What’s Wrong With This?

\[ a + f(b, c) \]
What’s Wrong With This?

\[ a + f(b, c) \]

Is \( a \) defined?

Is \( f \) defined?

Are \( b \) and \( c \) defined?

Is \( f \) a function of two arguments?

Can you add whatever \( a \) is to whatever \( f \) returns?

Does \( f \) accept whatever \( b \) and \( c \) are?

Scope questions    Type questions
Scope

What names are visible?
Scope: where/when a name is bound to an object
Useful for modularity: want to keep most things hidden

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A name begins life where it is declared and ends at the end of its block.

From the CLRM, “The scope of an identifier declared at the head of a block begins at the end of its declarator, and persists to the end of the block.”
Hiding a Definition

Nested scopes can hide earlier definitions, giving a hole.

From the CLRM, “If an identifier is explicitly declared at the head of a block, including the block constituting a function, any declaration of the identifier outside the block is suspended until the end of the block.”

```c
void foo()
{
    int x;
    while ( a < 10 ) {
        int x;
    }
}
```
Static vs. Dynamic Scope

### C

```c
int a = 0;
int foo() {
    return a + 1;
}
int bar() {
    int a = 10;
    return foo();
}
```

### OCaml

```ocaml
let a = 0 in
let foo x = a + 1 in
let bar =
    let a = 10 in
    foo 0
```

### Bash

```bash
a=0
foo () {
    a='expr $a + 1'
}
bar () {
    local a=10
    foo
    echo $a
}
bar
```
Basic Static Scope in O’Caml

A name is bound after the “in” clause of a “let.” If the name is re-bound, the binding takes effect after the “in.”

```
let x = 8 in
let x = x + 1 in
```

Returns the pair (12, 8):

```
let x = 8 in
(let x = x + 2 in
 x + 2),
```

```
x
```
The “rec” keyword makes a name visible to its definition. This only makes sense for functions.

```ocaml
let rec fib i =
  if i < 1 then 1 else fib (i-1) + fib (i-2)
in
fib 5
```

```ocaml
(* Nonsensical *)
let rec x = x + 3 in
```
Let and in O'Caml

Let and lets you bind multiple names at once. Definitions are not mutually visible unless marked “rec.”
Languages such as C, C++, and Pascal require forward declarations for mutually-recursive references.

```
int foo(void);
int bar() { ... foo(); ... }
int foo() { ... bar(); ... }
```

Nesting Function Definitions

let articles words =
  let report w =
    let count = List.length (List.filter ((=) w) words)
    in w ^ "": " ^
        string_of_int count
    in String.concat "", "
        (List.map report ["a"; "the"])
  in String.concat "", "
      (List.map report ["a"; "the"])
  in articles
      ["the"; "plt"; "class"; "is";
       "a"; "pain"; "in";
       "the"; "butt"]

let count words w = List.length (List.filter ((=) w) words) in

let report words w = w ^ "": " ^
    string_of_int (count words w) in

let articles words =
  String.concat "", "
    (List.map (report words)
      ["a"; "the"])
  in

articles
  ["the"; "plt"; "class"; "is";
   "a"; "pain"; "in";
   "the"; "butt"]

Produces “a: 1, the: 2”
Dynamic Definitions in \TeX

\begin{verbatim}
% \x, \y undefined
{
% \x, \y undefined
\def \x 1
% \x defined, \y undefined

\ifnum \a < 5
  \def \y 2
\fi

% \x defined, \y may be undefined
}
% \x, \y undefined
\end{verbatim}
Most modern languages use static scoping. Easier to understand, harder to break programs. Advantage of dynamic scoping: ability to change environment. A way to surreptitiously pass additional parameters.
Application of Dynamic Scoping

program messages;
var message : string;

procedure complain;
begin
    writeln(message);
end

procedure problem1;
var message : string;
begin
    message := 'Out of memory';
    complain
end

procedure problem2;
var message : string;
begin
    message := 'Out of time';
    complain
end
Open vs. Closed Scopes

An *open scope* begins life including the symbols in its outer scope.

Example: blocks in Java

```java
{
    int x;
    for (;;) {
        /* x visible here */
    }
}
```

A *closed scope* begins life devoid of symbols.

Example: structures in C.

```c
struct foo {
    int x;
    float y;
}
```
Types

What operations are allowed?
A restriction on the possible interpretations of a segment of memory or other program construct.

Two uses:

**Safety:** avoids data being treated as something it isn’t

**Optimization:** eliminates certain runtime decisions
Types in C

What types are processors best at?
C was designed for efficiency: basic types are whatever is most efficient for the target processor.

