

Compiler

Static typing

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A large part of this course is based on the Compilation Course of J.-C. Filliâtre at ENS Ulm.



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¹source: <https://zh.wiktionary.org/>



²source: <https://zh.wiktionary.org/>

Type checking

If we write

```
"5" + 37
```

do we get

- a compile-time error? (OCaml, Rust, Go)
- a runtime error? (Python, Julia)
- the integer 42? (Visual Basic, PHP)
- the string "537"? (Java, Scala, Kotlin)
- a pointer? (C, C++)
- something else?

and what about

```
37 / "5"
```

??????

If we now add two arbitrary expressions

```
e1 + e2
```

how can we decide whether this is legal and which operation to perform?

The answer is **typing**, a program analysis that binds **types** to each sub-expression, to rule out inconsistent programs

When?

Some languages are **dynamically typed**: types are bound to **values** and are used **at runtime**

examples: Lisp, PHP, Python, Julia

Other languages are **statically typed**: types are bound to **expressions** and are used **at compile time**

examples: C, C++, Java, OCaml, Rust, Go

Remark

A language may use both static and dynamic typing

Overview of the course

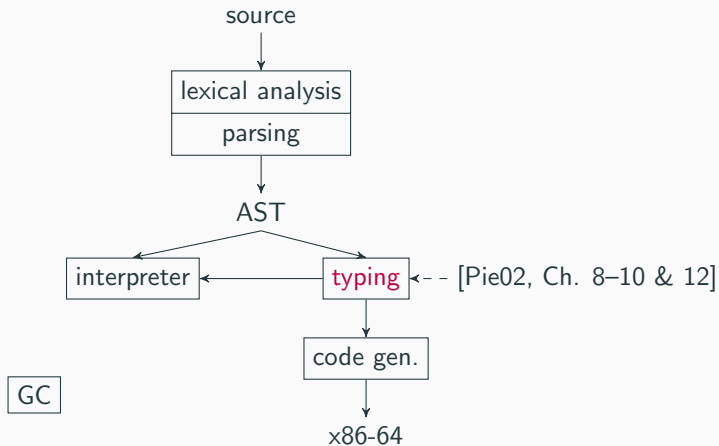


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Static typing

Slogan (Milner, 1978)

well-typed programs do not go wrong

Goal of typing

- type checking must be **decidable**
- type checking must reject programs whose evaluation would fail; this is **type safety**
- type checking must not reject too many non-absurd programs; the type system must be **expressive**

Several solutions

1. any sub-expression is annotated with a type

```
fun (x: int) -> let (y: int) = (+ :) ((x: int),(1: int)): int * int )
```

type checking is easy but this is unmanageable for the programmer

2. only annotate variable declarations (C, C++, Java, etc.)

```
fun (x : int) -> let (y : int) = +(x,1) in y
```

3. only annotate function parameters (C++ 11, Java 10)

```
fun (x : int) -> let y = +(x,1) in y
```

4. no annotation at all \Rightarrow **type inference** (OCaml, Haskell, etc.)

```
fun x -> x + 1
```

Expected properties

A type checking algorithm must have properties of

- **correctness**: if the algorithm answers “yes” then the program is effectively well-typed
- **completeness**: if the program is well-typed, then the algorithm must answer “yes”

and possibly of

- **principality**: the type calculated for an expression is the most general possible

Typing for mini-ML

Consider mini-ML typing

1. monomorphic typing
2. polymorphic typing, type inference

mini-ML

Recall the abstract syntax of mini-ML

$e ::=$	x	variable
	c	constant $(1, 2, \dots, \text{true}, \dots)$
	op	primitive operator $(+, \times, \text{fst}, \dots)$
	$\text{fun } x \rightarrow e$	function
	$e\ e$	application
	(e, e)	pair
	$\text{let } x = e \text{ in } e$	local let

Monomorphic typing of mini-ML

We introduce a **simple typing**, with the following abstract syntax

$\tau ::=$	$\text{int} \mid \text{bool} \mid \dots$	basic types
	$\mid \tau \rightarrow \tau$	type of a function
	$\mid \tau \times \tau$	type of a pair

Typing judgment

The type of a variable is given by a **typing environment** Γ
(a function from variables to types)

The **typing judgment** is written as

$$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$$

and reads “in typing environment Γ , expression e has type τ ”

The environment Γ associates a type $\Gamma(x)$ for each free variable x in e

We use inference rules to define $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$

Rules of typing

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash x : \Gamma(x)}$$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash n : \text{int}} \text{ ETC.}$$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash + : \text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}} \text{ ETC.}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma + x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau' \rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \ e_2 : \tau}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_2) : \tau_1 \times \tau_2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma + x : \tau_1 \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau_2}$$

$\Gamma + x : \tau$ is the environment Γ' defined by $\Gamma'(y) = \begin{cases} \tau & \text{if } y = x \\ \Gamma(y) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Example

