

# Computer Science Course Notes — 1st Semester

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# Models of Computation

## First Lesson

### Contact Information

Prof email: [piperno@di.uniroma1.it](mailto:piperno@di.uniroma1.it)

*Actual* lecture times:

- Wednesday 13:30 - 15:00
- Thursday 16:00 - 17:30, or 16:15 - 17:55

### Course Contents

The course content will focus on **functional programming** and  $\lambda$ -calculus.

The course contains practical exercises that should be done by pen and paper, so do not rely on *just* these notes.

The main application of these languages is that of *function application*, these languages are devoid of *assignment* semantics, and are therefore called *pure*.

The main ingredients of our programs will be:

- Variables, which are usually denoted by lowercase letters
- Starting from these, you obtain the set of all programs, which are called  $\lambda$ -terms, this set is denoted as  $\Lambda$ .

### Set Definition

We can provide an inductive definition of a set of  $\lambda$ -terms,  $\Lambda$ :

$$\frac{x \in V}{x \in \Lambda} \quad (\text{var})$$

$$\frac{M \in \Lambda \quad N \in \Lambda}{(MN) \in \Lambda} \quad (\text{app})$$

$$\frac{M \in \Lambda \quad x \in V}{\lambda x.M \in \Lambda} \quad (\text{abs})$$

Applying these inductive rules (variables, application, abstraction).

### Bactus Normal Form

Another way of describing a set of lambda terms is by using Bactus Normal Form (BNF).

$$\Lambda :: Var | \Lambda \Lambda | \lambda Var. \Lambda$$

Which is essentially a grammar for the set of lambda terms.

Lambda calculus is left-associative:

$$((xy)z) = xyz \neq x(yz)$$

All functions are unary (we assume currying). For example, the function  $f(x, y)$  is represented as:

$$\lambda x. \lambda y. fxy$$

.

Functions in lambda calculus can be applied to other functions or themselves, they can also return functions.

### Beta Reduction

The main operation in lambda calculus is *beta reduction*, which is the application of a function to an argument.

$$\frac{(\lambda x.M)N}{\text{redex}} \rightarrow_{\beta} M[N/x]$$

Where  $M[N/x]$  is the result of substituting all occurrences of  $x$  in  $M$  with  $N$ .

Some other examples:

$$(\lambda x.x)y \rightarrow_{\beta} y$$

$$(\lambda x.xx)y \rightarrow_{\beta} yy$$

$$(\lambda xy.yx)(\lambda u.u) \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y.y(\lambda u.u)$$

$$(\lambda x y. y x)(\lambda t. y) \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y. y(\lambda t. y)$$

This rule can be applied in any context in which it appears.

### Formal Substitution Definition

We give a formal definition of substitution,  $M[N/x]$ :

$$x[N/x] = N$$

$$y[N/x] = y$$

$$(M_1 M_2)[N/x] = M_1[N/x] M_2[N/x]$$

$$(\lambda t. P)[N/x] = \lambda t. (P[N/x])$$

As observed, substitution is always in place of *free* variables, therefore the abstraction is *not* replaced in the last rule.

If we had an abstraction of type  $\lambda x. P$  where  $x \in P$ , it would be best to rename  $x$  in order to avoid name clashes.

### Types of Variables

We distinguish two kinds of variables:

- Free variables: variables that are not bound by an abstraction
- Bound variables: variables that are bound by an abstraction

For example, in the term  $\lambda x. xy$ ,  $y$  is a free variable, while  $x$  is a bound variable.

Bound variables can be renamed, whereas for free variables the naming is relevant.

$$\begin{cases} FV(x) &= \{x\} \\ FV(MN) &= FV(M) \cup FV(N) \\ FV(\lambda x. M) &= FV(M) - \{x\} \end{cases}$$

A set of lambda terms where  $LM(\Lambda) =$  is called *closed*.

### Extra Rules

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\mu) \quad & \frac{M \rightarrow_{\beta} M'}{NM \rightarrow_{\beta} NM'} \\
 (\nu) \quad & \frac{M \rightarrow_{\beta} M'}{MN \rightarrow_{\beta} M'N} \\
 (\xi) \quad & \frac{M \rightarrow M'}{\lambda x.M \rightarrow \lambda x.M'}
 \end{aligned}$$

These rules allow us to select redexes in a context-free manner in the middle of our lambda term. We can then choose the order of evaluation of our redexes, while still taking care of the left-associative order of precedence. Our calculus is therefore not *determinate* but is still *deterministic*, meaning that there may be multiple reduction strategies but they all lead to the same result.

