# Types and Programming Language

## 枫聆

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## Introduction

**Definition 1** A type system is a tractable syntactic method for proving the absence of certain program behaviors by classlying phrases according to the kinds of value they compute.

type system 是一种用于证明某些确定的程序行为不会发生的方法,它怎么做呢?通过它们计算出值的类型来分类,有点抽象... 我想知道 the kinds of value they compute 是什么?如何分类?分类之后接下来该怎么做?

Annotation 2 Being static, type systems are necessarily also conservative: they can categorically prove the absence of some bad program behaviors, but they cant prove their presence.

### Example 3

1 if <complex test> then 5 else <type error>

上面这个 annotation 在说 type system 只能证明它看到的一些 bad program behavior 不会出现,但是它们可能会 reject 掉一些 runtime time 阶段运行良好的程序,例如在 runtime 阶段上面的 else 可能永远都不会进.即 type system 无法证明它是否真的存在.

## Untyped Systems

## **Syntax**

**Definition 4** The set of terms is the smallest set  $\mathcal{T}$  such that

- 1.  $\{\text{true}, \text{false}, 0\} \subseteq \mathcal{T};$
- 2. if  $t_1 \in \mathcal{T}$ , then {succ  $t_1$ , pred  $t_1$ , iszero  $t_1$ }  $\subseteq \mathcal{T}$ ;
- 3. if  $t_1 \in \mathcal{T}, t_2 \in \mathcal{T}, t_3 \in \mathcal{T}$ , then  $ift_1$ then $t_2$ else $t_3 \in \mathcal{T}$ .

**Definition 5** The set of terms is defined by the following rules:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \operatorname{true} \in \mathcal{T} & \operatorname{false} \in \mathcal{T} & 0 \in \mathcal{T} \\ \frac{t_1 \mathcal{T}}{\operatorname{succ} t_1 \in \mathcal{T}} & \frac{t_1 \mathcal{T}}{\operatorname{succ} t_1 \in \mathcal{T}} & \frac{t_1 \mathcal{T}}{\operatorname{succ} t_1 \in \mathcal{T}} \\ & \underbrace{t_1 \in \mathcal{T} \quad t_2 \in \mathcal{T} \quad t_3 \in \mathcal{T}}_{\mathbf{if} t_1 \mathbf{then} t_2 \mathbf{else} t_3} & \end{array}$$

**Definition 6** For each natural number i, define a S(X) as follow:

$$S_0(X) = X$$
 
$$S_1(X) = \{ \text{ succ } t, \text{ prev } t, \text{ iszero } t \mid t \in X \} \cup \{ \text{ if} t_1 \text{then} t_2 \text{else} t_3 \mid t_1, t_2, t_3 \in X \}$$
 
$$\vdots$$
 
$$S_{i+1}(X) = S(S_i(X)).$$

**Proposition 7**  $\mathcal{T} = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\omega} S_i(\{\text{true}, \text{false}, 0\}).$ 

PROOF 我们设  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\omega} S_i(\{\text{true}, \text{false}, 0\}) = S$  和  $\{\text{true}, \text{false}, 0\} = T$ , 证明过程分两步走 (1)S follow Definition2.1 (2) S is smallest.

proof (1). {true, false, 0}  $\in S$  这是显然的. 若  $t_1 \in S$ , 那么  $t_1 \in S_i(T)$ , 考虑 succ  $t_1$ , pred  $t_1$ , iszero  $t_1 \in S_{i+1}(T)$ . 同理 Definition2.1(3).

proof (2). 考虑任意 follow Definition2.1 的集合 S', 我们需要证明  $S \subseteq S'$ . 我们考虑任意的  $S_i \subseteq S$ , 若都有  $S_i \subseteq S'$ , 那么则有  $S \subseteq S'$ . 这里我们使用 induction 来证明,首先有  $S_0(T) \subseteq S'$ ,假设  $S_n(T) \subseteq S'$ .那么 考虑  $S_{n+1}(T) = S(S_n(T))$ ,任意的  $t_1 t_2, t_3 \in S_n(T)$ ,那么 Definition2.1(1)(2)(3) 得到的结果都是属于 S',因此  $S_{n+1}(T) \subseteq S'$ .

**Definition 8** The depth of a term t is the smallest i such that  $t \in S_i(X)$ .

**Definition 9** If a term  $t \in S_i(X)$ , then all of its immediate subterms must be in  $S_{i-1}(X)$ .

**Theorem 10 Structural induction** Suppose P is a predicate on terms. If for each term s, given P(r) for all immediate subterms r of s, we can show P(s), then P(s) holds for all s.

