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CS 320 :
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Scope
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Marco Gaboardi

MSC 116

gaboardi@bu.edu

Announcements

- **Programming Assignment #5** is due on Friday, April 17.
- **Grading Policy for Spring 2020:** Read the article in **BU Today**, University to Offer Students Credit/No Credit Option
- All **Zoom meetings** are recorded (by default), and their recordings available for download shortly after the live meetings.
- All **Zoom links** for CS 320 are at the bottom of the *Resources* webpage on *Piazza*.

In the preceding lecture, someone said that the BNF grammar that I proposed for `<expr>` is ambiguous. This grammar is repeated on the two slides following this one.

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In fact, as I will explain, it is ambiguous only if parentheses are not inserted – either explicitly as terminal symbols in the grammar, or implicitly in the process of generating an instance of `<expr>`.

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Arithmetical expressions, a little more general than the grammar in slides 23, 24, 26 of Lecture 17:

$$\langle \text{expr} \rangle ::= \langle \text{term} \rangle \mid (\langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle)$$
$$\langle \text{addop} \rangle ::= \text{add} \mid \text{minus}$$
$$\langle \text{term} \rangle ::= \langle \text{var} \rangle \mid \langle \text{val} \rangle$$
$$\langle \text{var} \rangle ::= \dots$$
$$\langle \text{val} \rangle ::= \dots$$

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Examples of ~~arithmetical expressions~~ generated by this BNF grammar:

$(((3 \text{ add } 5) \text{ minus } 6) \text{ add } (2 \text{ minus } 1))$

$(((X \text{ add } 5) \text{ minus } Y) \text{ add } (2 \text{ minus } Z))$

We can omit the parentheses, as terminal symbols, in the preceding BNF grammar to obtain a more abstract BNF grammar

$$\langle \text{expr} \rangle ::= \langle \text{term} \rangle \mid \langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle$$
$$\langle \text{addop} \rangle ::= \dots$$
$$\langle \text{term} \rangle ::= \dots$$

but then the parentheses have to be re-introduced in generation:

$$\langle \text{expr} \rangle \Rightarrow (\langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle)$$
$$\Rightarrow ((\langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle) \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle)$$
$$\Rightarrow (((\langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle) \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle) \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle)$$
$$\Rightarrow (((\langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle) \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle) \langle \text{addop} \rangle ((\langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{addop} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle))$$
$$\Rightarrow \dots$$
$$\Rightarrow (((3 \text{ add } 5) \text{ minus } 6) \text{ add } (2 \text{ minus } 1))$$

Simplifying the notation a little:

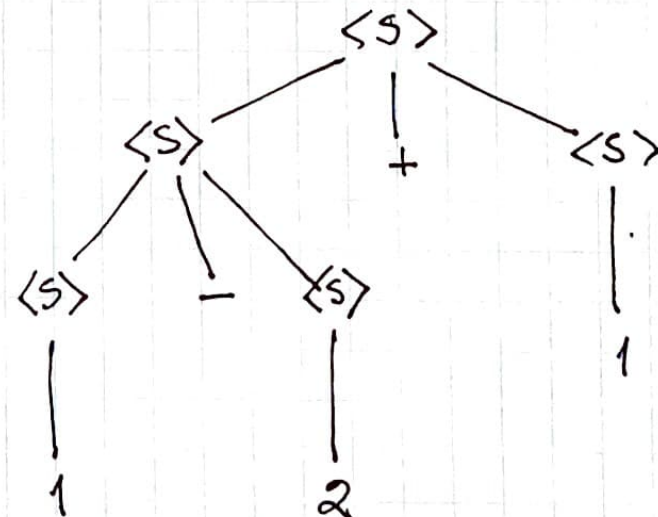
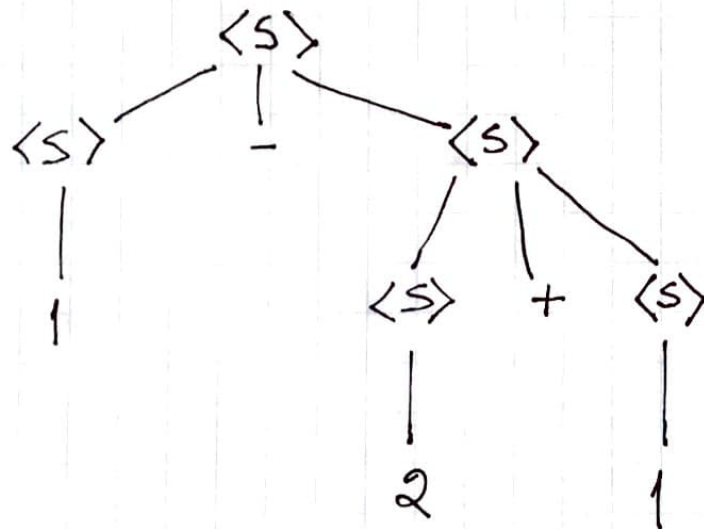
$$\langle S \rangle ::= \langle S \rangle + \langle S \rangle \mid \langle S \rangle - \langle S \rangle \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid \dots \mid 9$$

