

1 Preliminaries

1.1 Overview

BIG TODO: Write something about Pure Type Systems and the lambda cube and how this language is essentially an extension of the Calculus of Constructions, with stuff like top level definitions and lightweight Typed Source esque type inference.

Our language is a dependently typed lambda calculus, based on the calculus of constructions. The main references which we base our language on are this paper on $\lambda\Pi$ and this implementation of a dependent type theory.

In System F, types may depend on other type variables, thus enabling parametrically polymorphic functions. In our language, we generalize this to allow types to depend on terms as well. In order to achieve this, we promote all types to expressions, so we no longer have separate syntactic categories for them.

Yes, this means that *everything* in our language is an expression, even those things which we call types! With this in mind, a type is then an expression, say T , which satisfies a very specific typing judgment, ie $\Gamma \vdash T \Leftarrow \text{Type}$. We'll revisit this again later.

The main aim of our project is to implement a simple lambda calculus with the dependent function type. These are also known as Pi types in the literature. These generalize the simple function type $A \rightarrow B$ by allowing the output type B to now *depend on the value* of the input expression. The type of functions in our language is now written as $\Pi_{x:A} B(x)$ where we write $B(x)$ for the return type to emphasize that x may appear free in B .

The set theoretic analogue to this dependent Pi type is the generalized cartesian product. Given a set A and a family of sets $\langle B_x \mid x \in A \rangle$ indexed by the elements $x \in A$, we can form the generalized cartesian product, denoted

$$\Pi_{x \in A} B_x = \left\{ f : A \rightarrow \bigcup_{x \in A} B_x \mid \forall x \in A, f(x) \in B_x \right\}$$

Functions that inhabit this set are known as *choice functions* in set theory. Such choice functions associate to each $x \in A$, an element $f(x)$ in B_x . As a fun fact, the Axiom of Choice asserts that this set is nonempty if every B_x is inhabited.

Another core feature of our language will be type inference. This will be implemented alongside typechecking, using a fancy *bidirectional typechecking* algorithm. Don't worry, we'll formalize all this later. For now, this just means that typechecking and type inference are mutually recursive processes.

Our language also doesn't have full blown recursion and is *strongly normalizing* in that every sequence of beta reductions will always terminate in a unique head normal form. This allows us to safely normalize all terms to full head normal form.

TODO: explain why our language is strongly normalizing and why this allows us to normalize everything all the way.

1.2 Metavariables

1. A, B, T, E range over expressions.
2. x, y, z range over variables.
3. ν, τ range over expressions that are in *full* head normal form.
4. s ranges over all sorts, ie Type and Kind.
5. n ranges over all neutral terms.

TODO: Explain head normal form and neutral terms.

We often add primes and subscripts, like E' or ν_2 while referring to these.

2 Syntax

Here we describe the concrete ascii syntax for our language. We have a separate syntax for expressions and statements, the latter of which function like top-level commands. These will be used by the user to interact with our language.

2.1 Syntax for expressions

1. **Sorts**

$$\overline{\text{Type}}$$
$$\overline{\text{Kind}}$$

Following the Calculus of Constructions, we have 2 sorts.

2. **Variables**

$$\overline{x}$$

3. **Optional parentheses**

$$\frac{E}{(E)}$$

4. **Function abstraction**

$$\frac{\frac{x \quad E}{\text{fun } x => E}}{\frac{x_0 \quad x_1 \quad \dots \quad x_n \quad E}{\text{fun } x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots \ x_n => E}}$$

Note that all functions in our language are unary and so $\text{fun } x_0 x_1 \dots x_n \Rightarrow E$ is syntactic sugar for

$$\text{fun } x_0 \Rightarrow (\text{fun } x_1 \Rightarrow \dots (\text{fun } x_n \Rightarrow E))$$

Simimilarly, one can also provide optional type annotations for input variables. This is to help the type checker infer the type of a function.

$$\frac{x \quad T \quad E}{\text{fun } (x : T) \Rightarrow E}$$

$$\frac{x_i \quad T_i \quad E}{\text{fun } (x_0 : T_0) (x_1 : T_1) \dots (x_n : T_n) \Rightarrow E}$$

We also treat $\text{fun } (x_0 : T_0) (x_1 : T_1) \dots (x_n : T_n) \Rightarrow E$ as syntactic sugar for

$$\text{fun } (x_0 : T_0) \Rightarrow (\text{fun } (x_1 : T_1) \Rightarrow \dots (\text{fun } (x_n : T_n) \Rightarrow E))$$

