

# Week 1: External DSLs

April 3, 2024

# Today

What are Domain Specific Languages (DSLs)?

Course Overview

External DSLs

- Parsing

  - Parsing Expression Grammar (PEG)

- Abstract Syntax Trees (ASTs)

- Execution

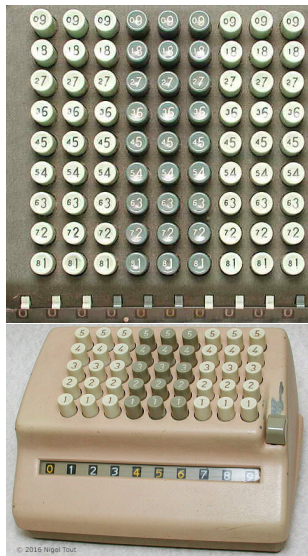
- Implementing common constructs

- Program Correctness

- Typing

# What are Domain Specific Languages (DSLs)?

# In the beginning, 'machine' *meant* domain-specific

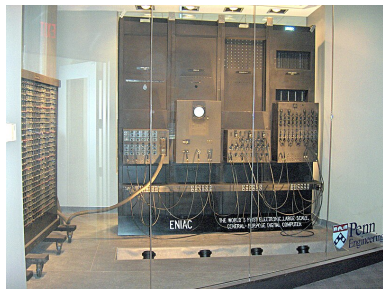


Source: [vintagecalculators.com](http://vintagecalculators.com)

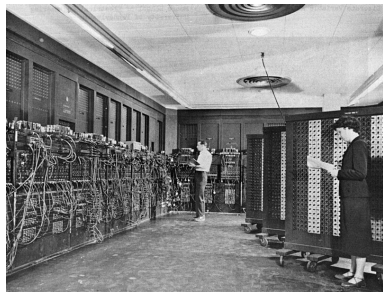


Source: Smithsonian via [aes-media.org](http://aes-media.org)

# Programmable computers could do anything, ... if you could wire them



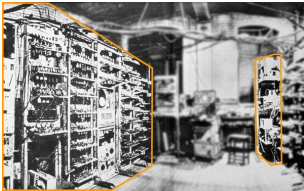
Paul W Shaffer, UPenn, via Wikipedia



US Army via Wikipedia

# 'Stored Program' Insight: Programs are Just Data!

Can still do anything; rush towards *general purpose* languages



1917/18  
*Kilburn Highest Factor Routine (unclassified)*

| Row    | Col             | 26 | 27             | 28 | 29   | 30  | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 |
|--------|-----------------|----|----------------|----|------|-----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 26 5 C | -G <sub>1</sub> | -  | -              | 1  | 0011 | 010 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 26  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | -              | 2  | 0101 | 110 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 5 C | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | -              | 3  | 0101 | 010 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 27  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 4  | 1101 | 110 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 5 C | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 5  | 1101 | 010 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 27  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 6  | 1101 | 001 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 26  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 7  | -    | 011 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 27  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 8  | 0010 | 100 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 25  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 9  | 0101 | 001 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 5 C | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 10 | 1001 | 110 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 5 C | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 11 | 1001 | 010 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 26  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 12 | -    | 011 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 27  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 13 | -    | 111 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 5 C | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 14 | 0101 | 010 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 21  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 15 | 1010 | 001 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 27  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 16 | 1101 | 110 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 5 C | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 17 | 1101 | 010 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 26  | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 18 | 0101 | 110 |    |    |    |    |    |
| 26 5 C | G <sub>1</sub>  | -  | G <sub>1</sub> | 19 | 0110 | 000 |    |    |    |    |    |

or 000

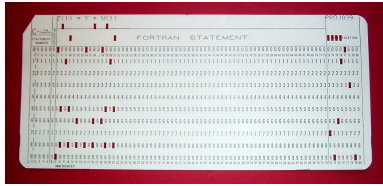
|    |    |        |
|----|----|--------|
| 20 | -3 | 101110 |
| 21 | 1  | 10000  |
| 22 | 4  | 00100  |

