

CSE 131A

Lecture 15

Bindings and environments

Parameter Matching

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FLWR expressions

- In Onyx, a FLWR expression has the form:
(ForClause | LetClause)+ WhereClause? ReturnStmt
- The result is a a sequence
- **Let** clauses bind single variables to values
- **For** clauses iteratively bind single variables to values in a sequence of values
- The **return** clause specifies an expression to evaluate in the context of current bindings
- A **where** clause “gates” the evaluation of the **return** clause
- The result of a FLWR expression is a sequence

For and let clauses

- A **let** clause can also have multiple variable bindings separated by commas; this is equivalent to a sequence of single variable **let** clauses

```
let $k := 12, $n := $k, $n := $n+2
let $k := 12
    let $n := $k
        let $n := $n+2
```

- A **for** clause can have multiple variable bindings separated by commas; this is equivalent to a sequence of **for** clauses

For and let clauses

- The FLWR expression

```
let $n := 3 for $i in (3,4), $j in ($i,7)
let $k := 12, $n:=$n+2 where $j < $n return $i * $j
```

is equivalent to

```
let $n := 3
  for $i in (3,4)
    for $j in ($i,7)
      let $k := 12
        let $n := $n+2
          where $j < $n
            return $i * $j
```

Bindings in let clauses

- A **let** clause evaluates the expression on the right hand side of the **:=** in the context of the current bindings..

- ... and binds the variable on the left hand side to that value

```
let $a := 3
    let $b := $a + 7
        return 2*$b
```

- This binding has scope until the end of the FLWR expression in which the **let** clause appears...

- .. but may be hidden by a later binding of the same name **let**
\$a := 6

Bindings in for clauses

- A **for** clause first evaluates the expression on the right hand side of the **in** in the context of the current bindings
- This generally evaluates to a sequence..
- ... the variable on the left hand side is iteratively bound to the values in that sequence
- Each binding has a scope until the end of the FLWR expression in which the **for** clause appears
- Again, it may be hidden by a later binding of the same name

Evaluating FLWR expressions

- The Onyx AST representation provides separate node types for **for** and **Let** expressions
- This simplifies the evaluation procedure
- First, create an empty receptable to hold the result of the evaluation
- Then process as follows

Processing FLWR clauses: let clause

- If the clause to be processed is a **let** clause...
- Evaluate the expression on the right hand side of the **:=** in the context of the current bindings
`let $a := 3`
- Bind the variable on the left hand side to that value
- (Recursively) evaluate the expression in the scope of the new binding
- Pop the binding from the symbol table stack and return

Evaluating a let clause

```
<onyx.ast.Query>  
  <onyx.ast.ExprList>  
    <onyx.ast.LetExpression name="$a">  
      <onyx.ast.Constant datatype="onyx.types.Integer">4</onyx.ast.Constant>  
      <onyx.ast.LetExpression name="$b">  
        <onyx.ast.Constant datatype="onyx.types.Integer">3</onyx.ast.Constant>  
        <onyx.ast.Operator name="op:numeric-add">  
          <onyx.ast.Variable>$a</onyx.ast.Variable>  
          <onyx.ast.Variable>$b</onyx.ast.Variable>  
        </onyx.ast.Operator>  
      </onyx.ast.LetExpression>  
    </onyx.ast.LetExpression>  
  </onyx.ast.ExprList>  
</onyx.ast.Query>
```

```
let $a := 4  
let $b := 3  
return $a+$b
```

Processing FLWR clauses: for clause

- If the clause to be processed is a **for** clause:
- Evaluate the expression on the right hand side of the **in** in the context of the current bindings. This will evaluate to a sequence **for \$i in (2 to 7) where \$i > 3 return \$i**
- For each value in that sequence:
 - Bind the variable on the LHS to that value
 - (Recursively) evaluate the body in the context of the new binding
 - Pop this binding from the symbol table stack
- When done with the sequence, return from the **for** clause

Processing FLWR clauses: where clause

- These are converted to **IfThenElse** expressions

```
let $a := 2, $b :=7, $c := 3
```

```
  for $i in ($a to $b) where $c > 3 return $i
```

```
<onyx.ast.ForExpression name="$i">
```

```
  <onyx.ast.Operator name="op:to">
```

```
    <onyx.ast.Variable>$a</onyx.ast.Variable>
```

```
    <onyx.ast.Variable>$b</onyx.ast.Variable>
```

```
</onyx.ast.Operator>
```

```
  <onyx.ast.IfThenElseExpr normalized="where">
```

```
    <onyx.ast.Operator name="op:greater-than">
```

```
      <onyx.ast.Variable>$i</onyx.ast.Variable>
```

```
      <onyx.ast.Variable>$c</onyx.ast.Variable>
```

```
    </onyx.ast.Operator>
```

```
    <onyx.ast.Variable>$i</onyx.ast.Variable>
```

```
    <onyx.ast.ExprList/>
```

```
  </onyx.ast.IfThenElseExpr>
```

```
</onyx.ast.ForExpression>
```

