Administrivia

Project 1 is due 4/15 by 11:59PM

Minor project errata: lookup_env should be fetch_env. Please use the latter, that is the one we will be testing

We will hold office hours during sections this week (excluding A6 and A4 will be held in CDS 907).

Variables: Binding and Scoping

Principles of Programming Languages Lecture 20

Objectives

Discuss the semantics of variable binding.

Try to understand **scope**, particularly **lexical** vs. **dynamic** scoping.

Keywords

```
environment
scope
mutability
assignment
dynamic scope
lexical scope
let-bindings
binding-defined scope
block-defined scope
```

Two Main Concerns about Variables

Are variables **mutable**? Can we change their value? Are there restrictions when we can change a value?

How are variables **scoped**? Dynamically or lexically? Does a binding define its own scope?

Mutability

```
let x =
  let y = 2 in
  let y = 3 in
  y
```

OCaml (y is shadowed)

$$y = 2$$
 $y = 3$
 $x = y$

Python (y is reassigned)

```
let x =
  let y = 2 in
  let y = 3 in
  y
OCaml (y is shadowed)
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y = 2
y = 3
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Python (y is reassigned)

A variable is **mutable** if we are allowed to change its value after it has been declared.

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We think of variables as

» names when they are immutable

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Python (y is reassigned)

A variable is **mutable** if we are allowed to change its value after it has been declared.

We think of variables as

- » names when they are immutable
- » (abstract) memory locations when they are mutable

```
func g() -> Int {
  let x = 100
  // let x = 200
  return x
}

var y = g()
```

Constants in Swift

```
let y =
  (* let x = 100 in *)
  let x = 200 in
  x
```

Let-Bindings in OCaml

```
func g() -> Int {
  let x = 100
  // let x = 200
  return x
}

var y = g()

Constants in Swift
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let y =
  (* let x = 100 in *)
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  x
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Let-Bindings in OCaml

We can think of constants in Swift or OCaml as variables that we cannot reassign.

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func g() -> Int {
  let x = 100
  // let x = 200
  return x
}

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Constants in Swift
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```
let y =
  (* let x = 100 in *)
  let x = 200 in
  x
```

Let-Bindings in OCaml

We can think of constants in Swift or OCaml as variables that we cannot reassign.

Note. In each case we *technically* can create the new binding, but it would shadow the original, and the static analyzer would complain.

```
def f():
    y = 0
    y += 1
    return y
x = f()
```

Variables in Python

```
let x =
  let y = ref 0 in
  y := !y + 1; !y
```

References in OCaml

```
def f():
    y = 0
    y += 1
    return y

x = f()
```

Variables in Python

```
let x =
  let y = ref 0 in
  y := !y + 1; !y
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References in OCaml

We think of variables in Python as references to an abstract memory space. We can make these references in OCaml too.

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In Python fetching and updating are implicit in the syntax.

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References in OCaml

We think of variables in Python as references to an abstract memory space. We can make these references in OCaml too.

In Python fetching and updating are implicit in the syntax.

In OCaml, fetching (!) and updating (:=) are explicit.

```
Example Program:
x = 1;
y = 2;
x = 3;
x;
y;
```

```
< ::= { <com> ; }
<val> ::= <num>
<com> ::= <ident> = <val> | <ident>
<ident> ::= w | x | y | z
<num> ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6
```

```
Example Program:
x = 1;
y = 2;
x = 3;
x;
y;
```

This is a simple language with assignment statements and a push operation for identifiers.

```
< ::= { <com> ; }
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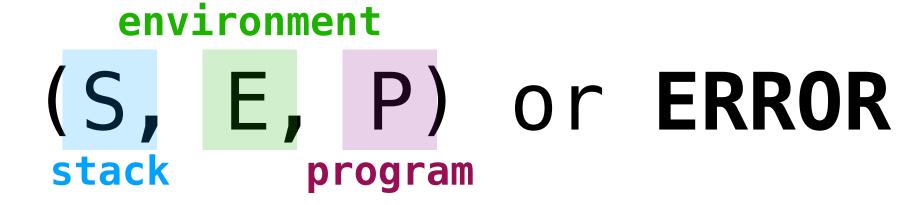
We will take a configuration to be:

```
< ::= { <com> ; }
<val> ::= <num>
<com> ::= <ident> = <val> | <ident>
<ident> ::= w | x | y | z
<num> ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6
```