↓  
 or 10100

|    |    |       |
|----|----|-------|
| 23 | -2 | 10101 |
| 24 | 6  | 10101 |
| 25 | -  | 10101 |
| 26 | -  | 10101 |
| 27 | -  | 10101 |

```

PROGRAM FATTORIALE
WRITE(6,1000)
FORMAT(' DAMMI UN NUMERO ... PER FAVORE PICCOLO ...')
READ(5,'*) N
A=1.0
DO 10 I=1,N
A=A*I
10 CONTINUE
WRITE(6,3000) N,A
3000 FORMAT(' IL FATTORIALE DI: ',I5,' RISULTA: ',F15.0)
STOP
END
    
```



HellDragon.eu and Arnold Reinhold via Wikipedia

# Still, generality comes at a price



```
PROGRAM FATTORIALE
WRITE(6,1000)
1000 FORMAT(' DAMMI UN NUMERO ... PER FAVORE PICCOLO ...')
READ(5,*) N

A=1.0
DO 10 I=1,N
  A=A*I
10 CONTINUE

WRITE(6,3000) N,A
3000 FORMAT(' IL FATTORIALE DI: ',I5,' RISULTA: ',F15.0)

STOP
END T
```

# Domain-Specific Languages: Back to Basics

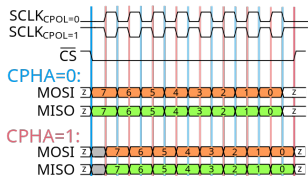
Focusing on a specific domain can enable:

- ▶ Better expressiveness
- ▶ Better optimizations
- ▶ More precise analyses

We won't be enforcing a sharp distinction with libraries, GUIs, etc.

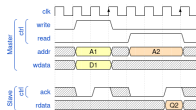


# In digital design



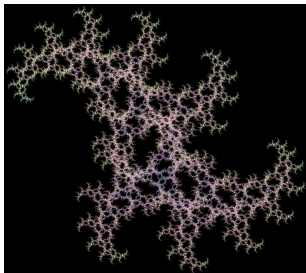
Timing diagram for SPI Bus via Wikipedia

```
1 { signal: [  
2   { name: 'clk', wave: 'p..Pp..P'},  
3   { name: 'Master',  
4     { name: 'ctrl',  
5       { name: 'write', wave: '01.0...'},  
6       { name: 'read', wave: '0...1.0'},  
7     },  
8     { name: 'addr', wave: 'X3.x4...x', data: 'A1 A2'},  
9     { name: 'wdata', wave: 'X3.X...x', data: 'D1' },  
10    },  
11  },  
12  { name: 'Slave',  
13    { name: 'ctrl',  
14      { name: 'ack', wave: 'x01x0.1x'},  
15    },  
16    { name: 'rdata', wave: 'x....4x', data: '02'},  
17  },  
18 ] }
```



Wavedrom language

# In art



A fractal



Context Free language homepage

```
CF::Background = [ b -1]

scIngA = 0.7 .. 0.8
scIngB = 0.7 .. 0.8

rA = (30 .. 180) * (0±1)
rB = (30 .. 180) * (0±1)

baseCLR = (0..360)

startshape P (17)[h baseCLR sat 0.1 b 0.01]

shape P (natural i){
  if(i < 8) CIRCLE []
  if(i){
    P(i-1) [y 2 s scIngA r rA h 20 b (3*sin(i/3)) sat 0.01 z 1]
    P(1-i) [y 2 s scIngB r rB h -10 z -1 b (3* sin(i/5)) sat 0.01]
  }
}
```

CF program for said fractal

# In software development

clrc / .github / workflows / ci.yml 

 edwjchen Replaced third party dependencies with binaries to reduce CI build ti...

Code Blame 36 lines (32 loc) · 1.05 KB

```
1  name: Build & Test
2
3  on:
4    push:
5      branches: [master, ci]
6    pull_request:
7      branches: [master, ci]
8
9  env:
10   CARGO_TERM_COLOR: always
11
12  jobs:
13    build:
14      runs-on: ubuntu-latest
15
16      steps:
17        - uses: actions/checkout@v3
18          name: Install dependencies
19          if: runner.os == 'Linux'
20          run: sudo apt-get update; sudo apt-get install zsh cvc4 libboost-
21        - uses: actions-rs/toolchain@v1
22          with:
23            toolchain: stable
24        - uses: Swatinen/rust-cache@v2
25        - name: Set all features on
26          run: python3 driver.py --all_features
```

continuous integration testing (YAML)

# Course Parts

Three parts:

1. Technical skills: external DSLs, design, internal DSLs
  - ▶ in-class: lectures, at-home: closed-ended assignments
2. Clinics: somewhat open-ended assignments
  - ▶ work on them in-class and at-home
3. Independent project
  - ▶ open-ended, focus of the course
  - ▶ in-class: feedback and work time
  - ▶ starts early

# Assignments

## Assignments:

1. External Lab
2. Internal Lab
3. Clinics (2-3)
4. Project
  - ▶ brainstorming
  - ▶ proposal
  - ▶ demo and feedback
  - ▶ presentation
  - ▶ final implementation

# Policies

- ▶ attendance required (studio class, participation grade)
- ▶ Communication:
  - ▶ **website:** `cs343s.stanford.edu`
  - ▶ announcements, Q&A: Ed (sign up!)
  - ▶ instructors mailing list: `cs343s@cs.stanford.edu`
  - ▶ anonymous feedback form
- ▶ assignments
  - ▶ submissions: Gradescope (sign up!)
  - ▶ individual submissions, collaboration encouraged
  - ▶ three (integer) late days
- ▶ office hours on website

# External DSLs

- ▶ An "external" DSL is implemented as a complete language, with its own syntax and semantics.
  - ▶ Allows non-standard, specialized syntax
- ▶ Although they are not general purpose, they can implement programming constructs found in general purpose languages:
  - ▶ variables (common)
  - ▶ functions (occasionally)
  - ▶ control flow (if, while, etc.) (occasionally)
- ▶ On the other hand, they should have concise syntax for their particular domain

## External DSLs: NetLogo

```
1 to setup
2   clear-all
3   create-turtles 10
4   reset-ticks
5 end
6
7 to go
8   ask turtles [
9     fd 1           ;; forward 1 step
10    rt random 10   ;; turn right
11    lt random 10   ;; turn left
12  ]
13  tick
14 end
```



## External DSLs: CSS

```
1 body {  
2     overflow: hidden;  
3     background-color: #000000;  
4     background-image: url(images/bg.gif);  
5     background-repeat: no-repeat;  
6     background-position: left top;  
7 }
```

# Writing an External DSL

1. Parse: analyze the text and determine its grammatical structure
2. Translate: convert the parse tree into an Abstract Syntax Tree (AST) or other intermediate representation
3. Execute: "run" the program (produce some output, interact with the user, etc. )

# Parsing

- ▶ Parsing reads in input text, and determines it can be derived from a set of grammar rules (if at all)
- ▶ Generally outputs a *parse tree*: a tree representation of the rules used to produce the text
- ▶ Used to check *syntax*: is the string a correctly structured statement in the language

# Parsing Expression Grammar (PEG)

- ▶ PEG is language used to specify the grammar of a language (PEG is a DSL!)
- ▶ PEG consists of a sequence of definitions (non-terminals)
  - ▶ `identifier = expression`
- ▶ At their most basic, expressions can consist of a *terminal* ("abc", `~r"b.*"`), or another definitions
  - ▶ `one = "1"`
  - ▶ `eleven = one one`
- ▶ A terminal *matches* the exact text, a definition *matches* if its expression matches
- ▶ The first definition is the "starting expression", and is used to match the entire text.

# Parsimonious PEG Expressions

Let  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  be arbitrary expressions

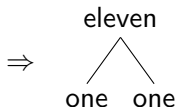
- ▶ Literal: `" "` (" $1$ ")
- ▶ Python-style Regex: `~r"regex"ilmsuxa` (`~r"[a-z]"i`)
- ▶ Sequence:  `$e_1$   $e_2$`  (" $1$ " " $1$ ")
- ▶ Choice:  `$e_1$  /  $e_2$`  (" $1$ " / " $2$ ")
- ▶ Grouping: `( $e_1$ )` (" $1$ " / " $2$ ") " $1$ " vs " $1$ " / (" $2$ " " $1$ ")
- ▶ Optional:  `$e_1$ ?` (" $1$ ?")
- ▶ Zero-or-more:  `$e_1$ *` (" $1$ \*")
- ▶ One-or-more:  `$e_1$ +` (" $1$ +")
- ▶ Exactly-n:  `$e_1$ { $n$ }` (" $1$ { $n$ }")
- ▶ Lookahead: `& $e_1$`  (&" $1$ ")
- ▶ Negative Lookahead: `! $e_1$`  (!" $1$ ")