Without parentheses, explicitly or implicitly, the grammar is ambiguous: It can generate the same expression according to ~~the~~ two distinct derivations:

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$$\langle S \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S \rangle - \langle S \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S \rangle - \langle S \rangle + \langle S \rangle \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow 1 - 2 + 1$$

$$\langle S \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S \rangle + \langle S \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S \rangle - \langle S \rangle + \langle S \rangle \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow 1 - 2 + 1$$



Inserting parentheses in the course of the derivation, i.e. implicitly in the grammar: is .

$$\begin{aligned}\langle S \rangle &\Rightarrow (\langle S \rangle - \langle S \rangle) \Rightarrow (\langle S \rangle - (\langle S \rangle + \langle S \rangle)) \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow (1 - (2 + 1)) \\ \langle S \rangle &\Rightarrow (\langle S \rangle + \langle S \rangle) \Rightarrow ((\langle S \rangle - \langle S \rangle) + \langle S \rangle) \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow ((1 - 2) + 1)\end{aligned}$$

Interpretation of $(1 - (2 + 1)) \neq$ Interpretation of $((1 - 2) + 1)$

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We can also disambiguate the grammar explicitly,
by inserting parentheses as terminal symbols in the rules:

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$$\langle S \rangle ::= (\langle S \rangle + \langle S \rangle) \mid (\langle S \rangle - \langle S \rangle) \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid \dots \mid 9$$

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[Variables](https://powcoder.com)

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Variables

- Functional languages use variables as names (where the association name-value is stored in an environment).
 - We can remember the association, or read the value, but we cannot change it.
- Imperative languages are abstractions of von Neumann architecture
 - A variable abstracts the concept of memory location
- Understanding how variables are managed is an important part to understand the semantics of a programming language.

Mutable vs Immutable Variables

- When we consider variables as names we are working with immutable variables (e.g. the part of OCaml we studied)
- When we consider variables as memory locations we are working with mutable variables (e.g. Python, C, etc.)
- Understanding how variables are managed is an important part to understand the semantics of a programming language.

Learning Goals for today

- Understanding the concept of **scope** and how languages can differ in their **scoping rules**. **Assignment Project Exam Help**
- Understanding the concept of **binding** and **binding-time**. **<https://powcoder.com>**

