 - They tend to be more efficient.
- Interpreted languages tend to have later binding times.
 - Ex: A pure interpreter must analyze the declarations every time the program begins execution.
 - They tend to be more flexible.

Type Binding

- Before a variable can be referenced in a program, it must be bound to a data type.
- The two important aspects of this binding:
 - How is the type specified?
 - When does the binding take place?
- Types can be specified statically or dynamically.
 - Static Type Binding
 - Dynamic Type Binding
- If static, the type may be specified by either an explicit or an implicit declaration.

Static Type Binding: Variable Declarations

- **Explicit declaration** (*by statement*)
 - A program statement used for declaring the types of variables.
 - Lists variable names and specifies that they are a particular type
 - Ex: `int sum, float average`
- **Implicit declaration** (*by first appearance*)
 - Means of associating variables with types through default conventions, rather than declaration statements. First appearance of a variable name in a program constitutes its implicit declaration.
 - Ex: In Fortran, if not explicitly declared, an identifier starting with I,J,K,L,M,N are implicitly declared to integer, otherwise to real type.

Static Type Binding: Variable Declarations

- **Implicit Declaration (cont.)**

- Not good for reliability and writability because misspelled identifier names cannot be detected by the compiler.
- Some problems of implicit declarations can be avoided by requiring names for specific types to begin with a particular special characters.
 - Ex: in Perl
 - \$ceng: scalar
 - @ceng: array
 - %ceng: hash structure

Dynamic Type Binding

- Type of a variable is not specified by a declaration statement, nor can it be determined by the spelling of its name. (JavaScript, Python, Ruby, PHP, and C# (limited))
- The variable is bound to a type when it is assigned a value in an assignment statement.
- Advantage: Allows programming flexibility
- Ex: In JavaScript
 - `list = [10.2, 3.5];`
 - list is a single dimensioned array of length 2.
 - `list = 47;`
 - list is a simple integer

Dynamic Type Binding

- Disadvantages:
 1. Less reliable: Compiler cannot check and enforce types
 - Ex: Suppose I and X are integer variables, and Y is a floating-point.
 - The correct statement is $I := X$
 - But by a typing error $I := Y$ is typed.
 - In a dynamic type binding language, this error cannot be detected by the compiler.
 - I is changed to float during execution.
 - The value of I becomes erroneous.

Dynamic Type Binding

- Disadvantages:
 2. High cost: Type checking must be done at run-time.
- Languages that use dynamic type bindings are usually implemented as interpreters (LISP is such a language)

Lifetime and Storage Management

- **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.
- Categories of **Variables** by **Lifetimes**
 - Static Variables
 - Stack-Dynamic Variables
 - Explicit Heap-Dynamic Variables
 - Implicit Heap-Dynamic Variables

Static Variables

- Are bound to memory cells before execution begins and remains bound to the same memory cell throughout execution.
- **Applications:** globally accessible variables, to make some variables of subprograms to retain values between separate execution of the subprogram
- Such variables are history sensitive
- Examples:
 - All variables in FORTRAN I, II, and III
 - Static variables in C, C++, Java
- **Advantage:** Efficiency (Direct addressing - no run-time overhead for allocation and deallocation)
- **Disadvantage:** Lack of flexibility (no recursion)

Stack-Dynamic Variables

- **Storage bindings** are created for variables when their declaration statements are *elaborated* (*in runtime*).
 - A declaration is elaborated when the executable code associated with it is executed.
 - Ex: The variable declarations that appear at the beginning of a Java method are elaborated when the method is called, and the variables defined by those declarations are deallocated when the method completes its execution.
- In C and C++, local variables are, by default, stack- dynamic
- In Java, C++, and C#, variables defined in methods are by default stack dynamic
- **Advantage:** Allows recursion; conserves storage
- **Disadvantage:** Runtime overhead for allocation and deallocation

Explicit Heap-Dynamic Variables

- Nameless variables
- Allocated and deallocated by explicit run-time instructions written by the programmer
- Referenced only through pointers or references
- Ex: Dynamic objects in C++ (via **new** and **delete**), all objects in Java

