# Type Inference

**Concepts of Programming Languages Lecture 21** 

#### Outline

- » Discuss type inference with eye towards Hindley-Milner typing
- » Look at a set of typing rules for constraintbased inference
- >> Walk through some examples

# Recap

```
let add (x : int) (y : int) : int = x + y
let k (x : int) (y : bool) : int = x
let _ : unit = assert(add 2 3 = k 5 false)
```

```
let add (x : int) (y : int) : int = x + y
let k (x : int) (y : bool) : int = x
let _ : unit = assert(add 2 3 = k 5 false)
```

In mini-project 2, we're implementing a PL with explicit typing

```
let add (x : int) (y : int) : int = x + y
let k (x : int) (y : bool) : int = x
let _ : unit = assert(add 2 3 = k 5 false)
```

In mini-project 2, we're implementing a PL with explicit typing

Every function argument and let-expression is annotated with typing information

```
let add (x : int) (y : int) : int = x + y
let k (x : int) (y : bool) : int = x
let _ : unit = assert(add 2 3 = k 5 false)
```

In mini-project 2, we're implementing a PL with explicit typing

Every function argument and let-expression is annotated with typing information

This is closer to what is done in a PL like Java

```
let add x y = x + y
let k x y = x
let _ = assert(add 2 3 = k 5 false)
```

```
let add x y = x + y
let k x y = x
let _ = assert(add 2 3 = k 5 false)
```

We rarely have to specify types in OCaml

```
let add x y = x + y
let k x y = x
let _ = assert(add 2 3 = k 5 false)
```

We rarely have to specify types in OCaml

Type inference, or type *reconstruction* is the process of determining what type we *could* have annotated our program with

let add 
$$x y = x + y$$
  
let  $k x y = x$   
let \_ = assert(add 2 3 =  $k$  5 false)  
let \_ = assert( $k$  the 5)

We rarely have to specify types in OCaml

Type inference, or type *reconstruction* is the process of determining what type we *could* have annotated our program with

But what type should we give k?

#### Recall: Parametric Polymorphism

#### Recall: Parametric Polymorphism

Parametric polymorphism allows for functions which are agnostic to the types of its inputs

#### Recall: Parametric Polymorphism

Parametric polymorphism allows for functions which are agnostic to the types of its inputs

For example, we can write a single reverse function and use it in multiple contexts

```
let id : 'a \rightarrow 'a = fun x \rightarrow x
```

```
let id : a \rightarrow a = fun x \rightarrow x
```

The "parametric" part is the fact that types have variables

let id : 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 'a \\ -> \end{bmatrix} = fun x -> x$$

The "parametric" part is the fact that types have variables

**Type variables** are instantiated at particular types according to the context

let id :  $a \rightarrow a = fun x \rightarrow x$ 

The "parametric" part is the fact that types have variables

**Type variables** are instantiated at particular types according to the context

They are very similar to expression variables, e.g., we need to define type-level substitution

```
let id: 'a. 'a -> 'a = fun x -> x
```

```
let id : 'a -> 'a = fun x -> x
```

In reality, types variables in OCaml are quantified

```
let id : 'a . 'a -> 'a = fun x -> x
```

In reality, types variables in OCaml are quantified

Just like with expression variables, we don't like unbound type variables

```
let id: 'a. 'a -> 'a = fun x -> x
\forall \alpha. \quad \alpha \rightarrow \alpha
```

In reality, types variables in OCaml are quantified

Just like with expression variables, we don't like unbound type variables

We read this "id has type t -> t for any type t"

```
let id_int : int -> int = fun (x : int) -> x
let id : 'a . 'a -> 'a = fun 'a -> fun (x : 'a) -> x

let test1 = id_int 2
let test2 = id int 2
let test3 = id string "two"
```

```
let id_int : int -> int = fun (x : int) -> x
let id : 'a . 'a -> 'a = fun 'a -> fun (x : 'a) -> x

let test1 = id_int 2
let test2 = id int 2
let test3 = id string "two"
```

**System F (second-order lambda calculus)** was introduced by Jean-Yves Girard and John C. Reynolds in the 1970s

```
let id_int : int -> int = fun (x : int) -> x
let id : 'a . 'a -> 'a = fun 'a -> fun (x : 'a) -> x

let test1 = id_int 2
let test2 = id int 2
let test3 = id string "two"
```

