

# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

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## Names & Binding, Type Systems

## Topics Covered Thus Far

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- ▶ Programming languages
  - Ruby
  - Ocaml
  - Lambda calculus
- ▶ Syntax specification
  - Regular expressions
  - Context free grammars

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## Language Features Covered Thus Far

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- ▶ Ruby
  - Implicit declarations `{ x = 1 }`
  - Dynamic typing `{ x = 1 ; x = "foo" }`
- ▶ OCaml
  - Functional programming `add 1 (add 2 3)`
  - Type inference `let x = x+1 ( x : int )`
  - Higher-order functions `let rec x = fun y -> x y`
  - Static (lexical) scoping `let x = let x = ...`
  - Parametric polymorphism `let x y = y ( 'a -> 'a )`
  - Modules `module foo struct ... end`

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## Programming Languages Revisited

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- ▶ Characteristics
  - Artificial language for **precisely** describing algorithms
  - Used to control behavior of machine / computer
  - Defined by its syntax & semantics
- ▶ Syntax
  - Combination of meaningful text symbols
    - > Examples: if, while, let, =, ==, &&, +
- ▶ Semantics
  - Meaning associated with syntactic construct
    - > Examples: x = 1 vs. x == 1

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## Comparing Programming Languages

### ▶ Syntax

- Differences usually superficial
  - > C / Java           if (x == 1) { ... } else { ... }
  - > Ruby               if x == 1 ... else ... end
  - > OCaml             if (x = 1) then ... else ...
- Can cope with differences easily with experience
  - > Though may be annoying initially
- You should be able to learn new syntax quickly
  - > Just keep language manual / examples handy



## Comparing Prog. Languages (cont.)

### ▶ Semantics

- Differences may be major / minor / subtle

|       | Physical Equality        | Structural Equality      |
|-------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Java  | <code>a == b</code>      | <code>a.equals(b)</code> |
| C     | <code>a == b</code>      | <code>*a == *b</code>    |
| Ruby  | <code>a.equal?(b)</code> | <code>a == b</code>      |
| OCaml | <code>a == b</code>      | <code>a = b</code>       |



- Explaining these differences a major goal for 330
- Will be covering different features in upcoming lectures

## Programming Language Features

- ▶ Paradigm
  - Imperative
  - Object oriented
  - Functional
  - Logical
- ▶ Higher-order functions
  - Closures
- ▶ Declarations
  - Explicit
  - Implicit
- ▶ Type system
  - Typed vs. untyped
  - Static vs. dynamic
  - Weak vs. strong (type safe)

## Programming Language Features (cont.)

- ▶ Names & binding
  - Namespaces
  - Static (lexical) scopes
  - Dynamic scopes
- ▶ Parameter passing
  - Call by value
  - Call by reference
  - Call by name
    - > Eager vs. lazy evaluation
- ▶ Polymorphism
  - Ad-hoc
    - > Subtype
    - > Overloading
  - Parametric
    - > Generics
- ▶ Parallelism
  - Multithreading
  - Message passing

## Names & Binding Overview

- ▶ Bindings and declarations
- ▶ Order of bindings
- ▶ Namespaces
- ▶ Static (lexical) scopes
- ▶ Dynamic scopes

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## Names and Binding

- ▶ Programs use names to refer to things
  - E.g., in `x = x + 1`, `x` refers to a variable
- ▶ A **binding** is an association between a name and what it refers to
  - `int x;` /\* x is bound to a stack location containing an int \*/
  - `int f (int) { ... }` /\* f is bound to a function \*/
  - `class C { ... }` /\* C is bound to a class \*/
  - `let x = e1 in e2` (\* x is bound to e1 \*)

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## Explicit vs. Implicit Declarations

- ▶ Explicit declarations identify allowed names
  - Variables must be declared before used

C, Java, C++, etc.

```
void foo(int y) {  
  int x;  
  x = y + 1;  
  return x + y;  
}
```

OCaml

```
let foo y =  
  let x = y + 1 in  
  x + y;;
```

declaration

use

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## Explicit vs. Implicit Declarations

- ▶ Allowed names also declared implicitly
  - Variables do not need to be declared
    - > Implicit declaration when first assigned to

