

Fundamental tension between static type safety and reusability.

- Static typechecking provides strong reliability guarantees.
 $\text{sum} = \lambda l:\text{Int List}. \text{if null}(l) \text{ then } 0 \text{ else head}(l) + \text{sum}(\text{tail}(l))$
 - ▷ $\vdash \text{sum} : \text{Int List} \rightarrow \text{Int}$
 - ▷ sum can “safely” accept integer lists
 - ▷ sum will only be passed integer lists
- However, the static typechecker is necessarily conservative.
 $\text{length} = \lambda l:\text{Int List}. \text{if null}(l) \text{ then } 0 \text{ else } 1 + \text{length}(\text{tail}(l))$
 - ▷ $\vdash \text{length} : \text{Int List} \rightarrow \text{Int}$
 - ▷ length can “safely” accept integer lists
 - ▷ length will only be passed integer lists
 - ▷ but I know it’s safe to pass any kind of list to length !

Type Inference

Programs omit all type information.

Types are *inferred* (or *reconstructed*) by the compiler.

Provides the guarantees of an explicitly-typed language but the “feel” of an untyped language.

Polymorphic type inference

- Infer the types of bound variables.
 - ▷ $\vdash \lambda l. \text{if null}(l) \text{ then } 0 \text{ else } 1 + \text{sum}(\text{tail}(l)) : \alpha \text{ list} \rightarrow \text{Int}$
- Infer the instantiations of polymorphic functions.
 - ▷ $(\text{id true}) : \text{Bool}$

Introduce *type variables*, which can be *instantiated* with any type.

$\text{length} = \lambda l:\alpha \text{ list}. \text{if null}(l) \text{ then } 0 \text{ else } 1 + \text{sum}(\text{tail}(l))$

- α is a type variable
- $\vdash \text{length} : \alpha \text{ List} \rightarrow \text{Int}$

The type $\alpha \text{ List} \rightarrow \text{Int}$ is implicitly a *type scheme* $\forall \alpha. (\alpha \text{ List} \rightarrow \text{Int})$

- $(\text{length}(\text{Int}) [1,2,3])$
- $(\text{length}(\text{Bool}) [\text{true},\text{false}])$

A given type variable must be instantiated identically everywhere.

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

- $\vdash \text{id} : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$
- $\vdash \text{id}(\text{Int}) 3 : \text{Int}$
- $\vdash \text{id}(\text{Bool}) \text{true} : \text{Bool}$

Principal Types

Polymorphism and type inference are orthogonal concepts.

- could have explicitly-typed polymorphism
- could infer monomorphic types

What makes the combination particularly natural is the *principal type* property: If expression e has a type, then it has a “best” type.

- every type for e is an *instance* of the “best” type.
- length has type $(\text{Int List} \rightarrow \text{Int}), (\text{Bool List} \rightarrow \text{Int}), \dots, (\alpha \text{ List} \rightarrow \text{Int})$

Type inference will compute the best type for each expression.

Does the simply-typed lambda calculus enjoy the principal type property (for unannotated lambda-calculus expressions)?

$e ::= x$	variable
$\lambda x.e$	function
$e_1 e_2$	function call
if e_1 then e_2 else e_3	conditional
let $x = e_1$ in e_2	local declaration
Bool/Int primitives	
$T ::= \alpha$	type variable
$T_1 \rightarrow T_2$	function type
Bool Int	base types

$\lambda x.\lambda y.\text{if (not } x) \text{ then } y \text{ else } \lambda z.z$

Annotate each sub-expression with a fresh type variable.

$(\lambda x : \alpha_1.(\lambda y : \alpha_2.(\text{if (not: } \alpha_3 \ x : \alpha_4): \alpha_5 \text{ then } y : \alpha_6$
 $\text{else } (\lambda z : \alpha_7.z : \alpha_8) : \alpha_9) : \alpha_{10}) : \alpha_{11}) : \alpha$

Generate constraints on the type variable for each sub-expression.

$\alpha_3 = \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$	[prim]
$\alpha_4 = \alpha_1$	[var]
$\alpha_3 = \alpha_{12} \rightarrow \alpha_{13}, \alpha_4 = \alpha_{12}, \alpha_5 = \alpha_{13}$	[app]
$\alpha_6 = \alpha_2$	[var]
$\alpha_8 = \alpha_7$	[var]
$\alpha_9 = \alpha_7 \rightarrow \alpha_8$	[lam]
$\alpha_5 = \text{Bool}, \alpha_6 = \alpha_9 = \alpha_{10}$	[if]
$\alpha_{11} = \alpha_2 \rightarrow \alpha_{10}$	[lam]
$\alpha = \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_{11}$	[lam]

Polymorphic Type Inference via Constraint Solving (cont.)