Processing FLWR clauses: return results

- Evaluate the return body expression in the context of the current bindings
- Add this value to the result value list and return
- Remember that sequences must be flattened

Evaluating a FLWR

- So this FLWR expression:

```
let $n := 3
  for $i in (3,4)
    for $j in ($i,7)
      let $k := 12
        let $n := $n+2
          where $j < $n
            return $i * $j
```

- Evaluates to the sequence **9 16**

How does this work?

- Some helper functions

```
declare function C($i) {concat(string($i),",");}
declare function Bracket($s) {concat(concat("[",$s),"]")};
  let $n := 3
  for $i in (3,4)
  for $j in ($i,7)
  let $n := $n+2
  return Bracket(concat(concat(C($i),C($j)),string($n)))
```

- Returns the result

<Result>[3,3,5] [3,7,5] [4,4,5] [4,7,5]</Result>

Variables bound in for and let clauses of FLWR expressions

- Any variable bound in a **for** or **let** clause is in scope until the end of the FLWR expression in which it is bound
- If the variable name used in the binding was already bound in the current scope, the variable is bound again with a new value
(we push its value onto the stack for that variable's symbol table entry)
- The variable goes out of scope once the FLWR expression that first bound the variable ends.

Evaluating a FLWR with flattening

- So this FLWR expression:

```
for $i in (3,4)
  for $j in ($i,7)
    let $k := 12
      return ($i, $j, $k)
```

- Has the result value sequence

```
((3,3,12),(3,7,12),(4,4,12),(4,7,12))
```

- which flattens to (3,3,12,3,7,12,4,4,12,4,7,12)

- which prints as

```
3 3 12 3 7 12 4 4 12 4 7 12
```

Objects and Types

- Every Onyx expression has a value (if evaluating it does not raise an error)
- ...And an Onyx program is just a sequence of expressions
- So an Onyx program has a value: the sequence of values of those expressions that make up the program
- Onyx is a strongly typed language, so every Onyx value has two attributes:
 - the type of the value
 - the “value” of the value
- Values may be bound to variables for convenience: we just use the variable in the program instead of the larger expression

The role of binding

- The purpose of a binding is to establish a connection between an identifier and a value
`let $i := 3`
- This binds `$i` to the value `3` of type `Integer`
- Languages like C and Java bind storage locations to variable names
- Assignment modifies that bound storage location
`int i = 3;`
- In Onyx, a variable is just a synonym for a value, and there is no updatable storage
- Binding simply associates a name with a value

Declarations

- In languages like C and Java, the type of a variable is established in a type declaration, and variable type can be determined at compile time:

```
int i = 3;
```

- In Onyx, type declarations maybe used in global variable or function declarations, but not in `let` or `for` expressions

```
declare variable $a as onyx.types.Integer {2};
```

```
declare function f($x as onyx.types.Integer) as  
    onyx.types.String  
    {string($x) + "string"};
```

- A lot of variable typing is done dynamically, at evaluation time

The evaluation environment

- An *evaluation environment* provides the context for evaluating expressions
- This can include:
 - the bindings of variables
 - the definitions of functions
 - the definitions of types
 - the contents of modules or packages, etc.
- When a name is declared (e.g. when a variable is bound), put its information in the environment
- When the “meaning” of a name is needed, look it up in the environment

More about environments

- Each time we declare a new identifier, we augment the environment

i	int	3

- `let $i := 3`

More about environments

- Each time we declare a new identifier, we augment the environment

i	int	3
j	int	8

- let \$i := 3,
 \$j := 8

How about ‘for?’

- We can think of **for** as inheriting the environment of the enclosing context, that is what was defined before we encountered the **for**
- Each iteration of **for** defines a new environment obtained by...
 - augmenting the inherited environment with a binding of the induction variable ..
 - to one of the values defined in the iteration sequence
- Do this for this for each value in the range

```
let $a := 3, $b := 5
  for $i in $a to $b
    return $i
```

Evaluating for

- Consider the following

let \$a := 3, \$b := 5

for \$i in \$a to \$b

return \$i

- Initial environment

a	b	
3	5	

Evaluating for

- Consider the following

```
let $a := 3, $b := 5
for $i in $a to $b
return $i
```