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \vdots \\
 \vdots \\
 \hline
 x : \text{int} \vdash (x, 1) : \text{int} \times \text{int} \\
 \hline
 x : \text{int} \vdash +(x, 1) : \text{int} \\
 \hline
 \emptyset \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow +(x, 1) : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \\
 \hline
 \emptyset \vdash \text{let } f = \text{fun } f \rightarrow +(x, 1) \text{ in } f \ 2 : \text{int}
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \hline
 \dots \vdash f : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \qquad \dots \vdash 2 : \text{int} \\
 \hline
 f : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \vdash f \ 2 : \text{int}
 \end{array}$$

Expressions without a type

On the other hand, we cannot type the program `1 2`.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash 1 : \tau' \rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash 2 : \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash 1\ 2 : \tau}$$

nor the program `fun x → x x`

$$\frac{\frac{\Gamma + x : \tau_1 \vdash x : \tau_3 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma + x : \tau_1 \vdash x : \tau_3}{\Gamma + x : \tau_1 \vdash x\ x : \tau_2}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x\ x : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$$

since $\tau_1 = \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ has no solution (the types are finite by definition)

Many possible types

We can show

$$\emptyset \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$$

but also

$$\emptyset \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x : \text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool}$$

Be careful: this is not polymorphism

for a given occurrence of $\text{fun } x \rightarrow x$ it's necessary choose a type

Many possible types

Thus, the term `let $f = \text{fun } x \rightarrow x$ in (f 1, f true)` is not typeable,

because there is no type τ such as

$$f : \tau \rightarrow \tau \vdash (f\ 1, f\ \text{true}) : \tau_1 \times \tau_2.$$

On the other hand,

$$((\text{fun } x \rightarrow x)\ (\text{fun } x \rightarrow x))\ 42$$

is typable (exercise!)

Primitives

In particular, we cannot give a satisfying **type** to a primitive like *fst*; you would have to choose between an infinite number of possible types:

`int × int → int`

`int × bool → int`

`bool × int → bool`

`(int → int) → int → int`

etc.

But on the other hand we can give a **rule** of typing for the application of *fst*:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 \times \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst } e : \tau_1}$$

Primitives

The same goes for primitives *opif* and *opfix*. We cannot give a satisfactory type to *opfix*, but we can give a rule of typing for its application

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \rightarrow \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \text{opfix } e : \tau}$$

And if we want to limit ourselves to *functions*, we can modify it like this

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : (\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2) \rightarrow (\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2)}{\Gamma \vdash \text{opfix } e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$$

Recursive function

If we add the construct `let rec` in the language, we could have

$$\frac{\Gamma + x : \tau_1 \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma + x : \tau_1 \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let rec } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau_2}$$

And again, for functions only

$$\frac{\Gamma + (f : \tau \rightarrow \tau_1) + (x : \tau) \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma + (f : \tau \rightarrow \tau_1) \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let rec } f \ x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau_2}$$

Difference between rules of typing and algorithm of typing

When we type `fun x → e`, how do we find the type to give to `x`?

This is the whole difference between the **typing rules**, which define the ternary relation

$$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$$

and the **algorithm of typing** which checks that a certain expression `e` is well-typed in a certain environment Γ .

Simple type of mini-ML

Let us consider the approach where only function parameters are annotated and program it in OCaml

We give the abstract syntax of types

```
type typ =  
  | Tint  
  | Tarrow of typ * typ  
  | Tproduct of typ * typ
```

Simple type of mini-ML

The constructor Fun takes an additional argument

```
type expression =  
  | Var    of string  
  | Const  of int  
  | Op     of string  
  | Fun    of string * typ * expression (* the only change *)  
  | App    of expression * expression  
  | Pair   of expression * expression  
  | Let    of string * expression * expression
```

Simple type of mini-ML

The environment Γ is realized by a persistent structure

In this case we use the OCaml Map module

```
module Smap = Map.Make(String)

type env = typ Smap.t
```

(performance: balanced trees \implies insertion and search in $O(\log n)$)

Simple type of mini-ML

```
let rec type_expr env = function
  | Const _ -> Tint
  | Var x -> Smap.find x env
  | Op "+" -> Tarrow (Tproduct (Tint, Tint), Tint)
  | Pair (e1, e2) ->
      Tproduct (type_expr env e1, type_expr env e2)
```

for the function, the type of the variable is given

```
| Fun (x, ty, e) ->
  Tarrow (ty, type_expr (Smap.add x ty env) e)
```

for the local variable, it is computed as

```
| Let (x, e1, e2) ->
  type_expr (Smap.add x (type_expr env e1) env)
  e2
```

(note the interest of the persistence of env))

Simple type of mini-ML

The only checks are in the application

```
| App (e1, e2) -> begin match type_expr env e1 with
| Tarrow (ty2, ty) ->
    if type_expr env e2 = ty2 then ty
    else failwith "error : argument of bad type"
| _ ->
    failwith "error : function expected"
end
```