## Parse Trees

The parser (e.g. parsimonious) outputs a *parse tree*: a tree representation of the rules which matched the string

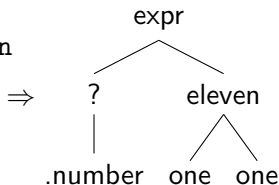
Example: Parsing 11

eleven = one one  
one = "1"



Example: Parsing #11

expr = number? eleven  
number = "#"  
eleven = one one  
one = "1"



PEG is unambiguous: every string has exactly 0 or 1 valid parse trees

# Recursion

Rules may be recursive, meaning they reference themselves within their definitions

Example: `ones = one ones?`

However, PEG does NOT allow the left-most expression in a sequence to be recursive (e.g. no left recursion)

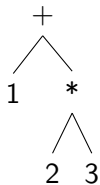
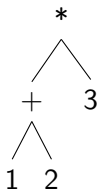
Example: `ones = ones one` is NOT allowed

# Live Coding: Arithmetic Parsing



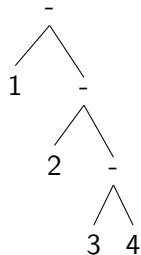
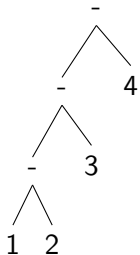
# Precedence

Example:  $1 + 2 * 3$



# Associativity

Example: 1 - 2 - 3 - 4



# Abstract Syntax Trees (ASTs)

- ▶ Parse trees are not nice to work with:
  1. they contain many useless nodes (e.g. whitespace)
  2. may not be the exact structure you want
- ▶ Instead, we convert the parse tree into an Abstract Syntax Tree (AST)
- ▶ AST: a tree where interior nodes represent operators, and their children represent their operands

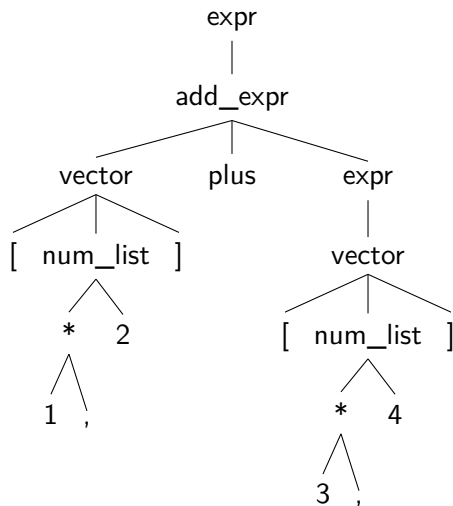
## Example: Vector Addition

Example:  $[1, 2] + [3, 4]$

```
expr = add_expr / vector
add_expr = vector plus expr
vector = "[" num_list "]"
num_list = (number comma)* number
number = ~r"[0-9]+" ws
comma = "," ws
ws = ~r"\s*"
```

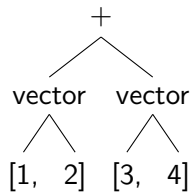
## Example: Vector Addition

Example:  $[1, 2] + [3, 4]$



## Example: AST

Example:  $[1, 2] + [3, 4]$



# Converting Parse Trees to ASTs in Parsimonious

- ▶ General idea: perform a depth first traversal of the tree and convert each node into AST nodes
- ▶ Parsimonious steps:
  1. Sub-class the `NodeVisitor` class
  2. Implement visitor methods for each definition
  3. Call `visit` on the parse tree

```
class VectorVisitor(NodeVisitor):  
    def visit_expr(self, node: Node, visited_children: list[Any]):  
        ...
```

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        ...
```

Node object representing the matching definition



# Converting Parse Trees to ASTs in Parsimonious

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```
class VectorVisitor(NodeVisitor):  
    def visit_expr(self, node: Node, visited_children: list[Any]):  
        ...
```

List of results from visiting this nodes children



# Live Coding: Parse Tree $\rightarrow$ AST

# ASTs: What now

Now we have an AST... but what can we do with it?

1. Analyze and/or optimize it...
2. Translate it into a different AST / IR...
3. Execute it...

# Execution

There are three main ways to execute a DSL:

1. **Compilation:** Convert the AST into machine code, which can be executed
2. **Transpilation:** Convert the AST into an equivalent program in a different language (e.g. C)
3. **Interpretation:** Write a program which executes over the AST directly

Note that we mean execution in a broad sense (e.g. producing an output, interacting with the user, etc.)

