Inversion & Structural Rules

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Reading: PFPL, §4.3

1 Inversion

The nature of the typing rules for the language is such that the shape of a term places strong restrictions on its type. For example, we cannot imagine that the type of a term of the form $\mathsf{plus}(e_1;e_2)$ is Str. After all, the only rule that allows us to derive a typing judgement of the form $\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{plus}(e_1;e_2) : \tau$ forces $\tau \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \mathsf{Num}$.

Such facts about type systems are often called inversion lemmata. They are formally stated as follows.

Lemma 1 (Inversion). Suppose $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$.

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1. If e=\mathsf{plus}(e_1;e_2) then it must be that  \bullet \ \tau = \mathsf{Num}   \bullet \ \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \mathsf{Num}   \bullet \ \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \mathsf{Num}
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2. ...

The lemma has a case for each construct of the language; you fill in the rest.

In practice, the proof of the inversion lemma is *by inspection* ('look at the rules, there can't be another way!'). More formally, the lemma can be shown by induction on the typing derivation.

2 Weakening

Suppose that $x:\sigma\vdash e:\tau$, i.e. that e computes a value of type τ if x is of type σ . It is reasonable to expect that for any **fresh variable** y (i.e. a variable that doesn't already occur in the term e), the typing judgement $x:\sigma,y:\rho\vdash e:\tau$ should hold as well, no matter what the type ρ is. In other words: assuming random free variables that we do not use at all should not influence the type of a program. This property is called **weakening**, and it holds in the majority of programming languages.

The reason it holds is that we may systematically thread a fresh variable across a derivation. For example,

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\cfrac{x: \mathsf{Num} \vdash x: \mathsf{Num} \quad x: \mathsf{Num} \vdash \mathsf{num}[1]: \mathsf{Num}}{x: \mathsf{Num} \vdash \mathsf{plus}(x; \mathsf{num}[1]): \mathsf{Num}} \cfrac{x: \mathsf{Num}, y: \mathsf{Num} \vdash y: \mathsf{Num}}{x: \mathsf{Num} \vdash \mathsf{let}(\mathsf{plus}(x; \mathsf{num}[1]); y. y): \mathsf{Num}}
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can be systematically transformed by adding the binding z: Str everywhere to obtain the derivation

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\frac{x: \mathsf{Num}, \pmb{z}: \mathsf{Str} \vdash x: \mathsf{Num}}{x: \mathsf{Num}, \pmb{z}: \mathsf{Str} \vdash \mathsf{plus}(x; \mathsf{num}[1]): \mathsf{Num}} \frac{x: \mathsf{Num}, \pmb{z}: \mathsf{Str} \vdash \mathsf{plus}(x; \mathsf{num}[1]): \mathsf{Num}}{x: \mathsf{Num}, \pmb{z}: \mathsf{Str} \vdash \mathsf{let}(\mathsf{plus}(x; \mathsf{num}[1]); y. y): \mathsf{Num}} \frac{x: \mathsf{Num}, \pmb{z}: \mathsf{Str}, y: \mathsf{Num} \vdash y: \mathsf{Num}}{x: \mathsf{Num}, \pmb{z}: \mathsf{Str} \vdash \mathsf{let}(\mathsf{plus}(x; \mathsf{num}[1]); y. y): \mathsf{Num}}
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Formally, we state and prove by induction on the typing derivation that

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Lemma 2 (Weakening). If \Gamma \vdash e : \tau and x is fresh then \Gamma, x : \sigma \vdash e : \tau.
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3 Substitution

We have read a judgement $x : \sigma \vdash e : \tau$ as saying that $e : \tau$ if we assume that x stands for a program of type σ .

A term $\vdash e : \sigma$ whose context is empty is called a **closed term**; that means the program e has no free variables.

If we are given a closed term $\vdash e : \sigma$, and a term $x : \sigma \vdash u : \tau$, then we should somehow be able to 'plug-in', or **substitute**, the term $e : \sigma$ for the free variable $x : \sigma$ in u. This is the same process that we know from mathematics as e.g. plugging in $x \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 5$ in the expression $x^2 + 3x + 1$ to obtain $5^2 + 3 * 5 + 1$.

