



# Programming Language & Compiler

## *Names, Scopes, and Bindings*

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# Name, Scope, and Binding

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## ▶ Name

- ▶ A mnemonic character string to represent something else
- ▶ Names in most languages are identifiers
- ▶ Symbols (like '+') can also be names
  - ▶ '+' represents an add operation

## ▶ Binding

- ▶ An association between a name and the thing it names

## ▶ Scope of a binding

- ▶ The part of the program in which the binding is active

# Named vs. Unnamed Data

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- ▶ Programming languages have ability to name data
  - ▶ Refer to data using symbolic identifiers rather than addresses
- ▶ Not all data is named!
  - ▶ Dynamic storage in C is referenced by pointers, not by names

# Binding Time

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- ▶ Binding time
  - ▶ Time at which a binding between two things is made
  - ▶ All implementation decisions in PL
- ▶ Representative two bindings
  - ▶ Static binding - binding is made before run time
  - ▶ Dynamic binding - binding is made during run time

# Binding – efficiency vs. flexibility

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- ▶ Early vs. later
  - ▶ Early binding times – generally lead to greater efficiency
  - ▶ Later binding times – generally lead to greater flexibility
- ▶ Compiled vs. interpreted
  - ▶ Compiled languages – tend to have early binding times
  - ▶ Interpreted languages – tend to have later binding times

# Object Lifetime (1)

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- ▶ Key events for objects
  - ▶ Creation of objects
  - ▶ Creation of bindings
  - ▶ References to variables (which use bindings)
  - ▶ (Temporary) deactivation of bindings
  - ▶ Reactivation of bindings
  - ▶ Destruction of bindings
  - ▶ Destruction of objects
- ▶ Lifetime of an object
  - ▶ Period between creation and destruction of the object

# Object Lifetime (2)

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- ▶ Lifetime of a binding
  - ▶ Period from creation to destruction of a binding
  - ▶ If an object outlives binding, it becomes a **garbage**
  - ▶ If binding outlives object, it becomes a **dangling reference**
- ▶ Scope of a binding
  - ▶ Textual region of a program where **binding is active**
- ▶ Object lifetime generally corresponds to storage allocation mechanisms
  - ▶ Static object, Stack object, Heap object

# Storage Management: Static

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- ▶ Static allocation
  - ▶ Live the same lifetime as the program
- ▶ Global segments for
  - ▶ Code
  - ▶ Global variables
  - ▶ Static variables
  - ▶ Explicit constants (including strings, sets, etc.)
  - ▶ Scalars (constant numbers)
    - ▶ Small scalars may be stored in the **immediate fields** of instructions
    - ▶ E.g. `ADD r1, r2, 4`



