

Important Concepts to Remember

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1 Haskell

1.1 Input/Output

Java code:

```
1 void f(String out) {  
2     String inp1 = Console.readLine();  
3     String inp2 = Console.readLine();  
4     if (inp2.equals(inp1)) System.out.println(out);  
5 }
```

Listing 1: Java Code

How to convert to Haskell:

```
1 f :: String -> IO ()  
2 f out = do  
3     inp1 <- getLine  
4     inp2 <- getLine  
5     if inp2 == inp1  
6         then putStrLn out  
7         else return ()
```

Listing 2: Haskell Code

1.2 Syntax for IO type

The syntax for the IO type includes:

- The `do` block sequences side effects.
- `<-` extracts values from IO.
- `return` wraps values in IO.
- `show` converts values to Strings.
- `read` converts Strings to values (Always specify the desired type!).
- For α -equivalence, no variables can be free.

2 Syntax Tree

The syntax tree rules include:

- \wedge binds stronger than \vee and stronger than \rightarrow .
- \rightarrow associates to the right; \wedge and \vee associate to the left.
- Negation binds stronger than binary operators.
- Quantifiers extend to the right as far as possible.

Proof Rule for Induction Step:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash P[n \mapsto 0] \quad \Gamma \vdash \forall m : \text{Nat}. P[n \mapsto m] \rightarrow P[n \mapsto m + 1] \quad (m \text{ not free in } P)}{\Gamma \vdash \forall n : \text{Nat}. P}$$

Figure 1: Induction Step Tree

3 Foldr/Foldl

3.1 Foldr

The easiest way to understand `foldr` is to rewrite the list as a series of cons operations.

```
1 [1,2,3,4,5] => 1:(2:(3:(4:(5:[]))))
```

Listing 3: Haskell Code

Now what `foldr f x` does is that it replaces each `:` with `f` in infix form and `[]` with `x` and evaluates the result.

For example:

```
1 sum [1,2,3] = foldr (+) 0 [1,2,3]
```

Listing 4: Haskell Code

[1,2,3] == 1:(2:(3:[]))

So,

```
1 sum [1,2,3] == 1+(2+(3+0)) = 6
```

Listing 5: Haskell Code

4 Currying and Uncurrying

Currying is the process of transforming a function that takes multiple arguments in a tuple as its argument into a function that takes a single argument and returns another function that accepts further arguments one by one. You can convert between curried and uncurried forms using the Prelude functions `curry` and `uncurry`.

5 CYP

Proof by induction on List `xs` generalizing `zs`:

```
1   Case []
2   For fixed \texttt{zs}
3   Show: \texttt{rev [] ++ zs == qrev [] zs}
4   ...
5   Case y:ys
6   Fix \texttt{y, ys}
7   Assume
8       IH: forall \texttt{zs: rev ys ++ zs == qrev ys zs}
9   Then for fixed \texttt{zs}
10  Show: \texttt{rev (y:ys) ++ zs == qrev (y:ys) zs}
11  ...
12 QED
```

Listing 6: Haskell Code

6 η -conversion

The following two terms are equivalent under η -conversion:

$$x \rightarrow fx \text{ and } f$$

Converting from left to right is η -contraction, and converting from right to left is η -expansion. η -conversion is sometimes useful to simplify expressions.

Example:

Function `parity` takes a list of Integers and transforms it into a list of 0/1s.

```
1   parity xs = map elemPar xs where elemPar x = mod x
```

Listing 7: Haskell Code

General Procedure of `foldr` and `foldl`

1. Identify recursive, dynamic, and static arguments.

```
1   foldl f z (x:xs) = foldl f (f z x) xs
```

Listing 8: Haskell Code

2. Write an auxiliary function that has the recursive, then the dynamic arguments. Static arguments can still occur freely (and will come from the final context).

```
1   aux [] z = z
2   aux (x:xs) z = aux xs (f z x)
```