$\lambda x.\lambda y.\text{if (not } x) \text{ then } y \text{ else } \lambda z.z$

Solve the constraints. If unsatisfiable, the program is ill-formed. Otherwise, return the (most general) solved form of α .

$\alpha_3 = \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$
 $\alpha_4 = \alpha_1$
 $\alpha_3 = \alpha_{12} \rightarrow \alpha_{13}$
 $\alpha_4 = \alpha_{12}$
 $\alpha_5 = \alpha_{13}$
 $\alpha_6 = \alpha_2$
 $\alpha_8 = \alpha_7$
 $\alpha_9 = \alpha_7 \rightarrow \alpha_8$
 $\alpha_5 = \text{Bool}$
 $\alpha_6 = \alpha_9 = \alpha_{10}$
 $\alpha_{11} = \alpha_2 \rightarrow \alpha_{10}$
 $\alpha = \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_{11}$

Hindley-Milner Type Inference

Solve constraints as they are generated, via **unification**.

Infer types compositionally, from the types of sub-expressions.

- Very similar to the way typing judgements are “inferred” in the typing rules.

An environment Γ maintains the type of each bound variable.

A bound variable is initially assumed to have a fresh type variable as its type. Unification updates the environment as new constraints are imposed.

The Algorithm

- The `unify` function side-effects Γ to reflect new constraints.
- The `freshTypeVar` function “invents” a new type variable.

```

typeOf( $\lambda x.e$ ,  $\Gamma$ ) =
   $\Gamma := \Gamma \cup \{x : \text{freshTypeVar}()\}$ ;
  retType := typeOf( $e$ ,  $\Gamma$ );
  return  $\Gamma(x) \rightarrow \text{retType}$ ;

```

```

typeOf( $x$ ,  $\Gamma$ ) = return  $\Gamma(x)$ ;

```

```

typeOf( $e_1 e_2$ ,  $\Gamma$ ) =
  funType := typeOf( $e_1$ ,  $\Gamma$ );
  argType := typeOf( $e_2$ ,  $\Gamma$ );
  resType := freshTypeVar();
  aType  $\rightarrow$  rType := unify(funType, argType  $\rightarrow$  resType,  $\Gamma$ );
  return rType;

```

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63

Example

$\lambda x.\lambda y.\text{if } (\text{not } x) \text{ then } y \text{ else } \lambda z.z$

```

typeOf(not,  $\{x : \alpha_1, y : \alpha_2\}$ ) = Bool  $\rightarrow$  Bool
typeOf( $x$ ,  $\{x : \alpha_1, y : \alpha_2\}$ ) =  $\alpha_1$ 
unify(Bool  $\rightarrow$  Bool,  $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_3$ ,  $\{x : \alpha_1, y : \alpha_2\}$ ) = Bool  $\rightarrow$  Bool

```

▷ $\alpha_1 = \text{Bool}$

```

typeOf(not  $x$ ,  $\{x : \alpha_1, y : \alpha_2\}$ ) = Bool
unify(Bool, Bool,  $\{x : \text{Bool}, y : \alpha_2\}$ ) = Bool
typeOf( $y$ ,  $\{x : \text{Bool}, y : \alpha_2\}$ ) =  $\alpha_2$ 
typeOf( $z$ ,  $\{x : \text{Bool}, y : \alpha_2, z : \alpha_3\}$ ) =  $\alpha_3$ 
typeOf( $\lambda z.z$ ,  $\{x : \text{Bool}, y : \alpha_2\}$ ) =  $\alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_3$ 
unify( $\alpha_2$ ,  $\alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_3$ ,  $\{x : \text{Bool}, y : \alpha_2\}$ ) =  $\alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_3$ 

```

▷ $\alpha_2 = \alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_3$

```

typeOf(if (not  $x$ ) then  $y$  else  $\lambda z.z$ ,  $\{x : \alpha_1, y : \alpha_2\}$ ) =  $\alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_3$ 
typeOf( $\lambda y.\text{if } \dots$ ,  $\{x : \alpha_1\}$ ) = ( $\alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_3$ )  $\rightarrow$  ( $\alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_3$ )
typeOf( $\lambda x.\lambda y.\text{if } \dots$ ,  $\{\}$ ) = Bool  $\rightarrow$  ( $\alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_3$ )  $\rightarrow$  ( $\alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_3$ )