This corollary is called the *Church Rosser Theorem*, discovered in 1936.

In general, a call-by-value-like semantic is preferable when choosing evaluation paths, as it clears the most amount of terms as early as possible.

- Call By Value is *efficient*
- Call By Name is *complete*, if the lambda term is normalizable

## Second Lecture

### Alpha Reduction

Alpha reduction is the renaming of bound variables in a lambda term.

$$\lambda x.M \rightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda y.M[y/x]$$

This rule is used to avoid name clashes between bound variables.

### Arithmetic Expressions

The set of all valid arithmetic expressions has a very precise syntax. In general, a syntax can be viewed either as a tool for checking validity or as a generator of valid expressions (a grammar).

We proceed to give a definition for arithmetic expressions

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \frac{x \in \mathbb{N}}{x \in \text{Expr}} \quad (\text{num}) \\
 & \frac{X \in \text{Expr} \quad Y \in \text{Expr}}{X + Y \in \text{Expr}} \quad (\text{add})
 \end{aligned}$$



$$\frac{X \in \text{Expr} \quad Y \in \text{Expr}}{X \times Y \in \text{Expr}} \quad (\text{mul})$$

Etc, etc... for all the other binary operations.

From this, we can successfully decompose any arithmetic expression into a syntactic tree. With this set of rules, we have a slight problem: we can't represent negative numbers. We could solve this either by adding a rule for unary minus, or by specifying the num rule over  $\mathbb{Z}$  instead of  $\mathbb{N}$ .

## Combinators

We define three combinators:

$$S = \lambda x y z. x z (y z)$$

$$K = \lambda x y. x$$

$$I = \lambda u. u$$

We have that  $SKy \rightarrow_{\beta} I$

*Exercise 1.1:*  $\beta$ -reduce  $S(KS)S$

This reduces to  $\lambda z b c. z(bc)$ , which is the  $B$  combinator (composition).

*Exercise 1.2:*  $\beta$ -reduce  $S(BBS)(KK)$ .

This reduces to  $\lambda z c d. zdc$ , which is the  $C$  combinator (permutation).

For exercise this, we show a step-by-step reduction:

$$\begin{aligned} & S(BBS)(KK) \\ & \rightsquigarrow \lambda z. (BBS)z((KK)z) \\ & \rightsquigarrow \lambda z. (\lambda c. B(Sc))z((KK)z) \\ & \rightsquigarrow \lambda z. (\lambda c. B(Sc))zK \\ & \rightsquigarrow \lambda z. B(Sz)K \\ & \rightsquigarrow \lambda z. (\lambda c. (Sz)(Kc)) \\ & \rightsquigarrow \lambda z c. Sz(Kc) \\ & \rightsquigarrow \lambda z c d. zd(Kcd) \\ & \rightsquigarrow \lambda z c d. zdc \quad \square. \end{aligned}$$

### Third Lecture

Recupera!!!

### Fourth Lecture

First we do a simple exercise,  $\beta$ -reduce  $\lambda uv.(\lambda z.zz)(\lambda t.tuv)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \lambda uv.(\lambda z.zz)(\lambda t.tuv) \\
 \rightarrow_{\beta} & \lambda uv.(\lambda t.tuv)(\lambda t.tuv) \\
 \rightarrow_{\beta} & (\lambda t.tuv)(\lambda t.tuv) \\
 \rightarrow_{\beta} & \lambda uv.(\lambda t.tuv)uv \\
 \rightarrow_{\beta} & \lambda uv.uuvv \quad \square.
 \end{aligned}$$

Find a term  $X$  s.t  $Xx = \lambda t.t(Xx)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 Xx &= \lambda t.t(Xx) \\
 X &= (\lambda fxy.t(fx))X \\
 X &= Y(\lambda fxy.t(fx))
 \end{aligned}$$

Find a term  $H$  s.t  $H(\lambda x_1x_2x_3.P) = \lambda x_3x_2x_1.P$

This corresponds to performing a function call with the arguments in reverse order:

$$H := \lambda f x_3 x_2 x_1. f x_1 x_2 x_3$$

You can see by beta reduction that this is the correct term:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & H(\lambda x_1x_2x_3.P) \\
 \rightarrow_{\beta} & (\lambda f x_3 x_2 x_1. f x_1 x_2 x_3)(\lambda x_1x_2x_3.P) \\
 \rightarrow_{\beta} & (\lambda x_3x_2x_1. (\lambda x_1x_2x_3.P)x_1x_2x_3) \\
 \rightarrow_{\beta} & \lambda x_3x_2x_1.P \quad \square.
 \end{aligned}$$

### Fifth Lecture

Today we will try to be more precise about the *fixed point* operator.