# Storage Management: Stack-Based

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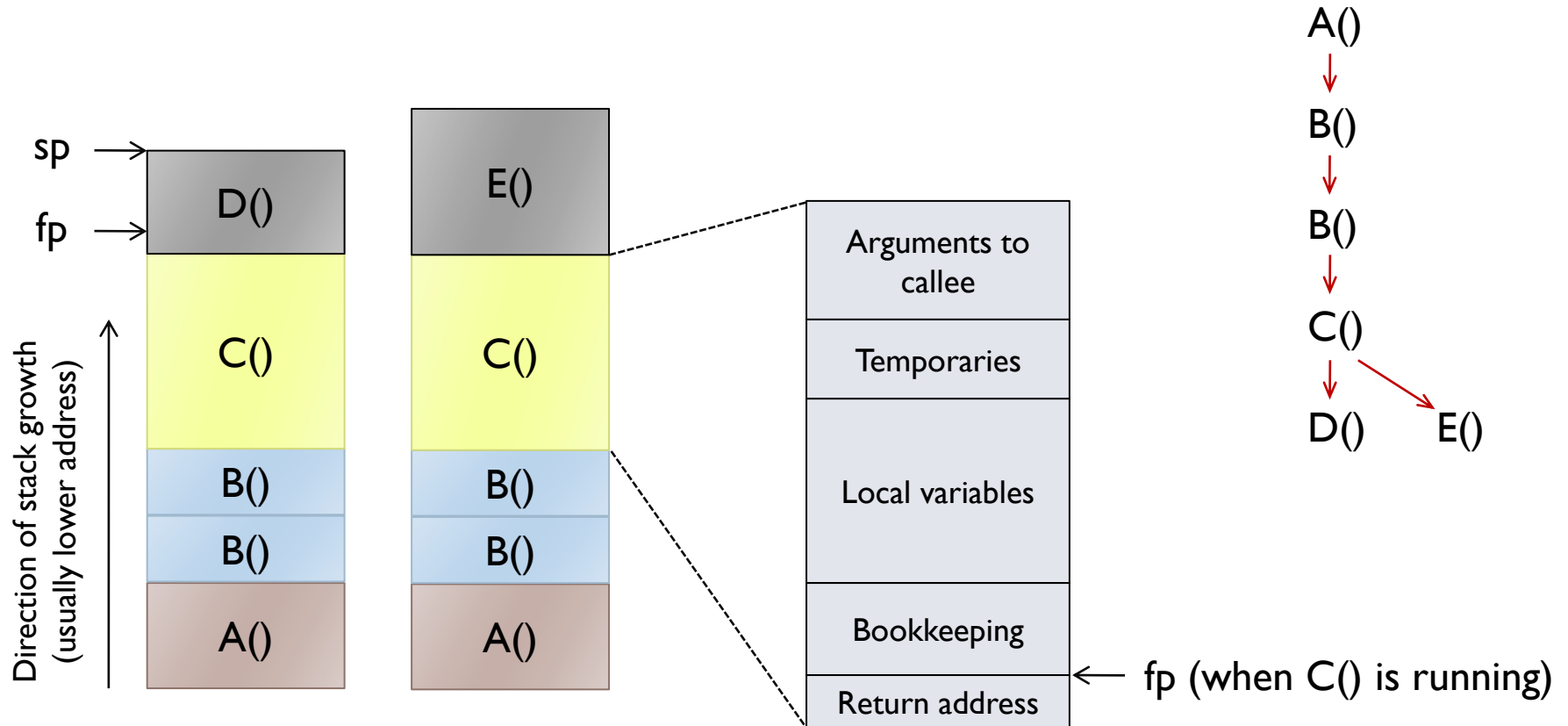
- ▶ **Stack-Based Allocation**
  - ▶ Local variables for functions
- ▶ **Central stack for**
  - ▶ Local variables
  - ▶ Parameters
  - ▶ Temporaries
- ▶ **Why a stack?**
  - ▶ Allocate space for recursive routines
  - ▶ Reuse space

# Stack Frame

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- ▶ Contents of a stack frame (activation record)
  - ▶ Arguments and return values
  - ▶ Local variables
  - ▶ Temporaries
  - ▶ Bookkeeping data (saved registers, static link, etc.)
- ▶ Reference mechanism
  - ▶ **Fixed locations** within a stack frame
  - ▶ Locations are assigned at compile time
  - ▶ Access with **displacement addressing** mode (base-offset)
    - ▶ *fixed offsets* from the stack pointer (sp), or frame pointer (fp)
    - ▶ Can generate code to access data: `mov r3, [fp, 10]`

# Stack Frame (cont'd)



# Stack Maintenance

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- ▶ Maintenance of stack is responsible for
  - ▶ *Calling sequence* at call site (caller)
  - ▶ Subroutine (callee) *prolog* and *epilog*
- ▶ Save *space*
  - ▶ Putting as much stuff in prolog & epilog of callee as possible
- ▶ Save *time*
  - ▶ Share responsibility in the caller and callee (e.g., caller-saved registers, callee-saved registers)
  - ▶ Passing data directly via registers from both caller and callee (e.g., passing arguments/return value in registers)

# Storage Management: Heap-Based

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- ▶ Heap is used for dynamic allocation

- ▶ In-use blocks
- ▶ Free blocks

- ▶ Fragmentation

- ▶ Internal fragmentation (cross-hatched space)



- ▶ External fragmentation

- ▶ Due to discontinuous free blocks, a request block cannot be allocated even if the total free blocks are more than the size of requested block

Heap



Allocation request



# Garbage Collection

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- ▶ Objects for heap-based allocation
  - ▶ Dynamic allocation is explicitly specified
  - ▶ Explicit deallocation (freeing object) may be omitted
- ▶ Garbage collection
  - ▶ Implicit deallocation of objects
  - ▶ Identify garbage (unreachable objects) and reclaim space
- ▶ Garbage
  - ▶ Objects no longer used – hard to determine at run-time
  - ▶ Unreachable objects – easier to determine
    - ▶ Guaranteed no use later (there are no ways to reference them)