# Execution

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# Why Interpreters

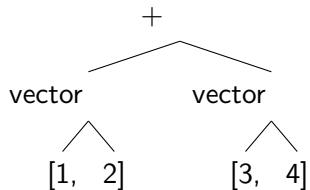
- ▶ Fairly straightforward to write (in comparison to a compiler or transpiler)
- ▶ Often easier to debug
- ▶ Many DSLs aren't performance critical
- ▶ Can use features of the "host" language (e.g. memory management)

# Writing a Tree-Walking Interpreter

Tree-Walking Interpreter: Traverse the AST, executing as you go.

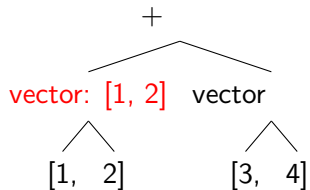
- ▶ Perform some depth-first traversal of the AST
- ▶ When visiting a node, perform the correct computation using its computed children

Example:  $[1, 2] + [3, 4]$

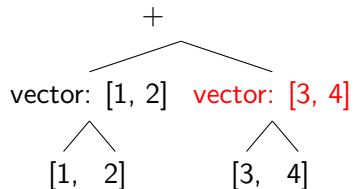




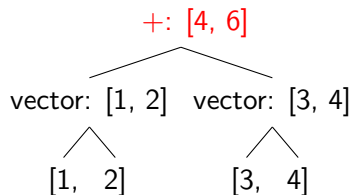
Example:  $[1, 2] + [3, 4]$



Example:  $[1, 2] + [3, 4]$



Example:  $[1, 2] + [3, 4]$



# Live Coding: Evaluating Arithmetic

# Tips and Tricks

- ▶ Use semantics to guide your parsing and AST (e.g. don't want a right-leaning parse tree for left-associative operations)
  - ▶ Stage 1: Design the AST from the semantics
  - ▶ Stage 2: Design the parser from the AST
- ▶ Think about whether or not evaluation ordering is defined: (e.g. `foo(print(1), print(2))`)
- ▶ Keep it lean: don't implement constructs that aren't necessary for your domain

# Expressions vs Statements

Many languages differentiate between *expressions*, pieces of code which return a value, and *statements*, pieces of code which do not.

For example, in python:

- ▶ `x = 5` is a statement
  - ▶ `y = (x = 5) + 2` ?
- ▶ `5 + 2` is an expression

In many languages, all expressions are statements, but not all statements are expressions.

# Variables

Example: `let x = 5`

Use a dictionary to track “bindings”:

```
1 class Let(Stmt):
2     name: str
3     value: expr
4
5 class Variable(Stmt):
6     name: str
7
```

```
1 def interpret_let(ast_node, bindings):
2     result = interpret(node.value)
3     bindings[ast_node.name] = result
4
5 def interpret_var(ast_node, bindings):
6     return bindings[ast_node.name]
7
```

# Function Declarations

Example:

```
1 func foo(arg1, arg2, arg3) {  
2     body  
3     return arg1;  
4 }  
5
```

Implementation:

```
1 class Function(Stmt):  
2     name: str  
3     params: list[str]  
4     body: list[Stmt]  
5
```

```
1 def interpret_func_declaration(ast_node, bindings,  
2     declarations):  
3     declarations[ast_node.name] = ast_node
```



# Function Calls

Example:

```
1 foo(1, 2, 3)
2
```

Implementation:

```
1 class FunctionCall(Expr):
2     name: str
3     args: list[Expr]
4
```

```
1 def interpret_func_call(ast_node, bindings,
2                           declarations):
3     func = declarations[ast_node.name]
4
5     for (param_name, arg) in
6         zip(func.params, ast_node.args):
7         arg_value = interpret(arg, bindings,
8                               declarations)
9         bindings[param_name] = arg_value
10
11     for stmt in func.body:
12         interpret(stmt, bindings, declarations)
```

