Scoping and control structures
What can we name?

- mutable variables
- values
- functions
- types
- type constructors (e.g., list or vector)
- classes
- modules/packages
- execution points (labels)
- execution points with environment (continuation)
A *binding* is an association of two things. The first is usually a name.

*Binding time* is the time at which the association is made.

Binding times:

- Language design time: semantics of most language constructs
- Language implementation time: implementation dependent semantics
- Compile time
- Link time
- Run time

*Static* means before run time, *dynamic* means during run time.
class Base {
    public:
    virtual void value() { cout << "base class"; return; }
};

class Child : public Base {
    public:
    virtual void value() { cout << "child class"; return; }
};

int main() {
    Base x;
    Child y;
    x = y;
    Base *xp = new Child();
    Base &xr = y;
    x.value();    // static binding
    xp->value();   // runtime binding
    xr.value();   // runtime binding
    return 0;
}
Scope: the region of program text where a binding is active.

Lifetime: the period of time between the creation of an entity and its destruction.

Note that these talk about two different things.
For objects residing in memory, there are typically three areas of storage, corresponding to different lifetimes:

- **static** objects: lifetime of entire program execution
  - globals, static variables
- **stack** objects: from the time the function or block is entered until the time it is exited
  - local variables
- **heap** objects: arbitrary lifetimes, not corresponding to the entrance or exit of a function or block
  - dynamically allocated objects, e.g., with `new`
Two major scoping disciplines:

- **static**: binding of a name is given by its declaration in the innermost enclosing block
  - Most languages use some variant of this
  - *Closest nested scope* rule usually applies.

- **dynamic**: binding of a name is given by the most recent declaration encountered at runtime
  - Used in Lisp, Snobol, APL
var x = 1;

function f () { print x; }

function g () { var x = 10; f(); }

function h () { var x = 100; f(); }

f(); g(); h();

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scoping</th>
<th>Output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Static</td>
<td>1 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic</td>
<td>1 10 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What is the scope of x?

```
{
    statements1;
    var x = 5;
    statements2;
}
```

- C++, Ada: `statements2`
- Legacy C: `statements2` (but `statements1` not allowed)
- Javascript: entire block
- Pascal: entire block, but not allowed to be used in `statements1`!
Memory Allocation

- Static: allocated once at compile time (usually in protected memory.) Usually include:
  - Strings, constants, static variables.

- Stacks: allocated in *frames* on a first-in last-out basis. Frames usually store:
  - Actual parameters
  - Temporaries
  - Local variables
  - Bookkeeping information
  - Return address

- Heap: allocated from main memory according to an allocation policy.
  - First-fit
  - Best-fit
A module is a grouping of names such that:

1. Names inside are visible to one another.
2. Names outside are not visible to the inside unless imported.
3. Names inside are not visible outside unless exported.

Examples:

- Clu (called clusters), Modula, Ada 83
- Ada, Java, Perl (called packages)
- C++, C#, PHP (called namespaces)

Does not include classes, since modules generally cannot be instantiated.
Overloading is a form of ad-hoc polymorphism whereby methods and operators can have several meanings depending on context.

- Functions: normally distinguished by the function signature.
- Custom memory allocation (C++: \texttt{new} and placement-\texttt{new})
- Operators
  - Some languages can define new operators (ALGOL 68, Fortran, F\#, Smalltalk)
  - And others can’t. (ML, Prolog)
  - Some languages will overload only a limited set (C++, BASIC, Pascal, C\#)
  - And others don’t support overloading at all. (C, Java, JavaScript, BASIC)

Do not confuse with a similar but distinct concept of \textit{coercion}. 
Control Structures

A control structure is any mechanism that departs from the default of straight-line execution.

- selection
  - if statements
  - case statements
- iteration
  - while loops (unbounded)
  - for loops
  - iteration over collections
- other
  - goto
  - call/return
  - exceptions
  - continuations
In machine language, there are no if statements or loops.
We only have branches, which can be either unconditional or conditional (on a very simple condition).
With this, we can implement loops, if statements, and case statements. In fact, we only need
1. increment
2. decrement
3. branch on zero
to build a universal machine (one that is Turing complete).
We don’t do this in high-level languages because unstructured use of the goto can lead to confusing programs. See “Go To Statement Considered Harmful” by Edgar Dijkstra.
if Condition then Statement – Pascal, Ada
if (Condition) Statement – C/C++, Java
To avoid ambiguities, use end marker: end if, “}”
To deal with multiple alternatives, use keyword or bracketing:

```
if Condition then
  Statements
elsif Condition then
  Statements
else
  Statements
end if;
```
if Condition1 then
    if Condition2 then
        Statements1
    end if;
else
    Statements2
end if;
Statement Grouping

- Pascal introduces begin-end pair to mark sequence
- C/C++/Java abbreviate keywords to `{ }`
- Ada dispenses with brackets for sequences; keywords for the enclosing control structure are sufficient

```plaintext
for J in 1..N loop ... end loop
```

- More writing but more readable

- Another possibility – make indentation significant (e.g., ABC, Python, Haskell)
if \( x/y > 5 \) then \( z := \ldots \) -- what if \( y = 0 \)?
if \( y \neq 0 \) and \( x/y > 5 \) then \( z := \ldots \)

But binary operators normally evaluate both arguments.