5. Pi and Sigma type

$$\frac{x \quad A \quad B}{\text{Pi } (x : A), B}$$

$$\frac{x_i \quad A_i \quad B}{\text{Pi } (x_0 : A_0) (x_1 : A_1) \dots (x_n : A_n), B}$$

As with functions, this is syntactic sugar for

$$\text{Pi } (x_0 : A_0), (\text{Pi } (x_1 : A_1), \dots (\text{Pi } (x_n : A_n), B))$$

The syntax rules for Sigma, ie $\text{Sigma } (x : A), B$. and syntactic sugar work the same as with Pi above.

6. Sigma constructor

$$\frac{E_1 \quad E_2}{(E_1, E_2)}$$

7. Sigma eliminators

$$\frac{E}{\text{fst } E}$$

$$\frac{E}{\text{snd } E}$$

8. Type ascriptions

$$\frac{E \quad T}{(E : T)}$$

This functions similarly to other functional languages in that it's used mainly to provide a type annotation. For instance, it can be used to help the type checker if it's unable to infer the type of an expression.

9. Local let bindings

$$\frac{x \quad E \quad E'}{\text{let } x := E \text{ in } E'}$$

10. Sum type

$$\frac{A \quad B}{A + B}$$

11. Sum type constructor

$$\frac{E}{\text{inl } E}$$

$$\frac{E}{\text{inr } E}$$

These are meant for introducing the left and right components of a disjoint sum, ie $\text{inl } E$ constructs an expression of type $A + B$ given an expression E of type A . Similarly, $\text{inr } E$ constructs an $A + B$ given E of type B .

12. Sum type eliminator

Given expressions E and variables x and y , users can perform case analysis on a sum type via the `match` construct below

```
match E with
| inl x -> E1
| inr y -> E2
end
```

The ordering of both clauses can be swapped so users can also enter

```
match E with
| inr y -> E2
| inl x -> E1
end
```

Note here that x is bound in the expression that is $E1$, while y is bound in $E2$.

This **match** construct is fashioned after the similarly named pattern matching construct in ML like languages. However, unlike those, we do not implement actual pattern matching since pattern matching for dependent types is not an easy problem. Our **match** construct serves the sole purpose of allowing one to perform case analysis on sum.

For convenience, we write $\text{match}(E, x \rightarrow E_1, y \rightarrow E_2)$ to denote this construct.

2.2 Syntax for statements

Statements are top level commands through which users interact with our language. Programs in our language will be *nonempty* sequences of these statements.

1. Def

$$\frac{x \quad E}{\text{def } x := E}$$

This creates a top level, global definition, binding the variable x to the expression given by E .

2. Axiom

$$\frac{x \quad T}{\text{axiom } x : T}$$

This defines the variable x to have a type of T with an unknown binding. The interpreter will treat x like an unknown, indeterminate constant.

3. Check

$$\frac{E}{\text{check } E}$$

This instructs the interpreter to compute the type of the expression E and output it.

4. Eval

$$\frac{E}{\text{eval } E}$$

This instructs the interpreter to fully normalize the expression E to full head normal form.

Note that we often write $\lambda x, E$ instead of $\text{fun } x => E$ as in the concrete syntax. Similarly, we also write $\lambda(x : T), E$ in place of $\text{fun}(x : T) => x$. Finally, we use $\Pi_{x:A} B(x)$ to abbreviate $\text{Pi}(x : A), B$.

3 Capture avoiding substitutions

Here we define the notion of capture avoiding substitutions. For this, we formalize the notion of free variables and substitution.

3.1 Free variables

We define the set of free variables of an expression E , ie $\text{FV}(E)$ recursively.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{FV}(x) &:= \{x\} \\
 \text{FV}(E_1 E_2) &:= \text{FV}(E_1) \cup \text{FV}(E_2) \\
 \text{FV}(\lambda x, E(x)) &:= \text{FV}(E) \setminus \{x\} \\
 \text{FV}(\lambda (x : T), E(x)) &:= \text{FV}(T) \cup (\text{FV}(E) \setminus \{x\}) \\
 \text{FV}(\text{let } x := E \text{ in } E') &:= \text{FV}((\lambda x, E') E) \\
 \text{FV}(\Pi_{x:A} B(x)) &:= \text{FV}(A) \cup (\text{FV}(B) \setminus \{x\})
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that in Pi expressions, the input type A is actually an expression itself and so may contain free variables. It's important to note that the $\Pi_{x:A}$, like a lambda is a binder binding x in B . However, this does not bind x in the input type, A . If x does appear in the input type A , then it is free there.

$$\text{FV}(\Sigma_{x:A} B(x)) := \text{FV}(\Pi_{x:A} B(x))$$

Sigma expressions follow the same rules as with Pi expressions, with x being bound in the output type B but not in the input type A .

