# **Lecture 05: Binding**

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## **Section 1: Introduction to Variable Binding**

In this chapter, we extend our mini-interpreter to support **variable binding** through let expressions. This is a fundamental capability that allows programs to:

- 1. Name and reuse values
- 2. Create modular components
- 3. Build abstractions that hide implementation details

The extension represents our first step toward a more practical and powerful language.

### Variable Binding vs. Assignment

It's important to distinguish between binding and assignment:

• Variable Binding: Associates a name with a value in a specific scope or environment

```
let x = 10 in ...
```

Assignment: Changes the value associated with an existing name

```
x = 10
```

In our mini-language, we implement variable binding but not assignment. This makes our language more functional in nature and simplifies reasoning about program behavior.

# Section 2: Let Expressions

### Syntax and Semantics of Let Expressions

We extend our grammar with let expressions:

```
let: "let" IDENTIFIER "=" expr "in" expr
```

extended environment, resulting in 15

A let expression has three components: 1. The name (identifier) being bound 2. The expression that provides the value to bind 3. The body expression where the binding is in scope For example, in let x = 10 in x + 5, we: - Bind x to the value 10 - Evaluate the body x + 5 in this

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#### **AST** Representation

To support let expressions in our abstract syntax tree, we add a new class:

```
@dataclass
class Let:
   name: str
   expr: Expression
  body: Expression
```

And we extend our Expression type to include Let and Var (variable reference) nodes:

```
type Expression = Number | BinaryExpression | Let | Var
```

#### Variable References

To use bound variables, we need to support variable references in our language:

```
@dataclass
class Var:
    name: str
```

When evaluating a variable reference, we look up its value in the current environment:

```
case Var(name):
    x = lookup(env, name)
    match x:
        case int():
        return x
        case _:
        raise ValueError(f"Unexpected value type: {type(x)}")
```

# Section 3: The Environment

#### **Environment as a First-Class Citizen**

In our mini-interpreter, the environment is a first-class entity that's explicitly passed around during evaluation. This makes the binding context explicit in our semantics.

The key operations on environments are: - **Creation**: Building an initial environment with primitive operations - **Lookup**: Finding the value associated with a name - **Extension**: Adding new bindings to create a derived environment

#### **Environment Implementation**

Our environment is implemented as a function that maps names to values:

```
type Environment = Callable[[str], DVal]
```

We extend the environment when evaluating a  ${\tt let}$  expression:

```
case Let(name, expr, body):
    value = evaluate(expr, env)
    extended_env = bind(env, name, value)
    return evaluate(body, extended_env)
```

This creates a new environment that includes the original bindings plus the new binding.

### Static vs. Dynamic Scoping

Our implementation uses **lexical (static) scoping**, where variable references are resolved in the environment where they are defined, not where they are used.

This is in contrast to **dynamic scoping**, where variable references are resolved in the current execution environment.

Lexical scoping is more predictable and easier to reason about, which is why it's the dominant approach in modern programming languages.

## Static vs. Dynamic Scoping Examples

## Consider this expression:

```
let x = 5 in let f = (let y = 10 in y + x) in let x = 42 in
```

With static scoping (our implementation), this evaluates to: - f is bound to the result of (let y = 10 in y + x) where x is 5, so f is 15 - Even though we later rebind x to 42, the reference to x inside f still refers to the original binding - Final result: 15

With **dynamic scoping**, this would evaluate to: - f is bound to the expression (let y = 10 in y + x) (not its value yet) - When f is evaluated, it looks for the current binding of x, which is 42 - Final result: 52

## Another example:

```
let a = 1 in
  let f = (a + 10) in
  let a = 100 in
  f
```

With **static scoping**: - f evaluates to 11 using the binding a = 1 - The later binding of a = 100 has no effect on f

With  $dynamic\ scoping$ : - f would be 110 since it would use the latest binding of a when evaluated

## **Examples**

Let expressions dramatically increase the expressiveness of our language. Consider a few examples:

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

Evaluates to 15 by binding x to 10 and adding 5.

```
let x = 1 in let y = 2 in x + y
```

Nested binding.

### **Section 5: Conclusion**

Adding variable binding through let expressions marks a significant step in the evolution of our mini-language. In future chapters, we'll build on this foundation to add more capabilities:

- Conditionals and booleans
- Iteration (while and for loops)
- Functions and application
- Recursion

#### **Parser and Grammar Extensions**

Compared to Lecture 4, we've made the following extensions to the parser and grammar:

1. Added a new production rule for let expressions:

```
let: "let" IDENTIFIER "=" expr "in" expr
```

2. Extended the expression rule to include both variables and let expressions:

```
?expr: bin | mono | let
mono: ground | paren | var
var: IDENTIFIER
```

## 3. Added new pattern matching cases in the parse tree transformation function:

```
case Tree(data="var", children=[Token(type="IDENTIFIER", value=name)]):
    return Var (name=name)
case Tree (
   data="let",
    children=[
        Token (type="IDENTIFIER", value=name),
        expr,
        body,
   ],
):
    return Let (
        name=name,
        expr=transform_parse_tree(expr),
        body=transform parse tree(body),
```

#### 4. Added evaluation rules for the new AST node types:

```
case Let (name, expr, body):
   value = evaluate(expr, env)
   extended env = bind(env, name, value)
   return evaluate(body, extended_env)
case Var(name):
   x = lookup(env, name)
   match x:
        case int():
            return x
       case :
            raise ValueError(f"Unexpected value type: {type(x)}")
```

These extensions allow our language to support both variable definitions and references while maintaining the core evaluation semantics from Lecture 4 that will be useful in the second part of the course.