Ruby

```
def foo(y)  
  x = y + 1;  
  return x + y;  
end
```

declared implicitly,  
when assigned

Also: Perl, Python

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## Name Restrictions

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- ▶ Languages often have various restrictions on names to make scanning and parsing easier
  - Names cannot be the same as keywords in the language
  - OCaml function names must be lowercase
  - OCaml type constructor and module names must be uppercase
  - Names cannot include special characters like ; , : etc
    - Usually names are upper- and lowercase letters, digits, and \_ (where the first character can't be a digit)
    - Some languages also allow more symbols like ! or -

## Names and Scopes

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- ▶ Good names are a precious commodity
  - They help document your code
  - They make it easy to remember what names correspond to what entities
- ▶ We want to be able to reuse names in different, non-overlapping regions of the code

## Names and Scopes (cont.)

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- ▶ A **scope** is the region of a program where a binding is active
  - The same name in a different scope can refer to a different binding (refer to a different program object)
- ▶ A name is **in scope** if it's bound to something within the particular scope we're referring to

## Example

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```
void w(int i) {
  ...
}

void x(float j) {
  ...
}

void y(float i) {
  ...
}

void z(void) {
  int j;
  char *i;
  ...
}
```

- ▶ **i** is in scope
  - in the body of **w**, the body of **y**, and after the declaration of **j** in **z**
  - but all those **i**'s are different
- ▶ **j** is in scope
  - in the body of **x** and **z**

## Ordering of Bindings

- ▶ Languages make various choices for when declarations of things are in scope

## Order of Bindings – OCaml

- ▶ `let x = e1 in e2` – `x` is bound to `e1` in scope of `e2`
- ▶ `let rec x = e1 in e2` – `x` is bound in `e1` and in `e2`

```
let x = 3 in
  let y = x + 3 in...  (* x is in scope here *)
```

```
let x = 3 + x in ...  (* error, x not in scope *)
```

```
let rec length = function
  [] -> 0
  | (h::t) -> 1 + (length t)  (* ok, length in scope *)
in ...
```

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## Order of Bindings – C

- ▶ All declarations are in scope from the declaration onward

```
int i;
int j = i;  /* ok, i is in scope */
i = 3;     /* also ok */
```

```
void f(...) { ... }

int i;
int j = j + 3;  /* error */
f(...);       /* ok, f declared */
```

```
void f(...);

void f(...) { .. f(...); .. }
```

## Order of Bindings – Java

- ▶ Declarations are in scope from the declaration onward, except for methods and fields, which are in scope throughout the class
  - Methods are mutually recursive, by default

```
class C {
  void f(){
    ...g()...  // OK
  }

  void g(){
    ...
  }
}
```

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## Shadowing Names

- ▶ **Shadowing** is rebinding a name in an inner scope to have a different meaning
  - May or may not be allowed by the language

```
C
int i;

void f(float i) {
    {
        char *i = NULL;
        ...
    }
}
```

```
OCaml
let g = 3;;
let g x = x + 3;;
```

```
Java
void h(int i) {
    {
        float i; // not allowed
        ...
    }
}
```

## Scoping, Shadowing, and Declarations

- ▶ Explicit declarations typically made at the outset of a scope
  - { int x; ... /\* x valid here \*/ ... } /\* x out of scope \*/
  - Explicit declaration clarifies shadowing
- ▶ Implicit declarations occur within a scope
  - Not always immediately clear which scope you are in
  - May inadvertently use a name in an outer scope
    - ▶ No shadowing

## Shadowing and Implicit/Explicit Decl

### OCaml

```
let x = ref 5;;
let f = fun y -> let x = ref (y + 5) in !x;;
let f' = fun y -> x := y + 5; !x;;
let gs = List.map f [1;2;3];;
!x;; (* returns 5 *)
let gs' = List.map f' [1;2;3];;
!x;; (* returns 8 *)
```

declaration shadows outer x

refers to outer x

### Ruby