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{FV}(A + B) &:= \text{FV}(A) \cup \text{FV}(B) \\
 \text{FV}(\text{match}(E, x \rightarrow E_1, y \rightarrow E_2)) &:= E \cup (E_1 \setminus \{x\}) \cup (E_2 \setminus \{y\})
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that in match expressions, x is bound in E_1 and y is bound in E_2 .

For the expressions `fst` E , `snd` E , `inl` E and `inr` E , the set of free variables is precisely $\text{FV}(E)$, since those keywords are treated like constants.

3.2 Substitution

Here we define $E[x \mapsto E'] := E''$ to mean substituting all free occurrences of x by E' in the expression E yields another expression E'' .

$$\begin{aligned}
x[x \mapsto E] &:= E \\
y[x \mapsto E] &:= y \quad (\text{if } y \neq x) \\
(E_1 \ E_2)[x \mapsto E] &:= (E_1[x \mapsto E] \ E_2[x \mapsto E]) \\
(\lambda x, E)[x \mapsto E'] &:= \lambda x, E \\
(\lambda y, E)[x \mapsto E'] &:= \lambda y, E[x \mapsto E'] \quad (\text{if } y \notin \text{FV}(E')) \\
(\lambda y, E)[x \mapsto E'] &:= \lambda z, E[y \mapsto z][x \mapsto E'] \\
&\quad (\text{if } z \notin \text{FV}(E) \cup \text{FV}(E') \cup \{x\}) \\
(\text{let } y := E \text{ in } E'')[x \mapsto E'] &:= ((\lambda y, E) \ E'')[x \mapsto E']
\end{aligned}$$

We also define $(\lambda(x : T), E)[x \mapsto E']$ similar to the case without the optional type annotation above. The only difference here is we also need to substitute x for E' in the type annotation, T . Note that we do not treat x as being bound in T here.

$$\begin{aligned}
(\Pi_{x:A} B(x))[x \mapsto B'] &:= \Pi_{x:A[x \mapsto B']} B(x) \\
(\Pi_{y:A} B(y))[x \mapsto B'] &:= \Pi_{y:A[x \mapsto B']} B[x \mapsto B'] \quad (\text{if } y \notin \text{FV}(B')) \\
(\Pi_{y:A} B(y))[x \mapsto B'] &:= \Pi_{z:A[x \mapsto B']} B[y \mapsto z][x \mapsto B'] \\
&\quad (\text{if } z \notin \text{FV}(B) \cup \text{FV}(B') \cup \{x\})
\end{aligned}$$

For Pi expressions, A is an expression and thus when substituting x by B' , we must also perform the substitution in the input type A . However, as x is not bound there, we need not worry about capturing it when substituting there.

For Sigma expressions, we define $(\Sigma_{x:A} B(x))[x \mapsto B']$ in a similar fashion as with the case of Pi.

The substitution rules for **fst**, **snd**, **inl** and **inr** are trivial and thus omitted.

Finally, we avoid specifying substitution formally for match expressions since it's tedious. The key thing to note is that in the expression $\text{match}(E, x \rightarrow E_1, y \rightarrow E_2)$, x is bound in E_1 and y is bound in E_2 .

4 Big step operational semantics

Here we choose to use a big-step semantics for our language as it fits nicer with the functional style that we're using to write our recursive interpreter with. We follow the approach of Plotkin, as described in his famous technical report on structural operational semantics.

4.1 Expressions

4.1.1 Contexts

Here we take the context, Γ , to be a list, ie a finite sequence, of triples of the form

(variable name, type of variable, binding)

We will use \emptyset to denote the empty context, and $::$ to refer to the list cons operation.