```
Example Program:
x = 1;
y = 2;
x = 3;
x;
y;
```

This is a simple language with assignment statements and a push operation for identifiers.

We will take a configuration to be:



```
(S, E, x = n ; P) \longrightarrow (S, update(E, x, n), P) (assign)
```

```
(S, E, x = n; P) \longrightarrow (S, update(E, x, n), P)
\frac{\text{fetch}(E, x) = n \quad n \text{ is a number}}{(S, E, x; P) \longrightarrow (n :: S, E, P)}
(assign)
```

```
(S, E, x = n; P) \longrightarrow (S, update(E, x, n), P)
\frac{fetch(E, x) = n \quad n \text{ is a number}}{(S, E, x; P) \longrightarrow (n :: S, E, P)}
\frac{fetch(E, x) \text{ is not a number}}{(S, E, x; P) \longrightarrow ERROR}
(S, E, x; P) \longrightarrow ERROR
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(S, E, x = n; P) \longrightarrow (S, update(E, x, n), P)
\frac{fetch(E, x) = n \quad n \text{ is a number}}{(S, E, x; P) \longrightarrow (n :: S, E, P)}
\frac{fetch(E, x) \text{ is not a number}}{(S, E, x; P) \longrightarrow ERROR}
(S, E, x; P) \longrightarrow ERROR
```

Question. What should the stack be after evaluating the program

$$x = 1; y = 2; x = 3; x; y;$$

What is an environment?

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How should updating work if our variables are immutable?

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How should it work if they are mutable?

What is an environment?

How should updating work if our variables are immutable?

How should it work if they are mutable?

Does it matter for this toy-language?

```
(x \mapsto v, y \mapsto w, z \mapsto n)
```

$$(x \mapsto v, y \mapsto w, z \mapsto n)$$

An environment is a collection of bindings.

(
$$X \mapsto V$$
 , $y \mapsto W$, $z \mapsto n$) variable value

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The exact way you implement an environment depends on the situation.

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The exact way you implement an environment depends on the situation.

In the project we use an association list:

Environments

```
( X \mapsto V , y \mapsto W , z \mapsto n ) variable value
```

An environment is a collection of bindings.

The exact way you implement an environment depends on the situation.

In the project we use an association list:

```
( ident * value ) list
```

```
update (x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2) z 3

= (z \mapsto 3, x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2)

fetch (z \mapsto 3, x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2) z

= Some 3

fetch (z \mapsto 3, x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2) w

= None
```

update
$$(x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2) z 3$$

 $= (z \mapsto 3, x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2)$
fetch $(z \mapsto 3, x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2) z$
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Immutable updates should shadow existing bindings

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One way to do this is to prepend new bindings

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 $= Some 3$
fetch $(z \mapsto 3, x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2) w$
 $= None$

Immutable updates should shadow existing bindings
One way to do this is to prepend new bindings
Again, this is not the only way!

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update (x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2) z 3

= (z \mapsto 3, x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2)

fetch (x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 3) z

= Some 3

fetch (x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 3) w

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Mutable updates should change existing bindings in the environment

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= Some 3

fetch (x \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 3) w

= None
```

Mutable updates should change existing bindings in the environment

In this case, we might think of the environment as a map (i.e., dictionary)

Understanding Check

Evaluate the program

$$x = 1; y = 2; x = 3; x; y;$$

with mutable and immutable updates. How does the environment differ.

Does the value of the stack differ in each case?

The Takeaway

Without restricting when and how bindings are accessed, it doesn't matter whether variables are mutable or immutable.

For it to matter, we have to restrict the *scope* of the binding.

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- » "this variable is not in scope..."

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- » the scope of a variable
- » the scope of a binding
- » the scope of a function
- » scopes in general (i.e., global scope)
- » "this variable is not in scope..."
- » this function is not in the scope of this variable..."

Scoping Rules

The **scope** of a binding is where or when a binding can be accessed.

Scoping rules describe how the scope of bindings works in a program.

There are two standard paradigms:

- » dynamic scoping
- » lexical scoping (static scoping)

```
f() { x=0; g; }
g() { y=$x; }
x=1; f; echo $y;
```

```
f() { x=0; g; }
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x=1; f; echo $y;

(Bash)
```

Dynamic scoping refers to the idea that variables bindings are determined at run time based on the computational context.

