- Syntax
  - e ::= x | \x -> e l e1 e2
- Programs are expressions or λ-terms
- Variable: x, y, z
- Abstraction: (aka nameless function definition) \x → e means "for any x, compute e"; x is the formal parameter, e is the body
- Application: (aka function call) e1 e2 means "apply e1 to e2"; e1 is the Syntactic sugar for nested let expressions: function and e2 is the argument
- Syntactic Sugar: convenient notation used as a shorthand for valid syntax

```
-- instead of:
\x \rightarrow (\y \rightarrow (\z \rightarrow e)) \x \rightarrow \y \rightarrow \z \rightarrow e
\x -> \y -> \z -> e
                                   \x y z -> e
(((e1 e2) e3) e4)
                                   e1 e2 e3 e4
```

- Scope of a variable The part of a program where a variable is visible
- In the expression \x -> e
- x is the newly-introduced variable
- e is the scope of x
- Any occurrence of x in \x -> e is bound (by the binder \x)
- An occurrence of x in e is free if it is not bound by an enclosing abstraction
- Free Variables: A variable x is free if there exists a free occurrence of x in e (not bound as a formal)
- · Closed Expressions: if e has no free variables it is closed
- α-step (renaming formals): we can rename a formal parameter and replace all its occurrences in the body
- β-step (aka function call)
- ( $\x \$  e1) e2 =b> e1[x := e2]
- e1[x := e2] means "e1 with all free occurrences of x replaced with e2" - Computation is search and replace: if you see an abstraction applied to an argument, take the body of the abstraction and replace all free occur-
- rences of the formal by that argument
- Normal Forms:
- A redex is a  $\lambda$ -term of the form ( $\x$  -> e1) e2
- A λ-term is in normal form if it contains no redexes
- Evaluation:
- A  $\lambda$ -term e evaluates to e' if there is a sequence of steps

```
e =?> e_1 =?> ... =?> e_N =?> e'
- each =?> is either =a> or =b> and N >= 0
```

- e' is in normal form
- e1 =\*> e2: e1 reduces to e2 in 0 or more steps
- e1 =~> e2: e1 evaluates to e2
- $\Omega$ :  $(\langle x \rangle \times x)$   $(\langle x \rangle \times x)$
- Recursion: Fixpoint Combinator
- FIX STEP =\*> STEP (FIX STEP)
- FIX =  $\stp$  ->  $(\x -> stp (x x))(\x -> stp (x x))$
- Quicksort in Haskell

```
sort :: [a] -> [a]
sort [] = []
sort (x:xs) = sort ls ++ [x] ++ sort rs
       1s = [1 | 1 < -xs, 1 < -x]
       rs = [r | r \leftarrow xs, x \leftarrow r]
```

- Functions in Haskell
- Functions are first-class values
- can be passes as arguments to other functions
- can be returned as results from other functions
- can be partially applied (arguments passed one at a time)
- Top-level bindings:
- Things can be defined globally
- Their names are called top-level variables
- Their definitions are called top-level bindings
- Equations and Patterns

```
pair x y b = if b then x else y
fst p
          = p True
          = p False
snd p
```

- A single function binding can have multiple equations with different patterns - Recursive types: a value of T contains a sub-value of the same type T of parameters

- The first equation whose pattern matches the actual arguments is chosen
- Referential Transparency means that a variable can be defined once per scope and no mutation is allowed; the same function always evaluates to the same
- Local variables can be defined using a let expression

```
sum 0 = 0
sum n = let n' = n - 1
       in n + sum n'
```

```
sum 0 = 0
sum n = let
                  = n - 1
           'n,
           sum,
                = sum n'
       in n + sum'
```

• If you need a variable whose scope is an equation, use the where clause

```
cmpSquare x v | x > z = "bigger :)"
             | x == z = "same :|"
             | x < z = "smaller : ("
   where z = y * y
```

- Types:
- In Haskell every expression either has a type or is ill-typed and rejected at compile-time
- Types can be annotated using ::

```
haskellIsAwesome :: Bool
haskellIsAwesome = True
```