The binding can be an expression or a special undefined value, which we denote by **und**. Contexts have global scope and the top level statements **def** and **axiom**, return new contexts with updated bindings. The special **und** value is used for the bindings created by **axiom** statements and when we want to add a binding for type checking purposes. In such scenarios, we don't particularly care about the actual binding. We're only interested in the type of the variable.

4.1.2 Overview of judgement forms

We first give an overview of the main judgment forms which we will define in a mutually recursive fashion in the subsequent few sections.

1. $\mathcal{WF}(\Gamma)$

This asserts that a context Γ is well formed.

2. $\Gamma \vdash E \Leftarrow T$ and $\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow T$

These judgments will be used to formalize our bidirectional typechecking algorithm. They form the typing rules for our language. For now, it suffices to say that $\Gamma \vdash E \Leftarrow T$ formalizes the meaning that given an expression E and some type T , we may verify that E has type T under the context Γ .

On the other hand, $\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow T$ formalizes the notion of *type inference*. It says that from a context Γ , we may infer the type of E to be T .

It should be noted here that this isn't real type inference using constraint solving and unification. It's a form of lightweight type inference that can infer simple stuff like the return type of a function application but not the type parameter in the polymorphic identity function $\lambda(T : \text{Type})(x : T), x$.

3. $\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow \nu$

This $\cdot \vdash \cdot \Downarrow \cdot$ relation is used in our definition of a big-step operational semantics to normalize expressions to their full head normal form. It says that with respect to a context Γ containing global bindings, we may normalize E to an expression, ν that is in head normal form.

4.1.3 Normalizing expressions

Before defining our type system given by the 2 judgments, $\cdot \vdash \cdot \Leftarrow \cdot$ and $\cdot \vdash \cdot \Rightarrow \cdot$, we must first define $\cdot \vdash \cdot \Downarrow \cdot$, the big step semantics for evaluating expressions. This is because types are now expression and we will actually need to perform normalization while typechecking.

It should be noted at this point that in our semantics to follow, we only normalize terms after we typecheck them. This means that for types, we always check that they are well formed before performing any computations on them.

1. Type

$$\frac{\mathcal{WF}(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash \text{Type} \Downarrow \text{Type}}$$

2. Variables

$$\frac{\mathcal{WF}(\Gamma) \quad (x, \tau, \nu) \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x \Downarrow \nu}$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{WF}(\Gamma) \quad (x, \tau, \text{und}) \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x \Downarrow x}$$

If there are multiple occurrences of the variable x in the context Γ , as is the case when there is variable shadowing, we take the first occurrence of x in the list that is Γ .

3. Type ascriptions

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow \nu}{\Gamma \vdash (E : T) \Downarrow \nu}$$

This says type ascriptions do not play a role in computation. They're just there to help the type checker figure things out and for users to communicate their intentions.

4. Pi elimination, ie function application

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E_1 \Downarrow \lambda x, \nu_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash E_2 \Downarrow \nu_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash \nu_1[x \mapsto \nu_2] \Downarrow \nu}{\Gamma \vdash E_1 E_2 \Downarrow \nu}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E_1 \Downarrow n \quad \Gamma \vdash E_2 \Downarrow \nu}{\Gamma \vdash E_1 E_2 \Downarrow n \nu}$$

The last rule handle the cases of neutral expressions.

5. Normalizing under lambdas

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow \nu}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x, E, \Downarrow \lambda x, \nu}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x, E \Downarrow \nu}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda(x : T), E, \Downarrow \nu}$$

This second rule says that optional type ascriptions do not play a role in normalization, ie we just ignore them.

6. **Pi**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \Downarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash B(x) \Downarrow \tau'(x)}{\Gamma \vdash \Pi_{x:A} B(x) \Downarrow \Pi_{x:\tau} \tau'(x)}$$

7. **Local let binding**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow \nu \quad \Gamma \vdash E'[x \mapsto \nu] \Downarrow \nu'}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x := E \text{ in } E' \Downarrow \nu'}$$

8. **Normalizing under pair constructor**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E_1 \Downarrow \nu_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash E_2 \Downarrow \nu_2}{\Gamma \vdash \langle E_1, E_2 \rangle \Downarrow \langle \nu_1, \nu_2 \rangle}$$

9. **Sigma**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \Downarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash B \Downarrow \tau'(x)}{\Gamma \vdash \Sigma_{x:A} B(x) \Downarrow \Sigma_{x:\tau} \tau'(x)}$$