# Scope Rules

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- ▶ A *scope* is textual region where bindings are active
  - ▶ A program section of maximal size
  - ▶ Bindings become active at the entry of the scope
- ▶ No bindings change in the middle, or
- ▶ No re-declarations are permitted in the middle at least

# Scope Rules in Subroutines

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- ▶ A subroutine opens a new scope on its entry
  - ▶ Create bindings for new local variables,
  - ▶ Deactivate bindings for global variables that are re-declared (these variable are said to have a "hole" in their scope)
- ▶ On subroutine exit
  - ▶ Destroy bindings for local variables
  - ▶ Reactivate bindings for global variables that were deactivated
- ▶ Term “**elaboration**” first used in Algol 68 and Ada
  - ▶ Process of creating bindings when entering a scope
  - ▶ Allocate space at stack, assign initial values, ...



# Static Scoping

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- ▶ Static scoping (= lexical scoping)
- ▶ A scope is defined in terms of the physical (lexical) structure of the program
  - ▶ Scopes can be determined at **compile time**
  - ▶ All bindings for IDs can be resolved by examining program
  - ▶ Typically, most recent, active binding made at compile time
    - ▶ Current binding is the declaration of most closely surrounding block
- ▶ Most compiled languages employ static scope rules
  - ▶ C/C++, Java, ...

# Static Scoping – nested blocks

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- ▶ A classical example of static scope rules
  - ▶ The most closely nested rule
  - ▶ Used in block structured languages (Algol 60 and Pascal)
- ▶ Most closely nested rule
  - ▶ An identifier is known in local scope (where it is declared)
  - ▶ Also known in each enclosing scope from the closest, unless re-declared in an enclosed scope – “*hidden*”
- ▶ Resolving a reference to an identifier
  - ▶ Examine the local scope and statically enclosing scopes until a binding is found

# Static Scoping - modules

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- ▶ Object-oriented languages
  - ▶ More sophisticated, but static scope rules among classes
- ▶ Binding is not destroyed (– different from subroutine)
  - ▶ Modules in OOL (Modula, Ada, etc.) give you closed scopes without the limited lifetime
  - ▶ Bindings to variables declared in a module are inactive outside the module, not destroyed
- ▶ Similar effect can be achieved in many languages
  - ▶ *static* (C term) variables
  - ▶ *own* (Algol term)

# Static Links

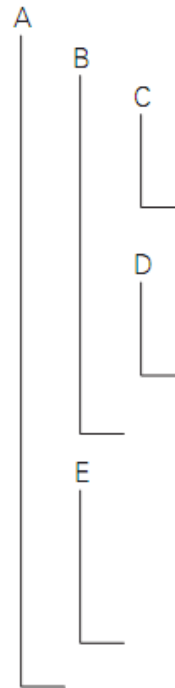
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- ▶ Access to non-local variables through Static Links
  - ▶ Each frame contains a static link to point to the *parent* frame
  - ▶ Parent frame means the most recent invocation of the lexically surrounding subroutine
- ▶ You access a variable in a scope  $k$  levels outside
  - ▶ by following  $k$  static links and then using the known offset within that frame

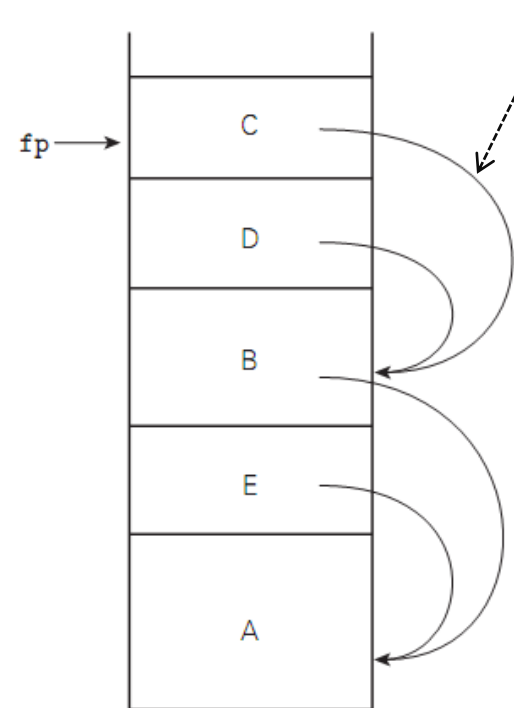
# Static Chains

```
A() {  
  B() {  
    C() { ... }  
    D() { call C(); }  
  
    call D();  
  }  
  E() {  
    call B();  
  }  
  
  call E();  
}
```