**System F** (second-order lambda calculus) was introduced by Jean-Yves Girard and John C. Reynolds in the 1970s

**The basic idea:** Introduce types into the language itself so we can *pass* them as arguments to functions

```
let id_int : int -> int = fun (x : int) -> x
let id : 'a . 'a -> 'a = fun 'a -> fun (x : 'a) -> x

let test1 = id_int 2
let test2 = id int 2
let test3 = id string "two"
```

**System F** (second-order lambda calculus) was introduced by Jean-Yves Girard and John C. Reynolds in the 1970s

**The basic idea:** Introduce types into the language itself so we can *pass* them as arguments to functions

The big problem: Without type annotations type checking is undecidable

## Interlude: Compact Derivations

#### The Problem

Derivations take up a lot of horizontal space

We've been careful to choose expressions with short derivations in lecture

We won't be able to do this moving forward

#### The Problem

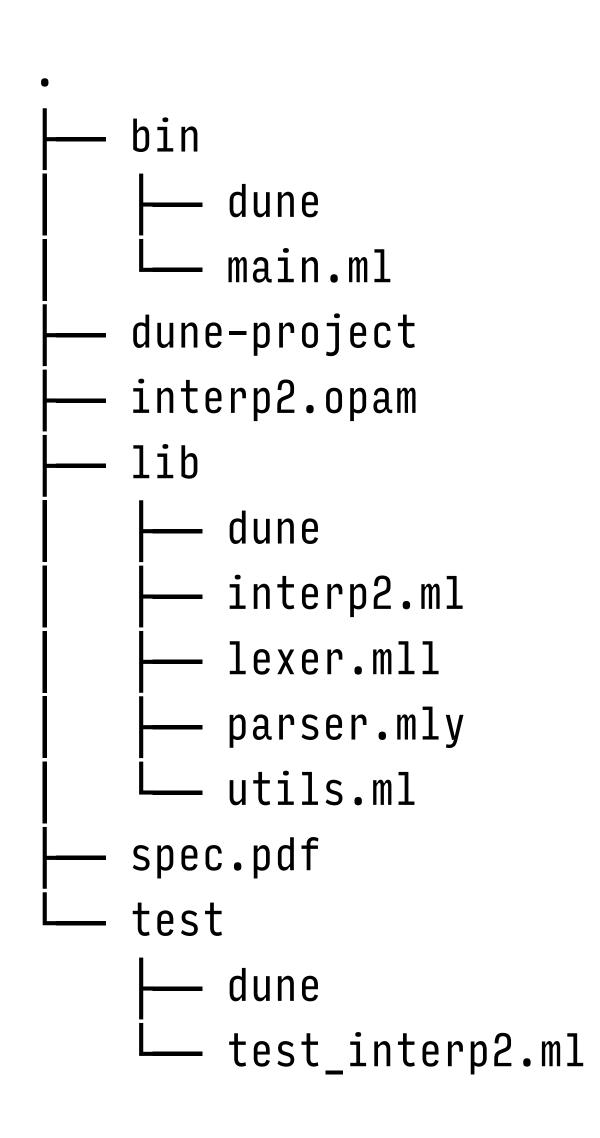
```
\frac{}{ \{\} \vdash 2 : int \}} (intLit) = \frac{}{\{y : int\} \vdash y : int} (var) - \frac{}{\{y : int\} \vdash y : int} (var) - \frac{}{\{y : int\} \vdash y : int} (intAdd) - \frac{}{\{\} \vdash 1et \ y = 2 \ in \ y + y : int} (let)}
```

Derivations take up a lot of horizontal space

We've been careful to choose expressions with short derivations in lecture

We won't be able to do this moving forward

## Visualizing Trees



There are many ways of drawing trees. Finding a "good" visualization of trees is an art

Moving forward we'll use the *file-tree* format for writing derivations (this is what is done in the textbook)

It's more horizontally space-efficient

## Example

#### Example

```
\frac{}{\{\} \vdash 2 : int\}} (intLit) = \frac{}{\{y : int\} \vdash y : int} (var) = \frac{}{\{y : int\} \vdash y : int} (var) = \frac{}{\{y : int\} \vdash y : int} (intAdd) = \frac{}{\{\} \vdash 1et \ y = 2 \ in \ y + y : int} (let)
```

#### Practice Problem

```
\cdot --> fun x --> f (x + 1) : (int --> int) --> int --> int
```

Give a typing derivation in compact form of the above judgment using 320Caml typing rules

