

## Naming Issues: Example 1

We need to know what thing a *name* refers to in our programs.

Overview

Allocation

Scoping Intro

Dynamic

Scope

Lexical Scope

Consider, in Perl:

```
$x=1;
sub foo() { $x = 5; }
sub bar() { local $x = 2; foo(); print $x,"\\n";
bar();
```

What gets printed for *x*?

## Naming Issues: Example 2

We need to know what thing a *name* refers to in our programs.

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Consider, in Scheme:

```
(define x 1)
(let ((x 2))
  (display (eval 'x)))
```

What gets printed for *x*?

## Naming Issues: Example 3

We need to know what thing a *name* refers to in our programs.

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Consider, in C++:

```
char* foo() {
  char s[20];
  cin >> s;
  return s;
}

int bar (char* x) { cout << x << endl; }

int main() { bar(foo()); }
```

What gets printed for *x*?

## Basic terminology

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- **Name:** A reference to something in our program
- **Binding:** An attachment of a *value* to a *name*
- **Scope:** The part of code where a *binding* is active
- **Referencing Environment:** The set of bindings around an expression
- **Allocation:** Setting aside space for an object
- **Lifetime:** The time when an object is in memory

## Options

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### Scoping

- **Single Global Scope**  
Just one symbol table
- **Dynamic Scope**  
Stacks of scopes, depends on *run-time* behavior
- **Lexical Scope**  
Scope is based on the syntactical (lexical) structure of the code.

### Allocation

- **Static Allocation**  
Allocation fixed at compile-time
- **Stack Allocation**  
Follows function calls
- **Heap Allocation**  
Done at run-time, as objects are created and destroyed

## Static Allocation

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The storage for some objects can be fixed at compile-time. Then our program can access them *really quickly!*

Examples:

- Global variables
- Literals (e.g. "a string")
- *Everything* in Fortran 77?

## Stack Allocation

The run-time stack is usually used for function calls.  
Includes local variables, arguments, and returned values.

Example: What does the stack look like for this C program?

```
int g(int x) { return x*x; }

int f(int y) {
    int x = 3 + g(y);
    return x;
}

int main() {
    int n = 5;
    f(n);
}
```

## Heap Allocation

The heap refers to a pile of memory that can be taken as needed. It is typically used for *run-time memory allocation*.

This is the *slowest* kind of allocation because it happens at run-time.

Compilers/interpreters providing *garbage collection* make life easier with lots of heap-allocated storage.

Otherwise the segfault monsters will come. . .

## Single Global Scope

Why not just have every instance of a name bind to the same object? (Compiler writing would be easier!)

## What is a scope?

Certain language structures create a *new scope*. For example:

```
int temp = 5;

// Sorts a two-element array.
void twosort(int A[]) {
    if (A[0] > A[1]) {
        int temp = A[0];
        A[0] = A[1];
        A[1] = temp;
    }
}

int main() {
    int arr[] = {2, 1};
    twosort(arr);
    cout << temp; // Prints 5, even with dynamic scoping
}
```

## Nested Scopes

In C++, nested scopes are made using curly braces ({ and }). The scope resolution operator :: allows jumping between scopes manually.

In most languages, function bodies are a nested scope. Often, *control structure* blocks do to (e.g. for, if, etc.)

*Lexical scoping* follows the nesting of scopes in the actual source code (as it is parsed).

*Dynamic scoping* follows the nesting of scopes as the program is executed.

## Declaration Order

In many languages, variables must be *declared* before they are used. (Otherwise, the first use constitutes a declaration.)

In C/C++, the scope of a name starts at its declaration and goes to the end of the scope. Every name must be declared before its first use, because names are *resolved* as they are encountered.

C++ and Java make an exception for names in *class scope*. Scheme doesn't resolve names until they are evaluated.

## Declaration Order and Mutual Recursion

Consider the following familiar code:

```
void exp() { atom(); exptail(); }

void atom() {
    switch(peek()) {
        case LP: match(LP); exp(); match(RP); break;
        // ...
    }
}
```

Mutual recursion in C/C++ requires *forward declarations*, i.e., function prototypes.

These wouldn't be needed within a class definition or in Scheme.

C# and Pascal solve the problem in a different way...