On an (32-bit) ARM processor,

```c
char c; /* 8-bit binary */
short d; /* 16-bit two’s-complement binary */
unsigned short d; /* 16-bit binary */
int a; /* 32-bit two’s-complement binary */
unsigned int b; /* 32-bit binary */
float f; /* 32-bit IEEE 754 floating-point */
double g; /* 64-bit IEEE 754 floating-point */
```
Number Behavior

Basic number axioms:

\[ a + x = a \text{ if and only if } x = 0 \quad \text{Additive identity} \]
\[ (a + b) + c = a + (b + c) \quad \text{Associative} \]
\[ a(b + c) = ab + ac \quad \text{Distributive} \]
Misbehaving Floating-Point Numbers

\[ 1e20 + 1e-20 = 1e20 \]
\[ 1e-20 \ll 1e20 \]

\[ (1 + 9e-7) + 9e-7 \neq 1 + (9e-7 + 9e-7) \]
9e-7 \ll 1, so it is discarded, however, 1.8e-6 is large enough

\[ 1.00001(1.00001 - 1) \neq 1.00001 \cdot 1.000001 - 1.00001 \cdot 1 \]
\[ 1.00001 \cdot 1.000001 = 1.00001100001 \] requires too much intermediate precision.
What’s Going On?

Floating-point numbers are represented using an exponent/significand format:

\[
\begin{align*}
1 & \quad 10000001 \quad 01100000000000000000000000000 \\
\text{8-bit exponent} & \quad \text{23-bit significand} \\
= & \quad -1.011_2 \times 2^{129-127} = -1.375 \times 4 = -5.5.
\end{align*}
\]

What to remember:

1363.456846353963456293

represented rounded
What’s Going On?

Results are often rounded:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
1.0000100000 \\
\times 1.0000010000 \\
\hline
1.00001100001 \\
\end{array}
\]

When \( b \approx -c \), \( b + c \) is small, so \( ab + ac \neq a(b + c) \) because precision is lost when \( ab \) is calculated.

Moral: Be aware of floating-point number properties when writing complex expressions.
Pointers and Arrays

A pointer contains a memory address.

Arrays in C are implemented with arithmetic on pointers.

A pointer can create an alias to a variable:

```c
int a;
in ...
Pointers Enable Pass-by-Reference

```c
void swap(int x, int y)
{
    int temp;
    temp = x;
    x = y;
    y = temp;
}
```

Does this work?
void swap(int x, int y)
{
    int temp;
    temp = x;
    x = y;
    y = temp;
}

Does this work?
Nope.

void swap(int *px, int *py)
{
    int temp;
    temp = *px; /* get data at px */
    *px = *py; /* get data at py */
    *py = temp; /* write data at py */
}

void main()
{
    int a = 1, b = 2;
    /* Pass addresses of a and b */
    swap(&a, &b);
    /* a = 2 and b = 1 */
}
Arrays and Pointers

```
int a[10];
```

```
```

```
int *pa = &a[0];
pa = pa + 1;
pa = &a[1];
pa = a + 5;
```
Arrays and Pointers

```
int a[10];
int *pa = &a[0];
```
int a[10];
int *pa = &a[0];
pa = pa + 1;
Arrays and Pointers

```c
int a[10];
int *pa = &a[0];
pa = pa + 1;
pa = &a[1];
```
Arrays and Pointers

int a[10];
int *pa = &a[0];
pa = pa + 1;
pa = &a[1];
pa = a + 5;

a[i] is equivalent to *(a + i)
**Multi-Dimensional Arrays**

```c
int monthdays[2][12] = {
    { 31, 28, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31 },
    { 31, 29, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31 } 
};
```

`monthdays[i][j]` is at address `monthdays + 12 * i + j`
Structures

Structures: each field has own storage

```c
struct box {
    int x, y, h, w;
    char *name;
};
```

Unions: fields share same memory

```c
union token {
    int i;
    double d;
    char *s;
};
```
Structs can be used like the objects of C++, Java, et al. Group and restrict what can be stored in an object, but not what operations they permit.

```c
struct poly { ... };

struct poly *poly_create();
void poly_destroy(struct poly *p);
void poly_draw(struct poly *p);
void poly_move(struct poly *p, int x, int y);
int poly_area(struct poly *p);
```
A struct holds all of its fields at once. A union holds only one of its fields at any time (the last written).