## Induction

## Semantic Styles

### Annotation 11 有三种方法来形式化语义:

- 1. Operational semantics(操作语义) 定义程序是如何运行的? 所以你需要一个 abstract machine 来帮助解释, 之所以 abstract 是因为它里面的 mechine code 就是 the term of language. 其中又分为两种类型, big-step 和 small-step.
- 2. Denotational semantics(指称语义) 就是给定一个 semantic domain 和一个 interpretation function, 通过这个 function 把 term 映射到 semantic domain 里面,这个 domain 里面可能是一堆数学对象. 它的优势是对求值进行抽象,突出语言的本质. 我们可以在 semantic domain 里面做运算,只要 interpretation function建立的好,运算结果可以表征程序本身的性质.
- 3. Axiomatic semantics(公理语义) 拿 axioms 堆起来的程序? 类似 Hoare logic.
- 4. Alegbraic semantics(代数语义) 把程序本身映射到某个代数结构上,转而研究这个代数?

## **Evaluation**

Annotation 12 这一章在讲 operational semantic of boolean expression, 这个过程会清晰的告诉你我们求值的结果是什么? 当我们对 term 求值时, term 之间的转换规则应该是什么? 既然有了转换, 那么一定有终止的时候, 这个终止的时刻就是我们求值的结果, 那我们要问什么时候停止呢? 开头的表格告诉了关于前面这些问题的答案. 当然有一些东西也没有出现在表格里面, 但是它们同样重要, 例如不能在对 false, true, 0 这些东西再求值; 求值的顺序等等.

**Definition 13** An instance of an inference rule is obtained by consistently replacing each metavariable by the same term in the rule's conclusion and all its premises (if any).

一个推导规则的实例,就是把里面的 metavariable 替换成具体的 terms,但是一定需要注意对应关系.

**Definition 14** Evaluation relations: 一步求值 (基本 evaluation relation); 多步求值 (evaluation relation 的传递闭包产生的新的 relation, 这个 relation 包含原来的所有 evaluation relation);

**Definition 15** A term t is in normal form if no evaluation rule applies to it.

范式是一个 term 无法继续求值的状态.

**Definition 16** A closed term is stuck if it is in normal form but not a value.

受阻项是一种特殊的范式,这个范式不是一个合法的值.

## The Untyped Lambda-Calculus

Annotation 17 过程抽象 Procedural (or functional) abstraction is a key feature of essentially all pro-gramming languages

**Definition 18**  $\lambda$  演算的定义 The lambda-calculus (or -calculus) embodies this kind of function defi-nition and application in the purest possible form. In the lambda-calculus everything is a function: the arguments accepted by functions are themselves functions and the result returned by a function is another function.

The syntax of the lambda-calculus comprises just three sorts of terms.

 $\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{t} ::= \\ & \times \\ & \lambda x.\,\mathbf{t} \\ & \mathbf{t}\,\,\mathbf{t}. \end{array}$ 

A variable x by itself is a term; the abstraction of a variable x from a term  $t_1$ , written  $\lambda x. t_1$ , is a term; and the application of a term  $t_1$  to another term  $t_2$ , written  $t_1$  to a term.

在 pure lambda-calculus 里面所有的 terms 都是函数,第一个 term 表示变量,第二个 term 表示 abstraction, 第三个 term 表示 application. 言下之意一个 lambda 函数的参数和返回值也都是函数.

**Definition 19** 两个重要的约定 First, application associates to the left, means

$$s t u = (s t) u.$$

Second, the bodies of abstractions are taken to extend as far to the right as possible.

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

第一个是说函数的 apply 操作是左结合, 第二是说 lambda 函数的抽象体尽量向右扩展.

**Definition 20** 作用域 scope An occurrence of the variable x is said to be bound when it occurs in the body t of an abstraction  $\lambda x$ . t.(More precisely, it is bound by this abstraction. Equivalently, we can say that  $\lambda x$  is a binder whose scope is t.) An occurrence of x is free if it appears in a position where it is not bound by an enclosing abstraction on x. i.e. x in  $\lambda y$ . x y and x y are free.

A term with no free variables is said to be closed; closed terms are also called combinators. The simplest combinator, called the identity function,

$$id = \lambda x. x.$$

**Definition 21**  $\alpha$  等价 A basic form of equivalence, definable on lambda terms, is alpha equivalence. It captures the intuition that the particular choice of a bound variable, in an abstraction, does not (usually) matter.

$$\lambda x. x \cong \lambda y. y$$

简而言之,同时对一个 lambda 函数替换所有 bound variable 得到的 term 是等价的,  $\alpha$  变换在进行  $\beta$  规约的时候,用于解决变量名冲突特别有用).