#### Answer

 $\cdot$  + fun f -> fun x -> f (x + 1) : (int -> int) -> int -> int [ { f:int = int, x:int } + f(x+1):int しきfint-sint, x:int3トf:int-sint しきf:int-sint, x:int3ト x+1:int

## Hindley-Milner

## High Level

**Hindley-Milner type systems** are typed  $\lambda$ -calculi with parametric polymorphism

**Hindley-Milner type systems** are typed  $\lambda$ -calculi with parametric polymorphism

They underlie nearly all functional PLs currently in use (e.g., OCaml, Haskell, Elm)

**Hindley-Milner type systems** are typed  $\lambda$ -calculi with parametric polymorphism

They underlie nearly all functional PLs currently in use (e.g., OCaml, Haskell, Elm)

They allow for a *restricted* form of type quantification, in which quantifiers always appear in the "outermost" position

**Hindley-Milner type systems** are typed  $\lambda$ -calculi with parametric polymorphism

They underlie nearly all functional PLs currently in use (e.g., OCaml, Haskell, Elm)

They allow for a *restricted* form of type quantification, in which quantifiers always appear in the "outermost" position

Type inference is decidable and (fairly) efficient

$$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \vdash \mathscr{C}$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \dashv \mathscr{C}$$

The type inference process follows the rough procedure:

$$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \vdash \mathscr{C}$$

The type inference process follows the rough procedure:

1. Derive  $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$  relative to some constraints  $\mathscr C$ 

$$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \vdash \mathscr{C}$$

The type inference process follows the rough procedure:

- 1. Derive  $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$  relative to some constraints  $\mathscr C$
- 2. Use the constraints  $\mathscr C$  to determine the "actual" type of e in  $\Gamma$

$$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \vdash \mathscr{C}$$

The type inference process follows the rough procedure:

today

- 1. Derive  $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$  relative to some constraints  $\mathscr C$
- 2. Use the constraints  $\mathscr C$  to determine the "actual" type of e in  $\Gamma$

Example (by Intuition)

fun f -> fun x -> f (x + 1)

the fun f -> fun x -> f (x + 1)

$$? = ? \rightarrow ?$$

# Hindley-Milner Light (Syntax)

The syntax of HM<sup>-</sup> is the same as that of system F except:

» we've added a couple things to make our examples more interesting

» type quantification is restricted

# Hindley-Milner Light (Mathematical)

$$e::= \lambda x . e \mid ee$$

$$| \text{ let } x = e \text{ in } e$$

$$| \text{ if } e \text{ then } e \text{ else } e$$

$$| e + e \mid e = e$$

$$| n \mid x$$

$$\sigma::= \text{ int } | \text{ bool } | \alpha | \sigma \rightarrow \sigma$$

$$\tau::= \sigma | \forall \alpha . \tau$$

As usual, we'll often use concise mathematical notation for writing down inference rules and derivations

$$\sigma ::= \text{int} \mid \text{bool} \mid \alpha \mid \sigma \to \sigma$$

$$\tau ::= \sigma \mid \forall \alpha . \tau$$

$$\sigma ::= \text{int} \mid \text{bool} \mid \alpha \mid \sigma \to \sigma$$

$$\tau ::= \sigma \mid \forall \alpha . \tau$$

σ represents monotypes, types with no quantification. A type is monomorphic if it is a monotype with no type variables

$$\sigma ::= \text{int} \mid \text{bool} \mid \alpha \mid \sigma \to \sigma$$

$$\tau ::= \sigma \mid \forall \alpha . \tau$$

 $\sigma$  represents monotypes, types with no quantification. A type is monomorphic if it is a monotype with no type variables

au represents **type schemes**, which are types with some number of quantified type variables

$$\sigma ::= \text{int} \mid \text{bool} \mid \alpha \mid \sigma \to \sigma \qquad \text{hot a manipular}$$

$$\tau ::= \sigma \mid \forall \alpha . \tau \qquad \forall \beta . \forall \beta$$

 $\sigma$  represents monotypes, types with no quantification. A type is monomorphic if it is a monotype with no type variables

au represents **type schemes**, which are types with some number of quantified type variables

We say a type is polymorphic if it is a closed type scheme

# Free Variables (Monotypes)

$$FV(\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \rightarrow i\alpha +)) = FV(int) = \emptyset$$

$$FV(\alpha) \cup FV(\beta \rightarrow i\alpha +) = FV(bool) = \emptyset$$

$$FV(\alpha) = \{\alpha\}$$

$$FV(\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2) = FV(\tau_1) \cup FV(\tau_2)$$