# Control Flow

```
1     if (x == 5) {
2         ...
3     } else {
4         ...
5     }
6
```

```
1 class If(Stmt):
2     condition: Expr
3     true_block: list[Stmt]
4     false_block: list[Stmt]
5
```

```
1 def interpret_if(ast_node, bindings, declarations):
2     cond_value = interpret(ast_node.condition, ...)
3     if cond_value:
4         for stmt in ast_node.true_block:
5             interpret(stmt, ...)
6     else:
7         for stmt in ast_node.false_block:
8             interpret(stmt, ...)
9
```

# Program Correctness

- ▶ Some programs may not be correct...
- ▶ Some errors can be found before running the program (i.e. statically), but others can only be caught during execution (i.e. dynamically)
- ▶ We have already seen how parsing can catch some errors:
  - ▶ `4 & 8 ( 0`
- ▶ But some errors can't be caught by the parser...
  - ▶ `let for = 5;`

# Turtle DSL

## ▶ Let

```
1 x = 5;  
2 y = "circle";  
3 t = turtle;  
4
```

## ▶ Ask

```
1 ask t {  
2     shape = y;  
3     color = "red";  
4 }  
5
```

## ▶ ontick

```
1 ontick t {  
2     forward(x);  
3     right(random(50));  
4 }  
5
```

# Turtle DSL: Error

## ▶ Let

```
1 x = 5;  
2 y = "circle";  
3 t = turtle;  
4
```

## ▶ Ask

```
1 ask t {  
2     color = 5; # Error! 5 is not a color!  
3 }  
4
```

# Static vs Dynamic error checking

In general, catching errors statically is preferred to catching them dynamically. Why? Consider the following code:

```
1 for (int i = 0; i < 1,000,000; i++) {  
2     ... long running code ...  
3 }  
4  
5 int x = "hello";
```

## ...but sometimes Dyanmic is better

- ▶ Sometimes, static isn't possible: we need the actual value to find the error
  - ▶ `5 / x` # if x is 0, need to throw an error
- ▶ Sometimes, static is possible, but it is really hard...

```
1 if (b):
2     x = 5;
3 else:
4     x = "hello";
5
6 match x:
7     case int():
8         ...
9     case float():
10        ...
11
```

- ▶ Communication to the programmer: At runtime, we have concrete values we can give to the programmer!

# Typing

A common type of error checking is called *typing*.

Types are *sets of values*, which give information about what operations are permitted on those values.

For example, we might use the type *int* for integers, or the type *Function(int, int) → int* for functions which take two integers, and return an integer.



# A simple type system

Lets consider a small language, with numbers and strings.

```
1   let x = 5;  
2   let y = "hello";  
3   let z = x * 5 + 3;  
4
```

# Type checking

What should the following code do?

```
1 let x = 5;  
2 let y = "hello";  
3 print(x + y)
```

# Type checking

What should the following code do?

```
1 let x = 5;  
2 let y = "hello";  
3 print(x + y)
```

Some options:

- ▶ Define addition over combinations of integers and strings
- ▶ Throw an error at
  - ▶ compile-time
  - ▶ run-time

# Static vs Dynamic Typing

- ▶ Static Typing: Types are known and checked at compile-time
  - ▶ C, C++, Rust, Haskell...
- ▶ Dynamic Typing: Types are known and checked at run-time.
  - ▶ Python, Javascript...

# Static vs Dynamic Typing Advantages

- ▶ Static Typing:
  - ▶ Checks are done at compile time (no need to run the code)
- ▶ Dynamic Typing:
  - ▶ More flexible (e.g. python functions can automatically accept any argument, duck typing, etc.)

# Implementing a type checker

Very basic type checker: Traverse the AST, and check that the types of function/operator arguments match.

# Type checking function calls

```
1 def add(x: int, y: int) -> int { ... }  
2  
3 add(5, 6)  
4
```

# Type checking function calls

add  
5 6






## Type checking function calls

add: Function(int, int) -> int

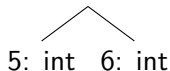
5: int 6: int



## Type checking function calls

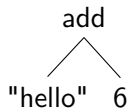
add: Function(int, int) -> int

Does 5.ty == int and 6.ty == int?



# Type checking function calls

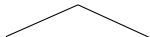
add  
"hello" 6



## Type checking function calls

add: Function(int, int) -> int

"hello": string 6: int



## Type checking function calls

add: Function(int, int) -> int

Does "hello".ty == int and 6.ty == int?

"hello": string 6: int

# Live Coding: A turtle type-checker

We will live code a type checker for a small turtle language (similar to Logo).