Definition 22 操作语义 Each step in the computation consists of rewriting an application whose left-hand component is an abstraction, by substituting the right-hand component for the bound variable in the abstraction's body. Graphically, we write

$$(\lambda x. t_{12}) t_2 \rightarrow [x \mapsto t_2] t_{12},$$

where  $[x \mapsto t_2]$  means "the term obtainted by replacing all free occurrences of x in  $t_{12}$  by  $t_2$ ".

Definition 23 可约表达式 A term of the form  $(\lambda x. t_{12})$   $t_2$  is called redex (reducible expression), and the operation of rewriting a redex according to the above rule is called β-reduction.

Definition 24 几种规约策略 Each strategy defines which redex or redexes in a term can fire on the next step of evaluation.

1. Undering full  $\beta$ -reduction, any redex may be reduced at any time. i.e., consider the term

$$(\lambda x. x) ((\lambda x. x) (\lambda z. (\lambda x. x) z)),$$

we can write more readably as id  $(id(\lambda z. id z))$ . This term contains three redexes:

$$\frac{\mathrm{id} \ (\mathrm{id} \ (\lambda z.\,\mathrm{id} \ z))}{\mathrm{id} \ (\mathrm{id} \ (\lambda z.\,\mathrm{id} \ z))}$$
$$\mathrm{id} \ (\mathrm{id} \ (\lambda z.\,\mathrm{id} \ z))$$

under full  $\beta$ -reduction, we might choose, for example, to begin with the innermost index, then do the one in the middle, then the outermost:

$$id (id (\lambda z. \underline{id z}))$$

$$\rightarrow id (\underline{id (\lambda z. z)})$$

$$\rightarrow \underline{id (\lambda z. z)}$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda z. z$$

 $\rightarrow$ 

2. Undering the normal order strategy, the leftmost, outermost redex is always reduced first. Under this strategy, the term above would be reduced as follows

$$\underline{\operatorname{id} \left(\operatorname{id} \left(\lambda z.\operatorname{id} z\right)\right)} \\
\to \underline{\operatorname{id} \left(\lambda z.\operatorname{id} z\right)} \\
\to \lambda z.\operatorname{\underline{id} z} \\
\to \lambda z. z$$

3. The call by name strategy is yet more restrictive, allowing no reductions inside abstractions.

$$\frac{\operatorname{id} (\operatorname{id} (\lambda z.\operatorname{id} z))}{\rightarrow \operatorname{id} (\lambda z.\operatorname{id} z)} \\
\rightarrow \lambda z.\operatorname{id} z$$

4. Most languages use a call by value strategy, in which only outermost redexes are reduced and where a redex is reduced only when its right-hand side has already been reduced to a value-a term that is finished computation and cannot be reduced and further.

$$\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{id} \ \underline{(\operatorname{id} \ (\lambda z.\operatorname{id} \ z))} \\ \to \underline{\operatorname{id} \ (\lambda z.\operatorname{id} \ z)} \\ \to \lambda z.\operatorname{id} \ z \end{array}$$

注意 call by name 和 call by value 的区别, call by name 是在  $\lambda$  函数调用前不对参数进行规约而直接替换 到函数 body 内,换言之如果一个参数不会被用到,那么它永远都不会被 evaluated, call by value 是其对立情况,先对参数进行规约.

Evaluation strategies are used by programming languages to determine two things—when to evaluate the arguments of a function call and what kind of value to pass to the function.

## Programming in the Lambda-Calculus

**Definition 25** 高阶函数 A higher order function is a function that takes a function as an argument, or returns a function.

$$f^{\circ n} = \underbrace{f \circ f \circ \cdots \circ f}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

**Annotation 26** Define o itself as a function:

$$\circ = \lambda f. \, \lambda g. \, \lambda x. \, f(g(x)).$$

So function composition can be denoted by

$$\circ f g = \lambda x. f(g(x)).$$

#### 非常漂亮.

Annotation 27 多参数柯里化 Motivation is that the lambda-calculus provides no built-in support for multi-argument functions. The solution here is higher-order functions.

Instead of writing  $f = \lambda(x, y)$ . s, as we might in a richer programming language, we write  $f = \lambda x$ .  $\lambda y$ . s. we then apply f to it arguments one at times, write f v w, which reduces to

$$f \ v \ w \to \lambda y. \ [x \mapsto v] \ s \to [x \mapsto v] \ [y \mapsto w] \ s.$$

This transformation of multi-arguments function into higher-order function is called currying in honor of Haskell Curry, a contemporary of Church.