10. **Sigma elimination**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow (\nu_1, \nu_2)}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst } E \Downarrow \nu_1}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow n}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst } E \Downarrow \text{fst } n}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow (\nu_1, \nu_2)}{\Gamma \vdash \text{snd } E \Downarrow \nu_2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow n}{\Gamma \vdash \text{snd } E \Downarrow \text{snd } n}$$

11. **Normalizing under sum data constructors**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow \nu}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl } E \Downarrow \text{inl } \nu}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow \text{inl } \nu}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr } E \Downarrow \nu}$$

12. Normalizing sum eliminator

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow \text{inl } \nu \quad \Gamma \vdash E_1[x \mapsto \nu] \Downarrow \nu_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{match}(E, x \rightarrow E_1, y \rightarrow E_2) \Downarrow \nu_1}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow \text{inr } \nu \quad \Gamma \vdash E_2[y \mapsto \nu] \Downarrow \nu_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{match}(E, x \rightarrow E_1, y \rightarrow E_2) \Downarrow E_2[y \mapsto \nu_2]}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow n \quad \Gamma \vdash E_1 \Downarrow \nu_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash E_2 \Downarrow \nu_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{match}(E, x \rightarrow E_1, y \rightarrow E_2) \Downarrow \text{match}(n, x \rightarrow \nu_1, y \rightarrow \nu_2)}$$

4.1.4 Well formed context and typing judgments

Definition 4.1 (Well formed type and type constructor). An expression T is said to be a well-formed type with respect to the context Γ if it satisfies

$$\Gamma \vdash T \Leftarrow s$$

Informally, we can think of Type as the “type of all small types” and so all small well formed types are those expressions satisfying $\Gamma \vdash T \Leftarrow \text{Type}$, ie they can be checked to have type Type .

Those T satisfying $\Gamma \vdash T \Leftarrow \text{Kind}$ instead represent the type of type constructors. In other words, the type of a type constructor is a Kind , just like in Haskell.

Definition 4.2 (Well formed context). Note that our definition below implies that expressions and types that we store in our context are fully normalized to head normal form.

1. Base case

$$\mathcal{WF}(\emptyset)$$

2. Inductive cases

$$\frac{\mathcal{WF}(\Gamma) \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau \Rightarrow s}{\mathcal{WF}((x, \tau, \nu) :: \Gamma)}$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{WF}(\Gamma) \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau \Rightarrow s}{\mathcal{WF}((x, \tau, \text{und}) :: \Gamma)}$$

Definition 4.3 (Bidirectional typechecking). Here we define the 2 *mutually recursive* relations

1. $\cdot \vdash \cdot \Rightarrow \cdot$ which corresponds to *inference*
2. $\cdot \vdash \cdot \Leftarrow \cdot$ which corresponds to *checking*

The idea is that there are some expressions for which it is easier to *infer*, ie compute the type directly, while for others, it is easier to have the user supply a type annotation and then *check* that it is correct.

As a rule of thumb, it is often easier to check the type for term introduction rules while for elimination rules, it is usually easier to infer the type.

1. Type ascriptions

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash T \Rightarrow s \quad \Gamma \vdash T \Downarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash E \Leftarrow \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (E : T) \Rightarrow \tau}$$

Optional type ascriptions allow the interpreter to infer the type of an expression. This is useful for lambda abstractions in particular because it's kinda hard to infer the type of a function like $\lambda x, x$ without any further contextual information.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Leftarrow \text{Kind}}{\Gamma \vdash (E : \text{Kind}) \Rightarrow \text{Kind}}$$

Note that the first rule doesn't allow users to assert that $(E : \text{Kind})$ since there is no s with $\Gamma \vdash \text{Kind} \Rightarrow s$. This second rule allows users to assert that Type and type constructors have type Kind.

2. Var

$$\frac{\mathcal{WF}(\Gamma) \quad (x, \tau, v) \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x \Rightarrow \tau}$$

This says that we may infer the type of a variable if the type information is already in our context. Note that in this rule, we also allow ν to be **und**.

3. Type

$$\frac{\mathcal{WF}(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash \text{Type} \Rightarrow \text{Kind}}$$

4. Check

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \tau' \quad \tau \equiv_{\alpha\beta} \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash E \Leftarrow \tau}$$

This says that to check if E has type τ with respect to a context Γ , we may first infer the type of E . Suppose it is τ' . Then if we also find that τ and τ' are α and β equivalent to each other, we may conclude that E indeed has type τ .