We write the resulting term as u[e/x]. This is **not a construct of the programming language**. Rather, it is some notation we use to signify the substitution of one expression in another (as above). We sometimes call such things **metatheoretic operations**. Formally, substitution is defined by induction on pre-terms.

$$\begin{split} z[e/x] &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} e & \text{if } z \equiv x \\ z & \text{if } z \not\equiv x \end{cases} & \text{let}(e_1;y.e_2)[e/x] &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{let}(e_1[e/x];y.e_2[e/x]) \\ \text{(num}[n])[e/x] &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{num}[n] & \text{plus}(e_1;e_2)[e/x] &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{plus}(e_1[e/x];e_2[e/x]) \\ \text{(str}[s])[e/x] &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{str}[s] & \text{cat}(e_1;e_2)[e/x] &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{cat}(e_1[e/x];e_2[e/x]) \end{split}$$

The missing cases for times $(e_1; e_2)$ and len (e_1) are analogous.

The fact the term $let(e_1; y. e_2)$ binds y in e_2 is treacherous! Consider what should happen in the following cases.

$$\mathsf{let}(x + \mathsf{num}[1]; y.\, x + y)[y/x] \\ \mathsf{let}(y; y.\, \mathsf{len}(y))[\mathsf{str}[\mathsf{`hi'}]/y]$$

In the first case, we risk variable capture; we must first α -rename the term to let(x + num[1]; z. x + z). In the second case, we risk referential clash; we must first α -rename the term to let(y; z. len(z)).

Bound variables are always a source of trouble. It is common to adopt the **Barendregt convention**:² when substituting we assume that everything has been silently α -renamed in a way that is advantageous for us, and that will not cause the two problems exemplified above. Thus, when writing u[e/x] we will assume that the variable x does not occur bound anywhere in the term u, because we can α -rename it if it does.

Substitution interacts very well with typing. The following is perhaps the most important result in this unit.

Lemma 3 (Substitution). If
$$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$$
 and $\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash u : \sigma$, then $\Gamma \vdash u[e/x] : \sigma$.

Proof. By induction on the derivation of $\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash u : \sigma$. We show only the most involved case, viz. that of Let.

If the derivation of $\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash u : \sigma$ ends with Let, then we know that, for some type σ_1 it has the form

$$\frac{\vdots}{\frac{\Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e_1: \sigma_1}{\underbrace{\Gamma, x: \tau, y: \sigma_1 \vdash e_2: \sigma_2}}} \underbrace{\frac{\Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e_1: \sigma_1}{\Gamma, x: \tau} \vdash \underbrace{\det(e_1; y. e_2)}_{\underbrace{"\sigma"}} : \underbrace{\sigma_2}_{\underbrace{"\sigma"}}}_{\text{LET}}$$

By the **induction hypothesis (IH)** applied to the assumption $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ and the derivation of $\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash e_1 : \sigma_1$ we obtain a derivation of $\Gamma \vdash e_1[e/x] : \sigma_1$. By the assumption $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ and **weakening** we get $\Gamma, y : \sigma_1 \vdash e : \tau$. We can then apply the **IH** to that and the second subtree to obtain a derivation of $\Gamma, y : \sigma_1 \vdash e_2[e/x] : \sigma_2$.

Using a single instance of the Let rule we can put these two together to obtain a derivation

$$\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ \hline \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1[e/x] : \sigma_1}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{let}(e_1[e/x]; y. e_2[e/x]) : \sigma_2} \end{array} \, \operatorname{Let}$$

But $(let(e_1; y. e_2))[e/x]$ is by definition of substitution exactly the term $let(e_1[e/x]; y. e_2[e/x])$ in this derivation, so we have shown the result!

¹This term has its origins in logic. We are studying a little programming language which we call our **theory**. Anything we prove about it this programming language using maths and our minds is a **metatheoretic** statement, i.e. a statement *about* the theory itself.

²Originally coined by Dutch logician Henk Barendregt (b. 1947). Called the **identification convention** in PFPL.