```
x = 5
arr = [1,2,3]
gs = arr.collect { |y| x = y + 5; x }
x ## returns 8 (surprise!)
```

## Namespaces

- ▶ Languages have a “top-level” or outermost scope
  - Many things go in this scope; hard to control collisions
- ▶ Common solution is to add a hierarchy
  - OCaml: Modules
    - ▶ List.hd, String.length, etc.
    - ▶ open to add names into current scope
    - ▶ Can also nest modules inside of other modules
  - Java: Packages
    - ▶ java.lang.String, java.awt.Point, etc.
    - ▶ import to add names into current scope
  - C++: Namespaces
    - ▶ namespace f { class g { ... } }, f::g b, etc.
    - ▶ using namespace to add names to current scope

## Static Scoping (revisited)

- ▶ In **static scoping**, a name refers to its closest binding, going from inner to outer scope in the program text
  - Languages like C, C++, Java, Ruby, and OCaml are statically scoped

```
int i;
{
  int j;
  {
    float i;
    j = (int) i;
  }
}
```

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## Free and Bound Variables

- ▶ The **bound variables** of a scope are those names that are declared in it
- ▶ If a variable is not bound in a scope, it is **free**
  - The bindings of variables which are free in a scope are **inherited** from declarations of those variables in outer scopes in static scoping

```
{ /* 1 */
  int j;
  { /* 2 */
    float i;
    j = (int) i;
  }
}
```

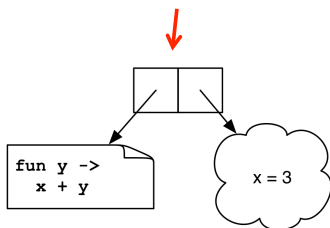
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## Static Scoping and Nested Functions

- ▶ Closures needed when
  - Nested function declarations
  - Static scoping
  - Returning a function from function call (upwards funargs)

```
let add x = (fun y -> x + y)
(add 3) 4    → <closure> 4    → 3 + 4    → 7
```



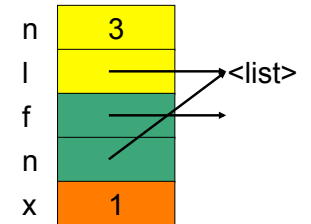
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## Dynamic Scoping

- ▶ In a language with **dynamic scoping**, a name refers to its closest binding **at runtime**