- Iteration 3

a	b	i
3	5	3

Evaluating for

- Consider the following
let \$a := 3, \$b := 5
for \$i in \$a to \$b
return \$i

- Iteration 4

a	b	i
3	5	4

Evaluating for

- Consider the following
let \$a := 3, \$b := 5
for \$i in \$a to \$b
return \$i

- Iteration 5

a	b	i
3	5	5

Evaluating for

- Consider the following

```
let $a := 3, $b := 5
for $i in $a to $b
return $i
```
- Exit the **for** loop

a	b	i
3	5	5

The environment and language rules

- What data structures are best for implementing the evaluation environment?
- It depends on the language's rules for the use of the names in question
- It is important to distinguish between *static* (also known as *lexical*) and *dynamic* rules

Static and dynamic language rules

- Static (lexical) rules: Rules for uses of symbols that can be enforced by the compiler strictly by inspecting the structure of the program, without running it
- Dynamic rules: Rules for uses of symbols that are enforced when the program actually runs or is evaluated

Static and dynamic concepts

Static Concept	Dynamic Concept
Defining a function	Calling a function
Declaring (introducing) a variable	Binding a variable to a value
Lexical scope of a variable	Lifetime of a variable binding

The structure of the environment

- To decide how to structure the environment, consider these questions
- Can function declarations contain nested function declarations ?
- Can function declarations contain calls to the function being declared?
- Are function arguments passed by reference or value?
- Can a function definition contain references to names not declared in the function? If so what is their meaning?
- What happens to names declared in a function when the function returns?
- Can a block contain references to names not declared in the block? If so what is their meaning?
- What happens to names declared in a block when control exits the block?

Nested structure and stacks

- If the language permits nested name declarations, a stack is an appropriate data structure for maintaining the environment for those names
- A piece of a program that can contain its own name declarations is called a *block*
- In C/Java, a block is delimited by `{}`'s; in Pascal or Ada, by `begin/end`; in Onyx, by `for/return` or `let/return`
- Blocks can be nested, and can contain nested name declarations

Properties of blocks

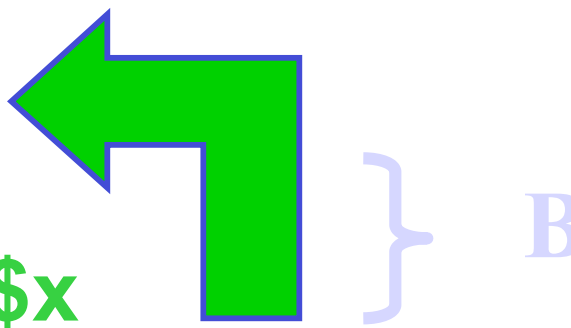
- Two blocks are either nested one within the other, or don't intersect at all
- Most-closely-nested rule for static scope:
- The scope of a declaration in a block is from the declaration to the end of the block

```
let $a := 3, $b := 5+$a  
    return $a * $b
```

Most-closely-nested rule

- If a name x is not declared in a block B , then an occurrence of x in B is in the scope of a declaration of x in a block B' that is more closely nested around B than any other block containing a declaration of x

```
let $x := 10
  let $x := 15
    let $y := 3
      return $y * $x
```



Blocks and stacks

- The most-closely-nested rule is implemented with simple stack traversal
- A variable can be bound (pushed) when its declaration is encountered, and unbound (popped) when execution exits the block

Functions and blocks

- The body of a function definition is like a named block with a special set of variable declarations: the formal parameters
- We can also look at a block as an anonymous function without any parameters
- A parameter can be bound (pushed) when the function is called, and unbound (popped) when the function returns
- How do we distinguish a function call from a **let** or **for** ?

Free variables

- An occurrence of a name is *free* if it is not in a static scope of a declaration of that name
- In this Onyx example, the variable $\$x$ in the body of the function definition, and the variable $\$z$ in the `return` clause are free:

```
declare function g($a,$b) { $a + $x + $b };  
let $a:=3, $y:=4, $x:=5  
    return g($z,$a)
```

- What to do about that?

Static vs. dynamic scoping

- In a statically scoped language, with no global variables, a free variable is an error
 “variable not declared”
- However some languages permit *dynamic scoping*
- An invocation of a function *inherits existing bindings* from the calling context; these can provide bindings for free variables in the function body
- With static scoping, an invocation of a function does not inherit bindings from the calling context and free variables are not allowed
- What is the result of the call $f(4)$?
 declare function $f(x)$ { $x + i$ };
 let $i := 3$ return $f(4)$

Implications of scoping

- With static scoping, the function always returns the same value for the same argument list
- With dynamic scoping, the function's behavior is sensitive to the environment
- Onyx implements static scoping

