

Lecture 5: Variables and Binding

Programming Languages (H)

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Overview

- **Last time**

- Operational semantics
- Booleans & conditionals
- Introduction to ANTLR & SVM

- **This lecture:** Variables and binding

- Let-expressions
- Binding and scope
- Abstract binding diagrams

- **Please come to the labs this afternoon!** (15:00 – 17:00 in BO722)

- We're happy to help, even with last week's lab if you didn't get chance to do it
- Even if you can't make it, please do have a go; we will answer questions on Teams

Where we're up to

L_{if} Abstract Syntax

```

Integers n
Booleans b      ::= true | false
Operators  $\odot$  ::= + | - | * | /
                | < | > | && | ||
                | ==
Values V, W      ::= n | b
Constants c      ::= n | b
Terms L, M, N    ::= c
                | L  $\odot$  M
                | if L then M else N
  
```

- Last time, we looked at L_{if} , an extension of L_{Arith} with support for Booleans and conditionals
- We also saw **operational semantics**, which allowed us to specify the meaning of evaluating an expression down to a value, and saw how there was a close correspondence between the theory and how an interpreter can be implemented

Where next?

- We are getting *closer* to the core of a useful programming language, but are really limited by the fact we don't have **variables** yet: we can only talk about expressions where all operands are known, e.g.

```
if 1 + 2 < 3 then true && false else true || false
```

- Variable binding has a lot of subtlety: it is easy to get wrong unless you understand the specifics
 - For example, JavaScript's var scoping rules are notoriously complex
- In this and the next lecture we'll take a principled look at binding

You will likely have already seen variable binding in AF2 / Practical Algorithms

Quantifiers – binding and scope

Variables can be **bound** through **quantifiers**

- as we have seen unbound variables are also called **free variables**

A variable **x** is **bound** to quantifier $\forall x$ or $\exists x$ if

- it appears **free** within the scope of the quantifier

Examples: $\forall x. (P(y) \wedge Q(x))$ $\exists x. \forall y. (R(y, x) \wedge Q(x))$

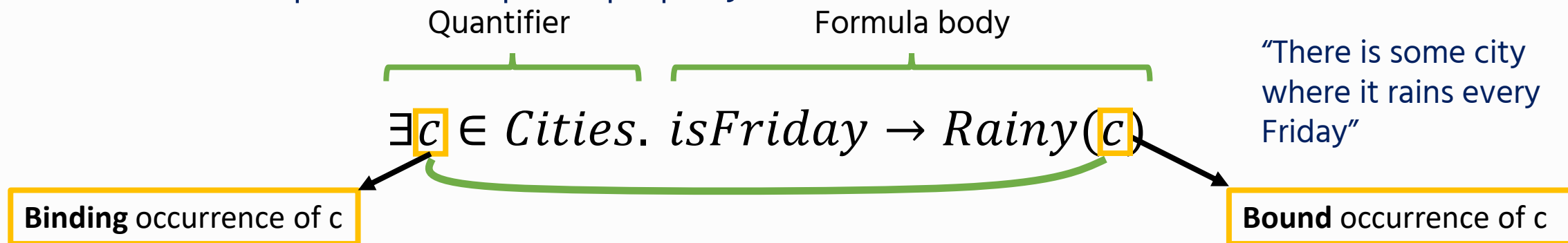
If a quantifier does not bind any variables it can be removed

Example: $\forall y. \exists x. P(x)$

- since **y** is not a free variable in $\exists x. P(x)$, the “ $\forall y$ ” quantifier is redundant

Recap: Predicate Logic Quantifiers

- In predicate logic we have two **quantifiers**: these allow us to allow a variable to 'stand for' an element of a set
 - Universal quantifiers require a property to hold for all elements of a set
 - Existential quantifiers require a property to hold for at least one element of a set



- A variable is **free** if it is not in the scope of a quantifier. A quantifier $\forall x . P$ binds all free occurrences of x in its body P .
- For example, c is **free** in $\text{isFriday} \rightarrow \text{Rainy}(c)$, but **bound** in $\exists c \in \text{Cities}. \text{isFriday} \rightarrow \text{Rainy}(c)$.