Annotation 28 Church 形式的布尔代数 Define the terms tru and fls as follows:

$$tru = \lambda t. \lambda f. t$$

$$fls = \lambda t. \lambda f. f$$

The terms  $\mathbf{tru}$  and  $\mathbf{fls}$  can be viewed as representing the boolean values "true" and "false," then define a combinator  $\mathbf{test}$  with the property that test  $b\ v\ w$  reduces to v when b is  $\mathbf{tru}$  and reduces w when b is  $\mathbf{fls}$ .

test = 
$$\lambda l. \lambda m. \lambda n. l m n$$
;

The **test** combinator does not actually do much:  $test\ b\ v\ w$  reduces to  $b\ v\ w$ . i.e., the term test tru  $v\ w$  reduces

as follows:

test tru 
$$v$$
  $w$ 

$$= \text{tru } v w$$

$$\to (\lambda t. \lambda f. t) v w$$

$$\to (\lambda f. v) w$$

$$\to v$$

We can also define boolean operator like logical conjunction as functions:

and = 
$$\lambda b$$
.  $\lambda c$ .  $b$   $c$  fls =  $\lambda b$ .  $\lambda c$ .  $b$   $c$   $b$ 

Define logical **or** and **not** as follows:

or = 
$$\lambda b. \lambda c. b$$
 tru  $c = \lambda b. \lambda c. b$   $b$   $c$ 
not =  $\lambda b. b$  fls tru
$$xor = \lambda b. \lambda c. b \text{ (not } c) c$$

$$tru = \lambda t. \lambda f. t$$

$$xor = \lambda a. \lambda b. a \text{ (not } b) b$$

$$xor tru b = tru \text{ (not } b) b$$

$$= not b$$

Annotation 29 有序对 Using booleans, we can encode pairs of values as terms.

pair = 
$$\lambda f$$
.  $\lambda s$ .  $\lambda b$ .  $b$   $f$   $s$   
fst =  $\lambda p$ .  $p$  tru  
snd =  $\lambda p$ .  $p$  fls

pair 变成了一个函数,它可以接收一个 tru 或者 fls 来返回第一个值或者第二个值,fst 和 snd 就是 pair 的一个 applying 过程,比较有趣.

Annotation 30 Church 形式的序数 Define the Church numerals as follows

$$c_0 = \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, z$$

$$c_1 = \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, s \, z$$

$$c_2 = \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, s \, (s \, z)$$

$$c_3 = \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, s \, (s \, (s \, z))$$

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这里我们使用高阶函数来描述这一性质

| Number | Function definition  | Lambda expression  |
|--------|--|--|
| 0      | 0 f x = x  | $0 = \lambda f.  \lambda x.  x$  |
| 1      | $ \begin{vmatrix} 0 & f & x = x \\ 1 & f & x = f & x \end{vmatrix} $ | $1 = \lambda f.  \lambda x.  f  x$                                     |
| 2      | 2 f x = f (f x)  | $2 = \lambda f.  \lambda x.  f  \left( f  x \right)$                   |
| 3      | 3 f x = f (f (f x))  | $3 = \lambda f.  \lambda x.  f  \left( f  \left( f  x \right) \right)$ |
| :      | <b>:</b>   | <b>:</b>   |
| n      | $n f x = f^n x$  | $n = \lambda f.  \lambda x.  f^{\circ n}  x$                           |

参考皮亚诺公理,对应这里我们构建自然数需要有一个 0 和一个后继函数 f. 你会注意到  $c_0$  和  $\mathbf{fls}$  是同一个  $\mathbf{term}$ ,常规编程语言里面很多情况下 0 和  $\mathbf{false}$  确实也是一个东西.

Annotation 31 Church 形式序数的运算符 We can define the successor function on Church numerals as follows

$$succ = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z)$$

注意这里的后继函数接受对象是一个 Church numeral, 从而返回新的 Church numeral, 和我们构造 Church number 中的后继不是一个东西,它的作用就是让对应具体的数再复合一次 f. 因此分解一下上面的 apply 过程,首先是  $(n \ s \ z)$  得到相对应的数,然后在对它复合一次 f.

另外一种形式

$$succ = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. n \ s \ (s \ z)$$

这个方式也很巧妙,相当于把0'=0+1作为新的零元.

Annotation 32 The addition of Church numerals can be preformed by a term **plus** that takes two Church numerals m and n, as arguments, and yields another Church numeral.

plus = 
$$\lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. m s (n s z)$$

这里遵循函数复合的结合律  $f^{\circ (m+n)}(z) = f^{\circ m}(f^{\circ n}(x))$ ,相对于把其中的一个 Church number 对应的具体数当做了另一个 Church numeral 的 zero.

#### Annotation 33

times = 
$$\lambda m. \lambda n. m$$
 (plus n)  $c_0$ 

这个就非常有趣了,这里先固定 m,把它 succ 设为 plus n 和 zero 设为  $c_0$ ,相当于 (plus n) $^m(c_0)$ . 另一种更简洁的形式:

times = 
$$\lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. m (n s) z$$

这里的  $(n \ s)$  变成了一个特殊 abstraction  $s^{\circ n} = \lambda z. \ s(s(\cdots (s \ z) \cdots))$ , 它并不是一个标准的 succ 形式

#### Annotation 34

$$\exp = \lambda m. \lambda n. n m$$

推一个来看看,注意其中的几次  $\alpha$  变换,避免产生变量名的冲突.