- Functions have arrow types
- \x -> e has type A -> B
- If e has type B assuming x has type A
- A Combinator is a function with no free variables
- Lists:
- A list is either an empty list: [ ]
- Or a head element attached to a tail list: x:xs

```
[]
                  -- A list with zero elements
                 -- A list with one element
1:[]
(:) 1 []
                  -- A list with one element
1: (2:(3:(4:[]))) -- A list with four elements
1:2:3:4:[]
                  -- Same thing
                 -- Syntactic sugar
[1,2,3,4]
```

- [] and : are called the list constructors
- A list has type [A] if each one of its elements has type A
- Pairs: the constructor is (,)

```
myPair :: (String, Int)
mvPair = ("apple", 3)
```

- Record Syntax:
- Instead of:

data Date = Date Int Int Int

- You can write:

```
data Date = Date {
   month :: Int,
   day :: Int,
   year :: Int
}
```

- Use the field name as a function to access part of the data:

```
deadlineDate = Date 1 10 2019
deadlineMonth = month deadlineDate
```

- Building data types:
- Product types (each-of): a value of T contains a value of T1 and a value of
- Sum types (one-of): a value of T contains a value of T1 or a value of T2
- Pattern Matching:

```
html :: Paragraph -> String
html (Text str)
html (Heading lvl str) = ...
html (List ord items) = ...
```

- Match for arbitrary data types
- Dangers: missing or overlapped patterns
- Pattern matching expression

```
html :: Paragraph -> String
html p =
   case p of
       Text str
                      -> ...
       Heading lvl str -> ...
       List ord items -> ...
```

- The case expression has type T if every output expression has type T and the input is a valid pattern for the type; the input expression is called the
- Tail Recursion: The recursive call is the top-most sub-expression in the function body; no computations allowed on recursively-returned body; the value returned by the recursive call is the value returned by the function
- Tail-recursive factorial:

```
loop acc n
    ln \le 1 = acc
    | otherwise = loop (acc * n) (n - 1)
```

- Tail recursive calls compile to fast loops automatically
- The Filter pattern:

```
filter :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
filter f [] = []
filter f (x:xs)
   lfx
             = x : filter f xs
    | otherwise = filter f xs
```

- Higher-order function which takes function f and a list as arg
- For each element x in the list, if f x == True then x will be in the output
- The Map pattern:

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map f [] = []
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
```

- Higher order function which takes a function f and a list as arg
- For each element x in the input list, f x will be in the output list
- The Fold-Right pattern:

```
foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> [a] -> b
foldr f b []
             = b
foldr f b (x:xs) = f x (foldr f b xs)
```

- Higher order function which recurses on the tail
- Combines result with the head in some binary operation
- len = foldr (\x n  $\rightarrow$  1 + n) 0 - sum = foldr (\x n -> x + n) 0 - cat = foldr (\x n -> x ++ n) ""
- The Fold-Left pattern:

- Higher order function uses a helper function with an extra accumulator argument
- To compute the new accumulator, combine the urrent accumulator with the head using some binary operation
- Useful HOFs:
- Flip: flips the order of the input args

```
flip :: (a -> b -> c) -> b -> a -> c
```

- Compose: compose functions

```
(.) :: (b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow c
```

```
• Libraries will implement map, fold, filter, etc on its collections
• List Comprehensions: List comprehensions construct a new list from an old
  -- examples
  map f xs = [f x | x < - xs]
  filter p xs = [x \mid x \leftarrow xs, p x]
  concat xss = [x \mid xs \leftarrow xss, x \leftarrow xs]
   [e |True]
                      = [e]
   [e | q]
                       = [e | q, True]
                      = if b then [e | Q] else []
   [e | b, Q]
   [e \mid p \leftarrow xs, Q] = let ok p = [e \mid Q]
                            ok _ = []
                        in concat (map ok xs)
• Functions from Homework:
```

```
sumList :: [Int] -> Int
sumList [] = 0
sumList(x:xs) = x + sumList xs
digitsOfInt :: Int -> [Int]
digitsOfInt n
   | n < 0 = []
```