Scopes



Static link



# Dynamic Scoping

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- ▶ With dynamic scope rules, bindings depend on the current state of program execution
  - ▶ Cannot always be resolved by examining the program, because they vary depending on calling sequences
  - ▶ To resolve a reference, we use the most recent, active binding made at run time

# Dynamic Scoping

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- ▶ Dynamic scoping often used in interpreted languages
  - ▶ APL, Snobol, Tex, early dialects of LIPS, Perl
- ▶ No type checking at compile time
  - ▶ Type determination is not always possible at compile time, when dynamic scope rules are in effect

# Accessing Variables in Dynamic Scope

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- ▶ Two methods
  - ▶ Stack
  - ▶ Central table
- ▶ Stack (*association list*) of all active variables
  - ▶ To find a variable, hunt down from top of stack
  - ▶ Equivalent to searching the activation records on the dynamic chain
  - ▶ Slow accesses but fast calls



# Accessing Variables in Dynamic Scope

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- ▶ Central table with one slot for every variable name
  - ▶ If names cannot be created at run time, the table layout (and the location of every slot) can be fixed at compile time
  - ▶ Otherwise, you'll need a hash function to do lookup
  - ▶ Every subroutine changes the table entries for its locals at entry/exit
  - ▶ Slow calls but fast accesses

# Example: Static vs. Dynamic

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n : integer;      ← global

procedure main {

    procedure first {

        n := 1;

    }

    procedure second {

        n : integer;      ← local

        first();

    }

n := 2;

second();

write(n);

}

Output

Static scoping: 1

Dynamic scoping : 2

## Example: Static vs. Dynamic (cont'd)

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- ▶ How dynamic scoping works for the prev. example
  - ▶ Create a binding for **global n** when we enter *main()*
  - ▶ Create another binding for **local n** when we enter *second()*
    - ▶ This is the most recent, active binding when *first()* is executed
  - ▶ In *first()*, modify **n local** to *second()*, not **global n**
  - ▶ In *main()*, *write()* uses **global n**,
    - ▶ **n local** to *second()* is no longer active in *main()*

# Aliases

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- ▶ Aliasing
  - ▶ Same address but multiple names
  - ▶ Variant Record in Pascal and Union in C
  - ▶ Common and Equivalence in FORTRAN
  - ▶ Parameter passing by reference to a subroutine
- ▶ What are aliases good for?
  - ▶ Space saving
  - ▶ Multiple representations
  - ▶ Pointer-based data structures

# Overloading

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## ▶ Overloading

- ▶ The same name performs different things
  - ▶ functions, operators, enumeration constants, etc.

## ▶ Overloading happens in almost all languages

- ▶ “Integer +” vs. “real +”
- ▶ Enumeration constants in Ada

```
type autumn is (sep, oct, nov);  
type base is (dec, bin, oct, hex);  
mo : autumn;  
pb : base;  
  
mo := nov;  
pb := oct;  
print(oct);           -- error!  
                        -- cannot decide type
```

# Overloaded Functions

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- ▶ Two different things with the same name (in C++)

```
int norm (int a){return a>0 ? a : -a;}
complex norm (complex c ) { sqrt(c.a*c.a + c.b*c.b); }

int i;
complex c;

norm(i);      // integer norm function
norm(c);      // complex norm function
```

# Polymorphic Functions

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- ▶ One thing that works in more than one way
  - ▶ Polymorphism  $\neq$  Overloading – they are slightly different
- ▶ Parametric polymorphism
  - ▶ Code takes types as parameters explicitly or implicitly
  - ▶ Generic in Java (or templates in C++) explicitly takes types
  - ▶ Lisp, ML, Scheme, Haskell implicitly take types
- ▶ Subtype polymorphism
  - ▶ Code takes subtypes as well as original type in OOL
  - ▶ Inheritance in OOL provides this with *virtual methods*
  - ▶ Involves *dynamic binding* of *overriding* function
    - ▶ Overriding – a name in base class is redefined in a sub class, with the exactly same number/types of parameters