```c
union token {
  int i;
  float f;
  char *string;
};

union token t;
t.i = 10;
t.f = 3.14159;  /* overwrite t.i */
char *s = t.string;  /* return gibberish */
```

Kind of like a bathroom on an airplane
Applications of Variant Records

A primitive form of polymorphism:

```c
struct poly {
    int type;
    int x, y;
    union {
        int radius;
        int size;
        float angle;
    } d;
};

void draw(struct poly *shape)
{
    switch (shape->type) {
    case CIRCLE: /* use shape->d.radius */
    case SQUARE: /* use shape->d.size */
    case LINE: /* use shape->d.angle */
    }
}
```
Is this legal in C? Should it be?
C’s Declarations and Declarators

Declaration: list of specifiers followed by a comma-separated list of declarators.

```
static unsigned int (*f[10])(int, char*);
```

Declarator’s notation matches that of an expression: use it to return the basic type.

Largely regarded as the worst syntactic aspect of C: both pre- (pointers) and post-fix operators (arrays, functions).
Types of Type Systems

What kinds of type systems do languages have?
Strongly-typed Languages

Strongly-typed: no run-time type clashes (detected or not).

C is definitely not strongly-typed:

```c
float g;
union { float f; int i } u;
u.i = 3;
g = u.f + 3.14159; /* u.f is meaningless */
```

Is Java strongly-typed?
Statically-Typed Languages

Statically-typed: compiler can determine types.
Dynamically-typed: types determined at run time.

Is Java statically-typed?

class Foo {
    public void x() { ... }
}
class Bar extends Foo {
    public void x() { ... }
}

void baz(Foo f) {
    f.x();
}
Say you write a sort routine:

```c
void sort(int a[], int n)
{
    int i, j;
    for ( i = 0 ; i < n-1 ; i++ )
        for ( j = i + 1 ; j < n ; j++ )
            if (a[j] < a[i]) {
                int tmp = a[i];
                a[i] = a[j];
                a[j] = tmp;
            }
}
```
Polymorphism

To sort doubles, only need to change two types:

```c
void sort(double a[], int n)
{
    int i, j;
    for ( i = 0 ; i < n-1 ; i++ )
        for ( j = i + 1 ; j < n ; j++ )
            if (a[j] < a[i]) {
                double tmp = a[i];
                a[i] = a[j];
                a[j] = tmp;
            }
}
```
C++ Templates

template <class T> void sort(T a[], int n) {
    int i, j;
    for ( i = 0 ; i < n-1 ; i++ )
        for ( j = i + 1 ; j < n ; j++ )
            if (a[j] < a[i]) {
                T tmp = a[i];
                a[i] = a[j];
                a[j] = tmp;
            }
}

int a[10];

sort<int>(a, 10);
C++ templates are essentially language-aware macros. Each instance generates a different refinement of the same code.

```cpp
sort<int>(a, 10);
sort<double>(b, 30);
sort<char*>(c, 20);
```

Fast code, but lots of it.
Faking Polymorphism with Objects

class Sortable {
    bool lessThan(Sortable s) = 0;
}

void sort(Sortable a[], int n) {
    int i, j;
    for ( i = 0 ; i < n-1 ; i++ )
        for ( j = i + 1 ; j < n ; j++ )
            if ( a[j].lessThan(a[i]) ) {
                Sortable tmp = a[i];
                a[i] = a[j];
                a[j] = tmp;
            }
}
Faking Polymorphism with Objects

This sort works with any array of objects derived from Sortable.
Same code is used for every type of object.
Types resolved at run-time (dynamic method dispatch).
Does not run as quickly as the C++ template version.
Parametric Polymorphism

In C++,

```cpp
template <typename T>
T max(T x, T y)
{
    return x > y ? x : y;
}

struct foo {int a;} f1, f2, f3;

int main()
{
    int a = max<int>(3, 4); /* OK */
    f3 = max<struct foo>(f1, f2); /* No match for operator> */
}
```

The `max` function only operates with types for which the `>` operator is defined.
Parametric Polymorphism

In OCaml,

```ocaml
let max x y = if x - y > 0 then x else y
max : int -> int -> int
```

Only int arguments are allowed because in OCaml, only operates on integers.

However,

```ocaml
let rec map f = function [] -> [] | x::xs -> f x :: map f xs
map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list
```

Here, ’a and ’b may each be any type.

OCaml uses parametric polymorphism: type variables may be of any type.

C++‘s template-based polymorphism is ad hoc: there are implicit constraints on type parameters.
Overloading

What if there is more than one object for a name?
Overloading versus Aliases

Overloading: two objects, one name

Alias: one object, two names

In C++,

```cpp
int foo(int x) { ... }
int foo(float x) { ... } // foo overloaded

void bar()
{
    int x, *y;
    y = &x; // Two names for x: x and *y
}
```
Examples of Overloading

Most languages overload arithmetic operators:

```
1 + 2        // Integer operation
3.1415 + 3e-4 // Floating-point operation
```

Resolved by checking the type of the operands. Context must provide enough hints to resolve the ambiguity.
C++ and Java allow functions/methods to be overloaded.