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In its simplest form, dynamic scoping uses a global environment and any binding may be referred to anywhere in the program.

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This is a temporal view, i.e., was there a computation done beforehand which affected the value of a variable?

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(It is uncommon in modern programming languages, but it is typically easier to implement)

```
f() { x=0; g; }
g() { y=$x; }
x=1; f; echo $y;
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f() { x=0; g; }
g() { y=$x; }
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What does this program print?

```
f() { x=0; g; }
g() { y=$x; }
x=1; f; echo $y;
```

```
What does this program print?

(echo is like print)
```

Answer: 0

```
f() { x=0; g; }
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```

```
What does this program print?
(echo is like print)
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Example: Project 1

```
def F 0 |> X #G;
def G X |> Y;
1 |> X #F Y.
```

```
f() { x=0; g; }
g() { y=$x; }
x=1; f; echo $y;
```

Example: Project 1

```
def F 0 |> X #G;
def G X |> Y;
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```

```
f() { x=0; g; }
g() { y=$x; }
x=1; f; echo $y;
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What do these programs print?

Example: Project 1

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def F 0 |> X #G;
def G X |> Y;
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```

```
f() { x=0; g; }
g() { y=$x; }
x=1; f; echo $y;
```

What do these programs print?

Answer: Both 0

Toy Stack-Oriented Language

```
Example Program:
x = 1;
f = {
    x = 2;
    x;
};
```

Toy Stack-Oriented Language

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Example Program:
x = 1;
f = {
    x = 2;
    x;
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f;
x;
```

This is a simple language with assignment statements and a push operation for identifiers and subroutines.

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We will take a configuration to be:

```
(S, E, P) or ERROR stack program
```

Operational Semantics

```
(assign)
(S, E, x = n; P) \longrightarrow (S, update(E, x, n), P)
        fetch(E, x) = n n is a number
                                               ——— (fetchPush)
        (S, E, x; P) \longrightarrow (n :: S, E, P)
        fetch(E, f) = Q  Q is a program
                                              (fetchCall)
        (S, E, f; P) \longrightarrow (S, E, QP)
                 fetch(E, x) is None
                                              (fetchErr)
            (S, E, X; P) \longrightarrow ERROR
```

```
f = { x = 0; g; };
g = { x; };
x = 1; f;
```

```
f = { x = 0; g; };
g = { x; };
x = 1; f;
```

```
([], [], f = \{ x = 0; g; \}; g = \{ x; \}; x = 1; f; \}
```

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f = { x = 0; g; };
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([], [("f" \mapsto x = 0; g; )], g = \{ x; \}; x = 1; f; \} \longrightarrow
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f = { x = 0; g; };
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([], [("x" \mapsto 1) ("g" \mapsto x;) ("f" \mapsto x = 0; g;)], f;) \rightarrow
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```

```
x = 0
def f():
    x = 1
    return(x)
assert(f() == 1)
assert(x == 0)
(Python)
```

```
let x = 0
let y = let x = 1 in x

let _ = assert(y = 1)
let _ = assert(x = 0)
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Lexical scoping refers the use of textual delimiters to define the scope of a binding

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Lexical scoping refers the use of textual delimiters to define the scope of a binding

A binding may be referred to within the delimited textual area of the code

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This is also called static scoping because, in theory, scoping errors can be found before the program is run

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assert(x == 0)
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(This is far more common in modern programming languages)

Lexical scoping allows us to restrict the scope of a binding. This tends to happen in two ways:

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let x = 0
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- » The binding defines its own scope
 (e.g. let-bindings)
- » A subroutine or code block defines a scope (e.g. python function)

Toy Stack-Oriented Language

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Example Program:
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f;
```

This is a simple language with assignment statements and a push operation for identifiers and subroutines.

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We will take a configuration to be:

```
(S, E, P) or ERROR stack program
```

Example

```
x = 1;
f = { x; }
x = 2;
f;
```

What should be at the top of the stack after evaluation?

Dynamic scoping: 2

Lexical Scoping: 1? 2? Depends. Is x mutable? What is the scope of x after assignment?

(we'll come back to this next week)

An Overview

Dynamically scoped: Bash variables

Lexically scoped, immutable, binding defined: OCaml let-bindings

Lexically scoped, mutable, block defined: Local variables in Python functions

Lexically scoped, mutable, binding defined: OCaml references

demo

(epilogue: OCaml References)