```
| otherwise = digitsOfInt (div n 10) ++ [mod n 10]
digits :: Int -> [Int]
digits n = digitsOfInt (abs n)
additivePersistence :: Int -> Int
additivePersistence n~
   | n < 10 = 0
   | otherwise = 1 + additivePersistence (sumList (digitsOfInt n)) XOR
digitalRoot :: Int -> Int
digitalRoot n
   | n < 10 = n
   | otherwise = digitalRoot (sumList (digitsOfInt n))
listReverse :: [a] -> [a]
listReverse [] = []
```

```
• Higher order functions from practice final
  reverse :: [a] -> [a]
  reverse xs = foldl (\rs x -> x : res) [] xs
  absValues :: [Int] -> [Int]
  absValues = map (\xspace x) if x < 0 then -x else x)
  dedup :: [Int] -> [Int]
  dedup = foldr insert []
      insert x ys = x : (filter (/= x) ys)
```

listReverse (x:xs) = listReverse xs ++ [x]

```
• Binary Search Trees
```

| n < 10 = [n]

```
size :: Tree->Int
size Empty = 0
size (Node 1 r) = 1 + size 1 + size r
insert :: Int -> Tree -> Tree
insert x Empty = Node x Empty Empty
insert x (Node y l r)
  | x == y = Node y l r
   | x < y = Node y (insert x 1) r
   | otherwise = Node y l (insert x r)
```

```
sort :: [Int] -> [Int]
sort xs = toList (fromList xs)
   fromList :: [Int] -> Tree
   fromList [] = Empty
   fromList (x:xs) = insert x (fromList xs)
toList :: Tree -> [Int]
toList Empty = []
toList (Node x 1 r) = toList 1 ++ [x] ++ toList r
size :: Tree -> Int
size t = loop 0 [] t
 where
   loop :: Int -> [Tree] -> Tree -> Int
   loop acc [] Empty
                               = acc
   loop acc (t:ts) Empty
                               = loop acc ts t
   loop acc ts (Node _l r) = loop (acc + 1) (r:ts) 1
```

• Lambda Calculus Functions

```
ZERO = \f x \rightarrow x
ONE = \f x -> f x
TWO
     = \f x \rightarrow f (f x)
SUCC = \n f x -> f (n f x)
EXP
     = \n m \rightarrow n (MULT m) ONE
TRUE = \xspace x
FALSE = \xy -> y
ITE = \b x y \rightarrow b x y
AND
      = \b1 b2 -> b1 b2 FALSE
OR
        = \b1 b2 -> b1 TRUE b2
NOT
       = \b1 -> b1 FALSE TRUE
NOR.
       = \b1 b2 -> NOT (OR b1 b2)
      = \b1 b2 -> NOT (AND b1 b2)
NAND
       = \b1 b2 -> AND (NAND b1 b2) (OR b1 b2)
INCR = \n f x -> f (n f x)
PAIR = \x y b \rightarrow b x y
FST = \p \rightarrow p TRUE
SND = \protect\  -> \protect\  FALSE
SKIP1 = \j k \rightarrow (\b \rightarrow
    b TRUE ((AND TRUE (k(TRUE))) (j(k(FALSE))) (k(FALSE))))
DECR = \n -> (n (SKIP1 INCR) (PAIR FALSE ZERO)) FALSE
SUB = \mbox{m n} \rightarrow \mbox{(n DECR)} \mbox{m}
ISZ = \n \rightarrow n(\a \rightarrow FALSE) TRUE
EQL
     = n \rightarrow AND (ISZ (SUB m n)) (ISZ (SUB n m))
SUC = \n f x -> f (n f x)
ADD = \n m -> n SUC m
MUL
      = n m \rightarrow n (ADD m) ZERO
REPEAT = \n m \rightarrow n (PAIR m) FALSE
EMPTY = \p -> p (\x y z -> FALSE) TRUE
     = \stp \rightarrow (\x \rightarrow stp (x x)) (\x \rightarrow stp (x x))
      = FIX (\rec n -> (EMPTY n) ZERO (INCR (rec (SND n))))
STEP
      = \rec n -> (ISZ n) ZERO (ADD n (rec (DECR n)))
SUM = FIX STEP
DIV
      = FIX (\rec n m ->
    (EQL n m) ONE ((ISZ (SUB n m) ) ZERO (INCR (rec (SUB n m) m)))) * Defined inductively through a set of rules
      = FIX (\rec n m ->
    (EQL n m) ZERO ((ISZ (SUB n m) ) n (rec (SUB n m) m)))
INSERT = \n m \rightarrow (PAIR n m)
APPEND' = FIX (\rec n m ->
    (EMPTY n) m (INSERT (FST n) (rec (SND n) m)))
-- sets
EMPTY = \x -> FALSE
```