Let-bindings

- We will begin by looking at a simple type of binding: a **let-binding**
- The key idea is that we can give a name to a subexpression in a given continuation, so we don't need to repeat it
 - You can think of a let-binding as an **abbreviation**
- For example, the following expression would evaluate to 225

```
let x = (5 + 10) in x * x
```

- We can also **nest** let-bindings: for example the expression on the right would evaluate to 15

```
let x = 5 in  
let y = 10 in  
x + y
```

L_{Let} Abstract Syntax

L_{Let} Abstract Syntax

Integers n

Variables x, y, z

Operators $\odot ::= + \mid - \mid * \mid /$

Values $V, W ::= n$

Terms $L, M, N ::= x \mid n$

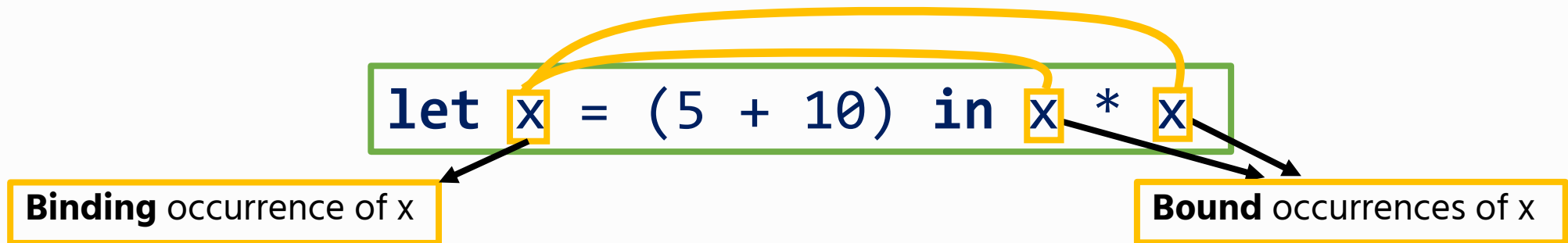
$\mid L \odot M$

$\mid \text{let } x = M \text{ in } N$

- We will build each sublanguage off L_{Arith} to concentrate on the core details
- The main differences are **variables** (ranged over by x, y, z) and **let binders**
- Note that **variables are not values** (we should never need to evaluate a variable)

Binding and Bound Occurrences in L_{Let}

- Much like with predicate logic formulae, **let** expressions act as a binder for a variable.



- Formally, **let** `x` = `M` **in** `N` binds all free occurrences of `x` in the function body `N`.
- In the above example, the body of the let is `x * x`. Here, both occurrences of `x` are free, so become bound.

Free Variables in L_{Let} , formally

- We can write out a recursive function $\text{fv}(M)$ to get the free variables of an expression

$$\text{fv}(x) = \{x\}$$

x on its own is a free variable

$$\text{fv}(n) = \emptyset$$

Integer literals don't contain variables

$$\text{fv}(\text{let } x = M \text{ in } N) = \text{fv}(M) \cup (\text{fv}(N) \setminus \{x\})$$

$$\text{fv}(M \odot N) = \text{fv}(M) \cup \text{fv}(N)$$

The free variables of a binary operator are the union of the free variables of its operands

Any occurrence of x would be **bound** in N , so we need to remove it from the set of N 's free variables

Name Shadowing

- Remember, a let-expression only binds **free** occurrences of the variable in the body. Consider the following:

```
let x = 5 in  
let x = 10 in  
x + x
```

- The body of the first let-binder is **let x = 10 in x + x**
 - There are **no free occurrences of** x – both occurrences of x are instead bound by the second let-binder
- Therefore, the first let-binder is redundant: we say that it has been **shadowed** by a more recent binder
- The expression would evaluate to 20

