Advanced Topics with Programming Languages

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Contents

1	Introduction	3
	Judgements 2.1 Simultaneous rules	3
	Induction 3.1 Simultaneous induction	4
	Types 4.1 Basic properties of typing	5

1 Introduction

One way of looking at programming languages is to look at **types** and **type systems**. Haskell is a language that uses typing. There can be static and dynamic typing.

Types classify programs by the kind of data they compute.

2 Judgements

A **judgement** is a statement. In this topic, we will centre everything around an *evident judgement*. A judgement becomes evident when you can *prove* it. Therefore, when we sa a judgement, we need to provide evidence of proof.

Judgements come with rules. Here is an axiom:

```
zero nat
```

Zero is the object, and nat is the name. Alongside this, we can use an inference rule:

These two structures can be used in **derivation trees** which are used to prove judgements. For example, to prove that two is a natural number, we can do the following:

```
------ axiom
zero nat
------ s
succ(zero) nat
------ s
succ(succ(zero)) nat
```

We can also write

```
data nat = zero | succ nat
```

2.1 Simultaneous rules

we can state proofs of rules mix and match to use a proof that proves two things at once. For example:

```
----- ZE
zero even
```

```
n even
------ ODD
succ(n) odd

n odd
----- EVEN
succ(n) even
```

This proves both odd and even.

3 Induction

Every set of rules generates an induction principle.

Consider the claim if succ(n)nat then n nat. This seems obvious, but we can actually prove this.

```
Proof We will use induction
P(n): 'If n nat and n = succ(x) for some x then x nat'
Case zero: Nothing to prove
Case(succ(n) nat) The derivation of succ(n) nat ends with

n nat
.....succ
succ(n) nat

The D is a derivation of n nat.
succ(n) = succ(x) and therefore n = x. We can conclude that n is nat and therefore x is nat.
```

This statement is an **admissible rule**. A rule is admissible when we have a derivation of the premises, then we know we can construct a derivation of the conclusion. In essence, you need to *prove* this one (usually by induction).

In contrast, a rule is **derivable** if we can use a derivation of its premise as a building block in deriving its conclusion. In essence, you can *infer* this one (stitch together stuff).

3.1 Simultaneous induction

Recalling the even and odd proof, we can write these as Let P(n even) and Q(n odd). If:

- P(zero) and
- whenever n even and $\mathcal{P}(n)$ we have $\mathcal{Q}(\operatorname{succ}(n))$ and
- whenever n odd and $\mathcal{Q}(n)$ we have $\mathcal{P}(\operatorname{succ}(n))$

We are allowed to *invert* a judgement, and this is called an *inversion principle*.

4 Types

Term e is **well-typed** iff there is τ such that $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$ is derivable according the the *static* rules of the language.

Say we want to prove the following:

```
\emptyset \vdash \mathsf{let}(\mathsf{str}[\mathsf{my}]; x, (\mathsf{times}(\mathsf{len}(x); \mathsf{num}(0))))
```

Type systems restrict the set of allowed programs.

4.1 Basic properties of typing

Lemma (Inversion of Typing): Suppose that $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$. If $e = \mathsf{plus}(e_1; e_2)$ then $\tau = \mathsf{num}, \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \mathsf{num}$ and $\Gamma \vdash e_2 : \mathsf{num}$ and similarly for the other constructs of the language.

Lemma (Unicity of Typing): For every typing context Γ and expression e there exists at most one τ such that Γ such that $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$.

Lemma (Weakening): If $\Gamma \vdash e' : \tau'$ then $\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash e' : \tau'$ for any $x \notin dom(\Gamma)$ and any type τ .

Lemma (Substitution): If $\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash e' : \tau'$ and $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ then $\Gamma \vdash e'[e/x] : \tau'$