```
• TYPE INFERENCE
- Typing Rules:
 * G |- e :: T
```

INSERT =  $\n s x \rightarrow$  ITE (EQL n x) TRUE (s x)

INTERSECT =  $\sl s2 x \rightarrow \sl s2 x)$ 

HAS =  $\s x \rightarrow s x$ 

\* An expression e has type T in context G if we can derive G |- e :: T using these rules

\* An expression e is well-typed in G if we can derive G |- e :: T for some type T

\* ill-typed otherwise

- Polymorphic Types

\* forall a . a -> a

\* a is a (bound) type variable

\* also called a type scheme

\* We instantiate this scheme into different types by replacing a in the body with some type e.g. instantiating with Int gives Int -> Int

- Inference with polymorphic types

\* We can derive e :: Int -> Int where e is

\* When we have to pick a type T for x we pick a fresh type variable a

\* So the type of  $\x -> x$  comes out as a -> a

\* We can generalize this type to forall  $a \cdot a \rightarrow a$ 

\* When we apply id the first time we instantiate this polymorphic type with

\* When we apply id the second time we instantiate this polymorphic type with Int -> Int

- Type substitutions

\* A finite map from type variables to types: U : TVar -> Type

\* Example: U1 = [a / Int, b / (c -> c)]

\* To apply a substitution U to a type T means replace all type vars in T with whatever they are mapped to in U

\* Example: U1 (a -> a) = Int -> Int

- Type inference algorithm

\* Given a context G and an expression e

\* return a type T such that G |- e :: T

\* or report a type error if e is ill-typed in G

\* Depending on what kind of expression e is, find a typing rule that applies

\* If the rule has premises, recursively call infer to obtain the types of subexpressions

\* Combine the types of sub-expressions according to the conclusion of the

\* If no rule applies, report a type error

- Constraint-based type inference

\* Whenever you need to 'guess' a type, don't. Just use a fresh type variable

\* Whenever a rule imposes a constraint on a type, try to find the right substitution for the free type variables to satisfy the constraint

Unification

\* The unification problem: given two types T1 and T2, find a type substitution U such that U T1 = U T2

\* Such a substitution is called a unifier of T1 and T2

- Generalization and INstantiation:

\* Whenever we infer a type for a let-defined variable, generalize

\* Whenever we see a variable with a polymorphic type, instantiate it with a fresh type variable

• Formalizing Nano

- Want to guarantee properties about programs such as: all programs terminate, evaluations is deterministic, certain programs never fail at run time,

- Operational Semantics

\* Defines how to execute a program step by step

\* A step relation or reduction relation e => e' as: "expression e makes a step to an expression e'"

\* A reduction is valid if we can build its derivation by "stacking" the rules

- Normal forms:

\* There are no reduction rules for  ${\tt n}$  or  ${\tt x}$ 

\* Both of these expresssions are normal forms already; however, n is a value and x is not a value

\* Thus is we reduce to just x the program is stuck

- Evaluation relation:

\* Like in  $\lambda$ -calculus we define the multi-step reduction relation e =\*> e' iff there exists a sequence of expressions e1, ... en such that e = e1, en = e', and ei  $\Rightarrow$  e(i+1) for each i in 0...n)

\* The evaluation relation e = > e' iff e = \*> e' and e' is in normal form