Scope

- The **scope** of a variable is the collection of program locations in which occurrences of the variable refer to the same thing
 - (With some caveats – for example when we consider mutation later on)

Scope of x { `let x = 5 in`
`let y = 10 in`
`x + y` } Scope of y

Scope

- The **scope** of a variable is the collection of program locations in which occurrences of the variable refer to the same thing
 - (With some caveats – for example when we consider mutation later on)

Scope of first let-bound x

{

```
let x = 5 in
x +
  (let x = 10 in
    x + x)
```

}

Scope of second let-bound x

Scope

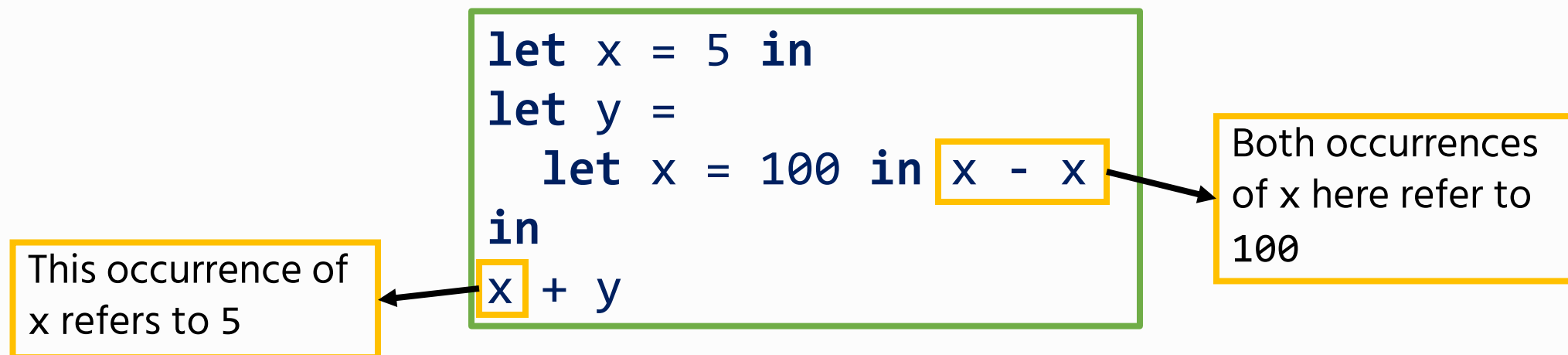
- The **scope** of a variable is the collection of program locations in which occurrences of the variable refer to the same thing
 - (With some caveats – for example when we consider mutation later on)

Scope of x {
let x =
 let y = 5 in y
in
x * x

Scope of y

Let-bindings are **not** imperative variable assignment!

- Remember that we are working in a language **without** mutation at the moment – we can shadow bindings, but data **cannot change**
- Consider the following:



- This would evaluate to 5, **not** 105

Substitution (Intuition)

- To define the operational semantics for L_{Let} we need to first define a **substitution** operation

$$M \{V / x\}$$

“Replace all free occurrences of x in term M with value V ”

Note: substitution is also written different ways in the literature,
e.g. $M[V / x]$, $M[x \mapsto V]$ and $M[x := V]$

If you're interested, [this talk by Guy Steele](#) gives an interesting discussion of the variety of meta-notation used in PL papers

- Examples:

- $(x + 10) \{100 / x\} = 100 + 10$
- $(y + 10) \{100 / x\} = y + 10$
- $(\text{let } x = 5 \text{ in } x + y) \{10 / y\} = \text{let } x = 5 \text{ in } x + 10$
- $(\text{let } x = 5 \text{ in } x + y) \{10 / x\} = \text{let } x = 5 \text{ in } x + y$

Substitution (Formal Definition)

$$x\{V/y\} = \begin{cases} V & \text{if } x = y \\ x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If x is the same variable as the one we're substituting for, replace it with the value V . Otherwise, leave it as it was.