## Dynamic vs. Lexical Scope

### Dynamic Scope

- Bindings determined by *most recent declaration* (at run time)
- The same name can refer to many different bindings!
- Examples:

### Lexical Scope

- Bindings determined from lexical structure at compile-time
- The same name always refers to the same binding.
- More common in "mature" languages
- Examples:

## Dynamic vs. Lexical Example

```
int x = 10;

int foo(int y) {
    x = y+5;
    print(x);
}

int main() {
    int x = 8;
    foo(9);
    print(x);
}
```

How does the behavior differ between a dynamic or lexically scoped language?

## Implementing Dynamic Scope

A *Central Reference Table* is used to implement dynamic scope.

This *global* object contains:

- A mapping of names to *stacks of values*.  
Declaring a new binding pushes onto the stack; exiting that binding's scope pops off the top of the stack.
- A stack of sets of names. Each set stores the names declared in some scope (so we know what bindings to pop!).

## Example: Central Reference Tables with Lambdas

```
{
  new x := 0;
  new i := -1;
  new g := lambda z { ret := i; };
  new f := lambda p {
    new i := x;
    if (i > 0) { ret := p(0); }
    else {
      x := x + 1;
      i := 3;
      ret := f(g);
    }
  };
  write f(lambda y {ret := 0});
}
```

What gets printed by this (dynamically-scoped) SPL program?

## Lexical Scope Tree

Name resolution in lexical scoping follows the *scope tree*:

- Every (nested) scope is a node in the tree.
- The root node is the global scope
- Nodes contain names defined in that scope.
- To determine active bindings, follow the tree up from the current scope until you see the name!

Example (program on previous slide):

## Reminder: The class of functions

Recall that functions in a programming language can be:

- **Third class:** Never treated like variables
- **Second class:** Passed as parameters to other functions
- **First class:** Also returned from a function and assigned to a variable.

## Implementing Lexical Scope

With *lexical scoping*, rules for binding get more complicated when functions have more flexibility.

- Third-class functions:  
Can use “static links” into the function call stack
- Second-class functions:  
Can use “dynamic links” into the function call stack
- First-class functions:  
Must use Frames

## Lexical Scope with 1st-Class Functions

What happens here?

```
{
  new f := lambda x {
    new g := lambda y { ret := x * y; };
    ret := g;
  };

  new h := f(2);
  write h(3);
}
```

Where are the *non-local references* stored?

## Frames

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A *frame* is a data structure that represents the *referencing environment* of some part of a program.

It contains:

- A link to the *parent frame*.  
This will correspond to the *enclosing scope*, (or `null` for the global environment frame).
- A *symbol table* mapping names to values.  
(Notice: no stacks!)

Looking up a name means checking the current frame, and if the name is not there, *recursively* looking it up in the parent frame.

Function calls create new frames.

## SPL Example for Frames

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How would this program work using *lexical scoping*?

```
new x := 8;

new f := lambda n {
  write n + x;
};

{ new x := 10;
  f(2);
}
```

- How do frames compare with activation records on the stack?
- Can we use frames for *dynamic* scoping?

## Closures

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How are functions represented as values (i.e., first-class)?

With a *closure*!

Recall that a closure is a function definition plus its referencing environment. In the frame model, we represent this as a pair of:

- The function definition (parameters and body)
- A link to the frame *where the function was defined*



## Example with closures

Draw out the frames and closures in a Scheme program using our stacks:

```
(define (make-stack)
  (define stack '())
  (lambda (arg)
    (if (eq? arg 'pop)
        (let ((popped (car stack)))
          (set! stack (cdr stack))
          popped)
        (set! stack (cons arg stack)))))

(define s (make-stack))
(s 5)
(s 20)
(s 'pop)
```

## Class outcomes

You should know:

- The meaning of terms like *binding* and *scope*
- The trade-offs involved in storage allocation
- The trade-offs involved in scoping rules
- The motivation behind declare-before-use rules, and their effect on mutual recursion.
- Why some languages restrict functions to 3rd-class or 2nd-class
- What non-local references are, and what kind of headaches they create
- How memory for local variables is allocated when in lexical scoping with first-class functions
- Why first class functions *require* different allocation rules
- What is meant by closure, referencing environment, and frame.

## Class outcomes

You should be able to:

- Show how variables are allocated in C++, Java, and Scheme.
- Draw out activation records on a run-time stack.
- Determine the run-time bindings in a program using dynamic and lexical scoping.
- Draw the state of the Central Reference Table at any point in running a dynamically-scoped program
- Draw the tree of nested scopes for a lexically-scoped program.
- Trace the run of a lexically-scoped program.
- Draw the frames and closures in a program run using lexical or dynamic scoping