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CSE, UNSW (and data61)

Semester 2 2018

# Concrete Syntax

## Arithmetic Expressions

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{i \in \mathbb{Z}}{i \text{ Atom}} \\
 \frac{a \text{ SExp}}{(a) \text{ Atom}} \\
 \frac{a \text{ Atom} \quad b \text{ PExp}}{a \times b \text{ PExp}}
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \frac{e \text{ Atom} \quad e \text{ PExp}}{e \text{ PExp}} \\
 \frac{e \text{ PExp} \quad e \text{ SExp}}{e \text{ SExp}} \\
 \frac{a \text{ PExp} \quad b \text{ SExp}}{a + b \text{ SExp}}
 \end{array}$$

All the syntax we have seen so far is *concrete syntax*. Concrete syntax is described by judgements on *strings*, which describe the actual text input by the programmer.

# Abstract Syntax

Working with concrete syntax directly is *unsuitable* for both compiler implementation and proofs. Consider:

- $3 + (4 \times 5)$
- $3 + 4 \times 5$
- $(3 + (4 \times 5))$

TIMTOWTDI<sup>1</sup> makes life harder for us. Different derivations represent the same semantic program. We would like a representation of programs that is as simple as possible, removing any extraneous information. Such a representation is called *abstract syntax*.

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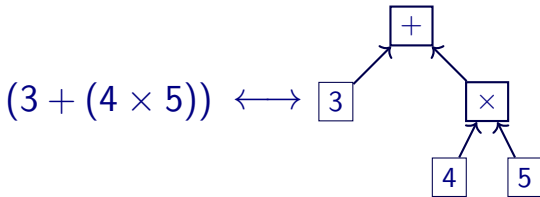
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# Abstract Syntax

Typically, the *abstract syntax* of a program is represented as a **tree** rather than as a string.



Writing trees in our inference rules would rapidly become unwieldy, however. We shall define a **term** language in which to express trees.

# Terms

## Definition

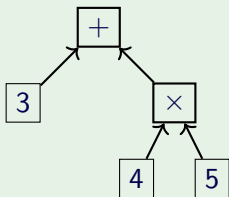
In this course, a *term* is a structure that can either be a *symbol*, like `Plus` or `Times` or `3`; or a *compound*, which consists of an *symbol* followed by one or more *argument subterms*, all in parentheses.

$$t ::= \text{Symbol} \mid (\text{Symbol } t_1 t_2 \dots)$$

These particular terms are also known as *s-expressions*. Terms can equivalently be thought of a subset of `Haskell` where the only kinds of expressions allowed are literals and data constructors.

# Term Examples

## Example



`(Plus (Num 3) (Times (Num 4) (Num 5)))`

Armed with an appropriate Haskell data declaration, this can be implemented straightforwardly:

```
data Exp = Plus Exp Exp
         | Times Exp Exp
         | Num Int
```

# Concrete to Abstract

## Concrete Syntax

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{i \in \mathbb{Z}}{i \text{ Atom}} \quad \frac{a \text{ SExp}}{(a) \text{ Atom}} \quad \frac{e \text{ Atom}}{e \text{ PExp}} \quad \frac{e \text{ PExp}}{e \text{ SExp}} \\
 \frac{a \text{ Atom} \quad b \text{ PExp}}{a \times b \text{ PExp}} \quad \frac{a \text{ PExp} \quad b \text{ SExp}}{a + b \text{ SExp}}
 \end{array}$$

## Abstract Syntax

$$\frac{i \in \mathbb{Z}}{(\text{Num } i) \text{ AST}} \quad \frac{a \text{ AST} \quad b \text{ AST}}{(\text{Plus } a \ b) \text{ AST}} \quad \frac{a \text{ AST} \quad b \text{ AST}}{(\text{Times } a \ b) \text{ AST}}$$

Now we have to specify a *relation* to connect the two!



# Relations

Up until now, most judgements we have used have been *unary* — corresponding to a set of satisfying objects.

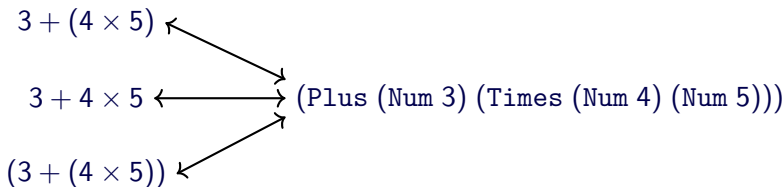
It's also possible for a judgement to express a relationship between *two objects* (a *binary* judgement) or a *number of objects* (an *n-ary* judgement).

## Example (Relations)

- 4 *divides* 16 (binary)
- mail *is an anagram of* liam (binary)
- 3 *plus* 5 *equals* 8 (ternary)

*n*-ary judgements where  $n \geq 2$  are sometimes called *relations*, and correspond to an *n*-tuple of satisfying objects.