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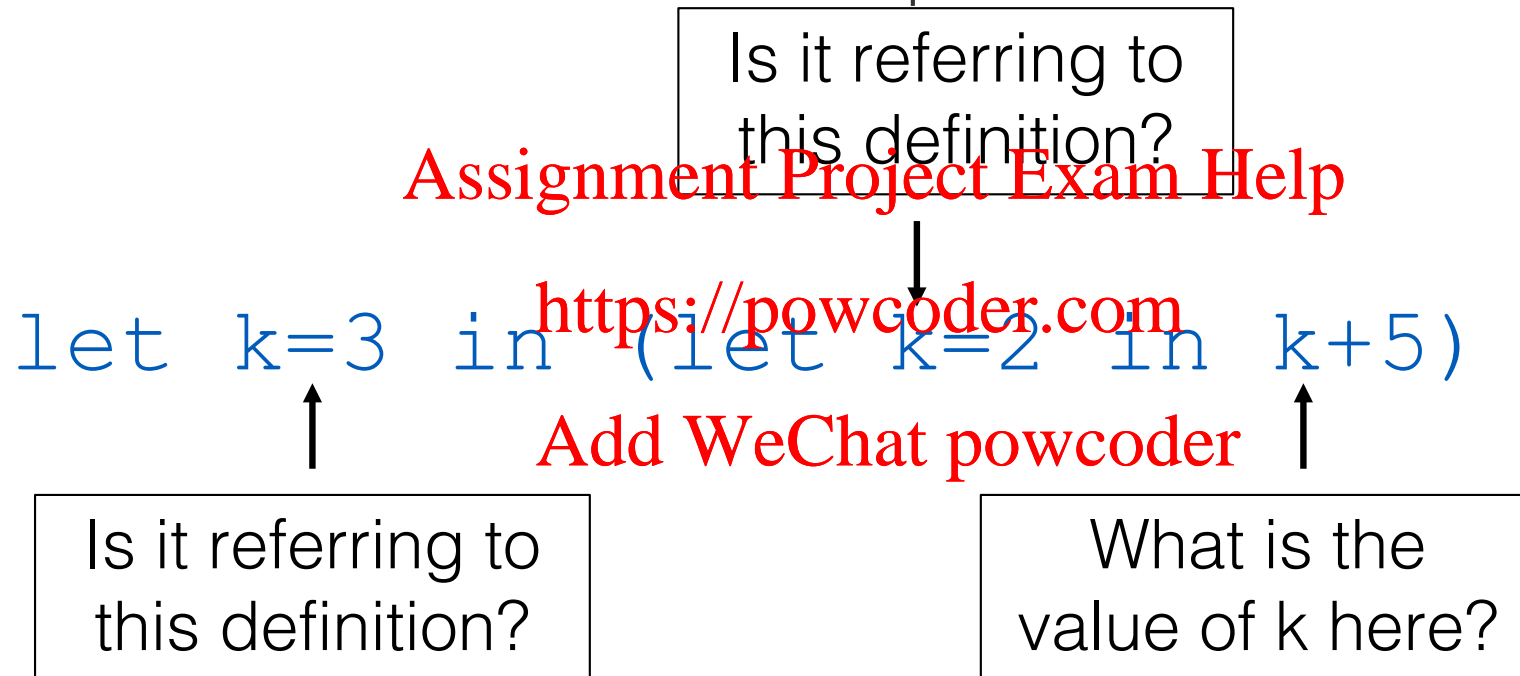
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Variable names

How shall we evaluate this expression?



Scope of a variable

- The **scope** of a variable is the range of statements over which it is visible
- The scope rules of a language determine how references to names are associated with variables

`let k=3 in (let k=2 in k+5)`

OCaml scoping rule says that a variable name is **statically associated** with the closest definition in the abstract syntax tree.

