

COMP3161/COMP9164

Syntax Exercises

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1. (a) [★] 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 x y)))))

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

- (b) [★] 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 x y)))

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:

$$\frac{c \text{ INPUT} \quad t \text{ IEXPR} \quad e \text{ EXPR}}{\text{if } c \text{ then } t \text{ else } e \text{ EXPR}} \quad \frac{c \text{ INPUT} \quad t \text{ IEXPR}}{\text{if } c \text{ then } t \text{ EXPR}} \quad \frac{x \text{ OUTPUT}}{x \text{ IEXPR}}$$

- (a) [★] 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

`Lambda x (Lambda y (Var y))`

- (b) [★★] Here is an incorrect substitution algorithm for this language:

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{App } e_1 \ e_2)[v := t] &\mapsto \text{App } (e_1[v := t]) \ (e_2[v := t]) \\ (\text{Var } v)[v := t] &\mapsto t \\ (\text{Lambda } x \ e)[v := t] &\mapsto \text{Lambda } x \ (e[v := t]) \end{aligned}$$

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:

$$(\text{Lambda } x \ e)[v := t] \mapsto \begin{cases} \text{Lambda } x \ (e[v := t]) & \text{if } x \neq v \text{ and } x \notin FV(t) \\ \text{Lambda } x' \ e & \text{if } x = v \\ \text{undefined} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- (c) [★★] 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:

`Lambda x (Lambda y (App (Var x) (Var y)))`

`Lambda a (Lambda b (App (Var a) (Var b)))`

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 ($\lambda x. x$)`, 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:

```
type VarName = String
data AST = App AST AST
         | Var VarName
         | Lambda VarName AST
test = Lambda "x" (Lambda "y" (App (Var "x") (Var "y")))
```

Whereas a higher order syntax might look like this:

```
data AST = App AST AST
         | Lambda (AST -> AST)
test = Lambda $ \x -> Lambda $ \y -> App x y
```

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.

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