## Parsing Relation



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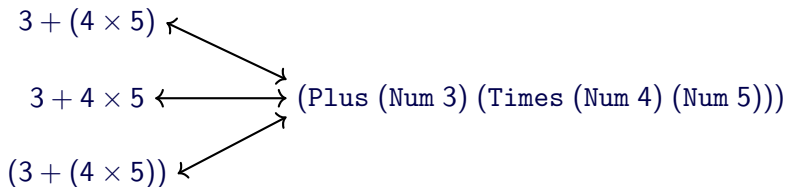
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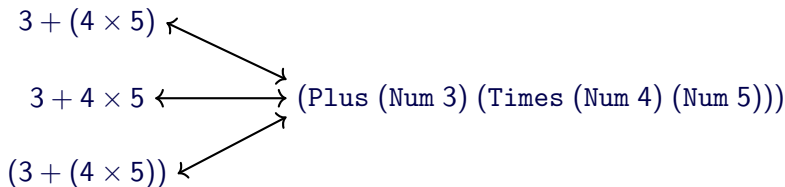
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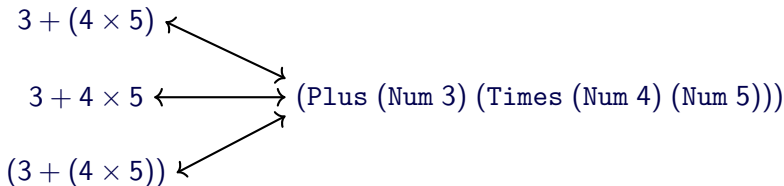
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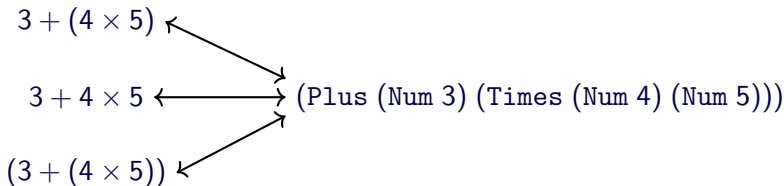
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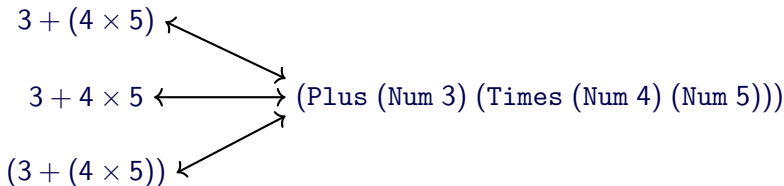
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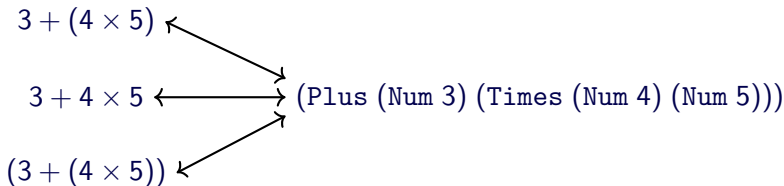
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## Relations as Algorithms

The *parsing relation*  $\longleftrightarrow$  is an extension of our existing concrete syntax rules. Therefore it is **unambiguous**, just as those rules are. Furthermore, the abstract syntax for a particular concrete syntax can be **unambiguously** determined **solely** by looking at the left hand side of  $\longleftrightarrow$ .

### An Algorithm

To determine the abstract syntax corresponding to a particular concrete syntax:

- 1 Derive the left hand side of the  $\longleftrightarrow$  (the concrete syntax) **bottom-up** until reaching axioms.
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1 P

2 × 3 S

$$1 + 2 \times 3 \mathbf{S} \leftrightarrow (\text{Plus } (\text{Num } 1) (\text{Times } (\text{Num } 2) (\text{Num } 3))) \text{ AST}$$

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## The Inverse

What about the inverse operation to **parsing**?

### Unparsing

Unparsing, also called *pretty-printing*, is the process of starting with the **abstract syntax** on the right hand side of the parsing relation  $\longleftrightarrow$  and attempting to synthesise a concrete syntax on the left.

### Problem

There are *many* concrete syntaxes for a given abstract syntax. The algorithm is *non-deterministic*.

While it is desirable to have:

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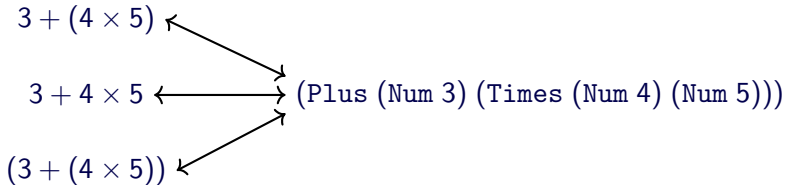
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## Example



Going from **right to left** requires some formatting guesswork to produce readable code.

Algorithms to do this can get quite involved!

Let's implement a parser for arithmetic. to coding

## Adding Let

Let us extend our arithmetic expression language with **variables**, including a `let` construct to give them values.