Back to our example

This is the first
declaration we
find

Start from
here

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```
let k=3 in (let k=2 in k+5)
```

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To find the value of k we look/search
declarations, first locally, then in
increasingly larger enclosing scopes

Another example

This is the first
declaration we
find

Start from
here

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`let k=3 in (let z=2 in k+5)`

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To find the value of k we look/search
declarations, first locally, then in
increasingly larger enclosing scopes

Another example

This is the first
declaration we
find

Start from
here

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```
let k=3 in k + (let k=2 in k+5)
```

This is the first
declaration we
find

Start from
here

Another example

This is the first
declaration we
find

Start from
here

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let k=3 in (let k=2 in k+5) + k

This is the first
declaration we
find

Start from
here

Static Scope

- Based on program text
- To connect a **name reference** to a **variable**, we (or the compiler) must find the **declaration**
- Some languages allow **nested subprogram** definitions, which create nested static scopes
- Search process:
search **declarations**, first locally, then in increasingly larger enclosing scopes, until one is found for the given name

Static Scope

- Variables can be hidden from a unit by having a "closer" variable with the same name

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declaration of x

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declaration of x

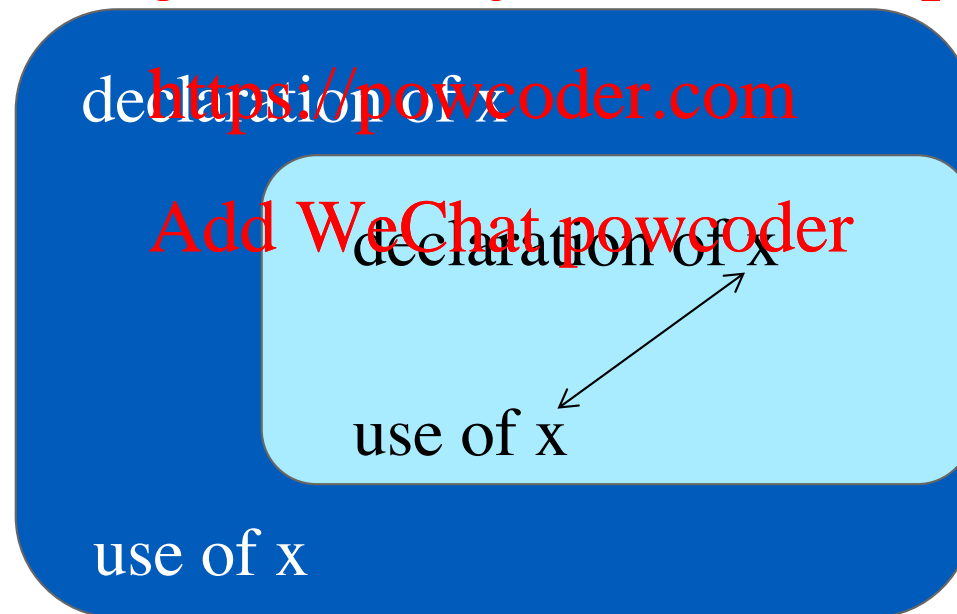
use of x



Static Scope

- Variables can be hidden from a unit by having a "closer" variable with the same name

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Static Scope

- Search process:
search declarations, first locally, then in increasingly larger enclosing scopes, until one is found for the given name
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- Most of the modern languages are statically scoped: Python, Java, Scala, etc.
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Scope Blocks

A method of creating static scopes inside program units (ALGOL 60)

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```
void sub() {  
    int count;
```

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```
    while (...) {  
        int count;  
        count++;  
        ...  
    }  
    ...  
}
```

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Program constructs (“blocks”)
create scopes

Scope Block Example:

```
int main()
{
    int x=5;
    {
        int x=4;
        printf("The value of x in the block is %d\n", x);
    }
    printf("The value of x in outside the block is %d",
x);
    return 0;
}
```

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In C we can write a program like the one above

Scope Block Example:

```
int main()
{
```

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```
int x=5;
```

```
{
```

```
int x=4;
```

```
printf("The value of x in the block is %d\n", x);
```

```
}
```

```
printf("The value of x in outside the block is %d",  
x);
```

```
return 0;
```

```
}
```

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```
main.c: In function 'main':
```

```
main.c:17:57: error: 'x' undeclared (first use in this function)
```

```
printf("The value of x in outside the block is %d", x);
```

```
^
```