Simple type of mini-ML

Examples

```
# type_expr
  (Let ("f",
        Fun ("x", Tint, App (Op "+", Pair (Var "x", Const 1))),
        App (Var "f", Const 2))));;
```

```
- : typ = Tint
```

```
# type_expr (Fun ("x", Tint, App (Var "x", Var "x")));;
```

```
Exception: Failure "error : function expected".
```

```
# type_expr (App (App (Op "+", Const 1), Const 2));;
```

```
Exception: Failure "error : argument of bad type".
```

In practice

- We do not do

```
failwith "error of typing"
```

but the origin of the problem is indicated precisely

- types are preserved for later phases of the compiler

Decorated trees

On the one hand we decorate the trees at **the input** of the typing with a localization in the source file

```
type loc = ...
```

```
type expression =
```

```
| Var of string
| Const of int
| Op of string
| Fun of string * typ * expression
| App of expression * expression
| Pair of expression * expression
| Let of string * expression * expression
```

Decorated trees

On the one hand we decorate the trees at **the input** of the typing with a localization in the source file

```
type loc = ...
```

```
type expression = {  
  desc: desc;  
  loc : loc;  
}
```

```
and desc =  
  | Var of string  
  | Const of int  
  | Op of string  
  | Fun of string * typ * expression  
  | App of expression * expression  
  | Pair of expression * expression  
  | Let of string * expression * expression
```

Signal an error

We declare an exception of the form

```
exception Error of loc * string
```

We raise it like this

```
let rec type_expr env e = match e.desc with
| ...
| App (e1, e2) -> begin match type_expr env e1 with
| Tarrow (ty2, ty) ->
    if type_expr env e2 <> ty2 then
        raise (Error (e2.loc, "argument of bad type"));
    ...
```

Signal an error

and we catch up with it, for example in the main program

```
try
  let p = Parser.parse file in
  let t = Typing.program p in
  ...
with Error (loc, msg) ->
  Format.eprintf "File '%s', line ...\n" file loc;
  Format.eprintf "error: %s@." msg;
  exit 1
```

Decorated trees

on the other hand, we decorate the trees **at the output** of the typing with types

```
type texpression = {  
  tdesc: tdesc;  
  typ : typ;  
}  
and tdesc =  
  | Tvar of string  
  | Tconst of int  
  | Top of string  
  | Tfun of string * typ * texpression  
  | Tapp of texpression * texpression  
  | Tpair of texpression * texpression  
  | Tlet of string * texpression * texpression
```

It's **another type** of expressions

Typing of typing

The typing function therefore has a type of the form

```
val type_expr: expression -> texpression
```

Typed trees

the typing function **reconstructs** trees, this time typed

```
let rec type_expr env e =
  let d, ty = compute_type env e in
  { tdesc = d; typ = ty }
and compute_type env e = match e.desc with
| Const n ->
  Tconst n, Tint
| Var x ->
  Tvar x, Smap.find x env
| Pair (e1, e2) ->
  let te1 = type_expr env e1 in
  let te2 = type_expr env e2 in
  Tpair (te1, te2), Tproduct (te1.typ, te2.typ)
| ...
```

Type safety

Type safety

well-typed programs do not go wrong

Type Safety

Let us show that our type system is safe wrt our small-steps semantics

Thm. (type safety)

If $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$, then the evaluation of e is infinite or ends on a value



Or, equivalently,

Thm.

If $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$ and $e \xrightarrow{*} e'$ and e' is irreducible, then e' is a value



Type safety

The proof of this theorem is based on two lemmas, called **progression** and **preservation**.

Lem. (progression)

If $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$, then, either e is a value or there is e' such that $e \rightarrow e'$.



Lem. (preservation)

If $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$ and $e \rightarrow e'$ then $\emptyset \vdash e' : \tau$.



Progression

Lem. (progression)

If $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$, then, either e is a value or there is e' such that $e \rightarrow e'$. □

Proof.

We proceed by induction on the derivation of typing $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$. Suppose for instance that $e = e_2 e_1$, then we have

$$\frac{\emptyset \vdash e_2 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \emptyset \vdash e_1 : \tau_1}{\emptyset \vdash e_2 e_1 : \tau_2}$$

We apply the induction hypothesis on e_2 :

- if $e_2 \rightarrow e'_2$, then $e_2 e_1 \rightarrow e'_2 e_1$ by passage lemma in the AST lecture;
- if e_2 is a value, suppose that $e_2 = \text{fun } x \rightarrow e_3$. We apply the induction hypothesis on e_1 :
 - if $e_1 \rightarrow e'_1$ then $e_2 e_1 \rightarrow e_2 e'_1$ by the same lemma;
 - if e_1 is a value, then $e_2 e_1 \rightarrow e_2[x \leftarrow e_1]$.