### Concrete Syntax

$$\frac{x \text{ Ident}}{x \text{ Atom}} \quad \frac{x \text{ Ident} \quad e_1 \text{ SExp} \quad e_2 \text{ SExp}}{\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \text{ end Atom}}$$

### Example

```
let x = 3 in
  x + 4
end
```

```
let x = 3 in
  let y = 4 in x + y end
end
```

# Scope

*binding occurrence* of  $x$

```
let  $x = 5$  in
  let  $y = 2$  in
     $x + y$ 
  end
end
```

*scope* of  $x$

*usage occurrence* of  $x$

The process of finding the *binding* occurrence of each used variable is called *scope resolution*. Usually this is done *statically*. If no binding can be found, an *out of scope* error is raised.

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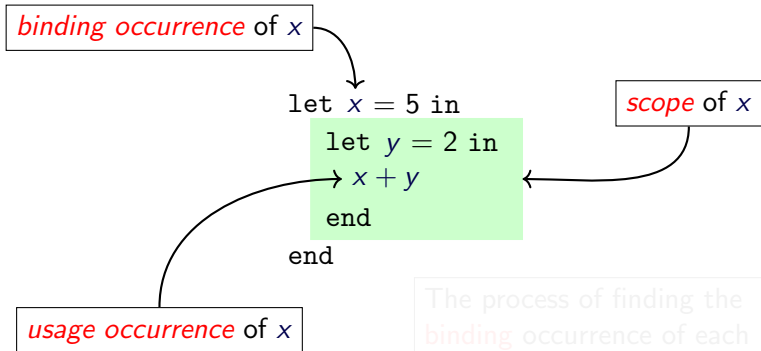
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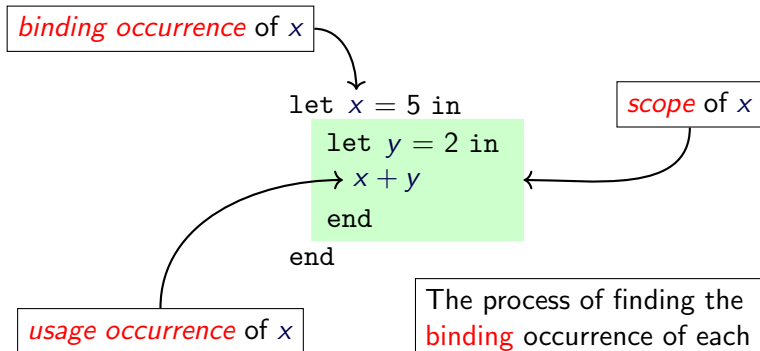
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# Shadowing

What does this program evaluate to?

```
let x = 5 in
  let x = 2 in
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x is *shadowed* here

This program results in 4.

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This program results in 4.

## $\alpha$ -equivalence

What is the difference between these two programs?

<pre>let x = 5 in   let x = 2 in     x + x   end end</pre>	<pre>let a = 5 in   let y = 2 in     y + y   end end</pre>
--	--

They are *semantically* identical, but differ in the choice of *bound variable names*. Such expressions are called  *$\alpha$ -equivalent*.

We write  $e_1 \equiv_{\alpha} e_2$  if  $e_1$  is  $\alpha$ -equivalent to  $e_2$ . The relation  $\equiv_{\alpha}$  is an *equivalence relation*. That is, it is *reflexive*, *transitive* and *symmetric*.

The process of consistently renaming variables that preserves  $\alpha$ -equivalence is called  *$\alpha$ -renaming*.

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# Substitution

A variable  $x$  is *free* in an expression  $e$  if  $x$  occurs in  $e$  but is not bound in  $e$ .

## Example (Free Variables)

The variable  $x$  is free in  $x + 1$ , but not in `let  $x = 3$  in  $x + 1$  end.`

A *substitution*, written  $e[x := t]$  (or  $e[t/x]$  in some other courses), is the replacement of all *free* occurrences of  $x$  in  $e$  with the term  $t$ .

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$(5 \times x + 7)[x := y \times 4]$  is the same as  $(5 \times (y \times 4) + 7)$ .

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## Problems with substitution

Consider these two  $\alpha$ -equivalent expressions.

```
let y = 5 in y × x + 7 end
```

and

```
let z = 5 in z × x + 7 end
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What happens if you apply the substitution  $[x := y \times 3]$  to both expressions? You get two **non- $\alpha$ -equivalent** expressions!

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This problem is called **capture**.

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# Variable Capture

*Capture* can occur for a substitution  $e[x := t]$  whenever there is a bound variable in the expression  $e$  with the same name as a free variable occurring in  $t$ .

## Fortunately

It is **always possible** to avoid capture.

- **$\alpha$ -rename** the offending bound variable to an unused name, or
- If you have access to the free variable's definition, renaming the free variable, or
- Use a **different abstract syntax representation** that makes capture impossible (More on this next lecture).

**To whiteboard** Let's define *capture-avoiding substitution* for our **AST** abstract syntax.