Listing 9: Haskell Code

3. Write the dynamic arguments as lambdas.

```
1   aux [] = \z -> z
2   aux (x:xs) = \z -> aux xs (f z x)
```

Listing 10: Haskell Code

4. Rewrite `aux` in terms of `foldr`. `x` and `aux xs` become arguments of the function for the recursive case.

```
1 aux = foldr (\x rec -> \z -> rec (f z x)) (\z -> z)
```

Listing 11: Haskell Code

5. Express the original function in terms of `aux` (reorder the dynamic and recursive arguments, if needed).

```
1 foldl f z xs = aux xs z
```

Listing 12: Haskell Code

6. Replace `aux` with its implementation.

```
1 foldl f z xs = foldr (\x rec z -> rec (f z x)) (\z -> z) xs z
```

Listing 13: Haskell Code

7 IMP

Remember the following:

Substitution " $_ [x \mapsto e]$ " replaces each free occurrence of variable x by e

- Arithmetic expressions

$(e_1 \text{ op } e_2)[x \mapsto e]$	$\equiv (e_1[x \mapsto e] \text{ op } e_2[x \mapsto e])$
$n[x \mapsto e]$	$\equiv n$
$y[x \mapsto e]$	$\equiv \begin{cases} e & \text{if } x \equiv y \\ y & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- Boolean expressions

$(e_1 \text{ op } e_2)[x \mapsto e]$	$\equiv (e_1[x \mapsto e] \text{ op } e_2[x \mapsto e])$
$(\text{not } b)[x \mapsto e]$	$\equiv \text{not } (b[x \mapsto e])$
$(b_1 \text{ or } b_2)[x \mapsto e]$	$\equiv (b_1[x \mapsto e] \text{ or } b_2[x \mapsto e])$
$(b_1 \text{ and } b_2)[x \mapsto e]$	$\equiv (b_1[x \mapsto e] \text{ and } b_2[x \mapsto e])$
- We will use the following substitution lemma (see exercises for proof):

$B[[b[x \mapsto e]]]\sigma \Leftrightarrow B[[b]]\sigma[x \mapsto A[[e]]\sigma]$
--

Figure 2: Substitution Rule

7.1 Proof Structure

7.1.1 Free Variables / Arithmetic Expression

Let x, y be arbitrary. Use strong structural induction on e . Thus, we have to prove $P(e)$ for some arbitrary arithmetic expression e and assume $\forall e'' \subset e, P(e'')$ as our induction hypothesis.

- **Case 1:** $e \equiv n$ for some numerical value n . - **Case 2:** $e \equiv y$ for some variable y . - **Case 3:** $e \equiv e_1 \text{ op } e_2$ for some arithmetic expression e_1, e_2 and some arithmetic operator op .

7.1.2 Boolean Expression

- **Case 1:** $b \equiv b_1 \text{ or } b_2$ for some boolean expressions b_1, b_2 . - **Case 2:** $b \equiv b_1$ and b_2 for some boolean expressions b_1, b_2 . - **Case 3:** $b \equiv \text{not } b'$ for some boolean expression b' . - **Case 4:** $b \equiv e_1 \text{ op } e_2$ for some arithmetic expression e_1, e_2 and some arithmetic operator op .

Arithmetic expressions	
$FV(e_1 \text{ op } e_2)$	$= FV(e_1) \cup FV(e_2)$
$FV(n)$	$= \emptyset$
$FV(x)$	$= \{x\}$
Boolean expressions	
$FV(e_1 \text{ op } e_2)$	$= FV(e_1) \cup FV(e_2)$
$FV(\text{not } b)$	$= FV(b)$
$FV(b_1 \text{ or } b_2)$	$= FV(b_1) \cup FV(b_2)$
$FV(b_1 \text{ and } b_2)$	$= FV(b_1) \cup FV(b_2)$
Statements	
$FV(\text{skip})$	$= \emptyset$
$FV(x := e)$	$= \{x\} \cup FV(e)$
$FV(s_1; s_2)$	$= FV(s_1) \cup FV(s_2)$
$FV(\text{if } b \text{ then } s_1 \text{ else } s_2 \text{ end})$	$= FV(b) \cup FV(s_1) \cup FV(s_2)$
$FV(\text{while } b \text{ do } s \text{ end})$	$= FV(b) \cup FV(s)$