Dynamic Scope

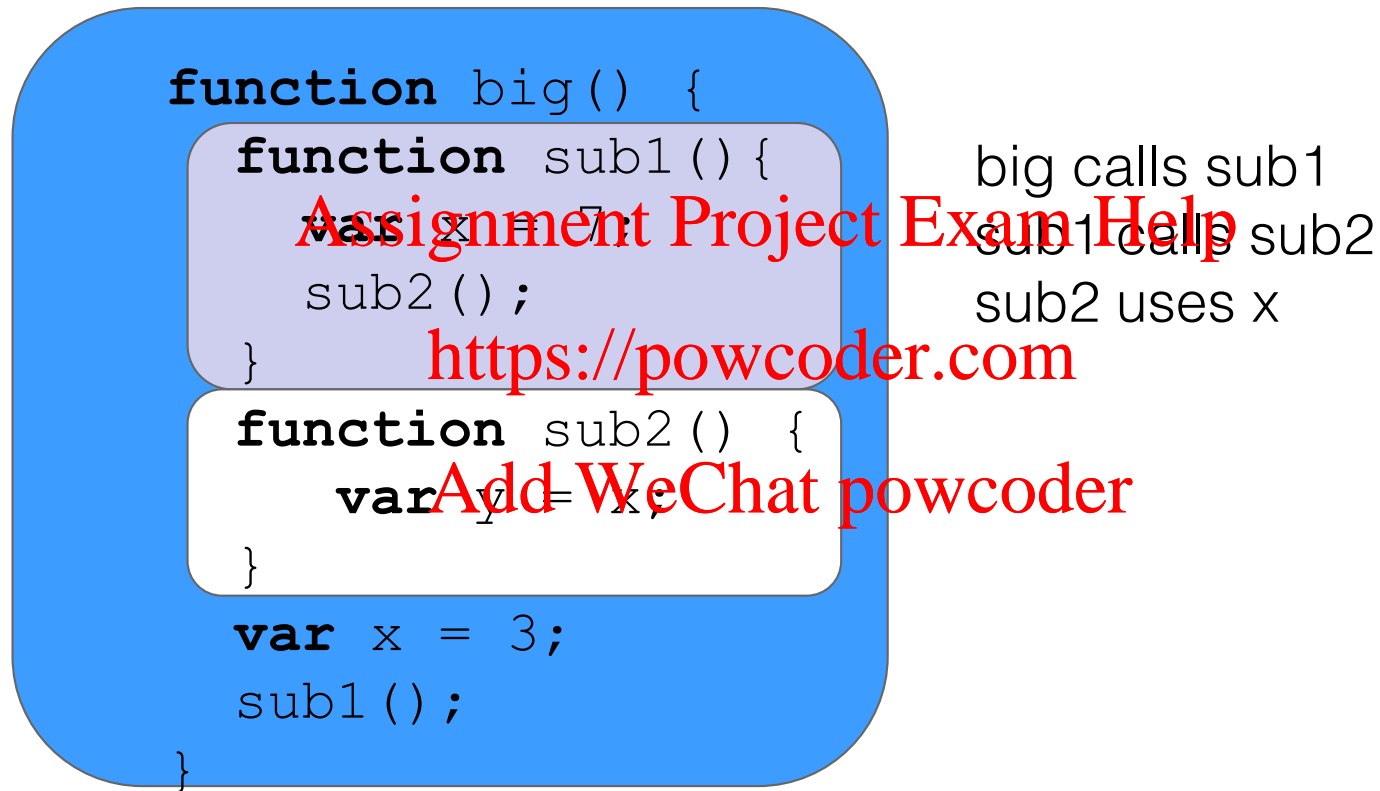
- Based on calling sequences of program units, not their textual layout,
- You can think about it more as temporal rather than spatial,
- References to variables are connected to declarations by searching back through the chain of subprogram calls that brought execution to this point.

