

# 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 classifying 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 can't 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  $\{\text{succ } t_1, \text{pred } t_1, \text{iszero } t_1\} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ ;
3. if  $t_1 \in \mathcal{T}, t_2 \in \mathcal{T}, t_3 \in \mathcal{T}$ , then  $\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 \in \mathcal{T}$ .

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

$$\begin{array}{c} \frac{\text{true} \in \mathcal{T}}{t_1 \mathcal{T}} \quad \frac{\text{false} \in \mathcal{T}}{t_1 \mathcal{T}} \quad \frac{0 \in \mathcal{T}}{t_1 \mathcal{T}} \\ \frac{}{\text{succ } t_1 \in \mathcal{T}} \quad \frac{}{\text{succ } t_1 \in \mathcal{T}} \quad \frac{}{\text{succ } t_1 \in \mathcal{T}} \\ \frac{t_1 \in \mathcal{T} \quad t_2 \in \mathcal{T} \quad t_3 \in \mathcal{T}}{\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3} \end{array}$$

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

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

**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 Definition 2.1 (2)  $S$  is smallest.

proof (1).  $\{\text{true}, \text{false}, 0\} \in S$  这是显然的. 若  $t_1 \in S$ , 那么  $t_1 \in S_i(T)$ , 考虑  $\text{succ } t_1, \text{pred } t_1, \text{iszero } t_1 \in S_{i+1}(T)$ . 同理 Definition 2.1(3).

proof (2). 考虑任意 follow Definition 2.1 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 Definition 2.1(1)(2)(3) 得到的结果都是属于  $S'$ , 因此  $S_{n+1}(T) \subseteq S'$ . Q. E. D.

**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 machine 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 this 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. Algebraic 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 programming languages

**Definition 18**  $\lambda$  演算的定义 The lambda-calculus (or  $\lambda$ -calculus) embodies this kind of function definition 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.

$$\begin{aligned} t ::= & \\ & x \\ & \lambda x. t \\ & t \ t. \end{aligned}$$

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  $t_1 \ t_2$ , is 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,

$$\text{id} = \lambda x. x.$$

**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 obtained 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  **$\beta$ -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  $\text{id}(\text{id}(\lambda z. \text{id } z))$ . This term contains three redexes:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{id}(\text{id}(\lambda z. \text{id } z)) \\ \text{id}(\text{id}(\lambda z. \underline{\text{id } z})) \\ \text{id}(\text{id}(\lambda z. \underline{\underline{\text{id } z}})) \end{array}$$

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:

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{id}(\text{id}(\lambda z. \underline{\underline{\text{id } z}})) \\ \rightarrow \text{id}(\text{id}(\lambda z. \underline{z})) \\ \rightarrow \text{id}(\lambda z. \underline{z}) \\ \rightarrow \lambda z. z \\ \rightarrow \end{array}$$



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

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{id (id (\lambda z. id z))} \\
 \rightarrow & \text{id (\lambda z. id z)} \\
 \rightarrow & \lambda z. \text{id } z \\
 \rightarrow & \lambda z. z \\
 \rightarrow & 
 \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{id (id (\lambda z. id z))} \\
 \rightarrow & \text{id (\lambda z. id z)} \\
 \rightarrow & \lambda z. \text{id } z \\
 \rightarrow & 
 \end{aligned}$$

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.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{id (id (\lambda z. id z))} \\
 \rightarrow & \text{id (\lambda z. id z)} \\
 \rightarrow & \lambda z. \text{id } z \\
 \rightarrow & 
 \end{aligned}$$

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.

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

**Annotation 26** Define  $\circ$  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 its arguments one at a time, write  $f \ v \ w$ , which reduces to

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

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:

$$\text{tru} = \lambda t. \lambda f. t$$

$$\text{fls} = \lambda t. \lambda f. f$$

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

$$\text{test} = \lambda l. \lambda m. \lambda n. l \ m \ n;$$

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

as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{test tru } v \ w \\
& = \text{tru } v \ w \\
& \rightarrow (\lambda t. \lambda f. t) \ v \ w \\
& \rightarrow (\lambda f. v) \ w \\
& \rightarrow v.
\end{aligned}$$

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

$$\text{and} = \lambda b. \lambda c. b \ c \ \text{fls} = \lambda b. \lambda c. b \ c \ b$$

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

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{or} &= \lambda b. \lambda c. b \ \text{tru} \ c = \lambda b. \lambda c. b \ b \ c \\
\text{not} &= \lambda b. b \ \text{fls} \ \text{tru} \\
\text{xor} &= \lambda b. \lambda c. b \ (\text{not } c) \ c \\
\text{tru} &= \lambda t. \lambda f. t \\
\text{xor} &= \lambda a. \lambda b. a \ (\text{not } b) \ b \\
\text{xor tru } b &= \text{tru} \ (\text{not } b) \ b \\
&= \text{not } b
\end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{pair} &= \lambda f. \lambda s. \lambda b. b \ f \ s \\
\text{fst} &= \lambda p. p \ \text{tru} \\
\text{snd} &= \lambda p. p \ \text{fls}
\end{aligned}$$

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}
c_0 &= \lambda s. \lambda z. z \\
c_1 &= \lambda s. \lambda z. s \ z \\
c_2 &= \lambda s. \lambda z. s \ (s \ z) \\
c_3 &= \lambda s. \lambda z. s \ (s \ (s \ z)) \\
&\dots
\end{aligned}$$

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        | $1 \ f \ x = f \ x$             | $1 = \lambda f. \lambda x. f \ x$             |
| 2        | $2 \ f \ x = f \ (f \ x)$       | $2 = \lambda f. \lambda x. f \ (f \ x)$       |
| 3        | $3 \ f \ x = f \ (f \ (f \ x))$ | $3 = \lambda f. \lambda x. f \ (f \ (f \ x))$ |
| $\vdots$ | $\vdots$                        | $\vdots$                                      |
| 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 **fls** 是同一个 term，常规编程语言里面很多情况下 0 和 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

$$\text{succ} = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s \ (n \ s \ z)$$

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

$$\text{succ} = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. n \ s \ (s \ z)$$

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.