5. Pi formation

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \Rightarrow s_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash A \Downarrow \tau \quad (x, \tau, \text{und}) :: \Gamma \vdash B(x) \Rightarrow s_2}{\Gamma \vdash \Pi_{x:A} B(x) \Rightarrow s_2}$$

Note that this is a rule schema with the metavariables $s_1, s_2 \in \{\text{Type}, \text{Kind}\}$

6. Pi introduction

$$\frac{(x, \tau, \text{und}) :: \Gamma \vdash E \Leftarrow \tau'(x)}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x, E \Leftarrow \Pi_{x:\tau} \tau'(x)}$$

Note that in the event that the input variable of the lambda abstraction and Pi are different, then we must perform an α renaming so that the variable being bound in $(\lambda x, E)$ and $\Pi_{y:\tau} \tau'(y)$ are the same.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash T \Rightarrow s \quad \Gamma \vdash T \Downarrow \tau \quad (x, \tau, \text{und}) :: \Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \tau'(x)}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda(x : T), E \Rightarrow \Pi_{x:\tau} \tau'(x)}$$

The second rule says that if the user type annotates the input argument of the function, then we can try to infer the type of the output and consequently, the type of the function as a whole.

7. Function application, ie Pi elimination

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E_1 \Rightarrow \Pi_{x:\tau} \tau'(x) \quad \Gamma \vdash E_2 \Leftarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau'[x \mapsto E_2] \Downarrow \tau''}{E_1 E_2 \Rightarrow \tau''}$$

8. Local let binding

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \tau \quad (x, \tau, \text{und}) :: \Gamma \vdash E' \Rightarrow \tau'(x) \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau'[x \mapsto E] \Downarrow \tau''}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x := E \text{ in } E' \Rightarrow \tau''}$$

9. Sigma formation

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \Rightarrow s_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash A \Downarrow \tau \quad (x, \tau, \text{und}) :: \Gamma \vdash B(x) \Rightarrow s_2}{\Gamma \vdash \Sigma_{x:A} B(x) \Rightarrow s_2}$$

10. Sigma introduction

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E_1 \Leftarrow \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_2[x \mapsto E_1] \Downarrow \tau'_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash E_2 \Leftarrow \tau'_2}{\Gamma \vdash \langle E_1, E_2 \rangle \Leftarrow \Sigma_{x:\tau_1} \tau_2(x)}$$

Here we don't have a type inference rule because doing so would require us to infer that E_2 has type $\tau_2[x \mapsto E_1]$ and then undo the substitution to get $\tau_2(x)$.

11. Sigma elimination

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \Sigma_{x:\tau_1} \tau_2(x)}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst } E \Rightarrow \tau_1}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \Sigma_{x:\tau_1} \tau_2(x) \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_2[x \mapsto \text{fst } E] \Downarrow \tau'_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{snd } E \Rightarrow \tau'_2}$$

12. Sum formation

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \Leftarrow \text{Type} \quad \Gamma \vdash B \Leftarrow \text{Type}}{\Gamma \vdash A + B \Rightarrow \text{Type}}$$

Note that this rule says that users can only make construct a coproduct out of types that live in the universe `Type`, not `Kind`.

13. Sum introduction

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Leftarrow \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl } E \Leftarrow \tau_1 + \tau_2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Leftarrow \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr } E \Leftarrow \tau_1 + \tau_2}$$

14. Sum elimination

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \tau_1 + \tau_2 \quad (x, \tau_1, \text{und}) :: \Gamma \vdash E_1 \Rightarrow \tau'_1 \quad (y, \tau_2, \text{und}) :: \Gamma \vdash E_2 \Rightarrow \tau'_2 \quad \tau'_1 \equiv_{\alpha\beta} \tau'_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{match}(E, x \rightarrow E_1, y \rightarrow E_2) \Rightarrow \tau'_1}$$

The nice thing about these rules is that we can translate it almost directly into a typechecking and inference algorithm! More precisely, we may translate $\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow T$ into a function called `check(Γ, E, T)` which checks if the expression E really has the type T given a context Γ .

Similarly, $\Gamma \vdash E \Leftarrow T$ gives us the function `infer(Γ, E)` which outputs the inferred type of E given the context Γ .