The other cases are left as exercises. ■

Preservation

We start by two easy lemmas

Lem. (permutation)

If $\Gamma + x : \tau_1 + y : \tau_2 \vdash e : \tau$ and $x \neq y$, then $\Gamma + y : \tau_2 + x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau$ and the derivations have the same height. □

Proof.

By direct induction on the typing derivation ■

Lem. (weakening)

If $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ and $x \notin \text{dom } \Gamma$, then $\Gamma + x : \tau' \vdash e : \tau$ and the derivations have the same height. □

Proof.

Again it follows immediately by induction on the typing derivation. ■

Preservation

We continue by a **key lemma**

Lem. (preservation under substitution)

If $\Gamma + x : \tau' \vdash e : \tau$ and $\Gamma \vdash e' : \tau'$ then $\Gamma \vdash e[x \leftarrow e'] : \tau$. □

Proof.

We proceed by induction on the derivation $\Gamma + x : \tau' \vdash e : \tau$.

- Case of a variable $e = y$:
 - if $x = y$ then $e[x \leftarrow e'] = e'$ and $\tau = \tau'$;
 - if $x \neq y$, then $e[x \leftarrow e'] = e$ and $\tau = \Gamma(y)$.
- Case of a abstract expression $e = \text{fun } y \rightarrow e_1$: We can assume $y \neq x$, $y \notin \text{dom}(\Gamma)$ and y not free in e' , even if it means renaming y . We have $\Gamma + x : \tau' + y : \tau_2 \vdash e_1 : \tau_1$ and hence $\Gamma + y : \tau_2 + x : \tau' \vdash e_1 : \tau_1$ by permutation lemma. On the other hand $\Gamma \vdash e' : \tau'$ and hence $\Gamma + y : \tau_2 \vdash e' : \tau'$ by weakening lemma. By induction hypothesis, we therefore have $\Gamma + y : \tau_2 \vdash e_1[x \leftarrow e'] : \tau_1$ and so $\Gamma \vdash (\text{fun } y \rightarrow e_1)[x \leftarrow e'] : \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_1$, that is, $\Gamma \vdash e[x \leftarrow e'] : \tau$.

The other cases are left as an exercise. ■

Preservation

Finally we can prove the preservation lemma

Lem. (preservation)

If $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$ and $e \rightarrow e'$ then $\emptyset \vdash e' : \tau$. □

Proof.

We proceed by induction on the derivation of $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$.

- Case $e = \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2$:

$$\frac{\emptyset \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad x : \tau_1 \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\emptyset \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau_2}$$

- if $e_1 \rightarrow e'_1$, by induction hypothesis we have $\emptyset \vdash e'_1 : \tau_1$ and hence $\emptyset \vdash \text{let } x = e'_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau_2$;
- if e_1 is a value and $e' = e_2[x \leftarrow e_1]$, then we apply the lemma of preservation under substitution.
- Case $e = e_1 \ e_2$:
 - if $e_1 \rightarrow e'_1$ or if e_1 is a value and $e_2 \rightarrow e'_2$, then we use induction hypothesis;
 - if $e_1 = \text{fun } x \rightarrow e_3$ and e_2 is a value, then $e' = e_3[x \leftarrow e_2]$ and we apply again the lemma of preservation under substitution.

The other cases are left as exercises. ■

Type safety

Now the type safety theorem can be easily derived

Thm. (type safety)

If $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$ and $e \xrightarrow{*} e'$ with e' irreducible, then e' is a value. □

Proof.

We have $e \rightarrow e_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow e'$ and by repeatedly applying the preservation lemma, we have $\emptyset \vdash e' : \tau$. By the progress lemma, e' is reducible or is a value. By assumption, e' is a value. ■

Polymorphism

Polymorphism

It is restrictive to give a unique type to `fun x → x` in an expression like

$$\text{let } f = \text{fun } x \rightarrow x \text{ in } e$$

Likewise, we would like to be able to give several types to primitives such as *fst* or *snd*.

A solution: the **parametric polymorphism**

Parametric polymorphism

We extend the algebra of types

$\tau ::=$	$\text{int} \mid \text{bool} \mid \dots$	basic types
	$\mid \tau \rightarrow \tau$	function type
	$\mid \tau \times \tau$	pair type
	$\mid \alpha$	variable of type
	$\mid \forall \alpha. \tau$	polymorphism type

Free variables

We denote by $\mathcal{L}(\tau)$ the set of **free** type variables in τ , defined by

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(\text{int}) &= \emptyset \\ \mathcal{L}(\alpha) &= \{\alpha\} \\ \mathcal{L}(\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2) &= \mathcal{L}(\tau_1) \cup \mathcal{L}(\tau_2) \\ \mathcal{L}(\tau_1 \times \tau_2) &= \mathcal{L}(\tau_1) \cup \mathcal{L}(\tau_2) \\ \mathcal{L}(\forall \alpha. \tau) &= \mathcal{L}(\tau) \setminus \{\alpha\}\end{aligned}$$