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

这里遵循函数复合的结合律  $f^{\circ(m+n)}(z) = f^{\circ m}(f^{\circ n}(z))$ ，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**

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

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  $(\text{plus } n)^m(c_0)$ 。

另一种更简洁的形式：

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

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

### Annotation 34

$$\text{exp} = \lambda m. \lambda n. n \ m$$

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.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{exp } c_3 \ c_2 &= c_2 \ c_3 \\
 &= (\lambda s. \lambda z. s \ (s \ z)) \ c_3 \\
 &= \lambda z. c_3 \ (c_3 \ z) \\
 \rightsquigarrow_{\alpha} &= \lambda z. (\lambda f. \lambda x. f \ (f \ (f \ x))) \ ((\lambda f. \lambda x. f \ (f \ (f \ x))) \ z) \\
 &= \lambda z. (\lambda f. \lambda x. f \ (f \ (f \ x))) \ (\lambda x. z \ (z \ (z \ x))) \\
 \rightsquigarrow_{\alpha} &= \lambda z. (\lambda f. \lambda x. f \ (f \ (f \ x))) \ (\lambda g. z \ (z \ (z \ g))) \\
 &= \lambda z. \lambda x. (\lambda g. z \ (z \ (z \ g))) \ ((\lambda g. z \ (z \ (z \ g))) \ ((\lambda g. z \ (z \ (z \ g))) \ x)) \\
 &= \lambda z. \lambda x. (\lambda g. z \ (z \ (z \ g))) \ ((\lambda g. z \ (z \ (z \ g))) \ (z \ z \ z \ x)) \\
 &= \lambda z. \lambda x. (\lambda g. z \ (z \ (z \ g))) \ (z \ z \ z \ z \ z \ z \ x) \\
 &= \lambda z. \lambda x. z \ z \ z \ z \ z \ z \ z \ z \ x \\
 &= \lambda s. \lambda z. s \ s \ s \ s \ s \ s \ s \ s \ z \\
 &= c_9
 \end{aligned}$$

## Simple Types

### Typed Arithmetic Expressions

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

$$t : T$$

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

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{true} : \text{bool} \\ \text{false} : \text{bool} \\ \frac{t_1 : \text{bool} \quad t_2 : T \quad t_3 : T}{\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 : T} \\ 0 : \text{nat} \\ \frac{t_1 : \text{nat}}{\text{succ } t_1 : \text{nat}} \\ \frac{t_1 : \text{nat}}{\text{pred } t_1 : \text{nat}} \\ \frac{t_1 : \text{nat}}{\text{iszero } t_1 : \text{bool}} \end{array}$$

**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 **typable or well typed** if there is some  $T$  such that  $t : T$ . If  $t$  is typable, then its type is unique(**uniqueness 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*  $t = \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 \quad t_1 = \text{bool} \quad t_2 = T \quad t_3 = T$ .

由归纳假设当  $t_1 = \text{true}$  或者  $t_1 = \text{false}$  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  $t \rightarrow \text{if } t'_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$ .

*Case 2*  $t = \text{succ } t_1 \quad t_1 = \text{nat.}$

由归纳假设当  $t_1 = \text{nv}$  时, 那么  $\text{succ } t_1$  还是一个 numeric value. 另外当  $t_1 \rightarrow t'_1$ , 我们也可以得到  $t \rightarrow \text{succ } t'_1$

*Case 3*  $t = \text{pred } t_1 \quad t_1 = \text{nat.}$

同上.

*Case 4*  $t = \text{iszero } t_1 \quad t_1 = \text{nat.}$

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**

$$\text{safety} = \text{progress} + \text{preservation}.$$

## Simply Typed Lambda-Calculus

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

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

it classifies function that expect argument 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  $\lambda x. t_2 : T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ , 形式化的描述这个 type rule 即为

$$\frac{x : T_1 \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\lambda x. t_2 : T_1 \rightarrow T_2}$$

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

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

**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

$$\frac{\Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. t_2 : T_1 \rightarrow T_2.}$$

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,

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

**Annotation 48 rule of applications**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 t_2 : T_2}$$



**Annotation 49** **rule of conditionals**

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

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

**Theorem 51** **uniqueness 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** **weakening** If  $\Gamma \vdash t : T$  and  $x \notin \text{dom}(\Gamma)$ , then  $\Gamma, x : S \vdash t : T$ .

**Theorem 53** **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 54** **preservation under substitution** If  $\Gamma, x : S \vdash t : T$  and  $\Gamma \rightarrow s : S$ , then  $\Gamma \vdash [x \rightarrow s]t : T$ .

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 若  $v = x$ , 则  $[x \rightarrow s]t = [x \rightarrow s]v = s$ , 而根据命题条件  $\Gamma \rightarrow s : S$ , 显然成立. (2 其他情况下, 则有  $[x \rightarrow s]v = v$ , 即这个 substitution 没起作用, 显然还是成立.

**Annotation 55** 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 通常适用于刻画 implicitly typed system, 而 Church-style 通常用于刻画 explicitly typed system.

## Type Extensions

### Known Types

**Definition 56** **base type** Something like bool, nat, float and string, these type are for describing simple and unstructured values and appropriate primitive operation for manipulating these values.

**Definition 57** **unit type** a constant with unique type, the type can be only from this constant.