Solutions:

- a lazy evaluation rule for logical operators (Lisp, C)
  
  \[
  \text{C1} \quad \&\& \quad \text{C2} \quad // \quad \text{don't evaluate C2 if C1 is false}
  \]
  
  \[
  \text{C1} \quad |\| \quad \text{C2} \quad // \quad \text{don't evaluate C2 if C1 is true}
  \]

- a control structure with a different syntax (Ada)
  
  \[
  \text{if \ C1 \ and\ then \ C2 \ then} \quad -- \quad \text{if C1 is false}
  \]
  
  \[
  \text{if \ C1 \ or \ else \ C2 \ then} \quad -- \quad \text{if C1 is true}
  \]
Case statement needed when there are many possibilities “at the same logical level” (i.e., depending on the same condition)

```ada
case Next_Char is
  when 'I' => Val := 1;
  when 'V' => Val := 5;
  when 'X' => Val := 10;
  when 'C' => Val := 100;
  when 'D' => Val := 500;
  when 'M' => Val := 1000;
  when others => raise Illegal_Numeral;
end case;
```

Can be simulated by sequence of if-statements, but logic is obscured.
The Ada case statement

- no flow-through (unlike C/C++)
- all possible choices are covered
  - mechanism to specify default action for choices not given explicitly
- no inaccessible branches:
  - no duplicate choices (C/C++, Ada, Java)
- choices must be static (Ada, C/C++, Java, ML)
- in many languages, type of expression must be discrete (e.g., no floating point, no string)
A possible implementation for C/C++/Java/Ada style case:
(If we have a finite set of possibilities, and the choices are computable at compile-time.)

- build table of addresses, one for each choice
- compute value
- transform into table index
- get table element at index and branch to that address
- execute
- branch to end of case statement

This is not the typical implementation for a ML/Haskell style case.
case (n+1) is

when integer’first..0 => Put_Line("negative");
when 1 => Put_Line("unit");
when 3 | 5 | 7 | 11 => Put_Line("small prime");
when 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 => Put_Line("small even");
when 21 => Put_Line("house wins");
when 12..20 | 22..99 => Put_Line("manageable");
when others => Put_Line("irrelevant");
end case;

Implementation would be a combination of tables and if statements.
void send (int *to, int *from, int count) {
    int n = (count + 7) / 8;
    switch (count % 8) {
    case 0: do { *to++ = *from++; case 7: *to++ = *from++; case 6: *to++ = *from++; case 5: *to++ = *from++; case 4: *to++ = *from++; case 3: *to++ = *from++; case 2: *to++ = *from++; case 1: *to++ = *from++; } while (--n > 0);
    }
}
if(x==0) goto label_case1;
if(x==1) goto label_case2;
if(x==2) goto label_case3;
if(x==3) goto label_case4;
goto label_finish;

label_case1:   do-something();
goto label_finish;
label_case2:   do-something();
goto label_finish;
label_case3:   do-something();
goto label_finish;
label_case4:   do-something();

label_finish:
All loops can be expressed as while-loops

- good for invariant/assertion reasoning

- condition evaluated at each iteration

- if condition initially false, loop is never executed

```plaintext
while condition loop ... end loop;
```

is equivalent to

```plaintext
if condition then
  while condition loop ... end loop;
end if;
```

if `condition` has no side-effects
Sometimes we want to check condition at end instead of at beginning; this will guarantee loop is executed at least once.

- repeat ... until condition; (Pascal)
- do { ... } while (condition); (C)

can be simulated by while + a boolean variable:

```plaintext
first := True;
while (first or else condition) loop
  ...
  first := False;
end loop;
```
A more common need is to be able to break out of the loop in the middle of an iteration.

- break (C/C++, Java)
- last (Perl)
- exit (Ada)

```plaintext
loop
  ... part A ...
  exit when condition;
  ... part B ...
end loop;
```
Sometimes, we want to break out of several levels of a nested loop

- give names to loops (Ada, Perl)
- use a goto (C/C++)

Outer: while C1 loop ...
   Inner: while C2 loop ...
      Innermost: while C3 loop ...
         exit Outer when Major_Failure;
         exit Inner when Small_Annoyance;
         ...
      end loop Innermost;
   end loop Inner;
end loop Outer;
Counting loops are iterators over discrete domains:

- `for J in 1..10 loop ... end loop;`
- `for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) { ... }`

Design issues:

- evaluation of bounds
- scope of loop variable
- empty loops
- increments other than 1
- backwards iteration
- non-numeric domains
for J in 1..N loop
    ...
    N := N + 1;
end loop; -- terminates?

Yes – in Ada, bounds are evaluated once before iteration starts.
Note: the above loop uses abominable style.

C/C++/Java loop has hybrid semantics:
for (int j = 0; j < last; j++) {
    ...
    last++; -- terminates?
}

No – the condition “j < last” is evaluated at the end of each iteration.
The loop variable

- is it mutable?
- what is its scope? (i.e., local to loop?)

Constant and local is a better choice:

- **constant**: disallows changes to the variable, which can affect the loop execution and be confusing
- **local**: don’t need to worry about value of variable after loop exits

```plaintext
Count: integer := 17;
...
for Count in 1..10 loop
    ...
end loop;
... -- Count is still 17
```
Different increments

Algol60:

    for j from exp1 to exp2 by exp3 do ...

- too rich for most cases; typically, exp3 is +1 or -1.
- what are semantics if exp1 > exp2 and exp3 < 0?

C/C++:

    for (int j = exp1; j <= exp2; j += exp3) ...

Ada:

    for J in 1..N loop ...
    for J in reverse 1..N loop ...

Everything else can be programmed with a while loop