For a typing environment, we set

$$\mathcal{L}(\Gamma) = \bigcup_{x \in \text{dom } \Gamma} \mathcal{L}(\Gamma(x)).$$

Substitution

We denote by $\tau[\alpha \leftarrow \tau']$ the substitution of α in τ by τ' , defined by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{int}[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] &= \text{int} \\
 \alpha[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] &= \tau' \\
 \beta[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] &= \beta \quad \text{if } \beta \neq \alpha \\
 (\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2)[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] &= \tau_1[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] \rightarrow \tau_2[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] \\
 (\tau_1 \times \tau_2)[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] &= \tau_1[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] \times \tau_2[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] \\
 (\forall \alpha. \tau)[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] &= \forall \alpha. \tau \\
 (\forall \beta. \tau)[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] &= \forall \beta. \tau[\alpha \leftarrow \tau'] \quad \text{if } \beta \neq \alpha
 \end{aligned}$$

F system

The rules are **exactly** the same as before, plus

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \quad \alpha \notin \mathcal{L}(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. \tau}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. \tau}{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau[\alpha \leftarrow \tau']}$$

The system obtained is call the **F system** (J.-Y. Girard and J. C. Reynolds)

Example

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{x : \alpha \vdash x : \alpha}{\vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha} \\
 \hline
 \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \frac{\dots \vdash f : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha}{\dots \vdash f \text{ 1} : \text{int}} \quad \vdots \\
 \hline
 \dots \vdash f \text{ 1} : \text{int}
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \vdots \\
 \hline
 \dots \vdash f \text{ true} : \text{bool}
 \end{array}$$

$$\frac{\vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \quad \dots \vdash f \text{ 1} : \text{int} \quad \dots \vdash f \text{ true} : \text{bool}}{\vdash \text{let } f = \text{fun } x \rightarrow x \text{ in } (f \text{ 1}, f \text{ true}) : \text{int} \times \text{bool}}$$

Primitives

We can now give a satisfying type for primitives

$$fst : \quad \forall \alpha. \forall \beta. \alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \alpha$$

$$snd : \quad \forall \alpha. \forall \beta. \alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \beta$$

$$opif : \quad \forall \alpha. \text{bool} \times \alpha \times \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$$

$$opfix : \quad \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha$$

Exercise

Give a typing derivation for the expression $\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x\ x : (\forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow (\forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha)$.

Remark

The condition $\alpha \notin \mathcal{L}(\Gamma)$ in the rule

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \quad \alpha \notin \mathcal{L}(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. \tau}$$

is crucial.

Without it, we could type $\text{fun } x \rightarrow x$ with the type $\alpha \rightarrow \forall \alpha. \alpha$ as follows:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\Gamma \vdash x : \alpha \vdash x : \alpha}{\Gamma \vdash x : \alpha \vdash x : \forall \alpha. \alpha}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x : \alpha \rightarrow \forall \alpha. \alpha}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \forall \alpha. \alpha}$$

and successfully type the expression $(\text{fun } x \rightarrow x) \ 1 \ 2$, that is, a program whose execution results in the use of an integer as a function. The safety of the typing would therefore not be guaranteed.

Bad news

For terms without annotations, there are the two problems

- **inference**: given e , does there exist τ such that $\vdash e : \tau$?
- **verification**: given e and τ , do we have $\vdash e : \tau$?

are not decidable

[Wel99] J. B. Wells. Typability and type checking in the second-order lambda-calculus are equivalent and undecidable, 1994.

Hindley-Milner system

To obtain a decidable type inference, we will restrict the power of the F system

\Rightarrow Hindley-Milner system, used in OCaml, SML, Haskell, ...etc

Hindley-Milner system

We limit the universal quantifier \forall at the head of the types (prenex quantification)

$\tau ::=$	<code>int</code> <code>bool</code> ...	basic types
	$\tau \rightarrow \tau$	function type
	$\tau \times \tau$	pair type
	α	type variable

$\sigma ::=$	τ	schema
	$\forall \alpha. \sigma$	

The environment Γ associates a scheme of type to each identifier and the typing relation now has the form $\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma$

Example

In Hindley-Milner system, the following types are always accepted

$$\forall\alpha.\alpha \rightarrow \alpha$$

$$\forall\alpha.\forall\beta.\alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \alpha$$

$$\forall\alpha.\mathbf{bool} \times \alpha \times \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$$

$$\forall\alpha.(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha$$

but not types such as

$$(\forall\alpha.\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow (\forall\alpha.\alpha \rightarrow \alpha).$$

Notation in OCaml

note: in OCaml syntax, prenex quantification is implicit

```
# fst;;
```

```
- : 'a * 'b -> 'a = <fun>
```

$$\forall \alpha. \forall \beta. \alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \alpha$$

```
# List.fold_left;;
```

```
- : ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'a = <fun>
```

$$\forall \alpha. \forall \beta. (\alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \beta \text{ list} \rightarrow \alpha$$