```

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65

```

typeOf(if  $e_1$  then  $e_2$  else  $e_3$ ,  $\Gamma$ ) =
  testType := unify(typeOf( $e_1$ ,  $\Gamma$ ), Bool);
  thenType := typeOf( $e_2$ ,  $\Gamma$ );
  elseType := typeOf( $e_3$ ,  $\Gamma$ );
  return unify(thenType, elseType,  $\Gamma$ );

```

```

typeOf(let  $x = e_1$  in  $e_2$ ,  $\Gamma$ ) =
  varType := typeOf( $e_1$ ,  $\Gamma$ );
  return typeOf( $e_2$ ,  $\Gamma \cup \{x : \text{varType}\}$ );

```

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64

Let-Polymorphism

We’ve seen how to infer a polymorphic type for a function.

For polymorphism to be useful, we must be able to invoke a function using different type instantiations.

let `id` = $\lambda x.x$ in (if `id(true)` then `id(3)` else 0)

The current algorithm doesn’t support polymorphism!

```

...
typeOf(id,  $\{\text{id} : \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1\}$ ) =  $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1$ 
typeOf(true,  $\{\text{id} : \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1\}$ ) = Bool
unify( $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1$ , Bool  $\rightarrow \alpha_2$ ,  $\{\text{id} : \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1\}$ ) = Bool  $\rightarrow$  Bool
...
typeOf(id,  $\{\text{id} : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}\}$ ) = Bool  $\rightarrow$  Bool
typeOf(3,  $\{\text{id} : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}\}$ ) = Int
unify(Bool  $\rightarrow$  Bool, Int  $\rightarrow \alpha_3$ ,  $\{\text{id} : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}\}$ ) = FAIL

```

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66

Generic Type Variables

Distinguish between **generic** (polymorphic) and **non-generic** (monomorphic) type variables.

- A generic variable has had all of its associated constraints solved.
- A non-generic variable may be further constrained, so it is unsafe to view it as polymorphic.

A type variable α in the type of expression e is generic if α is not in the formal-parameter type of a λ enclosing e .¹

- let-bound variables may be polymorphic; formal parameters may not be.

The updated algorithm:

- The function `copyGenericVars` returns a type identical to the given one, but with each generic type variable replaced by a fresh type variable.

`typeOf(x , Γ) = return copyGenericVars($\Gamma(x)$);`

¹See the caveat about recursive identifiers below.

Recursion

Recursion is easy. Just introduce the recursive identifier into the environment **before** inferring its type.

```
typeOf(let  $x = e_1$  in  $e_2$ ,  $\Gamma$ ) =
   $\Gamma := \Gamma \cup \{x : \text{freshTypeVar}()\}$ ;
  valType := typeOf( $e_1$ ,  $\Gamma$ );
  varType := unify( $\Gamma(x)$ , valType);
  return typeOf( $e_2$ ,  $\Gamma$ );
```

The type variable for x is treated as **non-generic** within e_1 (thereby qualifying the definition of generic variables given earlier).

This restriction implies that all recursive references to x in e_1 must use the same type instantiation.

Note that x may still be treated polymorphically in e_2 .

Let-Polymorphism (cont.)

let $\text{id} = \lambda x.x$ in (if $\text{id}(\text{true})$ then $\text{id}(3)$ else 0)

```
...
typeOf(id, {id :  $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1$ }) =  $\beta \rightarrow \beta$ 
typeOf(true, {id :  $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1$ }) = Bool
unify( $\beta \rightarrow \beta$ , Bool  $\rightarrow \alpha_2$ , {id :  $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1$ }) = Bool  $\rightarrow$  Bool
...
typeOf(id, {id :  $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1$ }) =  $\gamma \rightarrow \gamma$ 
typeOf(3, {id :  $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1$ }) = Int
unify( $\gamma \rightarrow \gamma$ , Int  $\rightarrow \alpha_3$ , {id :  $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1$ }) = Int  $\rightarrow$  Int
```

Non-generic variables cannot be copied.

$\lambda \text{id}.$ (if $\text{id}(\text{true})$ then $\text{id}(3)$ else 0) cannot be typed

- $(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \text{Int}$ is unsound
 - ▷ consider $(\lambda \text{id}.$ (if $\text{id}(\text{true})$ then $\text{id}(3)$ else 0))(factorial)
- $(\forall \alpha.(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)) \rightarrow \text{Int}$ is sound but cannot be inferred

Polymorphic Type Systems

Start with the simply-typed lambda calculus, where T now ranges over the augmented grammar of types (including type variables).