Substitution doesn't affect integer literals.

$$n\{V/y\} = n$$

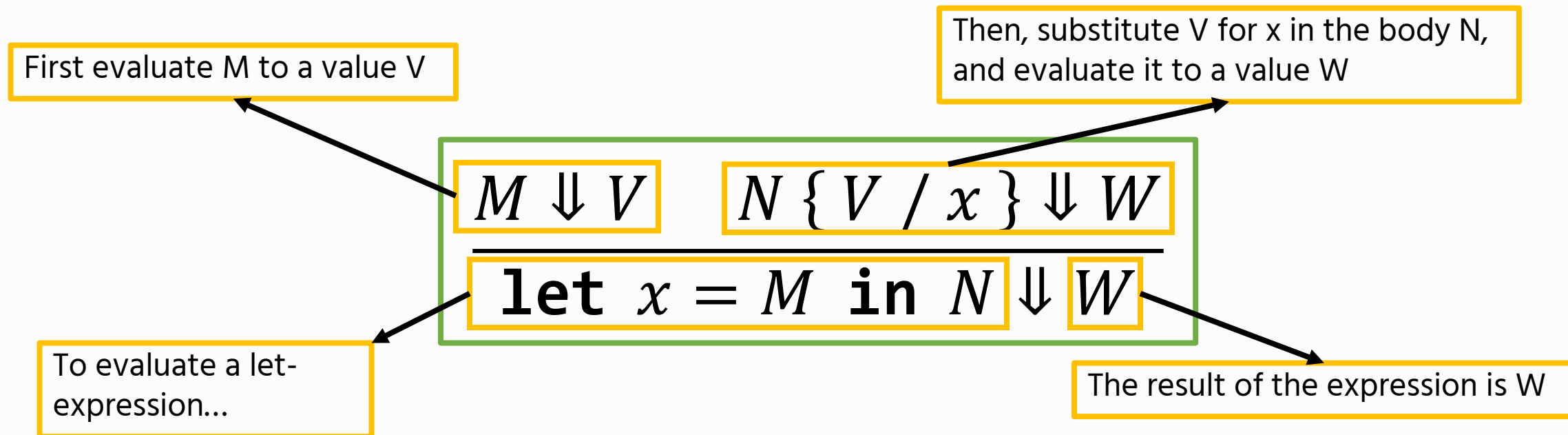
Substitution only affects **free** occurrences of x . If $x = y$, then the previous binding for y is **shadowed** and the body will contain no free occurrences of x

$$(\text{let } x = M \text{ in } N)\{y/z\} = \begin{cases} \text{let } x = M\{y/z\} \text{ in } N & \text{if } x = y \\ \text{let } x = M\{y/z\} \text{ in } N\{y/z\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$(M \odot N)\{V/x\} = (M\{V/x\}) \odot (N\{V/x\})$$

Propagate substitutions into the subexpressions of binary operators

L_{Let} Operational Semantics



- There is no rule for variables : trying to evaluate a free variable is an error.
- Note that we're choosing to evaluate M **before** substitution. We call this approach **eager**, or **call-by-value**.
 - There are other potential choices, for example substituting the expression **before** evaluating it (called **call-by-name**). Alas we won't have time to go into that in more detail.

L_{Let} Reduction Example

$$\frac{M \Downarrow V \quad N \{ V / x \} \Downarrow W}{\text{let } x = M \text{ in } N \Downarrow W}$$

let $x = 10 + 15$ **in** (**let** $y = 100$ **in** $x + y$) $\Downarrow ?$

L_{Let} Reduction Example

$$\frac{M \Downarrow V \quad N \{ V / x \} \Downarrow W}{\text{let } x = M \text{ in } N \Downarrow W}$$

$$\frac{\frac{\overline{10 \Downarrow 10} \quad \overline{15 \Downarrow 15}}{10 + 15 \Downarrow 25}}{\text{let } x = 10 + 15 \text{ in } (\text{let } y = 100 \text{ in } x + y) \Downarrow 125}$$