```
let map (f, n) = match n with
  [] -> []
  | (h::t) -> (f h)::(map (f, t))
let addN (n, l) =
  let add x = n + x in
  map (add, l)
addN (3, [1; 2; 3])
```



- ▶ Value of **n** in **add**
  - Dynamic scope: reads it off the stack ( $n = \langle \text{list} \rangle$ )
  - Static scope: lexical binding ( $n = \text{param } n \text{ to } \text{addN}$ )

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## Static vs. Dynamic Scoping

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### Static scoping

- Local understanding of function behavior
- Know at compile-time what each name refers to
- A little more work to implement (keep a link to the lexical nesting scope in stack frame)

### Dynamic scoping

- Can be hard to understand behavior of functions
- Requires finding name bindings at runtime
- Easier to implement (keep a global table of stacks of variable/value bindings)

## Types

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- ▶ Typed vs. untyped languages
- ▶ Type safety
- ▶ Static vs. dynamic type checking
- ▶ Weak vs. strong typing
  - Not great terms; mentioned for historical reasons

## Typed vs. Untyped Languages

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- ▶ Typed language
  - Operations are only valid for values of specific types
    - >  $2 * 3 = 6$
    - > “foo” \* “bar” = undefined
- ▶ Untyped language
  - All operations are valid for all values
  - Treat all values as sequences of 0's and 1's
  - Very few (any?) languages are untyped
    - > Assembly languages, FORTH (maybe)

## Type Safety

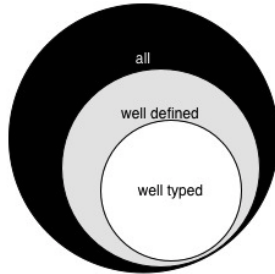
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- ▶ Well-typed
  - A **well-typed** program passes the language's type system
    - > The “type system” depends on the language
    - > Definition is nuanced for dynamically typed languages
- ▶ Going wrong
  - The language definition deems the program nonsensical
    - > “Colorless green ideals sleep furiously”
    - > If the program were to be run, anything could happen
    - > `char buff[4]; buff[4] = 'x'; // undefined!`
- ▶ Type safe = “Well-typed programs never go wrong”
  - Robin Milner, 1978



## Type Safety is Conservative

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<http://www.pl-enthusiast.net/2014/08/05/type-safety/>

## Static Type Checking

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- ▶ **Before** program is run
  - Type of all expressions are determined
  - Disallowed operations cause compile-time error
    - ▶ Cannot run the program
- ▶ Static types are **explicit (aka manifest)** or **inferred**
  - Manifest – specified in text (at variable declaration)
    - ▶ C, C++, Java, C#
  - Inferred – compiler determines type based on usage
    - ▶ OCaml, C# and Go (limited),

## Static Checking, and Type Safe?

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- ▶ C, C++: **No**.
  - The languages' type systems do not prevent undefined behavior
    - ▶ Unsafe casts (int to pointer), out-of-bounds array accesses, dangling pointer dereferences, etc.
- ▶ Java, C#, OCaml: **Yes** (arguably).
  - The languages' type system aim to restrict programs to those that are defined
    - ▶ Caveats: Foreign function interfaces to type-unsafe C, bugs in the language design, bugs in the implementation, etc.

## Dynamic Type Checking

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- ▶ **During** program execution
  - Type of expression determined when needed
    - ▶ Values maintain tag indicating type
  - Disallowed operations cause run-time exception
    - ▶ Type errors may be latent in code for a long time
- ▶ Dynamic types are not manifest (obviously)
  - Examples
    - ▶ Ruby, Python, Javascript, Lisp

## Dynamic Checking, and Type Safe?

- ▶ Ruby, Python: **Yes** (arguably).
  - All syntactically correct programs are well defined
    - > The meaning of a program can be “throws an exception”
      - E.g., when accessing an array out of bounds, or when trying to call a nonexistent method
  - In effect, languages have a **null type system**
    - > All syntactically valid programs are well typed
  - Another POV: these languages are **uni-typed**
    - > All objects have the same type (sometimes called *Dynamic*) and support all operations
      - For some objects, some operations will throw an exception, while for others they will return a result
    - > Requires “type tags” to implement

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## Static vs. Dynamic Type Checking

- ▶ Static type checking
  - More work for programmer (at first)
    - > Catches more errors at compile time
  - Precludes some correct programs
    - > May require a contorted rewrite
  - More efficient code (fewer run-time checks)
- ▶ Dynamic type checking
  - Less work for programmer (at first)
    - > Delays some errors to run time
  - Allows more programs
    - > Including ones that will fail
  - Less efficient code (more run-time checks)

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## Type Systems are Not The Same

- ▶ OCaml’s type system has types for
  - generics (polymorphism), objects, curried functions, ...
  - all unsupported by C
- ▶ Haskell’s type system has types for
  - Type classes (qualified types), generalized abstract data types, higher-rank polymorphism, ...
  - All unsupported by Ocaml
- ▶ Added expressiveness ensures more errors prevented before execution
  - Less contorted programs
  - Easier to reason about program correctness

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## Weak vs. Strong Typing

- ▶ Weak typing
  - Allows one type to be treated as another or provides (many) **implicit casts**
  - Example (int treated as bool)
    - > C

```
int i = 1 ;
if (i)
    printf(“%d”, i);
```

 // checks for 0
    - > Ruby

```
i = 1
if i
    puts i
end;
```

 // checks for nil
  - Example languages
    - > C, C++, Ruby, Perl, Javascript

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## Weak vs. Strong Typing (cont.)

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### ▶ Strong typing

- Prevents one type from being treated as another, implicitly
- Example (int not treated as bool)

```
> Java      int i = 1 ;  
            if (i)                // error, not bool  
                System.out.println(i);
```

```
> OCaml     let i = 1 in  
            if i then              // error, not bool  
                print_int i
```

- Example languages

> Java (rare exceptions), OCaml

## Terms: Strong vs. Weak Typing

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### ▶ These terms are not illuminating, or even agreed upon

- “strong typing” is often confused with “type safety” or “static typing”
- Supporting implicit casts, or not, is not particularly interesting as a language feature
  - > And is confused with features like subtyping

### ▶ Other terms we’ve discussed are more well understood