## Simple Types

## **Typed Arithmetic Expressions**

**Definition 35** The typing relation for arithmetic expressions, written

 $\mathsf{t}: T$ 

is defined by a set of inference rules assigning types to terms.

true:bool false:bool  $\underline{t_1:bool} \quad \underline{t_2:T} \quad \underline{t_3:T}$   $\mathbf{if} \ \underline{t_1} \ \mathbf{then} \ \underline{t_2} \ \mathbf{else} \ \underline{t_3:T}$  0:nat  $\underline{t_1:nat}_{succ \ t_1:nat}$   $\underline{t_1:nat}_{pred \ t_1:nat}$   $\underline{t_1:nat}_{iszero \ t_1:bool}$ 

**Annotation 36** 注意分支 terms 中的 T 表示任意的 types 即可能包括 bool 和 nat. 理论上两个分支的表达式的 type 可以不一样,但是这一样以来似乎就不是 well-typed, 处理这样的情况需要等到我们学习更多的类型的 type 之后才能来重新构造.

**Definition 37** A term t is typeale or well typed if there is some T such that t: T. If t is typable, then its type is unique(uniquness of types).

Annotation 38 这里很重要是理解如果给定一个 type relation t: T, 那么肯定是由上述 inference rule 推导出来的, 所以我们会经常看到从 conclude 推 premise 的过程, 也就是寻找合适的 inference rule 反向推导, 这个过程我们称其为derivation, 其中反向寻找合适的 inference rule 的方法是利用了所谓 inversion lemma.

**Theorem 39** progress A well-typed term is not stuck.

PROOF 我们利用 structural induction 来证一下 progress. 首先基本的 terms false, true, 0, succ nv 都是明显的 values, 其中 nv 表示一个 numeric value.

Case 1  $t = \mathbf{if} t_1 \mathbf{then} t_2 \mathbf{else} t_3$   $t_1 = \mathbf{bool} t_2 = T t_3 = T$ .

由归纳假设当  $t_1$  = true 或者  $t_1$  = false 时,我们对 t 一步 evaluation 得到  $t_2$  或者  $t_3$ . 另外当  $t_1 \rightarrow t_1'$  时,我们也可以得到  $t \rightarrow$  if  $t_1'$  then  $t_2$  else  $t_3$ .

 $\mathit{Case}\ 2\ t = \mathsf{succ}\ t_1 \quad t_1 = \mathrm{nat}.$ 

由归纳假设当  $t_1=nv$  时, 那么  $succ\ t_1$  还是一个  $numeric\ value$ . 另外当  $t_1\to t_1'$ , 我们也可以得到  $t\to succ\ t_1'$ 

Case 3  $t = pred t_1 \quad t_1 = nat.$ 

同上.

Case 4  $t = iszero t_1 \quad t_1 = nat.$ 

同上.

Annotation 40 换言之 progress 保证是任意一个 well-typed term, 它可能是一个 value 或者可以进一步根据 evaluation rules 推导.

**Theorem 41** preservation If a well-typed term takes a step of evaluation, then the resulting term is also well typed.

#### Definition 42

safty = progress + preservation.

## Simply Typed Lambda-Calculus

**Definition 43** Define the type of  $\lambda$ -abstraction(function) as follow

$$\lambda x. t : T_1 \to T_2$$

it classifies function that expect agrument of type  $T_1$  and return result of type  $T_2$ . The type constructor  $\rightarrow$  is right-associative.

**Annotation 44** 试想我们应该怎样给一个 function 赋予一个 type 呢? 首先要解决是这个 function 需要的 argument 的 type 是怎样的? 这里自然地会想到两种方法,一是直接给 argument 打上 annotation,而是从 function body 推出 argument 的 type. 第一种 type annotation 通常称为 explicitly typed,第二种则称其为 implicitly typed. 我们如果采用第一种方法,假设给定  $x:T_1$ ,同时将  $t_2$  中的所有出现的 x 的 type 都表示为  $T_1$  得到  $x:T_2$ ,那么显然此时就可以构造出一个 abstraction 和它对应 type 为  $\lambda x.t_2:T_1 \to T_2$ ,形式化的描述这个 type rule 即为

$$\frac{\mathsf{x}:T_1 \vdash \mathsf{t}_2:T_2}{\lambda \mathsf{x}.\,\mathsf{t}_2:T_1 \to T_2}$$

其中  $\vdash$  可以解释为 under, 即 obtain some type relations under some assumptions. 特别地  $\vdash$  x : T 表示 assumptions 是空的.