L_{Let} Reduction Example

$$\frac{M \Downarrow V \quad N \{ V / x \} \Downarrow W}{\text{let } x = M \text{ in } N \Downarrow W}$$

$$\frac{\overline{10 \Downarrow 10} \quad \overline{15 \Downarrow 15}}{10 + 15 \Downarrow 25}$$

$$\frac{\quad \text{let } y = 100 \text{ in } 25 + y \Downarrow ?}{\text{let } x = 10 + 15 \text{ in } (\text{let } y = 100 \text{ in } x + y) \Downarrow ?}$$

L_{Let} Reduction Example

$$\frac{M \Downarrow V \quad N \{ V / x \} \Downarrow W}{\text{let } x = M \text{ in } N \Downarrow W}$$

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{10 \Downarrow 10 \quad 15 \Downarrow 15}{10 + 15 \Downarrow 25} \quad \frac{\frac{100 \Downarrow 100 \quad \frac{25 \Downarrow 25 \quad 100 \Downarrow 100}{25 + 100 \Downarrow 125}}{\text{let } y = 100 \text{ in } 25 + y \Downarrow ?}}{\text{let } x = 10 + 15 \text{ in } (\text{let } y = 100 \text{ in } x + y) \Downarrow ?}}$$

L_{Let} Reduction Example

$$\frac{M \Downarrow V \quad N \{ V / x \} \Downarrow W}{\text{let } x = M \text{ in } N \Downarrow W}$$

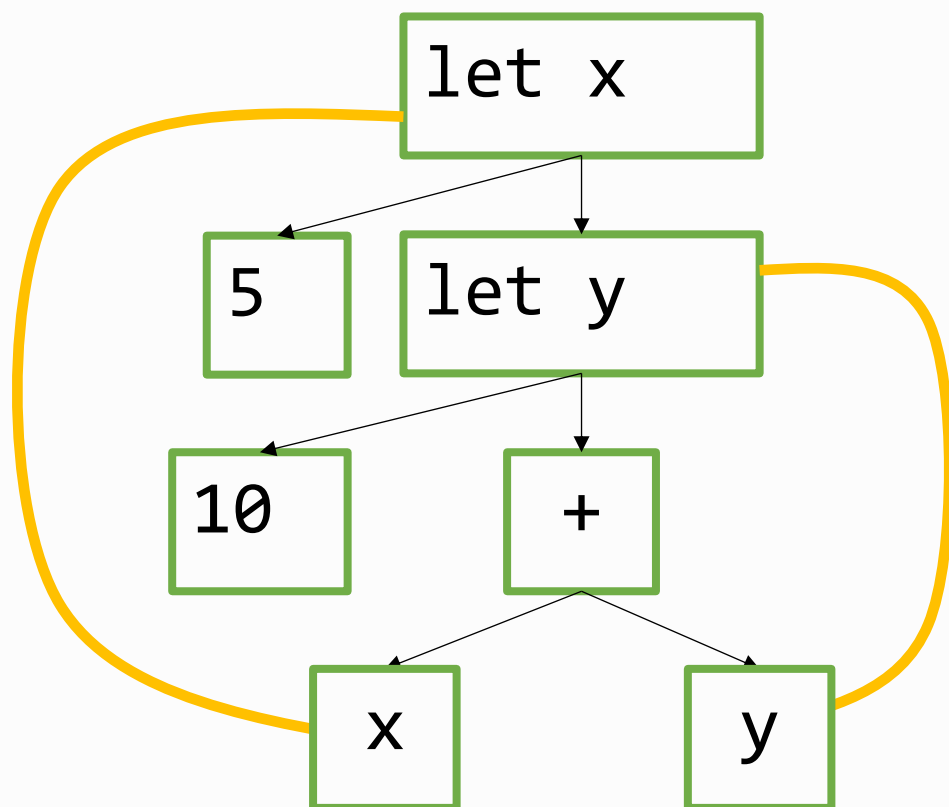
$$\frac{\frac{\frac{10 \Downarrow 10 \quad 15 \Downarrow 15}{10 + 15 \Downarrow 25} \quad \frac{100 \Downarrow 100 \quad \frac{\frac{25 \Downarrow 25 \quad 100 \Downarrow 100}{25 + 100 \Downarrow 125}}{\text{let } y = 100 \text{ in } 25 + y \Downarrow 125}}{\text{let } x = 10 + 15 \text{ in } (\text{let } y = 100 \text{ in } x + y) \Downarrow ?}}$$