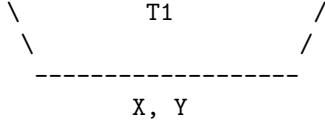
Figure 3: Free Variable

7.1.3 Trees

$R[T] \equiv \forall T, P, Q, b, s \dots \text{root}(T) \equiv \dots \implies \dots$

We want to prove $\forall T. R(T)$ by strong induction over the shape of T . Assume $\forall T' \subset T. R(T')$. Assume LHS holds. We do a case distinction on the last rule applied in T :

Here goes the proof



Since $T1 \subset T$, and the root has the same statement, we can apply the I.H. We instantiate P, Q, \dots as P', Q', \dots respectively. Since LHS holds, we know $\exists T' \text{ s.t. } \text{root}(T') \equiv \dots$

8 Find Invariants

8.1 Min, Max (continued)

```

1  while (x < y) {
2    t := x;
3    x := y;
4    y := t
5  }
```

Listing 14: Haskell Code

$\{\downarrow x = \max(X, Y)\}$
Invariant: $\{\max(x, y) = \max(X, Y)\}$
Variant: $y - x = Z$

8.2 Swap

Let $x \geq 0$ and $x = X$.

```

1   a := x;
2 y := 0;
3 while (a \neq 0) {
4   y := y + 1;
5   a := a - 1;
6 }

```

Listing 15: Haskell Code

$\{\downarrow y = X\}$
 Invariant: $\{a + y = X \wedge a \geq 0\}$
 Variant: a

8.3 A^{2^N}

$\{a = A \wedge A > 0 \wedge n = N \wedge N \geq 0\}$

```

1   k := 0;
2 r := a;
3 while (k < n) {
4   k := k + 1;
5   r := r \cdot r
6 }

```

Listing 16: Haskell Code

$\{\downarrow r = A^{2^N}\}$
 Invariant: $\{a = A \wedge A > 0 \wedge n = N \wedge N \geq 0 \wedge r = A^{2^k} \wedge k \leq N\}$
 Variant: $n - k$

8.4 Remainder

$\{N \geq 0 \wedge D > 0 \wedge d = D \wedge r = N \wedge q = 0\}$

```

1   while (r \geq 0) {
2     r := r - d;
3     q := q + 1;
4   }
5
6 r := r + d;
7 q := q - 1;

```

Listing 17: Haskell Code

$\{\downarrow N = q \cdot D + r \wedge r \geq 0 \wedge r < D\}$
 Invariant: $\{N = q \cdot d + r \wedge d = D \wedge D > 0 \wedge r + d \geq 0\}$
 Variant: $r = Z$

8.5 N^K

$\{k \geq 1 \wedge k = K \wedge n \geq 1 \wedge n = N\}$

```

1   i := 0;
2 r := 1;
3 while (i < k) {

```

```

4     i := i + 1;
5     r := r \cdot n;
6 }

```

Listing 18: Haskell Code

$\{\downarrow r = N^K\}$
 Invariant: $\{k = K \wedge n = N \wedge r = n^i \wedge i \leq k\}$
 Variant: $k - i = V$

8.6 $N = q \cdot D + r$

$\{N \geq 0 \wedge D > 0 \wedge d = D \wedge r = N \wedge q = 0\}$

```

1     while (r \geq 0) {
2         r := r - d;
3         q := q + 1;
4     }
5     r := r + d;
6     q := q - 1;

```

Listing 19: Haskell Code

Use the loop invariant in the invariant.
 Use post-condition in the loop invariant.
 Check if you can already conclude with the invariant your post-condition.

9 Liveness and Safety

Liveness

- Something good will happen eventually.
- If the good thing has not happened yet, it could happen in the future.
- A liveness property does not rule out any prefix.
- Every finite prefix can be extended to an infinite sequence that is in P .
- Liveness properties are violated in infinite time.

Safety

- Something bad is never allowed to happen (and can't be fixed).
- Safety properties are violated in finite time and cannot be repaired.