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Dynamic Scope Example



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

Dynamic Scope Example in bash

```
$ x=1
$ function g () { echo $x ; x=2 ; }
$ function f () { x=3 ; g }
$ f # does this print 1, or 3?
$ g # does this print 1, 2 or 3?
$ echo $x # does this print 1, 2 or 3?
```

echo \$x corresponds
to printing the value of
the variable x.

What does this program print?

Another Example in bash

```
$ x=1
$ function h () { x=2 ; echo $x ; }
$ function g () { x=3 ; echo $x ; h ; }
$ function f () { x=4 ; echo $x ; g ; }
$ f # What does this print?
$ g # What does this print?
$ h # What does this print?
$ echo $x # What does this print?
```

What does this program print?

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Variables classification

- 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

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Local Variables in Ocaml - examples

```
let k=3 in 6 + k
```

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The variable k is local to the body of the let

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```
fun k -> 8 * k
```

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The variable k is local to the body of the function

```
let x=3 in (let k=2 in k + x) + x
```

The variable k is local to the body of the internal let, and the variable x is local to the body of the external let.

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Do we have global variables in OCaml?

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Global Variables in Ocaml - examples

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`let foo = fold_left (*) 0;;`
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When we create a variable at the top level, we can think about it as global.

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The Concept of Binding

- A binding is an association between an **entity** and an **attribute**. Examples:
 - a **variable** and its type,
 - a **variable** and its value,
 - a **function** and its name,
 - an **operation** and its symbol.

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The Concept of Binding

```
slope : point -> point -> float option
```

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```
let print_slope (p1:point) (p2:point) : unit =  
  match slope p1 p2 with  
  | Some s ->  
    print_string ("Slope: " ^ string_of_float s)  
  | None ->  
    print_string "Vertical line.\n"
```

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Possible Binding Times

- **Binding time** is the time at which a binding takes place.
 - **Language design time** -- E.g. bind operator symbols to operations, <https://powcoder.com>
 - **Language implementation time** -- E.g. bind floating point type to a representation
 - **Compile time** -- E.g. bind a variable to a type (e.g. in C or Java)
 - **Load time** -- E.g. bind a static variable to a memory cell (e.g. C or C++)
 - **Runtime** -- E.g. bind a non-static local variable to a memory cell.

Storing Bindings

- Each binding must be recorded in some specific data structure.
- For example, an **assignment environment** stores a set of bindings of **values** to **variables**:

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 $((x_1 = v_1), (x_2 = v_2), \dots, (x_n = v_n))$

- As another example, a **typing environment** stores a set of bindings of **types** to **variables**:

$((x_1 : \text{type}_1), (x_2 : \text{type}_2), \dots, (x_n : \text{type}_n))$

Static and Dynamic Binding

- 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

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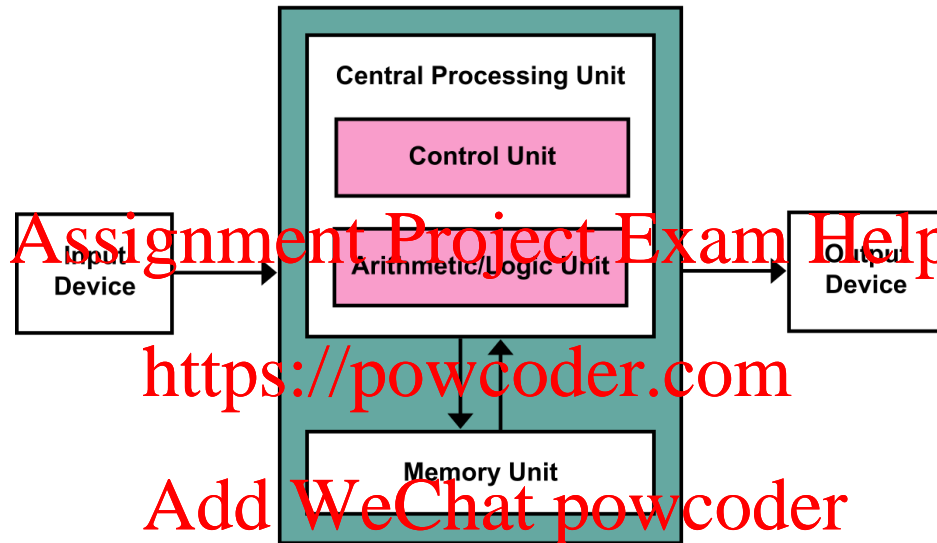
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Variable – a low level imperative view

