COMP3161/COMP9164

Syntax Exercises

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September 26, 2019

- 1. (a) $[\star]$ Consider the following expressions in Higher Order abstract syntax. Convert them to concrete syntax.
 - i. (Let (Num 3) (x. (Let (Plus x (Num 1)) (x. (Plus x x)))))

Solution: let x = 3 in let x = x + 1 in x + x

ii. (Plus (Let (Num 3) (x. (Plus x x))) (Let (Num 2) (y. (Plus y (Num 4)))))

Solution: (let x = 3 in x + x) + (let y = 2 in y + 4)

iii. (Let (Num 2) (x. (Let (Num 1) (y. (Plus <math>x y)))))

Solution: let x = 2 + (let y = 1 in x + y)

- (b) $[\star]$ Apply the substitution $x := (\text{Plus } z \ 1)$ to the following expressions:
 - i. (Let (Plus x z) (y. (Plus x y)))

Solution: (Let (Plus (Plus $z \ 1) \ z) \ (y. \ (Plus \ (Plus \ z \ 1) \ y)))$

ii. (Let (Plus x z) (x. (Plus z z)))

Solution: (Let (Plus (Plus $z \ 1) \ z) \ (x. \ (Plus \ z \ z)))$

iii. (Let (Plus x z) (z. (Plus x z)))

Solution: Undefined without applying α -renaming first. Can safely substitute after renaming the bound z to a: (Let (Plus (Plus z 1) z) (a. (Plus (Plus z 1) a)))

(c) [★] Which variables are shadowed in the following expression and where?

(Let (Plus y 1) (x. (Let (Plus x 1) (y. (Let (Plus x y) (x. (Plus x y)))))))

Solution: The innermost let shadows the binding of x from the outermost let. The middle let shadows the free y mentioned in the outermost let.

2. Here is a concrete syntax for specifying binary logic gates with convenient if — then — else syntax. Note that the else clause is optional, which means we must be careful to avoid ambiguity — we introduce mandatory parentheses around nested conditionals:

$$\frac{e \text{ EXPR}}{(e) \text{ IEXPR}} \quad \frac{e \text{ IEXPR}}{e \text{ EXPR}}$$

If an else clause is omitted, the result of the expression if the condition is false is defaulted to \bot . For example, an AND or OR gate could be specified like so:

Or, a NAND gate:

if
$$\alpha$$
 then (if β then \bot else \top) else \top

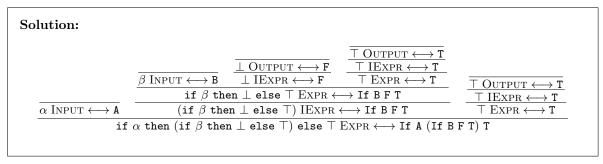
(a) $[\star\star]$ Devise a suitable abstract syntax A for this language.

Solution:
$$\frac{x \in \{\mathtt{a},\mathtt{b}\}}{x \; \mathsf{INPUT}} \quad \frac{x \in \{\mathsf{T},\mathsf{F}\}}{x \; \mathsf{OUTPUT}} \quad \frac{c \; \mathsf{INPUT}}{\mathsf{If} \; c \; t \; e \; \mathsf{A}} \quad \frac{x \; \mathsf{OUTPUT}}{x \; \mathsf{A}}$$

(b) $[\star]$ Write rules for a parsing relation (\longleftrightarrow) for this language.

(c) [★] Here's the parse derivation tree for the NAND gate above:

Fill in the right-hand side of this derivation tree with your parsing relation, labelling each step as you progress down the tree.



3. Here is a *first order abstract syntax* for a simple functional language, LC. In this language, a lambda term defines a *function*. For example, lambda x (var x) is the identity function, which simply returns its input.

$$\frac{e_1 \text{ LC}}{\text{App } e_1 \ e_2 \ \text{LC}} \quad \frac{x \text{ VARNAME}}{\text{Lambda } x \ e \ \text{LC}} \quad \frac{x \text{ VARNAME}}{\text{Var } x \ \text{LC}}$$

(a) $[\star]$ Give an example of *name shadowing* using an expression in this language, and provide an α -equivalent expression which does not have shadowing.

Solution: A simple example is Lambda x (Lambda x (Var x)). Here, the name x is shadowed in the inner binding.

An α -equivalent expression without shadowing would use a different variable y, i.e

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Lambda x (Lambda y (Var y))
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(b) $[\star\star]$ Here is an incorrect substitution algorithm for this language:

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\begin{array}{lll} (\operatorname{App}\ e_1\ e_2)[v:=t] & \mapsto & \operatorname{App}\ (e_1[v:=t])\ (e_2[v:=t]) \\ (\operatorname{Var}\ v)[v:=t] & \mapsto & t \\ (\operatorname{Lambda}\ x\ e)[v:=t] & \mapsto & \operatorname{Lambda}\ x\ (e[v:=t]) \end{array}
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What is wrong with this algorithm? How can you correct it?

Solution: The substitution doesn't deal with name clashes. The rule for lambdas should look like this:

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(\texttt{Lambda}\ x\ e)[v:=t] \quad \mapsto \quad \begin{cases} \texttt{Lambda}\ x\ (e[v:=t]) & \text{if } x \neq v \text{ and } x \not\in FV(t) \\ \texttt{Lambda}\ x\ e & \text{if } x=v \\ \text{undefined} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
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(c) $[\star\star]$ Aside from the difficulties with substitution, using arbitrary strings for variable names in first-order abstract syntax means that α -equivalent terms can be represented in many different ways, which is very inconvenient for analysis. For example, the following two terms are equivalent, but have different representations:

One technique to achieve canonical representations (i.e α -equivalence is the same as equality) is called higher order abstract syntax (HOAS). Explain what HOAS is and how it solves this problem.

Solution: Higher order abstract syntax encodes abstraction in the *meta-logic* level, or in the *language implementation*, rather than as a first-order abstract syntax construct.

First order abstract syntax might represent a term like $\lambda x.x$ as something like

Lambda "x" (Var "x"), where literal variable name strings are placed in the abstract syntax directly. Higher order abstract syntax, however, would place a function inside the abstract syntax, i.e Lambda (λx . x), where the variable x is a meta-variable (or a variable in the language used to implement our interpreter, rather than the language being implemented). This function is (extensionally) equal to any other α -equivalent function, and therefore we can consider two α -equivalent terms to be equal with HOAS, assuming extensionality (that is, a function f equals a function g if and only if, for all x, f(x) = g(x).

For example, a first order Haskell implementation of the above syntax might look like this:

There is no way in Haskell, for example, to determine that we used the names x and y for those function arguments. The only way for a Haskell function f to be distinguished from a function g is for f x to be different from g x for some x (i.e extensionality). As α -equivalent Haskell functions cannot be so distinguished, we must judge a term as equal to any other in its α -equivalence class.