Free variables without dynamic binding

- In this example:

```
declare function g($a,$b) { $a + $x + $b };  
let $a:=3, $y:=4, $x:=5  
    return g($z,$a)
```

- The occurrence of **\$z** in the FLWR expression is free, and cannot dynamically inherit a binding from anywhere; this is a problem

Free variables with dynamic binding

- Now in this example:

```
declare function g($a,$b) { $a + $x + $b }  
let $a:=3, $y:=4, $x:=5  
  return g($y,$a)
```

- The occurrence of **\$x** in the function body is free, but it can dynamically inherit a binding when the function is called, if that is allowed by the language
- As expected, it should inherit the most recent binding, if there are multiple nested contexts

Free variables with dynamic binding

```
declare function g($a,$b) { $a + $x + $b };  
let $a:=3, $y:=4, $x:=5 return g($y,$a)
```

When the call $g(\$y, \$a)$ is evaluated:

- bindings for $\$a$, $\$y$, $\$x$ have been pushed on the stack by the let-clauses
- new bindings for the parameters $\$a$, $\$b$ are pushed on the stack to prepare for the function call
- when the body of the function is evaluated, the statically free variable $\$x$ is bound (to value 5; $\$a$ is bound to 4 and $\$b$ to 3)

x	5
y	4
a	3

Free variables with dynamic binding

```
declare function g($a,$b) { $a + $x + $b };  
let $a:=3, $y:=4, $x:=5 return g($y,$a)
```

- When the call $g(\$y, \$a)$ is evaluated:

- bindings for $\$a$, $\$y$, $\$x$ have been pushed on the stack by the let-clauses
- new bindings for the parameters $\$a$ and $\$b$ are pushed on the stack to prepare for the function call
- when the body of the function is evaluated, the statically free variable $\$x$ is bound (to value 5; $\$a$ is bound to 4 and $\$b$ to 3)

b	3
a	4
x	5
y	4
a	3

Free variables with dynamic binding

```
declare function g($a,$b) { $a + $x + $b };  
let $a:=3, $y:=4, $x:=5 return g($y,$a)
```

b	3
a	4
x	5
y	4
a	3

- When the call $g(\$y, \$a)$ is evaluated:
 - bindings for $\$a$, $\$y$, $\$x$ have been pushed on the stack by the let-clauses
 - new bindings for the parameters $\$a$, $\$b$ are pushed on the stack to prepare for the function call
 - when the body of the function is evaluated, the statically free variable $\$x$ is bound (to value 5; $\$a$ is bound to 4 and $\$b$ to 3)

Implementing lexical scoping

- The compiler can statically detect free variables and flag them as errors at compile time if required
- To prevent dynamic binding without static checks, just block the inheritance of bindings across function calls
- For example: When processing a function call, first push a special marker `*START_FUNCTION_SCOPE*` on the symbol table stack
- To resolve variable references, do not cross this marker when scanning the stack

b	3
a	4
x	5
y	4
a	3

2/27/07

Global variables

- Onyx supports global variable definitions
declare variable \$z as onyx.types.Integer { 3 };
declare function g(\$a,\$b) { \$a + \$z + \$b };
let \$a:=3, \$y:=4, \$x:=5 return g(\$y,\$a)
- What is the result?

Types

- A type is:
 - a specification of a set of possible values
 - together with a specification of a set of operations on those values
- For example, the `int` primitive type in Java can be defined as
 - the set of 32-bit signed integer values
 - the operations `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `%`, etc.
- And a type usually has a name that identifies it uniquely: `int`, `java.lang.String`, `onyx.types.Decimal`, etc.

Type systems

- A *type system* is a collection of rules for assigning type expressions to various parts of a program
- A *type expression* is an expression that refers to a type
float, pointer to float, array of float, etc.
- A *type checker* implements a type system by annotating a program type expressions and testing if these annotations are permitted
- This can be done at compile time (static) or at run time (dynamic)

Type checking

- A *type checker* verifies that the way a construct is used is consistent with its type
- Examples
 - In Java, switch case labels can only be of primitive integer type
 - In Onyx, the **to** operator takes integer arguments only
- Type information is also needed for code generation or interpretation: which version of an overloaded function to call can depend on types of actual arguments in the call

Strong typing

- We say that a language is *strongly typed* if all type checks can be done statically
- That is, in a strongly typed language, if a program passes compile time type checks then it is guaranteed not to have type errors when run
- It is not clear that any interesting languages are really strongly typed in this sense

Practical definition of strong typing

- A language is strongly typed if all expressions have a definite type, and use of inappropriate types raises exceptions either at compile time or runtime
- In this sense, many languages, such as Java and Onyx, are strongly typed
- Such languages will try to do static type checking as much as possible, while relying on runtime type checking as necessary