

Variables and Definitions

February 19, 2001
CS 131: Programming Languages

Some SML Code

What Gets Printed?

```
val x = 0
fun f(y:int) = x * y
fun g(z:int) = let
    val x = 1
    in
        f(x + z)
    end
val _ = print (Int.toString (g 1))
```

Same Code in Emacs Lisp

What Gets Printed?

```
(defvar x 0)
(defun f (y) (* x y))
(defun g (z) (let ((x 1))
              (f (+ x z))))
(print (g 1))
```

Same Code in Perl (twice)

```
$x = 0;
sub f {
    local ($y) = @_;
    return ($x * $y);
}
sub g {
    local ($z) = @_;
    local $x = 4;
    return (f($x + $z));
}
print (g(1));
```

```
$x = 0;
sub f {
    local ($y) = @_;
    return ($x * $y);
}
sub g {
    local ($z) = @_;
    my $x = 4;
    return (f($x + $z));
}
print (g(1));
```

What's going on?

```
val x = 0
fun f(y) = x * y
```

Defines f to be the function which multiplies its argument by 0

```
fun g(z) =
  let val x = 1
  in (f (x + z))
end
```

```
(defvar x 0)
(defun f (y) (* x y))
```

Defines f to be the function which multiplies its argument by x

```
(defun g (z)
  (let ((x 1))
    (f (+ x z))))
```

More Precisely...

```
val x = 0
fun f(y) = x * y
```

f refers to the x in scope when f was *defined*.
(Static Scope)

```
fun g(z) =
  let val x = 4
  in (f z)
end
```

```
(defvar x 0)
(defun f (y) (* x y))
```

f refers to the most-recently defined x when f is *called*.
(Dynamic Scope)

```
(defun g (z)
  (let ((x 4))
    (f z)))
```

Scoping in Languages

- Lexical
 - Fortran, Pascal, C, C++, Java, SML, Scheme, ...
- Dynamic
 - APL, Snobol, Original LISP, Emacs LISP, Perl 4, ...
- Both
 - Perl 5, Common LISP

Arguments for Lexical Scope

- Names of local variables and function arguments shouldn't matter
 - Avoids accidental clashes between separate pieces of code without having to choose obscure variable names
 - e.g., `verylongatomunlikelytobeusedbyprogrammer1`
- Easier to typecheck
 - Otherwise, what is the type of `fn(y:int)=>x*y` ?
- Easier to implement efficiently in compilers

Arguments for Dynamic Scope

- Easier to implement in an interpreter
- Customization of subroutines

```
(defvar base 10)
(defun print_int (n)
  (... print the number n in base base ...))
(defun foo (y)
  (... do computation then call print_int ...))

(let ((base 8)) (print_int 42))
(print_int 100)
(let ((base 2)) (foo 7))
(print_int 100)
```

Arguments for Dynamic Scoping

"Dynamic binding is especially useful for elements of the command dispatch table. For example, the RMAIL command for composing a reply to a message temporarily defines the character Control-Meta-Y to insert the text of the original message into the reply. The function which implements this command is always defined, but Control-Meta-Y does not call that function except while a reply is being edited. The reply command does this by dynamically binding the dispatch table entry for Control-Meta-Y and then calling the editor as a subroutine. When the recursive invocation of the editor returns, the text as edited by the user is sent as a reply"

Richard Stallman

EMACS: The Extensible, Customizable Display Editor

Implementing Dynamic Scope

- Easy to implement in an interpreter
 - As program is executing, maintain mapping from variable names to values
 - Update mapping whenever new variable is declared
 - Restore mapping when leaving scope of this variable
 - Whenever variable is encountered, look up its current definition

Interpreting Dynamic Scope

```
(defvar base 10)
(defun print_int (n)
  (... print the number n in base base ...))
```

```
(let ((base 8)) (print_int 42))
(print_int 100)
```

When execution has reached this point, `base` is bound to 10 while `print_int` is bound to a function value.