**Definition 45** A typing context  $\Gamma$  is a sequence of distinct variables and thier types as follow

$$\Gamma = x_1 : T_1, x_2 : T_2, x_3 : T_3, \cdots$$

Annotation 46 rule of typing abstractions 如果考虑上 nested abstraction 的情况,我们扩展一下前面提到的 type inference

$$\frac{\Gamma, \mathsf{x}: T_1 \vdash \mathsf{t}_2: T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda \mathsf{x}.\, \mathsf{t}_2: T_1 \to T_2}.$$

这里我们规定  $t_2$  中除 x 外的 free variables 均在  $\Gamma$  中.

Annotation 47 rule of variables A variable has whatever type we are currently assuming it to have,

$$\frac{\mathsf{x}: T \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{x}: T}$$

Annotation 48 rule of applications

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : T_1 \to T_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 \mathsf{t}_2 : T_2}$$

#### Annotation 49 rule of conditionals

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : bool \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T \quad \Gamma \vdash t_3 : T}{\Gamma \vdash \textbf{if} \ t_1 \ \textbf{then} \ t_2 \ \textbf{else} \ t_3 : T}$$

**Annotation 50** We often use  $\lambda_{\rightarrow}$  to refer to the simply typed lambda-calculus.

Theorem 51 uniquess of types In a given typing context  $\Gamma$ , a term t has at most one type. That is, if a term is typable, then it's type is unique.

#### Lemma 52 canonical forms

- 1. If v is a value of type bool, then v is either true or false;
- 2. If v is a value of type  $T_1 \to T_2$ , then  $v = \lambda x : T_1 \cdot t_2$ .

**Lemma 53** weakening If  $\Gamma \vdash t : T$  and  $x \notin dom(\Gamma)$ , then  $\Gamma, x : S \vdash t : T$ .

**Theorem 54** progress Suppose t is a closed, well-typed term(that is  $\vdash$  t : T). Then either t is a value or else there is some t' with t  $\rightarrow$  t'.

Proof proved by structural induction.

Q. E. D.

**Theorem 55** preservation under substitution If  $\Gamma, x : S \vdash t : T$  and  $\Gamma \to s : S$ , then  $\Gamma \vdash [x \to s]t : T$ .

PROOF 写几步 structural induction 找找感觉,因为 substitution 是第一次出现. 这里我们依然对 t 来进行归纳. Case 1 若 t = v,其中 v 为一个 variable.

分两种情况:  $(1 \ \text{若} \ \text{v} = \text{x}, \ \text{则} \ [\text{x} \to \text{s}]\text{t} = [\text{x} \to \text{s}]\text{v} = \text{s}, \ \text{而根据命题条件} \ \Gamma \to \text{s} : S, \ 显然成立. (2 其他情况下, 则有 <math>[\text{x} \to \text{s}]\text{v} = \text{v}, \ \text{即这个 substitution 没起作用, 显然还是成立.}$ 

#### Annotation 56 对于一个 language 有两种特别的刻画形式:

- Curry-style 首先我们定义 terms, 再定义关于它们的求值规则 (evaluation rules), 来确定 terms 的语义. 然后我们在定义一个类型系统来拒绝一些不符合我们预期的 terms. 因此语义刻画是在类型之前.
- Church-style 首先我们定义 terms, 再确定一些 well-typed 的 terms. 然后只给 well-typed terms 制定求值规则,来确定其语义. 因此类型先于语义.

它们两个最大的不同就是我们在谈论一个 term 的语义的时候到底是否关系它此时是 well-typed. Curry-style 通常用于刻画 implicitly typed system, 而 Curry-style 通常用于刻画 explicitly typed system.

## Type Extensions

## **Known Types**

**Definition 57** base type Something like bool, nat, float and string, these type are for describing simple and unstructured values and approriate primitive operation for manipulating these values.

**Definition 58 unit type** a constant unit with unique type Unit, the type can be only from this constant.

**Definition 59** The sequencing notation  $t_1$ ;  $t_2$  has the effect of evaluating  $t_1$ , throwing away its trivial result(unit), and going on to evaluate  $t_2$ .

Annotation 60 first way to formalize sequencing Add  $t_1$ ;  $t_2$  as a new alternative in the syntax of terms, and then add two evaluation rules

$$rac{t_1
ightarrow t_1'}{t_1;t_2
ightarrow t_1';t_2}$$
 unit;  $t_2
ightarrow t_2$ 

and a typing rule

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : Unit \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 ; \mathsf{t}_2 : T_2}$$

Annotation 61 second way to formalize sequencing Regard  $t_1$ ;  $t_2$  as an abbreviation for the term ( $\lambda x$ : Unit.  $t_2$ )  $t_1$ , where  $x \in FV(t_2)$ .