Once we introduce variables, we have to again talk about free and bound variables

Unlike in System F, we will only need to consider free variables of monotypes so there is no issue with variable capture

### Understanding Check

Define substitution  $[\tau_1/\alpha]\tau_2$  for monotypes

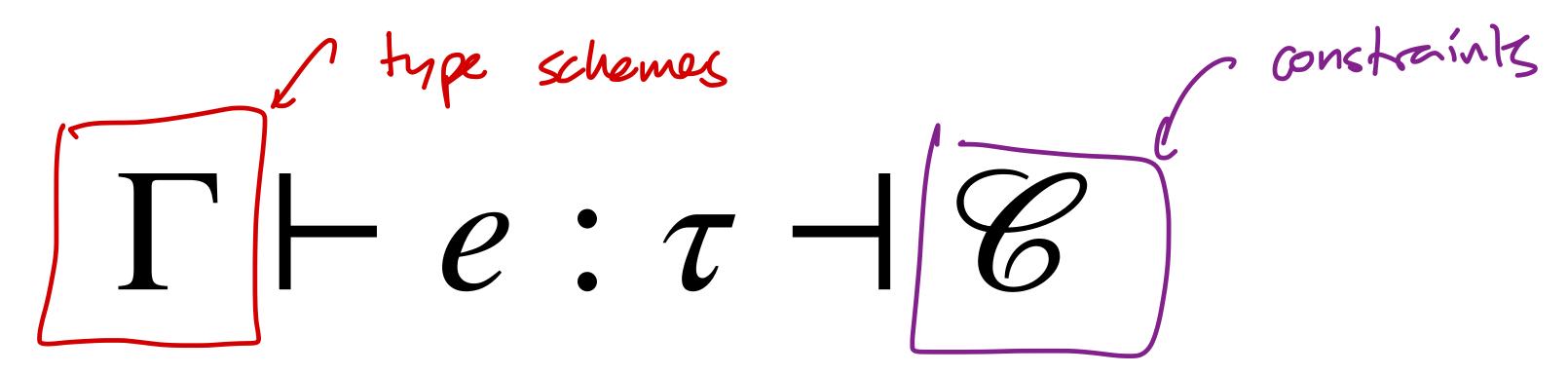
$$[T/\alpha] \text{ in } f = \text{ in } f$$

$$[T/\alpha] \text{ bool} = \text{ bool}$$

$$[T/\alpha] \beta = \begin{cases} T & \beta = \alpha \\ \beta & \text{ o.w.} \end{cases}$$

$$[T/\alpha](T, \rightarrow T_2) = ([T/\alpha]T, \rightarrow (T/\alpha)T_2)$$

Our typing rules well need to keep track of a set of constraints, which tell use what must hold for e to be well-typed



Our typing rules well need to keep track of a set of constraints, which tell use what must hold for e to be well-typed

Contexts are are collections of variable declaration, i.e., mapping of variables to **type schemes** 

Our typing rules well need to keep track of a set of constraints, which tell use what must hold for e to be well-typed

Contexts are are collections of variable declaration, i.e., mapping of variables to type schemes

The idea: We're formalizing the idea of "collecting together" our constraints, as in our intuitive example

### What is a constraint?

$$\tau_1 = \tau_2$$

In general, a **type constraint** is a predicate on types. The only kind we will consider:

" $au_1$  should be the same as  $au_2$ "

Enforcing a constraint like this is called **unifying**  $au_1$  and  $au_2$ 

The idea: For each rule, we need to determine:

The idea: For each rule, we need to determine:

» What is the *most general* type  $\tau$  we could give e?

The idea: For each rule, we need to determine:

- » What is the most general type  $\tau$  we could give e?
- $\gg$  What must be true of  $\tau$ , i.e., what constrains  $\tau$ ?

The idea: For each rule, we need to determine:

- $\gg$  What is the *most general* type au we could give e?
- » What must be true of  $\tau$ , i.e., what constrains  $\tau$ ?

If we don't know what type something should be, we create a fresh type variable for it

Let's see some typing rules...