L_{Let} Reduction Example

$$\frac{M \Downarrow V \quad N \{ V / x \} \Downarrow W}{\text{let } x = M \text{ in } N \Downarrow W}$$

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{10 \Downarrow 10 \quad 15 \Downarrow 15}{10 + 15 \Downarrow 25} \quad \frac{100 \Downarrow 100 \quad \frac{\frac{25 \Downarrow 25 \quad 100 \Downarrow 100}{25 + 100 \Downarrow 125}}{\text{let } y = 100 \text{ in } 25 + y \Downarrow 125}}{\text{let } x = 10 + 15 \text{ in } (\text{let } y = 100 \text{ in } x + y) \Downarrow 125}}$$

Binding Diagrams



- Sometimes it helps to visualise the binding structure for an expression
- On the left, we have a diagrammatic representation of the abstract syntax tree for the expression
let $x = 5$ **in**
let $y = 10$ **in**
 $x + y$
- We can visualise the binding structure by drawing connecting lines between binding and bound occurrences of each variable

α -equivalence

- It is useful to treat two expressions as the same, as long as their **binding structure** is the same. For example, we can equate the following expressions:

```
let x = 5 in  
let y = 10 in  
x + y
```

 \approx_{α}

```
let a = 5 in  
let b = 10 in  
a + b
```

- This is because we **consistently** rename **bound variables** x to a , and y to b .

Non-examples of α -equivalence

$x \not\approx_{\alpha} y$

Only **bound** variables can be renamed – in this case, x and y are distinct **free** variables

$\text{let } x = 5 \text{ in}$
 $\text{let } y = 10 \text{ in}$
 $x + y$
 $\not\approx_{\alpha}$
 $\text{let } a = 5 \text{ in}$
 $\text{let } a = 10 \text{ in}$
 $a + a$

This example **changes the binding structure** since both occurrences of a refer to the second binder

$\text{let } x = 5 \text{ in}$
 $\text{let } y = 10 \text{ in}$
 $x + y$
 $\not\approx_{\alpha}$
 $\text{let } x = 5 \text{ in}$
 $x + y$

The right expression is syntactically different – the second let-binder is removed

$\text{let } x = 5 \text{ in}$
 $\text{let } y = 10 \text{ in}$
 $x + y$
 $\not\approx_{\alpha}$
 $\text{let } x = 5 \text{ in}$
 $\text{let } y = 10 \text{ in}$
 $y + x$

Even though $+$ is commutative, the structure has changed

Determining α -equivalence by renaming

- We can determine whether two terms are α -equivalent by consistently renaming all bound variables, and then checking syntactic equality

```
let x = 5 in  
let y = 10 in  
x + y
```

Rename x to c, and y to d



```
let c = 5 in  
let d = 10 in  
c + d
```

= Expressions are equal

```
let a = 5 in  
let b = 10 in  
a + b
```

Rename a to c, and b to d



```
let c = 5 in  
let d = 10 in  
c + d
```

Determining α -equivalence by comparing binding diagrams

- Alternatively, we can draw binding diagrams for both expressions



- The only place the diagrams are allowed to be different is the name of the let-binder, and the names of bound variables
 - In this case, the connecting lines must be identical

Conclusion

- In this lecture we've seen:
 - Free and bound variables
 - Let-bindings, and their scoping
 - Substitution and operational semantics for L_{Let}
 - Abstract binding diagrams and α -equivalence
- See you in 10 minutes, when we'll talk about functions and recursion!