Hindley-Milner system

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \overline{\Gamma \vdash x : \Gamma(x)} \qquad \overline{\Gamma \vdash n : \text{int}} \text{ ETC.} \qquad \overline{\Gamma \vdash + : \text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}} \text{ ETC.} \\
 \\
 \frac{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash e_2 e_1 : \tau_2} \\
 \\
 \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_2) : \tau_1 \times \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \sigma_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash x : \sigma_1 \vdash e_2 : \sigma_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \sigma_2} \\
 \\
 \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma \quad \alpha \notin \mathcal{L}(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. \sigma} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma[\alpha \leftarrow \tau']}
 \end{array}$$

Hindley-Milner system

Note that only the `let` construction allows a polymorphic type to be introduced into the environment

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \sigma_1 \quad \Gamma + x : \sigma_1 \vdash e_2 : \sigma_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \sigma_2}$$

In particular, we can always give a type of

`let $f = \text{fun } x \rightarrow x \text{ in } (f\ 1, f\ \text{true})$`

with $f : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ in the context to type `($f\ 1, f\ \text{true}$)`

Hindley-Milner system

On the other hand, the typing rule

$$\frac{\Gamma + x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$$

does not introduce a polymorphic type, because otherwise $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ would be poorly formed.

In particular, we can no longer type

`fun x → x x`

Type inference

Algorithmic considerations

To program a verification or a type inference for the Hindley-Milner system, we will try to proceed by induction on the structure of the program.

However, for a given expression, three rules can apply: the rule of the monomorphic system, the rule of generalization

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma \quad \alpha \notin \mathcal{L}(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. \sigma}$$

or the rule of specialization

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma[\alpha \leftarrow \tau]}$$

How to choose? Will we have to proceed by trial and error?

Syntax-driven Hindley-Milner system

We will modify the presentation of the Hindley-Milner system so that it is **syntax driven**, i.e., so that, for any expression, at most one rule applies.

The rules will have the same power of expression: any closed term is typable in one system if and only if it is typable in the other.

Syntax-driven Hindley-Milner system

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{\tau \leq \Gamma(x)}{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau} \qquad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash n : \text{int}} \qquad \frac{\tau \leq \text{type}(op)}{\Gamma \vdash op : \tau} \\
 \\
 \frac{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau' \rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \ e_2 : \tau} \\
 \\
 \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_2) : \tau_1 \times \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash x : \text{Gen}(\tau_1, \Gamma) \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau_2}
 \end{array}$$

Syntax-driven Hindley-Milner system

Two operations appear

- **instantiation**, in the rule

$$\frac{\tau \leq \Gamma(x)}{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau}$$

the relation $\tau \leq \sigma$ reads “ τ is an instance of σ ” and is defined by

$$\tau \leq \forall \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n. \tau' \quad \text{iff} \quad \exists \tau_1 \dots \exists \tau_n. \tau = \tau'[\alpha_1 \leftarrow \tau_1, \dots, \alpha_n \leftarrow \tau_n]$$

example: $\text{int} \times \text{bool} \rightarrow \text{int} \leq \forall \alpha. \forall \beta. \alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \alpha.$

Syntax-driven Hindley-Milner system

- and the **generalization**, in the rule

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma + x : \text{Gen}(\tau_1, \Gamma) \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau_2}$$

where

$$\text{Gen}(\tau_1, \Gamma) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \forall \alpha_1 \dots \forall \alpha_n. \tau_1 \quad \text{where} \quad \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\} = \mathcal{L}(\tau_1) \setminus \mathcal{L}(\Gamma)$$

Example

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{\alpha \leq \alpha}{x : \alpha \vdash x : \alpha} \\
 \hline
 \emptyset \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \frac{\frac{\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \leq \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha}{\Gamma \vdash f : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}} \quad \vdots}{\Gamma \vdash f \text{ 1} : \text{int}}
 \qquad
 \frac{\frac{\text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool} \leq \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha}{\Gamma \vdash f : \text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool}} \quad \vdots}{\Gamma \vdash f \text{ true} : \text{bool}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash (f \text{ 1}, f \text{ true}) : \text{int} \times \text{bool}}{\emptyset \vdash \text{let } f = \text{fun } x \rightarrow x \text{ in } (f \text{ 1}, f \text{ true}) : \text{int} \times \text{bool}}$$

with

$$\Gamma \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \emptyset \vdash f : \text{Gen}(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha, \emptyset) = f : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$$

Type inference for mini-ML

To infer the type of an expression, there remain problems

- in $\text{fun } x \rightarrow e$, give which type to x ?
- for a variable x , which instance of $\Gamma(x)$ to choose?