```plaintext
int foo();
int foo(int a); // OK: different # of args
float foo();   // Error: only return type
int foo(float a); // OK: different arg types
```

Useful when doing the same thing many different ways:

```plaintext
int add(int a, int b);
float add(float a, float b);

void print(int a);
void print(float a);
void print(char *s);
```
Complex rules because of *promotions*:

```cpp
int i;
long int l;
l + i
```

Integer promoted to long integer to do addition.

```cpp
3.14159 + 2
```

Integer is promoted to double; addition is done as double.
Function Overloading in C++

1. Match trying trivial conversions
   int a[] to int *a, T to const T, etc.

2. Match trying promotions
   bool to int, float to double, etc.

3. Match using standard conversions
   int to double, double to int

4. Match using user-defined conversions
   operator int() const { return v; }

5. Match using the elipsis ...

Two matches at the same (lowest) level is ambiguous.
Binding Time

When are bindings created and destroyed?
### Binding Time

When a name is connected to an object.

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<tr>
<td>run</td>
<td>heap-allocated objects</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Earlier binding time ⇒ more efficiency, less flexibility

Compiled code more efficient than interpreted because most decisions about what to execute made beforehand.

```c
switch (statement) {
    case add:
        r = a + b;
        break;
    case sub:
        r = a - b;
        break;
    /* ... */
}

add %o1, %o2, %o3
Dynamic method dispatch in OO languages:

```java
class Box : Shape {
    public void draw() { ... }
}

class Circle : Shape {
    public void draw() { ... }
}

Shape s;
s.draw(); /* Bound at run time */
```
Interpreters better if language has the ability to create new programs on-the-fly.

Example: Ousterhout’s Tcl language.

Scripting language originally interpreted, later byte-compiled.

Everything’s a string.

```
set a 1
set b 2
puts "$a + $b = [expr $a + $b]"
```
Tcl’s `eval` runs its argument as a command.

Can be used to build new control structures.

```tcl
proc ifforall {list pred ifstmt} {
    foreach i $list {
        if [expr $pred] { eval $ifstmt }
    }
}

ifforall {0 1 2} {$i % 2 == 0} {
    puts "$i even"
}

0 even
2 even
Static Semantic Analysis

How do we validate names, scope, and types?
Static Semantic Analysis

Lexical analysis: Each token is valid?

```java
if i 3 "This" /* valid Java tokens */
#a1123 /* not a token */
```

Syntactic analysis: Tokens appear in the correct order?

```java
for ( i = 1 ; i < 5 ; i++ ) 3 + "foo"; /* valid Java syntax */
for break /* invalid syntax */
```

Semantic analysis: Names used correctly? Types consistent?

```java
int v = 42 + 13; /* valid in Java (if v is new) */
return f + f(3); /* invalid */
```
What To Check

Examples from Java:

Verify names are defined and are of the right type.

```java
int i = 5;
int a = z;    /* Error: cannot find symbol */
int b = i[3]; /* Error: array required, but int found */
```

Verify the type of each expression is consistent.

```java
int j = i + 53;
int k = 3 + "hello";    /* Error: incompatible types */
int l = k(42);          /* Error: k is not a method */
if ("Hello") return 5;  /* Error: incompatible types */
String s = "Hello";
int m = s;               /* Error: incompatible types */
```
How To Check Expressions: Depth-first AST Walk

Checking function: environment → node → type

- 1 - 5
  - 1
  - 5

1 + "Hello"
  +
  1
  "Hello"

check(−)
  check(1) = int
  check(5) = int
  Success: int − int = int

check(+)
  check(1) = int
  check("Hello") = string
  FAIL: Can’t add int and string

Ask yourself: at each kind of node, what must be true about the nodes below it? What is the type of the node?
How To Check: Symbols

Checking function: environment $\rightarrow$ node $\rightarrow$ type

$1 + a$

check(+)
  check(1) = int
  check(a) = int
Success: int + int = int

The key operation: determining the type of a symbol when it is encountered.

The environment provides a “symbol table” that holds information about each in-scope symbol.
A Static Semantic Checking Function

A big function: "check: ast → sast"

Converts a raw AST to a "semantically checked AST"

Names and types resolved

type expression =
  IntConst of int
  | Id of string
  | Call of string * expression list
  | ...

AST:

↓

type expr_detail =
  IntConst of int
  | Id of variable_decl
  | Call of function_decl * expression list
  | ...

type expression = expr_detail * Type.t

SAST:
The Type of Types

Need an OCaml type to represent the type of something in your language.

An example for a language with integer, structures, arrays, and exceptions:

```ocaml
type t = (* can’t call it "type" since that’s reserved *)
  Void
 | Int
 | Struct of string * ((string * t) array) (* name, fields *)
 | Array of t * int (* type, size *)
 | Exception of string
```
Translation Environments

Whether an expression/statement/function is correct depends on its context. Represent this as an object with named fields since you will invariably have to extend it.

An environment type for a C-like language:

```plaintext
type translation_environment = {
  scope : symbol_table;  (* symbol table for vars *)
  return_type : Types.t;  (* Function’s return type *)
  in_switch : bool;  (* if we are in a switch stmt *)
  case_labels : Big_int.big_int list ref;  (* known case labels *)
  break_label : label option;  (* when break makes sense *)
  continue_label : label option;  (* when continue makes sense *)
  exception_scope : exception_scope;  (* sym tab for exceptions *)
  labels : label list ref;  (* labels on statements *)
  forward_gotos : label list ref;  (* forward goto destinations *)
}
```
Basic operation is string $\rightarrow$ type. Map or hash could do this, but a list is fine.

```ocaml
type symbol_table = {
    parent : symbol_table option;
    variables : variable_decl list
}

let rec find_variable (scope : symbol_table) name =
  try
    List.find (fun (s, _, _, _) -> s = name) scope.variables
  with Not_found ->
    match scope.parent with
    Some(parent) -> find_variable parent name
    | _ -> raise Not_found
```
Checking Expressions: Literals and Identifiers

(* Information about where we are *)

type translation_environment = {
  scope : symbol_table;
}

let rec expr env = function

  (* An integer constant: convert and return Int type *)
  Ast.IntConst(v) -> Sast.IntConst(v), Types.Int

  (* An identifier: verify it is in scope and return its type *)
  | Ast.Id(vname) ->
    let vdecl = try
      find_variable env.scope vname (* locate a variable by name *)
    with Not_found ->
      raise (Error("undeclared identifier " ^ vname))
    in
    let (_, typ) = vdecl in (* get the variable’s type *)
    Sast.Id(vdecl), typ

  | ...

Checking Expressions: Binary Operators

(*) let rec expr env = function (*)

| A.BinOp(e1, op, e2) ->
| let e1 = expr env e1 (* Check left and right children *)
| and e2 = expr env e2 in

| let _, t1 = e1      (* Get the type of each child *)
| and _, t2 = e2 in

| if op <> Ast.Equal && op <> Ast.NotEqual then
| (* Most operators require both left and right to be integer *)
| (require_integer e1 "Left operand must be integer"; 
| require_integer e2 "Right operand must be integer")
| else
| if not (weak_eq_type t1 t2) then
| (* Equality operators just require types to be "close" *)
| error ("Type mismatch in comparison: left is " ^ 
| Printer.string_of_sast_type t1 ^ "\" right is "" ^ 
| Printer.string_of_sast_type t2 ^ "\""
| ) loc;

| Sast.BinOp(e1, op, e2), Types.Int (* Success: result is int *)
let rec stmt env = function

 (* Expression statement: just check the expression *)
 Ast.Expression(e) -> Sast.Expression(expr env e)

 (* If statement: verify the predicate is integer *)
 | Ast.If(e, s1, s2) ->

  let e = check_expr env e in  (* Check the predicate *)
 require_integer e "Predicate of if must be integer";

  Sast.If(e, stmt env s1, stmt env s2) (* Check then, else *)
Checking Statements: Declarations

(* let rec stmt env = function *)

| A.Local(vdecl) ->
  let decl, (init, _) = check_local vdecl (* already declared? *)
  in

  (* side-effect: add variable to the environment *)
  env.scope.S.variables <- decl :: env.scope.S.variables;

  init (* initialization statements, if any *)
Checking Statements: Blocks

(* let rec stmt env = function *)

| A.Block(sl) ->

(* New scopes: parent is the existing scope, start out empty *)

let scope’ = { S.parent = Some(env.scope); S.variables = [] } and exceptions’ = { excep_parent = Some(env.exception_scope); exceptions = [] }
in

(* New environment: same, but with new symbol tables *)

let env’ = { env with scope = scope’;
             exception_scope = exceptions’ } in

(* Check all the statements in the block *)

let sl = List.map (fun s -> stmt env’ s) sl in

scope’.S.variables <- List.rev scope’.S.variables; (* side-effect *)

Sast.Block(scope’, sl) (* Success: return block with symbols *)