# HM<sup>-</sup> (Typing Literals)

```
side isolivo
                      is an integer \Gamma \vdash n : \mathsf{int} \dashv \varnothing
$\psi \ 5: int -1 $\phi$
```

Literals have their expected types without any constraints

# HM<sup>-</sup> (Typing Operators)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \dashv \mathscr{C}_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \dashv \mathscr{C}_2}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int} \dashv \tau_1 \doteq \text{int}, \tau_2 \doteq \text{int}, \mathscr{C}_1, \mathscr{C}_2} \quad (\text{add})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \dashv \mathscr{C}_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \dashv \mathscr{C}_2}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 = e_2 : \mathsf{bool} \dashv \tau_1 \doteq \tau_2, \mathscr{C}_1, \mathscr{C}_2} \quad (eq)$$

 $e_1 + e_2$  is an **int** if the types of  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  can be *unified* to **int** We don't require that  $\tau_i$  is *exactly* **int**, e.g., it may be a type variable!

# HM<sup>-</sup> (Typing If-Expressions)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \dashv \mathscr{C}_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \dashv \mathscr{C}_2 \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_3 : \tau_3 \dashv \mathscr{C}_3}{\Gamma \vdash \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : \tau_3 \dashv \tau_1 \doteq \text{bool}, \tau_2 \doteq \tau_3, \mathscr{C}_1, \mathscr{C}_2, \mathscr{C}_3} \qquad (if)$$

An if-expression has the same type as its else-case when:

- >> the type of the condition can be unified with bool
- » the types of the then-case and else-case can be unified to each other

# **Example** $\{x: \alpha, y: \beta\} \vdash \text{if } x \text{ then } x \text{ else } y: \tau \dashv \mathscr{C}$

# HM<sup>-</sup> (Typing Functions)

$$\frac{\alpha \text{ is fresh}}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : e : \alpha \rightarrow \tau \dashv \mathscr{C}} \qquad \text{(fun)}$$

The input type of a function is some type  $\alpha$  and it's output type is the type of the body

We don't know the input type, so we give it the most general form, i.e., a fresh type variable with no constraints

# HM<sup>-</sup> (Typing Application)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \dashv \mathscr{C}_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \dashv \mathscr{C}_2 \qquad \alpha \text{ is fresh}}{\Gamma \vdash e_2 : \alpha \dashv \tau_1 \doteq \tau_2 \rightarrow \alpha, \mathscr{C}_1, \mathscr{C}_2} \qquad \text{(app)}$$

The type of an application is some type  $\alpha$ , such that the type of the function unifies to a function type with output type  $\alpha$ , and the input type matches the type of the argument (wordy...)

$$\frac{(x:\forall \alpha_1.\forall \alpha_2...\forall \alpha_k.\tau) \in \Gamma \qquad \beta_1,...,\beta_k \text{ are fresh}}{\Gamma \vdash x: [\beta_1/\alpha_1]...[\beta_k/\alpha_k]\tau \dashv \varnothing} \quad (var)$$

If x is declared in  $\Gamma$ , then x can be given the type  $\tau$  with all free variables replaced by **fresh** variables

$$\frac{(x: \forall \alpha_1. \forall \alpha_2... \forall \alpha_k. \tau) \in \Gamma \qquad \beta_1, ..., \beta_k \text{ are fresh}}{\Gamma \vdash x: [\beta_1/\alpha_1]...[\beta_k/\alpha_k]\tau \dashv \varnothing} \quad (var)$$

If x is declared in  $\Gamma$ , then x can be given the type  $\tau$  with all free variables replaced by **fresh** variables

This is where the polymorphism magic happens

$$\frac{(x: \forall \alpha_1. \forall \alpha_2... \forall \alpha_k. \tau) \in \Gamma \qquad \beta_1, ..., \beta_k \text{ are fresh}}{\Gamma \vdash x: [\beta_1/\alpha_1]...[\beta_k/\alpha_k]\tau \dashv \emptyset} \quad (var)$$

If x is declared in  $\Gamma$ , then x can be given the type  $\tau$  with all free variables replaced by **fresh** variables

This is where the polymorphism magic happens

fresh variables can be unified with anything

### **Example** $\{f: \forall \alpha . \alpha \rightarrow \alpha\} \vdash f(f \ 2 = 2) : ? \dashv ?$

### Example

fun f -> fun x -> f (x + 1)

### Up Next

#### We still need to:

- » introduce a unification algorithm to determine the "actual" type
  given a collection of constraints
- » Discuss let-expressions (and top-level let expressions)
- » introduce type annotations

#### We wont:

» deal with type errors (tricker with unification-based inference)