There exists a solution: **W algorithm** (Milner, Damas, Tofte [DM82])

W algorithm

Two ideas:

- new type variables are used to represent unknown types
 - for the type of x in $\text{fun } x \rightarrow e$
 - to instantiate the schema variables $\Gamma(x)$
- the value of these variables is determined later, by unification between types at the moment of typing the application

Unification

Given two types τ_1 and τ_2 containing type variables $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$,

is there an instantiation θ , that is, a function of the variables α_i to types, such as $\theta(\tau_1) = \theta(\tau_2)$?

We call it the **unification problem**

Example

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_1 &= \alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \text{int} \\ \tau_2 &= \text{int} \times \text{bool} \rightarrow \gamma \\ \text{solution} &= \alpha \mapsto \text{int}, \beta \mapsto \text{bool}, \gamma \mapsto \text{int}\end{aligned}$$

Example

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_1 &= \alpha \times \text{int} \rightarrow \alpha \times \text{int} \\ \tau_2 &= \gamma \rightarrow \gamma \\ \text{solution} &= \gamma \mapsto \alpha \times \text{int}\end{aligned}$$

Unification

Example

$$\tau_1 = \alpha \rightarrow \text{int}$$

$$\tau_2 = \beta \times \gamma$$

No solution

Example

$$\tau_1 = \alpha \rightarrow \text{int}$$

$$\tau_2 = \alpha$$

No solution

Unification

$unifier(\tau_1, \tau_2)$ determines whether there exists an instance of variables of types of τ_1 and τ_2 such that $\tau_1 = \tau_2$

$$\begin{aligned}
 unifier(\tau, \tau) &= \text{success} \\
 unifier(\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau'_1, \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau'_2) &= unifier(\tau_1, \tau_1) ; unifier(\tau'_1, \tau'_2) \\
 unifier(\tau_1 \times \tau'_1, \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau'_2) &= unifier(\tau_1, \tau_1) ; unifier(\tau'_1, \tau'_2) \\
 unifier(\alpha, \tau) &= \text{if } \alpha \notin \mathcal{L}(\tau), \text{ replace } \alpha \text{ by } \tau \text{ everywhere} \\
 &\quad \text{if not, fail} \\
 unifier(\tau, \alpha) &= unifier(\alpha, \tau) \\
 unifier(\tau_1, \tau_2) &= \text{fail in all the other cases}
 \end{aligned}$$

Idea of W algorithm

Consider the expression `fun x → +(fst x, 1)`.

- give `x` the type α_1 , a new type variable
- the primitive `+` has the type `int × int → int`
- type the expression `(fst x, 1)`
 - `fst` has the type of schema $\forall\alpha.\forall\beta.\alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \alpha$,
 - we therefore give it the type $\alpha_2 \times \beta_1 \rightarrow \alpha_2$,
 - `fst x` requires unifying α_1 and $\alpha_2 \times \beta_1 \Rightarrow \{\alpha_1 \mapsto \alpha_2 \times \beta_1\}$.
- `(fst x, 1)` therefore has the type $\alpha_2 \times \text{int}$
- the application `+(fst x, 1)` unifies them `int × int` and $\alpha_2 \times \text{int}$, $\Rightarrow \{\alpha_2 \mapsto \text{int}\}$.

In the end, we obtain the type `int × β_1 → int`, that is,

$$\vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow +(fst\ x, 1) : \text{int} \times \beta \rightarrow \text{int}$$

and if we generalize (in a `let`) we therefore obtain $\forall\beta.\text{int} \times \beta \rightarrow \text{int}$

W algorithm

We define a function W which takes as arguments an environment Γ and an expression e and returns the inferred type for e

- if e is a variable x ,
return a trivial instance of $\Gamma(x)$
- if e is a constant c
return a trivial instance of its type (think `[] : α list`)
- if e is a primitive op
return a trivial instance of its type
- if e is a pair (e_1, e_2)
compute $\tau_1 = W(\Gamma, e_1)$
compute $\tau_2 = W(\Gamma, e_2)$
return $\tau_1 \times \tau_2$

W algorithm

- if e is a function $\text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1$,
 let α be a new variable
 compute $\tau = W(\Gamma + x : \alpha, e_1)$
 return $\alpha \rightarrow \tau$
- if e is an application $e_1 e_2$,
 compute $\tau_1 = W(\Gamma, e_1)$
 compute $\tau_2 = W(\Gamma, e_2)$
 let α be a new variable
 $\text{unifier}(\tau_1, \tau_2 \rightarrow \alpha)$
 return α
- if e is $\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2$,
 compute $\tau_1 = W(\Gamma, e_1)$
 return $W(\Gamma + x : \text{Gen}(\tau_1, \Gamma), e_2)$

Results

Thm. (Damas, Milner, 1982)

The W algorithm is correct, in the sense that

$$\text{if } W(\emptyset, e) = \tau \text{ then } \emptyset \vdash e : \tau,$$

and it determines the **most general possible** type, also known as **principal type**, in the sense that

$$\text{if } \emptyset \vdash e : \tau \text{ then } \tau \leq \text{Gen}(W(\emptyset, e), \emptyset).$$



Thm. (Type safety)

The Hindley-Milner system is safe.

i.e., if $\emptyset \vdash e : \tau$, then the reduction of e is infinite or ends on a value.