In the literature, such rules are called *syntax directed*, as the algorithm closely follows the formalization of the corresponding judgments.

It's worth noting that η equivalence is not respected by our type system. By that we mean that the following rule does not hold:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \tau' \quad \tau \equiv_{\eta} \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash E \Leftarrow \tau}$$

In other words, 2 types that are η equivalent to one another will *not* be judged as equal types.

One way to fix this is to allow the type checker to eta expand terms, via eliminating and then applying the data constructor, after computing the beta normal form. However, for simplicity, we chose to follow the original formulation of the calculus of constructions and ignore this.

4.2 Programs

Programs in our language are nonempty sequences of statements, with each statement being built from some expression. Following Plotkin's approach to structural operational semantics, we formalize the execution of program by defining a *transition system*.

Such transition systems behave like finite automata, although they aren't restricted to having finitely many states or transitions. In the next section, we define the notion of a configuration, which plays the same role as states in automata. Thereafter, we formalize the big-step transition relation for executing programs.

4.2.1 Configuration/state of program

A configuration has the form

$$(\Gamma, \langle S_0; \dots; S_n \rangle, E)$$

Configurations are triples representing the instantaneous state during an execution of a program. Here, Γ denotes the current state of the global context and the sequence $\langle S_0; \dots; S_n \rangle$ denotes the next statements to be executed. The expression E is used to indicate the output of the previously executed statement.

With this view, given a program, $\langle S_0; \dots; S_n \rangle$, we also define:

1. **Initial configuration**

$$(\emptyset, \langle S_0; \dots; S_n \rangle, \text{Type})$$

Initially, our global context is empty. Also, **Type** is merely a dummy value and could have very well be replaced by **Kind**.

2. **Final configurations**

These are all configurations of the form $(\Gamma, \langle \rangle, E)$

In the next section, we define the big-step transition relation for programs $\cdot \Downarrow \cdot$ using this notion of a configuration.

4.2.2 Big step semantics for programs

We define the big step transition relation, $\cdot \Downarrow \cdot$, via a new judgment form in our calculus.

It should be noted that in the rules below, we interleave type checking and evaluation, ie we type check and then evaluate each statement, one at a time, carrying the context along as we go. We do not statically type check the whole program first, then evaluate afterwards.

1. **Check**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \tau}{(\Gamma, \langle \text{check } E \rangle, E') \Downarrow (\Gamma, \langle \rangle, \tau)}$$

2. **Eval**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow \nu}{(\Gamma, \langle \text{eval } E \rangle, E') \Downarrow (\Gamma, \langle \rangle, \nu)}$$

3. Axiom

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash T \Rightarrow s \quad \Gamma \vdash T \Downarrow \tau}{(\Gamma, \langle \text{axiom } x : T \rangle, E) \Downarrow ((x, \tau, \text{und}) :: \Gamma, \langle \rangle, x)}$$

4. Def

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash E \Downarrow \nu}{(\Gamma, \langle \text{def } x := E \rangle, E') \Downarrow ((x, \tau, \nu) :: \Gamma, \langle \rangle, x)}$$

5. Sequences of statements

$$\frac{(\Gamma, \langle S_0 \rangle, E) \Downarrow (\Gamma', \langle \rangle, E') \quad (\Gamma', \langle S_1; \dots; S_n \rangle, E) \Downarrow (\Gamma'', \langle \rangle, E'')}{(\Gamma, \langle S_0; S_1; \dots; S_n \rangle, E) \Downarrow (\Gamma'', \langle \rangle, E')}$$

4.2.3 Putting the transition system together

Letting S denote the (infinite) set of all configurations, and defining

$$F := \{(\Gamma, \langle \rangle, E) \in S \mid E \text{ expression}\}$$

we obtain a transition system, given by the tuple

$$\langle S, \Downarrow, (\emptyset, \langle S_0; \dots; S_n \rangle, \text{Type}), F \rangle$$

Notice how our formalization mimics the definition of a finite state automaton.

4.2.4 Output expression of evaluating a program

With these rules, given a user-entered program, say $\langle S_0; \dots; S_n \rangle$, we define the output expression of a program to be the E such that

$$(\emptyset, \langle S_0; \dots; S_n \rangle, \text{Type}) \Downarrow (\Gamma, \langle \rangle, E)$$

In other words, the expression output to the user is the expression obtained by beginning with the initial configuration and then recursively evaluating until we reach a final configuration.