**Theorem 62** Suppose  $\lambda^E$  for the simply typed lambda-calcuclus with the first way of sequencing formalization and  $\lambda^I$  for the simply typed lambda-calculus with Unit. Let  $e : \lambda^E \to \lambda^I$  be the elaboration function that translates from the  $\lambda^E$  to  $\lambda^I$  by replacing every occurrence of  $t_1; t_2$  with  $(\lambda x : \text{Unit.} t_2) t_1$ , where  $x \in \text{FV}(t_2)$ . Then for each t of  $\lambda^E$ , we have

- 1.  $t \to_E t'$  iff  $e(t) \to_I e(t')$ ;
- 2.  $\Gamma \vdash_E \mathsf{t} : \mathsf{T} \text{ iff } \Gamma \vdash_I e(\mathsf{t}) : \mathsf{T}.$

**Annotation 63** 这个 sequencing 目前来说和我们现代下的语言里面对应的概念还是有差别的. 根据第一个 formalization, 也就是我们定义里面提到的它是依赖  $t_1$  的 evaluation result, 我们对一个 sequencing 能做的就是 首先对  $t_1$  进行 evaluating, 只有它的 result 是一个 Uint 的时候,我们可以尝试丢掉它转而去处理  $t_2$ . 显然当  $t_1$  不是 trivial 的时候, $t_2$  永远得不到的 evaluating,就停在了某个  $t_1'$ ;  $t_2$ . 这是就目前而言的我们可以做的事情.

再关于第二个 formalization 而言,它是一个很特别的带注解的 application,会有一个自然地疑问,如果此时  $t_1$  的 evaluation result 不是 Unit,怎么让这个 application make sense? 是卡在这里,还是怎样? 显然在前述的 corresponding theorem 下我更倾向于是卡在这里.

#### **Known Features**

**Definition 64 Ascription** is simple feature for ascribe a particular type to a given term. We write "t as T" for the "the term t, to which we ascribe the type T".

**Definition 65** Let Bindings let  $x = t_1$  in  $t_2$ , 它们的 evaluation rule 和 type rule 根 lambda abstraction 是差不多的,即

let 
$$x = t_1$$
 in  $t_2 = (\lambda x : T_1, t_2) t_1$ .

**Definition 66 Pair** Pairing, written  $t = \langle t_1, t_2 \rangle$  and projection, written t.1 for the  $t_1$  and t.2 for the  $t_2$ . One new type constructor,  $T_1 \times T_2$ , called the product of  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .

**Definition 67 Tuple** is general formalization of Pair.

**Definition 68 Record** Recording, written  $\{l_1 = t_1, \dots, l_n = t_n\}$  and thier type  $\{l_1 : T_1, \dots, l_1 : T_1\}$ .

**Definition 69 pattern matching** Given two kinds of patterns, varible pattern x and record pattern  $\{I_1 = p_1, \dots, I_n = p_n\}$  (so it can be nested). Plus a match function  $match: P \times V \rightarrow Subs \cup Fail$ , where P are patterns, V is values, Subs are substitutions and Fail means matching fails. The matching rules as follow

$$match(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}) = [\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{v}] \qquad M - Var$$
 for each  $i$   $match(\mathbf{p}_i, \mathbf{v}_i) = \sigma_i$  
$$match(\{\mathbf{l}_1 = \mathbf{p}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{p}_n = \mathbf{p}_n\}, \{\mathbf{l}_1 = \mathbf{v}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{l}_n = \mathbf{v}_n\}) = \sigma_1 \circ \cdots \circ \sigma_n \qquad M - Rcd$$

The computation rule for pattern matching generalizes the let-binding as follow

let 
$$p = v$$
 in  $t = match(p, v) t_1$ .

**Definition 70** A sum type is written as  $T_1 + T_2$ , there are two terms can be desribed this type:

- 1. Assume  $t_1 : T_1$ , then inl  $t_1 : T_1 + T_2$ ;
- 2. Assume  $t_2 : T_2$ , then inr  $t_2 : T_1 + T_2$ .

There is a case construct that allows us to distinguish whether a given value comes from the left or right branch of a sum,

case a of inl 
$$x_1 \mapsto x_1.1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 \mapsto x_2.1$$

**Annotation 71** 这里存在一个类型唯一性的问题,如果  $t_1: T_1$ ,那么对于任意  $T_2$ ,都有 inl  $t_1: T_1+T_2$ ,显然 inl  $t_1$  的类型就不唯一了.

这里有三种解决办法

- 1. 留着  $T_2$  符号化,typechecker 继续往后推,如果遇到某个地方  $T_2$  可能在当前 context 需要成为某个特定的值;
- 2. 给所有可能的  $T_2$   $\uparrow$  unified representation(ocaml);
- 3. 在语法上要求显式地给  $T_2$  一个 type annotation.