Algorithmic considerations

There are several ways to achieve unification

- by explicitly manipulating a **substitution**

```
type tvar = int
type subst = typ TVmap.t
```

- using **destructive** type variables

```
type tvar = { id: int; mutable def: typ option; }
```

There are also several ways to program the W algorithm

- with **explicit schemes** and by calculating $Gen(\tau, \Gamma)$

```
type schema = { tvars: TVset.t; typ: typ; }
```

- with the **level**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_{n+1} e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma + x : (\tau_1, n) \vdash_n e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash_n \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau_2}$$

Extensions

mini-ML can be extended in many ways

- recursion
- constructed types (n -tuples, lists, sum and product types)
- references

Recursion

As already explained, we can define

$$\text{let rec } f \ x \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{let } f = \text{opfix } (\text{fun } f \rightarrow \text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1) \text{ in } e_2$$

where

$$\text{opfix} : \forall \alpha. \forall \beta. ((\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \beta)) \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$$

In an equivalent way, we can give the rule

$$\frac{\Gamma + f : \tau \rightarrow \tau_1 + x : \tau \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma + f : \text{Gen}(\tau \rightarrow \tau_1, \Gamma) \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let rec } f \ x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau_2}$$

Constructed types

We have already seen the pairs

Lists do not pose any difficulty

$$\begin{aligned} [] &: \forall \alpha. \alpha \text{ list} \\ :: &: \forall \alpha. \alpha \times \alpha \text{ list} \rightarrow \alpha \text{ list} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau \text{ list} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma + x : \tau + y : \tau \text{ list} \vdash e_3 : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{match } e_1 \text{ with } [] \rightarrow e_2 \mid ::(x, y) \rightarrow e_3 : \tau_1}$$

easily generalizes to sum and product types

References

For the references, one can naively think that it is enough to add the primitives

$$\begin{aligned}\text{ref} &: \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \text{ ref} \\ ! &: \forall \alpha. \alpha \text{ ref} \rightarrow \alpha \\ := &: \forall \alpha. \alpha \text{ ref} \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \text{unit}\end{aligned}$$

References

Unfortunately this is wrong !

```
let r = ref (fun x → x) in    $r : \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)$  ref
let _ = r := (fun x → x 1) in
!r = true                   boom!
```

This is the so-called **polymorphic reference** problem [Gar04].

Polymorphic reference

To get around this problem, there is an extremely simple solution, namely a syntactic restriction of the `let` construct

Defn. (value restriction, Wright 1995 [WF94])

A program satisfies the **value restriction** criterion if every `let` subexpression whose type is generalized is of the form

$$\text{let } x = v_1 \text{ in } e_2$$

where v_1 is a **value**.



Polymorphic references

In practice, we continue to write

```
let  $r = \text{ref } (\text{fun } x \rightarrow x)$  in ...
```

but the type of r is not generalized

as if we had written

```
(fun  $r \rightarrow \dots$ ) (ref(fun  $x \rightarrow x$ ))
```

Polymorphic references

In OCaml, a non-generalized variable is of the form `'_a`

```
# let x = ref (fun x -> x);;
```

```
val x : ('_a -> '_a) ref
```

The value restriction is also slightly relaxed to allow safe expressions, such as application constructor

```
# let l = [fun x -> x];;
```

```
val l : ('a -> 'a) list = [<fun>]
```

Polymorphic references

There are still some minor inconveniences

```
# let id x = x;;
```

```
val id : 'a -> 'a = <fun>
```

```
# let f = id id;;
```

```
val f : '_a -> '_a = <fun>
```

```
# f 1;;
```

```
- : int = 1
```

```
# f true;;
```

This expression has type bool but is here used with type int

```
# f;;
```

```
- : int -> int = <fun>
```

Polymorphic references

The solution: expand to reveal a function, i.e., a value

```
# let f x = id id x;;
```

```
val f : 'a -> 'a = <fun>
```

(this is called η -expansion)

Polymorphic references

In the presence of the module system, reality is even more complex

Given a module M

```
module M : sig
  type 'a t
  val create : int -> 'a t
end
```

am I allowed to generalize the type of `M.create` 17?

The answer depends on the nature of the type `'a t`: no for an array, yes for a list, etc.

In OCaml, a variance indication allows us to distinguish the two

```
type +'a t (* we can generalize *)
type 'a u  (* we cannot *)
```

The solution implemented in OCaml is relatively sophisticated, see [Gar04], in particular to make it possible to indicate which type variables of an abstract type can be generalized

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Questions?