Explicit Heap-Dynamic Variables

- `int *intnode; // Create a pointer`
`intnode = new int; // Create the heap-dynamic variable`
`. . .`
`delete intnode; // Deallocate the heap-dynamic variable`
`// to which intnode points`
- **Advantage:** Required for dynamic structures (e.g., linked lists, trees)
- **Disadvantage:** Difficult to use correctly, costly to refer, allocate, deallocate

Implicit Heap-Dynamic Variables

- Are bound to heap storage only when they are assigned values.
- Allocation and deallocation caused by assignment statements
 - *Storage binding* is done when they are assigned values.
- Ex: All variables in APL; all strings and arrays in Perl, JavaScript, and PHP
- **Advantage:** Highest degree of flexibility (generic code)
- **Disadvantages:**
 - Runtime overhead for allocation and deallocation
 - Loss of error detection by compiler

Variable Attribute: Scope

- The **scope** of a variable is the range of statements in which the variable is visible.
- A variable is visible in a statement if it can be referenced or assigned in that statement.
- The **scope rules** of a language determine how references to names are associated with variables
 - **Static (Lexical) Scope Rules**
 - **Dynamic Scope Rules**

Static (Lexical) Scope Rules

- A scope is defined in terms of the physical (lexical) structure of the program.
- Based on program text
- All bindings for identifiers can be resolved by examining the program.
- Typically, we choose the most recent, active binding made at compile time.
- The determination of scopes can be made by the compiler.

Static (Lexical) Scope Rules

- Ex: We can look at a C program and know which names refer to which objects at which points in the program based on purely textual rules.
- Search process:
 - search declarations,
 - first locally,
 - then in increasingly larger enclosing scopes,
 - until one is found for the given name

Dynamic Scope Rules

- With dynamic scope rules, bindings depend on the current state of program execution.
 - They cannot always be resolved by examining the program because they are dependent on calling sequences.
 - To resolve a reference, we use the **most recent, active binding made at run time**.
- Scope is determined in run-time.
- Dynamic scope rules are usually encountered in interpreted languages.

Scope Rules

Example: Static vs. Dynamic

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

```
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

An Example

- a) What does the function test print if the language uses static scoping?
- b) What does it print with dynamic scoping?

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```
int  n = 1;    // global

print_plus_n(int x) {
    cout << x + n;
}

increment_n() {
    n = n + 2;
    print_plus_n(n);
}

test() {
    int n;
    n = 200;
    print_plus_n(7);

    n = 50;
    increment_n();
    cout << n;

}
```

An Example

- a) What does the function test print if the language uses static scoping?

8 6 50

- a) What does it print with dynamic scoping?

207 104 52

<https://www.cs.virginia.edu/~asb>

```
int  n = 1;    // global

print_plus_n(int x) {
    cout << x + n;
}

increment_n() {
    n = n + 2;
    print_plus_n(n);
}

test() {
    int n;
    n = 200;
    print_plus_n(7);

    n = 50;
    increment_n();
    cout << n;

}
```

Scope Rules

Example: Static vs. Dynamic

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

```
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

Scope Rules

Example: Static vs. Dynamic

```
program scopes (input, output);  
var a : integer;  
procedure first;  
    begin a := 1; end;  
procedure second;  
    var a : integer;  
    begin first; end;  
begin  
    a := 2; second; write(a);  
end.
```


Scope Rules

Example: Static vs. Dynamic

- If static scope rules are in effect (as would be the case in Pascal), the program prints *a* 1
- If dynamic scope rules are in effect, the program prints *a* 2
- Why the difference? At issue is whether the assignment to the variable *a* in procedure *first* changes the variable *a* declared in the main program or the variable *a* declared in procedure *second*

Scope Rules

Example: Static vs. Dynamic

Static Scoping

“Physical (Lexical) Structure”

- Global *a* becomes 2.
- Procedure *second* is called.
- Inside procedure *second*, procedure *first* is called.
 - Which *a* is referred?
 - Global *a*, because *first* is nested into program scopes.
 - Global *a* becomes 1.
- Global *a* is printed.
 - 1 is printed.

Scope Rules

Example: Static vs. Dynamic

Dynamic Scoping

“The most recent active binding”

- Global *a* becomes 2.
- Procedure *second* is called.
- Inside procedure *second*, procedure *first* is called.
- Which *a* is referred?
 - Procedure *second*’s local variable *a* becomes 1.
- Global *a* is printed.
 - 2 is printed.