The first question is:

Find  $X$  s.t:

$$XMN = MI(MN) \quad \forall M, N \in \Lambda$$

By substitution, we have:

$$X = \lambda xy. xI(xy)$$

This can be verified by beta reduction (we skip it since it's trivial).

Now, the core question is to replicate the same result with an expression that is *recursive* in nature.

For example: find  $X \in \text{Lambda}$  s.t:

$$XMN = M(XMN) \quad \forall M, N \in \Lambda$$

## Sixth Lecture

This lecture will focus on *Combinatory Logic*, which is a simpler version of lambda calculus, where we only use combinators.

Here we have: \* Application \* Variables \* No Abstraction

This means that *all* variables are *free*!

We have some *constants* (we define them using abstraction with a slight abuse of notation): \*  $S = \lambda xyz. xz(yz)$  \*  $K = \lambda xy. x$  \*  $I = \lambda x. x$  \*  $B = \lambda xyz. x(yz)$  \*  $C = \lambda xyz. xzy$

(Where  $SK$  is a sufficient base for all combinators, and the other combinators are syntactic sugar).

We define the  $CL$  set inductively, as follows:

$$\frac{x \in V}{x \in CL} \quad (\text{var})$$

$$\frac{X \in \text{const}}{X \in CL} \quad (\text{const})$$

$$\frac{X \in CL \quad Y \in CL}{(XY) \in CL} \quad (\text{app})$$

In the same way as lambda calculus, we use left-associative application.

$$((UV)W) = UVW \neq U(VW)$$

Our constants have *computational behavior*, as explained by the abstraction rules. We can give explicit definitions for constant computations in order to completely remove the abstraction rules.

- $SXYZ \triangleright XZ(YZ)$
- $KXY \triangleright X$
- $IX \triangleright X$
- $BXYZ \triangleright X(YZ)$
- $CXYZ \triangleright XZY$

Showing that these combinators map to lambda terms is trivial (we can just apply the definitions). Showing the opposite is a bit more complex, but it can be done.

We essentially want to *implement* the abstraction behavior from combinatory logic, so that we can transpose *any* lambda term (not just trivial combinators) into combinatory logic.

$$\lambda x.P \quad [x]P \quad (\text{abstraction of } x \text{ in } P)$$

For instance

$$\lambda xy.yx \quad [x]([y]yx)$$

### Transformation Algorithm

Our aim is to produce an algorithm that performs this transformation:

$$([x]P)x \rightarrow P$$

We do this by creating a set of rules that we then apply iteratively (effectively performing a closure of the initial expression over the transformation set).

We define indicators  $U, V$  s.t:

$$\begin{cases} U & x \notin FV(U) \\ W, V & x \in FV(V) \end{cases}$$

Then we define the following rules:

- I.  $[x]Ux = U$
- II.  $[x]x = I$
- III.  $[x]U = KU$
- IV.  $[x](UW) = BU([x]W)$
- V.  $[x][VU] = C([x]V)U$
- VI.  $[x](VW) = S([x]V)([x]W)$

The order of the rules is *important*. This kind of algorithm is called a *markov algorithm*, which is a class of algorithms in which a set of rules is applied iteratively, with a priority order, until a fixed point is reached.

### Example of application

Let's give an example of application by transforming

$$\lambda xy.ytx$$

We start by applying the rules:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda xy.ytx \\ [x]([y](yt)x) \\ [x](C([y]yt)x) \\ [x](C(C([y]y)t)x) \\ [x](C(C(I)t)x) \\ [x]C(CIt)x \\ C(CIt)x \end{aligned}$$

Now we can apply this combinatory logic expression to  $xy$ :

$$\begin{aligned} C(CIt)xy &\triangleright C(CIt)yx \\ &\triangleright CIt yx \\ &\triangleright I ytx \\ &\triangleright ytx \quad \square. \end{aligned}$$

In order to show that our result is