 $\mbox{\bf Definition 72 \ variant is generalization of sum } \langle I_1:T_1,I_2:T_2\rangle.$ 

**Definition 73 option** (none : Unit, some : Nat).

**Definition 74 enumeration** An enumerated type (or enumeration) is a variant type in which the field type associated with each label is Unit.

**Definition 75** single-field variant  $\langle I : T \rangle$ .

Annotation 76 single-field variant 的主要作用由一个 type 构造出多个不一样的 types 但是仅仅是用附加的 labels 来刻画的,这就可以描述具有相同 type 但是不同对象.

### Normalization

**Theorem 77** If  $\vdash t : T$ , then  $t \to^* v$ , where v is a value, or abbreviate  $t \downarrow .$ 

Remark 78 上述 normalization theorem 使用是 simply typed lambda calculus.

Annotation 79 Normalization 又名 termination,它在描述一个 well-typed 的 term 通过 evaluation 最终可以变成一个 value.这里 values 包括 false, true 和 lambda abstraction.自然地,这里考虑使用 induction hypothesis 来证明,但是处理不了 application。对于 application 我们需要使用 reduction rule

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : T_1 \to T_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 \mathsf{t}_2 : T_2}$$

根据假设  $t_1, t_2$  都是 normalizable, 那么设  $t_1 \to^* t_1' = \lambda x : T_1. t_3$ (这里用了一下 value of function type 的 canonical form) 和  $t_2 \to^* t_2'$ , 其中  $t_2'$  是 normalized. 再来一个  $\beta$  reduction, 则有

$$\mathsf{t}_1'\mathsf{t}_2' = [x \to \mathsf{t}_2']\mathsf{t}_3'$$

这里有两个问题: (1)t<sub>3</sub> 是一个怎样的形式? (2) substitution 干了什么?

**Definition 80** Suppose the logical predicate for strong normalization as follow

$$\begin{split} \mathrm{SN_A}(\mathsf{t}) &\iff \vdash \mathsf{t} : \mathrm{A} \ \land \ \mathsf{t} \ \Downarrow, \\ \mathrm{SN_{T_1 \to T_2}}(\mathsf{t}) &\iff \vdash \mathsf{t} : \mathrm{T_1} \to \mathrm{T_2} \ \land \ \mathsf{t} \ \Downarrow \land \ \forall \mathsf{t_1}. \ \mathrm{SN_{T_1}}(\mathsf{t_1}) \Rightarrow \mathrm{SN_{T_2}}(\mathsf{t} \ \mathsf{t_1}) \end{split}$$

where A is base type.

**Annotation 81** 观察上述 definition 是加强了 application 的 conclude(?),可以通过这两个 logical predicate 来继续我们的证明,接下来的证明分两步走:

- 1. 首先证明  $\vdash$  t : T  $\Rightarrow$  SN<sub>T</sub>(t), 即所有 closed well-typed 的 term 都复合上述定义的 logical predicate,
- 2. 然后  $SN_T(t) \Rightarrow t \downarrow$ .

这种手法就是所谓logical relation证明方法.

Lemma 82  $SN_T(t) \Rightarrow t \Downarrow$ 

PROOF 根据定义这是显然的.

Q. E. D.

Annotation 83 证明过程的第一步又会拆成两步:

1. SN<sub>T</sub>(t) 将会在 t 的 evalution 过程中保持,

再做根据 type derivations 的 induction, 但是这个过程存在一个难点在于证明 abstraction t = λx : T<sub>1</sub>. t<sub>2</sub> 满足 SN<sub>T1→T2</sub>(t), 那么就要满足 Definition80里面的 applying, 即满足 SN<sub>T2</sub>(t t<sub>1</sub>), 但是其中 t<sub>2</sub> 不一定是 closed 的, 因为 x 可能是在 t<sub>2</sub> 作为 free variable 出现的, 我们需要考虑这里所有可能的 substitutions [x → t<sub>1</sub>]. 因此需要证明一个 substitution 保持的 normalization 属性.

**Lemma 84** If t : T and  $t \to t'$ , then  $SN_T(t) \iff SN_T(t')$ 

PROOF 首先由  $t \to t'$ , 那么有  $t \downarrow \iff t' \downarrow$ . 再分情况,若 T = A, 证明就结束了; 若  $T = T_1 \to T_2$ , 由  $t t_1 \to t' t_1$ , 则  $t t_1 \downarrow \iff t' t_1 \downarrow$ ,又回到第一种情况,证明了 function type 额外需要的条件. Q. E. D.

#### Lemma 85