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{true} : \text{Bool}} \text{(T-True)}$$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{false} : \text{Bool}} \text{(T-False)}$$

$$\frac{x : T \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : T} \text{(T-Var)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \cup \{x : T_1\} \vdash e : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x : T_1.e) : T_1 \rightarrow T_2} \text{(T-Abs)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T \quad \Gamma \vdash e_3 : T}{\Gamma \vdash \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T} \text{(T-If)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_2 \rightarrow T \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : T} \text{(T-App)}$$

Type inference is trivial.

- explicit typing

$$\frac{\Gamma \cup \{x : T_1\} \vdash e : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x : T_1. e) : T_1 \rightarrow T_2} \text{ (T-Abs)}$$

- type inference

$$\frac{\Gamma \cup \{x : T_1\} \vdash e : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x. e) : T_1 \rightarrow T_2} \text{ (T-Abs)}$$

▷ The Hindley-Milner algorithm tells us how to “guess” T_1 .

Local variables

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_1 \quad \Gamma \cup \{x : T_1\} \vdash e : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : T_2} \text{ (T-Let)}$$

Generic and Non-generic Variables

Add explicit quantifiers to types.

$$T ::= \dots \mid \forall \alpha. T$$

Only quantified type variables are generic.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : T \quad \alpha \text{ not free in } \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. T} \text{ (T-Gen)}$$

- second premise ensures α is generic

Generic type variables can be instantiated.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. T}{\Gamma \vdash e : [\alpha \mapsto T'] T} \text{ (T-Spec)}$$

- the analog of generic-variable copying in the Hindley-Milner algorithm.

$$\frac{\dots \quad \overline{\{x : \text{Bool}, y : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha, z : \alpha\} \vdash z : \alpha}}{\dots \quad \dots \quad \overline{\{x : \text{Bool}, y : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha\} \vdash \lambda z. z : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha}} \quad \frac{\overline{\{x : \text{Bool}, y : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha\} \vdash \text{if } (\text{not } x) \text{ then } y \text{ else } \lambda z. z : (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)}}{\overline{\{x : \text{Bool}\} \vdash \lambda y. \text{if } (\text{not } x) \text{ then } y \text{ else } \lambda z. z : (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)}}}{\overline{\vdash \lambda x. \lambda y. \text{if } (\text{not } x) \text{ then } y \text{ else } \lambda z. z : \text{Bool} \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)}}$$

A Derivation

let $\Gamma \equiv \{\text{id} : \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)\}$

$$\frac{\overline{\vdash \lambda x. x : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha} \quad \overline{\text{continued below}}}{\overline{\vdash \lambda x. x : \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)} \quad \overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{if id(true) then id(3) else 0 : Int}}}{\overline{\vdash \text{let id} = \lambda x. x \text{ in } (\text{if id(true) then id(3) else 0) : Int}}$$

$$\frac{\overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{id} : \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)} \quad \overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{id} : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}} \quad \overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{true} : \text{Bool}}}{\overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{id(true)} : \text{Bool}}} \quad \frac{\overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{id} : \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)} \quad \overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{id} : \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}} \quad \overline{\Gamma \vdash 3 : \text{Int}}}{\overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{id}(3) : \text{Int}}}$$

$$\overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{if id(true) then id(3) else 0 : Int}}$$

$$\frac{\text{same derivation as on previous slide}}{\frac{\{\text{id} : \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)\} \vdash \text{if id(true) then id(3) else 0} : \text{Int}}{\vdash \lambda \text{id}. (\text{if id(true) then id(3) else 0}) : (\forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)) \rightarrow \text{Int}}}$$

This expression cannot be typed in the Hindley-Milner algorithm.

Note that it is not possible to derive the type $(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \text{Int}$ for the function.

The traditional “let” rule

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_1 \quad \Gamma \cup \{x : T_1\} \vdash e : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : T_2} \text{(T-Let)}$$

Compute the type T_1 for e_1 under the assumption that x has type T_1 !

$$\frac{\Gamma \cup \{x : T_1\} \vdash e_1 : T_1 \quad \Gamma \cup \{x : T_1\} \vdash e : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : T_2} \text{(T-Let)}$$

- Again, the Hindley-Milner algorithm tells us how to “guess” T_1 .