Interpreting Dynamic Scope

```
(defvar base 10)
(defun print_int (n)
  (... print the number n in base base ...))
```

```
(let ((base 8)) (print_int 42))
(print_int 100)
```

Here the environment has been updated to give `base` the value 8. Next the program calls `print_int`

Interpreting Dynamic Scope

```
(defvar base 10)
(defun print_int (n)
  (... print the number n in base base ...))
```

```
(let ((base 8)) (print_int 42))
(print_int 100)
```

The function `print_int` looks up `base` in the environment and finds the value 8.

Interpreting Dynamic Scope

```
(defvar base 10)
(defun print_int (n)
  (... print the number n in base base ...))
```

```
(let ((base 8)) (print_int 42))
(print_int 100)
```

After exiting the scope of the local variable `base`, the environment is restored to make `base` refer to the global variable, which has value 10.

Interpreting Dynamic Scope

```
(defvar base 10)
(defun print_int (n)
  (... print the number n in base base ...))
```

```
(let ((base 8)) (print_int 42))
(print_int 100)
```

Thus this call to `print_int` will look up the variable `base` and find the value 10.

Compiling Static Scope

- Outline
 - Static storage (Fortran)
 - Unnested procedures (C)
 - Nested procedures (Pascal, Modula-2)
 - Procedures as arguments (Pascal, Modula-2)
 - Procedures as results (SML, Scheme)

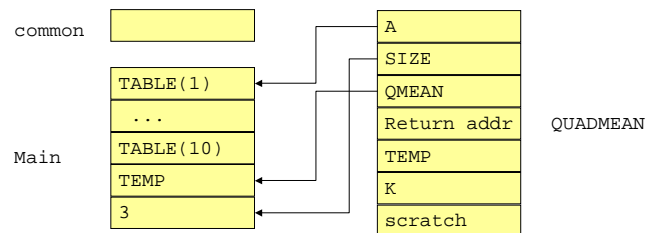
Fortran Sample

```

PROGRAM TEST
REAL TABLE(10), TEMP
READ *, TABLE(1), TABLE(2), TABLE(3)
CALL QUADMEAN(TABLE, 3, TEMP)
PRINT *, TEMP
END

SUBROUTINE QUADMEAN(A, SIZE, QMEAN)
INTEGER SIZE
REAL A(SIZE), QMEAN, TEMP
INTEGER K
TEMP = 0.0
IF ((SIZE.GT.10).OR.(SIZE.LT.1)) GOTO 99
DO 10 K = 1, SIZE
    TEMP = TEMP + A(K) * A(K)
10 CONTINUE
99 QMEAN = SQRT(TEMP/SIZE)
RETURN
END
    
```

Memory Layout



Activation Records

- The segment of memory used by a single procedure is called an *activation record*.
 - Contains arguments, return address, local data, etc.
- In Fortran, activation records are statically allocated.
 - Consequences?

Stack Frames

- Idea: allocate activation records on a stack
 - These records are then called *stack frames*
- Advantages
 - Permits multiple instances of a procedure to be simultaneously active (i.e., recursion)
 - Permits some dynamic memory allocation
- Consequences
 - Memory accesses must be sp-relative in general, rather than absolute

C Sample

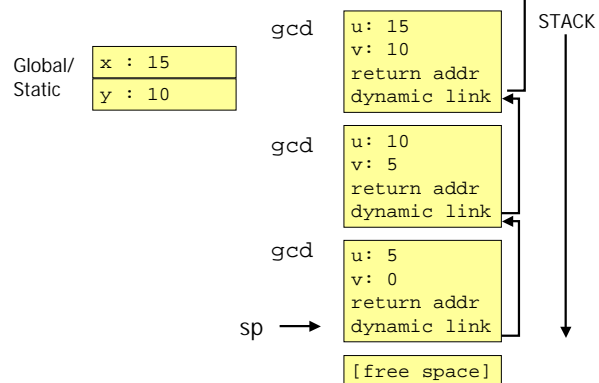
```
#include <stdio.h>

int x,y;

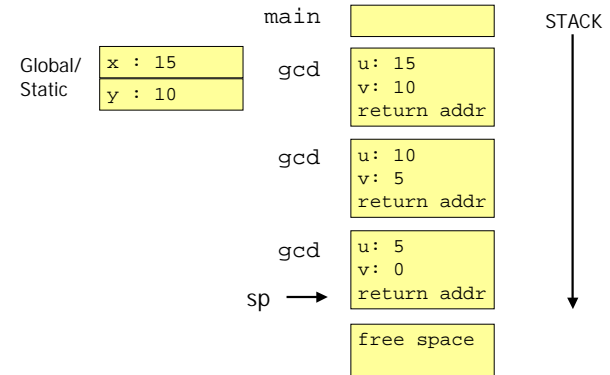
int gcd(int u, int v) {
    if (v == 0) return u;
    else return gcd(v, u%v);
}

int main() {
    scanf("%d%d",&x,&y);
    printf("%d\n", gcd(x,y));
    return 0;
}
```