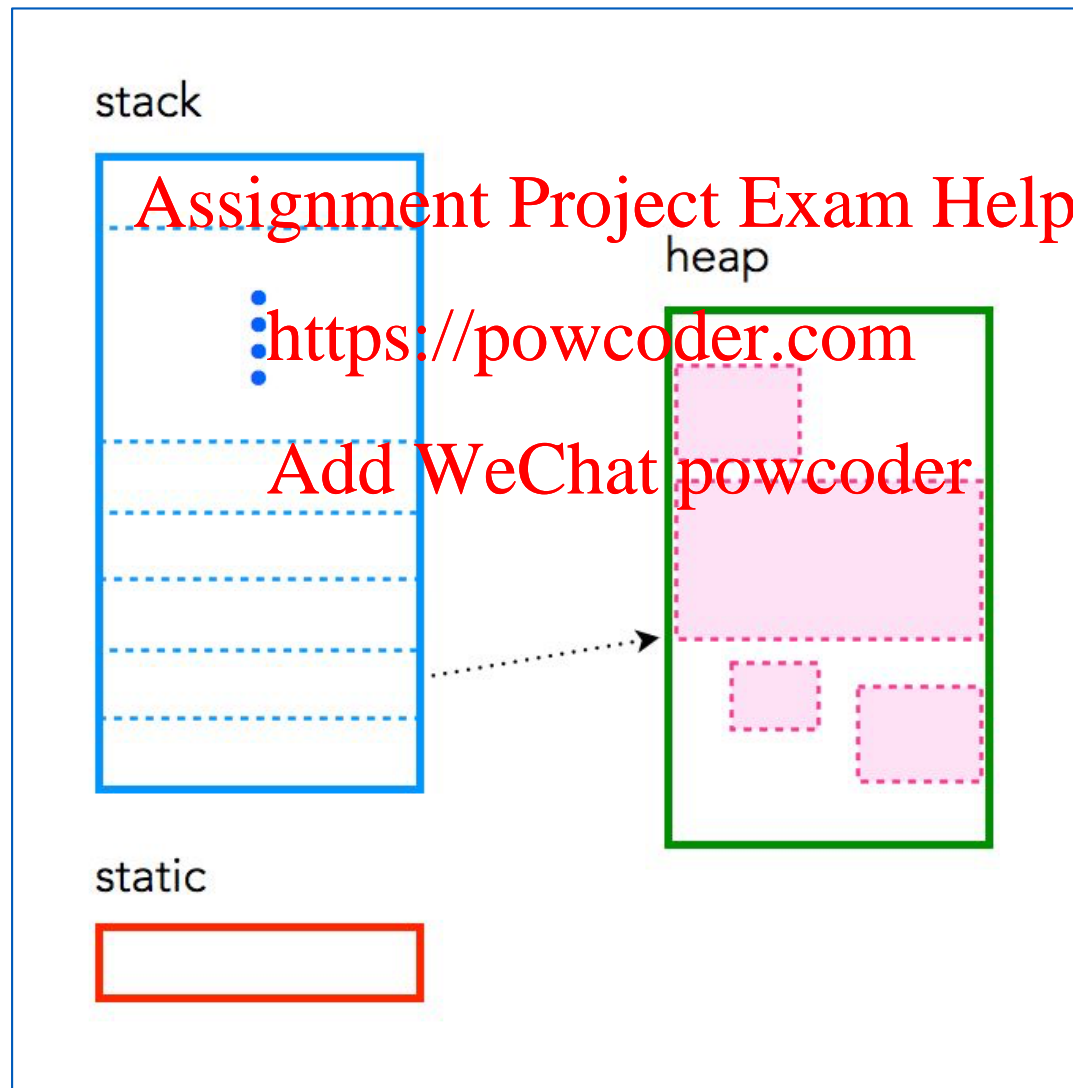


- Storage Bindings & Lifetime
 - **Allocation** - getting a cell from some pool of available cells
 - **Deallocation** - putting a cell back into the pool