# Parametric Polymorphism

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## ► Explicit parametric polymorphism

```
// Java generic with interface java.lang.Comparable<T>
public static <T extends Comparable<T>> T max(T a, T b) {
    if (a.compareTo(b) >= 0) return a;
    else return b;
}

max(1, 5);           // T is Integer (autoboxing int)
max(1.4, 5.6);       // T is Double (autoboxing double)
```

## ► Implicit parametric polymorphism

### ► Interpreted languages determine operators at run time

```
(define min (lambda (a b) (if (< a b) a b))) // Scheme

min a b = if a < b then a else b // Haskell
```



# Generic Functions

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- ▶ A syntactic template that can be instantiated in more than one way *at compile time*
  - ▶ Via macro processors in C/C++
  - ▶ Built-in in C++ and Ada

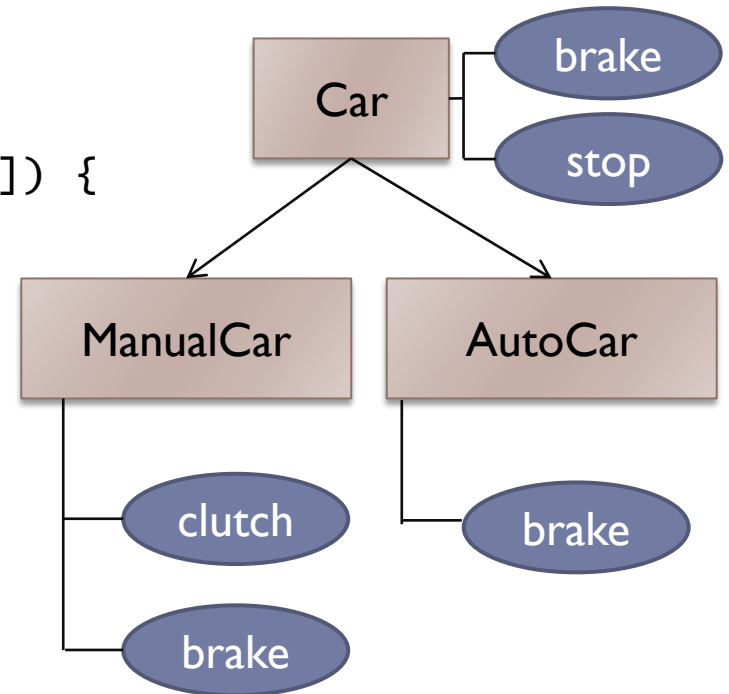
```
// C++ template
template<class X> X max(X a, X b) {
    return a>b ? a : b;
}

void g(int a, int b, char c, char d) {
    int m1 = max(a,b);
    char m2 = max(c,d);
}
```

# Subtype Polymorphism

// Java subtype with virtual method

```
public class Car {  
    public void brake() {}  
    public void stop() { brake(); }  
  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        ManualCar m = new ManualCar();  
        AutoCar a = new AutoCar();  
        m.stop();  
        a.stop();  
    }  
}  
  
class ManualCar extends Car {  
    public void clutch() { ... }  
    public void brake() { clutch(); ... }  
}  
  
class AutoCar extends Car {  
    public void brake() { ... }  
}
```



# Coercion

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- ▶ Coercion allows implicit type conversion
  - ▶ Compiler automatically converts a value of one type into a value of another type, when the context requires it
  - ▶ Could cause performance problem

```
double min(double x, double y) { ... }
```

```
double  f, g, h;
```

```
int     i, j, k;
```

```
f = min(g, h);
```

```
i = min (j, k);
```



Type conversion operations are inserted for parameters and return value.

# Language Features

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- ▶ Language features can be surprisingly subtle
- ▶ A language that is easy to compile often leads to
  - ▶ A language that is easy to understand
  - ▶ More good compilers on more machines (compare Pascal and Ada!)
  - ▶ Better (faster) code
  - ▶ Fewer compiler bugs
  - ▶ Smaller, cheaper, faster compilers
  - ▶ Better diagnostics

# Summary

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- ▶ Binding times: Static-binding vs. Dynamic-binding
- ▶ Object lifetime and storage management
  - ▶ Static, stack-based, heap-based management
  - ▶ Storage determines lifetime of objects
- ▶ Scope rules: Static scope vs. dynamic scope
- ▶ Meaning of names within a scope changes
  - ▶ Aliases
  - ▶ Overloading
  - ▶ Polymorphism