Memory Layout



Alternate Memory Layout



Nested Procedures

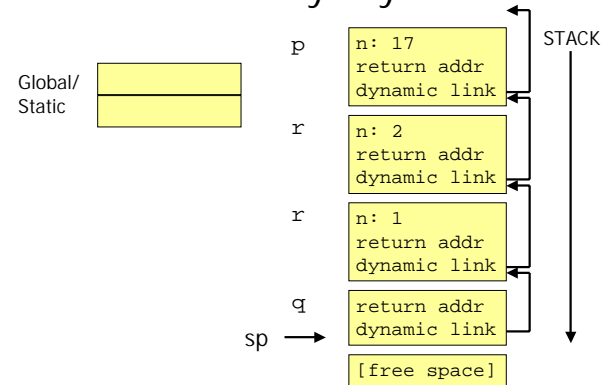
```

procedure p;
  var n: integer;
  procedure q;
  begin
    writeln(n)
  end;
  procedure r(n:integer);
  begin
    if n>1 then r(n-1)
    else q
    end;
  end;
begin
  n := 17;
  r(2)
end;
    
```

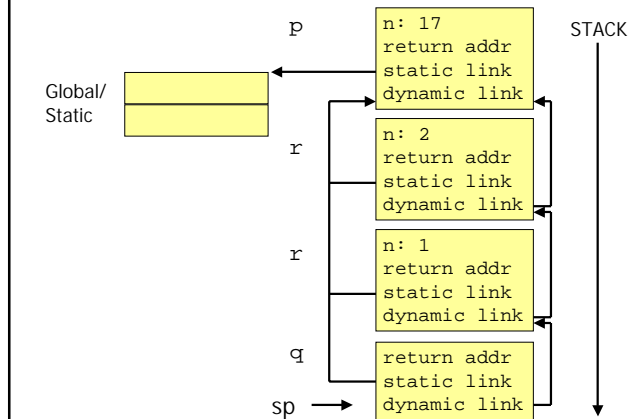
```

fun p() =
  let
    val n = 17
    fun q() = print_int n
    fun r(n) =
      if n>1 then r(n-1)
      else q()
    in
      r(2)
    end
  end
    
```

Memory Layout?



Idea: Static Links



Procedure Calls with Static Links

- Subroutine code:
 - Expects to be passed both its arguments and a pointer to its static link
 - Allocates its own stack frame and sets up its own dynamic link

Code Pointers

- C does not allow nested function definitions
- In C can pass/return function pointers (code addresses)

```
void qsort
(void *base, size_t nel, size_t width,
 int (*compar)(const void *, const void *));
```

- This is not a coincidence.

Procedures as Parameters

```
fun p() =
  let
    val n = 17
    fun q() = print_int n
    fun r(n) =
      if n>1 then r(n-1)
      else q()
  in
    r(2)
  end
```

```
fun call_arg(f) = f()
fun p() =
  let
    val n = 17
    fun q() = print_int n
    fun r(n) =
      if n>1 then r(n-1)
      else call_arg(q)
  in
    r(2)
  end
```

Procedures as Parameters

- Problem:
 - The `call_arg` function doesn't know what static link to give its argument `f`.
- Solution:
 - Cannot simply pass around a function pointer to `q`.
 - Pass around a *closure*.
 - Function pointer + information about its free variables.
 - e.g., <function pointer, static link>

Returning Functions as Results

- Languages like Pascal and Algol permit nested function definitions and functions as arguments, but prohibit returning functions as results!
- Problem:
 - Closures implemented with static links
 - Stack frame pointed to by the static link may be popped before the closure is used!