Variables in imperative languages

- A **variable** is an abstraction of a memory cell
- Variables can be characterized by multiple attributes:
 - Name **Assignment Project Exam Help**
 - Address **<https://powcoder.com>**
 - Value
 - Type **Add WeChat powcoder**
 - Lifetime
 - Scope
- The **lifetime** of a variable is the time during which it is bound to a particular memory cell

Categories of Variables by Lifetimes – the C perspective



Categories of Variables by Lifetimes

Static -- bound to memory cells before execution begins and remains bound to the same memory cell throughout execution

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- For example, we have static variables in functions in C and C++
- A top-level variable in OCaml can be seen as Static
- Static variables can be efficiently referenced through direct address,
- Impose a rigid programming discipline, not enough to support the need of general recursive functions.

Categories of Variables by Lifetimes

Stack-dynamic -- Bindings are created when their declaration statements are executed.

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- Examples: local variables in C or Java subprograms (methods), variable bound by a let in Ocaml.
- We can bind them when we have explicit declarations or when a function is called (binding of actual and formal parameters).
- Most modern programming languages support stack-dynamic variables.

Categories of Variables by Lifetimes

Stack-dynamic -- Bindings are created when their declaration statements are executed.

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- Stack-allocated variables provide a form of local storage
- Local storage is needed to support recursive functions.
- Supporting stack-dynamic variables require multiple allocation and deallocation.
- Working with stack-dynamic variables is more costly than static variables, and it doesn't support a global view.

Categories of Variables by Lifetimes

Explicit heap-dynamic -- Allocated and deallocated by explicit directives, specified by the programmer, which take effect during execution.

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- Usually are referenced <https://powcoder.com> explicitly or implicitly through pointers or references.
- Examples: dynamic objects in C++ (via new and delete), all objects in Java, references in OCaml.
- Heap-dynamic variables may support an effective management of the storage.
- If the management is too low level it becomes unreliable.

Garbage Collection

- A **Garbage Collector** (GC) is an algorithm that automatically finds **unused objects** in the heap-allocated variables of an application and prepares them for reuse
- GC frees programmers from worrying about the **exact lifetime of objects** and ensures that the heap will not be corrupted by access to previously freed data
- ... but introduces often **unpredictable pauses** that may be costly and can increase the memory required.

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Type Binding

- Why is the **role** of a type?
 - Specifies what is the set of possible values,
 - Avoiding errors providing type safety,
 - Specifies how much space I need for a variable

When does the binding take place?

- If **static**, the type may be specified by either an **explicit** or an **implicit declaration**,
- If **dynamic**, the type is **implicitly declared**.

Static Type Binding Explicit/Implicit Declaration

- An **explicit declaration** is a program statement used for declaring the types of variables
- An **implicit declaration** is a default mechanism for specifying types of variables through default conventions, rather than declaration statements

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Type inference can help to determine types of variables thanks to information provided by the context:

- The initial value can set the type of a variable (e.g. C#)
- The use of the variable can set its type (e.g. OCaml).

Dynamic Type Binding

- Dynamic Type Binding is usually specified through an **assignment statement**, implicitly associating the variable with the type of the value it is assigned to:

```
x = [2, 4, 6, 8];
```

```
x = 17.3;
```

- This way of binding **types to variables** is used in **dynamic typing** disciplines (e.g. typing approach of JavaScript, PHP, etc.).
- These often provide more **flexibility**, but type errors are more **difficult to detect**, and the checking can be more **costly**.