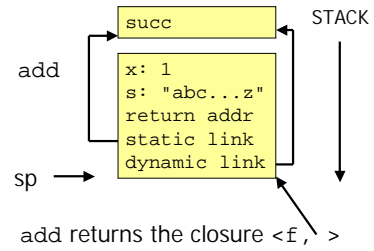
Procedures as *Results*

```

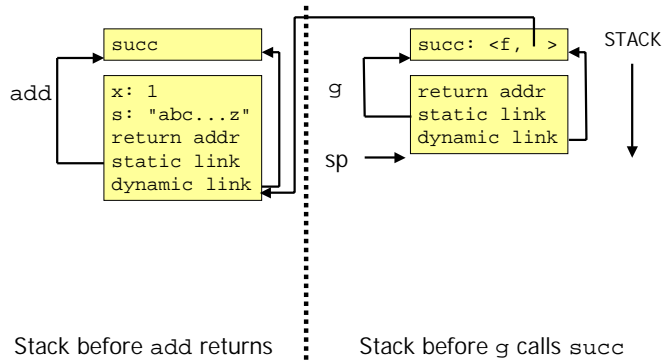
let
  fun add x =
    let
      fun f y = x+y
    in
      f
    end
  val succ = add 1
  fun g() = succ 2
in
  g()
end

```

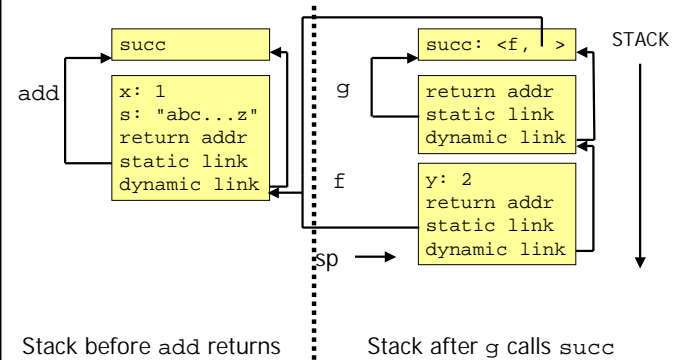
Just Before add Returns



Before g calls succ



After g calls succ



Summary

- The problem is that the value of x has *indefinite extent*
 - It needs to stay around even after `add` returns
 - This is probably the biggest difficulty in compiling "functional" languages.
- Simplest solution: don't use a stack
 - Allocate activation records on the heap (linked list)
 - Never pop activation records on return
 - deallocate (GC) only when no longer referenced.
 - Probably should be a bit cleverer; this leaks space

Closures vs. Code Pointers

- In C can pass/return function pointers

```
void qsort
    (void *base, size_t nel, size_t width,
     int (*compar)(const void *, const void *));
```
- But, cannot create functions at run-time
- No equivalent to

```
mergesort : ('a * 'a -> 'a) -> ('a list -> 'a list)
send      : channel -> (message -> unit)
```

Example: X-Windows

- The X Toolkit defines an event-driven model for X-windows
 - Can specify functions to be called when a particular event occurs (e.g, button pressed)
 - These functions called "upcalls" or "callbacks" because rather than making calls *to* the system, these functions are *called by* the system.
 - Implements closures *manually*
 - When specifying the callback, give both a code pointer and a piece of data to be passed to this function when it is called.

Sample Code

```
void PressMe(Widget w, XtPointer client_data,
            XtPointer call_data) {
    printf("%s\n", client_data);
}
int main() {
    Widget button1, button2;
    /* ...initialization code for buttons here... */
    XtAddCallback(button1, XmNactivateCallback,
                  PressMe, "aha");
    XtAddCallback(button2, XmNactivateCallback,
                  PressMe, "oho");
}
```